12. Japanese

12.0.1. We provide the modern neutral pronunciation of Japanese, based on that of Tokyo. Our *transliteration* avoids diacritics for vowels, by indicating long vowels as *ii*, *ee*, *aa*, *oo*, *uu* (instead of $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{e} , \bar{a} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} , or $\hat{\imath}$, \hat{e} , \hat{a} , \hat{o} , \hat{u}). As far as consonants are concerned, we prefer the most widely used system (by Japanese authors too: the Hepburn system, with the exception –methodologically considerable– of the choice to use *n* even before *m*, *p*, *b*, instead of *m*). Thus, the phonemic transcription has the task of indicating the systemic structuration; whereas the phonetic transcription, of course, aims at precision, without which everything would be approximate and –frankly– useless.

Therefore, we have: $[tsui] /tui / tsu, [\phiui] /hui / fu, [\varphii] /si / shi, [\varphije] /sja / sha,$ $[\varphij\sigma] /sjo / sho, [\varphijui] /sjui / shu, [t\varphii] /ti / chi, [t\varphije] /tja / cha, [t\varphij\sigma] /tjo / cho, [t\varphijui] /tjui / chu, [dzi, zi] /zi / ji, [dzje, zje] /zja / ja, [dzjo, zjo] /zjo / jo, [dzjui, zjui] /zju / ju, [dzui, zui] /zui / zu. But we prefer to use a more <logical > cch [t\u03c6 t\u03c6 (\u03c6)] /tt(j) / (which is less eurocentric than tch), and n (with n' + V or y) [\u03c6, m, n, n, \u03c6, n] /\u03c6 / (that some systematically render with <math>\overline{n}$, thus resolving in a <graphonemic > way the slight problem of n', before V and y, and also that of m, before m, p, b). In addition, we have [\u03c6] /\u03c6 (\u03c6 12.2.1.1-2 (others use \overline{g} , to compensate for the absence of any transcriptions).

Length is distinctive both for vowels and consonants. We will mark it by doubling the phonemic and graphemic symbols – /kappoo/ and *kappoo*, respectively. In our phonetic transcriptions, for contoid lengthening it is necessary to add [:]: [.kep'p:oo] (but, as can be seen and heard, *after* the *second* element).

12.0.2. In Japanese, even the pitch of the different morae is distinctive. They form syllables, words, phrases, and sentences. The example just seen shows that pitch is not marked in spelling, that is in the transliteration, as well as in normal *hiragana* writing – [.hi'je.ŋe_ne, .hi'je.ŋe_ne; .hi'je.ŋe_ne] /hira,ŋa,na; -na,/ (which is added to characters, <ideograms>, that were taken from Chinese).

Normally, this does not happen in the other type of writing, *katakana* [.ke'te-.ke_ne, .ke'te-ke_ne] /katakana/, which is generally used in teaching and scientific textbooks, in order to <hint> at the pronunciation of onomatopeic terms and recent loanwords (*more* recent than the Chinese ones, which adapted to Japanese), or for stylistic reasons.

Instead, in *phono*tonemic transcriptions, we indicate with $|_{c}|$ the point after which the voice goes from a mid pitch to a low one. We call this *akusento* (cf § 12.3.2.1), by using the term taken from English (*accent*), in order to indicate this particular pitch phenomenon. As a matter of fact, it is not properly a stress element, since, in actual fact –as we will see– both pitch patterns and segmental con-

sistency –or syllabic (weight)– determine stress, $f \le 12.3.2.5-14$. Indeed, these points may even be more than just one, as can be seen from the two previous examples. However, these points have to be interpreted as possible *variants*, in a paradigmatic opposition, which is typical of phonemes, that manifest themselves on the syntagmatic axis, as is typical of words in sentences. This means that *one* must be (chosen), excluding all the others.

On the contrary, *phono*toneTic transcriptions more concretely show the pitch of every syllable in a word, or rhythm group, since there are precise patterns for neutral Japanese (as we will see in detail later on, § 12.3.2.2), even if with variants. As a matter of fact, for the word *hiragana* we find as many as three possibilities (although the last is less favorite and older), as we have just seen, and as many as two for *katakana*. While, for a word like *katana*, there is just one possible neutral toneme: [.kg'te·ne] /katana₁/ (/kata₁na/ is only regional).

We prefer to use $[]/_{l}$ (instead of a more popular –in Japan– but less satisfactory $[^{1}]/_{l}$), since the marked pitch is low, whereas the unmarked one is mid, not high (as a more traditional notation would lead to think, being based more on a tonemic rather than a tonetic criterion, which considers (high) what is (non-low)).

Vowels

12.1.1. Japanese has only five vowels, which can be distinctively short or long (or rather *doubled*, being realized almost as *monotimbric diphthongs*), and they can combine into different kinds of sequences (as happens in a slow pronunciation of Spanish in *Saavedra* or *La Habana* [saa' β Er δ ra, laa' β arna]. However, too often Japanese pronunciation is hastily (described) as having the vowels of Spanish and the consonants of English. We will see that this is not the case at all.

fig 12.1 shows the actual articulations of the five vowels: [i, E, E, σ , u; ii, EE, aa, $\sigma\sigma$, uu]/i, e, a, o, u; ii, ee, aa, oo, uu. Since <long> vowels are phonemic sequences (and phonetic geminations), the marker of (short) /a/ [E] is grey, seeing that it is articulated as a less open vocoid (even in stressed syllables). The most problematic Japanese vowel –of course for non-native speakers– is [u]/u/u, which lacks the typical lip rounding of [u] so widespread in many languages. Besides, it is articulated with the tongue dorsum in a fronter position than [u] in most languages; in fact, it is back-central, not simply back.

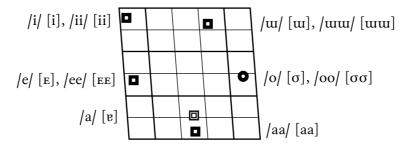
Mostly, the younger generations articulate /u/ in a further front position, ashigh central –with partial or full rounding, [$\frac{1}{2}$] or [$\frac{1}{4}$], respectively– but we always notate [u], since those are youth characteristics which generally change into [u], sooner or later. This peculiarity continues in relative time, without really changing the structure. Obviously, real non-neutral pronunciations are a different thing.

Let us now see some examples for each phoneme: [.i'E] /ie_i/ *ie*, [_jihkoo] /gihkoo/ *ginkoo*, [.se'Bi.cii] /sabisi_ii/ *sabishii*; [_Ei·En] /eien/ *eien*, ['E.neo] /e_inao/ *egao*, [.ke'ne·tE] /karate/ *karate*; [_ei] /a_ii/ *ai*; [_dzec·c:i] /zassi/ *zasshi*, [.me'to] /mato/ *mato*; ['nE.ko] /ne_iko/ *neko*, [.o'ci.nu] /oki_iru/ *okiru*, [.o'to·ko] /otoko_i/ *otoko*; [.su'mi] /sumi_i/ *sumi*, [·e_ku.me] /a_ikuma/ *akuma*, [.mu'ci] /musi_i/ *mushi*.

12.1.2. For monomorphemic *ei* and *ou* (but the latter is generally transliterated as *oo*) it is normal to have /ee, oo/ [EE, σσ]: [.seh_see] /sehse, e/ *sensei*, [.su'iEE] /suiee/ *suiei*, [_EE·cjσσ] /eekjoo/ *eikyoo*; [_σσ.çjuuu] /o,osjuuu/ *ooshuu*; [_σσ·gσh] /oogoh/ *oogon*, [_σσ·eh] /ooeh/ *ooen*.

Instead, for heteromorphemic *ei* and *ou* it is normal to have /ei, ou/ [Ei, ou]: [.kei·to] /keito/ *keito*, [.sei] /sei/ *sei*, [.e-pe_sou] /araso_iu/ *arasou*, [.sou] /sou/ *sou*.

fig 12.1. Japanese vowels.



12.1.3. Besides, neutral Japanese has the peculiarity of presenting vowel *devoicing*. Indeed, there are two partially different degrees.

The first type is complete, and produces *voiceless* vocoids, that is with no vibration of the vocal folds, as also happens with consonants, such as (voiceless) [s] /s/ in comparison with (voiced) [z] /z/. More appropriately, these voiceless vowels are lenis too (or lenited), *ie* only the arytenoids are open, as for [h]. This concerns [i, u] between voiceless consonants, or between a voiceless consonant and a pause, when in low-pitched syllables (but occasionally even in non-low-pitch ones, however never on <accented>morae, after which pitch becomes low), and never in interrogative post-intonemes (which shows a raising of the basic pitch): [.ci'ci] /kisi,/ *kishi*, [.kuutci'Bi·Juu] /kuutibiruu/ *kuchibiru*, [.he'ne·ci] /hanasi,/ *hanashi*, [.hi'to.tsu] /hito.tuu/ *hitotsu*.

The second type, or degree, of devoicing is half-voicing, which concerns the other three vowels, but acts less systematically. In fact, we find [ϱ , σ], especially in the first syllable of words, when followed by syllables containing the same vowel (more rarely /e/ [ϱ] is devoiced too): [$k \varrho' t \upsilon \cdot n \upsilon$] /katana, [$t \sigma' k \sigma \cdot j \sigma$] /tokoro/ *tokoro*; [$k \varrho' s \upsilon \cdot n \upsilon$] /kesanai/ *kesanai*.

The second type again applies, instead, to *all* vowels before a pause, either short or long, preceded by any consonant. Obviously, /i, u/ become [i, u], when they are in the condition of total devoicing, in the context [CV]]. Therefore, before a pause, the last vocoid is [i, E, P, σ , u] (even in diphthongs). It is important to state that this type of devoicing is syntagmatic, which means that we have one vocoid –not two– which begins as voiced and ends as voiceless. So the first part is voiced, whereas the second one is voiceless: [VV] – and this is hinted at by the pause context, even if the actual pause is short. Examples relating to this phenomenon can be found in the passage of the *Text* section, § 12.4. In simpler terms, we could say that the auditory effect is almost that of a very short [h], [Vh] or a semiapproximant [Vh].

