



ILLUSTRATION OF THE IPA

San Martín Peras Mixtec

Ben Eischens^{1,*}  and Andrew A. Hedding² 

¹University of California, Los Angeles and ²University of Washington

*Corresponding author. Email: beischens@ucla.edu

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San Martín Peras Mixtec (autonym: *Tu'un Nta'vi* [tù^ʔũ[̃] n̄tá^ʔβi] or *Tu'un Savi* [tù^ʔũ[̃] sà^hβi]) is an Otomanguean language spoken by roughly 11,500 people in the municipality of San Martín Peras, in Oaxaca, Mexico (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, 2020), as shown in Figure 1. The municipality is in the district of Juxtlahuaca, bordering the state of Guerrero. As of 2020, approximately 97% of the population of the municipality over three years old is a speaker of an Indigenous language. Of those that speak an Indigenous language, approximately 60% also speak Spanish, meaning that around 37% of the total population is monolingual in Mixtec (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, 2020). Despite these figures, it is difficult to estimate the total number of native speakers of the language, as many community members have migrated to other parts of Mexico and the United States, especially to several towns in California (Mendoza, 2020).

San Martín Peras Mixtec is part of the Otomanguean language family. It forms part of the Eastern Otomanguean branch, the Amuzgo-Mixtecan subgroup and the Mixtecan major subgroup (Campbell, 2017). There is no consensus on the number of distinct varieties of Mixtec languages. San Martín Peras Mixtec is classified by Josserand (1983) as part of the Southern Baja dialect region, one of the 12 major dialect groups that she defines. Ethnologue considers San Martín Peras Mixtec to be part of the Western Juxtlahuaca variety (ISO 639-3: JMX), one of 52 distinct varieties that has been assigned an ISO code (Eberhard, Simons & Fenning, 2022). A recent Bayesian phylogenetic analysis of Mixtecan languages identified 23 distinct subgroups and classified San Martín Peras Mixtec as being a part of group 7.3 (Auderset et al., 2023). Finally, the Mexican government recognizes 80 varieties of Mixtec and considers residents of San Martín Peras and some neighboring municipalities to speak To'on Savi del Oeste (Instituto Nacional de Lenguas Indígenas, 2008). According to INALI, given that: (i) more than 25% of the speakers of To'on Savi del Oeste are between the ages of 5 and 14; (ii) there are more than 1000 total speakers of To'on Savi del Oeste; (iii) To'on Savi del Oeste is spoken in more than 50 communities; the language is not considered to be at immediate risk of language loss (Embriz Osorio & Zamora Alarcón, 2012). However, there is clear phonological variation across the 83 different communities that speak To'on Savi del Oeste. For instance, the Mixtec spoken in San Martín Peras has contrastive breathy phonation (see section 3), while the Mixtec spoken in neighboring Coicoyán de las Flores does not (Beatham & Beatham, 2019). Moreover, as migration and increased connectedness

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Figure 1. (Colour online) The State of Oaxaca (left) and the municipality of San Martín Peras (right).

with other communities have expanded the number of young people who primarily speak Spanish in San Martín Peras, there is reason to be concerned about the long-term longevity of the specific variety of the language spoken in the municipality.

Suffice to say that the term “San Martín Peras Mixtec” should be interpreted as an umbrella term that primarily provides a geographic description of where most speakers reside. Throughout this illustration, we abbreviate the language name as “SMPM.”

This work adds to a substantial list of phonological and phonetic studies of the sound systems of Mixtec languages, going back to the mid-twentieth century (Pankratz & Pike, 1967; Pike & Small, 1974; North & Shields, 1977; Josseland, 1983; Marlett, 1992; Macaulay & Salmons, 1995; Iverson & Salmons, 1996; Gerfen & Baker, 2005; Daly & Hyman, 2007; Gerfen, 2013; McKendry, 2013; Herrera Zendejas, 2014; DiCanio et al., 2014; Becerra Roldán, 2015; Mendoza, 2016; León-Vázquez, 2017; DiCanio et al., 2018; Peters, 2018; Becerra Roldán, 2019; Penner, 2019; Rueda Chaves, 2019; DiCanio et al., 2020; Peters & Mendoza, 2020; DiCanio et al., 2021; Cortés et al., 2023; Eischens, 2022; Stremel, 2022; Uchiyama & Mendoza, 2021; Eischens, 2023; Caballero et al., 2024; among others).

The data in this article were collected from three speakers of the language. All audio recordings illustrating the phones of the language come from one 71-year-old male speaker (JGO) born in the community of Ahuejutla, where he has lived his whole life. Ahuejutla, a town of roughly 1,200 inhabitants, is approximately 10 miles from the municipal center of San Martín Peras. The recording of the retelling of the North Wind and the Sun story is from a 52-year-old woman (NGC) who is originally from Ahuejutla and who has lived in California for approximately 20 years. The data used for fast Fourier transforms and center of gravity measurements for fricatives, voice onset time (VOT) in plain and prenasalized consonants, vowel formants, strength of excitation (SoE) for non-modal vowels, and tone plots come from a task in which NGC and one additional female speaker in her fifties (RDC) produced target words in a carrier sentence at normal and slow rates of speech. This data is also accompanied by representative audio recordings. RDC is originally from the town of San Martín Peras and has lived in California for approximately 20 years. To our knowledge, the varieties of Mixtec spoken in Ahuejutla and San Martín Peras are almost identical, though some small lexical differences may exist. We know of no tonal distinctions between the two towns, though NGC and RDC occasionally have minor differences in their pronunciations of affricates (e.g., [tsikū^hfɨ] vs. [tʰikū^hfɨ] for ‘worm’).

Recordings were made using a Zoom H5 Handy Recorder (16-bit quantization rate and 44.1 kHz sampling frequency) and a Nady HM-45U headset microphone. Recordings were spliced using Audacity. Wherever possible, individual examples of words were spliced out of carrier phrases in which the target word was immediately preceded and followed by a mid-tone to avoid known effects of tone sandhi. The nature of the elicitation task with JGO

required the use of a number of distinct carrier phrases, and the carrier phrase corresponding to each example in the manuscript is listed in the appendix. In addition to the audio files for each individual word produced, audio files are also available for each target word in its carrier phrase, with the filenames for these recordings ending in ‘_CP’. Carrier phrases for audio recordings from NGC and RDC are not provided in the appendix because the same carrier phrase was used in all cases.

I. Consonants

The following table illustrates the basic phonemic contrasts in the language (Peters, 2018; Mendoza, 2020; Eischens, 2022).¹

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palatalized Alveolar	Postalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Labialized velar	Palatalized Velar
Plosive	p/ ^m p	t/ ⁿ t	tʃ/ ⁿ tʃ			k/ ^ʷ k	k ^w	kʲ
Nasal	m	n			ɲ			
Tap		r						
Fricative		s	ʃ	ʃ				
Affricate			ʈʂ/ ⁿ ʈʂ	ʈʂ/ ⁿ ʈʂ				
Approximant	β				j			
Lateral approximant		l						

[pá^htò] pá^htò ‘duck’ (cf. Spanish *pato*)²

[^mpá^à] mpá^à ‘godfather of one’s child, or father of one’s godchild’
(cf. Spanish *compadre*)

¹ Note that [β], the voiced bilabial fricative, is listed as an approximant due to its phonological patterning in the language. Additionally, pre-nasalization is indicated by a superscript [n] following Keating et al. (2019). As we note, there is some disagreement between these references on the phonological status of prenasalized obstruents. However, these sources broadly agree on the basic sounds of the language. See discussion under “obstruents” in section 1.1.

² We provide examples in both the IPA and the Mixtec orthography advanced by Ve’e Tu’un Savi (The Mixtec Language Academy) (Norma de escritura del Tu’un Savi (idioma mixteco), 2022), with minor alterations to the way that tones are marked. Specifically, in the orthographic examples in this paper, we represent low tones with a grave accent (̀), rising tones with a caron (ˇ), and falling tones with a circumflex (˘). We follow the other orthographic recommendations of Ve’e Tu’un Savi. Important among these are that vowel nasalization, usually marked with a coda [n], is not marked on vowels following nasal consonants because these vowels are always nasalized. It should also be noted that this orthography is still not in wide use in Ahuejotla. In fact, there is no standardized orthography in use in the town, so there remains considerable variation in the ways that speakers write the language. For example, some speakers prefer to write /j/ using *sh* and some prefer to write /ts/ using *z*. In the IPA examples, we represent bimoraic vowels with a series of identical vowels rather than the standard long vowel marking. Because the tone-bearing unit in Mixtec is the mora, this allows a more straightforward representation of the tonal contrasts available on bimoraic vowels.

[tá ^h tà]	tátà	‘father’ or ‘sir’
[ⁿ tá [?] βī]	ntá’vi	‘poor’
[tʰà ^h tá]	tiàtá	‘a type of oak tree’
[ⁿ tʰá [?] mǐ]	ntia’mǐ	‘radish’
[kà ^h kū]	kàku	‘was born’
[ĩ ⁿ kà]	iinkà	‘other’
[k ^w á [?] à]	kuá’à	‘red’
[k’á [?] mī]	kiá’mǐ	‘(a type of) squash’
[māli]	máli	‘godmother of one’s child, or mother of one’s godchild’ (cf. Spanish <i>comadre</i>)
[nānā]	nánà	‘mother’ or ‘madam’
[nānī]	ñani	‘brother (of a male)’ ³
[rà lō [?] ō]	rà lo’o	‘boy’ (literally “small male”)
[sā [?] mǎ]	sa’mǎ	‘tortilla cloth’
[s’á [?] ǎ]	siá’ǎ	‘Tecomaxtlahuaca’ (a town)
[fàà]	xàà	‘chin’
[tsiǎ [?] à]	tsiǎ’à	‘jug/pitcher’
[ⁿ tsià [?] βǎ]	ntsià’vǎ	‘toothless’
[tʰjáákà]	tyáákà	‘more/most’
[^h tʰi ^h ĩ]	ntyixì	‘corncob’
[βáli]	váli	‘small (pl)’
[jāā]	yaa	‘white’
[lā ⁿ tʰi]	lantyi	‘lamb’

1.1 Obstruents

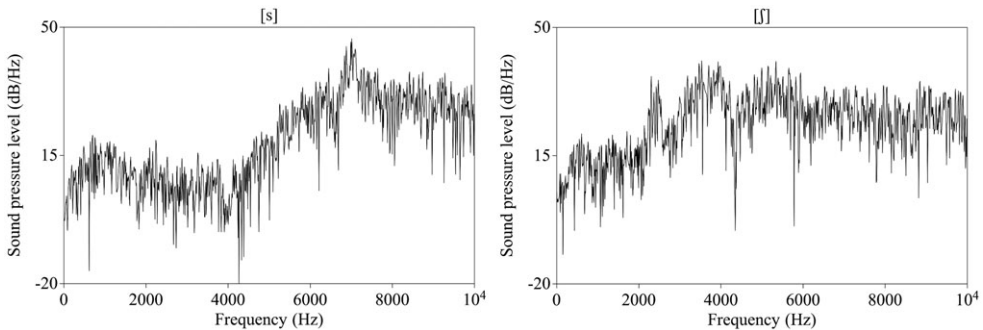
San Martín Peras Mixtec has three phonemic plosive consonants: /p/, /t/, and /k/. However, /p/ is restricted to the loan vocabulary of the language and is not found in non-loans. In some environments, /k/ is pronounced allophonically as [g]. The environment that most commonly seems to license this type of allophonic variation is non-root-medial position between two vowels. For example, in the word $\sqrt{tʰjáák=ka}$ (‘more, most’), the /k/ is usually pronounced as a [g] or a [ɣ]. This voicing process seems to be subject to both interspeaker and inter-utterance variation. We note, however, that this allophonic voicing never seems to happen root-internally and only seems to occur in multi-morphemic words.

Within plosives, SMPM also has contrastive secondary articulations. For instance, both /t/ and /k/ can be contrastively palatalized, e.g., *tiàtá* [tʰà^htá] ‘type of oak tree’ and *kiá’mǐ*

³ Some speakers pronounce the second nasal in this word as palatal.

