CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, definition of leadership will be provided. Contemporary theories of leadership will be reviewed and group development theories will be visited. These theories will show the many perspectives of leadership within the context of leadership in outdoor education. A brief history of sports in Saudi Arabia will be presented. The final section of this chapter will summarize the important aspects of leadership style in outdoor education.

Definition of Leadership

Leadership is a process of group influence where a group is simply two or more people (Priest & Gass, 1997). An outdoor leader is a leader in both a moral and a physical sense. The outdoor leader is legally responsible for the learning, the safety, and the positive well being of group members. Morally, the outdoor leader helps the group members to create, identify, work toward, achieve, and share in common goals (Priest & Gass, 1997). A leader must have many qualities, ranging from technical skills to sound judgement. Priest points out that an often-overlooked element in leadership is the possession of a flexible leadership style.

Stoll, Outward Bound Instructor maintains that all theories of leadership are theories of authority and have nothing to do with leadership, but actually deal with authority. Stoll, suggests that “the role of authority is to remove stress from a system and return a system to equilibrium; that is what we look for our so-called leaders to do” (Stoll, 1991, as cited in Cash & Phipps, 76).
Stoll, maintains that leaders are people who “increase stress in a system in order to increase
disequilibrium ... until the pain of remaining in the status quo is more painful than the pain of
changing to a higher order, which means that in a significant number of cases, leadership and
authority are antithetical” (Stoll, 1991, as cited in Cash & Phipps, p. 75). Leaders in all situations
must be prepared to make decisions that will change the status quo and then be prepared to lead
the people in the new direction until they are familiar with the course enough to follow it
voluntarily. In outdoor education things change rapidly requiring a leader who is flexible and
able to recognize the difference between situations that require change and those that do not.

Phipps (1984) identified the qualities of leadership as courage, compassion, service, and
willingness. Phipps, analyzed the qualities of leaders as portrayed in classical literature, from
Miguel de Cervantes’ Don Quixote to Hermann Hesse’s Journey to the East, and found that all
leaders share these character attributes, although their styles of leadership may be different.
Leaders may share common characteristics and leadership traits but they each bring a unique
personality to their leadership position. Their leadership is shaped by their personality and
defined with the amount of authority they enjoy and the opportunities to exercise leadership.

Leadership characteristics are the basis of leadership theory. The current theories of
leadership developed incrementally through the evolution and testing of the theories. In
reviewing the development of leadership throughout history teachers can see how leadership
time has evolved. The theories discussed in the following section will consider current theories
of leadership.

The History of Theories of Leadership

The following paragraphs describe contemporary theories of leadership. The trait theory
of leadership was one of the first to be studied in the early 1900’s (Northouse, 1997). This theory
defines the character traits that make people into leaders. These “great man” theories “focus on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great social, political, and military leaders” (Northouse, 1997, p. 13). In the mid 1900’s, this theory was challenged by research that questioned the universality of leadership traits. Stogdill (1948) suggested that there was no consistent set of traits that differentiated leaders from nonleaders across a variety of situations. Rather than consisting of a fixed set of traits, leadership was a relationship among people in a social setting. In recent years, however, the trait approach has received new interest (Bryman, 1992).

Research in trait theory has discovered that leaders possess the following characteristics: intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability (Stogdill, 1974). These qualities however, do not ensure that an individual will, become a leader. The traits must be relevant to the situations in which the leader is functioning. Stogdill (1974) published a later survey which identified the following personality traits:

- Drive for responsibility and task completion
- Vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals
- Venturesomeness and originality in problem solving
- Drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity
- Willingness to accept consequences of decision and action
- Readiness to absorb interpersonal stress
- Willingness to tolerate frustration
- Ability to influence other persons’ behavior
Capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand

Stogdill also mentioned that the situation is an important factor in determining whether or not an individual assumes a leadership position.

The style approach of leadership differs from the trait approach, in that it emphasizes the behavior of the leader, and not his or her personality characteristics. Fleishman put it like this: “The shift in emphasis... was from thinking about leadership in terms of traits that someone ‘has’ to the conceptualization of leadership as a form of activity (Fleishman, 1973, p. 3). The style approach focuses on what leaders do and how they act, including toward subordinates.

