

Society, Culture and Teaching Profession

Introduction	
Objectives	
1	Social Context.....
1.1	Importance of the Social Context of Teaching and Learning.....
1.2	Learner-Centered, Self-Directed Instruction
1.3	Cooperative Teaching and Learning
1.4	Communication Theory
2	Cultural Context
3	Political Context
3.1	Factors Influence Teaching
4	Interplay with Value Education and Teaching Profession
4.1	Realness
4.2	Prizing, Accepting, Trust
4.3	Empathic Understanding
4.4	The Fully Functioning Person.....
4.5	Desirable Teacher Values That Inform Values Education.....
4.6	The Trait Approach
4.7	Values Clarification
4.8	The Cognitive Developmental Approach
4.9	Role-Playing
5	Self-Assessment
6	Bibliography

INTRODUCTION

Nations in the world attained progress in their societies through utilizing knowledge and generation of knowledge. Education gains a lot of importance for the individual of every country and every society in the world. As the education is globalized in the 21st century the most essential is to know the type of education than why to education. The type of education needs to be given which must have its utility value that may able to fulfill individual, social and national needs. It means all-around development of a person who is self-aware and self-dependent, one who can make a better self, better surroundings and who can carve out a better history of humanity.

Multiple meanings have changed and developed over time of teacher professionalism in relation to changing historical, political and social contexts (Hilferty, 2008). Teachers are the changing agents in the education field. Therefore, choosing the teaching as a profession makes teacher responsible for introducing educational diversity in the classroom, integrating meaningful uses of technology for effective teaching learning process. Moreover, a teacher embraces and articulates outlining past, present, and future thoughts on curriculum, instruction, management, philosophy and different issues in education.

Social norms and cultural values are considered part of professional and social life transferred from a teacher to student. It is a teacher who prepares students to behave appropriately within campus and in the society. This necessitates academia to become a role model leaving a positive impact on students in and out of the classroom.

OBJECTIVES

After studying the unit, you will be able to

- . Trace the scope of social context in teaching profession
2. Understand the cultural provisions in the profession of education
3. Know about the political context and limitations in the profession of education.

1. SOCIAL CONTEST

Students' social needs and various student, classroom and school background are the important factors to determine the instruction of course other than the teacher's background, beliefs and attitudes. Teaching and Learning International Survey(TALIS) also observed such teaching practices which are totally based upon students socio economic, language background, intelligent level, grade level, and size of class. For instance studies on aptitude-treatment interactions proposed that learner with low intellectual abilities gains more advantages from organized, teacher-centered instruction. On the other hand learners with high intellectual aptitudes may gain more from less organized and more complex instruction (Snow and Lohman, 1984). TALIS looks at macro-adaptively i.e. the adaptation of teaching practices to characteristics of the class (Cronbach, 1957).

It has been proved from researches that the effectiveness of schools the quality of the learning environment is the factor affecting student learning and outcomes that is most readily modified. It shows the variables such as cognitive and motivational capacities, socio-economic background, social and cultural capital are out of control by the teachers and school (Scheerens and Bosker, 1997; Hopkins, 2005; Lee and Williams, 2006; Harris and Chrispeels, 2006). One of the most important task for TALIS is to assess quality, as perceived by teachers, at the classroom as well as the school level. It is not easy to identify the indicators that cause change as the the environment generally varies between subject and teacher. The main indicator used for the quality learning environment by TALIS is the time on task i.e. the proportion of lesson time that is actually used for teaching and learning and classroom context. Classroom climate has also strong impact on cognitive as well as motivational aspects of individual learning in different subjects. The method used here is adapted from PISA and focuses on the disciplinary aspect. For instance, if the teachers wait for a long time for the students to quiet down when the lesson begins it indicates a low level of discipline. It has been shown that the core element of the quality instruction is classroom discipline aggregated to the school level. In PISA, it is positively related to the school's mean student achievement in many participating countries (Klieme & Rakoczy, 2003).

Clausen (2002) research indicated that unlike other features of classroom instruction there is a high level of agreement about this indicator among teachers, students and observers. School climate is used as an indicator for the school environment in addition to the environment at the classroom level. School climate which refers to the quality of social relations between students and teachers including the quality of support teachers give to students has direct influence on motivational factors such as learners' commitment to their school and their level of satisfaction. However, school climate has indirect influence on students' achievement. The model of instructional quality (Klieme et al., 2006) recommends relationship between instructional practices and the two climate factors. In which the structure-oriented teaching practices should primarily relate to high levels of classroom climate, while student-oriented practices should be linked with positive social relations.

1.1 Importance of the Social Context of Teaching and Learning

Social interactions between student and teachers contribute to create healthy learning process and it has implications for both student development and teacher development. Numerous researchers have found that the teacher-student relationship can have positive effects on student development, academic achievement, and cognitive development, determination in higher education, students' personality development, and educational aspirations (Pascarella, 1980; Terenzini & Pascarella, 1980; Volkwein, King, and Terentini, 1986). . Teacher-student interaction is more significant if it is linked with students' development. Social context provide the opportunities for meaningful advisement, development of friendships, and testing of ideas and talents.

