CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This framework consists of some required theories. Because the writer investigated pronunciation error and ambiguity sound of the three ASEAN presidents, this present study combines those two theories in order to draw a great inference of the analysis. Those theories are English as Global language, transfer, pronunciation error, phonology, pronunciation, phonological ambiguity, and phonological features. They can eventually lead the analysis to English pronunciation error of the three ASEAN presidents' speech.

1.1 Theoretical Framework

1.1.1 English as global language

Many kinds of statement say that English is a global language. It can be heared on television spoken by politicians from all over the world. It also can be looked in travel and advertisements or in hotel, news and restaurant. They will understand English and there will be an English menu (crystal, 2003). Therefore, English becomes the main language for various business or relation between countries from all over the world.

Although English becomes a global language, English also have problems for some countries. It mostly finds in some countries which do not use English in daily communication or it becomes foreign language. In facts, mother tongue usually becomes the main problematic that it must be attention for English learner. It can make many people feel uncomfortable, for speaker and hearer when they are doing communication. The consequence is if English is not speaker's mother

tongue, the English learner may still have mixed feelings about it. It is be strongly motivated to learn it, because it will put them in touch with more people than any other language (crystal, 2003).

There is not more than few countries speak other language in majority of their mother tongue, so the use of mother tongue cannot give a language global status. To achieve such a status, a language has to be taken up by other countries around the world. They must decide to give it a special place within their communities, even though they may have few (or no) mother tongue speakers (crystal, 2003).

There are two main ways to make a global language become a second language in a country. Firstly, a language can be made as the official language in a country, to be used as a medium of communication in such domains of government, the law courts, the media, and the educational system. To get on in these societies, it needs to master the official language as early as possible in life. Such a language is often described as a 'second language', because it is used to complete a person's mother tongue, or 'first language'. The role of an official language is today best illustrated by English, which now has some kind of special status in over seventy countries.

Secondly, a language can be made a priority in a country's foreign language teaching, even though this language has no official status. It becomes the language which children are most likely to be taught when they arrive in school and the one most available to adults who for whatever reason never learned it, or learned it badly, in their early educational years.

2.1.2 Transfer

Beginning in the post-war years and carrying on into the 1960s, there was a strong assumption that most of the difficulties facing the L2 learner were used by his or her first language. It was assumed that there were differences between the L1 and L2. The learner's L1 knowledge would interfere with the L2, and the L1 and L2 were similar. The L1 would actively help L2 learning. The process that was held responsible for this was called language transfer (Ellis, 1985).

Transfer occurs at the following levels of language: phonology, syntax, lexis, pragmatics, and morphology (Mathias, 2013). Many pronunciation errors are made by second language learners, L2 learners has altered over time. In the 1950s, transfer was the dominating explanation of why errors occur. Transfer could result in either positive or negative transfer which implied that a learner's L1 has an influence in the learning of a foreign language. It could be noticed that negative transfer is mostly referred to as interference (Mathias, 2013). Moreover, the errors that occurred were thought to be linked to the dissimilarities between the L1 and the L2, an assumption based on Behaviorism. However, this came to change in the 1970s when transfer was displaced by the view on that an L2 is taught and learned as an L1. Therefore, the errors came to be explained in reference to the learners' development and not as much in terms of transfer (Odlin, 1989).

A few important factors related to the occurrence and extent of transfer will now be presented. The first factor is linked to the learning setting. For instance, transfer is more likely to occur in a classroom setting as a result of the scarcity of practice outside the classroom. Secondly, the proficiency level of the learner has an impact considering that errors tend to decline with a higher skill level. Thirdly, the style refers to the material being analyzed. For instance, greater difficulties may arise when the material is not suitable to analyze, such as informal speech. Finally, the learner type or profile is related to students' attitude towards the target language. This couldeither have a positive or a negative impact on the learning process (Benson, 2002).

Benson explains that transfer either occurs consciously or unconsciously. That is consciously, due to inadequacy of knowledge or for unconsciously, as the knowledge has not learned yet is made automatic. This is caused to the following reasons: First, there is the influence of the interlanguage which is a mixture of a person's L1 and L2. Another reason is that learning is seen as a cumulative process or knowledge is stacked over time. It implies that previous knowledge has an impact on learning a new language. The third reason is related to affective factors such as prestige (Benson, 2002).

