

A STUDY OF
THE SUPERVISORY SYSTEM OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
IN SINDH PROVINCE OF PAKISTAN

By

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ABSTRACT

The role of the educational supervisor is pivotal in ensuring the working of the system in accordance with general efficiency and national policies. Unfortunately Pakistan's system of educational management and supervision is too much entrenched in the legacy of past and has not succeeded, over the last forty years, in modifying and reforming itself in order to cope with the expanding and changing demands of education in the country since independence (i.e. 1947).

The empirical findings of this study support the following.

Firstly, the existing style of supervision of secondary schools in Sindh, applied through traditional inspection of schools, is defective and outdated.

Secondly, the behaviour of the educational supervisor tends to be too rigid and autocratic .

Thirdly, the reasons for the resistance of existing system of supervision to change along the lines and policies formulated in recent years are to be found outside the education system and not merely within the education system or within the supervisory sub-system.

The thesis is organised as follows.

First chapter looks into the background of the problem and analyses the failure in the existing

supervisory system of secondary school education within Pakistan in general and the province of Sindh in particular.

Second chapter describes the historical perspectives and development of education in Pakistan with special reference to province of Sindh.

Third chapter elaborates the contextual analysis of the problem and focuses on issues of modernization, bureaucracy and participation in Pakistan.

Fourth chapter defines the theoretical models and types of supervision derived from the literature for the problem analysis, along with contributions towards the critical examination of the main factors.

Fifth chapter depicts the evolution of the supervisory system of secondary education, with particular reference to various changes and reorganisation of the supervisory structure of school education in Sindh.

Sixth chapter shows the research tools and the methodology used during the field study.

Seventh chapter evaluates the field work that was mostly done in Sindh in the light of the problem and shows the actual functioning or dysfunctioning of the system.

Eighth and last chapter concludes the thesis, presents a summary and offers some suggestions for an improved system.

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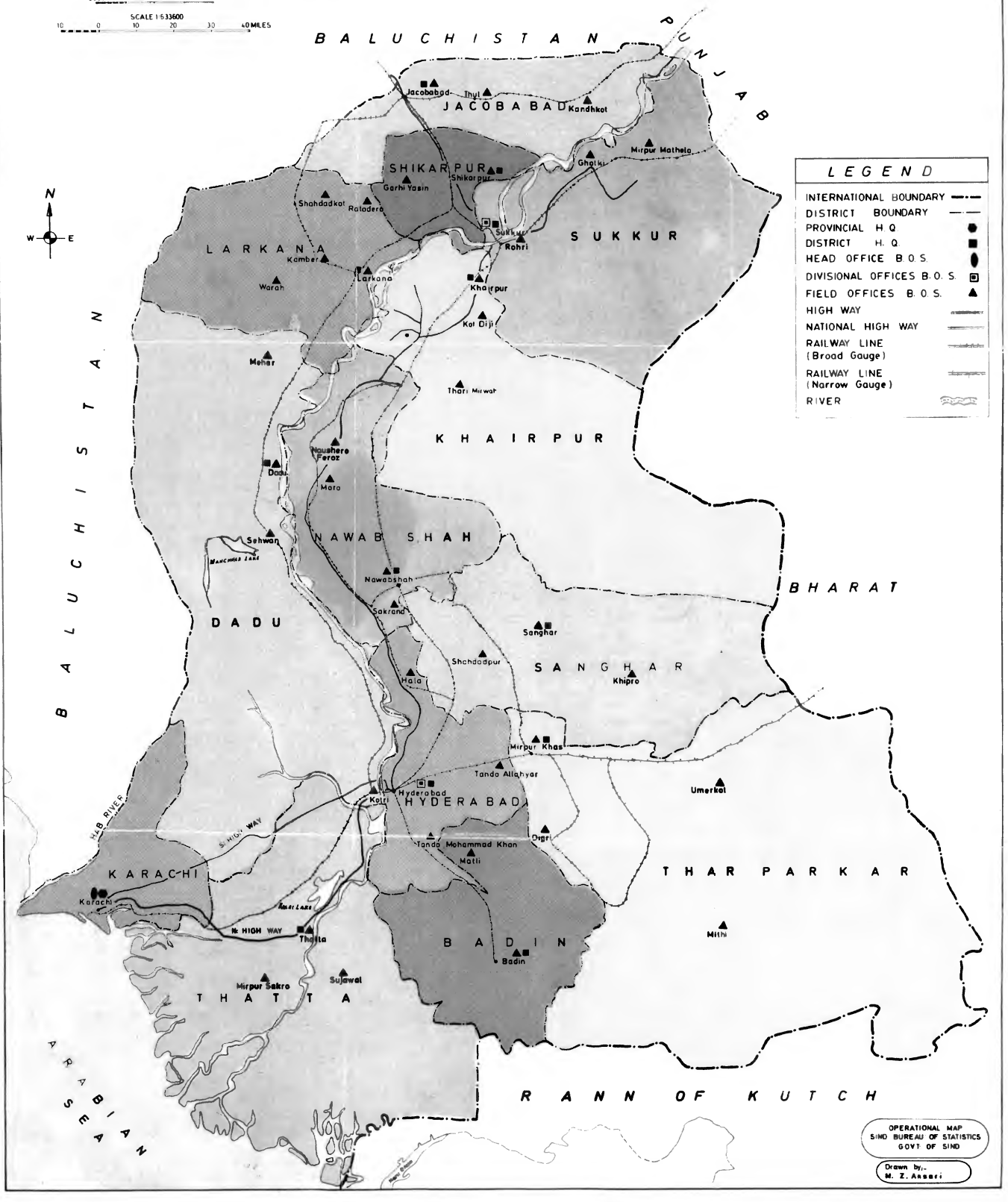
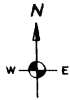
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MAP OF SINDH

SCALE - 1:6336
6336 0 6336 12672 19008 KILOMETERS

SCALE 1:633600
10 0 10 20 30 40 MILES



Brief introduction of Sindh

a) History

Sindh is one of the provinces of today's Pakistan (see map of Pakistan). Historically, Sindh has always formed a part of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent and was one of the provinces of the Indian Empire during the British rule.

What we see today of the modern Sindh, is the result of an age old civilization, known as Indus civilization. The word Sindh means, the country of the Indus(SINDHU), which derives its name from Sanskrit word Sindu meaning river.(UNCRD, 1976)

Indus is often referred as river of life and Sindh as Gift of Indus or Bride of Indus.

(b) Geographical position

Sindh is Situated along the lower bank of the river Indus. The province of Sindh forms a major portion of the great Indus plain. Except for a narrow coastal strip of about 150 miles, in the South-West along the Arabian Sea, the region is surrounded by land on all sides.

In fact the great river Indus, which is about 2000 miles in length passes through Sindh, diagonally(see map of Sindh) and finally discharges into the Arabian Sea, after travelling nearly 590 miles in Sindh.

The province of Sindh lies between 23rd and 28th parallels of North latitude and between the 66th and 71st meridians of east longitude. In South Sindh borders with Rann of Kach and Kach state of India, the eastern boundary extends towards Rajasthan(India) while the two provinces of Pakistan namely Punjab and Baluchistan lie to its north and west respectively.

(c) Area and population

Sindh covers about 54,489 square miles and constitutes 17.72 percent of total area (307,374 square miles) of Pakistan (Government of Sindh, 1974 : 67).

According to the census of 1981 total population of Sindh was 19,029,000. Out of which 8,242,000 (43 %) lived in urban areas and 10,787,000 (57 %) lived in rural areas.(Government of Sindh, 1988 pp.26-27)

(d) Literacy

Sindh is probably the most educated and literate out of all the provinces of Pakistan(Ahmed, 1989). This is clear from the comparative literacy rates of all the provinces of Pakistan, given below:(UNESCO, 1984-a : 5)

| <u>Province</u> | <u>literacy rate</u> | |
|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|
| | Male | Female |
| Baluchistan | 12.9 per cent | 2.9 per cent |
| N.W.F.P | 22.7 per cent | 4.9 per cent |
| Punjab | 35.5 per cent | 14.4 per cent |
| Sindh | 36.0 per cent | 19.1 per cent |

CHAPTER I

PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY

1.1 The Problem.

Pakistan came into existence in 1947 as a result of the demand of the Muslim community of the sub-continent to have a separate sovereign homeland in which they could, in consonance with their history and culture, build their future on the foundations of faith; and pattern their life in accordance with the humane and democratic principles of Islam. To achieve its ideals, the new state of Pakistan pinned great faith on the education of her people. So vital was considered the question of reformulation of national education, that within three months after the creation of Pakistan the First All Pakistan Educational conference was called from 27th: November, 1947 to 1st: December, 1947. The founder of Pakistan, Mohammad Ali Jinnah, in his message to the conference, reiterated his faith in education in the following words:

There is no doubt that the future of our state will and must greatly depend upon the type of education we give to our children and the way in which we bring them up as future citizens of Pakistan.

(Government of Pakistan, 1947:4)

Since then, in the four decades of Pakistan's history at least five attempts have been made to evolve a

sound educational policy and to turn the limited inherited education into a progressive, egalitarian and coherent system. Successive governments have taken several measures to reinvigorate the reform programmes. The 1959 National Education Commission, the Education Policies of 1970, 1972, 1979 etc. and the Six Five- year Development plans as well as various other Expert committees have all attempted to bring highly desirable and necessary improvements in various aspects and levels of education. And yet, inspite of all these concerted efforts, the sad fact remains, as has recently been highlighted by the Action Plan for Educational development, that Pakistan as a nation is at the brink of complete educational chaos and disaster (Government of Pakistan, 1984 (a) :13)

Not only has the country failed to make sufficient quantitative progress but qualitatively speaking there has been general decline and deterioration of standards in every aspect of education.

To illustrate these failures, a brief survey of the problems and breakdowns in different aspects of education will not be out of place:

a) Literacy rate.

To take the question of literacy for example, the announcement in 1989 by the Government of Pakistan that the national rate of literacy has remained at 26.2 % (in

1951 it was 13.2 %) (Dawn, 1989) which is the bottom category of third world countries of Asia and Africa, has stunned the nation and those concerned with its development.

The institutional arrangements to improve literacy situation in Pakistan have generally lacked the pre-requisites of literacy. The sporadic and ad hoc attempts at improvement through concerned agencies have often suffered from inadequate financial allocations, haphazard planning and half-hearted implementation. The result is that there are now nearly 50 million illiterates in the country and the number will progressively increase with the present population growth rate of 3.1 %. (Government of Pakistan, 1989). It may be remembered that the population of the West Pakistan (present Pakistan) was 36.18 millions according to the first census of 1951 , and is estimated to be 110 millions by the end of 1990.

b) Universal Primary Education(UPE).

Similarly Universalization of primary education was taken to be the central objective of educational planning in Pakistan right from its existence. It was on the list of priorities in the above mentioned first All-Pakistan Educational conference, held in November,1947. But due to political crisis that developed late from 1948 onwards, these priorities were thrown into oblivion. Henceforth various plans and commissions, one

after the other, endorsed a strong commitment to provide free, compulsory primary education to all within two decades but the position by the 1970s, had not changed significantly.

In view of the manifest failures of the Third World countries as a whole, to make adequate progress towards the universalization of primary education, UNESCO planned a series of high powered regional conferences for Asia, Africa and Latin America in the early 1960s, to determine ways and means of making it possible for them to achieve UPE for their primary school populations within a set period. The one for the Asian region was held in Karachi in 1960, with the participation of the Ministers of Education of the member countries of the region. Popularly known as the Karachi UPE Plan, it thoroughly examined the issues of universalization of primary education in Asia and recommended the target of 25 years for the achievement (UNESCO, 1960 :8)

In spite of its being a well co-ordinated and planned declaration of intent towards the achievement of UPE in the developing world, this UNESCO inspired initiative also failed to materialise.

Moreover, all the Five-year Development Plans and educational policies so far announced and implemented in the country in the past recognised the importance of universal primary education, but have in fact failed to provide every child in the country its basic human right

of free primary education.

The following statistics released by the Central Bureau of Education in Pakistan for the year 1982-83 , regarding primary education clearly indicates the position:

- | | |
|---|------------------|
| 1) Total population(aged 5-9) for primary school education. | 14 .087 million. |
| 2) Enroled in class I-V (primary) | 7.143 million. |

The above figures show that only half of the children in the country were provided the chance of primary education. Further position of primary education in the country as also declared during the 39th: session of International conference in education held at Geneva in October, 1984 , was similar i.e. only 50 % of the relevant age-group was enroled at the primary level. (Government of Pakistan, 1984 (b) : 38)

c) Curriculum.

Again, curriculum development which was considered of utmost significance for progress of education was taken up seriously by the institutionalizing of the Curriculum Wing in the Ministry of Education and Curriculum Develeopment and Research centres in the provinces and the first cycle of curriculum revision was started in 1960. This was followed by an attempt at modernization of Science and Mathematics curricula in 1967. A major

conceptual change in the curriculum design began with the educational policy, 1972. Curriculum reforms , therefore, have been at the hub of educational activities in Pakistan. All educational policies have emphasized the need for improving and updating curricula. At no stage the importance of curriculum development has been lost. Nor has there been a lessening of enthusiasm in the pursuit of the process. However, inspite of these efforts major gaps exist in the curricula for general and professional education. The following serious flaws have persisted within the curricula over decades and met severe public criticism:

i) The School curriculum is over-burdened with many languages taught to children simultaneously, which has raised the problem of cognitive development of children and the teaching-learning process. (Government of Pakistan, 1963: 121)

ii) The process of curriculum making is defective. Curriculum development being a highly professional task needs experts for its preparation. The institutions charged with the responsibility are deficient in the type and quality of experts needed for this arduous task. Curriculum preparation and revision, particularly for school education, by expert committees drawn from school, college and university teachers, does not seem to satisfy the desired need for professional excellence in this area.

iii) Curriculum development is a continuous process, which needs research undertaken in the field. The institutions set up for this purpose neither have the necessary professional manpower for this purpose, nor do they undertake the type of research needed. It will be foolish to expect that a dynamic process like curriculum development will proceed to culmination without a solid backing from research.

iv) The poor curriculum is the victim of the cliches of one Government or another. Additions and deletions in the curriculum are made without professional examination. Unfortunately, the practitioners in the field are unable to offer resistance to these cliches, due to their lack of independent status and authority.

v) No curriculum is good unless it is workable in the situation in which it is introduced. No curriculum however good it may be is of any worth, unless it is translated and transmitted through books and teachers to the students. Precisely this is not happening in our system. There is no testing, no evaluation, no feedback on any of the curricula. In this situation, it is not surprising then that what ever little is being devised in the form of curricula, is not integrated organically within the system.

The entire curricular reform activity occurred within committees which were created for a specific purpose at a specific time and were dissolved as soon as

the task was over. No permanent committee network was setup to co-ordinate, advise and evaluate the task of curriculum. (UNESCO, 1977 :7)

d) Quality of education.

But the worst drawback of the Pakistani education is the perceived decline in the quality of public instruction. In this deterioration there are serious implications for the future growth and prosperity of Pakistan. The intention has always been there to raise the quality of education. However, despite repeated emphasis in various educational reports since 1959, the system has failed to respond fully to the measures taken. Although not supported and backed by reliable and responsible research data, several reasons have been cited for this malaise. There are different arguments:

i) One argument suggests that the quality aspect has been compromised because of the rapid expansion of educational facilities.

ii) Another line of argument suggests that Pakistan has deployed a patch-work strategy. The measures taken have, at best, remained half-hearted. The followup has been weak and the implementation process has not been carried to a conclusion. Responsibility for the failures were not clearly identified; and when procedures were seen to be not working, no one modified them.

iii) Lastly, another argument points out insensitivity to real problems by those who are responsible for introducing changes. This has resulted in distorted priorities. The inputs made therefore do not create the desired impact. By and large, the status quo has persisted.

The Action plan for educational development (1983-1988) highlighted the above arguments with the following remarks:

Pakistan as a nation is at risk, is at the brink of complete educational chaos and disaster.

(Government of Pakistan, 1984-a : 13)

The above arguments were further strengthened with the remarks of the Federal Secretary of Education, Government of Pakistan that every thinking person was worried over the fast deteriorating standards of education in the country. (DAWN 29th: April,1988)

e) Evaluation and Examination

Educational evaluation is no longer confined to purely psychological measurement used for prediction, selection, grading and certification in relation to students and student achievement. Several countries have now realized the deficiencies of the old view of evaluation. They have, now, drastically reduced the importance of yearly school achievement tests or the

periodic standardised achievement tests.

In Pakistan, however, there is still concentration on the scores achieved in annual examinations which has given rise to serious corruption among students, teachers and parents who manipulate the examination system to obtain favourable results. Unfortunately, primary and secondary school teachers at present are given no theoretical or practical training in educational evaluation and measurement. The worst reaction of the failure of examinations setup has taken the shape of open practice of unfair means in the examination by the students and frequent cases of favouritism by the teachers, as examiners, during assessment of scripts. This has become a lucrative but detestable business in education.

Zaman (1981: 101) further expressed that favouritism and unfair methods adopted by paper setters, examiners, invigilators and Officers of examination department in Boards of Secondary school examination, were also quite common in recent years.

f) Teachers' Training.

The speedy growth of the educational system has been accompanied by important advances in teacher education. The general strategy in training programmes has been directed mainly by two requirements. Firstly,

increase in the number of teachers, mainly at the primary level and secondly the quality of training. On both counts substantial progress has been made, yet, viewed from the overall requirements of teachers for various educational levels, the teacher training programmes have suffered from stagnation and slow growth. Although subsequent educational policies have already stressed the importance and improvement of teachers' training, still such programmes are caught up in a vicious cycle. This is due to the short period of the training course, as compared to other countries of Asia. (Qureshi, 1987: 20)

The quality and curricula of teacher training colleges have also come under severe criticism mainly due to content area. Innovations could not be put to effective use because of the lack of proper inservice or pre-service training to teachers.

At the quantitative level for example the total number of qualified teachers was 135,000 and student-teacher ratio was 1: 45 . (Government of Pakistan, 1986: Annexure I)

In summarising the above educational problems in Pakistan, the following statement made by Syed Sajjad Hyder, a former Federal Minister of education , during inauguration of the Sixth Training Workshop for the District Education Officers, held on 8th: September, 1987 at the Academy of educational Planning and Management,

Islamabad, is further evidence in this connection:

Despite all what we have achieved, our educational scene is characterized by high illiteracy rates and low participation at elementary levels, preponderance of purposeless courses, structural imbalances between course of studies, inequitable distribution of quality education facilities, inadequate community-institution co-operation and lack of sufficient flexibility in the system to speedily respond to changing environment and needs.

(AEPAM , 1988 : 79)

The above description of the multiple failures of Pakistani education system raises some serious questions. The foremost question arises: is there any central cause or series of causes that could be identified to explain these failures ? As causes for the failure in education are to be found not necessarily within the educational system itself but in the wider context and conditions of the society around, the question then is what are the conflicts that face developing countries specially those with a developed pre-modern culture of their own, such as Pakistan, to successfully adopt modern institutions and assimilate modern norms in order to run various services efficiently and to the best satisfaction of its incumbents?

What then could be a reasonably plausible course of action and which aspect of the educational system ought to be given priority to secure the best results and safeguard the achievement of set standards? In what follows, therefore, an attempt has been made to examine

the importance of educational supervision and the role of educational supervisor as a proposed solution to the central problem of educational crisis in Pakistan.

1.2 Proposed solution.

It would be a truism to assert that qualitative ideals of education cannot be achieved without better supervision and management. The existence of the supervisory system is to ensure that educational standards are established, improved and maintained. Hawes (1987), in a pertinent study on the question of educational quality and standards has argued that these can be maintained only through professional knowledge, skills and creativity of educational supervisors. Supervisors often have a role in maintaining educational quality and in planning the educational system. The functions of supervisors acting as eyes and ears of the education system is frequently stressed (Bacchus, 1984).

The role of the supervisor is multifaceted in that he may be looked upon as a developer of people and curriculum, instructional specialist, human relations worker, staff developer, administrator, manager of change and evaluator (Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1983 and Wiles and Bondi, 1986). Educational supervision is therefore the key factor to determine the quality of educational enterprise. The role of supervisor as a leader is not only

desireable but inevitable for effective management of educational service (Paisey, 1981).

Hughes(1981) in the context of the Commonwealth countries, gives more importance to wisdom and leadership qualities of the supervisors i.e. District / Regional Education Officers and heads of the schools, who according to him have a vital part to play in the achievement of educational standards.

Supervision and Inspection have evoked public interest and concern today as never before in the educational history of any nation. Within the context of the India-Pakistan sub-continent, one notices that more than a century has passed since the establishment of the system of supervision and Inspection formulated during the British rule in the sub- continent , yet it is still considered not as a spoke, but as a clog in the wheel of progress of education. This is due to the reason that the main purpose of inspection in schools is still considered to be control and maintenance rather than improvement and development of schools. The state of stagnation and lack of any real advancement in this particular area could be gleaned from the following two statements which though, chronologically speaking, stand some 35 years apart, yet in essence remain so close to each other.

Olcott (1924: 106) in describing the style and method of supervision gave the following picture of

schools and teachers in British India:

The inspectional system does secure accuracy in certain activities and in many details, but it is largely a matter of criticising, in passing, a few detached defects or breaches of regulations, that every body admits, without showing how they can be remedied. What the teacher has been doing for a whole year is often hastily judged in a brief moments. The process of inspection often lacks concentration and continuity of purpose. On the other hand sympathetic, constructive supervision is scarcely found. What goes on by the name of supervision is nothing else than troublesome interference.

What Olcott pictured in 1924 seems to prevail even today in Pakistan after sixty five years. This may be supported by the report of Commission on National Education, 1959, as under:

The task of the Inspector is to raise the quality of the work in the classroom, and this he can do only by bringing new ideas, encouraging initiative and directing the whole of his attention to content rather than to the external machinery of education. An Inspector should not be a combination of a clerk and a policeman, as he is now but an educationist.

(Government of Pakistan, 1961: 324)

Within this broad background of the problem, the question that this study attempts to investigate is the nature and causes of failure specifically in the field of supervision in the province of Sindh. To state the question in more precise terms, in Sindh after a careful scrutiny of the subject of supervision and inspection a well- mooted programme of reforms was introduced in 1972, in the light of the education policy announced by the

Government of Pakistan and implemented by the provincial Governments throughout the country. It was argued that a complete re-organisation of the school supervisory system would go a long way in ensuring the optimum performance of the school system and improving standards.

The former title, designation and functions of the Inspector of schools were symbolically changed to Education Officer at secondary level and to Educational Supervisor at the Primary level, but these statutory measures have still not provided any significant change in the style and attitudes of those engaged in supervision. In fact the lack of improvement in the supervisory system in Pakistan in general and that of Province of Sindh were highlighted recently by a renowned educationist of Pakistan during an International seminar held in 1983 at Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, in the following words:

It is an admitted fact that the successful implementation of any programme depends mainly upon successful administration and supervision. So far as effective supervision of instruction is concerned, it has remained a neglected area. Deteriorating standards of education are the result of traditional system of inspection and supervision.

(Abbasi, 1985 : 75)

To trace the history of the supervisory system, it may be recalled that in Pakistan, the traditional inspection practice that was instituted during the colonial period, still prevails while in modern developed

countries it is the supervision and its allied services that operate and are responsible for producing thriving and healthy practices in education. Some democratically advanced countries claim that they have no inspection at all now. The question is how can an efficient and effective supervisory practice in secondary schools of Sindh can be evolved to ensure the implementation of new ideas and innovations and experiments in the dynamic system of education?

This study will particularly look into the background of the problem and analyse the failure in the existing supervisory system of secondary school education within Pakistan in general and province of Sindh in particular. But in order to pinpoint the underlying causes of the deficiencies, conflicts and failures of the supervisory system of Sindh, it will also be necessary to study the various theoretical frameworks that prevail in the literature on the subject to discover a theory or rationale that could help to analyse the "problem".

The study will select out of the relevant theory or theoretical frameworks, a taxonomy or a model whose indicators will form the basis of analysis and explanation of various aspects of supervisory system to be compared.

The topic of supervision in Sindh has been selected by the researcher for some objective and subjective reasons.

Objectively speaking, supervision involves not

only the institutional and normative antecedents of an educational system but it also embraces the cultural and psychological aspects of change within the incumbents who operate the system. For example, it will be instructive to examine the functional, as well as personality aspects of the characters involved in the supervisory service to see what aspects of their cadre have changed and what have been subject to the inertia. Again, this should lead the researcher to discover to what extent are the 'mental states' of certain peoples responsible for the lack of change towards declared targets and objectives.

Subjectively, the area of supervision has been a specified field in which this researcher has worked for over three years as Assistant to the Inspector of Schools in former Khairpur Division in the province of Sindh. Therefore, it will be highly -rewarding to research into this field to learn the basic principles, theories and innovations that have come about in the world outside of Pakistan and, to bring about an improvement in the researcher's own duties and outlooks as well as infuse the newly gained insights among colleagues and subordinates among whom he will be working.

1.3. Assumptions of the study.

This study is based on the following assumptions:
a) The existing style of supervision of secondary schools

in Pakistan, applied through traditional inspection of schools is defective and outdated.

b) The behaviour of the educational supervisors is rigid, autocratic and undemocratic .

c) The reasons for the resistance of existing system of supervision to change along the lines and policies formulated in recent years are to be found outside the education system and not merely within the education system or within the supervisory sub-system.

1.4 Methodology of research.

In the light of the statement of the problems, its assumptions and the above hypothesis, this study shall focus on the following elements/ Factors:

1. The contextual analysis of the problem will focus on issues of modernization, bureaucracy and participation in Pakistan.
2. Theoretical models of supervision will be derived from the literature for the problem analysis. An analytical model derived from the theoretical frameworks of the subject will help in the critical examination of the main factors.
3. The proposed solution will examine the policy and formulations that led to the 1972 reforms in administration and supervision in the province of Sindh.
4. The field work that was done in Sindh in the light

of the problem will test the hypothesis and help to evaluate the feasibility of the proposed solutions.

5. The thesis will finally draw conclusions and offer suggestions in the light of these elements and factors.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES OF EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SINDH.

This chapter aims to describe the historical development and perspectives of education since independence i.e. 1947 in the light of various policies and plans, announced from time to time, along with physical development and achievement in each sector, with special reference to the province of Sindh.

2.1. Historical development and perspectives.

Education in Pakistan has received due attention both from the Government as well as public, right from the day the state of Pakistan was born on 14th: August, 1947. There has been a growing popular demand on the part of the public to educate youth towards the new goal of national identity and ideology and at the same time train them in the fields of science and technology for socio-economic progress. The switchover to these two new directions could hardly be achieved by the sudden stroke of pen. Educational programmes had to be restructured on the foundation of the educational system.

In order to reinvigorate education after independence successive Governments in Pakistan have taken several measures. All such steps have placed education on

a process of gradual development. The aim throughout has been to produce an integrated national educational programme. This process is presented below from the following documents:

1. All Pakistan Education conference, 1947.
2. Education Conference, 1951.
3. Commission on national education, 1959.
4. Commission on Students problems and welfare, 1966.
5. The new education policy of the Government of Pakistan, 1970.
6. The education Policy, 1972-80.
7. National education policy, 1978/79.
8. Action Plan for educational development 1983-1988.

A detailed analysis of the above policies will further highlight their achievements and shortcomings.

2.1.1. All Pakistan Education Confernece, 1947.

Immediately after the achievement of independence, this conference was called in November, 1947 by the founder and Governor-General of the state, Quaid-e-Azam (the great leader) Mohammad Ali Jinnah at Karachi. The conference dealt with various aspects of education at great length and submitted its recommendations to the Government. Some of the main and major recommendations of this conference were:

- a) The education system should be inspired by the

Islamic ideology.

b) Free and compulsory education should be introduced for a period of five years and gradually to eight years.

c) Primary schools could be co-educational according to local needs.

d) A comprehensive scheme should be prepared for the re-organisation of technical education.

(Government of Pakistan, 1947.)

These recommendations were related to various important sub-sectors of education. In sub-sectors like physical education and educational broadcasts not a single recommendation was implemented. In primary, secondary and university education, the implementation was very low. The recommendations regarding free and compulsory education and opening of new pre-primary schools for children of the ages between 3 and 6 were never implemented. The recommendation regarding opening co-educational primary schools according to local conditions was reversed. Nevertheless the deliberations and recommendations of the conference served to stimulate the activities of central, provincial and state* Governments. Therefore, the central and provincial Governments set up committees of experts to review and revise primary and middle school syllabi. The

* The term State was used for the former states in Pakistan upto 1955.

Central Government, a co-ordinating agency for policies and guiding educational planning throughout the country, set up the Advisory Board of Education, the Inter-University Board and Council of Technical Education as recommended by the conference.

There were many reasons for the shortfalls mentioned above. The period was the post-independence period full of disturbances and turmoil.

Baloch (1964 pp. 55-67) has observed that in the field of education, there was complete dislocation of the existing system. On the eve of national independence in 1946, many of the institutions were owned, managed and staffed by the Hindus, whose migration to India brought them to a standstill. Even the Government schools and colleges had an overwhelming majority of Hindu teachers and students. When they migrated to India, most of the schools and colleges suffered a serious dislocation. Therefore, the immediate task faced by the new born state of Pakistan was that of rehabilitating the existing institutions.

Roughly the first three and half years after independence, may be considered as the period of educational rehabilitation. During this period all efforts were mainly made to restart the schools and colleges which were closed down to make good the loss of personnel both teachers and administrators. Another urgent problem was absorption of displaced students and teachers who had also

migrated from India to Pakistan.

Another important reason was that there was no planned effort made in this regard. Above all, there was no national development plan until 1951. Due to this the majority of the recommendations of the above conference could not be implemented.

Realising the importance and necessity of the development of a national plan, the Government developed a six year Development programme, July, 1951 to June, 1957. (Government of Pakistan, 1952). This plan made its own programme for opening primary, middle, high schools and other institutions along with improvement of the salaries of staff. It was prepared in the absence of much required statistics. It allocated an amount of Rupees 96,189,000 for education and training.

The execution of this plan, however, did not follow intended lines not to speak of recommendations of the 1947 All Pakistan Education Conference.

2.1.2. Educational Conference, 1951.

To effect the overall (quantitative and qualitative) improvement of education to meet the growing socio-economic needs of the country, it was felt necessary to devise a comprehensive scheme of education so as to integrate it in the above mentioned Six year Plan. For this purpose a conference of provincial ministers and

secretaries of education, Vice-Chancellors and Directors of Public Instruction was convened to determine the basis for a national plan of educational development. This led to a joint conference of the Advisory Board of Education, the Inter-University Board and the Council of Technical Education in December, 1951. (Government of Pakistan, 1951).

Major recommendations of the conference were as under:

i) The primary course of education should be self-contained course of five years duration.

ii) The courses of study at the secondary stage should be diversified in order to suit the requirements of the students on the basis of their age, ability and aptitude.

iii) Technical, agricultural and commercial education should be an integral part of the system of general education and the duration of these courses at the secondary stage should correspond with those of general education at the secondary stage.

iv) Early steps should be taken by the central, provincial and state Governments for the implementation of the six-year national plan of educational development.

As a result of these discussions, one of the great achievements, was adoption of the six-year National plan of Educational Development, 1955-60, which was for the first time integrated with the general development plan of

the country. Another effect was in the shape of teachers training, which was raised to an adequate standard. The staff position at different levels was improved. More funds were made available for equipment, laboratories and buildings.

2.1.3. Commission on National Education, 1959.

During the decade after independence many efforts were made but success was very limited in the field of education. Successive Governments were unable to allocate adequate resources or any degree of priority to education in the development plans. The result was still the age old system of education and course of studies.

The Commission on National Education was appointed by a resolution adopted by the Government of Pakistan on 30th: December, 1958. The reason for establishment of the Commission was for the fact that the existing system of education was not adequate to meet the needs and requirements of the nation. Therefore it became necessary to setup the Commission to review the educational system, in consonance with the socio-economic conditions of the country and to recommend measures for its reorientations and re-organisation across the levels.

The Commission on national education (Government of Pakistan, 1961, pp.5-8) had to;

- i) examine the role of education in the community

and suggest measures which may enable the universities, colleges and schools to fulfill this role effectively,

ii) consider whether educational institutions in the country are adequately equipped with men and materials to produce the scientific and technical personnel required for the development of the country. Also the purpose of selecting the right type of personnel required for the civil and defence services as well as for the professions and the public life and suggest measures for overcoming these deficiencies,

iii) examine the standards of teaching and research in educational institutions and suggest necessary measures to raise them to the highest possible level and,

iv) examine the financial needs of educational institutions and suggest appropriate means for providing for their needs, consistent with the resources of the country.

The commission entrusted with this task of national importance embarked on its programme covering all aspects of education and finalised its recommendations.

As a result of this report, the following developments were observed.

For the first time it was recognised that education is a vital national investment, a productive activity essential for the development and progress of a nation. As the revolutionary Government had set its task to rebuild the country and nation on a sound footing of

progressive development, education received great attention to produce men of ability who could man different fields with eye on development. The whole emphasis was on finding talent, diversifying the training and producing men of wide vision capable of adding their own to the development of the country. In order to achieve this goal, the following measures were taken.

At the primary and secondary levels a thorough revision of curricula was undertaken at the central Government's initiative with the objective to establish uniform standards throughout the country. The purpose of the primary school curriculum was to develop fundamental skills through school activities. In the secondary schools the curriculum provided for a core of compulsory subjects.

A number of public schools were opened, which were residential in character. They offered diversified courses of study with all facilities to produce men of character and leadership. Teacher training institutes, education extension centres, pilot schools and number of polytechnic institutes came into existence. Two universities of agriculture were established by upgrading the agricultural colleges, in the country, for the first time. Separate Directorates of technical education were established for the promotion of technical education.

For the advancement of science, research councils, like the Council of Scientific and Industrial research,

Atomic energy Council and National Science Council were established on an autonomous and semi-autonomous basis. Measures were also proposed to remodel university education. A new university at Islamabad was established. At the higher level of education, seminars, symposia and conferences in different disciplines were encouraged so that there could be a common platform for discussion among teachers from different universities.

2.1.4. Commission on students problems and welfare, 1966.

The centralization of education, in consequence of the policy as envisaged in the plan of 1959, led to the uniformity of courses, institutions and promulgation of university ordinances. This direction from the top was cause of resentment on the part of the students and teachers particularly those who were socially and economically affected. Very soon unemployment of the educated and trained personnel raised difficult problems. The switch-over to the new system added fuel to the fire. Hence the commission on students problems and welfare was setup in 1966, to find solution to growing unrest in the education circle.

Their terms of reference were to:

- i) examine the provisions of the university ordinances and suggest modifications wherever necessary,
- ii) take stock of existing facilities for a sound programme of studies and to suggest remedial measures

commensurate with available resources,

iii) determine the adequacy, or otherwise, of the recreational and welfare facilities of students and suggest ways and means of providing for them within available resources and;

iv) to examine any other matter affecting student life. (Government of Pakistan, 1966)

The recommendations of the commission were remedial rather than affecting any changes in the plan proposed earlier. However the remedial measures resulted in endorsing the reversal of the changes made in the duration of the degree courses and of the examination system. At the same time some improved facilities were suggested both for teachers and students so that an atmosphere of peace conducive to studies might develop. One net result was the formation of students' guidance counsels in different universities.

Although the original facilities, as envisaged in the above plan could not be achieved because of the Indo-Pakistani war of 1965, yet there was an all round development in the field of secondary and higher education, but not in primary education.

2.1.5. The new education policy of 1970.

Towards the close of 1960s the first era of educational planning was over. So far the emphasis had

been on modern education and a massive shift towards scientific and technical education of the selected few to develop skilled manpower in the country. This could take the country upward, towards the goal of economic progress in line with the western countries of the world. In this goal the need for national cohesion on the basis of all round development of the different areas and different classes was overlooked. This resulted in the imbalanced growth of the country. No national consensus on education could develop in all classes of the society. To rectify these deficiencies new proposals were formulated. (Government of Pakistan, 1969 p.2)

It was observed that in particular the educational system has been unable to break down the barriers between:

a) Those who follow the stream of religious schools and those who are taught in modern western type schools.

b) Those who use the English language in their normal day-to-day business and those who do not.

c) Those who are born in well-to-do families and those who are not.

Therefore the proposals suggested a gradual integration of the two systems.

Earlier in March, 1969, General Mohammad Ayub Khan, who ruled Pakistan more than a decade relinquished the reign of power, due to the disturbed situation and

agitations by the people against him. His successor and the chief of armed forces, General Yahya Khan, in his first press conference, announced that greater emphasis would be given to social sectors, and Government would attach a high priority to the problems of education and make every effort to meet the needs of students. There was in fact a general dissatisfaction about the existing education policies :

- i) education had failed to promote national cohesion,
- ii) education had not played its proper role in national development,
- iii) there was a high rate of unemployment among educated youth and,
- iv) academic standards were low.

In the light of these comments, a committee was then appointed to examine the proposals. The new education policy was finally adopted by the cabinet on 26th: March, 1970. (Government of Pakistan, 1970)

The new education policy was designed as a statement of national goals in education and broadbased guidelines. The basic concepts inspiring the goals and guidelines of educational development covered the following major areas. (Government of Pakistan, 1970 pp.1-2)

- 1) Restatement of basic principles and concepts of education emphasised the importance of Islamic values.

ii) Educational programme to cater for economic needs.

iii) Education as an instrument for social change and development.

iv) Quality improvement in education.

v) Decentralisation of educational administration.

The transitory government faced many problems and difficulties, after the general elections of 1970. Confrontation of political leaders and political parties of both wings (i.e. West Pakistan and East Pakistan) over the transfer of power, created a mass disturbance and situation of a civil war in the eastern wing. In spite of such problems and difficulties prevailing in the country, some measures were taken for the implementation of the new education policy, by the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research. However the entire proposals announced in the policy, could not be fully implemented.

2.1.6. The Education Policy, 1972-80.

As mentioned above, Pakistan witnessed a serious crisis in 1971, and its eastern part was separated due to the interference of a neighbouring country. All the nation building activities, during that period, therefore, remained suspended. The Government was changed and the new civilian Government undertook development of a fresh

education policy, which was immediately announced in March, 1972. The Ministry of Education itself undertook the task of development of National Education Policy.

The major objectives of this policy were:

1. Preservation, promotion and practice of the basic ideology of Pakistan, by making it a code of individual and national life.

2. Building national cohesion and nurturing the total personality of the individual to enable him to comprehend fully the nature of technical and social change with deep concern of society.

3. Mobilising the youth for leadership roles through participation in programme of social service and environmental improvement and by including in them the dignity of labour.

4. Eradicating illiteracy within the shortest possible time through universalisation of elementary education and massive adult education programme.

5. Equalising access to education through provision of special facilities for women, under-privileged groups and mentally retarded and physically handicapped children and adults in all areas in general and the backward areas in particular.

6. Providing academic freedom and due autonomy to educational institutions within the framework of national objectives and requirements, by ensuring active

participation of teachers, students and representatives of parents and the community at large in educational affairs. (Government of Pakistan, 1972. pp.1-2)

For the achievement of the above aims, education was made free for classes I to X in two phases, by the Government. On the other hand there were a large number of private educational institutions that had different standards and were mainly established either on a commercial basis or to serve the people of a particular community. The Government decided to nationalise these institutions and bring them on equal footing with the Government institutions. But by far the greatest change was in the system of management. For the first time both teachers and students found their due representation in the managerial bodies. A system of democratic management was introduced in the administrative structure of educational institutions. For higher education qualitative improvement was recommended. Establishment of open University, was the first experience in the educational history of the country.

For adult and continuing education a massive literacy programme was proposed by opening literacy centres all over the country and by extensive use of non-conventional methods.

With respect to technical education it was proposed to convert polytechnics into technical colleges. Many new technologies were introduced for the first time

in this field.

The following new institutions were established :

1. National and provincial education councils.
2. University grants Commission.
3. National book foundation.
4. National sports trust.
5. Pakistan Council of arts.
6. Institute of folk heritage.
7. Bureau of educational planning and management.
8. Academy of letters.
9. National Commission for historical and cultural research.

This education policy envisaged a massive programme for universalising education, for integrating arts and sciences as well as technical training into a general scheme of education. Programmes raising educational services to the rank and status at par with other services and for democratising the system of management in educational institutions. An attempt was made to bring education to the individual's doorstep and to raise the status of the teacher in the eyes of the common man.

But while education was sought to be universalised, the value of education could not be improved as a popular concept. The quality of education could hardly improve as there was a scramble for position

and status on the part of the teachers. Gradually bureaucratic procedures invaded teaching cadres. Universalisation demanded huge expenditure and so the educational burden on the national economy was too heavy to sustain. The process of educational evolution on a greater scale was certainly commendable but it could not remain commensurate with the economic growth of the country. Hence many of the programmes, like nationalisation of education and free education had to be delayed/ stopped in due course.

Another reason for this was that the academic and physical facilities of the institutions were not taken care of and the academic standards began to decline sharply.

In an observation by the Sindh Text Book Board (1984:13) failures of this policy were described in the following words:

The implementation of education policy brought by the people's Government in 1972, was half-hearted and unplanned and hence cracks in the working of the department of education began to show. In spite of efforts at evaluation and analysis of the policy in the form of seminars and survey reports, there was hardly any positive step taken to implement the recommendations of various committees setup by the Government. There was no improvement in the library and laboratory facilities or accommodation and equipment. Discipline at the teacher's and students levels sharply deteriorated and this has its disastrous effect on educational standards.

The above observation, was mainly related to the

province of Sindh and was the reflection of the experiences and difficulties faced after the implementation of the said policy.

2.1.7. National Education policy, 1978.

The General election of March 1977 and its results gripped the entire country into violence and street demonstrations against the Government. Due to this very serious situation and the pressure by the alliance of opposition parties, it became a serious problem and difficult situation for the civilian Government to control the agitations. Big cities of the country were already handed over to the army. The army chief took over from the civilian government. This was done in an overnight action which ousted the civilian government; martial law was imposed.

As per tradition in the past, this government also blamed the previous government for its policies and started its own plans and policies. Education, was included in the first list, and within three months of assumption of office, a three day national education conference was convened from 3rd: October to 5th: October, 1977. About eighty four delegates comprising educationists, scientists, lawyers, administrators, journalists and students participated in this conference. This was to examine and redefine the aims of education, to determine basic strategies and to identify special

problems in education facing the nation. Public co-operation and participation in educational development was accepted and implemented as a principle.

Recommendations of this conference were published after a year on 12th: October, 1978. The policy received the final approval by the federal cabinet on 27th: December, 1978.

The following were the salient features of this policy:

1. Adoption of Islamic principles of life and ideology of Pakistan as national aims of education.

2. Opening of mosque schools and Arabic teaching centres all over the country.

3. Establishment of the following new agencies and bodies for the promotion of education as a whole:

i) National council on adult education.

ii) National centre for science education.

iii) National technical teachers' college.

iv) Institute of sports and culture.

v) Academy of educational planning and management.

vi) Bureaux of placement.

vii) District school education authorities to oversee and administer the school education.

viii) National institute of educational research.

ix) National students centre.

- x) National education council.
 - xi) Special schools for out-of-school population and drop-outs.
4. Construction of residential units for teachers in rural areas.
 5. provision of education and rehabilitation to handicapped children.
 6. Provision of non-formal education through mass media to citizens.
 7. Revision of curricula and text books.
 8. Replacement of the four-tier system of primary, secondary, college and university by a three-tier system of elementary, college and university education.
 9. Opening of new private schools and colleges.
 10. Introduction of comprehensive system of accountability and evaluation of teachers and administrators.
 11. Doing the entire funding of the universities by the federal government, without federalising the universities in each province.
 12. Gradual substitution by internal evaluation of the public system of examination at the end of class X.
 13. Introduction of urdu as a medium of instruction. (Government of Pakistan, 1978 pp.vii to xii)

From the review of the above mentioned detailed features of the policy, it is possible to say that the

policy was based on the following three main principles:

1. Much stress was caused by opening of schools in private sector as against the previous Government's policy of nationalisation, which was said to be a failure on account of great burden on government exchequer.

2. The expansion of facilities and addition of new organs and institutions was the main responsibility of the Central government.

3. There was also great stress on islamisation of education and subject of Islamiyat (teachings of Islam as a religion) was included at every stage, as a part of curriculum, for muslim students.

Because this regime lasted for about eleven years there was plenty of time for formulating and implementing its policies. In education some projects with the help of international organisations like World bank, UNESCO, UNICEF etc. were launched. Projects on primary education, special education and technical education were mainly implemented as a policy matter to get more and more international aid and assistance.

UNESCO (1984 p.14) figures show that public spending on education in fact declined from 7.4 to 5%. Due to this policy many schools already taken over by the Government were returned to their original owners and management in order to encourage the private investors in the educational sector and to deburden government exchequer.(see appendix 2.1)

Jimenez and Tan (1987 pp. 173-90) in their study on the situation in Pakistan, stated that a ready market for private education existed when the ban on opening private schools was lifted in 1979.

There were several reasons for that decision including the following:

Firstly in urban areas the demand for admissions by the growing number of children was not fulfilled by the government schools. In an open admission system, this pressure resulted in serious overcrowding. Private schools cropped up to cater for parents who were willing to pay for their children to attend school nearer home, and in less crowded conditions. Secondly, the government schools provided education only in urdu or in the provincial vernacular language. But there was a strong demand for English-medium instruction. In the past, an English-medium education could be obtained from the few famous private schools that survived nationalisation in 1972. Access to such schools was still limited to the children of elite, with high tuition fees and strict competition in admissions. In fact the growing demand for private schools in recent years was a response to the demand of parents for an alternative to the type of education offered in the government schools and limited chance in elite schools.

The action of government in motivating the private sector to open schools was in a good faith in order to make education available at the door steps for every

child, but unfortunately many people applied this for the sake of only trade-in-education and a source of earning. In big and over-populated cities Like Karachi and Lahore, private schools are found in every street mostly with outward show but lower standards of teaching and learning. This was mainly due to recruitment of less qualified and untrained teachers employed on low wages, limited facilities of instructional aids, inadequate laboratory facilities etc. This trend by the private sector has turned education towards commercialisation.

On the other hand even the schools under the management of provincial Government have not produced fruitful results. This compelled the central Government to revise its policy announced earlier, by reshaping it in the form of an action plan.

2.1.8. Action Plan for educational development, 1983-1988.

As described above, the Government at the centre was not much satisfied with the output and results of the achievements of its policy announced and implemented earlier. It was therefore felt necessary to reshape its policy in a revised form. The sense of urgency for action that pervades this highly significant policy was highlighted as under:

Yet what is heartening is the wide spread realisation that we stand at the edge of a precipice and that our fall is being delayed only because of our tenuous links with a mere semblance of a system, which if cleansed of its malpractices, might still prove to be viable. Pakistan as a nation is at risk, is at the brink of complete educational chaos and disaster.

(Government of Pakistan, 1984-a, :13)

The sense of urgency for immediate action was generated as a result of recognising the implications of forbidding data presented in the document. This document mentioned 41 million illiterates and 26 % literacy in the country. This has placed Pakistan among the most illiterate countries in the region. Another important indication was low financial investment in education at 1.7% of G.N.P which again placed Pakistan among the lowest in the region .

Besides the above characteristics some important suggestions made in the action plan were mentioned as under:

a) Quality improvement of the system is to be initiated first at the primary level, through a system of model schools, which would be comprehensively improved. Feasibility of replication and manageable unit costs will be foremost in the design.

b) Improvement of other schools is also considered, which would include augmentation of physical facilities, expanded training of teachers, evolution of an appropriate supervisory structure; provision of financial

incentives; and revision of curricula.

c) Educational facilities are to be provided in a frame-work of spatial planning, with targets not expressed in terms of aggregate needs, but in terms of the level and type of educational infrastructure needed at different levels. Thus a mosque school or primary school in every village; a primary model school in each union council; a girls middle school in each union council, a technical middle school in each tehsil* ; a higher secondary school facility in each tehsil, a technical high school in each district; a library in each town committee.

d) This action plan envisaged intensive use of existing facilities through modalities such as evening shifts and through availability of facilities at technical, middle and high schools and polytechnics, for the community to enhance their education and to improve their earning potential.

e) Encouragement of the study of sciences greatly with supportive inputs for the provision of institutional infrastructures, augmentation of physical facilities, incentive for science teaching, advance contracts for prospective science teachers and a scheme of maintenance grants for B.Scs and M.Scs who obtained first classes, until a job was provided.

* Tehsil is an administrative unit and part of a district.

f) Support to Islamic education was a further emphasis of this plan and included upgrading and diversifying the Madrassah* curricula and provision of institutional inter-pinnings by establishing an Islamic education research centre.

In 1984, again a literacy and mass education commission at federal level was created for literacy work and all problems related to literacy. Basically the function of this commission was the formulation of policies regarding mass literacy studies and research on problems related to literacy. Another purpose was to mobilize resources and disburse them to the provinces and to arrange production of material for illiterates and neo-literates and for launching motivational programmes. Besides this many non-governmental organisations and voluntary organisations are working in different parts of the country for the promotion of literacy.

A semi-civilian government, which came into power as a result of non-party election in 1985, under the umbrella of military rule, announced its **five point programme** for the development of the country. One of its points was the achievement of literacy rate at 50% by the end of 1990. For this purpose many new schools for the literacy programme of drop-outs were established and the

Madrassah is an Islamic religious school which usually functions at a mosque.

schools were named as Nai Roshni schools. An Educational levy called **Iqra tax** was imposed on many items imported from other countries and also from the industrial establishments. The pioneer of this programme, Prime Minister Mohammad Khan Junejo's government was dissolved by the president (army general) in May, 1988 with allegations of inefficiency and corruption.

Immediately after this purge, the above mentioned five-point programme, including the literacy programme were suspended forthwith. The complete end of this programme was announced by the civilian government which came into power in December, 1988. The closure of all such schools being the source of formal education for dropouts had already been announced by the federal education ministry. Staff employed in these schools were absorbed under provincial educational management.

A historical review of different policies and changes from time to time gives a clear indication that successive governments announced educational policies and programmes. In some cases the complete change and immediate alteration resulted in the failure of projects and development programmes already in progress. The outward reflection of these policies through documents is very impressive for a developing nation like Pakistan, but the achievement was less than had been projected .

After reviewing the above policies, Dr. Parween Shahid (1985 p.10) reflected her views in the following

words:

A number of efforts have been made since the independence of the country to effect reforms.. but the state of affairs, it is needless to stress, remained the same. This is due to the fact that our system is not able to respond appropriately to the challenges posed for the present and future by advances in scientific and technical fields. Further our system is not capable of translating the plan and policies in action.

Dani(1986 pp.51-67) was more optimistic about the progress and development of education :

The sad conclusion is not necessary if the country's ambitious expectations could be moderated. In fact education in Pakistan has made steady progress, atleast in quantitative terms, in that the number of educational institutions have considerably increased. The courses in schools and colleges have been modernised and technical and vocational education has now taken an institutional character.

The above different views on the policies of education were based on the development of education in the material sense. The opinion of the researcher in this respect will be described after the detailed educational achievements in Pakistan.

2.2. Educational achievements in Pakistan.

As discussed above, different educational policies were announced by successive governments in Pakistan, since 1947 with main aims and major issues. It is necessary to mention the achievements and physical

development in light of the above policies, in details.

The development of education is also part of general national development. Progress recorded in different documents right from 1951, shall be classified according to various sectors of education i.e. primary, secondary, higher education etc.

2.2.1. Six year Plan, 1951-57.

Basically this plan was prepared for six years, but later on abandoned in 1955 (Government of Pakistan, 1986 p.2). Achievements in each sector were as mentioned below:

(a) **Primary education.**

At the end of the plan the enrolment increased to 1.55 million. Number of schools increased to 15,602. The number of trained teachers raised to 24,700 with ratio of one trained teacher for 63 students.

(b) **Secondary education.**

Enrolment in high schools (for boys) increased from 51,000 in 1947 to 94,000 in 1954 i.e. 84.3 % increase. The number of high schools (for boys) increased from 344 in 1947 to 599 in 1954 i.e. 83 % increase. The number of trained teachers in high schools (for boys) increased from 4,600 in 1947 to 7,300 in 1954 i.e. 58.7 % increase.

(c) Higher education.

At the time of independence there were 11 professional colleges. The number of non-professional colleges (Arts, science and commerce) was 42. There were only two universities in the country i.e. University of Punjab and University of Sindh.

The number of non-professional colleges increased from 42 to 80 i.e. 95 % increase. Whereas the number of professional colleges increased from 17, in 1948-49 to 21 i.e. 23.5 % increase. The number of universities increased from 2 in 1947 to 4 i.e. 100 % increase. There was also an increase of 210 % in enrolment at this level.

(d) Technical education.

There was no organised system of technical and vocational education at the time of independence. Two engineering universities and 4 agriculture colleges offered two years diploma courses. There were varieties of artisan and trade schools and number of private institutions teaching elementary business skills. Certain trade and crafts were taught in families and in the remnants of old-guild system. These arrangements were incapable of satisfying the demand of trained manpower for industries. There were 2 engineering colleges and 46 secondary vocational institutions which included fine Arts, industrial, technical, vocational, commercial, engineering, medical and teacher training institutions.

Achievements during the plan period in this sector were limited. One polytechnic was established at Karachi in 1953 which started enrolling students in 1955.

2 Vocational, 2 commercial, 1 engineering survey and 1 fine Arts institute were established.

Enrolment increased by 1,765.

2.2.2. First five year plan , 1955-60.

(a) Primary education.

During this period 2,299 new primary schools were added i.e. 14.7 % increase in the number existed at that time. Ratio was at 1 school for 257 pupils. The number of trained teachers increased to 44,800 i.e. 81 % increase. One trained teacher for 42 students.

(b) Secondary education.

Very little diversification of course offers took place and very little was done to improve quality.

The number of high schools increased from 747 in 1955 to 1,069 in 1960.

The number of trained teachers in high schools increased from 9,200 in 1955 to 13,800 in 1960.

Enrolment in high schools increased from 0.109 million in 1955 to 0.149 million i.e. increase of 36.7 %.

The number of secondary teacher training institutions increased from 36 in 1955 to 48 in 1960. The

new teacher training colleges for B.Ed. courses were opened during this plan period.

(c) Higher education.

The number of non-professional colleges increased from 80 to 130 i.e. 62.5 % increase.

The number of professional colleges increased from 21 to 35 i.e. 71.4 % increase. However the number of universities remained same during this period.

Enrolment at non-professional colleges increased from 43,300 to 78,088 i.e. 80.3 % increase. Whereas enrolment in professional colleges increased from 8,082 to 10,646 i.e. 31.7 % increase. Enrolment at universities increased from 1,998 to 4,092 i.e. 104.8 % increase.

(d) Technical education.

One polytechnic at Rawalpindi was established.

Directorate of technical education was established. National directorate of industrial apprenticeship was also established.

Against the target of producing 350 engineers and 640 sub-engineers, 125 engineers and 350 sub-engineers were produced.

2.2.3. Second five year plan, 1960-65.

The achievements during this period in each sector

were:

(a) Primary education.

The number of schools increased to 31,589 i.e. 83 percent increase in physical facilities; coverage of one school for 246 children. Enrolment raised from 2.06 million to 3.05 i.e. 38 % increase, against the first five year plan.

The number of trained teachers raised to 75,900 i.e. one trained teacher for 40 students.

(b) Secondary education.

The number of high schools established was 450, during this period.

Enrolment at high schools increased from 0.149 million to 0.222 million i.e. increase of 48.9 % increase.

The number of trained teachers of high schools increased from 15,300 to 22,300 i.e. 45.7 % increase. Enrolment at teacher training colleges increased from 1,406 to 2,731.

(c) Higher education.

Engineering college, Lahore was developed into a university. The number of non-professional colleges increased from 130 to 230 i.e. 64.2 % increase. The number of professional colleges increased from 36 to 40 i.e. 11 %

increase.

Enrolment in non-professional colleges increased from 78,088 to 152,221 i.e. 94.9 % increase, whereas at professional colleges increased from 10,646 to 15,451 i.e. 45.1 % increase. Enrolment at universities increased from 4,092 to 13,221 i.e. 233 % increase.

(d) Technical education.

