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Learning outdoor leadership

A qualitative study of adult students' experiences in higher education

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to explore students' learning, experiences and understandings of outdoor leadership.

In the theoretical framework different aspects of friluftsliv and outdoor leadership were reviewed. Experiential learning and the self-directed learning approach were the main learning perspectives in the theoretical framework. The literature review showed that limited research effort has been directed to the topics of outdoor leadership, transition into leadership and self-directed learning in an outdoor context. The data for the study was collected using a qualitative approach and semi-structured interviews. The context was the friluftsliv part-time program at Norwegian School of Sport Sciences, and the interviewees had completed the friluftsliv part-time program in 2013. Three research questions guided the study:

1. How do the students understand leadership in friluftsliv?
2. How do the students experience the transition into leadership?
3. How do the students experience learning leadership using self-directed learning approaches?

The findings show that the students understand leadership as complex and broad, and the outdoor leaders' relational skills and flexibility is important. The students' motivation, aims and educational mindsets seem to be significant factors influencing the experiences of first-time leadership. Positive first-time experiences and support when acting in the role is significant for the experience. The students' aims, motivation and expectations on entering the study are significant for their engagement in self-directed learning of leadership. The tools used in the self-directed learning approach, development plan and reflective journals, are creating awareness and focus in their leadership development. The social context, or community of practice, is an important factor influencing the students' learning process.

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Preface

The thesis is completed and the time for acknowledgments has come.

I would like to thank the friluftsliv students who participated in this study. Thanks to Trond Augestad and Jannicke Høyem at the friluftsliv part-time study program at the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences. Thanks to my friends and family for cheering and support.

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Elisabeth Enoksen

1. Introduction

The number of study programs focusing on friluftsliv in higher education has been increasing in Norway, and there are different programs at a number of academic institutions (Gurholt, 2008; Kårhus, 2011). Several of these programs include the objective of educating outdoor professionals to become leaders in the outdoors.

This study is an exploratory investigation of adult students' experiences of learning outdoor leadership when studying friluftsliv in the context of higher education. The aim is to investigate students' understandings of outdoor leadership, including their experiences in transitioning into a leadership role. In addition, the study explores how the students experience the pedagogical process of self-directed learning when learning leadership.

This research will add to the understanding of learning outdoor leadership in the context of higher education, and to the understanding of self-directed learning as a pedagogical approach. It will increase the knowledge of how students experience the learning process and how they understand outdoor leadership and the transition into a leadership role.

The theoretical framework for this study is founded on the body of literature of friluftsliv, outdoor leadership, experiential learning and self-directed learning. The study is situated in the pedagogical dimension of friluftsliv in higher education. In this context, the Norwegian tradition and ideas of supervision in friluftsliv has been the foundation for teaching and learning friluftsliv since friluftsliv was established as a subject in higher education in 1968 (Gurholt, 2008). Outdoor leadership is approached using both Norwegian and international perspectives (e.g. Faarlund, 1973; Priest & Gass, 2006; Tordsson, 2005). To discuss the transition to leadership, theories of first-time leadership are applied (Hill, 2003; Haaland & Dale, 2005). Perspectives of experiential learning and self-directed learning are the foundational approaches to learning applied for this study. Experiential learning is central to friluftsliv, outdoor education and in learning leadership. Different understandings of experiential learning are discussed including perspectives of contexts' significance for learning (e.g. Brown, 2009; Roberts, 2012; Wenger, 2004).

Self-directed learning is a process or a form of study where the individual learners are seen as the agents mainly responsible for taking initiative for planning, executing and evaluating their own learning. In this study, self-directed learning is approached using perspectives from e.g. Knowles, Holton & Swanson (2012) and Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner (2007).

The study is an explorative, qualitative study and the empirical data is from the context of the friluftsliv part-time study program at the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences (NSSS). The study is not an evaluation of the program. The focus is on the students' understandings and experiences of outdoor leadership and self-directed learning.

1.1 Language and translation

This thesis draws from Norwegian, Danish and English literature. The aspiration is to keep a consistent English language throughout the thesis. This requires translations of different authors' texts, terms and formulations. English is not my native language, and in doing the translation the intention is to keep the original understanding and meaning as presented by the authors. To enhance the understanding of particular words or phrases, the translated or interpreted text is added in brackets [].

1.2 Definition of terms used

A small number of specialised terms and meanings are used in this thesis. They are described below:

Friluftsliv: The Norwegian term friluftsliv is used throughout the thesis. Denmark and Sweden use the term friluftsliv in a similar understanding as in Norway. Any translation such as 'outdoor-life', 'the outdoors', 'open-air-life', 'nature-life' and similar may have meaning in non-Norwegian settings, but does not seem to cover the particular Norwegian traditions, culture, expression, debates and meanings inscribed in the term friluftsliv as it is used in Norway. In recent years, the term friluftsliv has been used more frequently in English-language literature without translation, such as Gurholt (2008) and Henderson & Vikander (2007). This indicates that the term friluftsliv is becoming known beyond Norway and so will be used here without translation. The Norwegian meaning is retained.

Friluftslivsfag: The Norwegian term ‘Friluftslivsfag’ is used in this thesis. In an English translation this could be interpreted as ‘friluftsliv as a study subject’. The term friluftslivsfag does not indicate that friluftsliv is a defined and autonomous discipline in science. What it implies is that friluftsliv can be a subject in which theories, perspectives and knowledge from several other sciences and disciplines are used, but in ways that are particular to the friluftslivsfag (Tordsson, 2003). For example, aspects of pedagogy, skill-based disciplines, cultural and nature sciences are used to understand different dimensions of friluftsliv. The term friluftslivsfag is also used to distinguish between friluftsliv as an academic subject, with institutionalized and pedagogical dimensions, and friluftsliv as a leisure phenomenon. In a very simplified manner, we can relate this to the distinction found in the international literature between outdoor education and outdoor recreation (Bentsen, Andkjær & Ejbye-Ernst, 2009). At NSSS, friluftslivsfag is about pedagogical perspectives of friluftsliv and being responsible for people in the outdoors (Norwegian School of Sport Sciences [NSSS], 2014a).

The Norwegian term ‘Vegledning’ translates to ‘Conwaying’: *Conwaying* is not a word in the English vocabulary, yet it is the term coined by Nils Faarlund to discuss ‘vegledning’ in English. Faarlund’s (2009) explanation provides the background for this word:

In 1970 we chose the Norwegian word ‘vegledning’ for an encounter-with *free-nature* learning process. After consultations abroad since many years an adequate translation into English was still not in reach. In keeping with the Norwegian tradition of looking for self explaining words a new term was created: *Conwaying*. The Latin prefix *con* is well understood in English. Adding *way*, written with ‘w’, hints at an under-way learning community. (p.7)

In this thesis the term *conwaying* [vegledning] and the derived term *conwayor* [vegleder] are only used when the discussion is directly related to the thinking and ideas of Nils Faarlund.

1.3 Thesis organization

This thesis is organized as follows: This section has introduced the study, the research problem, the context, and an outline of the theoretical framework. Section two presents the theoretical perspectives relevant to this study.

Friluftsliv and outdoor leadership will be discussed and both international and Norwegian perspectives of outdoor leadership will be presented. Next is a presentation of experiential learning which includes situated learning perspectives and discussions on reflection in experiential learning. Section two finishes with an introduction to adult learning theory followed by a discussion on self-directed learning and a summary.

Section three presents the research questions and section four presents the context of the study in more detail. Section 5 discusses the research methods used in this study. The interview and analyses process are described. Section six presents the findings, interpretations and discussions of the study in accordance with the research questions. Section seven summarizes the findings and suggests future lines of inquiry.

2. Theoretical framework

This study is an exploratory investigation of adult students' experiences of learning outdoor leadership when studying friluftsliv in the context of higher education. This section provides the theoretical framework for this study. The aim of this section is to discuss the theoretical foundation for this study and to provide a context and rationale for the research problem.

Friluftsliv in higher education is the context of this study, and this section begins with a discussion of different aspects of friluftsliv. Within this context, the topic to investigate is outdoor leadership and the section continues discussing different perspectives of outdoor leadership. Experiential learning is the broad pedagogical approach in friluftsliv, and following is a discussion of experiential learning. This is followed by a short outline of adult learning serving as a foundation for a discussion on self-directed learning. The section ends with a short summary.

2.1 *Friluftsliv*

The objective of this section is to provide a background for discussing learning and leadership in friluftsliv and to situate this study in the pedagogical dimension of friluftslivsfag in higher education. The section starts with a discussion of friluftsliv as a term and phenomenon. Next is a discussion of the pedagogical dimension of friluftsliv including a brief introduction to the international field of outdoor education. This is followed by a section outlining the pedagogical approach to friluftsliv in higher education. The scope of this study is the pedagogical dimension in higher education and discussions of friluftsliv in other pedagogical settings are not included in this thesis. The section ends with a discussion of friluftslivsfag in higher education and a short summary.

2.1.1 *Friluftsliv as a phenomenon*

Friluftsliv as a term and phenomenon can be explored and explained using different approaches and understandings. The definition, content and meaning of Norwegian friluftsliv has been the subject of an ongoing academic debate during the last 30-40 years (Gurholt, 2008; Odden, 2008; Pedersen, 1999; Tordsson, 2003).

Some of the main issues in these debates concern different historical and traditional perspectives and values influencing friluftsliv. Other, contradictory, discussions have focused on which activities constitute friluftsliv, gender issues, urban versus rural friluftsliv and perspectives of culture and social class (Odden, 2008). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to go into details of all of these debates, hence only the perspectives most relevant for providing background and context for this study are discussed further in this section.

The Norwegian tradition of friluftsliv is recognized as being a widespread activity within the population; it implies a simple way of living and includes a particular relation to nature and landscape (Bentsen et al., 2009; St.meld. nr 39 (2000-2001); Tordsson, 2005). The debate about defining the content and meaning of friluftsliv has been highly controversial since the 1970s. Odden (2008) states that historically there were two main approaches in this discussion. In one, friluftsliv was seen as a radical deep-ecology approach to a more sustainable way of living. In this approach, the intrinsic values of friluftsliv were considered very important. The other approach was more moderate and acknowledged the recreational purpose of friluftsliv in addition to environmentally friendly attitudes and beliefs. The knowledge developed in the field of friluftsliv since the 1970s suggests that it is difficult to define the phenomenon of friluftsliv in one encompassing definition. The content and understanding of the term has been developed throughout time and history. Interpretations and practices have varied due to cultural and social aspects, humans' relation to nature and societal development (Tordsson, 2003) and Odden (2008) emphasizes the importance of acknowledging the relational character of the term friluftsliv. Pedersen (1999) states that “friluftsliv both constitutes as, and should be examined as a ‘situated’, relational and dynamic term and phenomenon” (p. 47), and this is the basic understanding of friluftsliv applied for this study.

In addition to this basic understanding of friluftsliv, this study approaches friluftsliv using a pedagogical perspective. In this perspective, friluftsliv is institutionalized, organized, and with a pedagogical purpose. The next section discusses this approach in more detail.

2.1.2 Friluftsliv and the pedagogical dimension

This study is situated in the institutionalized and pedagogical dimension of friluftsliv. In this approach, friluftsliv is viewed as a study subject or profession with a pedagogical purpose and pedagogical methods are used (Bentsen et al., 2009). Bentsen et al. (2009) describe this approach as teaching, supervision and pedagogical work in, about and through friluftsliv. In this understanding, friluftsliv is regarded as a method, as content or as a subject dependent on the kind of friluftsliv and what the objectives are (Bentsen et al., 2009). In Norway, pedagogical aspects of friluftsliv are present in kindergartens, in school and in higher education institutions. The way of using and working with friluftsliv has proven to be a valuable approach to realize some of the curriculum aims and objectives regarding experiential learning, group-work and personal and self-development. In addition to being a pedagogical method, the intrinsic values of friluftsliv and the social and culture aspects of friluftsliv are considered important (Tordsson, 2003).

This thesis applies literature from the international as well as the Norwegian body of outdoor, learning and leadership literature. In the international literature, outdoor education is the term used for the pedagogical approach of teaching and learning in the outdoors (Bentsen et al., 2009). International research in the outdoor education field has produced a large body of literature (Schantz & Silvander, 2004). The main contributions are from Canada, USA, Australia, New Zealand and UK. When applying international literature, questions of relevance and different understandings due to language, etymology, social and cultural differences become apparent. Friluftsliv and outdoor education are often described as phenomena rooted in culture and society. This implies variations in understandings of being and acting in the outdoors, relations to nature and inscribed values and meanings. These phenomena have special and distinct characteristics in different countries and different groups. Schantz & Silvander (2004) claim that because of these cultural and societal differences, results and knowledge must be evaluated, transformed and supplemented with this in mind. Other authors will argue that these distinctions may be less clear. Due to globalisation effects, Bentsen et al. (2009) argue that international perspectives found in outdoor education influence the ways we can understand friluftsliv. In addition, in countries such as Canada, Australia, Germany and Czech Republic there are descriptions of activities in nature that have similar characteristics to the traditional descriptions of Norwegian friluftsliv (Henderson

& Vikander, 2007). It is also important to acknowledge that elements of what is considered to be adventure education are apparent in friluftsliv, contributing to making the differences less clear (Bentsen et al., 2009).

Within the outdoor education field, there are different directions such as environmental education and adventure education. Environmental education concerns ecosystems and human interactions with nature, with the purpose of creating awareness of the human-nature relations. Adventure education focuses on experiences, challenges and elements of risk to foster personal development (Bentsen et al., 2009). Another more recent development is place-based education focusing on the pedagogical importance of place. The central approach here is the significance of knowing one's place(s) and developing good pedagogical strategies for introducing them to others (Wattchow & Brown, 2011).

In the Norwegian friluftsliv tradition, the pedagogical approach to friluftsliv is closely linked to 'vegledning' [*conwaying*] or 'veiledning' [supervision]. The next section outlines the background and some characteristics of this approach to friluftsliv.

2.1.3 Friluftsliv and the pedagogy of *conwaying* and supervision

The terms *conwaying* and supervision are frequently used in the body of literature to describe and explain the pedagogical approach, didactics and methods applied in friluftsliv. The basic principles and ideas emerging from *conwaying* and supervision are the foundation for teaching and learning friluftsliv in higher education (Gurholt, 2008; Horgen, 2009, 2010). This section will give an overview of this tradition and practice, as depicted in the literature.

According to Jensen (2001), *conwaying* and supervision are similar terms used to describe the pedagogical approach to friluftsliv. *Conwaying* describes the ideas and practices associated with Nils Faarlund and Norges Høgfjellskole, including the guidelines and norms that emerged from this school. When *conwaying* was further interpreted the term supervision was applied (Tordsson, 2005). This thesis adopts Jensen's (2001) approach to distinguish between these terms, hence the term *conwaying* is only used when the discussion is specifically related to the thinking and ideas of Nils Faarlund. Otherwise, the term supervision is used for discussing the particular Norwegian tradition and pedagogical approach to friluftsliv.

Conwaying is considered to be based on inspiration from ideas of Romanticism, Himalayan sherpa culture, and the environmental movement of the 1970s, including the philosophy of deep ecology (Jensen, 2001). Nils Faarlund was a central contributor and the text 'Friluftsliv, What, Why, How' [Friluftsliv, Hva, Hvorfor, Hvordan] states his view of friluftsliv and *conwaying* founded on these ideas (Faarlund, 1973). Jensen (2001) investigated *conwaying* as a pedagogical friluftsliv approach and practice, using document analyses and interviews with Nils Faarlund, Arne Næss and Sigmund Kvaløy Setreng. These three men were significant contributors in developing the value-based, philosophical foundation inscribed in *conwaying*. Jensen (2001) uses a philosophical context for his investigations and sees *conwaying* as a developmental project where the main aim is to create 'friendship with nature' founded on the values embedded in Faarlund's philosophical ideas. Jensen (2001) identified four important aspects of *conwaying*: 'Fumble and stumble' [fomling og famling], 'Knowledge and pattern recognition' [kjennskapen], 'Intrinsic value of nature' [naturverdet] and 'developing mastery on a broad and personal level' [mesterligheten]. According to Jensen (2001) these aspects of *conwaying* are closely interrelated and integrated in Faarlund's philosophical thinking and ideas. His philosophy is framing the understanding, content and practices of *conwaying* and sometimes the philosophy constitutes *conwaying* (Jensen, 2001). Embedded in the thinking of *conwaying* was the idea that friluftsliv was to be a "'serious' pedagogy that could point to the way of new lifestyles and a green society" (Gurholt, 2008, p. 138) and to bring forward the knowledge of and close relationships to nature.

In *conwaying*, the principle of 'learning by doing' and the value of experiences was important. Mutual responsibility, situational learning, dialogue and reflection were central aspects. The idea of 'grandfather's pedagogy' was inspired by the Himalayan sherpa culture and the intention was to contribute to the embodied, intuitive and close relations to nature, recognized from informal upbringing of previous generations (Gurholt, 2008). Other important characteristics of the *conwaying* idea, were to use heterogeneous, small groups in a lengthy period of time in 'free nature' [Fri natur]. That means areas outside marked trail, tracks and similar (Tordsson, 2005). The equipment used should be nature- friendly and the group should leave no trace behind (Gurholt, 2008). The notion of 'journey according to your capabilities' [Ferd etter evne] are also included in the *conwaying* tradition (Tordsson, 2005).

In Tordsson's (2005) interpretation of *conwaying*, he uses the term supervision to describe the pedagogical approach to friluftsliv. His work 'Pedagogical perspectives of encounters with nature' [Perspektiver på naturmøtets pedagogikk] focuses on traditional aspects, values and cultural understanding of friluftsliv and supervision (Tordsson, 2005). In addition to the ideas found in *conwaying*, supervision incorporates ideas of modern pedagogy, such as social and contextual implications of learning (Tordsson (2005). Examples of this is the idea that the small, cooperating group enhances the learning, and the outdoor context and the particular situations the group encounter, are important in supervision (Tordsson, 2005). Tordsson (2005) claims that the arguments for friluftsliv in the school curricula are based on the understanding of progressive pedagogy emerging from theorists such as John Dewey. He states that the idea was that not only did an individual learn knowledge and skills, but they also learned to learn. According to Tordsson (2005) this developed their abilities and personality in a varied and holistic way.

Østrem (2003) explores three different perspectives of the pedagogical approach to friluftsliv and outdoor education: The Norwegian traditions of *conwaying* and supervision, and a leadership perspective from international outdoor education emerging from the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS) in USA. His research focuses on understanding what constitutes supervision, and to examine different guidelines and tools that can be used by the supervisor or leader. Østrem (2003) finds that there is an emphasis on normative foundation and rules surrounding the understanding and practice of *conwaying* and supervision. According to Østrem (2003) the practice would benefit from using a more flexible, reflective and creative understanding of the supervision role and how to act as a supervisor. Gurholt (2008) offers additional perspectives and criticism of the supervision ideas. She claims that the ideas are founded on a male, hegemonic paradigm of mountaineering, militarism and Romanticism. Aspects of friluftsliv traditions like harvesting and coastal culture are not included in these ideas, something that excludes other important traditions and dimensions of Norwegian friluftsliv (Gurholt, 2008).

Bischoff (2000) is discussing the requirements and assumptions that underpin supervision in friluftsliv. She is discussing the historical background of supervision and is pointing to the difficulties in adapting to and using ideals and norms from the 1970s in today's pedagogical friluftsliv contexts. The critical question raised by Bischoff, is if supervision in friluftsliv should be seen as something very different from teaching and learning in other areas? According to Bischoff (2000) the main difference lies within the didactical area of friluftsliv, and the supervisors challenge is to lead the process of learning. She claims that it is important to understand and use the unique pedagogic possibilities available in friluftsliv and calls for a broader pedagogical perspective of supervision and teaching in friluftsliv. She claims that experiential learning is the foundation and uses the terms 'problem oriented', 'taking responsibility for your own learning', 'situational awareness in the learning situation' and 'reflection' to illustrate this. Bischoff (2000) argues that the supervisor should be able to know when to engage into a situation, see each participant, read the group and the situation and take advantage of this to facilitate learning. This is in addition to considering safety issues and consequences of actions in the outdoors. It is this particular combination that constitutes the rather complex and demanding role for the leader in friluftsliv (Bischoff, 2000).

A similar line of critic from Bentsen et al. (2009) argue that the ideal situation for supervision in friluftsliv constitutes "the small group, on a journey for an extended period of time, together with an expert that concretely demonstrates how to practice friluftsliv and who directly and indirectly shows the way to the participants" (p. 134). In this view supervision becomes normative, but the reality facing the supervisor in friluftsliv is far more diverse (Bentsen et al., 2009). The objectives, nature context, requirements and frames for the supervision are more influential. For schools and education institutions, there are requirements stating aims and objectives in the education. The ideal, normative position and understandings of supervision can rarely be practiced in these educational contexts (Bentsen et al., 2009). According to Bentsen et al. (2009) it is still important to consider the learning processes (e.g. experiential learning) supervision is founded on, as these are quite common positions in the educational systems.

The next section is an overview of how friluftsliv was established as a study subject, friluftslivsfag, in higher education.

2.1.4 Friluftslivsfag in higher education

In an academic context, friluftslivsfag has existed in Norway since 1968 when the first academic study program in friluftsliv was introduced at NSSS (Gurholt, 2008). It was considered important to educate people in the skills and knowledge required for safe travelling in the outdoors. A key influence was the series of tragic events during Easter 1967 when several people died in accidents outdoors (Gurholt, 2008). To avoid future disasters due to people's loss of competence for travelling and surviving in nature, the friluftsliv study program was established. Nils Faarlund was the primary founder and spokesperson for the study program (Gurholt, 2008). From this starting point, friluftsliv as an academic study subject has developed in Norway. Today, friluftslivsfag is offered at several institutions of higher education all over the country, showing a great diversity in programs, ideology and practical implementations (Gurholt, 2008). In discussing the recent development of friluftslivsfag in higher education, Tordsson (2007) argues that it is important to maintain the good qualities and values in the method of supervision such as situational awareness, problem based approaches and holistic views that are embedded in the Norwegian friluftsliv culture and tradition.

The Norwegian research related to the field of friluftsliv has covered a variety of different aspects during the last 30-40 years (Bischoff, 2008). According to Bischoff (2008) there is a trend of an emerging pedagogical-psychological body of research. The main focus in this trend is studies surrounding friluftsliv in kindergartens and schools. Even though study programs in friluftslivsfag are offered at several institutions of higher education, and the number of programs is increasing (Gurholt, 2008; Kårhus, 2011), there has been little research attention directed at the pedagogical and didactical dimensions of friluftslivsfag in higher educational settings (Bischoff, 2008; Høyem, 2010). Only a few studies have been conducted. One approach has focused on first-time experiences of participants in friluftsliv (Høyem & Augestad, 2008, 2011, 2012). These authors argue that in a pedagogical approach, it is important for the leader to facilitate for a positive first-time experience. Positive first-time experiences are regarded as significant for the participants to continue pursuing activities and experiences in friluftsliv (Høyem & Augestad, 2008, 2011, 2012).

In another approach, Høyem (2010) investigates the learning of didactics in friluftslivfag. Using action research and a case study approach, the aim is to show how students of friluftslivsfag can learn about the didactics of friluftslivsfag, through a teaching session. The integration and interaction of knowledge of and actions in friluftsliv are central aspects in this study. Important findings suggests that the students experience three dimensions of learning: 1: Learning the practical skill, 2: Learning different approaches to teaching the practical skill and 3: Learning how they themselves can facilitate others to learn by integrating knowledge and actions in friluftsliv (Høyem, 2010). These are all skills relevant for leadership in the outdoors.

2.1.5 Friluftsliv – section summary

The understanding applied for this thesis is to see friluftsliv as a situated, relational and dynamic phenomenon. This study applies a pedagogical perspective of friluftsliv. The pedagogic thinking and practices of friluftsliv in higher education were founded on ideas of *conwaying* and supervision that emerged from philosophical ideas from the 1970s. The literature surrounding *conwaying* and supervision mainly focus on value-based norms and guidelines for the *conwaying* and supervision in friluftsliv. This view is criticized by views and practices that are more open, inclusive and with a broader pedagogical approach. Limited research effort has been directed at the pedagogical and didactical dimension of friluftsliv and outdoor leadership in higher education.

2.2 Outdoor leadership

Students' learning, experiences and understanding of outdoor leadership is the main theme to be explored in this study. This section's objective is to outline and discuss theories and significant aspects of outdoor leadership drawn from both the international and Norwegian body of literature. Due to the amount of international leadership theory available, and the delimitations of this study, the section draws mainly from the theories developed by Graham (1997), Priest & Gass (2005) and Martin, Cashel, Wagstaff & Breuning (2006) in addition to empirical studies. From the literature reviewed, these authors appear to be well-known and their theories are often cited in the body of outdoor leadership literature. From the Norwegian literature, Faarlund (1973) and Tordsson's (2005) perspectives are discussed. To introduce the phenomenon of leadership the section starts out with a brief introduction to broad leadership theories before focusing specifically on the outdoor leadership theories.

