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ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Course: Instructional Supervision (1647) • Level: PGD/ BEd 4-years

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Assignment No. 2 (Units 5–9)

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks: 50

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book, understand the concepts, and write their assignments in their own words.

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Question 1: Organisational Culture; Changing a School's Culture Positively (20 Marks)

Explain the concept of organizational culture and discuss the steps/ process an effective supervisor should follow to positively change the culture of a school.

Introduction

Two schools with the same syllabus, the same kind of buildings and equally qualified teachers often produce very different results. Much of the difference lies in something invisible but powerful: the culture of the school — 'the way we do things here'. A supervisor who wants lasting improvement quickly discovers that changing timetables and issuing instructions is not enough; unless the culture changes, old habits quietly defeat every reform. This answer first explains the concept of organisational culture, then describes the features of a positive school culture, and finally sets out, step by step, the process an effective supervisor should follow to change a school's culture positively.

Concept of Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is the set of shared values, beliefs, assumptions, norms, traditions and habitual ways of behaving that members of an organisation develop over time and that guides how they actually work. It is learned by new members as 'the correct way' to think and act in that organisation. Edgar Schein, the leading scholar of the concept, described culture at three levels. The first level is artifacts — the visible surface: the school's appearance, notice boards, assembly, dress, ceremonies, timetables and the language people use. The second level is espoused values — what the school says it believes: its stated aims, motto, rules and official claims about excellence, punctuality or honesty. The third and deepest level is basic underlying assumptions — the unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs that truly drive behaviour, such as 'children from poor homes cannot do well', or the opposite, 'every child in this school can succeed and it is our job to make it happen'. Real culture lives at this third level, which is why it is powerful and why it is hard to change.

Deal and Peterson, writing specifically about schools, described school culture as the web of stories, rituals, traditions, heroes and shared meanings that shapes how teachers teach, how students behave and how parents feel about the school. A school's culture may be positive and strong — staff share high expectations, cooperate, celebrate success and support new members — or negative and toxic — staff are divided, expectations are low, blame is common, rituals are empty and everyone privately believes that effort makes no difference. Culture is important for supervision because it decides whether supervisory advice is welcomed and sustained or quietly resisted: teachers do not work as isolated individuals but inside a culture that either multiplies or cancels the supervisor's efforts.

Features of a Positive School Culture

- Shared belief that all students can learn, with high expectations for every class and every child.
- A common sense of mission: staff can say what the school is trying to achieve and feel ownership of it.
- Collegiality: teachers observe, help and learn from one another instead of working in isolation.
- Rituals and celebrations that honour learning: assemblies, displays of student work, awards for effort and achievement.
- Openness and trust: problems can be discussed honestly with the head and the supervisor without fear.
- Respectful relationships among staff, students and parents, and pride in the school's identity and traditions.
- Continuous improvement as a norm: trying a better method is appreciated, and failure of an honest experiment is not punished.

Steps / Process for Positively Changing a School's Culture

Step 1: Diagnose the Existing Culture

Culture cannot be changed until it is understood. The supervisor begins by studying the school as it really is: observing assemblies, staffroom talk, classroom interaction and corridor behaviour; reading the artifacts (displays, registers, the state of the building); listening to teachers, students and parents in formal meetings and informal conversation; and uncovering the underlying assumptions — what staff truly believe about students, about their own ability,

and about the possibility of improvement. The supervisor identifies both the toxic elements (low expectations, factions, blame, ritual without meaning) and the positive strengths on which change can be built, because every school, however weak, has some good practice and some respected people.

Step 2: Build a Shared Vision and Shared Values

Change imposed by order produces compliance, not culture. The supervisor therefore leads a participatory process in which the staff themselves discuss and agree the school's vision and a few core values — for example, 'every child can succeed', 'we learn from each other', 'we celebrate effort and honesty'. Participation creates ownership: teachers defend values they helped to choose. The agreed vision is written simply, displayed, and repeatedly connected to daily decisions, so that it becomes the school's espoused standard against which habits are judged.

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Step 3: Model the Desired Culture Personally

Culture is caught more than taught. The supervisor (and the head teacher, whom the supervisor coaches for this role) must visibly live the new values: arriving on time, visiting classrooms regularly, praising good teaching specifically and publicly, admitting mistakes, treating every teacher and parent with respect, and keeping promises. Staff watch what leaders do far more carefully than what they say; one act of favouritism or broken trust can destroy months of speeches about fairness and openness.

Step 4: Involve Influential People and Build a Coalition

Every staff has informal leaders — senior teachers and respected figures whose opinion others follow. The supervisor identifies and wins these people first, gives them real roles in the change (leading a study circle, mentoring new teachers, organising a reading programme), and lets success spread through them. Change carried by insiders lasts; change carried only by the supervisor leaves with the supervisor.

