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Message of the Patron –in Chief

The advancement in natural sciences is a boon as well as a challenge for human civilization. Human societies are gradually being drifted towards becoming knowledge economies. Scientific knowledge and technologies developed therefrom are providing physical as well as psychological comfort to mankind. This is all welcome for the good of man; the scientific procedures are also gaining currency in other domains of human life. The attitude of scientism is also showing itself as a hallmark for all certified knowledge. The key concepts of mechanization and standardization are creeping into the research in social sciences. The challenging needs of keeping abreast of the scientific concepts and procedures are looming large in the minds of the social scientists. The modern challenge before the researchers in social sciences is to improve human life through developing collaborative research, collective approaches and greater inter- communicability among nations of today. Dynamism in social research, movement for further improvement in international understanding and harmony can best guarantee future happiness for all mankind.

Message of the Senior Advisor

Human life in the world of today is beset with numerous challenges. It is introducing complex arenas of mutual need for building cordiality and understanding through researched knowledge. In order to cope with ever increasing complexity in human relations, a new comprehensive and global vision needs to be generated. Modern science has taken tremendous and breath - taking advancements into the daily life of modern man. Natural sciences have ameliorated the lot of common man and have promoted a higher level of human civilization. But the same vision has yet to be developed in the social science to bring man closer to man. In the world of today, human values, attitudes, expectation and ideal have yet to come within the tolerance limits and temperate proportion to enlighten the peoples of the world to undertake debate on universal values of peace, progress, prosperity within the gambit of common platforms of researches in all the disciplines of social sciences.

Table of Contents

Page no.

Teaching Writing in the Active Technology-Enhanced Environment

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Abstract

This paper discusses the author's experience of teaching classes on academic writing in the Interactive Learning Space, an initiative in active learning launched by Ball State University (Muncie, USA) in the fall of 2012. It highlights several pedagogical discoveries concerning the class configuration, writings assignments, collaboration, and use of interactive technology. The main conclusion is that classes on college writing work well when organized as an interactive collaborative effort in a studio-like environment.

Introduction

The theory of active learningoriginatedin the constructivisteducational philosophy. According to it, new ideas take root in the prior knowledge of learners; therefore, the best education is that which requires the use of students' personal interests and experiences (Prawat & Floden, 1994). Learners construct their own knowledge while exploring real situations and interacting with other students, who may have different perspectives on these situations(Jaworski, 1994; Fosnot, 1996; Steff & Gale, 1996). Therefore, for constructivists, much of the reality is invented in a social context (Kukla& Walmsley, 2006). Under this framework, the teacher's task is to help students develop personal interest in learning, require them to conduct hands-on, experiential research, and encouragecollaboration.

This theoretical foundation of active learning was built primarily in the1990s in connection with the introduction of computer-based technology in education, in particular, the web, e-mail, and electronic forums. In the 2000s, the emerging mobile technologiesgave a new impulse to theories of active learning,especially favoring learningincontext (Aesaert et al., 2013) and, most recently, the acquisition of digital competences, which are articulated in the National Educational Technology Standards (ISTE) and the Framework for 21st Century Learning (P21).

The extensive research on technology-assisted active learning has produced mostly favorable results. Quantitative research concludes that in active-learning classrooms teachers are becoming facilitators who supervise students to learn new ideas and practices, at the same time promoting autonomy, self-determination, and choice (Brown, 2006). In their turn, students are increasingly demanding excellence in teaching (Auster & Wylie, 2006), seeking class environments where they can apply their knowledge and develop expertise. These two conditions considered, the benefits of learning in an active technology-enhanced environment seem to be obvious (Dori et al, 2007). However, it has been suggested that technology in the classroom works best when it is "both pervasive and minimalist" (Soderdahl, 2011, p. 87), that is, provides many options, but is simple to use and not overwhelmingly present. Moreover, for classroom technology to be used to its full advantage, faculty should be provided with quality hands-on training, theoretical support, and a clear link between teaching in interactive classrooms and their individual teaching, research, and career interests.

As for qualitative research on teaching with technology, itexpressed some concerns. One of them isthe divide between the digital "haves" and "have nots,"that is, between those learners who have access to telecommunications and information technologies and those who do not (Wei & Hindman, 2011; Keengwe, Onchwari & Wachira, 2008). Another concern is the generational divide which addresses the differences in age rather than income. The third concern is insufficient teacher's training,which makes teachers feel as perpetual novices having the need to catch up with the ever-changing devices (Dornisch, 2013).Under the circumstances,

> A disconnect exists between students' comfort with using technology for learning and teachers' comfort in using technology for teaching. Students report the desire for more engaging technology-based assignments. Teachers cite multiple reasons for their hesitancy to use technology in their teaching.(Dornisch, 2013, p. 210)

However, all three of these concernsare currently being addressed, and with positive results. As mandated by the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA), on March 16, 2010, the FCC publically released its report, Connecting America: The National Broadband Plan.It seeks to "create a high-performanceAmerica," which the FCC defines as "a more productive,creative, efficient America in which affordable broadbandis available everywhere and everyone has the means andskills to use valuable broadband applications"("Access," 2013, p.2). The specific tasks leading to universal affordable access to broadband service are planned to be fulfilled by 2020("Access," 2013).

Beginning in the mid-1990s, American universities started launching projects on active,technology-assisted learning.The pioneering project was SCALE-UP (Student-Centered Active Learning Environment for

Undergraduate Physics/Programs) in the North Carolina State University. The basic idea is that students work in teams on "tangibles" (hands-on measurements or observations) and "ponderables" (interesting, complex problems), while the instructor is roaming around the classroom giving feedback, sending one team to help another, or asking why someone else got a different answer ("About," 2007).

A similar project, TEAL (Technology-enabledActiveLeaning), was started in 2001 at Massachusetts Institute of Technology. It merges lectures, simulations, and hands-on desktop experiments to create an active learning experience in physics classes ("TEAL," 2013).Yet another project is TILE (Transform, Integrate, Learn, Engage) at the University of Iowa. A particular strength of the TILE Initiative is, first, that it reaches beyond the natural sciences to include social studies and humanities, and, second, it focuses on providing intensive training to the participating faculty ("TILE," 2011).

A recent active learning project launched in the fall of 2012 at Ball State University is ILS (Interactive Learning Space). It has two classrooms in the University's Teachers' College, newly remodeled and equipped, - the node chair classroom and the mediascape one. The node chair classroom has twenty-four chairs on wheels with writing surfaces attached. It also features three interactive Eno-boards, three portable huddle boards, a traditional dry board, and a teacher's lap top station (Fig. 1). On one side is a nook with two armchairs, a table with chairs,

Fig. 1. The node chair classroom.   Fig. 2. The mediascape classroom.

and aprojector screen on the wall in the front. The other room is mediascape, which has four oval-shaped tables with six chairs around each, and a podattached to one end. There is also a teacher's lap top station, a large screen attached to the wall, and a traditional dry board (Fig. 2). Thepods can be operated from the teacher's station or from individual students'laptops.

I started working in the node chair classroom in the fall of 2012 and continued through the end of 2013 teaching two classes, English 104 (Composing Research) and WP 393 (Writing Proficiency). The initial reaction of my students to the classroom configuration was unfavorable; they perceived the chairs arrangement as disorganized and not conducive to any serious learning. My own reaction was similar; I spent more effort trying to navigate around the chairs than delivering the class material. After several weeks, however, I found a chairs configuration that worked for me; I asked my students to arrange their chairs in a large circle and sat in the circle with them. I have been using this class configuration ever since, whenever the class furniture allowed me to do so.

By the end of my first semester in ILS, I got the results of a survey conducted by the ILS administration. One comment stood out: "I like it [the classroom] but I do not think this class is the right one for it."I could see the student's point. To me, as probably to her, writing was taught as a heavily structured activity, done on one's own over many hours of work, and to start teaching it interactively, collaboratively, and with the use of modern technology was going against everything ingrained in us about the process of writing.

One more concernI had when teachingEnglish composition in a "transparent" interactive and collaborative environmentis that the intellectual processes involved in writing are often not "transparent" at all. I would like to demonstrate this on a writing sample from a student in my Writing Proficiency course, usually taken by students in their third or fourth year of college:

In the article Tom Vanderbilt begins by attempting to draw the audience in by discussing popular websites and the way we look at reviews. By listing those popular websites Please proofread the entire passage for correct punctuation. such as Amazon, Yelp and TripAdvisor Vanderbilt address the product driven and Internet exposed audience, which is bombarded with customer reviews and critiques. To

appeal to this type What type   specifically? Please clarify. of audience even further he uses the names of authorities that   began the genre of product reviews, for example, he mentions H.L. Mencken who   popularized the idea, that criticism is meant to be criticized (Vanderbilt, page 7) Please   make   your in-text citations correctly: (author's last name, page number). Mencken's idea   perpetuates the way reviewers post their critiques. Vanderbilt also introduces the strength   of the logos displayed by Vanderbilt creates appeal and proves to the audience he is truly   knowledgeable on this topic. Awkward and unclear phrasing. Please edit.

My comments(in red) in the first three thirds of the student's text are familiar to every writing instructor and demonstratethe gaps in the student's knowledge that can be easily filled in by referring her to the clear and straight-forward rules of academic writing. However, when it comes to the last sentence, my comment becomes unclear and non-specific, for one reason: I am not sure what is going on here. The writer's mental process becomes for me quite opaque. Since I do not know what made the student come up with this sentence, I do not know how I can lead her through the process of revising, especially if it is supposed to be done actively and collaboratively.

But overall, I discovered that interactivity and collaboration in writing work well. Even before I started teaching in ILS, I developed several strategies to teach writing in an active, student-centered environment. First, I started making assignment which are conducive to active learning. Thus, I asked students to select topics that are relatable to them, based on their previous knowledge and experience, and most of my assignments require fieldwork (for assignment samples, please see Appendix). Second, I give students frequentfeedback on their multiple drafts (or, more commonly, sample paragraphs). Over two or three semesters of using these two strategies, I saw a significant increase in the quality of the students' final projects, which, to me, is an indication that these strategies work.

About the effectiveness of the other twostrategies Ihave been using I am not so sure. One is collaborative writing projects. I personally like them because they save me time and effort; instead of, for example, twenty five individual projects I have to commend on and grade twelve or so. However, my students more than once expressed their dislike of collaboration on writing, primarily because of the unfair work load distribution: every other team usually has a loafer,and the other team members have to pick up his or her share to get a decent grade. Another, more substantial, reason why I am not sure about the benefits of collaboration in writing is that so far I have been unsuccessful to effectively supervise the team work. A recent example is a group project on writing a literature review titled *Steroids in sports: Recent discoveries and sanctions.* The three students working on the project came up with three subsections of the review, each writing his or her own portion on their own without subsequently editing the final paper for a unified voice and style; as a result, the paper turned out to be three individual efforts instead of a collaborative one. At that time I was unable to detect the problem early enoughand successfully reverse the process. Since then, however, I started asking students to produce sample paragraphs of their collaborative projects and, if I see discrepancies in style, I respond accordingly.

The biggest challenge, however, is the use of interactive technologyin writing. So far, I have not found a way to use the pods and Eno-boards of the ILS classrooms in a manner that would be integral to my pedagogy, engaging for my students, and personally satisfactory to me. Generally, I believe that the Microsoft Office with its built-in tools of dictionary, thesaurus, bibliography, and so on fits the purpose of writing, revising, and editing better than the interactive equipment I have in my classrooms. However, I did make other discoveries in the pedagogical use of technology. Thus, I encourage my students to use their own digital devices with access to the internet to follow the class discussion and, therefore, seldom use the teacher's lap top station. Instead of standing at the teacher's station, I sit in a large circle at the same eye level with my students and either guide them through the materials I have prepared for a particular class or ask them to explore the web on their own. For example, in our discussion about visual rhetoric I ask them to log into the home page of Ball State University's Museum of Art and navigate its collection, directing them to particular art pieces for discussion. Alternatively, I ask them to find certain information on the web or in the University's on-line library using sets of key words. In this way my instruction becomesat once student-centered (active) and technology-enhanced.

Active student-centered learning, which is based on the concepts of apprenticeship and entrepreneurship (critical thinking and problem-solving), has been embraced by progressive teachers long before it has become the leading philosophy in education (Kukla& Walmsley, 2006). As for educational technology, it can be broadly viewed as an array of tools that prove helpful in advancing student learning. In this understanding, technology can refer to computers and other digital devices, but it can also encompass

methods, approaches, and techniques. The Greek "techne" means "craft" or "art," so the concept of educational technology may be extended to include anytechniques aneducatoruses for the advancement of knowledge in his or her class.

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Appendix

Samples of interactive collaborative writing assignments in English 104, Composing Research

The Literature Review

For this project, you will choose a controversial topic and review it with the purpose of informing us where we currently stand on it. In your conclusion you may try to predict the further development or the outcome of the controversy.

Your literature review will be built on comparing and contrasting your sources in terms of their ideas, findings, and/or theories. You will work collaboratively in groups of three or four.

The Researched Argument/Analysis

For this project, you may choose between writing an analytical or argumentative research paper on one of the following topics:

> Multiculturalism on American Campuses. International Students, Foreign-born Faculty, Study-Abroad Programs
>
> Ball State: Past and Present (on the materials in Bracken library Digital Repositories)
>
> A topic related to your major that lends itself to fieldwork

At least 50% of your information for Project 2 must come from working with primary sources (original documents, records, and artifacts) or through fieldwork (surveying and/or interviewing).

You may work on this project individually, with a partner, or in groups of three or four.

The Observational-Research Paper

Observational research provides the opportunity to study human or non-human subjects in real-life situations. The purpose of observational research is to offer an interpretation of the observed phenomenon and/or formulate a hypothesis that explains what is going on.

Write an observational-research paper on one of the following topics:

- Observing people
- Observing nature

You can write your observational research project in one of the two genres: IMRAD and personal research. In the IMRAD paper, you will introduce your topic, outline the methods of your observations, report on the results, and discuss them, coming up with a conclusion or practical recommendation. In the personal-research paper, you will describe the observed phenomenon and offer an interpretation of it based on your impressions and information from secondary sources. The personal research paper can include elements of creative writing, such as story-telling and vivid descriptions.

Both the IMRAD and personal-research papers must include secondary sources, in the form of a short literature review in the IMRAD paper, or in combination with primary research in the personal research paper.

Both the IMRAD paper and the personal-research paper must include visuals (IMRAD - tables, graphs, charts, and/or photographs; personal research - photographs).

You may work on tis paper individually or with a partner.

Research-Writing in Multimedia

In this project, you will research a topic of your choice and present it as a digital document, such as a web page, blog, Wiki article, YouTube video, or conference poster. The topic should be researchable and preferably (but not necessarily) related to your major.

Your audience for this project is web users. Your presentation of the topic should keep your audience's interest, and if possible, leave them intrigued or inspired. Your visual design should be innovative and creative.

By the end of the semester, you will present your project in class.

You can work on this project individually, with a partner, or in groups of three or four.

Effective Mathematics Instruction
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Abstract

An effective and coherent mathematics program should be guided by a clear set of content standards, but it must be grounded in a clear and shared vision of teaching and learning – the two critical reciprocal actions that link teachers and students and largely determine educational impact. While curriculum, materials, professional development, assessment and cultivating broad programmatic support are all necessary components of the educational enterprise, they have little real impact unless they are effectively enacted in each and every classroom where learning is facilitated, supported and maximized. Accordingly, to ground and guide the development and implementation of a highly effective educational institution mathematics program for all students, we describe a research-based vision of teaching and learning with several interrelated characteristics of effective instruction in mathematics. The work presents some new ideas and developments of major importance to practitioners working in the field of mathematical education, seeks to improve the education of mathematics teachers, tries to develop teaching methods and shows the role of modeling and applications in everyday mathematics teaching. It is hoped that this vision will define and inspire excellence in classroom where mathematics is taught and learned.

Introduction

Teaching and Learning is not an easy task but rather it is a complex process. Each student is an individual with a unique personality. Students acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes at different times, rates and ways. Academic standards in mathematics require students to apply computational skills in a variety of real-life problem-solving situations, read and solve word problems, communicate their mathematical thinking, and collaborate with their peers to complete a task. Mathematics knowledge enriches our understanding and enables us to communicate and make sense of our experiences. By doing mathematics we can solve a range of practical tasks and real-life problems. We can work on problems within mathematics and we can work on problems that use mathematics as a tool, like problems in science, statistics and engineering. Mathematics can describe and explain but it can also predict what might happen. Learning skills and remembering facts in mathematics are important but they are only the means to an end. Facts and skills are not important in themselves. They are important when we need them to solve a problem. Students will remember facts and skills easily when they use them to solve real problems. As well as using mathematics to solve real-life problems, students should also be taught about the different parts of mathematics, and how they fit together. Mathematics can be taught using a step-by-step approach to a topic but it is important to show that many topics are linked. It is also important to show students that mathematics is done all over the world. Mathematics requires a conceptual understanding of a mathematical process in order to choose the correct operation(s) and perform the necessary steps to derive an answer. Some mathematical concepts can be very concrete, while others are abstract. Thinking mathematically consists of thinking in a logical manner, formulating and testing conjectures, making sense of things, and forming and justifying judgments, inferences, and conclusions. A set of basic assumptions about teaching and schooling practices is implicit in this reform movement. First, all students must have an opportunity to learn new mathematical skills and applications. Second, all students have the capacity to learn more mathematics than we have traditionally assumed. Third, new applications and changes in technology have changed the instructional importance of some mathematics concepts. Fourth, new instructional environments can be created through the use of technological tools. Fifth, meaningful mathematics learning is a product of purposeful engagement and interaction which builds on prior experience.

The identified areas of agreement are based on three fundamental premises; basic skills with numbers continue to be important and students need proficiency with computational procedures, mathematics requires careful reasoning about precisely defined objects and concepts, and students must be able to formulate and solve problems. Mathematics should be taught using multiple strategies, however, the teacher is responsible for selecting the strategies appropriate for a specific concept. Mathematics teachers must understand the underlying meaning and justifications for ideas and be able to make connections among topics.

Standards-Based Mathematics. Standards-based instruction in mathematics is designed to clearly identify what students should learn at each level. Standards provide more than a curriculum framework as they learn the

skills, concepts and knowledge that are to be mastered. For successful standards-based implementation, teachers must understand the rationale for using standards, know applicable national and international standards and use them as a basis for planning instruction, and implement best practices instructional strategies. Essential characteristics of an effective standards-based mathematics classroom include: Lessons designed to address specific standards-based concepts or skills. Student centered learning activities. Inquiry and problem solving focused lessons. Critical thinking and knowledge application skills. Adequate time, space, and materials to complete tasks. Varied, continuous assessment, designed to evaluate both student progress and teacher effectiveness. The implementation of a standards-based math curriculum brings with it some special challenges. In addition to ensuring students are actively engaged, teachers should adhere to the guidelines: Create a safe environment where students feel comfortable. Establish clear procedures and routines. Provide both challenge and support. Use carefully assigned and well-managed cooperative groups. Make frequent real life connections. Use an integrated curriculum. Provide engaging educational experiences that are relevant to students.

Best Practices. The list of the most significant principles related to mathematics teaching and learning, includes the expectations that teachers know what students need to learn based on what they know, teachers ask questions focused on developing conceptual understanding, experiences and prior knowledge provide the basis for learning mathematics with understanding, students provide written justification for problem solving strategies, problem based activities focus on concepts and skills, and that the mathematics curriculum emphasizes conceptual understanding. Concurrently, the forthcoming best practices for implementing effective standards based on math lessons should be followed: Students' engagement is at a high level. Tasks are built on students' prior knowledge. Strategy takes place, making connections to concepts, procedures, and understanding. High-level performance is modeled. Students are expected to explain thinking and meaning. Students self-monitor their progress. Appropriate amount of time is devoted to tasks. The role of discovery and practice and the use of concrete materials are two additional topics that must be considered when developing a program directed at improving mathematics achievement. A program must be balanced between the practice of skills and methods previously learned and new concept discovery. This discovery of new concepts, they suggest, facilitates a deeper understanding of mathematical connections. It is suggested that when applied appropriately, the long-term use of manipulative appears to increase mathematics achievement and improve student attitudes toward mathematics.

The utilization of manipulative materials helps students understand mathematical concepts and processes, increases thinking flexibility, provides tools for problem-solving, and can reduce math anxiety for some students. Teachers using manipulative must intervene frequently to ensure a focus on the underlying mathematical ideas, must account for the "contextual distance" between the manipulative being used and the concept being taught, and take care not to overestimate the instructional impact of their use.It is also suggested that the development of practical meaning for mathematical concepts is enhanced through the use of manipulative. It is further suggested that the use of manipulative must be long term and meaningfully focused on mathematical concepts. The technology can be used as an essential tool for effective mathematics learning. Using technology appropriately can extend both the scope of content and range of problem situations available to students. It is recommended that students and teachers have access to a variety of instructional technology tools, teachers be provided with appropriate professional development, the use of instructional technology be integrated across all curricula and courses, and that teachers make informed decisions about the use of technology in mathematics instruction.

Professional Development. The training and preparation received by many current teachers did not prepare them to address the new student performance standards which stress higher-order thinking and analytical skills and require teachers to teach the use of critical thinking, problem solving and inquiry. Teachers are not able to teach what they do not know. Consequently, the role of professional development in assuring quality teaching for experienced teachers is critical. Professional learning needs to give teachers and professors the skills to support students' mastery of nations' academic standards; enhance the content knowledge of teachers in their teaching subjects; be integrated into overall college and university improvement plans; be research based; align with national and international student standards; and be sustained, intensive, and focused on classroom practice.

Characteristics of Effective Mathematics Instruction. Effective mathematics instruction:
• is focused on having students make sense of mathematics;
• is based on problem solving and investigation of important mathematical concepts;
• begins with the student's understanding and knowledge of the topic;
• includes students as active rather than passive participants in their learning;

• has students communicate and investigate their thinking through ongoing discussion;
• includes all students, whether in the choice of problems or in the communication of mathematical ideas;
• incorporates ongoing assessment of student understanding to guide future instruction.

Effective mathematics instruction must include a variety and a balance of pedagogical approaches. The type of instruction outlined in the list above is missing in traditional mathematics instruction, in which the teacher poses a problem, explains the process of solution in small, atomized steps, and then has students practice more of the same. Such instruction has provided insufficient evidence for generating a deep understanding of mathematics for all. Many students may develop procedural fluency, but they often lack the deep conceptual understanding necessary to solve new problems or make connections between mathematical ideas. Students cannot simply receive knowledge from the teacher and understand it in the way that the teacher thinks about it. "A teacher's goal is to help students understand mathematics; yet understanding is something that one cannot teach directly. No matter how kindly, clearly, patiently, or slowly teachers explain, they cannot *make* students understand."

Cooperative Learning of Mathematics. Cooperative learning has been debated by educators for a long time and continues to be questioned today. Many educators feel that cooperative learning strips students of the benefits of direct instruction. Proponents of homogeneous learning tend to stray from cooperative learning because it seems to deprive gifted students of learning with their gifted peers. My conclusions are summarized that look at different aspects of cooperative learning: effects with the learning disabled, the advantage of helping behaviors, math achievement, strategic reading in groups, social support, and heterogeneous vs. homogeneous grouping. The teacher should be a strong supporter, and user, of cooperative learning. The teacher should know that students best learn from the modeling of those they can relate to most: their peers. After reviewing these studies the teacher will not only be able to gain a better understanding of what might be needed to strengthen cooperative learning in the education of his students, but he will also feel validated in his use of cooperative learning as an effective learning tool. While some of the researchers did reject initial hypotheses, all of them showed value in the practice of cooperative learning. It is important to teach students how to work cooperatively, model good helping behaviors, and help students to receive not only strong academic support but strong social support as well.

Mathematics Instruction and Assessment. It is suggested that the impact of standards in establishing external assessment expectations is profound. Understanding these standards and their related assessments allows teachers to plan and adjust instruction accordingly. Effective assessment of mathematics learning must be performance-based, use multiple strategies and employ more open-ended assessment tasks than have been used in the past. Effective assessment practices are essential to support mathematics instruction that produces improved student performance. Despite these pressures, mathematics teachers must resist the tendency to rely on the results of standardized tests only to measure student performance in mathematics. Assessment in a standards-based environment requires that students be judged in terms of mathematical literacy, understanding of concepts and procedures, and the application of mathematical knowledge in problem-solving situations. Since most traditional assessment strategies were not designed for these purposes, new assessment models must be developed. The computations and definitions, tasks requiring that connections be made to solve problems and tasks requiring higher level mathematical thinking and analysis. Assessment strategies can be classified as diagnostic, formative or summative. The manner in which teachers use assessment in their instruction is a major variable in determining student achievement. Diagnostic assessment strategies are focused on assessing students' prior knowledge, strengths, weaknesses and skill levels. Formative assessments are directed at providing immediate feedback and evidence of student performance. Summative assessments are more comprehensive and are typically administered at the end of a specific unit or timeframe. Assessment strategies can also be characterized as traditional or alternative in nature. Multiple choice, true/false or matching tests represent traditional approaches to assessment, whereas, strategies such as portfolios, journal writing, student self-assessment, and performance tools may be considered alternative assessment strategies. Traditional and alternative assessments may be used for diagnostic, formative or summative purposes.

Teaching Philosophy. Throughout my teaching career, I have had the opportunity to interact with students at all stages of life, from grade school to college and post-degree, both in classroom and one-on-one settings. The insights I gained into how students learn have helped make me the teacher that I am. In my experience, the three biggest obstacles to learning are a student's belief that math is boring, math is impossible, or math is irrelevant. Therefore, my teaching philosophy is threefold. Make math interesting. In order for a student to succeed in a subject, that subject must engage him or her. Mathematics is too often taught as a cold, distant science with an endless list of formulas and seemingly no connection between topics. I bring excitement and a

storyline to my classes, using energy and enthusiasm to teach ideas while guiding students along a path where each new concept a natural consequence of the previous and a natural precursor to achieve the objectives. Make math possible. Even I have to admit that math is not always easy. But when presented in the right way, math is not the Leviathan that it is often made out to be. By learning theorems well, calculating examples that illustrate concepts, and studying difficult cases that need special attention, students can tackle any problem. I remind my students that while a problem may be long, they have all the tools needed to solve it. Make math relevant. Perhaps the most difficult challenge to overcome is that of student apathy toward the subject. On more than one occasion, I have had a student raise a hand in class to ask, "When will I ever need this?" not believing that what he or she is learning will be of any use beyond the course final. To respond, I stress that mathematics does have a profound impact our daily lives. While everyone agrees math does have a practical purpose, students will often point to the more tedious calculations as proof of math's irrelevance. More importantly, mathematics is beautiful. A well-constructed proof, a simple trick to solve a problem, this is the beauty of mathematics. Mathematics can be viewed as an art form, a majestic work worthy of admiration. If the student sees math as not only a means to an end but an end in itself, they develop respect and admiration for the subject.