Three new engineering colleges were established and new technologies were introduced at diploma level. Directorate of technical education already established, was strengthened. Annual intake at degree level was increased to 1,150. Intake at diploma level was increased to 2,200. Diversified courses like industrial arts, agriculture, business education and home economics were introduced.

Institutes at Sialkot, Bahawalpur, Peshawar, Khairpur and Rasul were strengthened and upgraded as Polytechnics. Eleven commercial institutes were also established.

2.2.4. Third five year plan, 1965-70.

Achievement and development of education in various sections of education, during this period were:

(a) Primary education.

8,201 new primary schools were opened to bring the

total to 40,790 with coverage of one school for 233 pupils.

The number of trained teachers raised to 87,000 i.e. increase of 14.6 % thus bringing the ratio of trained teachers at 1 for 73 students.

(b) Secondary education.

The number of high schools increased from 1,622 to 1,995 i.e. 22.9 % increase. Enrolment at high schools increased from .222 million to .333 million i.e. 51.8 % increase. The number of trained teachers at high schools increased from 22,300 to 34,500 i.e. 54.7 % increase.

(c) Higher education.

The number of non-professional colleges increased from 230 to 351 i.e. 52.6 % increase, while the number of professional colleges increased from 40 to 42 i.e. 5 % increase.

A new university was established at Islamabad and this brought the total number of universities at 6 i.e. 25 percent increase.

Enrolment at non-professional colleges increased from 152,221 to 208,633 i.e. 46 % increase, while in professional colleges it increased from 15,451 to 20,340. Enrolment at universities increased from 13,221 to 15,475 i.e. 17 % increase.

(d) Technical education.

9 polytechnics and 5 vocational institutes/schools were opened. There was no contribution from the private sector, during this plan period.

Enrolment target of 67 % was achieved at diploma and certificate level, respectively. At degree level 80 % intake target and 90 % output target was achieved.

Progress at university level was slow and enrolment at postgraduate level was 100.

2.2.5. Fourth five year plan, 1970-75

During this period, country was at the edge of complete turmoil and there was a vacuum of political leadership. General elections and its controversial results created a critical situation of disturbance. Due to interference of a foreign power in shape of war against Pakistan in December 1971, eastern part was separated with independent status on the globe of the world. This plan was therefore not implemented at all.

2.2.6. No plan period 1972-77.

As mentioned earlier the breakup of the country was an unfortunate event in the political history of the country. The reign of affairs were handed over by the army to a civilian political party, which achieved the majority of seats in national assembly in the western part

i.e. the existing Pakistan. Because the change was so sudden, this government started working without a prior plan as the plan prepared earlier for 1970-75, for the united Pakistan, i.e. both west and east, ceased to be meaningful. It was not applicable for the existing part alone. The planners therefore called it, the No plan period.

Inspite of various problems and difficulties, the development of education did not stop and lot of achievements in each sector were recorded.

(a) primary education.

The number of schools increased to 53,853 i.e. 32% increase, with coverage of one school for 228 children. Enrolment raised from 4.2. million to 6.05 million, with overall increase of 44 % . The number of trained teachers reached 135,000 i.e. one trained teacher for 45 students.

(b) secondary education.

The number of high schools increased from 2,247 to 3,202 and enrolment increased from 336,000 to 522,000 i.e. 56.7 % increase. The number of teachers training colleges increased from 14 to 17.

(c) Higher education.

6 new universities were established by increasing the number from 6 to 12 i.e. 100 % increase. Campus

colleges of engineering at Nawabshah and Taxila were established. The number of professional colleges increased from 42 to 98, whereas the number of non-professional colleges increased from 351 to 433 i.e. 23.4 % increase.

Enrolment at non-professional colleges increased from 208,633 to 222,700, while enrolment at professional colleges increased from 20,340 to 56,932 i.e. 180 % increase. At universities enrolment increased from 15,475 to 24,149 i.e. 56 % increase.

(d) Technical education.

NED engineering college, Karachi and engineering college, Jamshoro both in the province of Sindh, were raised to a status of university. Engineering colleges at Nawabshah and Taxila were established. The number of professional colleges increased from 73 to 88. 6 new polytechnics were opened and 7 were raised to technical colleges. 27 commercial institutes were opened.

2.2.7. Fifth five year plan, 1978-83.

As already mentioned in the previous part of this chapter, the change of Government brought changes in entire policies including educational development.

Achievements recorded in educational development were as under:

(a) primary education.

8,797 new primary schools were opened during this plan period, thus bringing the total number of primary schools in the country to 66,560 i.e. one school for 210 children. Besides this 7,458 mosque schools were opened to meet the shortage of physical facilities. This expanded facility improved the coverage to one school for 188 children.

Enrolment at this level increased to 6.252 million.

(b) Secondary education.

521 high schools were created on account of upgradation from lower level i.e. middle schools. Agro-technical studies were started in 204 high schools.

Enrolment at secondary schools increased to 2.279 million.

Construction of 51 high school buildings, science laboratories in 195 schools and 1,650 additional rooms, was a good achievement.

(c) Higher education.

36 new intermediate colleges were opened and 12 intermediate colleges were upgraded to degree level. 7 new universities were established. National academy of higher education was also established.

Enrolment at intermediate level increased from

170,073 to 291,640. At degree level enrolment increased from 57,400 to 89,609 and at universities it increased from 41,130 to 47,578.

(d) Technical education.

One engineering university was established in the North West Frontier Province. 8 polytechnics were established and 2 vocational institutes were upgraded to polytechnics in Sindh. 7 polytechnics were expanded and new technologies were introduced in 11 polytechnics. 17 commercial and 30 vocational institutes were established. National training board was set up.

2.2.8. Sixth five year plan, 1983-88.

This plan strategy was also supplemented by the Ministry of Education through its Action plan for educational development, 1983-88. However development in the field of education achieved in each sector was as under:

(a) Primary education.

26,198 new primary schools were opened during this plan period and the increase recorded was 35.5 % . Additional enrolment was 2.6 million. This brought the school children ratio at 1:98.

(b) Secondary education.

The number of high schools increased to 4,274 during the plan. There was additional enrolment of 860,000. 561 high schools were established on upgradation from middle to high school level.

(c) Higher education.

8 degree colleges were opened during this plan period. The number of universities was raised upto 18. Enrolment in universities reached upto 45,328.

(d) Technical education.

The number of engineering universities reached upto 4, Polytechnics upto 36 and trade schools/vocational institutes upto 200. Increase, therefore, was 3 % and 9 % in polytechnics and vocational institutes/trade schools respectively.

The figures 2.1, 2.2. and 2.3 in the next pages indicate the highlights of the education budget in Pakistan for the years 1970-71 to 1985-86. Government expenditure on education by each level for the same period and the summary of the progress in education since independence i.e. 1947 , as compared with the position in 1982-83 , is also mentioned.

Figure 2.1.

EDUCATION BUDGET IN PAKISTAN

| Year | Amount in millions. | % of income | As % of budget | As % of GNP. |
|----------|---------------------|-------------|----------------|--------------|
| 1970-71. | 790 | 0.87 | 6.46 | 1.73 |
| 1971-72. | 797 | 0.87 | 5.90 | 1.61 |
| 1972-73. | 1,001 | 25.59 | 5.63 | 1.63 |
| 1973-74. | 1,269 | 26.77 | 5.46 | 1.56 |
| 1974-75. | 1,744 | 37.43 | 5.26 | 1.64 |
| 1975-76. | 2,482 | 42.66 | 5.19 | 1.99 |
| 1976-77. | 2,803 | 12.66 | 5.11 | 1.96 |
| 1977-78. | 3,301 | 17.76 | 5.24 | 1.89 |
| 1978-79. | 3,895 | 17.38 | 5.44 | 1.99 |
| 1979-80. | 4,153 | 7.17 | 5.37 | 1.79 |
| 1980-81. | 4,619 | 11.22 | 5.01 | 1.69 |
| 1981-82. | 5,602 | 21.28 | 5.10 | 1.76 |
| 1982-83. | 6,470 | 15.49 | 4.58 | 1.76 |
| 1983-84. | 8,165 | 26.20 | 8.16 | 1.98 |
| 1984-85. | 9,174 | 12.34 | 7.80 | 1.98 |
| 1985-86. | 11,318 | 23.37 | 8.45 | 2.16 |

Source: Government of Pakistan. Ministry of Education, Islamabad.

Figure 2.2 GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION BY LEVEL

(Rupees in million)

| Year | Total exp: | Primary | secondary | Coll- ege | Univer- sity |
|----------|------------|---------|-----------|--------------|-----------------|
| 1970-71. | 789.9 | 221.9 | 93.8 | 45.3 | 92.0 |
| 1971-72. | 796.8 | 275.3 | 103.7 | 49.8 | 69.3 |
| 1972-73. | 1,000.7 | 315.4 | 113.5 | 85.6 | 61.8 |
| 1973-74. | 1,269.3 | 399.2 | 189.7 | 166.8 | 107.9 |
| 1974-75. | 1,744.5 | 451.5 | 290.0 | 162.3 | 124.0 |
| 1975-76. | 2,482.2 | 767.3 | 431.3 | 249.4 | 174.3 |
| 1976-77. | 2,802.6 | 853.1 | 577.9 | 274.6 | 210.7 |
| 1977-78. | 3,300.7 | 823.6 | 464.7 | 672.4 | 258.0 |
| 1978-79. | 3,895.9 | 305.1 | 731.7 | 367.8 | 324.2 |
| 1979-80. | 4,153.5 | 1,604.4 | 920.4 | 387.5 | 426.2 |
| 1980-81. | 4,619.1 | 1,570.5 | 918.8 | 427.6 | 459.2 |
| 1981-82. | 5,602.0 | 1,520.0 | 986.9 | 493.8 | 611.3 |
| 1982-83. | 6,469.5 | 2,096.2 | 1,255.0 | 642.0 | 665.5 |
| 1983-84. | 8,165.1 | 2,706.4 | 2,339.4 | 857.7 | 701.7 |
| 1984-85. | 9,173.6 | 3,284.8 | 2,368.8 | 1,034.0 | 870.5 |
| 1985-86. | 11,317.7 | 4,051.7 | 2,886.0 | 1,199.7 | 1,075.0 |

Source: Government of Pakistan, Federal Bureau of Statistics.

Figure 2.3 SUMMARY OF PROGRESS IN EDUCATION SINCE
INDEPENDENCE

| | <u>1947-48</u> | <u>1982-83</u> | <u>Ratio</u> |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| Population | 32 million | 88 million | 2.75 times |
| A. <u>Number of institutions.</u> | | | |
| 1. Primary | 8,413 | 73,782 | 8.8 times |
| 2. Middle | 2,190 | 6,402 | 3 times |
| 3. High | 408 | 4,221 | 10.3 times |
| 4. Colleges | 40 | 514 | 12.8 times |
| 5. Universities | 2 | 20 | 10.0 times |
| B. <u>Enrolment.</u> | | | |
| 1. Primary | 0.77 million | 6.754 million | 8.8 times |
| 2. Middle | 0.21 million | 1.723 million | 8.2 times |
| 3. High | 0.05 million | 0.688 million | 13.8 times |
| 4. Colleges | 0.0135 million | 0.387 million | 28.6 times |
| 5. General universities. | 644 | 17,000 | 26.0 times |

Source: The sixth five year plan 1983-88 and Pakistan Economic survey(1982-83).

2.3. Historical development of education in Sindh

Sindh is one of the provinces of today's Pakistan. Historically, Sindh has always formed a part of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent and was one of the provinces of the Indian empire during the British rule. What we see today of the modern Sindh, is the result of the age old civilization, known as, Indus civilization.

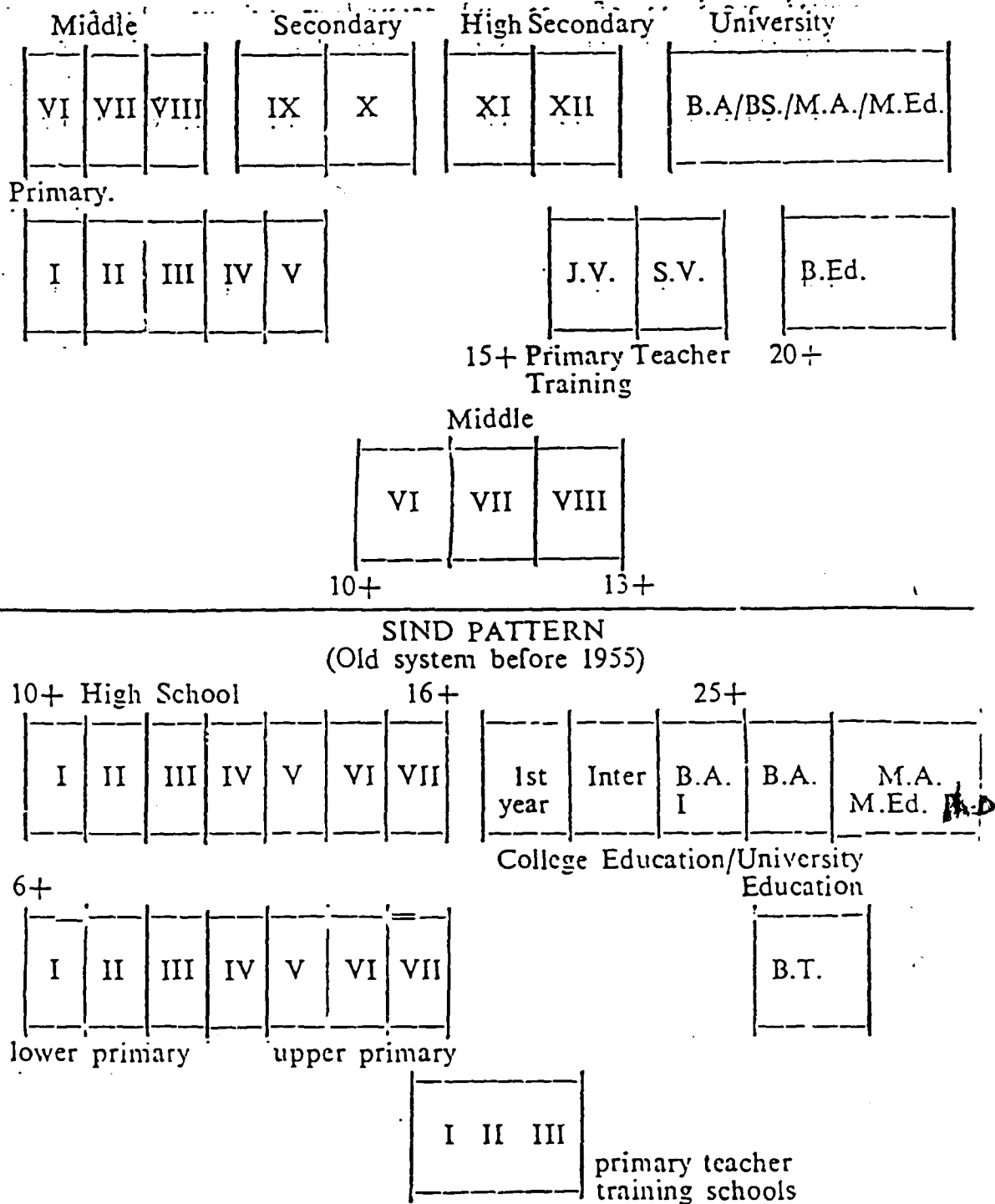
2.3.1 Structure of education in Sindh.

During the British rule in 1942, the provincial government of Sindh devised a complete, self-contained seven-year primary and secondary education course, taking children at six plus in the first primary class. Consequently, at the time of independence, the pattern of education in Sindh, as one of the provinces of new sovereign state, was different from other provinces. This system continued after independence.

From 1947 until 1954, Sindh followed a two-track system. Figure 2.4, on the next page indicates that there were 4 years of schooling at the lower primary and 3 years at the upper primary stage. The age for entry to the first primary grade was 6+, which is now 5+ all over the country. The second stage consisted of seven years of schooling, and transfer to first grade of this stage was possible after passing grade IV of the lower primary. This structure was in sharp contrast to the structure in other

Figure 2.4

Pattern of Education in other Provinces



provinces of Pakistan, as there were five years of study at each of the primary and secondary level of education. The comparison of the two systems shows that a child in other provinces could proceed to the college education at an earlier age and had a continuous two years advantage and lead over the child in Sindh. The structure of other levels, above secondary, was however similar.

The present structure of education in the province of Sindh can be divided into five main streams.

The first level, known as primary refers to grade I-V and age of school-going population as 5-9 years. This is followed by second level which includes grades VI-VIII of the school-age population as 10-12 years. This stage between the primary and the high stages, comprising eight years schooling is also called lower secondary, middle or elementary stage.

The third stream, known as high stage, consists of grades IX and X and enrolls students of 13-14 years. In actual practice there are no separate schools for grades IX and X. There is however, in case of secondary schools a continuous five years schooling from grades VI-X, commonly known as a high or secondary school.

The fourth stream is called college education, which consists of higher secondary i.e. intermediate stage, classes XI-XII of age group 15-16 years and the degree stage, pass and honours, of two and three years respectively. The stream is stretched over classes

XIII-XIV or XIII-XV. Students generally belong to the age group 17-18.

The fifth stream which is known as university stage is of an additional two years study after the Bachelor degree to obtain a Master degree in Arts, Science or Commerce.

Teachers are trained at various levels. The institutions for the training of primary school teachers are called Colleges of elementary education, whereas high school teachers are trained at colleges of education. In addition, the department of education, formerly the Institute of education and research, established as one of the faculties of the University of Sindh, is also responsible for training the teachers of high schools. Primary teaching certificates i.e. P.T.C., for primary teachers and B.Ed course for high/ secondary school teachers are imparted at the above colleges and department/ faculty of education, University of Sindh, respectively.

System and structure of education in other sections like engineering, medical, agriculture, commerce, vocational, technical etc. are the same, as in other provinces of the country.

2.3.2 Physical development of education in Sindh.

At the time of independence of Pakistan, the province of Sindh faced staggering problems. In education

its immediate task was to save the system from collapse. This was made difficult by the loss of supervisory and teaching personnel as a result of large exodus of hindu population to India.

The Sindh Government took immediate steps in this connection. To face the dearth of trained teachers it was decided in 1954 to allow full pay and allowances to primary school teachers undergoing training so as to make it more attractive for them to join training institutions. The training institutions in the province were strengthened and in the budget of year 1954-55 provision for the construction of a primary teachers training Institute at MirpurKhas was made. This was done at a cost of about five hundred thousand rupees.

Measures for the expansion of primary education in the rural area were also taken by the Government and 145 new primary schools were opened during 1955-56. During the period of eight years after independence, the number of high schools in the province increased from 20 in 1947 to 53 in 1954. Besides the number of colleges raised from 3 to 12 in the same period.

Plans for a separate university of Sindh actually started before the independence but finalised only few months before independence i.e. on 3rd: April, 1947. Firstly this University started working at Karachi and later on shifted to Hyderabad. At present it is functioning at Jamshoro, near Hyderabad.

Primary education of the province was brought under Government control, by promulgation of the primary education Act of 1947, providing free and compulsory education for all children between six and eleven years. Since the resources in money and trained personnel were limited, provision of free and compulsory primary education of five years duration was recognised as the responsibility of the Government. To accomplish this task, 45 out of 60 talukas, in the province of Sindh were brought under the orbit of compulsion.

On 14th: October, 1955, all the provinces and states were unified and designated into one province of West Pakistan. Due to this Sindh lost its status as a province, and became the part of West Pakistan province. The position continued up to the end of June, 1970. From 1st: July, 1970, the former united province of West Pakistan was again split by restoring the status of former provinces.

Due to this change Sindh is again enjoying the status of a province within the federation of Pakistan from July, 1970.

Education, though a provincial subject has always been controlled by national policies and planning. Reviewing the past structure and functioning of governments in Pakistan, it can be concluded that the major resources and policies are formulated by the Central Government and implemented by the Provincial governments.

The researcher is not concerned with the issue of centralised versus de-centralised functions of government. This is described only as an indication of the federal structure of education in Pakistan.

The planning Commission of Pakistan is basically the main agency of the Central Government controlling the entire resources of the country. There are planning and development departments in various provinces but their function is mainly to collect figures and to formulate schemes for the province. All such plans and schemes are sent to the Planning Commission for consideration in annual development programmes. Every year such plans are included after scrutiny in the regular national budget. In province of Sindh, the Education department has a separate planning and development Wing cum Planning and monitoring Cell for the preparation of developmental schemes for education. The structure of this wing is given in appendix 2.2 .

There has been a gradual increase in the number of schools(primary and secondary) within the province of Sindh after the existence and restoration of its status i.e. from 1970-71.

Figures 2.5. and 2.6 on the next pages show the number of schools, teachers and students for a selected period of ten years and the expenditure by the Government through annual budgets on secondary education, within province of Sindh, for the last nine years.

Figure 2.5. Number of schools, teachers and students in primary and secondary schools within the province of Sindh.

i) Primary education.

| Year | Number of <u>schools.</u> | Number of <u>teachers.</u> | Enrolment |
|----------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|
| 1970-71. | 10,033 | 25,275 | 834,000 |
| 1971-72. | 10,820 | 28,987 | 902,000 |
| 1972-73. | 11,795 | 35,657 | 988,000 |
| 1973-74. | 12,306 | 37,657 | 1.116 million |
| 1974-75. | 12,308 | 39,677 | 1.176 million |
| 1981-82. | 12,917 | 41,315 | 1.457 million |
| 1982-83. | 13,478 | 42,969 | 1.515 million |
| 1983-84. | 14,007 | 44,907 | 1.593 million |
| 1984-85. | 16,859 | 45,241 | 1.650 million |
| 1985-86. | 19,116 | 46,853 | 1.712 million |

ii) Secondary education

| | | | |
|----------|-------|--------|---------|
| 1970-71. | 1,103 | 12,200 | 269,000 |
| 1971-72. | 1,266 | 14,785 | 275,000 |
| 1972-73. | 1,430 | 16,628 | 307,000 |
| 1973-74. | 1,558 | 18,763 | 320,000 |
| 1974-75. | 1,600 | 19,042 | 360,000 |
| 1981-82. | 1,733 | 22,687 | 546,849 |
| 1982-83. | 1,765 | 23,480 | 586,034 |
| 1983-84. | 1,834 | 24,431 | 617,135 |
| 1984-85. | 1,912 | 25,059 | 643,399 |
| 1985-86. | 1,976 | 26,763 | 656,916 |

Source: Bureau of Statistics, Government of Sindh.

Figure 2.6 Expenditure on secondary education within province of Sindh for the years 1980-81 to 1988-89(nine years)

| <u>Financial year</u> | <u>Amount spent (in Pakistani rupees)</u> |
|-----------------------|---|
| 1980-81. | 205.97 million |
| 1981-82. | 236.56 million |
| 1982-83. | 285.65 million |
| 1983-84. | 330.62 million |
| 1984-85. | 396.95 million |
| 1985-86. | 493.54 million |
| 1986-87. | 800.94 million |
| 1987-88. | 685.22 million |
| 1988-89. | 813.30 million |

Source: Government of Sindh, Finance Department,
(Budget Section) Karachi.

The above figures indicate that the expenditure on secondary education at the start of the decade was nearly 206 million rupees, and was four times (approximately) higher at the end of the decade period.

The concerned budget Officer, informed this researcher during an interview that the amount mentioned above was the actual expenditure, which was far less than the estimated expenditure.

There has also been satisfactory progress in other sectors of education. Latest available figures regarding number, staff strength and enrolment of students in each type of institutions are given as under:

| <u>Type of Institution</u> | <u>Number of Institutions</u> | <u>Staff strength</u> | <u>Enrolment (students)</u> |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| Universities. | 7 * | 1,314 | 16,105 |
| Non-professional Colleges | | | |
| i) Intermediate. | 39 | 606 | 14,168 |
| ii) Degree. | 93 | 3,047 | 123,931 |
| iii) Post graduate. | 2 | 84 | 3,463 |
| Professional colleges | | | |
| i) Medical | 5 | 579 | 10,839 |
| ii) Home Economics. | 2 | 61 | 1,163 |
| iii) Physical Education | 1 | 11 | 89 |
| iv) Commerce | 5 | 115 | 5,411 |
| v) Teacher Training(S) | 3 | 79 | 1,233 |
| vi) Teacher Training(P) | 19 | 267 | 3,653 |
| vii) Law | 8 | 96 | 5,316 ** |
| Technical institutions | | | |
| i) Polytechnic/Technical | 17 | 333 | 8,057 |
| ii) Commercial. | 13 | 89 | 2,091 |
| iii) Vocational. | 52 | 235 | 5,433 |

* Figures regarding staff and enrolment of Agha Khan Medical University(private) are not included.

** Figures regarding staff and enrolment of S.M.Law College, Karachi are not included.

(S) indicates= Secondary and (P) indicates= Primary

Source: Bureau of Statistics, Government of Sindh.

2.4. Conclusion.

The historical perspectives of education in Pakistan, including Sindh, regarding the material development of education provide a clear picture of steady progress. It was mentioned earlier that all such plans and schemes were prepared at higher level, in both cases national as well as provincial governments. The planners, basically are not educationists. They are senior civil servants doing their work by virtue of their appointment. Very few of them are trained in the fields of economic planning, but the rest are recruited through central superior services examinations or provincial civil services examination.

One of the basic drawbacks in our national planning has been the emphasis on quantity on every occasion by announcing such plans through the state controlled news and information media, in order to please the masses. In fact the practical shape of all such plans was quite different from what was communicated to the people by the media. Successive governments announced various policies, without considering the schemes already in progress. Even in many cases projects and schemes were either abandoned or left half way without completion. This has resulted in loss of national wealth.

At the provincial level in Sindh, the education department with its own planning section and monitoring cell is headed by an Additional Secretary. There is no

clear cut policy for the occupation of the post. Sometimes a senior civil service officer or even an officer from field were posted against this post.

Successful implementation of such development schemes and policies depends on the people working in the field. The District Education Officer, as a supervisor for school education and the representative of the provincial education department at the district level is never involved in policy formulation. His involvement is only to collect such information from the schools and to communicate the same to regional directorate or provincial secretariat, as required from time to time.

Again in each district a committee called , "the district development committee" has been formulated by the provincial government. This committee is headed by the Deputy Commissioner of the district who belongs to the administrative cadre of the civil service. All the developmental schemes including those for education are approved by the government for various districts and are implemented through the district development committee. The District Education Officer is only a member of this committee and has no independent status in case of educational projects. On the other hand, the Deputy Commissioner of the district in the capacity of the chairman of the committee, is least concerned with educational schemes, due to his countless responsibilities. In such situation, the District

Education Officer, with the managerial and supervisory responsibility of the school education at a district level, is nothing but a channel of hierarchy and a communicator of directives and instructions from higher authorities to his subordinates.

The supervisory system of school education in Sindh is an organization for the management of schools. The position of the District Education Officer is not less than a Manager at the district level.

Mintzberg (1973 pp. 92-93) has mentioned roles of a manager/supervisor, grouped into three major categories as follows:

1. Interpersonal- figurehead, leader and liaison.
2. Informational- Monitor, disseminator and spokesperson.
3. Decisional - Entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator.

The position of the District Education Officer in supervisory system of school education in Sindh, is mostly seen within the first two groups and categories. The last group, which is mostly related to decisional matters is utilised by the higher channels within the organisation. His position is therefore nominal and limited.

For an effective planning of the educational development of secondary education at the district level in Sindh, the role of the District Education Officer, is therefore most important. Necessary suggestions in this

connection are given in chapter VIII of this thesis.

The purpose of this chapter has been twofold: First, to describe in some detail the development of the education systems(of Pakistan and Sindh) since independence; second, to give some idea of the problems which have interrupted that development from time to time.

The chapter also provides some evidence of major problems which existed at the level of the whole society (Pakistan) and the province (Sindh). Nevertheless, later chapters will also show that problems also exist at the levels of the district and the school. It is the contention of this thesis that even if the national planning of education had been problem-free, the issue of school supervision would have been crucial.

CHAPTER III

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONTEXT IN PAKISTAN

The aim of this thesis is to look into the functioning of the supervisory system of school education in Pakistan including the province of Sindh. But any education system has to be analysed as part of a social and cultural system. This chapter therefore elaborates the contextual analysis of the problem and focuses issues of modernization, bureaucracy and participation in Pakistan.

3.1. Introduction.

Social scientists, thinkers and philosophers have given the question of the nature of societies and social change in societies considerable thought, and approaches have advanced. Some of the approaches are of a universal nature and applicable to all countries, others may apply partially to countries like Pakistan. However it will be useful to explain briefly the main thrust of the various approaches to the problem of under-development, breakdowns and crises, as well as social change and progress. To begin with it may be asserted that the problem of backwardness of developing societies is of a comprehensive nature. To highlight their all pervasive character, Palmer (1973) has pointed out three basic propositions related to such problems in developing areas.

(1) That there is considerable similarity in the problems confronting the developing areas.

(2) That the problems faced by the developing areas are related to and cannot be analyzed independently of the social, economic and cultural milieu in which they occur.

(3) That problems facing the developing areas are behavioural as well as structural. Changes in institutions and techniques will not solve the problems unless they are accompanied by radical changes in beliefs and behaviour. Similarly social scientists like Parsons (1967-a) , Eisenstadt(1966) , Marion(1966) and others have explained the range of various socio-economic and cultural failures of societies by the abstract concept of 'modernization' which presents a comprehensive explanation of such failures.

3.2 Modernization.

The modernization theory has been thoroughly analysed and researched into and has consequently gone through various changes on dimension and emphasis, yet the basic thesis of the modernization theory remains tenable to a remarkable degree. According to the propounders of modernization theory, modernization is a comprehensive process under which societies move from their traditional systems to acquire the characteristics necessary for an

efficient and effective operation of modern functions.

The classical definition describes modernization as the process of change towards those types of social, economic and political systems that have developed in western Europe and North America from the seventeenth century to nineteenth and twentieth centuries to the south American, Asian and African continents. (Eisenstadt, 1966).

While explaining the background of modernization all over the world, Eisenstadt stated that the modern societies have developed from a great variety of different traditional, premodern societies. In western Europe they developed from feudal or absolutist states with strong urban centres, in eastern Europe from more autocratic states and less urbanized societies. In the United States and the first Dominions(Canada, Australia etc.) they have developed through a process of colonization and immigration. In Latin America more fragmentarily modern structures developed from oligarchic conquest-colonial societies. In most Asian and African societies the process of modernization has begun within colonial frameworks, some (especially in Asia) based on earlier more centralized monarchical societies and elaborate literary-religious traditions.

However the concept has gone through a process of refinement in which the Western European ideal types of modernity have been neutralised to divest it of its

ethno-centric bias. A more refined definition talks of modernization as:

The dynamic form that the process of innovation has assumed as a result of the explosive proliferation of knowledge in recent centuries. It owes a special significance to its dynamic character and to the universality of its impact on human affairs. It stems initially from an attitude that society can and should be transformed, that change is desirable.

(Black, 1967 : 7)

3.3. The nature of transformation.

Although with the creation of a nation-state, consolidation of modernizing leadership, by and large, is assured, yet the struggle, in some situations, may still continue. The nature of transformation and other focal changes that distinguish it can be summarized as under:

1. The changes in values and way of life of the average person, as gauged from the experience of the advanced countries, during this phase is greater than the previous ones.
2. A concomitant of the normative transformation has been the dramatic growth of science and technology.
3. The concentration of effort required by economic and social transformation is focused primarily at the level of the politically organized society, the national-state or policy, rather than at the local or international level. National integration and solidarity is important.

4. As a result of economic mobilization, a large-scale transfer of the work-force of a society from agriculture to manufacturing, transport, commerce and services takes effect.

5. There is also a considerable broadening of the base of the ruling group as the sources of recruitment change from land ownership to business, commerce and areas of activity requiring university trained specialists. The executive, managerial and service strata may come to embrace as much as one-half the population of a society. (Black, 1967 : 67-80)

How these changes are in fact introduced and achieved depends largely on the policies of the leadership and the circumstances of each country. The process can be slow , prolonged and liberal, as in the case of West European countries or it can be radical and controlled, as in the communist countries.

The choice, in the long run has to be made by each society in the context of its own ideology, socio-cultural priorities and the nature of its modernizing leadership. Whatever method is employed, modernizing societies, in this phase, must face certain common problems.

Explaining the political and administrative changes taking place in a modern or modernising society, Shils (1962) equates modernization with the processes of differentiation of political structure and secularization of political culture which enhances the capability, the

effectiveness and efficiency of performance of a society's political system.

A modern administrative system depends to a very large extent on a well trained and organised bureaucracy. In modern administration, differentiation also takes place among the professional, technical and managerial cadres. The creation of such a highly professionalised and dedicated class of civil servants is highly significant in the process of modernization. (Adams, 1970)

But modernization does not mean merely political and administrative changes, it has been taken to mean a comprehensive transformation. When a society changes from its traditional moorings to perform modern functions, there is a gradual fundamental change in the style of life of the people and in their outlook on the world. It involves a new orientation in the attitude towards authority and functions of government. Modernization is a total transformation of society, a movement in a consciously-chosen direction (Aiyar, 1973).

The transition is not always smooth; modernization cannot come about without the disruption of old patterns.(Etzioni, 1973).

Eisenstadt(1970: 421-452) in his study of modernization based on the socio-political framework of four developing countries(Burma, Indonesia, Pakistan and Sudan), sees the crisis of modernization in societies, as the result of a rise in political power and mobilization

of component social groups, without a parallel development of over-arching, society wide, normative and regulatory political mechanisms.

Here, two main aspects of Eisenstadt's above mentioned study i.e. political and bureaucratic(as analysed in the case of Pakistan) are worth mentioning.

In the political aspect, Eisenstadt observed that initially modern frameworks were established in different institutional fields particularly in the political one, but these constitutional regimes faltered, giving way, in their place to various autocratic and authoritarian or semi- authoritarian regimes.

The above conclusions made by the well-known sociologist were the result of his study completed in the early sixties and in the case of Pakistan, was an output of all the upheavals in the political history of Pakistan right from its inception i.e 14th August,1947 up to the promulgation of first Martial Law and army rule in the early days of October, 1958. The conclusions of the study are still found in the socio-political system of Pakistan.

The founder of the nation promised the people, during his struggle for the creation of Pakistan, that the independent state would be ruled by democratic principles and also with an assurance of providing all means towards the achievement of the modern amenities of life. But the immediate death of the founder of the nation, after a year

of independence, destroyed the hopes of the nation due to the seizure of power by top and high level members of the bureaucracy.

Eisenstadt's idea- that the failure of civil government was the ultimate result of the hold by the bureaucracy- is also clear from the facts mentioned below.

The next successor of the father of the nation- the late Mohammad Ali Jinnah- was Ghulam Mohammad, a civil bureaucrat, who was a member of the Audit and Accounts Service for about twenty years. This was the start of the bureaucrats capturing the highest state positions in the government, and was a clear symbol of autocratic and authoritarian rule which also provided opportunities to other bureaucrats like Choudhri Mohammad Ali- also a civil servant. He was first inducted as a Finance Minister, and then became the Prime Minister of the country. Similarly, another Governor General (after Ghulam Mohammad), was also a civil-cum-military bureaucrat, Iskandar Mirza, who served in both capacities as an army officer as well as a top civil officer. In the first instance he was also inducted in the cabinet as a Minister and then occupied the position as a Governor- General of Pakistan , on 14th October, 1955, due to the serious illness of Ghulam Mohammad, the Governor- General. Mirza also tried to prolong his authoritarian rule by providing a constitution to the country— the first after the independence. He switched over to the post of president on 23rd March,

1956, after the promulgation of the first constitution, of the independent state of Pakistan.

Cabinets and governments were frequently changed and reshuffled during the period of seven years i.e. 1951 to 1958. Though Mirza claimed credit for maintaining parliamentary rule in the country, the actual position is evident from the records in the political history of Pakistan, that all such arrangements were only a source of manoeuvring by him as a former bureaucrat with the help of some politicians in a mutual game of **drawing-room politics** for remaining in power without open public mandate i.e. general elections. Stephens (1963) also observed that there was no general election held during the said period.

Eisenstadt further mentioned in his study that the most extreme manifestations of situations of breakdown developed which resulted in a downfall of the initial constitutional regime, giving rise to new political frameworks, centred mainly around the bureaucracy.

The above conclusion of Eisenstadt's study was proved from the fact that, the first military rule in October, 1958, in Pakistan was the reaction of serious internal conflicts of politicians, when the army chief took over as the head of state and ruled for a period of more than a decade. This was not the first instance, but the country was also ruled by the army on two other occasions, for another period of nearly fifteen years, for

the same reasons.

The next issue in Eisenstadt's observation regarding the emergence of a new political framework controlled by the army of bureaucracy was evident from the fact that in 1962 Ayub Khan provided a second constitution to the country with new type of political structure and framework. This was commonly known as Basic democracy and was based on the election of each member from among a very limited population. These members became the electoral college for the election of the President, and the national and provincial assemblies. Not only this but other so-called democratic institutions like union councils, union committees, tehsil councils, district and divisional councils were also formed. These institutions were coated with democratic flavour but in real practice were controlled by the bureaucrats.

General Zia-ul-Hque, who ruled the country for more than a decade also introduced his political framework by amending the constitution of 1973. He introduced a selected House of Assembly, called "Majlis-e-Shoora" (the name used for the house of representatives during the early muslim history). When there was serious resistance by the public against the formation of the said House, and a demand for restoration of democracy, Zia then conducted general elections in 1985, on a non-party basis. The above mentioned actions were also different from the normal political procedures and were introduced for the

first time.

As mentioned earlier, after the death of the founder of the country, and the assassination of the first Prime Minister of Pakistan, factional politics took over the country. Burki (1969) maintains that this eventually led to a power vacuum which was willingly filled by the bureaucracy, particularly the civil service of Pakistan, up to 1958. In the absence of a strong bourgeoisie, post-colonial Pakistan developed into an administrative state, where bureaucracy, instead of being a class instrument, became relatively autonomous. (Alavi, 1972: 59-81).

Eisenstadt, observed that following the overthrow of political regimes, bureaucratic administration became once again very important foci of political processes and outlook.

It is true that due to the absence of effective political institutions, political power largely manifests itself through administrative elites composed of senior officers both from army and civil services and has dominated the political system of the country since its birth.

The political leaders in Pakistan are episodically replaced, but the power of the administrative system and the authority of the bulk of its officers is impervious to change. (Kennedy, 1987:5). This has therefore affected the behaviour and attitude of the officers. They became masters rather than public servants. This type of attitude

spread all over the country and among all the ranks of bureaucrats, from one regime to another. As a result of this, the bureaucracy became corrupt and inefficient. The abnormal attitude on the part of the bureaucrats has developed a strong hatred against them (the bureaucrats) within the society.

In my view, there is also another important reason for the failure of bureaucracy in Pakistan, which is due to the adopted patterns and norms of society. The question arises why the bureaucracy, instead of orienting itself to the service and development of nation-building, is more inclined towards outward dignity and status? The possible answer to the question is:

Firstly, for the reason that society in Pakistan is status-conscious, and Pakistani culture appears to place a high value on loyalty and obligation to one's family, kin and larger reference group-Biradari (caste group or lineage group). Helping co-members of these groupings is regarded as a social obligation. Traditional values of upholding and supporting one's family and Biradari create an ambivalence towards the rational values of bureaucratic organization.

Secondly, another practice is **Safarish**-a common practice and accepted institution in Pakistani culture. It literally means recommendation. It involves identifying an individual who is a friend or kinsman/ woman of the decision maker and using his good offices to solicit a

favourable decision. This may sometimes involve bribery. Given the customary importance of obligations to family and Biradari, it is rather rare for a public servant to refuse to play the safarish game. This further increases the public servant's ambivalence towards the rational and impersonal values of modern bureaucracy. It has also given birth to nepotism and has created much frustration among qualified youth who cannot get jobs. The results of recent elections held in October, 1990, are also a clear indication of anger by the youth in general, and those of the urban population in Sindh, in particular. People blamed the regime for the failure of bureaucracy in solving their everyday problems, like protection of life and property, provision of transport, education of children, health and hygiene facilities. On the other hand, the bureaucracy defends itself with an excuse that these problems were of a political nature and they were helpless to solve such problems .

The bureaucracy has been responsible for the implementation of policies in every modern society. To some extent it is true that the bureaucracy of Pakistan has been used by the regimes for their political ends, but on the whole they are to be held responsible for the pros and cons on account of failures in solving the problems of people. The autocratic attitude of the bureaucrats still needs change. They must adopt proper behaviour of sympathy and help for common people, without any

distinction.

Corruption is much more pervasive in the Pakistani bureaucracy. To a large extent, this is true of what has been referred to as **routinized corruption** . Every incoming regime has dismissed large groups of bureaucrats on corruption charges, uncovered misdeeds of the past regimes and has then reverted to business as usual.

The civil services of Pakistan, a network and symbol of dignity have been a dominating force in the history of Pakistan, and they have held enormous power and exceptional privilege. In the same way Hashmi (1987:78) observed, that in Pakistan there has been a government of secretaries most of the time.

In Pakistan the educational administration as a part of the same system also reflects the same view. So is the behaviour of an educational supervisor, who thinks of himself as an administrator to a greater extent rather than accepting the role of an academic adviser and a group consultant for teachers.

Other approaches in modernization

It will also be useful here to explore other approaches to social and cultural changes in developing societies and particularly societies like the one under study i.e. Pakistan with its typical historical, social, economic and cultural background.

Another approach is that of Karl Marx, in contrast to the pragmatic Western, liberal approach to modernization. Marxism rejects the emphasis on diversity of traditional ideas and institutions and the diversity of forms that a modern society may take. (Black, 1964: 22).

Marx had two different views of modernization about the West and non-European world. What is significant in Marx's discussion of modernization in Europe is that he does not attribute it to the industrial revolution and to technical change but rather predicates technological change and innovation on a prior change in social institutions , mores and societal behaviour. (Aveneri, 1969 :).

Marx's views on the possibilities of modernization in the non-European countries are far more complex . In his theory on the ' Asiatic mode of production ', Marx considers the basic traits of Asian societies, as stagnant, unchanging, non-dialectical, particularistic, limited and devoid of societal mechanism for change. Hence, he argues, the disturbing continuity and rigidity of Asian society despite political tumult and upheavals. In broad lines he designated the Asiatic, the ancient, the feudal and the modern bourgeois methods of production as so many epochs in the progress of the economic formation of the society.

One drawback of the Marxist hypothesis is that it

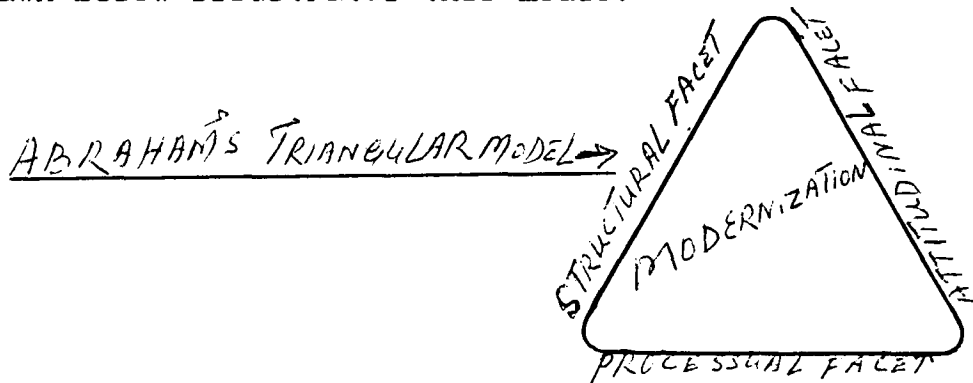
is reductionist and narrows down the entire process of change to the economic factor and the role of class-conflict in particular. The recent changes in the socialist, East European States have cast doubt on the internal consistency of the Marxist theory. But it has not usually been accepted to have had much relevance to a muslim society like Pakistan.

Another equally important approach to social change and under-development has been advanced by the indigenous, particularly the orthodox religious sector of the Muslim world popularly described as fundamentalism. This approach tends to disregard theories that have been advanced by the Pundits outside the Islamic world. For the religious orthodox, the problems of under-development of the Muslim societies can only be resolved by a return to the ideology of Islam which they insist is not merely a religious dogma but a total system. Late Maududi, the founder of Jamat-i-Islami (Islamic Party) of Pakistan, and a neo-traditionalist, despised modernists as "spineless imitators of the west" and the "arch enemy of Islam." (Smith, 1970 : 161).

Syed (1985 : 62-84) has mentioned that the Muslims of Pakistan want a society where they can live in accordance with the aspirations of modern times without losing their faith or the connection with their past which they cherish with great pride.

The modernist view is quite near to a theoretical

model produced by Abraham (1980) who has produced his triangular model showing the ingredients of modernization. This cross section of the modernization has three interdependent sides i.e structural, attitudinal and processual . Any changes in one facet will automatically lead to corresponding changes in the other two. Figure drawn below illustrates this model.



Structural facet implies increasing differentiation and integration of existing structures and the development of innovative institutional arrangements, as under:

1. Separation of economic relationships from other types of all-encompassing social relationships.
2. Formation of more specialized and autonomous units.
3. Establishment of the modern industry based on complex productive organization and the utilization of material sources of energy.
4. Emergence of new political institutions.
5. Expansion of formal educational systems and specialized occupational and professional groupings.

The attitudinal facet implies the transformation of traditional attitudes based on customs and religious belief systems into some form of secular rationality based on science and organized scepticism. Other elements of the behavioural facet include:

1. Greater achievement motivation.
2. Higher educational aspirations.
3. Revolution of rising expectations.
4. Emergence of egalitarian attitude.
5. Revolt against paternalism and authoritarianism.

The base of the triangular pyramid is a wide variety of processual changes which include the following:

1. Functional specialization.
2. New status roles.
3. Revolution in mass communication.
4. Voluntary abdication of several conventional functions associated with a traditional family.
5. Developmental planning and social catalysis promoted by official change agents.

The processual changes in the developing countries are buttressed by the emergence of nationalism, new political processes, managerial and professional functions associated with the new bureaucracy and a host of rational economic activities like commercial, agriculture, savings and investment and capital information.

3.4. Characteristics of traditional societies.

The majority of the population living in developing countries are tradition bound, therefore the study of traditional societies is essential towards understanding the development and persistence of such attitudes. The individual born into a traditional society is molded into specific role designed to fit the needs of that society. He is socialized to conform to the traditional pattern and to accept things as he finds them. The more the individual is molded by traditional structures, the more comfortable he feels within them and the more he benefits from them. (Riesman, 1961)

In order to acquire complete knowledge about traditional societies, it will be useful to discuss economic, cultural and political aspects of traditional societies.

The traditional economic system is related to the traditional social structures focused on the family and on family-based units such as the clan, tribe and village. The basic unit of production in a traditional society is the family. In general, traditional economic systems are poorly differentiated from the social system. They are not autonomous. Economic decisions tend to be made by the same individuals that make all other decisions. On the other hand the productive capacities of traditional economies are low, but their system's maintenance value is

considerably higher. Traditional cultures in spite of broad cultural variations have in common an overwhelming commitment to the preservation of status. Traditional individuals are socialized to view existing relationships as being inspired by tradition and sanctified by the supernatural. One does not question things divinely inspired; one accepts them. To tamper with traditional institutions is flagrantly to violate societal norms. Traditional individuals are socialized to believe and to learn quickly through interaction with their family. Any member of any unit who violates the norm or who would challenge tradition is to be scorned. (Hamady, 1954)

Attitudinal and behavioural patterns in traditional societies are influenced by the rigidity of traditional structures. Individuals behave and possess attitudes and values reflecting the impact of their environment. Traditional individuals are generally described as being fatalistic. They are believed to lack punctuality, haste or precision, public or community spiritedness, national consciousness or concern for the rights and property of others. They are seen as being excessively superstitious and non-rational and highly ethno-centric. (Kahl, 1968).

The political aspects of traditional societies are subject to considerable variations. Some traditional systems are organized along rigid, hierarchical lines, whereas in others traditional units are confederated in

various ways that fall somewhere between the rigidly hierarchical and the totally autonomous patterns. In spite of this diversity, traditional political systems share a variety of common characteristics, both structural and otherwise. Structurally, traditional political systems are poorly differentiated from the society as a whole. (Lenski, 1966).

3.5. Transformation of traditional societies.

All newly independent countries of the developing world, immediately after independence have been faced with the challenge of development and modernization. Their leadership, which itself had been trained during colonial rule, were aware of the fact that their countries were economically, technologically and educationally , extremely backward (Saqib, 1985: 33-44)

The transitional process from traditional society toward modern political social orders requires a host of changes in the policies and actions of those involved in the governing process as well as change in attitudes and belief system of individuals. The movement of traditional societies towards modernity has its political, social, economic and emotional dimensions. Change may, and often does, bring about tensions, stresses and strains between the ethos of those who deal in choices and values associated with modern systems and the ethos of those who wish to maintain the status quo. The clash between the

elements of the modernity and the guardians of traditions hinges on the scope and direction of change, the strength of emotional attachment to the past and the skills and communicative ability of the modernizing elites. (Massannat, 1987 : 107-18)

There is serious conflict between the forces which resist or frustrate the transformation process of modernization and those which like to adopt it. Sometimes this conflict takes the shape of civil war. It is a pre-requisite for the modernization of traditional societies to be successful in the political, economic and social spheres. The basic requirement for change in these areas is the modernization of attitudes.

The disengagement of modernizing elites in new nations from traditionalism is not so easy. Social customs, norms and beliefs are deeply rooted in the past. They affect most aspects of daily life. To reduce the hold or resistance of traditional elements is the important work facing modernizing elites in developing countries. (Welch, 1971 : 9)

Change may evolve from within the system or may come by adoption or adaptation from outside. Many modernizing elites naturally are more disposed toward functioning or technical innovations which pose little or no threat to their political power and the status quo, than they are toward institutional and policy innovations.

3.6. Continuity and change

Modernizing elites of developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America are simultaneously undermining and subverting the traditional, social and cultural systems, while incorporating traditional elements which withstood the pressures of change and attack.

Traditional political systems vary in their capacity to absorb or incorporate change. Throughout the above three continents, traditional continuity means cultural duality or the co-existence of traditional and modern elements side by side.

The reaction to change and the types of change vary from one traditional society to another. No society can live without tradition and the challenge facing the elites in the developing nations focuses on how to build and develop traditions of modernity. Modification of traditional norms and practices may be deliberate and the agents of change may consider them quite within the spirit of tradition, or, on the other hand, they may view them as contrary to that spirit. The modifications of traditional norms, beliefs and practices proceed at different rates in any society. Some segments of society are more likely to accept traditional norms and practices without any modification or change to any serious extent. However other segments of society may contribute modifications from different directions, and still within the same

society there are those who will strongly resist any modifications at all.

Modification of traditional norms and practices usually takes place in the form of small innovations by many persons who are not considered by others to deviate significantly, if at all, from tradition. The strength of tradition depends in part on the institutional procedures and structures by which it is inculcated and maintained and partly on the patterns of tradition itself. Moreover it is also a duty undertaken by intellectuals to change society in appropriate ways.

Developing nations have started to incorporate certain elements of western culture into their cultural setting. This process may lead to tensions and conflicts and even to the breakdown of traditional societies. However, despite tensions and conflict caused by external (western) and internal limitations such as social and cultural traditions, institutions etc, most of the Afro-Asian countries still seek rapid transformation by selecting what appears to have positive effects and rejecting what seems to have a negative or disruptive impact.

The transitional process from traditional society towards modern political and social orders requires a host of changes in the policies and actions of those involved in the governing process as well as a change in attitudes and belief systems of individuals. In this connection the

role of bureaucracy is most important because they are more involved in the governing process and execution of policies in any society. Without changing the behaviour and attitude of the bureaucracy towards modernization and innovation of new patterns, proper development and progress is not possible.

3.7. Role of bureaucracy

Political and economic development cannot be achieved without a competent bureaucracy. Regardless of how lofty the goals of the regime or how adept it is at generating enthusiasm for its programmes, policy decisions are not self enforcing. It is the bureaucracy which must transform hope into reality.

In developing countries the state has become the primary source of innovation in both the economic and social spheres as well. The development, promotion and solution of economic and social problems confronting the developing countries will either come from the state or (more than likely) will not come at all.

The effectiveness of the bureaucracy is a crucial factor in achieving the performance of the state's on-going day-to-day political and economic functions. Bureaucracy can even save the state in the case of a crisis caused by political instability. In this connection the example of the French Fourth Republic is important to cite here. The chronic political instability, which

plagued the republic, was frequently mitigated by the French bureaucracy. Cabinets fell on the average of one every seven months, yet the french bureaucracy was able to carry on near-normal operation of the state affairs. If bureaucracies in developing countries can play a similar role, the problem of continuity and political change may become somewhat less crucial.

Four problem areas have seriously impaired the effectiveness of bureaucracies in the developing states:

- (1) structural problems.
- (2) Problems relating to administrative attitudes and behaviour.
- (3) Problems of client attitudes, and
- (4) Problems relating to political inputs into the administrative systems.

(Palmer, 1973 : 158)

It is necessary to discuss the above problems in detail, in order to find the method of understanding the related problems of this study.

3.7.1. Institutional and structural problems.

Theoretically, modern bureaucracies are based on Max Weber's 'rational-legal' model. In this model, administrative units are rationally structured to maximize efficiency. Responsibility and authority are balanced,

with lines of responsibility clearly drawn to minimize the incidence of overlapping and duplication. Rules are specific in content and universal in application. Employees are recruited and promoted solely on the basis of achievement. Bureaucracies of the United States and other developed states rarely approach this model. The bureaucratic situation in the developing countries is even less optimistic.

Former colonial territories inherited bureaucratic structures patterned after those of the mother country. However well such administrative arrangements may have worked in the European environment, their role in the colonies was primarily a negative one of maintaining internal security. The function of the colonial bureaucracy was to control the masses, not to mobilize them for purposes of national development. Regardless of the feeble efforts to the contrary which marked the latter years of British and French rule, the overwhelming weight of colonial bureaucratic systems fell squarely on the perpetuation of a tradition-oriented status-quo. Even India, the state perhaps deriving the greatest benefit from its colonial legacy, was left unprepared to face independence in the crucial areas of resource mobilization and planning. (Appleby, 1957)

When colonies achieved independence, they acquired the full burden of economic development as well as the responsibility for a host of administrative activities

previously assumed by the colonial power. Crash programmes became the order of the day, and the necessity for haste precluded a rational reordering of existing administrative structures in line with the rational-legal model. New functions were either scattered more or less indiscriminately among existing units or were allocated to hastily conceived organizations bearing little relationship to the internal consistency or logical ordering of the total system. (Braibanti, 1966)

The frequent result was inefficiency, waste and disenchantment.

3.7.2. Attitudinal and behavioural problems.

In the developing countries, the task of the bureaucracy is not only to run an on-going system according to well-established procedures but also to build a state. In order to achieve this , bureaucrats must be willing to take the initiative to experiment and to seek alternative ways of problem-solving. Innovative behaviour calls for a certain amount of flexibility and a willingness to bend formal procedures to meet the task at hand. It also requires that superiors be willing to delegate authority to their employees and to provide them with both latitude and support in their efforts to find solutions for an expanding chain of problems. Bureaucrats must be sufficiently dedicated to the concept of a state to put aside the constant pressures of nepotism and

parochialism prevalent and regarded as "normal" in traditional societies. They must subscribe to an ethic of professionalism which places quality performance above the temptations of petty corruption and shoddy work. (Berger, 1957)

The attitudes and behaviour of bureaucrats in most of the developing countries are not conducive to either innovation or to the efficient administration of the affairs of the state. Almost without exception, surveys of developing bureaucracies have condemned the lack of innovative behaviour and the formalistic and unimaginative manner in which rules are interpreted and applied.

The lack of innovative behaviour among bureaucrats has also been attributed to the general lack of innovative behaviour in the cultures from which they are drawn. The lack of innovation and flexibility in developing bureaucracies is particularly evident in attitudes concerning the delegation and assumption of authority. Just as bureaucrats have manifested a reluctance to innovate, they have also been reluctant either to delegate authority to subordinates or to assume responsibility for problems not specifically assigned to their job description. Due to structural confusions as discussed above, this occurs with great frequency.

