An Analysis of Pronunciation Challenges for Japanese EFL Learners: A Case Study of Two Adult Japanese Learners of English

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Abstract

This paper examines the pronunciation problems of Asian learners of English as a foreign language. It analyzes phonemic transcriptions of the oral performance of two adult Japanese EFL learners, reading a written dialogue text, using the Received Pronunciation model as a reference. Vowel sounds, intonation, and stress patterns were the areas the learners seemed to struggle with the most. The paper also proposes some pedagogical implications for teaching pronunciation to Asian EFL learners, taking into account the linguistic differences between their native languages and the English language.

Keywords: English pronunciation, Received Pronunciation model, phonemic systems, intonation

Introduction

One of the challenges of learning English as a second language, especially for Asian learners, is mastering its pronunciation system, which differs significantly from many Asian languages, such as Korean, Chinese, and Japanese. These languages have unique phonemic systems that influence the production of sounds in English (Phonemic Inventories and Cultural Information Across Languages, n.d.) Some differences include the number and types of consonants

and vowels, the use of tones and stress, and the syllable structure (Ohata, 2004; Coto Academy, 2023). Yoneyama (2001) illuminates the issue with the limited phonemic inventory in Japanese, which complicates the acquisition of the more diverse phonetic sounds present in English. This challenge is further exemplified by Aoyama et al. (2004), who highlights the difficulty Japanese speakers face with English phonemes such as /r/ and /l/, absent in their native phonological system.

The role of syllable structure in pronunciation challenges merits attention. Nakai (2005) contrasts the syllable-timed nature of languages like Japanese with the stress-timed rhythm of English. This fundamental difference contributes to difficulties in mastering English stress patterns and intonation, thereby affecting not only the pronunciation of individual words but also the overall speech fluency and intelligibility. This paper explores some of these common pronunciation problems by analyzing the performance of two intermediate adult Japanese learners in a recorded dialogue.

To put the problem of Japanese learners` English pronunciation into perspective, it is worth mentioning that Japan is a monolingual country. Japanese is the only national language, and English is studied as a foreign language (EFL). This means that in Japan the language of the classroom is not English, and as a result, students have limited opportunities to hear and practice English with native or proficient speakers. Some of the common pronunciation mistakes that Japanese learners make are related to vowel length, consonant clusters, word stress, and intonation. Students at the Junior and High schools have about 140 hours of English lessons in a year (curriculum guideline of the MEXT). Prior to the revision of the Education Ministry guidelines in 2003, English education was based purely on grammar-translation. The new version of the curriculum guideline places emphasis on developing students` basic practical communication abilities such as listening and speaking.

On the other hand, working adult Japanese learners employ the services of private tutors or English academies and have English lessons at least once a week.

The paper first provides a context for the study by critically evaluating the existing literature on English pronunciation models. This is followed by the methodology in which the background of the learners, the sample text, and the process of the study are discussed. In the result and analysis section, the phonemic transcriptions of the written text of the dialogue based on the Received Pronunciation (RP) model and of the learners` performance are presented and analyzed. Finally, the implications of these findings for teaching pronunciation to Japanese learners of English are discussed in section four.

A major significance of this paper is that while American English (General American) is widely used in Japan, the U.K., Australia, and New Zealand are popular destinations for Japanese students either for exchange programs, homestays, working holidays or further studies. These countries use the British English (Received Pronunciation) model.

Literature review

Received Pronunciation (RP) is a term used to describe a variety of English pronunciation that is long considered as the standard for British English. It is also known as BBC English, Oxford English, or Queen's English. It is not a fixed or uniform accent, but rather a range of accents that share common features, such as the pronunciation of certain vowels and consonants, the stress and intonation patterns, and the use of certain words and grammatical structures. RP is often associated with high social status, education, and authority within the UK, and by extension, it has been regarded as a model of pronunciation for English learners globally. RP's non-regional characteristic makes it a neutral model that could theoretically facilitate international

communication (Wells, 1982). The model has been traditionally favored in English teaching due to its perceived clarity and thought to be easily understood worldwide (Cruttenden, 1989).