For emphasis, strictly speaking (or for other paraphonic implications connect-

ed with states of mind), often an actual [Vh|] sequence may be heard: [<u>i.</u>soo.de.su-..keh·] /iso.odesuka,/ *Soo desu ka?!*

Consonants

12.2.0. As we have already said, it is currently thought that Japanese consonants are pronounced as those of English. We have to correct this false information, which is further reinforced by the widespread use of *ch*, *j*, *sh*, *f*, *ts* in transliteration (as we do ourselves, for the sake of simplicity). In fact, *ch*, *j*, *sh* stand for [t¢j; d¢j, ϕ_j ; ϕ_j ; ϕ_j , with no absorption at all of [j] /j/; besides, *f* is not [f], but [ϕ]. Finally, there is [η], that –as we will see– is an intense ((syllabic)) provelar semi-nasal: [$\dot{\eta}$] / $\dot{\eta}$ /.

The table of fig 12.2 gives the consonantal articulations of Japanese which are necessary for an adequate pronunciation of this language.

Instead, fig 1.9-15 show the orograms –grouped by manners of articulation– of all contoids treated in the chapters of this handbook (including secondary, occasional, and regional variants), which are needed for the 12 languages dealt with. This exposition renders the necessary comparisons among different languages more useful.

fig 12.2. Table of Japanese consonants.

	bilabial	dental	alveolar	prepalatal	bilabialized prepalatal	palatal	postpalatal	provelar	velar	laryngeal
N K KS	m pb	[n] t d [ts dz]	n	[ņ]	[tç dz]		[ɲ] [c ɟ]	ŋ	ŋ k g ([kx])	[2]
K KS X S J L	[β] [φ]	s z	/r/][]		[¢ ¼]	[ḩ] j		щ	([h])	h ([ɦ])

Nasals

12.2.1.1. At the beginning of syllables, Japanese has three possible nasal phonemes: /m/ [m] m (bilabial), /n/ [n] n (alveolar; realized, however, as prepalatal, [n], before /i, j/, by assimilation): [.ni'm σ ·n σ] /nimono/ nimono, and /n/ [n] g (velar): [.e'ne.ku] /ana.ku/ agaku.

But we must add at once that, within words, $/\eta/[\eta]g$ (which is sometimes transliterated as \bar{g}) can be systematic only in the most neutral type of pronunciation, after /V, $\eta/$. In fact, nowadays the oscillation between /g ~ $\eta/[g ~ \chi ~ \eta]$ is very widespread, but with much fluctuation among people and words. However, no native speaker systematically has only [g] /g/. In (sentence, phrase, lexeme, or grammeme) initial position, [g] /g/ occurs, even for speakers who possess [η] / $\eta/$; for (enclitic) ga we normally find $[\eta e]/\eta a/$; for ga (conjunction) we have [ge], but $[\eta e]$ is possible too, even after a pause.

Again, there is [g] /g/ –above all– in loanwords, in onomatopeic expressions, in Chinese reduplicate words, and after certain proclitics (which are obviously heterorganic): ['ji,ŋɐ] /gi,ŋa/ giga, [_jiἡ,ŋɐ] /gi,ἡŋa/ ginga; [.mi'ji] /migi/ migi, [.mɐ'gɯ-·Jʊ] /magɯro/ maguro, [.mʊἡ_gɛʰ] /moṅge,ἡ/ mongen, [.mɐ'gʊ] /mago.

12.2.1.2. An even bigger phonic problem regarding nasals arises from a fourth Japanese nasal phoneme, ie (moraic n), $|\dot{\eta}|$ (sometimes transliterated as \bar{n}), which always occurs in a syllable coda and has a prevailing articulation as semi-provelar (ie provelar semi-nasal, with no actual contact between the dorsum and the velum). It is phonetically more energetic, ie intense [$\dot{\eta}$].

It occurs in three positions: (1) before continuous consonants (*ie* those produced with an incomplete occlusion of the oral cavity), that is /s, z; j, u; h/ [s ~ c, z ~ z; j, u; h ~ ϕ ~ h], (2) before a vowel (which is heterosyllabic, of course), and (3) in final position before a pause (or, again, before continuous consonants, or vowels): [.en/sen/] /en/san/ [.hen/cje] /han/sja/ *hansha*, [.un/ju] /un/ju/ *un'yu*, [.ken/-up] /kan/ua/ *kanwa*, [.see_sen/hi] /seesa.n/hi/ *seisanhi*, [.sen/hje.ku] /se.n/hjaku/ *sen-hyaku*, [.go'sen/ ϕ u] /gose.n/hu/ *gosenfu*, [.ten/i] /ta.n/i.

However, by assimilation, /ή/ has other realizations too. In fact, it is articulated as a homorganic nasal (to a following consonant and is always intense): (1) [m, n; 'n, ή], before the correspondent stops /p, b; t, d/ [p, b; t, d] and /k, g/ [k, c; g, j]: [_sem.po] /saihpo/ sanpo, [_cim·bunh] /sihbunh/ shinbun, [_um·teh] /unhteh/ unten, [_tep.ci] [[-h.ci]] /teihki/ tenki, [_tehke] /taihka/ tanka; and (2) [n, n] before dental or bilabialized prepalatal stopstrictive taxophones of /t, z/ [ts, dz] and [tc, dz]: [.ben_dzei] /bahzai/ banzai, [_en·tcjoo] /ehtjoo/ enchoo, [_nin·dzih] /nihzih/ ninjin; and, naturally, [h] before the frequent stop(semi)[con]strictive variant, [kxe, kHe], of /ka/ [ke] ka: [_tehkxe, -kHe] /taihka/ tanka.

In addition, we have (3) [m, n, n, n, n] before nasals, /m, n, n/ (*m n g*) and again [n] before *r* /r/ [l], eg: [.um.mee] /ui, mee/ *unmei*, [.en_nei] /aŋnai/ *annai*, [.nin-.ni·ku] /niŋniku/ *ninniku*, [.eŋ·ŋei, -.ŋei] /aŋŋai, aŋ^r/ *angai*, and [.en'le·k(u).ci] /aŋraku.si/ *anrakushi*.

Stops

12.2.2.1. Japanese has three (voicing) diphonic pairs for stops: the voiceless are /p, t, k/ [p, t, k] (as already seen, often /k/ is [kx, k_I] + /a(a)/; occasionally /t/ becomes [th] + /a(a), o(o)/; and often /p/ is [ph], in the context between /ή/ and /i(i), a(a)/): [.kem'pei, .kxe-, .kye-, -'phei] /kaŋpai/ *kanpai*, ['te.ko; 'the-] /tako/ *tako*, [.cip-'p:ui] /kippu/ *kippu*, [.uye'te; -'the] /uqata₁/ *wata*, [.kem.poo] /keŋpoo/ *kenpoo* (word-initial /p/ only occurs in loanwords and onomatopeic forms). In emphatic speech, there is more (aspiration).

The greatest (oddity) regards /t/ [t] which, by assimilation, before /i, j/ [i, j] is realized as a bilabialized prepalatal stopstrictive [tc] (transliterated as *ch*, even if /j/

[j] remains; but it is important to note that lip rounding is reduced, by assimilation to /i, j/, but the phone remains different from [tş]): [.tçi'tçi] /titi,/ chichi, [.tçj'en·to] /tjahto/ chanto. In addition –and even more (strangely)– /t/ [t], before /w/ [w] is realized as a dental stopstrictive [ts] (transliterated ts): [.tsw'pi] [[-pi]] /twni/ tsugi.

Let us observe, once and for all, that the <palatal> realizations of /k, g, ŋ/, ie [c, j, ŋ], are instead <postpalatal>, or retracted palatal, and can be represented better with <special> symbols, [[c, j, ŋ]]. They may safely be used (although, more often, [c, j, ŋ] are used), after stating that they are realized in the rear part of their articulatory space, we define <postpalatal>, which in any case remains distinct from the <prevelar> articulation, [k, g, ŋ], typical of most languages before front vowels and [j], as in English [['khri, 'tegjəle]] (Am. Engl. [['tegjəlt]]) [['suŋuŋ]] /'kii, 'tegjələi, 'sıŋıŋ] /key, regular, singing.

Thus, we have: [[.eip'p:u, .mi'ıi, .tsu'ni]] /kippu, migi, tuni/ *kippu, migi, tsugi*, or [.eip'p:u, .mi'ıi, .tsu'ni], provided [ni] remains different from [ni] (therefore, /ni/ [ni] should not be rendered as if it were < [ni], as we find in quite a few publications).

12.2.2.2. For /b/ [b] b, the variant [β] is more common (ie a voiced bilabial constrictive), which occurs after vowels, especially in non-slow and non-formal pronunciation; less frequently the corresponding approximant, [β], is used: [.su'BE-.ju] /sube.ru/ *suberu*, [.bei·kei] /baikai/ *baikai*, [.dzjum.bi] /zju.jbi/ *junbi*.

The phoneme /d/ [d] *d* poses no problems, except that genuine Japanese words never have **di*, **dyV* and **du*, substituted by *ji*, /zi/ [dzi, zi] *jV*, /zjV/ [dzjV, zjV] and *zu*, /zu/ [dzu, zu]: [_dvi,zi\u00e1; -dzi\u00e1] /da\u00e1zi\u00e1/ *daijin*, [.dzju'zu; -'dzu] /zjuzu\u00e1/ *juzu*. Its normal distribution, non-emphatic and non-slow, is [Vz(j); |dz(j), ndz(j)].

Also /g/[g] g poses no problems, apart from a complementary (or alternative) distribution with $/\eta/[\eta]$ (g, which sometimes is transliterated as \bar{g} , as already said): ['go.ge.kui] /go.gakui/ gogaku.

Word-initial vowels, both at the beginning or in the middle of phrases and sentences, are generally preceded by [?], especially for emphasis or to separate vowels of adjoining words.

This fact will be indicated prevailingly in connected transcriptions, such as those in § 12.4. In addition, especially (but not only) in women's pronunciation, short utterance-final vowels, mostly with a suspensive intoneme, can be followed by [?(')] (ie with or without [an audible] release) as an alternative pronunciation instead of a possible more <normal> partial devoicing of the last vocoid: ['(?) σ .ke[, '(?) σ .ke(?)]] /o_ike/ *oke*, [.(?)v'sur|, .(?)v'sur(?)] /asur_i/ *asu*. In the passage in § 12.4.2.3, a couple of cases are indicated.

Constrictives

12.2.3. Japanese has a pair of grooved dental constrictives /s, z/[s, z] s, z. The voiceless one, /s/[s] s, is realized as prepalatal round [φ] (with reduced rounding,

by coarticulation) before *i*, /i/ [i] (transliterated as *sh*) and before *yV*, /jV/ [jV] (transliterated as *shV*, although /j/ [j] does not disappear at all): [.cje'cin'] /sjasin'/ *shashin*.