Step 5: Reshape Rituals, Symbols and Stories

Because culture lives in rituals and symbols, the supervisor deliberately builds new ones and reforms old ones: a morning assembly that celebrates student achievement and good character, not only discipline; displays of the best student work in corridors; certificates for teachers' innovations, a school motto and song actually used; stories told and retold about the school's heroes — the teacher who transformed a weak class, the student who succeeded against odds. Such rituals make abstract values visible, emotional and memorable, especially for students and new staff.

Step 6: Change Structures and Daily Practices to Match the Values

Values that contradict daily arrangements will not survive. The supervisor therefore aligns structures with the new culture: timetable time for staff collaboration and peer observation; a staff meeting agenda that discusses teaching, not only administration; transparent criteria for duties, leave and rewards; a mentoring arrangement for new teachers; and classroom routines that express high expectations, such as display of learning objectives and regular feedback on student work. When structures change, behaviour changes daily, and repeated behaviour slowly becomes culture.

Step 7: Develop People and Celebrate Early Wins

Culture change needs competence and hope. The supervisor arranges training, demonstration lessons and peer support in the priority areas of the vision, and deliberately engineers and publicises early, visible successes — improved reading results in one class, a successful parents' day, a cleaner and more attractive school. Early wins prove that 'things can change here', weaken the old assumption of helplessness, and convert doubters.

Step 8: Handle Resistance Patiently and Fairly

Some staff will resist — from fear, habit, vested interest or genuine disagreement. The effective supervisor listens to objections, distinguishes honest concerns (which improve the plan) from mere obstruction, gives time and support for adjustment, applies agreed standards consistently to everyone, and uses formal authority only as a last resort. Forcing cultural change by punishment produces surface acting; patience combined with consistency produces genuine conversion.

Step 9: Institutionalise, Monitor and Sustain

Finally, the new culture is protected: the vision and agreed practices are written into the school's routines and development plan; new teachers are formally introduced to 'how we do things here' by mentors; the supervisor monitors cultural indicators during visits (quality of displays, staff collaboration, student behaviour, parent participation), gives feedback, and keeps celebrating the values in action. Culture change is slow — commonly a matter of two to three years, not two to three months — and the supervisor's consistency over that period is what turns a campaign into a culture.

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Table 1: Culture-change process at a glance

Step	Supervisor's Main Action	Intended Cultural Effect
1. Diagnose	Observe, listen, uncover assumptions	Change based on reality, not guesswork
2. Shared vision	Lead staff to agree vision and values	Ownership replaces imposition
3. Model	Live the values visibly and consistently	Credibility; culture is caught
4. Coalition	Win informal leaders, give them roles	Change carried by insiders
5. Rituals & symbols	Build assemblies, displays, stories, awards	Values become visible and emotional
6. Structures	Align timetable, meetings, criteria, mentoring	Daily practice reinforces values
7. Develop & celebrate	Train staff, publicise early wins	Competence and hope grow
8. Handle resistance	Listen, support, apply standards fairly	Doubters converted, standards kept
9. Sustain	Write into plans, induct newcomers, monitor	New culture outlives individuals

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Conclusion

In conclusion, organisational culture is the shared values, beliefs, assumptions, rituals and habits that determine how a school really functions, operating at the visible level of artifacts, the stated level of values and the deep level of assumptions. Because it governs whether any reform survives, changing it positively is among the supervisor's most important tasks. The effective supervisor follows a deliberate process: diagnose the present culture, build a shared vision with the staff, model it personally, win influential insiders, reshape rituals and symbols, align structures and daily practices, develop people and celebrate early wins, handle resistance fairly, and institutionalise the new ways until they become 'the way we do things here'.

Question 2: Motivation and Leadership; Motivational and Leadership Theories for Government Schools (20 Marks)

Explain the relationship between motivation and leadership, and describe briefly two motivational and two leadership theories that can be applied in our government schools for school improvement.

Introduction

A school improves when its teachers work not merely under orders but with energy, commitment and pride. That inner willingness to exert effort is motivation, and the person chiefly responsible for creating the conditions in which it appears is the leader — the head teacher guided and supported by the supervisor. Motivation and leadership are therefore inseparable in school improvement. This answer first explains the two concepts and their relationship, and then describes two motivational theories (Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory) and two leadership theories (transformational leadership and instructional leadership), showing how each can be applied in Pakistan's government schools.

