

1 **6. The Languages of Middle America**

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1. Introduction¹

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10 In this chapter, we present a survey of word prosodic systems in the lan-
11 guages of Middle America (Campbell 1997: Chapter 5). Middle America
12 includes Central America *and* Mexico. The term ‘Middle America’, refer-
13 ring to a geographical unit, is not synonymous to ‘Mesoamerica,’ which
14 refers to a culture area “defined on the basis of common characteristics
15 that were present during the conquest times” (Suárez 1983: 11). Bearing
16 this difference in mind, we here offer a survey of the families and isolate
17 languages that Suárez groups within the Mesoamerican group and that
18 Campbell (1997) considers in his chapter on ‘Middle American’ languages;
19 this does not include the ‘West Indies’ (Antilles, Bahamas, Turks and
20 Caico islands) or Cuba.

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2. The language families

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Some language families fall almost completely within the Middle American region, while others only have a few representatives. To the former group belong:

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- (1) – Oto-Manguean (section 5.1.)
- Mixe-Zoquean (section 5.2.)
- Totonacan (section 5.3.)
- Tequistlatecan (section 5.4.)
- Mayan (section 5.5.)
- Misumalpan (section 5.6.)

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1. During the writing of this chapter we have received useful input from various people, including Lyle Campbell, Esther Herrera, Diane Hintz, Jean-Léo Léonard, Inga McKendry, Irina Monich, Keith Snider, and Rebecca Yarrish.

1 We adopt here a generally accepted classification; see Suárez (1983)
2 and Campbell (1997) for detailed discussion as well as motivation and
3 proposals for alternatives, involving some so-called macro-families. There
4 also are a number of *isolates* in this region, among which the following are
5 the better-known ones (see section 5.7.):

- 6 (2) Extant isolates: Jicaque (Tol), Seri, Huave, Tarascan, Xincan
7 Extinct isolates: Cuitlatec, Naolan, Maratiton, Guaicurian
8 (a family), Alagilac
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10 We will also include some languages spoken in this region that belong to
11 language families that have most of their representatives *outside* Middle
12 America, such as (to the north) the Aztec languages of the Uto-Aztec
13 group (section 5.8.) and (to the south) some members of the Chibchan
14 family (section 5.9.).
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16 17 **3. Our sources**

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19 The present survey is based on a variety of sources. StressTyp contains
20 information on only 15 Middle American languages. We complement
21 this material with additional information from the literature on Middle
22 American languages. Needless to say, we have been unable to consult all
23 the sources. We hope that the present survey will encourage researchers to
24 bring additional work to our attention so that, eventually, the information
25 presented here and much additional information can be added to the
26 StressTyp database.
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28 29 **4. Types of systems**

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31 Like in many other parts of the world, the word prosodic systems of lan-
32 guages in this area fall in two broad categories. Many languages use pitch
33 properties at the word level; cf. Weidert (1981), Suárez (1983), Yip (2002)
34 and numerous studies by Kenneth Pike and his collaborators. These
35 languages can roughly be grouped in two further categories. In a first
36 category, pitch is used *distinctively*, with all or specific syllables having
37 one of a set of distinctive tones (level tones such as H, L, M and, some-
38 times, contour tones). Such languages can be ‘fully tonal’, with tonal
39 contrast on every syllable, or display characteristics of ‘restricted tone
40 languages’ in that tone contrast occurs on only few syllable, sometimes
only one in the word (Voorhoeve 1973). In the latter case, it is often sug-

1 gested that the syllable that attracts tonal contrast is accented, the accent
 2 being merely an anchor for tones or, in addition, showing other cues such
 3 as ‘stress’ (duration, intensity). Instead of this dependency of tone on
 4 accent, other tonal systems may display a dependency that goes in the
 5 other direction such that a notion of accent or stress is said to be depen-
 6 dent on the tonal structure of the word. Naturally, if a system is both
 7 tonal and has stress or accent, the two may be independent from each
 8 other (cf. Hyman 1977, 2006, van der Hulst, this volume; Wetzels and
 9 Meira, this volume).