Teaching Style. The teachers' goal in his classroom is to have a lively, open, and educational environment. On the first day of class, he should emphasize class participation. Students are often hesitant in asking questions, perhaps afraid of disrupting class, or afraid that their teacher, or worse, their peers, will view them as stupid. As a matter of fact questions are an important part of the learning process. As the teacher, it is especially critical to know when the students are not understanding, so teacher can try explaining the topic in a different way. A related concept is a willingness to answer questions, even if incorrectly. The teacher should remind his students that it is okay to be wrong sometimes. Being wrong is a natural part of learning, and while one shouldn't encourage making the same mistakes over and over, many times the best way to learn the right answer is by saying the wrong one. Class participation is only possible if the teacher is approachable. If the teacher seems indifferent to the plight of the student, he or she will not ask questions and as a result will struggle throughout the course. It is teachers' job to be inviting, ensuring that the student knows that the teacher is available to help with any problem he or she may have. Consequently the best way for students to learn math is to do math. Proving theorems in class is an important aspect of learning, but doing math for oneself is also an irreplaceable part of the learning process. This means assigning homework that is relevant and instructive, but also means working out examples in class, showing problem-solving techniques, and making mistakes, getting stuck, and trying different strategies. This combination of the theoretical and the practical brings a mathematical concept to light.

Exposition Method. Good expository teaching involves a clear and proper sequenced explanation of the idea or concept by the teacher. Usually, there is some teacher-student questioning and the teacher is required to handle the situation with patience. Careful planning is required – go from what students know – each stage of development should be understood before the next is begun. All teachers would find useful ideas from GAGNE – Teaching begins at the lowest level which serves as a prerequisite for a higher level. BRUNER – Math is rep. in at least 3 ways – enactive, iconic, symbolic. DIENES – (dynamic principle) play should be incorporated in the teaching of math concepts. This has effective implications including fast and efficient way of giving information and it is relatively easy to organize and often requires little teacher preparation. It is possible for teacher to motivate students with enthusiastic and lively discussion. The lecture can be regulated according to the students' response. We should be aware of its limitations including poor expository teaching leads to passive learners, retention and transfer of learning may be curtailed and it does not adequately cater to individual differences. It can be, and generally is, teacher dominated rather than student-centered.

Guided Discovery. Guided discovery usually involves the teacher presenting a series of structured situations to the students. The students then study these situation in order to discover some concept or generalization. As opposed to exposition, the learner is not told the rule or generalization by the teacher and then asked to practice similar problems. Instead students are asked to identify the rule or generalization. Not all students find it easy to 'discover' under all circumstances and this may lead to frustration and lack of interest in the activity. To avoid this, it may be necessary to have formulas available with additional clues. These clues will assist the students, through guidance, to discover the rule or generalization. Certainly it is time consuming for teacher to organize and some students may never discover the concepts or principles. It demands a fair amount of expertise from the teacher.

Problem Solving. The ability to solve problems is at the heart of mathematics. Mathematics is only 'useful' to the extent to which it can be applied to particular situation and it is the ability to apply mathematics to a variety of situation to which we give the name 'problem solving'.In many mathematics sessions, learners apply a single

taught method to a variety of questions. It is comparatively rare to find sessions that aim to compare a range of methods for tackling a few problems. Many learners are left with the feeling that if they do not know 'the right method' then they cannot even begin to attempt a problem. Others are stuck with methods that, while generating correct answers, are inefficient and inflexible. These activities are designed to allow learners to compare and discuss alternative solution strategies to problems, thus increasing their confidence and flexibility in using mathematics. When 'stuck', they become more inclined to 'have a go' and try something. They thus become more powerful problem solvers. These activities require learners to examine a complete solution and identify and correct errors. The activity may also invite the learner to write advice to the person who made the error. This puts the learner in a critical, advisory role. Often the errors that are exhibited are symptomatic of common misconceptions. In correcting these, therefore, learners have to confront and comment on alternative ways of thinking.

Investigations. The idea of an Investigation is fundamental both to the study of math and also to the understanding of the ways in which math can be used to extend knowledge and to solve problems. An investigation is a form of discovery where students will define their own problems, set procedures and try to solve them. In the end, it is crucial for the students to discuss not only the outcomes of the investigation but also the process pursued in trying to pin down the problem and find answers to the problem. As opposed to the guided discovery lesson where the objectives are clear. An investigation often covers a broad area of math objectives and include activities which may have more than one correct answer. More able students can develop their creativity doing investigations and can perform well in learning mathematics effectively.

Acknowledgment

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Why Pakistani learners cannot acquire English voiced stops?

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Abstract

This study focuses on acquisition of voiced alveolar stop [d] by adult Pakistani learners of English. The L1 of the participants is Saraiki which has pre-voiced stops. Three groups of learners, one from London and two from Pakistan, and a control group of native speakers of English were recorded for acoustic analyses. The analyses reveal that all the L2 learners including those living in London produced English [d] with negative VOT on the pattern of the L1. This shows a strong equivalence classification between the L2 and the corresponding L1 sounds. The findings confirm that it is very difficult for speakers of voicing languages to acquire voiced stops of aspiration languages. The results are analyzed in light of the predictions of the speech learning model (Flege, 1995) of second language acquisition and element theory (Backley, 2011).

Introduction

        Languages of the world are divided into voicing and aspiration languages. English is an aspiration language and Urdu, Dutch, Arabic, etc. are voicing languages. Previous research shows that acquisition of voiced stops (e.g. /b d g/) of aspiration languages are difficult for the speakers of voicing languages. The participants of this study speak Saraiki which is a voicing language (Syed, 2013c). The study aims to find out if English voiced stop [d] is similarly difficult for Saraiki learners, and why? Keeping in view the importance of English in Pakistani society, the study is very significant since it addresses one of the difficulties that adult Pakistani learners are expected to face in acquisition of English consonants. It may be helpful in identifying and finding solution of some of the problems faced by Pakistani learners in acquisition of English consonants.

        This paper is divided into five sections. Section 1 is based on theoretical background to this study. In this section, the relevant terms like 'equivalence classification' and 'voice onset time' are briefly introduced. Besides, a brief introduction to the 'element theory' and an introduction to laryngeal settings of the L2 (second language i.e. English) and L1 (mother tongue i.e. Saraiki) of the participants of this study are also part of this section. Section 2 presents a very brief review of some previous studies from the existing literature relevant to the current context. In this section, we recapitulate the findings of the previous studies on acquisition of VOT[1] of English stops by Dutch (Simon, 2009) and Saraiki (Syed, 2013c) speakers. In light of the previous literature, we shall develop hypotheses for the current study. Section 3 is about the research methodology used in the study. In this section are the details of the participants, tools of data collection and data analysis techniques. Section 4 describes results which are analysed and discussed in section 5. The discussion and analysis is done in light of the speech learning model and element theory. The paper ends with conclusion in section 6.

Introduction

    In this section, we shall briefly define the concept of equivalence classification and voice onset time. A brief introduction of the element theory and laryngeal settings of Saraiki (L1) and English (L2) are also given in this section.

Equivalence classification

        The concept of equivalence classification was first given by Flege (1987) which was later on confirmed by Flege (1995) and his colleagues (MacKay, Flege, Piske, & Schirru, 2001). On the basis of empirical studies, Flege (1995) developed what is now called speech learning model (hereafter SLM). The equivalence classification hypothesis is part of the speech learning model. In the current study, we are concerned with only equivalence classification, so we shall not go into the details of the speech learning model but only focus on the concept of equivalence classification. In the words of Flege (1995:39), for developing a separate phonetic representation for a new or similar sound of L2, learners should perceive some phonetic difference between L2 and the closest L1 sound. If L2 learners perceive such a difference, there is some likelihood that they would develop a new separate phonetic representation for the L2 sound. But if they do not perceive a phonetic difference between the L2 and the closest L1 sound, they will develop equivalence classification between the two sounds which will totally block the development of a new phonetic category for the L2 sound. In case of equivalence classification, the L2 learners develop a single category for both L1 and L2 sounds which may be like L1 sound or between L1 and L2 sound. If the learners develop a phonetic category

for an L2 and the closest L1 sound which is phonetically between the two sounds, such a situation is called merger situation (Flege & Eefting, 1988). The idea of merger only holds if we assume that phonetic categories of L1 and L2 sounds are developed in the same mental space of L2 learners. This point will be duly addressed in section 5.

Equivalence classification may also exist between two L2 sounds. The most common example of such equivalence classification is between [v] and [w] in the L2 phonemic inventories of Pakistani and Indian learners of English who cannot see the difference between English [v] and [w] (Gargesh, 2004; Khalid, 2011; Mahboob & Ahmar, 2004; Rahman, 1991; Sailaja, 2009). Therefore, Pakistani and Indian learners develop a single representation for both [v w] sounds of English. Such a pair of sound is also called a single category type or category goodness type of sound pair (Best, 1994, 1995). In case of equivalence classification between two L2 sounds, there is a strong probability of communication gap. For example, if an adult Pakistani learner of English does not perceive the difference between [v] and [w], s/he will most probably confuse words like 'wine' and 'vine' etc. Similarly, native speakers of English will also feel difficulty to perceive the difference between such minimal pairs of words spoken by the learners who cannot maintain a difference between [v] and [w].

Another kind of equivalence exists between an L2 and the corresponding L1 sound. An example of such equivalence classification is between English alveolar [d] and retroflex [ɖ] or between English dental fricatives [θ ð] and dental stops [t̪ d̪], respectively, in the phonemic inventories of Pakistani learners of English (Rahman, 1990, 1991). The similar equivalence classification is also observed in the phonemic inventory of Indian speakers of English. In such equivalence classification, the process of communication is not blocked but only pronunciation of L2 learners is perceived as accented or deviated from that of native speakers of the L2.

Two types of equivalence classification have been identified namely, 'weak' and 'strong' equivalence classification. In strong equivalence classification, there is no learning or improvement in learners, because they consider an L2 sound as a strong exemplar of the corresponding L1 sound (Best 1995). On the other hand, in case of weak equivalence classification, learners perceive some difference between two sounds but they do not perceive this difference bigger enough to develop separate representations for both sounds. In case of weak equivalence classification, some improvement is expected in L2 learners (Best 1994, 1995).

Vis-à-vis equivalence classification, the speech learning model also gives the idea of establishment of a new phonetic category for L2 sounds. According to the model, if L2 learners do not perceive enough difference between an L2 and the corresponding L1 sounds, they develop (weak or strong) equivalence classification between the two sounds. On the other hand, if they perceive the difference between the two sounds, they develop separate phonetic representations for those sounds. These are two extremes in a learning situation. According to the SLM, a new phonetic category established by an L2 learner may be a little deflected away from that of monolingual speaker of the L2 (Flege, 1995). Thus, the model accepts that even after successful learning of an L2, speech of adult L2 learners may be accented. Sometimes, learners develop a category of an L2 sound which is between the L2 and the corresponding L1 sound. The learners use this category for both the L1 and the L2 sound. This is called merger situation (Flege, 1987). An example of merger situation was identified by Flege which showed that French learners of English acquired VOT values for French and English stops which were between French and English VOT values. We come across the following five possible learning outcomes in the above discussion.

➢ First, strong equivalence classification with no learning at all,
➢ second, weak equivalence classification with a little improvement in learners,
➢ third, a merger situation,
➢ fourth, establishment of a new phonetic category for L2 sound which is a little deflected away from monolingual speakers' categories (near native-like accuracy), and
➢ finally, quite native-like acquisition of L2 sound as a result of establishment of a new phonetic category which is not deflected away from that of native speakers of L2 (naive-like accuracy).

Voice onset time

Lisker and Abramson (1964) are considered to be the first to elaborate the concept of voice onset time (hereafter VOT). VOT is most prominent of the acoustic cues for plosives. Plosives, also called stops, are phonemes which are produced with a burst of noise. In production of plosives, the active and passive articulators come in contact and remain in the same position for a while. That is why they are called stops. Afterwards, the articulators separate with a burst of noise that is why they are called plosives. Examples of stops or plosives in English are /p t k/ consonants. In the L2 literature, acquisition of stops is normally studied through acoustic analysis of voice onset time.

In the words of Docherty (1992), voice onset time is the interval between onset of a periodic noise of the vocal fold vibration for the following vowel and the burst of a stop. It is calculated in milliseconds. Three different ranges of VOT have been reported by Lisker and Abramson (1964, 1967) namely, short-lag VOT, long-lag VOT and lead-voicing or negative VOT. If vocal folds of a speaker start vibrating for the following vowel shortly after the burst of the stop, such a VOT is called short-lag VOT, and the sound is normally considered phonologically voiceless unaspirated. The VOT of unaspirated voiceless stops is normally below 35 milliseconds. English [b d g] and unaspirated [p t k] are examples of stops with short-lag VOT. If the vocal folds of a speaker start vibrating for the following vowel long after the burst of the stop, such a stop is considered to have a long-lag VOT and the sound produced is phonologically aspirated voiceless stop. The VOT of aspirated voiceless stops is normally above 40 milliseconds. English [pʰ tʰ kʰ] are examples of stops with long-lag VOT.

There is a third type of stops called pre-voiced or truly voiced stops. In the production of truly voiced stops, vibration of the vocal folds starts before the burst. This is called pre-voicing and is always measured in negative values (hence the term negative VOT).

Most of the languages of Indo-Aryan family like Saraiki, Sindhi, Urdu, Hindi and those of Indo-Iranian family like Pashto and Balochi have truly voiced stops.[2] Languages of the world are sometimes categorically divided into voicing and aspiration languages (Backley, 2011; Harris, 1994; Iverson & Salmons, 1995). The voicing languages differentiate between voiced and voiceless stops on the basis of negative or positive VOT and the aspiration languages differentiate between voiced and voiceless stops on account of short-lag and long-lag positive VOT. The examples of voicing languages are Saraiki (Syed, 2013c), Arabic (Flege & Port, 1981), Dutch (Simon, 2009, 2011), Japanese (Nasukawa, 2010) and those of aspiration languages are English (Honeybone, 2005), German (Hamann, 2011), Swedish, Korean, Icelandic (Phillip Backley, 2011), etc.

L1 and L2 Laryngeal Setting

English differentiates between voiced and voiceless sounds on the basis of voice onset time. In English, like other world languages, the VOT of voiceless aspirated stops is longer than that of the voiced stops. However, the VOT of unaspirated stop [t] and that of voiced stop [d] is similar in English. On the other hand, in Saraiki (the L1 of the participants of this study), the voiceless unaspirated stops have short-lag VOT like English [t], but unlike English, the voiced stops are pre-voiced in Saraiki. The following figure adopted from Syed (2012) shows the VOT of English [d] and the corresponding Saraiki plosive.

Figure 1: English and Saraiki stops[3]
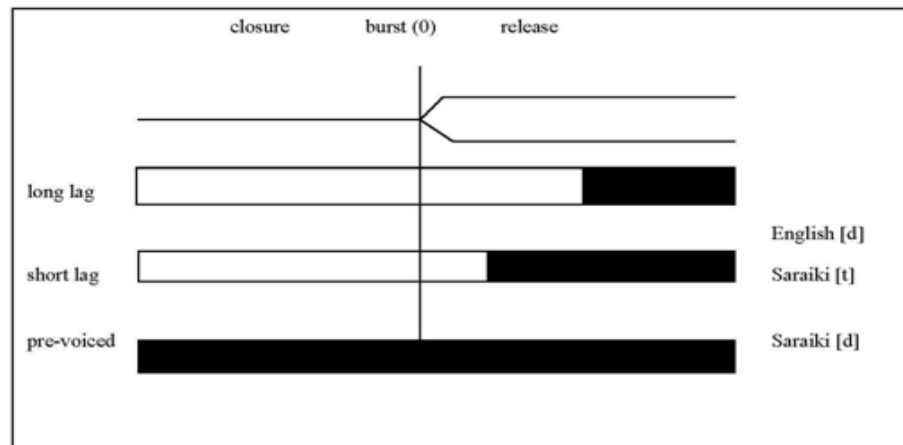
Figure 1 shows that English [d] and Saraiki [t] have similar VOT ranges but unlike English [d], the corresponding voiced stop is produced with pre-voicing in Saraiki. Since the current study only focuses on acquisition of English [d] by Pakistani learners, we shall compare the nature of English [d] and the corresponding L1 sounds. English [t] does not make part of this study.

English has alveolar [d] whereas corresponding to this, Pakistani languages have two coronal plosives, namely dental [d̪] and retroflex [ɖ]. In feature geometry language (Clements & Hume, 1995), English [d] is [+anterior, -distributed]. On the other hand, dental [d̪] is [+anterior, +distributed] and retroflex [ɖ] is [-anterior, -distributed]. It has already been reported (Syed, 2013a; Syed & Kula, 2012) that the feature-based differences between L1 and L2 coronal sounds also contribute in the acquisition of VOT of English plosives. It is also established that most Pakistani learners of English equate English [d] with the L1 retroflex consonant (Rahman, 1990, 1991; Syed, 2012). In the current study, we shall mainly focus on how phonetic differences between the L1 and L2 voiced coronal plosive affect acquisition the L2 plosive. The analysis will be done using element theory.

Element Theory

What makes a natural class of sounds has been a debated question for phonologists during past few decades. In the words of Botma, Kula and Nasukawa (2011, p. 33), 'Sounds which form a natural class are assumed to share some properties or combination of properties to the exclusion of other properties'. In the past, labels like 'feature' (Chomsky & Halle, 1968) 'element' (Harris & Lindsey, 1995; Kaye, Lowenstamm, & Vergnaud, 1985) 'component' (Anderson & Ewen, 1987; Hulst, 1995) or 'particles' (Schane, 1984) have been used for such properties. Among all these, the concept of 'feature' as the basic property of sound is most popular. Different models of feature geometry have been developed (Clements & Hume, 1995; McCarthy, 1988; Rice & Avery, 1993; Sagey, 1986, etc.) to explain the universal nature of sounds and their classification. Most of the models of feature geometry assume binary values of features like [±voice]. One of the main objections that the critics of features raise is against the binarity of features. Binarity may not be empirically justified for the feature [nasal], because there is no solid evidence that feature [-nasal] is active in the world languages since all non-nasal sounds do not seem to make a single class.

The position that the basic properties or 'primes' are privative or monovalent is upheld by the proponents of the following different schools of phonology;

➢ Dependency phonology (Anderson & Ewen, 1987)
➢ Government phonology (Kaye et al., 1985)
➢ Particle phonology (Schane, 1984)
➢ Radical CV phonology (Hulst, 1995)
➢ Element theory (Phillip Backley, 2011; Harris, 1994).

In the current discussion, our main concern is with the Element theory (hereinafter ET) which assumes 'elements' as the basic properties or primes of sounds. ET, therefore, assumes that features are privative or single-valued. In Element theory, elements are alternative to features. Kula (2002), Botma (Botma, 2004), Scheer (2004) and Backley and Nasukawa (2009a, 2009b) provide the latest approaches to the element based representation of sounds.

Compared with the feature geometric approach, the element based approach is governed by the principle of economy in that the ET uses lesser number of elements than the features geometries do. For example, in some of the feature geometric models, the number of features exceeds 30 whereas the use of more than 20 features is quite common practice in different models of feature geometry. On the other hand, ET uses as less as six elements which are |A I U H L ʔ|. For place of articulation A, I and U represent velar, coronal and labial place, respectively, and for vowels A represents [a], I represents [i] and U represents [u] vowel. Sounds produced with front of the tongue are called coronal sounds (e.g. /t d/, those produced with lips are called labials (e.g. /p b/ and the ones produced with the back of the tongue (e.g. /k g/ as active articulator and velum as passive articulator are called velar or dorsal sounds.

Mostly, the elements are used in combination because sounds have compound elements. For example, [e] is a combination of I and A elements. In this combination, I is dominant whereas A is dependent. Therefore, I is a head element and A is dependent in [e]. These sounds are compounds of elements which have dependency and headedness relations. The head element is always dominant in a combination and is expressed as underlined. For example, the vowel [e] will be represented as |I̱ A| and [ɛ] will represented as |I A̱| because A element is headed in the vowel [ɛ]. For details see Botma (2004), Harris and Lindsey (1995), etc.

Another important way in which ET differs from the SPE (Chomsky & Halle, 1968) based feature geometric approach is that the feature geometry assumes that phonology is based on production of sounds whereas ET assumes that phonology is based on perception of sounds. ET gets supports from the process of language acquisition which starts with phonetic perception of sounds. Thus, ET studies sounds on the basis of their acoustic nature.

Literature Review

In this section, findings of three studies are very briefly quoted on the subject under discussion. The main purpose of the review is to highlight that regardless of family of language or location, it is a world-wide phenomenon that speakers of voicing languages face equal difficulty in acquisition of VOT for plosives of aspiration language. As discussed above, Dutch is a voicing language which has truly voiced stops. Dutch has voiced stops which are produced with pre-voicing and voiceless unaspirated stops which are produced with short-lag VOT. It does not have voiceless aspirated stops with long-lag VOT. Simon (2009) studied acquisition of aspiration contrast in English plosives by a group of sixteen advanced Dutch learners. The experiment was based on word-reading and spontaneous conversation task. The results show that the participants were successful in acquiring English aspirated stops in word-reading task but they could not acquire English voiced stops with native-like short-lag VOT. They had rather produced English voiced stops as pre-voiced stops of their L1.

Syed (2013a) studied acquisition of allophonic variance in English plosives by two groups of adult Pakistani learners of English who spoke Saraiki as L1. Each of the groups comprised of 30 participants. One of the groups of participants was settled in London and the other was in Pakistan. The participants were similar in their social, academic and linguistic backgrounds. The only difference was that one group of the participants had moved to London after graduation and had been living there for an average of six years. They were receiving input from native speakers of English. The findings of the study show that both groups of participants were very good in acquisition of English voiceless unaspirated stops. However, in the acquisition of aspirated allophones of English voiceless stops, the London-based participants showed better results than the Pakistan-based participants. Overall, the participants of both groups had acquired English aspirated and unaspirated velar plosives.

In another experiment, Syed (2013b) studied acquisition of English voiced stops [b g] by three groups of learners who had different types of input available to them. The participants of one group (n=16) were teachers in Pakistan and those of another group were students of MA English in Pakistan (n=30) and were receiving input from their teachers. A third group of participants (n=28) was settled in Essex (United Kingdom) and was receiving native input. All of them spoke Saraiki as the L1. English has voiced stops which are produced with short-lag VOT whereas Saraiki has voiced stops which are produced with pre-voicing. Acoustic analyses of the productions of the participants show that all of them (including the UK-based group) had produced English voiced stops [b g] with pre-voicing on the pattern of their L1.

The review of the above studies shows that it is relatively easier for adult learners of a voicing language to acquire voiceless plosives of an aspiration language but it is very difficult for them to acquire voiced plosives of the aspiration language. In the current study, the participants speak a voicing language (Saraiki which has pre-voiced stops), who are learning English (an aspiration language) which has voiced stops with short-lag VOT. The study focuses only on acquisition of English [d] by adult Pakistani learners.

Research Methodology

Four groups of participants were asked to produce along with some other words of English, the word 'deal' six times, thrice in a carrier sentence 'I say deal again' and three times as exclusive word. Two groups of the participants were from Pakistan and two from London. The VOT of [d] in the word 'deal' was measured using Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2012). Each of the participants had produced the target word six times. Therefore, we obtained total six VOT values from each of the participants. The VOT values were averaged for further analysis.

The Pakistan-based groups were selected from southern Punjab. 18 of them were doing MA English in a post-graduate college and 16 of the participants were teachers in the same college. However, the teachers were teaching subjects different from English. None of the participants of the 'teacher' group was teaching English or was MA in English language, linguistics or literature. The two Pakistan-based groups of participants will be called 'teacher' and 'student' group in the following discussion.

The participants from London were also from two different communities. 28 of them were Pakistanis who after graduating from Pakistan had migrated to London and had been living there for an average of six years at the time of data collection. They had arrived in the UK at an average age of 26 years. They all were born in southern Punjab and had received early education from there. Another group from London was of 22 native speakers of English (NE) who were selected as a control group. All three groups of Pakistani learners (two from Pakistan and one from London) were homogenous in the sense that they had graduated from the similar type of educational institutions in Pakistan. The difference among the learners' groups of participants was that after graduation, the UK-based participants migrated to London and the 'teacher' group started teaching

in Pakistan whereas the 'student' group started doing MA English in a Pakistani University in southern Punjab. In a way, all three groups had been involved in speaking/listening or reading/writing English since they obtained their first degree. The teacher group of participants were involved in reading writing English on account of their teaching profession. The student group of participants were doing MA English and the UK-based learners had direct contact with native speakers of English. The UK-based learners will be considered advanced learners in this study. Although the sources of input were different for all groups, but they had been educated and brought up in the same social, linguistic and educational background. All three groups of participants speak Saraiki as their L1.

A written permission for collection of data and using the same for research purpose was obtained from the participants. A questionnaire was also served to all of them for eliciting information about their linguistic and educational background. Some of the details obtained from the participants are given in the following table.
Table 1: Details of the participants

Group	Particulars	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	St. Dev.
Advanced Learners No.=28	Age (years)	21.00	59.00	32.64	6.92
	Speaking English (hour/day)	2.00	12.00	5.89	2.90
	Listening English (hour/day)	1.00	14.00	5.75	3.59
Student Learners No.=18	Age (years)	19.00	29.00	23.67	6.70
	Speaking English (hour/day)	1.00	5.00	1.78	1.22
	Listening English (hour/day)	1.00	6.00	3.44	1.46
Teachers No.=16	Age (years)	23.00	44.00	31.63	7.27
	Speaking English (hour/day)	00	4.00	1.19	1.33
	Listening English (hour/day)	00	5.00	1.25	1.44
NE[4] No.=22	Age (years)	18	68	42.17	19.66

Table 1 shows the age of the participants and the number of hours they speak and listen to English in a day. The UK-based learners listen and speak English for a maximum number of hours. Among Pakistan-based participants, the student learners spend more time on listening to English than the teachers do.

Presentation of the data

Table 2 shows mean VOT values of English [d] produced by all the groups of participants. The results show that on average, all Pakistani learners of English including those living in London produced the target sound with negative VOT. On the other hand, all the native speakers of English produced it with short-lag VOT of 16.41 ms in both words and sentences.

Table 2: Mean VOT for English [d]

Group	Context	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	St. Dev.
Advanced Learners	Words	-194.00	42.33	**-83.45**	55.04
	Sentences	-150.33	27.00	**-53.90**	51.80
Student Learners	Words	-154.00	-40.33	**-107.70**	32.88
	Sentences	-118.33	26.00	**-48.67**	39.54
Teachers	Words	-137.33	-24.67	**-78.46**	29.53
	Sentences	-75.67	12.00	**-43.25**	25.71
Native Speakers	Words	03.00	25.00	**16.41**	4.90
	Sentences	12.00	31.00	**16.41**	5.12

A repeated measures analysis of variance confirms the effect of context (words & sentences) as significant ($F_{3,80}$=41.01, p<.001). The group variance is also strongly significant ($F_{3,\ 80}$=47.54, p<.001). However, post hoc Bonferroni comparisons show that only the NE (native English speakers) group was significantly different from all other groups, but there was no significant group variance among the three learners groups. The interaction between groups and context is also significant (F=5.10, p<.004).

The post hoc pair-wise comparisons of the above data clearly show that there is no difference between the three groups of participants who had different types of exposure to English. All of them produced English [d] with negative VOT in average. This shows they have only transferred their L1 VOT values for English [d].

In other words, there is a strong equivalence classification between the L1 and L2 voiced coronal sounds in the L2 phonemic inventory of the participants, since in their L1, voiced coronal stops are produced with negative VOT and the same they did in English.