Bureaucrats throughout the developing countries appear to have a pervasive concern with status, and

authority breeds status (Hagen, 1962 : 76-83). The greater the authority concentrated in the hands of one person, the more other individuals must deal directly with that person to acquire the desired service. Not only do such attentions enhance the prestige of the supervisor, they also assure that any reciprocal favours will go directly to him, not his subordinates. This delegation of authority blurs status lines and the concentration of authority reinforces them.

Subordinates, for their part, appear just as happy to be free from the burdens and risks of decision making. Minor bureaucrats tend to dodge responsibility by passing on to their superiors matters that should have been decided well down the line. The end result is that high-level officials are swamped with petty decisions and have correspondingly less time to devote to their appropriate tasks.

The above problems are also due to the behaviour and attitudes reflecting both parochialism and a lack of professionalism. This is common on the part of middle-range and minor officials. Parochialism is a fact of life in most traditional societies. Dedication to professional ethic has also been slow to take root in the lower reaches of most developing bureaucracies. The work habits of the bureaucrats are also substandard as their performance tends to be sluggish.

3.7.3. Problems related to public attitudes and behaviour.

Bureaucrats in developing countries must further cope with a general lack of civic consciousness or collective orientations on the part of the masses they serve. Appeals to comply with regulations or to make sacrifices for the sake of public good tend to fall on deaf ears. (Bird and Olman, 1964).

The problem of bureaucracies in developing countries are further compounded by the difficulties of gaining the confidence of the masses. They are objects of doubt and suspicion. The concept of the bureaucrat as 'friend of the people' is too new in most of the developing countries to have taken firm root. Much of the doubt and suspicion directed at bureaucrats also reflects long traditions of ethnic, religion and class hostilities. The masses make the basic the assumption that bureaucrats are mostly influenced by religious, ethnic, sectarian and other parochial considerations and act accordingly.

3.7.4. Problems of political intervention.

In addition to the various problems of structure, personnel and clientele, the bureaucratic process in the developing countries is hampered by a constant flow of political inputs that are dysfunctional to the goals of rationality and professionalism.

A change of regime is likely to result in the

removal of incumbents who are out of favour with the new leadership or whose position is needed for another with a stronger claim to reward. Politicians have also shown little reluctance to urge the promotions of their supporters or to shelter them from charges of incompetence or corruption.

The inefficiency of many bureaucracies in developing countries has also been the direct result of the excessive demands placed upon them. In their enthusiasm to solve centuries-old problems overnight, reform-minded regimes have cranked out welfare and reform legislation at a pace far exceeding the capacity of their bureaucratic systems to administer them. Bureaucracies already thin on talent can only stretch so far before they break down.

It is however concluded that morale and public image of bureaucracies in many developing countries has suffered from the tendency of many regimes to utilize the bureaucracy as a whipping boy for all of the regime's inadequacies.

Parsons (1967-a: 503-7) assigns 'bureaucratic organisation' a special position and place in the evolutionary process. From a certain level of development, societies can only achieve a higher degree of long-term adaptability if bureaucratic structures are institutionalized. He emphasises the general importance of bureaucratic characteristics for adaptation and change of

social systems.

3.8. Change of organizational personnel.

Organizations require human resources in order to attain their goals. When personnel is considered as a structural dimension of organizations, one can think of organizational members not as individuals *per se* but as those who hold certain orientations and have a certain theoretical and practical knowledge (Luhman, 1969: 9).

In general, personnel change may take place in two ways. Either it can be brought about by recruitment and internal distribution or by education and socialization. The literature on organizational change focuses much attention on changing personnel through individual counselling, sensitivity training and group therapy (Schein and Bennis, 1965; Bennis, 1966; Dunette and Campbell, 1970). This suggests that change in the personnel dimension increasingly becomes the bottle-neck of organizational adaptive capacity. These studies, however, do not adequately consider the influence of the dimension of programmes or the dimension of authority and communication on personnel change (Katz and Kahn, 1966: 390). A high rate of personnel change will only be possible when there is a decentralized communication structure and distribution of competence, along with a flexible rule system.

Change in personnel resources is a means of organizational change; one that can be achieved either by recruiting from the outside or by internal training(Hage and Aiken, 1970 : 94). When more rapid or dramatic change is desired, the recruitment of external personnel seems more suitable because established attitudes and patterns of relation prevent radical alteration of extant personnel through training. Again the problem of financial resources needed to implement the change.

Success of organizational change is not simply secured by making available sufficient personnel and financial resources. A number of characteristic dilemmas follow, which threaten the proposed organizational change from many sides. Implementation of an innovation requires new positions that must be integrated into the existing authority structure.

A second dilemma refers to the problem of transforming a change from the realm of planning and control to lower organizational members concerned with the actual execution. In this situation, the cooperation of participants immediately involved becomes crucial for the success of change process. From this perspective, democratic processes of consensus-shaping are viewed as prerequisites for successful change. Successful change therefore requires participation of all concerned members during implementation.

Organizations today are characteristically

confronted with problems of both extremes i.e. monotony and rigid bureaucratic regularity in many spheres. Far-reaching member participation in all organizational activities opens new possibilities for personal meaning, realization and legitimation. The increase of motivation by participation is among the basic principles of modern personnel management(Maslow, 1970; Herzberg et al., 1959).

The above mentioned discussion provides the conclusion that democratization with full member participation, continued expansion of professional training and orientation may help counteract organizational alienation.

3.9. Modernization of Education.

There is an important difference between the modernization of education and the modernization of the society as it is commonly understood. The modernizing process is usually linked with the break from tradition, the application of science and technology to meet increasing needs and desires and the attainment of high standards of living. The visible expressions of a modern society are large cities and urban areas, accumulations of capital and wealth, the ever-increasing mechanization of modes of living and the spread of material comfort, reason and enlightenment among the people. On the whole, modern society is attractive and progressive; and modernization is universally coveted by the so-called developing countries, which places great stress on education as an important instrument of change and development. The modernizing of education in south Asia started after the end of second World War in 1945 and has continued over the last four decades.

Education, however, has larger ends than modernization of society, and the modernizing of education is still a need in all countries, developed and developing, rich and poor.

The modernization of education can be based on three general premises which need to be defined in detail for each society:

1. Education must be related closely and meaningfully to the life, needs and aspirations of contemporary man living in a rapidly changing society. This is an enormous task. It is evident that the traditional system has little relation to modern life and to the needs and aspirations of young people. The systems must be transformed from within by new methods, more relevant and meaningful programmes and dynamic institutions capable of wise and concerted action.

2. The concept of education should be widened to life-long education. The different levels of education need to be integrated more closely. The school, the university and the institutions of higher education and research form a related whole and should grow together. Formal education must be integrated with informal education and leisure time activities. The rapidity of change and the revolutionary developments in communication make life-long integrated education both necessary and feasible.

3. Educational change must be planned in close relation to the overall plan of social and economic development. The scientific planning of education and efficient implementation of plans by more effective management, research and evaluation are essential for modernization.

Consciously or unconsciously these traits of modern education have been accepted in all countries of

the developing world. They play an important role in defining objectives, evolving programmes and shaping the instruments of action. The quality of education lies at the heart of educational change, for only a good education can both serve as an effective instrument of economic and social development and enrich the quality of life by integrating society and giving more scope and freedom to the individual. The spread of education among all sections of the population is a part of the quality of education. What is to be deplored is the waste, stagnation and maladjustment that take place often on a staggering scale. This results in the loss of precious human effort and scarce material resources.

The problems met in the search for quality of education can be illustrated from the experience of Pakistan, where the process of modernizing society as well as education has proceeded with varying measures of success and failure.

Independence brought new problems and formidable tasks, among which education stood prominently. The dissatisfaction with the system inherited from the past was universal. Undoubtedly the educational system planted by the British rule was inappropriate and outdated. The system was dominated by cramming, external examination, overburdened curricula, seriously handicapped by inadequately trained and poorly paid teachers, outmoded supervision and meagre physical amenities.

Apart from its irrelevance to new conditions and objectives, it had not achieved sufficient quantitative expansion or any appreciable equality of educational opportunity, and the wastage and stagnation at all levels was colossal. It was evident that a drastic reconstruction of the entire system was necessary if education was to contribute effectively to the achievement of the goals of national development by providing and ensuring equal educational opportunities to all citizens of Pakistan.

The concept of national planning was accepted every where, but within its predominantly economic role, borrowed largely from alien thought and practices. Educational planning took some time to establish itself as a normal, continuing activity. Pakistan's first attempts at the planning of education were sporadic and inadequate. From 1955 Pakistan had a National Planning Board (presently National Planning Commission) and five-year plans were launched in which education figured as an important national activity. During the course of all five-year plans implemented up to this time, considerable progress was made but educational planning suffered from the fact that there was no long term comprehensive plan integrated into an overall national plan. Planning was largely confined to financial and quantitative projections.

A new era in education planning started with the appointment of the National Commission on Education, in

1959. This commission was set up to examine all levels and aspects of education and to recommend suitable measures for long-term national policy in the field of education.

The commission made an unprecedented attempt to mobilize international thinking and experience for the planning of a national system. The report of the commission turned out to be a comprehensive document dealing with problems of educational planning and development. Unfortunately not only this, but three more subsequent policies announced in 1970, 1972 and 1979 in continuation of this report, have achieved very little progress in modernizing the education as compared to lengthy promises made in these policies.

The above failures are the result of administrative machinery which continues to be of the traditional type.

3.10. Bureaucracy and politics in Pakistan

One of the fundamental problems which has challenged the integrity of Pakistan concerns its inability to achieve balanced levels of institutional development. Pakistan inherited a political system from Britain which was crafted to suit the needs of a colonial power i.e. its overriding concern was to rule a subject people. As a consequence, the primary tool to effect this control, the administrative system, inherited by the new state, demonstrated highly complex patterns of organization, well-established forms of socialization for its members and a remarkable degree of institutional autonomy. Countervailing institutions, most particularly those responsible for ensuring governmental responsiveness to the demands of the public (legislature, interest groups, political parties and local government institutions) existed in only an attenuated form. This development gap has widened since partition. Most importantly, Pakistan has been unable to establish the precedent of orderly succession of political leaders.

The results of the four national elections held in Pakistan (1965, 1970, 1977 and 1985) have each been challenged as invalid by the losers . Given such a context the concept of a loyal opposition has never emerged in Pakistan, nor has the role of political parties been very significant. One consequence of such a fragmented and contentious political culture has been the emergence of

the military as the dominant political actor in the state. Pakistan has been subject to extensive periods of military rule and periods of dominance by civilianized military leaders. Even when the military is in the barracks, they have exerted a veto power on the political system. Such military dominance has exacerbated the inherited gap between the capabilities of the civil bureaucracy and orthodox political institutions.

3.10.1. Role of bureaucracy in Pakistan.

Indeed, successive governments in Pakistan (military and non-military) have remained exceedingly dependent on the civilian bureaucracy for all phases of the policy process. Conversely, civil bureaucrats have viewed the growth of political institutions as an inherent challenge to their authority.

The civil bureaucracy of Pakistan has been instrumental in the determination of governmental policy regarding each of the foregoing issues.

Firstly, as an institution the civil bureaucracy is a natural ally of the secular vision of the Pakistan polity. Both the selection process of new recruits and the socialization process are conducive to this outcome. Indeed, the civil bureaucracy constitutes the most westernized sector of the elite in Pakistan. Consequently, the civil bureaucracy served to counter the more extreme

proponents of an Islamic state in the early fifties and, since 1977, they have served to moderate the effects of the implementation of the Nizam-i-Islam. Similarly, the adoption of Islamic reforms have had only a marginal impact on the structure and administrative practices of Pakistan's bureaucracy.

Secondly, due in part to the crucial role played by the civil bureaucracy in the political system of Pakistan, the issue of fair regional representation of the bureaucracy has also been deemed crucial. In the absence of significant institutions of political representation, one dominant method of securing representation for an ethno-regional group is to reserve position in the bureaucracy for one's relevant nationals. Consequently every government since partition has employed a system of regional quotas to determine selection to the civil bureaucracy. Indeed, one of the issues which led to the secession of East Pakistan was the perception that Bengalis were systematically underrepresented in Pakistan's bureaucracy. (Jahan, 1972)

Thirdly, a compelling argument could be made that the very existence of the highly developed and complex civil bureaucracy of Pakistan has impeded the parallel development of alternative political institutions. In fact, a fairly accurate way to view the political history of Pakistan is to conceive of the system as manifesting the successive dominance of political leaders, who ruled

through sufferance of the civil and military bureaucracy. The political leaders are episodically replaced, but the power of the administrative system and the authority of the bulk of its officers is impervious to change.

Patently, the bureaucracy of Pakistan not only serves as the primary executive branch of government, but in the absence of countervailing institutions, as the primary legislative branch as well. Further this power, except for temporary incursions by political leaders, is not directly subject to popular control.

3.11. Education and society in Pakistan.

The role of education in the social construction of a society can not be adequately understood unless it is examined in the context of historically evolving material structures of the society and the superstructure that supports and maintains them.

At the time of independence Pakistan was predominantly a semi-feudal country. It inherited a colonial system of education dominated by the foreign bourgeoisie and installed in the country a century earlier (Zaman 1981 : 32), The educational policies pursued by the bureaucratic elite in this country have their roots in the colonial-feudal structures obtaining at the time of independence.

In the colonial period the educational system was intended to perform two main tasks. First it was to create a faithful ruling elite who would serve the interests of the colonial ruler. Second, it was to produce a class of lower level local functionaries to help in the day-to-day administration of colonial rule. (Rauf 1983: 331). Special schools were established in the Indian sub-continent for the sons of the indigenous ruling elite: for example, Aitcheson College, Lahore (known as chiefs college), which has even survived into republican Pakistan.

Qureshi (1975 :152) has remarked on the exclusive institutions established for the privileged classes and has asserted that these institutions produced a corps of privileged elite, destined to lead because of their western training. An elite so denationalized as to be alien in its own country with nothing but the most outrageous attempt for its traditions, culture and languages. Curle (1966: 6), once an adviser to Government of Pakistan, has also endorsed the above version and mentioned:

Clearly education was not thought of as a means of promoting democracy, or spreading egalitarianism, or increasing social mobility. On the contrary, its role was to maintain the status quo, to strengthen the ruling caste, to make them wiser and better rulers, to reinforce the ideology upon which their power rested.

Right from the birth of Pakistan this elite has dominated its policies in every field. The educational

policies pursued in the first three five-year plans show a continuation of the elitist bias and a selective approach to the expansion of various levels of education. The selective approach was based on the view that the economy should evolve in a particular way and that the task of the educational system was to supply trained personnel to fill the jobs opened up by its expansion. Curle (1966 :66) rightly notes the contradiction:

Pakistan, which was on record as striving, through its five-year plans, for a society which was variously described as a welfare state and one based on Islamic socialism, was educationally wedded in practice more than in theory to a selective approach.

Zaman (1981: 45) pointed out that the educational opportunity was not equally open to all students on the basis of merit and generated a bitter feeling of frustration among the young people. There was no national cohesion in the system of education as pointed out by the proposals for a new education policy (Government of Pakistan, 1969). There remained three parallel systems of educational organisation. Firstly, the modern schools started during the colonial era, with national language as the medium of instruction. Secondly, the costly and exclusive public schools (for the elite) with English as the medium of instruction, started and run both under private management and by Government patronage. Thirdly, Islamic schools teaching Arabic and religious

subjects. There was thus no uniformity nor consistency of educational aims in the country even at the level of primary education.

The elitist public schools, though supported by public funds, catered for the needs of the privileged classes who by birth and position were trained to take up leadership in social, political and economic fields. The system thus strengthened class distinctions and created parallel sections even among the educated classes. On the other hand too much was left to private enterprise without any consideration to the requirements of educational planning. The result was a lop-sided expansion in the humanities rather than a balanced development of scientific, vocational and technical skill according to the needs of the country.

The development and spread of the private schools was largely a post-independence phenomenon in the large urban centres. Many were licensed as charitable institutions, but were, indeed operated on a profit-making basis that sometimes reached scandalous proportions (Korson, 1974 : 130). Many of the private institutions were notorious for underpaying teachers, withholding salaries and other abuses. This was also because many such teachers were less qualified, and therefore were open to exploitation by the owners and operators of such institutions.

Supervision of educational institutions has also

been considered as ineffective. Supervisors are often untrained in academic management and there is relatively little incentive for them to improve their skills in the field. (Hayes, 1987: 87). Administrative supervision has been essentially concerned with procedural issues which teachers regard as control rather than direction. Supervisors are generally overburdened. Detailed discussion regarding supervision of schools in Pakistan and related literature of supervision will be carried out in the next part of the thesis.

These weaknesses resulted in making the educational system incapable of responding to the needs and requirements of the nation on the one hand and failing to promote a national consensus on the other.

In order to reinvigorate education after independence, successive Governments in Pakistan have taken several measures. All such steps have tended to result in education moving backwards as an organised system although the aim throughout has been to produce an integrated national educational programme.

One of the most important policies announced in 1972, was the revolutionary one. This policy came after the country faced its hard time of breakup and separation of the eastern part, now an independent state (Bangla Desh). The Government which came into power, with huge problems and challenges, announced its policy (Government of Pakistan, 1972) in order to remove the defects of the

older system. The leader of the Pakistan Peoples Party and head of the state remarked that ever since Pakistan became independent, education had remained a neglected sector of the body politic; the whole approach had been misconceived, for it aimed only at producing from the privileged classes an elite to rule the country. It was felt that the time was appropriate to make education the right of the ordinary citizen instead of a privilege of the elite. The opportunity for education must be afforded to every citizen of Pakistan regardless of race, religion, sex, origin or birth, and the aim must be to attain universal literacy as quickly as possible. It was also emphasised that the type of education provided must meet the needs of the country. There must be a massive shift away from aimless general education to agro-technical studies to meet national requirements.

The Government assumed direct responsibility for providing educational opportunities for the whole population. Primary education was declared compulsory. Up to secondary school standard education was declared free, but in phases, by the end of 1974. Text books and writing materials were provided free of cost to pupils in the schools. The new and extended responsibility of the Government in the educational sphere was illustrated by the nationalisation of all 178 privately-managed colleges and about 37,00 schools in the provinces of Punjab and Sindh. The salaries and service conditions of the staff of

these institutions, which were far from being satisfactory, were brought into line with those prevailing in government service. As a result, working conditions for teachers and levels of instruction were standardised. Tuition fees also followed a uniform pattern. (Williams 1975: 165-66)

Due to nationalisation, a number of schools and teachers under the management of provincial governments increased, and it was also a policy matter to reorganise the structure of the supervisory system of education, throughout the country. Since education is a provincial subject, each province was competent enough in reshaping its educational organisation.

This study will look into the impact of reorganisation, its success and failure through the evaluation of field work conducted in the province of Sindh. After that analysis some suggestions for an appropriate supervisory system of school education, will be made.

3.12. Socio-political changes in Pakistan.

Since independence in 1947, successive governments in Pakistan have faced a myriad of political, economic and social problems associated with national development. National aspirations were greater than the capacity or resources necessary to satisfy them (Laporte and Burki, 1984).

Pakistan was carved out of those parts that were on the periphery of the political and economic centres of the British Indian Empire. The existing portions of Pakistan were likewise outposts of the Empire. Only Punjab province, out of the existing four provinces of Pakistan was fertile and was known as northern India's bread basket, before partition. The other three provinces i.e. Sindh, North West Frontier and Baluchistan had negligible economic resources. There was no industrial base in the territorial boundaries of Pakistan at the time of independence. None of the major cities had any economic significance prior to independence nor was there any indigenous commercial or professional talent. In brief, natural resources were undeveloped and human resources were scarce at the time of Pakistan's birth.

During the first decade of independence (1947-1957) many serious national problems were faced by the country. On the one hand rehabilitation of millions of refugees, who migrated from India to Pakistan, was a big challenge, and on the other, the country had by then lost

its two top political leaders, the father of the nation, Mohammad Ali Jinnah and his Prime Minister, Liaquat Ali Khan. The departure of the above two leaders, created a big vacuum of leadership for the nation. The civil-military bureaucracy took advantage of the situation and started sharing power with politicians. Ghulam Mohammad, a civil servant, was elevated to the position of Governor General. He became so powerful that he illegally dismissed the second Prime Minister, Khwaja Nazimuddin (Jahan, 1972).

This was the start of involvement of civil-military bureaucrats in national politics and opened a path for other civil-military bureaucrats like Iskandar Mirza, Choudhri Mohammad Ali, Ayub Khan, Yahya Khan, Zia-ul-Haque and Ghulam Ishaque Khan, who occupied the positions as heads of state and Government during the last 40 years. Frequent confrontation among politicians during the above period led to the circumstances of army intervention with joint decision-making by two civilian-military bureaucrats, Iskandar Mirza and Ayub Khan. The former was an army general and inducted to civil bureaucracy, who became the first president of the country under the constitution of 1956. The latter was chief of the Army under the first president.

The second decade started with imposition of Martial law in the country with the connivance of both Mirza and Khan, in the first week of October, 1958. After

a fortnight, Ayub Khan ousted Iskandar Mirza and became the head of state. He ruled for more than a decade (1958-69). Many historians and well known authors called him the pioneer of modernization in Pakistan, as the country entered a new stage of economic planning under the philosophy of laissez-faire (Rashid and Gardezi, 1983).

The third decade (1969-79) brought many changes in the political history of the country. It was during this period, when a decade of reforms was celebrated on the one hand and on the other hand a wave of unrest and hatred was created among the people against the army general Ayub Khan. He was compelled under the circumstances to hand over the power to the next general, Yahya Khan. Yahya took power promising to transfer it to the civilian leaders, immediately after conducting general elections. During the election a situation of mistrust was created among the politicians of the western and eastern wings. This resulted in delay in the transfer of power in a peaceful manner on the one hand and a serious civil war in the eastern part, on the other hand. With an involvement of foreign power, the country was disintegrating.

The above mentioned unfortunate event in the history of Pakistan, compelled the army to handover power to the head of a political party (Pakistan Peoples party) who won a majority of the national assembly seats in the western part. The leader of this party, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, became civilian Martial Law Administrator in the

first instance and then changed his position to be a president and Prime Minister gradually.

In 1971 a shrunken and politically demoralized country entered a new phase of its history. Many problems like that of 90,000 prisoners of war, an unsound economy and the non-fulfillment of promises to the nation under the party manifesto and banner of Islamic socialism were an open challenge to the Government. In order to meet the challenge some drastic steps were announced by taking over many industrial units, commercial banks, insurance companies and educational institutions (schools and colleges) under the direct control of the Government, through a nationalization programme.

Before the ultimate aims and results of the above mentioned policy could be seen, this government faced an open challenge in the shape of mass agitations, after the announcement of the results of general elections, conducted in March, 1977. Due to continuous and serious disturbance all over the country against the civilian Government, the army took over in a bloodless coup. Plans and policies outlined by the deposed leader were not fulfilled, due to his early removal from power.

General Zia-ul-Haque, who deposed Bhutto, also ruled for more than a decade with a slogan of Islamization of the entire system and the whole society. He stressed that Pakistan was created in the name of Islam and would

continue to survive only if it sticks to Islam. (Richter, 1979). In order to achieve that goal, the announcement of Islamic laws, the creation of Zakat* and Ushr* Fund, establishment of International Islamic University at Islamabad etc., were the main steps taken by this Government.

There was, however, still a demand by the political parties for the restoration of democracy. In 1985 elections were held on a non-party basis, without the participation of political parties. In the same year, Zia's one-sided selection as a President of the country, through a referendum of the general public also took place.

Mohammad Khan Junejo, who was appointed as Prime Minister by the president, for five years term, in 1985, as a result of non-party election in the country, later affiliated himself with Muslim League. Thus the governments at federal level as well as in the four provinces, started functioning under the flag of this political party. The Prime minister announced a five point programme for the development of the country. One of the main points was the enhancement of the literacy rate in the country to a great extent.

* Zakat, is one of the five pillars of Islam. It is leviable on the total wealth of a person at the rate of 2.5 %.

* Ushr, is land tax. The produce of Barani(rainfall) land can be taxed at the rate of one tenth and irrigated land at the rate of 5 %.

In May, 1988 the entire cabinets, central and provincial were dissolved, along with national and provincial assemblies. This was done before the completion of the normal term. The reasons for such a severe action were stated to be allegations of serious inefficiency and corruption in the Government machinery. Immediately after this action, Care-taker governments were appointed for the central as well as the four provinces. There was no care-taker Prime Minister for Central Government. President Zia, also announced the conduct of general elections to be held on 16th: November, 1988. But soon after this announcement, Zia died in a plane crash, in early August, 1988. The chairman of the Senate (upper house), Ghulam Ishaque Khan, formerly a civil bureaucrat, took over as a president of the country.

The general elections were held according to schedule. The Pakistan Peoples Party, which got the highest number of seats in the national assembly was invited to form a government at the central level. Mrs. Benazir Bhutto, the acting chair person of the party, took over as Prime Minister of the country in December, 1988. This is first experience in the political history of the country, that a woman achieved this position.

It is worth mentioning that after a continuous struggle of eleven years, the democratic atmosphere in Pakistan was restored. The people of Pakistan once again realised that they were ruled by their own elected

representatives . Unfortunately, this Government did not continue beyond 20 months . On 6th: of August,1990, the President of Pakistan dissolved the national and provincial assemblies in the country by dismissing the Government of Benazir Bhutto at the centre and entire provincial Governments. In his broadcast to the nation the President of Pakistan expressed his dissatisfaction about the elected representatives and alleged that the Government in power was corrupt and inefficient. It will not be out of place to mention here that the same reasons were quoted for the dissolution of Junejo Government by the president and the Chief of Army staff the late General Mohammad Zia-ul- Haque, in May, 1988.

Immediately after this action, the President of Pakistan appointed the leader of the opposition in the defunct National Assembly, Ghulam Mustafa Jatoi, as a care-taker Prime Minister of Pakistan until the fresh elections in the end of October,1990. Not only this, but the country was placed under Emergency Law, which usually removes the basic civil rights of the people.

The results of the elections in October, 1990 gave a majority of seats to the Islamic Alliance (a combination of nearly ten parties) at the National Assembly as well as some provincial assemblies. Therefore, the country is now ruled by the Islamic alliance under the Prime-Ministership of Mian Nawaz Sharif, the industrialist from Lahore.

Pakistan has faced several political crises during its brief history of independent life. This has resulted in great turmoil and given birth to political instability in the country. Due to the absence of public representation in the Governments from time to time, bureaucrats have been ruling the country with autocratic behaviour and abuse of their authority.

On account of the above mentioned situation in the country, the bureaucrats considered themselves to be in control of the country. Their autocratic behaviour has changed the attitude of bureaucracy in every organisation. They have been involved in the politics of the country and have been watching the activities of elected representatives. Not only this, but the civil bureaucrats have viewed the growth of political institutions as an inherent challenge to their authority (Kennedy, 1987) .

This attitude on the part of the bureaucrats on important positions has compelled the middle cadre and even junior bureaucrats to follow the footsteps of their seniors.

The bureaucracy in educational management and supervision is also part and parcel of the same system. Educational Administrators and Supervisors in the country have automatically applied the same line of action by following the exact path.

The above mentioned sad situation in the country is due to ill-formed tradition by the bureaucrats at the

top. The purpose and objectives of educational administration, though they are different from those of the general administration and are mainly aimed at the improvement of the learning situation, tended to develop in the same way.

The entire discussion in this chapter ends with the conclusion that due to the absence of constant democratic rule and the involvement of bureaucrats in sharing power, an atmosphere of autocratic reign prevailed in the country. This has also affected the educational administration. The prevailing critical role of a supervisor in education is also a reflection of socio-political conditions and changes.

The following chapter will analyse this aspect of educational administration in detail.

CHAPTER IV

SURVEY OF LITERATURE: THEORIES OF ORGANIZATIONS AND MODELS OF SUPERVISION

In this chapter the concepts and models of educational organization and supervision available in the literature will be discussed. Relevant theories of supervision along with theories concerned with the role, functions and skills of supervisors will be reviewed. There will also be discussion about the basis for successful supervision of secondary schools in Sindh.

4.1 Concept of educational organization.

The increase in population and in the number of schools has led to the establishment of administrative organizations. Schools, as Handy and Aitken(1986) defined, are also organizations.

Like any other formal organization, every educational organization adapts to its environment, identifies goals, maintains itself internally and grows in size and power. The concept of educational organization may become more clear if we consider the characteristics of administrative organization. Blau and Scott(1962 : 32-33) developed this model and characterized their own focus in the following passage:

What is a scientifically relevant description of an organization ? It is a description that so far as possible, designates for each person in the organization what decisions that person makes, and the influence to which he is subject in making each of these decisions.

So far as the question of authority is concerned, we may define educational organization according to the form of legal authority. This is one of the three types of authority defined by Weber (1947: 210-216), who developed the concept of bureaucracy and its characteristics. This legal or legal-rational authority is legitimated by a belief in the supremacy of the law. This type assumes the existence of a formally established body of social norms designed to have the desired outcomes for the pursuit of specified goals. In this system there is a set of impersonal principles and everybody working in that organization has to work according to the requirements of these laws. There are higher offices, and the higher position holders command the work and behaviour of their subordinates. However, they themselves are bound by certain limits and restrictions in their work and behaviour and their authority is also limited. In such a type of authority, laws or rules govern the actions of human beings and put chains and restrictions on their individual will and skills.

Almost all modern administrative organizations, including educational establishments, are bureaucratically

organized. Many of the bureaucratic principles that have been incorporated into the organizational practices of educational enterprise were explained by Litwak(1961: 82), alongwith explanatory remarks on Weber's model of bureaucracy in the following words:

Weber's model of bureaucracy can be characterized on the basis of merit, authority and obligations which are organized on a hierarchical basis, separation of bureaucracy being concerned with administrative decisions, general rules for governing all behaviour not specified by the above, and finally specialization.

In Weber's view the above mentioned organizing principles maximise rational decision-making and administrative efficiency. The bureaucratic principles identified in educational organizations are the same as defined by Weber, such as the need for specialization, separation of teaching from administration, division of grades, the clearly defined hierarchy of authority, the use of general rules to control behaviour of the members of the organization, employment based upon teaching competence, and promotions determined by seniority and by achievement. Thus the school organization can accurately be described as a highly developed bureaucracy.

However, much criticism has been advanced against Weber's analysis about the aspects of bureaucracy. The main criticism is that Weber ignores the informal relations. Organizations are social structures also and the members of that structure interact with each other

from the social perspectives point of view of human nature. The interaction gives rise to friendship, unofficial exchange systems and conflict. Whatever informal patterns of human behaviour may arise in an organisation, if it is one authoritarian type bureaucratically oriented enterprise there is going to be a strict and rigid set of norms and the individuals working in that organization have to achieve the institutional goals, guided by pre-set behavioural patterns only.

Like all other organizations, educational organizations have goals and they have to make provision for continuing activities directed towards the achievement of these goals. For this the organization allocates jobs and exercises authority. They clarify each job describing specific details assigning each job certain responsibilities and certain sources including the amount of authority for implementing given tasks, and then ensure conformity to the job prescription. Such regularities constitute the organization's structure and differences in structure related to the variations in different objectives of organizations.

Educational organizations tend to be linked into the national and local system in different ways in nations with centralized as compared with decentralized governments and in turbulent as opposed to slowly changing societies. Nations with centralized governments often try

to harness formal education to nationalistic programmes by creating highly centralized school systems that can be easily manipulated by political leaders. Decentralized school systems are likely to be found in culturally diversified, multilingual nations where many groups traditionally have benefited from local control, especially if rapid growth forces the nation to establish regional and neighbourhood schools. (Coleman, 1965).

4.2. Models of educational organizations.

Sociologists have built various models for understanding the diversity of organizations. These models have become guidelines for researchers into educational organization. Almost all researches in this connection are based on the idea of treating educational institutions as social organizations.

Gouldner(1959) described two basically different models used by social scientists. He classified such models as rational and natural systems models. Each model is taken from a different source of authority i.e expertise in the first case and incumbency of office in the second.

a) Rational model

The following assumptions were made regarding

this model:

i) Organizations have clear-cut goals that are understood and subscribed to by members.

ii) Activities are planned.

iii) Activities are closely co-ordinated.

iv) The necessary information is available for making the informed decisions necessary to achieve the goals.

v) Officials have sufficient control over the organization to ensure compliance with long-range plans.

The above assumptions indicate that organizations serve as means for realising group goals. Rationality is the result of integration between means and ends which is produced by interdependency and firm control by enlightened administrators. As Gouldner (1959) observes in this model the structure appears to be entirely manipulable and designed solely for purposes of efficiency. Significant changes are due to planned efforts to enhance efficiency and any departures from rationality can be attributed to rational mistakes, ignorance or miscalculation. The keys to this model, then are administrative control, expertise and integration among the various components of the organization.

The Bureaucratic Ideal Type.

This is also one of the ideal types of the

rational model. Weber's famous model was based on a social action framework. The essence of organization is found in the various structures or forms of social action abstracted from the specific contents, objectives or personalities involved (Martindale, 1966). Domination-subordination, the division of labour, clique structure and group size are all concepts important to this model. This model presumes goal consensus where power is centralized and authority is based on expertise as well as incumbency of office. There is close-knit co-ordination and extensive planning and the components of organization are highly interdependent. Bureaucracies can be relatively autonomous and impervious to outside attempts to influence them. In a larger sense they are products of society.

Weber was aware of the nonrational element in organizations; he was preoccupied with the distinctive rationality that bureaucratic organization provides and that he believed would make it the dominant form in the world.

Application to Educational organizations

Many writers have described educational institutions as bureaucracies, for example Anderson(1968); Eddy(1969); Gittel 1967 Moore(1967); Rogers, 1968 and Wilson(1962).

There are two streams of literature concerning educational organizations through rational models:

Firstly, the decision-making approach to organizational administration discussed by Bridges(1967; Griffiths(1958) and Ohm (1968). This delineates the logically available alternatives for solving a problem and fixes probabilities to alternative outcomes.

Secondly, the industrial relation model used by educational administrators during much of this century (Callahan, 1962)

These studies of educational organizations give an impression gained from studies of other types of organizations, namely that educational organizations take not one but a variety of forms, depending upon the circumstances. Educational organizations are more complex than is readily conveyed by the bureaucratic ideal type, which, as normally used, implies that all characteristics of a bureaucracy be present simultaneously in the same organization. Most researchers concerned with educational organization have not used the ideal type in this way, but it can be viewed as a set of variables.

b) The natural systems model.

Some social scientists, in view of accumulating evidence that organizations frequently do not conform to the rational model, have adopted this model, with the following assumptions:

i) Members in different parts of an organization

often place the interests and objectives of their own unit above those prescribed for the overall organization.

ii) One's status and activity in an organization take on value as ends in themselves.

iii) The official goals tend to become distorted and neglected as the organization strains to survive or expand.

iv) Decisions are the outcomes of bargaining and compromise among competing subgroups.

v) No one group has sufficient information or power to compel a high degree of coordination among the subgroups.

In this model members independently commit the organization to lines of action as they cope with constraints imposed by outside groups.(Selznick, 1953). Gouldner(1959) introduces the notion of functional autonomy in recognition of the fact that there is systematic variation in the extent to which different parts of an organization can be independent of one another. Some roles bestow more autonomy than others and some subgroups have more independent support outside of the organization.

In addition to functional autonomy, the model implies that power is dispersed, partly because authority is deliberately decentralized and also because of omission or slippage that can occur between the levels at which

policies are formulated and those at which they are implemented.

Functional autonomy and power distribution represent two distinct aspects of the natural systems model. Although Gouldner(1959) suggests that the ability towards submission to resist being controlled is one of the mechanisms by which it can maintain its autonomy. This autonomy does not necessarily bestow power.

Application to educational organizations.

Theorists like Aldrich(1971), Clark (1959) , Etzioni,1960 Katz(1964) and Lortie (1969) have directly or indirectly applied this model to educational organizations.

Katz (1964) describes systematic patterns of autonomy in schools that arise because their members either occupy specialised positions that require varying degrees of autonomy or have outside affiliations. He argues that organizations must tolerate the presence of independent and often hostile groups such as teacher unions or student cultures.

Lortie(1969) based his discussion of schools as organizations on the natural system model. According to him the central problem that schools must resolve is how to achieve a necessarily delicate balance between control and autonomy. He notes several conditions in schools that act as restraints on the ability of administrators to

exercise control over teachers. He concludes that teachers have far more autonomy than has been generally acknowledged. Also, far from feeling frustrated by confining rules and regulations, teachers at least in U.S.A are satisfied with their status in schools.

Role performance model

Role models provide systematic variations in the behaviour of persons who occupy the same position in an organization as they play different roles. Role models normally treat consensus as a variable (Gross et al. 1958) and view tension as an inherent aspect of the role structure. Power can be either centralized or decentralized. The unit of analysis is not a structural subdivision but the expectations and relationships of persons such as teachers and heads of schools.

Application to Education

Several writers have used role models to analyze the professionalism of teachers and administrators (Gross & Harriott, 1965; and Peabody, 1964). They conceived both bureaucratization and professionalization as sets of variables with the employee status taking precedence where work is standardized, where decisions are centralized and where there is a high degree of task-oriented specialization.

4.3. Human behaviour and organization.

McGregor (1960) explained certain aspects of the nature of human beings through his most famous work, Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X postulates three basic propositions :

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he or she can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work most people must be coerced, controlled, directed or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and wants security above all.

Administrators who accept this theory of human nature , will of course utilize its essential ideas in planning their policy making , in formulating their decisions and in carrying out other facets of their administrative behaviour.

Theory Y embraces some very different ideas.

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play, if it is satisfying.
2. People will exercise self-direction and self-control toward an organization's goals if they are committed to them.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with their achievement. The most effective rewards are satisfaction of ego and self-actualization.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility. Avoidance of it and emphasis on security are learned and are not inherent characteristics.
5. Creativity, ingenuity and imagination are widespread among people and do not occur only in a select few.

The above theories are obviously, two different and contrasting explanations of real-world conditions. They are clearly based upon differing assumptions about people. Those with administrative, managerial or leadership responsibilities tend to believe that one or the other of these theoretic statements is more accurately representative of the nature of human beings than the other. Those who tend to hold a Theory X view of people, for example, will tend to believe that motivation is basically a matter of the carrot and the stick. They will tend to accept readily the necessity for close, detailed supervision of subordinates and they will tend to accept the inevitability of the need to exercise down-the-line hierarchical control in the organization. Collaborative, participative decision-making will tend to be viewed as perhaps a nice ideal in the abstract but really not very practical in the real world.

Argyris(1971) evaluated the above theories and put it in two opposite behaviour patterns i.e. hard and soft. This pattern of behaviour may take one or the other two principal forms:

1. Behaviour pattern, **hard**, is characterized by no non-sense strongly directive leadership, tight controls and close supervision.

2. Behaviour pattern, **Soft**, involves a good deal of persuading, buying compliance from subordinates, benevolent paternalism, or so called good human relations.

In either case, behaviour pattern, whether acted out in its hard or its soft form, has the clear intention of manipulating, controlling and managing in the classical sense. It is based upon Theory X assumptions about the nature of human beings at work.

Another study by Likert (1973) with a close view of thory X and Theory Y was presented. He sketched two different aspects where management is seen as having no trust in subordinates and on the other hand management is seen as having complete trust and confidence in subordinates. Likert's management systems theory related to McGregor's Theory X Theory Y is presented with modifications as under:

Management, having no trust in subordinates(related to Theory X)

- a. Decision imposed and formulated at the top.
- b. Subordinates motivated by fear, threats, punishment.
- c. Control centered on top management.
- d. Little superior-subordinate interaction.
- e. People informally opposed to goal by management.

Management, having complete trust and confidence in subordinates.(related to Theory Y)

- a. Decision making is widely dispersed.
- b. Communication flows up and down and laterally.
- c. Motivation is by participation and rewards.
- d. Extensive, friendly, superior-subordinate interaction exists.
- e. High degree of confidence and trust exists.
- f. Widespread responsibility for the control process exists.

The above selection was made out of the original four systems, by this researcher . The selected two exactly co-relate with that of Douglas McGregor's work (Theory X and Y). Both were basically concerned, not with being nice to people or making work pleasant, but with understanding how to make work organizations more effective. This is as pressing a need in business and industry as it is in education. This general point of view is widely and strongly supported by a vast amount of organizational research.

4.4. Evolution of supervision.

The nature of supervision in any organisation, whether it is a business or a school, is mostly determined by two factors. Firstly the broad socio-cultural milieu in which the organization functions. Secondly the nature of organization in which the Supervisor is to perform. Educational supervision has changed historically in response to social and cultural changes and is different from one society to the next, reflecting prevailing national or regional value orientations. The nature of education has changed radically over the years and the role of the supervisor has consequently had to undergo a continuous redefinition to perform its underlying organizational function.

Over the last two centuries, the role of supervision in the western system of education has developed from the simple inspection of school facilities and teacher performance into a complex co-operative effort based on a system approach to staff development (Marks Stoops, 1985 pp.9-11) .

The supervisor has changed from an autocratic authority to a facilitator of a democratic educational process, whose function is to help teachers identify and find solutions to their problems. The changing role of supervision has had its counterpart in developing nations, many of whose educational system were originally based on

western models, particularly those of Britain and France. However, the Supervisor's role has become increasingly complex after the second world war, as third World countries have struggled to assert their cultural independence. The function of education has been redefined to reflect an awakening national identity.

Many developing countries, among them Pakistan, have instituted far-reaching reforms in their educational systems. The goal of education in Pakistan, for example, is to provide its people with a basic education. This goal is very different from that of developed countries because the developed countries have already achieved the basic requirements and are at the very advanced stage. On the other hand, developing countries are still struggling for basic needs in education and therefore require a more effective set of supervisory practices.

Continual growth to knowledge, advances in science and technology and developments in social and educational fields, make it necessary for the teacher to keep himself abreast of change. The school teacher in Pakistan, including Sindh, is generally inadequately equipped academically and professionally. He also seldom seeks new ideas and techniques. He needs supervisory service to keep him up to-date (Government of Sindh, 1981: pp.58-59)

In my view, hundreds of teachers, trained but inexperienced are recruited every year to teach in

schools. They need orientation and encouragement to develop understandings and insights concerning their work and conduct in schools. The experienced teachers also face problems related to instruction and classroom management. Some of them feel anxious and insecure when innovation in the shape of new curricula or techniques are introduced in schools. They need supervisory guidance and assistance in solving their problems or in making adjustments to fresh demands.

The supervision of secondary education in Pakistan has been less effective than it might have been largely because of the supervisory structure, particularly at secondary level, has been required to combine administrative and managerial functions with those of professional assessment and advice to the schools and their teachers (UNESCO, 1975 pp.52-53). Supervision in the shape of inspection and visits (both surprise and scheduled) therefore has been seen rather as a means of exercising control rather than of helping to raise standards and promote change when this is desirable. The minimum requirement that a District Education Officer should visit all the schools in his district once a year, is said to be manifestly impossible in many cases, due to his administrative responsibilities in the office. Indeed, one of the main reasons given why the schools were not being inspected in accordance with the required norm was that the assignments of inspections of schools and

teachers had grown too big to make this possible.

Therefore, specific supervisory functions/activities such as guidance/advice on teaching techniques, helping teachers to make/use an instructional aid, assessment of teachers, performance and evaluation of students progress are hampered. It is clear from the foregoing that the supervisory activities, in the strict sense of the term, are not up to the mark. The purposes of supervision and job description for supervisors are not followed. There is evidence to indicate that supervision is the most neglected aspect of the educational system in the country.

4.5. Historical perspectives of supervision.

Historical backgrounds and perspectives are often used as appropriate back-drops for the discussions of contemporary issues. The chronology of supervision is found in the content of the historical treatments of education, along with the development of many important functions of public schools. The present concepts and definitions of supervision have roots in the earlier philosophies, theories and practices of school organization and pedagogy. Supervision has been classified and defined by different experts in different ways. Wiles and Bondi (1986 :7) have mentioned the start of supervision in the shape of **Inspection and enforcement**

during the second half of 19th century. Other types of supervision classified by them in different periods were scientific, bureaucratic, co-operative, clinical supervision etc. Supervision in the existing period according to them is that of **management in instruction**.

Marks and Stoops (1985 p.9) through their study on supervision have also observed that the start of supervision during the colonial period was in the shape of **inspection for the sake of control**, by lay men, clergy, school wardens etc. According to them the present role of supervision is that of **action and experimentation**.

Harris (1985 pp.20-21) has discussed supervision for **continuity and change** along with other two types namely Tractive and Dynamic supervision. According to Harris, dynamic supervision is full of those supervisory endeavours that are directed toward changing instructional practices. Supervisors therefore must demonstrate competencies more adequately and become involved in building instructional evaluation systems to guide the improvement process.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983 pp 3-5) have pointed out some types of supervision, namely human relations supervision, human resources supervision and democratic supervision .

Lucio and McNeil (1979 pp.4-11) have observed

that during the eighteenth century supervision was based on authoritarian supervision. Supervisory control of public schools was originally vested in local or religious officers and special committees of lay people with power to visit and inspect schools. These committees were less interested in improving deficient teachers than in dismissing them. In the first quarter of the twentieth century, supervision was, in general, dominated by a classical view of people and institutions. Teachers were regarded as instruments that should be closely supervised to ensure that they mechanically carried out the methods of procedure determined by administrative and special supervisors. In the second quarter of the century, supervision was conceived as the practice of human relations. This view blessed teachers with feelings and motives but often gave low attention to their properties as reasoning beings. Stress cognition was the latest version of supervision which helped supervisors and teachers develop the intellectual content of their tasks.

Mosher and Purpel (1972 p.14) were of the view that supervision originated as inspection of schools and this remained its major emphasis until about 1920. The supervisor was charged with making certain that another person does a good job. Supervision was the name of improvement of instruction, teacher development, curriculum leadership, school administration etc.

Therefore supervisor as an educational leader is a person, citizen, an agent of the society, a teacher, a historian or a mathematician. They advocated clinical supervision and treated the classroom as a clinic.

Wiles (1967 p.7) has mentioned that at one time supervision was a directing and a judging activity. In the 1910's and 1920's, the writing in the field of supervision recommended directing, telling and checking up to see whether or not people had done as they were directed. Up to 1960 the teachers had not received so much training. Some started teaching as soon as they had left high school, with very little pre-service education.

In the 1930's, the emphasis was on **democratic supervision**. Wiles further quoted from his survey of literature that this term meant a type of manipulation in which teachers were to be treated kindly and manoeuvred into doing what the supervisor wanted to do all along. Before this supervision was a co-operative enterprise.

Eye and Netzer(1965 pp.4-5) started their study on the history of supervision from 1642 and have called the period between 1642 to 1875 as administrative inspection. This was followed by the period of efficiency orientation, co-operative group efforts in the improvement of instruction and learning, and lastly the period of research orientation.

The first supervisory concepts and behaviours were

characterised by inspection, conducted by laymen and professionals. The annual lay inspection of schools, for the purpose of seeing if the requirements of curriculum were being met, gave way to professional inspection. The nature of supervision was destined to assume new characteristics. A full time supervisory position meant time and consultation with teachers regarding improvement of instruction.

Historical evolution of supervision brought the conclusion that over the years many changes have taken place in education as regards the role of inspection and supervision. Traditionally, the aim was concerned almost exclusively with accountability. Their services were therefore to inspect and supervise on how public money was spent. Whether the Government was getting value for it, whether the schools were being run efficiently and whether children were performing to a certain standard. It centred mainly on administrative and routine activities. These are still important functions of inspection and supervision especially in developing countries. Inspection has taken the shape of supervision so as to make the Inspector(supervisor) a totally different person. It is today one of persuasive leadership, consultation and guidance. The main purpose of educational supervision is to ensure quality and maintain standards of learning. It is concerned with giving teachers the assistance and support they need to develop greater competence in

teaching. Supervision therefore constantly monitors the performance of teachers in order to maintain standards of learning. It stimulates teachers and head teachers to improve their practices and performances.

4.6. Concept of supervision

The historical evolution of supervision leads to the basic concept of supervision. The detailed definitions of supervision by the authors and experts on supervision could give a useful idea of the term. Many experts on this subject have defined supervision in their own way and style. Some definitions of supervision follow a historic thread, linking administration and supervision.

Spears (1953 pp.167-68) defined supervision as

under:

Paramount in any school setting is the teacher. Perhaps the value of a supervisory programme can best be measured by the affection and respect shown it by the teachers. It may meet all the theoretical requirements of a good programme; but if it is not accepted by those whom it is to serve, there must be something wrong with it. This is not to say that supervision must become a spiritless function, in which the supervisor must first get the classroom go-ahead signal before inaugurating any activity of the programme.

Eye et. al. (1971 p.31) defined supervision as

under:

That phase of school administration which focuses primarily upon the achievement of the appropriate instructional expectations of the educational system.

Lucio and McNeil(1979) believed that;

Supervision requires a super vision-a superior perspective attained by special preparation and position. As a prerequisite to supervision we would require possession of a methodology which respects the learner, disciplined approaches to knowledge and social conditions . (preface Viii)

Harris and Bessent (1969 pp.10-11) also discussed supervision as administrative action. Their description about supervision was that:

Supervision is what school personnel do with adults and things for the purpose of maintaining or changing the operation of the school in order to directly influence the attainment of major instructional goals of the school.

Cogan (1973 p.18) defined supervision in a general way and treated it as a curriculum task in the following words:

General supervision, therefore denotes activities like the writing and revisions of curriculums, the preparation of units and materials of instruction, the development of processes and instruments for reporting to parents, and such broad concerns as evaluation of the total educational programme.

Wiles(1967 p.5) has defined :

Supervision, which consists of all the activities leading to the improvement of instruction, related to morale, improving human relations, inservice education and curriculum development.

Wiles has also named Curriculum Directors, Resource People, Principals and leaders among the teachers having role and involvement in supervision, as

Supervisors. He further labelled all those either at institutional level or regional level involved in decision making, as supervisors.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983 p.9) have found that:

The immediate purpose of supervision is co-operatively to develop favourable settings for teaching and learning and ultimate purpose of supervision as the promotion of pupil growth and hence eventually the improvement of the society.

They have further elaborated that supervision, through all means available, will seek improved methods of teaching and learning, create a physical, social and psychological environment favourable to learning. Co-ordinate and integrate all educational efforts and materials and will aid, inspire, lead and develop that security which liberates the creative spirit.

Alfanzo et al(1975 p.35) define supervision:

An instructional behaviour system that interacts with the school's counselling, teaching, administrative and student behaviour system.

In their view instructional supervision is defined as behaviour officially designated by the organisation that directly affects teacher behaviour in such a way as to facilitate pupil learning and achieve the goals of organisation. They have looked at three key elements. Firstly the behaviour exhibited is officially

designated. Secondly, it directly influences the teacher behaviour. Thirdly it specifies an ultimate outcome tied directly to the reason for the existence of school and facilitation of student learning.

According to Oliva(1976 p.7);

Supervision is conceived as a service to teachers both as individuals and in groups. Supervision is a means of offering teachers specialised help in improving instruction.

Mosher and Purpel (1972 p.4) have considered the tasks of supervision to be teaching teachers how to teach, the professional leadership in reformulating public education and more specifically, its curriculum, its teaching and its forms.

Wiles and Bondi(1986 p.11) as a result of the review of the above definitions, have looked at supervision as a general leadership function that co-ordinates and manages those school activities concerned with learning.

The above mentioned definitions of experts and authorities on supervision, indicate the view, that at least supervision has been focused in six different ways i.e. administration, curriculum, instruction, human relations, management and leadership point of view.

It is also clear that the main purpose of educational supervision is to ensure quality and maintain

the standard of learning. Supervision is therefore concerned with giving teachers the assistance and support they need to develop greater competence in teaching. Supervision constantly monitors the performance of teachers in order to maintain some standard of learning. It stimulates teachers and Head Teachers to improve their practices and performances and it provides a basis for on-going training of teachers and head teachers. The value of supervision lies in the development and improvement of the teaching-learning situation. Supervision focuses on the efforts to meet better the needs of learners. The needs include personal, social, intellectual and career requirements that the learners and others see as essential to their life styles and goals. It provides for improvement in organisation and communication structures, in instructional programmes and processes and in human inter-relationships and personal attitudes. Supervision acts as a bridge between administrators in a ministry or department of education or even local Government and schools in order to ensure that means are available for them to perform their tasks efficiently by enhancing the motivation of teachers. It provides direct advice and help in their regular visits to schools.

4.7. Skills of supervision

A major deterrent to full professional status of educational supervisors is still an ill-defined knowledge

base and lack of an agreed-upon set of professional skills. Every profession equips its members with a conceptual and intellectual base from which skills are derived and expressed in practice. The skills of supervisors, however, have remained remarkably undefined and random, partly because the theoretical base is so thin. Moreover the skills that are used are generally acquired on the job, rather than during professional preparation and internship.

Lortie (1975 p.75) commenting on the condition expressed his opinion:

The structure of public schooling which emerged from the 19th: century had two major mechanisms for improving teacher performance. One was a modified principle of professionalisation based upon faith in increased general and public schooling. The second was the principle of bureaucratic control where in administrative superiors would raise performance levels by supervising teachers. We have seen that the first principle has not produced a powerful technical culture to guide teachers in their pedagogical behaviour. But the second remains. Is there evidence to suggest that a technical culture of teaching resides in the supervisory arrangements in public schools?

If Lortie's question evokes a positive response, it would be difficult to confirm from the requests made by teachers for supervisory assistance. When supervisors lack skills directly related to the work of teachers, they (teachers) are forced to turn elsewhere for help.

Supervisors are charged with a multitude of

essential tasks. Most sweeping is their responsibility for improving instruction. They are expected to be instructional experts, curriculum developers, diagnosticians, instructional planners, problem solvers, innovators, clinical observation specialists and managers of the processes of teaching and learning. In addition to these critical instruction-related tasks are a variety of other school activities. Much of the literature in instruction supervision has addressed these supervisory tasks and the role of supervision. It has given too little attention to the identification and development of the skills needed to make supervision effective.

The field of instructional supervision during the last three decades has emphasised the human relations and process skills of supervisors with only passing reference to a large repertoire that might be required.

The contribution of Goldhammer (1980), Cogan (1973) and others in recent years to the development of clinical supervision, is a refreshing departure from the days of admonition and description. Yet even they take a rather narrow view of where and how supervision is to be played out. No single skill or limited set of skills can make supervision effective. Supervision requires a wide array of behaviour, demonstrated in a highly complex human organisation with clear concepts and knowledge.

Although the literature on instructional supervision in recent decades has emphasised human

relations, supervisors themselves have continued to engage in extensive management or quasi-administrative behaviour. This is perhaps understandable, considering the extensive physical structures and management systems required to run increasingly large and complex school systems. While the focus of supervisory activity is often that of self-selection or personal preference, it may also be true that supervisors have avoided classroom contact and direct attempts to influence instruction because they lack the skills to do so. One does what is most comfortable and where success is most likely or where the risk of failure is least.

A continuation of management oriented supervision is no longer feasible, for the task of supervision now is to refine the process of teaching and improve the effectiveness of the results of schooling.

Katz (1955) identified three basic skill areas for administrators i.e. human, technical and conceptual. Mann (1965) in extending and restating Katz's work described the three classifications of supervisory skills as human, technical and administrative or managerial. In particular he emphasised the mix of these skills as the key to supervisory competence.

According to Mann's definition and classification of these skills, he elaborated and expressed his views.

(a) Technical skill.

This is the specialised knowledge and ability required to perform the primary tasks inherent in a particular supervisory position. Technical skill is the ability to use some kind of classroom observation system. A wide range of observation systems are possible and supervisors ought to be competent in several of them. The purpose of this skill is to better analyse and understand the process of instruction as it is expressed in a given context or class. It is directly related to the craft of teaching, takes place on-site and is a clear example of a technical skill not generally found in other professions.

(b) Human relations skill.

This skill provides ability to work with people and motivate them so they will desire good performance. This type of skill generates goal commitments. Supervisors must be able to translate or interpret organisational goals in such a way as to cause teachers to be committed to them. This skill differs from that of planning for goal attainment, which is more of a managerial task. Clarifying values is another example of a human skill.