Table 1. Mean and standard deviation CoG (Hz) measurements by speaker and fricative.

	RDC	NGC
CoG mean (SD)	7669 (596)	8258 (792)
[s]	n = 34	n = 34
CoG mean (SD)	4610 (550)	5394 (527)
[ʃ]	n = 21	n = 18

**Figure 2.** FFTs for [s] (left) and [ʃ] (right) produced by NGC. Examples taken from the words [sánã] ('crazy') and [ʃânũ] ('cigarette').

[kʲáʹmĩ] '(a type of) squash'. In addition, /k/ can be contrastively labialized, e.g., *kuáʹà* [kʷáʹà] 'red'. There are two principal reasons to consider palatalization and labialization secondary articulations, rather than consonants in and of themselves. The first is that [w] is not an independent consonant in SMPM and only appears in conjunction with [k]. The second is that there are distributional differences between palatalized consonants and the palatal glide [j]. Specifically, [j] may precede the high front vowel [i], as in *nà yivĩ* [nà jĩβĩ] 'person' (20d), but palatalized consonants never precede the vowel [i]. That is, a hypothetical word like [kʲĩβĩ] does not exist. Because palatalized consonants are more distributionally restricted than consonant [j], it is unlikely that palatalization is actually an instance of the consonant [j].

San Martín Peras Mixtec has two voiceless fricatives: /s/ and /ʃ/. In a small number of words, /s/ is contrastively palatalized, e.g., *siáʹǎ* [sʲáʹǎ] 'Tecomaxtlahuaca (a town)'. Fast Fourier transforms (FFTs) of individual tokens of [s] and [ʃ] from NGC are shown in Figure 2, along with average center of gravity (CoG) measurements for both fricatives for NGC and RDC in Table 1. In all cases, measurements were taken from a 50ms window centered on the peak of noise intensity for the fricative. The data were measured and visualized in Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2023).

In addition to fricatives, SMPM has two voiceless affricate consonants, \widehat{ts} and $\widehat{tʃ}$, which each contrast with a prenasalized counterpart. The contrast between \widehat{ts} and \widehat{ts} can be seen in the consonant word-list, and the contrast between $\widehat{tʃ}$ and $\widehat{tʃ}$ can be seen in (1) below.

- (1) a. $\widehat{tʃ}^h k i$ *tyikí* 'prickly pear fruit'
 b. $\widehat{t}^h \widehat{tʃ}^h i$ *ntyixĩ* 'corncob'

Unlike the plosive series, these affricates are not contrastively palatalized. $/tʃ/$ and $/tʃ/$ never occur with palatalization, and $[ts]$ and $[tʃ]$ are predictably palatalized before all vowels except $/i/$ (Stremel, 2022), as shown in example (2) below. Given this predictability, we assume that $/ts/$ and $/tʃ/$ are underlyingly palatalized and are allophonically depalatalized before a high front vowel. Impressionistically, $/ts/$ sounds like palatalized $[tʃ]$ on some productions before $[i]$. We leave for future research whether this is a phonological alternation or a coarticulatory effect.

- (2) a. $[^{n}tsi^{h}kǎ]$ *ntsíkǎ* ‘banana’
 b. $[^{n}tsi^{h}ě]$ *ntsiěě* ‘strength’
 c. $[^{n}tsi^{h}βǎ]$ *ntsiǎ’vǎ* ‘toothless’
 d. $[^{n}tsi^{h}ö]$ *ntsiöjö* ‘moonlight’
 e. $[tsi^{h}ú]$ *tsiu’ún* ‘venomous spider’

There is no plain voicing distinction in San Martín Peras Mixtec. However, all stops and affricates except $/k/$ and $/k^{w}/$ contrast with prenasalized versions. Throughout the article, we will refer to this as a contrast between *plain* and *prenasalized* consonants. The phonological status of prenasalized consonants in the language is a point of debate. Peters (2018:13) analyzes them as sequences of a nasal consonant and a stop, noting that they syllabify as a coda in words like *lantyi* $[lã^{n}tʃi]$ ‘lamb’. On the other hand, Eischens (2022) analyzes them as complex segments, since onset consonant clusters are banned in the language, but prenasalized stops and affricates may occur word-initially (see consonant examples above). We adopt Eischens’ (2022) analysis, given the general ban on consonant clusters and the fact that a word-initial nasal + obstruent cluster would violate the sonority sequencing principle (e.g., Kiparsky, 1979; also noted in Iverson & Salmons, 1996:166), making it an unlikely onset. We also consider phonotactic restrictions on the distribution of prenasalized consonants as evidence that they are single segments. That is, they may only be followed by oral vowels, never nasal vowels (see section 2 below). This is unexpected if they are, in fact, a sequence of a nasal and a plain consonant, since plain consonants may be followed by both oral and nasal vowels.

The unary analysis of prenasalized consonants is somewhat complicated, though, by the distribution of the prenasalized consonant $[^{n}k]$ in the language, which only occurs root-medially. We know of only two monomorphemic words with $[^{n}k]$,⁴ both shown in (3) below.

- (3) a. $[tʃi^{n}kǐ]$ *tyi’nkǐ* ‘acorn’
 b. $[li^{n}kō]$ *linko* ‘bud of the flower of the maguey cactus’

There are three possible ways to account for this restricted distribution. First, one could adopt Peters’ (2018:13) analysis of pre-nasalized consonants as a bi-consonantal series of a nasal + plosive. Under this analysis, the $[^{n}]$ in the preceding examples would be a nasal coda of the first syllable. However, given that there are no other codas in the language, and that we analyze pre-nasalized stops in other cases as complex segments, we do not adopt this analysis. The second possible analysis is to suppose that $[^{n}k]$ may only occur in loan words, as is the case for $[p]$ and $[mp]$. Indeed, *linko* is plausibly related to the Mexican Spanish word *gualumbos* (also spelled *golumbos* or *hualumbos*), which also refers to the edible

⁴ A third word with a prenasalized word-medial $[^{n}k]$ ($[i^{n}kǎ]$ ‘other’) is likely derived from the numeral one ($[i]$) and an “additive” clitic (=ka) (though see Mantenuto, 2020 for a more nuanced discussion of its meaning).

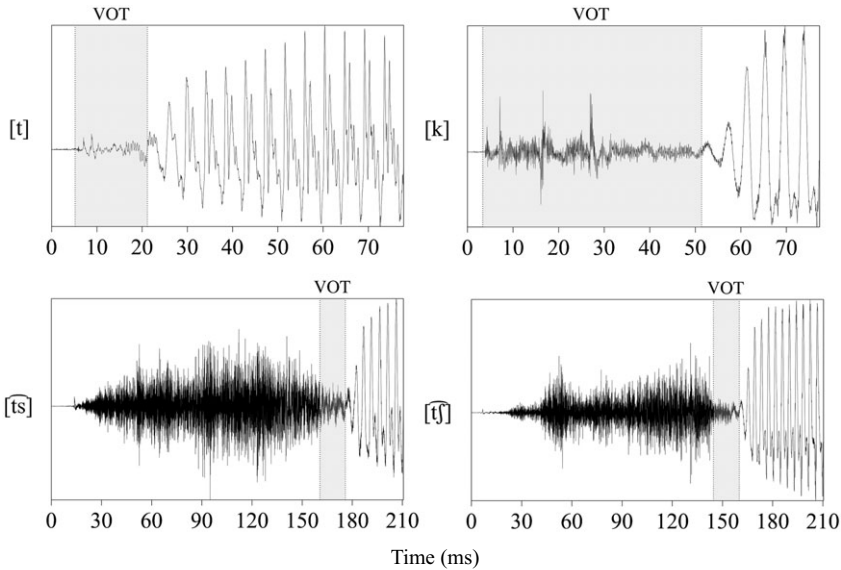


Figure 3. Representative examples of plain stops and affricates. Shaded portion shows VOT.

flowers of the maguey cactus (Piedra-Malagón et al., 2022).⁵ Notably, these terms all involve a lateral followed by a nasal + stop sequence, like the word in SMPM. Given the rarity of prenasalized labial obstruents in San Martín Peras Mixtec, it is possible that the labial place of articulation was borrowed as a dorsal. However, we currently have no evidence that *tyi'nkì* is a loan word. The third possible analysis—and the one that we tentatively adopt here—is that [ʰk] is restricted phonotactically to root-medial position. This possibility is bolstered by the fact that [ʰk] only occurs in root-medial position in other Mixtec varieties as well, such as Chalcatongo (Iverson & Salmons, 1996), Alcozauca, (Mendoza Ruiz, 2016) and Yucuquimi de Ocampo Mixtec (Leon Vázquez, 2017).

In what remains of this section, we qualitatively and quantitatively illustrate the phonetic characteristics of plain and prenasalized stops and affricates, focusing on VOT and the internal structure of prenasalized stops and affricates. For plain stops, VOT was measured from the release burst until the beginning of periodic voicing associated with the following vowel. For plain affricates, VOT was measured from the offset of frication associated with the affricate, marked by cessation of high-frequency aperiodic noise in the spectrogram, to the onset of periodic voicing (Abramson & Whalen, 2017). Measurements were taken from stops and affricates with no palatalization or labialization. Examples of VOT measures are shown in Figure 3, which are taken from the words [tá^htè] ('sir/father'), [kîñ] ('pig'), [tsi^hkà] ('grasshopper'), and [tʃi^htʃi] ('cricket'), respectively.

While VOT is an informative measure of voicing for the plain stops and affricates, it does not capture the internally complex structure of prenasalized stops and affricates. These consonants are characterized by a sequence of periodically voiced prenasalization, followed by a period of voicelessness during the oral closure and/or frication, and there is also almost always a positive VOT measured from the stop burst or cessation of frication. In many cases, weak voicing persisted from prenasalization into a portion of the stop closure, though this voicing was never strong and almost always ceased prior to the stop burst (cf. Cortés et al., 2023). Figure 4 below illustrates this sequencing of prenasalization (PN), weak voicing (WV),

⁵ *Gualumbo* is itself a borrowing from the Otomí word *uadombo* (Bravo Vargas, 2014).

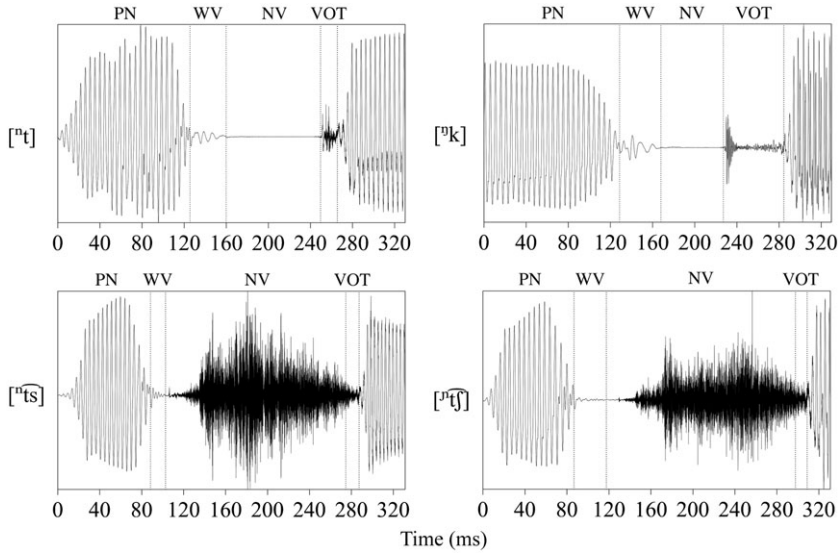


Figure 4. Representative examples of prenasalized stops and affricates. NV = no voicing; PN = prenasalized; VOT = VOT from stop burst or cessation of oral frication; WV = weak voicing.