There are two styles of leadership that were identified by Fleishman: task behaviors and relationship behaviors. Task behaviors focus on goal accomplishment, and relationship behaviors focus on helping subordinates feel comfortable with themselves and with each other.

Researchers at the Ohio state university analyzed the style approach and found that two general types of leader behaviors were recognized by subordinates: initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure behaviors were task-oriented, involving such things as organizing the work, defining work roles and setting responsibilities. Consideration behaviors were relationship behaviors, including building camaraderie, respect, trust, and affection among leaders and followers.

Researchers at the University of Michigan conducted a study that identified two types of leadership behaviors: employee orientation and production orientation. The first describes the behavior of leaders who deal with subordinates in a humanitarian manner, taking an interest in workers and showing respect for their individuality. The second style, production orientation, refers to leadership behaviors that stress the technical and production aspects of a job (Bowers & Seashore, 1966). All other leadership styles were conceptualized to be within a continuum.
Another well-known model of leadership behavioral style is Blake and Mouton’s Managerial (Leadership) Grid (Figure 1). This grid explains how leaders help organizations reach their goals through two factors: concern for production and concern for people. These models closely parallel the task and relationship leadership behavior discussed above (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

**Managerial Grid Leadership styles**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High (maximum)</th>
<th>Team of integrated leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human relations or Country club leadership</td>
<td>(High concern for people and high concern for production)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low (minimum)</td>
<td>Middle-of-the-road leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impoverished leadership</td>
<td>Medium concern for people and production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task or factors-of-production leadership</td>
<td>(High concern for production and low concern for people)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.** Managerial Grid Leadership Styles (Blake & Mouton, 1964)

According to the theory behind the managerial grid, the style that will achieve the
best results is the team style, because it is characterized by a high concern for both people and production. However, the concept of one style fits all situations is not supported by research in leadership effectiveness. Results of research by Steinmetz and Todd were that “some leaders were very effective when they had low concern for people, yet others were very effective when they had low concern for production. Furthermore, still others were effective when they had low concern for both people and production” (Steinmetz & Todd, p. 113)

A widely accepted approach to leadership developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1969 is the situational approach. The basic idea of this theory is that different kinds of situations require different kinds of leadership, and a leader must adopt his or her style of leadership to the different situations.

Fiedler (1974) conducted extensive research into the contingency model of leadership effectiveness. The Contingency theory of leadership explains that leaders are matched to certain situations. A leader’s effectiveness depends on how well his or her leadership style fits the situation (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974). In order to understand the performance of leaders, it is important to understand the situations in which they lead. Fiedler (1974) determined that three dimensions of a situation have a critical affect on the leader’s effectiveness: leader-member relations, or the degree of trust between the leader and group members; task structure, or the degree to which the task can be specifically defined; and position power, which is the amount of formal power the leader has because of the position he or she occupies. Fiedler’s research supported the idea that the situation is favorable for a leader when the leader is liked, trusted, has good relations with the members, the task is highly structured, and the position power is high.

Path-Goal theory deals with how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish desired goals. Path-goal theory appeared in the 1970’s. The goal of path-goal theory is to enhance
employee performance and employee satisfaction by focusing on employee motivation. In this theory, the challenge for the leader is to adapt his or her leadership style to the characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting (Evans, 1970).

The leader-member exchange theory emphasizes leadership as a process that is concerned with the interactions between leaders and followers. There is a dyadic relationship between leaders and followers, and this is the focal point of the leadership relationship. There are two types of linkages that exist within the dyads: expanded and negotiated role responsibilities (extra-roles, called the in-group), and formal contract (defined roles) called the out-group. Whether subordinates belong to one group or the other depends on how well they take it upon themselves to expand their work role and their relationship with the leader (Dansereau & Haga, 1975).

Transformation leadership, a current approach, describes leadership that transforms organizations and individuals and leads change proactively. Transformational leadership raises the level of motivation in both the leader and the followers. It signals a basic and fundamental change in the organization. Charisma is an integral part of transformational leadership (Burns, 1978). Mahatma Gandhi is an example of a transformational leader.