The corresponding voiced sound, |z| z, is [Vz] (slow $\frac{1}{2}r$ careful: [Vdz]) and [|dz, ndz]. Hence, it is realized as a dental constrictive, between vowels, either in words or sentences, either in normal or fast speech. However, after a pause or $/\frac{1}{2}$, it is realized as a stopstrictive: [.ke'ze] /kaze / kaze (slow $\frac{1}{2}r$ careful: [.ke'dze]), $[.dzur'e\frac{1}{2}] /zua\frac{1}{2}uan$, $[_sen.dzo] /set\frac{1}{2}o/ senzo$.

In addition, we find /z/, before *i*, /i/ [i] (transliterated as *j*, instead of *z*) and before *y*V, /jV/ [jV] (transliterated as *j*V, although /j/ [j] remains), which is realized as prepalatal rounded (again, with reduced rounding) [Vzi, VzjV] (slow ^c/_b careful: [Vdzi, VdzjV]) and [|dzi, |dzjV; ndzi, ndzjV]: ['duzi] /huizi/ *fuji*, [.dzi'ten'] /ziten'] *jiten*, [_ken.dzi] /kanji.

Approximants

12.2.4.1. Japanese has three approximants. The first, /j/ [j] y, is (voiced) palatal: [.se·jo'ne.je, -·je, .se·joo'ne.je] /sajona,ra, -ra, sajoona,ra/ sayonara (-yoo-), [.je·çi'ci, .jeç:'ci] /jasiki,/ yashiki, [.mi'e·ko] /mijako/ miyako, [.joo·cjuu] /jookjuu/ yookyuu, [_çjuu.çi] /sjuı,usi/ shuushi.

As can be seen from the examples, it remains unchanged in word-initial position $/^{\#}jV/[^{\#}jV]$, whereas it is realized as a phonetic (zero), [Ø], when preceded by $i, /i/: /ijV/ \rightarrow [iV]$. In non-slow speech, the same is possible for $/ejV/ \rightarrow [EV]$, or [EJV]; thus we will mark [EJV] (by using a palatal semi-approximant symbol): $[.hE'JE] /heja_{l}/heya$.

After the voiceless stop phonemes /pjV, tjV, kjV/, /j/ is devoiced, [j]: [pj, tcj, cj]; but it remains [j] after other consonants (even if voiceless, /s, h/ [c, h] s, h), and without being absorbed by /t, s, z, h/: [tcj, cj, zj, dzj, hj] (in spite of transliterations such as *ch*, *sh*, *j*). Sequences such as **yi*, **ye* do not occur.

12.2.4.2. The second Japanese approximant, $|\psi|$ [ψ] w (which occurs in the syllable wa), is (voiced) provelar differing from [w], which is velar rounded; it has the same relationship with $|\psi|$ [ψ] u as happens in English between |w| and $|\psi|$, ψ , ψ , $|\psi| = |\psi|$, [$|\psi| |\psi|$, ψ , $|\psi| = |\psi|$, [$|\psi| |\psi|$, $|\psi|$, $|\psi| = |\psi|$, [$|\psi| |\psi|$, $|\psi|$,

The third approximant, /h/[h] h, is voiceless laryngeal; however, in fast pronunciation [h] can become voiced, [h], after vowels. But the most remarkable fact is that, by assimilation, /hul/ is [ϕ ul] (a voiceless bilabial approximant, transliterated as fu), and that in /hi, hjV/ [hi, hjV] we have a voiceless palatal approximant.

In addition, a voiceless velar approximant, [h], is very frequent for /ha(a)/: [.he-'hơn', .he'hơn'] /hahon', [.he'hen', .he'hen'] /hahen', [.φΨ_kσσ] /huko_lo/ *fukoo*, [.ĥi'ŋE] /hiŋe/ *hige*, [.ĥje'kɯ] /hjakɯ_l/ *hyaku*.

(Trills)

12.2.5. Japanese has one phoneme of the $\langle \text{trill} \rangle$ type, which is similar to Spanish r/r/[r], as in *interpretar*, /interpre'tar/ [in_iterpre'tar]. A realization like this could be sufficient for a fairly good pronunciation of Japanese, all the more so because that is indeed one of the possible realizations. However, it is better to learn the two most typical articulations given shortly (which are alveolar again), and use them instead of [r].

The first taxophone of |r| r is $[\eta]$, *lateral flap* (or *lateralized flap* – cf fig 10.13 in NPT/HPh, besides fig 1.14.2-3 in this handbook), which occurs after vowels (even within sentences): [.ke'uue η e] /kauqara/ *kawara*, [.E' η i] /eri_l/ *eri* (the same phone also occurs in American English before [], eg ['bE η] /'bE η . A non-lateralized *flap* is possible too, [η]: [.ke'uue η e] /kauqara/ *kawara*, [.E' η i] /eri_l/ *eri* (which is the main American phone, in all contexts without [], eg ['bE η] /'bE η] /'bE η . In Japanese it is better to use [η], although [η , r] are possible too.

The second taxophone of /r/ r is [1], *lateral tap* (or *tapped lateral*, fig 1.15.3), which occurs after /h/ (even within sentences) or after pauses: [.ben·li] /be/hri/ *ben*-ri, [.lutizi, -dzi] /ruizi/ ruiji, [.le·ci/ci, -ci/ci] /rekisi/ rekishi, [.lon.li] /ro/hri/ ronri.

For the sake of simplicity, we could say that the difference between the two realizations consists in different degrees of lateralization. In fact, [η] is less lateralized, as lateralization is an added, or secondary, component (let us say $\frac{1}{3}$); whereas, for [1] lateralization is prevailing, or primary (let us say $\frac{2}{3}$).

Occasionally, lateral realizations can be heard as well, [l] (which is still alveolar), and postalveolar ones (of various manners of articulation – respectively: flap, tap, stop, flapped lateral, lateral: [1, [, d, l,]]. Obviously, these phones need not be actively acquired – it is sufficient to be simply able to recognize them.

‹Palatalization›

12.2.6.1. Before /i, j/, the phonemes /n, ŋ; t, k, g; s; z; h/ have peculiar but necessary realizations: [ni, ni] /ni, ni/ ni, gi; [tçi, ci, ji] /ti, ki, gi/ chi, ki, gi; [çi; zi, |dzi, ndzi; hi] /si; zi; hi/ shi; ji; hi: [_nin·dzjutu] /ninjzjutu/ ninjuu, [.ke'ni·nu] /kaŋiru/ kagiru; [.tçi'E] /tie/ chie, [.ci'E·nu] /kieru/ kieru, [.ji'ute·ku] /giuteku/ giwaku; [.çi-'me] /sime, / shima; [.e'zi] /azi/ aji, [.dzi'mi] /zimi, ['me.hi] /ma.hi/ mahi.

In addition, we find: [nj, nj] /nj, nj/ ny, gy; [tçj, cj, jj] /tj, kj, gj/ ch, ky, gy; [çj; zj, |dzj, ndzj; hj] /sj; zj; hj/ sh; j; hy: [_njuurnerku] /njuurnaku/ nyuugaku, [_ennje] /annja/ angya; [_tcjuur.tcjo] /tjurutjo/ chuucho, [.cjuur_cjuur.cje] /kjuurkjurusja/ kyuukyuusha, [_jjuur.njuur] /gjuurnjuur/ gyuunyuu; [.cin_njuur.see] /sinjnjurusee/ shinnyuusei; [_ken-juur] /kanjuur/ kan'yuu, [.dzi_doo.cje] /zido.osja/ jidoosha, [_hje'kur] /hjakur./

Again, we must remember that, for /k, g, η / + /i, j/, the actual articulation is (postpalatal) [[e,], η] (rather than fully palatal, [c,], η]), and that [j] remains.

12.2.6.2. All other consonants have no <palatalization> (although certain linguists and phonologists state the contrary, because they carry theorism to an excess). So, we regularly have: [V₁i, |li, n.li] /ri/ ri; [mi, pi] /mi, pi/ mi, pi; [bi, ßi] /bi/ bi. Thus: [.σ·βi'e·µu] /obieru/ obieru, [.mi'nσ·₁i] /minori/ minori, [.li'sσ·ku] /ri-soku/ risoku, [.cin.li] /si.hri/ shinri, [.em·pi·tsu] /ehpitu/ enpitsu.

In addition, /CjV/ [CjV] CyV, ChV: [ηj, |lj, nlj] /rj/ ry; [mj, pj] /mj, pj/ my, py; [bj, βj] /bj/ by: [.en.ljσ] /e,ήrjo/ enryo, [.ljuuu] /rjuuu/ ryuu, [.lσp'p:je·ku] /roppjaku/ roppyaku, [.bjσσ] /bjo.o/ byoo, [.bum·mje·ku] /bunmjaku/ bunmyaku, [.dzei_ŋjσσ] /zairjo.o/ zairyoo.

(Gairaigo) – loanwords

12.2.7. As in any language, even in Japanese, loanwords (of which about 10,000 are of English origin) require some adaptation to the syllable structure (which is based on morae in Japanese) and new phonemic combinations for new sounds.

For these typical adaptations, let us consider two examples: [.ku_pe.ßu] /ku,rabu/ <club>, [.s(u)to_pei.c(i)] /sutora,iki/ <(workers') strike>, [.s(u)to_pei.k(u)] /sutora,iku/ <(baseball) strike>. It is clear how the Japanese syllabic structure changes original monosyllables, with consonant clusters, into actual polysyllables.

Among new combinations, in the traditional phonotactics (which is quite rigid and with a fairly limited number of possibilities), the most common are: [_paa.ti] /pa_iat-i/ <party>, [.di']E.k(u).taa] /d-ire_ikutaa/ <director>, [_tc₍j)En.dzi] /tje_ijzi/ <change>, [_dz₍j)Et.t:o] /dje_itto/ <jet>, ['c₍j)E.Φ(u)] /sje_ihu/ <chef>, [.Φu'i-]u·mu, -]u.mu, 'hi-, 'Φui-, 'φi-] /huirumu, h(u)i_irumu/ <film>, [_cim.φo.nii] /si_ijhuonii/ <symphony>, [.ken_tsoo.ne] /kajtuo.one/ <canzone>.

Some examples clearly show that, besides placing some phones into new combinations, certain sequences are slightly (denipponized) (as the possible dropping, in these words but not in genuine ones, of [j] after prepalatal [rounded] articulations), becoming slightly more (international).