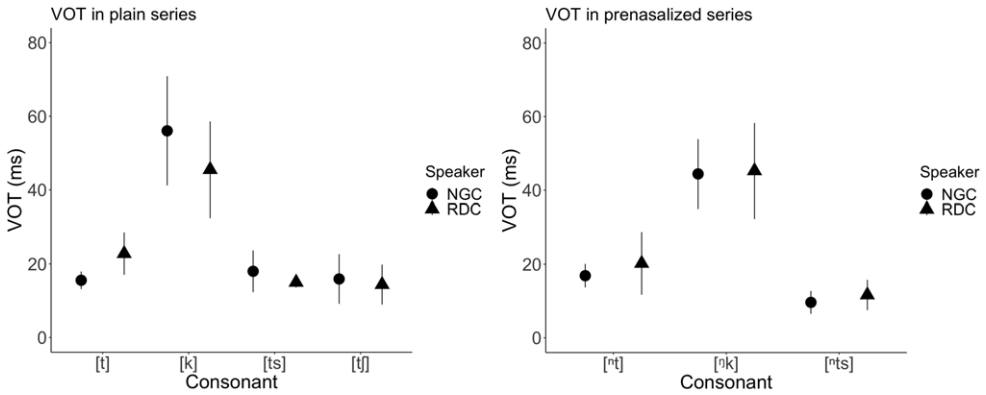


Figure 5. VOT by consonant type and speaker in the series of plain stops and affricates (left) and prenasalized stops and affricates (right). Error bars represent one standard deviation.

NGC [t̪] = 35, [k̪] = 51, [t̪] = 18, [ts̪] = 6, [ʰt̪] = 18, [ʰk̪] = 12, [ʰts̪] = 11.
 RDC [t̪] = 18, [k̪] = 51, [t̪] = 15, [ts̪] = 6, [ʰt̪] = 18, [ʰk̪] = 15, [ʰts̪] = 17.

no voicing (NV), and a positive VOT. The examples are taken from the words [ʰtiβi] (‘beautiful’), [liʰko] (‘bud of the flower of the maguay cactus’), [ʰtsiʰkà] (‘wide’), and [ʰtʃiʰfʃ] (‘corn cob’), respectively. The example illustrating [ʰk̪] is root-medial, since this segment never occurs root-initially.

One point of interest is that both plain and prenasalized stops and affricates have a positive VOT, measured either from the stop burst or from the cessation of oral frication. As shown in Figure 5, VOT values roughly line up between the plain and prenasalized versions of a consonant. Note, though, that the VOT values for [ʰk̪] are taken from root-medial tokens, since there are no root-initial tokens of [ʰk̪], and that [ʰt̪] was excluded because of a

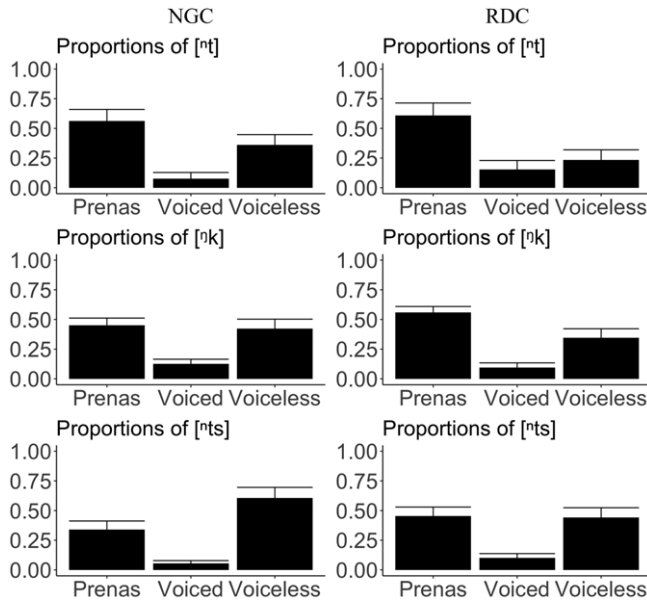


Figure 6. Proportional duration of prenasalization, weak voicing, and voicelessness in prenasalized consonants for NGC (left) and RDC (right). Error bars show one standard deviation.

low number of tokens for analysis (three per consultant). The data were measured in Praat and illustrated using the ggplot package (Wickham, 2016) in R (R Core Team, 2013).

The VOT of [t], [tʃ], and [ts] are all short lag, with averages around 20ms. As is usually the case with backer places of articulation (Lisker & Abramson, 1967), [k] has higher VOT than [t]. However, the difference between [t] and [k] here appears larger than the difference in VOT between [t] and [k] in English (Lisker & Abramson, 1967:6), as well as in other Mixtec languages (DiCanio et al., 2020; Cortés et al., 2023). Notably, [k] also displays more variance than [t]. The higher VOT variance for [k], and potentially the higher average value, may stem from the distinction between speech rates in the production task.

As discussed previously, prenasalized stops and affricates are made up of a sequence of PN, WV, and NV. The voiceless portion also includes a positive VOT measured from the offset of oral constriction to the beginning of periodic voicing. Figure 6 shows the duration of each of these subparts of a prenasalized consonant as a proportion of the entire duration of the consonant. Given that the period of voicelessness and positive VOT are two subparts of the voiceless period of the consonant, they are combined under the category “voiceless” here.

Before moving on, it is worth noting that prenasalized stops in a number of Mixtec languages alternate between fully voiced forms and forms with a voiceless interval (see, e.g., Rueda Chaves, 2019:139 and sources therein). In these varieties, the devoiced versions of prenasalized consonants appear in particular phonological environments, such as root-initially, motivating an analysis in which their voicelessness is derived by either a phonological or phonetic process of strengthening. In San Martín Peras Mixtec, however, prenasalized stops and affricates almost always have a voiceless interval regardless of position in the root. Because of this, we do not analyze the voicelessness in prenasalized consonants as derived by a phonological process. It is possible that cross-the-board voicelessness in prenasalized consonants is an innovation in the phonological system of SMP Mixtec, though we leave this question to future research.

1.2 Sonorants

In addition to its obstruent consonants, San Martín Peras Mixtec has a set of seven sonorant consonants. There are three contrastive nasal consonants with bilabial, alveolar, and palatal places of articulation, e.g., *máli* [máli] ‘godmother of one’s child, or mother of one’s godchild’, *nánà* [nānā] ‘mother’ or ‘madam’, and *ñani* [ɲāni] ‘brother (of a male)’. In addition, there are three non-nasal approximants in the language: /l/, /β/, and /j/. Finally, there is one voiced alveolar tap /ɾ/. Of these consonants, /ɾ/ is the most clearly restricted. To our knowledge, it only occurs almost exclusively in the clitic pronoun series and function words. [r̄] is used for human males, [r̄i] is used for animals and round objects, [r̄á] is used for liquids, and [ra] is the conjunction *and*. There are very few other native lexical items with /ɾ/ in the language. Of the approximants, /j/ appears to vary most widely in its phonetic realizations, even between productions of the same word in the same context by the same speaker. The examples below, which were all produced by the same consultant in the same carrier phrase, show /j/ realized as an approximant (Figure 7, left), a transition from an approximant into a nearly voiceless fricative (Figure 7, middle), and a voiceless palatal fricative (Figure 7, right). Voiced fricative realizations of /j/ can also be seen in (4a–c).

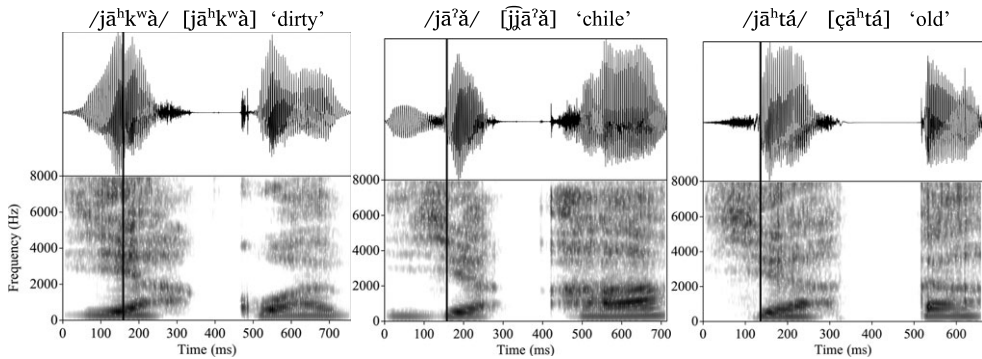


Figure 7. Waveforms and spectrograms showing four distinct realizations of /j/. Vertical black bar represents the offset of the sound.

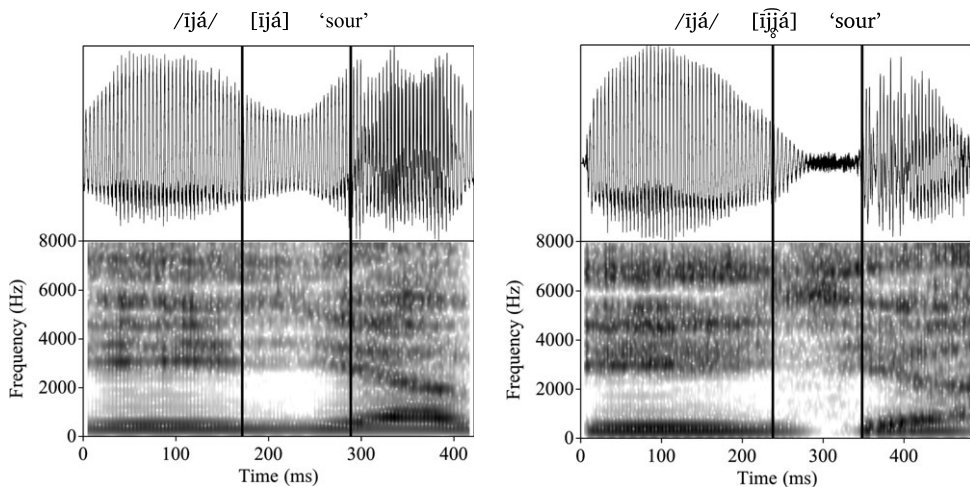


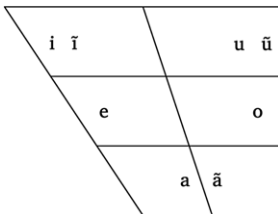
Figure 8. Waveforms and spectrograms showing two distinct realizations of /j/. Vertical black bars represent the onset and end of the sound.

This variation is not limited to couplet-initial position, unlike cases of fortition in other Mixtec languages (see, e.g., Rueda Chaves, 2019). In couplet-medial position, /j/ can be realized as a glide (Figure 8, left), or as partially voiced and fricated (Figure 8, right). In these examples, the black vertical lines mark the left and right boundary of /j/.

Despite the fricative realizations of /j/, we classify it as an approximant and not a voiced fricative, unlike in other Mixtec varieties (e.g., Cortés et al., 2023). This is because, if it were a fricative, it would be the only phonemically voiced consonant in SMPM's obstruent series. Additionally, like the other approximants (/l/ and /β/), it is only ever followed by oral vowels in non-morphologically complex contexts.

2. Vowels

San Martín Peras Mixtec has five oral vowels and three contrastively nasal vowels.⁶



[kátaʔǎ]	kátáʔǎ	‘fights’
[kéβaʔǎ]	kévàʔǎ	‘wins’
[kítáʔǎ]	kítáʔǎ	‘accompanies’
[kò-káʔǎ]	kò-káʔǎn	‘does not talk’
[kúkáʔnù ĩni]	kúkáʔnù ini	‘forgives’ (lit. ‘be big inside’)
[kʷáà]	kuàà	‘blind’
[kʷáã]	kuáàn	‘yellow’
[kʷíi]	kuíi	‘clear’
[kʷíĩ]	kuíin	‘striped’
[kūū]	kuu	‘will die’
[kūũ]	kuun	‘will fall’ (used for rain)

While there are only three contrastive nasal vowels, we note that many speakers pronounce nasal [ũ] lower in the vowel space than oral [u], leading it to sound like [õ]. However, we know of no examples of [ũ] contrasting with [õ]. Nasal vowels only contrast after plain stops and affricates. Vowels are predictably nasal when following nasal consonants, and oral when following prenasalized consonants and approximants.

⁶ Following common phonological practice, we use the symbol [a] to represent the low vowel in SMPM, despite the fact that it is a perceptually central vowel.