These theories provide a foundation of understanding in what characteristics leaders have and how one can obtain those characteristics. The theories describe a wide variety of leadership experiences and situations. The theories identify many of the traits of people who have proven leadership skills. Theories also attempt to explain the skills needed for specific situations and the dynamic nature of leadership situations. Although each theory has validity given the combination of personality of the leaders and group, situation and skills of the leader, the most prominent or important theory is the situation theory. The situation theory makes
allowances for the most variables in describing the leadership experience. It is important to recognize that there is no single style of leadership. Leaders are leaders because they are able to stay focused in situations requiring decision making, especially decisions that must be made in a very short period of time. The situational theory explains that leaders must have the flexibility to change the skills they use as the situation they are in changes. Few leaders experience more change in a situation than a leader in an outdoor situation. Therefore, the leadership of outdoor educators will be reviewed in the following section.

**Leadership in Outdoor Education**

According to Priest and Gass (1997) there are three outdoor leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and abdicratic:

1. The autocratic style is characterized by an authoritarian approach in which the leader makes all-important decisions and dictates needed responses.

2. The democratic style is characterized by shared decision making, with all participants involved in problem-solving activities.

3. In the abdicratic or laissez-faire style, the leader delegates decision-making to the group and agrees to abide by their resolutions.

Priest and Gass (1997) define outdoor leadership as a process of influence. Leaders “influence other group members to create, identify, work toward, achieve, and share mutually acceptable goals” (p. 3). Often more than one leader emerges in any given situation to fulfill these goals. Priest and Gass point out that the three leadership styles of democratic, abdicratic and autocratic are all necessary for outdoor leaders. The decision of what style to use depends on the situation. Although group decision-making is often best achieved in a democratic way, as a shared process, in an emergency an autocratic style of giving directions is often required. When
an experience is going well, however, an abdicratic style, in which the leader delegates the
decision-making responsibility to the group, is often the appropriate way to proceed (Priest &
Gass, 1997).

The abdicratic style of leadership corresponds to the discovery approach of learning
advocated by Blackwood (1973) in the Journal of Outdoor Education. According to Blackwood,
students learn best when they are allowed to discover information for themselves. The teacher
guides them in their search to discover how the world works, but he or she lets them find
information on their own.

