Bronze Medals

Candidate Supplement

LIFESAVING SOCIETY

The Lifeguarding Experts

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Bronze Medals Candidate Supplement

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The Lifesaving Society is Canada's lifeguarding expert. The Society works to prevent drowning and reduce water-related injury through its training programs, Water Smart® public education initiatives, drowning research, aquatic safety management services, and lifesaving sport.

Annually, over 1.2 million Canadians participate in our swimming, lifesaving, lifeguard and leadership training programs. The Society sets the standard for aquatic safety in Canada and certifies Canada's National Lifeguards.

The Society is an independent, charitable organization educating Canadian lifesavers since the first Lifesaving Society Bronze Medallion Award was earned in 1896.

The Society represents Canada internationally as an active member of the Commonwealth Royal Life Saving Society and the International Life Saving Federation. The Society is the Canadian governing body for lifesaving sport - a sport recognized by the International Olympic Committee and the Commonwealth Games Federation.

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Table of Contents

Bronze Medals Candidate Supplement

Some technical content required in the revised Bronze awards is not found in the current edition of the *Canadian Lifesaving Manual* (CLM) – the technical reference for Bronze candidates. This content is provided in this Supplement.

FITT Principle

Bronze Star Item 11

CLM Chapter 10 Physical Fitness and Lifesaving

Physical fitness plays an important role in water rescue because it affects a rescuer's personal safety, rescue choices and rescue performance. Fitness levels improve only when the muscles, body systems and energy sources work at an intensity greater than normally encountered.

The FITT principle helps rescuers understand how to improve and maintain their physical fitness.

Frequency – how often you exercise (e.g., number of days per week)

Intensity – how hard you work during exercise (e.g., low, moderate or high intensity)

Time – how long you exercise during each session

Type – the kind of exercise you do (e.g., cardiovascular, strength training)

The four components of the FITT principle are interconnected. For example, high-intensity training usually involve shorter workouts and fewer days per week. Low-intensity training may involve longer workouts more often.

Use the FITT principle to develop a fitness improvement plan based on clear goals. A plan to improve cardiovascular endurance will apply the FITT principle differently than will a plan to improve muscular strength. The FITT principle is flexible and allows you to adjust workout plans as your physical condition changes over time.

The 6 x 25 and 2 x 50 segments of the Fitness Challenge workout (Item 11) in Bronze Star employ interval training. This means that intervals of work are followed by periods of rest. You can vary the amount and intensity of work. Varying the intensity of effort exercises the heart, providing a cardiovascular workout, improving aerobic capacity and permitting the person to exercise for longer and/or at more intense levels.

You can also vary the ratios of work duration to rest periods. For example, if you establish an interval time of 60 sec., this means candidates swim 25 m or yd. every 60 sec. The faster they swim (the work), the longer they get to rest – and vice versa.

Gear the initial intensity of the workout to the current fitness levels of the candidates. Adjust interval times to encourage initial success.

Entries and Removals

Bronze Medallion Item 8; Bronze Cross Item 6

CLM Chapter 4.12 Removals

In addition to the removal techniques described in the *Canadian Lifesaving Manual*, the following removal options may be useful:

Ladder – When a ladder is accessible and the victim is able to get out of the water with little assistance, the rescuer moves up the ladder behind the victim to prevent them from falling back into the water. A bystander or second rescuer takes a position in front of or beside the ladder ready to assist as needed.

Knee step – When a ladder is not available and a smaller victim is able to get out of the water with little assistance, rescuer braces one leg bent at a 90-degree angle against the pool wall. The victim steps onto the rescuer's thigh and onto the deck or dock. A bystander or second rescuer takes a position on the deck/dock ready to assist as needed.

Hand step – This removal (for smaller victims who need little assistance) is similar to using a hand step to boost a person onto horseback. Braced against the side of the pool, the rescuer locks hands to form a "stirrup". The victim steps into the stirrup and then onto the deck/dock. A bystander or second rescuer takes a position on the deck/dock ready to assist as needed.