The SLA is focusing on positive and negative transfer as well as additional explanations. The first explanation concerns positive transfer which occurs when there are corresponding elements in the target language and the language one already knows. Thereby, transfer does not cause the errors but improve the learning. Another reason is that the learner avoids specific structures, which is caused by the lack of corresponding structures in the L1 and the L2. The third explanation concerns the students' different development rates, which are caused by corresponding or non-corresponding structures in the L2. The fourth is that L1

can lead to more focus and placed on different structures or forms in the target language which is same with avoidance. However, this indirectly causes the avoidance but directly encourages the learning of another form or structure. The fifth explanation is the overproduction of particular grammatical or lexical elements. An example could be the overuse of formal words which are commonly used in Romance languages (Benson, 2002).

2.1.3 Pronunciation Errors

Pronunciation errors have been long interested by linguists and nonlinguists. Recently, the attention has been focused on the use of the data of speech errors as an indication of the psychological reality of phonological description. A commonly the type of speech error is spoonerism. It occurs when the initial consonants of two words are interchanged, as when someone says *tips of the slung* instead of *slips of the tongue*. The theoretical interest of such speech errors is discussed in the works of Fromkin (1973).

Spoonerisms can involve interchanging the place of initial consonants, as in the example, aconsonant is interchanged with zero, that is, it is transposed, as when someonesays *pick slimp* [pik slimp] instead of *pink slip* [piŋk slɪp]. The nasal consonant of the word *pink* has been transferred to the resulting nonsense word*slimp*. But notice that somehow in the transformation from the intended utterance to the speech error, [ŋ] has become [m]. If the velar nasal hadbeen transferred as such, the resulting error would have been *[slɪŋp].

However, this sequence is ill-formed in English, since there is a sequentialconstraint stating that within a word a nasal consonant is made at the

sameplace of articulation as a following consonant. Thus we have the words *ramp*, *rant*, and *rank* with [mp, nt, nk], but not the words **ranp*, **rangt*, and **ramk*. The modification of [n] to [m] accompanies the speech error. Thus, it provides evidence for the reality of this sequential constraint. As pointedout by Fromkin, forms of resulting which is from speech errors generally do not violatethe phonological properties of the language.

Speech error phenomena motivate the necessity of a fundamental distinction in the study of language. Speakers of English "know" that the word *pink* should be pronounced [piŋk] rather than [pik]. The error involved in pronouncing [pik] is therefore one of *language use* rather than one in the *knowledge*. It is that the speaker has the way this word should be pronounced. In other words, the speaker who uttered *pick slimp* did not think that the correct pronunciation of *pink* was [pik] (Fromkin, 1973).

2.1.4 Phonology

Phonology is the explanation of phones or speech sounds. There are two studies of phonology, i.e. phonetics and phonemics (Ramelan, 1994). The difference between phonology and phonetics is that phonology is the study of the use of distinctive speech sounds (phonemes) in particular languages and phonetics concern the study of human speech sounds; describes the wide range of sounds humans can produce (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994). These fields consist of elements such as stress and pronunciation of individual sounds. Phonetics concerns the sounds of a language, which are classified and categorized into vowels and consonants. Furthermore, each specific sound is represented by a particular

phonetic symbol, a phoneme. According to Mobärg (2001), phonemes are "the smallest unit of spoken language capable of distinguishing one meaning from another. In *set* and *sat*, for instance, we see that by going from /e/ to /æ/, we acquire a new meaning".

The difference between vowels and consonants is that the air is not obstructed when articulating vowels, but obstructed when articulating consonants. The articulation of vowels could be described using a vowel chart, which illustrates the position of the tongue seen from the side of the mouth. In relation to this, there are three important factors or vowel parameters, which are *lip position* (unrounded-rounded), *vertical tongue position* (high-low, or closed-open), and *horizontal tongue position* (front-back)" (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994). However, the articulation of consonants differs from the articulation of vowels. There are three important aspects which are the place, manner, and force of articulation. The first to concern where and how the airstream is obstructed, and the latter part refer to the energy produced by the sound in terms how much (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994).

2.1.4 Pronunciation

Pronunciation is the way of speaker produces sounds, individual sounds or combination of sounds. It can refer to an individual's exact manner of producing a certain sound or a chain of sounds, but it can also refer to a standard way of producing a certain sound in a certain language (Muller, 2013). There are two aspects of pronunciation, e.i. segmental and suprasegmental. Segmentals feature

includes phoneme that consist of vowel and consonant. In addition, suprasegmental includes stressing and intonation.