Dan and Ralph (1978) have taken the three leadership styles and analyzed them.
The three tables below (Figures 2, 3, and 4) explain the advantages and disadvantages of the
three different leadership styles. As the figures will show, each leadership style has specific
characteristics with the potential benefits and disadvantages. There are times when each style is
appropriate for a given situation. Therefore, good leaders will have the skills necessary to use all
three types and have the knowledge to know when each type of leadership is appropriate.
## AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style Characteristics</th>
<th>Potential Benefits</th>
<th>Potential Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The leader makes most of the decisions without consulting group members.</td>
<td>It can provide consistency in goals and procedures because all decisions are made by the leader.</td>
<td>It may result in low motivation, because many people resent being controlled. It may be difficult to develop motivation when the leader is making all the decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leader controls the actions of group members by using the power to provide rewards and discipline.</td>
<td>Since group members are not consulted, decisions can be made very rapidly.</td>
<td>It tends to reduce creativity, and group members avoid accepting responsibility for their performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actions of group members are directed by the leader, with very little individual freedom of action permitted.</td>
<td>It makes possible centralization of control and coordination for orderly operation.</td>
<td>Since most communication is one-way, there may be frequent misunderstandings between the leader and group members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leader tries to develop obedient and predictable behavior from group members.</td>
<td>The person with well-developed leadership skills can apply them directly in supervising group activities.</td>
<td>The leader’s directive may be inflexible, and it may be difficult to adapt to changes in tasks or new situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group members are dependent on the leader to establish group goals, provide coordination, and plan activities.</td>
<td>Where there are major problems or a crisis situation, the leader can take direct control and exert strong leadership.</td>
<td>Group members may feel left out and do only the minimum necessary to “get by.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leader has little concern for the attitudes, feelings, and value of group members.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2.** Autocratic Leadership (Costley & Todd, 1978)
DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style Characteristics</th>
<th>Potential Benefits</th>
<th>Potential Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The leader consults with group members and involves them in the decision-making process.</td>
<td>Participation in decision-making can result in high motivation of group members.</td>
<td>Some group members may dominate the participation and others may take time with contributions that are negative in nature. This can result in individuals developing resentment and feeling alienated from the group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leader delegates authority and responsibility to group members.</td>
<td>It can result in more effective decisions by using the knowledge and experience of group members.</td>
<td>It can be very time-consuming for the leader to involve group members in decision-making and keep them informed so they can make effective contributions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement of group goals depends on the leader coordinating group involvement and obtaining cooperation.</td>
<td>Individuals are usually more committed to achieving group goals when they are involved in setting the goals.</td>
<td>If decisions are made on the basis of compromises, it is possible that the most effective course of action will not be taken. Where conflict exists, decisions may be based on what is the least offensive to the group as a whole.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leader considers the attitudes, feelings, and values of group members in making decisions.</td>
<td>The development of individual abilities and leadership increases through participation in the decision-making process.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leader uses two-way communication and is directly involved with group members in setting goals and conducting activities.</td>
<td>Participation promotes two-way communication, which can result in individuals being better informed and can produce more cooperation.</td>
<td>If there is extensive delegation and no clear-cut responsibilities, the result may be that no one takes action.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Democratic Leadership (Costley & Todd, 1978).
## ABDICRATIC LEADERSHIP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Style Characteristics</strong></th>
<th><strong>Potential Benefits</strong></th>
<th><strong>Potential Disadvantages</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group members are allowed to make decisions without any input from the leader.</td>
<td>The ability to work independently can be very motivational for some people.</td>
<td>There can be a severe lack of coordination of the activities of individuals in the group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leader does not attempt to coordinate or control the actions of group members.</td>
<td>The lack of restrictions tends to encourage suggestions, creativity and innovations.</td>
<td>Group objectives may be ignored and individual objectives are likely to dominate activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group effectiveness depends on individual responsibility and self-control.</td>
<td>The group is usually very flexible and is able to adapt quickly to changes.</td>
<td>The behavior of an individual group member may disrupt the activities of others because of a lack of control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The individual desires of the group members are the major influence on group goals and methods of operation.</td>
<td>Communication is usually open and direct, and individuals have maximum opportunity for self-expression.</td>
<td>Since the leader exerts no effort to promote corporation, it is possible for individuals to go their separate ways, resulting in confusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leader’s primary role is to help individual group members achieve their personal objectives.</td>
<td>Some individuals believe that it increases the “quality of life” in the group.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual behavior is characterized by maximum independence and flexibility.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. Abdicratic Leadership (Costley & Todd, 1978).
Gair (1997) states that within a group of young people involved in an outdoor experience, “the leadership may rotate around the members of the group depending upon which task has to be performed” (p. 28). Graham (1997) points out that the most important thing about leadership style is to be true to oneself: “Identifying your own leadership style lets you maximize its strengths and compensate for any weaknesses. Whatever your style, it must be authentic. If the people following you know that ‘what they see is what they get,’ they will feel more comfortable with, and trusting of, you as leader” (p. 33). According to Graham, leadership is not a set of rules. Leadership is an art in which an individual’s personality plays a major role. Many styles can work, the important thing is to make use of the style one has. A leader should never try to change his personality to someone else’s image of what a leader should be.

Leadership styles should be flexible. For example, on a mountaineering expedition if the leader believes the weather will not allow the group to continue, leader does not have to simply announce to the group that they will be turning back. leader can call for a rest, wait five or ten minutes while group members assess the situation for themselves, then ask them what they think. They may very well decide for themselves that they should go back. If not, it is time for the leader to be autocratic and announce that a return is in order. There is no reason, however, why the abdicratic approach cannot be tried first. As the gravity of a situation increases, the leadership style must become more authoritarian. In these situations the time required for reaching a consensus is often not available, and the abdicratic leadership style is not acceptable (Graham, 1997).

Most of today’s theories on outdoor education have been influenced by the educational theories of John Dewey. Dewey emphasized teaching to the whole person. Dewey regarded all
education as adventure. Dewey was not involved in outdoor education, but his theories have been adopted by specialists in that field. “The risk taking and adventure that Dewey referred to were the experience of venturing into the cerebral, not necessarily the physical unknown” (Cross, 1998, p. 45).

When trying to arrive at a definition of outdoor education the model of a tree used by Priest (1986) is useful. Priest compared outdoor education to a tree in which the trunk represents outdoor education, the roots represent the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of learning, and the branches represent the different disciplines of outdoor education. Adventure education is one of the branches of the tree. (Priest, 1986 as cited in Cross, 1998)

In the 1970’s and 1980’s a mechanized view of education that stressed standardized testing and measurable academic achievement was popular. Today, however, a humanistic approach is emphasized. Few educational programs address the psychomotor, social, and affective domains to the extent of adventure learning. Adventure education enhances an individual’s feelings of self-worth, leadership responsibility, and cohesiveness with the group (Cross, 1998).