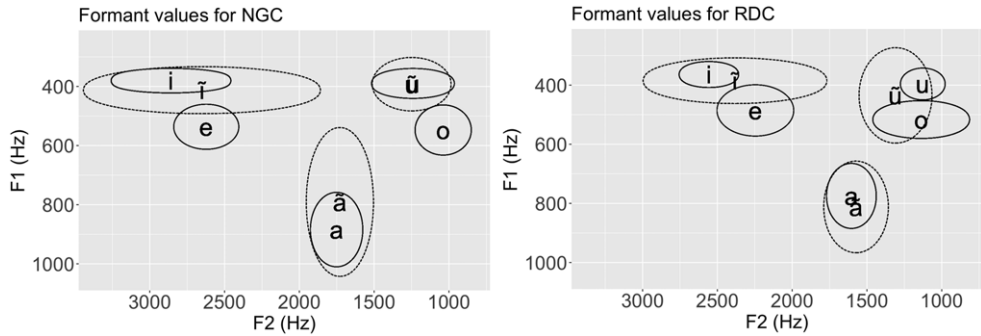


Figure 9. Plots of average formant values (Hz) for NGC and RDC. Ellipses show one standard deviation around the mean. Solid lines represent oral vowels; dotted lines represent nasal vowels.
 Number of tokens for NGC: 69 [a], 36 [ã], 21 [e], 88 [i], 77 [ĩ], 84 [o], 30 [u], 32 [ũ].
 Number of tokens for RDC: 75 [a], 39 [ã], 18 [e], 84 [i], 78 [ĩ], 87 [o], 36 [u], 33 [ũ].

Figure 9 displays two plots showing the average formant values for SMPM's five oral vowels and three nasal vowels for NGC and RDC. The graphs represent root-final vowels, where there is no phonation type contrast.

3. Prosodic features

3.1 Syllable structure and the couplet

In arguably all Mixtec languages, words are organized around a bimoraic unit known in the Mixtecanist literature as the 'couplet' (Pike, 1948; see Penner, 2019 for a comprehensive overview). This is the case in SMPM, where lexical roots are minimally, and usually maximally, bimoraic (Peters, 2018; Eischens, 2022). They are made up of two monomoraic short vowels, or one bimoraic long vowel, and there is a ban on coda consonants, which gives rise to the canonical root shapes of (C)VCV and (C)VV. The couplet in SMPM is the locus of phonation contrasts and tonal melodies, which are the subjects of the following sections. Given that the bimoraic lexical root and the couplet are usually interchangeable, we use the more generic term 'root' throughout.

3.2 Phonation type

Across Mixtec languages, the glottal stop [ʔ] patterns differently from other consonants, as outlined in Macaulay and Salmons (1995). For example, it is usually the only licit coda consonant (e.g., *kiá'mĩ* [kʲáʔmĩ] 'squash'), and it never occurs phonemically in root-initial or root-final position in most Mixtec languages (though see Pankratz & Pike, 1967 and Herrera Zendejas, 2014 for Ayutla Mixtec; and Towne, 2011 for Zacatepec Mixtec). Additionally, there may only be one glottal stop per root, and when it occurs between two vowels in a mono-morphemic context, the vowels always match in quality and nasalization. In addition, in some Mixtec languages, CVʔV and CVV roots act as a natural class regarding tone sandhi processes, to the exclusion of roots with a medial oral consonant (Macaulay & Salmons, 1995:58). Because of these characteristics, many researchers have adopted the hypothesis that the glottal stop in Mixtec languages is not a consonant proper, but rather a supra-segmental feature of the vowel, root, or word (Macaulay & Salmons, 1995; Gerfen, 2013; McKendry, 2013; Becerra Roldán, 2015; León Vázquez, 2017; Penner, 2019;

Rueda Chaves, 2019, Cortés et al., 2023, a.o., but see Herrera Zendejas, 2014 for treatment of glottal stop as a consonant). Because most of these characteristics also hold of the glottal stop in SMPM, we follow the trend in the Mixtec literature and represent glottal stop as a contrastive phonation type, referred to throughout as glottalization. It may surface root-medially between two homorganic vowels or before root-medial sonorants and prenasalized consonants. In addition, SMPM makes use of a contrastive [h] with the same phonotactic distribution as [ʔ], occurring root-medially between two homorganic vowels or before root-medial sonorants and prenasalized consonants.⁷ [h] is uncommon in other Mixtec languages, and thus is likely a relatively recent innovation in SMPM (Peters, 2018). Because of its phonotactic similarity to [ʔ], we also analyze [h] as a contrastive phonation type, referred to herein as breathy phonation. Following Ve'e Tu'un Savi, we represent glottalization orthographically as an apostrophe. Due to the rarity of breathy phonation in Mixtec languages, there is no orthographic convention to represent it proposed by Ve'e Tu'un Savi. In what follows, we choose to represent breathiness orthographically as *j*.⁸ All five phonemic oral vowels can be contrastively breathy (b examples) and glottalized (c examples) (4–8).

- | | | | |
|--------|---|-----------------|---|
| (4) a. | [jāā] | <i>yaa</i> | 'white' |
| b. | [jâ ^h ǎ] | <i>yájǎ</i> | 'tongue' |
| c. | [jǎ ^ʔ ǎ] | <i>ya'ǎ</i> | 'chile' |
| (5) a. | [kú ⁿ tsi ^ē ē] | <i>kúntsiee</i> | 'puts up with' |
| b. | [ⁿ tsi ^é é ^h é] | <i>ntsiéjě</i> | 'strength' |
| c. | [ⁿ tsi ^é é ^ʔ é] | <i>ntsi'é</i> | 'ground bean soup' |
| (6) a. | [k ^w íi] | <i>kuî</i> | 'clear (Adj)' |
| b. | [k ^w í ^h í] | <i>kujĩ</i> | 'green' |
| c. | [k ^w í ^ʔ í] | <i>kui'i</i> | 'fruit' |
| (7) a. | [kōō] | <i>koo</i> | 'welcome' |
| b. | [kò ^h ǒ] | <i>kòjǒ</i> | 'snake' |
| c. | [kò ^ʔ ǒ] | <i>kò'ǒ</i> | 'plate' or 'bowl' |
| (8) a. | [ⁿ túù] | <i>ntúù</i> | 'a small black flying insect with a white face' |
| b. | [ⁿ tù ^h ú] | <i>ntùjǔ</i> | 'large, hard fruit seeds' |
| c. | [ⁿ tū ^ʔ ú] | <i>ntu'ú</i> | 'fat (Adj)' |

In addition, all three nasalized vowels can be contrastively breathy and glottalized (9–11). For clarity, we transcribe the underlying level tones as opposed to the surface falling tones in examples (17) and (18).

⁷ We know of one exception to this, which is that the post-nominal demonstrative [hǎǎ] ('that') begins with [h].

⁸ The choice of *j* is meant to mirror the Spanish grapheme *j*, which is realized as [x] and [h] in dialects of Mexican Spanish (Canfield, 1981). The majority of residents of San Martín Peras are literate in Spanish (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, 2020), so using *j* to represent breathiness seems to us to be a natural choice.

- (9) a. [k^wéâ] *kuààn* ‘yellow’
 b. [k^wâ^hǎ] *kuâjǎn* ‘unmarried’
 c. [k^wǎ[?]ǎ] *kua’ǎn* ‘leaves (V)’
- (10) a. [íí] *íin* ‘hail’
 b. [í^hí] *íjn* ‘skin’ or ‘leather’
 c. [í[?]í] *í’in* ‘temazcal (a type of sweat lodge)’
- (11) a. [ɲũũ] *ñuù* ‘town’
 b. [ɲũ^hũ] *ñùjũ* ‘palm plant’
 c. [ɲũ[?]ũ] *ñu’ù* ‘fire’

[h] is allophonically nasalized between nasal vowels, and it surfaces as the palatal fricative [ç] after the high front vowel [i] (Eischens, 2022). In addition to contrastive breathiness, vowels are predictably aspirated when they precede a plain, root-medial consonant.⁹ Examples of this allophonic variation can be found throughout this Illustration, including, for example, *tátà* [tá^htà] ‘father/sir’ and *tyíkí* [tí^hkí] ‘prickly pear fruit’. However, plain consonants that are non-root-medial (that is, word-medial consonants that surface after a prefix) are not pre-aspirated. For example, *kò-ká’àn* [kò-ká[?]àn] ‘does not talk’ and *kúká’nù iní* [kúká[?]nù iní] ‘to forgive (lit. to be big inside)’. At present, it is unclear whether allophonic [h] is best understood as preaspiration of plain consonants, as is found in Alcozauca (Mendoza Ruiz, 2016) and Ayutla Mixtec (Pankratz & Pike, 1967), or as allophonic breathy phonation similar to the allophonic glottalization found in Coatzacoapan Mixtec (Gerfen, 2013). On the one hand, both allophonic [h] and contrastive [h] are restricted to root-medial position, lending support to the view that they both constitute breathy phonation. On the other hand, vowels preceding allophonic [h] may host any tone, while vowels preceding contrastive [h] may only host a subset of the possible tones, as discussed in the section on lexical tone. This latter point lends support to a view of allophonic and contrastive [h] as phonologically distinct. Given the contradictory evidence, we leave a definitive answer to this question for future research.

In what follows of this section, we briefly discuss the phonetic realization of glottalization, breathiness, and preaspiration in SMPM. As is the case in many Mixtec languages (Pike & Small, 1974:122–124; Macaulay, 1996:42; Gerfen & Baker, 2005; Herrera Zendejas, 2014:72–74; Becerra Roldán, 2019:112–116; Penner, 2019:254; Cortés et al., 2023:11–14), the articulation of glottalization varies greatly both within and between speakers. Though the most common realization of glottalization in the examples in Figure 10 involves full glottal closure, glottalization is often produced with creaky voice or periodic voicing accompanied by amplitude and/or pitch modulations (see Eischens, 2022 for more details on the variable realization of glottalization). Breathiness is most commonly realized as a short period of breathy voicing followed by voiceless aspiration, as shown in Figure 11. The difference between breathiness and glottalization can be seen by comparing the examples in Figure 11 to their corresponding (near-)minimal pairs in Figure 10.

Preaspiration is also most commonly realized as an interval of breathy voicing followed by voiceless frication, though the frication has a much shorter duration than

⁹ Note that we do not represent preaspiration orthographically because it is predictable allophonic variation.

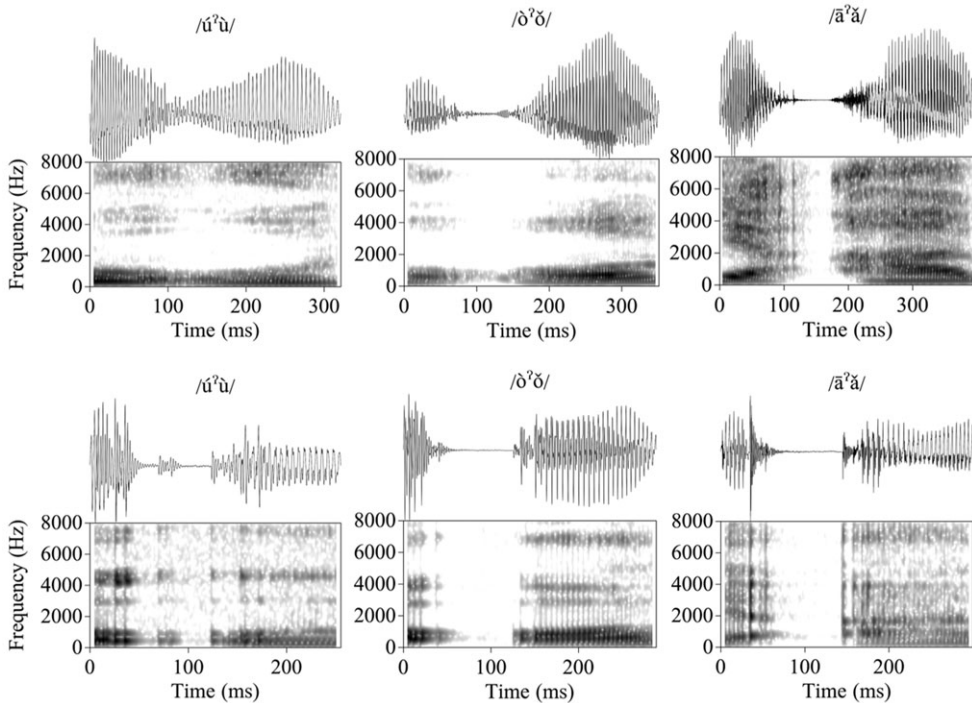


Figure 10. Individual tokens of glottalized vowels from the words /kú²ù/ ('sick'), /ð²ð/ ('plate'), and /já²ǎ/ ('chile pepper') from NGC (top) and RDC (bottom).

in breathy vowels. This can be seen in Figure 12, which shows a vowel followed by a preaspirated [t].