Supervisors need not be expert in values clarification, but they should be able to employ some of the techniques. Human skills are a vital part of supervision. The supervisor's world requires working

with and through other people. It is a world of influence and human interaction. The human aspects of an organisation are also the most complex. Although human skills can be over-emphasised, they are crucial. The supervisor who seeks to create an atmosphere of support and positive human relationship must be sensitive to the needs and motivation of teachers, which is basic to sound decision-making and effective intervention. When people share a sense of purpose, work co-operatively and have a supportive management system, performance and productivity are increased. Human skills contribute to goal attainment whilst enhancing the school as a human system.

(c) Managerial skill.

This is the ability to make decisions and see relationships that are crucial to the organisation, or unit goals for which the supervisor is responsible. Needs assessment is one of the examples of this type of skill. Helping teachers identify what they believe to be ideal and then collecting data about how conditions are in real position is the method adopted by the supervisor through managerial skill. Needs assessment can be a valuable contribution to a change effort and an appropriate precursor to planning, inservice or staff development. Essentially it is a planning tool and therefore a managerial skill. Managerial tasks are so demanding,

however, that they often divert the supervisor's attention from the application of other skills. Using too much managerial skill can however result in supervision that is long on style but short on substance.

(d) Skill-mix Supervision.

This concept can be applied to any organisation, although there are different skill requirements at different organisational levels. Mann(1965), noted that at first-line supervisory levels, human skills are of primary importance, whilst at higher levels the need for managerial skill is greater. He also found that the skill-mix differs depending on the stage of growth and development of organisation. In a young organisation, human relations and technical skills are particularly essential, but as an organisation matures, managerial skills assume increased importance. He further observed that technical skills are particularly crucial during periods of change.

The components of the supervisory skill-mix are not to be applied independently. It is the selection and application of an appropriate combination of skills that makes supervision effective. The mix is of far greater importance than the individual skills. The skill-mix can be applied in a variety of professional roles in schools as well as in other formal organisations.

Within an educational organisation, some of the

same skills might be found in several different roles such as Principal Supervisor or any other type of supervisor. There might even be some skills common to all. What distinguishes a professional role, however, is the particular combination of skills and the frequency with which some of them are used.

Supervisors require the ability to develop and maintain an effective and productive relationship with an individual unit i.e. department, grade level or school and the larger organisation. They also require a broad view and the ability to go beyond immediate demands in order to analyse comprehensive organisational development and needs. Through managerial skills the supervisor is able to provide the conditions necessary for a teacher or staff to be effective.

Managerial tasks are so necessary and demanding that they often divert the attention of the supervisor from the application of other skills in the mix.

While skills in the mix are essential, technical skills more than any others, make the role of supervisor unique. In all organisations, the closer one is to the work or production system, the more frequently technical skills are used.

It is these skills that are addressed precisely to the teaching and allow supervisors to intervene with targeted, helpful behaviour. Supervisors need to work closely and continuously with teachers. It is essential

that they possess specialised knowledge and skills including the ability to demonstrate the skills they seek to develop in teachers. While teaching is a highly humanistic endeavour, the refinement of instruction requires supervisors who are both conceptually and technically strong.

By definition, a professional role is skill oriented. The skills should be sufficiently different, easily recognised and clearly needed, so that the expertise of the professional role is valued and sought. The skills of a lawyer, accountant or an ophthalmologist can not be found in the general populace. Similarly within the school organisation, the supervisory mix needs to be so well defined and demonstrated that there can be no question about the need for the role nor doubt of its effectiveness.

Katz (1955) argues that, though each of the skill levels is universally present in administrative positions, managerial skills are emphasised more by administrators and technical skills more by supervisory personnel, who are for the most part concerned with the day by day work of the school.

This relationship is illustrated in the figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Management skills needed at various layers.

| MANAGEMENT LAYERS | SKILLS NEEDED | | | ORGANISATIONAL LAYERS |
|-------------------------|---------------|-------|------------|-----------------------|
| TOP Management | TECHNICAL | HUMAN | CONCEPTUAL | Institutional layer |
| Middle Management | | | | Middle layer |
| Supervisory Management. | | | | Technical layer |

Source: Hersey and Blanchard. Management of organisation behaviour. Prentice-Hall, Inc, New Jersey, 1969. p.6.

The above three levels of management corresponding three layers are usually found within an organisation. (figure 4.2)

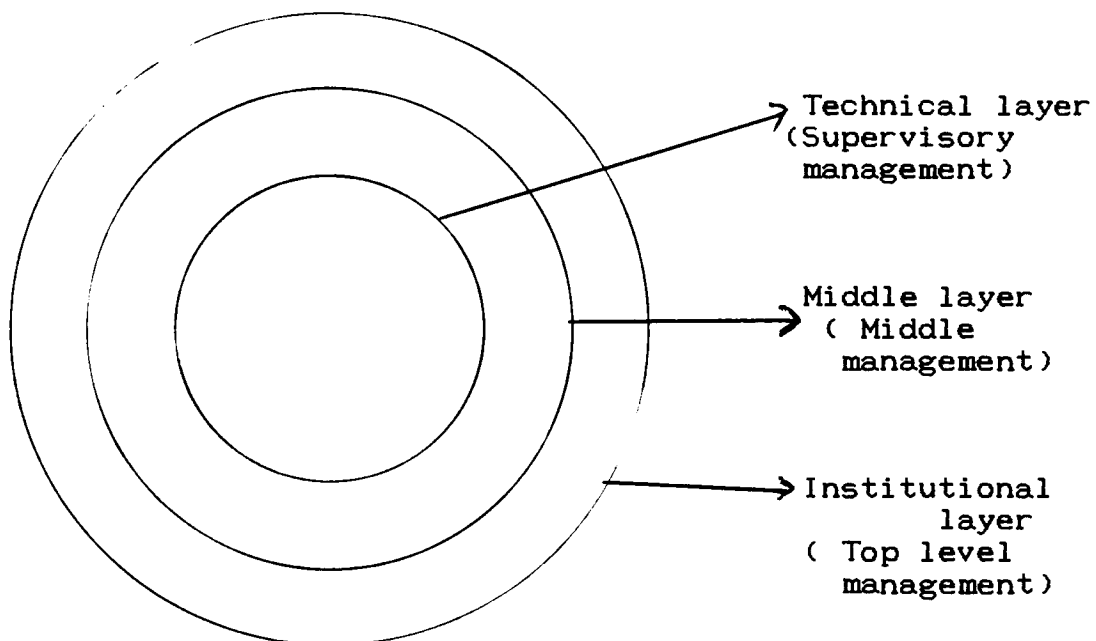


Figure 4.2. layers of organisation.

Source: Thompson J.D. Organisation in action. McGraw Hill Book company, New York, 1967. p.25.

To know the position of supervisors within the mentioned layers, it is essential to define and discuss such layers first.

Technical layer is the inner most layer of an organisation. This sub-organisation is usually concerned with the effective performance of the technical functions such as supervision of teachers and schools. The technical core is the domain of supervisory management or system.

Middle Layer is the next suborganization and it provides a link between the technical and institutional components of the organisation.

Institutional Layer is that segment of organisation which relates closely with the wider environment. This is the domain of the top management personnel in all formal organisations.

While looking at figure 4. 2 and closely watching the situation in Sindh, it seems that the position of the District Education Officer fits the inner layer or technical core of Sindh Education Department. He is usually concerned with the effective performance of teachers. The job of District Education Education Officer is of a technical nature which is concerned with the improvement of instructions in schools. The position of the Director of schools education is that of the middle management. He provides linkage between the secretary of Education and District Education Officer i.e. institutional and technical components of the

organization. His position stands in the middle layer.

The school management is controlled by the Secretary of Education department. His position stands as top management and fits in the institutional layer, as shown in the figure.

4.8. Main theories of supervision.

Various writers and experts have discussed their views about supervision and its theories. It is not possible to discuss all here. However some important theories of supervision related to this study will be reviewed.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983 pp.3-6) discussed the following theories of supervision :

- a) Traditional scientific management theory.
- b) Human relations theory.
- c) Neo-scientific management theory.
- d) Human resources theory.

4.8.1. Traditional scientific management theory.

This theory represents the classical autocratic philosophy of supervision in which teachers are viewed as appendages of management and as such are hired to carry out prescribed duties in accordance with the wishes of management. Control, accountability and efficiency are emphasised in an atmosphere of clear-cut boss-subordinate

relationship. Traces of this brand of supervision can still be found in schools, though by and large traditional scientific management is not currently in favour.

4.8.2. Human relations theory.

This theory of supervision has its origin in the democratic administration movement advocated in the thirties and is still widely practised and preached. This type of supervision was a successful challenger to traditional scientific management. Teachers were to be viewed as whole people in their own right rather than as packages of needed energy, skills and aptitudes to be used by administrators and supervisors. Supervisors worked to create a feeling of satisfaction among teachers by showing interests in them as people. It was assumed that a satisfied staff would work harder and would be easier to work with, to lead and to control. Participation was to be an important method and its objective was to make teachers feel that they are useful and important to the school. Personal feelings and comfortable relationships were the watchwords of human relations.

In developed countries this type of supervision is still widely advocated and practiced today, though its support has diminished.

4.8.3 Neo-scientific management theory.

The most recent image of supervision, is in large part a reaction against human relations supervision, particularly its neglect of the teacher in the classroom. This management shares with traditional scientific management an interest in control, accountability and efficiency. The code words of this movement are teacher competencies, performance objectives and cost-benefit analysis. The task dimension, concern for job and concern for highly specified performance objectives, all so lacking in human relations supervision, are strongly emphasised in this theory though often at the expense of human dimension. Neo-scientific management relies heavily on externally imposed authority and as a result often lacks acceptance from teachers.

4.8.4. Human resource management theory.

Here the supervisor views satisfaction as a desirable end towards which teachers will work. Satisfaction, according to this view, results from the successful accomplishment of important and meaningful work and this sort of accomplishment is the key component of school effectiveness. The human resources supervisor would adopt shared decision-making practices because of their potential to increase school effectiveness. He assumes that better decisions will be made, teacher ownership and commitment to these decisions will be increased. The

likelihood of success at work, an antecedent to school effectiveness, will increase.

The human resources view, provides the needed integration between person and organisation , personality and accomplishment, as applied to teachers and school, as well as to students and classrooms.

Davis (1972 pp.120-23) identified five different views of a supervisor's role which ranges from affording the supervisor a critical place in the hierarchy.

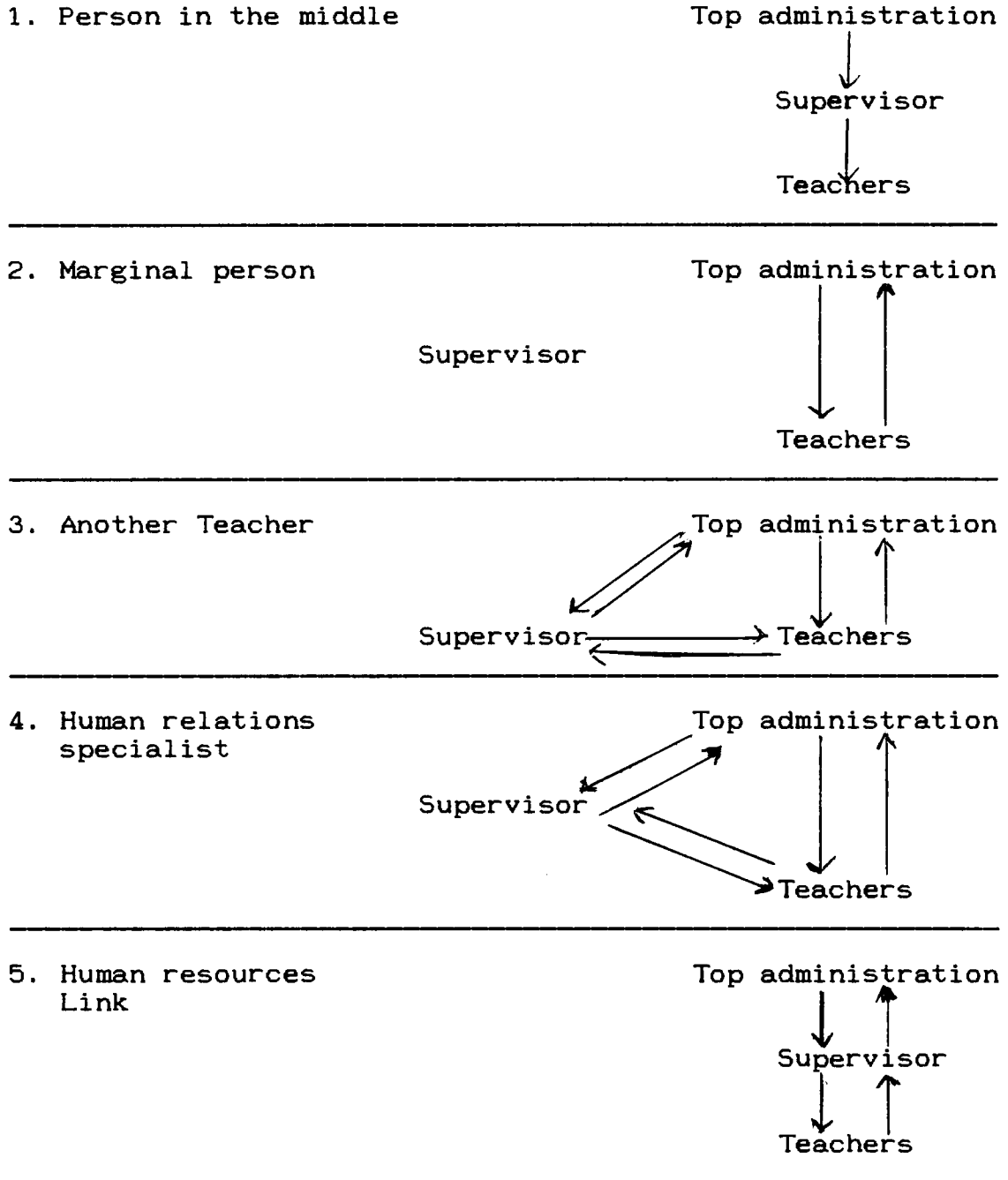
According to figure 4.3.(next page) the position of supervisor is discussed in five views as under:

1) The person in the middle view.

Here the supervisor is characterised by a process of mediating between the two opposing worlds of teachers and administrators. Administrators are seen as emphasising task-oriented leadership. A variety of quality-control mechanisms are applied by them with the intention of pushing teacher and school closer to achieving objectives and enhancing output. On the other hand teachers as human beings, however, are seeking a more relaxed, trusting and congenial atmosphere within which to work. They (teachers) need work which is secure from tension and also responsive to their needs. Supervisors are in the middle trying to reconcile what may well be uncertain differences. In this sense supervisors are seen as buffers

Figure 4.3. Viewpoints on the Supervisor's role.

THE SUPERVISOR IN THE HIERARCHY



Source: Davis, k (1981) Human behaviour at work.
McGraw-Hill, New York, (p. 142)

or persons in the middle.

ii) As a marginal person.

Here the supervisor is also in the middle but is excluded from, or on the margin of, important decisions affecting the school. He is not accepted by either group and is ignored for the most part by both groups. Due to this position the Supervisor (as a marginal-person) often spends more time as a curriculum administrator, material procurer or engaged in some other activity connected with desk work.

iii) The another-teacher view.

This is characterised by affording supervisors low authority and status with only minimum discretion. The position of supervisor here is often considered as a liaison person upon whom administrators trust to get the word down to teachers. Maintenance activities and house keeping are given much attention by the supervisor as compared to leadership responsibilities. Many secondary school heads, for example, can be identified as supervisors of this type.

iv) As a human relation specialist.

Here the position of supervisor is considered as a staff specialist responsible for looking after and maintaining the human side of school organisation. The

need for such a specialist is based on the idea that in any organization there is conflict between job demands and human demands. Teachers have needs and feelings and are subject to frustration, disappointment and other problems which can be dangerous for ethical values. According to this view, poor morale is not favourable for the school and should be avoided. The supervisor's job as human relations specialist is to get along with teachers, be considerate and sympathetic to their problems. In order to achieve the co-operation of teachers, supervisors should tend to their personal mannerism which can lead to compliance of administrative directives.

v) As a human resources link.

Here the supervisor is not viewed as an administrative tool or organizational buffer but as a key member of the school's leadership team. He is a critical link between the school's organisational and management subsystem and its education-cum-instructional subsystem. This is indeed an in-the-middle view, but here the supervisor serves as an integrating rather than a buffering role. It is considered that strict educational programmes and instruction exist within an organised setting. Organisation and management exist to serve educational programmes and instruction. That being the case, the integrating role of the supervisor is considered critical in the administrative hierarchy. Moreover he

assumes a key role in school management decision making.

It is still believed that the supervisor should act as a human resources link in the administrative hierarchy with a critical role in decision making of the management.

This is a normative view of supervisors, thought by many to be the best in the literature. Many administrators believed that this type of supervision is suitable for a growing number of schools. A descriptive view represents a more realistic valuation which makes it clear that most supervisors are viewed either as marginal members of the school hierarchy or as persons in the middle. A large number are viewed as human relations specialists. This may well be a first step towards upgrading supervisory roles in a style which is near to the human resources view-point. The other-teacher image of supervision is out of date as collective bargaining becomes widespread.

4.9 Human relationships in educational Supervision.

Supervision can create an emotional tone for the school and sets the stage for human relationships with others. The supervisor has to face different types of teachers. The better the teacher-supervisor relationship, the greater the chance of teacher change. Good work will result as a consequence of the good relationship that is developed between the supervisor and the teacher. The supervisor needs to listen to the teacher's problems, to understand his conflicts and to build a relationship not of dependency, but of mutual respect. His success depends upon his ability to get along with people.

Good human relations cannot be obtained by demanding or requesting them. They are built by living and working with fellow staff members in such a way that they can practice good human relations.

Lucio and Mc Neil (1979: 37) mention that towards achievement of good human relations, the supervisor tries to smooth the path of human interaction, ease communication, evoke personal devotion and allay anxiety. Thus a supervisor in building a good human relation has to follow a smooth path for communicating with others.

In order to know the human relationships of supervisors in Sindh province towards the teachers, it is necessary to analyse the philosophical and theoretical aspects of human relationships in general and to see how far a District Education Officer in Sindh measures up to

those criteria. This will be taken up in detail in chapter VII.

The modern supervisor should be a leader encouraging the teachers to adopt new methodologies and to be creative and innovative in instruction. In a real sense, the successful supervisor changes the total educational environment by creating a cordial climate of human relationships and reasoned hopefulness. (Esposito et al, 1975).

While watching the situation in Sindh province, one can hardly find the above qualities and patterns within the school supervision. The District Education Officers generally believe in, and mostly act upon, a "boss and subordinate" philosophy.

Educational supervision has become a complex and exacting profession that demands a high order of competence and statesmanship. In general, the competencies or skills required for supervision can be classified into three categories i.e. conceptual skills(academic), technical skills(instrumental) and human relations skills(expressive) (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969).

Conceptual skills deal effectively with ideas and demand a high level of intelligence in dealing with abstractions and an open, inquiring and creative mind enhanced through broad general education.

Educational management is a field of study concerned with the operation of educational organizations

(Bush, 1986) . The management system in education, as in other organizations, is an important link between the policy formation system and the implementation system. The management system directs, co-ordinates, motivates, controls and evaluates the organization, so that it fulfills its function and achieves its goals. The educational supervisor is the main actor in this process.

Technical skills relate to the ability to work with things. They are the inanimate aspects of the school environment which are gained through education and experience.

Human relations skills relate to the ability to work effectively with people. Much of what the supervisor accomplishes, he undertakes through teachers. Several studies have shown that the supervisors succeed or fail largely on the basis of their ability to get along with teachers. This means that supervisors should have interest, understanding and respect for the teachers.

Human relations skills are largely a function of the supervisor's personality and character. These skills can also be improved through experience as well as through study of social psychology.

As we shall see, the District Education Officers in Sindh are a long way away from the skills needed for maintaining the human relationships. They are administrators in an extreme sense, where teachers are

never taken into their confidence. They are supposed to obey whatever instructions are communicated down to them.

If a supervisor thinks about his major concerns, he will discover that many of them center on his relationships with people. Supervisors in particular are involved with people, for coordination of human effort which is the essence of supervision. Actually, supervision includes both a task-dimension and a human dimension. There is the work of the organization which must be done if the organization is to be successful. There are the human beings for whom the organization provides varying degrees of satisfaction and upon whom it must rely in order that the work will be done. An effective supervisor needs to understand both dimensions and develop the necessary competence in both.

Although problems of human relationships are as old as mankind, such problems have become aggravated as technology has developed. These problems have become manifest in the form of high crime rates, confrontations among different sections of society, international tensions, corruptions etc. Lawton (1979) defined some social problems like urbanisation, poverty, crime and delinquency as indicators of social change in various societies. According to Lawton, the norms of determining the above factors differ from one society to another.

The above factors have badly affected the society in Pakistan where poverty, corruption and crime rates are

increasing day by day. Abduction of children and businessmen for the sake of ransom has become an ugly trade in Sindh province, which has affected the whole society. The educational supervisor, as an individual within the society will also tend to be affected by its problems. Corruption and criminal acts of society have also affected his personality. He may have been tempted to adopt such ways and means in order to progress as a civil servant. It is very difficult for him to resist all malpractices in society. In other words he will tend to follow all sorts of irregularities as a means of survival in a corrupt society. Looking to the prevailing conditions, it is difficult to say whether an educational supervisor is an academic leader or a member of the civil administration, or victims of social unrest.

While observing the situation in the province of Sindh, this researcher felt that most of the civil servants, including educational supervisors, were discharging their duties only nominally within the atmosphere of uncertainty .

Like the rest of society and its organizations, the schools also are troubled by upheavals. Students are restless. Teachers, through stronger associations and collective bargaining, are demanding better working conditions and greater material rewards. Parents are actively criticizing the schools and teachers. The education of the children in the schools is embedded in

all these tensions. If tensions are dealt with constructively, the educational atmosphere can improve. Thus, in educational organizations as well as in society, attention to the human as well as the task dimension is urgently required.

The situation in Pakistan in general and the province of Sindh in particular has reached a climax, with extreme tension within the society, where sale of arms and drugs is common. Every citizen has accepted the fact that this is due to the after-effects of the Afghan problem where millions of refugees entered the country with drugs and sophisticated arms. Poverty and crime have also affected the academic atmosphere; teachers and taught are also badly affected. The educational supervisor is not in a position to solve such chronic problems.

Also, the human and task-dimensions of organizations are inseparable. Because human relationships affect the ways in which individuals function, human relationships are central to task achievements in supervision. Conversely, because the extent of task achievement affects the ways that people feel about themselves and others, task achievement affects human relationships. There are three reasons why supervisory relationships have far-reaching effects in education.

Firstly, the supervisor helps to achieve the goals of the educational enterprise through other people. The supervisors do not ordinarily undertake directly the work

that is to be done. They plan, stimulate, coordinate, direct and evaluate the work of the teachers.

Secondly, human relationships are the stuff of which personality develops. Within the limits of an inherited organism, a person becomes what he is largely as a result of the meanings which he attaches to his relationships with other people.

Thirdly, they are not only a means, they are an end in themselves. Human beings possess infinite values because they need each other. We need not only one another's services, we need each other as persons. Because we need each other, no one is replaceable. For those people who know and care about us, no one else can take our place. But that does not imply that a supervisor should tolerate incompetence, avoid conflict, defer decisions, or always be nice. The relationships of supervisors to other people, however, are not only for the purpose of providing competent teachers, devising educational programmes, maintaining school buildings and obtaining the necessary funds. Important as these ends are, the human relationships themselves are an essential aspect of life, both to the supervisor and to the people with whom he relates.

In Sindh, supervisors have adopted the one-sided aspect of executing the policies framed at higher level without maintaining the human relationships by ignoring the teachers' views and suggestions at any time.

Human relationships appear in such variety that one is likely to assume that there are no common elements which provide a basis for analysing them. Human relationships consist of the interplay between personalities. Since personalities are unique, so human relationships are endlessly varied and always changing. To provide general guidelines for supervisors action in all aspects of human relationships, a few principles are mainly used for practical purposes. They are an outgrowth of many psychological theories, phenomenological and human system theories (Ezekiel, 1982 : pp.33-36)

1. Basic to a consideration of all human relationships is the fact that each of us substantially affects his or her own relationships with others. Each of us functions in ways which affect in large measure the kinds of situations in which we find ourselves. Research has demonstrated that the situation does affect the way in which a person functions at a particular time. However, according to clinical evidence, the individual himself is an important causal factor in his human relationships. If a supervisor provides opportunities for the staff to share in the responsibilities and opportunities inherent in the functioning of a school, the staff will usually respond with healthy enthusiasm, if not immediately, then over a period of time.

2. Strength of self is central in effective

relationships. Each person needs to develop in terms of his or her own individuality and uniqueness in order to be effective in human relationships. A supervisor who is developing as self is one who is searching for ways in which his potentialities and those of the staff can be more fully realized. He will be the most effective, not if he tries to be a copy of someone else, but rather if he acts independently and utilizes his own strengths and potentialities in the supervisory role.

3. Good human relationships are those which are functional. They are appropriate for the performance of necessary tasks. They exist when work is done effectively, and by the same token, optimum work accomplishment is possible only when good human relationships are experienced. One implication of functional relationships is that the supervisor must be able to control some part of their own time. No one can function at a professional level without time to think and to plan. Wiles(1967) recommends that supervisors keep an open door to all staff members. This recommendation is sound if taken in the spirit rather than literally. The supervisor needs to reserve time to consider the major dimensions of the job, or he will get lost in detail and lose the perspective which is the hallmark of a true professional. Such reservation of time for thinking and planning need not make a supervisor inaccessible. Functional relationships suggest also then, a supervisor should require that staff

members and students be held responsible for their actions. Such an approach is desirable simply because things work better that way; people learn to function more effectively through being held responsible, and at the same time necessary work gets done.

4. Good human relationships acknowledge the importance of reality of people, things and relationships as they are. A good human relationship is based on life as it is, not upon an idealized vision of nice people who are always good. The supervisor's task is to function effectively in the world as it is. They must be aware of threats to programmes or to their status and by fighting back when necessary. To be in touch with reality a supervisor needs also to consider both his own and other's motivations, for only when motives are known can human behaviour be understood. However if a supervisor can consider motives and still maintain a reasonable sense of trust, remaining tentative in his judgements concerning motivation, he will have a useful device for achieving a better understanding as to why people behave as they do.

5. The goal of effective human relationships is continued improvement in the functioning of individual persons and groups. To achieve this, attention must centre both on the processes of functioning and on the completion of important work-tasks. Effective human relationships are those which enhance individual

personality through time. The goal is to help the various persons learn, grow and develop. It is important that each individual be enabled to develop his potentialities to the greatest possible extent.

6. Human relationships can best be understood through the utilization of systems theory, which makes possible the conceptualization of many complex phenomena.

System theory is often hailed as the grand new approach to the study of human social behaviour and in particular to behaviour in organizations. (Reason, 1980).

The concept of social system means that the behaviour of an individual is not an isolated phenomenon but rather occurs as a part of a system and is intertwined with the behaviour of others. A supervisor who thinks in terms of system recognizes the importance of the correct social scene for the goals and procedures used in the schools and helps to relate the school programmes to the ever changing needs of the society within which it operates.

While going through the above six points concerning the principles maintaining the supervisor-teacher relationship, this reasearcher concludes from the evidence of the case study that nothing of this kind is present in the case of Sindh. There is a big gap between the above principles and those actions in practice within the supervisory system of school education

in Sindh.

Two conceptualizations of the school as a social system have been presented by J.W. Getzels and Talcott Parsons. One in terms of actual interacting persons, and the other in terms of analytical abstractions. To the extent that these conceptualizations mirror reality, they are useful in helping one to see the school as it really is, an integral system functioning through continuous interactional relationships. A supervisor who views the school as a system will function quite differently from one who views the school as consisting of many separate and discrete parts. In the former case, a supervisor will be concerned with the functioning of the whole system and will consider the implications of a specific action for the whole system. Moreover, in diagnosing problems, a supervisor with a systems view of the school will look to causal elements which are reflected in the functioning of the system rather than solely to individual behaviour.

The supervisory system of Sindh, however, tends to be merely confined to individual behaviour. Moreover, the relationships between teachers and the supervisors is marked by great formality and psychological distance. Wiles (1967) detailed suggestions that could be used by supervisors to promote staff harmony;

- i) being polite and courteous,
- ii) being accessible,
- iii) taking prompt action on a request,

- iv) letting the people know when they did a good job,
- v) being willing to listen,
- vi) Offering assistance in setting group disagreements
and
- vii) giving credit where due and being cheerful.

The challenge to every supervisor, and a great opportunity, is to provide for educational experiences through supervision which takes account of both the task and the human dimensions of educational organization. Such educational experience can help to ensure that the human foundations of society will not disintegrate, but rather will support "humane technological society" in which all people can live with zest and hope.

The above human qualities of a supervisor pointed out by Wiles are seldom seen within the supervisory style of Sindh. During the field study it was observed that the teachers and the headmasters were dealt with on the basis of "boss-subordinate" relationship by the District Education Officers in Sindh. The behaviour of the typical District Education Officer was reported to be autocratic. He believed more in punishment rather than reward. The policy of implementing authority by means of a series of warning through circular letters and memorandums issued from time to time from the Office of the District Education Officer, also made it clear that the teachers were always kept under tension and fear.

Another aspect of the human relationship was even more serious: when the District Education Officer used scolding words during the inspection and visit of schools. Teachers were openly maltreated in the classroom in front of the class, by pointing out their defects in the knowledge of content matter of the subject taught and also method of teaching. This was style of criticism by the District Education Officer, showing displeasure with the teachers. In such cases how one can expect good and friendly relationship? This researcher observed very closely that such behaviour of the District Education Officer irritates and annoys the teachers, who either become more arrogant towards the profession or adopt other means of putting pressure through high officials and politicians, as a defence from such behaviour.

4.10 A delineation of the supervisory role

In the past, critics of educational supervision have focussed their attention on the outcomes of supervision. Esposito and Burbach (1975 pp.63-67) through a research study have analysed the dysfunctional aspects of the supervisory process. There was lack of a clear role concept. New research and long-standing criticism indicate that the practice of educational supervision has been impeded by the lack of a clear-cut role conceptualization. This is not to say that there is a universal optimal role concept for supervision. But, it is all too apparent that the confusion that exists among practioners and clients due to the lack of congruence between perceptions of the role and activities performed is debilitating to the goals of instructional and learning improvement. This ambiguity and the resultant dysfunction have fostered negative attitudes among teachers and others. This has also crystallized into doubts about the effectiveness and worth of supervision.

In Sindh there was no specific nor clear policy about the roles assigned to the District Education Officers. However a summary of the following job description was found for the District Education Officers of Sindh:

Responsible to the regional Director of schools for the overall administration and management of school education in his district, including inspection of schools, appointment and establishment of teachers. (Nwankwo, 1982: 8)

The assignment and duties mentioned above are not new, but were carried out by the District Education Officer, whatever title or designation he possessed in the past as well as present times. The main question is whether he worked with a clear role concept, as being done by his counterparts within developed and successful systems of the world? Certainly there was a good deal of negative response to this question which will be discussed in chapters V and VII of this thesis.

The problem is that the tasks of supervision have not been functionally classified according to the conceptualizations of the roles selected by the supervisor, e.g., administrative, helping, coordinating etc. For example, supervisors who perceive their role in terms of helping relationships may confuse their clients when they spend a good deal of their time performing routine administrative duties, planning policy or developing plans for funding. Thus, the role concept of the supervisor lacks congruence with the activities he performs.

4.11. Taxonomy of the supervisory role.

Esposito, et al(1975) defined two main roles for the supervisors i.e. helping and administrative. They classified the above two roles within two headings for

each and with further details respectively. A complete sketch of the taxonomy of the supervisory role by the above authors is produced below:

a) Helping role of the Supervisor

i) **Indirect service to teachers**

1. Plan and arrange in-service education programmes and workshops.
2. Participate in in-service education programmes and workshops.
3. Co-ordinate instructional programmes.
4. Assist in the orientation of new and beginning teachers.
5. Assist teachers in the location, selection and interpretation of materials.
6. Collect and disseminate current curriculum materials.
7. Develop curriculum designs and coordinate curriculum improvement efforts.
8. Assist in the development of curriculum guides and other publications.
9. Assist textbook selection committees.
10. Develop and prepare new instructional media.
11. Assist in the evaluation and appraisal of school programmes.

ii) **Direct service to teachers.**

1. Assist in the orientation of new and beginning teachers.
2. Assist teachers in the location, selection and interpretation of materials.
3. Visit and observe in the classroom.
4. Teach demonstration lessons.
5. Hold individual conferences with teachers.

b) Administrative role of the supervisor.

i) **Supervisor as an Administrator**

1. Coordinate instructional inservice programmes.
2. Assist in the evaluation and appraisal of school programmes .
3. Routine administrative duties.
4. Participate in the formulation of policy.

5. Engage in public relations.
6. Work with citizens or lay groups.
7. Arrange inter-system visitations to observe promising practices.

ii) **Supervisor as an Evaluator.**

1. Plan and arrange inservice education programmes and workshops.
2. Participate in inservice education programmes and workshops.
3. Assist in the evaluation and appraisal of school programmes.
4. Arrange inter-system visitations to observe promising practices.
5. Arrange intra-system visitations to observe promising practices.

Although some tasks overlap two or more categories, it can be seen that of the four delineated categories two relate to the helping role and two relate to the administrative role.

The dualistic conceptual framework of the supervisory role concept permits several observations to be made. First the supervisor and his clients may perceive the activities he performs as being broadly of a helping or administrative type.

Second, the supervisor, wishing to act according to either of these two broad role concepts, may perform tasks that are congruent with it. Finally, there are activities in both the helping and administrative categories that can be further delineated into dimensions that can be meaningful for him and his clients. For example, there are tasks in the helping category that may be selected to allow the supervisor to be of direct service to teachers or to assist them in a more indirect way. Similarly a

supervisor who perceives himself acting according to an administrative role concept may perform tasks that can be delineated as strictly administrative or evaluative.

In this study it has been demonstrated that the supervisory role is multi-dimensional. Many authors posit that the research findings clarify the problem of the supervisor's role concept by functionally classifying tasks and activities into a taxonomy of the supervisory role according to four specific and two broader dimensions. A logical outcome of the findings of this study was that individuals in the supervisory role can consciously select and perform in the appropriate manner those tasks which are congruent with the role conceptualisation they bring to the supervisory position or that they wish to utilise in a given situation. The role confusion can only be clarified when these decisions are made.

The literature paints a picture of what a supervisor should do. Suggested tasks include planning and organising components of the instructional programme, instructing, analysing and conferring with teachers about their performance and perhaps evaluating .

In order to find out how similar descriptions of supervision correspond to the work done by supervisors, a study was carried out by Sullivan (1982) . He observed and collected through structured observation, samples of the work of system-level supervisors and analysed 14,753

minutes of supervisory behaviour. The supervisory work was compared with managerial work by using Mintzberg's (1973) 10-category framework. (fig. 4.4). According to this study ninety eight percent of the supervisor's activities fell into the categories defined by Mintzberg. Thus, it appears that these categories are an appropriate organisational scheme from which to discuss the supervisor's function in the school system.

Relationships are shown among the ten categories, grouped into three clusters: 1. Interpersonal i.e functions involving other persons. 2. Informational i.e functions involving acquisition and dispersion of information. 3. Decisional i.e functions related to the processes of decision making.

According to this study there was equal distribution of activity among clusters. Interpersonal accounted for 27 percent of the activity ; informational 38 percent and decisional, 33 percent.

Indeed 98 percent of the supervisor's work was accounted for in terms of management. Activities revealed that supervisors manage internally the organisation's on-going work.

In the case of Sindh, the District Education Officers are also over-burdened with administrative and office routine duties. This was also known through field study and the results are given in chapter VII of this thesis.

Fig.4.4. Mintzberg's ten functional categories of managerial work.

| Function | Description |
|----------|-------------|
|----------|-------------|

1. Interpersonal

- a) figurehead.> Symbolic head; obliged to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature.
- b) Leader. > Responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates, responsible for staffing, training and associated duties.
- c) Liaison. > Maintains self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide favours and information.

2. Informational

- a) Monitor. > Seeks and receives wide variety of special information to develop an understanding of organisation and environment; emerges as nerve centre of information of the organisation.
- b) Disseminator.> Transmits information received from outside or from other subordinates to members of the organisation. Some information factual, some involving interpretation and integration of diverse value positions of organisational influencers.
- c) Spokesperson.> Transmits information to outsiders on organisation's or unit's plans, policies actions, results, etc.

3. Decisional.

- a) Entrepreneur.> Searches organisation and its environment for opportunities and initiates improvement projects to bring about change. Supervises design of certain projects as well.
- b) Disturbance handler > Responsible for corrective action when organisation faces important and unexpected disturbances.
- c) Resource allocator > Responsible for the allocation of organisational resources of all kinds in effect participating in significant organisational decisions.
- d) Negotiator.> Responsible for representing the unit or organisation at negotiations.

Source: Mintzberg, H. The nature of managerial work.
New York: Harper and Row, 1973. pp. 92-93.

Harris (1985 pp.10-12) also presented ten task areas of supervision (see fig 4.5.) which was widely accepted as a model of supervisory work .

Supervisors in U.S.A did perform much of what Harris prescribed in the areas of organising for instruction, providing staff facilities and materials and relating special pupil services. They also participate in curriculum development. In performing these tasks, the supervisor works as a resource allocator and disturbance handler who uses his organisational place as a nerve centre for information. In contrast to the image portrayed in the literature, however, the supervisor is not involved in long-range considerations and direct, unilateral decision making.

Although the supervisor functions in the area of public relations, as Harris recommends, his audience is usually not parents or community groups as described by Harris but is internal to the system.

Two areas, inservice education and evaluating instruction, are supposed to be primary supervisory activities. However, supervisors spend so little time in these areas that they are peripheral rather than central activities.

Supervisory work is directly related to one prescribed area, orienting new staff members. The supervisor does as Harris suggests, keep staff members informed of organisational developments.

Figure.4.5. Harris' tasks of supervision.

| Task | Description |
|---|---|
| 1. <u>Developing curriculum.</u> | > Designing or redesigning that which is to be taught, by whom, when, where and in what pattern. Developing curriculum guides, establishing standards, planning instructional units and instituting new courses are examples of this task area. |
| 2. <u>Organising for instruction</u> | > Making arrangements whereby pupils, staff, space and materials are related to time and instructional objectives in coordinate and efficient ways. Grouping of students, planning class schedules, assigning spaces ,allocating time for instruction scheduling, planning events and arranging for teaching times are examples of endeavours associated with this task area. |
| 3. <u>Providing staff</u> | > Assuring the availability of instructional staff members in adequate numbers and with appropriate competencies for facilitating instruction. Recruiting, screening, selecting, assigning and transferring staff are endeavours included in this task area. |
| 4. <u>Providing facilities</u> | > Designing or redesigning and equipping facilities for instruction. The development of space and equipment specifications is included in this task area. |
| 5. <u>Providing materials</u> | > Selecting and obtaining appropriate materials for use in implementing curricular designs. Previewing , evaluating, designing and otherwise finding ways to provide appropriate materials are included in this task area. |
| 6. <u>Arranging for inservice education</u> | > Planning and implementing learning experiences that will improve the performance of the staff in instruction-related ways. This involves workshops, consultations, field trips and training sessions as well as formal education. |
| 7. <u>Orienting staff</u> | > Providing staff members with basic information necessary to carry out assigned responsibilities. This includes getting new staff members acquainted with facilities, staff and community but it also involves keeping the staff informed of organisation developments. |

cont... next page.

8. Relating special pupil services > Arranging for careful co-ordination of services to children to ensure optimum support for the teaching process. This involves developing policies, assigning priorities and defining relationships among service personnel to maximise relationships between services offered and instructional goals of the school.

9. Developing public relations > Providing for a free flow of information on matters of instruction to and from the public while securing optimum levels of involvement in the promotion of better instruction.

10. Evaluating instruction > Planning, organising and implementing procedures for data gathering, analysis and interpretation and decision making for improvement of instruction.

Source: Harris, Ben M . Supervisory behaviour in Education (3rd:edition) Englewood Cliffs N.J: Prentice-Hall,1985.pp.10-12

From the observation and analysis of supervisory work, the following generalisations describe the function and work flow of supervision:

1. The supervisor's major purpose is maintenance of the day- to-day operations of the school system.
2. The supervisor is a centre of communication, serving interpersonal, informational and decisional functions within the school system.
3. Communication is highly personal, direct verbal contact with those in similar status positions within the school system takes up the major portion of work time.
4. Both the supervisor's time and activities are highly fragmented.

4.12. Quality in education and the role of supervisor.

The great expansion which has taken place in education all over the world has created a great concern about the quality of education in schools. It is today among the highest priorities in all the countries rich or poor. It will no doubt remain so for the foreseeable future.

Lowe et al. (1989: 27) in an international OECD report regarding schools and quality have defined the term as under:

“Quality” has a variety of meanings. It can be a descriptive rather than a normative term. Thus, a pupil or teacher, a school or school district, a regional or national education system can have any number of qualities or defining characteristics.

The need to increase the quality of education particularly at secondary and primary school levels has become an important aspect of policy and discussion in the educational fields. For example this need was a major subject for discussion by the OECD Ministers of Education when they met in Paris in November, 1984 (Lowe et al, 1989). There is no immediate solution of the problem. In many education systems, it is rather a matter of consolidation of various reforms by taking serious efforts over a long period to bring about improvements in every aspect of schooling. In some systems, however, it may call for fundamental departures from settled arrangements and

practices.

Quality in education defined.

The concept of quality in education is a controversial issue among the economists, educational planners and the educators of today. There is no general agreement as to what constitutes quality in education. Though this varies from country to country there is still some consensus of opinion on certain common factors.

Beeby(1966) in developing his concept of quality in education explained three levels.

His first level was the classroom conception of quality as seen by an Inspector of schools(Supervisor), which embraces such measureable skills, as ability in the 3 R's, acquisition of a given range of factors of history, geography, hygiene , the school success in achieving these ends by the success of pupils in the final examination and the number who achieve the final certificate.

At the second level, quality of education was measured by its productivity; the view of an economist, who is interested in showing the relation between the input and output of the school system as a measure of its immediate productivity and efficiency.

At the third level, quality was judged by broader, social criteria and new sets of values. The school system is judged in terms of final goals set for people, children and the country as a whole.

Although Beeby's ideas are twenty five years old , the first level mentioned by him is still a common formula for determining the quality of education in most of the developing countries. Pakistan belongs to the same category of developing world, where quality is judged in a similar way.

Correa(1964) defines quality of education in terms of the productivity of the educational system, as the co-efficient of retention, dropout, repetition and promotion, which show the relationship between a given input of enrolment and the output of graduates. Quality includes such factors as the student-teacher ratio and student-classroom ratio etc. The quality of the product of education is taken more as a result of socio-economic factors outside the educational system than of the inputs in the educational system itself.

Lewis(1961) makes an interesting point in this respect. He dismisses the controversy as immaterial on the ground that developing countries can not afford to concentrate on the quality of education because of its high costs. They have to establish priorities in both quality and quantity. At the start they have to concentrate on quantity. With the higher stages of development the market(economy) adjusts itself and quantity itself is transformed into qualitative gains.

This is true in the case of Pakistan, where

quantity was pursued without realising the importance of quality in education. There were two main reasons for this.

Firstly in the first years of independence, many new nations strive for a great increase in the quantity of education. As a consequence the qualitative aspects are neglected. Pakistan was faced with exactly this kind of situation.

Secondly, during the independence movement, the leaders promised the nation provision of basic amenities of life. Among all those promised facilities, education was on the top. Immediately after independence, the father of the nation and the founder of the country stressed expansion of schools, particularly primary schools, all over the country. Again primary education was also made compulsory and in case of Sindh, there were strong regulations enforcing compulsory education.

In addition to the above two reasons, Universal Primary Education (UPE) launched by the UNESCO, during sixties also provided greater chance for the opening of more schools. Most of the schools were single-teacher schools. The majority of the teachers were poorly qualified and untrained. There were no adequate school buildings, and most of the schools were functioning either under the shade of trees or within straw-made huts. In order to satisfy the common people by opening more schools for children all over the country, only quantity was

considered, without realising the importance of quality in education.

Gould(1977) in his lecture delivered at the Oxford College of Further Education on the occasion of the Joseph Payne Memorial lecture, defined quality as a degree of excellence.

Gould further expressed :

Good education is as variable in meaning as the good life; for standards vary. To one a good education is that which sustains and strengthens military might; to an other, the salvation of the soul. To one it is the development of individualism, to an other subservience to family or state. To one, it enables youths to earn a living, to others, to develop a social being.
(pp.5-6)

Clearly no public education system can serve all these conflicting ends. In a multi-cultural country like the United Kingdom, people accept that only generally agreed objectives can be pursued, which are those concerned with knowledge and skills.

Mills(1985) has defined quality in education as a multi-level concept which includes references to those aspects of the system which aid the development of aspects of quality, such as quality of teaching, quality of resources and quality of the learning environment. Mills also concluded that quality in education must relate to pupil achievement and to the value of that achievement for society as a whole.

Heyneman and White(1986) described educational quality with many dimensions. In the very poorest countries qualitative changes may simply mean resources. A certain minimum is required to get any result at all. As more resources become available, the type of goods and services available in the school must be considered:

- a) the basic abilities;
- b) education, professional training and in-service programmes for teachers;
- c) availability of text books;
- d) availability of other support materials including physical plant and so on.

The above mentioned authors further stressed that in addition to the above points, the importance of the school quality depends on the availability of other learning modes at home, in the media and in the community. According to them, all of these factors will contribute to student learning, career development and earnings, which effect human capital and in turn contributes to national economic growth.

The above mentioned definitions of quality in education are universal and mostly applicable to entire educational systems.

Fuller(1985) in his study on raising school quality in developing countries has a different opinion about the quality in education. He disagrees with the

views of Governments and development agencies which often define quality in terms of academic performance or retention in school.

Fuller has defined quality as under:

Quality is better defined in relation to the amount of learning imparted by the school after accounting for the effects factors which operate external to the school, such as the child's economic context and pre-school background.

(Fuller, 1985 : 4)

The above view is mostly concerned with social status and background of a child's family. In poor and developing countries like Pakistan, the majority of children who attend the schools belong to low income families and illiterate parents. With such a background the performance of children remains low and this how ever affects the quality in education, on the whole.

In Pakistan the first decade of post independence stressed the quantity of education for a newly born state. In 1950, the Advisory Board of Education demanded quality along with quantity. In 1959, the Commission on National Education based its findings on the revision of traditional attitudes and professional educators.

Adam Curle, one time consultant and Advisor to the Government of Pakistan, Planning Commission during sixties, expressed his view that achievement of quality and efficiency in education of Pakistan was possible through development of human resources. (Curle, 1973).

This was due to the fact that the majority of the teachers at that time were untrained and poorly qualified. Efforts were required to boost new methods for utilising human resources.

A period of nearly three decades have already passed after the remarks of the well-known educationist, but still the state of affairs are deteriorating. This researcher is of the view that our policy-makers and planners are still far from the practical aspects of the schemes and are only experts in drafting plans in black and white. They neglect the evaluation of the success of such plans and schemes, particularly the quality in education, the failure of which has caused wastage of economic and human resources in the country.

On the other hand it is generally agreed that quality of public instruction has declined in Pakistan. The latest National Education Conference held at Islamabad in March, 1989 pointed out the following three main strategies being reasons of failures towards achievement of quality in education, on the whole:

Firstly the quality aspect has been compromised because of the rapid expansion of educational facilities.

Secondly deployment of a patch-work strategy was applied and the measures taken have at best remained half-hearted.

Thirdly insensitivity to real problems by those who are responsible for introducing changes (Government of

Pakistan,1989: pp.9-23)

The above three points fully endorse this researcher's opinion which is backed up by data from the case-studies(Chapter VII).

After defining quality in education it is worthwhile to discussing the involvement of the educational supervisor towards maintenance of quality in education .

Role of supervisors.

While describing the role of the inspectorate towards quality control in education, Young(1981) believed that the Inspectorate was the old instrument for monitoring the education service. Although Young referred to the particular role of H.M.I. and Local Education Advisers in United Kingdom , it is commonly known that the role of supervisors has an effective part towards maintenance of the quality and efficiency in education throughout the world.

As the economist looks at quality as being measured by productivity, he looks at the relationship between the input and output of the school system as measures of its immediate productivity and efficiency. An educational Supervisor examines the results of the schools' activities. However, it is as difficult to judge the quality of education as it is to define it. Perhaps

one of the common methods of judging quality would be through the Supervisors looking at the classroom situation.

The quality of education demands taking action to ensure that the needs of the society are effectively provided to live as happy and successful human beings. The role of supervisors is crucial because together with various categories of the officers involved in the development of education. Supervisors will be expected to participate in producing relevant text books, revising the curricula and reforming the whole educational structure to make education really relevant to the needs of society.

However, it has to be realised that to improve quality calls for the availability of adequate and relevant resources which ought to be used effectively. It is one of the supervisor's roles to see to it that the resources in the schools are effectively used. All the supervisors have the same aims, i.e as agents of quality control, but whether or not they can fulfill these aims depends on the level of bureaucracy.

An international conference on the role of the Central Inspectorate in defining, assessing and reporting on quality in education was held at Oxford from 30th: September- 2nd: October, 1987, under the auspices of OECD observed differences in the degree and depth of control, supervision and coordination. Such differences also influence the way quality is upheld and the formal

procedures through which it is upheld. These in turn affect the way by which quality may be revised whether in response to change of an economic, technological or social order.

The above observations were mainly concerned with the member states of OECD countries, mostly developed in economy and educational setup, but still the fundamental issues remain same all over the international community. Countries apart from the above, are also facing problems of achieving quality in education. The role of the Supervisor(Inspector) is very important in the achievement of the goal. Looking at developing world, it is useful to know what was observed in a similar type of conference for the Inspectors of schools from the Asia/Pacific areas of Commonwealth held under the auspices of the Commonwealth foundation at Singapore in August,1969 in connection with " The role of the Inspectorate in the maintenance and development of quality education ". This conference issued a word of warning to Inspectors (Supervisors) in the following words:(Commonwealth,1970)

You, like all other administrators face the occupational hazard of goal displacement. By this is meant the volume of routine work will tend to cause you to spend a good deal of your time on it. Your goal is educational leadership and the improvement of teaching performance- the danger you face is that this will take second place to routine work. You must not allow yourselves to suffer this goal displacement; you must remain professional officers and not become clerical assistants. (p.39)

The above warning has not yet produced any fruitful results in the case of the Supervisor's role in most of the countries in the region including Pakistan. This researcher has already observed during the field study that the Supervisor's role is still limited to office routine and administrative matters. The District Education Officer in Sindh is very much an administrator rather than a professional leader. (See chapters V & VII)

The role of District Education Officers as supervisors concerned with maintaining quality in education is still a matter of serious consideration and a big challenge to the system of school education in Sindh. The role of Supervisory staff at the district level is under strong criticism among the teachers and members of the common public. People are not satisfied with the standards of education in every aspect whether it be learning achievement by the children or provision of necessary facilities, physical as well as instructional, in schools, for which the District Education Officer is mainly responsible.

The role of supervisor as a guide to teachers is seldom seen within the supervisory style of District Education Officers in Sindh. This researcher has also observed during the field study that most of the time the District Education Officer's time was spent in answering the phone calls from the head quarters and replying to the queries made through correspondence regarding different

administrative aspects of the district. They were also observed to be busy talking about political matters more than academic matters and the improvement of education while talking to their subordinates in the office. They were also seen to be more concerned about the statistical information, and filling in the columns than in improving human relationships and other questions of real quality.

4.13. Effective schools.

Education is a collective enterprise involving the whole school, the wider community and the education authority. It demands good leadership and sound management which have a significant effect on pupil's learning. Possibly the most important factor in school effectiveness is the quality of teaching.

According to a report by H.M.I., an effective school is one in which pupils learn, to the limit of their capabilities, what is deemed appropriate, taking into account their personal needs and preferences. (HMSO, 1988)

While sketching a portrait of an effective school Purkey and Smith (1983) have argued that an effective school is distinguished by its culture: a structure, process and climate of values and norms that emphasise successful teaching and learning.

Identifying effective schools and the means to create more of them have become pivotal concerns in the work of a growing number of educational researchers and practitioners since the seventies. This activity has generated a rich literature describing the characteristics of effective schools. (Bickel, 1983). After years of equivocation, the school effectiveness literature has recently taken on a prescriptive tone. (Clark et al, 1984)

Mackenzie (1983) identified three dimensions of effective schooling i.e leadership, efficacy and

efficiency and classified these dimensions into further elements, as under:

1. Leadership

- a) Positive climate and overall atmosphere.
- b) Goal-focused activities toward clear, attainable and relevant objectives.
- c) Teacher-directed classroom management and decision-making.
- d) In-service staff training for effective teaching.

2. Efficacy

- a) High and positive achievement expectations with a constant press for excellence.
- b) Visible rewards for academic excellence and growth.
- c) Cooperative activity and group interaction in the classroom.
- d) Total staff involvement with school improvement.
- e) Autonomy and flexibility to implement adaptive practices.
- f) Appropriate levels of difficulty for learning tasks.
- g) Teacher empathy, rapport, and personal interaction with students.

3. Efficiency

- a) Effective use of instructional time, amount and

intensity of engagement in school learning.

b) Orderly and disciplined school and classroom environments.

c) Continuous diagnosis, evaluation and feedback.

d) Well-structured classroom activities.

e) Instruction guided by content coverage.

f) Schoolwide emphasis on basic and higher order skills.

Edmonds(1982) identified five characteristics of an effective school:

1. A school principal who provides leadership and pays attention to the quality of instruction.

2. A pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus.

3. An orderly, safe climate conducive to teaching and learning.

4. An expectation that all students will obtain at least minimum mastery of a subject.

5. The use of measures of pupil achievement as the basis for programme evaluation.

The most comprehensive review of the literature on school effectiveness was conducted by Purkey and Smith (1983). They classified the studies of school effectiveness into four types:

i) Outlier studies

ii) Case studies

iii) Programme evaluation studies

iv) Other studies.

Purkey and Smith(1983) also identified nine organizational/structural variables as being characteristics of effective schools. These variables are reproduced alongwith brief description as under:

1. Emphasis is placed on school site management, with considerable autonomy given to the school leadership and staff.

2. Strong instructional leadership is provided by the school principal, other administrators, or teachers.

3. Stability and continuity are valued. Actions that reduce staff stability are avoided in order to facilitate agreement and cohesion.

4. Curriculum articulation and organization are used to achieve agreement on goals, to develop a purposeful programme on instruction coordinated across grade levels and to provide sufficient time for instruction.

5. There is a schoolwide staff development programme, based on the expressed needs of teachers, involving the entire school staff and closely related to the school's instructional programme.

6. Parents are informed about school goals and student responsibilities, particularly in connection with homework.

7. Schoolwide recognition of academic success is provided, by encouraging students to adopt similar norms and values.

8. Time is used effectively with more devotion to academic subjects and less time lost to disruption or non-academic activities.

9. Support from the school district is evident.

Besides the above organizational/structural variables, Purkey and Smith pointed out four process variables, which according to them relate to the culture and climate within the school:

1. Collaborative planning and collegial relationships are evident and help break down barriers, develop consensus and promote a sense of unity.

2. There is a strong sense of community.

3. Clear goals and high expectations, including clearly defined purposes and agreement on priorities are evident.

4. Order and discipline are based on clear rules enforced fairly and consistently. This practice helps and communicate a sense of the seriousness and purpose with which the school approaches its task.

Purkey and Smith further stressed that the organizational/structural and process variables are interrelated and interdependent. The organizational/structural variables provide a framework within which the process variables can be developed. Neither group of variables, of itself, is sufficient to describe an effective school, in their view.

While reviewing the work of Purkey and Smith, Fullan(1985) wanted to describe an effective school by highlighting aspects of process that were neglected. Following a distinction that Purkey and Smith(1983) suggested (but not their precise list), Fullan found it useful to divide the factors into two . The first group was a list of eight organization variables that are typical of characteristics of effective schools described in the literature. The second group consisted of four process variables that have been largely overlooked or inadequately understood.