Latest reviews of the literature that aim to identify the principles underlying teaching and learning have authenticated the significance of the social context. An early pioneer Rogers (1969) found that the facilitation of meaningful learning based upon certain attitudinal qualities which exist in the personal relationship between the teacher and the learner. Rogers (1969) argued that learning does not only depend upon the

teacher's leadership skills, mastery of content, planning skills, integration of technology, programmed learning and books. It shows, there has been increasing recognition of the importance of the social context.

The key characteristics of successful teaching fall naturally into two main categories in which the interpersonal relation and clarity of presentation (Lowman, 1984). The literature on teaching and learning gives them about equal weight in their influence on teaching effectiveness. Seven principles of good practice in undergraduate education were extracted from fifty years of research on teaching and learning. These seven principles showed that good teacher encourages contacts between students and faculty, develops mutuality and collaboration among students, uses active learning techniques, gives quick feedback, emphasizes in time completion of task, communicates high expectations, and respects individual differences and other ways of learning. Many of these general principles are related to the social context of teaching and learning. This study supported by the American Association for Higher Education and the Education Commission of the States (Chickering & Gamson, 1989).

1.2 Learner-Centered, Self-Directed Instruction

Rogers (1983) has reviewed experiential literature to support the conclusion that student behaviors such as talking, participation and instigation and teacher behavior such as smiling, realization to student's self-belongingness and students' autonomy all promote effective learning and personal growth. Recent research has implied the power of the social context on learner-centered instruction. Teachers' smiling and joking-has a significant positive influence on the interpersonal climate, even when students are sitting and listening to lectures.

Cranton and Hillgarmer (1981) found such characteristics as teachers' enthusiasm and rapport to be responsible for better learning and a more positive attitude toward teaching. Later Murray (1983) and Erdle, Murray, and Rushton (1985) have found that teachers' sense of humor expressed in lectures are correlated with high student ratings. According to Greeson, (1985, 1986, 1988), effective social arrangements are different ways that teachers and students relate to one another it is not merely things that teachers do. Further, Greeson's studies are concerned with the broader social arrangements between teacher and student. His examination of teachers' and students' behavior under both student-centered and teacher centered instruction indicates that

student-centered instruction can enhance the dynamics of interaction between teachers and learners in classroom settings. In student-centered classroom increase the responsibilities of learner and make them self -responsible towards task completion. Student -centered approaches are popular today as a welcome corrective to other methods; their popularity attests to how skewed instruction in higher education has become toward teacher-centeredness.

1.3 Cooperative Teaching and Learning

An instructional strategy in which students work in a small group to achieve the common goals is called cooperative learning (Cooper & Mueck, 1989). This perspective is currently moving from K- 12 into higher education promises to bring change dramatically the social arrangements between teachers and students. Mill (1990) has summarized the main features of cooperative learning. There is interdependency of group members in cooperative learning. Learners accountability in which no student can get spare from group members, because course grades largely reflect individual learning. Groups are formed on the bases of heterogeneity in which mixed ability students differences in learning abilities, cultural diversity, and gender. Leadership skills in group work are designed to build team skills and social skills to help students engage in cooperative interaction and show mutual respect. Slavin (1989-90). Research on cooperative learning documented its advantages for K-12 settings. However, recent college-based research have also supported similar conclusions in which cooperative learning is more effective, more fun, and leads to greater student involvement and cooperative group skills (Millis, 1990).

This paradigm of cooperative learning has shifted the role of teachers becomes facilitator rather than the lecturing authority (Finkel & Monk, 1983). Teacher's role is expanded beyond the typical product model of simply presenting information and evaluating (Schon, 1987). Now the teachers, main role is to facilitate-to set tasks for the group and guide the group toward cooperation and interdependence. The teacher's role in cooperative learning has been linked with Rogers's client-centered theory (Hassard, 1990). It entails a conscious shift of perspective on the part of the teacher towards the cooperation and facilitation of instruction by keeping away from authoritarianism. Teachers remained successful in securing and creating well-designed, team-oriented tasks for learners who have incorporated this philosophy into their classrooms.

1.4 Communication Theory

Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson (1967). They argue that “every communication has a content and a relationship aspect such that the latter classifies the former” (p. 54). Possibly the most relevant treatment of communication for our purposes is the social interaction theory. The meaning of a message is inherently dependent on this contexts consisting of human relationships. Simpson and Galbo (1986) has applied this theory to the classroom who discuss the influence of relationships on communication. Simpson and Galbo (1986) argue that if the quality of the relationship is as important to communication then the association between teacher and students is important to efficient communication. Furthermore, it seems that communication make relationship stable that directly contributes to effectiveness. (Pascarella, 1980) Explained perhaps this is why informal interaction between teacher and students is linked with positive outcomes. Another idea Simpson and Galbo (1986) applied to teaching and learning from the Watzlawick theory that any communication is a function of the unique interaction at the time it takes place. The quality of particular interaction is determined by the time of encounter and the contextual situations in which communication occur between individuals. Therefore, quality of a particular interaction is not predicable. Thus, teachers cannot decide with certainty that how students will respond to the various parts of a learning. Teachers must rely upon information obtained through interacting with students during the class to determine some of the ultimate specifics of instruction (Simpson & Galbo, 1986). Seeking and using information on the spot during teaching is a high level professional skill Teachers required high professional skills to seeking and using information on the spot about their students that is little understood and poorly researched, according to Simpson and Galbo (1986). Effective teachers know how to use their personalities to inspire and stimulate connections between students’ previous experiences and the subject matter. Teachers’ personality is viewed as the instrument of instruction. Researchers seek methods that are independent of personality. Simpson and Galbo (1986,) turn the traditional assumption on its head. Much of the research about classroom instruction has attempted to control the teacher’s personality as a variable. The more productive course of action may be to control for method and to make the teacher’s personality the experimental variable.”