Relevant to these theories are discussions on the hard/soft skills metaphor, judgement and decision making, the facilitator role, and self-awareness and relational skills of the outdoor leader. Next, a review is provided of how the Norwegian body of literature depicts the outdoor leader in the tradition of *conwaying* and supervision. The last part of the section is a discussion of the transition into the leadership role focusing on the main learning aspects related to the transition.

2.2.1 Overview of leadership theories

The question of what leadership actually is and what it means, has been discussed among philosophers and researchers since the days of Plato and Socrates (Martin et al., 2006). Today leadership has an extensive body of research emerging from different disciplines such as economics, sociology, psychology and pedagogy (Martinsen, 2009). Leadership can be investigated from different perspectives such as historical development, roles, behavior, tasks, skills required, effectiveness, characteristics of the leader or the significance and meaning of leadership. Another approach is to view leadership from the perspective of the context where leadership is practiced, and investigate what constitutes effective leadership in that specific context, such as outdoor leadership. The extensive research into leadership has resulted in a large number of leadership theories. The delimitations of this study do not allow for detailed discussion of all leadership theories, hence only a brief overview from Martin et al. (2006) is presented as background for further discussions of outdoor leadership. In this overview the term ‘followers’ is used. Followers are the individuals being led, subordinates, a group or participants.

Martin et al. (2006) describe different leadership theories dividing them into ‘Early leadership theories’ and ‘Contemporary leadership theories’. The following table is a summary of these theories and their characteristics extracted.

Table 2.1: Leadership theories, extracted from Martin et al. (2006, p. 37-51)

Early leadership theories	
Theory	Description
Trait and Great Men leadership	Born and predestined leaders with superior qualities that distinguished them from others. Focusing on the greatness of actual leaders and traits of the individual leader such as physical, intellectual or interpersonal characteristics.
Charismatic and Heroic leadership	Leaders who do not only lead, but generate unusually passionate reactions in their followers. Can create radical transformations in their group, organizations and societies.
Style theories of leadership	The ways in which leaders express their influence, identifies particular kinds of behavior or leadership typologies. Main categories are authoritarian (telling or selling), democratic (testing or consulting) or laissez-faire style (joining or delegating).
Situational leadership	Take into account the leader, the followers and the situation. Explains leadership based on time, place and circumstances.
Contingency leadership	The leader's style is seen as either task or relationship oriented. Explains leadership in term of the individual leader's style and the relation to and response from the group.
Transactional leadership	Often used to explain the common transactional nature found in the early leadership theories. Represents task orientation, the leader seeks group compliance through various approaches and the leaders has little involvement with the group except when they are off-track.
Contemporary leadership theories	
Theory	Description
Transformational leadership	Theories that focus on development of the potential and engagement of the individual. Empowerment, inspirational motivation, trust, respect and intellectual stimulation are vital factors.
Feminist leadership	Seeks to move beyond stereotypic associations of female and male traits, values and qualities. Focuses on both product and process, and addresses traditional notions of power.
Authentic leadership	Sees leadership as authentic self-expression that creates value and meaning, and has transformative potentials for leaders and followers.
Servant leadership	An ethic of care including understanding the groups needs and seeing the value in being in service to offer transformational potential to the followers.

These leadership theories provide both distinct and overlapping views and understandings of the phenomenon of leadership. Martin et al. (2006) state that it is important to avoid disregarding one theory as they all should guide our broader understanding of leadership.

The distinction between management and leadership is often discussed in the leadership literature (Martinsen, 2009). Kotter (as cited in Martinsen, 2009) describes management and leadership as being two distinctive and complementary systems of action.

Management has to do with administration, planning and organizing and managing complexity. Kotter (as cited in Martinsen, 2009) states that leadership has to do with changes, relations, inspiring, motivating and making sure the people move in the right directions. A similar way to describe leadership and management is stated by Bennis (as cited in Ashfeldt, Hvenegaard & Urberg, 2009): Leadership is “doing the right thing” and management is “doing things right” (p.102). Most leadership positions, including outdoor leadership, require both management and leadership actions and competencies. In comparing two of the most well-known and cited text-books in outdoor leadership, Ashfeldt et al. (2009) states that Priest & Gass (2005) appears to be focusing on doing things right. In contrast, Martin et al. (2006) seems to present a view that embraces both leadership and management aspects of outdoor leadership (Ashfeldt et al., 2009).

2.2.2 Outdoor leadership theories

In a review of the international outdoor leadership body of literature, Smith (2011) finds that outdoor leadership has been explored in the literature most commonly by describing what it means to be an effective leader and how to improve leadership success. In developing an understanding of what it means to be an effective outdoor leader, a select number of leadership theories have been used: Style theories of leadership, contingency leadership, situational leadership theory and conditional outdoor leadership theory (COLT) (Smith, 2011). Smith (2011) argues that together with an understanding of core competencies, the trends in outdoor leadership research and theories have relied on these four different approaches. Often these theories are combined with other related concepts such as experiential learning, approaches to group dynamics and decision models to offer better explanations to leadership actions and undertakings (Smith, 2011). These approaches can be found in the textbooks by for example Graham (1997), Priest & Gass (2005) and Martin et al. (2006). Smith (2011) argues that overall, the outdoor leadership literature has promoted a largely skill-based approach to leadership development and has “tended to rely on personal experience of the authors in relation to what is required of an effective leader” (p. 27).

Graham (1997) draws on his personal experience in addition to other sources of literature. In addition to a set of skills and expectations of the leader, he focuses on relational aspects and interaction among leader and followers. This author uses the term ‘caring leadership’ and sees each trip or event as an opportunity to help people learn and

grow. Caring leadership means that the leader has the “willingness to put themselves in another’s shoes, to feel compassion, to accept another’s well-being as a priority of your own” (Graham, 1997, p. 66). Graham (1997) further argues that caring is a practical and powerful tool for leadership. Caring can build trust and confidence and provide an early warning of problems. It brings people together and is a powerful tool for dealing with conflicts (Graham, 1997).

Priest & Gass (2005) have developed the conditional outdoor leadership theory (COLT). This model combines style theories of leadership, contingency theory, and situational leadership theory, and adapts this to the outdoor context. Appendix 6 shows this model. The favorability of the conditions in which the leader find them self, is considered to be the most influential factor. The situation and conditions are a mix of five factors described as environmental dangers, individual competence, group unity, leader proficiency and decision consequences (Priest & Gass, 2005).

Defining core competencies or skills required for outdoor leadership constitutes a part of the theory development in this field. Over the years, numerous lists of attributes, qualities, skills and competencies have been produced (Smith, 2011). Founded on a meta-analysis of previous research, Priest & Gass (2005) focus on a set of 12 core competencies required for effective outdoor leaders. The skills are technical skills, safety skills, environmental skills, organizational skills, instructional skills, facilitation skills, flexible leadership style, experience-based judgement, problem-solving skills, decision-making skills, effective communication and professional ethics.

Martin et al. (2006) have further refined the outdoor leadership skills into eight core competencies and present a more balanced perspective of leadership that considers the broader leadership literature (Ashfeldt et al., 2009). Martin et al.’s (2006) list of skills are: Technical ability, safety and risk management, program management, environmental stewardship, teaching and facilitation, decision making and judgement, foundational knowledge and self-awareness and personal conduct. Smith (2011) states that it is yet to be determined if these eight core competencies will take the place of the previous 12, as there are various adaptations of these evident in the literature.

The complexity of being an outdoor leader is highlighted in both the core competencies models, and Smith (2011) states that core competencies describe the required skills, and assist in the development of an outdoor leader. The core competencies identify the many and broad aspects, tasks, skills and roles required of the outdoor leader (Smith, 2011).

2.2.3 Hard and soft skills, or a repertoire of practice?

The terms hard skills and soft skills are commonly used to describe the wide range of skills a competent outdoor leader must master. Hard skills represent the technical competencies and soft skills represent the relational or interpersonal skills (Seaman & Coppens, 2006; Shooter, Sibthorp & Paisley, 2009). In addition, some authors include a third category called operational, conceptual or metaskills to describe skills required to execute the other two categories properly (Shooter et al., 2009). An example of this is Priest (1999) and Priest & Gass (2005) who use a model that organize the previously described 12 core competencies into three main skill-type areas: Hard skills, soft skills and metaskills (p. xiii). The authors describe this as being building blocks where the hard skills are the foundation and refer to the capabilities of performing technical skills in a sound matter. Soft skills constitute the ability to instruct, organize and facilitate, and the metaskills are the skills that enable the leader to weave the hard and the soft skills together. Shooter et al. (2009) state that the terms hard and soft skills are well recognized among practitioners, but they point to several challenges in using these terms. One issue is the lack of consistent definition and different authors offer disparate approaches to the grouping of skills. A second issue is that stereotyped gender thinking may direct some people to associate hard skills with men and soft skills with women (Seaman & Coppens, 2006; Shooter et al., 2009). Another issue discussed by Shooter et al. (2009), is the building block or hierarchical structure may suggest that hard skills are important. Hard skills may be thought of as being difficult to master, and soft skills being easier obtainable. Seaman & Coppens (2006) also argue that positing hard skills as the base for an effective practice may “tactitly locate masculinity as the foundation of adventure aducation and devalue the relational aspects of adventure practice” (p. 27). Shooter et al. (2009) state that there is a need to move away from hierarchal models and towards context-specific thinking, because the relevance of the skills depends on the programmatic context.

Seaman & Coppens (2006) argue that the hard/soft metaphor is problematic because “it oversimplifies the complex interrelationship between physical, social and psychological functioning...” (p.25). According to these authors, the metaphor also contributes to the view of the instructor or leader as “a neutral facilitator of other people’s learning, a user of disembodied, universal and timeless skills” (p.25). They state that the metaphor is insufficient in addressing the dynamics of overall practice and the development of the individual practitioner. Seaman & Coppens (2006) argue that skills should be viewed situationally because situations cannot be split neatly into hard and soft parts. In this view, skills cannot be understood independently of their context, and skills are understood based on their contribution to learning rather than their fit in a category. Based on Lave & Wenger (2000) and Wenger’s (2004) theories of situated learning and communities of practices, Seaman & Coppens (2006) suggest to replace the dichotomous thinking of skills as hard or soft with a concept called ‘repertoire of practice’ as a framework to discuss instruction and learning. A repertoire of practice refers to: “Routines, words, tools, ways of doing things, stories, gestures, symbols, genres, actions or concepts that the community has adopted over the course of its existence, and which have become part of its practice” (Wenger, 2004, p. 101). In this view, skills are “not simply something one has, but things that give meaning to what one does” (Seaman & Coppens, 2006, p. 34).

2.2.4 Judgement and decision making

Judgement and decision making (JDM) skills are considered to be of high importance and an essential element of effective outdoor leadership (Graham, 1997; Martin et al., 2006; Martin, Schmid & Parker, 2009; Priest & Gass, 2005). JDM is regarded as not only an important leadership skill, but also influential to every aspect of leadership skill implementation (Shooter & Furman, 2011). In short, the JDM process is described as identifying the problem by gathering relevant data, then using the data to inform the decision process (Martin et al., 2006).

There are several theoretical frameworks used in the literature surrounding JDM in outdoor leadership and Shooter & Furman (2011) point to two main approaches. One approach is informed by the classical-cognitive thinking and the other is dual-process models. In the JDM models informed by classical-cognitive thinking the JDM process is viewed as linear, and focused on rational and analytic thinking. A dual-process

perspective takes into account that two features of human cognitive processes exist: one being the linear process, the other being automated. The automated process constitutes the human's unconscious, tacit or intuitive processes. In a dual-process perspective both the linear and automated process are important in understanding of the JDM process (Shooter & Furman, 2011).

In the linear JDM models, the leader identifies the problem, defines potential courses of action, weighs pros and cons and selects an optimal decision (Martin et al., 2006; Priest & Gass, 2005; Shooter & Furman, 2011). This approach has been criticized for not taking into account issues of context, time pressure, and incomplete information that are likely to occur in the outdoors (e.g. lack of weather forecasts, individual and group needs). Another criticism of these linear models is “their failure to address the contribution of other influential factors such as affect, attention, and intuition” (Shooter & Furman, 2011).

In a dual-process approach both linear and automated processes are part of the JDM. One of the automated perspectives adopted within the outdoor leadership literature is the naturalistic decision-making approach (NDM). According to Shooter & Furman (2011) NDM has been used as an “umbrella term to describe both the process and the context of decision-making” (p. 195). In an outdoor context, ‘naturalistic’ refers to the high level of complexity due to social dynamics, risk and uncertainty that occurs in various human activities within any specific applied context (Shooter & Furman, 2011). One of the characteristics of NDM is that of pattern recognition. Over time, an outdoor leader develops the ability to recognize and respond very effectively to patterns and factors associated with decisions made in the past (Shooter & Furman, 2011). This intuition, or sixth sense (Martin et al., 2006), is an ability that the ‘expert’ outdoor leader uses to instantly notice and recognize patterns without having to think about them. Discussing the many factors and complexity involved in JDM in the outdoors, Shooter & Furman (2011) suggest that JDM should be placed along a continuum building on a dual-process approach. The continuum should range from linear to NDM based processes based on “the decision-makers experience, the type of decision-making environment, and the type of decision being made” (p. 199).

The differences between the JDM process of novice and expert outdoor leaders are acknowledged in the literature (Shooter & Furman, 2011). These authors state that novice leaders rely on more linear, deliberative processes, while experts rely on a more automated process. The distinction is acknowledged, but there is currently little understanding of the actual developmental process involved in the progression from a JDM novice to a JDM expert (Martin et al., 2009). One study has investigated some aspects related to this progression. Martin et al. (2009) have explored the development of JDM competency among novice outdoor leaders in a student context. This was a relatively small study of short duration, but it is relevant due to the student context and may serve as an illustration. The primary assumption on which their study was based was the above-mentioned dual-process approach where the outdoor leader progresses along a continuum in their development. In this case study of a group of novice students attending a course to develop the knowledge, skills and dispositions necessary for outdoor leadership (Martin et al., 2009), the authors argue that the variables to which leaders attend represent one of the key distinctions between novice and expert decision makers. To gain a better understanding of the variables that emerge in the decision process of novice leaders, Martin et al. (2009) investigated the contextual variables that influenced the decisions of the novice students and the nature of the process used to make decisions. Their findings identified five significant contextual decision making variables: 1) Participant readiness: the level of technical skills required including their personal organization of equipment and routines. This variable was influential to the decision processes primarily due to the impact on time management of the participants. 2) Physical safety, including to travel safe and finding suitable campsites. This variable affected decisions about how to organize their group when traveling, and how they organized and built their campsites. 3) Environmental impact. This variable influenced decisions on picking up trash and using already established campsites. 4) Group cohesion. Taking into account the complex factors of group dynamics was a significant variable in the decision processes. 5) Educational mindset. The fact that this was a student setting had influence on their decisions and decision processes, particularly on how the whole group was involved in discussions when trying to identify a right or wrong answer and they lost sight of the real problems. To the students this was not a 'natural' situation, it was a class and this influenced their decisions (Martin et al., 2009).

Experience and practice are clearly significant for progression and developing JDM skills. Martin et al. (2009) states that a better understanding of the process of developing from novice to expert judgement and decision makers would be beneficial in identifying the most effective way to facilitate this progression for outdoor leaders.

2.2.5 The facilitator role of leadership

The facilitator role of the outdoor leader and the relationship between leader and facilitator are frequently discussed in the outdoor leadership literature. Facilitation can be seen as a core competency of the leader, a component of teaching and meaning-making, and closely linked to experiential learning (Martin et al., 2006; Priest & Gass, 2005). Martin et al. (2006) see facilitation as a topic that has evolved from “letting the experience speak for itself” to “framing the experience in ways that would help participants gain as much as possible from an experience” (p. xvi). In facilitation, the learner is central to what is happening and Martin et al. (2006) state that one of the primary goals of outdoor leadership is to facilitate opportunities for personal growth and development among participants. This means that the leader should have specific facilitation skills in areas such as communication, solving conflicts, understanding of human development, learning, and group development (Martin et al., 2006)

Thomas (2010) discusses the tension between conflicting objects (e.g. skill instruction, safety, other leadership responsibilities) and facilitating for learning and development among the participants. This author emphasizes that the leader should be clear about the different roles they are expected to fulfill in the outdoors practice. The leader should reflect on these roles and understand the theories and values that underpin their own practice. Thomas (2010) also recommends being transparent with the groups about the different roles, including the challenges the leader faces in managing the different roles.

2.2.6 Self-awareness and relational skills

In the broad leadership literature, there is an understanding that self-awareness and relational skills are significant leadership components (Bass, 2008; Martinsen, 2009; Smith, 2011). Self-awareness and personal development aspects of leadership have been investigated related to understanding personal values and beliefs, motivational factors, perception of risk and a variety of different self-concepts and constructs (Bass, 2008).

Relational skills in leadership include expressing concerns for others, attempting to reduce emotional conflicts and harmonizing relations among others (Bass, 2008).

These two components of leadership are particularly enhanced in the contemporary leadership theories (see table 2.1) and portray leadership that focuses on supporting individuals, developing thinking in others and providing inspiration and motivation (Bass, 2008; Smith, 2011). Despite the significance of these leadership components, Thomas (2011) states that these aspects are relatively silent in the present outdoor leadership literature. Contemporary leadership theories have only recently been utilized by outdoor researchers (Smith, 2011) and few studies are available. Brymer & Gray (2006) states that transformational theories of leadership could be appropriate for theorizing outdoor leadership. The authors see these theories as useful for those “wishing to undertake leadership in areas beyond those reliant on situationally determined skills and behaviors, where the development of self and others is a priority” (p.17). Hayashi & Ewert (2006) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence, transformational leadership and outdoor experience. They found positive correlations between aspects of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership characteristics. In addition, they found that increased outdoor experience contributes to the development of higher levels of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership

Self-awareness, along with a solid base of experience, is regarded as important for developing as an outdoor leader (Martin et al., 2006). Martin et al. (2006) argues that self-awareness includes acting mindfully, knowing one’s abilities and limitations, having knowledge of how we influence others and a strong sense of personal and professional ethics (p. xvi). Graham (1997) discusses the attitudes and beliefs of the outdoor leader as being fundamental for leadership and guides how the leader carries out the leadership role. He focuses on self-awareness in the sense that “you should see yourself as a leader” (p. 16), and be aware of the “reasons why you lead” (p.16). He further argues that learning to be a leader tends to get more personal than learning technical skills. Leadership requires that the individual values both the ‘heart and the head’ in developing the people skills and self-awareness essential for outdoor leadership (Graham, 1997).

To develop the self-awareness and relational aspects of leadership, Smith (2011) argues that “...leaders need to be able to interpret their own experience, draw on learning from these experiences and apply this learning to new situations” (p. 45). Engaging in conscious reflection for their own development and improved leadership practice is central in learning leadership (Smith, 2011) and, at its core, leadership development is about personal development (Ashfeldt et al., 2009).

2.2.7 The Norwegian outdoor leader in friluftsliv

Section 2.1.2 discussed characteristics of the pedagogical approach of *conwaying* and supervision in Norwegian friluftsliv. This section will focus on some of the characteristics associated with the leadership role of the *conwayor* and supervisor.

Founded on eco-philosophical thinking and norms of what and how friluftsliv should be, the transfer of values according to the ideas of *conwaying* were considered an important part of the *conwayor's* role and mission. Faarlund (1973) claims that the *conwayor* has three important functions: 1) The task-function: This is the main and overall task of communicating the understanding of friluftsliv according to the ‘life-in-nature’ perspectives in his philosophy. 2) The group-function: Facilitating and creating a good spirit and positive relations in the group. 3) Consider each individual’s needs: Safety for each person should be top-priority. In addition, each participant should be encouraged to make an effort to satisfy the needs for food, clothing, shelter and heat. To endure the uncomfortable and to influence the participants to feel solidarity with the group, is also a part of this function (Faarlund, 1973). According to Faarlund (1973), becoming a qualified *conwayor* is a long development process where, especially, values and beliefs should be matured. In addition, the individual should gain a lot of experience in different contexts and conditions. Faarlund (1973) argues that the method of educating *conwayors* should, as far as possible, follow the pedagogical approach, values, and methods embedded in *conwaying*.

Tordsson (2005) uses two aspects to describe important characteristics of the supervisor’s role in friluftsliv. His descriptions can be associated with the before mentioned distinctions between management and leadership. The first is the ‘functional aspect’ [funksjonærskap]. This is planning, organizing and administrating the group. The second aspect is ‘personal, democratic leadership’ [personlig, demokratisk

lederskap]. This aspect involves engaging in an open and trusting social climate in the group, supporting creation of personal relations, and contributing to the participant's personal development. Tordsson (2005) concludes "...on an uncertain theoretical foundation, but grounded in a lot of experience" (p. 112), using the following statement to describe good leadership in friluftsliv: A leader in friluftsliv should *be* something, be able to *do* something and *want* something. According to Tordsson (2005), the supervisor's role is to create, facilitate, and show awareness of the situations containing potential value for the participants. These situations can be meaningful and therefore potentially lead to learning and development. Tordsson (2005) further argues that the supervisor should facilitate a meeting between people and nature, a significant meeting in an existential understanding. He further states a good leader should see themselves as a tool for something that is bigger than themselves. In Tordsson's (2005) view this does not necessarily mean having a well-founded philosophy of life or a firm ideology. Most significant are good attitudes, beliefs, and awareness of people and nature (Tordsson, 2005). Tordsson (2005) states that leaders should always be aware that they are not only working in friluftsliv, but they are working with people.

As the above discussion illustrates, important aspects in the understanding of the leader in friluftsliv have been and still are linked to value orientation, environmental perspectives, value of nature, human value and safe travel in accordance with Norwegian friluftsliv (Grimeland, 2009). The author claims that these aspects are normative characteristics and have been guiding how learning in, about and through friluftsliv have been structured, organized and conducted. Included in these norms is how the role of the supervisor is presented and conducted throughout different educational settings (Grimeland, 2009). In a recent Master thesis, Suominen (2013) explores students' understanding and perceptions of friluftsliv and outdoor leadership using the socialization of students as theoretical framework for the discussion. The research method used is discourse analysis of focus group interviews with first and third year students of friluftsliv. Some of the findings indicate that there is a mismatch between the student's understandings and perceptions of the role of the outdoor leader, compared with the objectives and the intentions stated in the study program.

In a broad sense, the leadership theory seems to focus on what a leader should be, the requirements to fulfill, and what characterizes effective leadership and an effective

leader. One aspect of leadership that is less visible in the literature is the process of becoming a leader or the transition into leadership, and the experiences of the first-time leaders. The next section explores this aspect of leadership.

2.2.8 Transition into leadership – first-time leaders

From the discussions above, there seems to be an understanding in the broad leadership and outdoor leadership body of literature that learning to be a leader is a process of self-development combined with skills-development. Still, few theoretical and empirical studies are available that explore the development process and the experience of transition into leadership.

One model focusing particularly on skill development is the stage model of Dreyfus & Dreyfus (1999). In short, this model explains how an individual develops skills by passing through five stages of proficiency: Novice, advanced beginner, competent, proficient and to finally becoming an expert. The novice attributes include a rigid adherence to rules, little situational awareness and no discretionary judgement. An advanced beginner still has a limited situational awareness and all attributes and aspects are treated separately with equal importance. When being competent and individual can see actions partially in terms of long term goals, do conscious deliberate planning and perform standardized and routinized tasks. The proficient sees situations holistically rather in terms of aspects and sees what is most important in a situation. An expert no longer rely on rules or guidelines, but intuitively grasp situations based on a deep tacit understanding (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1999). The model focuses on learning from experience and has been valued for the case it makes for tacit knowledge and intuition of professional expertise (Kinchin & Cabot, 2010). Dreyfus & Dreyfus's (1999) model has been widely adapted and applied in a wide range of contexts (Kinchin & Cabot, 2010).

One outdoor leadership developmental model available is Raiola & Sugerman's (1999) *Outdoor leadership development cycle*. This model explains the development of an outdoor leader's skills and knowledge as a cyclic process involving four different stages of awareness. The stages are unconscious incompetent, conscious incompetent, conscious competent, unconscious competence, and the following figure illustrates these stages.