Regardless of the leadership qualities of the leader, he or she will fall into one of the three basic leadership styles. It is possible for the leader to change leadership styles as required by the situation and this is often needed in outdoors education experiences. Knowing the three leadership styles, their strengths and weaknesses and their common aspects allow outdoor education leaders to apply the appropriate style in a given situation.

**Common Aspects of all Theories**

All of the above theories define leaders as people of exceptional abilities, drive,
perseverance, and human understanding, but theories do not provide a formula for how to find or train a leader when one is required. Whether one follows the trait theory, the style theory, the initiating versus consideration structure theory, the employee versus production orientation theory, the situational approach, the contingency model, Path-Goal Theory, the leader-member theory, transformational leadership, team leadership theory, or the three styles defined by Priest—democratic, autocratic and abdicratic—one thing seems to be true: there is not one particular leadership style that is guaranteed to be successful in all situations. Flexibility in leadership style and orientation may be the most important thing for any leader to keep in mind.

The differences among these leadership theories lie more in the ways researchers believe leadership is nurtured and can be discovered, rather than in the characteristics of leadership itself. Some researchers believe that leaders have character traits that set them apart from others, and some believe that leaders emerge only when the situation calls for them. Some researchers emphasize leadership style as the most important element. All agree, however, that leaders are people who exert influence on others.

All leaders need to have leadership qualities and be prepared to show their flexibility as needed in a dynamic environment. As will be presented, outdoor leadership instructors have a special responsibility to know when to be a leader and when to be a teacher and when it is possible to do both at the same time.

**Teacher or Leader and Instructor Differentiated**

It is important to understand that a teacher has a far wider range of responsibility than an instructor, because a teacher is a leader. This is particularly true in the field of outdoor education where certain dangers are part of the teaching situation. A teacher is a leader. Instructor and leader are often confused, but as can be seen, the two occupations are on totally
different levels of experience. The table below (Figure, 5) makes important distinctions between an instructor and a leader.

**The Difference Between an Instructor and A Leader**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructor</th>
<th>Leader</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. An instructor’s job is to teach a skill, a technique, an activity, a game or a subject.</td>
<td>1. A leader’s job is to influence the growth of the followers to better citizenship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. His or her main aim is to improve the skill of the individual.</td>
<td>2. A leader’s main aim is to improve character and life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. An instructor is primarily activity-centered.</td>
<td>3. A leader is person-centered as well as acidity-oriented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Instructors are mainly concerned with how well a person can perform now, in the activity or game.</td>
<td>4. A leader is more concerned by how well people will perform in adulthood, what ideals, what values, what goals they will reach for.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Instructors watch what is happening to the ball and its effect on the scoreboard</td>
<td>5. A leader is concerned with what is happening to the followers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Instructors want results now.</td>
<td>6. A leader aims for results in the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. An instructor stresses and uses position, rank an authority to get compliance.</td>
<td>7. A leader uses influence to create the desire to follow the advice being given.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. An instructor considers the game, the activity, the program as an end in itself.</td>
<td>8. A leader sees activities as tools to teach attitudes and ideals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. An instructor is content to work with those who come to the activity.</td>
<td>9. A leader is concerned about those who don’t come, and does something about it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5. The Difference Between an Instructor and A Leader (Vick, 1980).

Teachers and leaders must have people to work with in order to engage in teaching and leadership activities. Group behavior differs from individual behavior and therefore must be studied separately in terms of the dynamics of education and leadership which will be covered in
Theories of Group Development

There are numerous theories about how groups develop. Each theory follows predictable growth stages, with each stage characterized by specific and re-occurring characteristics. Parsons (1961) analyzed the four primary issues groups must deal with in order to work effectively:

1. Latent pattern maintenance or organization (L) – the group needs to define its purpose and situation.
2. Adaptation (A) – the group needs to develop new skills to help analyze its interpersonal interactions.
3. Integration (I) – the group needs to reorganize itself so that newly acquired skills can be utilized independently of the leader.
4. Goal attainment (G). – the group continues to work on the tasks assigned (Parsons, 1961)

Most theories of group development contain a total of five stages, usually including one or more of the above elements. The first stage, forming, includes coming together to sort out the tasks and relationships. In the second stage, storming, members sort out how they will relate to each other and how the work will be divided. During the third stage, norming, the group establishes its ground rules for tasks and relationships and begins the work. In the fourth stage, performing, the group is working as a team and is accomplishing a high output of work. In the fifth and final stage, adjourning, the work is completed and the group closes down, with individual participants moving on to other projects (Attarian & Priest, 1994).