Although RP has been a dominant model, it is not the only model of English pronunciation. Others include the General American (GA), Estuary English (EE), and World English models. Each of these models reflects a different relationship with RP. For example, GA exists as a distinct standard with its roots in American English; EE is often viewed as a modern, accessible counterpart to RP within the UK, indicative of shifting social identities; and Global English propose a reimagined framework for understanding English pronunciation, one that de-emphasizes traditional norms in favor of functional communication across linguistic boundaries (Jenkins, 2000). These models not only highlight linguistic differences—such as in their vowel systems, consonant articulation, and prosodic features—but also signal varied social and cultural implications, from the prestige traditionally associated with RP to the democratizing ethos of Global English.

A critical area in the research on RP within the context of English language teaching and learning is the methods and criteria for identifying and measuring RP features in speech samples. Establishing a systematic approach to this process is essential for the accurate analysis and teaching of RP. Scholars such as Cruttenden (2014) have outlined specific phonetic and phonological characteristics that typify RP, including vowel quality, con-sonantal articulation, and prosodic features such as stress and intonation patterns. These characteristics serve as a foundation for empirical studies and pedagogical applications alike. Techniques for measuring these RP features in speech samples often involve phonetic or production analysis, acoustic analysis and perceptual analysis and corpus-based analysis with local frequency measurements. Phonetic analysis directly measures how sounds are produced

by speakers. Techniques can involve analyzing recordings of speech or observing speaker articulation. Speech samples are transcribed using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and compared with the RP reference pronunciations in dictionaries or textbooks (Riza et al., 2021). The acoustic analysis method focuses on the physical properties of sound waves produced during speech. Researchers use specialized equipment to measure things like pitch, formants, and duration. Wikstrom's (2013) study on the acoustic properties of the LOT and THOUGHT vowels in RP was based on this method. That study contributed to phonetic science by offering empirical data on the variability and standards of these vowels sounds. Perceptual analysis involves asking native or non-native listeners to rate target speech samples on a scale of how RP-like they sound, or to identify the accent or region of the speakers. A study by Harrington et al. (2000) focused on the acoustic and perceptual analysis of monophthongal vowel changes in RP as observed in the Queen's Christmas broadcasts. This study high-lighted how vowel sounds in RP have shifted over the years, offering valuable information for pronunciation teaching that aligns with contemporary speech patterns How-ever, the method can easily be influenced by such factors as the familiarity and exposure of the listeners to RP. Corpus-based analysis with local frequency measurements as used by Ahlers (2023), relies on existing recordings or written text (corpus) to analyze sound changes. However, unlike traditional production analysis, it doesn't directly measure individual speech production. Instead, it focuses on how often specific sounds appear in certain contexts within the corpus.

Despite its widespread acceptance, the exclusive use of RP as a teaching model in EFL classrooms has faced criticism for several reasons. First, the global spread of English has led to the emergence of numerous "World Englishes," such as Singapore English, Indian English, etc., each with its own valid phonological system. Jenkins (2000) argues that insisting on RP may not only

be impractical but also irrelevant for learners who will more likely use English with speakers from a variety of linguistic backgrounds, not just native RP speakers. Also, Digital media and globalization have significantly altered the perceptions and usage of Received Pronunciation (RP) in contemporary settings. As global communication channels expand, including platforms like YouTube, SNS, and international broadcasting, diverse English accents are gaining prominence, reducing the traditional dominance of RP as the standard for English pronunciation. This exposure has democratized language learning, with learners now often choosing accents that align with their personal or professional goals rather than adhering strictly to RP. Finally, the perception of RP as a 'neutral' accent is increasingly questioned. Seidlhofer (2011) points out that what is considered clear or neutral can vary significantly across different linguistic communities. Thus, teaching RP might inadvertently prioritize one form of English at the expense of others, potentially marginalizing learners' own linguistic identities.