A. Segmental

The segmental feature concerns with the phonemes which includes of vowel and consonants of a language. Consonant, consonant sounds may be voiced or unvoiced. While the consonant sounds are mostly articulated via closure and obstruction in the vocal tract, vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are all typically voice. To describe vowel sounds, we consider the way in which the tongue influences the 'shape' through which the airflow must pass. To talk about place of articulation, we think of the space inside the mouth as having a front versus a back and high versus a low area. The place of articulation include: bilabial, labiodental, interdental, alveolar, palatal, velar, uvular, and glottal.

The phonetic symbols for English consonants and vowels are then presented and classified according to the three criteria: voicing (whether the vocal cords vibrate or not), place of articulation (where in the mouth the sound is produced), and manner of articulation (how the airstream flows in the mouth during the articulation).

a. Vowels

Vowels are sounds in which there is no obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips (Roach, 1998). The places of articulation of vowels are made especially difficult because in vowels the tongue should not actually touch any particular place in the mouth. There is no physical contract

between the tongue and the mouth in the vowels sounds (Vlack, 2005). That statement can clarify that the place of articulation in vowels is differentiated become two different planes: relative height and relative frontness. There three categories of vowels, namely front, central and back.

1. Front Vowels

There are six phonemes in articulation of front vowels: /i/, /I/, /e/, / ϵ /, /a/, and /æ/. The places of articulation of those vowels are same with consonants that is voiced is based on the location of the tongue within the mouth. For the front vowels, the tongue is obviously more forward in the mouth (Vlack, 2005).

Sound Distinction

/i/This is the highest and the most forward front vowels

Examples: beat /bi:t/, feed /fi:d/, city /si:ti/, and sheep /fi:p/

/I/ This is a bit lower and further back than /i/

Examples: bit /bɪt/, fit /fɪt/, slid /slɪd/, and ship /ʃɪp/

/e/ This is a mid-front vowel

Examples: bait /bet/, raid /red/, and made /med/

/ε/ This is a mid-front vowel that is beginning to get a little low.

Examples: bet /bɛt/, red /rɛd/, lead /lɛd/, and bed /bɛd/.

/æ/ The tongue is getting quite low here, but it is still near the front of the mouth.

Example: bat /bæt/, ladder /læd/, fad /fæd/

/a/ This is the lowest and further back of the front vowels.

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Examples: body /badi/, pot /pat/, and hobby /habi/

2. Central vowels

The articulations of central vowels consist of four $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{\Lambda}$, $\sqrt{2}$, and $\sqrt{3}$.

There is really only on central vowels in English, but we have different

signs for stressed and unstressed sounds.

Sound Distinction

/ə/ This is the unstressed central vowel. It is so important a sound it even has

a name schwa.

Examples: amerika /ə'mer.I.kə/, and korea /kə'ri:.ə/

/A/ This is the stressed central vowel. No one cares what it is called.

Examples: lucky /'lʌk.i/, up /ʌp/, and but /bʌt/

/a/ This is the r-colored unstressed central vowel.

Examples: lover /'lav.a/, and sister /'sIs.ta/

/3-/ This is the stressed central vowel.

Examples: dirt /d3:t/, herb /3:b/, and fur /f3:/

Basically, /ə/ and /ʌ/ are the same sound. The different in location

of the tongue when they are produced is tiny. They have been given

different symbols because, in English, it is very important that we

distinguish between stressed and unstressed sounds.

3. Back vowels

The articulations of back vowels consist of four /u/, /v/, /o/, and /o/.

Back vowels in English are rounded. The basic problem is not all rounded to

the same degree. The place of articulation for back vowels, like front

vowels, and consonants are based on the location of the tongue within the mouth. Because the tongue does not touch anything, this makes finding the location much harder.

Sound Distinction

/u/ This is the highest and most back of the English vowels. This is tense sound in that the lips are taut when you are making the sound.

Examples: you /ju:/, dude /du:d/, and food /fu:d/

 $/\upsilon/$ This is a little bit further forward and lowers than $/\upsilon/$. This sound is lax.

Your lips are rounded but in a relaxed way.

Examples: book /buk/, could /kud/, and wood /wud/.