Drowning Chain of Survival

Bronze Medallion Item 2

The *Drowning Chain of Survival* illustrates the five steps to reduce drowning fatalities that guide rescuer actions: Prevent drowning. Recognize distress. Provide flotation. Remove from water. Provide care as needed.

Injured Victims and First Aid Interventions

Rescuers are trained to recognize a number of victim types to include injured swimmers. In the Bronze Medal programs, first aid interventions are limited to aquatic emergencies such as non-fatal drowning, drowning resuscitation, shallow water blackout, spinal injuries, hypothermia and shock.

Non-fatal Drowning

Bronze Cross Item 2

CLM Chapter 8.3 Airway and Breathing Problems; 8.8 Medical Disorders (Drowning)

Almost 500 Canadians die every year in water-related incidents. Drowning remains the third leading cause of accidental death among Canadians and the second leading cause of accidental death for children under the age of 10.

Drowning is the process of experiencing respiratory impairment from immersion in liquid. Outcomes of drowning include death, morbidity (survival with poor brain function) and no morbidity (survival with good brain function). Drownings are classified as either non-fatal (the victim survives) or fatal (the victim dies). Drowning victims may be conscious or unconscious.

During a drowning, a victim may aspirate (breathe in) water. Signs and symptoms of aspiration may include coughing or wheezing, shortness of breath, chest pain on inhalation, nausea or vomiting, coughing up whitish or pink frothy fluid, shock, and reduced level of consciousness.

When rescuing a drowning non-swimmer, get the victim's head and shoulders out of the water as soon as possible. Call EMS or seek further medical attention if the victim exhibits the signs or symptoms of aspiration. Place victim in a semi-sitting position or position of comfort and treat for shock.

If EMS or further medical attention is not required, educate adult victims or parents/guardians of victims that are minors to seek medical attention if aspiration symptoms develop over the next few hours or days.

Drowning Resuscitation

Bronze Star Item 8, Bronze Medallion Item 13 and 19, Bronze Cross Item 9 and 16.

CLM Chapter 7.2 The ABC Priorities; 7.4 Rescue Breathing; 7.5 CPR and AED; Chapter 8.3 Airway and Breathing Problems (Aspiration); Appendix B The Society's Policy Guidelines on Rescue Breathing Practice

When an unresponsive victim has been removed from the water, rescuers will assess breathing – if the victim is not breathing or not breathing effectively, the rescuer performs CPR starting with rescue breaths due to the hypoxic nature of the incident. Refer to the Canadian Lifesaving Manual for CPR and AED protocols.

Shallow Water Blackout

Bronze Cross Item 3

Alert, Chapter 3 Aquatic Emergencies: Recognition and Intervention; Alert Insert Shallow Water Blackout

Shallow water blackout (unconsciousness) results from an insufficient amount of carbon dioxide to activate the body's natural impulse to breathe. Swimmers who practice prolonged underwater breath holding are particularly at risk.

Swimmers mistakenly think that hyperventilation or overbreathing will increase the amount of oxygen in the bloodstream and prolong the time they can spend underwater. What they are really doing is extending their time underwater by closing down the body's natural breathing mechanism, not by increasing oxygen load.

The primary urge to breathe is usually triggered by rising carbon dioxide in the bloodstream. In hyperventilating, swimmers blow off an excessive amount of carbon dioxide. The swimmer never feels that a breath is needed and – without any warning – loses consciousness when the oxygen level in the blood runs low before the carbon dioxide level rises sufficiently to trigger breathing.

Once submerged, the swimmer may be hidden from lifeguards' view by surface glare and ripple/waves on the surface.

Typical victims of shallow water blackout do not fit the profile of an at-risk swimmer and therefore may not receive the lifeguard attention that a non-swimmer or 'gutter-grabber' might. Shallow-water blackout is a potential hazard for competitive swimmers, underwater hockey players, fitness swimmers and young children vying to see who can hold their breath the longest.