10 A second group contains languages that do not have distinctive tones,
 11 but rather choose pitch as the exclusive or dominant cue for ‘prominence’.
 12 Languages of this type are often called ‘pitch-accent’ languages (or non-
 13 stress accent languages; Beckman 1986), as opposed to stress-accent lan-
 14 guages where the notion ‘stress’ is taken to refer to a *set* of phonetic cues
 15 within which pitch is *not* the only player. As pointed out in Wetzels and
 16 Meira (this volume) in stress-accent languages, pitch rather than duration
 17 may be a more important cue (possibly combined with a third common
 18 cue, ‘intensity’) when the language has contrastive vowel length, whereas
 19 duration may be a preferred cue in stress-accent languages that have
 20 distinctive tones. We thus end up with the following typology of word
 21 prosodic systems:

- 22 (3) a. Tonal languages
 23 i. no accent
 24 ii. accent present but not related to tone
 25 iii. accent present and in a relationship with tone:
 26 a. tone location dependent on accent (“*tonal accent language*”)
 27 b. accent location dependent on tone
 28 b. Non-tonal languages
 29 i. no accent
 30 a. with stress
 31 b. without stress
 32 ii. accent
 33 a. with ‘stress’ as cue: “*stress-accent language*”
 34 b. with pitch as cue: “*pitch-accent language*”²
 35 c. with duration as cue: “*duration-accent language*”
 36 d. with
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 39 2. We always have to be aware of different uses of terminology, and of course
 40 different ways of analyzing any given system. Dol and van Zanten (this volume)

1 We will use the term ‘accent’ for a lexical mark (predicable or unpre-
 2 dictable) of syllables that are somehow ‘special’, and ‘stress’ for a metrical
 3 structure and its associated phonetic cues. As shown in (3) non-tonal, non-
 4 accentual languages may have stress or no stress (see van der Hulst, this
 5 volume; to appear) for full discussion. In this chapter, we mainly deal
 6 with languages in the categories (3a) and (3bii). In the remainder of this
 7 section, we first discuss examples of languages that combine accent, stress
 8 and tone in various ways. The material in this section is largely drawn
 9 from Suárez (1983) and Yip (2002). In section 5, we present languages
 10 representative of the various language families in this area, drawing on a
 11 wider range of resources.

12

13 *4.1. Tonal aspects*

14 Suárez (1983) classifies the tone systems of languages of this area in terms
 15 of various criteria. Some systems have levels (such as high, mid and low),
 16 which occur *as such* (making up what others call ‘level tones’) or in com-
 17 binations (making up what others call contour tones). He calls such
 18 systems ‘register systems,’ of which Tlapanec is mentioned as an example
 19 (see section 5.1.6.). In other languages, which may also have level tones,
 20 the contour tones can, apparently, not be defined as transitions between
 21 independently needed level tones, so that in these cases the contours are
 22 ‘primitives’; these kinds of systems he calls ‘contour systems’. Examples
 23 he mentions are Texmelucan Zapotec (with three contours and one low
 24 level tone) and Copola Trique (which has three level tones and five
 25 contours, some of which can be analyzed as sequences of level tones while
 26 others cannot). Clearly, the existence of ‘primitive’ contour tones is a
 27 crucial element in this typology. For a different point of view, see Yip
 28 (2002: 47–52), who proposes that perhaps all contours can be represented
 29 as sequences of level tones. Both Suárez (1983: 50–51) and Yip (2002:
 30 217–219) remark that various languages in the area have a ‘terrace
 31 system,’ meaning that they have downstep or upstep.

32 Other dimensions of difference between languages of this area involve
 33 (a) the number of tones (paradigmatic contrast), (b) possible combinations

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36 require that the syllable claimed to be accented is perceived as ‘prominent’ on
 37 independent grounds. Downing (this volume) on the other hand uses the term
 38 pitch accent system to include all systems in which accent and tone interact.
 39 See van der Hulst (to appear) for a general discussion of the notion pitch-
 40 accent.

1 in contour tones, (c) syntagmatic restrictions on tone sequences, (d) the
 2 presence of tone perturbation or tone sandhi, (e) the grammatical use of
 3 tone (tonal morphemes, tones as markers for morphological classes) and
 4 (f) the relation between tone and stress.