Relationship Between Motivation and Leadership

Motivation is the internal process that arouses, directs and sustains a person's effort towards a goal. A motivated teacher prepares lessons carefully, tries new methods, gives time to weak students and persists despite difficulties; an unmotivated teacher does the minimum that avoids punishment. Leadership is the process of influencing people towards the achievement of shared goals. The relationship between the two is direct and two-way. First, motivating staff is one of the core functions of leadership: plans, resources and supervision achieve little until the leader converts them into willing effort, so a leader who cannot motivate is merely an

administrator of rules. Second, the leader's style itself is a major source of motivation or demotivation — fair treatment, recognition, participation and support from the head teacher raise motivation, while favouritism, public criticism and indifference destroy it faster than low salary alone. Third, motivation also flows upward and sideways: motivated, committed teachers make leadership easier and inspire the leader and their colleagues, creating either a virtuous circle of energy or, in neglected schools, a vicious circle of apathy. In short, leadership is largely the art of creating and sustaining motivation towards shared educational goals.

Motivational Theory 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow proposed that human needs form a hierarchy of five levels, and that lower needs must be reasonably satisfied before higher needs become strong motivators. The levels are: (1) physiological needs — food, rest and basic living conditions, in a teacher's case an adequate and timely salary; (2) safety needs — security of job, a safe workplace and freedom from arbitrary treatment; (3) social needs — belonging, friendship and acceptance by colleagues; (4) esteem needs — respect, recognition and status for one's work; and (5) self-actualisation — growth, creativity and becoming the best teacher one can be.

Application in government schools. A head teacher cannot fix salaries, but Maslow's theory tells the supervisor and head where motivation is blocked at each level and what lies within their power: ensuring pay and allowances are processed on time and postings are as fair as possible (levels 1–2); protecting teachers from arbitrary blame and ensuring safety, especially for female staff in remote schools (level 2); building staffroom collegiality, teamwork and inclusion of new teachers (level 3); and — most neglected — systematic recognition, appreciation certificates, public praise and fair nomination for awards and training (level 4), plus opportunities for

growth such as study circles, demonstration lessons and responsibility for leading an area (level 5). The practical lesson is that appeals to dedication will fail with a teacher whose basic and safety needs are unmet, while a secure but unrecognised teacher needs esteem-level motivation, not more rules.

Motivational Theory 2: Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Frederick Herzberg found that the factors causing job satisfaction are different from those causing dissatisfaction. Hygiene factors — salary, job security, working conditions, school policies, supervision quality and interpersonal relations — do not motivate when present, but cause active dissatisfaction when absent or unfair. Motivators — achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth — are what genuinely raise effort and satisfaction. Improving hygiene only removes discontent; real motivation comes from the motivators.

Application in government schools. The theory explains a common puzzle: a school may receive a new building and regular pay (hygiene improved) yet teaching remains lifeless, because no motivator has been touched. Government school heads and supervisors should therefore work on both tracks: remove hygiene irritants within their control — unfair duty rosters, delayed leave decisions, poor staffroom conditions, fault-finding supervision — and deliberately build motivators, which cost little or nothing: recognising achievement in assemblies and staff meetings, giving capable teachers responsibility (examination in-charge, sports, library, mentoring), making the work itself richer through peer observation and new methods, and recommending teachers fairly for promotion, training and awards. Herzberg's central gift to a resource-poor system is the proof that powerful motivators are mostly free.

Leadership Theory 1: Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership, associated with Burns and Bass, describes leaders who raise followers beyond routine performance by transforming their values, aspirations and commitment. Its four components are: idealised influence — the leader models integrity and dedication and earns trust; inspirational motivation — the leader articulates a compelling shared vision; intellectual stimulation — the leader encourages questioning, new ideas and experimentation; and individualised consideration — the leader attends to each person's needs, coaching and developing individuals. The opposite, transactional leadership, merely exchanges rewards and punishments for compliance.

Application in government schools. A transformational head teacher, supported by the supervisor, frames a shared vision ('our school will be the best in the union council for reading'), lives it visibly, invites teachers to experiment with methods without fear, and knows each teacher's situation personally. In government schools, where financial incentives are almost entirely outside the head's control, transformational leadership is especially valuable because its currency — vision, trust, respect and growth — does not depend on budget. Research in many countries associates it with higher teacher commitment and school improvement, and it directly builds the positive culture discussed in Question 1.

Leadership Theory 2: Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership focuses leadership specifically on teaching and learning. In Hallinger's widely used model, the instructional leader performs three broad functions: defining the school's mission and learning goals; managing the instructional programme — supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum and monitoring student progress; and

promoting a positive learning climate — protecting teaching time, providing incentives for learning, maintaining high expectations and supporting teachers' professional development. Unlike general administration, its centre of gravity is the classroom.