Structures

12.3.0. In particular, we will deal with Japanese *akusento*, which is determined by pitch (even if it does not lack a stress component), and with intonation, which is superimposed to *akusento*, slightly changing it.

A typical Japanese pronunciation shows a particular kind of voice with a paraphonic setting with lowered larynx $\langle \cdots \rangle$, especially for men.

Taxophonics

12.3.1.1. The basic things have already been said. In fact, we have seen devoiced vocoids (cf § 12.1.3), and the few taxophonic characteristics regarding Japanese consonants.

Gemination

12.3.1.2. We must state that a (mora) coincides with a *light* syllable, as the one formed by a short vowel (/i, e, a, o, u/), or by / η /, or else by the first element of a geminate consonant (/V-C-CV/ [C-C:]).

A *half-heavy* syllable corresponds to a geminate vowel (/ii, ee, aa, oo, uuu/) or a diphthong, or to a short vowel + $/\dot{\eta}/(/V\dot{\eta}/)$ or + the first element of a geminate consonant (whose second element belongs to the following syllable, together with its vowel).

Instead, a *heavy* syllable presents a geminate vowel (or diphthong) + $/\dot{\eta}/(/VV\dot{\eta}/)$ or + the first element of a geminate consonant: /VVC(-CV)/.

As we have seen from various previous examples, in Japanese, *vowel length* is distinctive, ie short and (long) or rather geminate (or doubled) vowels: $[s\sigma] / so, so_i / so$ (one mora), $[_s\sigma\sigma] / soo, so_i o / soo$ (two morae); $['t\sigma_c_i] / to_iki / toki$, $[_t\sigma\sigma_c_i] / to_io-ki / tooki$. Even *consonant length* is distinctively present, as in $[_c_i'tE] / kite / (from ki$ $ru / kirul (to wear)) and /kite_i / kite (from kuru / kurul (to come)), both with two$ $morae; <math>[_c_i'tE] / kitte_{(i)} / ((stamp))$ and $['cit_tE, _c_i'tE] / kitte_i / kitte (from kiru / ki$ $ru / (to cut)), both with three morae: /ki-te/; <math>[_ge'ke] / gaka / gaka < artist)$, $[_gek-$ 'k:e] / gakka / gakka < lesson).

From a phonetic point of view, a doubled consonant consists of two morae: the first one coincides with the first element of the gemination (even if it is actually shorter, [t]), whereas the second one (which is decidedly longer, since actually lengthened, [t:]) constitutes another mora together with the vowel that follows it: [cit-t:E] (although here we have omitted the pitch features given above). In fact, /sotto/ is [.sot't:o] *sotto* <softly> (while a similar Italian word *sotto* /'sotto/ <under> is ['sot:to] in an intoneme, or ['sotto] in a preintoneme). Let us observe well –and listen even more carefully to– the difference between [C:C] and [CC:]. Both for Japanese /sotto/ or for Italian /'sotto/, however, we always have two phono-syllables, even if Japanese /sotto/ has three morae.

(Moraic) *n* is always postvocalic, but it can also be followed by a vowel (and it is transliterated as Vn'V, in order to make people realize we are dealing with $/V\eta V/$ [V η -V], not with VnV /VnV/ [V-nV], and the same goes for Vn'yV /V $\eta V/$ [V η -jV], which is different from VnyV /VnjV/ [V- ηV]): [_ten.do σ] /te η doo/ tendoo (cf, a similar Italian word, tendo /tendoo, or ['ten:do] in an intoneme).

However, in Japanese, in addition to /VήV/ [Vή-V] and /VnV/ [V-nV], as in [_eų_i] /a,ŋi/ an'i, ['e,ŋi] /a,ni/ ani, we can also have /VŋŋV/ [Vŋ-ŋV] (which is the combination of /Vŋ/ and /ŋV/): [_eŋ.ŋi] /eŋŋi/ engi and /VŋnV/ [Vŋ-nV] too (combination of /Vŋ/ and /nV/): [_eŋ.ne] /aŋna/ anna, [_eŋ.ŋi] /a,ŋni/ anni (cf Italian: /'anna, 'anni/ ['an(:)na, 'an(:)ni] Anna, anni). Let us add this –not useless– example: [_hoŋ_je] /ho,ŋ-ja/ hon'ya.

Therefore, the structure of $/\dot{\eta}/$ [m, n, n, n, n, $\dot{\eta}$, $\dot{\eta}$] (one mora) is different from the geminate one /C-CV/ (two morae, or three including the first vowel: /V-C-CV/). However, there is no difference for the counting of morae.

Japanese (accent) – akusento

12.3.2.1. Both phonetic and phonemic transcriptions, as we have seen in the previous section too, indicate that in Japanese *akusento* is actually a pitch accent.

We are not faced with real tones (and tonemes), as in Chinese or Vietnamese (languages where even gliding or compound movements on each syllable are prevailing). On the contrary, in Japanese a pattern stretches over whole words, or whole rhythm groups formed by one or more words and by their (strictly connected) enclitic functional syllables (grammatical particles).

The term *akusento*, [$\cdot e.k(\underline{u})_s = n.t\sigma$] /a_ikuse $\frac{1}{1}$ to/, indicates the point, *ie* the mora, after which pitch is lowered, that is the change from mid to low pitch. In our transcriptions, this is marked by writing // after the mora in question. Any other morae before the *akusento* have mid pitch, except for the very first one, which is low. If a word or rhythm group has no *akusento*, the first mora is low, whereas all the successive ones are mid; thus without going back to low pitch, according to the pattern that follows shortly (which is limited here to four morae).

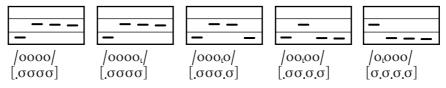
12.3.2.2. Only in the following table (which relates to fig 12.3), we will show a toneMic (A) and a toneTic pattern (B, where $[.\sigma]$ indicates a low-pitched syllable, with the vowel timbre of /o/; whereas $[\cdot\sigma]$ indicates mid pitch). We consider them to be more useful and convenient, in order to describe and learn/teach. We add pattern (c) that is most recommendable in transliterations which do not ignore *a*-*kusento*, when no transcriptions are used.

According to the general principles of not explicitly writing unmarked prosodic elements, in transcriptions, the notation $[\cdot]$ –for mid pitch– could or should be left out. However, it is certainly more useful to show it, all the more so because in actual examples it is much less obtrusive than in the table. In any case, in pattern (H) it has been left out.

For useful comparisons, we will add the most widespread patterns used in transliterations (D, E), and the one used in katakana moraic transcription (F) with typically oriental graphic complexities. We also show a phonotonetic pattern turned into a more (orthodox) one (G), originating from pattern (E). To indicate any mora, here we use $[\sigma]$, |o|, o, \diamond (the last one to (indicate) katakana, in F):

Α	/0000/	/0000ı/	/000,0/	/00,00/	/0 ₁ 000/
В	$[\sigma \cdot \sigma \cdot \sigma \cdot \sigma]$	$[.\sigma \cdot \sigma \cdot \sigma \cdot \sigma]$	$[\sigma \cdot \sigma \cdot \sigma \cdot \sigma]$	$[.\sigma \cdot \sigma . \sigma . \sigma]$	$[\cdot\sigma.\sigma.\sigma.\sigma]$
С	0000	000ò	ooòo	oòoo	<i>òooo</i>
D	0000	<i>0000</i> ¹	000 ¹ 0	00 ¹ 00	0 ¹ 000
E	0 ¹ 000	<i>o^rooo</i> 1	o ^r oo ¹ o	o ^r o ¹ oo	^r 0 ¹ 000
F	$\diamond \overline{\diamond \diamond \diamond}$	$\diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond$	$\diamond \overline{\diamond \diamond} \diamond$	$\diamond \overline{\diamond} \diamond \diamond$	$\overline{\diamond}\diamond\diamond\diamond$
G	[σισσσ]	$[\sigma_{I}\sigma\sigma\sigma_{L}]$	$[\sigma_{J}\sigma\sigma_{L}\sigma]$	[σισισσ]	[」σισσσ]
Н	[.σσσσ]	[.σσσσ]	[.σσσ.σ]	[.σσ.σ.σ]	$[\sigma_{.}\sigma_{.}\sigma_{.}\sigma]$

fig 12.3. Pitch-accent patterns.



12.3.2.3. In type-A tonetic transcriptions, the first instance (/0000/) differs from the second (/0000₁/), because for the latter we also indicate the succeeding lowering (which –for obvious reasons– is absent in type-B transcriptions). Indeed, it is not objectively present in actual reality, when no words follow (as we will see shortly). In type-C transliterations, the accent could even be acute (δ), but the grave one is to be preferred since it can show actual movements better – in fact, the pitch falls from mid to low.

Type-D and type-E transliterations reflect the first ones in a more abstract way: tonemic and tonetic (A, B); even the katakana transliteration –or <transcription>– (F) shows the same characteristic, but in a more abstract way in comparison with real transcriptions (A, B, G).

We do not use transcriptions of the type $/0^{0}000/$ [$^{\Gamma}\sigma^{1}\sigma\sigma\sigma$], which some use though (on the wake of type D and type-E transliterations), because if syllables/morae were really pronounced in a high pitch, instead of the mid one, the result would not be at all convincing. Let us add that in certain textbooks it is possible to find both types D and E with katakana, and type F with transcriptions.

As far as the indication or pitch variants is concerned, as we have done in § 12.0.2, for *hiragana* ([.hi']e.ne, .hi']e.ne; .hi']e.ne, .hi']e.

On the other hand, in a *pronouncing dictionary*, which would be worth publishing (using a transliteration, followed by the official writing and, of course, by an *IPA* transcription, certainly a phonemic one), preferences could and should be shown, by indicating /hiraŋa,na, hiraŋana, hiraŋana,/ and /kata,kana, kataka,na/, obviously in a shortened form: /hiraŋa,na, -rar; -na,/ and /kata,kana, -kar/. Of course, in an introduction, the precise phonetic and tonetic characteristics would be fully treated, with accurate transcriptions, and with all the necessary vocograms, orograms, and tonograms, &c.

12.3.2.4. A short *-mono-moraic*- syllable may have two pitch possibilities: /ne/ *ne* <sound, tone> (absence of *akusento*), /ne_i/ *ne* <root> (presence of *akusento*), but tonetically they are both <non-low> (ie said in a mid pitch: ['nE]; the same goes for /ki/ *ki* <spirit>, /ki_i/ *ki* <tree>, ['ci], and /ha/ *ha* <leave>, /ha_i/ *ha* <tooth>, ['hE].