Jones (1989) found that the students of different ages and institutions typically report two indicators which they linked with good teachers. These two factors include technical and person logical. Person logical factor gained much more importance as it help the students to achieve the feelings of self-worth. Teachers’ personality is an important and valid factor. Students rating of effective teachers’ competence depend upon the perceptions of teachers’ personalities as well as of their technical competence (Jones, 1989).Teacher-student relationship has gained much importance in educational process (DeVito, 1986). Relational approach to teaching can be best understood and improved by defining it as a process of relational development. DeVito (1986) presents nine relationship skills highlighting openness, sympathy, supportiveness, fairness, collaboration, trust and interaction-that can help teachers to enhance their effectiveness. Teachers should able to build relationships between student and teachers. They should encourage

meaningful dialogue and serve as a role model. Teachers should be reflective and be able to able to relinquish control to students.

Feedback is another central theme of communication theory. It is considered one of the dominant mechanisms of experiential learning and action research (Kolb, 1984), sensitivity training (Lakin, 1972), and laboratory methods of personal and organizational change. Descriptive feedback enhanced both teaching and learning that occurs in the course of interaction between teachers and students (Schein & Bennis, 1965). Interaction in group is linked to feedback. This is true in the dynamic teacher student relationship as in tutoring or advising and in the classroom group (Billson, 1986). When students are given the autonomy to define issues, problems, and projects, work can be broken into discrete blocks that can be targeted, attempted, and mastered, with many opportunities for immediate feedback, criticism, redirection, and consultation. The cognitive aspect points the critical role of feedback plays in mastery learning (Guskey, 1988)

Other aspects focus on making goals more transparent to students. Cross (1988) Cross & Angelo (1988) research indicated that teachers and learners cannot share responsibility for the effectiveness of education if the learner has no idea of the goals planned by the teacher and the teacher has no idea of how the learner is progressing toward those goals. Teachers do not always like to teach they asked in the test while students tend to study what they think will be tested. Teachers remain busy to cover the whole content and learners are busy in psyching out exams. This gap between teaching and testing presents and hindrance to the sharing of responsibilities and to teacher-learner

collaboration. The best way to bridge this gap and to bring learner and teachers into collaboration is to use a technique that teaches and assess students simultaneously. For instance, requiring students to practice critical thinking as part of a learning exercise can both teach the skill and test it. Learning goals cannot be clearly articulated unless they are well defined and assessed. Cross and Angel (1988) present over forty classroom assessment techniques that double as teaching tools. one of the tool recommended by cross (1988) developed at Harvard called the Teaching Goals Inventory (TGI), intended to help teachers clarify their teaching goals. In addition to this she is now designing assessment measures, these measures will help teachers regulate how close students are to achieve the goals. Recent research indicates that the use of learning contracts to encourage sharing of responsibility for learning is not new, that they may provide a useful way to teach students some self-directed learning skills (Knowles, 1975; Rossman, 1982).

Research showed that interactive learning experience helps students to achieve their educational goals enables them to identify the resources required to complete different kinds of tasks (Caffarella & Caffarella, 1986). Curricular changes can be improved by students feedback, shared responsibility to empowering students and development of written material. However the role of students in these areas is not highly encouraged by the teachers. Teachers usually do not believe that their lectures or course materials such as outlines and syllabi could be improved by student input. Menges and Brinko (1986) research indicated there are evidences that both lectures and the

design of teaching materials (Medley-Mark and Weston, 1988) can be greatly improved by the help of student feedback, cooperation, and assessment.

2. CULTURAL CONTEXT

The progressive approach change in the schools was occurring in the most recent decade of twentieth century. Educators have found themselves capable to expand the nature of training and enhance results for students so as to make a more talented and instructed work environment. Levin (1998) has referred to both created and creating economies alike an approach pestilence which is conveyed by operators, for example, the World Bank and the OECD. Because of this strategy instruction is consider as a key fixing in the national financial advancement procedures. Certain elements have made ational legislature of western industrialized countries concentrate on the nature of their necessary tutoring frameworks. These components specifically are moves in social dispositions and normal auxiliary issues, for example, changing work designs, maturing populaces, youth joblessness, neediness, avoidance and the osmosis of financial vagrants.