/o/ This is central back vowel. This sound also has a longer more rounded version which is sometimes written /o/.

Examples: boat /bout/, over /'ou.va/, drove /drouv/, and show /fou/.

/ɔ/ This is the lowest and furthest forward of all the back vowels.

Examples: call /ko:l/, awful /'o:.fl/, horse /ho:rs/, and halt /ho:lt/

The categories of articulation above indicate that the vowels are harder than consonant because vowels are including various part of tongue.

b. Consonants

In Oxford dictionary, consonants is speech sound created (partly) by stopping the breath with the tongue, lip etc. According to Forel and Puskás (2005) consonants are divided into two groups which base on the place of articulation and the manner of articulation.

1. Place of articulation

Bilabial [p], [b], [m]sounds are produced when the lips are brought together. For example [p] which is voiceless, [b] and [m] are voiced.

Labiodental [f], [v] sounds are made when the lower lip is raised towards the upper front teeth. For example, [f] which is voiceless and [v] is voiced.

Interdental [0], [δ] both [θ] and [δ] are represented orthographically by the *th* in the words *thin* [θ In], ether ['i: $\theta \sigma$], then [δ en] and either ['i: $\delta \sigma$] (or, as some pronounce the last word [aj $\delta \sigma$]). To articulate these "between the teeth" sound in English (interdentals), one inserts the tip of the tongue between the upper and lower teeth. On the other hand, some speakers of English produce [θ] and [δ] by placing the tongue against the back of the upper teeth, making a sound more correctly called dental.

Dental sounds are produced by touching the upper front teeth with the tip of the tongue such as [s] which is voiceless and [c] is voiced.

Alveolar [t], [d], [n], [s], [z], [l], [r] sounds are made by raising the tip of the tongue towards the ridge that is right behind the upper front teeth, called alveolar ridge such as [t,s] too, sue, both voiceless, and [d,z,n,l,r] do, zoo, nook, look, rook, all voiced.

Palatal [ʃ], [š], [ʒ], [č], [ž], [j] produce the sounds in the middle of the word *mission* [mlšən], *measure* [mežər]. The front part of tongue is raised to a point on the hard palate just behind alveolar ridge. These

palatal sounds, along with [č] and [j], the sound that begin and the end words *church* and *judge*, are sometimes referred to as alveopalatals, or palatoalveolars. The first sound in yellow is the palatal glide [j].

Palatoalveolarsounds are made by raising the blade of the tongue towards the part of the palate just behind the alveolar ridge. For example, [], t] are voiceless and [3, d] are voiced.

Velar [k], [g], [ŋ], [w]sounds are made by raising the back of the tongue towards the soft palate, called velum. For example [k] back, voiceless, and [g,ŋ] both voiced bag, bang. [w] is a velar which is accompanied with lip rounding.

Uvulars [R], [q], [G] Uvular sounds are produced by raising the back of the tongue to the ovula. The *r* in French is often an uvular trilland in symbolized by [R]. Uvular sounds are also found in other languages. Arabic, for example, has two uvular sounds symbolized as [q] and [G]. Uvular sounds do not occur in English

Glottal [?], [h] the [h] sounds that starts words such as hat, who, and hair is a glottal sound. Although classified as a consonant, there is no airflow restriction in pronouncing [h]. Its sound is from the flow of air through the open glottis. The tongue and lips are usually in the position for the production of the following vowel as the airstream passes through the open glottis.

2. Manner of articulation

Plosive are sounds in which is a complete closure in the mouth, so that the air is blocked for fraction of a second and then released with a small burst of sound called plosion (it sounds like a very small explosion). The glottal stop, the word *football* can be pronounced without interruption in the middle as in [fotbɔ:l] or with a complete closure of the glottis instead of [t]: [fobʔɔ:l].

Fricatives have a closure which is not quite complete. This means that the air is not blocked at any point, and therefore there is no plosion. On the other hand the obstruction is big enough for the air to make a noise when it passes through it, because of frication.

Affricatives are a combination of a plosive and a fricative (sometimes they are called 'affricative plosives'). They begin like a plosive, with a complete closure, but instead of a plosion, they have a very slow release, moving backwards to a place where a friction can be heard (palatoalveolar).

Nasals resemble plosives, except that there is a complete closure in the mouth, but as the velum is lowered the air can escape through the nasal cavity.

