



PART 1

INTRODUCTION

In this part of the book, we want to discuss what we mean by challenging behaviour, why it occurs and who's to blame. In doing this, we challenge some of the commonly held assumptions about behaviour and some of the myths that have grown up around this.

1.1 WHAT IS CHALLENGING BEHAVIOUR?

It's important that we qualify here what we mean by challenging behaviour. As a teacher, this doesn't just mean dealing with violent or offensive behaviour; it's any behaviour that disrupts normal classroom routine and the concentration of other learners. For the purposes of this book, we have grouped and refer to the different types of challenging behaviour, as either:

- **Intimidatory** behaviour: behaviour that is aggressive, offensive or violent towards others. This includes physical and psychological intimidation or verbal abuse.
- **Inappropriate** behaviour: behaviour that is more annoying than intimidatory, but is of such a persistent and prolific nature that it disrupts classroom routine.
- **Non-participative** behaviour: behaviour that is extremely passive or non-engaging, including refusal to participate in activities or intermittent patterns of attendance.

2 A QUICK GUIDE TO BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT

- **Demanding** behaviour: behaviour that is driven by the learner's self-interest and conscious or sub-conscious desires to want to dominate what takes place in the classroom.

These definitions are fairly broad and issues of special educational needs and disabilities may dictate what is considered to be challenging or acceptable behaviour in the classroom. In this respect, individual organisations need to define what they consider to be behaviour that is challenging but acceptable, and behaviour that is challenging but disruptive to staff and other learners. It's quite likely that even within the same institution there may be differences in individual teachers' perspectives on the subject. A useful exercise, in this respect, is to look at the scenarios covered in Part C and discuss with colleagues what their view of the learner's behaviour is and how they would have handled the situation.

1.2 WHY DOES IT HAPPEN?

Theories relating to understanding why people behave in the way they do date as far back as 500 BC and the Greek philosophers Plato and Aristotle. Plato argued that people had an intrinsic desire to do what they do, whereas Aristotle's view was that it is something that happens as a result of nurturing. The *nature vs nurture* debate is one of the oldest issues in human development that focuses on the relative contributions of genetic inheritance and environmental conditioning.

For many years, this was a philosophical debate with well-known thinkers such as René Descartes suggesting that certain behaviours are inherent in people, or that they simply occur naturally (the *nativist* viewpoint), arguing the toss with others such as John Locke who believed in the principle of *tabula rasa*, which suggests the mind begins as a blank slate and that our behaviours are determined by our experiences (the *empiricist* viewpoint). Towards the end of the 19th century, the debate was taken up by a new breed of theorists who developed the discipline of psychology.

For most of the early part of the 20th century, behavioural psychologists, such as Watson, Skinner and Pavlov, suggested that humans were simply advanced mammals that reacted to stimuli. *Behaviourism* remained the basis of human conditioning until it was challenged in the period between the two world wars by psychologists, such as Piaget and Vygotsky, who argued that the way we behave is a cognitive process in which individuals shape their own reaction to a situation rather than being told what to do. This gave rise to the movement known as *cognitivism*. After the Second World War, a third branch of theory, championed by people such as Maslow and Rogers, came into force with the belief that people were individuals whose behaviour should not be separate from life itself and who should be given the opportunity to determine for themselves the nature of their own actions. This became known as *humanism*.

The new millennium, and the growing interest in neuroscience, provided a fresh insight into how people react through their capacity to process external stimuli. Although theories around what role the brain plays in this process are still mostly

speculative, there does appear to be common consent that the mind was set up to process external stimuli, to draw connections with other stimuli and, by making sense of what is happening, behave in what they consider to be an appropriate manner.

Few people these days would take such an extreme position in this debate as to argue for one side at the absolute exclusion of the other. There are just too many factors on both sides of the argument which would deter an all-or-nothing view. Figure 1.1 is a snapshot of the range of theories relating to this subject.