Lifeguards should be aware that victims of shallow water blackout are not your typical at-risk swimmer. Be on the lookout for swimmers taking several large forced breaths or a series of short, fast breaths. Do not allow (and post signs warning against) hyperventilation or breath-holding activity.

Remove the victim from the water and call EMS. Place an unresponsive breathing victim in the recovery position, keep them warm and monitor breathing. If breathing absent, CPR started with 2 rescue breaths.

Spinal Injury Management

Bronze Cross Item 10

CLM Chapter 5.10 Rescue Procedures for Spinal Injuries; Chapter 7.2 The ABC Priorities; Chapter 9.3 Swimming Skills

There are a number of situations in which a rescuer could suspect that an injured victim has sustained a spinal injury. Refer to the Canadian Lifesaving Manual for signs and symptoms of a spinal injury and treatment protocols.

Shock

Bronze Medallion Item 18

CLM Chapter 8.2 Shock

All injured victims should be treated for shock to include keeping them warm, maintaining the airway, rest and reassurance. Refer to the Canadian Lifesaving Manual for signs and symptoms of shock and treatment protocols.

Hypothermia

Bronze Medallion Item 4

CLM Chapter 2 Drowning Prevention (Know the Dangers of Cold Water); Chapter 3 Self-rescue (Self-rescue from Cold Water); Chapter 8 First Aid: The Treatment of Illness or Injury (Hypothermia)

Hypothermia is a risk associated with cold water immersion. Refer to the Canadian Lifesaving Manual for signs and symptoms of hypothermia and treatment protocols.

Roles and Responsibilities of Assistant Lifeguards

Bronze Cross Item 4

Alert Chapter 1 *Lifeguarding in Action*

Lifesavers, assistant lifeguards, and lifeguards

Lifesaving training equips swimmers with the judgment, skills, knowledge and fitness to respond in an aquatic emergency. Typically, a lifesaver reacts as an individual Good Samaritan bystander. Bystanders are not legally obligated to help in an emergency (except in Quebec). Lifeguards, on the other hand, have a legal responsibility for the safety supervision of patrons of the aquatic facility.

With assistant lifeguard training, lifesavers transition from thinking and reacting like bystanders to the proactive prevention perspective of lifeguards. Where lifesavers commonly act alone, assistant lifeguards train and act as part of the lifeguard team – within established protocols and standard operating procedures.

Generally, those with lifeguard certifications take the lead role in risk assessments, lifeguard positioning and rotation, coordinating rescue response, administrative duties and in-service training. Assistant lifeguards play a supportive role under lifeguard direction.

Government regulation and employer policies – that address minimum ages, minimum certification requirements, and currency of awards – affect the employment eligibility of lifeguards and assistant lifeguards. In addition, specific job responsibilities of assistant lifeguards and lifeguards may vary from employer to employer and in different aquatic facilities.

Nevertheless, the safety supervision role and primary objective of lifeguards and assistant lifeguards is the same: to prevent drowning and water-related injury, and when prevention fails, to respond quickly and professionally to prevent loss of life.

Prevention first

Guards spend most of their time in accident prevention activities including controlling, directing, or influencing patron behaviour. Guards must be knowledgeable about how aquatic accidents occur – when, where, why, and to whom – so that they have the understanding necessary to prevent them.

Prevention through facility analysis: Guards analyse both the physical characteristics and the operation of the aquatic facility, and the causes of accidents occurring in it, to identify hazards and to determine safety practices that will reduce or eliminate risks.

Prevention through education: Guards educate patrons about the hazards and risks associated with aquatic activities and how to be “water smart.”

Prevention through supervision: Guards provide vigilant, attentive, and alert supervision of the patrons of the facility. To do this, they must master a variety of supervision skills and techniques including: positioning, scanning and victim recognition, and communication.

Rescue ready

Guards must ensure they are ready to respond effectively at any time. This requires ongoing in-service training of judgment, knowledge, skill, fitness, leadership, and teamwork.