Laterals are sounds where the air escapes around the sides of the tongue.

Approximants are sounds where the tongue only approaches the roof of the mouth, so that there is not enough obstruction to create any friction.

B. Suprasegmentals

Suprasegmentals are aspects of speech that influence stretches of sound larger than a single segment. Suprasegmentals aspects of speech include length, tone, and intonation, syllable structure, and stress.

a. Length

Length is how long or short a phoneme should be pronounced.

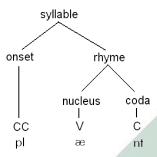
b. Tone and intonation

The term tone and intonation refer to linguistic uses of pitch. Tone refers to the use of pitch to convey meaning at the word level. Intonation refers to the use of pitch to convey meaning at the sentence or discourse level.

c. Syllable structure

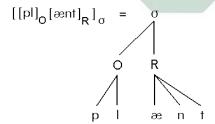
Words can be cut up into units called syllables. Syllables have internal structure: they can be divided into parts. The parts are onset and rhyme; within the rhyme we find the nucleus and coda. Not all syllables have all parts; the smallest possible syllable contains a nucleus only. A syllable may or may not have an onset and a coda. The onset is the beginning sounds of the syllable; the ones preceding the nucleus. These are always consonants in English. The nucleus is a vowel in most cases, although the consonants [r],

[l], [m], [n], and the velar nasal (the 'ng' sound) can also be the nucleus of a syllable.



In this example, the English word "plant" consists of a single CCVCC syllable. This syllable has been broken up into its onset (any consonants preceding the vowel) and its rhyme (all phonemes from the vowel to the end of the syllable). The rhyme has been further divided into the nucleus, which in the vast majority of syllables is a vowel (the exceptions are syllabic consonants) and the coda, which are any consonants following the nucleus.

The rhyme is the vowel plus any following consonants. 'plant'. Syllable is composed of an Onset = /pl/ and a Rhyme = /ænt/ (the rhyme is obligatory = the head of the syllable)



d. Stress

Linguistic stress is a prominence relation between syllables: certain syllables are longer, louder, higher-pitched, or more clearly articulated than those around them.

2.1.6 Phonological Ambiguity

Ambiguity is the property of being "ambiguous", where a word, term, notation, sign symbol, phrase, sentence, or any other form are used for communication, is called ambiguous if it can be interpreted in more than one way. Ambiguity, however, depends on context, i.e. the same linguistic item, be it a word, phrase, or sentence may be ambiguous in one context and unambiguous in another. Ambiguity to Crystal (1988) is the reference to a word or sentence which expresses more than one meaning and this reference has to do with linguistics. In this regard, several types of ambiguity can be recognized; these include grammatical (or structural) ambiguity in a phrase like "new houses and shops" which could be analyzed as either "new {houses and shops}", i.e. both are new, or "{new houses} and shops", i.e. only the houses are new.

Another major type of ambiguity is the semantic (or lexical) ambiguity which might be viewed in a sentence like "Visiting speakers can be awful", which is interpreted in two different ways. The first interpretation is "It is awful to visit speakers" whereas the second one is "Speakers who visit are awful". Another definition of ambiguity is forwarded by Hartmann and Stork (1976) who state that ambiguity is a construction which admits more than one interpretation. An instance is "Patent medicines are sold by frightening people" the ambiguity arises due to the fact that we cannot tell whether the sense intended is "Patent medicines are sold by putting fear into people "or "Patent medicines are sold by people who are frightening".

There are some types of ambiguity. Linguistics theories have identified two main types of ambiguity, such as syntactic ambiguity and lexical ambiguity. The other types are scope ambiguity, phonological ambiguity, punctuation ambiguity, grouping ambiguity, cross-reference ambiguity, and structural ambiguity. For this study, the researcher takes phonological ambiguity theory. Phonological ambiguity is a subtype of lexical ambiguity. It occurs when two or more words have the same sounds and have different meanings, such as *see* and *sea*, *weight* and *wait*, *read* and *red*, *hear* and *here*, and *knows* and *nose* (Hamidi, 2009).