In 1991 Maastricht Treaty has set instruction under the specialist of the European Union (EU) inside the Europe. National training frameworks are feeling obligated to take part in some type of rebuilding and realignment, in spite of the guideline of subsidiary which implies that EU law must be surrounded in connection to existing national needs and practice. Both in Europe and past, an intense talk has guaranteed that the market, managerialism and performativity have consolidated to make what Ball (2003) has alluded to as three interrelated 'arrangement advancements' which have been utilized to control crafted by educators and the execution of schools. These adjustments in the direction of instruction frameworks have incited observers to guess on the effect which such changes are having on the wide range of instructors' work and the degree to which they can hold their independence as experts (Apple, 1986; Ball, 1994; Hargreaves, 1994; Robertson, 1996; Helsby, 1999; Smyth, Dow, Hattam, Reid, and Shacklock, 2000). Sadly, an inclination for some approach research to concentrate on either the meta-story of significant moves in the control and administration of training frameworks, or the assessment of individual activities can fortify an administrative point of view of the strategy procedure. Age and execution have been developed as unmistakable and separate 'minutes', with age took after by usage in an immediate, straight manner. This can offer ascent to an auxiliary functionalist way to deal with approach investigation which searches for confirmation of 'data sources' and 'yields' and expect a shut arrangement of basic leadership (Bowe and Ball, 1992). Strategy moves toward becoming what government does, expecting a reasonable, 'top-down' and robotic process in which usage is clear and unproblematic. Such a view appreciates what occurs in the 'black box' of usage, and puts less accentuation on the part of the included on- screen characters or 'road level officials' (Lipsky, 1980) who can impact, or even subvert, arrangement during the time spent execution.

The ensuing area talks about the effect of approaches on the components included. These elements may differ significantly because of the specific social setting inside

which they are arranged. Thusly, a strategy which might be worldwide in inception can be interceded by national instructive factors, for example, societies at school and educator level, bringing about altogether different elucidations and reactions. Organization and structure both coordinate to deliver new elucidations of educators' work in various social settings. It is especially critical not to limit the pretended by educators' convictions and qualities in translating, obliging state approach. So as to see this case this part audits near discoveries on educators' work in a few European nations. near discoveries on educators' work drawing especially upon a program of expressly relative research which has analyzed the effect of national approach change on instructors' work and expert character.

3. **POLITICAL CONTEXT**

The decision about the education system in Pakistan will be entirely different fro Zimbabwe as due to the two countries having very different politics, government structures, laws, histories, cultures and education systems to name only a few factors. The context in which decisions are made around education is matter a lot. One of the major factor of classifying and understanding what the formal and informal rules and institutions look like in a given country is political context.

Codified constitutions, laws, policies, rights and regulations are the base of formal institutions while informal institutions don not follow any written and formal regulations, values and behaviors (Leftwich& Sen, 2010). A mutual strand is the idea of a stability of power between elite groups that leads to peaceful political contestation. Kelsall et al. (2016a: 8) summarizes that: Stability in political context found where dominant groups have agreed to stop fighting and pursue their aims through peaceful politics. The set of rules and institutions both formal and informal that create and sustain equilibrium are the substance of political context. However the most models revolve around the division of wealth of society by the powerful groups.

Most importantly the political settlements and peace supremacies are formed when the distribution of society's institutions wealth in a way that is acceptable to powerful groups (Ibid.). The nature of politics of any country can help to elucidate the way that the formal and informal institutions work, and the incentives that these create for different stakeholders. This is useful from a policy and programme perspective, as it can enlighten the ways to bring change in the design of institutions as well as shape appropriate strategies to achieve change.

Four underlying assumptions highlighted by Kelsall et al. (2016a) as to why political context matter in teaching profession of any country.

1. Sustainable or inclusive development is impossible in the absence of a political scenario of any country.
2. The nature of the political settlement, strongly influencing the ability of the state to raise income through taxation, creates powerful path dependencies for future development, to hire and dismiss the competent civil employers, to privilege certain sectors for economic development or to advance the position of different social groups, among other things.

3. Political settlements incline to change gradually until such a time as a tipping point is reached, after which change can be dramatic and discontinuous.

4. Institutions and policies are implemented effectively where they are aligned with the underlying political settlement.

To explore that how the political context affects the prospects and strategies for teaching progress we are particularly interested in (i) how teacher education institutions and teaching interventions interact with the incentives created by the political parties(ii) which factors have the power and incentives to engage in reform. These factors will shape if and how systemic change is feasible in the short to medium term.

3.1 Factors Influence Teaching

There are several factors that are influence by political involvement among teachers. The most pertinent figure are the school principals and department chairpersons in the teaching profession.

Principal affect everything in the school motivation, morale, feeling, relations with students and parents. However effective principals are ones who make a positive political climate across the school, but an ineffective person can destroy everything. For instance, principals who are biased toward selected teachers triggered feelings of anger,

jealousy, suspicion, and futility among the faculty. Competition among teachers (e.g., for resources, status, recognition), avoidance, and disruption of chosen cohorts created further splits in the faculty. As a result, different lobbies emerged in the school around in-group and out-group alliances. Some teachers retreated to the classroom. Faculty political interaction affect adversely in school-based leadership.

Politics either be positive and negative. Supportive environment and controlling the negative expression and emotions were identified in Positive politics. It refers to work- related interactions that increase cohesion among faculty. In general, diplomacy is the tactic to handle the conflicts in terms of positive politics. While negative politics, on the other hand decreases the cohesion in school bring destructive results. Conflict and passive aggressiveness are prominent examples of this response set. Both type of political action was perceived to stem from protectionist or influence concerns, but usually associative consequences are more closely related to the former and dissociative consequences to the latter.

Underdevelopment theory is the base of political revolution. “Many programs which start from underdevelopment theory assumes that political revolution is necessary to achieve changes in approaches to development and that this revolution would have a mass rural base. Some of the most rational educational strategies based on underdevelopment theory gain this consistency from the location of educational action within a scheme for mass revolution (Freire, 1970). The World Bank, as an inter- government agency, can hardly propose to achieve its educational aims through mass political revolution. It has to accept existing political conditions even though it may,

legitimately, choose to give aid disproportionately to projects in countries where governments do meet internationally respected standards of efficiency and justice.