In the case of *two morae*, we can have $[_s\sigma\sigma]/so_1o/soo \langle monk \rangle$, $[_s\sigma\sigma]/soo/soo \langle villa, inn \rangle$, which are monosyllables realized right as $[_s\sigma\sigma]$, with half-low pitch – but slightly falling or rising, respectively, since they combine mid and low, or low and mid, pitch (cf fig 12.4).

In *unstressed* bimoraic syllables, we find [.] (which is low, but raised up to the border with the mid band, as can be seen from the figure, in comparison with the low pitch of [_]), as in: [.senj_see] /senjsee/ *sensei*, [.koo.hii] /koohii/ *koohii*.

For *two syllables* formed by adding -to a monomoraic monosyllable- particles such as [ŋɐ, uuɐ] /ŋa, uua/ ga, wa, which are akusento-less (since their pitch depends on what precedes, even if [when pronounced metalinguistically in isolation] they are obviously ['ŋɐ, 'uuɐ] /ŋa, uua/), we obtain respectively: [.ne'ŋɐ] /neŋa/ ne ga and ['ne.ŋɐ] /ne,ŋa/ ne ga, [.ci'ŋɐ] /kiŋa/ ki ga and ['ci.ŋɐ] /ki,ŋa/ ne ga, [.hɐ'ŋɐ] /haŋa/ ha ga and ['hɐ.uuɐ] /ha,uua/ ha wa.

It is fundamental not to believe that Japanese has *two* (tonemes) – low and mid. As a matter of fact, *akusento* is not at all a kind of actual pitch height (as it is not stress either). On the contrary, it is a pitch *fall*. It is a sort of (catatonic point), after which the pitch falls, passing to the low band, as the examples clearly show.

But above all, *akusento* is either present or absent. In English, (the position of) stress is phonemic; whereas it is not so in Japanese. Besides, in English, pitch depends only on intonation (and paraphonics); whereas, in Japanese, pitch is phonemic and fundamental.

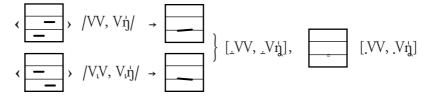
This language has mid pitch until an *akusento* comes, after which the pitch becomes low. If no *akusento* occurs, the pitch remains mid. On the contrary, stress in Japanese is not phonemic and depends on a complex interplay of various factors, such as the presence or absence of *akusento*, where it is placed, and the syllable structures of the rhythm group.

Naturally, the tonograms sufficiently highlight that, in a rhythm group (or in an isolated word), the first mora is low and contrasts with the second one, which is mid; provided that (as we have already seen) the first mora is not followed by an *akusento*, in which case it is mid and what follows is low.

Again with two morae, we also have ['he.ne] /ha.na/ *hana* <edge>, [.he'ne] /hana_l/ *hana* <flower>, [.he'ne] /hana/ *hana* <nose> (all bisyllabic), as for the monosyllabic examples with a particle seen above.

As soon as we add a particle, the effect of *akusento* is immediately clear: [.ne'uue] /neuua/ *ne wa* <sound, tone>, ['ne.uue] /ne_iuua/ *ne wa* <root>, ['he.ne.ŋe] /hainaŋa/ *hana ga* <edge>, [.he'ne.ŋe] /hanaiŋa/ *hana ga* <flower>, [.he'ne.ŋe] /hanaiŋa/ *hana ga* <nose>; and so on.

fig 12.4. Movements in syllables with morae of different pitch.



Stress in Japanese

12.3.2.5. Although stress is not distinctive in Japanese, nevertheless it has a fundamental phonetic function. On the other hand, when acculturated native speakers talk about Japanese *accent*, they surely mean *pitch* accent *–akusento–* which is distinctive. However, in an automatic way, even non-acculturated natives –inevitably– use different degrees of stress for the various syllables which form sentences.

Since stress is not distinctive, it can oscillate and shift in sentences, phrases, and rhythm groups. This can also depend on communicative, pragmatic, paraphonic, and emotional factors. It can even change according to which monosyllables are added.

However, we will give some indications about the phenomenon of stress, since we believe it is impossible to continue ignoring it; although this is exactly what still happens. Let us now proceed in order and start from monosyllables, by reflecting on the fact that bimoraic words, as the following, are actually monosyllables (in spite of contrary confused indications): [_iii] /iii, [_eui] /aiu/ *au*, [_bei] /bai/ *bai*, [_koe] /koe, [_cjoo] /kjoo/ *kyoo*, [_bunh] /bunh, [_ooi] /ooi, [_baai] /baai/ *baai*, [_bjoo·ih] /bjooih/ *byooin* (this last example has four morae, but not four syllables, rather only one! – cf English ['g3oun, 'gooun] /'goun/ *going*).

In these examples, a stressed syllable is always half-low, but it is slightly *falling* (since it derives from the combination of mid and low pitch, within the same syllable), except in the last two examples, where it is slightly rising instead (since it derives from the combination of low and mid pitch, tautosyllabically – cf fig 12.4).

12.3.2.6. True problems begin with bisyllables, though. In fact, there are differences between [.e'me] /ame/ ame <candy>, ['e.me] /a_ime/ ame <rain>, and [.ne'₁ui] /ne₁ui/ neru/ neru <flannel>. Bisyllables of two morae, that is with two light syllables, are stressed on the second syllable, unless *akusento* follows the first one, which is then stressed: [.ko'ko] /koko/ koko, [.e'zi] /azi/ *aji*, [.u'E] /ue/ ue, [.i'ui] /iu/ iu, [.o'i] /oi/ oi and [.o'to] /oto₁/ oto, [.e'ci] /asi₁/ ashi, [.mu'₁e] /mura₁/ mura, [.tsu'₁ni] /tun₁i₁/ tsugi, [.ci'o] /sio₁/ shio, [.i'E] /ie₁/ ie. However, we have: ['do₁E] /do₁ce/ dore, ['e.ci] /a_iki/ aki, ['tsu.me] /tun₁a/ tsuma, &c.

Three-mora bisyllables are stressed on the heaviest syllables (*ie* with more morae than others), although there are some oscillations that we will indicate. It is important to accurately observe *akusento* differences (which are pitch differences), in phonemic transcriptions, since sometimes they are the only actual differences (but fig 12.4 must be carefully considered): [.o'moi] /omoi/ *omoi*, [.o_moi] /omoi/ *irai*, [.o_moi] /omoi, [.ke'soo] /kasoo/ *kasoo*, [.ke_soo] /kasoo/ *kasoo*, [.i'pei] /irai/ *irai*, [.i_pei] /i.cai/ *irai*, [.e'oi] /aoi/ *aoi*, [.e_oi] /aoi, [.ci'ei] /siai/ *shiai*, [.ci'noo] /kinoo/ *kinoo*, [.jo'tee] /jotee/ *yotei*, [.hi_nei] /hi,nai/ *higai* (but ['ci,njoo] /ki,njoo/ *kigyoo*), [.ku_100] /ku-100] /ku-100] /ku-00 / *kuroo*, [.be_1EE] /baree/ *baree*.

More: [.ci_kei] /kikai/ kikai, [.ci_keų] /sikeų/ sikeų/ shiken, [i_keų] /ikėų/ ikėn, [.i'kėų] /ikėų/ ikėn, [·go_zeų] /gozeų/ gozen, [·dzuu_ßoų] /zuuboų/ zubon, [.koozi] /koozi/ kooji, [.koozi] /kolozi/ kooji, [.eu·u] /eųui/ engi, [.ei·de] /aida/ aida, [.hei_u] /hairu/ hairu, [.cjooto] /kjoloto/ Kyooto, [.kei·u] /kaiui/ kaigi, [.dei.ku] /daiku/ daiku, [_ben.li] /be.hri/ benri, [_min.ne] /mihna/ minna, [.mits'ts:u] /mitstsu, mittsu, [.ek'k:e] /akka/ akka (but: ['ek.k:e] /akka/ akka, ['leç.ç:je] /re.ssja/ ressha, where pitch prevails on other factors).

Generally, in four-mora bisyllables, stress falls on the first syllables, unless it is a light one (ie with just one mora) or there is an *akusento* after the second one (or if the first is only <half-heavy>, ie checked by [C[#]C:]): [_dzjuuu·ßjoo] /zjuuubjoo/ *juubyoo*, [_dzjuuu·ßjoo] /zjuuubjoo/ *juubyoo*, [_hoo·koo] /hookoo/ *hookoo*, [_dzjuuu-doo] /zjuuudoo/ *juudoo*, [_koo·zjoo] /koozjoo/ *koojoo*, [_koo_zjoo] /koozjo₀/ *koojoo*, [_tei_фuuu] /taihuu/ taifuu.

More: [_keŋ·tσσ] /keġtoo/ kentoo, [.keŋ_tσσ] /keġto₀o/ kentoo, [_seŋ·tσσ] /seġtoo/ sentoo, [_seŋ.tσσ] /seġtoo/ sentoo, [.seġ_see] /seġsee/ sensei, [_ciġ·eġ] /kiġeġ/ kin'en, [_juurßiġ] /juurbiġ/ yuubin, [.gek'k:σσ] /gakkoo/ gakkoo, [.tσc'c:juur] /tokkjuur/ tokkyuu (but: [_bσtɕ.tɕ:jɐġ] /bottjaġ/ bocchan), [.e'ciiġ] /ekiiġ/ ekiin, [.ɕip-'p:ei, .ɕi̯-] /sippai/ shippai, [_tσσ·cġσσ] /tookjoo/ Tookyoo.

12.3.2.7. Three-mora trisyllables are stressed on their second syllable, unless it contains a devoiced vowel, which makes stress shift forwards (if an *akusento* is there) or backwards: [.ci'mo·no] /kimono/ *kimono*, [.jur'Bi·ute] /jubiuta/ *yubiwa*, [.tci'ke·je] /tikara,/ *chikara*, [.du'te·ji] /hutari/ *futari*, [·e_je.ci] /a.rasi/ *arashi*.