5 a. Tone numbers range from two (H, L) to perhaps five in register
 6 systems (mentioned are Usila Chinantec and Chichahuastla Trique, both
 7 of which also have various combinations, or contours). More common
 8 are four tone systems (Popolocan group, Lealao Chinantec, Yaitepec
 9 Chatino, Mixtec from San Antonio Atlatlahuca), while three-tone systems
 10 are the most common (Zapotecan, Chinantecan, Miztecan, Popolocan,
 11 Tlapanec and Amuzgo). There are also many two-tone languages with
 12 contour tones (Otopamean languages: North and South Pame, Mezquital
 13 Otomi, Isthmus and Mitlazapotec). Two-tone systems without contours
 14 in this group are Matlatzinca and Chichimec. Outside the Otopamean
 15 languages, two-tone systems without contours are the only type and
 16 present in Huichol, Huave of San Mateco, Tzotzil of San Bartolo and
 17 Uspantec.

18 Yip (2002: 214–5), based on Hollenbach (1977), takes a close look at
 19 two dialects of Trique, with five levels and various combinations, discus-
 20 sing the challenges that these systems pose for systems of tone and register
 21 features. She refers to San Juan Copola Trique, where the distribution
 22 of the tonal contrasts is such that many non-final syllables have no distinc-
 23 tive tone, whereas final syllables display an eight-way surface contrast
 24 (six-way if the vowel is short). San Andrés Chichahuastla Trique has a
 25 fifteen-way contrast on final syllables (nine binary contours and two
 26 ternary contours), with a more limited contrast on the penult (four-way,
 27 all level) and antepenult (three-way, all level). Restrictions of this sort
 28 will be discussed further below.
 29

30 b. In some language combinations of tones into contours are free (as in
 31 Tlapanec, which also has a three-tone combination), while in others only
 32 certain combinations occur. Sometimes (as in Mixtec of San Miguel el
 33 Grande) combinations can only occur in long vowels. Yip (2002: 216–7)
 34 notes that surface contours can be the result of underlying contour tones,
 35 from the association of floating tones (with a morphological function) to
 36 syllables that bear tone, or from tone spreading rules.
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38 c. Suárez (p. 51) remarks that in two-tone systems it is rare to find forms
 39 that are differentiated by tone only. This perhaps is an indication that such
 40 systems are on their way to using high tone/pitch as an accentual cue. This

1 issue is related to the question of whether, in a two-tone system, both
 2 tones have equal status or not. In many cases it might seem as if the high
 3 tone must be lexically marked, with the low tone regarded as a default
 4 (literally ‘unmarked’) tone; see Yip (2002: 219–222) for discussion and
 5 the discussion of Huave below (where L rather than H is the lexically
 6 marked tone). Many syntagmatic restrictions are caused by the interaction
 7 between tone and accent or stress such that the tonal contrast is richer on
 8 or even restricted to accented syllables. Finally, syntagmatic restrictions
 9 may result from tonal assimilation.

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11 d. Some languages have tonal perturbation effects, with tonal patterns
 12 affected when a word is in a larger context. For instance, Huave, Northern
 13 Tepehuan, and Mixtec and Zapotecan languages show extensive tone per-
 14 turbation effects, while the Chinantec languages, Tlapanec, and Yucatec
 15 do not. Interestingly, while Soyaltepec Mazatec has tonal rules, the closely
 16 related language Huautla Mazatec does not. Tonal perturbation effects
 17 may be progressive or regressive, and participation may depend on mor-
 18 phological or phonotactic and syntactic characteristics of the words that
 19 are affected or that trigger the perturbations. Yip (2002: 224 ff.) shows
 20 that the languages in this area display the ‘usual autosegmental effects,’
 21 which involve tone stability (tones staying behind after their underlying
 22 tone bearers have been deleted, which then may condition other tonal pro-
 23 cesses or dock on neighbouring tone bearers, sometimes creating addi-
 24 tional contours), tonal spreading and lexical floating tones that condition
 25 processes of downstep and, finally, tonal affixes (factor (e) mentioned
 26 above).

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28 4.2. *Tone – accent interactions*

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30 So far we have largely considered tone by itself, even though in some of
 31 the examples mentioned some form of accent or stress is present, either
 32 independent from the tonal system, or not. In terms of tone/accent
 33 dependency we distinguished two cases that we now discuss in more detail,
 34 taking examples from Suárez (1983) and Yip (2002), who both discuss
 35 the relationships between tone and accent/stress, and from the survey in
 36 section 5.