To quantitatively examine the phonetic realization of glottalization, breathiness, and preaspiration, we calculated Strength of Excitation (SoE) across phonation types, using the same data set used to calculate VOT, formant frequencies, and fricative spectra. SoE is a measure of the relative amplitude of voicing in the speech signal (see, e.g., Murty & Yegnanarayana, 2008; Garellek et al., 2023), and as such is a useful tool for examining the strength of periodic voicing throughout the implementation of non-modal phonation types (see Cortés et al., 2023 for a recent example on another Mixtec language). Following similar methods in Cortés et al. (2023) and Garellek et al. (2023), SoE was calculated using VoiceSauce (Shue et al., 2011) at 1 ms intervals over a 10 ms window, then averaged over 20 equally spaced intervals for each token. SoE measurements were log-transformed and then normalized by subtracting a speaker's minimum SoE value from every measurement, and dividing the result by the difference between the speaker's maximum and minimum SoE. The results ranged between 0 and 1, with 1 representing the speaker's highest SoE, and 0 representing the speaker's lowest SoE.

The plots in Figure 13 show aggregated SoE contours over the course of the vocalic portion of laryngealized and breathy vowels (e.g., [V^lV] and [V^hV]). The steep dip in SoE during the middle of the timecourse is consistent with creaky voice and glottal closure during the realization of laryngealization, and aperiodic frication during the realization of breathiness. In general, RDC's productions show a steeper dip in SoE than NGC's productions, suggesting that the realization of laryngealization and breathiness is likely subject

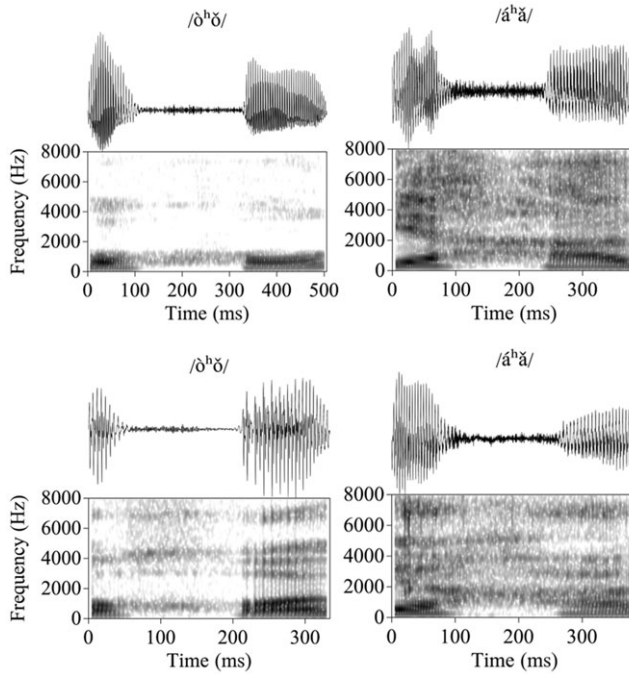


Figure 11. Individual tokens of breathy vowels from the words /kəˈðɔ/ ('snake') and /jɑˈhɑ/ ('tongue') from NGC (top) and RDC (bottom).

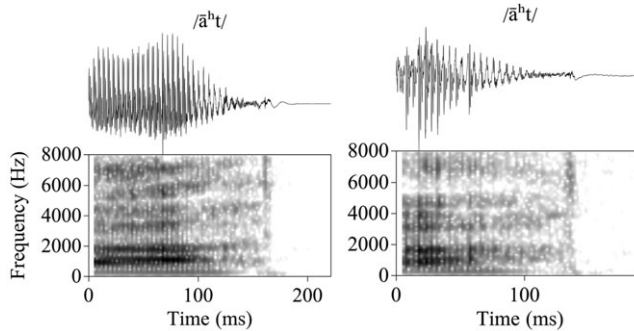


Figure 12. Individual tokens of vowels followed by preaspiration from the word /ɑˈhɑ/ ('bitter') from NGC (left) and RDC (right).

to interspeaker variation. The plots in Figure 14 show the SoE contours for vowels and following preaspiration (e.g., the underlined portion of [tʃhkɪ] ('prickly pear fruit')) alongside that of vowels and following prenasalization (e.g., the underlined portion of [lɹko] ('bud of the flower of the maguay cactus')). Since preaspiration involves aperiodic noise and prenasalization involves periodic voicing, SoE stays relatively high for a sequence of a vowel and following prenasalization, but dips for a sequence of a vowel and following preaspiration. This is consistent with the presence of breathy voicing and eventual aspiration, which lowers the relative strength of voicing in the acoustic signal.

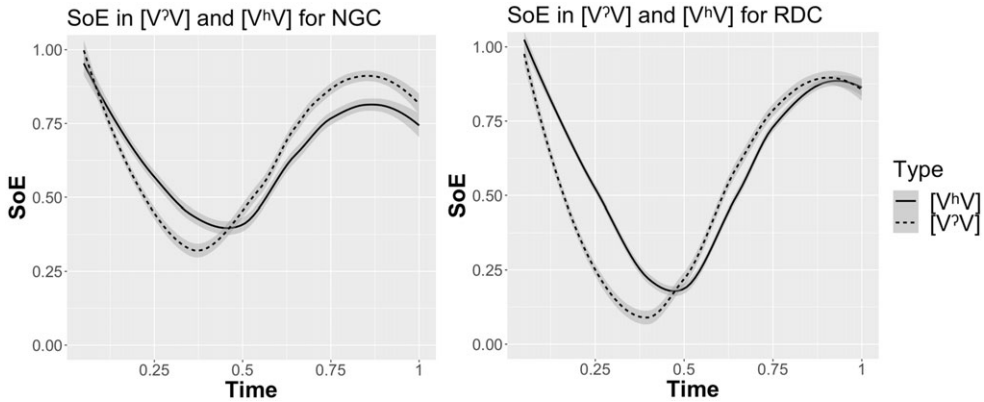


Figure 13. SoE for $[V^hV]$ (solid) and $[V^?V]$ (dashed) sequences. Lines are smoothed LOESS regression lines, and gray bars represent a 95% confidence interval around the regression line. NGC $[V^hV] = 57$, $[V^?V] = 58$. RDC $[V^hV] = 66$, $[V^?V] = 63$.

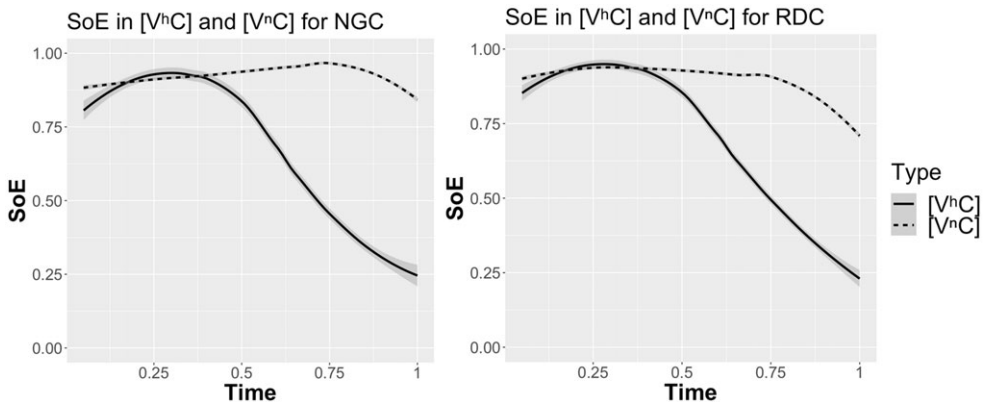


Figure 14. SoE for vowels followed by preaspiration (solid) and prenasalization (dashed). Lines are smoothed LOESS regression lines, and gray bars represent a 95% confidence interval around the regression line. NGC $[V^hC] = 84$, $[V^nC] = 63$. RDC $[V^hC] = 66$, $[V^nC] = 66$.

3.3 Lexical Tone

There are at least five phonemic tones in SMPM, with three level tones and at least two contour tones. The three level tones are High tone (marked with an acute accent \acute{a}), Mid tone (no diacritic), and Low tone (marked with a grave accent \grave{a}). There is one phonemic rising tone, which rises from Low to High (marked with a hacek $\ˇ{a}$), and at least one falling tone (marked with a circumflex accent \hat{a}). Phonological tone sandhi evidence suggests that HM, ML, or HL falls may all occur. HL and H certainly contrast, as evidenced by the difference between the H-L root $[\acute{t}á^h\grave{t}à]$ ('señor') and the HL-L root $[\acute{n}ts\acute{i}^h\grave{k}à]$ ('wide'). However, it is not at present clear whether HM and H contrast, or whether ML and M contrast. The mora is the tone-bearing unit, and any one of SMPM's five tones may appear on a mono-moraic vowel (Peters, 2018). Additionally, SMPM is a laryngeally complex language (Silverman, 1997), meaning that contrastive tone and contrastive phonation type are cross-classified: any one of SMPM's five tones may appear on modal and non-modal vowels alike, with the exception of contrastively breathy vowels, which almost exclusively host falling

or low tones. The initial vowel in roots with only modal vowels (both CVCV (12) and CVV (13) roots), in roots with glottalized vowels (14), and in roots with initial vowels followed by non-contrastive [h] (15) may all host any one of SMPM's five contrastive tones.

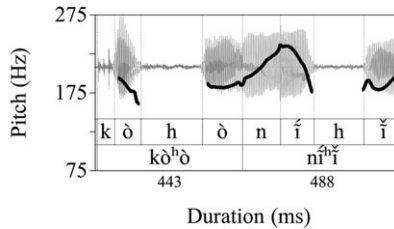
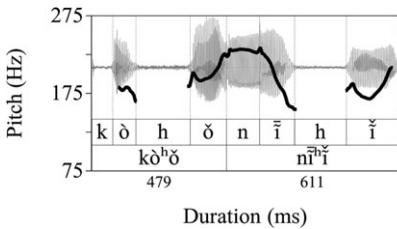
- | | | | | |
|------|----|-------------------------------------|--------------------|---|
| (12) | a. | [nánà] | <i>nánà</i> | 'mother' or 'madam' |
| | b. | [kōnì] | <i>konì</i> | 'know (POT)' |
| | c. | [tsìnà] | <i>tsìnà</i> | 'dog' |
| | d. | [íjò] | <i>xǐyò</i> | 'dress' |
| | e. | [kìní] | <i>kìní</i> | 'pig' |
| (13) | a. | [kʷáà] | <i>kuáàn</i> | 'yellow' |
| | b. | [sāà] | <i>saà</i> | 'bird' |
| | c. | [fàà] | <i>xàà</i> | 'chin' |
| | d. | [juǔ] | <i>ñǔù</i> | 'night' |
| | e. | [(jīβā) ʈôð] | <i>(yiva) tiôð</i> | 'a type of edible plant' (in Spanish, alache) |
| (14) | a. | [má'ǎ] | <i>má'à</i> | 'raccoon' |
| | b. | [tǎ'mǎ] | <i>ta'mà</i> | 'hillside' |
| | c. | [jǎ'mǎ] | <i>ñǎ'mǎ</i> | 'smooth' |
| | d. | [mǎ'nǎ] | <i>mǎ'nà</i> | 'tired' |
| | e. | [sǎ'ǎ] | <i>siǎ'ǎ</i> | 'Tecomaxtlahuaca (a town)' |
| (15) | a. | [tá ^h tà] | <i>tátà</i> | 'father' or 'sir' |
| | b. | [ū ^h sù] | <i>usù</i> | 'deer' |
| | c. | [tsìkà ^h tsǎ] | <i>tsikàtsià</i> | 'round (Adj)' |
| | d. | [jùtǎ ^h tá] | <i>yùtátá</i> | 'mirror' |
| | e. | [^h tsǐ ^h kà] | <i>ntsíkà</i> | 'wide (Adj)' |

Unlike other phonation types, contrastively breathy vowels almost always host Low or Falling tones on their first mora. These falling tones contrast, and they differ in their starting pitch. For example, the word for 'skinny' in (16a) begins with a fall whose pitch begins roughly at the level of a high tone, while the word for 'ear of corn' in (16b) begins with a fall whose pitch starts roughly at the level of a mid tone. We analyze these distinct falling tones as derived from underlying level tones, as represented in the difference between the phonemic transcription in slashes and the allophonic transcription in square brackets.