The organization variables of effective schools mentioned by Fullan, were:

1. Instructionally focused leadership at the school level.
2. District Support.
3. Emphasis on curriculum and instruction(e.g, maximizing academic learning.
4. Clear goals and high expectations for students.
5. A system for monitoring performance and achievement.
6. Ongoing staff development.
7. Parental involvement and support.
8. Orderly and secure climate.

Again, Fullan realised that such a list of

variables did not clearly indicate the methods and means of implementation in a particular school. They represent the tip of the iceberg and say nothing about the dynamics of the organization. In reviewing material that more closely addressed process issues, there were four fundamental factors which according to Fullan's view underline successful improvement processes:

- i) A feeling for the improvement process on the part of leadership.
- ii) A guiding value system.
- iii) An intense interaction and communication.
- iv) A collaborative planning and implementation.

The characteristics of effective schools described above include both organizational/structural as well as process variables that are related to academic emphasis. The following relevant factors derived from the above characteristics, can further explain the effectiveness of schools.

1. Academic emphasis.

The results of many studies support the view that student achievement is higher in schools and classrooms where there is a clear focus on academic goals. Good and Grouws(1979) are also of the view that pupil success is more in schools where there is stress on academic goals, learning activities, teaching methods etc. Student

achievement is higher when the school's staff is in general agreement on goals and objectives, and expects students to achieve them. This characteristic is related to the extent to which school leadership functions effectively to achieve consensus on goals and objectives, so that staff members are working together to achieve common objectives in a supportive environment.

Leadership at the school level in Sindh tended to be more than a symbol of authority, as the Headmasters found themselves helpless because most of the teachers lacked enthusiasm for their normal teaching work. Learning activities were ineffective and teachers were mostly unfamiliar with the appropriate use of teaching methods. Although the teachers possessed teaching qualifications such as B.Ed, they were generally not concerned about the use of appropriate teaching methods. During discussions with some of the teachers, they told this researcher that it was not possible for them to apply the teaching methods that they had learnt during their training. Most of them believed such methods to be fanciful ideas. Lack of cooperation and leg-pulling were common among the teaching staff.

2. Classroom management.

Although a commitment to learning should be the first and foremost function of the entire school, it is within individual classrooms and through the efforts of

individual teachers, that this commitment is given proper shape. There is a lot of evidence that student achievement is influenced strongly by the way teachers manage their classrooms. Effective teachers gain and hold the attention of students and maintain a classroom environment conducive to learning.

Coleman et.al(1982) and Edmonds(1979) in their studies were of the opinion that in a properly managed classroom the atmosphere is orderly, and discipline is maintained. Clear and reasonable rules of conduct are enforced consistently and fairly. Lessons start and end on time. Pupils know what is expected of them. They receive timely feedback on their performance and are appreciated for better performance.

The situation within the schools and classrooms of Government secondary schools of Sindh was observed to be quite unsystematic. Though every school has a time table and every teacher is supposed to follow his personal time table, many classes were found abandoned by the teachers and controlled by the monitors or class prefects. Some of the teachers were seen busy in discussing their private affairs within the teachers' lounge and those closely affiliated to the Headmaster were sitting in his office, while others were said to be either on authorised or unauthorised leave.

This state of affairs clearly affected classroom discipline, management and effectiveness.

3. Management of Time

Effective schools are characterised by effective use of the time available for teaching and instruction. In effective schools, a major portion of the school day is devoted to teaching subjects. Pupils spend more time in learning activities and classes are free from interruptions. (Stallings, 1981)

4. Parental Involvement

Parental involvement and support are often listed as important organizational/structural variables. Several studies carried out in the United States of America, particularly those under the auspices of the Phi Delta Kappa, found parental involvement and support to be important factors in student achievement.

The out-of-school activities of students have been recognised to affect their school performance. In a cross national study by Stevenson et al. (1985), it was observed that more involved parents tends to foster better achievement and create motivation in their wards, particularly if the parents help children with homework or at least encourage children to do it. Murnane (1980) found that academic achievement of students is related to the mother's degree of formal schooling.

In Pakistan, the involvement of parents towards academic participation is very low partly because the

majority of the parents(70%) are illiterate(UNESCO, 1984). Again due to a very meagre literacy of 13.7% among Pakistani women, one cannot expect mothers to be helpful for the children at home so far as academic help and guidance towards school home work is concerned.

The situation in Sindh, basically reflects the same picture, but the literacy ratio (i.e.31.4%)is the highest compared with the other three provinces. There is a big gap of literacy among urban and rural areas. The urban population has 50.8% literates whereas rural population has 15.6% literates (Government of Sindh,1988). The involvement of parents towards academic help and guidance of their children at home is very rare, irrespective of their domicile. The main reason is that the majority of parents in urban areas are busy in business or professional jobs. They cannot spare time for coaching of their children at home. Most of them arrange private tuitions and coaching through private tutors at home or at private coaching centres. Poor and illiterate parents, whether living in urban or rural areas, can neither afford to pay extra coaching charges for their children nor are they are in position to guide their children in academic work. On the other hand, however, a very small number of educated middle class parents do help their children in academic work at home.

In my opinion private coaching though has helped children towards preparation for examinations and

achievement of good results, but on the contrary has provided chance to teachers to work only for their own personal benefit, out of the school. This has also affected the classroom teaching to a great extent. Not only this but the above behaviour of teachers has also minimised the effectiveness of Government schools, within the province of Sindh.

5. Staff development

The rapidly changing scene in the instructional programme is also a challenge to leadership in school systems.

Griffin(1983) defines staff development as any systematic attempt to alter the professional practices, beliefs and understandings of school persons towards an articulated end.

Staff development enables the faculty to provide the academic, personal, social, intellectual and career objectives essential to the goals of students.(Marks et al, 1985).

Effective management involves the identification and regular review of staff development needs and provision, taking into account national, regional and school needs as well as those of the individual. The professional development of both experienced and inexperienced staff is encouraged to the benefit of the

individual, the school and the education system as a whole. Such programmes are closely related to the school's instructional programmes and are based on the needs of teachers known through a system of collaborative planning. There has been a great stress on in-service education of teachers as a means of improving the quality of schools and school systems.

In Pakistan, Staff-development programmes for the teachers, headmasters and the Supervisors are generally organised by the federal as well as provincial governments. The major portion of this job is performed by the provincial governments.

In Sindh, the basic responsibility of staff development lies with the Bureau of Curriculum and education extension services. In-service courses for the teachers, headmasters and educational supervisors are organised at the headquarters of the Bureau at Jamshoro as well as at its regional centres at Karachi and Khairpur, from time to time. The output of such courses, in helping the teaching personnel towards making the schools more effective, are not yet confirmed.

While going through the characteristics of effective schools, one can easily conclude that our schools are still lacking all such qualities, arrangements and organizational/structural processes which are

essential for an effective school. The District Education Officer is not as competent and dynamic as a District Superintendent in the United States of America. On the other hand our schools are not autonomous organisations like those in the United Kingdom, where most of the problems are effectively solved at school level.

Suggestions for the solution of above problems will be made in chapter VIII.

4.14. Models of supervision.

Whatever titles supervisors possess, they ought to lead towards the improvement of instruction. Instructional improvement has long been recognised as the unique role for supervisors. Competencies required for this unique and demanding form of educational leadership are numerous. The mastery of an array of professional supervisory competencies is a first essential step in assuming leadership for improving education.

The survey of literature on supervision describes many approaches to supervision: for example, competency based, behavioural systems, criterion referenced, clinical, team, human relations, humanized and self-actualized.

Unfortunately the experts in supervision are of little help in suggesting the most effective model of supervision, as expressed by Glickman and Tamashiro (1980 pp.74-77). Gebhard (1984 pp.501-512) however sketched five models of supervision picked up from different studies, such as directive, non- directive, collaborative, alternative and creative supervision.

1. Directive supervision.

This model of supervision is the one which most teachers and many teacher educators express as their idea of what supervision is. In this type of supervision the

role of supervisor is to direct and inform the teacher, model teaching behaviours and evaluate the teacher's mastery of defined behaviours.

2. Non- directive supervision.

In this type of supervision, the supervisor does not tell the teacher what to do to improve teaching, but rather re states how he has understood the teacher's comments in a way which encourages the teacher to develop by self-analysis.

3. Collaborative supervision.

Within this model the supervisor's role is to work with teachers but not to direct them. The supervisor actively participates with the teacher in any decisions that are made and attempts to establish a sharing relationship. This is similar to Cogan's **Clinical supervision**. Cogan (1973 p.xi) believes that teaching is mostly a problem-solving process that requires a sharing of ideas between the teacher and the supervisor. The teacher and supervisor work together in addressing a problem in the teacher's classroom teaching.

4. Alternative supervision.

In this model the supervisor's role is to suggest

a variety of alternatives to what the teacher has done in the classroom. This limits the number of choices for teachers and it can reduce anxiety over not knowing what to do next. However it still keeps the responsibility for decision making with the teacher. There is simply less choice. This type of supervision works best when the supervisor does not favour any one alternative and does not sound judgmental. The purpose of offering alternatives is to widen the scope of what a teacher will consider doing.

5. Creative supervision.

This model allows freedom to become creative not only in the use of models, but also in other behaviours by testing supervisory efforts. This model can be used in at least three ways. Firstly it can allow a combination of models or a combination of supervisory behaviours from different models. Secondly a shifting of supervisory responsibilities from the supervisor to other sources. Thirdly an application of insights from other fields which are not found in any of the models.

Working with only one model can be appropriate, or it can be limiting. Sometimes a combination of different models or combination of supervisory behaviours from different models might be needed. A Creative model of supervision can be used by allowing a shift of supervisory responsibility from the supervisor to another source.

Lastly, creative supervision can be used through the application of insights from other fields which are not found in any of the models, for example, some teacher educators have adopted observation systems originally developed for research. The application of observation systems has been a valuable asset to supervisors. It allows supervisors to describe rather than prescribe teaching. This system provides a means through which teachers can continue to monitor and study their own teaching.

These categories were elicited from many teachers and teacher educators from several countries and appear to be a fairly representative sample of what many teachers and teacher educators perceive supervision to be.

Wiles and Bondi (1986 p.8), after reviewing the literature on supervision in the past twenty five years, found at least six major conceptualisations of supervision. They focused on administration, curriculum, instruction, human relations, management and leadership.

Bar et al (1947 pp.6-8) observed that the purposes and philosophy controlling supervision have gone through a number of significant changes. Supervision at first was largely inspection to determine the state of affairs. Suggestions for improvement were present only indirectly. The general attitude was that of laissez-faire. Coercion at one time or another, naively or

openly dominated supervision. Supervision according to them is becoming cooperative and participatory, in other words democratic. In short, the models of supervision discussed by this group of authors was inspection, laissez-faire, co-ercive , democratic etc.

Nwaogu(1980 pp.184-87) through an analysis of the above models of supervision observed that some traces of even the oldest ones are still in operation in some areas of the world, especially in the developing countries.

Kochar (1980 pp.31-33) discussed six types of supervision, namely Laissez-faire, coercive, corrective, preventive ,creative and democratic. He observed that all those were applied by the Education Officers (Supervisors) in India.

4.15. A basis for successful school supervision in Sindh.

The historical evolution of education in Pakistan including Sindh, discussed in chapter III and the survey of the literature on supervision in the current chapter, have cleared the way for finding a suitable basis for successful school supervision in Sindh. It was observed that the changes in educational policy by the successive governments in Pakistan did not, on their own, solve the problem. The reasons for this have been mentioned in

the previous two chapters (i.e. II and III). Among such changes the most important one was that of re-organisation in the supervisory system of school education in 1972. Further details about this will be discussed in next chapter i.e. V. There was an overall change of the structure, but the impressions given by various experts about the supervisory system gave a gloomy view of the system in practice.

After going through the literature of supervision regarding successful types of supervision, the role of supervisors and tasks of supervision, the following models (already discussed) could be the possible basis for a successful supervision of schools in Sindh.

1. A taxonomy of the supervisory role by Esposito and Burbach .
2. Harris' tasks of supervision .
3. Model of Creative supervision selected out of five models defined by Gebharad .

After the selection of the above models and types of supervision and supervisory roles along with tasks, the next step is the justification for the application of these models in the case of Sindh.

A taxonomy of the supervisory role by Esposito and Burbach indicate two main roles of a supervisor i.e helping and administrative. In the helping role they have classified the functions of supervisor into direct and

indirect service to teachers. While the administrative role saw the supervisor in the capacities of both as an administrator and as an evaluator.

The concept and definitions of supervision in the literature also provide the same view about supervision and supervisors. The District Education Officers who are mainly responsible for the supervision of secondary schools in Sindh are supposed to perform the same type of functions i.e administrative and helping. The District Education Officers are working within the taxonomy, but in an irregular and unsystematic way. Unfortunately they are still working as Inspectors to inspect, visit or criticize the educational activities being carried out at a school. This is very very old concept. The modern concept of supervision found in the literature is that of improvement of instruction. The role of Supervisors in Sindh is mostly one sided. (Bhutto and Mehar, 1978; Bhutto, 1979 and Abbasi, 1985). The District Education Officers are administrators more and helpers less. They stick around the administrative functions rather than keeping the balance for the second function i.e. helping.

The application of the model in our situation is possible; firstly by reducing the existing jurisdiction of Education Officers at least to one third level. Secondly fixing the basic responsibility of supervision for the Headmasters of high schools as co-supervisors. The literature shows that District superintendents, Assistant

Superintendents, Principals etc. are all treated as supervisors in developed countries.

Supervision is a team work and all the teachers, Headmasters and District Education Officers are equally responsible for the improvement of teaching.

The detailed review of Harris' ten tasks of supervision along with the description gives the same conclusion that these ten functions were directly or indirectly concerned with the administrative and helping roles of supervisors as mentioned by Esposito and Burbach.

The tasks of providing staff, facilities and materials, arranging for inservice education, orienting staff and developing public relations are mostly administrative functions of a supervisor.

The District Education Officers in Sindh are also performing the same functions with limited authority. Mainly the final decisions are made at the higher level, either by the Director of Schools Education, or the Secretary of Education. The allocation of resources and recruitment of teachers in higher grades are decided mostly at the higher level. The District Education Officer performs the same functions to a small extent.

Tasks of developing curriculum, organising for instruction, arranging for inservice education, evaluating instruction etc., were mostly concerned with the helping and instructional tasks of supervisors.

The District Education Officers are mostly involved in such tasks. Some tasks like inservice education and developing curriculum are decided by the other agencies of Sindh Education Department like the Bureau of Curriculum and educational extension services, Sindh and Sindh Text Book Board. The District Education Officers, only implement the decisions made by the above agencies. Though the District Education Officer is out of the administrative jurisdiction of such agencies but he is still working as a facilitator for such tasks.

The total application of tasks of supervisors defined in the model are possible with delegation of authority to District Education Officers at that level.

The model of creative supervision selected out of Gebhards' models, will need time because supervision is a service particularly concerned with instruction and its improvement. It is directly concerned with teaching and learning. The behaviour of the supervisor should be creative. He is concerned with a class of society who is doing the most important task of educating the children. Various types of school supervision available in the literature right from coercive to democratic and creative supervision, were applied from time to time in different societies, but the latest and successful was the creative supervision which is also the best form of democratic supervision.

The conclusion of discussion in locating the basis regarding successful school supervision for Sindh comes to this suggestion that, a creative supervision with roles and description of tasks based on democratic principles could be successful .

The reason for choosing those three will become clearer after the analysis of the supervisor's role in Sindh (Chapters V and VII).

CHAPTER V

EVOLUTION OF SCHOOL SUPERVISION IN PAKISTAN WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SINDH

In this chapter, the origins of school supervision in Pakistan and various changes which have taken place in the supervisory system of school education, since independence up to the present will be discussed. The supervisory system of school education in Sindh, particularly the re-organisation of 1972 and its results, will also be described .

5.1. Origin of school supervision in Pakistan.

Every institution, social or political, has its roots in the past history of the people it serves. Its relevance and utility under the present conditions can be determined only when we try to understand how it originated, what purposes it was designed to accomplish and whether it can meet the needs and aspirations of the society.

The institution of supervision has been in existence in the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent in the form of school inspection for over a century and half. Before determining its relevance to changing socio-economic conditions and the emerging needs of Pakistan, including Sindh, it seems necessary to have a look at its origin,

nature, purpose and procedures.

Inspection(supervision) originated as a part of educational administration in British India in the third decade of the 19th:century. The indigenous school systems had no tradition of formal or external overseeing. They were also free from state control and direction. When the East India Company started providing funds, it also appointed an agency for spending the allotment. The Governor-General-in-Council set up a general committee of public instruction in July, 1825 , to ascertain the state of public instruction and to suggest measures for its improvement.(Sharp, 1920 p.53).

Similar committees were set up in Madras and Bombay constituencies. The state control of education was institutionalized by the Wood Depatch,* 1854 in pursuance of which, offices of Circle Inspectors were created to control all educational institutions run or aided by the Government. To conduct examinations, to advise school teachers and managers and to submit reports to the newly created provincial education departments were the main functions of Circle inspectors.

The Circle Inspectors were to be assisted by two Assistant Inspectors each and a number of District Inspectors of Schools. The District Inspectors were to work under the orders of the Deputy Commissioners or

* Sir Charles Wood was the Chairman of Court of Directors.

Collectors concerned. Later on, the Departments of Education compiled education codes and manuals. Inspectors were required to check the cleanliness of school premises, the registers and records, methods of teaching, examination, moral and physical teaching, etc. to ensure observance of rules and regulations. As the number of primary and middle schools increased in districts, the posts of Assistant to the District Inspectors of Schools (i.e. ADIS's) were created. Their supervisory functions were co-extensive with those of District Inspectors. (Government of India, 1920 . P.27)

5.2. School supervision since independence.(1947)

At the time of independence, three types of schools were in existence, i.e. primary, middle and high. From the viewpoint of management these schools fall into three categories :

(i) The denominational schools, managed by private bodies, mainly religious in character, and aided in part by the government in accordance with a set scale.

(ii)The local schools were the responsibility of the Local body, partially aided by the government. Most of the primary and middle schools with a few high schools belonged to the local body.

(iii)The Government schools, mostly high schools, were completely financed and run by the government.

The head of the Department, the Director of Public Instruction (D.P.I), was also secretary to the Government. As head of the department he was assisted by a number of officers at provincial headquarters. The next unit of administration was the Division where the head was styled the Divisional Inspector of Schools. The Divisional Inspector of Schools supervised the education of boys, whereas girls schools were under the supervision of an Inspectress of Schools. For the assistance of Inspectors there were a number of Deputy Inspectors and Inspectresses.

The next grade in the inspecting staff was the District Inspector of Schools (D.I.S). They were in charge of education up to the middle stage and were assisted by the Assistant District Inspector. The Number of assistants varied according to the size of the district.

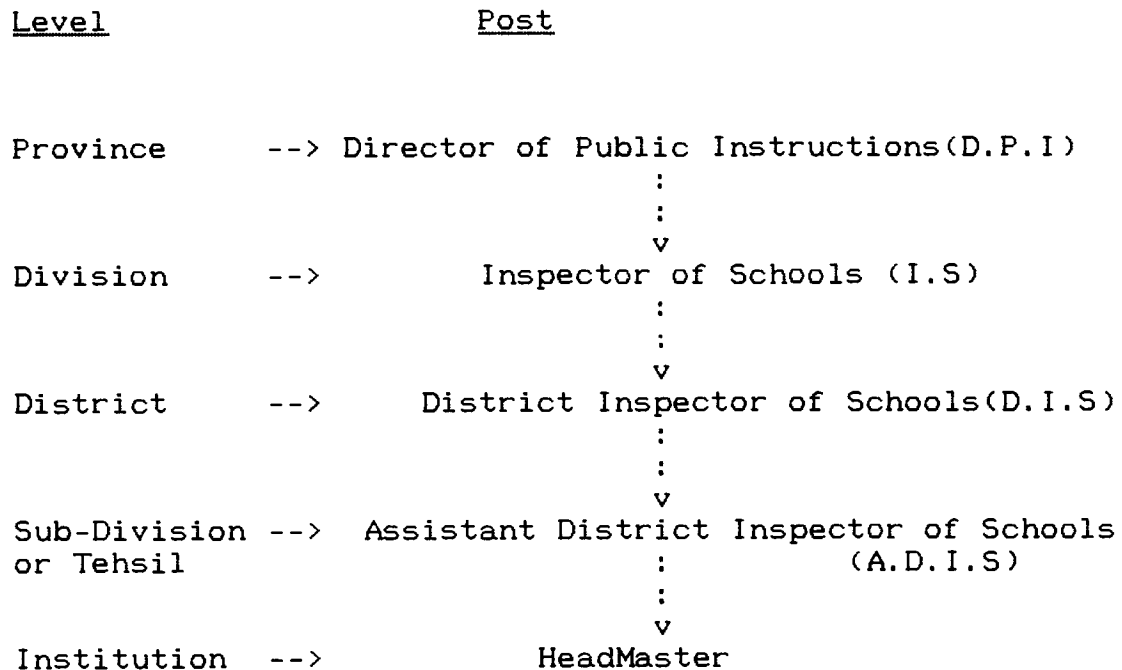
Figure 5.1 (on the next page) depicts the hierarchy of the system.

Inspection of schools was divided among inspectors of different grades. The Divisional Inspector and his staff of Deputy Inspectors inspected only high schools. The District Inspector and his staff of Assistant District Inspectors inspected middle and primary schools. Normally each district had a District Inspector. In some cases a district was split so that it had two District

Inspectors.

Figure 5.1

Educational Hierarchy
(1947- 1955)



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Broadly speaking the role of the Inspectorate was to manage local body and government institutions under their jurisdiction and to evaluate the work of the teachers and administrators. They were responsible for the upkeep of the high standard of work in educational institutions. Recommendations for recognition of new schools, arrangements for the in-service training of teachers to carry out development projects of the department and assessment of the financial aid to be given to non-government institutions, were included in their functions.

For the performance of these multifarious duties entrusted to the Inspectors by the department, the Inspector visited or inspected the school. The difference was very important: Generally the visit was of short duration and he just looked over the school at work and discussed any problems with the head of the school. The visit was usually a surprise one. On the other hand, inspection was more thorough and detailed. Information was sent to schools, well in advance regarding the date of inspection.

Secondary schools were inspected by the Inspector along with a team of other inspectors of various grades including Deputy, District and Assistant District Inspectors and even some senior heads of high schools. Members of the team were very often specialists in various subjects. They inspected under the chairmanship of the

Divisional Inspector who delegated responsibility for different subjects. The report was made on the qualifications of teachers and their methods of teaching, the workload of the staff and the progress made by the children in each class. The Inspectors also reported on the accommodation, equipment, sanitation and on the financial position and general tone and discipline of the school. A thorough examination took three to four days, depending on the size of the institution inspected. Inspectors' impressions were recorded by the Divisional Inspector in the log book kept in the school. No report was printed.

The above structure of school supervision continued to exist from independence i.e. 14th August 1947 up to 24th: October, 1955.

In the last quarter of the year 1955, all the four provinces of the western wing of Pakistan were amalgamated into a single province. The administrative setup of the provinces in a new shape also affected the organisational setup of education in the country. Under the new arrangements, the provinces were split up into regions and the Directors of Education were appointed to act as the Executive heads of Directorates in various regions to work under the control of the Director of Public Instruction, West Pakistan, at Lahore.

The above changes were not concerned with the efficiency of the system up to 1955. However the style of

functionaries was known to be very rigid and autocratic.

5.3. School supervision during One Unit.

The civil administration of centrally administered Karachi, the provinces of Punjab, Baluchistan, Sindh, North West Frontier i.e. NWFP, the states of Bahawalpur and Khairpur, the frontier states and the tribal areas of the northern area were merged under one overall administration and designated as West Pakistan under **ONE UNIT**, on 24th:October 1955.

This re-organisation necessitated the re-orientation of the administration and conduct of the Department of Education in West Pakistan. For the purpose of general administration, West Pakistan was divided into ten divisions and fifty districts. Some of the former divisions were also reorganised.

As mentioned earlier, the organizational setup of the united province was now given new shape and the entire province was divided into four regions, namely;

1. The Quetta Region, which included the divisions of Quetta and Kalat.
2. The Hyderabad Region, which included the divisions of Hyderabad and Khairpur.
3. The Lahore Region, which included the divisions of Lahore, Multan and Bahawalpur.
4. The Peshawar Region, which included the divisions

of Peshawar, Dera Ismail Khan and Rawalpindi.

This delimitation of educational units for administrative purposes affected the whole setup of the Education Department. The comprehensive and all powerful office of the Director of Public Instruction was bifurcated into the office of the Director of Public Instruction, the executive head and that of secretary. This meant that the Director of Public Instruction was relieved of his secretarial work. He was no longer the government so far as educational matters were concerned. This secretarial function was transferred to the Secretary of the Education Department, the administrative head. Two Deputy secretaries and one under secretary were appointed to assist the secretary. The Director of Public Instruction became the executive head only of the attached Department in West Pakistan. He was at the time of integration assisted by six officers called Assistant Directors. This number was however increased to nine. They were all class I Officers. Their duties were mainly advisory on different sections of education viz primary, secondary, colleges, women's education etc.

Regional heads were appointed for the above mentioned four regions, and titled Director of Education, with a large number of officers at their headquarters. At the Divisional level, there were Divisional Inspectors. Each division had a number of District Inspectors of

schools. The District Inspectors of Schools were assisted by the Assistant District Inspector of schools. College education was directly controlled by the Directors of Education.

The ten divisions under one unit were co-extensive with the administrative civil divisions. The increase in inspection staff for supervision of school education was negligible.

The main motive behind the arrangement of educational regions was to unify the whole system of educational administration in order to conduct it on a national basis. There was a good deal of decentralization of powers so far as educational administration was concerned. The regional directors were empowered to appoint, transfer and dismiss subordinate educational service personnel on the school side and transfer the college lecturers from one college to another, within the region. The Divisional Inspectors were also empowered to transfer subordinate educational service personnel within their division, but they seldom used this power. The District Inspectors were only concerned with the local authority teachers and exercised powers to the extent to which these were delegated to them by the local bodies concerned.

In 1955, the constitutional responsibility for education was that of provinces, discharged through the Directorates of Education, under the Ministry of

Education. The chief administrative Officer was the Director of Public Instruction.

In 1955, the first five year Plan, 1955-60 (Government of Pakistan, 1955 p.552) referred to the supervisory system of school education in the following words:

This organisation for conducting primary and secondary education was established primarily to perform administrative rather than educational work. It does not contain the elements necessary to ensure evolution and progress in educational thought and practice. This situation has become worse with the rapid increase in number of schools without a commensurate increase in the number and quality of inspectional staff or a change in their educational outlook. No provision has been made for research and experimentation to keep the system responsive to changing requirements of society .

This plan further pointed out the main weaknesses in school administration, namely the dual control of schools by the Inspectorate and the Local District and special Boards. The District Local Boards and Municipal Committees were asked to establish and manage schools independently within the rural and urban areas respectively. The lack of clarity in their respective responsibility and authority was the cause of friction, delay and frustration in the conduct of school affairs. The other weaknesses noted were the rapidity with which local bodies had been called upon to perform functions they were not quite ready to assume. On the other hand the Directorates of Education, were also reluctant to see a

separate and parallel management of education within the region.

The literature of school management shows that in many countries, developed as well as developing, schools are managed and supervised under different arrangements. One such arrangement existis in the United Kingdom where the LEA Advisers work side by side with H.M.I. Taylor(1990) pointed out in his lecture that following the reorganisation of 1974, Education Authorities were better able to appoint a full range of Local Inspectors and advisers. Rather than making HMI redundant, this gave greater prominence to their national role. They did not become another tier in the hierarchy: H.M.I. developed a role which was very different from that of the LEA inspectors.

The plan suggested a number of improvements. In order that the Provincial Directorate of Education might fulfil its responsibility for the development of education, as well as for the administration of schools, two major changes were recommended. Firstly, the creation of specialized groups of highly competent staff for the fields of primary, secondary, vocational education, school buildings , educational research and planning and teacher training. Secondly, certain reforms in school administration. Decentralization of administration was suggested by giving a greater degree of authority to the District Inspector , who might more accurately be called

"District Education Officer". The important function of the Divisional Inspectors could then become guidance and supervision rather than administration. As a further measure of decentralization, some of the functions of District Officers were to be transferred to sub-district offices staffed with trained area education Officers. A system of in-service training was to be devised for these area officers. In addition to the training they received before entering the service, the reading of specially prepared literature and participation in staff meetings and seminars were recommended to enable them to provide constructive guidance to teachers.

As far as the relationship of the District Boards for education to the Education department was concerned, the plan suggested that the functions of the Board should be clarified to reduce friction with the Directorate. It further recommended the appointment of a commission to consider what structure should be established between the Directorate and the local bodies and the basis of allocating grants to schools in order to ensure that schools under local bodies were managed on sound and efficient lines.

The plan further recommended the exploration of the possibility of constituting local school management committees and District advisory committees. Basically the school management committee, one for each school, was to be elected by members of the community. It was

to be responsible for providing school buildings and was to be consulted for the selection of teachers by the area officer. It was also to help in supplementing the school material supplied by the Directorate. (Government of Pakistan, 1960. pp.337-355

5.3.1. Recruitment of Supervisory staff/personnel.

The Assistant Inspectors were promoted from a lower grade of service by virtue of seniority plus fitness by the Director of Public Instruction. Appointment to this post was made on the academic and professional training and experience of the candidates. Usually a Bachelor's Degree training was required. No further training was given, after the candidate entered the service. The Assistant Inspector was mainly responsible for the inspection and conduct of examination of primary schools within his area. The Deputy Inspectors of schools were selected by the public service commission, a constitutional body, from amongst the Headmasters of Secondary schools or District Inspectors. Candidates for this post with the basic qualification of a degree in Arts, science or commerce along with a certificate or degree in teaching were taken. The Deputy Inspector was class II, whereas the Inspector belonged to Class I Service. There was no bar to the promotion of Deputy Inspectors to higher posts if the necessary conditions

were fulfilled. Foreign degree holders were preferred. There was no specific training required for the job of Inspector and they were usually promoted to the post by virtue of their seniority in a particular cadre. They learnt their work through trial and error, while discharging their duties as Inspectors. (UNESCO , 1958 p. 814)

5.3.2. School Supervision between October, 1958- July, 1970.

In October, 1958, martial law was imposed in the country and there was a revolution in the administration. General Ayub Khan took over as Martial Law Administrator and then introduced the system of Basic Democracies under the constitution of 1962. The entire administrative setup was given a new shape, where the country was ruled with the help of Divisional Commissioners and District Magistrates/ Deputy Commissioners. The officials of the remaining departments, including those of the Education department, were under the administrative control of Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners at various levels of administration. District Education Authorities were created under the chairmanship of Deputy Commissioners in each district. The District Inspector of schools was appointed secretary to the committee with four other members. These committees were entrusted with the work of primary education. These committees had power to employ,

promote and transfer teachers, within the district.

Here again, the western wing was divided into six educational regions. Due to the shifting of the federal capital from Karachi to Islamabad in 1962, Karachi was given the position of a separate region and also Rawalpindi region was created. This setup therefore increased regional directorates of education, from four to six. During this era, the establishment of a Commission on National Education was a landmark in the history of education in Pakistan.

The Commission on National Education also proposed through its report about educational administration as follows:

As education is a specialised field it must be administered by persons having a high degree of technical competence as well as administrative ability and experience. Those recruited directly should be given training in general and professional fields.

(Government of Pakistan, 1961. p. 327)

Since the posts of Inspectors and other supervisory personnel were only filled from among the most senior officers, there was no provision for direct recruitment. In view of the observation by the commission, this style of filling the posts by criteria of seniority affected the efficiency of the supervisory personnel.

Another drawback was that due to the limited

number of posts, chances of promotion were very rare. They got their promotions, just on the verge of retirement and were not in a position to follow innovations and the latest trends of supervision. For this reason the commission suggested a proportion of direct recruitment of young people aged between 21-25 as well as promotion from within the service on the basis of seniority . This could create a sense of competition among the aspiring people.

Service records indicate that some recruitments were made in accordance with the recommendations of the commission, but the persons recruited could not get proper training in administration and ended up in the same position as their traditional colleagues. They were mixed up with the same group of supervisors, promoted on seniority following old and traditional methods of supervision. Partial application of the recommendations, could not achieve the desired goal (see chapter VII)

After a decade and more there was no positive change in the routine and style of the supervisory personnel. The same tradition of supervision was followed by the Supervisors. Their rigid and indifferent behaviour was not appreciated by the teachers.

In the first quarter of 1969, there was a change of Government along with the reimposition of martial Law in the country. One of the important changes brought in by this Government was the dissolution of one unit in the western province and restoration of the former four

provinces to their original position. This was made effective from July 1970. Restoration of provinces affected educational administration on a high level only. Provincial secretariats had their own departments of education under the control of a Secretary of Education. There was no change in the field staff at any level i.e. region, division and district.

This Government took power in a crisis and was transitory. However it immediately considered the importance of education and finalised its policy of education in March 1970. This policy expressed concern over the administrative system of education in the country. It examined the structure along with a strategy for reshaping the entire administrative organisation and supervisory system of education. The original observation was made in the following words:

The present administrative setup of education in Pakistan inhibits initiative and creative self expression which can flourish only in an atmosphere of relative freedom and responsible participation. It is, however, considered essential that measures should immediately be initiated to decentralise the administration of educational institutions, in order to allow community participation and ensure academic freedom and financial autonomy needed by educational institutions for their proper development.

(Government of Pakistan, 1970. p.20)

In order to achieve these objectives, formation of District school authority and zonal college authority,

governing bodies for all institutions, staff council, Teacher-student council and National council for education were also proposed.

The above bodies were formally composed and notified, but the entire Government machinery, was involved in the conduct of long-awaited general elections, which were held at the end of December 1970.

The results of this election, were disappointing, eventually a great turmoil and conditions like civil war, erupted in the eastern part of Pakistan. Tension among political parties and the question of transfer of power to a political party resulted in a serious situation. It provided the opportunity for a foreign power to intervene militarily in December, 1971. This war changed the geo-political position of the country, which lost a major part of territory. The powers of the reshaped and existing Pakistan, were immediately transferred to a civilian and political Government in December 1972. For those reasons the objectives of the educational policy were not achieved at all. Therefore the structure and system of school supervision remained the same, during this period.

5.4. Re-organisation of Supervisory system of school education.

The political history of Pakistan hereafter entered a new era with a different society and atmosphere. The Government which took power in these very

unfavourable circumstances announced its policies, one by one. The education policy, announced by this Government directly affected educational administration in the country, in the following words:

The present educational administrative setup in the country is inadequate and unnecessarily complicated by a variety of somewhat superficial tiers.

(Government of Pakistan, 1972. p. 39)

Like the previous policy, this policy also stressed the setting up of Education Councils at the national, provincial, district and institution levels, to assist in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of education policies and practices. Many steps were taken in the light of this policy by the Central Government. Prominent among those, were the nationalisation of private schools, universal and free education upto class X and re-organisation of the administrative structure of education, both at federal as well as provincial levels.

Due to enhancement in the number of schools, as a result of nationalisation under the management of provincial education departments, the supervisory system was reorganised as follows:

a) The posts of Divisional Inspectors were abolished and new posts of District Education Officers for each district with the same status and powers, were created to look after the secondary education in

particular and primary education in general.

b)The posts of District Inspector of Schools were replaced by the Sub-Divisional Education Officers with the same functions as before i.e management of primary education. Now they are responsible for a sub-division, which is normally a part of a district.

c)The posts of Assistant District Inspector of Schools, with the same functions i.e.supervision of primary schools were redesignated as Educational Supervisors. However the total strength of supervisors was increased.

The main idea and purpose behind this reorganisation was the creation of efficiency among the supervisory personnel, with a lower work load. It was also realised that a change of name, without achieving greater efficiency, could not achieve the desired objectives.

Reorganisation in the shape of expansion in the strength of supervisory personnel, was not the aim, but achievement of proper results with efficient and satisfactory performance was the main motive. Although some seminars, workshops and conferences were arranged at federal as well as provincial level for the supervisors of different cadres, such meetings only served as a chance for mutual discussions and leisure trips. They still continued the use of old recipes in the performance of their duties. The Government which reorganised the

supervisory system could not continue after five years term of office. The positive results of this policy could not be achieved due to the change in Government.

The second half of the year 1977, again brought a change in Government and the country was placed under martial law, on 5th: July 1977. All the policies of the previous government were either changed or given new shape.

This Government also announced an education Policy which described the educational management and supervision as follows:

Our system of educational management and supervision is a legacy of the past and is not equipped to cope with the increasing and changing demands of education in the future.

(Government of Pakistan, 1979. p.72)

This policy also stressed the need of reorganisation at the national, provincial, regional, district and institutional level. Fulfilment of objectives, and the creation of District School Education Authorities, with sufficient powers and funds were promised.

While going through the achievements and failures of this policy, it is easy to conclude that this was simply a continuation of the previous policy with more expansion in the strength of supervisory personnel. Through the sixth five year plan, 1983-88 and the Action

Plan for educational development, 1983-88 during the same period, there was considerable expansion of supervisory personnel. The extra Posts of Additional Directors, Deputy Directors and Additional District Education Officers, were created at the Directorate and District headquarters, in order to ease the tasks of Directors and District Education Officers.

The question arises, what are the possible reasons behind the inefficiency and non-achievement of the expected results by the Supervisory personnel, even though there has been a continuous increase in the number of supervisors?

It is quite clear that our supervisors at any level had no chance for pre-service or inservice training for the job. As already mentioned, they are products of either seniority or appointment after obtaining the required qualifications. The basic qualifications required for the Sub-Divisional Education Officer are Bachelor's Degree with B.Ed. The former is purely academic while the latter contains one paper on school organisation, which provides the basic knowledge about school organisation. There are many District Education Officers who obtained their B.T(Bachelor of Teaching) either at the time of joining as teachers or during the service, as a teacher. Firstly they were promoted as HeadMasters or Sub-Divisional Education Officers and thereafter reached the stage of serving as a District

Education Officer. Most of them still believe that practice makes one perfect. What type of practice is applied by the supervisory personnel? This can be experience of their first year's work repeated many times.

Moreover, they are neither involved in any research work nor in any professional innovation. They are only acting as the symbols of authority and expect the teachers to recognise them as the big boss. Due to lack of proper training in the field of supervision, they work in a purely arbitrary manner. They are nick-named "crown-less kings" of their area.

Head-counting is not sufficient for obtaining efficiency in any field, the main and basic requirements are a qualitative approach with a good calibre of professional knowledge.

The entire discussion regarding the supervisory system of school education in Pakistan makes it easy to understand the supervisory system in the Province of Sindh, which is the main issue of this study. The basic principles and styles of supervision, though, are common throughout the country but still some variations are observable. In fact Sindh, has also its own history, structure and style of supervision.

5.5. Evolution of school supervision in Sindh.

Sindh has its own identity and history, which is

centuries old. It has remained the centre of knowledge . The indigenous system of education was available every where. Shabir (1971 p. 200) mentioned that several places in Sindh were famous seats of learning such as Thatta, Nasarpur, Hala, Rohri , Sukkur etc. The existence of traditional religious schools called Madrassah was found at Sukkur, Badin and Thatta. These places were still famous for their learning at the time of the British occupation of Sindh in 1843. Farooqi (1935 p. 521) mentioned that in the city of Thatta alone there were more than 400 colleges at the beginning of the eighteenth century.

5.5.1 School supervision during the British period in Sindh.

Sindh was occupied by the East India Company in 1843. After nine years, it became a commissionerate of the Bombay presidency. A survey of existing educational institutions by the new rulers came to the conclusion that a large number of indigenous institutions were functioning in the area. A decision was made for the takeover of centrally located institutions. Such institutions were incorporated under a new system of education . Baloch (1971 p.50) pointed out that the first Superintendent of Schools was appointed in 1856. His functions included inspections of schools in winter, conduct of examinations and the reward of scholarships to the best pupils or their

recommendation for government service.

In 1859, the above post was converted into that of Educational Inspector. The establishment of local bodies led to appointment of their own Deputy Inspectors of schools for the control and management of primary education. In 1926, primary schools were taken over by the Government and the posts of Deputy Inspectors created by the local bodies were converted into those of District Inspector of Schools.

Sindh attained the status of a fully-fledged province in 1935. Sindh, like other provinces, had its own department of Education with the same setup. For the improvement of female education the post of Inspectress of Girls' schools was created in 1940.

5.5.2. School Supervision in Sindh since 1947.

Before describing the supervisory system, it is necessary to know about the types of schools and their management in Sindh during this period. In the early days of independence, there were very few schools managed by the Government in the province of Sindh. The big cities like Karachi, Hyderabad and Sukkur faced an influx of migrants from India. Overpopulation in such urban centres of the province was a big challenge for the Government, which had to provide education for a growing number of children. The government adopted the policy of

encouraging the private sector to open schools. They were also provided with financial aid, called grant-in-aid. Many schools were already run by different religious and missionary bodies and other communities like Memon, Parsi etc. More and more investors joined this field. In rural areas, however, most of the schools were managed by the Government or local bodies. Local bodies in the province i.e. District Councils, Municipal Committees and Town Committees managed schools within their limits. There was limited control by the Sindh Education Department over such schools. This was only in the shape of annual inspections for the recommendation of grants from the Government. Other government agencies, like the armed forces and the Karachi Port Trust, also established their schools, which were exclusively managed by their own agencies. In 1962 schools of local bodies were provincialised. In 1972 most of the private schools were nationalised by the Government. However this position was changed after seven years. Once again the old policy of encouraging private schools reappeared, but without grant or financial assistance from the Government.

The following types of schools exist under the supervision and management of Sindh Education Department, throughout the province:

1. Government secondary schools for Boys.
2. Government Secondary Schools for Girls.
3. Government Lower secondary /Middle schools for Boys.

4. Government Lower secondary/ Middle schools for Girls.
5. Government Primary schools for Boys.
6. Government primary schools for Girls.
7. Government(co-educational) primary schools.
8. Government Comprehensive schools for Boys.
9. Government Comprehensive schools for Girls.

The above types of schools also include all those schools which were nationalised by the Government in 1972 and are functioning under the supervision of Sindh Education Department. Girls' schools are supervised by female officers . The supervisory structure and system of male and female education is separate, but is constituted on the same pattern. Comprehensive schools are supervised by the Directors of Schools education. The structure of such schools is different from High schools. The latest addition in type of schools is that of Higher Secondary schools, which are also to be supervised by the Directors of School Education.

This study is only concerned with the first type of schools i.e. Government High/ Secondary schools for Boys in the Province of Sindh. All such schools are supervised by the District Education Officers. Therefore this study aims at the supervision of Government Secondary schools for Boys in Sindh.

5.5.3. Changes in the supervisory structure of Sindh since 1947.

Systems of education and their supervision are usually affected by change of Governments and their policies in any society. Sindh, as a province has experienced many such changes right from the birth of Pakistan, up to this time. Sindh as a province became part of Pakistan at the time of independence i.e. 14th: August 1947. The administrative structure of the province was, however, affected immediately because the City of Karachi was declared the federal capital. Hence the administration of the entire city, including educational administration, was under federal control. The existing district of Khairpur which was enjoying the status of a princely state before independence, also joined Pakistan with the same status and was excluded from the administrative control of the Sindh province.

Similar changes occurred from time to time in the administrative structure of Sindh up to July, 1970, until Sindh regained its existing position. During the above period Sindh was mainly divided into two regions i.e. Karachi and Hyderabad. It will be easier to understand the changes by dealing with both the regions individually.

5.5.4. Changes in supervisory system of Karachi Region.

This region, which is now part of the province ,

was separated from the provincial administration on 23rd: July,1948. The administrative control of the Education Department of this region was taken over by the Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan (DECARAMA, 1968 p.7)

The educational supervision of this region remained under federal control up to the shifting of the federal capital to Islamabad i.e.July 1961. In the first instance, the entire supervisory staff for school education consisted of an Inspector of Schools and his deputy Inspector. A parttime Inspectress for girls' schools along with other staff were also appointed to look after the girls' schools in the region. In 1950, a Directorate of Education for this region was established which was headed by a Director of Education. He was assisted by an Assistant Director of Education. In addition there was one Inspector of schools and one Deputy Inspector of schools. With the expansion of education in the metropolis of Karachi, additions were made in the field staff as well as subordinate staff in the directorate year after year. By 1960, the following additional supervisory staff were sanctioned for the directorate:

- i) One post of Deputy Director.
- ii) One post of Inspectress for Girls' schools.
- iii) An additional post of Inspector of schools for the directorate .

iv) Two posts of Deputy Inspectors.

v) One post of Deputy Inspectress.

A year after this, when the federal capital was shifted to Islamabad, this region became part of West Pakistan province and its administrative affairs were handed over to the provincial Government. In order to tackle the educational problems of the city a new supervisory system was sanctioned. With the sanction of additional staff, Karachi was divided into two divisions. Each division was placed under the supervision of a Divisional Inspector of Schools, looking after the boys secondary schools. On the other hand, girls' schools remained under the supervision of a single Inspectorate for Girls' schools. Karachi division was divided into four districts for the supervision of primary schools. Girls schools were placed in two zones. Boys primary schools were supervised by the District Inspector of schools, while the girls primary schools were under a District Inspectress.

In June 1962 when there was a minor re-organisation of the provincial education department, Karachi was given a fully -fledged regional directorate within west Pakistan province. At that time this regional directorate comprised a Regional Director of Education assisted by three Deputy Directors, one each for colleges, secondary education and general administration respectively at the headquarters. In addition seven posts

of Class II officers were also sanctioned for the directorate.

On 1st of July 1970, when the One Unit was dismantled and the former provinces were restored, Karachi became the administrative division of Sindh Province. However the Supervisory structure of school education was not affected by this change. The structure which was established in 1962, continued for a decade, until the administrative re-organisation of school education in September, 1972.

5.5.5. Changes in supervisory system of Hyderabad Region.

This region, which now comprises fourteen districts, has always remained part of Sindh province, before and after the partition of the sub-continent. At the time of independence the educational administration of this region was under the supervision of the Director of Public Instructions (D.P.I.). As already mentioned, the existing district of Khairpur within Sindh province was not part of this administration. This was due to its status as a princely state, before the independence of Pakistan. However in October 1955, this status was changed and the state became part of the region, as one of the districts.

There were two Inspector of schools within this region, one for Lower Sindh and the other was for Upper

Sindh, under the control of a D.P.I. The Inspector of schools was assisted by the District Inspector of Schools responsible for the supervision of primary education. Each district was controlled by a District Inspector of schools, except Hyderabad and Sukkur, which had two District Inspectors. The District Inspectors of Schools were assisted by the Assistant District Inspector of Schools, Taluka Masters and Taluka attendants. Payment of salaries to teachers in primary schools was made through taluka masters and taluka attendants. This type of organisation was quite different from other parts of the country.

In 1962, the post of Director of Public Instruction was abolished and the region was placed under the supervision of a Director of Education. The remaining supervisory structure existed as before with two Divisional Inspectors and twelve District Inspectors.

In July, 1970 the status of former provinces was restored and Sindh again became one of the provinces of Pakistan. This change was a very important political and administrative action, but the supervisory structure of the school education in the region remained same, until the re-organisation of the Supervisory structure of school education i.e in september,1972.

5.6. Re-organisation of Supervisory system of schools in Sindh.

The civilian Government, which came into power in

December.1971, announced an important change in the administrative setup of education throughout the country. Sindh was more advanced in this connection. As a result of the education policy, 1972-80(Government of Pakistan 1972 p.3) nearly all the private institutions were nationalized. The majority of private institutions nationalized under the policy were operating in the province of Sindh. The main reason behind this action was the commercialisation of education by different bodies, low payment to teachers and the charging of huge amounts as school fees.

In the light of this development, the Government of Sindh announced the re-organisation of educational administration. The organisational chart in figure 5.2. indicates the structure. Further details regarding the supervisory system were as follows:

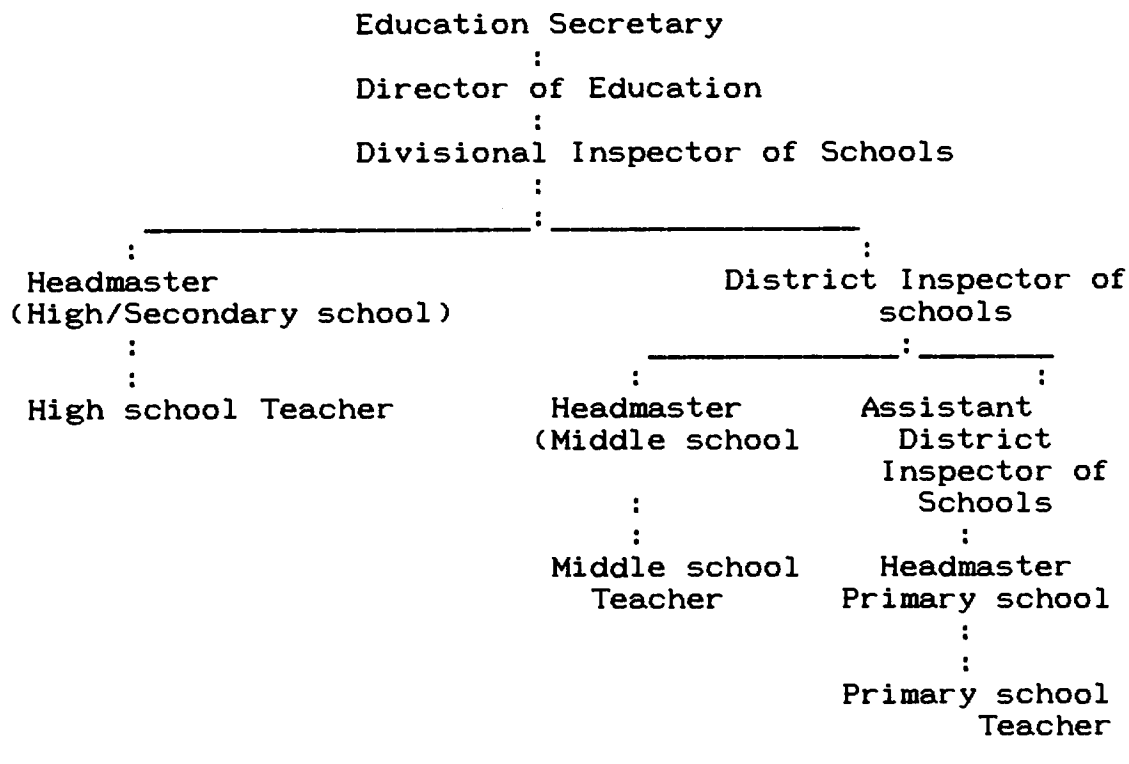
a) Directorates of Education, Hyderabad and Karachi which were overall responsible for school as well as college education were bifurcated into separate Directorates of College education and school education. This doubled the number of directorates.

b) The posts of Divisional Inspectors and District Inspectors were abolished. The district became the chief unit of administration and division disappeared (UNESCO, 1975 pp. 39-40)

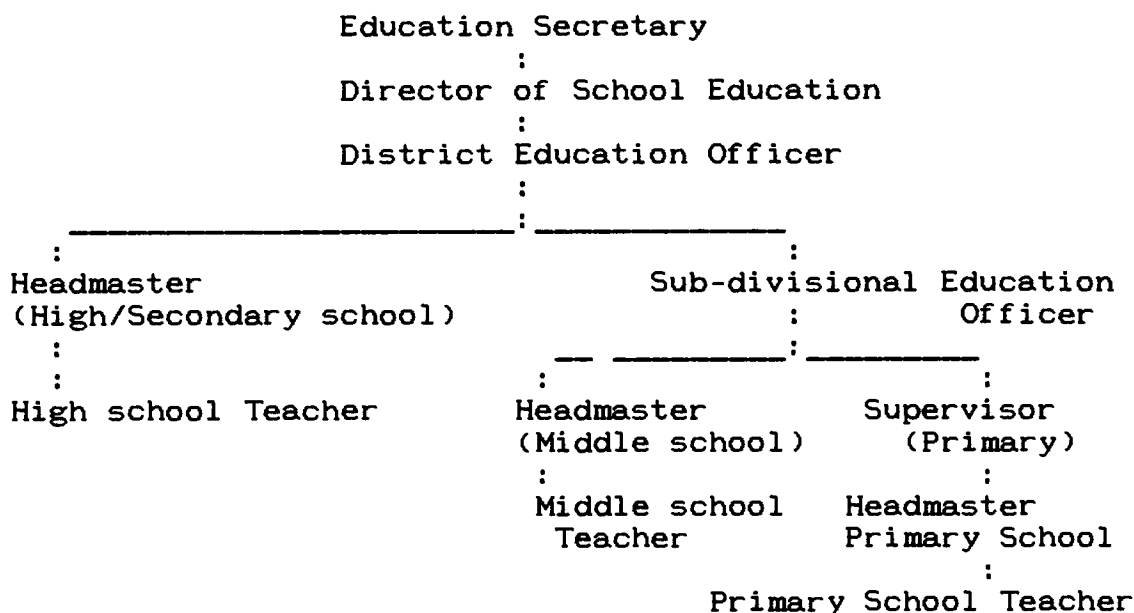
c) Under the two Directors of school education for both regions of Karachi and Hyderabad, each district was

Figure 5.2
Organizational set-up of school education in Sindh.

(a) Before september, 1972.



(b) After September, 1972.



put under the authority of a District Education Officer. They were responsible for the overall supervision of all types of schools i.e. primary, middle and secondary, within the district. There are separate District Education Officers for Boys and Girls schools in each district with the same status and powers. The District Education Officer was assisted by Deputy Education Officers at the headquarters.

d) Under the District Education Officer, Sub-Divisional Education Officers were appointed at sub-division level responsible for the primary and middle schools within the sub-division. Attached to them were a number of supervisors responsible solely for the supervision of the work of primary and middle schools.

The purpose of this reorganisation was:(a) to decentralize the supervisory structure of education in the province, (b) to enable the Education Officers to supervise the schools properly by reduction of their jurisdictions. Before this the Divisional Inspector of schools was responsible for the supervision of secondary schools, with an area comprised of five/ six districts, but now the District Education Officers, with the same work are responsible for one district only. As compared to the previous system, the existing area is only about 1/5 th:. But the reduction of jurisdiction was not the end of the problem.

There has been further expansion and increase in

the number of Directorates as well as Districts in Sindh, after this research was started . The existing position shows that there has been an increase of two more school Directorates at Sukkur and Larkana, bringing the total number to four Directorates in the province. Again very recently, three more districts were created out of the previous districts, making the total number of District Education Offices rise from 15 to 18.

5.7. Impressions about the supervisory system of school education.

The most important aim behind the reorganisation of the supervisory system was to create efficiency among the supervisors of school education. This re-organisation increased the number of personnel to a sufficient number.

A period of seventeen years has already elapsed, since this re-organisation was put into effect. The question is whether the system has achieved the required norms of efficiency. Secondly is the role expectation of supervisors of secondary schools satisfactory for teachers and Headteachers, who are supposed to get guidance and help from their supervisors? The answer to this can better be evaluated after the analysis of the data in chapter VII. However the above questions can partially be answered in a non-empirical way by quoting various impressions of experts and even some of the

Supervisors of school education in Pakistan.

Hayes (1987 p.87) expressed the following views:

Supervision of educational institutions is also considered ineffective. Supervisors are often untrained in academic management and there is relatively little incentive for them to improve their skills in the field.

In a response to a questionnaire, by a combined study of the National Institute for Education Research i.e. NIER Japan and UNESCO regional Office for Asia, Bangkok on the problems of secondary education in the region, the Bureau of Curriculum and Extension Wing, Sindh, recorded its reply as below:

The supervision of secondary schools is generally restricted to annual inspection conducted by the District Education Officer and assisted by a team of senior subject teachers. The District Education Officer remains too busy in the administrative and official work and scarcely find time to visit secondary schools regularly. There is no regular supervisory personnel to supervise the activities of secondary schools.

(Bureau of Curriculum, Sindh , 1987 p.4)

Pritchard (1975 P. 35), in his study after the reorganisation observed that :

The legal basis for inspection and supervision of schools tend to be a matter of history and as far as could be ascertained there was no upto date code or set of regulations which could define the functions and duties of an Inspector for the country as a whole.

Rehman and Akbar (1980, p 121) pointed out the

drawbacks of inspection in the following words:

Inspection was still considered to be an occasion to exhibit dictatorial attitudes, excessive use of rank and pompous authority.