Lifeguards have a range of rescue techniques from the basic to the advanced. As an emergency situation unfolds, changes in rescue procedure can become necessary and the lifeguard must be able to draw instantly on an understanding of alternative skills, techniques, and procedures and adapt them to the demands of the situation.

Physical and mental fitness are prerequisites for effective lifeguarding. Lifeguards can be called upon to perform a demanding physical rescue at any time and under a variety of environmental circumstances. Mental and physical fitness are needed to sustain vigilant, attentive, and alert supervision.

Lifeguard and assistant lifeguard responsibilities

While the specific duties of lifeguards and assistant lifeguards may vary depending on the number of staff, the characteristics of the facility and the employer policies, lifeguards and assistant lifeguards have common responsibilities:

To the public: The public who use the facility for recreation and pleasure are entitled to and expect a safe and happy experience. Guards have an ethical and a legal duty to provide patrons with a high level of concern and a high standard of care for their safety. At the same time, lifeguards are expected to facilitate this safe, enjoyable aquatic experience.

To fellow guards: A lifeguard places trust in fellow team members. Each lifeguard has a responsibility to maintain this trust by maintaining adequate skill, knowledge, and fitness levels and demonstrating a concern for personal and lifeguard team development.

To the employer: In accepting the job, guards accept the objectives, duties, and responsibilities stated by the employer. Employer policies and protocols concerning abuse, harassment and confidentiality must be respected.

To one's self: A lifeguard's education and skill improvement never stops. Ongoing practice and refinement of personal lifeguarding skills is essential. Lifeguarding techniques are revised periodically, new equipment is developed, changes in the structural features of aquatic facilities require reassessment of rules, emergency procedures, and educational practices. A commitment to excellence is crucial to a rewarding and fulfilling career as a lifeguard.

Communication

Bronze Cross Item 5

Alert Chapter 2 Communication with Patrons, Whistle signals, Voice communication (p. 22-23); Chapter 3 Communication among Lifeguards, Communication with the Victim, Communication with Emergency Services (p. 36-39); Alert Insert Arm signals (p. 4-5)

Communication with patrons

To prevent accidents, lifeguards must communicate successfully with patrons to stop dangerous activities and to warn and educate them about potential hazards. During emergencies, lifeguards must maintain communication with patrons both to direct and to reassure them.

The lifeguard's challenge is to maximize patrons' fun while minimizing their risk of injury. Positive public relations stems from the attitude that patrons are guests in the aquatic facility – not inmates. Good public relations results in positive patron attitudes and behaviour.

The behaviour that guards model and the manner in which they communicate with patrons both matter. The goal should be to persuade patrons to see the lifeguard as someone who is professional, approachable, and eager to help rather than someone who interferes with enjoyment.

Adapt communication signals and techniques to suit the specific characteristics of your facility and its clientele. Factors such as acoustics, noise levels, distances, sight lines, the type of patrons, and the desire for positive public relations all influence the appropriate communication.

Communication is two-way. Learn to convey information calmly, clearly, and accurately. Ensure all communication with patrons is respectful. Practice effective listening skills to ensure that you accurately receive information important to a rescue.

Whistle signals: Whistles are loud, piercing and shrill. Constant whistle blasts are annoying. Use them judiciously. Typical whistle signals include:

- 1 short blast means “attention” (followed by instructions).
- 1 long blast means “emergency: leave the water.”

Educate patrons to respond quickly to lifeguards’ signals and insist upon speedy reaction to “clear the water” signals.

Verbal communication: The most effective means of preventing accidents or correcting inappropriate behaviour is direct communication between the lifeguard and the patron. Move as close to the patron as possible. Lower yourself to the patron’s physical level and use respectful language.

Ensure that your zone is supervised during communications with patrons. Be brief and keep your eyes on your area. If you must communicate for any longer than a few seconds, signal another guard to cover your area.