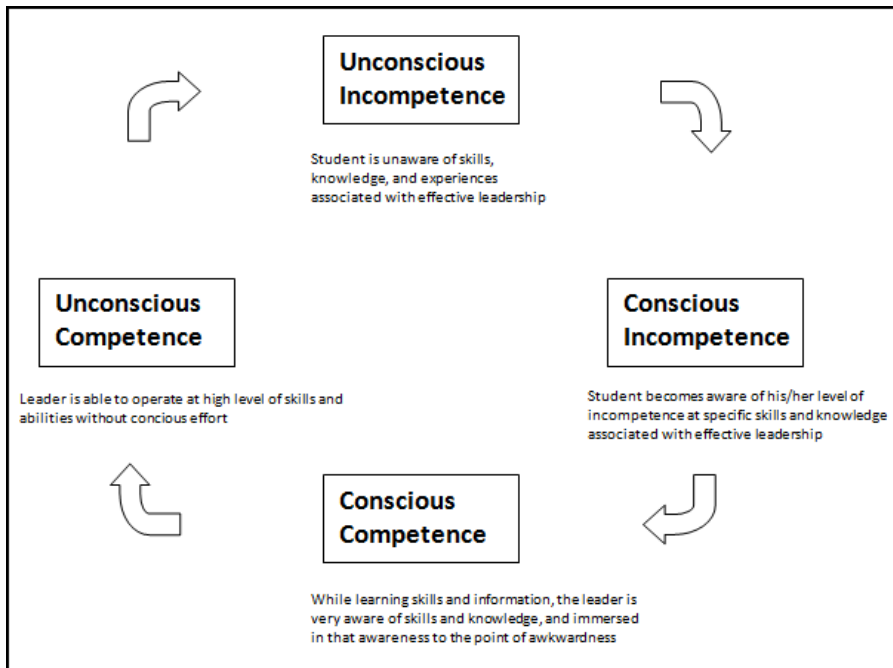


Figure 2.1: *The outdoor leadership development cycle, Raiola & Sugerman, 1999. In Miles & Priest (Eds.), Adventure programming (p.244)*

According to Raiola & Sugerman (1999), this development process is subjective in nature and a “continuing lifelong evolution as one grows and absorbs new knowledge” (p. 245). This model may appear to have intuitive appeal (Beare, 2001), but it is not yet supported by empirical evidence. Beare (2001) criticizes this model for being hypothetical and not tested. The development models from Raiola & Sugerman (1999) conceptualize skills development as moving in stages and describe characteristics of the learner in each of these stages.

The purpose of this study is not to investigate the development from novice to expert, but to explore the individual’s experiences of first-time leadership. However, the first stages in the models of Dreyfus & Dreyfus (1999) and Raiola & Sugerman (1999) may have relevance for this study in understanding the novice leader’s characteristics as learners.

For the purpose of this study, the individual’s personal experiences of *becoming* a leader are of interest. From the broad leadership literature, there is a group of studies focusing on the personal development aspects of transition into leadership, becoming a manager and first-time leadership. These studies approach the process of developing

into leadership from an assumption that *becoming* a leader is something different than *being* one, and look into the process and experiences of first-time leaders. One approach is developed by Hill (2003), who has investigated the process of becoming a leader from a business context. Hill's (2003) research focuses on the experience of individuals who change their position from being an individual, skilled contributor in a team, to becoming the leader responsible for the same team. In many businesses, this is the most common way leaders are assigned to their first role of leadership (Hill, 2003). Haaland & Dale (2005) have interpreted and further developed this theory using the term 'First-time leaders' [Førstegangsledere] as a common term for leaders entering their leadership role for the first time. According to Haaland & Dale (2005), this transition process is where the foundation of leadership understanding and identity get established, and where the individuals evaluate if they want to continue pursuing leadership or not. Haaland & Dale (2005) state that this particular process of transition seems to be a 'black hole' in the research on leadership in general.

In researching the process of becoming a manager, Hill (2003) extracted four major transformation tasks the new leader had to adjust to: 1) Learning what it means to be a leader, 2) Developing interpersonal judgement, 3) Gaining self-knowledge and 4) Coping with stress and emotion. Haaland & Dale (2005) add additional learning tasks and challenges that the first-time leader faces, but in an outdoor leadership perspective the above-mentioned transformational tasks seem the most relevant to discuss further. Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale (2005) state that in addition to learning new tasks and the formal aspects of leadership, the real challenge for first-time leaders are the relational and personal sides of the transition. The authors argue that task, relations and perspectives change and new identity forms in the process. Hill (2003) states that becoming a manager is largely a process of learning from experience. The new managers could only "grasp their role and identity through action, not contemplation" (p. 230). The new managers had to learn how to "think, feel, and value as managers instead of individual contributors" (p. 230) and the four transformation tasks were the main learning challenges the new managers had to address.

In learning what it means to be a leader, Hill (2003) states that first time managers experience that they have to act as managers before they fully understand what the role is. They were eager to master their role, but did not know what they had to learn. The

expectations they faced, both explicit and the more 'tacit', from their group and superiors, were different and consisted of more than the task-oriented dimension that the first-time managers had in mind when entering the role (Hill, 2003). The leader represents an organization or a business, indicating a broader need for understanding and promoting organizational culture and value, loyalty to values, regulations and decisions within the organization (Haaland & Dale, 2005).

Developing interpersonal judgement involves elements of building relationships, exercising authority, being convincing and realizing the dependency of the group (Hill, 2003; Haaland & Dale, 2005). For the first-time leaders, it was vital to come to an understanding that letting go of their need to control and delegating tasks that empowered the individuals as well as the whole group was important (Hill, 2003). In learning practical leadership, Haaland & Dale (2005) emphasize the relational task of leading groups of diverse people and dealing with interpersonal conflicts as important learning tasks for the first-time managers.

Gaining self-knowledge and the personal learning in the transition process was, according to Hill (2003), the part that was most surprising to the new managers. This included questioning their own motives and why they wanted to be a leader. They found themselves in roles where they could not rely on their previous expertise, and had to develop new insights to the qualitative shift in their new role and acknowledge that they lacked much of the knowledge and skills of an effective leader. This included discovering new sides of themselves and their styles, weaknesses and strengths as they were faced with the interpersonal issues of leadership (Hill, 2003). Developing a personal theory of leadership focusing on what the essence of good leadership is in their own opinion, is a central issue in this process (Haaland & Dale, 2005). The authors also focus on developing self-awareness, understanding yourself in relation to others and being able to self-regulate actions and behavior (Haaland & Dale, 2005).

Coping with stress and emotion relates to role strain, negativity, isolation and the burden of leadership responsibility. Hill's (2003) study showed that the role held contradictory aims and the new managers had to learn to live with imperfection. In addition, the feeling of loneliness and being responsible for managing risk, being a role

model and being responsible for people's lives were identified as stressors. Being a role model included a need to manage their emotions, especially in trying times (Hill, 2003).

Haaland & Dale (2005) describe first-time leadership as a learning process, and that continued focus on learning is a distinct characteristic of good leaders. The attitudes towards learning, the will to learn, openness and attention are important for learning, and Haaland & Dale (2005) claim that learning and leadership are closely related.

A few empirical Master theses have investigated the new leaders' experiences in the light of Hill's (2003) and Haaland & Dale's (2005) theories. Andresen (2008) and Brynildsrud (2011) investigated the experiences of new leaders in the health-sector. These theses add to the understanding of the experiences of first-time managers, their main findings are in line with Hill's (2003) and Haaland & Dale's (2005) theories and they include suggestions of how organizations could improve the transition process.

2.2.9 Outdoor leadership – section summary

International outdoor leadership theories have been largely founded on style theories of leadership, contingency leadership, situational leadership theory and conditional outdoor leadership theory (COLT). The theories focus on a range of competencies and skills the outdoor leader should master. The hard/soft skills metaphor is often used to describe these skills, but is criticed for being too simplistic and to not cover contextual and relational aspects of leadership. Judgement and decision making are important in leadership and some authors suggest viewing individual's development of JDM as a continuum ranging from linear to automated decision processes. The leader as facilitator, the leader's self awareness and relational competence are discussed as central aspects of the leader's role. In the Norwegian perspective, the leader roles of the *conwayor* and supervisor are linked to norms of value orientation, environmental perspectives, value of nature, human value and safe travel. First-time leadership theories state that becoming a leader is different than being one, and focus on personal development aspects of entering into leadership. Limited research is available exploring students' perception of outdoor leadership, learning outdoor leadership and transition into leadership.

2.3 Experiential learning and education

Experiential learning has longstanding traditions in Norway related to *friluftsliv* (Grimeland, 2009) and is significant in the pedagogical ideas and practices of *conwaying*, supervision, outdoor education and in learning leadership. The field of experiential learning and education is complex and has a comprehensive body of literature. The following section discusses relevant aspects of experiential learning related to this study. The section begins with a discussion of the terms used and theoretical views on origins of experiential learning. A discussion on Dewey's contribution and the widely adapted Kolb experiential learning cycle model follows. Next there is a discussion of social and cultural perspectives of learning, focusing on the situated learning perspective. Reflection is the following topic, and the section ends with a discussion on the holistic perspectives of experiential education and *friluftsliv* and a summary.

2.3.1 Terms and theoretical roots

The literature surrounding the field of experiential education and experiential learning reveals a great richness in exploring philosophical theories and different experiential practices. Roberts (2012) claims that the theoretical development in the field of experiential education could be summed up as an “ongoing quest to define itself” (p.3). One of the challenges in this quest is the concept of the English word experience including the etymological explanations of meanings and understandings of the concept. The way we discuss, frame and construct ‘experience’ will influence our understanding of the knowledge experience contributes (Roberts, 2012). Roberts (2012) states that the word experience contains multiple and sometimes contradictory meanings, and it can be employed as a noun, (to have an experience) or as a verb, (to be experiencing). The German equivalents of experience, ‘*erlebnis*’ and ‘*erfahrung*’ provide a key to two distinct understandings of the English term experience. ‘*Erlebnis*’ refers to an experience that is generally more immediate, pre-reflective and personal. ‘*Erfahrung*’ moves beyond the immediate experience and to a more reflective type of wisdom (Roberts, 2012). This distinction and understanding could also apply to the two Norwegian terms for experience, ‘*opplevelse*’ (*erlebnis*) and ‘*erfaring*’ (*erfahrung*).

Another challenge in this field, is that the terms experiential education and experiential learning are often not differentiated, used interchangeably and in a simplified way. The

differentiation is important and according to Roberts (2012) experiential education involves questions of structure and function of knowledge and the purpose to which learning ought to adhere. By contrast, experiential learning can be viewed as a method or technique used in experiential education, including the process of using the ‘power of experience’ to move towards a learning outcome (Roberts, 2012). In discussing experiential education and learning, Itin (2008) sees education and learning as two different constructs, hence experiential education and experiential learning are different constructs as well. Education is the transactive process between an educator and a student and learning is the individual process of change.

The philosophical roots of experiential education and learning can be traced back to different theories and periods of history, all adding to the current understanding and knowledge (Roberts, 2012). In a critical evaluation of some of these understandings, Roberts (2012) discusses several theoretical roots, including the significant influences and legacies from Romanticism and Pragmatism. The author also discusses other, critical perspectives that question the history and future of experience in learning as presented by “recalling the contributions of the ‘Great White Males’” (p.19). Roberts (2012) argues that perspectives from indigenous knowledge, female contributors and modern constructions of experience can enrich and expand the way we think about experience. In the context of the pedagogical dimension of friluftsliv and outdoor education, the influences from Romanticism and Pragmatism appear to be the strongest and most significant, and will be discussed further.

Romanticism was regarded as a movement against the preceding period of Enlightenment and held a skeptical view of modernity. The period of Romanticism was characterized by a back-to-nature idea including the sense of the sublime. Romanticism placed a “higher value on the eccentricities of the individual, the role of emotion and sentiment in life and learning, the exotic over the familiar” (Roberts, 2012, p. 29). Roberts (2012) argues that the ideas found in Romanticism are the most influential to the thinking and development in experiential learning. This influence is apparent in elements such as contrasting experiential learning with traditional learning and the value of inductive learning. Other elements such as the strong belief in the power of direct experience, the idea of the solitary journey and dislocation and that nature constitutes wilderness, are all additional legacies from this period (Roberts, 2012).

Pragmatism, is according to Roberts (2012), characterized by “examining things based upon its practical consequences” (p. 50) and knowledge acquisition is considered as inherently interactive. As opposed to Romanticism’s idea of experience being an individual mental state, the ideas in Pragmatism include interactive, social and situated perspectives of experience (Roberts, 2012). In experiential learning, the influences of the ideas from pragmatism are recognized in the enhancement of social and interactive qualities of learning, the importance of consequences, context and the significance of ‘trial and error’ (Roberts, 2012). The most important and influential educational thinker rooted in this theory tradition is John Dewey.

2.3.2 Dewey’s experience and Kolb’s learning cycle model

Dewey is regarded as the most significant theorist in experiential education and learning, and his thinking and ideas have had a great influence on the field. His contribution is traceable in a vast range of theories and practices related to education and learning, and only a few of his ideas are touched upon in this section.

A common slogan associated with Dewey, is ‘learning by doing’ (Roberts, 2012). One of Dewey’s concerns was to link experience with reflection, and the original statement from Dewey (as cited in Vaage, 2001, p. 130) was in fact “Learn to do by knowing and to know by doing”. To Dewey, the idea of integrating experience with thought to create meaning was central (Ord & Leather, 2011). The simple doing or activity was not sufficient to create knowledge and learning in the individual. According to Dewey, an experience was a transaction between the ‘trying’ as the action and the ‘undergoing’ as the consequence of the experience (Ord & Leather, 2011). Learning could not be conceptualized as only occurring via a review or reflection isolated from the experience: “We are changed within the experience, and by the experience, not just simply as a result of reflecting upon it later” (Ord & Leather, 2011, p. 19). Dewey’s model of how action and reflection integrate and what constitutes a reflective experience is described in five steps (Miettinen, 2000): 1:Disturbance and uncertainty, a habit does not work. 2:Intellectualization and definition of the problem. 3:Studying the conditions of the situation and formation of a working hypothesis. 4:Reasoning. 5:Testing the hypothesis in action. This process can have two outcomes. One is the solution to the disturbance or problem, the other is the production of meaning available as a resource to forthcoming problems (Miettinen, 2000). In this view, learning is a consequence of actions and the

process of problem solving. This implies an inductive and exploring approach to tasks and problems and the ability or willingness to explore the present knowledge in relation to new experiences. This process of rediscovering or reconstructing our experiences was central in Dewey's theories (Vaage, 2001). In a pedagogical context, an approach founded on these principles from Dewey is known as discovery learning, or learning by inquiry (Vaage, 2001).

David Kolb's experiential learning cycle model has been widely referenced and adapted in experiential learning theory, outdoor education and practices for the outdoors (Martin et al., 2006; Ord & Leather, 2011; Priest & Gass, 2005), and within adult education (Miettinen, 2000). Kolb claims to draw upon the ideas of Dewey, in addition to ideas and concept from many different sources (Miettinen, 2000). The Kolb learning cycle is a four-step model consisting of concrete experience, observations and reflections, formation of abstract concepts and generalizations, and the last step is testing implications of concepts in new situations. In addition to this simple model, Kolb also includes aspects of different learning styles and learning abilities that the learner needs to possess and adapt to during the learning process (Ord & Leather, 2011). Although widely referenced and adapted, Kolb's model is criticized on several aspects. Miettinen (2000) argues that the model is problematic due to the eclectic theoretical foundation, individualistic concept of learning and for not providing an adequate interpretation of Dewey's theory of experience and reflective thought. Seaman (2008) states that the Kolb model served a useful purpose in its time. He argues, however, that it does not account for social and contextual aspects and does not explain the holistic learning processes that are central to learning from experience. Seaman (2008) further argues that given the changes in knowledge along with societal and educational changes, this model might be better valued for the important historical contribution, rather than being applied as a theory and model of experiential education and learning today.

Brown (2009) summarizes the recent critiques of the individualistic and cognitive focus of experiential learning in outdoor education represented by Kolb's experiential learning cycle model. This author investigates socio-cultural perspectives of learning, moving beyond the conception of the learner being an autonomous 'processor' of experiences. The value of individual constructivist approaches to learning is not dismissed, but the "necessity of acknowledging multiple ways to learn and know; critical reflection,

experimental inquiry, dialogue, student experiences and interest, hands-on problem-solving, direct transmission, and embodied ways of knowing are all valid and can enrich our conceptions of learning” (Bowers, as cited in Brown, 2009, p. 6). No single theory of learning can account for all the multiple ways we learn and what contributes to learning. The social-cultural perspective in situated learning is suggested as a valuable approach to explore and to shed light on different aspects of experiential education in addition to the individual concepts (Brown, 2009).

2.3.3 Social-cultural perspective of learning – situated learning

In a socio-cultural perspective of learning, learning represents more than the approaches predominant in cognitive and individual constructivist theories of learning. In this perspective, learning encompasses the social world and it has to do with interaction and human relations. Language and communication are crucial as well as history, culture and tradition (Quay, 2003). This implies that the experience and learning occur in a social and cultural-historical context. Learners are regarded as “active participants within a social and cultural world that influences, and is influenced by them, as they continue to adapt, evolve and learn” (Quay, 2003, p. 108). According to Quay (2003), locating experiential learning and education among “the vast range of other theories of learning” (p. 105), is an opportunity to extend the knowledge of issues of learning in experiential education.

Lave & Wenger (2000) and Wenger (2004) have developed a theory of situated learning. The process of ‘legitimate peripheral participation’ and ‘community of practice’ are central characteristics in their theory. Learning is regarded as a social phenomenon and the attention is on the learner’s participation in communities of practices. A community of practice is an activity system where the participants share their understanding of what they are doing and what it means. What characterizes a community of practice is the mutual engagement of the participants. The community is regarded as a joint enterprise with a shared repertoire of actions, tools and concepts. The learning process starts with what Lave & Wenger (2000) conceptualize as legitimate peripheral participation. This concept implies that the novice learner participates in a peripheral way, but the participation is legitimate since the learner is a novice in the practice. From this peripheral position, the novice learns and develops by participating in the community of practice. Lave & Wenger (2000) point out that the concept of

legitimate peripheral participation is not a pedagogical strategy or method, but an analytic view of learning.

In Wenger's (2004) theory of situated learning, four integrated components are essential in understanding learning as social participation. The first component is meaning; as a notion for human ability to individually and socially experience meaning in our lives. Meaning in the context of a community of practice is the meaning created and negotiated within this community. The second component is community; as the social configurations where we have a sense of belonging and our actions are considered competent. The third component is practice; this is the common historical and social resources, frameworks and perspectives that support mutual engagement. This includes what the participants do and their actions in the practice. The last component is identity; as a term for who we are and how learning in a community of practice changes who we are. To learn is also to become someone. This includes our personal stories of development within the community of practice (Wenger, 2004). Learning constitutes as participating, negotiating, experiencing and changing our identity. Applying this perspective, friluftsliv as experiential education is provided through situated learning, where the context of learning is seen as a community of practice. The activity of learning is seen as the legitimate peripheral participation (Quay, 2003). Therefore, attending to the context of becoming a leader is necessary for understanding how – and who – new leaders 'become'.

In the body of research in friluftsliv, the situated perspective of learning this is an emerging theory, recently applied in two studies. Sølviik (2013) investigated friluftsliv as 'a landscape for learning' using situated learning to explain some of the social aspects of learning in the context of friluftsliv. The context for this study is friluftsliv applied as pedagogical approach for youth in social risk situations. The study's findings indicate that different levels of participating, cooperation and feelings of belonging in the community influence each person's learning outcomes. Klokkehaug (2013) applies the situated learning perspective in a context of learning judgement and decision making in avalanche hazard terrain. Her findings indicate the importance of the discussions and exchange of experience in the group of skiers attending courses and trips. This community of practice is seen as vital for learning in the group of participants in

addition to being important for the competence each participant brings into other similar groups.

2.3.4 The holistic approaches in experiential education and friluftsliv

Friluftsliv and experiential learning are characterized and surrounded by descriptions and notions of complexity and holism (Bentsen et al., 2009). Experiential education is often described as a holistic approach, addressing the whole students as “thinking, feeling, physical, emotional, spiritual and social beings” (Carver, 2008, p.151). In experiential education, Carver (2008) claims that there are four pedagogical principles that stand out as salient features: authenticity, active learning, drawing on students’ experience, and providing mechanisms for connection experience to future opportunity. Authenticity means that activities and consequences are relevant and meaningful in the context of the students’ lives. Active learning implies that students are physically and/or mentally engaged in the process of learning. The activities are used to address social, physical, emotional and cognitive development. Drawing on students experience means that the students are guided in the process of building understandings of the phenomena by thinking and reflecting on what they have experienced. This includes drawing upon the experiences they bring with them to a program, and those that they share among the participants in the program. The last principle described by Carver (2008) states that experiential education provides mechanisms for connecting experience to future opportunity. By participating, and through the formal process of reflection, students develop habits, skill, memories and knowledge that are expected to be useful for them in the future (Carver, 2008).

In the friluftsliv body of literature, the holistic perspective of friluftsliv and supervision in friluftsliv holds several of the same notions as in the above description of experiential education. Tordsson (2005) claims that encounters with nature through friluftsliv and supervision has the potential to provide rich experiences of living a ‘simple life’ [Rikt liv med enkle midler], joy, personal development and development of identity. A holistic understanding means that individuals form and develop by learning from diverse experiences. Participants will develop different skills through activity and active participation. Social development, cultural understanding, knowledge of nature and reflections on present and future life are all potential objectives in the ambitious holistic thinking (Tordsson, 2005).

2.3.5 Reflection in experiential learning

As previously discussed, reflection is a central characteristic of experiential learning, and aspects of reflection are prevalent in a number of different theories of learning (Lauvås & Handal, 2000). In Dewey's thinking, reflection is integrated within the activity, while Kolb sees reflection as something that takes place separately and after the activity (Miettinen, 2000). Building on the work of Dewey, Donald Schön (1987) developed a theory of reflective practice, using the terms reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action which resemble integrated and detached reflection (Lauvås & Handal, 2000). Reflection-in-action is the way we reflect while doing an activity or task, to improve our action during the action. Reflection-on-action is when we evaluate and processes the completed actions and experiences in order to improve our knowledge.

An analytic perspective of reflection-on-action is presented by Boud, Keogh & Walker (as cited in Lauvås & Handal, 2000) and is of more interest in this study than reflection-in-action. This perspective focuses on the content of reflection, or a way to view the reflection-on-action process. The process is described in three steps. The first is recalling, remembering and investigating what actually happened during the experience. The second step is to recall the feelings the experience or action induced. The last step is to reconsider and evaluate the experience or action in order to provide meaning and knowledge. The last step in the process may be the most demanding. It demands insight and courage to see our own experiences in new perspectives to gain new learning (Lauvås & Handal, 2000). In experiential education and friluftsliv, the reflection-on-action, or experience followed by reflection is a widely adapted model and tool in the learning process. This guided and formal phase of reflection is frequently facilitated, as, for example, in circle-discussion, smaller group-discussion or written journals. In the context of this study, written learning journals are applied as a tool in formal reflections. This is further discussed in section 2.5.8.

2.3.6 Experiential learning – section summary

The concept of experiential learning is central to friluftsliv, outdoor education and in learning leadership. Experiential learning and education are complex concepts influenced by theories, understandings, methods and practices from different periods, thinkers and ideas. The most influential ideas in friluftsliv and outdoor education arise from Romanticism and Pragmatism. John Dewey's theories of experience and reflection

have been significant for the development in the field. Kolb's experiential cycle model is widely adapted and applied, but criticized in the body of literature. The social-cultural theory of situated learning adds knowledge and understanding to the social and contextual aspects of learning as well as the learner's development due to participating in a community of practice such as friluftsliv. The holistic view is a perspective of the learning and development potential in experiential education and friluftsliv that is often reflected in the body of literature. Reflection is discussed central component in experiential learning.

2.4 Adult learning theory

This study is an exploratory investigation of *adult* students' experiences of learning outdoor leadership when studying friluftsliv in the context of higher education. This includes investigating into how the pedagogical process and method in self-directed learning influence students' experience and learning in outdoor leadership. The objective of this section is to provide an introduction of the foundation of adult learning theory as a background for discussions of self-directed learning in the following section. In broad terms, theories of adult learners and learning in adulthood are founded on the concept and idea that adults and children learn differently (Knowles et al., 2012; Merriam et al., 2007). A purpose in these theories is to explain these differences and their implications for learning and education. Adult learning theories provide the background and underlie the assumptions, principles and understandings of self-directed learning. The section starts with a clarification of the concept 'adult' before continuing with discussions of the adult learner and the differences in children and adult learning as depicted in the body of literature.

2.4.1 Adult

The definitions of what constitutes being an adult can be based on arguments from biological, legal, social, cultural or psychological dimensions. For the purpose of this study and the learning context, the psychological arguments seem most relevant. Psychological arguments claim that we become adults when we "arrive at a self-concept of being responsible for our own lives, of being self-directing" (Knowles et al., 2012, p. 62).

2.4.2 Knowles's adult learning theory

The idea that children and adults learn differently was first introduced by Malcolm Knowles in the early 1970s. Knowles developed his theory based on a line of previous research, and his intention was to consolidate the pre-existing knowledge of adult learning into one theory of adult learning (Knowles et al., 2012). Knowles's theory is the best-known effort to describe adult learning (Merriam et al., 2007) and his assumptions and principles are widely adopted as helpful in understanding adult learners (Hansman & Mott, 2010). Knowles developed six assumptions regarding adult learning and characteristics of the adult learner. The central tenants were the self-directed nature of adults, and that adults' previous experiences are important to consider in the learning process (Knowles et al., 2012). A brief explanation of Knowles' six assumptions follows.