For further confirmation of these results, we studied the results on the basis of individuals. Table 3 shows that the UK based participants produced the target sound 168 times (28 participants*6 repetitions) out of which only 8 in words and 6 in sentences were produced with positive VOT on the pattern of native speakers of English. The remaining productions of the target sound i.e. [d] were with negative VOT. Among the teachers group, only one participant produced two repetitions in words and two in sentences with positive VOT. The remaining 104 productions were with negative VOT. None of the student participants could produce even a single repetition with positive VOT. However, the native speakers of English produced all repetitions of English [d] with short-lag VOT. The following table shows these in detail.

Table 3: No. of times, [d] was produced accurately[5]

Group	Total Repetitions	Context	No.
Advanced Learners	28*6=168	Words	8
		Sentences	6
Student Learners	18*6=108	Words	2
		Sentences	2
Teachers	16*6=96	Words	0
		Sentences	0
Native Speakers (NE)	22*6=132	Words	66
		Sentences	66

Analysis and Discussion

In this section, the results of the study are analysed and discussed from two different angles. In § 5.1, the results are analysed in light of the phonotactics of English grammar which help native speakers of English to maintain the difference between voiced and voiceless unaspirated stops. The main phonotactics that native speakers of English use to differentiate between these two types of stops are complementary distribution between voiced and voiceless unaspirated stops and vowel lengthening before word-final voiced stops in English. In § 5.2, the results are analysed in light of the element theory.

Complementary distribution and vowel lengthening

The results show that Pakistani learners of English produce English [d] with negative VOT. Since their L1 voiced stops are also pre-voiced, it can be rightly claimed that there is a strong equivalence classification between the L2 and the corresponding L1 plosives. An important reason for the equivalence classification between English [d] and the corresponding pre-voiced stop of the L1 in the L2 phonemic inventory Pakistani learners is that the L1s of the Pakistani learners do not have such grammatical structure as English has. There are some phonotactics that English uses for differentiating voiced [d] and voiceless [t] namely, complementary distribution and vowel lengthening. English voiced stops and voiceless unaspirated stops of the same place of articulation have similar range of VOT. Phonetically, there is no major identifiable difference between the two English plosives i.e. [d] and [t]. Both are produced with short-lag VOT in average speech of most of the dialects of English (Docherty, 1992). There is a strong probability of confusion between the two sounds, but as mentioned earlier, English language manages to maintain the difference between the two sounds by exploiting phonotactics like complementary distribution and vowel lengthening.

Here is an example of complementarity between [d] and [t] in English. In English, no unaspirated stop ever occurs word-initially or in stressed position because voiceless stops are always aspirated word-initially and English unaspirated stops occur normally in 'st', 'sp' and 'sk' clusters in words like 'speak', steal or sky' etc. (Spencer, 1996, p. 5). In these positions, we do not find English voiced stops commonly. Thus, words like 'sdeal', 'sbeak' and sgi' are not commonly found in English. Thus, the complementary distribution between English voiced and voiceless unaspirated stops helps native speakers of English in maintaining the difference between the two phonemes ([d] and [t]), and native speakers of English do not face any problem of misperception of the one for the other. Thus, communication process continues without any major hindrance.

However, English voiceless unaspirated and voiced stops make minimal pairs in word-final position. For example, we have pairs of words like 'leak' and 'league' or 'neat,' and 'need', etc. In such pairs, English

speakers use vowel lengthening as an acoustic cue to maintain the difference between the two phonemes (Flege, 1993). In English native speech, a vowel before the voiced stops is always longer in duration than that before the voiceless ones. In this way, although both types of sounds are phonetically similar in English, they are identifiable for native speakers in the context on account of vowel lengthening. Therefore, native speakers of English do not face any problem in communication of words ending with voiced and voiceless unaspirated stops.

The difficulty for adult Pakistani learners of English arises because they do not learn these phonotactics of English grammar. While learning English, Pakistani learners only equate one sound of English with the corresponding sound of their L1. And if they perceive the difference between an L2 sound and the corresponding L1 sound, they only try to acquire the sounds without acquiring the phonotactics of English grammar. Actually, acquisition of a language means the acquisition of grammar of that language as whole along with all its phonotactics. A native speaker acquires English as L1 when his/her brain is a tabula rasa or a clean slate. S/he develops a grammar of English which defines phonetic categories for each of the phonemes of English. However, when an adult L2 learner of English starts learning it as second or foreign language in Pakistan, the environment is quite different. The adult has already acquired the grammar of his/her L1 as a whole. The L1 grammar always interferes in the acquisition of an L2 (Best, 1995; Flege, 1995; Lado, 1957, etc.) Besides, Pakistani learners acquire English as L2 in quite a different way. Most Pakistani languages have voiced stops which are produced with pre-voicing and voiceless unaspirated stops are produced with short-lag voicing. Thus, presence or absence of pre-voicing is one of the major acoustic cues which these languages use for differentiating between voiced and voiceless unaspirated stops. Therefore, on the one hand, Pakistani learners are unaware of the phonotactics which help native speakers of English in differentiating between [d] and [t], and on the other hand, they have voicing cues in their L1 which differentiates between these sounds. Resultantly, they use voicing as differentiating cues to maintain the contrast. That is why they produce English [d] as pre-voiced and [t] with short-lag VOT.

The equivalence classification between pre-voiced stops of the L1 with the voiced stops of English is an example of negative transfer and the equivalence classification between voiceless unaspirated stops of the L1 and L2 is an example of positive transfer in the L2 phonemic inventory of Pakistani learners of English. That is why Pakistani learners are never reported to face any difficulty in the production and perception of English voiceless unaspirated stops whereas they are often reported to face difficulty the acquisition of English voiced stops (Syed, 2013b) or voiceless aspirated stops (Rahman, 1991).

Since the equivalence classification between L1 voiced coronal plosive and the L2 [d] is very strong, there is no chance of improvement. Thus, pre-voiced stops of English have become a regular phenomenon of Pakistani English. It is so fossilized that it is part of phonemic inventory of Pakistani learners of English. Even those learners who live in English speaking countries also do not improve because they do not receive any negative or positive reinforcement from native speakers. This is because an English voiced stop produced as pre-voiced by Pakistani learners is quite understandable for native speakers of English. In some cases, native speakers are also reported to produce English voiced stops as pre-voiced (Docherty, 1992). In some words, almost all native speakers produce voiced stops as pre-voiced. The examples of such words are 'about, again, ahead', etc. in which voiced stops are flanked by voiced phonemes (vowels) on both sides. Thus, native speakers do not face any difficulty in correctly perceiving a voiced stop of English produced as pre-voiced by a Pakistani learner. A voiced stop of English produced as pre-voiced can only be perceived as a voiced stop. In the absence of any negative or positive reinforcement, there is no semantic pressure on the learners to amend themselves. As a result, they continue producing the voiced stops of English as pre-voiced even among native speakers.

ET-based analysis

These findings may be better explained in terms of element theory (Phillip Backley, 2011; Harris, 1994). From element theory point of view, sounds are constituted of elements (Bert Botma et al., 2011). The element L represents pre-voicing and H represents aspiration. The pre-voiced plosives are L-headed and voiceless aspirated stops are H-headed whereas the voiceless unaspirated plosives are not specified for either H or L. The Pakistani learners of English produce English voiced stop [d] as pre-voiced on account of negative transfer from the L1. In other words, in the L2 phonemic inventory of Pakistani learners of English, the voiced alveolar stop [d] is L-headed. The voiced plosives of the L1 of the participants are also L-headed. The following figure adopted from Syed (2013,b) shows the ET-based representation of these sounds by native speakers of English and Saraiki.

Saraiki [ɖ d̪]   English [d]

X   X

| |

L

?   ?
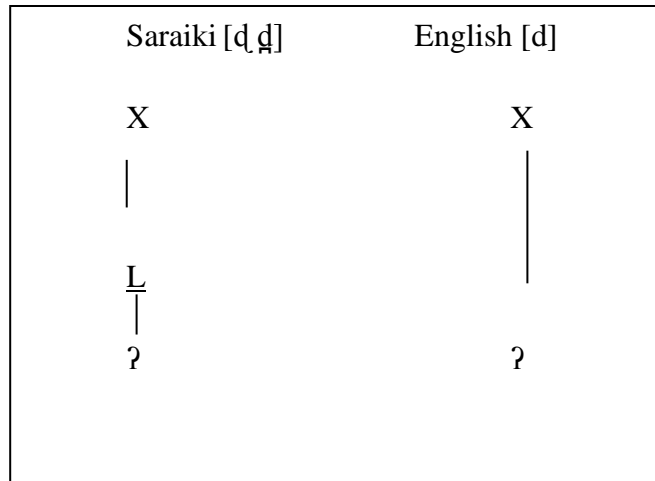
For acquiring English alveolar voiced stop [d], the Saraiki learners have to delete the head element L. A head element is always very prominent and hence very difficult to delete. It is less likely for a learner to neglect very salient acoustic cues but more probable for him/her to miss some less prominent cues in an L2 sound. That is why acquisition of voiced stops of an aspiration language is always very difficult for the learners who speak voicing language. Most of the languages of Indo-Aryan family spoken in Pakistan are voicing languages which have voiced stops with negative VOT.[6] Therefore, it may be very difficult for Pakistani learners to acquire voiced stops of English with accurate native-like VOT. The findings of this study may be applicable for the speakers of other Pakistani languages which have truly voiced stops (see footnote).

The previous research shows that Pakistani learners can easily acquire voiceless aspirated stops of English (Syed, 2013a). This is because at the initial stage of learning and particularly in Pakistani English, the aspirated stops are produced unaspirated by adult Pakistani learners (Mahboob & Ahmar, 2004; Rahman, 1990, 1991). For learning the aspirated stops of English accurately, Pakistani learners have to add headedness to the existing H element. It is definitely easier to add headedness to an already existing sound. When headedness is added to an already existing voiceless unaspirated stop, it becomes aspirated. Adding headedness means giving more prominence or adding more aspiration. Adding aspiration to an unaspirated stop is easier for Pakistani learners because aspirated stops already exist in the L1 of the learners in most of the cases.[7] This is an example of positive transfer from the L1. The following figure ad0pted from Syed (2013b) shows the difference between aspirated and unaspirated plosives:

Figure 3: Voiceless aspirated and unaspirated stops

Unaspirated stops   Aspirates stops

X   X

| |

H   H

?   ?
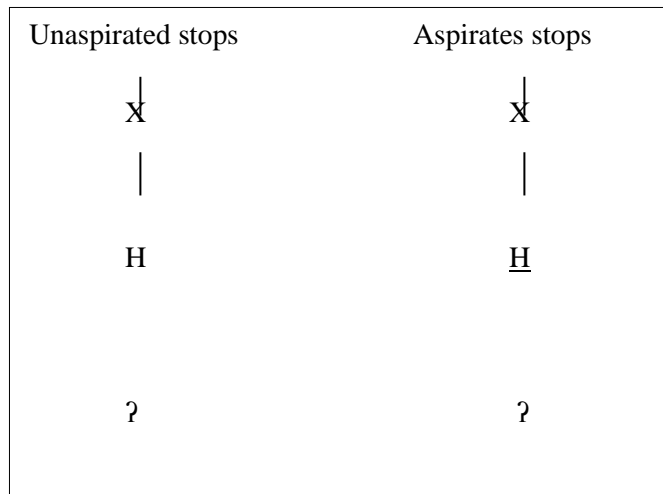
Pakistani learners of English normally equate aspirated stops of English with the unaspirated stops of the L1. For proper acquisition of English aspirated stops, they need to add headedness to H element. Adding something is easier than deleting it. That is why Pakistani learners can acquire aspirated stops of English but they face difficulty in proper acquisition of English voiced stops. It is not only for Saraiki learners, rather Pakistani learners and other L2 learners who speak a voicing language face difficulty in acquisition of English voiced stops (Pater, 2003; Simon, 2011).

Finally, an important theoretical question is raised in this context. Do L2 learners have two separate spaces for two languages (L1 &L2) or both exist in the same mental space? If two separate spaces are taken by two languages in the mind of an adult L2 learner, it is probable that the learners have developed two contradictory grammars, but if the two languages exist in the same mental space of adult L2 learners, it is very improbable for them to develop two contradictory set of constraints in their single mental space. In other words, if English and Saraiki plosives exist in two different mental spaces of the participants, they may develop two different phonetic representations for the same category of sound i.e. [d], one with short-lag VOT for English and another with negative VOT for Saraiki. But if the L1 and L2 phonemic inventories exist in the same mental space, it is not possible for a learner to have two contradictory phonetic representations (one with positive and another with negative VOT). In such a situation, either merger or equivalence classification is the only possible result. According to Flege (1995), the sounds of L1 and L2 exist in the same mental space of L2 learners. However, some other psychologists claim that sounds of the L1 and L2 exist in two different spaces (see Cook, 2003 for the two parallel views). If it is scientifically established that L1 and L2 phonemic inventories exist in two different mental spaces then the concept of equivalence classification and merger hypothesis do not stand. This is a research question for future research to resolve this issue by finding out the real place of phonemic inventories of the L1 and L2 in the mental space of adult L2 learners.

Conclusion

This study was focused on acquisition of English [d] by adult Pakistani learners of English. Two groups of participants from Pakistan and one from London were asked to produce English [d] in the word 'deal' which was recorded and the VOT of the target sound was measured. The results show that all learners including those living in the UK produced English [d] with negative VOT. The L1 of the participants also has pre-voiced stops. Pre-voiced stops are L-headed. For, proper acquisition of English voiced stops, the learners have to delete the head element L from the phonetic representation of the target sound in their existing phonemic inventory of L2 English. Since, deletion of a prominent acoustic cue is very difficult, so the learners could not produce English [d] properly. The result is equivalence classification between L2 [d] and the corresponding L1 plosives.

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[1] Voice onset time (VOT) is the interval between burst of a stop and onset of voicing for the following vowel. See detailed description of VOT in section 1.2.

[2] There is no previous research available on VOT for plosives in languages like Balochi and Pashto. In a separate unpublished study, we calculated the VOT of Balochi and Pashto.

[3] Although corresponding to English [t d] Saraiki has retroflex and dental stops, the same IPA symbols i.e. [t d] are used for stops of English and Saraiki in the figure because of space problem.

[4] Native speakers of English

[5] In the rightmost column of this table only those productions are listed as accurate which were produced categorically with a positive voice onset time. Those produced with pre-voicing or negative VOT, are considered inaccurate.

[6] In a separate unpublished study, we analyzed the voiced stops of Pakistani languages like Pashto, Balochi, Punjabi and Urdu. The acoustic analyses show that voiced stops are produced with pre-voicing by native speakers of these languages. Therefore, the findings of the current study which was conducted with the speakers of Saraiki are equally valid for the speakers of other Pakistani languages.

[7] In most of Pakistani languages, aspiration contrast is phonemic.

Parents' Attitude Towards Mentally Retarded Children

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Abstract

The present study was attempted to investigate the parents attitude towards their mentally retarded children. The study also explored the possible gender difference in parents' attitude towards their mentally retarded children. Survey literature was reviewed to have a better idea of issues involved regarding the topic. The sample in study was taken from 60 parents (30 mothers & 30 fathers).The data was taken from public and private institutes of Islamabad & Rawalpindi for mentally retarded children. The questionnaire used in this study was developed by Ayza Yazdani (1994). By using this scale, the attitude of parents of mentally retarded children was measured and responses were recorded. Then scoring was done on positive and negative items criteria. The responses were statistically analyzed and Mean, Standard deviation and t-test were calculated. Results were compiled and then discussed keeping in mind the purpose of the study. The limitation of the study and suggestions for the further study were mentioned.

Key Words: Mental Retardation, Parents' Attitude, Gender Differences, Special Education, Exceptional children

An attitude may be defined as a tendency to react positively or negatively in regard to an object. It is a tendency to react in a certain way i.e. a person who has an attitude has a readiness or a disposition to react favorably or unfavorably in any one of a large variety of related situations. Until some situation arouses it, however, the attitude is latent. Attitudes are for or against things. We tend to have a favorable attitude toward sources of gratification, and unfavorable attitudes toward sources of punishment and frustration. It is possible, of course that our attitude toward an object may not be uniformly favorable or unfavorable. Attitudes can be defined as lasting, general evaluations of people (including oneself), objects, or issues. Saying that an attitude is lasting means that it tends to persist across time. A momentary feeling does not count as an attitude. Saying that an attitude is general means that it involves at least some degree of abstraction. The present study was conducted to explore and gather information about the attitude which runs in families with a retarded child. This research problem was important in the investigation of several reason of parental attitude towards mentally retarded children and it was an important source of information to be used in guiding parents to understand the role they play in the life of such child and how they can help him in his treatment. In Pakistan, Parental attitude had not been explored widely although there are numerous child problems. But this study aided in formulating parent guiding program. So far such programs had not been implemented although there was great need for parent's guidance. Parents guiding program would help foster understanding in child's disorder and enhance their treatment and recovery. The present study would serve as guideline in the further research projects of mentally retarded children. Despite its limitation it would be of great value and significance to the field of child development.

Parental Attitude

When the parents are informed that their children are handicapped, their reaction of guilt sorrow grief blame and rejection are evidenced. They experience chronic sorrow throughout their lives even though the intensity may vary time to time. The parents are quite shocked when their children are discovered to be retarded. How and what the parents feel about such children is seriously unexplainable. Unfortunately, perhaps for reasons of poverty, broken homes, ignorance, materialistic consideration, divorce, separation or simple callousness, a small number of parents cannot face or accept their responsibilities. This situation occurs where there is a factor of rejection in parents for their children. The parents become so irresponsible and reject their children that they do not realize what they should do. They often wanted to get rid of the children

This situation occurs where there is a factor of rejection in parents for their children. The parents become so irresponsible and reject their children that they do not realize what they should do. They often wanted to get rid of of the children and put themselves to the institutions. They forget them. Here the main problem arises because this is the children for which a child needs help from his parents to run his life smoothly. It is also seen the child is mistreated at home, from vision to avoid embarrassment, sometimes even tied up to keep him from disturbing or breaking furniture arrangement.

These children show abnormality patterns in mental functions so the more serious abnormality however, is mental retardation. Most mentally retarded children develop more slowly than average child, but this development can vary from a delay that is mild to one that is severe (Shelnov, 1994).

The initial reaction of parents to the discovery that a child is retarded will be shock. For some parents the experience is so overwhelming that they abandon any intention of fulfilling the parental role and seek immediate placement outside the home. If the basis for immediate placement is examined, and this must be a conflict-ridden decision for any parent, one can often expect to find that the child threatens the parent's needs for self-esteem. In effect, the parents are ashamed of the infant and seek to severe connection with the object of their shame. Another very trying aspect of the initial impact of the child is that the parents may not feel free to turn to their usual source of emotional support (Murray, 1959).

Unfortunately, a small number or parents, perhaps for the reason of poverty, broken homes, ignorance, materialistic consideration or simple callousness, cannot face or accept their responsibilities. This, pitifully, may result in situation where parents reject the child. They are cagier to get rid of him one way or another, or put him in an institution and forget about him. The child is mistreated at home, often hidden from vision to avoid embarrassment, and sometimes even tied up to keep him from "spoiling or disturbing" furniture arrangements, or breaking crockery.

Parental attitude differs form family to family. There are differences in the way of treatment of children and the attitude towards them in various socio-economic classes. Middle class parents as a group exhibit anxiety symptoms over their children's rearing procedures. In lower socio-economic level less importance is given to discipline and its manifestations are less harsh (Horrock, 1951).

Factors Influencing Parental Attitude

Several factors have been shown to be related to the attitudes parents have towards their handicapped children. These include severity of the handicap (Grossman, 1972), social acceptability of the handicap (Farber, 1959), socio-economic status (Meadow, 1971), sex of the child (Spikier, 1982), age of the child (Neuhaus, 1969; Boles, 1959) and religiosity (Zuk, 1959; Miller, Martram & Killing, 1961).

Effects of Retarded Child on Parents

A more thorough understanding of the attitudes parents have towards a handicapped child may be achieved by reorganizing how pervasive an effect the child may have on the parents. It is well documented that the exceptional child represents a persistent source of stress for family members. Evidence suggest that the kinds of stress most like experienced physical care of child; discipline, going of inadequacy (Hewett, 1970), going out with the child (Rutter, 1970), contact with other children, attending clinics (Petterson & McCubbin, 1983), additional financial costs, provide adequate stimulation, stigma, interruptions of family sleep, large amount of ration, difficulty in finding the time and energy for shopping and other normal house hold routines, difficulty in handling behavior problems, limitations in recreational activities, pessimism about the future and marital problems (Murphy, 1979).

It is common in periods of distress to turn to others for assistance but if parents are ashamed of the child, they tend to conceal their pain and thus add to their burden. The parents may feel alone, estranged, even singled out for punishment. The hurt must be carried within: the mourning born in private. The concept of mourning has been applied to this experience with the psychological work of mourning directed towards accepting the loss of the child "wished for" but not to be (Solinit & Stark, 1961).

The nature of mental retardation is such that it presents copying problems to the family as well as to the affected child (Farber, 1959, 1960; Ross, 1964; Wolfenberger & Kurtz, 1969). The organically damaged child, especially, is likely to always be dependant to some degree. To always require some supervision, to always, in sense, be a "child". For the parents this carries the prospect of permanent parenthood and an unending concern for child's welfare at each stage of life. Playmates, school, social relationships, sexualities, use of leisure time, capacity for self-scare-these and the morality of the parents themselves all constitute concerns about the retarded child that the loving parents cannot ignore.

The Effects of Family on a Retarded Child

A handicapped child can have an influence on his/her family. However, family members can also have an important impact on the social, psychological and emotional adjustment of the handucaped child. According to Ausubel, Balther, Rosenthal, blackman, schpoont, and Walkowitzm (1954), a child's feelings about himself are related to the amount of acceptance or rejection the parent evidences toward the child. Fortherianghamand creal (1974), review that the handicapped child's home environment will influence the achievements of the handicapped child., when the mentally retarded child is constantly slow in a number of developmental skills9e.g., sits up at a larger age, walks later, talks later, etc),the parents may begin to feel that there is

something wrong. At this point, the parents or significant others may begin to respond to him differently. The response may be negative and rejecting or overly protective or indulging. The nature of the response shapes the type of self- concept that will be develop. The child may learn he is bad, useless, weak, incapable, good, loveable, or so on, depending upon how he is responded to. It must be noted that, although development is slow, many children are not recognized or responded to as mentally retard by their families until later ages. For the children who are recognized as mentally retarded, self- concept development is largely determined by how family responds to them.

In another stydy (Peck & Stephens, 1960) results indicated that the attitudes the parents expressed towards there mentally retarded child were related to the child's interest in learning and ability to relate to other adults in the environment.

The Role of Parents

Certainly one of the most significant of adult roles is that of parent, mother or father, and our effectiveness in this role is largely related to the kind of child that we have. Just as the child is perceived by the parent as a psychological extension of himself (Rickman & Henderson, 1969), so is the child seen by others. If the child meets parental expectations he is perceived by the parent and by others as a positive reflection of them. The parents can feel pride in the child and a sense of self-worth. On the other hand, if the child is seen to posses undesirable characteristics, then parents (and siblings) are prone to view him as an unfavorable reflection of them with consequent feeling of sham, hostility, guilt, and lowered self-worth. But the psychological distress accompanying devaluation of the self is not easily born and deafness is erected to mitigate it. This deafness may result in attitudes of rejection, which have the effect of denying the child his basic need for love (intimacy). Rejection can also take the form of denial of the child's handicap and the setting of expectation, which are beyond him. The child cannot help but fail and gradually affirm his own sense of inadequacy. Parental attitudes of rejection and unrealistic aspiration are more often encountered in families, which place a high value on the very abilities that the child lacks. The consequence is to add personality problems to a child who is already burdened with the adaptive behavior deficits created by intellectual limitation. Since these personality problems often interfere with the child's capacity to benefit from appropriate educational and training experiences, their prevention through early and continuous family counseling is an important and still largely unmet need (Ross, 1964).

The parents are the most immediately affected members of the society. Theirs is the first shock. They are the foremost suffers. It is their peace of mind and harmony of the family that is likely to be disturbed. In order to enable them to face the new challenge, it might entail a significant re-adjustment of their life style, budget, and social priorities. Fundamentally, it is their responsibility to look for and provide opportunities for the care of special needs of their wards. Instead of !anguishing and brooding over their misfortune, the "absence" of educational and training facilities, they must come forward, open up their hearts and minds and do something practical. They can help themselves and others amongst them in several ways by:

Not losing hope, getting out of their shells, meeting other parents, social workers and sharing problems, experiences and solutions: Organizing themselves into associations and societies with a view to establishing special school, training centers, sheltered workshops, and other institutions suited to the needs of the retarded: Strengthening other organizations, societies, training centers and institutions by co-operating and joining, managing and establishing programs for the Mentally Retarded: Constantly impressing upon educationists, universities, social welfare department, government, officials, and leaders of public opinion the importance and needs of special programs, projects, institutions, and provision of funds for the Mentally Retarded. Undertaking such acts and positive things would further the cause of Mentally Retarded, alleviate their suffering, and provide them with rehabilitation facilities and employment and so on.

Mental Retardation

Mental retardation is used in the international classification system of DSM IV and ICD 10 and is a medical term. Mental handicap is also a medical term and was used in the UK but currently has been replaced by a more "neutral" term "learning disabilities". Today most widely accepted definition was developed by the American Association o Mental Retardation (AAMR). The most recent AAMR definition described mental retardation as,

"Significantly sub average general intellectual functioning in or associated with concurrent impairments in adaptive behavior and manifested during the development period"(Grossman, 1984).

A person with limits in intellectual functioning who does not have limits in adaptive skills areas may not be diagnosed as having mental retardation. Mental retardation cuts across the lines of racial, ethnic, educational, social, and economic background. It can occur in any family. One out of ten American families is directly affected by mental retardation (AAMR, 1992). According to DSM-III-R, a diagnosis of mental retardation should be made when a person manifests significant sub average general intellectual functioning (an IQ of 70 or below), displays concurrent deficits or impairments in adaptive behavior, and develops these symptoms before the age of 18 (APA, 1987)

The incidence of mental retardation in the United States is estimated to be about 6.8 million persons. This figure is based on a cutoff point of about IQ 70, which is the cutoff point used by, the AAMD. Most states have laws providing that individuals with IQs below 70 who evidence socially incompetent or disapproved behavior can be classified as mentally retarded and committed to an institution. Mentally retarded individuals are especially vulnerable to emotional and social problems stemming from the frustration and conflict they encounter in their experiences with people who not only perform so much better intellectually but who also fail to understand them or give them social and emotional support. Depression, loneliness, humiliation, and poor self esteem accompany those experiences (Benson, Reiss, Smith, & Laman, 1985;Lufing, 1988; Reiss & Benson,1985 ; Reynolds 7 Baker, 1988). Appropriate forms of education, training, and personal attention, including psychotherapy, can do much to help many mentally retarded individuals handle such problems adaptively and live useful lives in spite of their cognitive limitations.

Characteristics of Mentally Retarded Children

The most important and consistent difference between retarded and no retarded people is that the retarded person learns more slowly (Hale & Borkowski, 1991; Israely, 1985). When retarded and non- retarded people of comparable mental age approach the same learning task, the retarded person usually employs relevant behavior, skills, and insights at a slower pace than the non -retarded. Other areas of difference include attention, short-term memory, and language (Chamberlain, 1985; Yabe et al., 1985; Mineo & Cavalier, 1985; Smith, 1974).