The UNESCO regional office for Asia and Pacific pointed out the problems and weak points of the system in the following manner:

That the problems of management, which were basically traditional in structure, were complex and huge and could not copeup with the new demands of management in Pakistan.

(UNESCO, 1979 p. 179)

The same agency, after five years, in another study, revealed some problems of the supervisory system, by comparing facilities and the number of institutions under the supervision of the supervisors:

Supervisory staff is not proportionate to the number of educational institutions . Funds and Facilities required for effective and regular supervision of educational institutions and lower level administrative units is not sufficient.

(UNESCO , 1984.(a) P.6)

In another study, published in the same year by the Regional Office of UNESCO at Bangkok, a further detailed observation was made about the supervisory system of school education.

The following paragraph describes the main issues

of the supervisory system.:

That all the supervisory staff in various parts i.e. provinces of Pakistan had so many other matters to attend that they were unable to devote any of their time to professional functions. As much as 95 % of their time was spent in administration or in interviews. Supervision which is in a sense the backbone of educational improvement, was ineffective and its programme was broken down in most places due to several reasons such as;

i) the large expansion in the number of institutions, which was not accompanied by a corresponding increase in the number of inspecting officers.

ii) the continuation of administrative and supervisory function in the same officer which affected supervision adversely. Administrative work increased greatly in recent years was always given priority.

iii) the use of supervisory staff, as members of some development teams for non-educational work left them very little time for their own responsibilities and ;

iv) a lack of adequate competency in the inspecting staff.

(UNESCO, 1984 (b) pp. 55 - 56)

In order to verify the above observations, some questions were included in the questionnaires related to this, during the field study. Further comments and observations with the results are mentioned in Chapter VIII.

Singh and Guruji (1977 pp.118-26) in a specific study regarding the administration of education in the Asia region, including Pakistan, pointed out some similar problems. They went through details of the main issues involving the educational administration in general and the supervisory system in particular. Their views about

Supervisors/ Inspectors were:

The traditional role of school inspection has been rendered inoperative when the number of schools has increased beyond the capacity of any corps of Inspectors to inspect them. While the concept of the supervision as professional guidance is well established in theory , it does not appear to have made much headway in actual practice beyond a change of title from Inspector to supervisor. One reason for this may be that those who have been customised to the traditional inspectoral functions are least willing to surrender them in favour of a professional role, without administrative authority.

Cowen and Mclean (1984 p.320 & 324) identified the role , status and position of the District Education Officers of Pakistan in the following words:

District Inspectors are executive officers for a district and also members of the provincial education department. However, they also have special responsibilities for supervising examinations, inspecting staff and planning expansions. The actual administrative burden is very severe, given the number of schools involved.

Besides the above international studies, two famous educationists of Sindh province , who served in various capacities in Sindh Education Department, also expressed the same feelings about the supervisory system of school education in Sindh.

Firstly, Bhutto (1979 p.6) clearly indicated his views , about the failure of the District Education Officers, inspite of re-organisation of the supervisory

system. He mentioned that;

Even after the re-organization in Sindh, the District Education Officers and deputies had huge and multifarious administrative functions to perform, which kept them so occupied with paper work that they were unable to find time to visit schools for supervisory assistance.

Secondly, Abbasi (1985 p.75) also confessed the failure of the system :

It is a fact that the successful implementation of any programme is based upon a successful administration and supervision, so for as effective supervision of institutions is concerned. This area was neglected and still a traditional system of inspection and supervision is practised in Sindh.

The District Education Officers from various parts of Pakistan, at two different workshops, confessed their failures along with difficulties, in group discussion, as under:

1. Every District Education Officer has got much work to do. He has got a big office with sufficient number of branches to make correspondence to other multifarious offices. Consequently, DEO has got little time for supervision and management of the schools. Thus the tone of administration of these schools is receiving setback. Wilful absence is increasing and teachers becoming negligent .

(AEPAM , 1984. p.99))

2. At present the position of a District Education Officer is a complex one, because he has to perform various nature of duties simultaneously. On the one hand he has to look after the development schemes whereas on the other hand he is required to maintain the standard of education. He is also supposed to carry out the Government policies. Keeping in view these bare facts a district administrator how efficient he may be often fails to do justice with the discharge of his duties. (AEPAM, 1988 p.57)

The above mentioned ideas and observations related to the supervisory system of school education of Pakistan in general could further be verified in case of Sindh, after the evaluation of the results of field study. Chapter VIII, of this thesis will further describe the particular situation in Sindh.

Whatever has been described in the literature (chapter IV) as well as in this chapter, is quite different from the existing position of supervision in Sindh. The style of the supervision is not helpful to teachers in any way.

CHAPTER VI

THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction.

Research designs are necessarily connected with methods, their application, the analysis of findings as well as the research problem itself. The idea and purpose of research and the nature of the research problem should precisely fix the design that is most appropriate for the investigation. As mentioned in the first chapter, this research is a formative evaluation of the supervisory system of school education in Pakistan on the whole, and that of Sindh province in particular. The purposes of the research are to look into the background of the problem and analyse the functions of the existing supervisory system.

6.2 Methodology of data collection.

Three main techniques i.e. written questionnaires, face to face interviews and observation were used. This has sometime been referred to as triangulation of methods (Cohen and Manion (1980) and Denzin(1988)).

Cohen and Manion defined it as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspects of human behaviour. They have justified the need

of triangulation and the multimethod approach in the following way:

firstly, exclusive reliance on one method, may bias or distort the researcher's picture of the particular slice of reality he is investigating. He needs to be confident that the data generated are not simply artefacts of one specific method.

Secondly, this confidence can only be achieved as far as normative research is concerned when different methods of data collection yield substantially the same results. Further, the more the methods contrast with each other, the greater the researcher's confidence. For example, if the outcome of a questionnaire survey corresponds with those of an observational study of the same phenomena, the more the researcher will be confident about the findings.

To achieve these objectives, various research tools have been used and a number of population groups involved. Significant research data have to add not just those aspects and elements that are quickly manipulable but also those that are difficult to manipulate.

6.3 THE RESEARCH POPULATION

The objectives of this study were to obtain the opinion of the District Education Officers(i.e the supervisors of secondary schools), Headmasters of secondary schools and teachers working in the secondary

schools within the province of Sindh. All the 15 districts of the province (shown in the map of Sindh and appendix 6.1) were included in the study.

The population in the research was made up of the following groups:

| | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| 1. District Education Officers | 15 (1 x 15) |
| 2. Headmasters of Secondary schools | 90 (6 x 15) |
| 3. Secondary school Teachers | 360 (90 x 4) |

An equal number of schools i.e six(6) from each district were taken for the sample. The following table shows, the breakup of the location of schools, equally adopted for each district.

Table: 6.1 Selection of schools out of each district

| Location of schools | Number of schools |
|---|-------------------|
| a) At District headquarters. | 2 |
| b) At Sub-divisional headquarters. | 1 |
| c) At Taluka headquarters. | 1 |
| d) At Union Council headquarters | 2 |
| Total number of schools from each district | 6 |

The district head-quarters are generally known as

urban areas, whereas the sub-divisional and tehsil headquarters selected in this study are known as semi-urban areas. The union council headquarters are included in rural areas. This was an appropriate justification for selection of schools, from all the areas of the province i.e. urban, semi-urban and rural areas. The District Education Officers were consulted, before selection of schools, within their jurisdiction. Formal letters to the heads of schools, selected in each district, were issued by all the District Education Officers. Copies of the letters are included at the end of this thesis(See appendix 6.2).

The number of secondary school teachers included in the study was 4, from each school. Two main cadres of teachers (excluding special cadre teachers) were involved because they were mostly responsible for the teaching of school subjects, and maintenance of class-room discipline etc. Such cadres are known as H.S.T and J.S.T. Again out of the above two cadres of teachers two from each were selected, thus making the total number of four teachers from each school. This was done for administrative reasons, after consultation with the heads of schools.

Besides the main respondents(mentioned above) of the study, the following categories of officers were also contacted in order to cross check and strengthen the

evaluation process:

i) The Additional District Education Officers and Deputy Education Officers, attached with the District Education Officers.

ii) The Officers of Sindh Education Department, working at the provincial Secretariat i.e. Secretary to the Government of Sindh, Education department and Additional Secretaries, Deputy Secretaries and other concerned officers.

iii) The heads and Officers of other agencies working under Sindh Education Department such as the Bureau of Curriculum, Sindh Text Book Board, Boards of Secondary Education, Planning and Monitoring Cell, Bureau of Statistics Sindh, and Colleges of Education etc.

iv) Faculties of Education at Karachi and Sindh University.

v) Some retired Officers of the Sindh education department belonging to main population of the study and above categories.

vi) Officers of Sindh Finance department.

The formulation of policy matters on a national level has always been the function of the Federal Government in Pakistan, and provincial Governments have been implementing such policies framed by the centre, from time to time. It was therefore realised that the field study would not be complete unless such information and

data was collected at the federal level. In order to collect the required data and information on a national level, various wings of the federal Ministry of Education at Islamabad were visited. The federal Minister of Education, the Secretary, Ministry of Education and some heads and concerned officers of these wings were seen. This also helped in the collection of relevant material and information pertaining to various educational plans and policies implemented in Pakistan right from its birth up to the present time.

6.4 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

As mentioned earlier, a number of research tools have been used to inquire into the supervisory system of school education.

These tools were:

- i) Questionnaires
- ii) Face to face Interviews
- iii) Participant Observation
- iv) Document analysis

The design and methods used in this thesis were mostly influenced by relevant research work by Bolam et. al (1976) and White (1988) about the work of LEA advisers and the role of federal Inspectorate in Nigeria respectively.

6.4.1. Questionnaires

Sax(1979) has defined the questionnaire a means of gathering information for specific purposes. An interpretation of any issue is determined by a personal stock of knowledge on the part of the subject.

Three different questionnaires were devised: one each for the District Education Officers, Headmasters and teachers . These are shown at appendices 6.3 to 6.5. The guideline for questionnaire construction was taken from the work of Selltiz et.al(1976). This work provides clear guidance on questionnaire construction; every researcher should take decisions about question content, wording, the form of response to the question and the place of the question in sequence, before framing each question in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire format was structured into:

- i) Personal information
- ii) Professional experience
- iii) Types of pre-service and In-service training received
- iv) Work-load based on curricular and co-curricular activities and functions
- v) Information about supervision through inspections and visits
- vi) Choice about different models of supervision
- vii) Opinion about the existing and suggested roles of supervisors

Multiple choice questions, closed ended as well as open-ended questions were variously used. The last two questions in each questionnaire provided an opportunity for free expression of thoughts in general about their ideas and suggestions on the existing and proposed supervisory system in Sindh.

6.4.2 Face to face interviews

The research interview has been defined as a two person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining relevant research information, focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction or explanation (Cannell & Kahn, 1968 and Cohen and Manion, 1980: 241)

Kanu (1987) in a reference from Good(1941) quoted the merits and advantages of using this method that;

By means of personal interview it is possible to secure many data that cannot be obtained through the less personal procedure of distributing a reply-blank. People generally do not care to put confidential information in writing, they may want to see who is getting the information. The interviews permit the researcher to gain an impression of the person giving the facts, to form some judgement of the truth of the facts and to read between the lines, things that are not said .

(Kanu, 1987:128)

Considerations mentioned above are important in accepting the use of face to face interviews in this

study.

In general interviews served as a crosscheck on data from the questionnaires. Interview schedules were personally developed and were very flexible in terms of method and time. General principles by Tuckman (1972) were kept in mind, while conducting the interview. The respondents were briefed as to the nature and purpose of the interview, and attempts were made to make the respondents feel at ease. Different interview schedules were developed for different target-groups i.e (i) The District Education Officers (ii) Headmasters (iii) Teachers. Other concerned Officers working in the Provincial education department as well as at the federal ministry of education, were informally interviewed.

The interviews included questioning, discussing, exchanging, enquiring and answering. The questions were mostly asked for the purpose of a cross-check on the information already provided through questionnaires. An idea of tape-recording was dropped due to objection and fear by respondents. The maximum time spent on an interview was not more than a hour.

The selection of people for interview was based on the following points:

- i) Willingness of the respondent.
- ii) Position of the respondent in answering different questions .
- iii) Overall knowledge about the issue.

The interview schedule appears in appendix 6.6

About 50 people were considered for formal interview, but only 35 were interviewed, because most of the District Education Officers and their deputies were busy in dealing with the applications for appointments for the post of teachers. The Headmasters and teachers were also busy in the second half of the schedule outlined by the researcher for field study. This was because Secondary school Certificate Examinations (part I & II). were being conducted. Most of the schools were examination centres and were declared " prohibited areas" for the outsiders.

The research was also impeded to some extent by some problems of access to certain areas.

The last month of the field study schedule also coincided with the month of Ramdhan (fasting) when Office working hours were usually curtailed and it was not easy for a few to be interviewed. In fact the non-participation of such a small number did not affect the results because the questionnaires show that those who did not participate were not different on any criteria from those who were interviewed. Interviews however proved useful for cross checking the questionnaires.

6.4.3 Participant observation.

The participant observer gathers data by participating in the daily life of the group or organization he studies. He watches the people he is studying to see what situations they ordinarily meet and how they behave in them. He enters into conversation with some or all of the participants.

(Becker, 1958: 652)

It is a fact that one of the best ways to study the behaviour of people is to observe them systematically. This is why this method has been employed in many studies. Anthropologists are probably the most frequent users of this approach (Blalock and Blalock, 1982), but is also well suited for the investigation of many educational problems, for example, studies of the organizational structure of school districts (Borg and Gall, 1979).

There are, of course, degrees of participation. In an example quoted by Gay, L.R (1985), if a researcher obtains permission to attend faculty meetings at a local high school in order to study principal-teacher interaction, then the observation is more open. The behaviour is least likely to be affected by the presence of the participant observer, if the group has accepted the observer as a participant. (Good, 1963).

One of the advantages claimed for participant observation as referred to by Fox (1969) is that the observer has first hand experiences which provide him with

insights into what the situation is like which he can never obtain as a non-participating observer.

The District Education Officers and the Headmasters invited this researcher to attend their internal and staff meetings. The District Education Officers discussed the related issues of the research freely with the researcher. Their internal meetings with the Headmasters and sub-divisional education Officers were observed and this researcher tried to observe a wide range of activities and events on such occasions.

For the sake of selecting more information from the research target-groups, participant observation is often used by researchers. This can be done through open discussion regarding general issues concerned with the research problem. There was a free discussion with the respondents. Nothing was felt as a concern on the part of the respondents whose participation was natural. This method is often valuable in clarifying opinion provided in the closed questionnaire replies.

Participant-observation was applied during meetings with the District Education Officers. The data collected through participant-observation is often closely related to data as early collected through both means i.e. questionnaires and interviews. Risks of subjectivity and bias are very slim. This method gives a clear shape to research data and there is big chance of co-ordination.

6.4.4. Document analysis

Documents are an important source of data in many areas of investigation and its application to educational research has been suggested in many cases. (Best, 1981 : 106). Generally there are many problems of access to key documents, as there are certain limitations imposed by official censorship. Being an Inside-researcher, it was a good opportunity to approach the relevant quarters. Documents are usually kept with the personal possessions of the officials in various sections of the ministries and departments. All official documents for this research were easily available due to personal connection and a sympathetic attitude of concerned officials. In many documents there was over-lapping of information, which needed to be used with great care and caution.

Due to frequent changes in the administrative structure and re-organisation of the procedures, it was sometimes difficult to trace appropriate information from the old records. But eventually all the major documents were obtained.

6.5 Limitations in methodology

While using the research-instrument, mentioned above , it was realised that there were some limitations which hindered the smooth process of field study.

The questionnaires had some particular

limitations. It was not easy to formulate questionnaires for other categories of Officers with similar types of functions such as those by the Additional District Education Officers and Deputy Education Officers, attached with the District Education Officers. As a matter of fact these Officers often help, and act on behalf of, the District Education Officers in inspecting and visiting the schools. They often prepare inspection reports and present them before the District Education Officer for authentication. This researcher tried to obviate any problems by getting in personal touch with the District Education Officers, in order to hand over the questionnaires, but in a very few cases it was not possible to do so in the first instance, because of non-availability of the District Education Officers in their offices. Many efforts were made in contacting all the District Education Officers personally, and apart from two, all were seen in person. One was in transit to join another post, while the other was stated to be busy on an un-specified tour programme within the district.

Some of the questions asked in questionnaires prepared for the District Education Officers, for example, about the frequency of visits and time spent during inspections in the actual class-room situation, were the main issue of the thesis. Such questions were reluctantly replied to in many cases, because it was a self-confession of the failures of the respondents. As

similar questions were also asked by the Headmasters and school teachers, it was not difficult to sort out appropriate responses through cross-checking. Moreover, face to face interviews and participant observation and document analysis, proved fruitful.

Face to face interviews need a friendly atmosphere, where both interviewer and interviewee can feel free. But in the case of the District Education Officers and other officers it was not always possible to achieve this kind of atmosphere. They used their offices for many purposes and often attended the office routine and even visitors during the course of interview. It was, however, conducted with best utilization of free time at the disposal of the officers. In some cases, time beyond the office hours proved to be useful.

The design of the questionnaires was not intended for analysis through computers. Experts in the department of Mathematics, Statistics and Computing at the Institute of Education, University of London, were consulted, who were of the opinion that the quantity and type of data needed was not very complicated, hence this was possible through manual calculators. Use of calculators for this purpose proved helpful.

The above four methods are complementary instruments. The main concern is how the data collected was analysed, interpreted and discussed to provide relevant answers to the research problem.

Despite the difficulties, mentioned above, the mixture of methods proved fruitful and enabled the researcher to generate sufficient data of, good enough quality, by means of cross-checking the information provided by the respondents.

The results along with comments regarding the data collected through the use of above mentioned research methods and tools are given in chapter VII.

CHAPTER VII

ANALYSIS OF THE FIELD STUDY

Introduction.

The general objectives of the field study were to look into the existing inspection and supervisory procedures adopted by the District Education Officers, as supervisors of the Government Secondary (Boys) schools of Sindh, and to suggest better means than the approaches now commonly used in the Province of Sindh.

7.1. Specific objectives of the field study

These objectives are as follows:

- (i) To obtain the opinions of a sample of subjects which includes teachers, school Headmasters, District Education Officers and other officials concerned in some way with the supervision and the management of school education.
- (ii) To identify any significant differences in the opinions between the sample groups.
- (iii) To obtain suggestions from the samples for the improvement and effective supervision of the secondary schools of Sindh province.
- (iv) To suggest better and more effective means for the supervision of secondary schools.

7.2. Scope and limitations

An efficient supervisory system is needed in every society for an effective educational system, but is particularly necessary in developing countries. The practice of scientific management approaches to education in developed countries has been subjected to a wide range of postulations and testing of theories, techniques and strategies

Specifically this study will focus attention on the need for an appropriate supervisory approach to secondary school education in the province of Sindh. It will be confined to the study of Government secondary schools in Sindh province. References will however be made to other levels of education wherever necessary.

One important limitation is that no known study of this kind has been previously carried out in this area, in the province of Sindh. For that reason, the researcher has used variables and measures from other systems better researched in order to obtain a comparative picture of suitable and appropriate supervisory systems required for the supervision of secondary school education in Sindh.

7.3. Commentary on data collection and analysis.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, various tools were used in the collection of data i.e questionnaires, face to face interviews , participant

observation and document analysis.

Questionnaires were prepared for the District Education Officers, School Headmasters and teachers respectively. Generally the questionnaires contained questions regarding the qualifications and experience of the District Education Officers, Headmasters and the teachers at first hand. Secondly their involvement in curricular and co-curricular activities. Thirdly the main concern in the thesis, which was about the existing supervisory system through inspections, was looked at by learning the views of the respondents. The researcher wanted to know about the style and manner in which inspections were conducted during the last three years i.e. 1986-87 to 1988-89. This was cross checked with the replies of all the types of respondents.

Samples of inspection reports were collected from the offices of the District Education Officers. The Headmasters were asked to provide full information, apart from the questionnaires about the style of inspections and visits by the District Education Officers. Though there was limited time for collecting the data, this researcher normally attempted to collect the questionnaires on the same day. Some of them were worried about filling in the questionnaires because they were talking about their superiors. On the assurance of the researcher about anonymity of the informations and permission from their superiors through circular letters,

they felt free, and co-operated to a greater extent. However, nearly 1/5th: of the teachers selected in the sample group did not return the questionnaires. In this kind of research a response rate of 80% is regarded as more than satisfactory.

The data collected through questionnaires and crosschecked through interviews are organised into tables according to the sub-headings.

7.3.1 Exact number of respondents

The expected number of respondents for obtaining data through questionnaires, has already been shown in the previous chapter. The exact number of respondents, who took part and returned the questionnaires fully or partially filled in are shown in the following table:

Table 7.1. Information showing the number of questionnaires received and returned by the respondents.

| Respondent | Number of questionnaires distributed. | Number of questionnaires returned. | % |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------|
| District Education Officers(D.E.Os) | 15 | 13 | 86.6 |
| Headmasters | 90 | 75 | 83.3 |
| Teachers | 360 | 288 | 80 |
| Total | 465 | 376 | 81 |

7.3.2 The biographical information

(a) Experience

The first part of the questionnaire asked about the biographical information regarding number of years served in different positions and the qualifications possessed by the respondents. Q. No.4 for the District Education Officers, asked about the experience of service in various cadres i.e. as a school teacher, Headmaster, sub-divisional education officer or Deputy Education Officer and also as a District Education Officer. As a matter of fact the District Education Officer, except in the case of direct recruitment, acquires this position by serving in all the cadres below this position.

None of the District Education Officers confirmed their experience of serving as a primary school teacher. However all of them started their career as a secondary school teacher, with an average service of 15 years as a secondary teacher before promotion to the next higher grade as a Headmaster of a Secondary/ High school, Sub-Divisional/Deputy Education Officer(formerly District Inspector of Schools). Only one of them i.e. the District Education Officer, Shikarpur (Late Nazir Ahmed Mughal) started his career as an Assistant District Inspector of schools, equivalent in grade to that of secondary school teacher.

This shows that most of them entered the profession as a school teacher and are fully aware of the teachers' problems in the classroom in the light of their past experience.

The next part of the question (4.c) was about the experience of the District Education Officers as Headmaster/ Sub-Divisional Education Officer or Deputy Education Officers (equivalent grades). Usually the teachers of secondary schools are promoted, on the basis of the seniority list, to the next higher grade as a Headmaster of a secondary school or to any other equivalent post. The average service and experience of the District Education Officers, as a Headmaster or its equivalent grade, was 18 years.

This indicates that all of them had good experience of managing secondary schools and solving day to day problems of teachers and taught, at school level. Some of them i.e 50% had administrative experience of supervising primary teachers in their capacity as Sub-Divisional Education Officers(equivalent in grade to Headmasters). Whereas 20% of them already served as Deputy Education Officers, within the office of District Education Officer. The Deputy Education Officers usually perform all type of duties on behalf of the District Education Officer and it has been helpful to them after promotion as a District Education Officer.

Acquiring the position of the District Education

Officer is the third tier in the administrative hierarchy of the provincial educational setup. According to the information provided regarding experience in previous grades i.e. as a school teacher and Headmaster, it is clear that any incumbent can not reach the position of the District Education Officer before thirty years service to his credit. Except for one respondent in the sample, who came through direct recruitment(as per Q. No.5), the majority of the District Education Officers remain in this position, for not more than five years, because most of the teachers are not included in the seniority list before obtaining the Bachelors degree in Education. Those who are directly recruited as trained teachers enter not before the age of 25 years, and the retirement age is fixed at 60. Now a person who has already served for 30 years, gets only 5 more years to serve (i.e. $25 + 30 = 55$; $60 - 55 = 5$). The average total service in the department was calculated to be 35 years in the case of the District Education Officers, which coincides with the above mentioned figures.

The above figures indicate that the District Education Officers were serving with a lot of experience, but their performance as supervisors can be learned through an evaluation of the answers provided by the teachers and Headmasters at the next stage in this chapter.

Similarly, the Headmasters were also experienced

persons with an average service of 15 years as teachers and 10 years as a Headmaster, except in case of those who entered through direct recruitment. This was calculated to be 5% of the respondents in the sample group.

The teachers who participated in the sample group had an average experience of 10 years service in secondary schools. Those who were older came through primary service and consisted of 35% of the respondents.

(b) Qualifications

All the three questionnaires i.e for the District Education Officers, Headmasters and teachers contained the same parts(see Q. No.6, 10 and 7 respectively) in connection with information asked about qualifications. The present minimum required qualifications for a High school teacher are a Bachelor degree in any field as well as a Bachelor degree in Education. There is exemption in the case of science and Mathematics teachers of the need to possess extra degree in education or teaching . This is intended to increase the attraction of the teaching profession, as well as to achieve the necessary number of such teachers. They are usually seconded , as early as possible, to obtain a degree in Education or teaching at the Government expense.

The following figures show the number of respondents in each category against the five different combination of degrees. Figures shown in brackets

indicate the number of respondents in that group, whereas figures outside the bracket show the percentage of respondents.

Table 7.2. Information regarding qualifications of District Education Officers.

| Qualifications | % with Number |
|------------------------------------|---------------|
| Bachelor degree with B.T/ B.Ed | 46.16 (6) |
| Master degree with B.T/ B.Ed | 38.46 (5) |
| Master degree with M.Ed/M.A(Edu) | 15.38 (2) |
| Bachelor degree with M.Ed/M.A(Edu) | - - |
| Total | 100 (13) |
| Any other or extra qualifications | 15.38 (2) |

The above figures show that the majority of the respondents within the sample group (District Education Officers) possessed the lowest minimum combination of degrees i.e Bachelor degree with B.T/B.Ed. This is because they belong to the earlier cohort of Officers who did not bother to obtain further degrees or enhance their qualifications for the sake of knowledge and professional innovation. There was also no compulsion by the department

to do so. Although in the recent past there was the attraction of some increments, as an addition to their salaries, it can be seen from their personal interviews that they were prevented by personal circumstances of age, domestic problems etc., to do so.

Approximately 15% (N=2) of the respondents possessed the highest combination of degrees i.e Master degree with M.Ed/M.A in Education. One of them being direct recruit, possessed these degrees, because this was one of the requirements for competition. The Second respondent improved his qualifications for the sake of professional knowledge at his own initiative. (This information was obtained during the interview.

Extra qualifications, other than the four different combination of degrees, were also obtained by nearly 15% (N=2) of the respondents. One of them obtained a degree in Law(LL.B) while the other obtained two Master degrees in Persian, and Planning and Management. The former told this researcher during an interview that he obtained a degree in Law by attending evening classes, which did not hinder his normal duties, whereas the latter obtained both degrees as an external candidate. Possession of extra qualifications creates a good impression, within as well as outside the department, because this has been one of the considerations in society in judging someone's abilities.

(ii) **Headmasters**

Question Number 10 of the questionnaire for Headmasters asked them to provide information about qualifications. The evaluation of the data is made in a similar way as was done in the case of the District Education Officers.

The following figures in the table shown below indicate the position of respondents against each combination of degrees. The percentage of the respondents is followed by the number of respondents shown within the brackets.

Table 7.3. Information regarding the qualifications of the Headmasters.

| Qualifications | % with number | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------|--------|
| Bachelor degree with B.T/ B.Ed | 20 | (15) |
| Master degree with B.T/ B.Ed | 40 | (30) |
| Master degree with M.Ed/ M.A(Edu) | 33 | (25) |
| Bachelor degree with M.Ed/ M.A (Edu) | 7 | (5) |
| Total | 100 | (75) |
| Any other or extra qualifications. | 5 | (4) |

The above figures indicate that only 1/5th(20%)

of the Headmasters possess the minimum combination of qualifications i.e Bachelor degree with B.Ed or B.T. At the time of the face to face interviews with some of the Headmasters in this sample group, the researcher was told that due to some personal problems like ill health, domestic problems, over work etc. , they were not in a position to improve their qualifications. Some of them also felt that there was no compulsion from the department, therefore they did not take it seriously. This may be true to some extent, but it seems to show the lack of any desire for innovation.

A majority of the Headmasters, comprising 73% of the respondents, possessed a Masters Degree with either B.Ed/B.T or with another Masters degree in Education. This was due to the attraction of securing advance increments, provided in pay scales. Some with double Master degrees (as per part c of Q.No.10), informed the researcher during face to face interviews that they obtained double qualifications with the hope of competing for the post of District Education Officer, through direct recruitment. This attraction was in fact created after the re-organisation of the supervisory system of school education, when the bulk of District Education Officers were recruited through direct appointment. At present most of them have reached their ceiling, either serving as Directors of Education or at the posts of similar status within the provincial Education Department. Though this

practice has been reduced to a great extent, 20 to 25% of the posts are still filled by direct recruitment.

The lowest number of 7% within the respondents, belong to the category (d) and also a meagre percentage of the respondents obtained extra qualifications. Out of 4 respondents one obtained an M.A. in Planning and Management from the Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad through a correspondence course, whereas the remaining three obtained a Law degree (LL.B). They were mostly from the three big cities of the province i.e. Karachi, Hyderabad and Sukkur, where the facilities of evening classes in Law are available at the established and recognised Law colleges. One of the respondents told this researcher, during the face to face interview, that he obtained a Law degree, in a hope of enrolling as an advocate, after retirement from the Government service. Extra qualifications, if obtained, were not concerned with the professional development of the incumbents.

(iii) Teachers

Teachers were also asked to provide information about their qualifications, through Question No.7 . The following table gives full information in this connection. The percentage of the respondents in the group is followed by the number of respondents shown within brackets.

Table 7.4 Information regarding qualifications possessed by the teachers.

| Qualifications. | % with number |
|------------------------------------|---------------|
| Bachelor degree with B.T/B.Ed. | 41.7 (120) |
| Master degree with B.T/B.Ed. | 24.3 (70) |
| Master degree with M.Ed/M.A(Edu) | 15.7 (45) |
| Bachelor degree with M.Ed/M.A(Edu) | 5.2 (15) |
| Any other qualifications. | 13.1 (38) |

| | |
|-------|-----------|
| Total | 100 (288) |
|-------|-----------|

The above figures show that the majority of the teachers who responded to the questions, possessed the first combination of qualifications i.e. Bachelor degree with B.Ed/B.T. This shows that 41.7% of the respondents still only possess the initial qualification required for a high school teacher. However the same does not apply to teachers, working in Junior cadre, who are 13.1% of the respondents in this survey.

During this study, the process of collecting applications for the posts of teachers was in full swing, following the directions of the newly elected civilian Government. The offices of the Education department were calculating the number of applications and their qualifications. This researcher was informed, during the

observation of office routines, that even for the posts of Junior teachers, highly qualified people were competing.

The second largest group was of those with Master degree as well as a degree in teaching or Education, i.e.24.3%. Again teachers with two Masters degrees (M.A along with M.Ed) was also appreciable i.e 15.7%. The lowest number belonged to fourth category, which comprised special teachers such as Technical teachers, Agriculture teachers and Commerce teachers etc.

The results of data show that the majority of teachers working in the high/ Secondary schools of Sindh Province are highly qualified and keen to improve their qualifications. During the survey it became very clear that due to the award of some advance increments and the future scope for higher posts through direct recruitment, many teachers were acquiring higher qualifications. Teachers are provided with both facilities either to appear as an external candidate in the case of a Masters degree in Arts or to proceed on leave with pay for a Masters degree in Education(M.Ed). These are the main reasons behind obtaining higher qualifications.

7.4. In-service Education and Training(INSET).

In-service education and training has always been regarded as an important issue for teachers. In recent years there have, however, been some important

developments in this field all over the world.

Bolam (1982:11) has defined the term in the following words:

Those education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary school teachers and principals, following their initial professional qualification, and intended mainly or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively.

The above definition is not clear about the agencies who might provide these activities and also about the time when they might occur. It will be useful to know about the purpose and functions of such agencies in Sindh.

The Bureau of Curriculum and Extension wing, Sindh (1987) has pointed out the following three principal reasons for the teachers to have continuing in-service training.

Firstly, to assist teachers with the introduction of new curricula.

Secondly, to assist teachers to keep up-to-date with subject content.

Thirdly, to prepare teachers better for professional advancement.

7.4.1 INSET agencies.

There are different agencies in the country working on the national and provincial level respectively

with the provision of Inservice Education and Training as one of their functions. Some of them are even established for this purpose only. The following INSET agencies at national, provincial and regional level are responsible for organising different sorts of activities.

1. Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Islamabad.

This academy has been set up as an autonomous research and training organisation and as a support institution for planning, administration, supervision, research and evaluation functions in the field of education. The Academy organises inservice training in the fields of education relating to the specific jobs and different levels of education personnel in educational planning, administration and supervision.

Two workshops for the inservice training of the District Education Officers, on a national level have already been organised by the academy at Swat and Islamabad respectively.

2. Pakistan Administrative staff College, Lahore.

This is a central Government institution of inservice training for senior officers. The courses are organised in the broad area of management and designed for groups of administrators from all government agencies. The college offers an advanced course of 13 weeks duration in

management and development. The courses are also available to officers of the Education Department.

3. National Institutes of Public Administration(NIPA)

These institutes were established by the Government of Pakistan in 1961 at Lahore and Karachi for training middle level officers. Their functions include carrying out research in public administration and allied subjects. Providing consultancy services on Inservice training and on organisational and management problems. The institutes also organise their courses on budget procedures and analysis, personnel administration and courses for educationists, engineers, specialists etc.

4. Allama Iqbal open University, Islamabad.

The Institute of Education and Research, Allama Iqbal Open University, offers a programme of studies in educational planning and management leading to a post-graduate diploma in educational planning and a Masters degree in the field. The courses offered by the institute are specifically for the field of education and related to the jobs of educational planning and administration of the country. The programme serves as an advanced inservice training.

5. Curriculum Wing, Ministry of Education, Islamabad.

The curriculum wing, Ministry of Education,

Islamabad organises in-service courses for the teachers in different subjects like science , Mathematics, English , Social studies etc.. There are also two institutes called National English Language Institute and National Institute for Teacher Education functioning under the auspices of this wing.

5. Universities.

The departments and faculties of Education established within the universities and their affiliated Colleges of Education impart training to teachers and supervisors. Normally different courses at Bachelor and Master level in Education are conducted in these institutions. They also conduct inservice courses from time to time for the teachers and supervisors.

6.The Bureau of Curriculum and Extension Wing, Sindh

This agency is also responsible for the curriculum development and inservice training of teachers and educational supervisors. There are many Teacher Training Institutions , regional education extension centres, Audio-visual aids centres etc. working under this organisation. They are mainly responsible for pre-service and Inservice courses for teachers.

7.4.2 Extent of INSET.

The presence of many INSET agencies in the country

naturally is symbol of progress and development in the field of education and training. It will be better to know how far these agencies were utilised .

The District Education Officers, Headmasters and teachers were asked to provide information about their participation and involvement in INSET courses, during their service. The District Education Officers and the Headmasters were asked whether they had undergone any training after joining the present post(vide Question No.8 and 13 respectively). In the same way the teachers were also asked whether they had received any Inservice training(vide Q.No.10) .

The table with responses from all the three groups of respondents, shows their involvement in this process.

Table.7.5. Involvement of D.E.Os, Headmasters and teachers in in-service training.

| Respondents | Total Number | <u>Yes</u> Number | % | <u>No</u> Number | % |
|------------------------------|--------------|-------------------|-----|------------------|------|
| District Education Officers. | 13 | 3 | 23% | 10 | 77 % |
| Headmasters | 75 | 23 | 31% | 52 | 69 % |
| Teachers | 288 | 97 | 34% | 191 | 66 % |

The above figures indicate that the majority of

the respondents in each category were not provided with a chance to participate in any INSET programme.

In the case of the District Education Officers, only 23% had this chance. During the interview, it was discovered that most of the Officers were promoted at a very late stage of their service, leaving few years at their disposal. Those who participated were either direct recruits and attended such courses for their own interest.

In the case of the Headmasters, the response was also not high and a very slightly higher percentage as compared with the District Education Officers. It was also known during personal interviews that those who participated were eager and willing to take part for the sake of change.

The participation of teachers as compared with the first two, is also a little higher i.e. 34%.

The programmes at present being organised by the INSET agencies in Pakistan have not yet proved to be effective; as Bhatti(1987) observed that such programmes are attended more in a holiday mood and are not taken seriously.

In addition, there are other factors such as poor planning, incompetent resource persons, absence of any special interest or challenge in the programme, as a result of which these courses have become dull and worthless .

7.5 Supervision and Inspection of secondary schools

Secondary education has an important role to perform in accelerating the pace of development of a country by providing second level manpower. Improvement of school programmes has always been the ultimate goal of supervision, for there has always been concern for good instruction. The role of the supervisor in education is therefore to improve instruction.

In Pakistan, the term supervision is sometimes used synonymously with the term inspection but it is better if some distinction is made.

Inspection of schools is more of a comprehensive nature and includes the checking of records and stocks, buildings and equipment, the collection of statistical information and overseeing improvement of education in schools. On the other hand supervision is more of a professional and pedagogic nature and is directly concerned with improvements in teaching-learning situations and professional development of the teachers, with the end result of providing all students at all levels with better educational services. Inspection is carried out annually and supervision is, or should be, a matter of frequent occurrence.

Inspection of schools is concerned with the over all development of education; whereas supervision is concerned with advice and help to heads of schools and

teachers by providing the new ideas and practices gained from experience of many other schools, thereby tending to improve the performance of the schools. Supervision is a function geared to improvement in the teaching learning process.

7.5.1 Duties of Supervisors in Pakistan at district level.

In Pakistan, even though there exists some difference between inspection and supervision, both the functions are often carried out by the same staff.

The implementation of educational decisions at grass root levels is the function of the District Education Officer and his junior colleagues i.e. their Additional District Education Officers(A.D.E.O) and Deputy Education Officers(D.D.E.O). They are responsible for overall planning, administration/management and supervision of school education within the district. But the main responsibility is that of the District Education Officer. He will have to supervise the district as a whole because he is the representative of Education at district level from the province. So he plays a great role in this regard, particularly in the field of supervision. The District Education Officer is responsible for the success of the supervisory programmes.

Inspection of schools and supervision of the quality of education in the schools is the first concern

of the District Education Officer. He has to inspect and visit all the schools.

In order to know the exact position about supervision and inspection of schools in the province of Sindh, the following objectives were kept in mind:

1. To study the inspection proformas which are used by the District Education Officers to inspect the schools and to analyse a sample of the inspection reports of the secondary schools in the province. Evaluation or appraisal of a school is necessary for its development. In the current practice, the inspecting officer uses a tool known as "Inspection proforma" for the evaluation of school programmes. There is a general feeling that the proformas that are now being used in Sindh are not comprehensive enough to thoroughly evaluate the secondary school programmes. So the purpose of the study is to find out which aspects of the school are taken care of in the inspection proformas and what are the different kinds of items included in the proformas to evaluate the different aspects of the school.

2. Another objective of this study is to analyse the inspection activities during the last three years i.e. 1986-87, 1987-88 and 1989-89, in the province of Sindh. The general practice of inspection in Sindh is that inspecting officer visits the school once a year. He observes the various programmes of the school and ascertains how far the school satisfies the conditions. He

prepares a report in the prescribed proforma and sends it to the school incorporating his observations.

The inspection report includes the observations and suggestions of the inspecting officer on the different aspects of the school. But the general feeling of the Headmasters and teachers is that these inspection reports are written mechanically and are not very helpful to the school for the improvement of instruction. So the purpose of analysing the style and way of inspections is to note what points the inspecting officer looks for while evaluating the teachers in the classroom.

3. The third objective of the study is to study the expectations of the District Education Officers, Headmasters and teachers of secondary schools regarding inspection. There is general feeling amongst some of the Headmasters and teachers of secondary schools that the kind of help and guidance they are getting from the inspecting officer is not sufficient. On the other hand, the inspecting officers have their own problems which make it difficult for them to make inspection dynamic, more effective and useful. Therefore, a knowledge about the expectations of the District Education Officers, Headmasters and teachers regarding inspection and supervision will be helpful.

7.6 Inspection of secondary schools

The District Education Officer is supposed to

inspect each school within his jurisdiction once a year. They were requested to provide such information for the last three academic years i.e. 1986-87 to 1988-89, regarding the number of schools inspected by them. There were 15 districts in the province at the time of this survey and 13 District Education Officers, were able to provide this information. It will not be easy to put the entire data in this table. However a random sample of three districts have been selected to know the average number along with the percentage.

Table 7.6. Number of lessons observed by 3 District Education Officers, for the last three years.

| District | Total number of schools in the district. | Total number of schools inspected during the last three years. | | | | |
|----------------|--|--|----------------|----------------|-------|-----|
| | | <u>1986-87</u> | <u>1987-88</u> | <u>1988-89</u> | Aver: | % |
| Karachi South. | 40 | 40 | 40 | 30 | 37 | 92% |
| Sanghar | 42 | 40 | 31 | 29 | 33 | 79% |
| Khairpur | 51 | 45 | 32 | 30 | 36 | 71% |

The above figures indicate that not all the schools of the district were inspected except in the case of Karachi south which has only a slight margin of failures i.e 8%. This was mainly due to the fact that the

district is part of the metropolitan city conveniently connected and very limited in area. Even so, the District Education Officer told the researcher, that due to some disturbances in the city and closure of schools, a few schools were left without inspection in the year 1988-89.

The other two districts in this sample i.e. Sanghar and Khairpur with 21 and 29 percent failure out of the target, are in fact spread over a large area comprising a rural population and desert area. The District Education Officers told this researcher, during the interview, that due to the disturbed situation in the province, particularly in the year 1888, as well due to shortage of funds for the repairs of the jeep and fueling, they were not able to travel on some occasions. This led to incompleteness of the inspection process of schools.

7.6.1 Observation of lessons by the Headmasters

The Headmaster of a secondary school being the head of school, is responsible to the District Education Officer. He is also responsible for the discipline of school. He is mostly assisted by the most senior teacher of the school called the "first Assistant". This teacher is also responsible for arrangements of lessons and framing of the time-table, but the over all responsibility lies with the head. He usually goes around in the morning to check the smooth functioning of school. He is also

supposed to see whether the teachers are following their time table. In case of absence of any teacher, he manages the arrangements for engaging another teacher who is free. This is also done through the first Assistant or another teacher authorised by the Headmaster. His guidance as institutional supervisor is more beneficial for the teachers, particularly those who have either entered the teaching profession for the first time or those transferred from other schools and are not aware of the atmosphere of the school and the children's social background.

The Headmasters were requested to give details regarding the number of lessons (i.e. taught by their school teachers) observed by them over the three academic years i.e. 1986-87, 1987-88 and 1988-89. Table 7.7 shows the details in this connection.

Table.7.7. Details of lessons observed by the Headmasters

| Academic year | Total number of Headmasters. | Number of Headmasters who observed lessons. | Number of Headmasters who didn't observe lessons. | % of heads who observed. |
|---------------|------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------|
| 1986-87 | 75 | 31 | 44 | 41% |
| 1987-88 | 75 | 35 | 40 | 47% |
| 1988-89 | 75 | 25 | 50 | 33% |

On the whole the number of Headmasters who observed lessons was not encouraging, particularly in the year 1988-89. During the face to face interview most of the Headmasters who did not observe lessons, told the researcher that this was the duty of the inspecting Officer i.e the District Education Officer. Others blamed the circumstances and the worse conditions of law and order which affected the country on the whole and the province of Sindh in particular. This was due to the death of the president in an air crash in August 1988, and thereafter the interim arrangements of the Government and even conduct of the general elections in the end of the year, affected the academic atmosphere. Schools were mostly closed and the staff was engaged in election duties. On the other hand, some of them limited the observation by peeping through the window or door of the classroom, while others were of the opinion that making the round of the school through the corridor of the school building once in a day was sufficient. They were mainly concerned about the maintenance of discipline in the school.

This is of course a traditional style that heads of the schools only confine themselves with 'outward' discipline and most of them still believe in that way of running the school under "pindrop silence" atmosphere.

7.6.2 Record of contact with inspecting Officers.

One of the main issues in this thesis is to know how far the teachers were in contact with their supervisors. This contact in Pakistan is maintained mainly through annual inspections and short informed and surprise visits by the District Education Officers, in case of the secondary schools. The style of supervision is mainly based on the traditional way of inspections and visits prevailing since pre-independence days. But it is felt that the inspections were no more effective and have become only nominal procedures for the teachers and schools.

Teachers were requested (vide Q.No. 11) to give details of their personal experience(s) of the District Education Officers visiting their schools and classroom, on either short visits or full inspection over the three academic years 1986-87, 1987-88 and 1988-89. A similar request was also made to the Headmasters of secondary schools (vide Q.No. 19) regarding the number of visits and inspections conducted over the same period. Table 7.8., provides a breakdown of the contact recorded by the 288 teachers and table 7.9 provides information collected through the responses made by 75 Headmasters.

Table 7.8 Comparative analysis regarding observation of lessons by the District Education Officers during school inspection.

| Year | Total number of teachers (in the sample) | Number of teachers (whose lessons were observed during the inspection) | Number of teachers (whose lessons were not observed during the inspection) | % observed. |
|---------|--|--|--|-------------|
| 1986-87 | 288 | 172 | 116 | 60% |
| 1987-88 | 288 | 165 | 123 | 57% |
| 1988-89 | 288 | 109 | 179 | 38% |

The information tabulated above shows that the lessons of the majority of the teachers were observed by the District Education Officers during two years i.e. 1986-87 and 1987-88 at the time of school inspection, whereas in the third year 1988-89, the percentage was too low. The reason behind this was the same as already discussed. In other words, the overall disturbed conditions in the province of Sindh during this year, were the main cause.

As well as knowing the number of schools inspected by the District Education Officers and observation of teachers' lessons over three years, it is also necessary to know what is the opinion of the Headmasters, about the inspection of their schools. The Headmasters were

requested(vide question No. 19) regarding the inspection of their schools by the District Education Officers.

The table below, shows the opinion of 75 Headmasters about the inspection of their schools.

Table 7.9. Information provided by the Headmasters regarding the inspection of their schools by the District Education Officers for the last three years.

| Year | Total number of schools in the sample | Number of schools inspected by the District Education Officer | % |
|---------|---------------------------------------|---|-----|
| 1986-87 | 75 | 70 | 93% |
| 1987-88 | 75 | 64 | 85% |
| 1988-89 | 75 | 55 | 73% |

After finding out the opinion of all the three categories of respondents i.e. the District Education Officers, Headmasters and teachers about the number of schools inspected and lessons of teachers observed therein, the following points can be highlighted.

1. That the information provided by all the respondents is similar.
2. That the first two years provided satisfactory results.
3. That the third year i.e.1988-89 was really affected because of the turbulent political conditions in

the province and also because general elections were taking place all over the country.

4. That the overall target of inspecting schools as a formality by the District Education Officers was achieved to a greater extent.

5. That the Headmasters were mostly indifferent in observing teachers' lessons properly and regularly. Their supervision was merely limited to the outward discipline of the school .

As well as establishing all the categories of respondents regarding the frequency and number of inspections and the reasons of some failures in not conducting the inspection, it is also essential to know how much time the District Education Officer spent in conducting the inspection of a school. Usually the Government Secondary schools in Sindh work for six days a week, from 5 to 6 hours daily. The District Education Officers were asked (vide Question No.14) to provide this information, either in days or hours.

Nearly all of them furnished the same information that on average they spent a day on school inspection. However during their face to face interview they revealed that the actual stay of the District Education Officer is normally one day in each school for the purpose of inspection but any member of the inspection team, accompanying the District Education Officer was allowed to continue the following day, if his work was not finished

on the first day.

During the survey it was also found that the secondary schools were functioning with an average of 250 to 1500 students on roll and ranging from 5 classes to 40 classes. As a matter of practice, inspections were conducted by a team of at least five to ten members depending on the size of school. This team, normally under the leadership of the District Education Officer, is constituted from among other experts in the education department i.e. the Additional District Education Officer or Deputy Education Officer, the Sub-Divisional Education Officer, some Headmasters and senior teachers/specialists in various subjects working within the district.

Conducting an inspection of a school within a day by the team was just a formality. It is very difficult to judge the performance of each and every teacher within a short time of five or six hours. It can be said that the inspection is only a source of completing a formality and is limited to a normal annual routine on the part of the District Education Officer.

The next question concerns the percentage of total time of inspection, the District Education Officer spends in observing the actual class-room teaching. The District Education Officers were asked to provide such information (vide Q.No. 15). This question was divided into four descending ranks i.e. from 100% to 76% , 75% to 51% , 50%

to 26% and lastly 25% and less percentage. The main purpose of the information was to know the actual involvement of the District Education Officer, with an important role and position, in the system. The District Education Officer being the head of the entire district is supposed to be a practical guide in the actual class-room situation. Although it is very difficult to see him as one of Cogan's Clinical supervisors, his experience, position and authority makes him the central figure in supervising the schools and teachers with expectations of guidance and source of academic advise to teachers.

Information provided by 13 District Education Officers is given in the following table.

Table 7.10 Information showing percentage of total time of inspection, spent by the District Education Officer in the actual class-room teaching.

| Category within % range. | Total number of respondents in the sample. | Number of respondents within the % range | percentage of respondents |
|--------------------------|--|--|---------------------------|
| a) 100-76 | 13 | 3 | 23% |
| b) 75-51 | 13 | 4 | 31% |
| c) 50-26 | 13 | 6 | 46% |
| d) 25 and less | 13 | - | 0% |

The information provided above shows that the

majority of the District Education Officers, spent 26 to 50% of their time on the day of school inspection in observing the actual class-room teaching. This information was completely confirmed during the face to face interview with the respondents.

The number of respondents in the first range (i.e. between 76 to 100%) is 23% of the total respondents and those in the second category (i.e. 75 to 51%) is 31%. But this is very difficult to rely on, as it was not confirmed by the responses during interviews as well as in the frank discussions with the respondents. It was known that it is very difficult for any District Education Officer to spend more than 50% of his time on actual class-room teaching observation. They are over burdened with many administrative and official duties, which leaves no time for them to do proper justice to that part of their work. One of the respondents also expressed his own honest opinion that the District Education Officer was only a symbol on the day. In some cases he is even represented by his Additional or Deputy Education Officer, and only signs the inspection report.

7.7. Use of the inspection proforma

The District Education Officers were requested (vide Question 10) whether they used any proforma for recording the proceedings of inspections. All of them

replied in the affirmative. Again, in order to confirm this they were also requested to supply a copy of an inspection report duly completed in respect of any one of the schools of their district inspected, during the last three years. The main purpose behind the collection of the specimen was to know which type of proformas were in use by them and in which style and way it was prepared.

In addition to the collection of the inspection report as a specimen for the thesis, many others were observed from their records. It was found that mainly two type of documents were in use throughout the province. One with the heading " **Inspection Report** " mostly supplied by the Government printing press, while the other type was found in a cyclostyled printing with the heading of " **Proforma for Inspection reports**" (Appendices 7.1 and 7.2)

The former has been in use for the last three decades and even this researcher has used them when worked as one of the Assistants to the Inspector of Schools , in the now defunct Khairpur division in the 60's. The latter was introduced recently, and is a greatly reduced proforma compared with the previous one which was more comprehensive. In addition to the proformas, additional sheets were attached containing the comments about the teaching performance of teachers by other members or subject specialists of the team.

On the whole the proformas reflected more about

the administrative issues rather than academic guidance . This needs immediate modification and improvement in the light of the latest trends in supervision.

7. 7.1. Suggestions for the improvement of teachers.

The supervision of teachers should provide guidance for them. As the District Education Officer is supposed to supervise the work of teachers it is essential for him to be conversant with the task of teaching. The Supervisor himself has to be a good teacher, in the first instance.

Apart from a working knowledge of the curriculum, methods and organisation of schools, the prospective supervisor should possess sufficient knowledge about different aspects of teaching and its related fields. If he expects the teachers to be prepared for the lessons he cannot excuse himself for not being prepared for the lessons he proposes to supervise.

The District Education Officers were requested (vide Question No.17) to say how much consideration is given by them about making suggestions for the improvement of teachers during inspection.

Seven different areas were mentioned and answers were supposed to be within the rating scale of five different grades starting from " To a great extent " and ending with " Rarely".

The following table provides this information. The number of respondents are shown against each column of response marked with letters A, B , C , D , E and T.

Table 7.11. Information regarding suggestions provided by the District Education Officers for the improvement of teachers, during the inspection.

| Area | A | B | C | D | E | = T |
|---------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|------|
| 1) Personality | 5 | 5 | 2 | 1 | - | = 13 |
| 2) Methods of teaching. | 6 | 4 | 2 | 1 | - | = 13 |
| 3) Contents mastery | 6 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | = 13 |
| 4) Relation-ship with students. | 5 | 4 | 2 | 2 | - | = 13 |
| 5) Use of teaching aids. | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | - | = 13 |
| 6) Achievement of students. | 5 | 3 | 3 | 2 | - | = 13 |
| 7) Others | - | - | - | - | - | - |

Key: A = To a great extent B= To a certain extent
 C = Moderately D= To some extent
 E = Rarely T= Total number of respondents.

The above table shows that the majority of the

respondents i.e District Education Officers claimed credit for making suggestions for the improvement of teachers, during inspection as observed from their response. However, in order to avoid a one-sided judgement and to cross-check the answers provided by the District Education officers, teachers were also requested (vide Q. No. 15) to say to what extent suggestions made by the supervisors were helpful to them regarding an improvement of the quality of instruction .

7.7.2 Teachers' opinion regarding suggestions for improvement.

An active supervisor will be always be alert in carrying out his duties. He will extend his knowledge and experience to teachers, provide democratic leadership, and visit class-room teaching to guide and analyse the learning situation.

After evaluation of such efforts and actions taken by the District Education Officers through questionnaire survey and interview (as sketched in the previous table) , teachers' opinion regarding suggestions made by the District Education Officers towards improvement of instructions, are also evaluated in the forthcoming table. The main aim of asking the teachers' opinion was to decide to what extent they thought these suggestions were helpful to them. There was a general feeling that the District Education Officers only acted as fault-finders and performed the functions of an administrative supervisor

only.

Question No.14 of the teachers' questionnaire with the same pattern of five-rating scale has provided information about the satisfaction of teachers in connection with observations made by the District Education Officers.

The following table shows such responses provided by 288 teachers who participated in this process . The number of respondents against each level of response along with the percentage of the total number of respondents is also shown.

Table 7.12. Teachers' view and satisfaction regarding suggestions made by the District Education Officers.

| Level of response | Number of respondents. | Percentage of the total (i.e.288) |
|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| a) To a great extent. | 49 | 17 % |
| b) To a certain extent. | 57 | 20 % |
| c) Moderately | 31 | 11 % |
| d) To some extent | 77 | 27 % |
| e) Rarely | 69 | 24 % |
| f) No response | 05 | 1 % |
| Total | 288 | 100 |

The above figures show that the majority of the

respondents felt a lesser degree of satisfaction i.e they were satisfied to some extent or were rarely satisfied. As per d and e the total number of such respondents was 146 out of 288 which is 51%.

Looking at the other side of the picture, the total of those with a higher degree of satisfaction as shown in a and b was only 106 i.e. 37 % .

11% of moderately satisfied teachers also expressed their dissatisfaction when their responses were verified in person. It was realised that they ticked the reply showing their neutrality. Some of them might have done so in order to avoid any type of confusion or administrative action to be taken against them by the District Education Officer, in spite of the fact that they were reassured about such action.

7.8. Post-observation discussion

Post-observation discussion is the source of expressing ideas and exchange of thoughts between supervisors and teachers after the observation of lessons. The desire and need for the conduct of a supervisory conference after observing lessons is necessary as quoted by Goldhammer(1980: 87) in the following words:

The supervisor has just come from observation and has copious notes, verbatim quotations, timings, and the like from which to develop a design for supervision....(The) supervisor wants to wind up with a representation of reality, namely, of teaching, that is true to life and as economical as it can be.

In the reality of the situation in Sindh , a District Education Officer needs to establish criteria for discussions and to know what factors may affect the success of the post-observation discussion.

The supervisory conference lies at the heart of supervision and its process.