The need to know: Adults need to know why they need to learn something before they start the learning process. *The learners' self-concept:* Adults have a self-concept of being responsible for their own lives. They have a deep psychological need for being seen as, and treated by others as, being capable of being self-directed. *The role of the learners' experience:* Adults have previous education-, work- and life experiences of different qualities. A group of adults will be quite diverse in terms of background, motivation and experiences, and this is important to acknowledge in the process of learning. *Readiness to learn:* Adults become ready to learn the things they need to know and be able to do in order to manage their real-life situations. *Orientation to learning:* Adult learners are life-centered, task-centered or problem-oriented when it comes to learning. The learning is more effective when presented in the context of application to a real-life situation. *Motivation:* Adults are responsive to some external motivators, but the most potent motivators are internal desires for increased job satisfaction, self-esteem and quality of life (Knowles et al., 2012).

Knowles's assumptions account for some aspects of adults as learners, and are embraced by many adult educators (Hansman & Mott, 2010), but his theory has limitations and has been criticized on several aspects. One line of early criticism was whether Knowles' theory in fact was a theory, or if it was rather a model or principles for good practice, and if it applied exclusively to adults (Hansman & Mott, 2010). Another main concern related is that the context of learning is not addressed. In mainly

focusing on assumptions of the individual learner, the social and learning context regarded as central for learning, is ignored (Hansman & Mott, 2010; Merriam et al., 2007). In addition, Knowles' theory has been criticized for not including all adult learners, and for promoting generic and prescriptive ideas of adult learners, such as the notion that all adult learners are internally motivated and self-directed (Hansman & Mott, 2010; Merriam, 2007). There are other factors to consider as well, and "it is important to remember that each learner is unique. Characteristics related to culture, life experiences, and gender may be more important to learning than the fact that the learner is considered an 'adult'" (Cerone, 2008, p. 146).

2.4.3 Adult learning characteristics

The body of research in adult learning and the understandings of learning in general have developed and expanded since the 1970s. In reviewing the theoretical background, research status and trends in the field of adult learning, Merriam et al. (2007) return to the original premise of how learning in childhood can be distinguished from learning in adulthood. The authors argue that learning in adulthood can be distinguished from learning in childhood in terms of three aspects: *the learner*, *the context*, and to some extent *the process of learning*. The first aspect concerns the adult learner's accumulated experience, the nature of those experiences, developmental issues and aging effects. The role of the learner's previous experience and experiential learning in general is central in adult learning theory. Previous experiences can be recalled in learning activities, as well as serve as a resource for others in their learning (Merriam et al., 2007). Previous experience could be a factor that both enables or inhibits further learning. If the new knowledge is presented in such a way that it can be related to existing knowledge and mental models, it can enable new learning. On the other hand, those same mental models can become inhibiting to new learning when the new learning challenges them (Merriam et al., 2007; Knowles et al., 2012). Developmental issues and aging effects relate to stages of life-development associated with transition from childhood to adulthood, such as changes in abilities, responsibility, activities and roles (Merriam et al., 2007).

Context has become increasingly important in understanding learning (Hansman & Mott, 2010), and differences in context are the second parameter that distinguishes children and adult learning (Merriam et al., 2007). Two aspects of context are apparent.

One is the individual interacting with the context, a view that is found in theories of situated learning, reflective practices and cognitive development. The other approach to context relates to societal structures and institutions and how these parameters affect learning. This includes factors like race, class, gender, cultural diversity, power and oppression (Merriam et al., 2007).

The third aspect is the process of learning. According to Merriam et al. (2007), there are fewer differences between adults and children when it comes to the learning process. Aspects of meaningfulness and motivation linked to life-situation of the adult learner are some of the factors considered to be different. In light of expanded knowledge of learning, it is important to see these three aspects of learner, context and process together, how they blend and interact and contribute to learning (Merriam et al., 2007).

2.4.4 Adult learning theory – section summary

This section has discussed the basic foundation of adult learning theory. Adult learning theory is founded on the idea that adults and children learn differently, and serve as a background for understandings of self-directed learning. The assumptions and understandings of adult learning were introduced by Knowles and have been further developed based on new knowledge of learning.

2.5 *Self-directed learning (SDL)*

One of the aims of this study is to investigate how the pedagogical process of facilitating learning by SDL influences students' experience and learning in outdoor leadership. The objective of this section is to account for theoretical understandings of SDL, focusing on SDL as a pedagogical process to facilitate learning. In a broad understanding, SDL is learner-centered and is about the learners assuming control of their own learning. A significant characteristic is that SDL assigns a crucial role to the learners in planning, initiating and evaluating their own learning experiences (Merriam et al., 2007). This section starts with a discussion on different approaches to SDL where the main focus is to discuss SDL as a pedagogical process to facilitate learning. Following are discussions of a conceptual model of SDL, learning contracts and reflective journals. The section ends with a short summary.

2.5.1 Different approaches and understandings of SDL

Knowles' assumption that adults are self-directed learners has received a lot of attention, and SDL is one of the most researched topics within the field of adult learning theory (Merriam et al., 2007). Research in SDL has a historical context focusing on adult learning outside a formal school environment, and builds on studies done in 1960s-1980s by Houle, Tough and Knowles (Merriam et al., 2007). The early studies were mainly descriptive and aimed to verify that adults do deliberately learn on their own and discover how they learned (Merriam et al., 2007). Later studies have investigated conceptual models, sought out to clarify terms and aims of SDL, and have also acknowledged that SDL can take place both inside and outside an institutionalized learning program (Merriam et al., 2007).

The concept of lifelong learning has been embraced at a political and management level and SDL is often included in discussions of lifelong learning. Lifelong learning can be understood as “all organized and non-organized learning throughout life, including formal and informal learning during work and other activities” (St.meld. nr 42 (1997-98)). In a rapidly developing society and expanding knowledge bases, this broad perspective of lifelong learning is considered to be vital. Dunlap & Garbinger (as cited in Merriam et al., 2007) state that an individual's lifelong learning capabilities can be fostered by “developing their capacity for self-direction, metacognitive awareness and a disposition towards learning” (p.125). In a lifelong learning perspective, the relevance of SDL is apparent and is linked to political and management aspects. These political aspirations and goals are not included in the scope of this study and will not be discussed further.

In reviewing the body of literature on SDL, Merriam et al. (2007) have identified three broad, and somewhat overlapping, categories of SDL literature. This categorization provides a conceptual understanding of SDL and each category outlines a major facet of SDL: the first is *goals of SDL* as in understandings of SDL's major purposes. The second is *self-directedness as a personal attribute* of the learner, and the third is the view of *SDL as a process or form of study* to facilitate learning. These categories will be further discussed below. One of the aims of this study is to investigate students' learning of leadership using SDL as a process to facilitate learning, hence the focus in

the following discussions will be on understandings of SDL as a process or form of study.

2.5.2 Goals of SDL

The goals of SDL relate to the major purposes of SDL. As previously discussed, some of the underlying assumptions in Knowles' adult learning theory are that adults are internally motivated, self-directed and able to control their own learning. These assumptions have been criticed as these abilities vary widely among adult learners (Hansman & Mott, 2010). Hansman & Mott (2010) claim that "depending of their life experience, existing knowledge, and motivations, learners have varying degrees of self-directedness and can develop it further, motivated by self or other's direction" (p. 17). One goal apparent in the body of literature is how SDL can enhance the capacity of adults to be self-directed in their learning process (Merriam et al., 2007). Underlying this is the educator's role of helping the learners so they become able to plan, carry out and evaluate their learning (Merriam et al., 2007). Other goals of SDL refer to developing critical thinking and reflection, promoting emancipatory and transformational learning, and social changes (Merriam et al., 2007).

2.5.3 Self-directedness as a personal attribute

Self-directedness as a personal attribute or a characteristic of the learner is historically related to Knowles' assumption that adults have "a deep psychological need to be seen by others, and treated by others, as being capable of self-direction" (Knowles et al., 2012, p. 63). The trait of self-direction is conceived of as personal autonomy and means that the learner is predisposed to take primary responsibility for his or her own learning (Brockett & Hiemstra, as cited in Merriam et al., 2007). Autonomous people can be characterized with notions such as strong sense of values and beliefs, independent thinking, self-responsibility and willpower (Merriam et al., 2007). The relationship between personal and situational variables and an individual's exhibition of autonomy in a learning situation is also important in this aspect. A learner's autonomy is likely to vary between different contexts and according to Merriam et al. (2007) "their technical skills related to the learning process, their familiarity with the subject matter, their sense of personal competence as a learner, and their commitment to learning at this point in time", influence the autonomous behavior (p. 123).

2.5.4 SDL as a process or form of study

The view of SDL as a process or form of study to facilitate learning is the most dominant view found in the literature. This is the approach where the learner is viewed as the agent primarily responsible for taking initiative for planning, executing and evaluating his or her own learning. This process, terms and key-elements derive from the ideas of Tough (as cited in Merriem et al., 2007) and was further developed into a SDL process model by Knowles (Knowles et al., 2012) and others.

Knowles' process model for SDL is concerned with facilitating for learning and provides procedures and resources for helping learners in the process (Knowles et al., 2012). The model consists of eight major steps: 1: preparing the learner, 2: establishing the climate conducive to learning, 3: creating a mechanism for mutual planning, 4: diagnosing the need for learning, 5: formulating learning objectives and goals, 6: designing learning plan, 7: implement the learning plan and conduct the learning experiences, and 8) evaluation of the learning outcomes and re-diagnosing learning needs (Knowles et al., 2012).

This model assumes that the learner takes on a high degree of responsibility for the learning. Some learners may have previous experiences where they have been dependent on teacher-centered learning, and experience a 'culture-shock' when they are exposed to the expectation of participating in the planning of their own learning. The first element of the process, preparing the learner, includes learn-to-learn activities that intend to introduce the learner to proactive learning (Knowles et al., 2012). A climate conducive to learning in this model is concerned with physical, social and organizational elements. (Knowles et al., 2012). The learner and the leader should have a shared responsibility for both planning and facilitating for learning. The idea here is if the learner is more involved and participates in the planning, the commitment tends to increase (Knowles et al., 2012). In diagnosing the need for learning, it is important that it is the individual learner's own perception of what he or she wants to become, achieve, and at what level, to function as the starting point in the learning process. According to Knowles et al. (2012), this is not to be understood as if the learner knows all the requisite abilities for the desired competencies, but the learner could use, or be exposed to, different methods to develop this understanding. This element in the process is most crucial for what it does to the mindset of the learner. By having more awareness of how

certain knowledge or skills will add to their performance, the learner could enter potential learning situations with a “clearer sense of purpose and see what they learn as more personal” (Knowles et al., 2012, p. 124). From this, the learning need is defined as the learner’s own perception or self-assessment of the gap between where they are now, and where they want to be in the future. Evaluation and re-diagnosing learning needs includes re-examining the needs for competencies and the gap between present and desired levels of competencies (Knowles et al., 2012).

In addition to this linear model from Knowles, other SDL process models have been developed with the objective of capturing multiple dimensions in the learning process. These models acknowledge that learning is not necessary a straightforward and linear process as depicted by Knowles’ model, and attempt to include several aspects that interact in the learning process. For example Brockett & Hiemstra (as cited in Merriam et al., 2007), for example, aimed to include the personal attributes of autonomy and other learner characteristics as well as the leader’s role in their model of the learning process. Grow (as cited in Merriam et al., 2007) included situational aspects in a model that outlined how leaders can assist learners in becoming more self-directed.

Garrison’s (1997) multi-dimensional model of SDL includes three overlapping dimensions required for accomplishing SDL: *Motivation*, *self-management* and *self-monitoring*. In Garrison’s (1997) model, motivation has a significant role in the initiation and maintenance of effort toward learning. Motivation has two dimensions: entering motivation and task motivation. Entering motivation is what gets the learner to participate in the learning process and the task motivation is what keeps the learner on task and persisting in the learning process (Garrison, 1997). Self-management focuses on goal setting and use of resources for learning. Self-monitoring refers to the ability of learners to monitor both their learning processes and their metacognitive processes. According to Garrison (1997), learners have the ability to use their own learning strategies and to think about what they are learning. This includes engaging in critical reflection and incorporating new knowledge with existing knowledge and experiences. In addition, learners integrate external feedback with their own self-reflection as a form of collaborative confirmation of their learning (Garrison, 1997).

2.5.5 A conceptual framework of SDL process and context

The elements discussed in the above process models of SDL are all factors that come into play in SDL, but the models are criticized for not accounting for context and different educational settings (Song & Hill, 2007). In reviewing the current SDL models, Song & Hill (2007) state that since those models of SDL were developed, higher education has changed into occurring in a variety of contexts, and there is a need to develop a model to understand SDL in a contextualized learning environment.

Song & Hill (2007) have developed a conceptual framework that incorporates the elements of SDL related to personal attributes and the SDL process. In addition, they include a third dimension to indicate the significance and interaction of different contextual factors in SDL. This model was developed to discuss implications of context for SDL in an online-learning environment, but may also be suitable as a generic model to visualise and discuss SDL related to learning contexts in general.

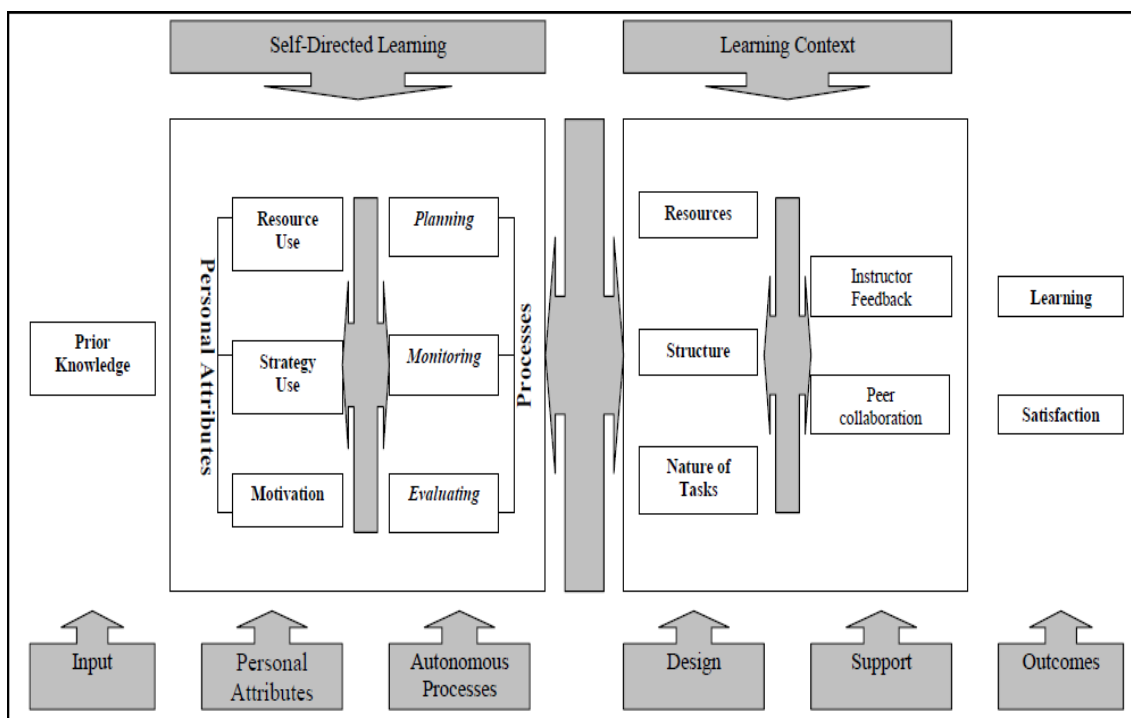


Figure 2.2: A conceptual model for understanding self-directed learning (Song & Hill, 2007, p. 31).

In this model, personal attributes refer to the characteristics learners bring to a specific learning context. It includes motivations and capabilities of taking responsibility for

their learning, by Garrison (1997). Personal attributes also include resource use and cognitive strategies for learning together with the learner's prior knowledge and experiences (Song & Hill, 2007). Autonomous processes refers to learners' learning processes in SDL. This is the process of planning, monitoring, and evaluating ones' learning (Song & Hill, 2007). This model illustrates the interactive relationship between the learning processes and the personal attributes required for learners to take control of the planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning processes.

The learning context in the model constitutes the environmental factors and how those factors interact and impact the level of SDL provided to the learner (Song & Hill, 2007). The authors point to design elements and support elements as various factors in the context dimension. Design elements include the resources, structure and nature of the tasks in the learning context. Support elements include instructor's feedback and peer collaboration and communication (Song & Hill, 2007). In discussing feedback, the authors state the importance of constructive and informative feedback, and not just judgemental feedback such as 'right' or 'wrong'. This may lead to learners to "trying to figure out what the instructor wants instead of what they can make sense of when they are learning" (p. 32). The resources in the design and structure elements could be embedded in the specific learning context and could be employed by the instructor. In addition, the specific learning context may decide on the structure of these elements. Song & Hill (2007) explain the context's significance for learning in the way context impact the way learners plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning (process). Context is also significant because it has "the potential to influence how a learner becomes motivated to learn, and how he or she uses various resources and strategies to accomplish learning in the specific learning context" (p. 33).

Studies in SDL have explored significant factors and characteristics when employing SDL as an approach for learning in higher education. For participants, being responsible and more active and aware in their own learning process are perceived to be inspirational and motivational factors (Slåtten & Aigeltinger, 2000), and to contribute to increasing the learning outcome (Høyem, 2004; Slåtten & Aigeltinger, 2000). Findings in these studies indicate that the students were inexperienced in having a high amount of freedom and responsibility for their own work (Høyem, 2004; Slåtten & Aigeltinger, 2000). In the startup phase of working with SDL, the process is perceived as

challenging and demanding for the students. The need for information and developing an understanding of what an SDL-approach actually means, is apparent (Høyem, 2004; Slåtten & Aigeltinger, 2000). These studies found that the facilitator's role was important to assist the students in focusing on the objectives within a new and unknown subject area and reaching the aims of the study program.

2.5.6 The role of the facilitator of SDL

The role of the facilitator SDL is described as being different to the traditional teacher's role (Knowles et al., 2012; Merriam et al., 2007; Rander, 2007). The facilitator's role is described as being learner-centered and focusing on the learning processes and facilitating learning, while the traditional teacher role is described as being teacher-centered, focused on the teaching aspects and what the teacher is doing. The facilitator's role in SDL can be described as being responsible for establishing a framework (Rander, 2007) and a context that can support the learner's learning processes (Song & Hill, 2007). Knowles et al. (2012) emphasizes the cooperation between the facilitator and learner in the SDL-process, and Grow (as cited in Merriam et al., 2007) discusses the situational dimension of the facilitator's role related to assisting learners in becoming more self-directed in their learning processes. This study will not investigate the role and characteristics of the facilitator of SDL but focus on the learner.

2.5.7 Flexible study programs and SDL

In Norway, there has been an increase in the numbers of adult learners entering the universities, and there is an expectation that this increase will continue (Rønning, 2009). Aspects of lifelong learning, job requirements and the need for personal and self-development may account for some of the reasons for this increase. A flexible study model such as part-time continuing professional education, distance-education and online-education programs allows the students to combine studies with work-life. The study model of a flexible study program implies that the students spend most of their time off-campus (Rønning, 2009). Compared to the full-time student on campus, contact with other students and the community of students and scientific staff on campus, is limited, and Rønning (2009) states that the study situation for the students in a flexible program requires that the students are more independent and autonomous.

2.5.8 The learning contract and written journals for reflection

In the literature surrounding the practice of SDL, there are numerous tools and resources made available to assist leaders and learners in the process of SDL. Learning contracts and written journals are two central tools in SDL.

The learning contract is regarded as an important and useful tool for structuring and making an individual plan for learning in SDL (Høyem, 2004; Knowles et al., 2012; Merriam et al., 2007). The learning contract is a way to bring it all together, and by participating in the process, the sense of ownership and commitment to the plan is developed by the learner (Knowles et al., 2012). Particularly in field-based learning (e.g. friluftsliv) what is to be learned is often less clear than what work or task the learner should be doing, and by using a learning contract the learning objectives could be made clearer and more explicit (Knowles et al., 2012).

As discussed in the section on experiential learning and education (section 2.3), reflection is a central aspect in learning, and the use of written learning journals is one of the tools available for enhancing the learning process. There are several ways journal writing can enhance the conditions for learning. In reviewing current knowledge and insights on this matter, Moon (2006) suggests the following as important factors. Journal-writing slows the pace of learning in forcing the learner to stop, think and reflect. Writing can increase the sense of ownership of learning by making subject matter relevant to the learners' purpose allowing them to collect their thoughts and to relate the learning to own or previous knowledge. Journals can acknowledge the role of emotion in learning as something that is always present in our learning processes. Writing gives learners an experience of dealing with complex and ill-structured material of learning. Journal-writing also enhances the learners' metacognition in learning about their own process of learning, and the process of doing the writing is enhancing the learning (Moon, 2006).

In addition to the factors regarded as positive enhancements of learning, Moon (2006) identifies issues regarding learner's writing skills, ethical issues, learner's resistance to writing due to various reasons and issues concerning assessment of journals. These are all factors that may inhibit and not enhance learning, and need to be addressed properly. Using written learning journals can serve as a tool and process to enhance learning,

support a reflective practice, personal development and be a means for assessment. Important criterias for this to be a valuable tool includes addressing inhibiting factors, makeing sure that the purpose of writing is clear to the learner and in accordance with the process of assessment and evaluation (Moon, 2006).

2.5.9 Self-directed learning - section summary

This section has outlined different theoretical perspectives of SDL. SDL is about learners taking control of their own learning, and SDL can be seen as a goal, a personal trait or as a learning process. The process dimension of SDL is most relevant for this study. Various contextual factors influence the learning process, and a conceptual framework for discussing SDL and these factors are discussed. The learning contract and use of written journals to enhance the individuals learning are discussed as useful tools in the SDL process.

2.6 Theoretical framework – summary

This section has presented the theoretical framework applied for this study. The discussions are founded in the Norwegian and international body of literature of friluftsliv, outdoor education, leadership and learning. It is argued that the pedagogic thinking and practices of friluftsliv in higher education were founded on contested and criticized ideas of *conwaying* and supervision that emerged from philosophical ideas from the 1970s. The literature surrounding *conwaying* and supervision mainly focuses on value-based norms and guidelines. This view is criticed by views and practices that are more open, inclusive and with a broader pedagogical approach.

It is further argued that the international outdoor leadership theories have been largely focused on lists of competencies and skills the outdoor leader should master. In addition, aspects of JDM, facilitation, the leader's self awareness and relational competence are discussed as central aspects of the leader's role. In the Norwegian perspective, the leader role of the *conwayor* and supervisor is linked to norms of value orientation, environmental perspectives, value of nature, human value and safe travel. First-time leadership theories state that becoming a leader is different than being one, and focus on personal aspects of entering into leadership.

The concept of experiential learning is central in friluftsliv, outdoor education and in learning leadership. John Dewey's theories of experience and reflection have been significant for the development in the field. Kolb's experiential cycle model is widely adapted and applied, but criticized in the body of literature. The social-cultural theory of situated learning adds knowledge and understanding to the social and contextual aspects of learning as well as the learner's development due to participating in a community of practice such as friluftsliv. It is further stated that adult learning theory is regarded as foundation for SDL. SDL is about learners taking control of their own learning, and a conceptual model for understanding SDL related to factors that influence the learning process is presented.

From the above discussions, it is apparent that becoming a leader and developing leadership competencies for the outdoors include learning of a complex set of skills in addition to personal development. In addition, it is argued that engaging in the process of SDL contributes to the individuals' development of their own learning processes and promotes learning capabilities in the individual. Leadership and learning are clearly linked and, as Tozer, Fazey & Fazey (2007) state, "if individuals understand what it is to be a good learner, they will be able to understand what it is to be a good leader" (p. 71). In a perspective of outdoor leadership, Tozer et al. (2007) see good learning as involving the need for practice, variation in the practice along with reflection.

The next section presents the research problem statement followed by a section that presents the context of this study.

3. Research problem

In the context of higher education, limited research effort has been directed at the pedagogical and didactical dimension of friluftslivsfag, outdoor leadership and SDL. To add to the knowledge and understanding in this area, this study aims to explore students' understandings of outdoor leadership, including their experiences in developing and transitioning into a leadership role. In addition, this study aims to explore how the pedagogical process of self-directed learning influences the students' learning in this aspect.

The main purpose of this study is to explore **students' learning, experience and understandings of outdoor leadership.**

To explore this topic, the following specific research questions have guided the investigations in this study:

4. How do the students understand leadership in friluftsliv?
5. How do the students experience the transition into leadership?
6. How do the students experience learning leadership using self-directed learning approaches?

4. Study context - friluftsliv at NSSS

The aim of this section is to outline the context of this study, the friluftsliv part-time program at NSSS. The section presents a short description of the program, focusing on the outdoor leadership subject and SDL as the foundational pedagogical approach in the study program.