Application in government schools. This theory converts the head teacher from a clerk of registers into the school's first instructional supervisor: setting class-wise learning targets, observing lessons and giving feedback, checking student work and assessment results, arranging demonstration lessons, and shielding teaching time from unnecessary interruptions and non-teaching duties. For Pakistan's government schools — where heads have traditionally been consumed by administration and where external supervisors visit rarely — instructional leadership is arguably the single most applicable leadership theory, because it places a learning-focused leader inside every school every day, and district supervisors can train, coach and monitor heads precisely in these behaviours.

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Table 1: The four theories at a glance

Theory	Core Idea	Key Application in a Government School
Maslow — hierarchy of needs	Needs rise from basic to growth; lower needs motivate first when unmet	Timely pay processing, safety and fairness first; then recognition and growth opportunities
Herzberg — two-factor	Hygiene prevents dissatisfaction; motivators create effort	Remove irritants (unfair rosters, harsh supervision); add recognition, responsibility, growth
Transformational leadership	Leader inspires through vision, example, stimulation and personal care	Shared vision, modelling, encouraging experiment, knowing each teacher
Instructional leadership	Leader's focus is curriculum, teaching and learning outcomes	Learning targets, classroom observation, feedback, protecting teaching time

Conclusion

In conclusion, motivation is the inner engine of teacher effort and leadership is the process that creates, directs and sustains it; a leader's style is itself one of the strongest motivators or demotivators in a school. Maslow teaches the supervisor to remove need-blockages level by level, Herzberg teaches that removing irritants is not enough and that recognition, responsibility and growth — mostly free — are the true motivators, transformational leadership shows how vision, example and personal care lift a whole staff beyond routine compliance, and instructional leadership focuses the head teacher's authority squarely on teaching and learning. Applied together in government schools, where money incentives are scarce, these four theories offer a realistic, low-cost strategy for school improvement through motivated people.

Question 3: Skills of an Effective Educational Supervisor; Pedagogical and Communication Skills (20 Marks)

Briefly explain some skills essential for becoming an effective educational supervisor and discuss the uses of learning pedagogical and communication skills as a supervisor.

Introduction

Supervision is skilled work. A supervisor may hold a senior post and possess wide powers, yet fail completely if he lacks the skills to observe a lesson accurately, to tell a teacher an unwelcome truth without destroying the relationship, or to turn findings into a workable improvement plan. Post and seniority give authority; skill gives effectiveness. This answer first outlines the main groups of skills an effective educational supervisor needs, and then discusses

in detail the two skill families the question highlights — pedagogical skills and communication skills — and their uses in supervisory practice.

Essential Skills of an Effective Educational Supervisor

1. Technical and Professional Skills

These are the skills of the supervisor's own craft: mastery of the subjects and levels he supervises, knowledge of curricula and textbooks, skill in lesson observation and analysis, assessment literacy, ability to demonstrate a good lesson, and knowledge of modern methods and teaching aids. Without technical credibility, a supervisor's advice is treated as bureaucratic opinion.

2. Human and Interpersonal Skills

Supervision is work with people, so the supervisor needs skill in building rapport and trust, listening, showing empathy, handling sensitive situations tactfully, motivating discouraged teachers, resolving conflicts among staff, and treating everyone with fairness and respect. Human skills decide whether teachers open their real classrooms and real difficulties to the supervisor or hide them.

3. Conceptual Skills

A supervisor must see the whole picture: understanding how curriculum, staffing, resources, community and policy connect; diagnosing root causes rather than symptoms (for example, seeing that poor mathematics results come from weak concept teaching in earlier classes, not from this year's teacher alone); setting priorities; and planning improvement over months and years, not visit by visit.

4. Administrative and Managerial Skills

Planning visits and programmes, organising records and data, managing time across many schools, conducting meetings, writing clear reports, following up decisions and coordinating with higher authorities and other agencies are indispensable managerial skills. Brilliant advice that is never scheduled, recorded or followed up changes nothing.

5. Leadership and Decision-Making Skills

The supervisor must lead without merely commanding: setting shared goals, taking fair decisions under pressure, accepting responsibility, encouraging innovation, and standing by teachers who act in good faith. Closely related are analytical and problem-solving skills, research-mindedness, and the self-management skills of integrity, punctuality and emotional control, which make the supervisor a credible model.

- In short, the effective supervisor combines Katz's classic three skills — technical, human and conceptual — with managerial competence and instructional leadership.
- No single skill is sufficient alone: technical skill without human skill creates a feared inspector; human warmth without technical skill creates a pleasant visitor who improves nothing.