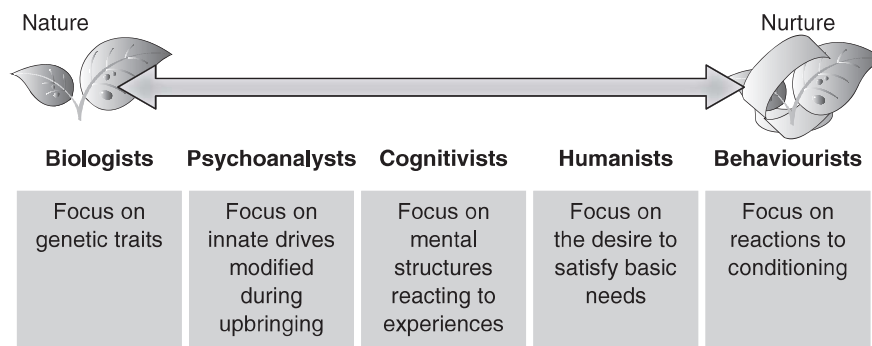


Figure 1.1 The nature–nurture theoretical spectrum

Here are some guidelines to determine where you might have a tendency towards in this debate:

- If you are at the extreme end of the Nature scale, the likelihood is that you will believe that the genetic structure of an individual's brain is mostly responsible for their behaviour.
- As you start to move towards the centre of the scale, you begin to accept the viewpoint that the genetic structure of the brain is capable of being modified in response to reactions to experiences and the environment and that it is this that determines how people behave.
- Moving from the centre towards the end of the Nurture scale, you are likely to favour the ideas of the humanist theorists and the significance they attach to society's influence on an individual's behaviour.
- At the extreme end of the Nurture scale, the likelihood is that you will believe in the arguments of the behaviourists who suggest that all behaviour can be modified through conditioning.

There is no neat and simple way of resolving this debate. The more you read on the subject, the more confusing it gets. The best advice we can give is to go with what feels right for you. You could also try the exercise in Appendix 2 for some thoughts on this.

1.3 WHO'S TO BLAME?

We'd like to pause at this stage and ask you to reflect on where you consider the blame for disruptive behaviour lies. If you have an extreme *naturist* view, you will believe that learners have a disruptive behavioural gene. If however you are an extreme *nurturist*, then you will accept that learners' reactions to the behaviour of others, including their teachers, influences their disruptive behaviour. Now, there's an interesting suggestion: that learners' disruptive behaviour could be as much a result of your actions as it is of theirs.

During our behaviour management sessions with trainee teachers, we do an exercise involving two cans of fizzy pop and lots of cleaning towels. We ask for four volunteers. Two are stooges who we have briefed what to do prior to the session. The other two are unwitting victims. The victims are given cleaning towels and asked to sit in chairs opposite each other about two metres apart. The stooges are each given a can of fizzy pop and asked to stand behind their intended victims.

We then read out the scenario in example 1.1, pausing after each extract for the stooges to shake their cans as the frustration that each of the central characters feel starts to build up.

Example 1.1: The story of two lives on a wet Monday morning in February

- A: Christine Adams is a 35-year-old teacher on the BTEC sports course at a local college. She was a B International Hockey player until she had to give up playing to look after her 7-year-old daughter, Amber, who has Down syndrome. She is a single parent. She gets up at 7:00am to make a cup of coffee and finds there is no milk (SHAKE).
- B: Joey Campbell is a 16-year-old student in Christine's class. He was a former soccer trainee with the Derby Football School of Excellence and a promising prospect until a ligament injury ended his career. He lives with his mum and two younger sisters. His mother works as a cleaner at a local school. He has to get his sisters to school in the morning, He has to be awake at 7:00am. Desperate for a cigarette, he finds an empty packet (SHAKE).
- A: Christine's childminder calls to say she has a rash and can't look after Amber today (SHAKE).
- B: Joey's younger sister can't find her shoes and starts crying (SHAKE).
- A: Christine dashes round to her mother-in-law's house to see if she can look after Amber. Reluctantly, the mother-in-law agrees but has a go at Christine for being a bad mother (SHAKE).

- B: As they get near to the school, Joey's older sister tells him she has forgotten her gym kit. Joey has to run back to get it (SHAKE).
- A: Christine gets into class five minutes before the start of the lesson (SHAKE).
- B: Joey gets into class ten minutes after the start of the lesson (SHAKE).
- A: Christine asks Joey why he was late (SHAKE).
- B: Joey starts to explain (SHAKE).
- A: Christine says 'excuses, excuses' (SHAKE).
- B: Joey tries again to explain (SHAKE).
- A: Christine cuts him off (SHAKE vigorously).
- B: Joey storms out of the class (SHAKE vigorously).