At NSSS, friluftslivsfag constitutes learning in, about and through bodily movement in different outdoor contexts. In addition, friluftslivsfag is about pedagogical perspectives of friluftsliv, and to be responsible for people in the outdoors (NSSS, 2014a).

Experiential learning is significant and the objective is a variety of nature experiences, personal development and environmentally friendly quality of life (NSSS, 2014a).

NSSS offers several programs in friluftslivsfag, and the context of this study is the friluftsliv part-time program (FLD). The FLD program is primarily aimed at people within professional areas such as education, voluntary organizations, health-related areas and tourism who are seeking continuing education in friluftslivsfag (NSSS, 2014a). The FLD program consists of two parts, FLD1 and FLD2. FLD2 builds on FLD1 and students must complete FLD1 before entering FLD2. FLD1 and FLD2 take place over one academic year, each equal to 30 ECT, and the whole program takes two years (NSSS, 2014a). The students participating at this program can be regarded as a heterogeneous group of adults with different previous experience from work, life and education (Høyem, 2004). The majority of the students are in the age of 25-45 years old (Høyem, 2004). These characteristics are similar to Rønning's (2009) description of adult students attending continuing, flexible study programs in higher education.

The FLD program has two main subjects: 1) friluftsliv, knowledge and how to act in the outdoors [friluftsliv, kunnskap og handling] and 2) outdoor leadership [friluftslivsledelse] (NSSS, 2014b). Outdoor leadership is particularly emphasized in the FLD2 program (NSSS, 2014b). In the subject of outdoor leadership, the program emphasizes a broad, holistic understanding of the leadership role. It is regarded as important to develop an understanding of the leadership role in different contexts, and how the individual student functions in the leader role (NSSS, 2014b). The study program is organized as six or seven excursions each academic year. These take place in

different outdoor environments at different seasons and each excursion has a duration of four to six days (NSSS, 2014b). Related to the excursions, the students get experience in being outdoor leaders. For example in being the leader of a small group during different activities and by planning and organizing learning sessions for the students.

The study program draws from different perspectives of pedagogy, philosophy, phenomenology and psychology to explore topics within friluftslivsfag (NSSS, 2014b). The students' development of bodily and practical knowledge is important. Other main topics in the program are didactics and group dynamics in the outdoors, perspectives of learning, joy in the outdoors, 'attentive travel' [våkne veivalg], situational awareness and reflection. In relation to the different places of excursions and education, the study emphasizes environmental awareness, the conditions for doing friluftsliv, and cultural historical aspects of the different venues (NSSS, 2014b).

Self-directed learning is the foundational pedagogical approach in the study-program (Høyem, 2004). In this context, self-directed learning is described as a process that is founded on the students' perspective and previous experiences and emphasizes the individual's learning process (Høyem, 2004). The students are introduced to this approach at the beginning of the program, and are provided with tools to structure their learning. Two of the main tools are the personal development plan (EUP) and reflective journals (Høyem, 2004).

The personal development plan (EUP), or learning contract (Knowles et al., 2012), helps the students to define their starting point and aims in their learning process in friluftsliv. The intention is to describe the needs and objectives for learning and the learning strategies, and to revisit and update the plan during the program (Høyem, 2004). Reflective journals are written by the students following each program excursion and focus on the students' development and learning process. The purpose of the journal is to systematically process the student's thoughts, ideas and learning outcomes. In addition, the students reflect on future needs for learning (Høyem, 2004). The EUP and reflective journals are important structures in the SDL approach in the program, and the students' work is supervised by the teachers providing feedback (Høyem, 2004).

5. Methodology and methods

This chapter presents the research methodology and methods used in this study. It presents a rationale for the qualitative research design and accounts for the methods of data collection and analysis. The section starts by explaining the theoretical underpinnings of the methods used. This is followed by a brief description of the difference of quantitative and qualitative research. It continues by explaining the overall research design for this study. Relevant to this discussion is the researcher's pre-understanding and role, procedures of data collection and ethical considerations. The chapter concludes with a discussion of how the results were analysed and reflections on limitations of this study.

5.1 Research methodology – theoretical underpinnings

Methodology usually refers to the philosophy or paradigm that underpins the research. A paradigm can be seen as a fundamental model or scheme that organizes our view of different aspects of social sciences. This could be related to how we understand knowledge and social reality and what is considered an appropriate way of studying different phenomena (Blaxter, Tight & Huges, 2010).

It is common to distinguish between quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Thagaard, 2009). These are two different approaches to research design, research methods and the empirical data produced. Quantitative research approaches are applied when phenomena are to be measured and focus on variables relatively independent of the social context. Associated with quantitative research would typically be large-scale surveys, quantified empirical data, and data are usually analysed using statistical methods (Thagaard, 2009). Qualitative research approaches are best suited when the phenomenon under study is not easily measured or not well defined. Hence the phenomenon must be explored and interpreted in the context in which it takes place. Qualitative studies commonly involve a small number of research subjects, and in-depth studies that are close to the data and focus on meaning (Thagaard, 2009).

5.2 Research design

This study aims to explore students' understandings of outdoor leadership, including their experiences in developing and transitioning into a leadership role. In addition, this

study aims to explore how the pedagogical process of self-directed learning influences the students' learning in this aspect. In the context of higher education, limited research effort has been directed at these topics, and a qualitative approach seems most suitable to explore and develop more knowledge of the phenomena (Thagaard, 2009).

The overall research design for this study is formal semi-structured interviews and simple document analysis. This approach focuses on the experiences of the interviewees and their views on own learning and development. I have used a retrospective approach (Repstad, 2007) where I ask interviewees to recall their previous experiences of outdoor leadership and learning. I use an interpretative and hermenautic approach in the analysis. The starting point in a hermenautic approach is that a phenomenon can be interpreted in different ways, and there is not only one 'truth' (Thagaard, 2009). According to Thagaard (2009), the meaning of a phenomenon should be interpreted, explained and understood related to the context in which it appears. In a hermeneutic approach, the whole can be understood from the different parts and the parts from the whole (Thagaard, 2009).

5.3 *Researcher's pre-understanding*

The term 'pre-understanding' or 'prejudice' is described by Gadamer (as cited in Gilje & Grimen, 1995). It is understood as the researcher's presumptions, biases, expectations or prejudices of a field or dicipline. It constitutes the starting point or pre-requisite for our understanding of a field. Gilje & Grimen (1995) states that the pre-understanding can be viewed as, for example, language, terms, beleifs and personal experiences. This pre-understanding is not a constant, but can change according to new experiences. As a researcher, I approach the research field based on my understandings, biases, experiences and knowledge. This pre-understanding is what I bring into the research process and in the interpretations of data. It has been vital for me to become aware of my own pre-understandings and how these have influenced the project, and when I found it necessary, I have included reflections of these aspects in writing this thesis. This is according to Kvale & Brinkmann's (2009) notion of reflexive objectivity, understood as reflecting on the one's own contribution to the production of knowledge.

One of the first reflections I made regarding this issue was the relevance and influence of my own background, previous work and study experience. This project emerged

from my interest in friluftsliv, leadership in the outdoors and learning. My previous experience includes education in engineering, leadership in a business context, being an adult student in friluftsliv, Arctic nature nature guiding at Svalbard and teaching friluftsliv as NSSS. I have experienced and observed the similarities and differences in learning and developing leadership in these different contexts. This background serves as a basis and bias for my understandings and interpretations. I see my knowledge and familiarity of the context as both a disadvantage and an advantage in this research project. It can be a disadvantage if I lose the ‘academic distance’ that is seen to be necessary for doing research (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Repstad, 2007). It also has the potential to lead to evaluations instead of precise descriptions and interpretation of the data and to lead me to take more of the situations and contexts for granted and not question them (Repstad, 2007). On the other hand, knowledge of the field of research is considered important for the research process and for being able to recognize, understand and interpret the data, (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Repstad, 2007), and for access to the participants for this research.

5.4 Formal semi-structured qualitative interview

One of the methods available for collecting data in a qualitative research design is the formal semi-structured interview (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). A semi-structured interview is a dialog that aims to collect descriptions from the perspective of the interviewees with the intention of later interpreting the meaning of their descriptions and experiences. It is characterized by being an open dialog with the opportunity to follow up on interviewee’s stories and answers. It is not based on a long series of predefined questions, but can be organized using an interview guideline with topics and possible follow-up questions (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The interviews I carried out followed this description. The interviews were semi-structured in the sense that I used an interview guide that contained the three major research questions to be explored, and keywords indicating possible follow-up questions to ask related to the topics discussed. Appendix 3 is a copy of the interview guidelines.

According to Kvale & Brinkmann (2009), a number of five to twenty-five interviewees are common in studies based on interviews. This number of interviewees may be due to a combination of time and resources available for the study (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Another reason for this number of interviewees is that increasing the numbers of

interviewees will, after a certain level, not produce any new knowledge on the topic (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). To collect data for this study the approach was to use formal semi-structured interviews with five to six students. Given the timeframe and limitations of this study, five to six interviewees from a class of twenty-three was considered to be a sufficient number of interviewees to expose the variety of views the students might have.

Three of the interviews were conducted as face-to-face interviews held at a conferencing room at NSSS. The length of the interviews varied from 1,5 to 2 hours in total. Two interviews were done by Skype, an Internet video-conferencing tool. To ensure the sound was recorded in good quality and to avoid any issues due to equipment failure during the interview, all of the interviews were recorded on a double set of digital media, a digital dictation machine and a cell-phone. In one of the Skype-interviews, we had some technical issues, and lost the videolink from the interviewee. We still had videolink to the interviewee and conducted the interview, as we regarded this issue as having minor consequences for the communication at the time. When transcribing and analysing the interview, I noticed that this did not have any impact on the quality of the interview.

In preparing for and conducting the interviews, I regarded my pre-understanding and relation to the students to be both an advantage and a disadvantage. Kvale & Brinkmann (2009) state that the quality of the data produced in an interview is dependent on the interviewer's skills and knowledge of a field in addition to a certain amount of trust between the researcher and the interviewee. I experienced the interviewees as being open, honest and interested in sharing their thoughts and experiences on the topics we discussed. Due to my familiarity with the field and the students, I sometimes asked if they could describe their experiences 'as if I was a stranger'. In some cases this led to more detailed and deeper descriptions and reflections from the interviewee.

5.5 Process of selecting interviewees

Considering the delimitations, timeframe and practical considerations, the most relevant students to invite to participate in this study were those students who had finished the FLD2 study program in the spring of 2013. During the study year 2012-13, I acted in the role as teacher for these students. That included teaching at different excursions and

providing feedback on some of the students' written assignments during the study year. Having this role had provided me with a pre-understanding in the form of insight and knowledge of the study program and relations to the students. One important issue in this study was how to approach the former students to request their participation in the project. The main concern was related to ethical issues due to my former role as teacher and to avoid any bias in choosing interviewees for the study. The selected approach was to invite all of the students to participate, and based on accepted invitations choose five-six students as participants for an interview. In addition, the invitation was sent from a neutral NSSS mail address on recommendation from Norsk Samfunnsvitenskapelige Datateneste (NSD). Appendix 4 shows the approval from NSD and their comments regarding this particular point.

5.6 Document analysis

Analyses of existing and available documents are often used as a supplement in qualitative research (Thagaard, 2009). To plan and prepare for the interviews, I examined the documents of the interviewee's personal education plans (EUP) and reflective journals from their time as students at the FLD study program. This simple document analysis was done by assessing the documents and marking out situations when students had a leadership role or reflected upon issues of leadership or self-directed learning related to leadership. The purpose of this was to be prepared to remind the interviewees of situations that could be relevant as examples to discuss during the interview.

5.7 Retrospective reflection

The interviews for this study were designed to bring out what a person felt, experienced and meant at a particular point in the past and in a particular context. Due to this retrospective perspective, there are methodical issues to be aware of. Repstad (2007) points to the fact that a person recalls the past using a more recently developed filter of terms and ways of thinking. This may lead to a person using different terms and arguments than they would have done when the experience or event actually took place. At the time of the interviews, the students had finished their studies four months earlier, and the study program itself is a two-year program. This timeframe could, according to Repstad (2007), effect the memory and "disturb the authentic picture of atmosphere and experiences from the past" (p. 95). In order to adjust for some of these effects it is

important to ask questions such as ‘do you remember your thinking of this at the time of the experience’ (Repstad, 2007). During the interviews, it was important to discuss the interviewees past experiences in leadership and SDL, and I asked a lot of different ‘do you remember...’ and ‘how did you think...’ questions to account for this issue. In addition people tend to remember better what they were thinking and feeling when things are important and linked to concrete experiences and events (Repstad, 2007). During the interviews, it was also my strategy to discuss concrete situations that related to the research problem and questions. As noted above, document analysis was a part of the preparation to provide information to interviewees if they had difficulties in recalling episodes. During the interviews, I used the prepared reminders only twice to jog the interviewees’ memory of a particular situation of interest.

5.8 Ethical considerations

Throughout the whole project, the researcher needs to be aware and conscious of any ethical considerations (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The project has been conducted according to the approval and guidelines from NSD (Appendix 4). Informed consent, confidentiality and consequences are three ethical considerations of a research project (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Informed consent is about the participants getting necessary information about the project in the invitation to participate, and when they agree to volunteer to participate (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). When I sent out the invitation to participate, the letter of invitation contained information about the study, the purpose and how interviewees would be selected. As previously described, I made an invitation to the students to participate in the project. Appendix 1 is a copy of the invitation letter. I received six positive replies from the students and these six were requested to participate. Five were available and were interviewed for this study. At the beginning of each interview, I asked the interviewees to sign the agreement of consent. For the Skype interviewees, this signing was done by e-mail confirmation. Appendix 2 is a copy of the agreement of consent. I also underlined that participating in this study would have no consequences for the interviewees in any present or future engagements at NSSS.

Confidentiality concerns the interviewees’ right to not be identified as participants in the study and that all data about the person including transcripts and recordings are kept confidential (Thaagard, 2009). My supervisor has had access to limited parts of the

transcriptions. I am the only person with full access to the data, the data has been stored on a password-protected computer, and all data will be deleted upon completion of the project. One important aspect of confidentiality includes the interviewees' right to anonymity (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). I do not use the interviewees' names, but have assigned a number (I1-I5) to each. In this study, the interviewees are all from the same group of students. This represents a challenge in keeping the interviewees anonymous within this particular group of students. This issue is explained in the invitation letter and was also underlined at the beginning of each interview. Due to anonymity considerations, some information the interviewees provided about other people has been left out by request from the interviewees during the interview, or by my own judgement at later stages in the analysis process.

Consequences arising from participating in a research project relate to the possible harms and benefits related to participants (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In my judgement, there were no consequences identified beside the potential of not being able to stay completely anonymous.

5.9 *Analysing process*

According to Kvale & Brinkmann (2009), the data analysis and interpretation is a process that begins already when the interviewee describes and talks about the topic in question. During the interview the researcher also makes some interpretations in reframing and confirming interviewee's statements (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), something that I experienced in the interviews. I found this useful in trying to understand and confirm the interviewees' meanings, but it may also have led to the interviewees using different words and description of their thinking and expression of their experiences. The process continues throughout the interview in the dialogue and discussion in the sense that the interviewee may 'discover' something about the topic and their perceptions and understandings of it.

The interviews were recorded to digital media and transcribed into text to make it accessible for more structured analyses. In the transcriptions, I indicated humor and pauses for thinking, and I included all words and sounds as they appeared during the interview. Where these extra words and sounds did not provide any additional meaning or understanding of the data, they were removed from the quotes when discussing the

findings of the study. The interviews were conducted in Norwegian language and transcribed using Norwegian standard language [bokmål]. Using Norwegian standard language avoids identification of interviewees due to dialectic language and phrases.

During the analyses of the data, I translated the necessary parts of the transcriptions from Norwegian into English text. It has been my objective to keep the interviewees' qualities, meanings and nuances in their responses and statements. I have done the translations myself, and it was of importance to translate the quotes in a way that reflected the (intended) meanings and understandings as expressed by the interviewees. Still, there is a risk that meaning is lost in translation. The limitation of my ability to interpret and translate Norwegian statements including Norwegian language metaphors into English, is a factor that affects the quality of the analysis and presentation of the findings. To partially address this issue, where I have used direct quotes, the original quotes in Norwegian language are added in Appendix 5 for reference.

The main analysis of the data was done using a process that Kvale & Brinkmann (2009) call coding and categorizing. In the following description, it appears as a step-by-step process, but in reality it is more overlapping and requires interacting activities to grasp the content and meaning in the data collected. Meaning condensation (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) is an important part in this process; this is expressing central units of meaning of the data in a more simple way. The coding process was done by reading the transcriptions and associating different keywords to statements, paragraphs and units of meaning in the text. When re-reading and fine tuning the keywords, I eventually had a set of different keywords that represented the content in the data. The categorization was done by first collecting the different keywords related to each of the main research questions. These keywords were then grouped into categories or sub-themes by identifying patterns and similarities in the codes. Then the associated statements, paragraphs and units of meaning were gathered to represent the data related to each category. The codes and categories were not predefined, but emerged from the whole process of interviewing, transcribing, reading and interpreting the data. These topics have then been further analysed, compared with the literature and discussed.

5.10 Limitations

In all research there is a question of reliability and validity (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In a qualitative research project, Kvale & Brinkmann (2009) see reliability as a question of if the research process is credible. One way to argue for the reliability is to make the research process transparent. That is to account for the researcher's position and pre-understanding and how the data has been developed during the process of interviewing, transcribing and analysing (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Interpretations of the data is informed by my understanding, and someone else might interpret the data in a different way. Validity in a qualitative project is associated with whether the method applied is appropriate for the intended study (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In this section, I have accounted in detail for the background and rationale for the choice of method, my pre-understanding and how the data has been collected, transcribed and analysed.

Another aspect of validity in a qualitative study is whether the results are only valid in the context of this study or if they may be relevant in other contexts as well (Thagaard, 2009). This study is a small-scale study with limited data, and the findings should not be seen as representative of FLD students, or new outdoor leaders generally. It is, however, possible to view the findings as indications and possible interpretations of the phenomena investigated. Parts of the findings may have relevance in different contexts of higher education, friluftsliv and learning.

In this study, I have included findings and understandings from different Master's theses in my arguments. As is common for any Masters thesis, these are relatively small-scale studies done by inexperienced researchers. Considering the topics explored in this study seem to be under-researched, particularly related to a Norwegian context, the Master's theses have been included.

Little prior research effort has been directed to the topics, and a broad theoretical framework was considered appropriate for this study. A broad number of theories from the body of literature of friluftsliv, leadership and learning are applied to explore the topics of this study. This could limit alternative analyses and understandings.

In this study, I chose to use interviews and a simple document analysis as described in section 5. Including a thorough analysis of the interviewees EUPs and reflective journals would have provided additional data to explore the research problem, but this was beyond the scope and timeframe of this study.

6. Findings and discussion

The main purpose of this study is to explore students' learning, experience and understandings of outdoor leadership. The research questions guiding the investigation are as follows:

1. How do the students understand leadership in friluftsliv?
2. How do the students experience the transition into leadership?
3. How do the students experience learning leadership using self-directed learning approaches?

The previous sections have discussed theoretical aspects of friluftsliv, leadership and learning, and the objective of this section is to present and discuss the findings of this study in relation to the theoretical framework. It starts out with brief information about the interviewees. The next sections are structured in accordance with each of the three research questions.

6.1 Interviewees

Due to confidentiality considerations (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) detailed information about the informants is not included. The five interviewees, three women and two men, participating in this study have different backgrounds and experience from higher education on entry to the FLD program. Some had previous experience as outdoor leaders, others had limited or no previous outdoor leadership experience.

In this section the notation of (I#)ⁿ is used. 'I#' represents the different interviewees and 'n' refers to the original Norwegian quotes available in Appendix 5.

6.2 How do the students understand leadership in Friluftsliv?

This research question sought to explore the students' perceptions and understandings of leadership in friluftsliv. The interviewees discussed their perceptions of good (and not so good) outdoor leadership, the most important leadership tasks and concerns and their experiences with themselves or others in the leader-role. During the analysis, major aspects of the leadership role were identified and these are interpreted and discussed in this section.

6.2.1 Complexity of leadership

The complexity and the many diverse skills required of the outdoor leader, is clearly emphasized in the body of literature (e.g. Faarlund, 1973; Graham, 1997; Martin et al., 2006; Priest & Gass, 2005; Smith, 2011; Tordsson, 2005). When discussing the main tasks and most important aspects of leadership in the outdoors, the perception of complexity of being an outdoor leader is apparent in the findings, and consistent with the literature. The participants all have different goals and levels of ambitions in their own leadership, and the context of their outdoor leadership differs. This could be seen as illustrating some of the broadness in the profession of outdoor leadership, and is representative for FLD program objectives when it comes to addressing different contexts of outdoor leadership (NSSS, 2014a). Regardless of these differences in interviewees' goals and leadership contexts, the analysis of the data reveals that interviewees perceive the leader's relational skills, practicing flexibility in the leadership role, and the leader's previous experience as the most significant qualities of leadership.

6.2.2 Relational skills (soft skills)

There is an agreement among the interviewees that the ability to interact with people and to create good relations with the group of participants are significant skills for the outdoor leader: "You have to be a nice person, be able to talk to people, that is the first ground-rule. If you can't talk to people, you can't be a leader! If you can't relate to people and be nice, but just act cranky and walk around..." (I1)¹. In this aspect lies relational skills, pedagogical thinking, generosity, open mindedness, inclusiveness, being interested and positive, being respectful and caring for people. These characteristics and descriptions appear to be common perceptions and understandings among all the participants. These qualities are emphasized in several of the discussions throughout the interviews. The interviewees see these qualities as important for the leader interacting with each individual as well as for the whole group of participants. This understanding seems to stem from the interviewees experiences of acting in the leader-role themselves, and from being a participant.

The interviewees' understandings of relational skills can be related to Graham's (1997) descriptions of caring leadership, Tordsson's (2005) notion of "personal, democratic leadership" (p. 110) or soft skills as described by Priest & Gass (2005). Graham (1997)

argues that being friendly and accessible are valuable leadership traits, and good leaders believe in people and inspire them. He sees each trip as an opportunity to learn and grow and good relations as the key to create and develop these opportunities. The interviewees see the leader's interpersonal work and skills as a part of the leader's responsibility as well as a qualification for inducing and maintaining the participants feeling of being confident, safe and secure in the outdoors. Interviewee 2 illustrates this by stating: "There may be many things that make it important that the outdoor leader sees you and provides you (as a participant) the confidence to approach the leader and ask about things" (I2)². This aspect of creating a climate of trust and confidence within the group is, according to Tordsson (2005), an important task in 'democratic, personal leadership', and it is the supervisor's responsibility to develop the participants' courage and confidence. The importance of relational and interpersonal skills for the outdoor leader is similar to the findings of Souminen (2013). Souminen (2013) investigated perceptions of outdoor leadership of first and third year bachelor students, and the emphasis of soft skills as an important leadership quality are apparent in her study as well.

The Norwegian traditional *conwaying* (Faarlund, 1973) and supervision (Tordsson, 2005) place emphasis on the leader's responsibility to promote nature's intrinsic value and environmental thinking. In Faarlund's (1973) *conwaying*, this is the main task of the *conwayor*. This particular aspect of leadership is less prominent in the data, and only briefly mentioned by one of the interviewees. This finding is similar to Souminen (2013) who identified only limited relations between environmental awareness and perceptions of friluftsliv in her study. The intrinsic and instrumental values and overall purpose of friluftsliv related to the leader's role were pointed out by one of the interviewees as "...it is about bringing people into nature, right, but it is so much more than that..." (I3)³. This interviewee relates this not only to facilitating for nature experiences, but also includes social values, participants learning, mastery and positive first-time experiences (Høyem & Augestad, 2008). The interviewee sees this as a part of the motivation for doing outdoor leadership, bringing people into nature and facilitating the different experiences that the interviewee enjoys and wants to share. Considering the relation to nature and environmental aspects and intrinsic values of friluftsliv is regarded as vital and the core of the Norwegian friluftsliv tradition, indications of the outdoor leaders responsibility in this aspect were quite absent in the data. One possible

explanation for this could be that the motivations for people engaging in outdoor leadership today may be slightly different to what was dominant in the 1970s. When the philosophy and method of *conwaying* and supervision in friluftsliv were founded, the environmental movement was strong, and there was a belief that friluftsliv was the way to educate people to a new lifestyle and a green society (Gurholt, 2008). Friluftsliv was seen as a way to engage people in environmental thinking, bring forward close relationships to nature and create friends of nature (Faarlund, 1973) and it was the outdoor leader's responsibility to bring forward these values and beliefs to the participants. Friluftsliv today has developed into a broad range of different activities, meanings and understandings. In the perspective of friluftsliv regarded as a relational and dynamic phenomenon (Pedersen, 1999), friluftsliv is developing along with cultural and societal changes (Tordsson, 2003). Perhaps a broader understanding of what is considered important in outdoor leadership is developing as well and this is reflected in the participants' perceptions.