- | | | | | | |
|------|----|---------------------|---------------------|------------|---------------|
| (16) | a. | /ní ^h ǐ/ | [nî ^h ǐ] | <i>nǐǐ</i> | 'skinny' |
| | b. | /ní ^h ǐ/ | [nî ^h ǐ] | <i>nǐǐ</i> | 'ear of corn' |
| | c. | /ní ^h ǐ/ | [nî ^h ǐ] | <i>nǐǐ</i> | 'blood' |

The motivation to analyze the falling tone in (16a) and the falling tone in (16b) as derived from underlying high and mid tones, respectively, is due to their asymmetric behavior with respect to the phonological tone sandhi process of Rise Flattening. In Rise Flattening, discussed in the Tone Sandhi section (section 3.4), word-final rising tones flatten to level low tones when followed by high tones across a word boundary. Example (17) shows that the underlying final rise of [kò^hǒ] ('snake') surfaces faithfully before /nī^hĩ/ ('ear of corn'), suggesting that the fall in 'ear of corn' does not begin with an underlying high tone. However, the final rise of [kò^hǒ] ('snake') surfaces as a low tone before /nī^hĩ/ ('skinny') in (18), suggesting that the fall in 'skinny' does begin with an underlying high tone.¹⁰ Given the sandhi patterns and that HL and ML falls on breathy vowels are in complementary distribution with level tones, we analyze the falling tones on breathy vowels as derived from underlying level tones.

- (17) ʃà^hʃī kò^hǒ nī^hĩ (18) ʃà^hʃī kò^hǒ nī^hĩ nī^hĩ
 ate snake ear.of.corn ate snake skinny ear.of.corn
 'The snake ate an ear of corn.' 'The skinny snake ate an ear of corn'



We know of only one instance of a non-falling high tone on the first mora of a contrastively breathy vowel, shown in (22). This word is likely derived from the root [tá^hǎ] ('for there to be an earthquake'). Importantly, the following tone is mid, not rising. There appear to be no surface level high or mid tones on contrastively breathy vowels followed by a rising tone.

- (19) [tá^hǎ] tájan 'earthquake/tremor'

On the second vowel of a bi-moraic root, only four tones are found in non-derived contexts; we have found no evidence of contrastive falling tones in this context (though see Peters (2018) and Peters & Mendoza (2020) for examples). With this restriction in mind, any one of the four remaining phonemic tones—high, mid, low, or rising—may occur on the second mora of the bi-moraic root. This is the case whether the preceding vowel is modal (whether in a CVCV (20) or CVV (21) root), is a glottalized vowel (22), or is followed by non-contrastive [h] (23).

- (20) a. [kāní] kaní 'slippery'
 b. [kōlō] kolo 'turkey'
 c. [kōnì] konì 'know (POT)'
 d. [(ñà) jīβī] (ñà) yivĩ 'person'

¹⁰ The fact that (17) and (18) involve distinct syntactic constructions is irrelevant here, since Rise Flattening may apply across the boundary between subject and object NPs (Eischens, 2022:79).

(21)	a.	[t̥s̥í]	<i>tsín</i>	‘rat’
	b.	[íi]	<i>iin</i>	‘one’
	c.	[ʃàà]	<i>xàà</i>	‘chin’
	d.	[(j̥β̥ā) t̥ōð]	(<i>yiva</i>) <i>tiðð</i>	‘a type of edible plant’ (in Spanish, <i>alache</i>)
(22)	a.	[ⁿ t̥s̥íéʔé]	<i>ntsiéʔé</i>	‘ground bean soup’
	b.	[β̥ēʔē]	<i>veʔe</i>	‘house’
	c.	[ʃ̥ēʔè]	<i>xèʔè</i>	‘garbage’
	d.	[ʃ̥ēʔě]	<i>xeʔě</i>	‘ring’
(23)	a.	[t̥j̥ú ^h tú]	<i>tyútú</i>	‘full (Adj)’
	b.	[l̥ē ^h sō]	<i>leso</i>	‘rabbit’
	c.	[ū ^h sù]	<i>usù</i>	‘deer’
	d.	[j̥ū ^h kǔ]	<i>yúkǔ</i>	‘mountain/wilderness’

Vowels following contrastively breathy vowels always host mid tones (24a) or rising tones (24b). We know of no examples where a high, low, or falling tone occurs on the second mora of a contrastively breathy root.

(24)	a.	[t̥j̥ē ^h ē]	<i>tyèje</i>	‘male (Adj)’
	b.	[n̥i ^h ĩ]	<i>nĩjn</i>	‘skinny’

Figure 15 shows pitch contours for tonal categories, with values aggregated across many productions for two speakers. The plots on the left show pitch for high, mid, low, and falling tones on the first short vowel of bi-syllabic words, since this is the environment in which most falling tones occur. Falling tones are divided between those that start at the level of high tones (coded as HL) and those that start at the level of mid tones (coded as ML). The vast majority of these falls occur on contrastively breathy vowels, which almost always host falling or low tones. Rising tones are excluded from the V1 plots because they are very rare in this position, and roots with medial [ʔ] were excluded from the V1 plots because pitch readings for the vowel preceding a [ʔ] are often unreliable and sometimes even absent in this language. The plots on the right show pitch for high, mid, low, and rising tones on the second short vowel of a root. Rises were included because most rising tones in the language occur on the second vowel of the root. Falling tones were excluded because we know of no underlying Falling tones in this environment. Roots with medial [ʔ] were included in the V2 plots because pitch on the second mora is not significantly perturbed by the preceding [ʔ].

3.4 Tone Sandhi

San Martín Peras Mixtec has relatively few tone sandhi processes when compared to some other varieties of Mixtec, like the Yucuquimi de Ocampo and Nochixtlan varieties (León Vázquez, 2017; Mckendry, 2013). In this regard, it is similar to Alcozauca Mixtec (Mendoza Ruiz, 2016; Uchihara & Mendoza Ruiz, 2021), though Alcozauca Mixtec has more tone levels than SMPM—four as opposed to three. We know of two tone sandhi processes in

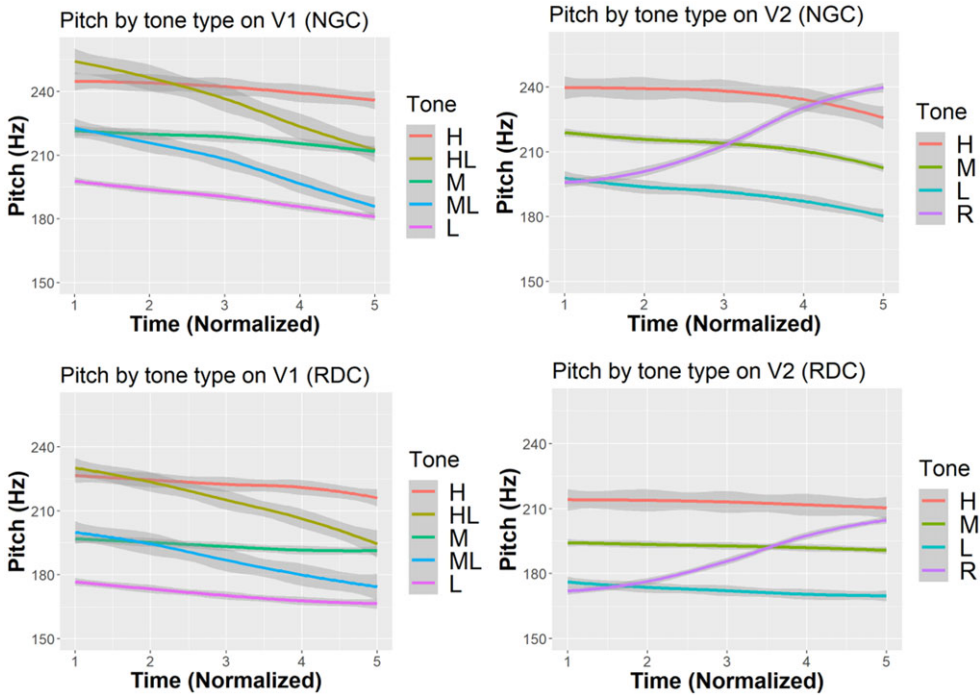


Figure 15. (Colour online) Pitch (Hz) by tone type on V1 (left) and V2 (right) for consultants NGC (top) and RDC (bottom). Colored lines are LOESS regression curves, and gray bars around the lines represent 95% confidence intervals for the curve.

Number of tokens for NGC V1: H = 51, HL = 33, M = 93, ML = 24, L = 113.

Number of tokens for RDC V1: H = 36, HL = 33, M = 93, ML = 24, L = 129.

Number of tokens for NGC V2: H = 42, M = 107, L = 80, R = 157.

Number of tokens for RDC V2: H = 51, M = 119, L = 102, R = 180.

the language, which were first described in Hedding (2019). The first, which we call Rise Flattening, changes an underlying rising tone to a low tone when it is immediately followed by a high tone. This process can be seen in that the underlying word-final rise on [nù^hnǐ] ‘corn’, seen in (25a), surfaces as a low tone when the following word begins with a high tone (25b). Additionally, rising tones often surface with level low pitch at the end of an utterance, suggesting that an identical or similar process applies at utterance edges.

- (25) a. nù^hnǐ jāā
 corn white
 ‘white corn’
 b. nù^hnǐ k^wáā
 corn yellow
 ‘yellow corn’

The second tone sandhi process, which we refer to as Low Tone Spread, changes an underlying high tone to a rising tone when it is immediately preceded by a low tone. Additionally, as demonstrated by Eischens (2022), this process is only triggered when the

high tone is docked on a glottalized low vowel [aʔ], and the only words known to undergo it are adjectives. This process can be seen below, where the word [káʔnú] ‘big’ surfaces with its underlying initial high tone in (26a), but with an initial rise when it follows a low tone in (26b).

- (26) a. $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $l\bar{a}^{\text{h}}t\bar{f}\bar{i}$ $k\acute{a}^{\text{h}}n\grave{u}$
 one lamb big
 ‘A big lamb’
- b. $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $\bar{u}^{\text{h}}t\grave{u}$ $k\acute{a}^{\text{h}}n\grave{u}$
 one corn.field big
 ‘A big corn field’

As noted in Hedding (2019), these two sandhi processes interact opaquely with each other. While Rise Flattening may create the conditioning environment for Low Tone Spread to apply, the second process does not apply; that is, low tones derived by Rise Flattening do not trigger Low Tone Spread. For example, the word /jũ^hkũ/ (‘mountain/wilderness’) has an underlying, final rising tone (23d). This rising tone becomes a low tone when followed by the initial high tone of [káʔnú] (‘big’). However, the initial high tone of ‘big’ does not undergo Low Tone Spread (27), even though it is immediately preceded by a derived low tone.

- (27) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $j\bar{u}^{\text{h}}k\grave{u}$ $k\acute{a}^{\text{h}}n\grave{u}$
 one mountain big
 ‘A big mountain.’

4. Illustrative Passage

The story of the North Wind and the Sun is not a native Mixtec story, so consultant NGC read the story in Spanish and translated it into San Martín Peras Mixtec. To familiarize the consultant with the story, she first translated it sentence-by-sentence into Mixtec. Once she was familiar enough with the story, she told it several times from beginning to end without referencing her sentence-by-sentence translation, and she chose the telling that seemed most natural and accurate to her. This telling differed substantially from the sentence-by-sentence translation and is the one written below. We have included a transcription of the story in the working orthography described earlier in the article, as well as a narrow transcription including a three-line gloss.