At this point, we ask both of the *stooges* to 'point the can of fizzy pop at their victims and on the count of three to open the can'. We've had people close their eyes at this stage, someone once screamed and someone even jumped out of the chair. Obviously, the *stooges* are briefed not to open the can. We're sure that one day one of us will forget to brief them properly and be faced with a hefty cleaning bill.

The point of this exercise is to show that friction between teacher and learner in the classroom can arise as a result of the emotional state of either party. We ask the group to stay with the fizzy pop analogy and say how they can prevent their victims getting covered with pop. We usually get the following responses: Don't shake the can so vigorously, leave the pop to settle down, get rid of the can or open it very slowly.

We then get them to come back to the scenario and discuss how Christine could have handled the situation better. We usually get that she could have:

- relaxed and listened to what Joey had to say
- explained that she'd had a bad start to the day and that they wipe the slate clean and start again
- postponed dealing with Joey till the end of the lesson when things may have cooled down
- stayed in bed.

If there is one common thread running throughout the dealings with all of the challenging characters included in Part C, it's about understanding what the cause of their behaviour is and reacting appropriately to this. Showing that you are angry with someone isn't always a good course of action but not necessarily always the wrong approach. Aristotle wrote that 'anybody can become angry – that is easy, but to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose and in the right way is not within everybody's power and is not easy'. Get any one of these wrong and you could cause long-term damage to your relationship with the individual or, worse, be facing disciplinary action for harassment.

1.4 THE MYTHS OF BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT

Never displaying anger towards a challenging individual is one of the myths that have grown up around the teaching profession. Aristotle says that it is okay to be angry with the right person at the right time for the right reason. Here are some other myths that we'd like to debunk:

MYTH #1: TEACHING IS A VIRTUE OF CHARACTER NOT INTELLECT

No, you haven't misread this. We are challenging Aristotle's view of teaching and claiming that only intelligent teachers can be in control of the challenging children in their class. We need to qualify what we mean here.

Intellect has for many years been measured using Intelligence Quotient (IQ) tests. In more recent years, these tests have been criticised for failing to take account of the complex nature of the human intellect and the inference that there are links between intellectual ability and characteristics such as race, gender and social class.

In this section, we want to look at the theories of two writers who offered different perspectives on the subject of intelligence: Howard Gardner, who introduced the concept of *multiple intelligences* (1993) and Daniel Goleman, who introduced the concept of *emotional intelligence* (1996).

Howard Gardner (1993) proposed that human beings have several types of intelligence that form the potential to process information in a range of different contexts and cultures. His nine intelligences are:

- **Linguistic:** the capacity to understand and use spoken and written language.
- **Logical–Mathematical:** the capacity to analyse problems logically.
- **Bodily–Kinaesthetic:** the capacity to use and interpret expressive movement.
- **Visual–Spatial:** the capacity to recognise patterns and dimensions.
- **Musical:** the capacity to compose, perform and appreciate musical patterns.
- **Interpersonal:** the capacity to understand the intentions and desires of others.
- **Intrapersonal:** the capacity to understand one's own feelings, fears and needs.
- **Naturalistic:** the capacity to recognise and categorise objects in nature.
- **Spiritualistic:** the capacity to tackle deep questions about the meaning of life.

Gardner made two fundamental claims about his ideas: first, that they accounted for the full range of human cognition; and, second, that each individual has a unique blend of the various intelligences that has made them who they are. Identifying individual differences amongst a group of individuals in your class will help you to be better at understanding the learning process and more prepared to work with all learners. Failure to do this can lead to frustration on the part of the learner which in turn can result in them disrupting the class.

Daniel Goleman (1996) suggested that intelligence is not just about developing a high IQ or being technically skilled, but that people also need to develop their emotional

intelligence. He argued that there are five key elements of emotional intelligence, which we have interpreted for teachers. These are summarised as:

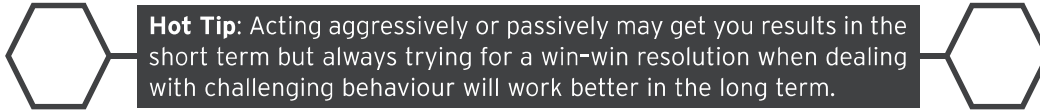
- **Self-awareness:** teachers must be aware of the relationship between their thoughts, feelings and actions. They must be able to recognise what thoughts about a situation sparked off which emotions and the impact these emotions can have on themselves and those around them.
- **Managing emotions:** teachers must analyse what is behind these emotions and be able to deal with them in a positive manner.
- **Empathy:** teachers must be able to deal with the emotions of those in their class in a positive manner. This requires them to be able to understand more about the nature of any concerns being expressed about their teaching.
- **Social skills:** teachers need to develop quality relationships. This will have a positive effect on all involved. Knowing how and when to take the lead and when to follow is an essential social skill.
- **Motivation:** teachers can't always rely on external rewards to motivate others. They must support their learners to develop their own source of intrinsic motivators by encouraging them to appreciate what they can do and not to focus on the things they can't do.