Communication with victims

Although a victim in a water rescue might fail to respond to instructions, the manner in which you communicate may have a calming effect. Gentle tones and calm soothing rhythms are the sort of para-language that might penetrate the victim’s limited awareness of the surroundings. How you say something may be as important as what you say. Calm, relaxed, and decisive movements and gestures help reassure a victim.

Reassurance: Although each victim will react uniquely, there are some characteristics common to accident victims in general. Expect the victim’s concentration to be focused on his or her problem – pain or breathing for example. What you communicate and how you communicate it, verbally or non-verbally, is an important part of victim care.

Initial reassurance may start with supportive physical contact from the lifeguard while moving the victim to safety. Subsequent reassurance will address the emotional as well as the physical needs of the victim.

What to say: As soon as practical, learn the victim’s name and use it. Introduce yourself by name and let the victim know you are a lifeguard. Tell the victim what you are going to do before you do it. Ask permission. The following are the types of questions (both open-ended and specific) which may provide useful information:

- “Are you okay?” “What’s the problem?”
- “What’s your name?” “Has this happened before?”
- “Do you hurt anywhere else?” “Do you have any medical problems we should know about?”
- “Will you let me help you?”
- “Are you here with anybody else?” “Whom should we call for you?”

Listen carefully to the response to your questions. When more than one lifeguard is in attendance, avoid overloading the victim with questions from more than one person.

Tone of voice, facial expressions, and body language all convey information. Make and sustain eye contact whenever possible. Maintain a calm and confident tone of voice. Your manner and especially your facial expressions should communicate confidence in the successful outcome and your ability to manage it.

Communication among lifeguards

An effective and reliable communication system results in the prevention of emergencies and an efficient response to them. When responding to emergencies, lifeguards must communicate effectively with other guards to alert them to a situation and to permit everyone to operate as an efficient team.

Whistle signals: Whistle signals are useful in facilities where the sound carries clearly. Typical whistle signals among lifeguards include:

- 2 short blasts signal attention or alert to other guards. This signal asks all lifeguards to look to the source of the whistle. Lifeguards often use two short blasts (or hand signals) to indicate they must leave their stations to respond to a minor emergency or to speak with patrons, or to point out a potential or actual incident close to the other guard.
- 1 long blast signals a major emergency. Train patrons to clear the water on this signal.

Hand or arm signals: A system of hand or arm signals is a useful means of communication in facilities with good sight lines. These signals can vary widely. Typical hand/arm signals include:

- "Assistance required" – raised arm
- "All clear or okay" – one hand on head
- "Look" (with whistle signal) – arm points to specific location
- "Proceed left/right" – arm points in desired direction
- "Proceed away from shore" – two arms raised
- "Proceed towards shore" – one arm raised
- "Submerged victim missing" – arms crossed overhead

The most important consideration is that all lifeguards at the facility use and interpret the hand/arm signals consistently.

Verbal communication: Whistle signals convey limited information. When more information is needed, talking is a superior method.

Verbal communication is essential in emergency situations. Lifeguards need to communicate instructions, information, suggestions, and encouragement to fellow guards. Practice verbal communication during simulated emergencies to develop calm and succinct exchanges.

Some lifeguard teams use verbal codes when communicating with one another. These signals convey messages without revealing information to patrons. For example, a certain number may indicate the need to telephone the police or ambulance, or indicate an assessment of a victim's condition without further alarming the victim. Weigh the value of verbal codes against the need to reassure victims. Hearing lifeguards speaking in code may increase patrons' stress since they will not understand what is happening.

Communication with Emergency Services

An effective and reliable communication system results in the prevention of emergencies and an efficient response to them. When responding to emergencies, lifeguards must communicate effectively with other guards to alert them to a situation and to permit everyone to operate as an efficient team.

To contact emergency medical services, many communities use the 911 emergency telephone number which connects the caller to a trained dispatcher who directs the call to one or more of the emergency response services – ambulance, police, or fire department. Once connected, the operator leads the conversation, seeking the information crucial for obtaining the required assistance. In areas not equipped with the 911 system, know the individual telephone numbers for each service. Many facilities have direct-line telephone communication to the appropriate emergency services.