2.1.7 Phonological Features

The three ASEAN Presidents have their own characteristics of pronunciation which are caused by their first language in that country. The researcher classifies into two categories which are vocal features and consonant features. Phuong (2012) had found note of the following phonological features of the three countries. They belong to each country of three ASEAN presidents:

a. Malaysia

Vocal

- 1. Merger of i:/and i/: feel fill, bead bid all have i/.
- 2. Merger of $\frac{u}{and} \frac{-v}{e} = \frac{-pull}{Luke look}$ all have $\frac{-u}{e}$.
- 3. Merger of \sqrt{p} and \sqrt{s} : pot port, cot caught all have \sqrt{s} .

Consonant

 Reduction of word-final consonant clusters, usually dropping the alveolar

Stop.

b. Brunei

Vocal

1. Shortening of long vowels, so *shirt* is /st/ and *cream* is /krim/

Consonant

- Reduction of final consonant clusters by means of plosive deletion, so first is /f3s/.
- 2. The occurrence of rhoticity, so /r/ in nonprevocalic positions such as in *far* and whatever is pronounced.
- 3. l-vocalisation, i.e. the lateral is realized with a back vowel quality such as *sell* is/seo/ or /sex/
- 4. Omission of final stops /t, d/ and use of a glottal stop in place of final /k/, so handis /hen/

c. Philippine

Vocal

1. Substitution of /a/ for /æ/, /ɔ/ for /o/, /I/ for /i/, / ϵ / for /e/.

Consonant

- 1. Substitution of /s/ for /z/, /ʃ/ for /ʒ/, /t/ for /θ/, /d/ for / ð /, /p/ for /f/, /b/ for/v/.
- 2. Simplification of consonant clusters in final position.
- 3. Rhotic (/r/ is pronounced in nearly all positions of a word).

In Malaysia, Brunei and Phillipine use English as a second language. But, Phuong (2012) stated English that is in Southeast Asia like those three country become the varieties of English. Therefore, it can be called Brunei English and

Philippine English have been well-documented and have attracted many scholars as they share interesting historical and linguistic characteristics. It is widely accepted that there is always a relationship between a language and political history, so it is better to know how English was spread to these countries. The spread of English to Brunei, and Malaysia was caused by the British colonization, its spread to the Philippines resulted from US colonization.

A high priority placed by Southeast Asian governments on the teaching and learning of English stems from the necessity of English for the development and modernization of their countries. A general overview of the language policy in Singapore, Malaysia, Brunei and the Philippines can be shown in the following table (Phuong, 2012):

	Ma <mark>la</mark> ysia	Brunei	The Philippine
Official language	Malay, English	Malay, English	Filipino, English
Bilingual Policy	Malay: the national language and the medium of instruction for social and art subjects.	Malay: the national language.	English and Filipino: the media of instruction at different school levels.
	English: the second language and the medium of instruction for scientific and technical subjects	English: the second language Both languages: the media of instruction in all government Schools.	

2.1.8 Short Biography of the Three ASEAN Presidents

a. Honorable Dato 'Sri Mohd najib, President of Malaysia

Dato' Sri Mohd Najib was appointed as Malaysia's sixth prime minister on 3 April 2009. He replaced Dato' Seri Abdullah Ahmad Badawi who did not reelected as Umno President. Dato' Sri Najib, the eldest son of the second prime minister, Tun Abdul Razak Hussein, was born in the district of Kuala Lipis in the state of Pahang. He received his primary and secondary education at one of the country's leading schools, St John's Institution. He continued his secondary education at the Malvern Boys' College in Worcestershire, England.

Upon completion of his secondary education, Dato' Sri Najib enrolled at the University of Nottingham and graduated in 1974 in industrial economics. On his return to Malaysia in the same year, Dato' Sri Najib joined the national oil company, Petronas, as an executive where he served for two years before entering politics in 1976. Dato' Sri Najib was elected unopposed as Member of Parliament at the age of 23. He has served in a series of government positions including as minister of culture, youth and sports, minister of defence, minister of education, minister of finance and deputy prime minister. In March 2009, Dato' Sri Najib was elected unopposed as Umno president after Dato' Seri Abdullah decided not to seek re-election.