Pedagogical Skills: Meaning and Uses

Pedagogical skills are the supervisor's skills in the science and art of teaching itself: how learning happens, how a lesson should be structured, how questions should be framed, how activities and group work should be organised, how low-cost aids should be made and used, how different learners (fast, slow, multigrade) should be handled, and how learning should be

assessed and fed back. For a supervisor these are not merely the teacher's skills at one remove — the supervisor must possess them at a higher, analytical level, because he must diagnose and improve the pedagogy of many teachers, often in subjects and classes different from his own teaching experience.

- Credible observation and diagnosis: pedagogical skill lets the supervisor see what is really happening in a lesson — why students are silent, why an activity failed, why assessment shows no learning — instead of recording superficial points about discipline or board work.
- Demonstration and modelling: the supervisor (or a teacher he coaches) can teach a model lesson, the most convincing form of guidance; teachers adopt what they have seen work with real children.
- Quality feedback: pedagogical knowledge converts feedback from general remarks ('improve your method') into precise, usable guidance ('ask the question first, wait, then nominate; use the mini-whiteboards so all thirty students answer, not one').
- Curriculum and planning support: the supervisor helps teachers turn syllabus into schemes of work and lesson plans, sequence concepts, and plan for multigrade and large classes — the everyday pedagogical problems of Pakistani schools.
- Assessment literacy: the supervisor guides teachers in constructing balanced tests, marking reliably, analysing item-wise results and reteaching weak concepts, linking supervision directly to learning outcomes.
- Designing training that works: knowing pedagogy, the supervisor plans workshops and study circles around real classroom problems and follows them up in classrooms, instead of arranging lectures that change nothing.

- Spreading innovation: pedagogical judgement identifies genuinely effective local practices and carries them from school to school through demonstrations and peer observation.

Communication Skills: Meaning and Uses

Communication skills are the supervisor's abilities to send and receive messages clearly, accurately and sensitively: speaking, listening, questioning, writing, and using body language and, increasingly, digital tools appropriately. Supervision is, in large part, a chain of communication acts — announcing a visit, conducting a conference, writing a report, addressing a staff meeting, dealing with an angry parent — and each act can either build or destroy the trust on which improvement depends.

- Feedback conferences: communication skill decides whether a teacher leaves the conference with a clear, accepted plan or with resentment; the skilled supervisor listens first, uses evidence, separates the person from the practice, balances appreciation with candour, and checks understanding.
- Active listening: teachers reveal real problems — a difficult class, a personal hardship, a resource gap — only to a supervisor who listens without interrupting or judging prematurely; much supervisory diagnosis is simply good listening.
- Clear written communication: visit reports, circulars and instructions that are precise, brief and unambiguous prevent the misunderstandings and 'we were never told' failures common in large systems.
- Questioning skills: open, probing questions in conferences and classrooms stimulate teacher reflection far better than lectures; the supervisor who asks 'what would you do differently?' develops a professional, while orders develop only compliance.

- Public and group communication: addressing staff meetings, parent-teacher councils and training sessions persuasively is how visions, reforms and new methods are launched and sustained.
- Conflict resolution and difficult conversations: disputes between teachers, complaints by parents and cases of negligence all require calm, factual, respectful communication that protects both standards and dignity.
- Difficult news and confidentiality: communicating adverse findings honestly yet privately, and keeping sensitive matters confidential, preserves the trust without which no teacher accepts supervision.
- Everyday motivation: specific praise, thank-you notes, and prompt replies to teachers' requests are small communications with large motivational effects, as Herzberg's theory predicts.

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Table 1: The two skill families compared

Aspect	Pedagogical Skills	Communication Skills
Concerned with	Teaching and learning itself	Relationships and messages between people
Typical acts	Observing, diagnosing, demonstrating, assessing	Listening, conferencing, writing, presenting
Main product	Better lessons and better learning	Trust, clarity and accepted decisions
Failure looks like	Accurate relationships but teaching unchanged	Good intentions that teachers reject or misunderstand

Conclusion

To conclude, an effective educational supervisor needs a balanced portfolio of skills: technical-professional, human, conceptual, managerial and leadership skills. Among them, pedagogical

and communication skills form the working pair of instructional supervision. Pedagogical skills give the supervisor something worth saying — accurate diagnosis, credible demonstration and precise guidance on teaching and assessment; communication skills ensure that it is heard, understood and accepted — through listening, skilled conferencing, clear writing and tactful handling of people. Supervision fails when either is missing, and succeeds when deep knowledge of teaching is carried to teachers through deep skill in dealing with human beings.