Besides: [.kɐ'E·Ji] /kaeri, / kaeri, [.kɐ'E·Ju] /kaeru/ kaeru, [.kɐ'E.Ju] /kaeru/ kaeru (but [_kɐE.Ju] /kaeru/ kaeru), [.tɐ_J.Ju] /taoru/ taoru, [.u'E·Ci] /ueki/ ueki, [.ci 'kɐ·ku] /sikaku, shikaku; [.kɐ_zJ.ku] /kazoku/ kazoku (with this pitch pattern, and especially with non-devoiced /i, u/ in the last but one syllable, it is also possible to have: ['dJ.tci,P] /do,tira/ dochira, ['dE,JU.tci] /de,JUII/ deguchi); ['kE.ci.ci] /ke,siki/ keshiki, ['i.ku.tsu] /i,kutu/ ikutsu, ['pJ.su.to] /po,suto/ posuto, [.ue.du 'ku] /uahuku/ wafuku, [.e.ci'te] /asita, / ashita, [.je.ku'cjJ] /jakusjo/ yakusho.

Four-mora trisyllables are stressed on the first syllable, unless it is a light one: [_kei·mo·no] /kaimono/ kaimono, [_oo·se·ke] /oosaka/ Oosaka, [_saa.ßi.su] /saabisu/ saabisu, [_cjoo·zi.ci, -·zi·ci] /sjoozi,ki,/ shoojiki, [_tem·pu·re] /tenpura/ tenpura, [_dzen,ko.ku] /zenkoku/ zenkoku, [·ci_100.to] /sirooto/ shirooto, [.but'tsu·zoo] /butuzoo/ butuzoo, [.se'ci.nin] /sekinin/ sekinin, [·e_ke.tcjen] /akatjan/ akachan, [.me'eu·ri] /maeuri/ maeuri, [.o'i·uei] /oiuai/ oiwai, [.ur'e·cie] /uekija/ uekiya.

More: [.suˈi·seʰ] /suiseʰ/ suisen (but: [.oʊˈe.me] /ooalme/ ooame, [.lʊʊˈme.zi] /rooma.zi/ roomaji, [.keʰ/ʰŋʊ.þu] /kaʰŋʋlʰu/ kangofu, [.lʊʊˈsʊ.ku, -ˈsʊ·ku] /roosokul/ roosoku, [.dzjuuuˈŋɐ·tsu] /zjuuuŋatul/ juugatsu, where the akusento prevails). Regularly, also: [.niˈhʊʰ/ʰŋʊ] /nihoʰŋʋ/ Nihongo, [.pɐˈtɕiʰ/kʊ] /patiʰko/ pachinko. In compounds, usually we find a seemingly irregular pattern, such as: [.bemʰme·ɕi] /baʰmesi/ banmeshi, [.geiˈko·ku] /gaikoku/ gaikoku, [.juuuˈdɐ·tɕi] /juuudati/ yuudachi, [.heiˈze·pɐ] /haizara/ haizara.

12.3.2.8. Four-mora quadrisyllables tend to be stressed on the second syllable from the beginning: [.ke'mi·de_ime] /kamidama/ *kamidama*, [.ne'ŋe·ŋu·tsu, -isu] /naŋaŋutu/ *nagagutsu*, [.no'ŋi·mo_ino] /norimono/ *norimono*, [.bu'te·ni_iku, -iku] /butaniku/ *butaniku*, [.se'ke·ne_ije] /sakanaja/ *sakanaya*, [.ci'euue_ise] /siauase/ *shiawase*, [.e'me·ŋi_ike] /amerika/ *Amerika*, [.u'ŋi·ci_iJe] /urikire/ *urikire*, [.to'mo·de_itci] /tomodati/ *tomodachi*, [.u'ke·tsu·ke, -·tsu·ke] /uketuke/ *uketsuke*, [.tçi'ke.çi.tsu, -i.tsu] /tikaːsitu/ *chikashitsu*, [.ơŋˈŋe·kuːkei, -·kuːkei] /oŋŋakuːkai/ *ongakukai*.

More: [.kui'de.mo.no] /kuida.mono/ kudamono, [.te'ßui.kui.jo] /tabui.kuiro/ tabukuro, [.ke'ne-zui.tçi] /kanazui.ti/ kanazuti, [.hi'jo-çi,me] /hirosima/ Hiroshima, [.he'ne-çi.te, -i,te] /hanasite./ hanashite, [.te'no-çi,mi] /tanosimi/ tanoshimi, [.ke'ne-·mo,tçi] /kanemoti./ kanemochi, [.i'ne-mui.ji] /inemui./ inemuri, [.dzi'te.j.çje.je] /zite.j.sjaja/ jitenshaya, [.ho.j.'se-ci.tçi] /ho.j.seki.ti/ honsekichi.

However, stress generally falls on the last but one syllable, when it is a heavy one, or is followed by an *akusento*, or when the second one contains a devoiced vowel. Mainly, this also happens with final *-tsu*, *-ri* or in obvious compounds: [_ese'ne.ßoo] /asane,boo/ *asaneboo*, [_gei·ko'ku.zi'n, -dzi'n] /gaikoku,zi'n/ gaikokujin, [_e·ju_ßei.to] /aruba,ito/ *arubaito*, [_gei·tsu_joo.ßi] /getujo,obi/ getsuyoobi, [_mo-·ku_joo.ßi] /mokujo,obi/ *mokuyoobi*, [_bi.ju_di'n.ju] /bi,rudi'n.ju/ *birudingu*, [_ni·upe'kaa.me] /niuakaa.me/ *niwakaame*, [_t¢ĵo·ko_jee.to] /tjokore.eto/ *chokoreeto*, [_t¢ĵuuu·ŋo'ku·ŋo] /tjuunjokunjo/ *chuugokugo* (but [.gei'ko·ku,ŋo] /gaikokuŋo/ *gaikokugo*).

In addition: [.σ·φΨ'ku·jσ, ..σ·φΨ-] /ohukuro/ ofukuro, [.je·kΨ'sσ·kΨ, .je·kΨ-] /jakusoku/ yakusoku, [.ke·ci̯'ke·te, .ke·ci-, -te] /kakikata, -ıta/ kakikata, [.jo·tsΨ'kedσ, .jo·tsΨ-] /jotukado/ yotsukado, [.tσ·¢i'σ·ji] /tosijori,/ toshiyori, [.ke·mi'ne·ji, -.ji] /kaminaıɾi, kaminari, [.se·jei'ŋE·tsΨ, -·tsΨ] /saraiŋetΨ/ saraigetsu, [.he·t¢i'ŋe·tsΨ] /hatiŋatΨ,/ hatigatsu, [.ci·t¢i'ŋe·tsΨ, ...¢i-] /sitiŋatΨ,/ shitigatsu, [.dzjΨΨ·pi'ŋe·tsΨ] /zjΨΨniŋatΨ,/ juunigatsu, [.e·se'mE·¢i] /asamesi/ asameshi, [.i·jΨΨ·mE·¢i] /irumesi/ irumeshi, [.ση·ne_nσ.kσ] /oʻŋnaınoko/ onnanoko, [.deŋ·ci_gei.çje, -_ŋei-] /deˈŋkigaisja, -ŋai-/ denkigaisha, [.hi·ci'de·¢i, .hi-] /hikidasi/ hikidashi, [.ke·¢i'de·¢i] /kasidasi/ kashidashi, [.he·teˈmi·tçi] /hatamiti/ hatamichi.

12.3.2.9. In five-syllable words, which are generally not simple words, stress decidedly tends to fall on the last but one syllable, except for particular compounding or devoicing: [.ke_ite·zurke.jui] /katazuke.rui/ *katazukeru*, [.i,ne·ßi_ke.ji] /inabi.kari/ *inabikari*, [.σ.to·kσ_no.ko] /otoko.noko/ *otokonoko*, [.ne.żi·me_ue.ci] /nezima.uasi/ *nejimawashi*, [.je,me·no_ßo.ji] /jamano.bori/ *yamanobori*, [.σ.ku:·ji'mono] /okurimono/ *okurimono*, [.σ.cje·ku:'se·me, ..σ.cje·ku-] /okjakusama/ *okyakusama*, [.σ.te.tsu_dei.senˈ] /ote.tudaisan/ *otetsudaisan*, [.e.me·ji'ke.zinˈ, -.dzinˈ] /amerika .zin/ *amerikajin*.

More: [.sen,te·kuı'mo·no] /seŋtakumono/ sentakumono, [.i,tçi·ni'tçi·zjuu] /itinitizjuu/ ichinichijuu, [.den·ci·su̯'too.ßu] /deŋkisutoo.bu/ denki-sutoobu, [.tçĵuuu·ŋo·kuɪ_ŋjoo.ŋi] /tjuuŋokurjo.ori/ chuugokuryoori, [.koo·den_dzjuuu.te-.ku̯] /koodaŋzju.utaku/ koodan-juutaku, [.dem·boo'se.tsu.ßi, _dem·boo's-] /daŋboose.tubi/ danboo-setsubi, [.o·me'ue·ŋi.seŋ] /oma.uarisaŋ/ omawarisan, [.njuuu-.ŋe·kuı·çi_keŋ] /njuuŋakusike.ŋ/ nyuugaku-shiken, [.me·tçi_ei·çi_tsu, -i.tsu̯] /matia.isitu/ machiaishitsu.

12.3.2.10. In verbs in *-ru* generally stress is on the preceding syllable and *akusen*to immediately after it: [_σ·βσ'ε.jui] /oboe.cu/ oboeru, [_keŋʻŋɐ'ε.jui] /kaŋŋae.cu/ kangaeru, [_.ɐ·tsu'me.jui] /atuma.cu/ atsumaru, [_.ɕi·jɐ'βɛ.jui] /sirabe.cu/ shiraberu, [.ko·çi·ke'ke.jul] /kosikake.rul/ *koshikakeru*; but [.e'je·uje.su] /arauja.su/ *arawasu*, [.tçi'ke·ze.ku] /tikaza.ku/ *chikazaku*.

Usually, adjectives are stressed on the last, or last but one, syllable: [.e,te·te_kei] /atataka_i/ *atatakai*, [..mu·çie_tsui] /musiatu_i/ *mushiatsui*, [.je_ike·me_çii] /jakamasi_ii/ *yakamashii*, [.e'ßu·nei] /abunai/ *abunai*, [_oi·çii] /oisii/ *oishii*, [_cii·joi] /kiiroi/ *kiiroi*, [.e'ke·jui] /akarui/ *akarui*, [.tsu'me·tei] /tumetai/ *tsumetai*; but there are even cases like: [.mu'zu·ke_içii] /muzukasii/ *muzukashii*, [.e'te·je_çii] /atarasi_i/ *atarashii*, [.o'mo·çi_joi] /omosiro_i/ *omoshiroi*, [.mu'çie·tsui] /musiatu_i/ *mushiatsui*, [.men'doo·kui_sei] /mendookusa_i/ *mendookusai*.