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37 4.2.1. *Tone dependent on accent*

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39 Where tone is dependent on accent, Suárez refers to this as an accented
 40 syllable forming the *domain* of tone. We already mentioned the example

1 (discussed in Yip 2002, and Hollenbach 1977) of San Juan Copola Trique,
 2 which displays ‘shrinking’ tone inventories outside the final syllable. The
 3 final syllable is not described as being stressed just because it carries the
 4 tonal contrast; final syllables are richer in many phonotactic respects,
 5 with a more complex syllable structure and a greater number of segmental
 6 contrasts in consonants and vowels. We here mention some other exam-
 7 ples from Suárez (1983) and Yip (2002). Isthmus Zapotec (Mock 1985,
 8 1988) has two tones, which associate to the stressed syllable and from
 9 there spread rightward. Pre-stress syllables are low-toned. Stress is root-
 10 initial (although according to Yip weight may play a role). Suárez men-
 11 tions Northern Pame and Yaitepec Chatino as languages that have a tonal
 12 contrast only in the syllable that is said to be stressed (the last syllable in
 13 both cases, presumably of the stem). This can be compared to Huautla
 14 Mazatec where every syllable can have contrastive tone, with final stress.
 15 Between these extremes, we find cases where the contrast on certain non-
 16 accented syllables is limited. In Palantla Chinantec, for example, there is
 17 no tonal contrast on a post-stress syllable.

18 In cases of this type, the dependency of tone on accent is such that
 19 the tonal lexical contrast is limited in terms of reference to the accented
 20 syllables. A different type of dependency exists when there is no tonal con-
 21 trast and accented syllables receive a specific tone (typically a high tone).
 22 Yip (2002: 232 ff.) discusses various such examples. In Northern Tepehuan
 23 (Kim 1988), a H tone is assigned to the second syllable of trisyllabic words
 24 and the initial syllable of bisyllabic words; all other syllables have low
 25 tone.

26 Huave, as discussed by Noyer (1991), presents an interesting case that
 27 combines (limited) lexical contrast and predictable tone. Stressed syllables
 28 may have either a H or a HL tone, which Noyer analyzes by assigning
 29 a lexical L to the latter and then a H to all stressed syllables; all other
 30 syllables are low toned. The location of stress is predictable. It occurs on
 31 the final syllable if closed, otherwise on the penultimate syllable.

32 Suárez (1983: 52) refers to Huichol and Mazuhua where we find
 33 no tone contrast on the last two syllables or the last syllable, respectively.
 34 In these languages, inherent lexical tones are removed to free up space for
 35 intonational tones.

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37 4.2.2. Accent dependent on tone

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39 According to Suárez (p. 52–3), stress in Huichol and Tlapanec is depen-
 40 dent on tone. In the latter language, bisyllabic word with one H tone are

1 stressed on the syllable bearing that tone. If both syllables are H, or
 2 both are L and the second syllable has a long vowel, they are ‘equally
 3 stressed’.

4 An interesting case is discussed in de Lacy (2002) and reported in Yip
 5 (2002). de Lacy discusses three Mixtec dialects. In Huajuapacan Mixtec
 6 (E. Pike and Cowan 1967), stress falls on the leftmost syllable when the
 7 tone is followed by a lower tone (HL, HM, ML) and, if this condition
 8 cannot be met, on the first syllable.

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11 **5. Languages by family³**

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13 In this section, we survey the accent systems of the languages of Middle
 14 America, organized by language family.

15

16 *5.1. Oto-Manguean*

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18 The Oto-Manguean (also Otomanguean) language stock is a large com-
 19 plex group of language families spoken in Mexico. In the past, languages
 20 of this group were spoken further south in Central American as well.
 21 Ethnologue (Lewis 2009) list 177 languages for this family. The major groups
 22 within Oto-Manguean are Amuzgoan, Chiapanec-Mangue, Chinantecan,
 23 Mixtecan, Otopamean, Popolocan, Subtiaba-Tlapanecan, and Zapotecan.

24 The bulk of attention to the phonology of these languages involves
 25 tone, laryngeal features, and syllable shapes. Both laryngeal features and
 26 tone are lexical. The languages exhibit two to five level tones and often
 27 contour tones as well. Tone is lexically marked and is also used grammati-
 28 cally, and complex tone sandhi exists in many of these languages. See
 29 Campbell (1997), Suárez (1983), and Rensch (1976), among others, for
 30 overviews.