4.1 Orthographic version

Tàtyĩ nòrtè xíʔn tsikàntsijĩ kixaà nà káʔn nà yòó nà ntakù tyáákà, tá niyàʔ iin rà xíka iní ñuù yiví xíʔn tsiàà káʔnù ítiví rà. Nikaʔn nà yòó nà kevàʔa kasa ntúxa nà xíʔn rà tàvǎ nà míí tsiàà ítiví rà, rà kúu nà nà ntakù nùjũ ntsikúu ñàʔa ñuù yiví. Míí tàtyĩ ñà nòrtè ntakù vǎʔa tsivià xíʔn ntsikúu ntsiêjà, só nú kuàʔa vǎʔa tsivià, kuàʔa tyáákà nà tijvià tsiàà káʔnù míí rà xíka iní ñuù yiví. Nù ntsíʔi kùntaà ini míí tàtyĩ nòrtè kònikùu tyiñà. Sáà nàyeʔè tsikàntsijĩ xíʔn ntsikúu ñà iʔnià. Kamà vǎʔa tàvǎ míí rà xíka iní ñuù yiví tsiàà káʔnù ítiví rà. Nù kùndaà ini tàtyĩ tsikàntsijĩ yǎ ntakù tyáákà nùjũ ntsikúu ñàʔa.

4.2 Transcription

- (1) tà^htʃí nórtè jí^ʔí tsìkàⁿtsì^hí kifāà nà kǎ^ʔǎ nà jòó
 wind north with sun begin.COMPL 3PL talk.CONT 3PL who
 nà ⁿtā^hkù tʃáá=kà
 3PL strong more=ADD
 “The North Wind and the Sun were disputing which was the stronger,”
- (2) tá nǎ-jǎ^ʔǎ īī rà jí^hkā ìníî jūũ jíβí jí^ʔí tsìàà
 when COMPL-walk one 3SG.M walk.CONT around town person with clothes
 kǎ^ʔnǎ ítiβí rà
 big wrap.CONT 3SG.M
 “when a traveler came along wrapped in a warm cloak.”
- (3) nī-kǎ^ʔǎ nà jòó nà kēβǎ^ʔa kǎ^hsā ⁿtú^hfā nà jí^ʔí
 COMPL-talk 3PL who 3PL win.POT make strength 3PL with
 rà tàβǎ nà míí tsìàà ítiβí rà
 3SG.M take.off.POT 3PL FAM clothes wrap 3SG.M
 “They agreed that the one who first succeeded in making the traveler take his
 cloak off”
- (4) rà kūū nà nà ⁿtā^hkù nǎ^hǔ ⁿtsìkúū jǎ^ʔǎ jūũ jíβí
 3SG.M be.POT 3PL 3PL strong over all thing town person
 “should be considered stronger than the other” (lit. would be stronger than
 anything in the world)
- (5) míí tà^htʃí jǎ nórtè ⁿtā^hkù βǎ^ʔǎ tsìβí=à jí^ʔí
 FAM wind 3SG.N north strong well blow.COMPL=3SG.N with
ⁿtsìkúū tsì^hǎ=à
 all strength=3.SG.N
 “Then the North Wind blew as hard as he could,”

- (6) só nú kʷàʔá βàʔā tsíβi=à
 but when much well blow.CONT=3SG.N
 “but the more he blew”
- (7) kʷàʔá tʃáákà ná tìʰβí=à tsʰàà kǎʔnú míí rà
 much more MOOD wear.COMPL=3SG.N clothes big FAM 3SG.M
 ʃíʰkā ìníî pũù jīβí
 walk.CONT around town person
 “the more closely did the traveler fold his cloak around him;”
- (8) nǔ ʰtsíʔí kùʰtāà inī míí tàʰtʃí nórte
 when finish.CONT realize.COMPL inside FAM windnorth
 kò-ní-kùù tʃí nũ=à
 NEG-COMPL-able work=3SG.N
 “and at last the North Wind gave up the attempt.”
- (9) sáá nàjēʔè tsíkàʰtsíʰy ʃíʔí ʰtsíkúú ñà íʔní=à
 so shine.COMPL sun with all 3SG.N heat=3SG.N
 “Then the Sun shone out warmly,”
- (10) kāmà βàʔā tàβǎ míí rà ʃíʰkā ìníî pũù jīβí
 fast well take.off.COMPL FAM 3SG.M walk.CONT around town person
 tsʰàà kǎʔnú ítíβí rà
 clothes big wrap.CONT 3SG.M
 “and immediately the traveler took off his cloak.”
- (11) nǔ kùʰdāà inī tàʰtʃí
 when realize.COMPL inside wind
 “And so the North Wind was obliged to confess,”

- (12) ʔsɪkàʔtsɪʰɪ já ʔtáʰkù ʔʃáá=kà nùʰʃ ʔtsɪkúũ jàʔã
 sun 3SG.N strong more=ADD over all thing
 “that the Sun was the stronger of the two.”

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Abbreviations We use the following abbreviations (adopting, where possible, the Leipzig Glossing Rules): 1 = first person, 3 = third person, ADD = Additive, COMPL = Completive aspect, CONT = Continuative aspect, DEM = Demonstrative, EXCL = Exclusive, F = Feminine, FAM = Familiar referent, FOC = Focus, LIQ = Liquid pronoun, M = Masculine, MOOD = Mood marker, N = Neuter, NEG = Negative, PL = Plural, POT = Potential aspect, SG = Singular.

Appendix

The vocabulary items produced by JGO in this manuscript were elicited in carrier phrases in order to control for the effect of tone sandhi and utterance-level intonation on the realization of tones. However, the carrier phrase that was used was not the same in every case. The carrier phrases were adjusted as needed to create naturalistic and plausible utterances according to the preferences of our language consultant. Consequently, we used multiple carrier phrases, with the constraint that, whenever possible, the tones immediately preceding and following the target word be mid tones. Because the carrier phrases are helpful in hearing tonal contrasts, and because the carrier phrases were not always identical, the following list contains the gloss of each carrier phrase for each target word given throughout this illustration. The glosses are organized by folder section name and numbered in the order that they occur in their respective folders. For ease of cross-referencing, any example or figure number is also included following an underscore, if applicable. Any examples for which carrier phrases were not available are excluded from the list, and their number in each folder is skipped.

I. Consonants

- (01) ʔĩĩ páʰtò lōʔō
 one duck small
 ‘A small duck.’
- (02) ʔĩĩ ʔpáà lōʔō
 one godfather small
 ‘A small godfather.’

- (03) ǐǐ tá^htà lō[?]ō rà
 one sir small 3SG.M
 ‘He is a small man.’
- (04) ǐǐ rà ts^hà^hā ntá[?]βī
 one 3SG.M man poor
 ‘A poor man.’
- (06) ⁿtǎ[?]mǐ ts^há[?]jī
 radish rotten
 ‘A rotten radish’
- (07) kōnǐ kà^hkū ǐǐ rà lō[?]ō
 yesterday born.COMPL one 3SG.M small
 ‘A boy was born yesterday.’
- (08) rà kǐ^hjī ǐⁿkà jū^hù
 3SG.M come.COMPL other town
 ‘He came from another town.’
- (09) lē^hsō kwá[?]à lō[?]ō
 rabbit red small
 ‘A small, red rabbit.’
- (10) ǐǐ kǐ[?]mǐ lō[?]ō
 one squash small
 ‘A small squash.’
- (11) ǐǐ mǎlì lō[?]ō
 one godmother small
 ‘A small godmother.’
- (12) ǐǐ nánà lō[?]ō
 one mother/woman small
 ‘A small woman.’

- (13) īī jānī ēstéβà
 one brother Estéban
 ‘A brother of Esteban.’
- (14) īī rà lōʔō
 one 3SG.M small
 ‘A boy.’
- (15) īī sāʔmǎ lōʔō
 one tortilla.cloth small
 ‘A small tortilla cloth.’
- (16) nū̀̀ sʰáʔǎ βà
 town Tecomaxtlahuaca FOC
 ‘The town of Tecomaxtlahuaca.’
- (17) īī fàà lōʔō
 one chin small
 ‘A small chin’
- (18) īī tsʰǎʔà plástikō
 one jug plastic
 ‘A plastic jug’
- (19) lēʰsō ʰtsʰǎʔβǎ lōʔō
 rabbit toothless small
 ‘A small toothless rabbit’
- (20) kʷáʔà tʃááyà kʰjā sūfrî ʰtù
 much more do.COMPL suffer 1PL.EXCL
 ‘We (excl.) began to suffer much more.’
- (21) īī ʰtʃiʰjĩ lōʔō
 one corncob small
 ‘A small corncob.’

(22) lē^hsō βá lí jā^ʔá
 rabbit small.PL orange
 ‘Small, orange rabbits.’

(23) lē^hsō jāā lō^ʔō
 rabbit white small
 ‘A small, white rabbit.’

(24) īī lā^ʔtjī lō^ʔō
 one lamb small
 ‘A small lamb.’

1.1 Obstruents

(01) k^wá^ʔá tǰááyà k^hfā sūfrî ʔtù
 much more do.COMPL suffer 1PL.EXCL
 ‘We (excl.) began to suffer much more.’

(03) īī k^ʔá^ʔmǐ lō^ʔō
 one squash small
 ‘A small squash.’

(04) lē^hsō k^wá^ʔà lō^ʔō
 rabbit red small
 ‘A small, red rabbit.’

(05) īī ñà jīβī lō^ʔō
 one 3PL person small
 ‘A small person.’

(06) jūū sjá^ʔá βà
 town Tecomaxtlahuaca FOC
 ‘The town of Tecomaxtlahuaca.’

(09_1a) īī tǰī^hkí lō^ʔō
 one prickly.pear.fruit small
 ‘A small prickly pear fruit.’

- (10_1b) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ ${}^n\widehat{tʃi}^h\bar{f}\bar{i}$ $l\bar{o}^?o$
 one corncob small
 ‘A small corncob.’
- (11_2a) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ ${}^n\widehat{tsi}^h\bar{k}\bar{a}$ $l\bar{o}^?o$
 one banana small
 ‘A small banana.’
- (12_2b) $i\bar{j}\bar{o}$ ${}^n\widehat{tsi}^e\bar{h}\bar{e}$ $r\bar{a}$
 exist.CONT strength 3SG.M
 ‘He is strong’
- (13_2c) $l\bar{e}^h\bar{s}\bar{o}$ ${}^n\widehat{tsi}^a\bar{?}\bar{\beta}\bar{a}$ $l\bar{o}^?o$
 rabbit toothless small
 ‘A small, toothless rabbit.’
- (14_2d) ${}^n\widehat{tsi}^o\bar{h}\bar{o}$
 moonlight
 ‘Moonlight’ (no carrier phrase)
- (15_2e) $\widehat{tsi}\bar{i}$ $\widehat{tsi}\bar{u}^?u$ $\widehat{tʃu}^h\bar{t}\bar{u}$
 bite.COMPL venomous.spider cat
 ‘The venomous spider bit the cat.’
- (16) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $l\bar{a}^n\widehat{tʃi}$ $l\bar{o}^?o$
 one lamb small
 ‘A small lamb.’
- (17_3a) $\widehat{tʃi}^?n\bar{k}\bar{i}$
 acorn
 ‘Acorn’ (no carrier phrase)
- (18_3b) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $l\bar{i}^n\bar{k}\bar{o}$ $i^h\widehat{tsi}\bar{a}$ $l\bar{o}^?o$
 one maguey.bud soft/young little
 ‘A small, soft/young bud of the flower of the maguey cactus.’

- (19_fn4) r̀à k̀i^hf̀i ī^ok̀à ɲũ̀^ù
 3SG.M come.COMPL other town
 ‘He came from another town.’