In iterated forms stress and *akusento* belong to the first syllable: ['mu.zu.mu.zu] /mu.zumuzu/ *muzumuzu*, ['uue.ze_uue.ze] /uua.zauuaza/ *wazawaza*. Finally, here are some *akusento*-less forms: [.se'uueru, .tsuu'ŋeru, uu'keru] /sauuaru, tuŋa-ru, uukeru/ *sawaru*, *tsugaru*, *ukeru*.

12.3.2.11. Since there are no real rules for *akusento* and stress in compounds, especially for less long ones, we just give some examples, to rouse reflection (also on the paramount importance that a real pronouncing dictionary would have [by using *IPA*] for *akusento*, stress, segments, devoicing, &c): [.φujui'ŋe.c(i).ci] /hujuiŋe.siki/ *huyugeshiki*, from [.φu'jui] /hujui, / *huyu*, ['ke.c(i).ci] /ke.siki/ *keshiki*.

Other examples: [.jui,ŋjuui·kuiˈdɐ.mo.no] /junjuuikuidaimono/ yunyuukudamono, from [.jui'ŋjuui] /junjuui/ yunyuu, [.kuiˈdɐ.mo.no] /kuidaimono/ kudamono; and more: [.juui·je·kɛˈzo.jɐ] /juuijakezoira/ yuuyakezora, from [.juui·je·kɛ] /juuijake/ yuuyake, ['so.jɐ] /soira/ sora; [.seito·ŋo_ko.jo] /satonoikoro/ satogokoro, from [.se'to] /sato/ sato, [.koˈko.jo] /kokoiro/ kokoro.

Furthermore: [.ni'ŋu.ju.me] /niŋu.ruma/ niguruma, from ['ni] /ni, / ni, [.ku-'ju.me] /kuruma/ kuruma; [.e'se.ke.ze] /asa,kaze/ asakase, from ['e.se] /a.sa/ asa, [.ke'ze] /kaze/ kaze; [.i\nftys(\u00ecu),ten.to_koo.hii] /i\nftysuta\nftytoko.ohii/ insutantokoohi, from [.i\nftys(\u00ecu)_ten.to] /i\nftysuta\nfto/ insutanto, [.koo.hii] /koohii/ koohi; [.gei.ko'ku-.zi\nfty, -.dzi\nfty] /gaikoku.zi\nfty/ gaikokujin, from [.gei.ko.ku] /gaikoku/ gaikoku, [.dzi\nfty] /zi.\nfty jin; [.gei.ko.ku.zi\nfty.-.dzi\nfty] /gaikoku.zi\nfty/ gaikoku/ gaikoku /kujin-tooroku, from [.gei.ko'ku.zi\nfty.-.dzi\nfty] /gaikoku.zi\nfty/ gaikokujin, [.too.jo.ku] /tooroku/ tooroku.

12.3.2.12. In forming Japanese sentences, some modifications are introduced regarding *akusento* (and somehow for rhythm-group stress too). Let us consider the following examples, in order to see how they work, by carefully observing the pitch of the syllables in the second rhythm group. In fact, normally, the rhythm groups that are not separated by pauses, after a rhythm group with *akusento*, remain mid-pitched as the previous one. Here are some sentences: [.uue'te·kuu·çino ·ne'meE] /uuatakusino namae/ *watakushi no namae* (in [.ne'meE] /namae/, *na*- becomes [·ne], by pitch assimilation to the preceeding syllable), ['bo.kuu.no senjseie/ *boku no sensei* (in [.senj_seE] /senjseie/, *-see* becomes low), [.ni'hon, 'tçi.zu] /nihon tizu/ *Nihon chizu* (without modifications).

More sentences: [.e_se_ßenˈ] /aˌsa baŋ/ *asa ban* (from ['e.se] /aˌsa/ and [_benˈ] /baŋ/, by unifying everything into one rhythm group and lowering *ban*), [.je'se.çii _honˈ] /jasasi_ti ho_t^h/ *yasashii hon* (without modifications), [_ii zi_ßi.ci, .dzi-] /i_ti zibiki/ *ii jibiki* (from [.dzi'ßi·ci] /zibiki_t/, with lowering of -*biki*), [.sut'zut.cii .he_Je] /sutzut.ci_ti heja_t/ *sutushii heya* (in [.he'Je] /heja_t/, -*ya* is lowered), [.seth_set_.de.sut, -st, -s] /sethset_e desu/ *sensei desu* (with stress reduction on ['de.sut, -st, -s] /de_tsu/ and lowering of *de*-).

More: [.to'tE·mo ·o'mo·çi_joi _hoţ] /totemo omosiroi hoıţi / totemo omoshiroi hon (from [.o'mo·çi_joi], with raising of o- and lowering of hon), [.hi'zjoo·ni ·ou kuv·ze'tsuv·ne 'mon·dei] /hizjooni hukuzatuna moţidai/ hijoo ni fukuzatsuna mondai (with raising of fu- and mon-), ['mot.t:o je_sui _hoţi] /moitto jasui hoiţi, -s:, -s] /ohajoo gozaima.su/ ohayoo gozaimasu (with raising of go-).

Some others: [.e^hi.ŋe.too .go_zei.su, -sː, -s] /ari,ŋatoo gozaima.su/ arigatoo gozaimasu (with lowering of -zaima-: everything is low, except -ri-), [.doo.mo .e_ji.ŋe.too .go_zei.me.su, -sː, -s] /do.omo ari,ŋatoo gozaima.su/ doomo arigatoo gozaimasu (with lowering of -ri- and -zaima-: everything is low, except doo-, which is half-low).

In addition: [_uı-tçi ke-pe 'e.ci _me.de| .e.juı-ci'me.suı, -s:, -s] (in the case of fast speech with no breaks: [_uı-tçi ke-pe 'e.ci _me.de .e.juı.ci_me.suı, -s:, -s]; but, separately, word by word: [.uı'tçi, .ke'je, 'e.ci, 'me.de, .e.juuci'me.suı, -s:, -s]) /uti kara e.ki ma. de aruki ma.suu/ *uchi kara eki made arukimasu* (please, note the stress change in the first rhythm groups, mainly due to /i/ devoicing).

Also: ['ni,zi,ke,ne: _sen,dzi _me,de| .dzi'mu,cjo,ni: i_me,su, -s:, -s]; possibly with fewer breaks, in less slow speech: ['ni,zi,ke,ne _sen,dzi _me,de| .dzi'mu,cjo,ni i_me .su, -s:, -s]. On the other hand, in separate rhythm groups, we have: ['ni,zi, ke'ne, _sen,dzi, 'me,de| .dzi'mu,cjo,ni, i'me,su, -s:, -s] (with modifications on *kara*), /ni,zi kara sa,hzi ma,de zi,musjoni ima,su/ *niji kara sanji made jimusho ni imasu*; ['jo,zi .me_de,ni: ko'ko,ni ·ci'te ·ku·de_sei] (slower: ['jo,zi,me_de,ni: ko'ko,ni: ·ci'te ·ku·de-_sei]; on the other hand, in separate rhythm groups, we have: ['jo,zi, me_de,ni, ko-'ko,ni, ci'te, ku·de_sei], with stress modifications on *made ni*, in comparison with *made*), /jo,zi ma,deni kokoni kite ku/dasa, *i yoji made ni koko ni kite ku/dsai*.

12.3.2.13. Here are further examples illustrating stress modifications, in forming rhythm groups: [·me_de_ni_ue] /madeniua/ made ni wa, [.o'ci·ne·ue] /okinaua/ Okinawa, but [.o,ci·ne'ue·ue] /okinauaua/ Okinawa wa... Obviously, it is not always easy to readily distinguish between the effect of pitch prominence and stress prominence. On the contrary, when mid pitch coincides with stress, prominence is quite clear.

If all this combines with a fairly heavy syllable, prominence is even more evident. In any case, if several nearby syllables share the same characteristics, it becomes less easy to distinguish clearly.

However, pitch remains the most important element, being the distinctive one, though undoubtedly stress has a considerable role. It is important to find an appropriate balance between the elements, although oscillations are quite possible and normal, indeed.

In an example like [_te·BE'me.cite_ke_] /¿tabema sitaka?/ *tabemashita ka*?, the low pitch and secondary stress on the syllable *ta*- and the mid pitch and weak stress on

-be- may give a similar prominence effect. But, of course, it is inferior to that of the syllable *-ma-*, and decidedly inferior to that of *ta*, and even less so than in the syllable *-shi-*, with devoicing up to the loss of syllabicity: [.ci, .c:, .c].

In the case of loanwords, the interplay of pitch and stress (as well as of syllabic weight and *akusento* placing) often undergoes some hierarchic reversal, by moving closer to the original (stress) pattern: [_kσσ.hii] /koohi,i/ koohii (<coffee>), [·hσ-_te.jui] /ho,teru/ hoteru (<hotel>).

12.3.2.14. Obviously, in current speech, some reduction phenomena occur in Japanese too. Here we will consider some of the most <normal> ones. The particles *no* and *ni*, in particular, are often reduced to /ŋ/: ['kuıˌnun 'ne.je] /kuıruno nara/ *kuru no nara*, [_ci·miŋ ·uı'tçi] /kimino utti,/ *kimi no uchi*, [_geŋ·ciŋ 'ne.ju] /geıŋkini naru/ *genki ni naru*. In the negative, forms with -*r*-V-*nai*, change /rV/ into /ŋ/: [.ciŋ'nei] /siranai/ *shiranai*, [.o·kuuŋ'nei] /okurenai/ *okurenai*. More frequently, there can even be contractions such as: [·mi_tçjeu] /mi te simau/ *mite shimau*, [·joŋ_dzjeu] /joŋde simau/ *yonde shimau*.

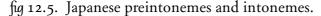
Intonation

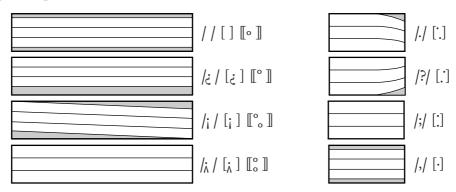
12.3.3.1. When actual Japanese sentences are pronounced, the pitch of their single rhythm groups is partially modified by intonation (too), which is added with its characteristics, according to the four types of intoneme.

fig 12.5 shows the Japanese preintonemes and intonemes, with their characteristics. Every preintoneme forces the pitch of its individual tones, by canalizing them into the indicated shapes (which, in more sophisticated notations than necessary, could even be marked with small rings, as we will see shortly). A normal preintoneme is compressed (/ / [], [[\circ]]), the interrogative is raised (/¿ / [¿], [[\circ]]), whereas the imperative one is falling (/¡ / [¡], [[\circ]]); finally, an emphatic preintoneme is non-compressed, (/½ / [½], [[\circ]]).