Goleman argued that having a high level of self-awareness and an understanding of others makes you a better person as well as a better teacher.

You may have read somewhere that we're born with a huge amount of brain cells but lose thousands every day till we die. That's the bad news. The good news is that neuroscientists claim that, rather than losing cells, the brain continuously reshapes itself in line with the experiences we have. Goleman claims that by persisting with positive thoughts and actions your newly reformed brain will ensure you will have a positive outlook in how you work as a teacher and will result in you naturally doing the right thing for your learners, in the right way. Of course, this is Goleman's theory, but doesn't it sound good and worth trying out? If you agree then here are some tips to help you:

- Develop your self-awareness by keeping a record of any disruptive incidents that take place in the classroom. A simple note of what happened, why it happened, what you did and what impact it had on you and those around you will suffice.
- Try to look at the situation from the learners' perspectives. Although you may disagree with their behaviour, recognising what's causing it will make you more capable of dealing with the situation.
- Listen carefully to what learners have to say and never be afraid to re-examine your own values in light of this.
- Always try to find a win-win solution to any situation arising with you and your learners.

Although they have a popular following, critics of both Goleman and Gardner claim that they can only speculate that their theories on intelligence are any more valid than the reliance on IQ testing.



Hot Tip: Acting aggressively or passively may get you results in the short term but always trying for a win-win resolution when dealing with challenging behaviour will work better in the long term.

MYTH #2: 'POWER TENDS TO CORRUPT ... AND ABSOLUTE POWER CORRUPTS ABSOLUTELY'

This is a quote attributed to John Dalberg-Acton, a historian, politician and writer in the mid-19th century. Dalberg-Acton went on to say that 'great men are almost always bad men'. Of course, history is riddled with people who have abused the power or authority that they have been given or taken. Before we accept or reject this myth, we need to understand what we mean by power. There are numerous models of power. One of the most compelling was outlined by the sociologist Max Weber.

Weber (2002) identified three sources of authority or power. In respect of teaching, these are:

- **Traditional:** where the legitimacy of the teacher's authority comes from tradition or custom. It is accepted by learners, or at least not challenged by them.
- **Legal:** where a teacher exerts power by virtue of the office that they hold. It is the authority that demands obedience to the office rather than the office holder.
- **Charismatic:** where authority grows out of the personal charm or the personality of the teacher. Weber distinguished it from the other forms of authority by claiming that learners do not accept the authority of the teacher by virtue of tradition or statute, but because they trust and believe in them.

Typically, a significant amount of legal power will come with the teacher's role. Most teachers will have little or no traditional power and some will probably have a degree of charismatic power. Teachers need to test the limits of each of these and, in the face of adverse teaching conditions, work to accumulate as many sources of power as possible.

It's not the nature of power that corrupts therefore, even if this power is absolute, but the people who wield it. Both Hitler and Martin Luther King had a powerful hold over their followers; one used it for violent purposes, the other to promote peaceful demonstrations. It is worth remembering, however, that both were chosen as the *Times Magazine* Men of the Year (Hitler in 1938 and Luther King in 1963).

Examples 1.2 and 1.3 are both cases of college leaders who exercised the power they held in different ways.

Example 1.2: Beware of new brooms

Mary was a surprise choice to be the principal of a new community-based college formed out of the merger of two adult education centres that delivered vocational training throughout a network of community centres in the borough. She had ousted the incumbent principals of the two centres, who became her vice-principals. Many were impressed by Mary's talk of her vision for the new college and the values of openness and trust that she wanted to underpin the vision. She won everyone over with her charisma. In the space of three years, she took the college from an adequate institution to an outstanding one. But there was a price to pay for this. In a document that she marked 'confidential - for management only', she wrote about her desire to take education provision away from community centres and into libraries. This would mean significant job losses and inconvenience for community-based learners who would have to travel further to attend classes. Staff morale was at an all-time low with five cases of harassment being waged against her. Sickness due to stress was quadrupled.