This phenomenon highlights a shift towards a more fluid and socially stratified model of RP. As RP evolves, it becomes increasingly important to examine how linguistic practices intersect with social dynamics. Thus, emphasizing the need for ongoing research to understand the contemporary realities of Received Pronunciation within the global context of English usage.

Methodology

The learners in the dialogue are both working-class Japanese adults in their mid-thirties. Learner A (speaker A in the dialogue) is a beginner-level Japanese male. He has been taking English lessons for about two years. Learner B is an intermediate-level Japanese female. She has also been taking English lessons for over five years and has a TOIEC score of 700. Both learners like to travel a lot and went on a three-month round-the-world trip in 2019. This is the

background against which this study is undertaken.

Since the study's goal was to identify and measure RP features in the learners' speech, a standardized reading passage was used. This helped provide a more natural flow of the learners' speech while still offering control over the content. The sample text for the study was a short dialogue about two friends catching up. The topic was chosen because of its neutrality to avoid eliciting strong emotions. Also, the text register was not too casual or colloquial, but not too formal either. The length of the text was about 40 seconds. This was enough to include a variety of sounds and words and still allow for a focused analysis. The text was transcribed into the IPA symbols using a transcription software, Phonetizer for Windows (2016).

The learners were allowed to practice reading the dialogue several times and the recording was done only after they indicated their readiness. The recording was done in a quiet environment using a handheld recorder and the researcher took time to check and ensure the quality of the microphone and recorder. After the session, the audio file was analyzed using the phonetic analysis method.

Appendix i is a sample of the given text of the dialogue. Appendix ii is a phonemic transcription of the text of the dialogue based on the Received Pronunciation model (RP). Appendix iii is a phonemic transcription of the recording of the dialogue performed by the learners. The audio recording can be accessed by scanning the QR code below,

Result and Analysis

Segmental aspects

Vowels

Vowels are speech sounds that are produced when air flows freely from the lungs through the vocal cords to the mouth without any blockages (Roach, 1992). English has 20 vowel sounds, which are grouped into three categories: short vowels (like /ɪ/ in “bit”, /ɛ/ in “bet”, /a/ in “cat”), long vowels (like /i:/ in “beat”, /u:/ in “boot”), and diphthongs, which are complex sounds that begin with one vowel sound and glide into another (like /aɪ/ in “bite”, /oʊ/ in “boat”). When pronouncing vowels, several factors are considered (McMahon, 2002):

Tongue Position - Depending on the part of the tongue that is highest, vowels can be front, back, or central. High tongue position produces front vowels like /i:/, back vowels like /u:/, and central vowels like /ə/.

Jaw Height - This describes how open or closed the jaw is, affecting whether vowels sound high, mid, or low like /i:/, mid like /ɛ/, or low like /a/.

Lip Position - Vowels may require rounded or spread lips.

Tension - This refers to how tense or relaxed the muscles are in the vocal tract during the pronunciation. Tense vowels like /i:/ contrast with lax vowels like /ɪ/

Errors in these aspects can lead to mispronunciations. The learners in the study confused /ɪ/ (as in “bits”) with /i:/ (as in “beats”) and used unrounded /a/ in “lovely” instead of the rounded /ʌ/ sound. For instance, both learners pronounced /i:ts/ instead of /ɪts/ and learner B used the lax vowel in “what`s been /bɪn/ happening” (line eight) in place of the tense /bi:n/. Also, in “short delay”, she used /di`leɪ/ in place of /dɪ`leɪ/ and /a/ dʒani:/ rather than ɜ:/ dʒɜ:ni:/ for “journey.” Learner B`s use of an unrounded /a/ lavli/ is a de-viation from the rounded /ʌ/ lʌvli/ in “tea would be lovely” (line four). Also, in “just one short delay” (line two), she pronounced /wan/ in place of /wʌn/. These