Mental retardation level	IQ range
1. Mild	50-70
2. Moderate	35-50
3. Severe	20-35
4. Profound	Below 20

Causes of Mental Retardation

The factor of inheritance, by which is generally meant that the mental characteristics of parents or grand parents or of other elders still in direct blood relation are transmitted to the offspring through germ plasma, may have some bearing on the genesis of mental deficiency or retardation. Genetic causes include some gene disorders, metabolic cause (phenylketonuria) and chromosomal causes (Down syndrome). Fragile x syndrome is a single gene disorder located on the x- chromosome or by a change in the leading inherited cause of mental retardation. Down syndrome is the most common of the chromosomal disorders leading to the mental retardation. It is caused by too many or too few chromosomes or by a change in the structure of chromosome. Approximately 1 out of every 640 live births results in Down syndrome (Smith & Wilson, 1973). The incidence increases to 1 in 100 when the mother's age is over 35. When the fetus develops, many physical problems can occur. Too little iodine in mother's diet may develop cretinism, and may lead to severe deficiency in manufacture of hormone thyroxin, which result in a defective thyroid gland in the baby, development slows down and mental retardation occurs. Use of alcohol or drugs by pregnant mother can cause mental retardation. Children may be born with a cluster of serious problems called

fetal alcohol syndrome. Other risks include malnutrition, certain environmental contaminants, and illnesses of mother during pregnancy, such as toxoplasmosis, cytomegalovirus, rubella, and syphilis. Two birth complications that can lead to mental retardation are anoxia (loss of oxygen) and extreme prematurity cause some degree of mental retardation. After birth, up to age 6, certain injuries and illnesses cause mental retardation. Poisoning, serious head injuries caused by accidents or child abuse, frequently exposure to x-rays, syphilis, T.B, which may lead to meningitis and encephalitis, can damage the brain. Lead, mercury and other environmental factors can also damage the brain and nervous system.

Environmental under stimulation, inadequate parent-child interactions, and insufficient early learning experiences may contribute to mild mental retardation. The majority comes from poor and_ deprived home environments (Robinson & Robinson, 1970). Poor quality of parent modeling, low stimulation and poor diet in the homes may be overriding factors in the development of mental retardation. The following diagram shows the Monogenic causes of X-linked mental retardation adapted from Chelly, J & Louis, J. Mandel from Nature Reviews Genetics 2, 669-

680.
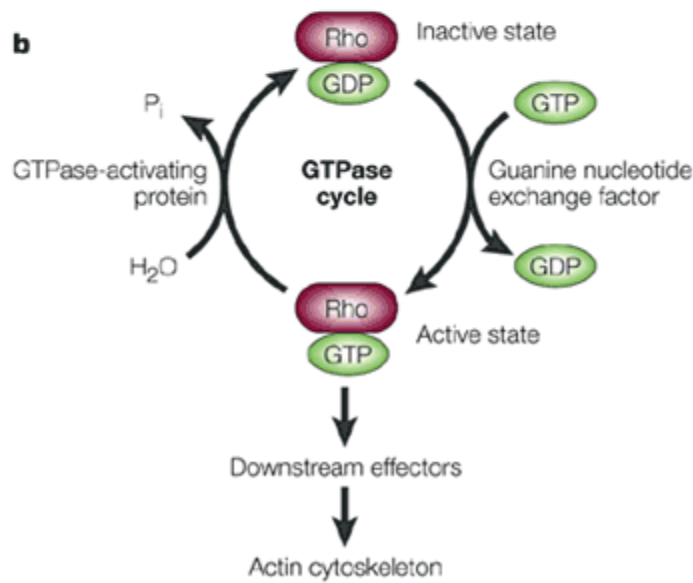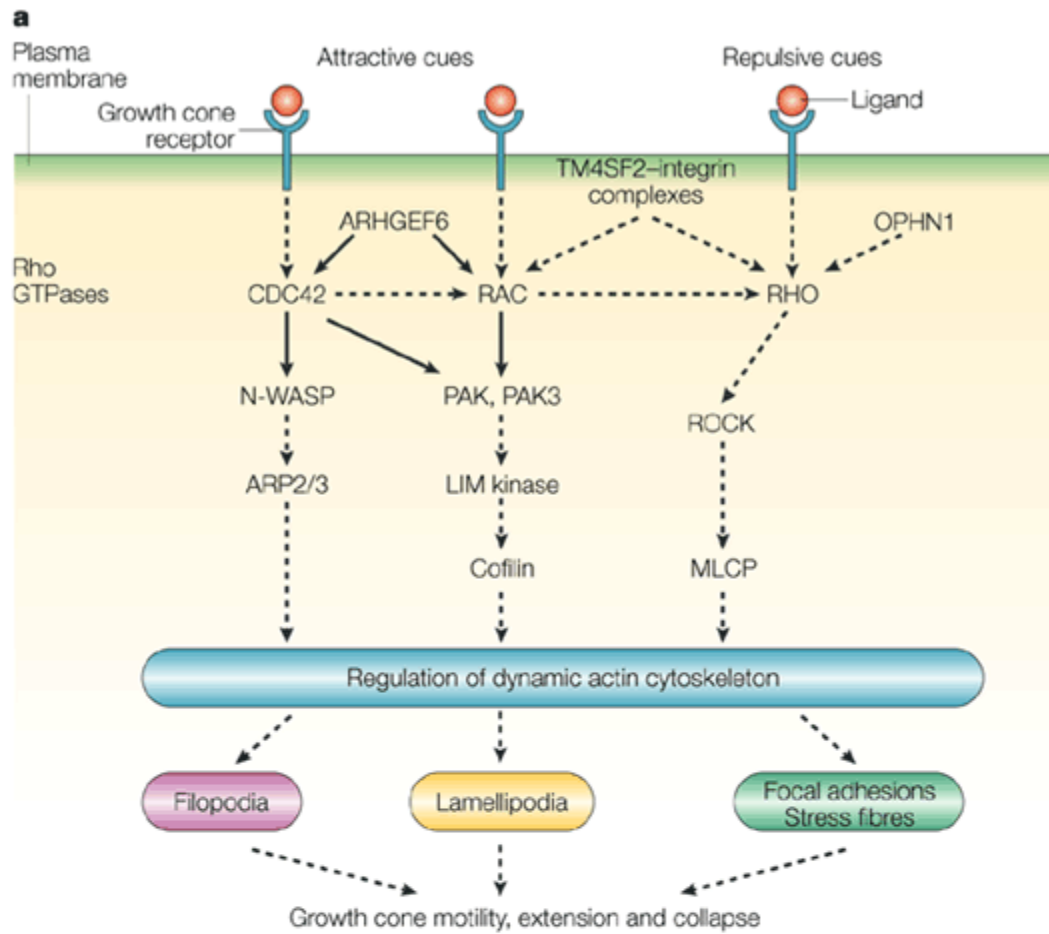
Intellectual Development and Behavioral Characteristics of the Mentally Retarded Children

A number of studies have been carried out in an effort to identify ways in which retarded people are, and are not, different from un retarded people. Some of these studies have, in effect, brought the intelligence testing and process-oriented approaches together. Results of studies focused primarily on cultural-familial retarded persons have suggested that while these persons are developing intellectually, they pass through the major stages of cognitive development as described by Piaget (1970), in much the same way as the non-retarded population; the only major differences seem to e that retarded people pass through the stages at a slower pace and cease developing cognitively at a lower stage level than do most of us (Weisz & Zigler, 1979). On the other hand, retarded children at any particular MA level can apparently perform about as well on cognitive tasks like Piaget's as non-retarded children of the same MA (Weisz & Yeates, 1981). Binet, if he were alive today, might appreciate these findings. They fit his original observation that retarded students function like younger intellectually normal children.

Despite the apparent similarity in their ability to solve several kinds of problems, retarded and non-retarded children at the same MA levels do not always behave similarly in achievement and problem-solving situations. Retarded youngsters are often passive and dependent on others when they are asked to solve problems, a tendency that seems to grow stronger when they experience failure. Retarded children have been described as outer-directed (Zigler & Ball, 1982), meaning that they are overly dependent on cues from other people. One reason may be that retarded children have experienced so much failure in their lives that they begin each new activity with a relatively low expectancy of success (Zigler & Balla, 1982). Another reason may be that adults tend to accept passive and helpless behavior in retarded children who, after all, are considered low in ability. Recent studies (for example, Weisz, 1981) compared adults' responses to problem-solving failure in another child who was not; the children in these studies were described as having identical Mass on an IQ test, and many adults might read this as a sign of similar ability. Nonetheless, the adults in both studies made different judgments about the two children. They considered "low ability" to be a more significant cause of the retarded child's failure, rated the retarded child as less likely to succeed in future attempts to solve the problem, and rated themselves as less likely to urge the retarded child to persist at the problem. Findings like these suggest that adults may sometimes underestimate what retarded people can do and may consequently "go easy" on them often in ways that are not actually in the best interests of the retarded people.

Situation of Mentally Children in Pakistan

The magnitude of the situation concerning the handicapped children in Pakistan is enormous due to complexity and diversity of the problem. These have been not dependable survey on a national level to estimate the number of mentally retarded children in the country. The economic, social and health problems of this country being what .they are, there have been little funds and little time for any careful planning of the survey for the handicapped. Some years ago social welfare Development of Government of Sindh conducted a simple survey in Sindh and found that 57% of total population was handicapped (Mubashar 1979).

In Pakistan the first organized study on the problem of mental retardation was carried out at Jinnah Post Graduate Medical Center from 1964-70 by the Social and Rehabilitation Service Project called the "Vocational Training Project for the Mentally Retarded" began working in 1970 and continued till June 1875 (Zainab 1979).

Institutions for the mentally retarded children by the govternment are few in number mostly all the institutions are privately owned. There are fourteen institutions working in the country among these six,, are located in Karachi, three in the N.W.F.P and five in Lahore. For the years 1980-82, the total budget allowance declared was Rs. 40 laces, Rs. 10 laces for establishment of one institution for mentally retarded and Rs. 30 laces for other institutions. Besides with the year 1981 declared as international year of Disabled. Pakistan Government of mentally retarded and other handicapped. These include attitude changing campaign through mass media and establishment of National Pilot Complex a residential rare for the handicapped and mentally retarded children, as well as some vocational and training workshops for such children and adults (Mubashar 1979).

It was as late as 1982 when the federal government introduced special education after limited Nation's declaration of "Decade of Disabled Person", The personal interest shown by the late president, Gen Zia-ul-Haq, created a favorable climate by bringing publicity media coverage and increases awareness

about the needs and increasing the level of registration to special institutes (Hunzai 1993). This has eventually led to the establishment of institutional frameworks, with centers being set up for the training and rehabilitation of individuals with various disabilities. In 1971 a survey was carried out by Jinnah Post Graduate Medical Center, with the help of Ct,iral Statistical Office, which gives the incidence of Mental Retardation as 3.97% (Tareen 1979).

According to Abdullah (1981) the general attitude of the public towards the disabled is one of the calluses, indifference or ritzy. Even parents of disabled children usually do not have a positive or encouraging attitude, rather it is mostly one of the shame and fear of social suborn and stigmatization, as well as an almost religious or superstitious view of disability as a manifestation of the will of God and even, in some instances of the wrath of God for their own prior sins. Such a situation requires a basic attitudes change in the vast majority of people. Attitudes are not as easily altered as physical states, so this will take a long time indeed. According to Khan (1979) we will see that the disability in itself is a curse, because of their sins, and to a tone tor these sins they thing it best to resign themselves to the will of God. Eventually they do nothing for the disables. Instead they hid them from the public for the fear that people may make fun of them.

Clarke and his colleagues (1959) found that children from deprived and disorganized background admitted to well run institutions for the mentally retarded or subnormal in Great Britain advanced nine points in intelligence rating after a period of three to four years in this more orderly and stimulating environment. More recently a multidisciplinary team in Java carried out a five-year treatment program with sixteen families for the lower socio economic classes in which at least two children and one parent were mildly retarded. The purpose was to see whether environmental enrichment modified depressed intellectual development in selected children between 3-6 years. It showed that the average increment in intelligence rating for thirty seven children studied over a period of 2-4 Years age group was nineteen and seven points for the 5-6 years group. These findings and may other assume a dynamic concept of mental retardation and has great significance for series in that it pre-supports prevention of alterations of the conditions.

Treatment and Education of Mentally Retarded Children

Residential Alternatives and Community Program

Community programs and residences have been set up to address the needs of retarded persons (Jacobson & Schwartz, 1991; Clarke, Clarke, & Berg, 1985). These programs take such forms as small local branches of larger institutions, group homes, half-way houses, and even independent residences. In these settings community staff members may be available to assist the retarded residents, and the residents are given education and training on) how to get along in the community. Under programs of this kind, a number of retarded persons have been able to live successfully in he community (Jacobson & Schwartz, 1991; Rapp, Barton, & Brulle, 1986).

With the development of such programs, most mentally retarded persons now live their adult lives in the community (APA, 1987). Virtually all who function at a level of mild mental retardation can reside successfully in the community (APA, 1987). Virtually all who function at a level of mild mental retardation can reside successfully in the community, often independently. Those with a ode rate level of retardation may live in-group homes that provide either evening supervision (supported living arrangements) or twenty-four-hour supervision (community living families). Severely retarded persons live either with their families, in supervised houses, or in community nursing homes that provide close supervision (intermediate care facilities). And although some profoundly retarded individuals still must spend their adult lives in an institution, many are able to live in a community facility (APA, 1987; Landsman-Dwyer, 1981).

Today most retarded children live at home rather than in an institution until they are ready to enter a community residence (APA, 1987; Grinspoon et al., 1999; Tizard & Grad, 1961). On the other hand, even with strong support systems, approximately 8 percent of parents cannot cope with a handicapped child (Grencheff, 1975). In such circumstances, the child typically spends his or her early years in an institution. As retarded persons approach adulthood, the family home may become a lonely and restricted place for them (Saenger, 1957). As their parents grow older and less energetic, they may no longer be able to address the needs of the retarded individual. Accordingly, a community residence often becomes most appropriate for retarded children moving into late adolescence.

Educational Programs

One of the great debates in the field of education centers on the correct educational environment for mentally retarded individuals. Some educators favor special classes while others advocate mainstreaming (Gottlieb et al., 1991). In the special education approach, retarded children are grouped only with other retarded children and given a curriculum designed specially foe them. It has been argued that special classes help prevent a sense of failure, make special attention available, and provide a more appropriate curriculum for the children. In the mainstreaming approach, retarded children are placed in regular classes with non-retarded students. Proponent that this format provides more normal educational experiences, helps underscore the many similarities between retarded and non-retarded children, reduces stigmatization, facilitates interactions between retarded and non-retarded children, and places greater emphasis on

Academics (Turner & Small, 1985). In addition, some educators interpret "least restrictive environment" as a call for placement in regular classes. Mainstreaming approaches, however, are difficult to initiate and run effective (Lieberman, 1992).

Researchers have not been able to determine which approach is superior (Gottlieb, 1981). Children generally perform the same under both educational formats (Budoff & Gottlieb, 1976). Moreover, although some studies find that children who are mainstreamed have a better self-image than children in special classes, others find either no such difference or else a better self-image among special-class children (Haywood et al., 1982; Zigler & Muenchow, 1979). Finally, mainstreamed children appear to he just as stigmatized in the eyes of their peers as special-class children (Gottlieb & Budoff, 1973). Perhaps mainstreaming is better for some children, special classes for others. The issue may also depend on the subjects being taught and on the skill, planning, and attitude that particular teachers bring to their work (Ascione & Borg, 1983; Haywood et al., 1982). Operant learning principles are regularly applied in the education of retarded individuals (Kiernan, 1981; Kazdin, 1979; Grabowski & Thompson, 1977). Teachers break learning tasks down into small steps and give positive reinforcement as each small step is accomplished. Tasks taught to mentally retarded persons in this way include self-help skills, proper verbal responding, appropriate social responding and academic tasks (Matson & Gorman-Smith, 1986). Computer programs that apply reinforcement principles have been used increasingly to help educate mentally retarded persons (Minco & Cavalier, 1985; Ager, 1985). Many institutions, schools, and even homes have instituted taken economy programs-the larger-scale operant learning programs that have also been used with institutionalized schizophrenic patients.

Parents often play an active role in their retarded child's education. Indeed, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act mandates parents participation in developing "individualized education programs." a privilege not afforded to the parents of non-retarded children. This high level of involvement has resulted from the hard work and lobbying of parent associations in courts and legislatures across the United States.

In addition to their involvement in school programs, parents must often serve as teachers at home (Reese & Serna, 1986; Chamberlain, 1985). To help parents in their teaching role, parent-training manuals and courses have been developed. Although parents often prove to be effective and dedicated teachers, working with their own retarded child is a slow and° sometimes discouraging task, and encouragement and support from the therapists and teachers continue to be needed (Gordon & Davidson, 1981).

Opportunities for Personal, Social, and Occupational Growth

In addition to a proper residence, education, and treatment, retarded persons must be given opportunities for personal. social, and vocational growth. Personal growth begins with the family. Parents can unintentionally stifle a retarded child's self-sufficiency and independence by remaining too helpful, too protective, and too available, as the child grows older.

The community must also provide retarded persons with opportunities for personal growth. Denmark and Sweden, the originators of the normalization movement, have once again led the way in this area (Perske, 1972). These countries have developed youth clubs for retarded persons that encourage risk-taking experiences and encourage members to find their way around independently, cope with minor emergencies, and, in some cases, locate and set up their own apartments.

Socializing, sex, and marriage are among; the most difficult issues for retarded persons and their families. Typically, society does a poor job preparing retarded individuals in these areas. Institutions are usually careful to separate male and female patients, and indeed, many parents prevent their retarded adolescents and young adults from socializing with persons of the opposite sex. This lack of education and experience may create even more problems for retarded individuals than IQ level when they first encounter social and sexual relationships.

Counseling and Psychotherapy

Retarded persons often experience emotional and behavioral problems. It is estimated that a quarter of the severely and profoundly retarded persons in the United States manifest such problem behaviors as self-injury, vandalism, aggression, tantrums, and stereotyped repetitive movements (Grinspoon et al., 1986). Moreover, mentally retarded persons at all levels may experience such problems as low self-esteem, interpersonal difficulties, and difficulty in adjusting to community life (Lubetsky, 1986; Reiss, 1985; Reiss & Benson, 1985; Reiss, Levitan, & McNally, 1982).Insight therapies have been used to help mentally retarded individuals deal with issues of this kind (Hurley & Hurley, 1986; Ginsberg, 1984). Research suggests, however, that these therapies are helpful only some of the time. Apparently the greatest success comes from insight approaches that are structured, directive, and problem solving, belp retarded individuals)cope and interact with their environment, enhance their feelings of self-worth, and encourage them to persevere (Grinspoon et al., 1986). Group therapy has also become a popular and often effective format for retarded individuals (Richards & Lee, 1972).

Close to half of all institutionalized retarded persons also take medication for emotional or behavioral problems, and a third take medication for epileptic seizures (Grinspoon et al., 1986). As many as 20 percent of the mildly retarded persons in the community take such medications. Yet research has not clearly indicated that medications are not in fact helpful to retarded persons (Aman & Singh, 1991; Grinspoon et al., 1986), nor has it established the long-term effects of such medications on retarded persons. Indeed, many clinicians suggest that the medications are often used simply to keep retarded persons docile (Grinspoon et al., 1986).

Methods

Participants: The sample consisted of parents of mentally retarded children. Total sample of mentally retarded children was of 60 parents (30 mothers and 30 fathers). The sample was taken from the parents of children of different age group (above 9 years and below 9 years of age). The sample was actually taken from the following institutes of Islamabad and Rawalpindi for mental retarded children.

- National Institute for Special Education G-7/2 Islamabad.
- Ibn-e- Sina Special Education Centre H/8 Islamabad.
- PAF School for Special Education, Chaklala Base Rawalpindi.

Instruments: The following instruments were used in the study: The questionnaire chosen for the present study was parental attitude scale for mentally retarded children (PAS) adopted from research previously conducted by Ayza Yazdani, (1994) on the socialization practices of the parents of the mentally retarded children. The original scale consisted of 53 items out of which 1 was not applicable to a study so it was excluded. Following 5 options were given for each statement: Never – Sometimes – Average – Frequently – Always

Score range of each statement was between 1-5. For every statement a score of 5 was assigned to a response option showing the most desirable behavior. Similarly, a score of 1 was reserved to the response considered to be the most undesirable behavior. There were 11 items which were negatively score. General instructions were given at the beginning of the scale for the sample's convenience. A demographic sheet included information like age, sex, education, social economic status and the number of children.

Procedure: The questionnaire was individually administered to the sample of parents of mentally retarded children. The questionnaire was distributed in the public and private institutes of mentally retarded children of Islamabad and Rawalpindi. After one week the questionnaires were collected again. For the administration of the scale, verbal instruction was also given and the purpose to conduct research was also cleared. Some members of the sample were hesitant in cooperating with the researcher but they were given assurance that responses will be used solely for the purpose of survey and confidentiality will be maintained. The questionnaire was in Urdu language so there was no problem of understanding, every parent though he/she might be uneducated could understand questions. At the end, responses were scored and results were obtained. Data was analyzed through SPSS (statistical package for social sciences).

Results

Table 1 showed a highly significant Alpha Reliability Coefficient of Parents Attitude Scale for my sample. It implied that PAS is a reliable measure of calculating parental attitude towards their mentally retarded children in general. It also indicated the high internal consistency of the measures.

Table 2 indicated the results of item analysis of Parents Attitude Scale. Results of item-total correlation indicated that parents' scores on PAS are highly significant at .01 level. Item-total correlation is the measure of internal consistency reliability of scale which indicated that all items in the scale are homogeneous. Thus item-total correlation might be treated as a measure of test reliability and item validity of each item. So in this case the findings suggested that all the items were highly consistent and contributed significantly to total test scores.

Table 3 contained comparison of mean scores of parents for the boys and girls (N=60). The results showed that value of gender was not significant indicating that there was no significant difference in attitude of parents of their daughters or sons. As table showed that parents were not more positive for their mentally retarded sons than daughters.

Table 4 contained comparison of mothers and fathers mean score on attitude scale (N=60). The results showed that value of gender on attitude was significant indicating that there was significant difference in attitude of mothers and fathers of the mentally retarded children. As the mean scores of mothers were higher than the mean scores of fathers of mentally retarded children.

Table 5 showed comparison between the mean score of mother attitude towards their mentally retarded daughters and sons (N=30). The results showed that the t value was non-significant, displaying that there was no significant difference in the attitude of mothers towards their mentally retarded daughters and sons. Whereas the mean scores of both the groups showed a small difference, as mothers had more positive attitude towards their mentally retarded sons than daughters.

Table 6 showed comparison between the mean score of father attitude towards their mentally retarded daughters and sons (N=30).In the table the t value on attitude scale of fathers was non-significant displaying that there was non significant difference in the attitude of fathers towards their mentally retarded daughters and sons. Whereas the mean scores of both groups showed a small difference, as fathers had more positive attitude towards their mentally retarded daughters than sons.

Table 7 showed comparison between the mean score of parents attitude towards the lower age and higher age group of mentally retarded daughters and sons (N=60)**.** The results in table 5 showed that the value on attitude scale of parents towards the lower age and higher age groups of mentally retarded children was highly significant displaying that parents had more positive attitude towards their younger mentally retarded children than elder ones**.**

Discussion

Based on the previous researches it was hypothesized that parents have more positive attitude towards their mentally retarded children. The results supported the hypothesis indicating that the parents show more positive attitude towards their mentally retarded children. There exists a clear gender difference in parents attitude towards mentally retarded children. The dynamics of this behaviour was studied by Weingold & Hermuth (1953) who observed that presence of mentally retarded child accentuates the personality problem of all the members of the family. The attitudes of parents are in part a reaction to the fact that he is often rejected by various community groups of which he is member. Zuk (1959) showed that the parents are caught between the strong feelings of love and hate for the child. The conflict between these opposing feelings results in arousal of guilt which may be manifested in the form of rejection. The findings of the present research were consistent with the past researches. Stressful life events are found in clinical samples (Hammen, 1991; Harkness, Monroe, Simons, & Thase, 1999) as well as in community samples (Davila, Hammen, Burge, Paley, & Daley, 1995; Holahan, 1995). The experiences judged to be most stressful include death of a child, death of a spouse, marital infidelity or separation, business failure, legal trouble, injury, and medical illness. However, when these experiences are characterized as relatively discrete stressful events, only bereavement has been clearly shown to incur an increased risk for major depression (Jacobs, 1993; Kim & Jacobs, 1995; Zisook & Shuchter, 2001). In particular, general agreement exists those occurrences that are defined as undesirable, major life events are likely to be associated with depressive onset.

Coming to terms with the reality of mentally retarded child is a along and slow process. Some parents are able to understand the implication of retardation and change their lives accordingly. Those who are unable to do so, face years of denial, frustration, and increasing family stress. Every new born child learns from his primary caregivers the principles of interaction and social judgment. The retarded child is unable to think act and learn as automatically as the normal child, because he/she lacks the capacity to do so. It then falls upon the parents to exert their efforts and energies to the special child, and provide in the environment what the child

lack physically. The damage, which has occurred organically, cannot be corrected, bit by training socializing; the parents can enable the child to live a fuller, satisfying life.

Familial interaction increases competence and co-operation between siblings. By involving the child in daily activities of the house, however routine they may be gives sense of achievement. It helps the child progress toward independence and self-reliance.

A parental feeling about the child's handicap sets the tone for interaction with the retarded child. Parents are the source of learning, stimulation, and guidance for the child and they lay basis of cognitive development. The verbal interaction teaches the child's modes of conversation and facilitates speech development and intellectual growth. There is a vast body if research, which emphasis positive relations between parents and child. The child-rearing techniques for normal children are to great extent applied to retarded children as well. Parents tend to slip the child into a certain position, of youngest and helpless, and out of their way to attend, or on the other extreme, reject the child, mentally or literally.

On the basis of theoretical knowledge and empirical studies, it was found that attitude of parents was an important factor in training, guiding and understanding the hand, fathers might also be worried about their child but they could not express their concern because of the certain stereotypical stigmas that were attached to their sex roles. Also fathers were more occupied with external factors. Such as earning bread for the family. So that could be the reason for the fathers not giving enough time to their children, especially the special child so these can be the misleading reasons for the misperception of males roles, especially fathers roles in our society.

Few decades back these children were kept isolated and mingled normal healthy children, but with the advancement of education, especially in third world countries like Pakistan, the attitude of the society has changed over years. As the fathers interact more with society there has been a growing trend in the change of their attitudes as opposed to their stereotypical sex roles.

Before this study three studies had been conducted related to mentally retarded children. (Yazdani 1994) conducted on the socialization practicing of the parents of the mentally retarded children. And then (Sadiq 2000) conducted research on parental attitude towards their mentally retarded children. And then (Abid 2003) conducted on same topic of parental attitude towards their mentally retarded children.

The present study was conducted to measure the attitude of parents toward their retarded children on the basis of gender of parents as well as gender of children. There were five hypotheses.

The first hypothesis was that there is a notable difference between the attitudes of parents towards their sons and daughters. The results showed that there was no significant difference and parents had equally positive for their both daughters and sons. Generally it is assumed that parents give more importance to their sons but if we see in the case of mentally retarded children it is not true because in this case both were important and parents gave importance to both daughters and sons. The second hypothesis was that there is a notable difference between the attitudes of mothers and fathers of mentally retarded children. The results proved that mothers had more positive attitude towards mentally retarded children than fathers. It might be because mothers were more concerned with children and in the case of special child they became more sensitive because they needed more care and attention as compared to normal children. So mothers seemed to have sometimes sympathetic and sometimes empathetic behavior towards such a child, while fathers might have more practical and realistic approach towards child.