b. Hassanal Bolkiah Mu'izzaddin Waddaulah, Sultan of Brunei Darussalam Hassanal Bolkiah Mu'izzaddin Waddaulah was born on July 15 1946 in Brunei Town [now Bandar Seri Begawan], Brunei. He was 29th sultan of Brunei.Hassanal Bolkiah was the eldest son of Sultan Sir Haji Omar Ali Saifuddin. He was educated privately and later attended the Victoria Institution in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, and the Royal Military Academy at Sandhurst, England. In 1961 Sir Omar named him crown prince, and when Sir Omar abdicated six years later, Hassanal Bolkiah became sultan on October 5, 1967, his coronation taking place on August 1, 1968. For the next decade, however, his father remained the power behind the throne. After the death of his mother in 1979, his father withdrew from public affairs, and the sultan quickly took the dominant role in the administration of Brunei. He made frequent trips throughout the country to listen to his subjects as well as to promote himself as ruler. In anticipation of independence from Britain, he began to create a native bureaucracy, replacing British expatriates in the civil service with Bruneians, and he cracked down on corruption.

After having held Brunei as a protectorate for 95 years, the British formally withdrew on January 1, 1984. Although there were minor disagreements over matters such as the management of Brunei's huge investment portfolio, relations between the two countries continued to be friendly. Sir Omar died in 1986, and on October 5, 1992, the sultan, who also acted as prime minister and as the minister of defense and of finance, celebrated the 25th year of his reign. He continued to rule under a state of emergency declared by his father in 1962. In the 1980s and 1990s the sultan regularly appeared at or near the top of lists of the world's richest individuals, his fortune deriving from Brunei's oil and gas.

c. Benigno S. Aquino III, President of the Philippines

Benigno Simeon Cojuangco Aquino III is the 15th and current President of the Philippines. He is scion of a famous and influential political family of four generations. Servillano "Mianong" Aquino, his great-grandfather was a delegate of the 'Malolos Congress'. Benigno Aquino, Sr, his grandfather was the speaker of the 'House of Representatives' of the Philippines while his father Benigno "Ninoy" Aquino, Jr. was a Senator. His mother Corazon Aquino remained the 11th President of the country from 1986 to 1992.

He resided in the US for a while with his family when they took self-exile but after his father's assassination he went back to Philippines and worked in private organisations. His first political representation was from the 2nd district of Tarlac province in 1998 as an elected member of the 'House of Representatives'. He represented the House for the next two terms and was barred in 2007 because of term restrictions. He served as a Senator of the 14th Congress. He remained the Secretary General and Vice President of the 'Liberal Party' for Luzon and at present serves as Chairman of the party. He succeeded Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo as the 15th President of the country.

2.2 Review of the Related Studies

Eva and Lori (2013) analyzedlisteners use lexical knowledge to retune phoneme categories. When hearing an ambiguous sound between /s/ and /f/ in lexically unambiguous contexts such as *gira[s/f]*, listeners learn to interpret the sound as /f/ because *gira[f]* is a real word and *gira[s]* is not. Later, they apply this learning even in lexically ambiguous contexts (perceiving *knife* rather than *nice*).

Although such retuning could help listeners adapt to foreign accented speech, research has focused on single phonetic contrasts artificially manipulated to create ambiguous sounds. It is therefore unclear whether analogies to adaptation to accented speech are warranted. In the present studies, to be adapted ambiguous sound was embedded in a global foreign accent. Results showed that listeners retune phoneme categories which are manipulated within the context of a global foreign accent, and they generalize this short time learning to the perception of phonemes from the previous unheard speakers. However, generalization was observed only when opening and test speakers' fricatives were attempted across a similar perceptual space.

Azlina (2016) investigated the pronunciation errors of President Joko Widodo's speech by focusing on consonants and vowels. The objective of this research is to explain kind of pronunciation errors on consonants and vowels made by President Joko Widodo in his speech. The research uses human as the instrument. The researcher is the main instrument to collect data. The data are collected by looking for, downloding Joko Widodo's speech video, listening and transcribing utterance which contains consonants and vowels. The result of this research shows that there are five types of consonants errors made by Presidents Joko Widodo. The errors of labiodental are 56, 18%, such as: *government* /g'λf.ən.mənt/, Alveolar is 23, 67%, such as: *business*/'bls.nls/, Interdental is 18, 27%, Palatal 1, 06%, such as: *thank* /θæŋk/, and the last is velar find 0, 35%, such as *chemical* /'kem.I.kəl/. This research also finds 144 errors in pronouncing English short and long vowels. There are three types of vowel errors are made by

President Joko Widodo. In central vowels, it finds 90 data of 144 or 78, 95%, front vowel errors find 17, 54%, and back vowel errors is 3, 51%