variations mainly involve the sounds /ʌ/, /æ/, and /ə/, which she consistently pronounced as /a/. In the first line, Learner A pronounced /hav a gʊd/ rather than /həv ə gʊd/ journey. Learner B mispronounced /mæn`tʃestə/ as /man`tʃestɑ:/. She also pronounced / θ enk `ju/ in place of / θ ænk `ju/. This, according to Thompson (2001) is due to the tendency for Japanese learners to pronounce /ʌ/, /æ/, and /ə/ as /a/. Carruthers (2005: 20) more aptly explains that learners "more likely substitute a combination of a reduced vowel sound followed by /r/ (/ə/ or other reduced vowel plus /r/) with a long full vowel sound." Thus, Manchester is pronounced /mantʃestɑ:/.

Consonants

Unlike vowels, consonants are produced by obstructing airflow in some way in the lar-ynx (Richards et al., 1985: 59). English has 24 consonants differentiated by their voic-ing, manner of articulation (how airflow is obstructed), and point of articulation (where in the mouth the obstruction occurs) (Roach, 1992). McMahon (2002) adds a fourth category, oral and nasal. Challenges arise for learners, especially from backgrounds like Japanese, where certain English sounds do not exist.

Although there was only one instance of it in the dialogue, the learners did not seem to have the problem of pronouncing the /v/ which most linguists recognize is a problem for Japanese learners (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992; Thompson, 2001). The learners might have been conscious of their pronunciations, or they might have picked up some of the foreign accents from their extensive travels around the world.

On the other hand, both learners tended to replace the voiced dental fricative / θ / (as in "thing") for the alveolar fricative /s/ (as in sing) (see, /samsiŋ/ (line three) and /senk ju/ (line four). Thompson (2001) captured the essence of this problem when he noted that because of the absence of these English consonants in Japanese, learners often tended to substitute / θ / for /s/ and

/ð/ for /z/. Learner B also seemed to substitute /ʒ/ in /pleʒə/(as in measure and pleasure) (line five) with /dʒ/ (as in "judge"). Thompson (2001) rightly observes that Japanese learners tend to confuse /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ because of the seemingly complimentary distribution of these consonants before certain vowels. Japanese often produce words like measure /meʒə/ and major /meidʒə/ similarly, and this can really be confusing to native speakers.

Furthermore, the English /f/ and /h/ are often difficult for Japanese learners to pronounce (Lambacher et al., 2001). This was observed in Learner A`s deviation from RP in his pronunciation of /kaɸi/ (cahee) rather than /kɔfi/ (coffee) (line three). The /ɸ/ is a rather weak voiceless bilabial fricative that is midway between the English /f/ and /h/. It is part of the consonant inventory of Japanese that is not found in English (Ladefoged & Maddieson, 2021). Since /f/ is not part of the Japanese consonant, learners tend to substitute it for /ɸ/. Other instances of deviation from RP in the recording are in "kettle"/ketl/ (line seven) which Learner A pronounces as /ketər/. Aoyama et al. (2004: 234) observes that Japanese learners "seem to perceptually assimilate both English liquids (/l/ and /r/) to Japanese /r/." The Japanese liquid consonant, /r/, does not exactly correspond to the English liquid /r/ or /l/, but can be said to be midway between the two English consonants (Ohata, 2004). It is a liquid approximant in which the exact point of articulation is not specified. Learner B seemed to drop the glide /w/ in /wʊd/ (line four). Although this was not the case with Learner A, Japanese learners tend to have problem pronouncing /y/ and /w/ in word-initial position and may even omit these sounds (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). It is not uncommon to hear words like year /jiə/ pronounced /iə/. This can be at-tributed to the lack of jaw movement and the lesser degree of lip rounding by learners in the production of /w / (Thompson, 2001)

Syllables

A syllable is a single unit of sound in a word that typically includes a vowel

sound, possibly with consonants before or after it (OALD, 1995). English allows for both open syllables, ending in vowels (like the /bi:/ in "be"), and closed syllables, ending in consonants (like the /kæt/ in "cat").