Emergency response teams follow their own protocols. Assist as required.

Safety Supervision Scanning

Bronze Cross Item 14

Alert Chapter 2 Accident Prevention; Chapter 3 Aquatic emergencies; Alert Insert Scanning, p. 2

Supervision zones

Normally, each lifeguard or assistant lifeguard on duty is assigned responsibility for a designated supervision area or zone. The design of supervision zones and positioning of lifeguards within them is the responsibility of the facility owner/operator, aquatic supervisor or head guard.

The guard's line of sight and field of vision are important factors in choosing positions for effective observation of a designated zone. Human vision is best focused when the observed object is directly in front of the eyes. Objects in peripheral vision cannot be seen clearly or in detail. This is why guards must be careful to keep turning their heads to clearly monitor the whole area. Ideally, guards are positioned to minimize the distance the head must turn in order to effectively scan the zone.

An elevated station give lifeguards a broader perspective than supervision from ground level. Ground-level lifeguards have a limited view of the swimming area and many patrons tend to be shielded from view. Because of their closeness to the patrons, ground-level lifeguards are more prone to distractions.

Roving lifeguards can stay in closer verbal contact with patrons than tower guards. A lifeguard assigned to a walking patrol or ground-level station can provide effective public relations and education and efficient enforcement of safety rules. In a crowded area, it is useful to combine lifeguarding from a height with roving ground patrols.

Ground patrols are careful to avoid turning their backs on any part of their area. The mobile lifeguard will, on occasion, have to walk sideways or backwards, to maintain eye contact with the designated area.

Scanning

Normally, each lifeguard or assistant lifeguard on duty is assigned responsibility for a designated supervision zone.

Scanning is the systematic visual surveillance of the facility, its patrons, and their activities. Scanning requirements and techniques are affected by different factors including:

- the number of patrons and their activities
- the number of lifeguards and their location
- the facility design and layout
- the shape and size of supervision zones
- lighting conditions

Scanning a beach is significantly different from scanning a swimming pool but the basic principles are the same. Effective scanning assumes that lifeguards can see the entire area, that they know what they are looking for, and that they will recognize it when they see it.

- Lifeguards must be positioned with clear, unobstructed sight lines.
- Lifeguards must move to counteract patron interference (especially in ground-level supervision).
- Lifeguards must take steps to minimize the effect of reflection or glare (e.g., change position, use polarized sunglasses).
- Lifeguards' scanning strategy must compensate for an inability to see below the surface (e.g., waterfront environments), and for distance from patron activity (e.g., use of binoculars).
- Lifeguards must practice to develop and improve perception skills.
- Lifeguards must understand the signs of potential trouble, and the characteristic behaviours of those in need of help.

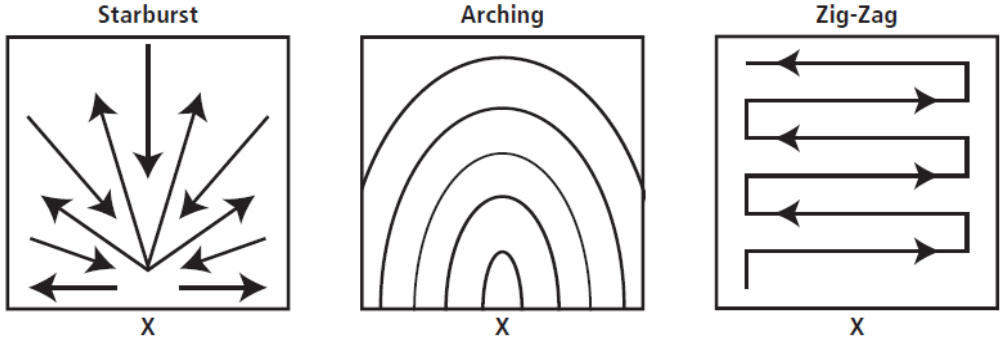
How to scan

Drowning can occur in seconds. Some victims may struggle, some slip quietly below the surface, and despite the lifeguard's best efforts, he or she may not see the event. The less time it takes to effectively scan a zone, the better. Guards should be able to complete a full and effective scan of the designated supervision zone within 10 to 30 seconds.