Another interpretation of this lack of environmental focus in the data could be that this aspect is so obvious for the interviewees that it did not come up in the discussions. Are the environmental aspects so embedded in the Norwegian friluftsliv culture that this is the reason for it not being explicitly mentioned as an outdoor leader responsibility? According to Odde (2008), discussions concerning friluftsliv, regardless of having a radical or a more moderate approach, include environmental friendly attitudes. Experiences with nature and relations to nature are often considered to be implicit in understandings of Norwegian friluftsliv (St.mld. nr. 39 (2000-2001); Tordsson, 2005), and often this includes having environmental friendly attitudes as well.

6.2.3 A broad understanding of required leadership skills

In the body of outdoor literature, different competencies of an outdoor leader are commonly described in terms of hard skills (technical skills), and soft skills (relational skills) (e.g. Priest & Gass, 2005; Martin et al., 2006). A third category called operational or metaskills is used to describe the skills required to execute the hard and soft skills properly (Shooter et al., 2009). As discussed above, the findings showed that the soft skills of an outdoor leader are a vital factor of leadership. In addition to the importance of relational skills, the interviewees consider the competence in different hard skills required for the specific outdoor context or activity in the outdoors as

important. Relational skills and hard skills are regarded as interrelated and co-existing and the leaders' abilities to integrate the different skills are vital for the participants' experiences:

... the confidence is important and it requires that you have outdoor skills, such as all the skills you need to cope in the outdoors...travel, weather and wind and food and all that it takes. In addition, I think that it is extremely important for the outdoor leader to be very aware and open, and not too controlling. That means controlling, but in a very diplomatic way where people feel like they are being taken care of... (I2)⁴.

The findings also show that the technical skills and experience of the leader are seen as a requirement for being able to focus on the participants' and group's experiences. The leader should not use too much energy on basic elements of being outdoors. The different skills need to be integrated and a part of the leaders professional competence, "...you need to know what to do, you need to have the gear ready in your backpack, no matter what situation that may occur, you'll have to handle it" (I1)⁵. On the other hand this is not to be seen as if the leader has to be an expert of everything, but it has to do with being able to make the participants in the group work together: "It will always be people that in a way are more competent, and as a leader it is not about who knows the most, but to be the one that makes the group work at its best" (I5)⁶.

In addition, the interviewees see the technical skills combined with relational skills as important to make the participants feel confident that the leader can handle any hazard or risky situation that may occur. As a contrast, one interviewee expresses that a mainly dominant and authoritarian leader may be regarded as technically skilled, but not able to induce a positive climate among the participants or act as a facilitator of positive experiences and mastery in the outdoors.

In these findings both the complexity and a broad understanding of required leadership experience, skills and attributes is apparent. Tordsson (2005) states that an outdoor leader should *know* something. In this *knowing*, he claims that leadership is contextual and situational and competencies in the particular subject areas are significant. The leader needs to develop different skills in order to interpret the situations at hand.

According to Tordsson (2005), faced with the situation the leader should be able to extract and bring forth actions and decisions based on knowledge of previous patterns and the leader's experience. The leader should then be able to act intuitively and directly to the situation (Martin et al., 2006; Tordsson, 2005). This intuitive or NDM process (Shooter & Furman, 2011) is one of the characteristics of an 'expert' (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1999) outdoor leader, and depends on experience and practice in the field.

In criticizing the hard/soft metaphor, Seaman & Coppens (2006) argue that the concept 'repertoire of practice' may be used to understand how the broad range of skills required of an outdoor leader connect to each other holistically. In the findings, the interviewees see the combination of different skills, and the ability to use the skills to enhance the group's experience and learning as significant. Building on Wenger's (2004) theory of community of practice, Seaman & Coppens '(2006) 'repertoire of practice' may serve as useful perspective in understanding the holistic dynamics of skills required of an outdoor leader. More research is required to investigate this further.

6.2.4 Flexibility and JDM in leadership

Flexibility in leadership is an important aspect in several of the previously discussed leadership theories. The ability to be flexible concerning situations, group dynamics, weather conditions and other contextual factors is seen as a significant part of outdoor leadership (e.g. Faarlund, 1973; Martin et al., 2006; Priest & Gass, 2006; Tordsson, 2005). The interviewees' overall perception of the need to be flexible as an outdoor leader is apparent in the findings. The findings show that particularly previous experience, overall outdoor competence, and the leader's confidence are regarded as important aspects that influence the leader's ability to act flexibly. These capabilities are associated with a flexible leadership style and appropriate leadership behavior in different situations and contexts. Previous experience and competence are linked with the leader's ability to recognize patterns of what is going on, and the ability to adjust leadership style and behavior to match the situation.

The data reveals many factors and concerns the interviewees see as influential to how an outdoor leader needs to interact and work with the individuals, the group and a changing context. Priest & Gass' (2005) conditional outdoor leadership theory (COLT) provides a relevant concept for understanding the different factors affecting flexibility in

leadership, and the findings will be compared with the COLT model. Appendix 6 shows this model.

The COLT model describes how leadership flexibility is influenced by the leader's orientation towards relations or tasks (contingency) and how the expressed leadership style (autocratic, democratic or abdicratic) is dependent on this orientation (Priest & Gass, 2005). The COLT model proposes that the most influential factors in how you express your leadership flexibility are the favourability of the conditions in which you find yourself. Conditional favorability is based on five factors. The first factor is *environmental dangers* (Priest & Gass, 2005) such as weather, hazards and risks. These are identified by the respondents as conditions that influence the leadership style, and a factor that can change the style from an abdicratic and laissez-faire style to a more autocratic and dominant style (Priest & Gass, 2005). The more experienced interviewees see this as particularly important if there is a hazard or risky situation. The leader can delegate and let the participants have a large amount of freedom, "...but, of course, you have to engage if it gets dangerous" (I1)⁷.

Other conditional factors in the COLT model are *group unity* and *individuals* (Priest & Gass, 2005). These factors relates to, for example, group dynamics and relations, and the skill-level of the participants. Flexibility in leadership and facilitator style are discussed by the interviewees related to the context and different group settings, and the how the leader must be aware of the need to change the style accordingly. As an example, two interviewees reflected on the difference in leading children versus experienced adult participants. The context where children are participants was perceived as different and a bit easier than to have adult participants because: "If you make a mistake, you can just talk yourself out of it" (I5)⁸ and "They listen to you, right. You are the only adult they relate to" (I4)⁹. Another example is how one interviewee sees the leader's flexibility come into play when shifting from teaching the very skilled participant, to a disabled participant. In this case, the interviewee needs to change the style and methods to match very different skill-levels.

One interviewee reflects on how a certain leadership style can be perceived by the participants as being too democratic in the sense that the leader includes all participants in discussions to make decisions. The interviewee thinks the more democratic style may

be perceived by the participants as being a bit lazy because the leader is then not seen as the one that is taking charge and deciding what to do, but instead invites discussion to have a consensus decision. On one hand, the interviewee sees this as not 'proper' leadership, because the leader does not really make the decision. On the other hand the interviewee reflects on leadership style as something that is changing according to situation, especially with regards to hazard or risky situations as discussed above, in which there is not always time available for a democratic decision. One interpretation of this is that the interviewee can see the complexity and the need for flexibility in the leadership role, but does not express this in a consistent way.

The last two conditional factors in the COLT model concern *decision consequences* and *leader proficiency* (Priest & Gass, 2005). Decision consequences are associated with how clear the problem is, how much time is available and degree of uncertainty (Priest & Gass, 2005). In the data, such detailed understanding of consequences of decisions were not discussed. Leader proficiency means credibility, judgement, fatigue and perceived capability. The findings showed that the leader's previous experience, overall competence and confidence are emphasized by the interviewees as influential factors in their understanding of leadership and how flexible leadership can come about. Related to flexibility in leadership is the ability to use sound judgement and make sound decisions in the outdoors. The interviewees discussed judgement and decision making related to the leader's self-confidence and experience, and that it is important to think that you can lead:

... you have to be confident that you are a person that can actually be a leader. Several people don't think like that. And there are a lot of people that think that a lot of other people have more competencies and skills than I have, so therefore I can't make a decision. (I5)¹⁰

The leader's need to be confident is also illustrated by interviewee 4: "... you can't really consider what the others may think of you all the time, like I sometimes do: 'God, what I said last night, did they perceive it the right way?'. You have to trust yourself!" (I4)¹¹.

The findings show that the leader's self-confidence is important, and as interviewee 3 states: "I think it is important to be aware of no matter how clever and skillful you are and no matter what you do, there will always be people that don't like what you do, they don't like your style, they don't like you as a person, and that is quite OK" (I5)¹².

Gaining field experience, and practicing decision making is perceived by the respondents as something that strengthens their confidence in judgement and decision making: "It is related to experience. If I have done this several times, I'm confident in what I'm doing, but it is the first time..." (I3)¹³. Knowledge from previous experiences, contexts and situations where the leader had to make judgements and decisions is also discussed in relation to the leader's proficiency and capabilities, and knowledge of how you act in stressful situations. "...if I'm tired, hungry or whatever, I have to be extra careful in my considerations and thinking, to make sure I make the right decision, otherwise it may get very wrong" (I5)¹⁴.

6.2.5 Planning and preparation

The findings show that the leader's need for being prepared before a trip or an activity is perceived as a prerequisite for both the leader's confidence and safety for the participants. This understanding is consistent with the literature (e.g. Graham, 1997; Martin et al., 2006; Priest & Gass, 2005), but less salient in the data compared with the understanding of relational skills and flexibility as discussed above.

The findings indicate that the interviewees see planning and preparation both as being part of professional leadership, and as important for the participant's perception of safety and for having positive experience; "As a leader you have to prepare yourself" (I1)¹⁵. "You'll have to know the area" (I3)¹⁶ as well as the route.

Knowing about the participants' expectations as well as their skills is also seen as a part of the leader's preparation. This is discussed as being important both for becoming aware of some issues that may occur along the way, and for knowing if there are any particular resources available in the group so "if an accident suddenly happens, maybe he or she could be a resource for the group. And you may also become aware of the 'weakest link' that you may have to be a bit extra aware of" (I3)¹⁷.

6.2.6 Self-awareness and role-awareness

The aspect of self-awareness and role-awareness is a topic in the broad leadership theory, but relatively silent in the outdoor leadership body of literature (Thomas, 2011). In Graham's (1997) concept of caring leadership, he sees self-awareness and role awareness as vital qualities of leadership. He claims that you should see yourself as a leader and accept your role. Another important aspect in Graham's (1997) theory is to have an awareness of your motivation for taking on a leadership role. In the data, the leader's awareness of their own role is discussed in relation to motivation for leadership, being a role model and co-leadership. These aspects were less salient in the data compared with the leader's understanding of relational skills and flexibility as discussed above, but apparent in a few of the interviewees' stories.

The previously discussed flexibility and dealing with various situations can be a motivational factor for engaging in outdoor leadership. The different challenges and dealing with the unexpected (Graham, 1997) can be seen as a part of the motivation to lead. Interviewee 1 reflects on this aspect of motivation. When something unforeseen happens and the interviewee has to deal with it, "...it is a bit of hell when you're in it, but it is what really triggers you, because it is a bit fun as well!" (I1)¹⁸.

Another issue related to motivation for leadership was discussed by interviewee 3. On reflecting upon why people lead, a story came up of an expedition-like trip where the leader was perceived by the participants as doing the expedition exclusively for his own enjoyment and experience. The interviewee states that the leader should be aware of the role and understand that in being a leader you "...are not doing the trip for your own pleasure" (I3)¹⁹, but for the people participating.

For interviewee 1, the awareness of the role also stretches outside the particular setting, trip or activity you do as an outdoor leader, and interviewee 1 states "...people have to understand that they are in a different position when they are leaders"²⁰ and "...that people are also watching you outside the 'classroom'" (I1)²¹.

In reflecting on another aspect of being a role model, interviewee 1 thinks that the leader should be an equal participant in the group, and endure the same 'struggles' as the followers. As a contrast to being an equal member of the group, this interviewee

also reflects on leadership as being a bit lonely because you are the one with all the responsibility:

You become a bit of a lone wolf so to speak, I would say that is quite often the case actually, even if you are working with a lot of people. You're still not in that group, actually. A bit outside the group. (I1)²²

According to Graham (1997), "you should appreciate that leading can be lonely" (p. 18), and that you sometimes must make decisions that may disappoint or anger others. Your own confidence as leader will affect how you do this (Graham, 1997), and as a means for developing your abilities and confidence, Graham (1997) suggests that you get feedback from other leaders as well as your participants. In continuing the discussion of motivation and loneliness of leadership, interviewee 1 states that sharing the responsibility with one or more co-leaders is viewed as a positive experience, both for the social reasons, sharing the responsibility, and for discussing and developing their own competencies and skills. Then the leaders "...can be lonely together" (I1)²³, they can exchange experiences and take advantage of each other's strengths and capabilities.

On the other hand, if the co-leaders are not aligned in how and what to do, co-leadership may be a burden and lead into a power-fight:

I notice that that is very important in leadership, that you are on the same page, because, it could be that you run into two leaders and that one wants to assume a more dominant role, even if you are two. Then one will be overrun by the other. (I3)²⁴

6.2.7 Reflections – understandings of leadership in friluftsliv

This research question sought to explore the students' perceptions and understanding of leadership in friluftsliv. The interviewees' overall understandings of outdoor leadership can be described using two terms: *Broadness* and *complexity*. Broadness refers to experience, skills, tasks and required qualities of the outdoor leader. Complexity is related to all the factors, different contexts and concerns to be taken into account when being responsible for a group of people in the outdoors. It becomes complex when all these things have to be considered together. Particularly emphasized in the findings are

the interviewees' understanding of the influence of the leader's relational skills and the leader's need to be flexible in their leadership. The findings also show little emphasis on the aspect of the outdoor leader promoting nature's intrinsic values and environmental thinking.

The differences in outdoor leadership context and the previous experience of the interviewees are factors that influence their different understandings. Some of the interviewees could relate this to years of their own experience in the leadership role, and what, according to their experience, had proven to be important in outdoor leadership. Other interviewees discussed this topic and expressed the different outdoor leadership skills and qualities as something they could be aiming for in their future outdoor leadership. One interesting analysis could be to compare and contrast more clearly the data from experienced and less experienced interviewees, however, due to confidentiality issues I did not directly compare experienced and less experienced interviewees as this would have made it difficult to keep the interviewees anonymous. In addition, the number of interviewees in this study are too few to allow meaningful analysis on this particular point.

To further explore students' learning, experience and understandings of outdoor leadership, the second research focuses on the transition into leadership.

6.3 *How do the students experience the transition into leadership?*

The second research question in this study aimed to explore how the interviewees experienced the transition into leadership or becoming a leader. In the theoretical framework, transition into leadership was discussed using Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale's (2005) theories of first-time leadership. In this section, the findings are presented and discussed with reference to Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale's (2005) theories. The interviewees discussed the topic of becoming a leader from different perspectives relative to their level of experience in the leader-role and from observations from both the study context and outside the study context.

6.3.1 Learning what it means to be a leader

Gaining experience is significant for developing skills and proficiency, and in learning leadership. Hill (2003) states that becoming a leader is largely a process of learning from experience. The theory of first-time leadership (Hill, 2003; Haaland & Dale, 2005) points to four major transformational tasks for the new leader. The first is *learning what it means to be a leader*. According to Hill (2003), new leaders often have to act in the leader role before they fully understand the expectations, the tasks, and how to deal with the multiple sides of the new role.

The findings show that becoming a leader is closely linked to gaining outdoor field-experience and knowledge. The interviewees all agree that experience is the foundation for developing good leadership and to be able to feel comfortable and confident in being responsible for people in the outdoors.

...the more experience you get, the better you become, and it is allowed to fail, that is, nobody's perfect, even a good leader can fail, it is about making the best decisions, the best decision considering the situation you're in. (I3)²⁵

The previous section showed that the understanding of the leadership role in the outdoors can be described as broad and complex. To understand and learn to deal with the multiple sides of this role is one of the challenges for the new leader. One interviewee recalls a trip outside the study-context where the interviewee encountered several different leadership challenges due to illness among the participants, the weather conditions, and difference in opinion in the group. Despite the challenges, the group reached their destination. The interviewee got a lot of positive feedback from the participants, and a sense of mastery having managed all the different issues on this trip.

The findings indicate that in becoming an outdoor leader, some interviewees think it is significant to have *positive* first-time experiences (Høyem & Augestad, 2008, 2011, 2012) in the role as leader, know what is expected of you, get support and train for leadership. This is not always the case, and as interviewee 5 states when discussing development of young leaders, there is a risk that "young people are being put into a leader position they are not able to handle, so instead of having a feeling of mastery, you have feeling of being a total failure" (I5)²⁶. The training of leadership is vital and

the interviewee states that in an educational context of leadership in friluftsliv it is "...extremely important that people actually train and try out leadership when you are outside!" (I5)²⁷. The interviewee further states that you have to learn to trust yourself, and maybe even be pushed a little in the training situation to make your own decisions and not always ask someone who maybe know this better than you.

Reflecting on their own first-time leadership experiences, interviewee 5 recalls a situation in an outside study context where a difficult decision had to be made. The interviewee was hesitating and not able to do this, and this was criticized by the superior leader during the evaluation of this incident. This experience made the interviewee reflect on situations where the new leader may have to 'pretend' to be in control, just to buy some time and to avoid a stressful or delicate situation in the group and to avoid that the participants lose confidence and trust in a leader: "...in a serious situation and where people are looking at the leader ... in a way you have to put up an appearance, or a mask, that says that you are calm and know what to do to get the group out of a bad situation" (I5)²⁸. The interviewee further reflected that maybe this is some kind of 'false trust' in the leader. Still, if something happens on a trip, the interviewee tries to act calm, give the impression of having control and then has time to come up with a solution. This is, of course, dependent on the situation and the group for which the interviewee is responsible.

Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale (2005) state that in becoming a leader, the expectations faced are both outspoken and implicit. One of the expectations is to be responsible for judgement and decision making processes. Judgement and decision making skills are regarded as an essential element in outdoor leadership (Graham, 1997; Martin et al., 2006; Priest & Gass, 2005). When the new leader is faced with a difficult situation, the leader is expected to come up with a decision, particularly if the situation is hazardous. According to Shooter & Furman (2011), the novice leader relies on a linear, deliberative decision process while the expert leader uses an automated process (NDM). These are similar to the characteristics of novice and expert in Dreyfus & Dreyfus' (1999) stage model. The findings above may suggest that the new leader does not have the discretionary or intuitive skills of an expert and therefore needs more time to attend to all the variables (Martin et al. 2009) involved in the decision process, but have to buy that time without losing credibility or confidence as a leader.

6.3.2 Developing interpersonal judgement

In the theory of first-time leadership, the second transformation task for the new leader is *developing interpersonal judgement* (Hill, 2003; Haaland & Dale, 2005). This includes building relationships and exercising authority as a leader.

The findings show that some of the initial leadership tasks in the context of the study are planning and organizing smaller groups, deciding routes, pace and location of campsites. The role of being in charge when the group of participants is your fellow students is perceived by some of the interviewees as awkward and strange. They do not see themselves as qualified due to lack of experience and skills, and do not feel comfortable in taking on the role. They avoid situations where they have to lead, for example, decision making. One of the interviewees describes this first experience as a leader for more experienced participants as not really being the leader, but being in the background and the interviewee did not want to make any decisions. This is similar to the experiences of another interviewee who describes the situation of being a leader for other students as not being for real: "...it was difficult, everyone was there and to take on the responsibility did not seem relevant" (I3)²⁹. The interviewee expresses that the feeling of being evaluated and inspected by the others was making it very uncomfortable to be the leader of the group. The same interviewee recalls one exception to this: Due to hard and challenging weather conditions this particular situation was motivational: "...it did something with me. Instead of being a spectator, I became much more interested, more switched on, more present" (I3)³⁰. This episode was at the end of the study program, and more fresh in memory.

As a contrast to this, other interviewees discuss this aspect differently and with a more clearly educational mindset (Martin et al., 2009). They see the task of taking on the leader role as an opportunity to learn: "...of course it feels a bit strange, it is a educational setting, it will always be a bit strange, but you have to use the situation to learn" (I5)³¹.

Another aspect of developing interpersonal judgement apparent in the findings is how to make difficult decisions when the group is your fellow students. One situation discussed related to a stressful situation which went from bad to worse because the leader was too considerate of what the others may think and feel. The interviewee reflects on the

learning from this situation, and states that asking for assistance, communicating clearly and being a bit 'less' sensitive would have made that particular situation easier to cope with. The interviewee considered this particular situation as very educational due to the challenges faced, and it contributed to more insight in own reactions and actions in the leader role.

Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale (2005) view learning to exercise authority and making decisions as a part of the learning for the new leader. These aspects of learning are seen as particularly challenging if the new leader is leading the team that they used to be a part of (Hill, 2003; Haaland & Dale, 2005), such as in the situations described by these interviewees. They are supposed to be in charge, lead and make decisions for their fellow students, something that means taking on a slightly different role than being a participant in the group. Taking in the leader role means that they become more visible and exposed, watched by everybody, something that may cause stress (Haaland & Dale, 2005). Becoming a leader includes a process of learning to exercise leadership in practice and some of the vital learning tasks are to manage, control and delegate (Haaland & Dale, 2005). According to Tordsson (2005) this is part of the functional aspect of the leader's role and contributes to creating structure and framework for the group's work. To be able to do this the leader has to be confident and clear in the role, in order to avoid uncertainty in the group (Tordsson, 2005). Haaland & Dale (2005) state that significant part of the learning process includes that the first-time leader must re-negotiate relations and expectations related to the new role (Haaland & Dale, 2005). In this understanding, an interpretation of the awkward and 'not for real' feelings expressed by some interviewees may be explained by lack of re-negotiations of relations and unclear expectations of how to execute leadership in the group of fellow students.

An alternative explanation for the contrast between the interviewees' experience of leading in the student group as awkward rather than focused on learning, may be interpreted as a consequence of different aims and motivations for entering the program or different educational mindsets (Martin et al., 2009). Martin et al.'s (2009) study showed that the fact that the context was an educational setting caused the students to perceive it as 'not natural', something that affected their decision processes. Aspects of student's aims and educational mindsets can be related to the process of SDL, which is further discussed in section 6.4.

Learning leadership in a peer-situation such as a group of students means the learner is changing the role from being a member of the group to being the leader for the group and then going back to being a group member again. This is even more complicated than entering a leader role in hierarchical organizations, and staying in it, which is the foundation for the first-time leadership theory (Hill, 2003; Haaland & Dale, 2005). This may also have implications on how the new leaders take on the leader role in the study-context, as they have to maintain their credibility as students among peers. This is an additional factor in the understanding of first-time leadership in this context that needs further research.

The perspectives found in the community of practice theory (Wenger, 2004) may provide additional explanations to these issues. This will be discussed in section 6.4.5.

6.3.3 Gaining self-knowledge

The third transformation task for the new leader is *gaining self-knowledge* (Hill, 2003; Haaland & Dale, 2005), including understanding their motivations for leadership, discovering new sides of themselves and their styles, weaknesses and strengths.

Haaland & Dale (2005) point to the importance for the first-time leader to become aware of their motivations for leadership. As discussed in previous sections (see section 6.2.2 and 6.2.6), the findings indicate that motivational factors for outdoor leadership among the interviewees were to bring people into nature, facilitate different experiences and deal with the different challenges of outdoor context and participants. Haaland & Dale (2005) see the role of a leader as a positive source for personal development. They suggest that motivational factors like helping others, mastery, feelings of responsibility, dealing with challenges, having influence, cooperation and recognition as the driving factors for engaging in leadership. This is similar to Graham (1997) who states that to become aware of your own motivations builds confidence and enhances your awareness of your need for practice and learning.

In the findings, there are some indications of the interviewees' increased self-knowledge. A few interviewees reflected on this process of learning as something that has provided insight about themselves in the leader role, as expressed by interviewee 3:

...how I act in stressful situations, if I'm able to think straight or, things like that, then I have to practice and work on my weaker skills. And that I know my stronger skills, so I can delegate responsibility and know what kind of trips I can take, and what kind of people I can bring on the trips, that I don't do things that will contribute to a bad experience for the participants. (I3)³²

In the findings, this insight includes the awareness of their need for more experience to take on the responsibility, and a growing awareness of the responsibility of the outdoor leader.

The learning task of gaining more self-knowledge includes, according to Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale (2005), acknowledging that the skills of an effective leader are qualitatively different to those of an individual contributor. These authors also see this as a process of changing identity, to start seeing yourself as a leader and developing the different competencies and gaining more confidence in the role. In this transition, people find themselves in a position they do not yet master, something that may be uncomfortable to face (Haaland & Dale, 2005). They also claim that the identity change towards leadership is a stressor. The new leader may have to give up some of the tasks they previously enjoyed and enter into the 'unknown' (Haaland & Dale, 2005).