The learners in the recording did not seem to have much difficulty with English syllable construction. However, it is worth mentioning here that most Japanese learners tend to have syllable-related challenges in English (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992; Nakai, 2005). While English permits both open and closed syllable types, Japanese allows only open syllable type. This means that word-end consonants as well as consonant clusters are not possible in Japanese (Ohata, 2004). Japanese learners often struggle with closed syllables and consonant clusters due to this restriction by their native language, which favors open syllables. This leads to vowel epenthesis, where they might insert extra vowel sounds, as in pronouncing "school" as /sukuru/ instead of /sku:l/, which disrupts the rhythm and clarity of English speech (Pei, 1996:). This phenomenon is referred to as `epenthesis` (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992; Celce-Murcia et al., 1996). However, this insertion of vowels disrupts the rhythm and intonation of English, which help to convey meaning and emotion in spoken English, and ultimately affects its intelligibility (Nakai, 2005).

Suprasegmental aspects

We shall now discuss the suprasegmental problems in the recording.

Stress pattern and rhythm

Stress is mainly achieved in English by using the reduced vowel or schwa /ə/. (Ohata, 2004) and there are two levels of stress in English speech: word (level) stress and sentence (level) stress or rhythm. On the word level, English is categorized as a "stress-accent language" (Grimson, 1989). Simply put, there is a reduction in weight of some syllables and vowels in English language. On the sentence level, it is a "stress-timed language" (Catford, 1977). This means that

only content words (words that carry meaning) gain prominence while function words are weakly pronounced.

In the recording, the learners seemed to be insensitive to changes in vowel quality and as such seemed to stress all the syllables of a word equally in most cases. Instances of this can be heard in Learner A`s pronunciation of "something" /`sʌm, θ ɪŋ/ as /`sam`siŋ/, and Learner B`s pronunciation of "Manchester" /`mæntʃestə/ as /`man`tʃest`ɑ:/ They also seemed to give each word in a sentence equal amount of prominence so that it deviated from the characteristic rhythm of English. This is most likely due to the absence of a reduced vowel corresponding to the English schwa /ə/, and the fact that Japanese, in contrast to English is a syllable-timed language in which each syllable or word is pronounced with equal stress regardless of whether they carry meaning or not (Ohata, 2004). Japanese learners tend to use their native language rhythm in English and pronounce all the syllables in equal duration. Consequently, to their native listeners, Japanese learners may sound "staccato-like, and difficult to understand. (Ohata, 2004).

Intonation

Intonation can be described as the movement or variation in pitch which often affects the meaning of an expression (Ranalli, 2002). This pitch movement (a rise or fall in tone or both) can take different combinations (e.g. rise-fall-rise, fall-rise fall, etc.). English is characterized by a final rising intonation in such instances as, yes/ No questions, question-tags (check), etc. and by a final rising-falling intonation as used in wh-word questions, statements, commands, question-tags (chat), lists, etc. (Ohata, 2004).

Japanese learners tend to rely heavily on the narrower pitch range of Japanese intonation patterns, ignoring the wider pitch range of English intonation (McCarthy, 1978). This can be heard in the recording, especially in Learner A's exaggerated use of the rise tone in lines one and three. Furthermore, Japanese

speakers often use a high or low rise in intonation whenever there is a question mark, regardless of the context or type of question (whether it's a question-word question or a yes-no question). Additionally, Japanese intonation patterns differ from those in English. In English, meaning can be conveyed through intonation, while in Japanese, it is typically expressed using markers (Taniguchi, 2009).