The 1979 World Bank paper put emphasize to endorse educational changes which will stimulate political revolution. According to World Bank (1979, Summary para, 0.02) the paper states widely diffused educational activities provoke and facilitate changes in socio-political context. The paper fails to provide other indications of political means of producing desired changes than popular revolution. Many of the Paper's proposals in relation to impartiality and education are the concern of established governments where decisions necessarily will reflect local political and social pressures. One of the major failures to prioritize the educational justice to local community control of schools

may result from reasonable choices by governments in the face of conflicting political demands. There may be more to the failure of governments to achieve the World Bank Paper's social aims than subjective attitudes and self-interest of local officials. The absence of sufficient emphasis in the Paper on political considerations may again be related to the misapplication of theory to strategy.

Economic, social and political conditions are seen to be integrated parts of larger structures. Political institutions considered as integral part of these conditions rather than as agencies which can change social and economic conditions. The theoretical perspective taken in the Paper is predominantly structuralism. The logic behind that is political structures also must be changed equally along with social and economic conditions. This approach proposes no means of achieving change except political revolution. The methodological mistake found in the World Bank paper of attempting to derive policies directly from descriptive social theory.

Theories of the structure of social relation can only help to suggest what social changes need to be made to attain certain goals. Theory do not indicate how changes can be achieved and do not identify the mechanisms for producing change or the contexts in which the various stages of policy-making take place. These theories are structuralism and suggest particularly that social, political and economic structures are inseparable. Economics interest is the base of the political interests. The World Bank yet, even accept this view even at a theoretical level, this connection can be questioned. Nation states are the products of historical power-struggles. Political interests are not necessarily wholly consistent with economic conditions. Educational policies will have to take into account the strengths and weaknesses of nation states and national governments as well as social and economic structures. The nation and the national government may not represent cohesive social or economic units. Report is concerned may be seen to have two aspects of the political dimension of education in the countries. Firstly there is the effect of educational provision on the achievement of political unity and constancy. Secondly there is political interference of governmental responses in particular countries to educational provision.

The countries which are politically unstable and underdeveloped receive aid from World Bank. In many cases this has been also linked with the recent colonial history of nation- states whose

boundaries has great influence by European international politics rather than the affiliations of their peoples. The divisions between traditional and modern sectors intensify political conflicts noted in the World Bank paper. National political institutions are often weak and do not command widespread loyalty. The predominant experience of the majority of the population often is of the forced arms of government.

In developing national political cohesion Education played a vital role. This is defined in governmental statements of educational aims. Experience of education itself may be a significant means of creating national unity. This required uniformity in system. Centralized education system may bring uniformity in educational institutes. This involves central control of educational institutions, central allocation and training of teachers and a national curriculum. Proposals in the World Bank (1979) Paper for the decentralization of education threaten the political objectives of national unity especially when this means autonomy for each local community. Decentralization of education may create regional conflicts at any level which can be based on economic development, different languages and different religions. At worst, locally controlled schools in politically weak nation-states may become agencies of competing political groups. In this way, education itself becomes a politically disunifying force.

It is not being argued that all the policies proposed by the World Bank paper will threaten national political stability. An education policy which emphasizes the maintenance of rural population stability rather than urban growth may help to reduce the social stresses of rapid social and economic change which can threaten political stability. A policy of giving priority to the achievement of impartiality of educational provision may help to encourage wider acceptance of national norms and ideologies more than one which raise discrimination between a small educated group and the mass of the population which has received little or no schooling. The point I want to make is that the policies proposed by the World Bank paper should be seen in the context of existing political frameworks and national political aims.

Political aspect likely to have a major effect on the adoption of policies by governments but it seems to be ignored. The provision of education is affected by the ways in which schooling is viewed by community. The reaction to these demands is essentially a political matter which reflects political balances within individual countries. World Bank paper notes, that some people in rural areas reject state education as they do not find it as irrelevant or unfriendly to their interests and values. Others may perceive schooling as a way to social change and more find it more attractive occupations in the modern sector of the economy. Some may oppose teaching other than the mother or local language. While others may accept the international language as a medium of instruction in their schools. Some governments may wish to encourage the use of national languages in schools to achieve national unity while others may tolerate the use of many languages where other means are available of attaining national unity or where the opposition to national languages is too great to be overcome within existing political resources. The pattern of these demands and the balance vary between countries. All depends on political conditions. Whether educational policy makers respect the expressed wishes of major groups in the population or try to

change them. The relative strength of political groupings will affect the degree to which formulated policies are adopted and then implemented. Educational and non-educational goals can be achieved by the Educational programmes.”

Schools may also vary as some governments tolerate rural schools becoming avenues for limited rural-urban mobility for some students as an incentive for rural communities accepting land reform or participating in government. Other governments may wish to prevent rural schools becoming means to migration as the first stage in an overall rural reform programme. Most governments would endorse this aim that the World Bank may propose schemes to achieve economic development with the knowledge. The scheme proposed that the achievement of economic goals is mediated by social conditions which may have to be changed if economic aims are to be realized. However, it is clear that the achievement of change vary from country to country and that national governments are best placed to decide, and to achieve, what is politically feasible depends on political conditions. While some statements in the World Bank paper seem to indicate recognition of this, it does not inform the overall character of the analysis and prescriptions of the report. The failure of the World Bank paper to give weight to political considerations seems to stem from the type of analysis that is adopted as too much emphasis is given to structuralism theories of social relations. Insufficient

consideration is paid to the processes and contexts of policy formulation, adoption and implementation.