6.3.4 Coping with stress and emotion

The last transformation task described by Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale (2005) is *coping with stress and emotion*. In this lie the contradictory aims of leadership, being responsible for managing risk and being responsible for other people. Haaland & Dale (2005) define stress as imbalance between the individual and the environment, where the demands of the context exceed the individual's capabilities and possibilities. Responsibility, unclear expectations, workload, and relational conflicts are typical stressors according to Haaland & Dale (2005).

One example of this in the findings is where one interviewee describes the first-time experience of leadership as stressful and the feeling of responsibility was almost overwhelming: "I did not relax, I constantly had to check and double check everything regarding equipment, double check the navigation, and I was thinking of everything that could go wrong" (I2)³³. The interviewee stated that it was a rather strange feeling of

being responsible for peoples' lives, and "I know it was not that dramatic, but it felt like it was" (I2)³⁴. The interviewee talks about the sense of unclear expectation, missing information and not enough time to prepare as factors contributing to this stressful experience.

According to Haaland & Dale (2005), one way to reduce stress is to get a better understanding of what it means to take on the leader role. Support from others and the increased predictability and a sense of control (Haaland & Dale, 2005) may lead to a better experience of first-time leadership. In the context of the study, interviewee 2 expresses how new leaders can reduce the feeling of stress and responsibility: "...it feels safe because the teachers are there, and the others are actually capable of taking care of themselves (laughter) if something happens!" (I2)³⁵.

Another example of this is where one interviewee talks about a first-time experience of leadership as a positive experience, but also reflects on the fact that since this is a while ago, this may be an idealized memory. The interviewee had a superior leader that the interviewee remembered as competent in guiding new leaders. In addition, the interviewee was included in the planning, knew what was going to happen and had a good brief with the superior leader before taking on the task of leading a small group in the outdoors.

6.3.5 Reflections – transition into leadership

In summary, the objective of section 6.3 was to investigate interviewees' experiences of transition into leadership. During the interviews, the interviewees recalled first-time leadership experiences from the FLD study context, and, for some, before they took this study program. In the analysis of the data, it was a challenge to extract the data most relevant to understandings of leadership as distinct from experiences of first-time leadership. This is a small-scale study with limited data, and for some of the interviewees, their experiences of being outdoor leaders for the first time happened years ago. Given this timeframe, the memory effects (Repstad, 2007) were even more important to consider in the analyses and interpretation of the data, a fact that was mentioned by one of the interviewees. On reflection, it would have been better to select interviewees from those students who had actually been first-time leaders during the FLD program. Another reflection made when analysing these data, was how my pre-

understanding and knowledge of an incident influenced my ability to follow up during the interview one of the interviewees stories of first-time leadership. In section 6.3.2 interviewee 3 is describing how one particular leadership episode was perceived as motivational. Exploring this episode in more detail, could potentially have given more insight of the factors that influence students' experiences of learning leadership in the context of the study.

Despite this, the findings suggest some relevance of Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale's (2005) theories of becoming a leader compared with the experiences from the interviewees' first-time leadership in the outdoors. The findings indicate that the interviewees had experiences associated with the four transformational tasks, *learning what it means to be a leader, developing interpersonal judgement, gaining self-knowledge* and *coping with stress and emotion*. Gaining experience is seen as significant, and the way to develop skills and confidence in outdoor leadership. To become conscious of the motivation for leadership and to have an educational mindset in the process of becoming a leader seem to be significant factors influencing the quality of the experiences and the learning. In addition, positive first-time experiences and support when acting in the role are important. In the peer-learning context of the study, some interviewees experience that leadership is not real, and experience discomfort especially when with more experienced peers. Some experience leading in the peer-learning context as an opportunity to practice and learn leadership. The findings suggest that taking on the leader role includes additional implications not covered in the theory of first-time leadership. This is because the interviewees take on a temporary leadership role, and have to maintain their credibility as students among peers when acting in the role.

One value of investigating the transition is to become aware of the transformational tasks in first-time leadership and to be able to recognize them. According to Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale (2005), to be aware of these learning tasks and reactions in first-time leadership, and to know that these are quite common experiences, may reduce stress and increase motivation to continue pursuing learning in leadership.

The FLD program's main approach to learning is SDL and the next section discusses the interviewees' experiences of learning leadership using SDL.

6.4 How do the students experience learning leadership using self-directed learning approaches?

The final research question in this study aimed to explore how the interviewees experienced learning leadership using self-directed learning approaches. As presented in section four, SDL is the foundational pedagogical approach applied in the FLD program. This section presents the findings, interpretations and the discussions of the interviewees' experiences of SDL when learning leadership. Song & Hill's (2007) conceptual model of SDL is applied as a framework for structuring the findings and discussions in this section. This model illustrates the many factors involved in SDL including the learning context, and illustrates the interaction between these different factors.

6.4.1 Prior knowledge and interviewees' introduction to SDL

In the model of Song & Hill (2007), prior knowledge is the learner's accumulated experiences and understandings and, according to Merriam et al. (2007), previous experiences can both enable and inhibit learning. At the beginning of the program, the students are introduced to the SDL framework including the tools EUP and reflective journal. The students are encouraged to reflect on their previous knowledge and experience of *friluftsliv*, and to set their personal aims and objectives for the program as well as their learning strategies. Knowles et al. (2012) discusses the initial reactions of adults being presented SDL as a form of 'culture-shock'. Based on their previous education, Knowles et al. (2012) claim that many adults are not used to taking responsibility for their own learning, but have a view of education as teacher-centered and of themselves as being passive learners. According to Knowles et al. (2012), learning to learn and to be proactive in learning is essential for the learner's ability to engage in SDL. The findings of the present study show that the first encounters with the SDL process when entering the program are perceived as challenging for the interviewees. At the beginning of the program, they feel a bit overwhelmed by the SDL framework presented, and one interviewee recalled this first impression as: "What!? What is this? Are we not just supposed to go out on trips!?" (I4)³⁶. The interviewees' knowledge of SDL and their responsibility and ownership of their learning process represents something different from what they are used to when it comes to education: "When you're in school, you just sit and listen, you really don't know what you learn (laughter), or you don't learn how to learn, you're just there" (I3)³⁷.

Another finding related to the beginning of the program and interviewees' introduction to SDL was the limited understanding of the FLD program: "...the knowledge of the program is maybe too limited to be able to set up a learning plan for yourself" (I5)³⁸. Other interviewees expressed how the understanding of the SDL process and their own role in their learning process developed over time. They found themselves adjusting their objectives and learning strategies as they become more aware of what they wanted to learn and what outcome they wanted from the program.

These findings are mainly consistent with Knowles et al.'s (2012) description of 'culture-shock' and the findings of Høyem (2004) and Slåtten & Aigeltinger (2000).

Another interpretation of these findings is that the culture-shock may be due to the contrast between friluftsliv as a recreational activity and friluftsliv as a study-subject, friluftslivsfag. If students are entering the program having mainly a recreational view of friluftsliv, they may find the SDL approach and the curriculum a bit overwhelming because it is so different to their expectations.

Raiola & Sugerman's (1999) model of outdoor leadership development (see figure 2.1) suggests that when the student is unaware of skills, knowledge and experience associated with effective leadership, the student is 'unconscious incompetent'. The next step in their model, 'conscious incompetence', is reached when the student has become aware of his/her level of incompetence at specific skills and knowledge associated with leadership. This subjective (Raiola & Sugerman, 1999) development process, which may be more of a continuum than a stepwise process, can be associated with the above findings related to the SDL process. This model may have value in understanding learning and development of leadership, and more research from psychological perspective into this is needed.

6.4.2 Personal attributes, motivation and contextualizing

In Song & Hill's (2007) model, personal attributes are the learner's characteristics, motivation, and previous knowledge of a specific topic. The findings show that the differences in interviewees' aims and objectives for entering the program, and in what context they see their outdoor leadership, are factors that influence their experiences with SDL. The FLD program is not aimed towards one particular leader role in the

outdoors, but is aimed towards various professional friluftsliv areas such as education, voluntary organizations, health-related areas and tourism (NSSS, 2014a). When the interviewees, through the process of SDL, contextualized their learning process, the focus was the interviewees' own goals and objectives related to the professional (or private) context they saw for their outdoor leadership. Some interviewees saw the program as a break from their daily life and wanted to focus primarily on basic skills and leading groups in private contexts, while others had objectives that were more related to their professional occupation. For example, one interviewee focused primarily on the teaching and facilitator role of leadership to get input and inspiration for their present occupation: "I did not enter the study program to learn how to make a camp-fire (laughter), that's not the reason! For me it was to observe how other people do things, how they teach different topics" (I1)³⁹.

Use of learning strategies and resources are additional elements included in personal attributes (Song & Hill, 2007), and the ability to apply learning strategies is an important part of SDL. From the data, developing and operationalizing their learning strategies seemed to be one of the more challenging tasks for the interviewees, but something they became more proficient at during the program.

6.4.3 Processes, EUP and reflective journals

In Song & Hill's (2007) model, processes refer to planning, monitoring, and evaluating ones' learning. The EUP, or learning contract (Knowles et al., 2012), and the reflective journal are the main tools for the students for structuring their SDL process.

In making plans and learning contracts, the learners' own aims and objectives were of importance, and having ownership of the plan tended to increase the commitment (Knowles et al., 2012). The findings show that some interviewees saw EUP as a tool that made them more aware and focused in their learning of leadership. They perceived the tools and the process of using the tools as significant for their learning process: "I would say that it is 80% only positive, it is a good way to do it. The EUP was quite a lot of work, but it made me very aware, and I had to do some soul-searching, or become very conscious of what I wanted from this program, what I lack (of skills and competencies) and what I need" (I2)⁴⁰.

A similar experience is described by interviewee 5 when discussing how an EUP contributed with an increased awareness when they aimed for specific leadership skills:

If you have stated this upfront as an aim for your own learning, you can be pushed or get that extra motivation to actually lead the group that day or on that particular leg. Even if it is not so easy to operationalize, it still means that you are being a bit proactive and take the space you need as a leader, that you're not afraid of it. So if you can prepare yourself a bit mentally to do something that you're a bit uncomfortable in doing, that is you're going to take some space and be the leader, make decisions, I think that is very important. (I5)⁴¹

In contrast, other interviewees claimed that they did not have such clearly stated objectives for learning leadership in their EUP, but wanted to focus on communication of the joy and pleasure of being outdoors. Leadership was regarded as something separate from this objective; "...then the leadership part just became one of many aims, and did not get that much attention" (I3)⁴².

According to Knowles et al. (2012), diagnosing the learning needs and seeing how a certain knowledge or skill will add to the individual's performance, is important. It will create a clearer sense of purpose (Knowles et al., 2012) and motivation (Garrison, 1997). Section 6.3 discussed some of the challenges of first-time leadership related to motivation, confidence in taking on the role, and dealing with stress. The findings above suggest that being proactive and planning for how to operationalize the learning can be one way to address these issues and to make first-time leadership a positive experience.

The data shows how the interviewees have used the EUP as a tool to organize and operationalize their learning. Some described this as a kind of checklist, used to make sure they got where they wanted in their learning project. One interviewee described previous experiences of a similar process of learning and reflected on the SDL process in FLD as familiar. The interaction between EUP and the reflective journals was valuable to most of the interviewees in their SDL process. The reflective journals were regarded as important in this process; "Not just as a leader, but as general reflection of what you did, what did the others do, what kind of feedback did you get along the way, what kind of signals did you get from the others in the group or the teachers. I think I've

become incredibly reflective after these two years! (laughter) I just, I analyze everything!” (I4)⁴³.

The findings also show that the reflective journals assisted in integrating theory and practice from the different excursions in the program. The opportunity to see the relevance of the literature and to develop their knowledge and understanding was important for some of the interviewees, for example as stated by interviewee 2: “I enjoyed the way I could relate my reflections to the literature, support it in a way. I learned a lot of theory by using it in my reflective journal (I2)⁴⁴.

Interviewee 5 also valued reflection in the learning process:

Reflection afterwards is also very important. Because when people are in the outdoors they say it is so nice to be outdoors, because it is here and now, it is here and now that exists. But that also makes it difficult to reflect if you are just here and now, unless the reflection is managed. If you afterwards can see what happened, why it happened, what was good, what was not so good. Then the learning is better, I think. Especially if you have prepared yourself upfront you can verify this related to what you have said you want to learn, what did you actually learn, what happened, did you learn it, why, why not. (I5)⁴⁵

The findings show that the feedback provided on the EUPs and reflective journals was significant for the learning process of the interviewees, “...and without that it would have felt a bit meaningless. Because then, it is a bit like discussing with someone and to get some feedback that is important, it is one thing making your own plan, but if there is no feedback then...” (I5)⁴⁶.

Given the diverse background of the interviewees, the findings show that the task of engaging in academic writing for learning purposes was an additional challenge for some. Expressing reflections in writing was perceived as educational, but difficult and time-consuming.

Reflection in experiential learning is a significant factor in creating awareness and enhancing learning (Martin et al., 2006; Moon, 2006; Lauvås & Handal, 2000; Ord &

Leather, 2011). The findings in this study supports this the role of reflection for learning to become outdoor leaders.

6.4.4 Learning context, design elements

The design elements of the learning context can influence a learner's SDL experience (Song & Hill, 2007). In the context of this study, the design elements include FLD program design and facilitation. The FLD program design was not a topic during the interviews in order to avoid the interviews becoming an evaluation of the program (Repstad, 2007). However, the support elements such as feedback and collaboration are important and are discussed next.

6.4.5 Learning context, support elements

The learning context's support elements are feedback from teachers, peer collaboration and communication (Song & Hill, 2007). The findings show that feedback is a factor that all interviewees emphasized as important in their SDL learning process and for their development. The feedback on their EUP and reflective journals is one form of feedback, as discussed in section 6.4.3. Another form of feedback discussed by the interviewees is from fellow students during field excursions. The feedback from peers was perceived as important among the interviewees, but the quality of the feedback process and the learning from the feedback varied, and some would like it to have been more constructive. One interviewee stated: "...especially in the beginning of the study, maybe there should have been some 'tags' to relate this to, for example a form or something. Perhaps something like a manual" (I1)⁴⁷.

The interviewees also related the process and challenges of providing feedback to each other as students to group dynamics and personal relations. If there is openness, trust and confidence in each other, the process of feedback is perceived as easier to accomplish. In addition, feedback is also related to having the proper skills for engaging in a feedback process. This is not always the case, and sometimes these issues lower the quality of, and the motivation to, provide feedback to each other: "I'm afraid everybody's not quite honest, it is a tendency towards wrapping things up, and then it is the issue of the qualification for providing feedback, not everybody has that either, right" (I2)⁴⁸.

In a socio-cultural perspective of learning, learning encompasses the social world and includes interactions and human relations (Quay, 2003). The findings show how the impact of the interviewees' social world, or community of practice (Wenger, 2004), clearly has an influence on the SDL process and learning leadership (see also section 6.3.2.). Lave & Wenger (2000) focus on how the resources available in the community of practice can contribute to learning. When discussing peer-collaboration, the educational experience of working in groups, and having student-led practices, the findings are diverse. The influence of, and interaction with, the fellow students were clearly significant factors for the quality of the learning process. Several aspects of this are apparent in the discussions with the interviewees such as how the groups are configured and how to relate to different personalities. When practicing in the leader role on excursions, some issues linked to understanding each other's learning processes, especially in the relations between experienced and less experienced students. Some less experienced students felt that they are overrun by the more experienced; "...ok, so they are supposed to step back, but in a way they cannot do this because they are so annoyed because things are not done the way he or she thinks is the best way" (I3)⁴⁹. On the other hand, if the group of students is more aligned and are able to develop a co-operative educational climate, the learning outcomes can be of a different quality. An example is interviewee 3 who reflected on a student-led practice excursion as a positive educational experience. The overall process including planning, preparations and carrying out the excursion was a positive experience. The interaction with a fellow student and the other participants was particularly emphasized as vital for the interviewees understanding and learning of leadership skills.

Reflecting on their SDL process in the study, some also saw that they could have been more proactive in taking on and practicing the leader role on excursions: "And I should have taken, sometimes more responsibility. Both for myself and my group, just taken leadership actually..." (I3)⁵⁰.

In group of adult students, the previous experiences and knowledge in the group is a resource potentially available for this community of practice. Learning constitutes as participating, negotiating, experiencing and changing our identity through participating in the community of practice (Wenger, 2004). From the findings above, participating and negotiating in the community of practice appear to be an important influential factor

in the learning context. According to Wenger (2004), the community of practice will often face conflicts and tension, and the differences among the participants contribute to the productivity of the community of practice. The findings also indicate that the negotiated meaning and/or the tension described by Wenger (2004) may contribute to a community where the educational mindset is less prominent.

Song & Hill (2007) claim that the interaction between personal attributes and processes is important: “For learners to take control of the planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning processes, they rely on their use of strategies and resources, and their ability to motivate themselves to involve in the learning processes” (Song & Hill, 2007, p. 32). According to Vonderwell & Turner (as cited in Song & Hill, 2007), if learners engage in the learning processes, it can help the learners improve their ability to use strategies and resources. This can also increase their motivation (Slåtten & Aigeltinger, 2000). In addition, the learning context interacts with the SDL processes and can have an impact on motivation and what learning strategies the learner may apply in the specific context as well (Song & Hill, 2007). The findings support the significance of these interactions and the impact on the learning experiences of the interviewees.

6.4.6 Reflections on SDL

The final research question aimed to explore how the interviewees experienced learning leadership using self-directed learning approaches. Song & Hill’s (2007) conceptual model of SDL was used as a framework for the analysis and discussions. The findings show that the interviewees’ expectations, aims and motivation on entering the program were significant for their engagement and experience of SDL as an approach to learning leadership. The tools EUP and reflective journals were perceived as demanding at the beginning of the program, but most interviewees adapted to these and found them helpful in creating awareness and focus in their leadership development. The social context, discussed as the community of practice (Wenger, 2004), seem to be an important factor influencing the interviewees’ learning processes. The negotiated meaning and tension in the community of practice particularly influenced feedback processes and the educational climate in peer-groups.

The main findings in this study of interviewees’ experiences of SDL were related to EUP, reflective journals and social learning context. In an outdoor environment, the

learning context also includes the outdoor environment such as location, weather and other environmental factors. These factors were not discussed in relation to SDL, but were discussed as conditional factors in understanding of leadership (see section 6.2.4).

The link between learning and leadership was expressed by one of the interviewees: “You are never done with you training as a leader, you always have to maintain the focus...” (I5)⁵¹. SDL may develop some characteristics that are useful as an outdoor leader as well. Self-awareness, focus on experience, planning and goal setting, and contextual awareness seem to be common factors.

7. Conclusions

The main purpose of this study was to explore students' learning for, experience and understandings of outdoor leadership. Three research questions guided the study, and this section summarizes the findings of these questions and points to implications for further research.

1: How do the students understand leadership in friluftsliv?

The students understand leadership as complex due to all the different elements, contextual factors and concerns that need to be taken into account when being responsible for people in the outdoors. They also see that an outdoor leader has to have a broad range of skills and qualities, and that gaining experience is the way to learn and become proficient in the different skills required. Particularly emphasized in the findings are the students' understandings of the influence of the outdoor leaders' relational skills and the leaders' need to be flexible in their leadership. The findings show little emphasis on the aspect of the outdoor leader promoting nature's intrinsic values and environmental thinking.

2: How do the students experience the transition into leadership?

Gaining experience is seen as significant, and the way to develop skills and confidence in outdoor leadership. The students' motivation, aims and educational mindsets seems to be significant factors influencing the quality of the experiences of first-time leadership. Having positive first-time experiences and support from superiors and peers when acting in the role is important. In the peer-learning context of the study, some students experience that leadership is not real, and experience discomfort especially when with more experienced peers. Other students see the context of the study as an opportunity to practice and learn leadership. The findings suggest that taking on the leader role includes additional implications not covered in the theory of first-time leadership. This is because students take on a temporary leadership role, and have to maintain their credibility as students among peers when acting in the role.

3: How do the students experience learning leadership using self-directed learning approaches?

The students' aims, motivation and expectations on entering the program are significant for their engagement in learning leadership. The tools used in SDL, EUP and reflective journals, are regarded as helpful in creating awareness and focus in their leadership development. The effort required from the students in the SDL approach is perceived as demanding at the beginning of the program, but the students also see how this process contributes to their learning of leadership. The social context, or community of practice, is an important factor influencing the students' learning process. The educational climate and feedback processes seem to be particularly affected by the negotiations of meaning and the tension in the community of practice.

This study has scratched the surface of the complex topics of learning leadership and SDL. Little research attention has been directed at the pedagogical and didactical dimensions of friluftslivsfag in higher education (Bischoff, 2008; Høyem, 2010), and more empirical research is needed to investigate these dimensions related to learning outdoor leadership.

Facilitating for educational experiences in different outdoor contexts is the main approach for study programs in the outdoors. The findings in this study confirm that experiential learning is the most significant learning process for developing skills and qualities required for outdoor leadership.

This study shows that expectations, motivation and educational mindset are significant for engaging in the SDL process and for the students' experiences in first-time leadership. It also suggests that positive experiences of leadership in a peer-learning setting are vital for learning leadership in the context of a study program. In a group of adult students the previous experiences, expectations, aims, motivations, and competencies upon entering the program are diverse. This community of practice is significant for learning and awareness of the community's influence, support and feedback in the learning process is emphasized in the findings. In the perspective of community of practice, the diversity raises the question of how programs can facilitate for development of a community of practice that is a positive learning environment for

all SDL students. The findings show that there is a tension between having the individual focus as SDL suggests, and the significant impact of the community of practice in the learning process. What impact may this tension have for program design and structure? How can the different competencies and experiences of the individual students be used to benefit the community of practice? How can peer-groups be configured to make sure that students feel confident to practice in the leadership role? Do programs need to know more about students' motivation and expectations on entering the program? The findings also stated that relational skills and flexibility was significant for an outdoor leader. How can programs facilitate for learning experiences that take these skills into consideration? How can feedback processes be facilitated to develop the ability to give and receive feedback and to encourage constructive feedback among peers? How can students' leadership skills be evaluated and individually graded in a community of practice? These are all aspects that need to be better understood, and further research into the pedagogic and didactical area of learning outdoor leadership is needed.

Another question that arises from the findings on expectations and motivation of students is the question of the overall relevance and objective of friluftslivsfag in higher education and how this is communicated. This may be relevant in understanding student's motivation and expectations and in what context they see their outdoor leadership, but the question of overall relevance is not included in this study.

This study is small and limited to one context of friluftslivsfag in higher education. Further research with a broader scope could investigate experiences of students' learning of outdoor leadership in additional contexts, contributing to increasing the knowledge in this area.

For the purpose of understanding the complexity, broadness and contextual aspect of the outdoor leaders' skills, Seaman & Coppens '(2006) 'repertoire of practice' may serve as useful perspective. This implies a holistic approach to leadership skills, and focuses on the combination of skills and how they relate to each other in a given context. More research is required to investigate this further.

The theory of first-time leadership is founded on a hierarchical understanding of leadership where the first-time leader is transitioning into, and staying in, the leadership role. In an educational setting, this study shows that the student has a temporary leadership role, which means that this transition involves engaging and disengaging in leadership. This study suggests that this temporary aspect is an additional, complicating factor that needs to be taken into account for first-time leaders in an educational context. The theory of first-time leadership does not offer any insight into the new leaders' experiences with a temporary leadership role. In addition, Hill (2003) and Haaland & Dale (2005) claim that entering into the leadership role in a hierarchical organization includes the new leader changing organizational loyalty and perspectives of tasks and responsibility. In an educational context, organizational loyalty can be considered as the students' loyalty to each other as a group of friluftsliv students. In this perspective, temporary 'leaving' the group for being the groups' leader, may be seen as a breach of loyalty to the group. Further research into the temporary aspect of first-time leadership is needed to understand the experiences of the first-time leader in a peer-learning context.

The theory of SDL has the individual learners' aims and objectives in focus and allows the learner to contextualize their learning needs in the perspective of their professional or private context of outdoor leadership. The SDL theory also includes an understanding of how the learning context interacts with the SDL processes and affects the learning strategies the learner applies in the specific context. There is a question about how the SDL theory actually plays out in the complex context of leadership learning in a peer-learning environment. The findings show that some students do not perceive the learning of leadership as real and experience the learning situations as uncomfortable, while other students see this context as opportunities for learning. Further investigations of the psycho-social dynamics of learning leadership in a peer-learning community needs to explore and better understand the factors influencing SDL and the learners' experience of the educational environment.

This study has shown that the research needed to better understand the process of learning leadership challenges the individuality of learning and simplicity of perceiving the student role as static. It suggests that a communal, holistic approach to leadership development is required to support emerging leaders. The full implications of these

findings for friluftslivsfag in higher level education need to be discovered through research that builds on these insights.