Connected speech

Connected speech refers to the tendency in English to "simplify and link words together in the stream of speech, in order to help the language flow rhythmically." (Roberts, 2012: 1). Simply stated, it refers to language as it is used in a real-world conversation. According to Roberts (2012), the features of connected speech are assimilation, elision, catenation, intrusion, and weak and strong forms.

In the recording, the learners seemed to have an interesting mix of foreign and Japanese pronunciations. For instance, Learner A made good use of assimilation in "Did you..."/dɪdʒʊ/ (line one), "Would you..." /wʊdʒʊ/ (line three) and elision in "Oh let me..." /le mi/ (line seven). Yuzawa (2007: 102) notes that many Japanese learners are aware of how certain sounds blend together in English. For example, when 'did' and 'you' are spoken quickly, they merge to sound like 'didja'. This blending, known as catenation, is evident in Learner B's pronunciation of 'out of' as /aʊ təv/ (line six), Learner A's 'kettle on' as /ketə rɔn/ (line seven), and Learner B's 'since last time' as /sins 'las 'taim/ (line eight). The use of the weak and strong forms are the most important features of connected speech. Therefore, the tendency of both learners to use the strong form in all words seemed to make their language sound "unnatural and over-formalized", thus, making it difficult for the listener to identify the main points of the discourse (Steele, 2005). Basquille (2011: 6) accurately observed that Japanese learners typically struggle with recognizing or using the schwa

sound- which as mentioned earlier is a quick, un-stressed vowel sound common in English- as well as with the blending of words in connected speech. These features are challenging for Japanese learners because they do not exist in the Japanese language. Consequently, Japanese speakers often find it difficult to produce and comprehend the natural flow of English speech, where these elements are frequently used. This claim is also supported by Yuzawa (2007) who points to the tendency of Japanese learners to pronounce English word by word due to their unfamiliarity with the concept of linking.

Teaching implications

This paper has important teaching implications for ESL educators in addressing pronunciation issues specific to Japanese learners of English. First, it can help teachers identify the specific areas of difficulty that their students may face, such as consonant clusters (e.g., /spl/, /str/), vowel length (e.g., /i/ vs /ɪ/), or intonation patterns (e.g., rising vs fall-ing). Second, it can inform the selection and design of instructional materials and activities that target these areas and provide meaningful practice and feedback. For example, teachers can use minimal pairs, tongue twisters, or dialogues to help students improve their pronunciation accuracy and fluency. Third, it can raise teachers' awareness of the factors that influence pronunciation development, such as motivation, identity, or expo-sure to native speakers. By understanding these challenges and implications, teachers can better support their students' pronunciation goals and needs (Tsunemoto & McDonough, 2020; Diaz, 2016).

The following paragraphs are focused on a discussion of the specific ways that the improvement of Japanese EFL learners` pronunciation can be facilitated.

The first is the focus on phonetic training. Given that the learners in the recording struggle with certain English phonemes that do not exist in Japanese, such as the schwa sound and specific consonant blends, targeted

phonetic training can be crucial. Educators should incorporate exercises that help students recognize and produce these sounds accurately (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010).

Next is connected speech practice. The study highlights the difficulty Japanese learners have with connected speech features like catenation and assimilation. Teachers should integrate practice that focuses on these aspects, using listening and speaking activities that simulate real-life conversations where connected speech is prevalent (Field, 2003). Also, to help learners get accustomed to the natural flow of English, increased exposure to native speech through media such as films, podcasts, and conversations with native speakers can be beneficial. This can help learners develop an ear for the rhythm and intonation patterns of English (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012)

Another way to improve pronunciation is through explicit teaching of stress and intonation patterns. Japanese is a mora-timed language, whereas English is stress-timed. Educators should explicitly teach the stress and intonation patterns of English, helping students understand and practice the differences. This can be done through drills, shadowing exercises, and rhythmic practice (Dauer, 1993). In addition, utilizing technology, such as language learning apps and software that offer pronunciation feedback, can provide learners with immediate, individualized guidance. Tools like speech recognition software can help students practice and improve their pronunciation autonomously (Levis, 2007).