The third hypothesis was that mothers have more positive attitude towards their mentally retarded daughters than sons. But results of the study showed that mothers showed more positive attitude towards mentally retarded sons as compared to the mentally retarded daughters. Generally mothers shows equal attitude towards both children but they are more sensitive and touchy about daughters as the mothers and daughters are more attached to each other they also care sons but they don't bother and mothers don't be very sensitive because they understand that they are independent and are with them for long period and mothers understand that they could depend on sons in later life. But in the case of mentally retarded children mothers showed equal behavior but if difference came in the attitude that might be because of the threat of not having dependable child. The fourth hypothesis of the study was that fathers had more positive attitude towards their sons but results showed that they had more positive attitude towards daughters. It meant that our perceived ideas and concepts that fathers are not very positive in their attitudes towards daughters have changed. The changing trend and norms of society also are bringing a healthy change in fathers of mentally retarded children. The fifth hypothesis of the study was that there is a difference between attitudes of parents towards their younger mentally retarded children and elder mentally retarded children and the results proved well that parents had more positive attitude towards their younger mentally retarded children than elder mentally retarded children.

Because younger children needed more care and attention and elders could take care of themselves but in case of mentally retarded children should also be given much attention as younger were given.

Limitations and suggestions

The present study was based on the sample drawn from the public and private centers of Islamabad and Rawalpindi. With the larger percentage of population living in rural areas and lacking the facilities of special education centers and sample was not enough large to be generalized. Hence, it could be suggested that for further studies the sample should be large to be representative of a large population. The study was limited to 60 parents, 30 fathers and 30 mothers. This showed that sample was very small and could not be regarded as a represented sample. A nationally representative sample was needed to be confident about the results and to be generalized.

At times parents did not give correct information. They gave fake and incorrect responses. Although the instrument was satisfactory in determining the attitudes, it was better to ask indirect questions for attaining the true responses. Parents also felt hesitation to give information about their retarded children.

Conclusions and Implications

The study was done to explore the parent's attitude towards mentally retarded children. It was observed that parents had more positive attitude towards their mentally retarded children. Mothers were especially more concerned and sensitive to their special children. They remained always more concerned about their mentally retarded daughters. Fathers' attitude always seemed to be positive for their sons in many researches but regarding this research fathers' attitude was more concerned with their mentally retarded daughters also. As mothers remained more attatched to their female retarded children than fathers so the mean scores were high in case of mentally retarded daughters. Mothers' and fathers' attitude was more positive towards their younger mentally retaded children than older ones.

The present investigated study had many implications especially in the area of special education. As it provided a clear and valuable groundwork for the area to be studied through its questionnaire implementation and educational programs. Further it provided a framework for having knowledge of all mentally retarded children from all classes and their parents with reference to their efforts put to educate their children. It also focused the social and economical problems faced by the parents for their mentally retarded children.

Ethical considerations

Privacy and confidentiality was maintained whilst taking information through parents of mentally retarded children. a high level of confidentiality and privacy was needed for both sample and genders (parents). Female parents were contacted separately and they were especially kept far from their marital partners while taking required information on questionnaires. Similarly fathers of mentally retarded children were also contacted with due respect and regard and their information was kept in confidentiality.

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Results

Table 1:

Alpha Reliabilty Coefficient of PAS

Scale	No. of Items	Alpha Coefficient
PAS	53	.85***

*P***<.001*

Note: The PAS indicates Parents' Attitude Scale

Table 2:

Item-total correlation of Parental Attitude Scale (PAS) (N=60)

(No. of Items= 53)

Items	Correlations	Items	Correlations	Items	Correlations
1	.42**	19	.64**	37	.61**
2	.43**	20	.52**	38	.46**
3	.39**	21	.50**	39	.64**
4	.24**	22	.48**	40	.44**
5	.32**	23	.43**	41	.27**
6	.43**	24	.54**	42	.49**
7	.47**	25	.55**	43	.57**
8	.44**	26	.56**	44	.35**
9	.36**	27	.48**	45	.42**
10	.38**	28	.59**	46	.67**
11	.40**	29	.53**	47	.64**
12	.45**	30	.67**	48	.59**
13	.41**	31	.65**	49	.51**
14	.33**	32	.64**	50	.66**
15	.48**	33	.55**	51	.64**
16	.36**	34	.45**	52	.66**
17	.30**	35	.37**	53	51**
18	.60**	36	.41**		

*P**<.01*

Table 3:

Comparison of mean scores of parents for the boys and girls (N=60)

GENDER	N	M	SD	t	p
Boys	27	144.222	21.1047	.377	.707
Girls	33	142.303	18.3124		

df=28   *p*=n.s

Table 4:
Comparison of mothers and fathers mean score on attitude scale (N=60)

GENDER	N	M	SD	t	p
Mothers	30	156.00	19.51	-6.775	0.00
Fathers	30	130.33	7.038		

df=58   p=n.s

Table 5:
Comparison between the mean score of mother attitude towards their mentally retarded daughters and sons (N=30)

GENDER	N	M	SD	t	p
Boys	14	158.071	20.518	0.807	0.595
Girls	16				

df=28   p=n.s

Table 6:
Comparison between the mean score of father attitude towards their mentally retarded daughters and sons (N=30)

GENDER	N	M	SD	t	p
Boys	13	129.307	6.650	-0.692	0.495
Girls	17	131.117	7.4236		

df=28   p=n.s

Table 7:

Comparison between the mean score of parents attitude towards the lower age and higher age group of mentally retarded daughters and sons (N=60)

CHILD AGE GROUP	N	M	SD	t	p
Upto 9 years	28	148.60	23.049	2.081	0.042
Above 9 years	32	138.406	14.44		

df=58   p=n.s

Educational Policies Syndrome: Teacher Education Programmes and Teacher Recruitment Practices in Pakistan

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Abstract

The major objectives of the study were to review the educational policies formulated by different governments with respect to teacher education programmes and teacher recruitment practices in Pakistan after independence during the period from 1947 to 2009. The method of document analysis was applied to conduct this study. The researcher critically reviewed the policies to establish the major trends and measures as well as their impacts on the development and quality of teacher education. The major conclusions are: slogan of merit based appointments was repeated as a point scoring game in the educational polices without any political will to implement it in letter and spirit. Formulation of educational policy remained the top priority of every government in Pakistan and no attention was paid to the continuity and implementation of the policy. It is recommended that the Public Teacher Education Commission may be established to appoint teachers at all levels, and the policy makers are required to attend not only the formulation but also the implementation of the policy. It is also recommended that separate head in budget for teacher education, improving the salary structure, recognizing the work of teachers may be made to attract the bright intellectuals in this profession. The promotion of teachers may be linked with their performance and contribution to the educational field instead of their length of service.

Keywords: Education Policy, Teacher Education, Teacher Recruitment

Introduction

Teachers are considered the linchpin of education system and play an important role in improving the quality as well as the success of the learning process in the classroom. No system of education could be better than its teachers. They (teachers) may make or mar the personality of a child in the classroom. They are the ladders that remain at their own place but help others to rise higher and higher. The quality and strength of this ladder depends on the quality and level of entry qualification for enrollment, learning process, curriculum, duration of the pre-service teacher training programmes; and recruitment process, retention and in-service training of the working teachers. In Pakistan, almost every political and military led government issued educational document in the form of educational policy to reform education. Teacher education was considered an important area to be addressed in these documents. As a result of these policies, some educational plans and measures were also taken from 1947 to 2009 to provide the educational opportunities to all the citizen of the state and to improve the quality of education. The public opinion by and large about the functioning of our public schools is not favourable. They (people) complain about the falling standard of education, teacher absenteeism, boring learning process in the classroom and so forth (Khalid, 2006). This paper is an attempt to revisit the measures proposed in different policies about teacher education programmes and recruitment practices so as to take a lesson for bringing some concrete changes to improve the quality of teacher education in Pakistan.

Methodology of the Study

The major focus of the study was to revisit the educational policies given by the different governments from 1947 to 2009 in respect to teacher education programmes and recruitment practices in Pakistan with the purpose to learn the lessons for proposing measures for the qualitative improvement in the area of teacher education. The method of document analyses was applied to conduct this study and the following educational policies were reviewed: *Pakistan National Educational Conference 1947, Report of the Commission on National Educational 1959, The New Education Policy 1970, The Education Policy 1972-80, National Education Policy and Implementation Programme 1979, National Education Policy 1998-2010 and National*

Education Policy 2009. The emerging themes gathered through the document analysis were compared and contrasted as far as their applicability in the current situation. On the basis of analyses, the researcher drew the conclusions to propose recommendations for the qualitative improvement in the area of teacher education.

The Document Analyses of the Educational Policies

After the establishment of Pakistan, Quaid-i-Azam was highly concerned about the state of education in the newly emerged country on the map of the world. The first educational conference was organized from November 27 to December 1, 1947 in Karachi. The message of Quaid was: "*you know that the importance of education and the right type of education cannot be over emphasized. Real and speedy progress depends on the quality of education that suited to the genius of our people, consonant with our history and culture, and having regards to the modern conditions and the developments in the field of science and technology. We should try to instill into the hearts and minds of people the highest sense of honors, integrity, selfless service, responsibility for sate and humanity*". The committee organized for the area of teacher education recommended that a properly trained and reasonably well paid teaching profession was essential to build a great state. It is, therefore suggested that the provinces may take necessary steps to ensure the proper training of teachers and adequate scales of salary. The committee noted that the introduction of free and compulsory education would require an army of teachers and suggested that the provinces may adopt special measures to meet this need. In this connection, they suggested the adoption of short term courses for the training of teachers. The committee also stressed desirability of adding research department in training institutions for the study of special problems relating to teachers (Govt. of Pakistan, 1947). The recommendations would not be implemented without the provision of adequate funding. Education department remained lowest priority in the priority list right through the history of Pakistan. Education sector continued to be allocated funds less than 2 % of the national budget. To implement changes, we need resources and competent education personnel who work for the improvement of the quality of education. There was severe shortage of trained teachers that were filled through the inclusion of untrained teachers. The salary structure of the teachers was not compatible to the other departments. Teaching profession remained the last resort of educated youth throughout the history of Pakistan (Salim, 2008; Khalid, 2006).

The next policy document was issued by the first military Government in August, 1959 with the nomenclature of *Report of the Commission on National Education 1959.* The Commission put forth the following recommendations pertaining to selection, appointment and promotion of teachers. They recommended revisiting of existing procedure for the recruitment, evaluation and promotion of teachers, and also laid down requisite qualification for the appointment of teachers at different levels. They recommended merit based recruitment of teachers on the basis of teaching ability, knowledge of the subject and a record of constructive and helpful relationship with students. They also proposed probation period that may be enhanced to three years, promotion and increments be granted on the basis of performance rather than seniority and spending time period in the department. A confidential report comprising teaching, administration and students guidance proposed to be prepared. Minimum qualifications for the admission to the training courses for teachers at various stages of education was recommended Secondary School Certificate for teachers of class I-V, Higher Secondary School Examination Certificate for the teachers of class VI-VIII and Bachelor's Degree for the teachers of class IX-X. Duration of teachers training courses was recommended one year for the teachers of classes I to V, two years for the teachers of classes VI to VIII, two years for the teachers of classes IX to X and teachers for class XI-XII master with short courses in teaching methodology. The curriculum of the courses aimed at developing sound grip of subject content, knowledge of child psychology and insight into the growth and behavior of children at various stages of their lives, methodology of teaching and highest sense of professional ethics (Government of Pakistan, 1959).

Teachers Training Colleges (TTCs) were recommended to be established in each wing of the country, and teachers of Training Colleges would be seconded periodically to serve as teachers in schools. A separate post of lecturer in "ethics of the teaching profession" was recommended to be created. It was proposed to assign high priority to the training of the teachers of Science, Practical Arts and Crafts. Refresher Courses for teachers are necessary to update their knowledge and teaching techniques, and they were recommended to be organized in training schools at district and regional level. Administrative staff including Inspectors, Headmasters, and Subject Specialists was proposed to receive training through Education Extension Centers. Opportunities for provision of Post-Graduate Training and research in education at Doctorate and Post Doctorate levels within the country and abroad were also recommended for the educationists. Fundamental academic research in education was proposed to be centered in the TTC and university departments of education. Functional and practical research was proposed to be carried out in the proposed institutions of education in East and West Pakistan, and

Council of Educational Research was proposed to be established at the Center to coordinate and stimulate research work on education (Govt. of Pakistan, 1959).

Pay structure of teachers' salary was recommended to be consonant with their responsibility, function and status in national life. They recommended provision of provident fund and retirement benefits. Teachers would also receive special awards of merit from President and Governors on appropriate occasion. The achievements of good teacher were also proposed to be featured in print and electronic media to recognize their performance. They thought that these measures would serve to promote the social recognition of teachers. The report laid emphasis on the placement of men of highest capabilities and structure in the educational institutions to inculcate leadership qualities in the students (Govt. of Pakistan, 1959). It is the most comprehensive document on education in the history of Pakistan and touched in detail all the areas related to the teacher education such as entry qualification for pre-service teacher training programme, duration of teacher training programme, salary structure and curriculum. The implementation aspect of the policy is a grim area in the history of Pakistan. The recommendations were not implemented in letter and spirit because of so many factors such as financial constraints, incompetent educational management, low political priority etc (Bengali, 1999).

The New Educational Policy 1970 also proposed some similar measures in the area of teacher education. They recommended the preparation of 1,28,000 new teachers to overcome the shortage of teaching staff. They also proposed a crash programme of two to six months for the training of teachers. The entry qualification of the teachers remained the same as was recommended in the Report of National Education Commission 1959. They also proposed pedagogy as a subject at intermediate and degree level programmes for meeting the increasing demands of teachers at primary and secondary level in the country. It was also proposed that programme learning approach as teaching method to train the future teachers would be followed. The electronic media: radio and television was also recommended to be used in the training of teachers (The Govt. of Pakistan, 1970).

There are some landmark recommendations proposed in *The National Education Policy 1972-80*. The policy makers realized the shortage of teachers and calculated the need of 2,35,000 teachers in the next five years. There were 12 Teacher Training Colleges, 55 teacher training institutions with the capacity of producing 104,000 teachers in the next 8 years. They recommended Education as an optional subject at secondary, intermediate and graduation level to qualify as a teacher to teach primary, middle and secondary classes. They also focused to increase the number of women teachers which was then only 30 % as compared to men in primary schools. This percentage was simultaneously far below than other countries such as USSR and USA where it was 71 % and over 75 % respecively. National pay scales were made compatible to other department and it was proposed that all types of discrepancies as far as pay structure of the teachers was concerned would be removed. They also recommended to provide opportunities to teachers to improve their qualification by awarding them sabbatical leave with full pay. They also recommended construction of rent free houses for the teachers to fulfil the long standing demands of the teachers. The recommendations of rent free houses were not implemented due to political turmoil and financial constraints in the country. Separate recruitment committees for the appointment of non-gazetted teachers were proposed replacing the divisional recruitment boards. The nature of teacher job may be given consideration in the process of selection. Two members of education cadres were proposed to be included in the members of Public Education Commission to expedite the process of recruitment of the gazetted teachers, headmasters, principals. It was also proposed to provide opportunities to teachers for administrative, supervisory and advisory jobs (The Govt. of Pakistan, 1972).

The National Education Policy 1979 envisages teacher as the pivot of the entire educational system. Effective teaching demands that besides possessing adequate knowledge of the subject matter and techniques of teaching, our teachers must also exhibit full commitment to the ideology of Pakistan. Candidates admitted to the teachers training institutions were recommended to possess strong commitment to the ideology of Pakistan, and it was proposed to be checked through interview at the time of admission. In order to ensure continuous professional growth, all teachers were recommended to undergo at least one in-service training course during every five years. Under the policy, there was provision for the establishment of Elementary Teachers Training Colleges, launching of pre-service and in-service training programmes from Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) and establishment of Academy of Higher Education in the then University Grants Commission (UGC) to impart in-service training to the college and university teachers, and establishment of Academy of Educational Planning & Management (AEPAM) to impart training to Educational Administrators and Planners. They recommended the inclusion of Islamic study as a compulsory subject in the curriculum of TTP for strengthening the ideological perspective of teachers. They also recommended raising the status of Teacher Training Institutions and Normal schools as elementary colleges. All the benefits and privileges granted to

lecturers of colleges were also recommended to be granted to the teachers of Elementary Colleges (The Govt. of Pakistan, 1979).

National Education Policy 1992 proposed the appointment of 265000 new Primary school teachers to fulfil the shortage of teaching staff at schools. They recommended the recruitment of female teachers for primary schools, relaxing of upper age limit of primary school teacher, utilization of all types of human resources including retired and un-employed educated persons for teaching at primary level, improving of salary structure and service conditions of primary teachers, linking of primary school teacher salary with his/her qualification, revision in the remuneration of *Moallima of Mohalla School* and *Imam in the mosque School*, minimizing the difference in the salary of urban and rural areas' teachers, periodical training for updating knowledge and teaching methods of primary school teachers, encouraging and facilitating Non Governmental Organization (NGO) to set up teacher resource centers for the in-service training of teachers. The recommendations of this policy were not implemented due to certain political instability and the change of the Government (Govt. of Pakistan, 1979).

National Education Policy 1998-2010 envisaged the following important recommendations pertaining to teacher education such as merit based appointment of primary school teachers, transparent management mechanism, revision in attendance and leave regulations, revamping of In-service training of existing teachers, cluster delivery mechanism, mobile teachers training. They also recommended changes in raising the entry qualification for primary teacher certificate from secondary to Higher Secondary School certificate gradually. Simultaneously a new stream of (10+3) Diploma course for elementary education was proposed to be launched. They recommended thorough revisiting in Pre-Service teachers training by revising curricula, revamping textbooks and instructional material. A career structure for teachers at elementary level was proposed to be instituted including promotion possibilities & revising and enforcing the standards of professional behavior. Annual Confidential Report (ACR) was also recommended to be revised to record performance and link it to promotion possibilities. They also proposed relaxation in qualification and age limit for the appointment of female teacher (Govt. of Pakistan, 1998-2010).

They also recommended learner oriented teaching, active learning, critical thinking, interactive learning and creative learning environment in the classroom by improving the pedagogical process. They also proposed to introduce many forms of teaching and learning e.g. peer group discussion, class observation, distance education, self study, on site visits and multi-grade teaching. They recommended the school based training model for the in-service teacher training rather than bringing the teacher to the training site. They proposed to expand partnership between the public and private sector for providing teacher training opportunities. They focused on the assessment of training needs before launching teacher training programme through consultation with teachers and designing the programs according to their priority needs. Code of ethics for teachers would be developed and enforced. Teachers were suggested to act as a role model, failing which they might be held accountable. B.S.Ed. (Bachelor of Science Education) and B.A.Ed. (Bachelor of Arts Education Programs were recommended to be launched throughout the country parallel to B.Ed. Program. The budget book for the financial year 2000 suggested reflecting posts for science and mathematics teachers as per actual need to be identified by an independent survey. Anomalies existing between teachers with Master degrees who are directly recruited by the Public Service commission, and the promotes of the educational institutions, with Bachelor degrees, were also suggested to be resolved by the respective governments. Throughout the history of Pakistan training has been imparted to teachers without any viable policy and planning framework, resulting in imbalance between demand and supply situation. The poor quality of textual material used in teachers training institutions neither relates to real teacher education environment nor inspires and motivates the prospective teachers for further studies. There is no standardized procedure for the appointment of teachers in teachers training institutions. Poor of the poorest is posted in teachers training institutions (Govt. of Pakistan, 1998-2010). They focused on need based approach for the preparation of teachers and establishment of the National Institute of Teacher Education to design, coordinate and implement teacher training programmes throughout the country. A new stream of Technical Training of Teachers was also proposed to be introduced for B.ED technical teacher training programme.

The current New *National Education Policy 2009* recommends Bachelor degree with B.Ed as a minimum requirement for teaching at the elementary level, and a Masters Degree with B.ED/M.ED for the Secondary shall be ensured by 2018. It also recommends to phase out the present lot of P.T.C and C.T. teachers by encouraging them to improve their qualification, and to base fresh induction on the advanced criteria. It, however, suggests exceptions in case of less developed areas where teachers with relevant qualification are not available. Diploma in the subject of Education may be used as an intermediate qualification until B.Ed teachers

are available universally. They (the policy makers) recommended teachers training arrangements, accreditation and certification procedures to be standardized and institutionalized. They dreamt of Teachers Education Curriculum to be adjusted to the needs of the school curriculum and scheme of studies. The curriculum shall include training for student centered teaching, cross-curriculum competencies and an on-site component. A separate cadre of special teachers may be developed and Governments may take steps to ensure that teacher recruitment, professional development, promotions and postings are based on merit. All teachers shall have opportunities for professional development through a programme organized on a three-year cyclic basis. Progress in career shall be linked to such professional development (Govt. of Pakistan, 2009).

In-service teachers training in mathematics shall be provided with due attention to develop conceptual understanding, procedural knowledge, problem solving and practical reasoning skills. In-service teachers training shall be based on use of science kits. Teacher allocation plans, likewise, shall be based on school needs and qualifications of teachers. Over the next two years, Governments shall develop a rationalized and need-based school allocation of teachers, which should be revised and modified annually. Provincial and Area Administrations shall develop effective accountability mechanisms, including EMIS data on teacher deployment to control absenteeism and multiple job holding. Institutionalized and standardized in-service training regime may be established in those provinces where it has not already been done. In service training shall cover a wide range of areas: pedagogy and pedagogical content knowledge, subject content knowledge, testing and assessment practices, multi-grade programmes to cater for emerging needs like training in languages and Information Communication Technology (ICT). Training needs shall be assessed on the basis of research and training programmes (Govt. of Pakistan, 2009).

Governments may take steps to improve social status and morale of teachers. These includes: up-scaling of teachers salaries as part of establishing a separate teaching cadre and teaching career. Incentives shall be given to teachers in rural or other hard areas, at least to compensate for loss in salary through various allowances given for urban but not for rural postings. The teaching workforce needs to be managed on a truly professional basis, organized as a specialized function. In-service teachers training instituting shall emphasize on developing the capacity of teachers and school managers for school development plans, to overcome low achievement scores. Special short term courses for improvement of language skills for rural area teachers shall be designed. The voice of teachers associations shall be given due consideration in decisions on collective issues affecting teachers. Government should aim at drawing upon resources from the private sector through public private partnership, especially in the areas of teacher education and professional development programmes. International development partner's resources shall be harnessed with in a broad national programme of teachers' improvement for the country as a whole through inter-tier collaboration. Maximum age limit shall be waived off for recruitment of female teachers (Government of Pakistan, 2009).

USAID is working on teacher education to improve the curriculum of teacher education programmes. B.ED 4 years (Hons) programme has been launched to train the teachers to teach in Primary and Middle schools. This program has become more demanding because of the need of great number of teachers at elementary level. It is planned for four years, consisting on 8 semesters having 135 total credit hours. It has 19 credit hours for professional courses, 51 credit hours for foundation courses, 26 credit hours for content courses and 15 credit hours for teaching courses. It is a unique program that offers courses in the form of compulsory, professional, foundation, content and practice area. It will make a shift from the traditional Education curriculum by adopting a strong interrelationship with educational practice, theoretical awareness and policy development within the existing school system. In this way it would develop human resources, carry out school-based research and further collaboration through international linkages for innovative programs. It would also lead to a variety of career options.

Conclusions and Recommendation

The education policies formulated by different Governments after the independence proposed landmark steps in the area of teacher education and recruitment of the teachers. They proposed merit based appointment, teacher education cadre, changes in the selection boards to appoint teachers who have aptitude for teaching profession, gradually improving the entry qualification of teachers, providing opportunities to teachers to update their qualification, changes in the curricula to practice learner centered teaching, rent free houses, recognition of the work of the teacher in the society. Inspite of almost a dozen documents and reforms, Pakistan is still at the bottom in the comity of nations as far as quantity and quality of education is concerned. On the basis of analyses of the past efforts, following steps may be proposed to bring changes in the TEP and recruitment procedure in the appointment of teachers. They are:

1. As far as teacher education and recruitment procedure is concerned the Government may not establish its thrust on formulation of the education policy but on its implementation. There must be a political will to take education as a top priority and belief that the solution of the problems in Pakistan likewise in the world lies in education. Political interference in the appointment of teachers may be taken as grim an offence as treason against the state.

2. We cannot improve the quality of education without improving the quality of teacher education. Therefore, the merit based appointment may not be merely political slogan but its implementation in letter and spirit must be ensured. Teacher Public Service Commission may be established which may be headed by the educationists of high caliber, integrity, character to design and implement recruitment process. In this respect, he/she may be granted constitutional protections and authority to do the job like the Chairman of Pakistan Election Commission.

3. No business can be run without any financial support, but only allocation of greater budget cannot solve all the problems without efficient and calculated use of it. The practice of establishing Teacher Training Institutions (TTI) on political consideration may be stopped immediately. TTI may produce quality teachers on demand based approach. A separate financial head for Teacher Education may be established. Current overall education budget may not be less than 4 % of GNP and it may gradually be increased to 7 % in the next seven years.

4. To attract the quality students for the teaching profession, the salary structure must not be less than any other public sector department in Pakistan. Conveyance and housing facilities may be provided to teachers on the basis of performance in teaching and research. The promotion of the teachers on the basis of seniority may be replaced by their promotion on the basis of their performance. The criteria for promotion may be designed by the *Teacher Education Commission* must be imposed in its truest spirit. There must be tests for all the administrative posts through the Education Service Commission. The administrative, supervisory and advisory posts may be offered to the teachers on the basis of their experience in the relevant field instead of spending number of years in the education department and affiliation to any political party.

5. Words and proposals without follow up actions are useless. In all the educational policies there is frequent rhetoric about the appointment of female teachers in primary schools. The recommendation could not be materialized even up till now when a great number of female trained teachers is available in Pakistan. Therefore, the male teaching staff of primary schools may be replaced by female teachers with immediate effect.

6. It is also concluded that the recruitment and preparation of teachers in Pakistan is not need based. The educational institutions are facing acute shortage of Science, Mathematics and English teachers but there is no updated data available to identify the number of the teachers in these areas. The educational management under the strong thumb of politicians overlooks merit and appoints the Arts subject teachers to fulfil the demands of voters.

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Sea of Poppies and Burnt Shadow in the Light of Subaltern Studies

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Abstract

Subalterns are the downtrodden and the browbeaten masses subjugated and marginalized on the basis of caste, religion, culture, gender etc. They are abandoned and overlooked in the process of history writing also. Subaltern Studies aim at locating lost souls of the society living in suppressed scenarios, vocalizing their silence to mark their existence known and giving them their due credit and place in the historiography. The focus of the study was to bring the neglected experiences of subalterns to lime light while also highlighting the alternative narratives which emerged in the process of giving them a good ear and recording their resistance in the face of power structures. The findings of the study indicated that both the novels restored and secured the forgotten histories, struggles and resistance of the subalterns with dexterity and at great length. They also projected the multiple narratives combating, challenging and dismantling the dominant versions of history coming from the power structures.