Over time, lifeguards come to know the characteristic sights, sounds, and patterns and rhythms of activity which are normal for their facility during any given period.

- Focus on people and what they are doing.
- Make eye contact whenever possible.
- Watch the face.
- Look and listen for the unusual.
- Avoid staring fixedly at the same thing.
- Give your eyes a break by focusing momentarily on some distant object or the horizon.
- Use your peripheral vision to detect movement.
- Never stop scanning when speaking with a patron.
- In outdoor facilities, monitor changes in environmental conditions (weather and water) for impact on patron behaviour and safety.

Sample scanning patterns



Where to scan

Sweep your eyes over your zone, moving your head to see things to the right and left, and looking behind you regularly. Take note of patrons and activity right in front of you. Chair or tower lifeguards should look below them. Include adjacent lifeguards on each sweep to receive any visual communications they might be sending and to check the area behind them.

Scan below the surface and, in swimming pools, scan the bottom regularly. Attend to the “hot spots” more often (e.g., diving boards, rafts, drop-offs, buoylines, ladders, toys). Ensure that each person who enters the water from a dive, slide, or diving board, resurfaces. Note that an activity “hot spot” can move with the people who create it.

Scanning strategies

Lifeguards use a variety of strategies to organize and sort through sensory input, which can be overwhelming on crowded days. Commonly used techniques include:

- ***Head counting:*** Try to count the number of people in your area on each scan. When the number changes, find out why.
- ***Grouping:*** Sort patrons into groups by age, sex, risk potential, activity, and combinations of the above. Monitor changes in the groups.
- ***Mental filing:*** On successive sweeps, build patron profiles that take note of swimming ability, skill, activity, or other factors. Track changes in patron behaviour or activity on each scan.
- ***Profile matching:*** On each scan, measure what you see against the characteristic profiles of potential trouble or victim types. Track the progress of individuals who submerge (from the diving board or the surface), and those who fit a high-risk profile (e.g., the lone child at the water’s edge).

What to look for

Experience is a very good teacher. Over time, lifeguards develop a discerning eye and nose for potential trouble. Experienced guards develop good pattern recognition skills and are faster at detecting disturbances or anomalies in those patterns than new lifeguards. Training and practice will help prepare the new guard for those early days on the job.

Some patrons indicate by appearance or behaviour that they require close attention. Learn to recognize the indicators that help lifeguards anticipate and prevent problems or accidents. The characteristics of various waterfront and swimming pool facilities affect patron behaviour and therefore the signs of impending trouble may be different. Nevertheless, the following are typical patron behaviours requiring close lifeguard surveillance:

- Unsupervised children. Attend to any child who is carelessly supervised or who is playing in the water alone or near drop-offs. Whenever possible link these children with their parent or guardian. Reinforce with the parents their responsibility to supervise their children. Even with conscientious parents, it is often a lapse in supervision, not merely a lack of supervision which causes problems.
- Poor, weak or tired swimmers – of any age.
- Anyone who appears to lack confidence in the water or who looks frail.
- Patrons who appear to be relying on an inflatable or the deck/dock/raft edge or buoyline for support.
- Unusual gestures or facial expressions which suggest calls for assistance, for example, breath holding or a child with WIDE open eyes and a fearful expression.
- Anyone near the drop-off.
- Swimmers under diving boards, slides, and at the ladders.
- Swimmers knocked over by waves, currents or other swimmers.
- Swimmers hyperventilating in advance of prolonged underwater breath holding.
- Swimmers engaged in horseplay.
- Shallow water divers.
- Side jumpers who leap from the diving board towards poolside.
- Children or adults trying to recover a floating toy being carried away in deep water.
- Adults supporting a child in chest-deep or deep water.

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