Teachers should also be aware of the cultural factors that might affect Japanese learners, such as the fear of making mistakes in front of others. Creating a supportive and low-stress learning environment can encourage students to practice speaking without fear of embarrassment (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Finally, Pronunciation practice should not be isolated but integrated into

communicative activities in the language classroom. Role-plays, simulations, and interactive tasks that require the use of accurate pronunciation in meaningful contexts can enhance both fluency and pronunciation skills (Gilakjani, 2012).

Limitations of this study

The learners in the dialogue were both allowed some time to practice reading the text before recording. Since the aim of the study was not to check their reading skills rather their pronunciation skills, it made more sense recording only after they had become confident to do so. However, it is accepted that this might have affected the performance of the learners. They might have become conscious of their pronunciations and might have performed differently had the dialogue been spontaneous.

Conclusion

There are fundamental phonological differences between English and most Asian languages, both in their segmental and suprasegmental features. These differences account for the difficulties the learners in these countries encounter in English pronunciations. While the debate for a more relaxed model of English pronunciation continues, teachers of Japanese learners can facilitate the improvement of their students by introducing interesting pronunciation activities in the classroom.

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Appendix i

A: Did you have a good journey yesterday?

B: Not too bad, just one short delay waiting in Manchester.

A: Good. Would you like something to drink? Tea, coffee …?

B: Tea would be lovely. Thank you.

A: It`s great that we could meet today.

B: It`s a real pleasure and it`s not out of my way at all.

A: Oh, let me put the kettle on.

B: Yes, then we can catch up on what`s been happening since last time.

Appendix ii

A:ˈdidʒʊ əv ə ˈgʊd ˈdʒɜni ˈjestədei ‖

B: ˈnɒt tuː ˈbæd | dʒəst wʌn ˈʃɔt dɪˈleɪ ˈweɪtɪŋ ɪn ˈmæntʃestə ‖

A: ˈgʊd ‖ wədʒʊ ˈlaik ˈsəm θ ɪŋ tə ˈdriŋk ‖ ˈtiː | ˈkʌfiː ‖

B: ˈtiː wəd bi ˈlʌvliː | ˈ θ æŋk juː ‖

A: ɪts ˈgreɪt ðət wi kəd ˈmiːt təˈdei ‖

B: ɪts ə ˈrɪəl ˈpleʒə ən ɪts ˈnɒt aʊt əv mai ˈweɪ ət ɔːl ‖

A: əʊ | let miː ˈpʊt ðə ˈketl ɒn ‖

B: ˈjes | ðen wiː kən ˈkætʃ ʌp ɒn ˈwɒts biːn ˈhæpənɪŋ sɪns læst taɪm ‖

Appendix iii

A: diˈdʒuː ˈhav a ˈgʊd ˈdʒani ˈjestaˈdei ‖

B: ˈnɒt tuː ˈbad | ˈdʒʌst ˈwan ˈʃɔt ˈdiˈlei ˈweitiŋ in ˈmanˈtʃestaː ‖

A: ˈgud ‖ wʊˈdʒu ˈlaik ˈsamsiŋ tu ˈdriŋk ‖ ˈtiː | kaɸiː ‖

B: ˈtiː ˈud biː ˈlavliː | ˈseŋk juː ‖

A: ˈiːts ˈgret ˈðat ˈwiː ˈkʊd ˈmiːt ˈtuˈdei ‖

B: ˈiːts ə riːʌl ˈpledʒɜː | and iːts ˈnɒt ˈaʊt əv mai ˈwei aˈtɔːl ‖

A: o | le miː ˈpʊt ðə ˈketər ɔn ‖

B: ˈjes ‖ ˈðen ˈwiː ˈkæn ˈkæˈtʃ ʌp ˈɒn ˈwats bɪn ˈhæpəniŋ ˈsins ˈlas ˈtaim ‖