Key words: Subalterns, alternative narratives, historiography, gender, silence, resistance

Introduction

Subalterns are the subjugated and oppressed people who are given least attention and advantage in the process of historiography. Subaltern Studies aim at discovering the forgotten and neglected narratives of subalterns while challenging elite's discourse of hegemonic control. The voice of the native who is at the bottom of the society is restored and recorded to mark his day to day living and struggle for survival and resistance.

The study aspires to explore the issues and problems of the subalterns, highlighting their forgotten histories and episodes of confrontation. *Sea of Poppies* by Ghosh (2008) and *Burnt Shadows* by Shamsie (2009) are selected for the paper.

Sea of Poppies opens in the colonial times of India. The natives suffer not only at the hands of local elites but also by oppression of the foreign rule. Hierarchy, caste system and unemployment double their miseries. People sell themselves in the indenture in the hope of a belly full and pack themselves to the unknown yet worst destination.

Burnt Shadows exposes a bomb-shattered and war stricken world in Japan, introducing the reader to the pre and post partition world of India, ending up encompassing the devastated and barren world of Afghanistan after the departure of the Soviets and the problems of possessing Muslim identity in the wake of 9/11.

The study forms the following questions:

Q1. How have the neglected underside of subaltern experiences been recovered in the novels *Sea of Poppies* and *Burnt Shadows*?

Q2. What alternative narratives do the novels *Sea of Poppies* and *Burnt Shadows* develop in the process of challenging the dominant historiography?

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Subalterns and Subaltern Studies

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Introduction

Subalterns are the subjugated and oppressed people who are given least attention and advantage in the process of historiography. Subaltern Studies aim at discovering the forgotten and neglected narratives of subalterns while challenging elite's discourse of hegemonic control. The voice of the native who is at the bottom of the society is restored and recorded to mark his day to day living and struggle for survival and resistance.

The study aspires to explore the issues and problems of the subalterns, highlighting their forgotten histories and episodes of confrontation. *Sea of Poppies* by Ghosh (2008) and *Burnt Shadows* by Shamsie (2009) are selected for the paper.

Sea of Poppies opens in the colonial times of India. The natives suffer not only at the hands of local elites but also by oppression of the foreign rule. Hierarchy, caste system and unemployment double their miseries. People sell themselves in the indenture in the hope of a belly full and pack themselves to the unknown yet worst destination. *Burnt Shadows* exposes a bomb-shattered and war stricken world in Japan, introducing the reader to the pre and post partition world of India, ending up encompassing the devastated and barren world of Afghanistan after the departure of the Soviets and the problems of possessing Muslim identity in the wake of 9/11.

The study forms the following questions:

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Tracing the origin of Subaltern Studies Chakrabarty (1998) goes back to Ranajit Guha in the 1980s when a "series of publication" emerged "in Indian history aspiring to write about subaltern classes bringing them in to "the history of nationalism and the nation", while combating "all elitist biases in the writing of history". The goals of the subalternists were to highlight subalterns "as the agents in the process of history" and to consider "their experiences and thoughts" "seriously". (P-475)

New historiography

The earlier focus of Subaltern Studies has been "on the recovery acts of subaltern revolt". Now it shifts its gaze to studying and analyzing "power and the hegemonic role of dominant form" including the "native's point of view" regarding "history and analytic field of European power relatios". (Mathur, 2000: P-94)

Pandey (2006) mentions Guha who thinks that instead of dealing with "the peasant rebel" just "as an empirical person or member of a class", Historiography has to present him "as an entity" who has "constituted

the praxis called rebellion" on the dint of his "will and reason". Recovering "this underdeveloped figure for history", recognizing peasants as "part of modernity" and establishing "the peasant as the marker of his/her own identity" were the targets of subaltern historiography. (P-4736)

Subaltern Studies intervene to "recover a neglected underside of human experience" and bring to view the "lost" or unelaborated. (P-4736) Subalternist scholars engage in "the histories of the unprivileged and disenfranchised" including the "marginal nationalities", "religious, ethnic and sexual minorities", "the rural poor" and the "urban squatters", dispossessed native communities and "immigrant labourers" and many other working people. (Pandey, 2006: P-4738)

 Roy (2008) refers to Chatterjee who believes that elites and subaltern groups occupy "two distinct' and "autonomous domains of everyday existence and consciousness". Retrieving "this autonomous history of subaltern classes" and studying "the interpretation of the two domains as a process of domination and resistance" are the tasks of the "new historiography". (P-31)

Chaudhuri (2004) alludes to Guha who maintains the objective of the historians is to deal with "history as a narrative" that is "concerned with the everyday world". This recuperation of "the living history of the quotidian" is the errand "of the creative writer". (P-4658)

Minority histories

History writing concerns itself with the "politics and production of identity". After World War II, the gaps in history writing were identified by including "minority histories": the history of those groups "previously left out from it". The list of subaltern social classes and groups consisted of working-classes, women, convicts and former slaves. This was termed as "history from below" in the 1970s. The children the indigenous people, the old, ethnic groups, gays and lesbian were also enlisted in the category of social subaltern in the 1970s and 1980s. It has been argued that a nation cannot claim to concern itself only with the "grand" or standardized narratives rather it is dependent on "many contesting narratives" to complete its story. (P-473) Hence minority histories struggle to include and represent the previously excluded and neglected segments of the society. This inclusion and addition changes the face of history expanding it, making it a whole. (Chakrabarty, 1998: P-473)

Chakrabarty (1998) encourages the "idea of multiple narratives" posing challenge and questioning authenticity of "any dominant meta narrative of the nation". He asks for hearing those groups who have not been "previously heard" other than the "only story" coming from "euro-centric America" in the form of "the grand narrative of the nation". (P-473)

Chakrabarty (1998) also dwells on the expression "minority". Apart from rendering statistical meaning, the word minority and majority have other ideas to denote also. Europeans despite being "a minority" when compared with the "total pool of humanity" has based their colonialism on the "ideas about being 'major' and 'minor'. So the idea of majority pertains to the dominant one and the history of a "larger group" could qualify as "minor/minority" for being dominated. The "'minor' parts" of a larger group are "assigned an 'inferior' or 'marginal' position". The historians translate them back and consider them, borrowing an expression from Kant, "the instances of 'immaturity'" which do not pave way for "either democracy or citizenly practices" lacking reason. Chakrabarty calls these histories as "subordinated or 'subaltern' pasts". (P-475)

Doubly subalternised woman

The peasant woman is "doubly subalternised" first as being peasant/ downtrodden and secondly as being woman. (Pandey, 2006: P-4740) "The colonized subaltern women", as Spivak states, "marks the limit of historical knowledge". (Prakash, 1994: P1487) Women's voice is lost and "the possibility of retrieval" seems impossible due to "historical erasure of the subaltern 'voice'". (Prakash, 1994: P-1488)

"The Hindu widow" is "a silenced subaltern". Despite her weaker position she is "nonetheless sought as a sovereign subject" in the narrative of subaltern studies. She is given the opportunity to "declare whether or not her immolation was necessary". Recognition of "the subaltern's silence is necessary". (Prakash, 1994: P-1488) Subaltern scholars do interrogate the silence to question the unjust social practices. That is the reason Prakash declares the "original goal of" Subaltern Studies is "recovering the subaltern autonomy". (Prakash, 1994: P-1489)

Spivak notices "no room for the widow's enunciatory position" was left by "indigenous patriarchy and colonial power". (Prakash, 1994: P-1487)

Doing history

Williams' (2006) doing history which is not merely telling the history rather it is participating in a historiography which is "revisionist" as well as "insurrectionary" in the phrases of Edward Said. (P-162) Doing history implies producing such a powerful discourse that has "potential to change minds and attitudes" (P-163) a "potential to shape reality" by "its imaginative interventions into historiography". (P-163)

Williams quotes Spivak who argues that the work of subalternist group "offers a theory of change'. The introduction of "this theory of change" makes Subaltern Studies group involves 'in the process of "doing" history'. Guha explains that subaltern politics exposes "an important historical truth" that is "the failure of the Indian bourgeoisie to speak for the nation". So the peasant, for Guha, is "the maker of his own rebellion". Guha views this failure of the Indian bourgeoisie as the "central problem of the historiography of colonial India". Subaltern Studies endeavour to "eliminate the silence of the subaltern". Guha emphasizes on the subaltern for developing "an extra sensitive 'ear'" for some "small voices" which may "have many stories to tell". Partha Chatterjee assigns the tasks of "filling up" to the subaltern 'where there is "emptiness". For Rosalind O' Hanlon, the objective of the subaltern is to make "an absence into presences" and "peopling a vacant space with figures". Discovering what is "concealed" is the task for Gyan Prakash. Sumit Sarkar talks of "widening horizons" as the job of subaltern in the field of historical research. Said assigns the mission of 'restoring "missing narrative"' to the Subaltern Studies. (Williams, 2006: P-164)

Williams (2006) mentions Arnold's argument about hierarchy in the colonial India. The rich peasant is the subaltern in his relation with the zemindar, the landed elite. That rich peasant becomes elite in his dominant relation with the poorer, landless, rural labourers and other service groups. So any society divides differently in different situations. (P-171)

C. A. Bayly contends the point by asserting that at the bottom of society every subaltern becomes elite to the person lower to him. O'Hanton includes those suppressed individuals such as women, lobourers, untouchables etc. in "the construction of a peasant community". (Williams, 2006: P-172)

The subaltern's autonomous consciousness

Subaltern Studies target was to project the study of subalternist themes in South Asian Studies. The term subaltern, taken from Antonio Gramsci, indicates "subordination" and subjugation. Guha wants to purge the history from "the elitist bias". He knows that being "subject" to the elite's "activity", subalterns could not "ignore the dominant". He believes in the subalterns' capacity to act "on their own", in history that means "independently of the elite". Their politics coming out of "an autonomous domain" is neither invented nor depends for its existence on "elite politics". (Prakash, 1994: Pp 1477-78)

Subalternity when appears "outside the elite discourse as a separate domain" personified in a figure blessed "with a will", the efforts to "suppress and overpower" are made by the dominant. The dominant discourse, without this figure, "cannot exist". (Prakash, 1994: P-1483)

Guha asserts that subaltern mobilization brings to focus "a notion of resistance to elite domination." This figure was "derived directly from peasant insurgency". (Chakrabarty, 2000: P-16)

Latin American Subaltern Studies Group

Subaltern Studies Group of South Asian Scholars became inspiration for the Subaltern Studies in Latin America with the "dismantling of authoritarian regimes in Latin America" led to "the process redemocratization". This development demanded "new ways of thinking and acting politically". "The conditions of subalternity" in the society were examined under the trends of democratization. (Latin American, 1994: SSG P-1)

The subaltern is a "mutating, migrating subject" for Latin American scholars. They include "nonworking subjects" along with the "laboring population" in the general concept of subaltern. They feel the need to approach the vast collection of the "masses"__ peasants, vendors, proletariats, the sub and underemployed, the formal and the informal sectors not forgetting children and homeless. The founding statement acknowledges these "new ways of looking at subaltern" as a source of "building new relations between ourselves" and those who are objects of study" (Latin American, 1994: SSG P-10).

Some objections

Bahl (1997) feels the primary purpose of subalternist approach "to rewrite history" keeping in view "the perspective of subaltern groups" so as to create "a new emancipator politics" is lost in the "post-modernist debates about differences" within communities and identities. He goes on to enlist another failure of Subaltern Studies in its incapability to create "any emancipatory politics for "masses" for which "it came into existence". (P-1333)

Bahl (1997) points out the difference between Subaltern Studies and western historians who attempt at writing "history from below". The latter group was fortunate enough as they could construct histories from the "diaries" of the British workers but no such material or "any 'original authentic' voices were left behind by the peasants and the Indian workers. Hence subalternists adopted different method to fill the gaps by "reading the available documents, i.e., read them 'against the grain'". In this process the focus remained on "how subalternity was constituted" instead of "finding their voices". (P-1334)

The concern of the Subaltern Studies lies in its commitment "to the notion of social justice for the oppressed". Bahl raises questions if "the goals of social justice for all" is somewhere close enough to achieve or if Subaltern Studies has evolved enough to help in achieving the goal with the promotion of 'differences" by Subaltern Studies and how a "collective action" can be taken. (Bahl, 1997: P-1335)

Subalternists claim that they intend to "unlock and release histories, cultures, identities" to enable subjects to "represent themselves on the basis of their own experience". But Bahl observes that subaltern approaches present "under-classes" just "as victims" of different kind of "gender, racial and national oppression". He objects on the concept of resistance. He feels "struggling people's efforts" to make both ends meet and "survive in extremely difficult circumstances" should be considered "as heroic rather than as resistance". He is very critical of subalternists group for projecting the "differences" which are produced by "world economic forces". (P-1339)

Common sense, according to Gramsci, is the assembly of "the cultural presupposition" which helps out the subaltern groups in making "sense of the world they live in". This "consciousness" or "world-view" is "unsystematic" and "contradictory". "The ideologies of the elite" dominate "this consciousness" (Pandian, 1989: P-PE62) implying that common sense of the subalterns is governed by the elite's philosophy.

Though Subaltern Studies approach scrutinizes the "protest movements and revolts", equates the inquiry "into the counter-hegemonic projects of the subaltern classes". But such projects are in small number. In fact the subaltern groups accept "the hegemony of the elite" by showing their "deference to the elites" and imitating their "values". (Pandian, 1989: P-PE 62)

Research Method

This study is qualitative research. The method of the study is descriptive and analytical approach is used to find out the issues and problems related to subalterns raised in the paper. The novels *Sea of Poppies* and *Burnt Shadows* form the data of the study. 'Qualitative Content Analysis Technique' is employed for analysis.

Data Analysis

Sea of Poppies by Ghosh

Recovery of the neglected underside of subaltern experiences

The narrative opens many levels and forms of subalternity in its folds. Kalua, "of the leather-workers' caste" and "the driver of the ox-cart" is supposed to keep his face "hidden" from Hukam Singh, "a high caste Rajput". They never exchange "glances" and Hukam Singh is wary enough not to come into a "direct with any of the driver's belonging" while riding in it. (P-3) The narrative makes the reader conscious of hierarchy and division of colonial Indian society in different castes where every subaltern becomes elite to the person lower to him. Hukum Singh is subaltern to his overseers in the factory whereas the overseers themselves are subaltern to their English masters. In the hierarchy of subalterns, Kalua is at the lowest level whose silenced presence marks his neglected and absent history in the pages of the narrative for good.

Kalua suffers humiliation and disgrace by three Ghazipur's land owners. They make him wrestle a match at Benaras that he loses. "The three sport-loving landowners" whip him for losing and further mortification upon him by forcing him to mate with a mare. (P-38) The local elites leave no stone unturned in degrading him who is "humiliated and destroyed" despite being "a powerful giant". (P-39) The reason behind his silence is his caste which pushes him more to the periphery of the society and subalternity.

Ghosh explores another case of silent subaltern woman in the figure of Deeti who is wed to Hukum Singh "an afeemkhor__ an addict", showing "no interest" and concern for her always "in a state of torpid" under "the spell of his pipe". She is "drugged and held down" and raped by Chandan Singh, her brother in law and her mother in law acting as an accomplice on her first night. Though Deeti feels "something untoward" has happened to her (pp 23-24) and later on discovers the whole truth yet she remains silent for the impossibility of any salvation or rescue. She has been conditioned since her childhood that Saturn governs her stars and she cannot escape her bad fortune. This is the dilemma of doubly subalternized woman who feels facing a dead end.

Subaltern scholars seek to salvage "a silenced subject by amplifying its silence", draw "attention to it" and then eliminate it "by giving it a voice" and allow it "to speak". (Williams P-170) Kalua and Deeti's story is missing. Ghosh fills the emptiness revealing what is hidden, making absences into presences. Theirs is a small voice which no one bothers to pay heed to but Ghosh would allow them to speak with such a rhythm that is bound to cause ripples at least in the stagnant waters of a colonized society.

Ghosh retrieves the underside of subaltern experience by taking the reader into the Sudder Opium Factory where Deeti goes to pick up her passed out husband. Farmers with their "vessels" to be "weighed" standing "tense and angry, cringing and resigned" waiting to know if "their harvests" have "fulfilled their contracts" or they have to work "the next year" to pay "a still greater debt". (P-63)

Next Deeti encounters "circling torsos" who are "bare-bodied men" in the "tanks of opium, tramping" the sludge "to soften it" with "vacant, glazed" eyes. They have "the look of ghouls" overseen by the whites "armed with fearsome instruments". They work in a "dim tunnel" that has "a few small holes in the wall" as the only source of light and "hot and fetid" air "like that of a closed kitchen". (pp 63-64)

In the next section Deeti observes "troops of boys" throwing and catching "sphere of opium" on the shelves. Some of them are hanging with "struts and ladders" at "a height where the slightest slip" means "certain death". "cane-wielding overseers" let the howls and shrieks of the boy echo "through the vast chilly chamber" (P-65) who misses the catch.

Deeti locates her husband "lying on the floor" of the assembly room "with his eyes closed" and "a thin line of bubbling spit" dribbling out of "his mouth". (P-65) The working conditions for these subalterns are subhuman. They are paid less and employed in a harsher and harder manner. They are treated like animals with no regard to their human side. They are considered the tools and instrument of production like machines.

Deeti becomes the object of Chandan Singh's exploitation and harassment when her husband falls ill. "His advances" become "so aggressive" that Deeti keeps a knife hidden in the "folds of her sari" for her protection. He admits his earlier sin arrogantly without any shame and coaxes her to submit again "willingly" to what has been done to her "before" without her knowledge. He draws her future bleak when he will inherit her "land" and "house" on her husband's death. Deeti will also be at his "pleasure" then having no one else to fall back on. (pp 106-107) Deeti's misfortunes doubles with the sickness of her addict husband. She runs into the debts and has to bear the threats of Chandan Singh who does his best to bend her in the mould of his lust.

Deeti's silent submission to burn herself with her dead husband instead of being exploited and oppressed by Chandan speaks of her helpless and miserable condition. She drugs herself before tasting the flames of the pyre and is taken to the pyre by Chandan Singh and other men.

Ghosh's narrative recovers the experiences of many subalterns belonging to different strata and fields of life. The lascars on Ibis schooner come from different walks of life with their numerous stories of oppression and suppression. Most of them have "obscure" origins and some have none for being "sold off as children to the ghat-serangs" who have then supplied them to the "ocean-going vessels". Some of them have been "kidnapped" as "naked urchins from the streets". (P-125)

Deeti and Kalua join indenture in their efforts to get as far away from the clutches of injustice and cruelty as possible. More subalterns come in view such as Heeru, a deserted wife who is "berated and beaten" often by her husband before he abandons her in a fair. Munia who gets pregnant by the opium factory agent and her hut and family is set on fire by the same man. Jhugroo is shipped away by his "enemies" "while drunk". (P-164) There are many other who have signed themselves in indenture with the hope of finding a livelihood in an unknown destination.

The experience of two convicts, Neel and Ah Fatt also comes to the surface in the process of tracing and highlighting the experiences of subalterns. Bhyro Singh, their incharge obtains "pleasure" by inflicting "pain" and humiliation on them. The subedar and Mr. Crowle, the first mate "would join in the entertainment" of showering disgrace upon them. Once Crowle entices Ah Fatt in urinating on Neel for a ball of opium but gives him "a gobful of goatshit" (P-317) instead.

Alternative narratives as a challenge to dominant historiography

Ghosh relates the times of British colonialism and how it affects the poor and the rich segments of the Indian society rewriting the colonial history of India from the perspectives of subalterns. India is a subaltern in her relation to the Britain which rules her every nook and corner, oppressing her freedom and exploiting her sources heedlessly.

Deeti recalls her childhood when people have planted "useful crops" "like wheat, dal, vegetables" but now "English Sahibs" force people to grow poppies, "would allow little else to be planted". Saying them "no" is impossible. Those who "refused" have to appear in front of a "white magistrate" with an accusation of theft. They would "throw" silver or "leave" it "hidden" in that person's house. The white magistrate who "earned commissions on the opium" would never let the person off. (P-20)

This narrative is coming out from the mouth of a person who is doubly subalternized, first for being poor and second for being woman. It challenges and rejects the dominant narrative of English lords such as Mr. Burnham and his like who emphatically stress while sitting in their drawing rooms with their bellies full that the sole purpose of opium trade is the well being of the Indian farmer who finds it hard to fill his stomach with poppy crop. Deeti makes it clear that the poor farmer is subdued into silence and obedience by the means of colonial power and deceit.

Mr. Burnham proposes the prospect of war with China because "officials in Canton" are doing their best "to end the inflow of opium into China" (P-75). Burnham thinks that the end of the trade would be "ruinous" for him and "indeed for all India". Neel, the Raja retorts with a suggestion that they can "offer China something more useful than opium". (P-75) Ghosh explicates the truth that opium has "sustained" British rule in India for it is a source of wealth and great "annual gains". (P-77) So far the Indian farmer is concerned he has little interest in opium trade rather he has been subjugated in cultivating it ignoring other useful crops which can bring him food and more profit and less hard work.

Burnham equates the trade of opium with "freedom" and a right "conferred on Man by God." He says that it is a "God-given duty" of British to "confer" the benefits of opium trade and blessings of opium on others. He strengthens and legitimizes his discourse of opium trade by declaring it a "miraculous substance" and "an instrument to open China" to the teachings of Christ. (P-78) His argument implies that teachings of Christianity cannot be embraced with a sane and alert mind so they have to be drugged before imparting its teachings. This is also true to the other preaching and dealings of the British Empire. She has induced some of the natives in the intoxication with her false yet forceful and most of the time coercive discourses and actions who become apparatus for infusing her hegemonic power.

 Neel's protests Burnham's version of enlightening the world through opium by interjecting his argument that opium has brought no good to China or anyone else except producing "addiction and intoxication". (P-78)

Mr. Doughty, the pilot of Ibis pronounces that war with China is what "humanity demands". They are going for it for "the poor Indian peasant" as he would be lost and "perish by the crore" without this opium trade. (pp 175-76)

Ghosh dismantles this dominant narrative of the English lords through the words of Captain Chillingworth who calls this game of war as "another round of butchery". He associates the English with "Pharaoh or the Mongols" who "pretend" to kill "for some higher cause" with the "pretence of virtue". They will never ever "be forgiven by history". (P-177)

Ghosh makes the fact clear by the episode of Deeti's violation by her in-laws and Kalua's desecration and abuse by the local elites that it is not only the foreign rule that heaps oppression, misery and insult upon the subalterns but the native elites also feel good and pleasure in adding their share.

Neel, the Raja is declared "guilty" of the crime of "forgery" by the court. The judge announces the so-called guilt, crime and the sentence and declares that this justice and punishment open this land "to the benefits of civilization". (P-158) Neel's properties are "to be seized and sold" to pay off his debts and he is "to be transported" on the Mauritius islands for "no less than seven years". (P-161)

Ghosh deconstructs the myth of English civilization imparting justice in the land of subalterns by giving detailed account of the innocence of Neel and manipulation of English backed-up by their judicial system completes and ensures the decline and devastation of the natives.

The legend of civilization and justice shatters when Neel is humiliated, kicked and "striped to his skin" at Alipur jail. Neel's all attempts at a civilized communication with the English sergeant are sent to the air. He "struck Neel across his face" shouting "Shut yer gob, quoddie" and ordering "Get his bleedin arse out o' me sight". (P-198)

Ghosh projects the humanity, goodness and true civilization in Neel's attitude with Ah Fatt, a fellow Chinese convict. He finds him plastered by mud, "faeces and vomit". (P-126) He washes him, scrubs "his verminous Charpoy" and body, cleans the floor of the cell, gets Ah Fatt's hair cut and makes constant attempts at communication with him. (P-223)

English lend their full support to the natives for maintaining their caste system not out of some regard rather for the purpose of maintaining their own hegemonic rule over them. The Captain and Crowle stand by the Subedar in punishing Kalua for running with Deeti "a woman of high caste". Zachary, the second mate protests by saying, "the choice of wife is not our business". He is snubbed and told that the English are "the guarantors of the order of the castes" otherwise their "rule" will be doomed. (P-334) Hence by keeping alive inner conflicts, fissures and weakness of the natives and airing them as and when needed, the English deepen and legitimate their rule and unjust policies.

Both the Captain and Crowle let the subedar to administer sixty strokes on Kalua who can bleed to death during the process as Zachary points out. Here hegemonic culture blends itself in the subaltern culture and this infusion is for the purpose of establishing itself and making itself "acceptable to those submitted classes". Hegemonic culture often takes "possession" of certain "themes, motifs and elements of the subaltern culture" hence using them "as a weapon for their own 'legitimization'". (Rojas P-200) The Captain and Crowle assert it

declaring themselves as "the guarantors" of the caste system which helps them sustain their "authority" also (P-334).

Subalterns struggle to survive or resist

Deeti's efforts aim not at mere survival rather she takes measures to resist and stop any future sexual abuse. The day she discovers heinous role her mother-in-law played in her rape and her future evil intentions of continuing the abuse, she starts giving her opium mixed "into everything she served her" who grows "quieter and more tranquil", losing her harshness and "interest in Deeti's pregnancy". (P-26) Thus the silenced subaltern carries on her silent revenge marking her silent revolt. She carefully devises the plan to put an end to her maltreatment.

Deeti confronts the harassment of Chandan Singh and decides to "burn" herself on her "husband's pyre" rather than fulfilling the vicious designs of Chandan Singh of making her his mistress. (P-107) She chooses to die instead of depending on Chandan Singh or her own brothers. She refuses to surrender to the patriarch of the family inspite of her subalternity. Her decision highlights her rebuke and revolt of the patriarch system.

Once Kalua comes to know about Deeti being sati, he starts thinking "slowly and carefully" weighing "the merits and the drawbacks of several possible actions" (P-120) for saving Deeti. A subaltern comes for the rescue of the other subaltern. He uses his mind and the planks of his cart very strategically to snatch Deeti from the flames of fire. Kalua is very well aware of the implication of his actions. His action is open rebellion to the norms and caste system of the society. He seeks Deeti's survival at the cost of his own life. Nevertheless he goes for it.

Guha's efforts to salvage "the subaltern's autonomous consciousness" (Prakash P-1480) find its expression in the character of Kalua. The way he deliberates and   ponders all positive and negative aspects of his action when he is to embark on something great, sensitive and involving cultures and norms as is evident in the case of saving Deeti. He demonstrates an ability to think, decide and act calculatingly independent of any elite ideology or hegemonic philosophy.

After their successful escape, Kalua and Deeti "keep travelling downriver on the Ganges" for they are fully conscious of the challenge they have thrown to the power structure of culture and caste system of their society. There will be "no mercy, even from their own kin" after this step. (P-128)

On Ibis the subaltern migrants called girmitiyas strive for survival by their songs and tales reminiscent of their pasts. They are kept in the hot basement with little supply of water and "ruled by the noose and the whip". (P-276) Many of them fall ill and some of them are thrown in the sea when dead.

Deeti is the one who raises her voice against the unjust treatment meted out to the dead on the ship. The silahdar would tip the body overboard. She demands "some respect" (P-283) and let the relatives of the dead decide how to be done with the dead bodies. Once her voice is heard, she becomes Bhauji for her subalterns, fallen fellows.

Deeti lands into trouble by protesting for Munia who has been seen with a lascar Jodu. Jodu is "Lashed" and made to "crawl like a dog" (p-324) whereas Munia is locked up. Munia is released and Deeti is taken in by the subedar with malign intentions. In an effort to save Deeti, Kalua gets deadly beating from the subedar but redeems Deeti once again from the clutches of the subedar, one of the patriarchs from Deeti's in-laws.