4.INTERPLAY WITH VALUE EDUCATION AND TEACHING PROFESSION

Two questions seeking answers in order to address the problem of determining the impact of teacher values on teaching in general and values education in particular:

1. Is effective teaching the expression of a general set of teacher personal values that inform teacher behaviors and relationships with students?
2. Are there specific teacher values that inform quality values education?

It is necessary to establish that teaching is values-laden before focusing on these questions. In one sense teachers are social and moral educators. Teachers take positions on a variety of social and emotional issues and develop values that are informed by these challenges regardless of the institutional limitations within a school.

Generally, a teacher's selection of subject matter, his choice of instructional strategies and structures to communicate that content is values-laden. For example, deciding between instructional models of teaching involving teacher presentation and a collaborative approach involving students more proactively, both sends significant messages about the teacher's values to students. The research of Halstead and Xiao (2010) argued that the students' constantly learn values that may not be those that are clearly written and taught as an impact of hidden curriculum. While giving the example author says that students learning to show tolerance when it is

appropriate to disobey certain rules be learned after reflection on a teacher's dominating behavior. Both teachers and students bring and develop a variety of professional and personal values to classroom relationships. Just as teachers bring and develop a variety values, the students also bring a variety of values from the home. These will include varying expressions of tolerance, respect for others, social conscience and personal responsibility.

So relationship is an activated process that is informed by the values of both students and teacher (Brophy and Good 1974).The threats in originating an ideal set of teacher values for effective teaching include the tendency to confuse personal values with professional values and personality with character (values). One attractive image is that some students prefer a teacher who is friendly, delightful, passionate and owning a strong sense of humor. While in other case some students prefer a teacher who exhibits the conflicting that is, one who is distant, composed and serious, as this teacher may produce better results. Teachers who possess desirable qualities such as enthusiasm and charm may contribute to professional expertise personality traits are only contingently contributory (Carr, 2010). While the outflow of expert practices is reliant on certain individual esteems that has significance for classrooms. There is adequate writing that inspects alluring instructor conduct and educator esteems. There is additionally an extraordinary consciousness of the significance of relationship to powerful educating and learning. Bingham and Sidorkan (2004) alter an assortment of commitments that investigate the essentialness of connection in instruction, concentrating less on instructive process but rather more on human connections. Tirri, (2010) minding and regard are the most clear enthusiastic articulations obvious in addressing the necessities of individual understudies. Tirri's (2010) look into on instructor esteems that educate proficient morals and relationship distinguishes minding and regards demonstrable skill and responsibility, and collaboration.

Clement, 2010 unravels student perceptions about the caring attitude of teachers. Research revealed that teachers with professional values deal their students equally, respect them as a person, consider individual difference while making expectations, offer instant constructive feedback and act as role model for their students. Professionalism and commitment are apparent in the planning. Two of the arguably more enduring profiles of teacher qualities and values that are desirable in establishing teacher-student relationships to optimize learning are those of Carl Rogers (1969) and Paulo Freire (1998). They present an ideal of the teacher and human being as emotionally and psychologically stable, and are described by the author as follows:

4.1 **Realness**

This includes the teacher being himself without presence of different classroom identity. Teacher may be enthusiastic, uninterested, interested, annoyed, sympatric and sensitive because they accepts these feelings as her/his own, she/he has no need to enforce them.

4.2 **Prizing, Accepting, Trust**

This comprises the teacher way of recognizing and acknowledging his students. Recognition should be in the way that it may not discourage other students while encouraging one in front of class. For that purpose private recognition is encouraged as compared to public recognition. Caring for them in such a way that their feelings and opinions are affirmed.

4.3 **Empathic Understanding**

This contains the teacher quality to demonstrate a sensitive understanding of how his student perceive and feels about learning. Considering the context as a major requisite for learning, Rogers (1969) said about the student voice that at last someone understands how it feels to the students without wanting to analyzing or judging them. In this way students can grow and learn in a healthy teaching and learning environment.

4.4 **The Fully Functioning Person**

These teachers are emotionally secure and have no need to be defensive. This involves teachers in the process of being and becoming themselves by being open to their feelings and evidence from all sources, and by discovering that they are soundly and realistically social.

“Freire’s (1998) ‘Central Qualities of Progressive Teachers’ also portray the essentially human and emotionally responsive teacher:

- Humility: being perceptive about their own limitations and implementing a democratic rather than an authoritarian classroom.
- Lovingness: showing love for both students and teaching and practicing armed love (fighting for what is right).
- Courage: removing one’s own fears and insecurities.
- Tolerance: respecting difference but not ‘acquiescing to the intolerable.’
- Decisiveness: making often-difficult choices for the best, yet being careful not to ‘nullify oneself in the name of being democratic.
- Living the tension between patience and impatience – preserving the tension between the two yet never surrendering to either.
- Joy of living: committing to both teaching in particular and life in general.”