Again in fig 12.5 it is possible to see the modifications of the intonemes: the conclusive is falling (/./[:]), the interrogative is rising (/?/[:]), the suspensive is extended (/:/[:]), whereas the continuative intoneme is compressed $(/./[\cdot])$.

fig 12.6 shows the modifications undergone by light and heavy syllables (on two morae of different pitch [cf fig 12.4]), when the four Japanese intonemes superim-





pose on them. Mainly the last syllable of an intoneme undergoes these changes, whether it be stressed (as in these examples) or unstressed. As can be seen, a conclusive intoneme makes the last syllable lower and slightly falling; an interrogative one makes it raise by giving it a clear rising movement. A suspensive intoneme practically does not modify anything; whereas, a continuative one slightly compresses it towards the mid band.

Before moving to the illustrastive examples, let us observe that, in Japanese, questions are made by adding the particle ka [ke] /ka/ at the end, and using an interrogative intoneme with total questions, but a conclusive (or a continuative) one with partial questions. This is the most recommedable and common pattern. However, since ka is very recognizable, as an interrogative element, a simple conclusive intoneme can be used, even with total questions, or an interrogative one even with partial questions. Lastly, above all colloquially, ka need not necessarily be used, in which case then an interrogative intoneme is necessary with total questions.

Lastly, here are three examples to illustrate the most recommendable use of marked intonemes:

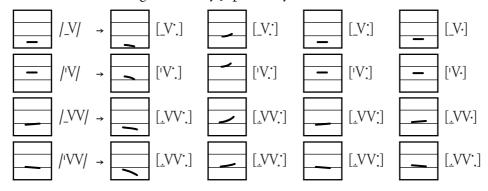
//: [.uueike-ji·me_sen_de.ci.te.] /uuakarimase.n desita./ Wakarimasen desita.

/?/: [¿.ue ke ji'me ci te ke] /¿uakarima sitaka?/ Wakarimasita ka?

/;/: [.φu'ju _det.t:e .ke_je.do?: .i·ci'me.çi.te`.] /hujuı datta keredo; ikima.sita./ *Fu-yu datta keredo, ikimasita.*

Typically, Japanese has a peculiar paraphonic setting, with lowered larynx $\langle \because \rangle$, mostly for men.

fig 12.6. Pitch movements for light or heavy Japanese syllables, with the four intonemes.



Text

12.4.0. The story *The North Wind and the Sun* follows, given in four different (normalized) versions. We start with the (neutral) Japanese pronunciation of (neutral British) English – this is the first step of the phonetic method (the written text is given in § 2.5.2.0). The Japanese translation follows, in its neutral phonotonetic and phonotonemic versions, since it is important in this language to see its *akusento* and the actual phonotonetic rendering, to make useful reflections.

At the end, as always, there is the version which gives the English pronunciation of Japanese, by neutral British speakers, fluent in Japanese (after prolonged contact with native speakers, but with no help from the phonetic method), who have adequately learned the relative prominences, but who substantially use segmental and intonation elements which are typical of neutral British English (for reference purposes, although, of course, a neutral accent is not so common). Obviously, the same principle is valid for the foreign pronunciation of English, given first.

Speakers of American English could prepare their own version both of the Japanese pronunciation of English and of their pronunciation of Japanese, as an excellent exercise, by listening to native speakers, best of all after recording them. Of course, speakers of *other languages* could do the same thing. The author would be happy to receive their transcriptions and recordings, both in case of help –should they need it– and to make their contribution known to others (possibly in our website on *canIPA Natural Phonetics* – cf 0.12).

Japanese pronunciation (of English)

12.4.1. [.dze'noo·su 'uin·do· ?en·dze'sen' .ue·dzi·su 'pjuu·tçin' 'ui·tçi .ue·ze·su-·tu']oŋ·gę`.| 'uen' .e·tu']e·ßu·]e· 'kee·mu 'Jon' .']e·pu·to .i·ne'uoo·mu .ku']oo·ku`.] .dze·?e·ŋu']ii·do·: .dze·tu·ze'uen' .φu'he·]u·su·to .se·ku'çii·dzi·do· .?im'mee·cin' .ze-·tu']e·ßu·]e· _tee·ci ·hi·zu·ku']oo·ku '?o·φu:] 'çju·do .ßi·ken'çi·de·do .su·tu']oŋ·ge .zen·dzi'e·zę`.]

¿.dzi·zjuı'ıei·cį. ¿.ze·switoo·ji·l ¿.dzjuu'uqon .te'hie·ji .tsuı'ŋen. []]

Japanese text

12.4.2. Arutoki Kitakaze to Taiyoo ga chikara-kurabe o shimashita. Tabibito no gaitoo o nugaseta hoo ga kachi to yuu koto ni kimete, mazu Kitakaze kara hajimemashita. Kitakaze wa, ‹Nani, hitomakuri ni shite miseyoo›, to, hageshiku fukitatemashita.

Suru to tabibito wa, Kitakaze ga fukeba fuku hodo gaitoo o shikkari to karada ni kuttsukemashita. Kondo wa Taiyoo no ban ni narimashita. Taiyoo wa kumo no aida kara yasashii kao dashite, atatakana hikari o okurimashita. Tabibito wa dandan yoi kokoromochi ni natte, shimai ni wa gaitoo o nugimashita. Soko de Kitakaze no make ni narimashita.

Kono hanashi omoshirokatta? Moo ichido yomu?

Phonotonemic transcription

12.4.3. /a,rutoki,| kitakazeto ta,ijooŋa, tikarakuı,rabeo sima,sita.|| tabibitono gaitooo,: nuŋa,seta ho,oŋa,: kati, tojuuu, koto,ni kimete.|| ma,zuu,| kitakaze kara, hazimema,sita.|| kitakazeuqa;| 'na,ni,| hitoma,kurini site, misejo,o,'| to;| haŋe,sikuı, hukitatema,sita.||

suruto, i tabibitouqa; | kitakazeŋa huke, ba, i huku, hodo; | gaitooo, i sikka, rito, i karadani kuttukema, sita. || ko, hdouqa, ta, ijoono ba, hi, narima, sita. || ta, ijoouqa, ku, mono aida kara. jasasii; kaoo da, site, | atata, kana hikari, o, okurima, sita. || tabibitouqa, | dahdah "jo, i, i kokoromotini na, tte. || simaini, uqa, i gaitooo nunjima, sita. || sokode; i kitakazeno, i makeni narima, sita. ||

¿kono hanasi, ¿omosi,rokatta?| ¿mo,o itido, ¿jo,mu?|||/

Phonotonetic transcription

12.4.4. [·e_]u.to.ciil .ciite·ke'ze·to ·tei_σσ.ŋe· .tciike·Je'ku.je.ße_σ .ci'me.cii.te`il .te'ßi-·ßi,to·no _gei·to·σ·: .nu'ŋe.se.te _hoσ.ŋe·: .ke·tci_to.juuu· .ko'to.ni .ci'me·te·ll 'me.zu·l .cii'te·ke/ze ·ke'je· .he/zi·me'me.cii.te`.ll .ciite·ke'ze·upe`! ''ne.ni·l .hi/to·me_ku.ji.ni.cii.te· .mi-'se.Jog·ll 'to?`ll .he'ŋe.cii.ku· .φu/ci·te·te'me.cii.te`.ll

sur'ıu·toʻ: te'ßi·ßi,to·uış'.|.ci,te·ke'ze·ŋe ·φur'ke.ßgʻ: φur'ku.ho.do?'.|_gei·to·oʻ: cik-·k:e_1i.toʻ: ke'ıe·de,ni kurts,ts:u·ke'me·ci,tgʻ.||_kon·do·ure·_tei.oo.no_ben.ni·_ne·i'me-.ci,tg`.| ·tei_oo.uıgʻ: ·kuu_mo.no_ei·de ·ke'ıe`.je'se·cii': ke'oo· 'de.ci,tg·| .e,te·te_ke.ne .hi 'ke·ıi.o·.?o,kuı·ıi'me.ci,tg`.|| .te'ßi·ßi,to·uıgʻ.|_den·den _joi`: koʻko·ıo·mo'tci·ni 'net.t:g`.|| .ci'mei·ni.uıgʻ: _gei·to·o_nuı·ni'me.ci,tg`.|| .soʻko'dg:: .ci'ıte·ke·ze'noʻ: .me'ke·ni _ne·ıi'me-.ci,tg`.||

¿.ko'no ·he'ne·çi· ¿.ơ,mo·çi·jo_ket.t:e.ˈ] ¿.moo .i·tçi'do· ¿'jo.mw.'[[]]

English pronunciation of Japanese

12.4.5. [ə'yuntuikii' khrituku zertso taə'jsongu tirkeyu khoəyəberijso (u'meferi) te...|| thə bribytsonso 'gaətso: non gesətə 'hsonge: khetyə'thsojuu ku thsoni ku 'meteri) 'mezuu' ku thekuzer ku'ya: həzumə'mefte...|| khyteku'zewe.' ''nami' hytsomu'khoəyunyter mu'serijso'] 'thso...|| hen'gefkuu fuuktetə'mefte...||

sə'yuutso: thə'bibi,tsoe. khu,teku zengu fo'khebe: fo'khuuhə,dso. 'gaətso: sə'yuutso: thə'bibi,tsoe. khu,teku zengu fo'khebe: fo'khuuhə,dso. 'gaətso: 's ku'yitso: khu yasha ku'ya: 'khandsoə' thaəsonso 'ben-i- 'nay'mefte... thaə'jsoe: ku msonso 'aədu ku'ya: jə'sa'si: kha'soo 'destel' ə,tetu kha'nu hı-'kheyi,so- u,koəyy'meste... thə'bibi,tsoe' denden 'jorə: khu,koyzsomə thini 'netei... fu'maənı,wa: gaətso 'nongy'meste... ssoku'derı.: khytekuzeı'nsoo: ma'kheni 'ney'meste...

¿khu'nsvo hə'nefi. ¿so,msofilu'khefe' ¿msvo itti'dsvo. ¿'jsomµu'|||]