Burnt Shadows by Shamsie
Recovery of the neglected underside of subaltern experiences

Hiroko is a displaced subaltern from Japan to Delhi. She is doubly subalternised who has no place to go and no one to turn to once the bomb wipes out her loved ones from the surface of the earth. Even in Japan she is looked down upon by her neighbours for whom she is "the traitor's daughter" (p-7) on the ground that her father has a knack to pour out "his outbursts against the military and the Emperor" (P-13) openly. This openness is the reason enough to imprison him with a tag of traitor and push his daughter to the periphery of the society by dismissing her from the job of teaching and conscripting her "to work at one of the munitions factories" (P-14) hence subjugating and marginalizing her wholly.

America with the "New Bomb" which can turn all Japanese in to "skeleton or grapes" becomes the oppressor and Japan emerges as a subaltern country that is brought down on her knees by the dint of American nuclear power. The bomb dropped in Nagasaki obliterates uncountable lives separating the dear ones forever and results in disintegration and displacement.

The second part of the novel takes the reader with Hiroko to Delhi, India of 1947. The English men and women are too full of themselves and with the notions of superiority and Indians' inferiority. Sajjad Ali

who works for Mr. Burton is talked about as "James's dogsbody" (P-64) by an English woman. Hiroko finds the expression strange. She aligns herself more easily with the working class of Indians than with the sophisticated and rich Burtons and their likes. Indians are subalterns and subject of ridicule for their English masters. She concludes "the rich! Ridiculous" both in Japan and India as certain things never "change no matter where in the world you went." (P-66)

Sajjad is insulted and dismissed from the Burton's home. Elizabeth has "yelled such horrible things" at him when she finds him in proximity of Hiroko. Though both Elizabeth and James realize their mistake yet they do not apologize and Sajjad knows it is because "of class" (P-111). Sajjad being subaltern and James coming from the privileged group are at the two opposite end of social ladder where no second thought can occur in the latter of committing a mistake and then redoing the damage caused by it.

James opposition of Hiroko's marrying with Sajjad is again on the basis of his social position. He feels the marriage would "make things socially awkward" for them as how can they "invite him" to their "farewell party" in Delhi with the "smart set". (P-116) His subaltern position excludes him from the social elite circle of James.

Shamsie presents subalterns who are connected to the centre and are no ignorant but their powerlessness and helplessness originated from their weak social position characterize them subalterns easily repressed by the power structure.

Raza becomes "another Pakistani who the Americans" have "turned against" regarding him as their enemy "after extracting all" good and "useful from him". (P-307) Steve, CIA agent charges him with the murder of Harry that he has not committed. The dilemma of Raza is the dilemma of being a subaltern and coming from a subaltern country. He feels "the powerlessness of being merely Pakistani" very sharply. (P-308) He cannot go back to his own country as the authorities would be obliged to hunt him down for a power structure greater than themselves. Roy (2005) terms this "a state of powerlessness" (P-31) as Subalternity which Raza goes through.

Shamsie delineates "the condition of subalterity, of wretchedness and humiliation" of those "individuals and groups" who are not "poor and down-trodden" (Panday, 2006: P-4738). Her portrayal points out the miseries of subalterns who come from different worlds still have same experiences of marginalization, exclusion, displacement and powerlessness.

Alternative narratives as a challenge to dominant historiography

Shamsie deconstructs the dominant logic of history for dropping the bomb on Nagasaki i.e., it has "to be done to save American lives". (P-62) Hiroko picturizes the havoc wrought by the bomb: "bodies sticking to the walls" transforming in to "shadows", everything "eradicated completely" (P-76). She sees her father "covered in scales". There is "no skin, no hair, no clothes, just scales". "Whole life" is "reduced to ash". (P-99) The narrative forces the many questions challenging the authenticity of the logic behind such an inhumane and selfish act.

The narrative challenges the dominant historiography of all Muslims aspiring for a separate state. Khadija Ashraf, Sajjad's mother disapproves "this Muslim League nonsense" about getting "a new country" as it is "disrupting everything". But there are some people who are eager for the time when "this new nation would be reality" like Sheherbano's father who "would move there" (P-51) whereas there are some like Sajjad with "no political allegiances". (P-52) People have different ideologies even in the same family. The partition topic has created unrest in the hearts and minds of both natives and their ruler. The prospect of leaving and moving entails a lot of pain and disturbance for everyone.

The novel dismantles the idea that process of "Islamisation" has been the heart cry of all Muslim Pakistanis. Hiroko takes it "as a political tool of a dictator" that all people recognize yet they allow "their lives to be changed by it". (P-182) Sajjad curses the government after Raza, his son's repeated failure in Islamic studies exam that keeps "trying to force religion into everything public". (P-147)

War is as much wicked and monstrous for Afghans as it could be for anyone else in the world. Abdullah, the afghan boy says that mujahedeen fight for their "homeland" which has become "the doorway to hell" under war. They want to "restore it to paradise". (P-216)

Shamsie emphasizes the fact that whatever comes to us is "only the part of the story". (P-271)   We feel aggrieved, broken and shattered for our losses but pay little or no heed to the other party. In the pre-partitioned India, Sajjad realizes that he is "touched far more deeply" when "atrocities" are "committed on Muslims" as compared to the "atrocities committed by Muslims". (P-88) Years later Harry wants "the world to stop and weep with him" on the event of 9/11 while he is in Belgian, "a country which has lost more than two

and a half million" of her "people in a war". The magnitude of her tragedy is far greater than his; still he perceives it hard "to connect those numbers to his emotions". (P-271)

Americans who have been the great supporter and the provider of Afghan mujahedeen in the war against Soviets turn against them. This turn of relation declares them and anyone having slight relation with them like Raza as terrorist.

Shamsie deconstructs the image of blood thirsty Afghan mujahid in the narrative. Abdullah longs for a peaceful Afghanistan. Ismail, his elder brother is "a farmer" who wants "peace" and "security" to "plant crops" to reap the "harvest" of their labour in their country. (P-320)

Abdullah views war as a "disease". He tells Kim that "countries like yours" "always fight wars" but they fight it "somewhere else" (P-344) so they cannot truly apprehend its horrors and pains.

Subalterns struggle to survive or resist

Hiroko is a mutating and migrating subject who feels secluded in her country and leaves it for an unknown country. She chooses India and lets her life take as many twists and turns as possible. Only she maintains her courage and passes through all phases and places with a dignity of a subaltern. She resists the power structure by deciding to marry Sajjad, a subaltern like her. Elizabeth and James do their best in persuading her and alluring her away from Sajjad who cannot offer her much. Nonetheless she makes her own choices and does not let any hegemonic structure to shape her life for her.

Indians Subalterns get rid of their foreign English masters only to get perish in communal conflicts after partition. Those who survive like Sajjad are made to head towards their respective countries never to return again to the place of their birth and affiliation. However they emerge from all crisis and losses to start from the scrape.

Raza feels marginalized due to his "foreign looks" (P-222) so he passes for being an Afghan in his teens. He tells his afghan friend Abdullah the fake story of his being afghan just for fun. Years later after serving long for America he is cornered by Steve for killing Harry what he has not done. His loyalty is suspected and questioned. He is considered an accomplice of afghan terrorists. This time he passes seriously to provide protection Abdullah who is another innocent like him. He saves Abdullah at the expense of his own life and freedom. His resistance confronts the power structure and helps making the escape of an innocent from the grip of dominant possible.

Conclusion

Ghosh and Shamsie recover the stories and histories of so far neglected and forgotten segments of the society belonging to different parts of the world artistically completing the picture with their master and creative strokes. Ghosh takes into account the untouchables like Kalua and doubly subalternised like Deeti to emphasize their experiences of subjugation and the way they go against the flow to mark their resistance and individual selves. Their resistance does cause ripples if not flood in the stagnant waters of the colonized society. Ghosh deconstructs the meta-narratives of colonial periods by replacing them with the alternative narratives of the local, marginalized subalterns who suffer heavily under the oppression of the native and foreign rule. He salvages many subaltern subjects whether on the land or on the board in the characters of lascars and migrants signed in the indenture by amplifying their silence and giving them the voice to speak of their subaltern past and present. Colonial rule is also exposed with all its conspiracies and manipulations. Ghosh fills the gaps in the historiography by making absent stories of the subalterns into presence under the colonial power structure.

Shamsie sketches the subalterns from the different territories such as Hiroko from Japan, Sajjad from India, Raza from Pakistan and Abdullah from Afghanistan. They all have common experiences of seclusion, marginalization, displacement, oppression, powerlessness and repression. They strive to resist by handling their lives on their own and refusing to be restrained by the power structure be it Britain, America or local elites. Shamsie brings alternate versions of history where many people in colonial India feel bad at the discourse of partition, finding it hard to leave the place of their birth and affiliation whereas there are others who look for the moment eagerly. She dismantles the image of Afghan terrorist and war-lover by delineating Abdullah and his brother. Both feel homesick for the Afghanistan-before-war and want to live in it peacefully and freely, opposing war which bequeaths horrors, death, destruction and devastation as its legacy for the generation after generation.

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Oh, I am sorry': The Realization Patterns of Apologizing in Urdu

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Abstract

This study sets out to examine different speech strategies for apologizing in relation to the social status, social distance, severity of offense, and gender in Pakistan. The sample of 152 students is selected for responding to different offense situations in DCT. Quantitative data analysis explores that the speakers of the Urdu language issue the IFID most frequently. This direct apology strategy is often intensified as 79% IFIDs are accompanied by internal and supportive intensifiers. The strategy of offer of repair/compensation is discovered as the second most preferred strategy; while the previous researchers claimed the universality of the strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility along with IFID. The selection of the apology strategies is correlated with the socio-pragmatic variables of social status, social distance, and severity of offense; but gender of the apologizer does not exert much influence on the data. The findings of the current study indicate that the performance of the speech acts is universal but their realization is culture specific.

Keywords: speech acts; apologizing; Urdu; realization; culture specificity

Introduction

The geographical boundaries are going to be blurred in the formation of global community. But the cultural discrepancies pose a threat to cross-cultural communication which is at the heart of modern globalization. A value which is esteemed in one culture is frowned upon in the other culture. This divergence of cultures can lead to communication breakdown. Hence, the study of cultural values and social norms has become potential to provide insight into the cultural divergences which is an essential prerequisite to establish frictionless cross-cultural communication. Raising cultural awareness is not only a source of gaining knowledge about other languages and cultures, but it is also considered essential for recognizing one's own socio-cultural norms (Nureddeen, 2008). The increasing opportunities in cross-cultural communication have triggered interest in the present researcher to study pragmatic rules and their role in speech behavior of the speakers of Urdu.

More than any other aspect of language, speech acts are probably the easiest way for getting access to the cultural values. The speech act of apologizing along with thanking is the most routinized formula in routine life. It has been a focal point in cross-cultural studies since decades as there is hardly a day when the societal members feel no need to apologize to restore their relationships. That's why, the speech act of apology has been extensively studied in numerous languages and cultures of the world. The CCSARP project initiated by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) focused on eight main western languages to study the realization patterns of different speech acts including apology. They claimed the surprising similarities in some formulae of apology. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) also invited the future researchers to launch such studies in non-western languages and cultures to investigate the matter deeply. Since then, numerous non-western languages and cultures are focused to study the performance of apology. The present research is also a response to this call by taking a non-western language, Urdu, in its scope.

Research questions

The description of the research questions is essential as the whole study is set out to provide answers to these questions. The research questions of the current study are the following:
- ➢ What are the realization patterns of apology in Urdu in Pakistan?
- ➢ What type of socio-pragmatic variables influence the realization patterns of the speakers of Urdu?
- ➢ Is the realization of the speech act of apology universal or culture specific?

Literature Review

Theory of speech acts developed when the concern with verifiability of speech was on heights. Arguing against logical positivism which claims that the only meaningful sentences are those that are verifiable (cf. Austin, 1976, p. 2),Austin (1962) distinguished between the 'traditional statements' (constatives) and performatives as two different things excluding the 'statements' from the category of speech acts. *Constatives* merely 'state', 'describe' or 'report' a state of affair in the actual world and they are always truth-evaluable as proposed by the logical positivist philosophers. On the other hand, "the uttering of a performative is, or is a part of, the doing of a certain kind of action" (Austin, 1962, p. 5).The performance of the *performatives* cannot be "normally described as just 'saying' or 'describing' something" (Austin, 1962, p. 5). All the performatives are not true or false as they are self-verifying and are assessed in terms of their felicity.

Austin (1962) classified a speech act into three components: locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. Locutionary act is the basic act of producing an utterance which is always a meaningful linguistic expression. Illocutionary act is the intended meaning of the speaker which he/she wants to transfer to the hearer through the utterance. It is "concerned with what an actor is doing in saying something" (Austin, 1962, p. 108).Perlocutionary act is the actual effect of the illocutionary act on the hearer. A speech act is happy and "felicitous" if the illocutionary act of the speaker has accurate perlocutionary effect on the hearer through the communicative force of the utterance. According to Austin (1962), these three acts are performed simultaneously, but the most discussed and concentrated dimension of the speech acts is illocutionary act or illocutionary force.

Performatives do not have truth conditionality in the sense claimed by logical positivists; though, they are assessed in term of their "felicity". According to Austin (1962), "certain conditions have to be met" to perform an illocutionary act successfully (p. 8). These "conditions for happy performatives" make the performatives 'happy', or 'felicitous'; hence these conditions are called 'felicity conditions'. Austin (1976, p. 14) classified these felicity conditions into:

A. (1) There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect.
 (2) The persons and the circumstances should be appropriate.
B. The procedure should be executed correctly and completely.
C. (1) The persons should have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intentions as
specified in the procedure.
(2) If consequent procedure is specified, the relevant parties must do so.

The violation of the felicity conditions can result in "infelicities" which is "the doctrine of the things that can be and go wrong on the occasion of such utterance" (Austin, 1962, p. 14). The violation of different felicity conditions does not have equal impact on the 'happiness' of the performatives. The violation of the category "*A*" and *"B"* of felicity conditions gives rise to *"misfires"* (Austin, 1976, p. 16)as the action is not accomplished at all. The violation of the category *"C"* of felicity conditions creates "*abuses"* (Austin, 1976, p.15, 43). The action is performed as the effect of violation is not detected at the time of utterance in question. But later on, the intended effect is not gained.

Austin (1962 [1980], p. 53-62) classifies the performatives into five categories: verdictives; excercitives; commissives; behabitatives; expositives. *Verdictives* refer to the act of giving verdicts. They denote evaluations and judgments. However, they do not need to be final. The examples of verdictives are to estimate, assess, describe etc. *Exercitives* imply the exercising of power and rights just as appointing, voting, ordering, advising, warning etc. *Commissives* commit the speaker to doing something in future. They include announcing, planning, intending, promising etc. *Behabitatives* are the performatives which include "the notion of reactions to other people's behavior and fortunes and of attitudes and expressions of attitudes to someone else's past conduct or imminent conduct" (Austin, 1962[1980], p. 160) . The examples of behabitatives are to apologize, thank, compliment, criticize, and complain. *Expositives* show how an utterance fits into the course of the conversation, and refers to the conducting of arguments and to clarifying usages. insisting, affirming, denying, asking etc. are included in the category of expositives.

Searle (1969) shares common understanding with Austin (1962) in respect to performing action via language. He agrees with Austin that speaking a language is to engage in a rule governed behavior (1974, p. 16); however, he gives his own account of the speech acts. Searle (1976) in his "A classification of illocutionary acts" classifies the functions of language usage by dividing illocutionary acts into limited number of categories. On the basis of the criteria of illocutionary points, fit, psychological state, and content Searle classifies the speech acts into five categories in expressive terms. He classified speech acts into:

*(a).*Representatives are the expression of the thoughts and beliefs of the speaker in uttering a sentence. The speech acts of stating, concluding and asserting fall in the category of representatives. Representatives must make sure that 'the words match the world'.

*(b).*The directives are directed to the hearer. After receiving the directives, the hearer is expected to do something by using an action or saying the words. The speech acts of requesting, ordering and asking are examples of directives. Directives try to make 'the world match the words'.

*(c).*Commissives indicate the commitment of the speaker to perform some action. Different types of commissivesare offering, promising and betting. This sort of speech acts also make 'the world match the words' like the directives but here the commitment is of the speaker and not of the hearer.

(d). Expressives express the feelings of the speaker. The speaker has nothing to do with the world or the things to come. Thanking, apologizing, exclamating, welcoming and congratulating are expressives. Expressives make 'the words match the world.'

*(e).*Declaratives are not mere utterances rather they are ritual or ceremonial acts. Declaratives require specialization in certain fields. A declaration of war requires the relevant person for the declaration and the pragmatic elements to make the speech act successful and effective. Christening, declaring war, baptizing and excommunicating are some cases of declaratives. Declaratives make 'the words change the world.'

Searle further developed Austin' felicity conditions into a classification that must hold for a successful speech act. The series of conditions set out by Searle distinguishes aptly between a successful and an anomalous utterance.

*(a).*Propositional act deals with the time of the act for which the speaker is going to indulge in a speech act. It also counts on whose behalf the speaker is performing the act. In act of apologizing, the apologizer can apologize on behalf of a company, spouse, child or family. Apology is made for a past even while request is made for a future act.

*(b).*Preparatory condition deals with the probability of occurrence of an event if its propositional act is future. It also counts for the preference of the act done either by the speaker or the hearer and its advantage for the speaker or the hearer.

*(c).*Sincerity condition is about the sincerity of the speaker in performing an act.

(d). Essential condition of the speech acts deals with the question whether a speech act counts as an undertaking, an attempt to do something, an apology or something else. The syntactic structure and the linguistic items of the speech act are concentrated to investigate the essential condition of the speech acts.

Speech act of apology

Apologies have received a lot of attention in the field of sociolinguistics (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Among the speech acts in which we engage daily, apology is the most frequent. The function of apology is to restore and maintain harmony between a speaker and a hearer. The apologizer expresses his/her sorry for an act which is/was not in favour of the addressee. The speech act of apology falls in Austin's category of 'behabitatives' which includes the performatives "concerned with reactions towards others and designed to exhibit attitudes and feelings" (Austin, 1962 [1975, p. 83]).Searle recognized need for new taxonomy and assigned apology to the category of 'e*xpressives'* which includes the speech acts of thanking, condoling, congratulating, deploring, and welcoming. All these verbs "express the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the propositional content" (1979, p. 15). If the felicity conditions proposed for the '*expressives'* by Searle (1969, p. 67) are applied to the speech act of apology, the felicity conditions of apology can be following:

Propositional act	*S* expresses regret for a past act *A*
Preparatory condition	*S* believes that the past act *A* was not in *H*'s best interest
Sincerity condition	*S* is sorry for that past act *A*
Essential condition	in uttering the words of apology, *S* apologizes to *H*

Speech act of apologizing has been extensively studied in Cross-Cultural Speech Acts Realization Patterns (**CCSARP**) project initiated in 1982 (see Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) which aiming at investigating pragmatic universals and their characteristics (Afghari, 2007, p. 177-185). The focus of the interest was the speech acts of request and apology, across eight major Western languages i.e. English, French, Danish, German, Hebrew, Russian etc. They used Discourse Completion Task (DCT) for collecting data. They applied the same socio-pragmatic constraints for native and non-native speakers' patterns of realization of these speech acts (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). The data showed "surprising similarities in IFIDs and expression of responsibility preference" (Olshtain, 1989, p. 171). The research discovered that the NSs and NNSs used similar strategies but there were cultural preferences in their use. The most frequently used strategies were explicit expression of apology and acknowledgement of responsibility (Nureddeen, 2008).

Song and Liu (2002) compared Chinese and English apology strategies. Chinese data were primary data but English data were taken from secondary source i.e. from the research of Olshtain (1989). The comparison indicated that "the differences exist in the two languages in terms of the frequency of apology and actual realization of it" (Song & Liu, 2002, p. 131-143). It was asserted that the variations were the function of the underlying social norms and cultural values in each cultural context. The data showed that English society is homogeneous and egalitarian as the variable of power doesn't influence the apologetic expressions. On the other hand, Chinese society is heterogeneous taking the social hierarchy into consideration. The English used IFID or the strategy of giving explanations; while the Chinese used less direct and conflictive strategies. They

also argued that English data reflect 'low context' culture of the respondents as their apology strategies were not much affected by the physical context and their messages were encoded in the transferable part of communication. On the other hand, the Chinese exhibit 'high context' culture as the contextual variables were required to get access to the content of their speech.

Deutschmann (2003) analyzed apologies in British English. He took more than 1700 speakers in British National Corpus. His aim was to investigate different forms and functions of apologies with social and conversational variation. His research unfolded that British speakers minimize their responsibility and the frequency of their minimizing was four times greater than those who assume their responsibility. The most influential variable that affected his data was formality of the setting and context in which the act of apologizing occurred. Along with formality, impact of audience was also realized in his research.

Suprina (2005) took Australian and Indonesian data of apology strategies and their comparison identified some differences. The study discovered "cross-cultural variations between Indonesians and Australians in their preference for using semantic formula of apology strategies" (Suprina, 2005, p. 225-236). The variation was found either in the frequency of the use of apology strategies or in the contents to perform the strategy. The researcher noticed a tendency in the Indonesians to use more often the semantic formulae of acknowledgement of responsibility, explanatory strategies, offering a repair, and downgrading than the Australians. Contrary to the Indonesians, the Australians used the subcategories of upgrading i.e. intensification and concern for the hearer more frequently than the Indonesians. The analysis also indicated that although both the Indonesians and Australians used the strategies with similar frequency but the content of the strategies was different. The similarity was noticed in case of IFIDs as the respondents from both the groups preferred the direct apology strategy most which reflects the universality of the IFID (Olshtain& Cohen, 1983; Cohen, Olshtain and Rosenstein, 1986; Kondo, 1997).

Romanian was investigated by **Demeter (2006)** through the study of apology strategies. His research was a part of a lager project of studying Romanian apology strategies for comparative purposes. He collected data from the students of a Romanian university after pilot testing the instrument of DCT. His findings showed that the most often used category, as a standalone one or in combination with other categories, was the IFID (Demeter, 2006). This finding of his research was consistent with Bergman and Kasper's (1993) claims for the speakers of Thai and American English. If the relatively high frequency of the intensified Illocutionary Force Indicating Device is taken into notice, the Romanian speakers prefer the combination of different strategies to standalone apology strategies which is in line with the claims made on New Zealand English (Holmes, 1990) and Japanese (Barnlund & Yoshioka, 1990; Nagano 1985; Taguchi 1991), but contrary to the findings of Holmes's (1990) research that showed high frequency of single strategies.

Chamani and Zareipur (2010) compared English and Persian apology strategies. They collected data through ethnographic method devised by Hymes (1962, 1964, 19720). Both of the cultures showed nearly the same apology strategies but the preferences were different across cultures. The researchers found "different apologies remedy the same offense" (Chamani & Zareipur, 2010, p. 133-153). They also noticed difference in matter of length, usually, one strategy is considered remedial in British culture, but the Persians are habitual of using more than one apology strategy. In fact, the difference in realization of apology strategies was an outcome of perceiving offense types differently. Hearing offense in British culture and accidents in Persian elicited greatest IFIDs. This difference was also associated with method of data collection as Cohen and Olshtain (1983) suggested that no two situations are ever really identical in natural setting.

Methodology

Research design

Research design is generally based on the aims and objectives of the research. As the present research is aimed at the socio-pragmatic analysis of apology strategies in Urdu, the design of this study would be descriptive for using techniques of searching, collecting, classifying, analyzing the data, interpreting them, and finally drawing the conclusion (Surakhmad, 1998). It involves some type of comparison or contrast and attempts to discover relationship between existing non-manipulated variables (Best & Kahn, 2007). The current study is concerned with observing realization patterns of apology that Urdu speakers employ, effects that are evident, and norms that underlie their speech behavior in Pakistan. Besides being descriptive in its objectives, the research design of the current study is quantitative for analyzing the data "in terms of numbers" (Best & Kahn, 2007, p. 89). Moreover, the statistical procedures like frequencies, percentages and Crosstabulation are applied to the data.

Sample

A sample is a small proportion of a population that is selected for observation and analysis by the researcher (Best & Kahn, 2007). The purpose of the sampling is to make certain inferences about the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn. The sample of 152 students is taken. The students of different academic institutions such as University of Management and Technology of Lahore, Govt. College of Sheikhupura, Commerce College of Shahkot and G.C. University of Faisalabad are the part of the cohort of the current study.

Research instrument

The methodology of data collection greatly affects the reliability and validity of the results.The choice of appropriate research instrument for data elicitation has always been a controversial issue in the field of pragmatics. The availability of various instruments such as SRQ, Discourse Completion Task (DCT), role plays, natural observation, multiple choice questionnaire provided an opportunity to the researchers (e.g. Einsenstein & Bodman, 1995; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989; Sasaki, 1998) to compare and contrast them and select the most appropriate instrument.

The research instrument in the present research is Discourse Completion Task (DCT). DCT is essentially a "series of short written role-plays based on everyday situations which are designed to elicit a specific speech act by requiring informants to complete a turn of dialogue for each item" (Barron, 2003, p. 83). It is free from those shortcomings which have stigmatized the ethnographic method. It is selected because it provides a large amount of data in a short period of time (Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Johnston, Kasper& Ross, 1998). DCT proved helpful for giving access to prototypical responses required for comparison of strategies at cross-cultural level (DeCapua, 1998). It made possible for the researcher to get insight into psychological and social factors that likely influence the performance of speech acts. It provides a consistent corpus of data with the contextual factors for control (Ellis, 1994; Kasper & Ross, 1998; Kasper, 2000). The offense situations leading to the apologetic behavior of the respondent are 12 in number. Each scenario presents a short description which specifies the following socio-pragmatic factors.

Socio-pragmatic factors

The factors concerned in the current research can be divided into two categories: context external factors, and context internal factors. Context external factors can also be called social factors because they are socially determined. On the other hand, context internal factors/ pragmatic factors are associated with the contextual elements. So, social status of the offended, social distance between the interlocutors, and gender are the context external/social factors that exert influence on the performance of speech acts. Severity of the offense is the context internal factor that is dependent on the participants' perception and setting of the context.

Social status (power in words of Brown & Levinson) is a vertical measure-a relation of super-ordination and subordination. Relative social status of the interlocutors is encoded and indicated by +status, =status, and -status.

A distance is essentially horizontal-how well people know one another. The social distance between the interlocutors has dichotomous values. +Distance and -Distance illustrate unfamiliarity and familiarity between the speaker and the hearer.

The severity level of the offense is the representative contextual factor in the sociopragmatics set of the apology (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984a: 197; Olshtain, 1989, p. 93). +severity is used for high severity of offense, and –severity is associated with low severity of the transgression.

Though, the variable of gender was not included in the list of variables given by Brown and Levinson (1978), yet other researchers (Sugimoto, 1997; Bataineh & Bataineh, 2005) considered it an influential variable which influences the performance of speech acts. In the current research, the gender of the informants (hypothetical apologizers) is taken to investigate the effect of gender on the production of apology strategies. M stands for male respondents and F indicates the feminity of the respondents.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the most crucial and indispensible part of a research project. The data comprising of apology strategies in Urdu repertoire are analyzed quantitatively which is essential for observing different realization patterns of apology and the correlation among different socio-pragmatic factors (social status, social distance, severity of offense, gender). The codification of different semantic formulae of apology issued by the respondents is the initial step for data analysis.