1.2 Sonorants

- (01) īi m̀áli l̀o^o
 one godmother small
 ‘A small godmother.’
- (02) īi ǹánà l̀o^o
 one mother/woman small
 ‘A small woman.’
- (03) īi ɲ̀ān̄i ẽstéβ̀à
 one brother Estéban
 ‘A brother of Esteban.’

2. Vowels

- (01) ǹà k̀átá^ʔǎ ǹà
 3PL fight.CONT 3PL
 ‘They are fighting.’
- (02) ǹà k̀éβ̀ā^ʔǎ ǹà
 3PL win.CONT 3PL
 ‘They are winning.’
- (03) ǹà k̀ítá^ʔǎ ǹà
 3PL accompany.CONT 3PL
 ‘They are accompanying.’
- (04) ǹà k̀áā k̀ò-k̀á^ʔǎ ǹà
 3PL DEM NEG-speak.CONT 3PL
 ‘They do not speak.’

(05) nǎ kǎā kúkǎ'nú ĭnǐ nǎ
 3PL DEM forgive.CONT inside 3PL
 'They forgive.'

(06) lē^hsō k^wáà lō^ʔō
 rabbit blind small
 'A small, blind rabbit.'

(07) lē^hsō k^wáǎ lō^ʔō
 rabbit yellow small
 'A small, yellow rabbit.'

(08) ĭĩ tsǐk^wĩ k^wĩ lō^ʔō
 one water clear little
 'Some water that is a little bit clear.'

(09) lē^hsō k^wĩĩ lō^ʔō
 rabbit striped little
 'A small, striped rabbit.'

(10) rà kūū rà
 3SG.M die.POT 3SG.M
 'He will die.'

(11) rá kūū rá
 3SG.LIQ fall.POT 3SG.LIQ
 'It (rain) will fall.'

3.2 Phonation type

(01) ĭĩ kǎ'á'ǎĩ lō^ʔō
 one squash small
 'A small squash.'

(02) tsìnǎ hǎá rí tsǐĩ lē^hsō
 dog DEM 3SG.AML bite.COMPL rabbit
 'That dog bit the rabbit'

- (03_4a) lē^hsō jāā lō^ʔō
 rabbit white small
 ‘A small, white rabbit.’
- (04_4b) īī jā^hǎ lō^ʔō
 one tongue small
 ‘A small tongue.’
- (05_4c) īī jā^ʔǎ lō^ʔō
 one chile.pepper small
 ‘A small chile pepper.’
- (06_5a) kú^{n̄}tsiēē rā
 put.up.with.CONT 3SG.M
 ‘He puts up with it.’
- (07_5b) ijō ^{n̄}tsiē^hě rā
 exist.CONT strength 3SG.M
 ‘He is strong’
- (08_5c) f^hji rā lō^ʔō ^{n̄}tsié^ʔé kōnī
 eat.COMPL 3SG.M small ground.bean.soup yesterday
 ‘The boy ate ground bean soup yesterday.’
- (09_6a) īī tsjkwî kwî lō^ʔō
 one water clear little
 ‘Some water that is a little bit clear.’
- (10_6b) lē^hsō kwî^hī lō^ʔō
 rabbit green small
 ‘A small, green rabbit.’
- (11_6c) īī kwî^ʔī lō^ʔō
 one fruit small
 ‘A small fruit.’

- (12_7a) kōō βē^ʔē
 welcome house
 ‘Welcome to the house.’
- (13_7b) īī kò^hǒ lō^ʔō
 one snake small
 ‘A small snake.’
- (14_7c) īī kò^ʔǒ lō^ʔō
 one plate small
 ‘A small plate.’
- (15_8a) īī ^htúù lō^ʔō
 one ntuu small
 ‘A small *ntuu*.’ (type of insect)
- (16_8b) īī ^htù^hǔ lō^ʔō
 one fruit.seed small
 ‘A small fruit seed.’
- (17_8c) rà ^htū^ʔú rà
 3SG.M fat 3SG.M
 ‘He is fat.’
- (18_9a) lē^hsō k^wáá lō^ʔō
 rabbit yellow small
 ‘A small, yellow rabbit.’
- (19_9b) rà k^wâ^hǎ rà
 3SG.M unmarried 3SG.M
 ‘He is unmarried.’
- (20_9c) rà k^wá^ʔǎ rà
 3SG.M leave.CONT 3SG.M
 ‘He leaves.’

- (21_10a) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $\acute{i}\acute{i}$ $l\bar{o}^{\circ}\bar{o}$
 one hail small
 ‘Some small hail.’
- (22_10b) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $\hat{i}^{h}\acute{i}$ $l\bar{o}^{\circ}\bar{o}$
 one skin small
 ‘A little bit of skin/leather.’
- (23_10c) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $\acute{i}^{\circ}\acute{i}$ $l\bar{o}^{\circ}\bar{o}$
 one temazcal small
 ‘A small temezcal.’ (a type of sweat lodge)
- (24_11a) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $\mu\bar{u}\grave{u}$ $l\bar{o}^{\circ}\bar{o}$
 one town small
 ‘A small town.’
- (25_11b) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $\mu\grave{u}^{h}\acute{u}$ $l\bar{o}^{\circ}\bar{o}$
 one palm.plant small
 ‘A small palm plant.’
- (26_11c) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $\mu\bar{u}^{\circ}\grave{u}$ $l\bar{o}^{\circ}\bar{o}$
 one fire small
 ‘A small fire.’
- (27) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $t\acute{a}^{h}t\grave{a}$ $l\bar{o}^{\circ}\bar{o}$ $r\grave{a}$
 one father small 3SG.M
 ‘He is a small man.’
- (28) $\bar{i}\bar{i}$ $\widehat{t}\acute{s}^{h}k\acute{i}$ $l\bar{o}^{\circ}\bar{o}$
 one prickly.pear.fruit small
 ‘A small prickly pear fruit.’
- (29) $n\grave{a}$ $k\acute{a}\bar{a}$ $k\grave{o}-k\acute{a}^{\circ}\grave{a}$ $n\grave{a}$
 3PL DEM NEG-speak.CONT 3PL
 ‘They do not speak.’

- (30) nà káā kúká'nū īmī nà
3PL DEM forgive.CONT inside 3PL
'They forgive.'
- (43) īī ífí^hkí lō'ō
one prickly.pear.fruit small
'A small prickly pear fruit.'
- (44) īī lí^okō í^htsiǎ lō'ō
one maguey.bud soft/young little
'A small, soft/young bud of the flower of the maguey cactus.'

3.3 Lexical tone

- (01) īī tá^htà lō'ō rà
one sir small 3SG.M
'He is a small man.'
- (02) īī βē'ē ^otsí^hkà lō'ō
one house wide small
'A small, wide house.'
- (03_12a) īī nánà lō'ō
one mother/woman small
'A small woman.'
- (04_12b) jí^oníjú'ù kōnì rà nǎ
must know.POT 3SG.M 3SG.F
'He has to know her.'
- (05_12c) īī tsinà lō'ō
one dog small
'A small dog.'
- (06_12d) īī fíjò lō'ō
one dress small
'A small dress.'

- (07_12e) ǐǐ kǐnǐ lǒʔǒ
 one pig small
 ‘A small pig.’
- (08_13a) lēʰsǒ kʷáǎ lǒʔǒ
 rabbit yellow small
 ‘A small, yellow rabbit.’
- (09_13b) ǐǐ sǎà lǒʔǒ
 one bird small
 ‘A small bird.’
- (10_13c) ǐǐ ʃǎà lǒʔǒ
 one chin small
 ‘A small chin.’
- (11_13d) nì-jàʔǎ ɲǔù βǐʰt̃sǐ
 COMPL-arrive night now
 ‘It is now nighttime.’
- (12_13e) ʃǐʃ=ǐ ʃǐβǎ t̃ǒǒ kǒnǐ
 eat.COMPL=1SG plant *alache* yesterday
 ‘I ate *yiva tiao* yesterday’ (a type of edible plant, in Spanish, *alache*).
- (13_14a) ǐǐ máʔǎ lǒʔǒ
 one raccoon small
 ‘A small raccoon.’
- (14_14b) ǐǐ tǎʔmǎ lǒʔǒ
 one hillside small
 ‘A small hillside.’
- (15_14c) ǐǐ sǎà lǒʔǒ mǐí ʃǎʔmǎ rí
 one bird small FAM smooth 3SG.AML
 ‘A small bird that is smooth.’

(16_14d) ǐǐ mǎʹnǎ lǒʹō
 one tired small
 ‘Someone who is a little tired.’

(17_14e) ɲũũ sjǎʹǎ βà
 town Tecomaxtlahuaca FOC
 ‘The town of Tecomaxtlahuaca.’

(18_15a) ǐǐ táʰtǎ lǒʹō rǎ
 one father small 3SG.M
 ‘He is a small man.’

(19_15b) ǐǐ ũʰsù lǒʹō
 one deer small
 ‘A small deer.’

(20_15c) βēʹē tsìkǎʰtsjà lǒʹō
 house round small
 ‘A small, round house.’

(21_15d) ǐǐ jùtǎʰtǎ lǒʹō
 one mirror small
 ‘A small mirror.’

(22_15e) ǐǐ βēʹē ʰtsìʰkǎ lǒʹō
 one house wide small
 ‘A small, wide house.’

(23_16a) lēʰsō nîʰǐ lǒʹō
 rabbit skinny small
 ‘A small, skinny rabbit.’

(24_16b) ǐǐ nîʰǐ lǒʹō
 one ear.of.corn small
 ‘A small ear of corn.’

(25_16c) ǰō lōʔō n̄h̄ǰ βi^htsī
 exist.CONT small blood now
 ‘There is now a little bit of blood.’

(28_19) ǰǰ tá^hǎ lōʔō
 one earthquake small
 ‘A small earthquake.’

(29_20a) lē^hsō kǎní lōʔō
 rabbit slippery small
 ‘A small, slippery rabbit.’

(30_20b) ǰǰ kōlō lōʔō
 one turkey small
 ‘A small turkey.’

(31_20c) ǰǰn̄ǰǰú^ʔǰ kōn̄ǰ rà ñǎ
 must know.POT 3SG.M 3SG.F
 ‘He has to know her.’

(32_20d) ǰǰ nǎ ǰǰβǰ lōʔō
 one 3PL person small
 ‘A small person.’

(33_21a) ǰǰ tsǰǰ lōʔō
 one rat small
 ‘A small rat.’

(34_21b) ǰǰ ǰǰ lē^hsō
 exist.CONT one rabbit
 ‘There is a rabbit.’

(35_21c) ǰǰ ǰǎǎ lōʔō
 one chin small
 ‘A small chin.’

- (36_21d) ʃ^hʃ=î jɪβā t̪ôð kōnī
eat.COMPL=1SG plant *alache* yesterday
'I ate *yiva tío* yesterday.' (a type of edible plant, in Spanish, *alache*)
- (37_22a) ʃɪʃɪ rà lōʔō ʰtsiéʔé kōnī
eat.COMPL 3SG.M small ground.bean.soup yesterday
'The boy ate ground bean soup yesterday.'
- (38_22b) ɪ̄ɪ̄ βēʔē lōʔō
one house small
'A small house.'
- (39_22c) ɪ̄ɪ̄ ʃèʔè lōʔō
one trash small
'A little bit of trash.'
- (40_22d) ɪ̄ɪ̄ ʃèʔé lōʔō
one ring small
'A small ring.'
- (41_23a) ʃɪn=ì ɪ̄ɪ̄ βēʔē t̪ʃú^htú kōnī
see.COMPL=1SG one house full yesterday
'I saw a full house yesterday.'
- (42_23b) ɪ̄ɪ̄ lē^hsō lōʔō
one rabbit small
'A small rabbit.'
- (43_23c) ɪ̄ɪ̄ ū^hsù lōʔō
one deer small
'A small deer.'
- (44_23d) ɪ̄ɪ̄ jŭ^hkŭ lōʔō
one wilderness small
'A small mountain/wilderness.'

(45_24a) lē^hsō tʃe^hē lō^ʔō
 rabbit male small
 ‘A small, male rabbit.’

(46_24b) lē^hsō n^hĩ lō^ʔō
 rabbit skinny small
 ‘A small, skinny rabbit.’

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