Question 4: Supervision Models; The Most Suitable Model for a Government Institution in Pakistan (20 Marks)

Briefly explain different supervision models that can be used to improve teaching learning process in an educational institution, and discuss one model in detail that you consider best/ most suitable for a government educational institution in Pakistan.

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Introduction

A supervision model is an organised framework — a set of principles, roles and steps — that tells supervisors what to do, in what sequence, and in what spirit, in order to improve teaching and learning. Different models grew out of different views of teachers: as workers to be controlled, as professionals to be developed, or as colleagues who supervise one another. This answer briefly explains the main models used in educational institutions, compares them, and then discusses in detail the clinical supervision model, which is argued to be the most suitable for a government educational institution in Pakistan.

Main Supervision Models in Brief

1. The Inspection (Control) Model

The oldest model: the supervisor inspects, checks compliance with rules and standards, evaluates and reports. It guarantees minimum order and uniformity but works through authority and fear, treats all teachers alike, and has repeatedly been shown to improve paperwork more than teaching. It survives in Pakistan as the inherited default, which is precisely the problem.

2. The Clinical Supervision Model

Developed by Goldhammer and Cogan, this model improves one teacher's classroom teaching through a structured cycle of pre-observation conference, observation with detailed evidence, analysis, feedback conference and post-conference analysis, repeated over time. It is intensive, evidence-based and focused on real lessons; its cost is the supervisor's time.

3. The Developmental Supervision Model

Glickman's model matches the supervisory approach to the teacher's level of development: directive approaches for beginners or teachers in difficulty, collaborative approaches for developing teachers, and non-directive approaches for highly competent, self-directed teachers. Its strength is differentiation — no teacher is treated as identical to another.

4. The Differentiated Supervision Model

Glatthorn's model offers teachers a menu of supervisory options — clinical supervision, cooperative professional development (peer work), self-directed development, and administrative monitoring — from which teachers choose according to their needs, while the

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supervisor ensures that every option is genuinely carried out. It respects teacher professionalism and spreads the supervisor's limited time wisely.

5. The Peer Supervision / Coaching Model

Teachers observe one another's lessons in pairs or small groups, exchange feedback and share techniques, with the formal supervisor acting as trainer and coordinator. Models such as peer coaching make supervision continuous and school-based at almost no cost, though they require training and a culture of trust to work honestly.

6. The Self-Directed (Self-Supervision) Model

Experienced teachers set their own improvement goals, gather evidence about their teaching (student results, self-recording, student feedback), reflect and report progress. It develops strong professional autonomy but suits only mature, motivated teachers and needs external verification to remain honest.

7. The Collegial / Group Supervision Model

Improvement is pursued collectively: staff jointly analyse a problem (for example, weak reading), study approaches together, try them in classrooms, observe one another and review results as a group — close in spirit to lesson study and professional learning communities. It builds culture and shared responsibility, not only individual skill.

Table 1: Supervision models compared

Model	Who Supervises	Basis of Improvement	Best Suited For
Inspection / control	Official supervisor	Authority, rules, evaluation	Enforcing minimum compliance
Clinical	Supervisor with one teacher	Evidence from real lessons, feedback cycle	Improving individual classroom teaching
Developmental	Supervisor, adjusting	Matching support to	Mixed staff at different

	approach	teacher's growth stage	levels
Differentiated	Supervisor offering options	Teacher choice among supervised pathways	Systems with varied, professional staff
Peer / coaching	Teachers with one another	Mutual observation and feedback	Continuous school-based development
Self-directed	The teacher himself	Goals, evidence and reflection	Expert, highly motivated teachers
Collegial / group	Whole staff together	Joint inquiry and shared practice	Whole-school problems and culture change

The Model in Detail: Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision is chosen here as the most suitable model for a government educational institution in Pakistan. The word 'clinical' is borrowed from medical training: just as a young doctor's treatment of a real patient is observed and discussed by a senior, a teacher's teaching of a real lesson is observed and discussed in depth. Its goal, in Goldhammer's phrase, is to improve instruction through a deliberate, face-to-face, evidence-based professional relationship. Its stages, adapted to school conditions, are as follows.

Stage 1: Pre-Observation Conference

Supervisor and teacher meet before the lesson. The teacher explains the class, the topic, the objectives and the plan; together they agree the purpose of the observation and one or two specific foci — for example, the teacher's questioning, or the participation of girls, or the management of group work in a class of sixty. They also agree how evidence will be recorded. This stage removes surprise and fear: nothing will be judged that was not agreed.

Stage 2: Classroom Observation

The supervisor observes the lesson (or an agreed part) and records detailed, low-inference evidence: the questions actually asked, samples of student responses, a seating-chart record of who participated, the tasks set, the aids used and the timing of phases. The supervisor does not interrupt or correct during the lesson except in an emergency; the record, not memory or impression, is the raw material of improvement.