While the educator estimations of Rogers (1969) and Freire (1998) are apparently persisting, if testing to instruct (realness, lovingness, lowliness, the completely working individual, and the delight of living), different articulations of perfect instructor esteems and practices unavoidably advance as impression of educating and learning change. Brady (2006) follows a development in expansive ways to deal with taking in and instructing from conventional to dynamic to collective, and characterizes a model of contemporary learning and showing that depends on social constructivism, and that is communicated by Bruner’s (1996) assert that learning ought to be

participative (understudies being occupied with their learning), proactive (understudies stepping up with regards to their learning), and cooperative (understudies working with each other and their educator to advance their learning). Such a dynamic perspective of students, combined with a similarly powerful part for instructors as co-constructors of learning, has apparently changed prior pictures of the perfect educator as the 'wellspring of all intelligence', the quintessential explainer, or one who can 'separate' and present data such that it is acceptable for understudies. It has likewise had the impact of featuring the requirement for instructor resilience and lack of bias in esteems training, and highlighting the requirement for understudy support and expert activity.

4.5 Desirable Teacher Values That Inform Values Education

The challenge of teaching values education is to focus on the need for teachers to create warm and supportive classroom environments in which students feel free to express their thoughts and feelings or even experience catharsis, and to be tolerant of different student opinions. A more demanding strategy for deciding if certain esteems are more critical in values instruction than different regions of learning, is to inspect the educating/learning systems that instructors must embrace in encouraging each of the significant contemporary ways to deal with esteems training, and to deduce the educator esteems that are expected to illuminate hone.

4.6 The Trait Approach

“The trait approach is based on the view that values education should comprise predetermined traits or qualities that can be taught. Kohlberg (1975) referred to the approach pejoratively as ‘the bag of virtues approach’. While often cited desirable virtues include honesty, loyalty, tolerance, trustworthiness, service and compassion, the implicit question is ‘what values’ and ‘determined by whom’. So the approach is based on values absolutism: certain prescribed values are deemed more worthy than others. The indirect expression that utilises moral biography is the typical expression of the trait approach. Biography provides the raw data for discussion, and the learning principle is that of transfer: if students are impressed by the values by which eminent people lived their lives, they will adopt the values as their own. Proponents claim that a biography need not simply comprise one or a number of desirable behaviours for potential adoption, but that it can be potentially powerful in presenting the feelings and thoughts that guide action in specific contexts. Conventional practice involves the teacher reading the biography (usually abridged to a page or two), and focusing a discussion on the values demonstrated. Effective teaching involves more than simple deduction of qualities or values. It includes examination of the reasons for, and consequences of action, and the transposition of the demonstrated values into student-centred contexts (‘Can you think of ways that you could practice these values in your own life at home or at school?’). Rather than use full biographies or chronologies of a person’s life, brief extracts may be presented providing defining moments from speeches or reports that exemplify the desirable values of the lauded character or speaker. These extracts are typically followed by specific questions about the value ‘What examples of care and compassion are shown?’”

4.7 Values Clarification

“The approach involves students identifying their values and beliefs ‘in an effort to enable them to be more self-directing in life’s confusions’. This reflection process to clarify the confusion, proponents claim, makes the student more purposeful and productive, less gullible and vulnerable, a better critical thinker, and more socially aware. Values clarification is based on the notion of values-relativity, that is, in contrast to the trait approach for which values are prescribed (values absolutism), students are encouraged to adopt their own values, providing they are personally meaningful. The approach does not focus on the imposition of a set of prescribed values, but the process of acquiring them. The strategies may include ranking or rating values statements in particular areas (students ranking or rating on a five point scale); creating a Values Shield (students representing what is meaningful to them by drawing symbols on a cardboard family crest); conducting SWOT analysis (students identifying the relevant Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats relating to an issue or situation); completing unfinished sentences (students finishing a sentence structured by the teacher to elicit a feeling, opinion or value), utilising discussion cards (students discussing issues written, often by themselves, on cards) and ‘playing’ voting questions (students voting on contentious issues with raised hands for agreement, thumbs down for disagreement, and arms folded for undecided). The variety of possible strategies is virtually unlimited. The strategies are typically presented to students in small groups, though sometimes they are completed individually or as a whole class. While the students are undertaking the tasks, the teacher visits each group, facilitating by asking questions related to three identified processes (choosing, affirming and acting). For example, for ‘choosing’ the teacher might ask ‘Did you consider another possible alternative?’ and ‘Are there some reasons behind your choice?’; for ‘affirming’, the teacher might ask ‘Would you tell the class how you feel?’ and ‘Are you willing to stand up and be counted for that?’; and for ‘acting’ the teacher might ask ‘Have you done anything yet?’ and ‘How long do you think you will continue?’ Once the tasks are completed, student responses are typically shared in discussion with the whole class, though exceptions may be made for very sensitive issues or vulnerable students.”