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Abbreviations

COLT	Conditional outdoor leadership theory
EUP	Personal development plan [Egen utviklings plan]
FLD	Friluftsliv part-time program [Friluftsliv deltid studiet]
JDM	Judgement and decision making
NDM	Naturalistic decision making
NSSS	Norwegian School of Sport Sciences [Norges idrettshøgskole]
SDL	Self-directed learning [Selvstyrt læring]

Appendix 1: Invitation to participate in the study



Invitasjon til deltakelse i mastergradsprosjekt

Jeg ønsker å invitere deg til å delta i mitt mastergradsprosjekt ved Norges idrettshøgskole. Temaet for prosjektet er ”Selvstyrt læring som pedagogisk metode ved læring av ledelse i friluftsliv”.

Om prosjektet:

Gjennom dette prosjektet ønsker jeg å se nærmere på hvordan pedagogisk lederskap i friluftsliv kan forstås, utvikles og læres. Prosjektet vil omhandle læring av ledelse i relasjon til selvstyrt læring som pedagogisk metode i en undervisningskontekst.

Ved å gjøre individuelle intervjuer med 5-6 av studentene som avsluttet FLD studiet i 2013 er målet å få større forståelse for og innsikt i deres erfaringer og prosesser knyttet til det å utvikle seg mot pedagogiske ledere i friluftsliv. Spesielt aktuelle for dette prosjektet er de studentene som selv vurderer at de hadde begrenset erfaring med denne lederrollen når de startet på Friluftsliv deltid studiet ved NIH.

Om intervjuet og datainnsamlingen:

Jeg vil bruke lydopptaker og ta notater mens vi snakker sammen. Intervjuet vil ta omtrent en time, og vi blir sammen enige om tid og sted.

Jeg ønsker også å bruke dine EUP'er og refleksjonsnotater som en del av datainnsamlingen og som forberedelse til intervjuet.

Det er frivillig å være med, og hvis du velger å delta har du har mulighet til å trekke deg når som helst underveis, uten å måtte begrunne dette nærmere. Dersom du trekker deg vil alle innsamlede data om deg bli slettet.

Opplysningene du gir vil bli behandlet konfidensielt og anonymt. Likevel gjør jeg oppmerksom på at i den ferdige masteroppgaven vil de intervjuede studentene potensielt kunne gjenkjennes av andre studenter fra samme kull på bakgrunn av informasjon som kommer frem under intervjuene.

Alle opplysninger anonymiseres og lydopptakene slettes når prosjektet er ferdig, innen 1.januar 2015.

Dersom du har lyst å være med på intervju, er det fint om du gir meg en tilbakemelding

via mail eller telefon. Blant de som takker ja til invitasjonen, vil vi tilfeldig trekke ut 5-6 studenter til intervju.

Hvis det er noe du lurer på kan du ringe meg på 41766344, eller sende en e-post til eliseno@online.no. Du kan også kontakte min veileder Pip (Philippa) Lynch ved seksjon for kroppsøving og pedagogikk ved NIH.

Studien er meldt til Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste (NSD).

Prosjektet er veiledet av:

Philippa Lynch
Professor i friluftsliv
Norges idrettshøgskole
Seksjon for kroppsøving og pedagogikk
Sognsveien 220
0806 Oslo
Tlf: 23262000/46504091
philippa.lynch@nih.no

Med vennlig hilsen

Elisabeth Enoksen – eliseno@online.no – tlf: 41766344
Masterstudent ved Norges idrettshøgskole
Seksjon for kroppsøving og pedagogikk

Appendix 2: Agreement of consent



Samtykkeerklæring ved innsamling av data til forskningsformål

Samtykkeerklæringen gjelder et mastergradsprosjekt i friluftsliv ved Norges idrettshøgskole. Temaet for prosjektet er ”Selvstyrt læring som pedagogisk metode ved læring av ledelse i friluftsliv”.

Prosjektet gjennomføres av:

Elisabeth Enoksen – eliseno@online.no – tlf: 41766344
Masterstudent ved Norges idrettshøgskole
Seksjon for kroppsøving og pedagogikk

Prosjektet er veiledet av:

Philippa Lynch
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Seksjon for kroppsøving og pedagogikk
Sognsveien 220
0806 Oslo
Tlf: 23262000/46504091
philippa.lynch@nih.no

Jeg bekrefter å ha gjort meg kjent med de opplysningene som står i informasjonsskrivet om prosjektet.

Jeg er kjent med at deltakelse i prosjektet er frivillig og at jeg når som helst kan trekke meg eller be om å få mine registrerte opplysninger slettet fra prosjektet.

Sted

Dato

Signatur

Appendix 3: Interview guide

Intervjuguide – temaguide

Introduksjon:

- Takk!
- Informasjon om prosjektet og temaet: Bakgrunn, formål, rollene, anonymitet, konfidensialitet, lydopptak, språk, ca en time, mulighet for oppfølgingsspørsmål i tiden etter intervju
- Åpen samtale med noen forberedte spørsmål om temaene: Ingen ”fasit”- svar, dine opplevelser og erfaringer er det viktigste.
- Hvis det blir aktuelt, trekke frem eksempler fra studentens EUP og refleksjonsnotater for å hente fram hendelser som er relevante – (”husker du...?”)
- Jeg skriver noen notater og tar lydopptak. Senere vil intervjuet bli transkribert slik at det finnes i tekstform.
- Du kan trekke deg når som helst uten å måtte oppgi en begrunnelse
- Spørsmål?

Bakgrunnsinformasjon:

- Kort om arbeidserfaring/bakgrunn før FLD-studiestart

Tema: Selvstyrt læring:

Hvordan vil du beskrive dine erfaringer med selvstyrt læring?

- EUP, refleksjonsnotater, som verktøy, læringsprosess, bevisstgjøring, utvikling
- Sett i forhold til utvikling av ledelseskompetanse?
- Eksempler, hva påvirker, egne opplevelser

Tema: Ledelse i friluftsliv:

Hvordan ser du på ledelse i friluftsliv, hvordan vil du beskrive din oppfatning og forståelse av det? (Gjerne sett i lys av egen rolle nå)

- Generelt og spesielt
- Eksempler, hva påvirker, utdype, forklare nærmere

Tema: Å bli leder – førstegangsleder:

Kan du beskrive en episode eller hendelse der du opplevde at du var i lederrollen ”for første gang”? (Evt hente opp eksempler fra studentens refleksjonsnotater fra studiet)

- Egen opplevelse av dette, hva skjedde, hvordan oppfattet du dette, utfordringer, utdype, forhold til EUP/refleksjonsnotat, bevissthet, læring, betydning, erfaring

Kan du beskrive en episode/hendelse der du ble klar over et nytt perspektiv/område på hva ledelse i friluftsliv kan omfatte?

- Egen opplevelse av dette, hva skjedde, hvordan oppfattet du dette, utfordringer, utdype, forhold til EUP/refleksjonsnotat, bevissthet, læring, betydning, erfaring

Hvis du tenker tilbake på disse opplevelsene av å være ny som leder, hva kunne vært gjort anderledes i forhold til læring og trening på lederrollen?

- Bevissthet, rolleforståelse, forventninger, muligheter, organisering, forhold til EUP/refleksjonsnotat, erfaring

Hvilke andre tanker gjør du deg om din egen prosess fra å være ”deltaker” og ”gruppemedlem” til å ha en lederrolle?

- Motivasjon til ledelse, rolleforståelse, forventning, utvikling, bevissthet, erfaring, identitet, fordeler, utfordringer, forhold til EUP/refleksjonsnotat, kompetanse, trening, læring, betydning, i eller utenfor studiet

Avslutning av intervju:

Noe mer du vil kommentere eller si noe om?

Min videre jobb med intervjuet og hva som skal skje med innholdet.

Takk!

Appendix 4: NSD letter of approval

Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS
NORWEGIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE DATA SERVICES



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Pip (Philippa) Lynch
Norges idrettshøgskole
Sognsveien 220
0806 OSLO

Vår dato: 06.08.2013

Vår ref:34960 / 3 / MSI

Deres dato:

Deres ref:

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 05.07.2013. All nødvendig informasjon om prosjektet forelå i sin helhet 05.08.2013. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

34960	<i>Lederskap i friluftsliv: Studenters erfaringer med læring av pedagogisk ledelse gjennom selvstyrt læring</i>
Behandlingsansvarlig	<i>Norges idrettshøgskole, ved institusjonens øverste leder</i>
Daglig ansvarlig	<i>Pip (Philippa) Lynch</i>
Student	<i>Elisabeth Enoksen</i>

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredsstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

Personvernombudets vurdering forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema <http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/meldeplikt/skjema.html>. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, <http://pvo.nsd.no/prosjekt>.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 01.01.2015, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Bjørn Henrichsen
Knut K. Skjold

Marte Byrkjeland tlf: 55 58 33 48
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering
Kopi: Elisabeth Enoksen, Skedsmogt 16, 0655 OSLO

Marte Byrkjeland

Marte Byrkjeland

Avdelingskontorer / District Offices:

OSLO: NSD, Universitetet i Oslo, Postboks 1055 Blindern, 0316 Oslo. Tel: +47-22 85 52 11. nsd@uio.no
TRONDHEIM: NSD, Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet, 7491 Trondheim. Tel: +47-73 59 19 07. kyrr.svarva@svt.ntnu.no
TROMSØ: NSD, Universitetet i Tromsø, 9037 Tromsø. Tel: +47-77 64 43 36. nsdmaa@svt.uib.no



Det er oppgitt at masterstudenten får tilgang til studentenes mail-adresser for å sende invitasjon til utvalget. Personvernombudet anbefaler at skolen i stedet formidler informasjon om prosjektet på vegne av studenten og at potensielle informanter selv tar kontakt med studenten dersom vedkommende skulle være interessert i å delta. Personvernombudet legger til grunn at det er avklart at skolen har anledning til å utlevere kontaktopplysninger til potensielle informanter, dersom denne fremgangsmåten benyttes.

Ifølge prosjektmeldingen skal det innhentes skriftlig samtykke basert på skriftlig informasjon om prosjektet og behandling av personopplysninger. Personvernombudet finner informasjonsskrivet tilfredsstillende utformet i henhold til personopplysningslovens vilkår, men det bør understrekes at det ikke vil påvirke forholdet til skolen og studiene hvorvidt de ønsker å være med i prosjektet eller ikke.

Innsamlede opplysninger registreres på privat pc. Personvernombudet legger til grunn at veileder og student setter seg inn i og etterfølger Norges idrettshøgskole sine interne rutiner for datasikkerhet, spesielt med tanke på bruk av privat pc til oppbevaring av personidentifiserende data.

Prosjektet skal avsluttes 01.01.2015 og innsamlede opplysninger skal da anonymiseres og lydopptak slettes. Anonymisering innebærer at direkte personidentifiserende opplysninger som navn/koblingsnøkkel slettes, og at indirekte personidentifiserende opplysninger (sammenstilling av bakgrunnsopplysninger som f.eks. skole, alder, kjønn) fjernes eller grovkategoriseres slik at ingen enkeltpersoner kan gjenkjennes i materialet.

Appendix 5: Interviewees' quotes

1. Også er det at du må være trivelig altså, og må kunne prate med folk, det mener jeg er de første sånne grunnprinsipper. Kan du ikke prate med folk da kan du ikke være leder, da. Greier du ikke å forholde deg og være trivelig bare går å være sur, så... (I1)
2. Det er mange ting som gjør at det er viktig at den friluftslivslederen ser deg og gir rom for at du har trygghet nok til å gå å spørre om ting og til å ta kontakt iallefall (I2)
3. ...det handler om å ta med seg folk på tur, det gjør det jo, men det er jo mye større enn det... (I3)
4. ...dette med trygghet er viktig og det forutsetter jo at du har kontroll på faget, altså alle disse ferdighetene som skal til i forhold til å mestre..forflytte seg, vær og vind og mat og alt det som skal til. I tillegg så mener jeg 100% at det er grådig viktig at den friluftslivslederen er veldig våken og åpen og ikke for styrende, altså styrende men på en veldig diplomatisk måte der folk føler de blir ivaretatt...(I2)
5. ...at du må ha metoden inne, du må ha det utstyret du trenger i sekken, samme hvilken situasjon som egentlig oppstår, så må du løse det (I1)
6. Det vil alltid være folk da som på en måte kanskje har mere spisskompetanse på områder, som leder blir det da ikke å være den som kan mest, men være den som får gruppen til å fungere best. Altså det handler ikke om at du kan mest men at du får gruppen til å fungere best (I5)
7. ...men såklart du må jo gripe inn hvis det blir farlig da (I1)
8. Hvis du gjør noe feil så kan du lettere bare snakke deg utav det (I5)
9. De hører på hva du sier ikke sant. Du er den eneste voksne de forholder seg til (I4)
10. ...du må ha en selvtillit på at du er en person som faktisk kan være leder. Det er det veldig mange som ikke tenker. Også er det mange som tenker at det er så mange som kan mer enn meg så derfor kan ikke jeg ta en avgjørelse (I5)
11. ...sånn som jeg f.eks kan gjøre..”Gud, det jeg sa i går kveld, ble det nå oppfattet riktig..” ikke sant. Man må være sikker på seg selv! (I4)
12. Jeg tror deg er greit for folk å vite det at uansett hvor god og flink du er og uansett hva du gjør så vil det alltid være noen som ikke har sans for det du gjør, som ikke har sans for stilen din, ikke har sans for deg som menneske, og det er helt greit (I5)

13. Det har å gjøre med erfaring. Hvis jeg har gjort en ting mange ganger så er jeg jo trygg i det jeg gjør, men er det første gangen så...(I3)
14. ...og jeg er trett, sulten, hva som helst så må jeg tenke noen ekstra runder da, for å være sikker på at de avgjørelsene jeg tar faktisk er de rette avgjørelsene, ellers kan det bli veldig feil (I5)
15. Som instruktør så må man jo forberede seg (I1)
16. Du må være kjent i området (I3)
17. ...hvis det plutselig skjer et uhell, så kanskje tenke at han eller hun vil være en ressursperson i gruppen. Også ser du kanskje også det svakeste leddet som man må ta litt ekstra hensyn til (I3)
18. ...det er et helvete egentlig når det holder på, men det er egentlig som trigger deg litt for det er jo litt morsomt! (I1)
19. ...jeg er jo ikke på tur for turens skyld (I3)
20. ... skjønn at folk har en annen setting når de er instruktører (I1)
21. ...du må skjønn at folk ser på deg utenfor klasserommet (I1)
22. Du blir litt sånn den der ensomme ulven for å si det sånn, jeg ville si at det er ofte det altså, at det er en sånn setting, samme om du jobber med masse mennesker. Så er du likevel, du er ikke i den gruppe egentlig. Litt utenfor den gruppa (I1)
23. ...da er de ensomme sammen (I1)
24. ...og det merker jeg er veldig viktig også med lederskap at man er samkjørt, fordi, det kan jo være at man møter på to ledere også er det en som på en måte vil ta lederrollen, selv om man er to. Og overkjøre den andre (I3)
25. ...jo mer erfaring du har jo, bedre vil du bli etterhvert, og at det er lov å feile, altså ingen er jo perfekte, selv en god leder kan feile altså, det handler om å ta de riktige valgene, de beste utfra den situasjonen du er i (I3)
26. ...så kan det være at unge mennesker blir satt i en lederposisjon de ikke er i stand til å fylle, så da i steden for å få en mestingsopplevelse, så får du følelsen av å være en fiasko (I5)
27. ...hvis man skal være leder i friluftsliv, så synes jeg det er utrolig viktig at man faktisk prøver seg mens du er ute! (I5)
28. ...alvorlige situasjoner hvor folk stoler på deg og de ser etter en leder, [...] på en måte sette opp en fasade da, eller en maske av at du er veldig rolig og vet hva som skal til for å komme oss ut av en dårlig situasjon (I5)

29. ...litt vanskeligere, og alle sammen var jo der og det å ta det ansvaret , det syntes jeg var lite relevant..(I3)
30. ...det gjorde et eller annet med meg. I stedet for å bare være en tilskuer, så ble jeg mye mer interessert, mye mer på, mye mer tilstede (I3)
31. ...fordi selvfølgelig føles det kunstig ut, det er en opplærings situasjon, det vil alltid være kunstig, men man må jo prøve å bruke situasjonen til å prøve å lære opp (I5)
32. ...hvordan jeg blir i stressede situasjoner, om jeg klarer å tenke klart eller, og såne ting da må jeg øve opp svakhetene mine. Også at jeg vet styrkene mine, sånn at jeg kan fordele ansvar, og vite hva slags turer jeg skal ta med mennesker på, hva slags type mennesker jeg skal ta med ut,...at man ikke begir seg ut på noe som vil skape en dårlig opplevelse for de jeg har med på tur (I3)
33. Jeg måtte hele tiden sjekke med meg selv at jeg hadde med meg alt utstyr, at jeg hadde dobbeltsjekkert kurs, og alt mulig måtte bare dobbeltsjekkes og dobbeltsjekkes og jeg tenkte på alt som kunne gå galt (I2)
34. Jeg vet at det ikke var så dramatisk, men det føltes sånn (I2)
35. ...samtidig er det veldig trygt og godt fordi lærerne er jo der og de andre er jo egentlig i stand til å ta vare på seg selv (latter) hvis det skulle være noe! (I2)
36. ”Hæ, hva er dette!?! Skal vi ikke bare dra på tur?” (I4)
37. ...når du blir satt på skolen, så sitter du jo bare å høre på, du vet jo egentlig ikke hva du lærer (latter) eller du lærer jo ikke å lære, du er jo bare der (I3)
38. ...har kanskje for liten kunnskap om hva studiet skal dreie seg om til å kunne lage en detaljert plan over hva du skal lære (I5)
39. Jeg meldte meg ikke på studiet for å fyre bål, det var ikke derfor (latter)! Det var for å se hvordan andre folk gjør det og underviser og hvordan, i forskjellige temaer (I1)
40. Jeg vil si det at 80% så er det bare positivt, det er en veldig fin måte å gjøre det på. EUP'en var et stort stykke arbeid, men det var utrolig bevisstgjørende og jeg måtte på en måte selvransake, eller bli veldig sånn bevisst på hva jeg ville med dette studiet og hva er det jeg mangler og hva er det jeg trenger (I2)
41. Da er det en fordel hvis man har satt opp det som læringsmål på forhånd for da kan man bli pushet eller få det ekstra pushet da for faktisk å lede gruppen den dagen eller det strekket man skal gå eller. Så selv om det kanskje ikke er like lett å operasjonalisere så er det, det krever likevel at man er litt offensiv og tar den plassen man skal ta som leder at man ikke er redd for det. Så hvis man kan forberede seg på

- det mentalt og gjøre noe jeg er ukomfortabel med, at jeg skal ta litt plass og på en måte være leder, ta avgjørelser, så tror jeg det er veldig viktig (I5)
42. ...så selve lederbiten ble bare en av mange, det ble ikke så stor fokus (I3)
43. Refleksjonsnotat er jo blitt veldig viktig for meg, ikke bare som leder men generelt det å reflektere over hva er det du har gjort, hva er det andre har gjort, hvilke tilbakemeldinger har du fått underveis, hvilke signaler har du fått både fra både andre i gruppa og lederne eller lærerne. Jeg tror jeg er blitt utrolig reflektert etter de to årene! Jeg bare sitter jo å analyserer alt! (I3)
44. Jeg likte muligheten for å se mine refleksjoner opp mot teori for eksempel, underbygge på den måten. Jeg lærte veldig mye teori med å bruke det i refleksjonsnotatet (I2)
45. Refleksjon i etterkant er også kjempeviktig. Når folk er i naturen så sier de det er så deilig å være i naturen, fordi det er der og da, det er der og da som eksisterer. Men det gjør også det at refleksjon kan være vanskelig hvis du er der og da i en situasjon, med mindre den er styrt da. Men hvis man etterpå kan se hva var det som skjedde, hvorfor skjedde det, hva var bra hva var dårlig, hvorfor skjedde var det sånn. Da blir det en bedre læring, tror jeg spesielt hvis du har forberedt deg på forhånd for da kan du se det opp mot, hva har du sagt du skal lære, hva lærte du faktisk, hva skjedde, lærte du det, hvorfor, hvorfor ikke (I5)
46. ...og uten det, så hadde det nok føltes ganske meningsløst. Fordi da, det er litt det med å spille ball med noen og få noen tilbakemeldinger som er viktig, og en ting er å lage sin egen plan, men hvis det ikke er noen tilbakemeldinger på den så...(I5)
47. ...men kanskje hadde hatt mere, spesielt på starten, hadde hatt mere sånne knagger å henge ting på, for eksempel et skjema eller noe sånt, de punktene skal du gi tilbakemelding på for eksempel. Man må kanskje hatt en sånn kjøreplan (I1)
48. Jeg er redd for at det ikke alle de som er helt ærlige, det er en tendens til å pakke ting veldig inn, og så er det noe med at forutsetningen for å gi tilbakemelding er, det er ikke alle de som har det heller, ikke sant (I2)
49. ...ja, okei da, nå skal jeg liksom tre tilbake, men på en måte ikke klarer fordi den irriterer seg så innmari fordi det ikke blir gjort på den måten han mener eller hun mener er best (I3)
50. Også burde jeg tatt, noen ganger mer ansvar. Både for meg selv og min gruppe, eller gått litt mer inn i den lederrollen rett og slett (I3)
51. Man er aldri utlært som leder, du må hele tiden ha fokus på det (I5)

Appendix 6: The COLT model

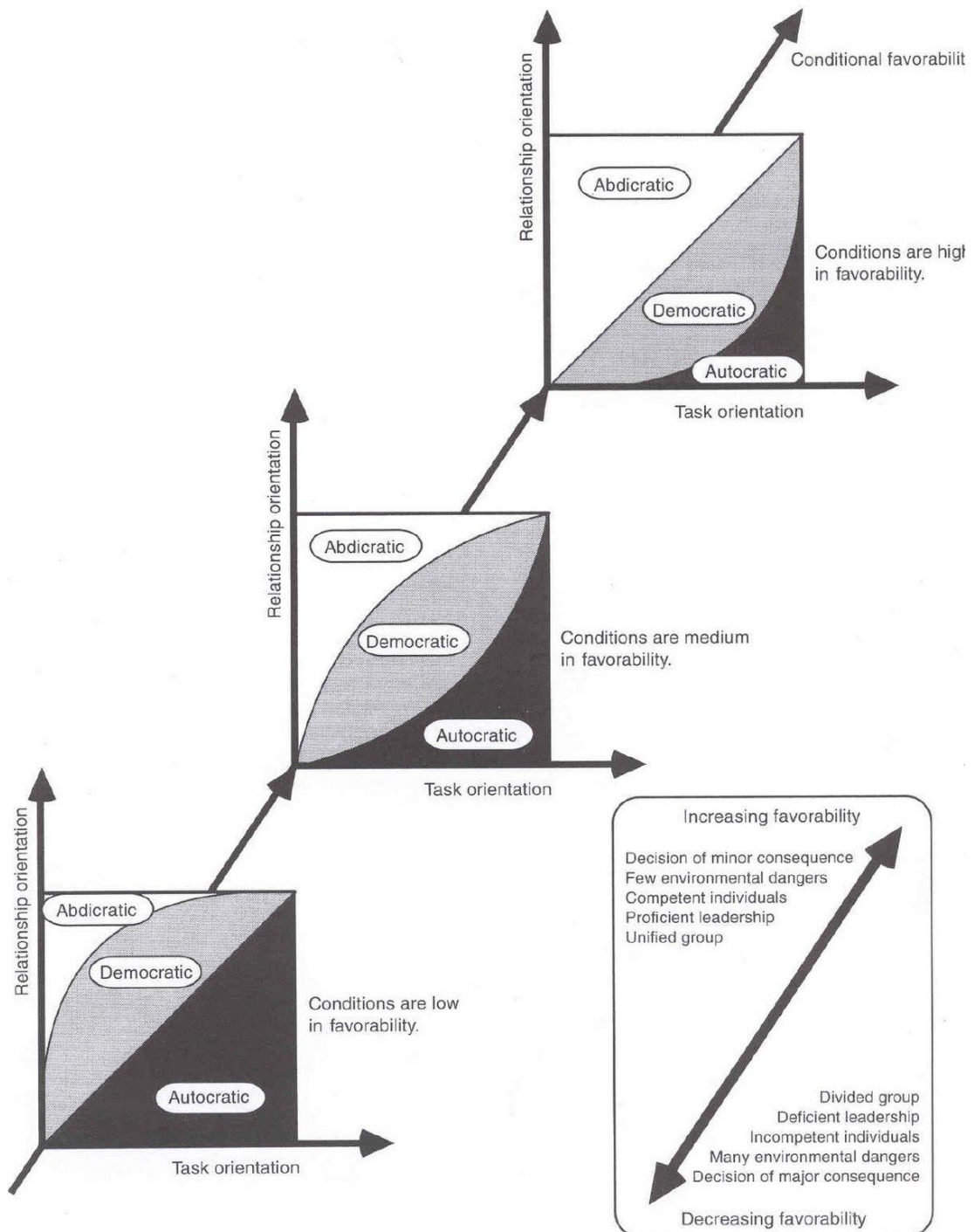


Figure Appendix 6: *The conditional outdoor leadership model (COLT) (Priest & Gass, 2005, p. 248).*