The three different leadership styles are used at different stages of the group formation
process. Often the style of leadership required depends upon the importance of accomplishing the task at hand as opposed to the importance of establishing relationships. As the concern for task, or getting the job done, increases, the leadership style becomes more autocratic. As the concern for relationship and group needs increases, democratic and abdicratic styles are more appropriate. The following diagram (Figure, 6) shows the appropriate leadership styles for the five group stages, with the variable of task and relationship dimensions factored in also (Attarian & Priest, 1994).

The interaction between leader’s concern for dimensions of TASK and RELATIONSHIP

Figure 6. Stages of Group Development (Attarian & Priest, 1994)

The theories and orientations of outdoor education leadership are helpful in designing a program for teaching of the knowledge and skills of outdoor leadership to students who want to become outdoor education instructors. The students who are the focus of this study are the students who are to be enrolled in programs to become outdoor leadership education courses and physical education courses in Saudi Arabia.

History of Sport in Saudi Arabia

Organized sports developed in Saudi Arabia at the same time as the modern Saudi society was developing. Before the development of organized sports only individual sports such as camel and horse racing, archery and javelin were practiced. Contemporary sports developed
along with hospitals, transportation, education, electricity, modern cities, and a peaceful society (Al-Gamlas, 1999).

Until 1943 the only sports available were those sponsored by private enterprise. There were no nationally accepted rules for team management, and no procedures for one league playing another up to and including playoff games (Saati, 1994).

The Saudi government started opening sport centers in 1965. These centers were built in cities and villages around the country, and centers were under the auspices of the Youth Welfare office (Al-Gamlas, 1994). Gradually sports associations grew, still under the supervision of the Youth Welfare Office. Supervised competitions and national championships developed.

The Youth Welfare Office has branches all over the country and has as its goal the promotion of the physical, social, and educational development of the Saudi male youth. The Youth Welfare Office is responsible for building playing fields, sports clubs, recreation centers. Also, it supplies the equipment that is needed for all sports activities. In 1999 the Youth Welfare Office established the following goals:

- To foster the development of Saudi youth according to the precepts of Islam, and to provide all that is needed to that end.
- To contribute to the strength and stability of the family through sports activities.
- To maintain the sports centers and facilities.
- To reinforce positive behavior through instruction in sports.
- To uplift the spirits and souls of Saudi youth and to teach them to relish their lives.

The most popular sport in Saudi Arabia is football (soccer). Other popular sports are basketball, volleyball, handball, weight lifting, and bicycling. A sign of the success of the
Saudi sport effort was the participation of the Saudi Football team in the World Cup of 1994. Saudi football, gymnastic, basketball, volleyball, and swimming athletes have competed in sports events in cities around the world (Al-Gamlas, 1994).

Summary

The study of leadership theory is long and comprehensive. Leadership in outdoor education is a relatively new area, and researchers in this area are presently integrating their theories of leadership into overall leadership theory. The study of which leadership style to use in which situation is receiving more attention as researchers and teachers are understanding how important this area of study is for teachers and students alike, not only to maintain safety but also because the style of leadership used is an important element in how much the student assimilates from the learning experience.

Sports have experienced a tremendous growth and development since the 1960’s, and leadership in this area is particularly challenging for Saudis since it is a relatively new area. Outdoor education is crucial in Saudi Arabia, where the people of the country have a vast knowledge of survival skills in desert environments, and the educational establishment has realized that unless these skills are taught in the school environment, they may be lost forever.

The physical and psychological skills that are necessary for desert survival can benefit an individual throughout his life. The more that is known about appropriate leadership styles in outdoor education, the more prepared Saudi teachers will be to use the knowledge and experience of the past to lead students successfully through the challenges and opportunities of the twenty-first century.