The ideas and final views in the shape of conclusions by the Supervisor may be communicated through post-observation discussion at which the supervisor and the teachers are present. Written inspection reports are only seen at a later date, and the teacher can have no influence on how it is written or the conclusions within it. During such meetings a true exchange of ideas should take place.

The question is whether they (District Education Officers) hold discussions with the teachers and Headmasters after inspection is over. The District Education Officers in the survey were requested (vide Q.No.16.) to provide such information. The summary of responses is shown in table 7.13.

Table 7.13. Information regarding post-observation discussions by the District Education Officer with teachers and Headmasters.

| To a great extent | To a certain extent | Moderately | To some extent | Rarely |
|-------------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------|--------|
| With Headmasters | | | | |
| 10 (77%) | 3 (23%) | - | - | - |
| with teachers | | | | |
| 5 (38%) | 8 (62%) | - | - | - |

The above responses from the District Education Officers show that they (District Education Officers) discuss more with the Headmasters rather than with teachers.

During the interviews most of the District Education Officers confessed this to be true, and stated the following reasons for preferring Headmasters to teachers in this connection:

1. That due to the limited time available it was not possible for them to discuss the individual academic problems of teachers.
2. That discussion with the Headmaster served both purposes i.e academic and administrative. They discussed problems in general with the Headmasters whom they considered to be the chief representative of the school.

They were further of the opinion that the heads of schools were directly responsible to them, and teachers were supposed to get their instructions through the heads and not directly through the District Education Officers.

3. Since most of the District Education Officers were not in a position to give advice on each and every subject, they therefore did not discuss it with the teachers but asked the appropriate members of the team to hold such discussion.

The above points would support the conclusion that the post-observation discussion by the District Education Officers with teachers was indirect, and face to face talk was limited. It was more an administrative process than pedagogical guidance on the part of the District Education Officer who serves in the capacity of a supervisor to secondary school teachers.

Supervision seems to be a bureaucratic action and the whole system tends to be limited to a nominal act of recording the activities of a school on inspection day as a routine procedure. The teachers are not given a chance to seek proper guidance, nor are the Supervisors in a position to help and guide them. In the above circumstances, therefore, the direct link between the supervisor and the teachers was quite unsatisfactory. As a matter of practice, the only source of communication about the Supervisors' impressions regarding teachers' work was through inspection reports. It was observed during the

survey that as a matter of practice inspection reports were despatched from the District Education Office to the Headmasters of schools, within a period of a fortnight to three months.

After the receipt of the inspection reports from the district headquarters, it is the responsibility of the Headmaster, to choose the style he displays or communicates the comments to individual teachers. In order to confirm this the Headmasters were requested (vide Q.22) to give information about the action taken by them in this connection. Their responses are tabulated in table 7.14.

Table.7.14. Information regarding action taken by the Headmasters towards communication of inspection reports .

| Style | Total number of Headmasters (in sample) | Number of respondents in each style | % of total respondents. |
|-------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| A | 75 | 20 | 27 % |
| B | 75 | 7 | 9 % |
| C | 75 | 48 | 64 % |
| D | 75 | - | - |

Key: Style A= The inspection reports were circulated amongst teaching staff members.
 Style B= Filed, as there was nothing to be communicated to teachers.
 Style C= Meeting with teaching staff was held and observations were discussed.
 Style D= Other action(to be specified by the heads)

According to the responses shown in the above table it is clear that the majority of the Headmasters adopted style-C- by meeting and discussing the observations of the inspection reports with their staff members(teachers). This was practiced by 64 % of the total respondents.

The above action of the Headmasters was democratic and was done for the mutual benefit of the teaching staff. This was providing a chance for open discussion about the inspection report, and thinking about further improvement. It was of course an academic action, on the part of the Headmasters.

27% of the Headmasters adopted style-A by only circulating the inspection reports among the teachers. This was one of the office procedures. This researcher observed and confirmed through many teachers that inspection reports were shown to them for a glimpse, in order to get the initials of the teachers in the circular book as a formality. The school peon usually carries the circular book containing the report(attached) and finishes his job very quickly. It is quite surprising that many times such circulars are taken to teachers even if they are busy in teaching the class. They are supposed to stop the teaching and put their initials in the circular book. Some of the Headmasters argued that this was an old procedure and nobody bothered to criticise or

amend this. Such action was an example of administrative style with purely bureaucratic flavour.

The lowest percentage of respondents i.e 9% was of those who adopted style-B, by filing the inspection reports without circulating and discussing with the teachers. During the process of the interviews with some of the Headmasters belonging to this category, it was observed that they had serious differences of opinion with the District Education Officers. They considered the comments made in the inspection reports about their schools and staff as vague and based on personal differences.

Besides the above observations, it was also known that some of the Headmasters adopted two styles i.e. A and C together. They revealed during the interviews that their first and immediate action after receipt of inspection reports from the District Education Officer, was circulation of the report among teachers and after an interval of few days, discussions were held in a joint staff meeting.

7.9. Implementation of inspection reports in schools

The implementation and acceptance of any instructions and orders passed by the superior officers is obligatory for subordinates in a system like Pakistan. In the same way instructions issued in the shape of inspection reports become binding for the teachers under

the system in practice within educational discipline and supervision of schools in Pakistan, including Sindh.

7.9.1. The views of the Headmasters.

The compliance and implementation of such reports is the official duty of the Headmasters. In order to know how far and up to what extent such instructions were implemented in schools. For this purpose the views of the Headmasters collected through the questionnaire (vide Q.No. 24) are compiled and evaluated in the following table. The number of respondents is followed by the percentage of total repondents, shown within brackets.

Table 7.15. Information provided by the heads of schools regarding the extent of implementation of inspection reports in their schools.

| To a great extent | To a certain extent | Moderately | To some extent | Rarely | =Total |
|-------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------|--------|--------|
| 37 (49%) | 21 (28%) | 6 (8%) | 7 (9%) | 4 (5%) | = 75 |

Note: Fractions in percentage were ignored (i.e 1% on the whole) in the above table.

Figures shown in the table, indicate that the majority of the responses were on the extreme left i.e. to a great extent. The Headmasters comprising 49%

have acknowledged that observations pointed out during the inspection by the inspecting team were carried out and implemented by the teachers. The number of Headmasters within the range of the next and the nearest to first group in the sample comprised 28% of the total sample. The other three groups were very small.

During the observation of inspection reports written by the District Education Officers, it was noted that the majority of points raised were of a general nature. Some of the remarks are quoted as under:

1. "Practicals in physics, chemistry and Biology be completed in due time."
2. "Attention be also paid to Gen. Science and G.Maths."
3. "More attention be given to English and Maths of higher classes."
4. "In ninth class one fourth course in physics, chemistry and Mathematics be completed."
5. "The Headmaster has been instructed to get the schedule of studies prepared and display them in all the classes."

The above quotations were taken from different inspection reports collected from the District Education Officers during this survey. Again it was also noted that most of the inspection reports were closed with some directions, as under:

1. "Compliance report of the above instructions is required immediately without fail".
2. "Teachers must prepare themselves for the teaching assignments in the class, without fail " .

3. " P.T.A must be started "

The above directions were clear examples of the autocratic behaviour on the part of the District Education Officers who often behave more as an administrator rather than an academic guide and supervisor.

7.9.2 Views of the District Education Officers

It is also interesting to discuss here that most of the District Education Officers told this reseacher during their interview that anybody who failed to comply with their instructions issued in the body of the inspection report were liable to disciplinary action. The disciplinary actions included transfers to inconvenient and far flung areas, issuance of charge sheets, and, in the most serious cases, even suspension from duties until finalization of an enquiry.

In order to verify the above claims, the District Education Officers were also asked (Q.No.18) to what extent the recommendations of the previous inspections were implemented by the Headmasters and teachers within the schools of their districts.

The same pattern of evaluating the responses was applied as was done in the case of responses from the Headmasters.

Table 7.16. Information provided by the District Education Officers regarding implementation of previous inspection reports.

| To a great extent | To a certain extent | Moderately | To Some extent | Rarely | = Total |
|------------------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------|--------|---------|
| About the Headmasters | | | | | |
| 10 (77%) | 3(23%) | - | - | - | = 13 |
| About the teachers | | | | | |
| 5 (38%) | 8(62%) | - | - | - | = 13 |

Figures shown in the above table indicate that the views of the District Education Officers regarding implementation of the instructions and observations pointed out by them in the inspection reports were considered from two different angles. This was because some of the observations relating to school buildings, furniture, accounts, general discipline of the school etc. were directly concerned with the heads of schools. They are only responsible for the compliance of such instructions and observations. On the other hand observations regarding teaching of different subjects in classes was the main responsibility of the concerned teachers and the heads were indirectly involved to direct their teachers for the compliance of such observations.

The majority of the District Education officers

show that the compliance of observations pointed out in previous inspection reports were carried out to a great extent by the Headmasters and to a certain extent by the teachers. This was because the remarks pertaining to administration and the general discipline of the school were directly concerned with the heads and those of teaching was the individual responsibility of the teachers. The District Education Officers, therefore gave an impression of slackness on the part of teachers.

As it has already been pointed out, the observations and instructions were mostly of a general nature. One of the District Education Officers revealed during the interview that they prefer to talk more in person rather than put anything in writing. Their verbal instructions are more effective due to their style of treating the school staff in a rigid way by showing their authority, pomp and dignity. Most of the District Education Officers feel that they were also the executives of the district and their status and dignity was on a par with other officers belonging to the police and other administrative departments.

7.9.3. Reasons for non-compliance of inspection reports

Although the compliance of the instructions and observations pointed out in inspection reports by the District Education Officers was recorded as an achievement upto great extent, it is still believed that there were

some difficulties and reasons behind such failure and non-compliance of instructions.

The District Education Officers and the Headmasters were requested separately (vide Q.No.19 & 26) to mention at least four factors in this connection.

While going through the responses received from both categories of the repondents, the following important reasons and hurdles were picked out and are produced as under:

1. Lack of professional interest among teachers
2. Over-crowded classes in schools
3. Frequent transfer of the teachers
4. Non- cooperation of parents
5. Interference of political parties
6. Shortage of staff
7. Lack of guidance and counselling to teachers
8. Inadequate financial resources

The reasons mentioned above by the District Education Officers and the Headmasters were also verified during the survey. The personal verifications and observation made by this researcher in this connection coincide the above ideas. Justification regarding agreement of views is made as under:

i) It is a fact that most of the teachers lack proper interest in the profession. This is because many of them enter the profession because they are unable to get

alternative employment. (Quddus, 1979; Mirza, 1986). They only get shelter and quit as soon as they get another attractive job. They were found less interested in the profession and were working half-heartedly. One of the teachers told me that because of his failure to get admission to a medical college, he joined the teaching profession. He was forced to make the decision because he was in danger of crossing the maximum age limit for Government service. After that the doors for Government service were certainly to be closed for him, for ever. For this reason most of the teachers were not serious, and did even do not bother about inspection reports, as they were sheltered and protected by influential and political personalities. This was really a great tragedy for the nation, whose educators lack interest in the profession.

ii) Most of the class-rooms in schools were found to be over-crowded. In such conditions it was not possible for the teachers to pay individual attention to every child. Some class-rooms were packed in such a way that many students were found either sitting in the windows or even standing outside the class-room and leaning in , while the teacher was busy conducting the class. It is quite clear that teachers cannot be blamed for failures in these circumstance. This of course is a great hurdle in the way of smooth teaching-learning processes.

iii) Frequent transfers for unknown reasons were

also creating gaps of understanding between teachers and taught. This was also one of the hurdles of continuity in learning.

iv) Non-cooperation of parents towards a solution of children's social problems was one of the hurdles and reasons for slow progress in schools. It is a fact that the majority of the parents are illiterate and are not aware of educational problems. Even the educated parents, because of their own engagements, do not bother to spare time to visit the school and discuss their child's problem with the teachers. Sometimes it becomes very difficult to handle serious problems created by the children. A child in Pakistan only remains for 5 to 6 hours in the school. In such a limited time teachers are helpless to mould children's indifferent attitude. This type of behaviour creates trouble for the smooth atmosphere of the school. On many occasions such problems attracted the District Education Officers at the time of inspection and in this way they pointed out such problems which in a real sense were not created by the inefficiency of school personnel but were mainly due to non-co-operation of the parents.

v) Political pressure is another of the problems linked to the failure of school discipline and the maintenance of proper teaching-learning standards, in Pakistan, as pointed out by most of the District Education

Officers and heads of schools.

Many appointments were made on the recommendations of political personalities, such as members of the national and provincial assemblies. Most of the District Education Officers felt such pressure as compulsion. They were helpless and were compelled to accept such pressures.

There was also political influence among the students who were affiliated to student organisations backed by political parties. A decade ago this was limited to students of higher institutions but now most of the Headmasters complained that it has reached the school level. This was cause of much turmoil which disturbed the academic peace for political motives.

vi) Lack of proper funds and financial resources compelled the Headmasters to run the schools without adequate teaching materials, science equipment, furniture etc. This lack of resources made the teaching/learning process very difficult.

Some of the Headmasters complained that because of an uneven and unbalanced distribution of budgetary allocations, some schools were badly affected while others were enjoying the comforts at the cost of others. On verification from the accounts section of one of the directorates, it was clear that such allocations were made on the priority basis. The Director of school Education

was competent enough in this connection. However financial problems were reported to be one of the difficulties.

The above obstacles were the joint feelings of both the District Education Officers and heads of schools; but the District Education Officers, in spite of knowing the causes of such problems, still insisted that the school personnel should remove such hurdles. It seems as if the District Education Officers transfer this joint responsibility solely onto the shoulders of school personnel, which can not be justified. One of the District Education Officers also stressed that it was within his functions and responsibilities to point out such failure and drawbacks at the time of inspections. This type of action endorsed the impression that the Supervisors in our system are still fault-finders, performing the role of detectives.

7.10. Over-view of District Education Officers' duties.

The District Education Officer has often been described as a king pin of the educational system in Pakistan. (AEPAM, 1984)

This is true to a great extent as a District Education Officer is the overall person in charge of educational planning and management at the most crucial level of administrative hierarchy i.e. the District. The District Education Officer, as the Supervisor to

secondary schools has multifarious duties to perform. He has academic as well as non-academic duties which include inspection and visit to schools, guidance to teachers, office routine work, development work etc. Besides this he is also assigned various other responsibilities by the department as well as other local administrative departments. At one place he acts as a chairman of a committee while in an other place he acts as a secretary or as one of the members in any committee established at the district level. Most of them are of the opinion that because of this heavy burden of responsibilities, they were even unable to look at the academic affairs of schools an adequate way.

7.10.1. Distribution of work.

In order to confirm this opinion (i.e that they were over-burdened), the District Education Officers were requested (vide Q.No. 11) to estimate in percentage terms the time they spent on the various activities.

The following table, based on the information provided by 13 respondents through the questionnaire , shows the distribution of the District Education Officers' working hours(in percentages) spent on different activities.

Table 7.17. Information regarding the distribution of work by the District Education Officers(in percentage).

| Description of work | Distribution of work |
|--|--|
| (a) Inspections of schools. | The time spent by 8 Officers was between the range of 26 to 50% , while the remaining 5 were within 20 to 25 %. |
| (b) Administrative duties including office routine work. | 9 of them spent 26 to 50% of time while 3 were between 51 to 75 % and one was at the maximum range above 76 %. |
| (c) Development work, purchases etc. | 11 of them were within the range of 11 to 25%, while the remaining 2 spent 10% of their time. |
| (d) Any others. | None of the respondents specified any work in this column except one who used the word " Rarely" against this column on his own. |

The above table shows that the majority of the District Education Officers spent most of their time on administrative duties and office routine work. This conclusion was also reached by Bhutto (1979:6) during his survey on the supervision of primary schools in Sindh where he talked about the District Education Officers in the following way:

The District Education Officers and their deputies have huge and multifarious administrative functions to perform . They remain so occupied with paper work that they find very little time to visit schools much less to render supervisory assistance.

During the survey this researcher observed that most of the District Education Officers were confined in their offices with heaps of office files on their tables. During interviews, one of the District Education Officers revealed that he was so busy performing office work, that he often starts at rising of the sun and takes his three meals in the office. An other indicated that he was so busy that he had neglected his family members and had made the office a chamber, dining room and mosque. The presence of crockery and prayer mat in his office was a clear indication of what he meant. He used to pray four times out of five in his office. This was true as the researcher observed him twice, during the day of the interview.

7.10.2. Additional duties and assignments.

The District Education Officer, being a district head, is also assigned to additional duties and functions other than those specified by the education department. In order to know the extent of these extra assignments, a request was made (vide Q.No.12) in the questionnaire.

The following is the list of some assignments and positions derived from the information provided by 13 District Education Officers in the questionnaire.

1. Secretary to District Education Committee.
2. District Commissioner of the District Scouts Committee.

3. Member of the Anti-Narcotic Control Committee.
4. Chairman, Furniture Purchase Committee.
5. Chairman, K.G. Classes Board.
6. Chairman, District Sports Committee.
7. Member, District Welfare Committee.
8. Member, Scholarship Committee.
9. Chairman, District recruitment Committee (up to grade
9)
10. Chairman Child Care Centre.

The committees, boards, centres etc. mentioned above are not common to entire districts within the province of Sindh. Even the assignments are not common. Apart from a few, most of the positions vary from district to district.

Some committees are headed by the Deputy Commissioner of the district and they have a great hold in the general administration of the district. The District Education Officer attends many meetings in this connection. During the interview it was established that sometimes they have to ignore their own work and rush to attend such meetings.

It is true to some extent that the District Education Officer is overburdened with many functions i. e academic and administrative functions. When criticised, the District Education Officer defends himself by claiming that he is overworked. Among teachers, he is viewed with

suspicion, and labelled as a detective and fault-finder instead of considering him a guide and supervisor . This is all due to his style and attitude adopted from the bureaucratic elite which has compelled him to act as an autocratic authority.

As mentioned in the third chapter of this thesis, the administrative machinery within the country is still working on the old autocratic and rigid policy inherited from the pre-independence period. Although this behaviour is no longer tolerable and condemned in the democratic society our bureaucrats still continue to act in the same way. The District Education Officers tend to act in the same manner. The literature on supervision (chapter 4) has much to say about the qualities of educational supervisors who should have great regard for democratic values. Today's educational supervisor should no longer be an autocratic authority but a person working with a democratic attitude, a guide to teachers and an academic adviser.

In a society like Pakistan, where people are now more interested in democratic values and keen to develop a democratic society, there is still time to formulate such a policy by changing the attitudes of our educational supervisors .

7.11. Choice for selection of an appropriate model for supervision.

In chapter IV, of this thesis, while reviewing the literature on supervision, various models of supervision were discussed in detail. From the classification of different models mentioned by different experts and authors, models described by Kochhar(1980 : 31-33) were accepted as a useful guide. In his study on the situation of educational supervision of schools in India, six types of supervisory models were observed by Kochhar namely Laissez-faire, co-ercive, corrective, preventive, creative and lastly democratic. A brief introduction of the models used in this survey were also presented in the questionnaires for the guidance of respondents , which it is essential to repeat here.

1. LAISSEZ-FAIRE model allowed teachers to teach in the way they wish. In other words letting each teacher teach as he pleases.
2. CO-ERCIVE model compelled teachers to follow the techniques of teaching already framed by the supervisor and the supervisor be considered as a master/super teacher to get the desired results.
3. CORRECTIVE model allowed supervisors to act as fault finders.
4. PREVENTIVE model stressed on the supervisors to help teachers in anticipating any possible mistakes, before they (mistakes) actually arise.

5. CREATIVE model stressed encouragement to teachers by the supervisor in sharing problems and thoughts voluntarily.

6. DEMOCRATIC model asks the supervisor to provide efficient group planning and co-ordinate the work of groups.

The reasons for accepting such models was that there is a similar historical background among the people of both countries(India and Pakistan), who were linked for centuries together under the same system; trends and attitudes of the people are still more or less the same. Even the bureaucratic pattern of educational supervision adopted by both countries is now under severe criticism and needs change.

In all the three questionnaires i.e. for the District Education Officers, headmasters and teachers, respondents were requested to point out their choice in order of preference about those six models. Table 7.18 on the next page shows the number of respondents in each category and their choices for models.

Table 7.18. Choice of models in educational supervision by the District Education Officers, Headmasters of secondary schools and teachers in Sindh Province of Pakistan.

| Respondents | Models of supervision. | <u>Order of preference and choice</u> | | | | | |
|---|------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | | <u>1st:</u> | <u>2nd:</u> | <u>3rd:</u> | <u>4th:</u> | <u>5th:</u> | <u>6th:</u> |
| District Education Officers. (Total =13) | i) Laissez-faire | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| | ii) Co-ercive. | 7 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| | iii) corrective. | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| | iv) Preventive. | 2 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| | v) Creative. | 3 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | vi) Democratic. | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 7 |
| Head-Masters (Total =75) | i) Laissez-faire | 10 | 17 | 15 | 9 | 6 | 18 |
| | ii) Co-ercive | 11 | 16 | 12 | 19 | 0 | 17 |
| | iii) Corrective | 15 | 2 | 21 | 13 | 15 | 9 |
| | iv) Preventive | 29 | 0 | 6 | 18 | 12 | 10 |
| | v) Creative | 27 | 11 | 7 | 10 | 9 | 11 |
| | vi) Democratic | 43 | 21 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 4 |
| Teachers (Total 288) | i) Laissez-Faire | 216 | 21 | 11 | 16 | 19 | 5 |
| | ii) Co-ercive | 0 | 0 | 8 | 30 | 55 | 195 |
| | iii) Corrective | 0 | 0 | 21 | 17 | 120 | 130 |
| | iv) Preventive | 187 | 51 | 13 | 18 | 19 | 0 |
| | v) Creative | 205 | 45 | 15 | 14 | 9 | 0 |
| | vi) Democratic. | 259 | 18 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Calculations made above have been considered against each individual model, selected by different respondents. For example in the case of the Democratic model selected by 288 teachers in order of their choice was 259, 18, 11, 0 , 0 , 0 respectively.

The table on the previous page shows that 7 out of 13 District Education Officers i.e 54% selected Co-ercive type of supervisory model, as their first choice of supervision. This model compels the teachers to follow the instructions of supervisors already framed for them. This model also keeps the supervisor in the upper position. In other words this is also an expression of autocratic authority by the District Education Officer over the teachers. On the other hand Democratic supervision was kept as 6th: choice by the same number of District Education Officers.

The above preference and choice for the Co-ercive model depicts the attitude of the District Education Officers, who want to impose their ready-made ideas and desires in order to maintain a hold over the teachers.

Unlike the above choice, the majority of the Headmasters i.e. 43 out of 75 i.e. 57% and also a greater majority of the teachers i.e 259 out of 288 i.e. 90% , selected democratic supervision as a first choice.

The above results are a clear picture of the difference of opinion prevailing among the Supervisors

(i.e. the District Education Officers) and the school personnel (i.e. Heads and teachers) regarding selection and choice of different supervisory models asked in the questionnaire. This also shows the dissatisfaction of the school personnel against the existing style of supervision in the shape of inspections, which is co-ercive. As already mentioned in this chapter, the school personnel are provided with ready-made guide lines regarding teaching, completion of syllabus and courses either by the regional directorate or the district Education office. Non-compliance of such instructions is checked at the time of inspection. The School personnel are bound to obey such instructions. In case of failure , they may be dealt with in accordance with efficiency and discipline rules framed for civil servants in the province.

7.12. Opinion about the role assigned to supervisory personnel.

Besides the choice of the above models of supervision, the repondents were requested to express their opinion in an open-ended question regarding the role assigned to the present supervisory personnel in the educational system of Sindh-Pakistan. Commentary on the opinion of each category of repondents is given separately, as under:

1. The general opinion by the District Education

Officers was that the present position of District Supervisor is a complex one, because he has to perform a variety of duties simultaneously. On the one hand he has to look after the development schemes, whereas on the other hand he is required to maintain the standard of education through supervision by close contact with the heads of schools and the teachers. He is also supposed to carry out the Government policies. Keeping in view these bare facts, a district administrator, how ever efficient he may be, often fails to do justice to the discharge of his duties.

2. The Headmasters of secondary schools were of the opinion that the present role assigned and practiced by the Supervisory personnel in the province was not good enough and most of them (Headmasters) were dis-satisfied. They expressed that the following views:

i) The role of the supervisor was that of a detective and a fault finder. His autocratic behaviour was disliked.

ii) The supervisors were not trained for the job, hence they were not helpful to school personnel at all.

iii) The supervisors were over-burdened with administrative and office routine work and therefore dealt with the job of supervising teachers superficially, only once a year during the school inspection.

iv) The number of supervisors for secondary schools

is too few as compared with the total number of schools in a district.

3. The opinion of the teachers about the supervisory personnel is very similar to those of the Headmasters, therefore it will be unnecessary to describe it separately.

The summary of the opinion expressed by all the types of respondents gives a conclusion that the role assigned to present supervisory personnel in the educational system of Sindh, is ineffective, nominal and below the expectations for maintaining educational standard.

7.13. Suggestions by the respondents for appropriate role

In the end , all the three categories of respondents were requested to suggest the most appropriate role to be assigned to the District Education Officer for improving the efficiency of education in Sindh.

For this purpose at the end of all the questionnaires an open-ended question was also included. The respondents were expected to express their views in their own words.

A brief summary of the ideas and views expressed by the respondents in this regard is given as under:

The District Education Officers expected an

independent role free from external (political) pressure. They also desired more administrative and financial powers to make the role of the supervisor at the district level effective in a real sense.

The Headmasters and teachers, who possessed a very critical view of the existing role of the District Education Officers, stressed a role with democratic attitude on the part of a district supervisor. Further, they suggested the supervisor should act as a group consultant and adviser.

The above mentioned views and opinions by different groups of respondents on the one hand is a demand for more powers with an independent role, and, on the other hand, with suggestions of a democratic attitude as an essential aspect of a supervisor's role. This was a very important finding.

The next chapter will conclude the thesis along with suitable suggestions and recommendations for the effective and successful supervision of secondary schools in the Sindh province of Pakistan.

7.14. Interviews during field study

Interviewing is the oldest research technique in the world (Wragg, 1984). But of course the interview is not the only approach open to researchers. As Warwick (1989) said, the interview is just one of a number of means of communication that are available and selecting means is a matter of matching the means to the ends.

So far as this study is concerned, interviews were used as a crosscheck on data collected through the questionnaires. Interview schedules were developed and were very flexible in terms of methods and time.

About 50 people were considered for interview, but only 35 were interviewed due to the reasons already mentioned in chapter VI.

It was also not possible to interview all those respondents who had already furnished necessary information through questionnaires. This was a cross-check in order to confirm how far the information provided in the questionnaires was confirmed or needed to be questioned.

Among those who were formally interviewed for this purpose were the District Education Officers and their helping assistants at the headquarters(i.e. Additional and Deputy District Education Officers), and some Headmasters of High schools.

Besides the above mentioned respondents, the

Directors of School Education, Officers of the Sindh Education Department, Federal Ministry of Education and other concerned Officers were also interviewed informally. The purpose of interviewing this category of Officers was to get their views about the supervisory system of secondary education in Sindh. This was also a useful and additional source to find out the views of those indirectly concerned with the problems of supervision in Sindh.

The following main areas were selected out of the questionnaires and the information already provided by the respondents was cross-checked through formal face to face interviews:

7.14.1 In-Service Education and Training(INSET)

The provision of training of Supervisors in developing countries as identified by Hurst and Rodwell (1986), were:

1. Ad hoc one-off courses or conferences, organised by departments of the Ministry of Education or Local authorities.
2. Courses organized by University departments of education.
3. On the job training.
4. Training abroad .
5. Specialized Ministry-sponsored institutes for the

training of educational administrators.

Whether it may be in-service training for supervisors or the heads and teachers, the above mentioned arrangements, are quite often in existence in Pakistan. The INSET agencies already described are working for the same purpose. The information provided by the respondents (vide table 7.5) indicated that only 23% of the District Education Officers, 31% of the Headmasters and 34% of the school teachers in Sindh province availed themselves of the chance of In-service training facilities.

During the interviews respondents also confirmed the same position. This researcher observed and concluded that due to the following reasons, INSET programmes either were not succeeding , or had not materialised properly:

1. That there are two separate managements dealing with the administration of the personnel and organisation of courses. In Sindh province, there are three regional directorates of School Education, i.e Karachi, Hyderabad and Sukkur. Each regional directorate is responsible for the administration of the personnel i.e the supervisors, Headmasters, teachers etc. On the other hand the training centres are under the organisation of a single Directorate of Education Extension services, established at Jamshoro and is responsible for the training of personnel (In-service as well as pre-service), throughout the province.

2. That the above dual management lacks co-ordination and sometimes a great confusion is created, which results in postponement of the courses.
3. That in most cases the regional directorates convey the names of nominated people for courses at the eleventh hour, which provides an opportunity for participants to say no in one way or another. This has resulted in the failure of such courses due to insufficient numbers of participants.
4. That there is no proper planning and fixed schedule of in-service courses. Most of the courses are organised at the end of the financial year in order to justify the expenditure of sums provided and released through the yearly budget.
5. That the theme and content of the in-service courses are almost irrelevant for the participants. This has restricted the output of the courses as well as caused a wastage of money spent during the training.
6. That the trainers working in the training centres are also lacking in the latest knowledge about the subject content and methodology. They are either deprived of chances for seeking further knowledge in the field from advanced countries or have no access to the latest literature in their subjects. This has resulted in continuation of primitive methods and out-dated knowledge in the field or subject.

In my opinion this is due to irresponsible attitudes on the part of the planners, administrators and trainers. Although the literature is full of ways and means for making the In-service programmes productive and successful, it will only be possible, in the case of Sindh, when the attitudes of the responsible people are changed.

7.14.2 Supervision of secondary schools.

One of the main aims of this study was to look into the supervisory methods applied by the supervisors throughout the province of Sindh. The information provided by the respondents through questionnaires, as already evaluated in this chapter, was also confirmed through interviews. This shows that the role of the District Education Officer was important and central at District level.

The literature has also provided evidence about the important position of a supervisor, who should be a guide, facilitator, academic consultant, adviser and a team leader for teachers.

The question arises as to whether the District Education Officer in Sindh is a real supervisor, as described in the literature. This can be ascertained through the responses provided in the questionnaires and cross-checked through interviews, conducted by this researcher.

Supervision of secondary schools was maintained through annual inspections and casual visits either surprise or announced in advance. Inspections were mostly based on administrative points mainly concerned with the general discipline of the school. Teams were set up by the District Education Officers for the conduct of annual inspections. Such teams included the Additional or Deputy Education Officers attached to the District Education Officers, and some Headmasters of high schools, working in the same district.

Although as an independent nation there has been always a desire for democratic society by the people of Pakistan, how far the principles of democratic society have been maintained in every discipline of life is a controversial issue. Among with other aspects of society, educational supervision also needs a more democratic attitude. In the case of Sindh, the remarks and contents recorded within the inspection reports seen by this researcher, gave a clear picture of directions and threats to Headmasters and teachers rather than consultation.

For example a District Education Officer used the following sentences for the improvement of teachers:

All the teachers teaching Maths to VIII class are directed to take more pain to improve the class.

The above remarks clearly show the authoritarian attitude on the part of the District Education Officers.

There is no any sign of democratic accountability visible in the remarks.

This researcher, discussed the use of such language with the District Education Officers during the interview. It was argued that the use of ' soft tongue ' was a symbol of weakness and failure for any administrator in a society like Pakistan.

Is Pakistani society so indisciplined, as argued above? The answer is that the trend of exhibiting one's authority has been the common factor among the tribal systems. In Pakistan there is still a tribal and Biradari (limited community) system. Everybody imposes his superiority over his subordinates. It may be a tribe to tribe relationship, farmer and land-owner relationship, Officer and Subordinate relationship or Supervisor and teacher relationship, but every where exhibition of authority is clearly seen.

Colin Brock, a well-known United Kingdom expert on developing countries, in his studies of the people and systems of third world countries (previously under colonial rule), has offered his opinion about the West Indies in the following words:

For West Indian societies, perhaps more than most, attitudes, assumptions and aspiration, and above all the question of identity, have been fundamentally moulded by contextual factors which include non-formal educational influences.

(Brock, 1982 , pp.119-20)

The above observations are easily applicable to most of the third world countries whether they belong to Latin America, Asia or Africa. Though efforts for provision of facilities for formal education are increasing day by day within third world societies still the ratio of literacy is very low. The effects of non-formal education conveyed from generation to generation, still exist.

In the case of Pakistan in general and that of Sindh, there are clear effects of non-formal education. These symbols are most probably seen in shape of old traditions and beliefs. People still believe in use of community strength where use of might and authority is a common feature.

The District Education Officers, in Sindh, use the above mentioned traditional belief as a self defence in the society, whenever there is any argument or challenge about their behaviour.

This researcher has never accepted such arguments expressed by the District Education Officers, but still firmly believes that the literature on supervision provides a means for the betterment and improvement of supervisory methods, if applied whole-heartedly and sincerely, by the supervisors within any educational system.

7.14.3 Inspection as a source of supervision.

The review of the literature shows that the majority of countries including Britain still use inspection, as a style of supervision. On the other hand in the United States of America, as Beeby(1966) argues, supervision is used and is intended to convey an impression of professional leadership rather than authority. The opinion expressed by Beeby does not give the impression that British inspection is based on an authoritarian style, but only defines the style of educational supervision in American system.

In my view, irrespective of the terminology used by any country, the important issue still rests with the purpose of task as well as the behaviour of the Supervisor or Inspector. The main purpose is the improvement of teaching, and enhancing the motivation of teachers to teach effectively.

In United Kingdom inspection is an old practice, but still the main stress is on the attitude of Inspectors and the purpose of inspections. Edmonds (1966 :6) quotes:

If all inspectors would make it clear that they come as friends, to encourage and inspire, not to depress, and that their reports may be anticipated with confidence, the lives of the children and of the teachers would be happier and the results of inspection more beneficial.

The above quotation by E.L. Edmonds, Chief

Inspector, Cheshire Local Education authority, taken from a memorandum submitted by the National Union of teachers as late as 1922, was a matter of serious concern regarding the state of affairs related to the behaviour of inspectors of schools at that time. But again the Secretary General, National Union of Teachers in his introductory note of January, 1966, in Edmonds' book showed how the situation was improving:

In the last decade the school inspectorate has begun to see its role as more advisory and less inquisitorial.

(Gould, 1966-introduction)

This showed a clear improvement on the part of the behaviour of the inspectorate in the United Kingdom, achieved within three decades, as expressed by the representatives of both inspectors and the teachers. Lawton and Gordon (1987) have also described the role of the H.M.I. making a clear distinction between school inspection and teacher appraisal. They are of the opinion that the H.M.I was careful not to volunteer to undertake the latter task, because it might damage their advisory role.

It is quite clear that Britain has achieved considerable success in changing the role of its educational supervisors. The year 1989 marked the 150th anniversary of the formation of Her Majesty's inspectorate of schools. Goodings and Dunford (1989) while evaluating

the work of H.M.I. and looking into the question of independence of H.M.I during the past one and half centuries have observed that they (H.M.I) are concerned not merely to report on standards but to raise them.

On the other hand, there are those who feel the need for strict supervision within the developing countries. Chang(1971: 150-63), was of the opinion that in a developing country where teachers are poorly educated and trained, strict supervision was necessary in order to establish standards and raise the level of teaching. But strictness on its own is not the solution of this problem. It is clear from the evidence that the behaviour of supervisors is more important (Dublin,1989). Pakistan, being one of the developing countries is also using inspection as a source of educational supervision. Sindh province is a reflection of the same system. In the hierarchy of educational supervision the Director of Schools Education is the regional head but is not responsible for the routine inspection of secondary schools. The District Education Officer is basically responsible for the annual inspection of schools within his district. According to the prescribed norms of inspection, every school should be inspected at least once in a year and be visited by the District Education Officer two or three times a year. A report of inspection is prepared by the District Education Officer and sent to the head of institution, after the inspection.

The main issue concerns the style of inspection, within the province of Sindh.

It is a common fact that various organizations experience a lot of problems and face many blunders committed by their members in the early years of establishment. Such bitter experiences and failures provide opportunities for further improvement to any organization.

While looking for similar situations in the case of Sindh, one can not say that the supervisory system of school education is still in its infancy because the establishment of the Inspectorate(supervisory system) of school Education in Sindh is nearly one and a half centuries old. The first Superintendent of schools in Sindh was appointed in 1856, for the inspection of schools (Bhutto, 1979). But the nature of inspection and the attitude of the supervisors was still authoritarian.

Although the first part of this chapter has already dealt with inspections through the information collected by means of questionnaires, the final conclusion is only possible after analysing the opinions expressed in the various interviews.

Some experienced Headmasters-at least one from each district-were interviewed. They were of the opinion that the inspections were part of the normal yearly

routine of the District Education Officers. Whether inspections serve the real purpose of guidance to teachers, is already a critical issue. The weight of evidence supports the view, that the day is an exhibition of pomp and dignity by the District Education Officer. The Headmaster tries to give a good impression to the District Education Officer, by decorating the school building, asking children to remain neat and tidy on the day of inspection, and arranging some community members of the locality to convey good impressions about the school, in front of the District Education Officer.

The District Education Officer, who is often the leader of the inspection team, spends a very limited time in actual class-room situation. It was concluded from the talks with the Headmasters that the District Education Officer generally relies on the remarks offered by the members of his team, who observe the lessons of individual teachers. The District Education Officer dealt with problems of general discipline and spent most of his time in discussing various matters with the Headmasters.

This evidence indicates that the inspections were conducted mostly for the purpose of administrative issues with less attention to academic guidance.

So far as the behaviour of the District Education Officer was concerned, there was a very clear picture of

autocratic behaviour. They (Headmasters) openly expressed that it was difficult for them to challenge the autocratic authority of their boss i.e. the District Education Officer. One of the Headmasters pointed out an interesting example in this respect. This was the writing of the annual confidential report(ACR), which is used as a criterion for further promotion of all civil servants including those in the teaching profession. Any average or bad remarks could cause many problems for the Headmaster. Another Headmaster further clarified this issue by pointing out that the impression on the day of inspection was the main basis of ACR, written about the overall performance of any Headmaster.

After going through the literature about what the purpose of inspections should be, and the actual position which was in practice in Sindh, this researcher has come to the conclusion that inspections conducted by the District Education Officers have never served the actual purpose of educational supervision.

7.14.4. Problems faced by the District Education Officers.

The nature of the job performed by the District Education Officer in Sindh is in theory both administrative and academic.

In a report prepared by the Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Ministry of Education, Government

of Pakistan i.e. AEPAM (1988: 57) the duties of the District Education Officers were described in the following words:

At present the position of a District Supervisor is a complex one, because he has to perform various nature of duties simultaneously. On the one hand he has to look after the development schemes whereas on the other he is required to maintain the standard of education having a deep contact with the heads of the educational institutions and also the teachers. He is also supposed to carry out the Government policies. Keeping in view these bare facts a district administrator how efficient he may be often fails to do justice with the discharge of his duties.

It is quite clear that the responsibilities of the District Education Officer in Sindh are not only limited to academic activities of schools and teachers, but being the district head, he has also many other duties to perform. He is a member of many committees related to the development of the district and in some cases he is also chair-person.

It was already mentioned in this chapter (7.10.2) that the District Education Officer was involved in different capacities either as the head, secretary or a member of various committees formed at the district level.

This researcher has observed that the nature of jobs assigned to the District Education Officer is similar to other officers and heads of the department at the district level, within the province of Sindh. Their job is

mainly of administrative nature. As long as the District Education Officer is designated as the district head and is responsible for the educational administration of the district, he is supposed to perform all such duties of administrative nature.

The solution to this problem, according to Comber (1974), is that he (supervisor) should be freed as far as possible from purely administrative duties. This has already been put into practice in Malaysia (Chang, 1968). The role of supervisors in Malaysia is therefore strictly advisory and it does not extend to the issuing of orders to the heads and staff of the school or to compelling a teacher to use a particular textbook or adopt a particular method of teaching. (Kee and Hong, 1971)

During the interviews with the District Education Officers, most of them complained about the political interference by influential persons of the province. They had serious grievances in this connection. In normal routine matters such as recruitment, transfers and disciplinary action against teachers, there were heavy pressures from outside. In many cases they were compelled to do things outside correct rules and procedures. A month before this field study was started the civilian Government came into power, as a result of the general elections held all over the country. The District Education Officers made it clear that such pressure was always there in one or another, and was not only due to

civilian rule.

In my experience as a citizen, 'queue-jumping' was the normal practice of life adopted by the people of Pakistan in general. It is difficult for any public servant to escape from such pressures.

Moreover these authoritarian traditions are strong and rooted in systems and institutions that still exist (Dawn, dated 1st: January, 1991). The serious breakdown of law and order, use of drugs and widespread corruption are the major paradoxes of the Pakistani society.

As mentioned earlier in this thesis (chapter III), the involvement and interference of the top bureaucrats in managing the political and administrative affairs of the country has created an atmosphere of authoritarian rule. It will take years of consistent efforts before democracy strikes roots and the norms and practices evolved during authoritarian rule are banished from our midst. These facts also help to explain why it has been difficult to change education in Pakistan and to introduce more democratic methods.

CHAPTER-VIII

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Introduction.

This chapter will conclude the entire discussion presented in the previous chapters. The first part is related to the summary and conclusion; the second part will provide suggestions for the improvement of supervisory system of secondary schools in Sindh province of Pakistan.

8.1. Conclusion.

There has been continual general decline and deterioration of standards in every aspect of education in Pakistan since its inception. All the policies announced from time to time have achieved little result. Qualitative ideals of education cannot be achieved without better supervision and management. Enhancing the importance of educational supervision and the role of educational supervisor is a proposed solution to the central problem of educational crisis in Pakistan, including Sindh.

Historical perspectives on education in Pakistan including Sindh provides evidence of some quantitative improvement in education. But educational policies were

announced by successive Governments without considering the schemes already in progress. In many cases projects and schemes were either abandoned or left half way to completion, which has resulted in a waste of national wealth. The Planners for education were basically civil servants and not educationists. The main drawback in national planning was that it only served the purpose of demonstrating quantitative improvements.

Decisions were taken to modernize institutions, including education, without paying enough attention to old ideas and customs which could not be immediately eradicated. Democratisation is also easier to manage when the government itself is democratic with elected representatives.

Because democratic rule was not continuous, an atmosphere of autocratic reign prevailed in the country. This has also affected educational management and supervision. The involvement of the community in managing the Government secondary schools was only found in theory but was never given a practical shape.

The literature on supervision described the modern supervision as a positive, dynamic and democratic action designed to improve class-room instruction. The modern concept and definition of supervision is mainly based on democratic principles where the role of the supervisor is

a Group Adviser and Facilitator. The role of supervisor is therefore to manage efficiently and make best use of the available resources to improve the quality and output of educational institutions and to provide professional guidance in instructional methodologies so as to improve the teaching-learning process.

The literature on supervision contains a variety of models and types of supervision which were described in this thesis. They were useful in shedding light on the supervisory system in Sindh and the practice of supervisors.

The institution of supervision has been in existence in Pakistan including Sindh in the form of school inspection for over a century and half. The concept of supervision in case of Government secondary schools tended to be limited to annual inspection, which was just a show of dignity and authority by the District Education Officer(i.e. Supervisor of secondary schools).

The existing role of an educational supervisor in Pakistan including the province of Sindh , is a reflection of socio-political conditions in the country. The behaviour of the educational supervisor tended to be rigid and undemocratic. Supervisors were reluctant to surrender administrative authority in favour of a more professional role.

Different educational policies announced so far

have called for effective changes in the supervisory system. One of the important changes was through the Education Policy of 1972, after which re-organisation of the supervisory system took place. The province of Sindh also reorganised the supervisory system of school education. But even after 18 years, the attitude of supervisors remained unchanged.

The impressions of those experts and educationists who have studied the supervisory system of Pakistan, including the province of Sindh, have been very gloomy.

As a basis for improving the supervision and inspection system for the Government secondary schools of Sindh, a field study was conducted through questionnaires, face to face interviews, participant observation and document analysis, which provided the following results:

Innovation in supervision was lacking. There was no systematic professional training in supervision for the District Education Officers.

The major portion of the District Education Officer's time was consumed in administrative duties and attending office work. He was confined within the four walls of his office to deal with the official routine, rather than reaching the teachers in the classroom for professional guidance. The administrative burden was

severe and the District Education Officers were so busy with other duties that they hardly found adequate time to engage themselves in the task of supervision of schools.

The school administration at the district level in Sindh, was largely maintenance oriented and was engaged, by and large, in such routine activities as appointments, transfers, meeting audit objections, supplying statistical information to higher offices etc.

Traditional and out-of-date methods were used during the inspections. Efforts to replace outdated methods by democratic styles and approaches in supervision were never applied. The annual inspections of secondary schools within the the province of Sindh were conducted by the District Education Officers with the help of other officers of the district. Such teams comprised the Additional or Deputy District Education Officers, Headmasters of secondary schools, Sub-Divisional Education Officers and senior teachers. Most inspecting officers were " generalists " and there was lack of specialisation. Inspections were only an administrative formality and not a source of academic guidance to teachers. Inspection reports prepared by the District Education Officers were mainly based on administrative points about the school, hence, teachers and the Headmasters often considered such remarks as procedural and irrelevant.

The supervision of teachers by the heads of schools was only nominal. The Headmasters' method of supervising the teachers outwardly was by taking an occasional tour round the school premises. This was on the whole limited to the general discipline of the school.

The majority of the Headmasters and the teachers were of the opinion that the existing role of the District Education Officer, was purely administrative. They were not provided proper academic guidance by him.

The District Education Officers expressed dissatisfaction and felt overburdened by numerous other jobs in addition to their original duties. They were compelled to take some decisions under political and external pressure. Such problems therefore contributed towards their neglect of academic matters.

The number of Supervisors for secondary schools was still too less for the number of secondary schools and teachers within the province of Sindh.

The majority of the teachers and Headmasters in Sindh would have preferred a more democratic style of supervision and would expect it to be more effective.

There was no close link between the members of the community and school management at any level.

8.2. Suggestions for further improvement.

The following suggestions are offered on the basis of the findings of the study and the implications of these findings for those involved in supervision of Government secondary schools within the province of Sindh.

1. In order to make the supervision effective and practical, the existing administrative structure of school education at the district level needs a clear distribution of functions between the District Education Officer and the Additional District Education Officer. This could be done by assigning the instructional supervision to the Additional District Education Officer, who is already of the same grade (i.e. Grade 18) on a par with the District Education Officer. A permanent team of supervisors should be established out of experienced, qualified and senior teachers already working in schools, for each district, under the headship of the Additional District Education Officer. The team members should be expert in the teaching of different subjects taught in schools. The subject Supervisors should guide teachers in their subjects frequently, by helping them in collecting and preparing teaching material, and delivering demonstration lessons from time to time. Team inspections under the leadership of the Additional District Education Officer could be possible twice a year (before and after summer vacation), for each school. This scheme can be

started in different phases by selecting at least one district each from the existing four school Directorates in the province, at the start and then four districts every year. The scheme could be finalised within a period of five years. The gradual implementation will save the administration from too great a financial burden on the one hand, and also can provide better points for further improvement towards next phase. This arrangement will not increase the financial burden, except in meeting the cost of providing and maintaining motor cycles to individual subject supervisors and a Jeep for the inspection team. Such expenditure can be adjusted through other heads of expenditure, within the educational budget earmarked for the province.

2. Similarly, the existing inspections could be classified into administrative and academic inspections. The former could be conducted by the District Education Officer, purely for looking at the physical facilities, staff requirements and In-service training arrangements for the teachers, once a year. The academic inspections as mentioned above, under the leadership of the Additional District Education Officer could take place twice a year. There has been discussion earlier about the presence and functioning of different supervisors, for example in the LEAs of United Kingdom and educational districts of the United States of America. Literature on supervision (chapter IV) provides clear evidence of the benefits to

be gained.

3. The inspection proforma now in use by the District Education Officers should be revised and again classified into two separate proformas, one for administrative inspections and the other for instructional supervision. The former specimen may be used by the District Education Officer, while the latter be used by the Additional District Education Officer. Further research in this connection should be made.

4. Inspections for the purpose of instructional supervision should be at least for 2 to 5 days , depending on the size of the school. This will provide more time for actual class-room supervision.

5. Post-observation discussions and meetings with teachers either on individual or group level (which are rare now), should be held in a friendly and democratic atmosphere , immediately after each inspection.

6. Followup action on the supervision report may attract more attention, and this aspect should be considered in supervision.

7. The existing arrangements for the INSET of teachers and supervisors may be improved. The following arrangements could be useful.

At least one month INSET for teachers,

Headmasters and Supervisors, every year could be arranged during the summer vacations. The existing colleges of Education at Karachi and Sukkur can be utilised for the teachers of Karachi and Sukkur Divisions. While for Hyderabad and Larkana Divisions, the existing colleges of elementary education could be upgraded. The services of the staff there can easily be utilised. There should be close co-ordination among different Directorates of the province, in order to avoid any delay or confusion in organising the INSET. There is at least two months vacation during the summer every year. Two batches of one month each could be managed at every centre, by only utilising half of the teachers' vacation for INSET, every year. Payment of usual allowances for INSET, could compensate the teachers and will create inducement and interest.

The Academy of Educational Planning and Management (AEPAM) at Islamabad could be utilised for the INSET of the District Education Officers and Additional District Education Officers and proposed Subject Supervisors. At the provincial level the Bureau of Curriculum and educational extension centres could be better places for the INSET of the Headmasters. The Bureau of Curriculum and Extension wing, Sindh at Jamshoro be utilised for the INSET of the Headmasters of Sindh province, on a regular basis, by inviting 20 to 30

Headmasters for not less than two weeks, leaving a gap of ten days after every course, for planning, registration and other arrangements.

8. The services of experts in different fields like curriculum and supervision, from the universities and well-reputed international Institutes like those in United Kingdom should be obtained, under various international exchange and technical training schemes, for expertise and providing latest knowledge to our trainers.

Regular contacts with the above institutions should be developed by sending research scholars for higher degrees i.e Ph.D and Post-doctorate research in curriculum development and planning, school supervision and management, staff development etc.

9. Suitable educational Planning is the key to effective management in education. The active participation of the District Education Officer, as a district organiser and manager of schools is essential in this process. The planning and Monitoring Cell of the Education Department, Government of Sindh, responsible for the formulation of educational plans and schemes, should include the District Education Officer as a basic source for the preparation of educational schemes for each district.

10. The Headmasters should play an active role in

providing academic guidance to newly recruited and less experienced teachers with the help of senior and experienced teachers of the school.

11. Parents should be involved in school management.

To conclude, this researcher believes the task is immense and needs immense efforts. Notwithstanding all these problems it is felt that the foregoing pages have shown some of the decisions that a policy for the supervisory system should take if it is to become an effective organisation.

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Government of Sindh

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| 21. | <u>The Sindh Government Gazette</u> (Relevant issues) Government Press, Karachi | 1972 to 1988 |

EXTRAORDINARY
PUBLISHED BY AUTHORITY

ISLAMABAD, WEDNESDAY, MAY 18, 1983

PART I

Acts, Ordinances, President's Orders and Regulations including Martial Law
Orders and Regulations

GOVERNMENT OF PAKISTAN

MINISTRY OF LAW AND PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS

(Law Division)

Islamabad, the 18th May, 1983

No. F. 17 (3) 1983.—The following Order made by the President is hereby
published for general information:—

THE PRIVATELY MANAGED SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES
(TAKING OVER) (AMENDMENT) ORDER, 1983

PRESIDENT'S ORDER NO. 6 OF 1983

In pursuance of the Proclamation of the fifth day of July, 1977, and in
exercise of all powers enabling him in that behalf, the President is pleased to make
the following Order:—

1. **Short title and commencement.**—(1) This Order may be called the Pri-
vately Managed Schools and Colleges (Taking Over) (Amendment) Order, 1983.

(2) It shall come into force at once.

2. **Amendment of paragraph 7 of the Regulation.**—In the Privately Managed
Schools and Colleges (Taking Over) Regulation, 1972, hereinafter referred to as
the said Regulation, in paragraph 7, in sub-paragraph (2),—

- (a) for the words, figures, letters and commas "As from the 1st day of
October, 1972, the" the word "The" shall be substituted; and
- (b) for the words "the same scales of pay" the words and comma "such
scales of pay, allowances and other benefits as are not less favourable
than those" shall be substituted

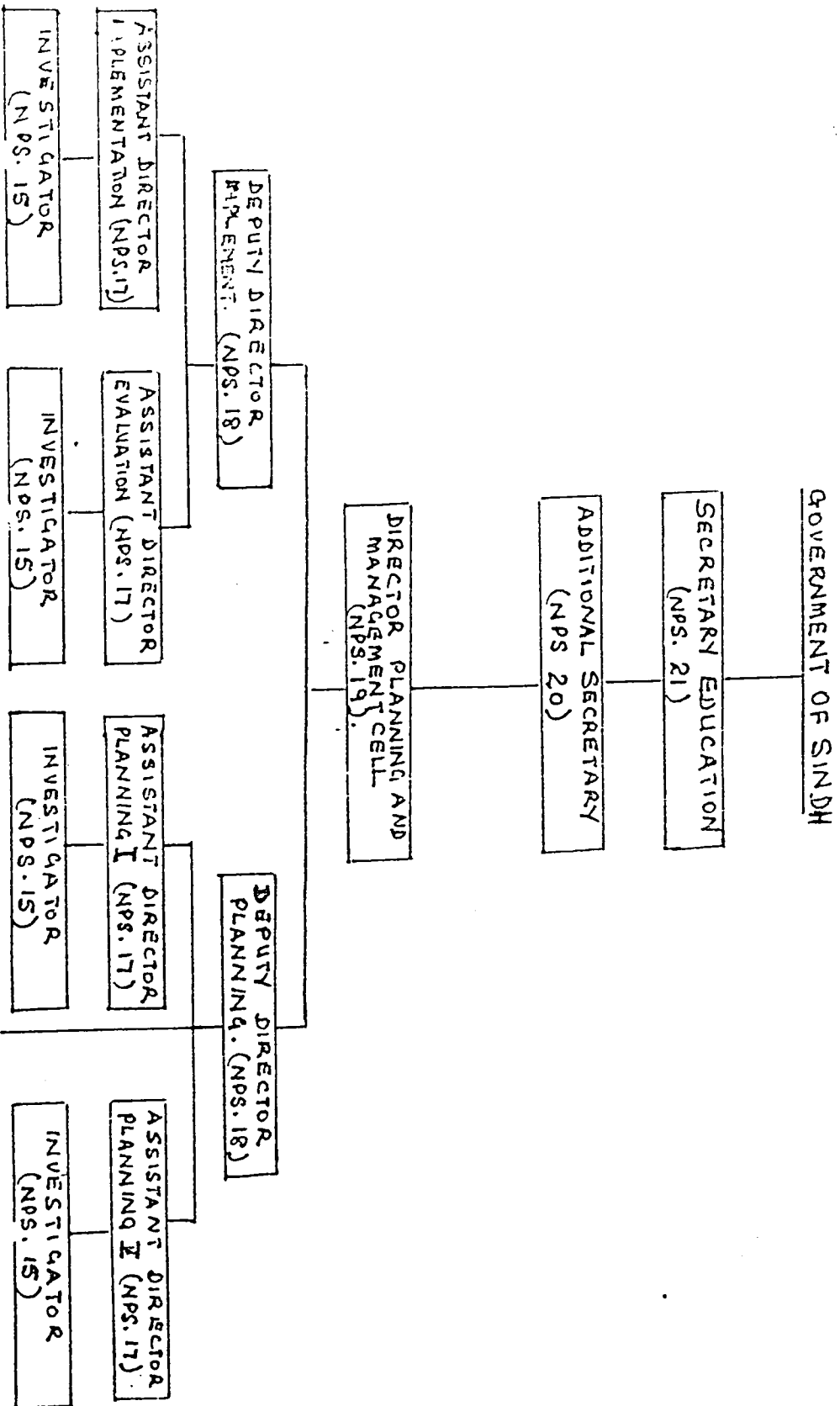
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Appendix 2.2

CHART OF THE EXISTING STRUCTURE OF THE PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT CELL OF THE SINDH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT



LIST SHOWING THE DISTRICTS OF SINDH PROVINCE

1. Badin
2. Dadu
3. Hyderabad
4. Jacobabad
5. Khairpur
6. Karachi East
7. Karachi South
8. Karachi West
9. Larkana
10. Nawabshah
11. Sanghar
12. Shikarpur
13. Sukkur
14. Tharparkar
15. Thatta

Appendix 6.2

P.O. BOX 17695
GULSHAN-E-IQBAL,
KARACHI.