Mary left after three years as principal, during which time no member of the original, nine-strong senior management team was still in post, seven out of the original ten community centres that delivered training had closed down and funding for community-based vocational training was reduced to less than a quarter of its previous level.

Example 1.3: If it ain't broke, why fix it?

Tom was the principal of a large FE college. He had worked his way up from an engineering instructor through to the principal's post. He was generally looked on as a bit of a pragmatist whose philosophy was, 'if it works, it's good'. He had a knack of finding resources to fund even the most outrageous ideas if he thought it would benefit his staff or learners. This never endeared him to inspectors, with the college never scoring highly for Leadership and Management and overall grades never better than good. He was however widely respected by staff and most people who came into contact with him. On one occasion, concerned that staff had nowhere to have a break from students, Tom gave up his office to them as a staff room.

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When he was asked where he would sit, he replied, 'In the classrooms or the canteen, anywhere where I can get the low-down on how we are doing and I don't get pestered every minute with phone calls and emails. If they want me, they'll find me'. There was never a title to describe his leadership style and we doubt whether he would have thanked anyone who gave him one.

Tom retired after 20 years in the same college. The college ratings flitted between adequate and good (never inadequate or outstanding) and the college merged with another to form one of the country's largest further education colleges.

It's difficult to weigh up here whether power was being used for the good of all or in the interests of the individual wielding it. Mary's intention was always to leave after three years, having taken the college to an outstanding grade. She achieved this, but at a price. On visiting the college regularly, it's distressing to hear what people there are saying about morale and their concerns for the future of the college. Tom's college no longer exists as a separate entity but, even after 15 years, he is still talked about with respect and affection.

Hot Tip: Know what sources of power you have access to as a teacher. Decide whether you are using them in a positive or negative manner. Identify who in your organisation exercises power and what can you learn from them.

MYTH #3: THE END DOESN'T JUSTIFY THE MEANS

The end justifying the means is a saying attributed to Niccolò Machiavelli. Machiavelli was a 16th-century Italian writer, who, out of work and looking for a job, wrote a job application to the Magnificent Lorenzo de Medici. In the history of the world, it was one of the longest job applications and was later published as *The Prince* (2004).

The Prince has been described by many as an amoral guide to behaviour and the term Machiavellian as being something that is characterised by deception and ruthlessness. Never one to avoid controversy, we are going to tease out a few extracts from *The Prince* that we hope will show Machiavelli in a different light. Although Machiavelli wrote the extracts with leaders in mind, we have interpreted them from a teaching perspective (please excuse the political incorrectness in the extracts – they were written in the 16th century):

- **‘There is no other way to guard yourself against flattery than by making men understand that telling you the truth will not offend you.’** Don’t encourage the sycophants in your class. Surround yourself with learners who are not self-serving and who will voice their opinions honestly and challenge you.
- **‘Acknowledge the possibilities for failure: a skilful leader does better to act boldly than to try to guard against every possible eventuality.’** Encourage your learners never to be afraid of failure. Most learners will react badly when they fail at something, which often results in disruptive behaviour. Tell them that ‘only those who do nothing never fail’.
- **‘Without an opportunity, their abilities would have been wasted, and without their abilities, the opportunity would have arisen in vain.’** Make sure the learners in your class are allowed every opportunity to develop themselves both in terms of their attitudes to others as well as academically.
- **‘All courses of action are risky, so prudence is not in avoiding danger but calculating risk and acting decisively.’** Encourage the learners in your class never to be afraid to take calculated risks. Tell them that the future is not set but they can help shape it by their willingness to take risks and act with conviction.
- **‘It must be considered that there is nothing more difficult to carry out, nor more doubtful of success, nor more dangerous to handle, than to initiate a new order of things.’** Never abuse the power that you have in your role as teacher but accept that there will be occasions when you need to act in a ruthless manner in the interest of your school or your class.
- **‘Minds are of three kinds: one is capable of thinking for itself; another is able to understand the thinking of others; and a third can neither think for itself nor understand the thinking of others. The first is of the highest excellence, the second is excellent, and the third is worthless.’** Many educational organisations are bogged down with performance figures and have little time for a feeling of belonging, status or worth. Their contract with you is based on a performance-related transaction and if they need to let you go, they will. Recognise this and you will never be disappointed or surprised by how you are treated when you are reprimanded for placing more emphasis on the personal development of your learners than on their performance on tests.