4.8 The Cognitive Developmental Approach

“This approach is called ‘cognitive’ because it bases values education, like intellectual education, on the active thinking of students about values. It is ‘developmental’ because it views values education as the movement through stages. These stages define ‘what (a person) finds valuable how he defines the value, and why he finds it valuable, that is, the reasons he gives for valuing it’ (Kohlberg, 1975). This distinction between ‘structure’ and content indicates that we are located at a particular stage according to the nature of our reasoning and not its content. For example, two people might justify two completely opposite stances, say for and against euthanasia respectively (different content), and be reasoning at the same stage level the same ‘structure’). The focus of the cognitive theorists is therefore to improve reasoning and facilitate movement through the six stages identified by Kohlberg (1975) towards moral autonomy, rather than to differentiate between right

and wrong decisions. Kohlberg (1975) claims that the means of promoting development (movement through the stages) is through the provision of conflict, so the classroom strategy involves the presentation of a moral dilemma story, sometimes called ‘unfinished,’ ‘open ended’ or ‘conflict’ story. It is ‘unfinished’ because it presents a student-centred dilemma, and asks how the protagonist should solve the conflict. They have great appeal as a strategy in values education because they are so student-centred, and therefore possess a capacity to engage through discussion. There is no established classroom procedure apart from teacher direction of the discussion. Teachers facilitate by asking both questions that clarify substantive issues in the dilemma, and questions that are more generic (‘Might there be an alternative? Why do you think that? Can you give another example? What might the consequences of that be?’), ensuring that the conflict is not so great as to be daunting, nor so slight as to be insufficiently challenging. Teachers avoid imposing their personal views and judging the responses of students. To do so would diminish the presence of conflict – the agent of moral growth. They may however ensure that the class is exposed to the opinions of those who are reasoning at the next highest stage, as evidence indicates that when students are exposed to reasoning at one stage above their own stage, they are more influenced by it and prefer it as advice. While teachers may summarize the discussion and delineate suggested solutions, no particular proposal is endorsed as ‘right’.”

4.9 **Role-Playing**

“Shaftel, 1967 provides an early definition of role-play as ‘the opportunity to explore through spontaneous improvisation typical group problem situations in which individuals are helped to become sensitive to the feelings of the people involved’. Typically, two students selected as the players react spontaneously to each other in dialogue to explore solutions to a presented problem. In assuming the role of another person, students step outside their accustomed role and adopt the role of another person. In this way, they are required to become less egocentric, and as a result, they develop insights into themselves and others. The following six steps in conducting a role-play are derived from the author’s observation and demonstration teaching of over 100 role play lessons:”

1. **Solution confrontation**

The teacher identifies the roles/duties to be played for a nominated solution, and if necessary, clarifies the names of characters and the sequence of events.

2. **Briefing**

The teacher assists students to enter the role of the character they are to play by questioning the players and class about what each character in turn might be thinking or feeling. (‘What might Leif be feeling?’ Why might she think that?’). Alternatively the briefing may comprise a statement by the teacher describing the gamut of thoughts and feelings each character might be experiencing, to sensitise the players and audience. For both the questioning and statement forms of briefing, the teacher remains as ‘neutral’ as possible.

3. **Role-play**

Fully sensitized to the feelings of the characters involved, the players react spontaneously to each other in dialogue. The exchange is unrehearsed; each player reacts to the unpredictable responses of the other; and this 'transactional' quality of role-play often produces solutions that are not those initially anticipated by the players or class.

4. **Debriefing**

This is an optional step that is only implemented if the teacher feels a player needs to be extracted from the role. It may take the form of a simple statement ('Remember Erin, you're not Lachlan anymore...his problems aren't really yours'), or teachers may use the nametag technique: removing the nametag of the character's name when the role-play is complete, and throwing it in the bin (psychologically disowning the role).

5. **Reflection on transaction**

Once the role-play is over, the teacher asks the two players to comment on the transactional nature of the exchange by analysing the thoughts and feelings that the other player evoked, and how these shaped their own reactions. The class may also contribute its perceptions of the interaction, and 'test' them by asking the players questions.

6. **Further enactment**

The discussion prompts further enactments, sometimes involving the same two characters, but with different players, or involving an exchange between one of the original characters and a third. In the case of the former, a new player may be chosen on the basis that he/she thought an original player was not sufficiently real (too harsh or too lenient).

7. **Scaffolding learning**

Teachers need to engage in contingent scaffolding by questioning students about their evolving views. For instance, teachers may facilitate the process of values clarification by asking questions about choosing, affirming and acting upon values; they might ask students how values deduced from moral biography might be transferred or acted upon in their own lives; and they might expose students to higher stage moral reasoning about a moral dilemma and question them about the merits of that reasoning. So teachers need to be committed to a dynamic form of learning in which students are equally as active as the teacher, and operate as constructors of knowledge.

8. **Encouraging student expression**

All approaches are language-rich in that they rely on both teacher questioning, and either full class or small group discussion in resolving or sharing insights. The discussion of moral dilemmas and moral biographies, and the use of role-play are totally based in student talk; and values clarification typically involves minimal written responses prior to discussion. The approaches are also highly emotionally engaging for students. So teachers need to be committed to promoting learning that is participative, collaborative and verbally rich.

5. SELF ASSESSMENT

Section I: Short answer Questions

1. How the empathic understanding plays the role in teaching profession?
2. What is the role of self-directed instruction in improving the role of teacher in society?
3. Explain cooperative teaching and learning in reference to the societal context.
4. Briefly highlight the role of communication theory in improving teaching profession.
5. Mention either different educational policies are being enacted in many countries in response to global pressures or not.

Section II: Essay Type

1. How can a teacher conduct an effective role play during his/her lecture to enhance the understanding of the students?
2. What are the qualities of an effective teacher?
3. Highlight the features of teaching profession in your social context.
4. What kind of political interference a society is facing in promotion of teaching profession? Explain your answer with reference to the context.