Stage 3: Analysis and Strategy

After the lesson, the supervisor studies the record, organises the evidence around the agreed foci, identifies patterns (for example, 'eighteen of twenty questions were answered by the same four boys'), decides what to appreciate and what to raise, and plans the conference: the order of points, the evidence to show, and the improvement options to propose.

Stage 4: Supervision (Feedback) Conference

Supervisor and teacher discuss the lesson on the basis of the shared evidence. Good practice is to begin with the teacher's own reflections, confirm genuine strengths with specific evidence, then examine the agreed problem area jointly — the teacher is led to see the pattern in the data and to propose solutions, with the supervisor adding suggestions and, where useful, offering a demonstration lesson. The conference ends with a small number of concrete, agreed targets and a date for the next observation.

Stage 5: Post-Conference Analysis

The supervisor reviews his own performance of the cycle: Was the focus well chosen? Was feedback fair and usable? Did the teacher participate genuinely? This self-criticism keeps the

model honest and improves the supervisor's own skill. The cycle then repeats — the next observation tests whether the agreed targets have changed classroom practice, and a new focus is chosen.

Why Clinical Supervision Suits a Government Institution in Pakistan

- It attacks the real problem: Pakistan's central educational weakness is the quality of everyday classroom teaching, and clinical supervision works exactly there, on real lessons, not on registers.
- It is almost free: it needs a trained observer, a notebook or simple schedule and time — resources a government school actually has — unlike models requiring technology or external consultants.
- It can be run by the head teacher daily: because district officers visit rarely, a model that the school's own head and senior teachers can operate inside the school is the only one that can be continuous.
- It replaces fear with fairness: prior agreement of focus and judgement by recorded evidence answer the two oldest teacher complaints about inspection — surprise and bias.
- It fits difficult conditions: its focus can be set on Pakistan's real classroom problems — multigrade teaching, very large classes, low-cost aids, girls' participation, mother-tongue difficulties — because the focus is chosen from the teacher's actual situation.
- It builds professional culture: repeated, respectful, evidence-based conferences gradually create the trust and openness on which peer and collegial supervision can later grow.

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Limitations and Necessary Adaptations

Honesty requires noting the model's costs. A full cycle takes time, so a head teacher cannot run it with every teacher every month; the practical adaptation is a rota — full clinical cycles with a few teachers each month, prioritising new, struggling and volunteer teachers, supplemented by brief informal walkthroughs for the rest. Supervisors must be trained in observation and conferencing, or the cycle degenerates into the old inspection with new vocabulary; a short practical training for head teachers and senior teachers is therefore a precondition. Finally, clinical supervision should be combined with developmental judgement — directive help for beginners, collaborative partnership for most, freedom for experts — so that the model serves every teacher appropriately.

Conclusion

In conclusion, institutions can draw on several supervision models — inspection, clinical, developmental, differentiated, peer, self-directed and collegial — each resting on a different view of the teacher. For a government educational institution in Pakistan, clinical supervision is the most suitable single model: it is classroom-centred, evidence-based, fair, virtually costless, operable by the head teacher within the school, and directed precisely at the country's core problem, the quality of actual teaching. Introduced with proper training and a realistic rota, and blended with developmental sensitivity, it offers the most practical route from inspection to improvement.

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Question 5: Brief Notes on Supervision — Competence, Confidentiality, Trust and Confidence (20 Marks)

Write brief notes on any three of the following with reference to supervision: (a) Competence (b) Confidentiality (c) Self-respect (d) Trust and confidence (e) Guide, not boss. [This answer gives full notes on (a) Competence, (b) Confidentiality and (d) Trust and confidence, with shorter supplementary notes on (c) and (e) for reference.]

Introduction

Supervision is a professional relationship, and like every professional relationship it rests on certain qualities and principles that decide whether it will be accepted and effective. The five items listed in this question — competence, confidentiality, self-respect, trust and confidence, and the idea of the supervisor as a guide rather than a boss — are among the most important of these foundations. Full notes are given below on three of them, as required: competence, confidentiality, and trust and confidence; shorter notes on the remaining two follow for completeness.

(a) Competence

Competence means possessing the knowledge, skills and judgement actually required to perform a role well. With reference to supervision, competence is required on both sides of the relationship, but above all in the supervisor. A competent supervisor commands the subjects and stages he supervises, understands curriculum and pedagogy deeply, can observe and analyse a lesson accurately, can demonstrate good teaching, can assess learning, and can guide teachers with precise, usable advice. Competence is the true basis of the supervisor's authority: teachers accept guidance from someone who demonstrably knows teaching better than they

do, and quietly disregard the instructions of an officer whose only qualification is seniority. An incompetent supervisor damages the system twice over — his judgements are unreliable, so good teachers may be discouraged and weak ones passed over, and his visits lose all developmental value, shrinking to the checking of registers that requires no competence at all.