You are not the only Machiavellian in the world. They are evident in education policy makers, the head teachers in your organisation, the staff, the parents and even the learners in your class. If need be, protect yourself against others who believe that the ends justify the means. They are unlikely to shy away from causing you problems if it suits their purpose. Remember, it’s better to be useful to another Machiavellian than to be their friend.

Hot Tip: We are not advocating that you should always be deceitful or ruthless as a teacher, but you should be able to play the game in the best interests of your organisation and its learners.

MYTH #4: TEACHERS NEED TO SET AN EXEMPLAR MODEL FOR GOOD BEHAVIOUR

Whilst there is little doubt that teachers should be a good role model, it's important to recognise that, like everyone else, teachers aren't infallible. If they were, they wouldn't be human. See what you think about example 1.4.

Example 1.4: A testing dilemma

Malcolm was a graphic designer on a post-graduate teacher training course. Bob was his tutor and had been made aware that just prior to starting the course, Malcolm's sister had died. Malcolm was always first in the class and eager to discuss things that Bob had covered in the previous session. He was also last out, often accompanying Bob to his car and discussing things that were covered in that session. His enthusiasm was infectious but his written work was a disaster.

The day before Malcolm's mid-term tutorial, Bob received an email from the head of department telling him that Malcolm's brother had been stabbed and killed in a gang fight. Imagine his surprise when Malcolm turned up for his tutorial. He told Bob that training to be a teacher was more than just a career move for him; it was his way to stay out of the gang culture.

Bob observed Malcolm teach on three occasions over the next term. Bob felt that he wasn't a bad teacher, relying more on enthusiasm than a precise appreciation of the subject. The problem was that his written work was dreadful and without Bob rewriting large chunks of his assignments, Malcolm was going to fail the course.

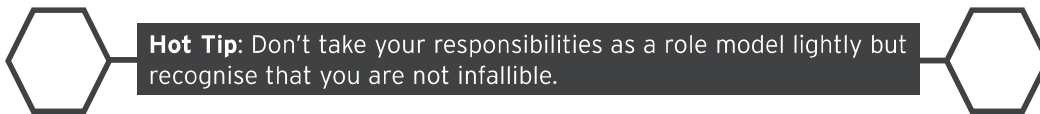
If you are working with someone like Malcolm, what would you do? Here's the dilemma that his tutor faced: If he chose to rewrite his assignments, was he being a good role model and setting a good example for him as a teacher? Ethically, he had a responsibility to the other trainees that he was teaching and to the standards of the profession. If he chose to rewrite his assignments, was he allowing the emotions of the situation to influence his actions? What impact was this likely to have on the way that Malcolm works with his learners? These are questions that he has been asking himself for the past 15 years. He doubts whether Malcolm will forget him, but maybe not for the right reasons. Being a good role model is a massive responsibility!

Albert Bandura (1977) based his theory of role modelling on controlled experiments conducted with two groups of children. One group of children witnessed scenes of adults physically and verbally attacking an inflatable doll. The other group witnessed scenes of adults caressing and talking affectionately to the doll. When the children were left alone with the doll, they automatically imitated the behaviour of the adults that they had observed.

Bandura suggests that the observational process is underpinned by the notion that behaviour modification is achieved by: observing the actions of others, mentally rehearsing whether these actions are appropriate and then initiating behaviour that was considered appropriate. In order for someone to successfully imitate the behaviour of a role model, Bandura suggested that the individual must:

- be encouraged to pay attention to the behaviour
- remember what was seen or heard
- have the capacity to reproduce the behaviour
- have the motivation to want to reproduce it.

He argued that people would be more receptive to modelling good behaviour if they believed that they were capable of executing the behaviour. He used the term *self-efficacy* to describe this.