A STUDY OF THE SUPERVISORY SYSTEM OF SCHOOL EDUCATION IN SINDH PROVINCE OF PAKISTAN.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleague,

I have been pursuing a Ph.D. study at the University of London, Institute of Education since January, 1988, on the above cited topic.

I am seeking your assistance to help me in completing the attached questionnaire. Most of the questions may be answered simply by inserting a tick, though there are also opportunities for free ranging answers in the end.

I assure you that individuals are not identified in the questionnaires and the completed papers will be treated confidentially.

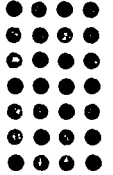
Kindly return the questionnaire (after complete answers) to me as soon as possible.

Very many thanks in anticipation.

Yours faithfully,

M. I. BROHI

The British Council



Our ref . 2304/472

Your ref .

Tel ext .

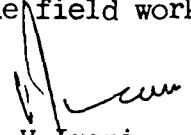
Promoting cultural, educational
and technical co-operation between
Britain and other countries

20 Bleak House Road
P.O. Box 10410
Karachi 0406
Telephones 512036-38
Telex 25570 BRICO PK

4 January 1989

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Mr M I Brohi, Assistant Professor, Government College of Education, Karachi, is a full-time research student at the Institute of Education, University of London under a British Government Technical Cooperation Training award. He is currently on a 5 month visit to Pakistan from 1 January - end May 1989 to carry out in-country research in connection with preparation for his PhD degree. Details of the field work he proposes to undertake is enclosed.


(Mrs) V Irani
for Regional Director
Karachi

NO:S.O.(S&T)SCH-I-113/86.

GOVERNMENT OF SIND
EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

Karachi, dated the 15th: January, 1989.

To:

The Directors (All in Sind),

_____.

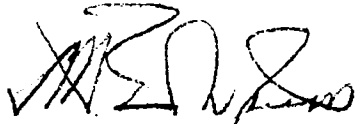
The Chairmen (All in Sind),

_____.

SUBJECT: FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Mr. Mohammad Ismail Brohi, Assistant Professor
Government College of Education, Karachi and Mr. Ghulam Nabi Campwala,
Lecturer in Education, Government College of Education, Karachi,
Presently both the students of Ph.D in U.K., have been
assigned field work in Sind in connection with their Ph.D. Studies.
They will be visiting Regional, District Offices and
Educational Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full cooperation with
above Research Students.


(M. QAIM VERYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S&T)
PH:512374.

Karachi, Dated the 15th January, 1989

To,

The Director of School Education,
Karachi Region, Karachi.

The Chairman, (All in Sindh),
.....
.....

SUBJECT: FIELD WORK IN PH.D.
=====

Mr. Mohamed Ismail Brchi, Assistant Professor
Government College of Education, Karachi and Mr. Ghulam
Nabi Campwala, Lecturer in Education, Government College
of Education, Karachi, Presently both the students of
Ph.D in U.K., have been assigned field work in Sindh in
connection with their Ph.D. Studies. They will be visiting
Regional, District Offices and Educational Institutions
to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full cooperation
with above Research Students.

SS/=

(M. QAIM VERYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER(S&T)
PH: 512874.

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION KARACHI REGION KARACHI.
=====

NO. LSE/R.D. 10/469-75/189, Dated: 29/1/89

Copy forwarded to:-

1. All the District Education Officers, (Male & Female), Karachi.
2. The Section Officer, (S & T), Education Department, Government of Sindh, Karachi, with reference to above mentioned letter.

Kazim Ali
(SYED KAZIM ALI)
REGISTRAR

No.S.C(S&T)SCH-I-113//86

GOVERNMENT OF SIND
EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

Karachi dated the 15th January, 1989

To

The Director School Education
Hyderabad Region Hyderabad.

Subject:- FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Mr.Mohammad Ismail Brohi, Assistant Professor
Government College of Education, Karachi and Mr.Ghulam Nabi
Campwala, Lecturer in Education, Government College of Education
Karachi, presently both the students of Ph.D in U.K. have been
assigned field work in Sind in connection with their Ph.D studi
They will be visiting Regional, District Offices and Educational
Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full cooperation with
above Research Students.

Sd/-

(M. QAIM VERYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S&T)
Ph:512374

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION HYDERABAD REGION HYDERABAD SIND
No.ACD(C-III)MISC/- 4493-4504/1988-89,Hyderabad dated: 5-2-1989

A copy is forwarded with compliments to the District
Education Officer(Male/Female) _____ All for information
and necessary action.

He/She is requested to ask the head of Institutions
and offices working under his/her administrative control, to
extend full cooperation with Research students, under intimatio
to this Directorate.

*Copy to
see
copy*

A 14/1/89
DEPUTY DIRECTOR (ACD:)
FOR DIRECTOR SCHOOL EDUCATION
HYDERABAD REGION HYDERABAD

Subject:- FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

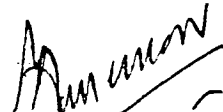
Mr. Mohammad Ismail Brohi, Assistant Professor
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studies. They will be visiting Regional, District Offices and
Educational Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full co-operation
above Research Students.

sd/-
(M. QAIM VERYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER(S&T)

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR
NO: ACD-IV/- 4404-16 of 1989, Sukkur, dated:- 06-02-198

Copy F.W.Cs to the District Education Officer
(Boys/Girls) _____ (ALL) for information and
necessary action.


DEPUTY DIRECTOR (ACD)
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR.

Copy F.W.Cs to the Section Officer (S&T),
Education Department, Government of Sind, Karachi, for
information.

Mr. Mohammad Ismail Brohi, Assistant Professor Govern-
ment College of Education, Karachi and Mr. Ghulam Nabi Campwala
Lecturer in Education, Government College of Education, Karachi
presently both the students of Ph.D in U.K, have been assigned
field work in sindh in connection with their Ph.D. Studies.
They will be visiting Regional, District Offices and Educational
Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full co-operation with
above Research Students.

Sd/-

(M. QAIM VERYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S&T)
PH: 512374.

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION REGION KARACHI.
NO.DSE/R.D/(1469-75),/89, dated 29-1-1989.

Copy forwarded to:

1. All the District Education Officers, (Male & Female), Karachi
2. The Section Officer(S&T), Education Department Government
of Sindh, Karachi, with reference to above mentioned letter.

Sd/-
[SYED KAZIM ALI]
REGISTRAR
DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
KARACHI REGION KARACHI.

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER, SOUTH(MALE) KARACHI.
NO. DEO/SOUTH/MALE/(1785) 89, DATED 13-4-1989.

Copy of the foregoing is forwarded to all the Heads of
Secondary Schools for information and extending full cooperati

M. Umer
[MOHAMMAD UMER]
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER
SOUTH(MALE) KARACHI.

Subject: Research in U.K.

Mr. Mohammad Ismail Brehni, Assistant Professor Government College of Education, Karachi and Mr. Ghulam Nabi Campwala, Lecturer in Education, Government College of Education, Karachi, presently both the students of Ph.D in U.K., have been assigned field work in Sindh in connection with their Ph.D. Studies. They will be visiting Regional, District Offices and Educational Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full cooperation with above Research Students.

cc/=
(M. SAJJID VEHYANI)
SECTION OFFICER(S&T)
PH: 312574.

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION KARACHI REGION KARACHI.

NO. LSE/R.D. 10465-75/189, Dated: 22/1/89

Copy forwarded to:-

1. All the District Education Officers, (Male & Female), Karachi.
2. The Section Officer, (S & T), Education Department, Government of Sindh, Karachi, with reference to above mentioned letter.

Kazim Ali
(SYED KAZIM ALI)
REGISTRAR

DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
KARACHI REGION KARACHI.
No. DEO/East/Male/11058-224/89 dated 13/5/89

Forwarded to all the Heads of Govt & Nationalised of this District with the request to provide full co-operation/assistance if needed

M. H. M.
District 13/5/89

SUBJECT: FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Mr. Anwar ul Ismail Brehi, Assistant Professor Government College of Education, Karachi and Mr. Umama Nabi Caspala, Lecturer in Education, Government College of Education, Karachi, presently both the students of Ph.D in U.S.A., have been assigned field work in Sind in connection with their Ph.D. Studies. They will be visiting Regional, District Offices and Educational Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full cooperation with above Research Students.

S6/

(M. SAIB VEKRAMI)
SECTION OFFICER(S&T)
PH: 518874.

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION KARACHI REGION KARACHI.

NO. DSE/R.D. 10469 - 75 1189,

Dated: 29/1/89

Copy forwarded to:-

1. All the District Education Officers, (Male & Female), Karachi.
2. The Section Officer, (S & T), Education Department, Government of Sind, Karachi, with reference to above mentioned letter.

(SYED KAZIM ALI)
REGISTRAR

DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
KARACHI REGION KARACHI.

Endst. No DED/west/male/11458

89, dt.

Copy forwarded for information & necessary action to all the Heads of secondary (Govt./Nationalized) schools of this Distt.

District Education Officer,
District "West" (Male)

Subject:- FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Mr Mohammad Ismail Brohi, Assistant Professor Government College of Education, Karachi and Mr Ghulam Nabi Campwala, Lecturer in Education, Government college of Education Karachi, presently both the students of Ph.D in U.K have been assigned field work in sind in connection with their Ph.D studies. They will be visiting Regional, District Officer And Educational Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full cooperation with above Reasearch Students.

Sd/-

(M. QAIM VERYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S&T)
Ph:512374

.....
BIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION HYDERABAD REGION HYDERABAD SIND.
No.ACD(C-III) MISC/-4493-4504/-1988-89 Hyderabad dated, 5.2.1989.

A copy is forwarded with compliments to the District Education Officer(Male/Female) _____ all for information and necessary action.

-He/She is requested to ask the head of Institutions and offices working under his/her administrative control, to extend full cooperation with Research Students, under intimation to this Directorate.

Sd/-

DEPUTY DIRECTOR(ACD:)
FOR DIRECTOR SCHOOL EDUCATION
HYDERABAD REGION HYDERABAD.


.....

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER(MALE) HYDERABAD SIND.

NO:DEO(M)Acad/- 14556 - /-1988-89 Hyderabad dated, 14-3-89

A copy is forwarded with compliments to the HeadMaste Govt:(N) Noor Muhammad High School Hyderabad/Seth Kanaluddin Hyd/ Tando Jam No.2/ M.G Hala/ S.M Tando Allahyar/ Tando Mohammad Khan for information.

2). He is requested to extend full cooperation with the above named research students as desired by the Director of School Education Hyderabad Region, Hyderabad please.


DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER(MALE)
HYDERABAD.

Subject: FIELD WORK IN PH. D.

Mr. Mohammad Ismail Brohi Assistant Professor
Government College of Education Karachi and Mr. G. Muhammad Nabi
Campwala, Lecturer in Education, Government College of
Education, Karachi presently both the students of PH.D.
in U. K. ~~who~~ have been assigned field work in Sind in
connection with their PH.D. studies they will be visiting
Regional, District offices and Educational Institutions
to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full cooperation
with above Research students.

sd —

(M. QAIM WARYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S & T)
PR: 512374.

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER BADIN (MALE).

No.DEOM/- 5172-2/1988-89/ Badin. Dated:- 1.3.89

A copy is forwarded with compliments for information
and necessary action to:-

- 1, The Sub-Divisional Education officer Badin/ Matli.
2. The HeadMaster Government High School _____ aal
He is requested to extend full cooperation with
Research Students, under intimation to this office.

M. Panwar
(MAIRUMUDDIN M. PANIWAR)
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER(MALE)
B A D I N

Copy forwarded with compliments to the Director
School Education Hyderabad Region Hyderabad W/r to his letter No.
ACD (C-III) MISC:-4493-504 dated:- 5-2-1989, for information.

Subject:- FIELD WORK IN P.H.D.

Mr. Mohamud Ismail Soofi, Assistant Professor
Government College of Education Karachi and Mr. Shalim Nabi
Sanpvala, Lecturer in Education, Government College of
Education Karachi presently both the students of Ph.D in
U.K have been assigned field work in Sind in connection with
their Ph.D studies. They will be visiting Regional, District
Offices and Educational Institutions to collect necessary
data.

You are requested to extend full co-operation with
above Research Studies.

Sd/-

(M . SAIB VERMAKANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S & T)
Pl.No.512374

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION HYDERABAD REGION HYDERABAD.
No. DCB(C-III)MISC/-4493-4504 Hyderabad, dated 5.2.1989.

A copy fws to the District Education Officer(Male)
Sanghar for information and necessary action.

He is requested to ask the head of Institutions
and Offices working under his administrative control, to
extend full co-operation with Research students, under
intimation to this Directorate.

Sd/-

Deputy Director (Acad:)
for Director School Education
Hyderabad Region Hyderabad.

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (MALE) SANGHAR SIND.
No. DEO(M)Acad:/- 8531-37 /89. Sanghar dated/- 20.3. 1989

Forwarded with compliments to the Head Master,
Govt: High School S. A. L. Tawi, Adam. for information
and necessary action. He is requested to please extend
their fullest co-operation with the above Research student
as and when required under intimation to this office.

Kumar
(KAREEM BUKHISH MEMON)
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (MALE)
SANGHAR.

Copy FWCs to the Director School Education,
Hyderabad Region, Hyderabad for information.

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (M.A.)
No. 100/1988-89
Date 10/10/88

The Head/Master,
Govt./Nats./Provi./Madr.
School in the District

SUBJECT: FIELD WORK IN P.F.S.D.

Mr. Manzoor Ismail Brohi, Assistant Director
College of Education, Karachi presently student of
assigned field work in Sind in connection with the
letter No. Aed (G-III) MISO/-4493-4504/1988-89. In this
connection he will visit your institution to collect necessary info.

You are requested to extend full co-operation.

Yours faithfully,

M. B.
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER
THANAPUR @ MIERPUR

Copy forwarded with compliments to the Director of
School Education Hyderabad Region Hyderabad for information of
to letter No. Aed (G-III) MISO/-4493-4504/1988-89 dt 15.10.1988.

SUBJECT:- FIELD WORK IN P H D

Mr: Mohd Ismail Drohi Assistant Professor Govt: College of Education Karachi and Mr: Ghulam Nabi Campwala Lecturer in Education Govt: College of Education Karachi presently both the students of P H D in U K have been assigned field work in Sind in connection with their P H D Studies They will be visiting Regional District Offices and Educational Institutions to collect necessary data

You are requested to extend full cooperation with above Research Students

Sd/-

SECTION OFFICER(G&T)

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION HYDERABAD REGION HYDERABAD SIND
NO: ACD(C -III)RISC/- 4493-4504 / 83-89 Hyderabad dated 5-2-89

A copy is forwarded with compliments to the District Education Officer(I/P) --- Dadu (all) for information and necessary action

He is requested to ask the head of Institutions and offices working under his administrative control to extend full cooperation with Research students under intimation to this D'rate

Sd/- DEPUTY DIRECTOR (ACD)

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
HYDERABAD REGION HYDERABAD SIND

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER(BOYS) DADU SIND
NO: ADMN(I)/- 11507-53 / 1989 Dadu Dated the 14-2-1989

Copy FWCs to the Head Master Govt: High School, _____
_____ (all) SDEO _____ (All) for information and necessary
action

[Signature]
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER DADU

Subject:- FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Mr. Muhammad Ismail Rohi, Assistant Professor Government College of Education, Karachi, and Mr. Ghulam Nabi Campawala, Lecturer in Education, Government College Education, Karachi, presently both the students of Ph.D. in U.K. have been assigned field work in Sind in connect with their Ph.D. studies. They will be visiting Regional, District Offices and Educational Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full co-operation with above Research Students.

Sd/-

(M. QAIM VEYAKANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S&T)

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR.
NO: ACD-IV/- 4404-16 of 1989, Sukkur, dated 6-2-89.

Copy F.W.Cs to the District Education Officer (Boys) Sukkur for information and necessary action.

Sd/-

DEPUTY DIRECTOR (ACD)
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR.

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (MALE) SUKKUR.
PHONE NO. 83263.

No. DEO(M)S&T:- 12129-38 / 89-8
Sukkur dated. 26-3-89

F.W.Cs to the Head Master, Govt. High School No.1 Sukkur, St. Mary's (N) Sukkur, Rohri, Daharki, Salehpat and Kandhra for information. He is requested to extend full co-operation with the above Research Students under intimation to this Office.

(MUHAMMAD SAIBAL ACHRANI)
ADDL: DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (M)
SUKKUR

Copy F.W.Cs to the Director School Education Sukkur Region Sukkur for information.

Subj:- FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

~~Mr. Muhammad Ismail Brohi, Assistant Professor, Government College of Education, Karachi and Mr. Ghulam Nabi Campwala, Lecturer in Education, Government College of Education Karachi, presently both the students of Ph.D in U.K. have been assigned field work in Sind in connection with their Ph.D. studies. They will be visiting Regional, District Offices and Education Institutions to collect necessary data.~~

You are requested to extend full co-operation with above Research Students.

Sd/-
(M.QAIM VERYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER(S&T)

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR.
NO:ACD-IV/- 4404-16 of 1989, Sukkur, dated:- 6-02-1989

Copy F.W.Cs; to the District Education Officer
(Boys/Girls) _____ (All) for information and necessary
action.

Sd/-
DEPUTY DIRECTOR (ACD)
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR.

Copy f.w.cs; to the Section Officer (S&T), Education
Department Government of Sind Karachi for information.

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER(BOYS) KHAIRPUR.
Phone NO:3374. No:DEO(B)/ACD/- 13621-75 -/88-89
Khairpur, dated:- 27-3-1989

Copy f.w.cs; to the Head Master Government High Sc
_____ (All) for information and necessary coop


Add District Education Officer(B)
Khairpur

Copy f.w.cs; to the Deputy Director(ACD) Directorate
of School Education Sukkur Region Sukkur for information.

Subject:- FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Mr. Mohammed Ismail Erchi, assistant professor Go College Education Karachi and Mr. Ghulam Nadi Campwala lecture Education Government College of Education Karachi presently b the students of PH.D. in U.K. have been assigned field work in in connection with their PH.D students they will be visiting - Regional District offices and Education Institutions to colle necessary data .

You are requested to extend full co-operation with above Research students .

Sd/-
(M. QAIM VERMAANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S/T)
PH.512574 .

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR .

No.Acd-IV/4404-16

Dated: 6.2.1989 .

Copy FWCS to the District Education Officer Boys Jacobabad, for information & necessary action .

Sd/-
DEPUTY DIRECTOR (ACD)
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR ?

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER BOYS JACOBABAD,
NO. DE(B)/21670 /88-89, Jacobabad, dated: 29/3/1989 .

A copy is FWCS to the Head Master Government High School _____ for information and necessary co-operation ,

for
29/3/89
(MOHAMMAD SUKRI)
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (BOYS)
JACOBABA D.

Copy Submitted to the Director School Education Sukkur Region Sukkur for kind information.

N.M.D.N./-***

Subject:-FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Mr: Mohammad Ismail Brohi, Assistant Professor Govt: College Education, Karachi and Mr: Ghulam Hadi Campwala, Lecturer in Education Govt: College of Education Karachi presently both the students of Ph.D in U.K, have been assignee field work in sind in connection with the Ph.d students they will be ~~via~~ visiting Regional, District Offices and Education Institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full co-operation with above Research students .

Sd/-
(M. QAIM WERYAMANI)
SECTION OFFICER (S&T)
Ph: 512574.

DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR SIND.

NO: ACD-IV/-4404-16

Dated:-6-2-89

Copy F.W.cs to the District Education Officer (B) Larkana for information and necessary action.

Sd/-
DEPUTY DIRECTOR (ACD)
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION
SUKKUR REGION SUKKUR.

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (BOYS) LARKANA SIND.

NO: DEO (B) SEC/-1934-72

LARKANA DATED: -15-02-89

Copy F.W.cs to the Head Master Govt; High School

------(All) for information and necessary action

He is requested please to extend full co-operation with the above research students in all respects.

(DUR MOHAMMAD KASIMI)
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (BOYS)
LARKANA.

Copy submitted to the Director School Education, Sukkur Region Sukkur for information.

ANWAR, A. JOKHIO/

Subject:-FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Dr. Mohammed Ismail Arshi, assistant professor Govt. College Quetta and Dr. Ghulam Nabi Gami lecturer in Education Govt. College of Education Karachi presently with the students of Ph.D in U.K. have been assigned field work in and in connection with their Ph.D students they will be visiting Regional District offices and education institutions to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full co-operation with above research students.

sd/-

G. M. YAKUB (Sd)
District Education Officer (Sd)
Quetta. 612574

All District Education Officers, District Education Officers.

Quetta-IV/4404-10

Dated 6.2.89.

Copy 5.0.00 to the District Education Officer(S)


for your for information and necessary action.

sd/-

G. M. YAKUB (Sd)
District Education Officer (Sd)
Quetta.

Quetta-IV/7291-95 / 1291-3/1000, dt: 29/3/89

Copy 5.0.00 to the District Education Officer (S) for information and necessary co-operation.


District Education Officer (S)
Quetta.

Copy to Dr. Mohammed Ismail Arshi and Dr. Ghulam Nabi Gami for their field work.

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (Male) Nawabshah.
No. Admn-I/-10459-56 of 1988-
H'shah, dated: 21.3.89

To,


The Head Master,
Govt: ~~High~~: High Schools

CONCERNED (6)th NAWABSHAH DISTRICT

SUBJECT: FIELD WORK IN PH.D.

Mr. Mohammad Ismail Brohi, Assistant Professor, Govt: College of Education, Karachi presently student of Ph.D in U.S., have been assigned field work in kind in connection with his Ph.D studies vide Directorate letter No. Adm (C-III) MISC/-4493-4504/ 1988-89 dated 5.2.89, in this connection he will visit your institution to collect necessary data.

You are requested to extend full co-operation with the above Research student-


District Education Officer
(Male) Nawabshah.

Copy submitted to the Director School Education Sukkur Region Sukkur for information with reference to letter No. Adm (C-III) Misc/-4493-4504/1988-89 dated "

QUESTIONNAIRE - I
(FOR DEOs)

1. District: _____
2. Region: _____
3. Please give total number of Secondary/
High schools under your jurisdiction: _____
4. Please specify the period you have served
as:
 - (a) Primary school Teacher _____
 - (b) Secondary School Teacher
(JST and HST) _____
 - (c) Head Master/SDEO/Deputy DEO _____
 - (d) **DEO** _____
 - (e) Total length of service _____
5. Please mention how you came to the present
post. Mark (✓) against the appropriate
reply.
 - (a) By promotion _____
 - (b) By transfer _____
 - (c) By direct recruitment _____
 - (d) Any other method
(Please specify) _____
6. Please mention your Qualifications.
Mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.
 - (a) Bachelor degree with B.T/B.Ed _____
 - (b) Master degree with B.T/B.Ed _____
 - (c) Master degree with M.Ed/M.A(Ed) _____
 - (d) Bachelor degree with M.Ed/M.A(Ed) _____
 - (e) Any other:
(Please specify) _____

7. Whether you were provided with specific training for the present job, before joining it ?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____
 No _____

- If Yes, please mention the title, duration and organization of such training.

- (a) Title: _____
- (b) Duration: _____
- (c) Organized by: _____

8. Whether you have undergone any job-oriented training after joining the present post ?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____
 No _____

- If Yes, please mention the title, duration and organization of such training.

- (a) Title: _____
- (b) Duration: _____
- (c) Organized by: _____

9. Please mention the number of secondary schools of the district inspected by you or your predecessor, during the last three academic sessions:

| Year | Number of schools inspected | Number of inspection reports sent to schools |
|---------|-----------------------------|--|
| 1988-89 | _____ | _____ |
| 1987-88 | _____ | _____ |
| 1986-87 | _____ | _____ |

10. Whether the DEO uses any proforma/schedule/instrument to record his observations during inspection ?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____
 No _____

- If yes, please attach the specimen of the same.

11. Please mention the distribution of the DEOs working hours in (%) percentage, being spent on different activities.
- (a) Inspections of school _____%
 - (b) Administrative duties including office routine work. _____%
 - (c) Development work, purchases, etc. _____%
 - (d) Any others _____%
(Please specify) _____

12. Whether you were/are Chairman, Ex-officio member-Secretary or Member on any Board/Committee, as part of your official duties ?
Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____
No _____

- If yes, please mention the name(s) with Office/Position held:

| <u>Name(s) of committee</u> | <u>Office/Position</u> |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| (a) _____ | _____ |
| (b) _____ | _____ |
| (c) _____ | _____ |
| (d) _____ | _____ |

13. Whether you accompany any of the expert/specialist/secondary head/teacher. of other schools to assist you during the inspection ?
Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____
No _____

14. How much time do the DEO spend in conducting the inspection of a school ?
Hours _____ OR
Days _____

15. What percentage of total time of inspection, the DEO spend in observing the actual class-room teaching ?
Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.
- a) 76-100% _____
 - b) 51-75% _____
 - c) 26-50% _____
 - d) 25% and less _____

16. How often did the DEO discuss his findings of the visit/inspection with the following after inspection is over ?
Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.

| | To great extent | To certain extent | Moderat -ely | To Some extent | Rarely |
|---------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| a)Head Masters | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| b)Teachers | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| c)Students | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| d)Others (please specify) | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

17. How much consideration is given by the DEO on making suggestions for the improvement of teachers, during inspection in the following areas ?
Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.

| | To great extent | To certain extent | Moderat -ely | To Some extent | Rarely |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| a)Personality | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| b)Methods of teaching | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| c)Contents mastery. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| d)Relationship with students. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| e)Use/improvisation of teaching aids. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| f)Achievement of Students | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| g)Others (Please Specify) | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

18. To what extent the recommendations of the previous inspection have been implemented by the following ?
Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.

| | To great extent | To certain extent | Moderat -ely | To Some extent | Rarely |
|---------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|----------------|--------|
| a)Head Masters | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| b)Teachers | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| c)Others (Please Specify) | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

19. What reasons are normally mentioned by the Heads/ Teachers for not carrying out the suggestions/ proposals of the previous inspections ?

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- d) _____

20. In your opinion what number of visits are necessary within one academic session for inspection purpose.

a) Per school _____ And

b) Per teacher _____

21. In your opinion, what is the appropriate period required for carrying out proper inspection of the school.

Hours _____ OR

Days _____

22. In your opinion what areas/aspects may be taken into account for conducting inspection of a school ?

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- d) _____

23. Please arrange in the order of suitability, the following supervisory models, for your district. Please mention in numericals, the order in the given space.

a) LAISSEZ-FAIRE TYPE a) _____

(Teachers should be allowed to teach in the way they wish i.e letting each teacher teach as he pleases)

b) CO-ERCIVE TYPE b) _____

(Teachers should be compelled to follow the techniques of teaching already framed by the supervisor and the supervisor be considered as a master/super teacher to get the desired results).

c) CORRECTIVE TYPE c) _____

(Supervisors should act as fault finders)

d) PREVENTIVE TYPE d) _____

(Supervisors should help teachers in anticipating any possible mistakes, before they (mistakes) actually arise.

e) CREATIVE TYPE e) _____

(Supervisors should encourage the teachers to share their thoughts and problems voluntarily with him)

f) DEMOCRATIC TYPE f) _____

(Supervisors should provide efficient group planning and co-ordinate the work of groups)

24. What other model(s)/type(s) of supervision, which you consider to be the best, within the socio-political pattern, of Sind-Pakistan.

a) _____

b) _____

25. What is your opinion about the role assigned to the present supervisory personnel in the educational system in Sind-Pakistan ?

26. Please suggest the appropriate role to be assigned to the DEO for improving the efficiency of education in Sind-Pakistan ?

QUESTIONNAIRE -II
(FOR HEAD MASTERS)

1. Name of School: _____
2. District: _____
3. Region: _____
4. Total number of students in the school: _____
5. Total number of the Teachers in the school:
 - a) Sanctioned: _____
 - b) Working: _____
6. Distance of school from the District Head quarter: _____ Kms: _____
(i.e DEO Office)
7. Date of joining this School: _____
8. Period you have served as:
 - a) Teacher: _____
 - b) Head Master: _____
 - c) Other: _____
(Please Specify)
 - d) Total Service: _____
9. Please mention how you came to the present post.
Mark (/) against the appropriate reply.
 - a) By promotion: _____
 - b) By transfer: _____
 - c) By direct recruitment: _____
 - d) Any other method: _____
(Please Specify)
10. Please mention your Qualifications.
Mark (/) on the appropriate reply.
 - a) Bachelor degree with B.T/B.Ed: _____
 - b) Master degree with B.T/B.Ed: _____
 - c) Master degree with M.Ed/M.A(Ed): _____
 - d) Bachelor degree with M.Ed/M.A(Ed): _____
 - e) Any other: _____
(Please Specify)

11. Please mention your subjects of specialization at B.Ed/B.T level:

- 1) _____
- 2) _____

12. Whether you were provided with specific training for the present job, before joining it ?
Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____

No _____

- If yes, please mention the title, duration and organization of such training.

- a) Title: _____
- b) Duration: _____
- c) Organized by: _____

13. Whether you have undergone any job-oriented training after joining the present post ?
Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____

No _____

- If yes, please mention the title, duration and organization of such training:

- a) Title: _____
- b) Duration: _____
- c) Organized by: _____

14. Whether the Head Master observes the actual teaching work (viz: a complete Unit/Lesson) of the teachers ?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____

No _____

- If yes, please mention the number of complete Units/Lesson observed by you or your predecessor during last three years.

| Session | Number |
|---------|--------|
| 1988-89 | _____ |
| 1987-88 | _____ |
| 1986-87 | _____ |

15. Whether the Head Master uses any instrument to record his observations ?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply. Yes _____

No _____

- If yes, please attach the specimen of the same.

16. Please mention the distribution of the Head Masters working hours in (%) percentages being spent on different activities.

- (a) Observation of teachers _____%
- (b) Administrative duties including office work _____%
- (c) School development work etc _____%
- (d) Any other _____%
(Please Specify)

17. How often did you discuss the observations with teachers ?

Please mark (/) on the appropriate reply.

| | | | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------|--------|
| To a great extent | To a certain extent | Moderately | To Some extent | Rarely |
| _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

18. How often did you make suggestions for the improvement of teachers, during observation in the following areas ? Please mark (/) on the appropriate reply.

| | To a great extent | To a certain extent | Moderately | To Some extent | Rarely |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------|--------|
| a) Personality | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| b) Methods of teaching | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| c) Contents of lesson | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| d) Use of teaching aids. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| e) Students assessment | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| f) Relationship with students. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| g) Other (Please specify) | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

19. Please mention the number of inspections carried out by the DEO, in your School during last three academic sessions.

| | |
|---------|------------------------|
| Year | Number of inspections. |
| 1988-89 | _____ |
| 1987-88 | _____ |
| 1986-87 | _____ |

20. Please mention the number of visits (other than inspection) made by the DEO in your School during the last three academic years.

| Year | Number of Visits |
|---------|------------------|
| 1988-89 | _____ |
| 1987-88 | _____ |
| 1986-87 | _____ |

21. Please mention the number of inspection reports pertaining to your school, received from the DEO Office

| Year | Number of reports received |
|---------|----------------------------|
| 1988-89 | _____ |
| 1987-88 | _____ |
| 1986-87 | _____ |

22. Please mention the action taken by you on the receipt of Inspection Report from DEO office. Please mark (/) on the appropriate reply.

- a) The Inspection Reports were circulated amongst teaching staff members _____
- b) Filed as there was nothing to be communicated to the teachers _____
- c) Meeting with teaching staff was held and observations were discussed _____
- d) Other _____
(Please specify)

23. How much you were satisfied with the contents of inspection reports received from the DEO Office? Please mark (/) on the appropriate reply.

To a great extent To a certain extent Moderat -ely To Some extent Rarely

24. How much the observations of the inspection reports, received by you were implemented in your school? Please mark (/) on the appropriate reply.

To a great extent To a certain extent Moderat -ely To Some extent Rarely

25. In your opinion, what number of inspections and visits are necessary within one academic year, by the DEO.

| | Number |
|----------------|--------|
| a) Inspections | _____ |
| b) Visits | _____ |

26. Please mention atleast four factors which were responsible for hindering the implementation of inspection reports in your school ?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

27. Please arrange in the order of suitability, the following supervisory models, for schools. Please mention in numericals, the order in the given space.

- | | |
|---|----------|
| a) LAISSEZ TYPE | a) _____ |
| (Teachers should be allowed to teach in the way they wish i.e letting each teacher teach as he pleases) | |
| b) CO-ERCIVE TYPE | b) _____ |
| (Teachers should be compelled to follow the techniques of teaching, already framed by the supervisor and the supervisor be considered as a master super teacher to get the desired results) | |
| c) CORRECTIVE TYPE | c) _____ |
| (Supervisors should act as fault finders) | |
| d) PREVENTIVE TYPE | d) _____ |
| (Supervisors should help teachers in anticipating any possible mistakes, before they (mistakes) actually arise. | |
| e) CREATIVE TYPE | e) _____ |
| (Supervisors should encourage the teachers to share their thoughts and problems voluntarily with him). | |
| f) DEMOCRATIC TYPE | f) _____ |
| (Supervisors should provide efficient group planning and co-ordinating the work of groups). | |

28. What other model(s)/type(s) of supervision, which you consider to be the best, within the socio-political pattern, of Sind-Pakistan ?

a) _____

b) _____

29. What is your opinion about the role assigned to the present supervisory personnel in the educational system in Sind-Pakistan ?

30. Please suggest the appropriate role to be assigned to the DEO for improving the efficiency of Education in Sind-Pakistan.

M. J. IDREES/*

QUESTIONNAIRE - III

(FOR TEACHERS)

1. Teacher (HST/JST): _____
2. Name of school: _____
3. District _____
4. Region _____
5. Average size of class
class
(i.e Number of students) _____
6. Period you have served as:
 - a) Teacher _____
 - b) Other _____
(Please specify)
 - c) Total Service _____
7. Please mention your Qualifications:
Mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.
 - a) Bachelor degree with B.T/B.Ed _____
 - b) Master degree with B.T/B.Ed _____
 - c) Master degree with M.Ed/M.A(Ed) _____
 - d) Bachelor degree with M.Ed/M.A(Ed) _____
 - e) Any other _____
(Please specify)
8. Please mention your subjects of specializations at
 - a) B.T/B.Ed Level
 1. _____
 2. _____
 - b) C.T/C.Ed/T.D Level
 1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
 4. _____

9. Please mention class-wise subjects being taught by you with number of periods per week in the school.

| Class | Subject(s) | Number of periods per week. |
|-------|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| VI | 1) _____ 2) _____ | 1) _____ 2) _____ |
| VII | 1) _____ 2) _____ | 1) _____ 2) _____ |
| VIII | 1) _____ 2) _____ | 1) _____ 2) _____ |
| IX | 1) _____ 2) _____ | 1) _____ 2) _____ |
| X | 1) _____ 2) _____ | 1) _____ 2) _____ |

Total periods per week _____

10. Whether you have received any Inservice Training?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.

Yes _____
No _____

- If yes, please mention the name(s) of subject, duration and organization of such training.

- a) Name(s) of subjects. 1) _____ 2) _____
- b) Duration. 1) _____ 2) _____
- c) Organized by 1) _____ 2) _____

11. Please mention the number of your complete Units/Lessons observed by the DEO and Head Master, in actual class-room situation, during last three years.

| Year | Number of complete Units/Lessons observed by | |
|---------|--|-------------|
| | DEO | Head Master |
| 1988-89 | _____ | _____ |
| 1987-88 | _____ | _____ |
| 1986-87 | _____ | _____ |

12. Whether the DEO and Head Master uses any instrument to record his observations of your teaching Unit/Lesson?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.

| | |
|-----------|-------------|
| DEOs | Head Master |
| Yes _____ | Yes _____ |
| No _____ | No _____ |

13. How often did the DEO and Head Master discuss their observations about your Unit/Lesson with you?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.

| | To a greater extent _____ | To a certain extent _____ | Moderately _____ | To some extent _____ | Rarely _____ |
|----------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|----------------------|--------------|
| a) DEO | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| b) Head Master | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

14. How much you were satisfied with the observations made by the DEO and Head Master?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.

| | To a great extent _____ | To a certain extent _____ | Moderately _____ | To some extent _____ | Rarely _____ |
|----------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|----------------------|--------------|
| a) DEO | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| b) Head Master | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

15. How far the existing method of observing teaching Unit/Lesson by the DEO and Head Master was helpful in improving the quality of your instructions?

Please mark (✓) on the appropriate reply.

| | To a great extent _____ | To a certain extent _____ | Moderately _____ | To some extent _____ | Rarely _____ |
|----------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|----------------------|--------------|
| a) DEO | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| b) Head Master | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

16. Please arrange in the order of suitability, the following supervisory models, for your school.

Please mention in numericals, the order in the given space.

a) LAISSEZ-FAIRE TYPE a) _____

(Teachers should be allowed to teach in the way they wish i.e letting each teacher teach as he pleases)

b) CO-ERCIVE TYPE b) _____

(Teachers should be compelled to follow the techniques of teaching already framed by the supervisor and the supervisor be considered as a master/super teacher to get the desired results).

c) CORRECTIVE TYPE c) _____

(Supervisors should act as fault finders)

d) PREVENTIVE TYPE d) _____

(Supervisors should help teachers in anticipating any possible mistakes, before they (mistakes) actually arise.

e) CREATIVE TYPE e) _____

(Supervisors should encourage the teachers to share their thoughts and problems voluntarily with him)

f) DEMOCRATIC TYPE f) _____

(Supervisors should provide efficient group planning and co-ordinate the work of groups)

17. What is your opinion about the role assigned to the present supervisory personnel (DEOs and Head Masters) in the educational system in Sind-Pakistan?

a) DEO _____

b) Head Master _____

18. Please suggest the appropriate role to be assigned to the DEO and Head Master for improving the efficiency of Education in Sind-Pakistan.

a) DEO _____

b) Head _____
Master _____

A. QAYOUM*

DETAILS OF TOUR DURING FIELD STUDY

| <u>Period</u> | <u>Places visited</u> |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1.1.1989. to 5.1.1989. | 1. Government of Sindh, Education Department, provincial secretariat at Karachi. 2. Government of Sindh , Planning and Development Department, Karachi. 3. Directorate of College Education, Karachi. 4. District Education Office, Karachi South. 5. Government College of Education, F.B. Area, Karachi. |
| 7.1.1989 to 12.1.1989. | 1. University of Karachi, Department of Education. 2. Directorate of School Education, Karachi. 3. Interviews with some officials of Sindh Education Department in Karachi |
| 14.1.1989 to 15.1.1989. | 1. Government of Sindh, Education Department, Provincial Secretariat, Karachi(interviews) 2. Bureau of Statistics, Planning and Development Department, Government of Sindh, Karachi. |
| 16.1.1989 to 19.1.1989. | 1. Sindh Text Book Board, Jamshoro 2. Department of Library Science and Central Library, University of Sindh, Jamshoro. 3. Bureau of Curriculum and Education Extension Wing, Sindh, Jamshoro. 4. Priority Education Project, Sindh, Jamshoro. |
| 25.1.1989 to 29.1.1989. | 1. Government of Sindh, Education Deptt: Planning and Monitoring Cell, Karachi. 2. Directorate of School Education, Karachi (interviews) 3. Liaqat Memorial Library, Karachi. 4. N.J.V.(Boys) High School, Karachi. |
| 30.1.1989 to 1.2.1989. | Bureau of Curriculum and Extension Wing, Sindh, Jamshoro(in continuation) |

- 5.2.1989
to
11.2.1989.
1. Visited some districts of the province and interviewed few retired officers of the Sindh Education Department.
 2. Visited the Directorate of school Education, Sukkur.
 3. Visited Board of Secondary Education, Sukkur.
 4. Government College of Education, Sukkur.
-
- 12.2.1989
to
16.2.1989
1. University of Sindh, Department of Education, Old campus at Hyderabad city
 2. Directorate of College Education, Hyderabad.
 3. Directorate of School Education, Hyderabad.
 4. Sindh Museum and Library, Hyderabad.
 5. District Education Office, Hyderabad. and few schools of Hyderabad city.
-
- 18.2.1989
to
28.2.1989.
1. Few librarians in Karachi.
 2. Government of Sindh, Education Department, Provincial secretariat, Karachi (collection of documents).
 3. Old records Office.
 4. Government of Sindh Press, Karachi.
 5. Government of Pakistan Press and Stationery Office at Karachi.
-
- 1.3.1989
to
5.3.1989.
1. Library, Education Department, University of Sindh, Old Campus at Hyderabad City.
 2. Sindheology, Jamshoro.
 3. Sindhi Adabi Board, Jamshoro.
 4. University Grants Commission (regional office) at Jamshoro.
-
- 7.3.1989
to 11.3.1989.
- Visited the district education offices at Thatta and few secondary schools, within the district.
-
- 12.3.1989.
- Government of Sindh, Finance Deptt: provincial Secretariat, Karachi.
-
- 14.3.1989
16.3.1989.
- Visited District education Office, Tharparkar at Mirpurkhas and few schools of Tharparkar and Hyderabad districts.

| | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 18.3.1989 to 22.3.1989. | Visited education offices and few schools of Badin, Sanghar, Nawabshah and Dadu districts. |
| 25.3.1989 to 30.3.1989. | Visited education offices and few schools of Sukkur, Khairpur, Larkana, Jacobabad and Shikarpur districts. |
| 1.4.1989 to 13.4.1989. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Provincial secretariat, Education Department, Government of Sindh at Karachi (followup visit) 2. All the Education Offices in Karachi (for interviews) |
| 15.4.1989 to 20.4.1989. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Visited few schools of Karachi(south) district. 2. Visited Sindh Regional Plan Organization Karachi. 3. Visited Directorate of Technical Education, Sindh, Karachi |
| 22.4.1989 to 30.4.1989. | <p>Visited the following offices in the federal capital at Islamabad:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan and its various wings i.e Administration, Curriculum, Institutions, Planning and Development, Foreign aid. 2. National Education Council. 3. Academy of Educational Planning and Management (AEPAM). 4. Planning Commission. 5. Ministry of sports, Youth and culture. |
| 2.5.1989 to 4.5.1989. | Visited schools of Karachi East. |
| 9.5.1989 to 11.5.1989. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. District Education Office, Karachi East, South and West(follow up) 2. Science Education Centre, Karachi. |
| 13.5.1989 to 25.5.1989. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Board of Secondary Education, Karachi. 2. District Education Office, Karachi West and schools within the district. 3. Regional Education Extension Centre, Karachi 4. Jamia Millia, Government College of, Education, Malhir, Karachi. |

[Secondary Schools, Training Institutions and Normal Schools]

1. Name of School Govt: High School Sujawal. Year of foundation 1964
2. Recognized as Govt: High School, teaching up to _____ class.
 (i) Recognized for grant up to _____ class. (ii) Order No. and date of Permanent/ Provisional Recognition _____
3. Management (name of the Managing Body) Government of Sind.
 Name of the correspondent Head Master Govt: High School, Sujawal Distt: Thar
4. Date of inspectic _____ Date of last inspection _____
5. Total number of holidays fixed for the year _____
6. School time—On full working days—From 8-30^{summer.}a.m. to ~~2-30~~⁹⁻⁰⁰p.m. ^{Winter.}a.m. to 3-00 p.m.
 On half working days—From _____ a.m. to _____ p.m. _____ a.m. to _____ p.m.
7. Number of pupils:—

| Class. | Infant and preparatory. | I | II | III | IV | V | VI | VII | VIII | IX | X | Total | No. on rolls on date of inspection. | No. present at inspection. | Average daily No. on rolls during current school year. | Daily average attendance. |
|-----------------|-------------------------|---|----|-----|----|---|-----|-----|------|-----|-----|-------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| No. of Sections | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Boys .. | - | - | - | - | - | - | 167 | 139 | 155 | 162 | 140 | 763 | | | | |
| Girls .. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total .. | - | - | - | - | - | - | | | | | | | | | | |

8. Classification of pupils by caste:—

| Communities. | Muslims. | Christians. | Hindus. | Others. | REMARKS. |
|--------------|----------|-------------|---------|---------|----------|
| Day-Scholars | - | - | - | - | |
| Boarders | - | - | - | - | |
| Total | - | - | - | - | |

9. Rate of fees and free-studentships:—

| Class. | Infant and preparatory | I | II | III | IV | V | VI | VII | VIII | IX | X | Free Studentships | | | | Percentage. |
|-----------------------|------------------------|---|----|-----|----|---|----|-----|------|----|---|-------------------|------|------|-------|-------------|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | Number, | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | Full | Half | Part | Total | |
| Rates of tuition fees | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Are they in order, and are the latter properly awarded?

10. School Building:—

- (a) Whether owned by the school or rented Government
- (b) Total amount of Development grant received from Government, if any: Rs. nil
Whether conditions of the Trust Deed have been fulfilled _____
- (c) Amount of rent, if any, per mensem: Rs. Nil actual, Rs. Nil nominal,
with name of owner _____ Nil
- (d) Remarks of Inspecting Officer on accommodation, ventilation, lighting, sanitary condition, etc., etc., of the school premises:—

- (e) No. of class rooms and other rooms (statement, with details and dimensions to be attached). Attached.

11. Provision for games and Physical training:—

- (a) Area of playground, if any—
- (b) Whether owned by the school or rented— (Rent Rs. _____ per month)
- (c) Rate of Union fund and other funds charged: R _____ per mensem.
- (d) Whether any medical inspection or other record kept— no
- (e) Inspecting Officer's remarks on the health and general appearance of the pupils and on provision for physical training generally. Give details of the games introduced:—

12. Hostel:—

- (a) Hostel building— rented or owned by the management— owned
- (b) Rent, if any: Rs. _____ per month _____
- (c) Total number of inmates _____ out of _____ for whom accommodation is available.
- (d) Average monthly messing charges: Rs. _____
- (e) Whether recognised by the Department. no
- (f) Remarks by Inspecting Officer on the hostel as a whole, and on arrangements for medical supervision—

13. Furniture and equipment (Whether adequate and in good order) — Furniture needs to be repaired adequate for req at present but with the increase in enrolment during the coming session shortage will be felt.

14. Libraries (teachers' and pupils' libraries).

| | English | Urdu | Sindhi | Others | | English | Urdu |
|---|---------------------------|------|--------|--------|-------------------|---------|------------------|
| | No. of Books for Teachers | 253 | 300 | 225 | | - | No. of Magazines |
| No. of Books for Students | 152 | 400 | 260 | | No. of Newspapers | 1 | 1 |
| Total | 405 | 700 | 485 | | REMARKS:— | | |
| DURING CURRENT ACADEMIC YEAR. Books added. | 20 | 23 | 16 | - | | | |
| No. of Books issued to— Teachers | 20 | 30 | 34 | | | | |
| Students | 57 | 52 | 24 | | | | |

15. Provision for Science-teaching (Whether adequate and satisfactory) —

16. Records, registers, accounts, etc., how kept —

| Name of fund | Balance on 1st April last | Income during the year | Expenditure during the year | Present Balance | Res |
|--------------|---------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|-----|
| Boys Fund | 18297.71 | 27384 | 20132. | 11507.4 | |

Inspector's Remarks:—

18. Number of scholarship-holders:—

| Middle School | High School | Others | Total |
|---------------|-------------|--------|-------|
| | | | |

Remarks (progress of scholars)—

19. Teaching staff (*vide* details on page 10). Adequacy and qualifications of staff, and whether full staff maintained—

With the exception of Science teacher qualified staff is maintained.

20. Elective subjects taught and manual training:— Elective subjects are being taught For manual work students have been provided two periods per week.

21. Results of Examinations:—

| Examination | No. of students on 31st May last. | No. sent up. | No. passed. <i>in all subjects</i> | Pass % of school. | Pass % of Board/ Department. | Remarks. |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|----------|
| Middle Standard | 160 | 30 | 30 | 100 % | | |
| S. S. C.—II | | | | | | |
| Any other public Examination. | Sc = 82 | 82 | 78 | 95 % | 70 % | |
| | A = 55 | 55 | 55 | 50 % | 50 % | |
| <i>Middle</i> | | | | | | |
| Remarks— | | | | | | |

22. Industrial Art Courses.

- (1) Whether Workshop/Workshed is available? Yes
- (2) Whether suitable equipment is available? Yes
- (3) Whether qualified teacher/teachers is/are working in the school? Yes

(4) Inspector's Remarks with regard to:—

- (a) Metal Work. _____
- (b) Wood Work. _____
- (c) Electricity. _____

23. Commerce Education.

- (a) Whether the subject of Commerce has been introduced? No
- (b) Whether adequate equipment is available? Yes
- (c) Whether trained staff is working? No
- (d) Inspector's Remarks.

24. Agriculture.

- (1) Whether Agricultural Farm is attached? If so, state: -- No;
 - (a) Area: - Nil
 - (b) Irrigated by:—
 - (i) Canal.
 - (ii) Tube-well. Nil
 - (iii) Well.
- (2) Whether Agricultural implements are available adequately/inadequately. No;

(3) Whether trained/qualified Agriculture Teacher is available?

No

(4) If Agricultural Farm is not attached, what are the arrangements in its absence?

Yes

(5) Inspector's Remarks.

25. Home Economics.

(a) Number of pupils taking the subject, classwise. _____

(b) Whether adequate and proper facilities available. _____ nil

(c) Whether sufficient and trained staff available. _____

(d) Remarks of the Inspectress on the work done. _____

26. Religious Education.

(a) Number of inmates receiving Religious Education in (a) Islamyat, and (b) others. _____ An

(b) Whether qualified teachers are available—adequately/inadequately? _____ Yes

(c) Whether Library books within the reach of the students on Islamyat to supplement knowledge of students in Religion are available--adequately/inadequately? _____ Yes

(d) Whether Nazira Quran is being taught or not? _____ Yes

(e) Remarks by the Inspector.

27. Guidance and Counselling.

1. Whether the programme has been introduced and with what arrangements? _____ no

2. Inspector's remarks on the progress. _____

28. Special features (i.e., Boy Scouts, various Societies, Audio-Visual Instruction, Excursions, Bazm-i-Adab activities, etc.).

The Chairman, Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Hyderabad.

29. Whether suggestions made last year were carried out. Specify the suggestions to be carried out—

1. Information regarding work sheet in Column No: 22 may be furnished.
2. Information regarding Column nos 15, 16, 18 may be communicated for necessary comments.
3. More efforts should be made to improve the quality of work, specially in languages.

Signature.

Dated

No.

80. General remarks (including remarks on the range and quality of instruction and general tone and discipline of the school)—

The school has adequate furniture.

School building needs minor repairs.

Science laboratory, work shop and Lib. Hall maintained satisfactorily.

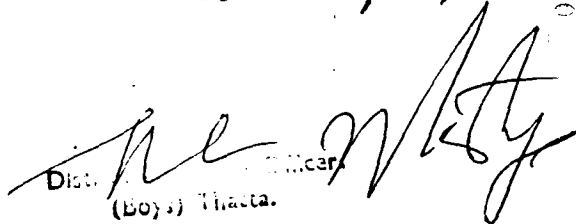
The school has maintained science club, too.

The school participates in all the Co-curricular activities such as Scouting, games, sports and debates etc.

In the activities of Pakistan Scout week 1987 the school won the 2nd prize in the district.

General tone and discipline of the school was up to the mark.

The School Scout Unit attended the Scout Campore, 1987 @ Mirpur Khan.


Dist. Officer (Boys) Thatta.

No.

Signature.

Dated

DESIGNATION

To

The Principal/Headmaster

Middle/High Training School.

Copy forwarded, with compliments, to:--

The Director of Education, Hyderabad Region, Hyderabad.

The Manager/Chairman, Middle/High School _____

The Chairman, Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Hyderabad.

PROFORMA FOR INSPECTION REPORTS.

1. Name of Institution G.H.S. Mirpurkhas Category Govt Secondary ✓
2. Location Tando Adam Road, Mirpurkhas Shift Single Date of foundation 19
3. Name of the Managing Body (in case of private school) Govt of Sind
4. Date of Inspection 24-1-1989 Date of last Inspection 15.12.87
5. Designation of Inspection Officer District Education Officer (M) Mirpurkhas
6. No. of classes section, enrolment in each section and No. of present on the day of inspection (attach separate sheet) Separate sheet attached.
7. No. of teachers with qualifications, date of appointment in this school pay and pay scale and classes and subjects taught List attached.
(attach separate sheet).
8. Result of public examination Public Exams Last three years 1985, 1986, 1987
(attach separate sheet) sheet attached.
9. Assets of the school separate name of the bank where income is deposited
Bank balance any source of income other than fees National Bank of Pak.
10. Statement of income and expenditure under major heads Sheet attached.
(attach separate sheet).
11. Furniture and equipment _____ Whether adequate Adequate.
Amount spent on the supply of the above during the last year Rs. 5280/-
No. of library books on different subjects Separate sheet attached.
13. School building _____ No. of rooms with dimensions List attached.
Library room, laboratory, other facilities, fans water supply arrangement etc. Separate sheet attached.
Whether rented Govt owned. if so, monthly rent Rs. 143
14. Games and physical training and other curricular activities _____
whether any playground available if so, its dimensions Not available
arrangement for medical checkup of pupils Regularly being arranged.
15. Textbooks _____ whether only prescribed ones are used Yes.
Medium of instruction Sind Text Book Board school uniform Camel coloured Sindwar
Sindhi/Urdu.
16. Fee rate _____ each class whether approved by the Director Games.
(attach Class VI to VIII Rs. 3 p.m 7 Class IX & X Rs. 6/- p.m (Details separately attached) Yes.
17. Inspecting officer's remarks on:-
(a) Maintenance of office records, accounts registers, and examination. G
(b) Discipline and tone of school. V. Fair
(c) Supply of furniture, equipment etc and condition of building. Satisf
(d) Teaching work done by the teachers. Satisfactory
(e) Any special features of the school _____
(f) General remarks about the quality of instruction. As detailed
Achievement or defects, and suggestions, if any. attached

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (MALE) THARPARKAR
ANNUAL INSPECTION REPORT OF GOVERNMENT HIGH SCHOOL MIRPURKHAS,
FOR THE YEAR 1988-89.

Held the annual inspection of Government High School Mirpurkhas on 24.1.1989 alongwith the members of inspection team. The school premises were neat and clean. The students were properly dressed, neat and clean. Discipline of school was satisfactory. P.T show and scouting activities and Band show ^{shown by} ~~shown~~ the students to the members of inspection were worth seen and pleasing. Drinking water and Toilet facilities were available in the school. A separate register for record and progress of Nazira Qaran be maintained.

Different games are played by the students with keen interest. There are sufficient library books in the school library but these be issued to the teachers and students. The total enrolment of students is 1144 out of which 944 were present on the inspection day. The condition of school building is good.

So far as the tuitional condition of the school is concerned, it is satisfactory on the whole. M.T (s) and N.M.T (u) grammer, handwriting and reading needs attention, arabic of all classes needs hard work, in english of lower and higher classes grammer, reading, conversation needs attention. More attention is needed in making jobs in wood work. Teaching of applied electricity and agriculture needs still more attention. All the teachers teaching maths to VIII class are directed to take more pain to improve the class. Drawing of all classes be given proper attention. In Maths of tenth class geometry and Trigonometry need attention. In ninth class one fourth course in physics, chemistry and mathematics be complete. In VIII-D and VIII-C M.T (u) teaching teachers are directed to complete the course in time. The teacher teaching S.S to class VII-A be asked to complete the course intime. The Head Master is advised to maintain the Log Book regularly to ^{check} the work of teachers. guidance. Compliance report of the above instructions is required immediately without fail.

The detailed remarks of the members of inspection team are enclosed here with for guidance of teachers. The School is recommended for extension of recognition for the year 1988-89.

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DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER (BOYS)
THARPARKAR @ MIRPURKHAS

Copy forwarded with compliments (with relevant papers) to:-

1. The Director School Education, Hyderabad Region Hyderabad.
2. The Chairman Board of Intermediate & Secondary Education Hyderabad.
3. The Head Master, Government High School Mirpurkhas.