Coding scheme of apology strategies

Numerous empirical studies conducted on apologizing (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka&Olshtain, 1984a, 1984b; Trosborg, 1987, 1995) provide a good guideline for the categorization of realization patterns of semantic formulae discovered in different languages. In the present research, the

researcher has applied the taxonomy of Trosborg (1987, 1995) with some modifications to make it suitable for the data elicited from the speakers of Urdu. The strategies of giving suggestion to the offended, blaming both the offender and the offended, leaving the situation on Allah, threatening the offended, showing obstinacy to offend the hearer again, conditional apologies etc. are additionally found in the Urdu repertoire which are new to the previous taxonomy of apology strategies. All these sub-strategies are added to the main categories on the basis of the illocutionary force behind the strategies.

Strategy of opting out

It is a downgrading strategy and minimizes the responsibility of the offender. The strategy of opting out is used when the offender either does not take the situation serious enough to elicit an apology strategy or he/she does not consider himself/herself responsible for the infringement. The sub-categories of strategies of opting out are keeping silent, denial of responsibility, Justification, Blaming someone/something else, showing obstinacy to offend again.

Evasive strategy

The evasive strategy tends to mitigate the severity of the offense (not responsibility) to placate the addressee. It minimizes the severity of the offense either by showing the triviality of offense or by querying the preconditions on the basis of which the complaint is grounded. The sub-strategies of evasive strategies are minimizing, querying precondition, suggestion, expressing sense of humor, offering compliment, and use of if/or.

Acknowledgement of responsibility

The strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility shows the willingness of the apologizer to accept the responsibility for the infringement. It has sub-categories of implicit/explicit acknowledgement, expression of lack of intent, expression of self-deficiency, expression of embarrassment, and explicit acceptance of blame.

Providing explanation

The strategy of providing explanation is an indirect apology strategy. The strategy of explanation does not explicitly blame anybody/anything. Only the account and the reason of the situation are given.

Direct expression of apology (IFID)

Direct expression of apology is also called Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) for expressing the illocutionary force of apologizing of the speaker (hypothetical apologizer).The category of IFID is marked with an explicit illocutionary force indicating device (Searle, 1969:69) which is, usually, a performative verb. This direct apology can be in form of an expression of regret, an offer of apology, or a request for forgiveness.

Expressing concern for the hearer

In the offense situation where the chances for the physical injury to the hearer are great, the apologizer expresses his/her concern for the offended person. This strategy is situation-specific as it cannot be used to remedy each type of offense.

Offering promise of forbearance

Strategy of offering promise of forbearance falls under the category of "commissive" speech acts of Searle (1969).The apologizer offers a promise to forbear in future when he/she is expected to repeat the offense and behave in a consistent fashion (Owen, 1983). This strategy proves the speech act of apology not only related to past but also to future.

Offering repair/compensation

When the offense is perceived so severe that the verbal apology is not considered sufficient to placate the offended, offer of repair or compensation is given.

Results

One hundred and fifty two respondents issued 1824 apology strategies functioning as head acts. Besides frequencies, percentages, and standard deviation, the statistical procedure of Cross-tabulation is applied to the corpus in the sequence of (a) overall distribution of apology strategies, (b) and correlation among variables. The results are presented in tabular and graphic forms.

Distribution of apology strategies

The table 1 illustrates the frequency number, percentage frequency, mean, and standard deviation of eight main apology strategies. The data analysis shows that the direct expression of apology and offer of repair/compensation are the most frequently used formulae of apology by the speakers (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Holmes, 1990; Olshtain, 1989; Sachie, 1998). The direct expression of apology (IFID) is marked with an occurrence number of 745 mounting to 40.5%. The strategy of offer of repair/compensation is the second most preferred apologetic expression in Urdu repertoire with 298 occurrence

number and 16.3%. On the other hand, the strategy of expressing concern for the offended is the least used strategy of apology (n=10, 0.5%) which is inconsistent with the previous researches claiming the strategy of promise of forbearance the least preferred strategy (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Trosborg, 1987, 1995). The distribution of the apology strategies shows that the downgrading strategies (opting out, evasive strategies) and apology strategies (acknowledgement, explanation, IFID) are preferred more than the remedial strategies (concern for offended, promise of forbearance). However, the strategy of offer of repair (remedial strategy) is the second most preferred strategy in the data under analysis.

Table 1

Overall distribution of eight main apology strategies in Urdu repertoire

Strategy category	N	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Str.0 Opt out	274	15	855.20	556.438
Str.1 Evasive strategy	78	4.3	678.	609.108
Str.2 Acknowledge responsibility	192	10.5	927.13	544.114
Str.3 Provide explanation	210	11.5	861.05	570.138
Str.4 Direct apology	745	40.5	1011.20	550.588
Str.5 Express concern	10	0.5	790.80	529.587
Str.6 Promise forbearance	17	0.9	850.88	529.405
Str.7 Offer repair	298	16.3	916.46	518.493
Total	1824	100	929.24	555.573

Correlation among variables

The socio-pragmatic analysis of the apology strategies can be helpful to see which variable exerts influence on the choice of the apology strategies and to what extent. Crosstabulation along with Chi-Square test is applied to the data to see correlation among variables.

Apology strategies and gender

As regard to the language under study, the respondents' gender does not significantly affect the choice of the apology strategies. The male and female respondents equally perceive the severity of the offense in the offense situations and opt out almost equally. The same situation of resemblance is found in case of evasive strategies. However, difference is witnessed in the preference for the strategies of acknowledgement of responsibility, explanation, direct expression of apology, and verbal offer of compensation. The divergence between the male and female respondents with regard to the above mentioned strategies indicate that men acknowledge their responsibility for the transgression and apologize openly in a greater number than the women which is contrary to the claims of previous researches (Bataineh & Bataineh, 2005; Sugimoto, 1997). The women frequently give explanations and offer of repair/compensation for the loss (Bataineh & Bataineh, 2005). But, the difference is not statistically significant (Chi-Square ($\chi2$) =8.678, sig. =0.277).
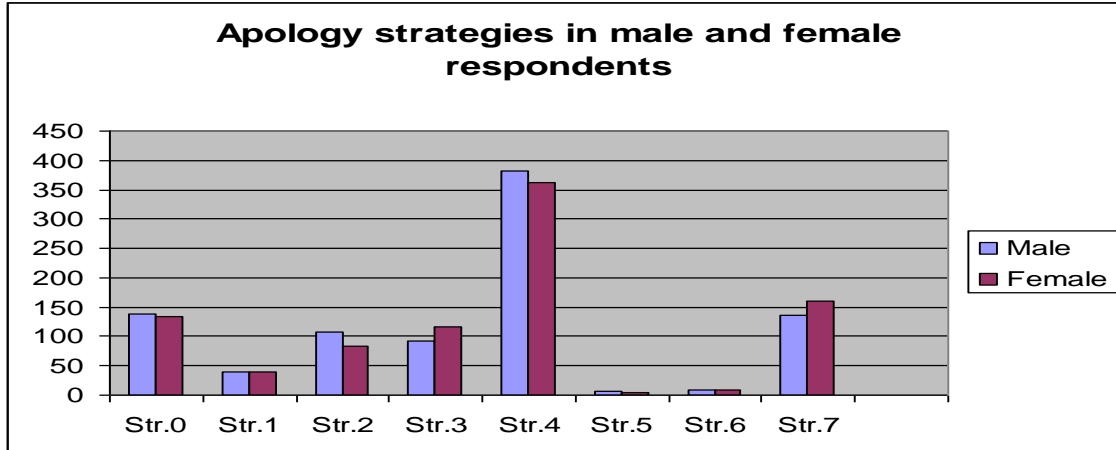
Figure 1. Preferences for apology strategies in relation to gender.

Apology strategies and social status

The Urdu speaking apologizers select the apology strategies according to the relative social status/power of the addressee. The highest frequency of direct expression of apology is observed when the offended is socially dominant on the apologizer (+S). On the other hand, the verbal offer of compensation (remedial support) is given to socially equal interlocutors (=S). But, the speakers of Urdu acknowledge their responsibility for the offense before the offended of low status (-S). Though, the strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility is strong and explicit expression of the apologizer's acceptance of the responsibility, yet it indicates that the speakers do not entail themselves to apologize before the offended of low status. The impact of the social status of the addressee is also witnessed in case of the strategy of opting out which is used most frequently to the hearer having high status (+S) and least used to the addressee of equal status (Bonikowska, 1988; Shih, 2006). The overall distribution of the apology strategies is influenced by the relative social status of the offended (Chi-Square (χ2) = 216.532, sig. = 0.000).
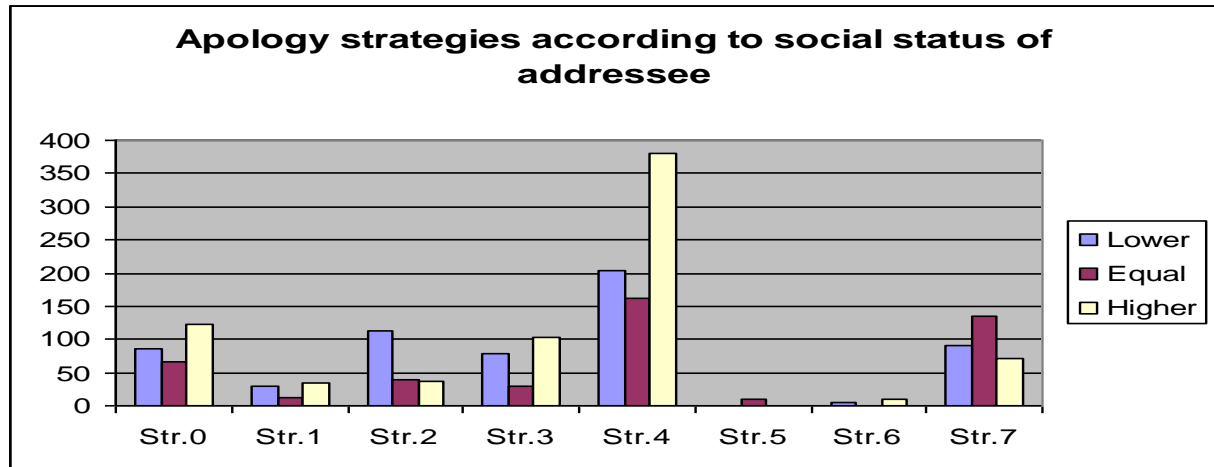

Figure 2. Distribution of apology strategies in relation to social status.

Apology strategies and social distance

Different levels of social distance between the interlocutors make the apologizers behave differently (see Figure 3). The respondents opt out, evade, explain, directly apologize, promise for forbearance, and offer compensation to the acquaintances (-D) with the greatest number of frequency. The frequent use of the strategy of opting out for the familiars (-D) is opposite to the findings of Bonikowska (1988) that the highest number of strategy of opting out occurs in +D situations (Bonikowska, 1988).On the other hand, the strategies of acknowledgement of responsibility and of expression of concern are offered to the strangers (+D). The apology strategies directed to the familiar people (-D) are twice of the strategies offered to unfamiliar people (+D). As the label of –D is used for the familiar interlocutors not for intimate interlocutors, the results are quite in line with Wolfson's bulge hypothesis (1989) that most of the strategies are used in medium distance relationships

where the interlocutors are neither very intimate nor strangers. The correlation shown by Cross-tabulation is supported by the Chi-Square value (Chi-Square $(\chi 2) = 142.684$, sig. $=0.000$).
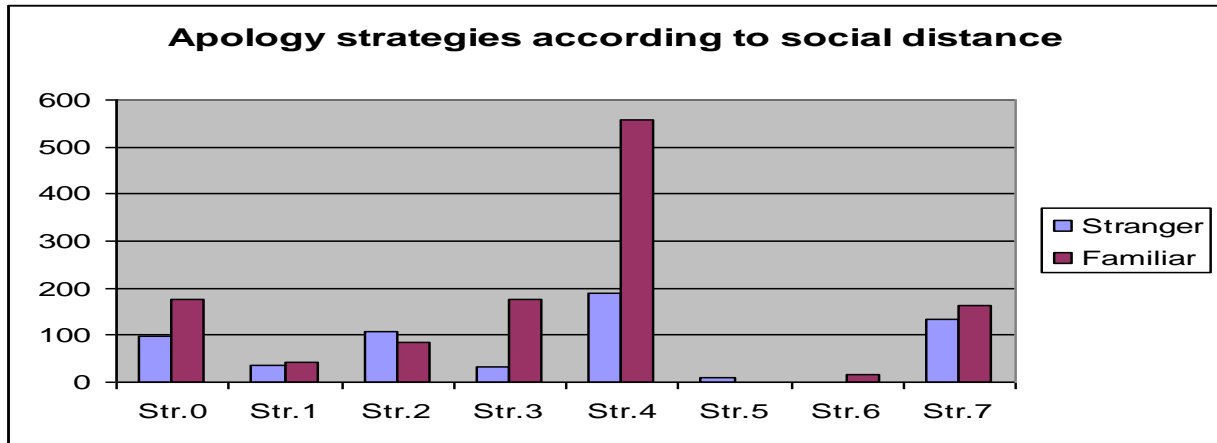

Figure 3. Distribution of apology strategies in relation to social distance.

Apology strategies and severity of offense

The severity of offense, the representative contextual factor in the socio-pragmatic set of apology (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984a: 197; Olshtain, 1989, p. 93) made the speakers of the Urdu language employ different semantic formulae of apology according to the severity of the offense. The speakers of Urdu apologize explicitly when the offense is of low severity. This preference for selecting the direct apology in relation to situations of low severity indicates that the speakers of the Urdu language use IFID when the offense is not grave(-Severity). Moreover, the respondents opt out frequently when the offense is of high severity (+Severity) unlike the results shown by Shih (2006) and Bonikowska (1988). Likewise, the strategies of acknowledgement of responsibility and offer of repair/compensation are used in the context of high severity (+Severity). The variation in preference for particular strategies in the contexts of low and high severity of offense shows that severity of offense affects the performance of the speech act of apology (Chi-Square $(\chi 2) =134.860$, sig. $=0.000$).
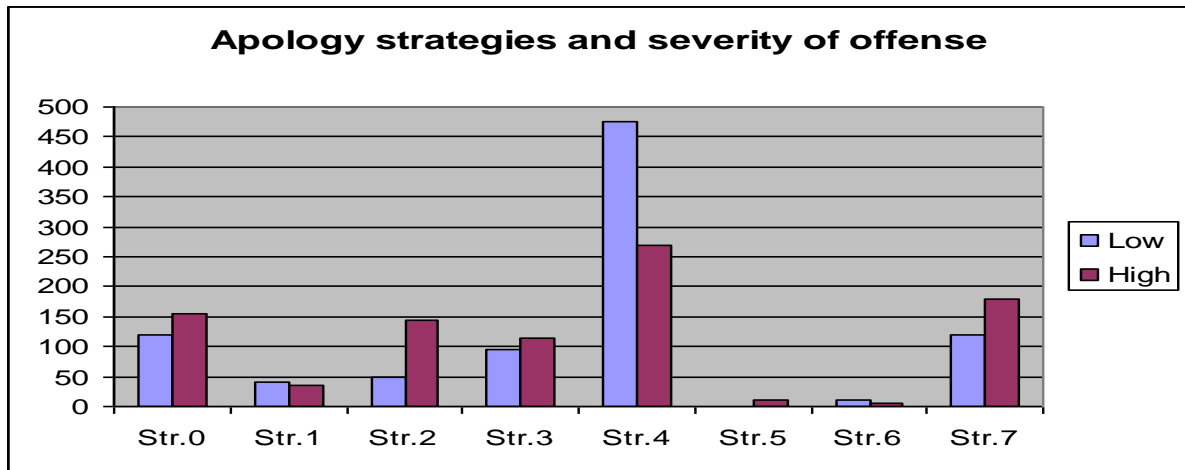

*Figure*4. Distribution of apology strategies in relation to severity of offense.

Discussion

 The Preferred strategies

The frequency of apology strategies is uneven ranging from 745 to 10 occurrence number in the data under discussion. This preference for particular apology strategy in particular context is obviously influenced by the context external and context internal factors. So, it is essential to discuss the apology strategies with regard to the context of occurrence, and correlation with the variables in the previous and the present study.

Direct apology (IFID)

IFID categorized as 'expressive' speech act by Searle (1976) is discovered as the most frequently used expression of apology (Afghari, 2007; Beckwith & Dewaele, 2008; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Demeter, 2006; Salcen, 2011) in Urdu. The Urdu speakers selected IFID strategy most frequently to give vent to their feelings of guilt. Among the available explicit apology strategies, the strategy with performative verb "sorry" is "used more often than others" implying request for forgiveness (Blum–Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). As regard to the intensifiers, 79% IFIDs are intensified with internal and supportive intensifiers like the Romanian language (Demeter, 2006). This occurrence of IFID with intensifiers reflects that the speakers of Urdu have used IFID as a genuine expression of their remorse.

The distribution of IFID category in the current data is general, but some offense situations in the DCT are marked with the highest occurrence number of IFID. The offense of inconvenience is the most frequently apologized offense via IFID. The scenario of misunderstanding the order of customers in the hotel is associated with 156 formulae of IFID which is the maximum occurrence number of IFID in the data. The members of Urdu speech community perceived this offense so much regrettable that they used maximum intensification devices (multiple strategies and internal intensifiers)with these IFIDs to strengthen even more the force of apology (Fahey, 2005) without which the apologies are neutral for merely fulfilling the formality (Aijmer, 1996).

If we take aggregate of all the situations where the IFIDs along with intensifiers are used increasingly, most of themare issued for the addressee with higher status (+S), familiarity (-D), and in the context of low severity of offense (-Severity). The influence of the contextual variables are contrary to the findings of previous researches such as Alfattah's findings (2010) about high IFID between strangers (+D), Afghari's claim (2007)of the most intensified apologies offered to friends without dominance (-S/=S), and Thijittang's (2010) results of high IFID in response to serious offense (+Severity).

Offer of repair/compensation

The strategy of offer of repair/compensation falls into Austin (1962) and Searle's category of 'commissives' for entailing a future commitment of the speaker. Different verbal/linguistic realizations of offer of repair "differ in their intensity and type of compensation offered" (Lubecka, 2000, p. 171). In the data under discussion, the offense of occupation on space is considered the most compensatable by the informants. The scenario of occupying the space of a stranger in a queue is immediately compensated by leaving the space for the stranger making "a bid to carry out an action" (Cohen & Olshtain 1994, p. 144). The occurrence number of the strategy of offer of repair/compensation is observed increasingly high when the status of offended is socially equal to the apologizer (=S), the social distance between the interlocutors is non-existent (-D), and severity of the offense is high (+Severity).

Opting Out

The respondents in the corpus of Urdu apology strategies preferred the strategy of opting out next to IFID and the strategy of offer of repair. The results reveal that the speakers of the Urdu language deny their responsibility for social gaffe by giving justifications which are "socially approved vocabularies that neutralize an act or its consequences" (Scott &Lymann, 1968, p. 47). It indicates that the respondents "do not perceive the situation as an offense and, thus, they feel no need to say anything (Bonikowska, 1988 in Shih, 2006). On the other hand, the offense relating to damage to possession is also opted out frequently. The scenario of road accident by rash driving is also surprisingly equally opted out by the respondents. But justifications are not given like the offense of social gaffe. The offense is the most severe of all situations in the DCT as it can be ensued by legal procedures. Besides these two situations, the strategy of opting out is increasingly employed in the situations where the offense is of high severity (+severity). It indicates that the Urdu speakers tend to deny their responsibility for the offense of high severity. Moreover, the familiar addressee (-D) of high status (+S) exerts influence on the apologizer to deny his/her responsibility for committing the offense.

Explanations

Through exclamation, the apologizer indirectly apologizes by referring to the external mitigating circumstances which were clearly beyond the speaker's control and led to the offense (Ogiermann, 2009). In the current data, the highest occurrence number of strategy of explanation is observed in response to the offense of time. The late submission of assignment extracted the maximum offers of explanations. The severity of the offense is high (+Severity) as the educational matters are regarded of immense significance in Urdu speech community. The addressee (professor) enjoys a respectable social status (+S) and it is also assumed that the student and the professor are familiar (-D).

Acknowledgment of responsibility

The category of acknowledgment of responsibility is regarded indispensible element of apology which is necessary for the restoration of social equilibrium (Lazare, 2004). In CCSARP project (1989), the grammatical criterion was devised to create pragmatic category of the strategy of acknowledgment responsibility by stating "whenever first person is used in an apology strategy, the expression should be coded as one of the sub-categories of taking on responsibility" (1989: 293).

In the concerned repertoire, the increasing frequency of the strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility is observed in those situations where the addressee is socially low (-S), stranger (+D), and the severity of the transgression is high (+Severity). The combination of the variables is quite opposite to the situations where the IFIDs were offered i.e. (+S) + (-D) + (-Severity). According to the researchers (e.g. Leech, 1983) high frequency of intensified IFID (79%) is the most explicit expression of the illocutionary force of the apologizer. According to the results of data analysis, the strategy of acknowledgement is an assertive strategy which manifests that the apologizer acknowledges his/her responsibility, but he/she is not ready to apologize.

Evasive strategies

Bergman and Kasper (1993) reserved the term 'downgraders' only for those strategies which minimize the severity of the offense. The speakers of the under consideration language often try to minimize the severity of the offense relating to possessions and social gaffe. The preference for the evasive strategies in these offense situations is equal but different sub-strategies are employed by the informants to evade the situation. The Crosstabulation of different apology strategies and the concerned factors (see Table 3, Table 4, Table 5)shows that evasive strategies are frequently issued in front of socially high (+S) and familiar persons (-D)in the context oflow severity of offense (-Severity).

Promise of forbearance

The strategy of promise of forbearance is a 'commissive' as the apologizer commits himself/herself to a future act. The strategy of promise of forbearance is the second last strategy in the preference order in the current data which is contrary to the findings of the previous researches which found the strategy of promise of forbearance the least preferred (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Trosborg, 1987, 1995).In most of the situations where the forbearance is promised by the respondents is of low severity (-Severity), the addressee is a familiar (-D) and of high social status (+S).

Expression of concern

According to Lubecka (2000), the function of the strategy of expressing concern is to reinforce "the sincerity of the apology presented and to show apologizer's concern for the offended person (p. 170). The strategy of expressing concern for the offended is the least preferred strategy in the corpus as it is used in one out of twelve situations in DCT. This use of the strategy of expressing concern for the offended reflects its context specificity. The respondents issued the strategy of expressing their concern when the offense causes the physical damage to the offended (Ogiermann, 2009). The situation of road accident involves the offended's physical injury and, therefore, the apologizer expressed his/her concern for the offended. The respondents express their concern when the severity of the offense is high (+Severity); the offended is a stranger (+D) of equal social status (=S).

Theoretical implications

Since Austin (1962) and Searle's (1969, 1975) claim that speech acts operate by universal pragmatic principle and Green (1975), and Wierzbicka (1985) opposition to this notion of universality of speech acts numerous empirical studies to look into the matter which often supported the idea of universality of pragmatic principles (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) and sometimes concluded the opposite notions (Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000; Boxer, 2002; Duranti, 1997; Golato, 2000; Hinkel, 1997; Hymes, 1967; Kasper, 2000; Manes & Wolfson, 1981; Markee, 2002; Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989; Stock-well, 2002; Wolfson et al., 1989; Yuan, 2001).

The findings of the data elicited from the Urdu language give us ample evidence to have a share in resolving this issue to some extent. The data support the claims of Green (1975) and Wierzbicka (1985) that the verbalization and conceptualization of speech acts varies across languages. The main apology strategies found in the corpus of the Urdu language are nearly the same discovered in the previous studies, but the strategies vary in their preference and content. This preference for IFID and the strategy of offer of repair is in contrast to Olshtain's findings about "surprising similarities in IFID and expression of responsibility preferences"(1989, p. 171)in the CCSARP data obtained from eight western languages. Moreover, the strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility was regarded as the strongest expression of apology but this strategy is employed as the expression of assertive behavior of the offender in Urdu speech community. The culture specificity of speech

acts is also observed in case of the least selected apology strategy. In the previous researches (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Bergman & Kasper, 1993;Trosborg, 1987, 1995), the strategy of promise of forbearance was observed as the least preferred apology strategy, but the strategy of expressing concern for the affected person has the lowest occurrence number in the Urdu language. Apart from the preference and frequency of apology strategies, the content of the strategies of Urdu is also a little different from the previous researches as some new strategies as leaving situation on Allah Talah, blaming both (the offender and the offended), offer of suggestions, etc are found in the corpus. However, the IFID formula with the performative verb 'sorry' confirms the universality of this strategy.

Societal implications

Culture as "the software of mind" (Hofstede, 2004 [1991]) shapes and reshapes the speech behavior of the individuals. The uneven distribution of apology strategies in Urdu repertoire is not random; rather it reflects an underlying system of social and cultural elements. The social norms of Pakistani society permit its members to apologize sincerely and explicitly when they disrupt professionally superior person. Punctuality is valued and wastage of time is considered accountable. The societal members of Pakistani society usually escape from accepting the legal violations involving physical injury or damage to possessions, though they are sincerely concerned with the well being of the offended person. If the offended person is socially equal and an acquaintance, he/she is also offered for repairment/compensation for the damage. The men are open in apologizing but women hesitate to apologize preferring indirect expressions of guilt.

Conclusion

Focusing on socio-pragmatics analysis of the realization patterns of apology, this study investigates the social perceptions underlying the participants' performance of the apologizing. IFID strategy is discovered as the most recurrent formula of apology (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). The previous researches, whether conducted in western or non-western societies, also claimed such findings about IFID formula of apology. This confirmation of the highest preference for the explicit apology strategy is an evidence of the universality of this strategy. The second most preferred apology strategy is offer of repair/compensation while Olshtain (1989) considered the strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility universal along with IFID. This culture-specific preference for the apology strategy reflects that, though the performance of speech acts is a universal phenomenon, their conceptualization and verbalization, regarding content and frequency, varies from culture to culture.

The statistical analysis of the under-research language showed correlation among apology strategies and contextual factors. This correlation among apology strategies and socio-pragmatic factors brings about the culture-specific realization of speech act of apology, in particular, and speech acts, in general. The data unfold that when the relationship between the interlocutors is hierarchical (+S), familiarity is found between interlocutors (-D), and the offense is of low severity (-Severe), the intensified explicit expression of apology is used. Explanations are also given in hierarchical relationships (+S) between familiar interlocutors (-D) but in contexts of high severity of offense (+Severity). On the other hand, when the opposite person is socially low (-S), a stranger (+D), and the offense is severe (+Severity), responsibility for the offense is acknowledged. The strategies of positive politeness are issued when the addressee is of equal social status (=S), familiar (-D), and the serious offense has harmed the offended (+Severity). The correlations is not found in apology strategies and gender, however men are discovered somewhat open in apologizing in comparison to women. This culture-specific attitude of the Urdu speakers highlights the underlying social norms, cultural values, and high contextuality of Pakistani culture. The society under discussion is discovered masculine and heterogeneous. The consideration of inter-personal relations and social status reflects non-egalitarianism in the society. Moreover, the interlocutors usually encode their message in the physical context or internalize in themselves not in the explicit transferable part of communication.

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