MYTH #5: IT WAS EASIER TO CONTROL LEARNERS IN THE 1950S AND 1960S WHEN DISCIPLINE WAS MUCH FIRMER

The question of ‘were children better behaved prior to 1965, and the introduction of the Comprehensive Education Act, than they are post 1965?’ is a matter for conjecture. We don’t really want to get embroiled in a debate about the virtues of comprehensive education but it certainly changed the shape of secondary education in the UK by getting rid of the tripartite system of grammar, technical and secondary modern schools and providing educational opportunities for all children; not dividing them up at an early age into different ‘opportunity groups’ on the basis of a questionable instrument of selection. The cynical view of the old grammar school system is that it set out to educate the best and forget about the rest (wow, we guess that we did get a bit embroiled in the debate).

Alongside structural changes in the education system, there were changes in the theories underpinning learning. These can be summarised as:

- **behaviourist** theory, which relates to **reactive** learning with the teacher at the centre of the process and where behaviour is controlled by conditioning and reinforcement
- **cognitivist** theory, which relates to **responsive** learning where mental acts are the primary aim and where behaviour is controlled by fostering the learner’s self-interests

- **humanist** theory, which is about **reflective** learning, dependent on experience and self-efficacy, and where behaviour is controlled through democratic decision-making.

With the emphasis switching from teacher-controlled to learner-controlled sessions, teacher-imposed discipline was replaced by learner self-discipline, and extrinsic motivational forces (such as imposing threats and bribes) were replaced by the notion of intrinsic motivation (such as encouraging an inner desire to want to learn).

There is little doubt that threats and bribes can induce a short-term change in behaviour, but it may also have the effect of deterring the learner from developing a commitment to positive values. Alfie Kohn, in *Punished by Rewards* (1999), discusses how in a consequence-based classroom children are led to ask ‘what does the teacher want me to do, and what happens if I don’t do it?’. In a reward-based classroom, they’re led to ask ‘what does the teacher want me to do, and what do I get for doing it?’. Kohn argues that threats and bribes are simply two sides of the same coin and that children should be encouraged to ask, ‘What kind of person do I want to be?’ or ‘What kind of classroom do we want to have?’.

One of your esteemed authors (we won’t say which one) has clear recollections of the date 3 September 1962 and his first day in secondary school.

Example 1.5: A costly DEtour

Anon’s class was based in Room D and his first science lesson was in Room E. OK, this may not inspire you to want to take in any of the advice we offer in this book, but he got lost! As everyone piled out to make the 2-metre trek (6’7” in those days) from Room D to the next room in the corridor, he had to make a detour to the toilets at the other end of the corridor. When he came out, he tells us that it was like the *Mary Celeste*: no one in sight.

He was never late for classes again but the humiliation that was heaped upon him as he tried to explain what had happened to a not-too-impressed teacher and his classmates laughing at him, stayed with him for a long time.

Would teachers react differently to his predicament now? We’re not sure. We suspect that there is something comical about someone not realising that Room D was next door to Room E but, then again, if it was never explained to him that the rooms were in alphabetical order, is it totally fair to assume that someone, even someone as bright as he was (or so he claims), should know this is the case? We don’t expect the teacher to have congratulated him for making it eventually to his class but we do question his behaviour in belittling him.

Demanding obedience through reward and punishment strategies doesn't really encourage learners to work their way through a problem or for teachers to question why there is a problem in the first place and what they could have done to prevent it happening.

Going back to the myth, was it easier to control behaviour in the pre-comprehensive school era? The answer is probably 'yes'. Was the process of achieving obedience through threats and bribes the most effective way of helping children to develop into good learners and good citizens? The answer is probably 'no'.

SUMMARY OF PART 1

In Part 1, we have tried to establish the context for challenging behaviour by examining what we mean by the term, some of the theories that underpin this, and by dispelling some of the myths that have grown up around the subject. The key points to emerge from this are:

- Recognise that challenging behaviour can be intimidatory (violent or abusive), inappropriate (persistently annoying) or passive (non-engaging).
- Accept that it can occur when you least or most expect it and that you can be a contributory factor to it occurring.
- Believe that you can escalate or de-escalate the disruption by inappropriate or appropriate actions.
- Accept that acting aggressively or passively may get you results in the short term, but always trying for a win-win resolution when dealing with challenging behaviour will work better in the long term.
- Know what sources of power you have access to as a teacher. Decide whether you are using them in a positive or negative manner. Identify who in your organisation exercises power and what can you learn from them.
- Don't feel that you should always be deceitful or ruthless as a teacher but do accept that you should be able to play the game in the best interests of your organisation and its learners.
- Don't take your responsibilities as a role model lightly but recognise that you are not infallible.