Competence also matters in teachers: supervision aims precisely at raising every teacher's competence through feedback, demonstration, training and follow-up, and a wise supervisor matches his approach to each teacher's present level of competence, giving close directive support to the beginner and professional freedom to the expert. Competence is not fixed; it is built by study, training and reflective practice, and both supervisor and teacher are ethically bound to keep developing it. In short, without competence there is no credibility, and without credibility there is no supervision — only inspection.

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(b) Confidentiality

Confidentiality means keeping private information private: not disclosing to others what was observed, said or recorded about a person in a professional setting, except where a defined official purpose genuinely requires it and, as far as possible, with the person's knowledge. In supervision, a great deal of sensitive material is generated — observation reports on individual teachers, frank discussions in feedback conferences, a teacher's personal difficulties affecting work, students' family circumstances, and draft assessments before they are finalised. The supervisor is ethically and professionally bound to guard all of it.

The practical importance of confidentiality is hard to overstate. Teachers open their real classrooms, admit real weaknesses and seek real help only when they are sure that what the

supervisor sees and hears will not become staffroom gossip, will not be quoted to other teachers, and will not be used out of context against them. A single breach — a supervisor repeating one teacher's conference remarks to another — destroys trust in the whole supervisory system for years, and teachers return to concealment and show lessons. Confidentiality does not mean secrecy about official decisions or protection of serious misconduct: records must be honestly maintained, serious negligence must be reported through proper channels, and a teacher is entitled to see and respond to what is recorded about him. It means that professional information travels only through proper channels, for proper purposes, with dignity protected at every step.

(d) Trust and Confidence

Trust is the belief that another person is honest, fair, competent and well-intentioned; confidence is the resulting willingness to rely on that person and to act on his guidance. In supervision, trust and confidence are the currency in which everything is paid. A teacher trusts a supervisor when experience shows that he keeps his word, applies the same standards to all, judges on evidence, keeps confidences, appreciates good work honestly, criticises privately and constructively, and genuinely wants the teacher to succeed. Where such trust exists, feedback — even hard feedback — is accepted and acted upon, problems are reported early instead of hidden, and teachers invite the supervisor into their classrooms. Where it does not exist, every visit is theatre and every suggestion is resisted, however sound it may be.

Trust is mutual and must also run the other way: the supervisor shows confidence in teachers by delegating responsibility, accepting their professional judgement where it is sound, defending them when they act in good faith, and giving experts genuine freedom. Trust is built

slowly — through consistency, fairness and competence over many visits — and lost quickly, through one act of favouritism, one broken promise or one betrayed confidence. Because almost every other supervisory technique depends on it, building and protecting trust and confidence is not a soft extra in supervision; it is the foundation on which observation, feedback, training and evaluation all stand.

Supplementary Note: (c) Self-Respect

Self-respect is a person's sense of his own dignity and worth. In supervision it cuts both ways: the supervisor must protect the teacher's self-respect — criticising in private, addressing practices rather than personality, never humiliating a teacher before students or colleagues — because a teacher whose self-respect is wounded stops listening and starts merely defending himself; and the teacher's own self-respect as a professional is itself a motive to improve. Supervision that develops teachers while preserving their dignity produces growth; supervision that purchases compliance at the price of humiliation produces only resentment.

Supplementary Note: (e) Guide, Not Boss

This phrase summarises the modern philosophy of supervision. A boss rules by position: he orders, checks and punishes, and people obey while he watches. A guide leads by competence and goodwill: he shows the way, walks with the teacher, demonstrates, advises and encourages, so that the teacher improves from within and continues improving when no one is watching. The supervisor-as-guide still sets standards and takes decisions where necessary, but his normal instruments are help, example and persuasion. In a profession like teaching — whose real work happens behind closed doors and cannot be commanded into quality — the guide achieves what the boss never can.

Conclusion

To conclude, competence gives the supervisor the right to guide and the teacher the capacity to grow; confidentiality protects the honesty on which genuine diagnosis depends; and trust and confidence make teachers willing to accept, and act on, supervisory guidance — supported by respect for the teacher's self-respect and by the guiding, rather than bossing, spirit of modern supervision. These are not decorative virtues: they are the working conditions without which observation becomes spying, feedback becomes attack, and supervision fails in its only purpose, the improvement of teaching and learning.

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