31 Hollenbach (1984) provides a clear set of minimal pairs from Copala
 32 Trique that illustrates the heavy load on tone and laryngeals in the
 33 languages of this group.

34

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37 3. For a map of Meso-American languages see:
 38 [http://www.mywire.com/a/Intl-Enc-Linguistics/MesoAmerican-Languages/
 39 9460795/?&pbl=105](http://www.mywire.com/a/Intl-Enc-Linguistics/MesoAmerican-Languages/9460795/?&pbl=105)

40

1 (4) Copala Trique tones and laryngeals

2	yu ³ we ³⁵	‘palm mat’
3	yu ³ we ³²	‘maguey’
4	yu ³ we ³² h	‘cliff’
5	yu ³ ʔwe ³²	‘marketplace’
6	yu ³ ʔwe ³² h	‘thread’
7	yue ³ ʔwe ³ ʔ	‘ice’
8		
9		

10 While much attention is given to tone, tone sandhi, laryngeal features,
 11 and the interaction between these, there is little work on stress, although
 12 stress is mentioned in almost every description of the languages of this
 13 stock.⁴ This section focuses on the predictable stress rather than the lexical
 14 and grammatical tone. Intonation is also discussed in some of the litera-
 15 ture, but is largely set aside here as well.

16 In general, stress in Oto-Manguean languages is morphologically con-
 17 ditioned, being attracted to a root or stem, with this morphological unit
 18 occurring near the end of the word. Rensch (1976: 11), in ground-breaking
 19 research on comparative Oto-Manguean phonology, reconstructs the stem
 20 as consisting of *one* syllable with a consonant onset, a vowel, an optional
 21 nasal, laryngeal elements, and a tone, together with possible preceding and
 22 following elements. In Proto-Oto-Manguean this syllable hosts the largest
 23 number of contrasts. Probably more than one syllable preceded this sylla-
 24 ble, likely separated from it by a morpheme boundary; a syllable express-
 25 ing person may have followed. Rensch notes that stress generally falls
 26 on the final syllable of the stem in contemporary Oto-Manguean
 27 languages, and posits that this was the case in Proto-Oto-Manguean as
 28 well (1976: 11); in a footnote, he remarks that in Cuicatec and Zapotec,
 29 stress is on the penultimate syllable. We will see that in many of the
 30 languages stems are generally single syllables, and other languages besides
 31 Cuicatec and Zapotec place stress on the initial syllable of the stem.
 32 Nevertheless, Rensch’s generalization about the placement of stress on
 33 the stem is overall confirmed across this complex.

34 This stress-bearing unit, called the ‘stressed ultima’ or ‘couplet’ by
 35 Rensch (1976: 11) and sometimes referred to as the ‘binary couplet’, is
 36

37 4. Since many sources do not distinguish between stress and accent (as we did in
 38 section 2), or use both terms interchangeably, we will use the terminology as
 39 we find it in the sources, where the use of the term ‘stress’ predominates.
 40

1 the topic of much study in the language stock. This stress unit, or couplet,
2 is basically equated with the stem, with stress reconstructed as falling on
3 its final syllable. The couplet determines the distribution of segments and
4 tone in many of the languages.

5 The following discussion is organized by language family within Oto-
6 Manguean. There has been debate over the years about the internal organi-
7 zation of Oto-Manguean; see Rensch (1976) for a summary. The following
8 classification is from Ethnologue (Lewis 2009).

9 It should be noted that the degree of detail presented differs from
10 language to language, and, for many of the languages, there are no com-
11 ments about stress in the literature. Much of the work on these languages
12 was done in the 1950's and 1960's, and the terminology used is often
13 unfamiliar today; we have tried to make terminology clear, while at the
14 same time giving the reader a sense of the language descriptions. No
15 material is available on the Chipanec-Mangue subfamily, but each of the
16 other groups receives some attention in the following discussion.

17 18 5.1.1. Amuzgoan

19 Ethnologue (Lewis 2009) lists three Amuzgoan languages, which are
20 spoken in the Costa Chica region of the Mexican states of Guerrero and
21 Oaxaca by about 35,000 speakers.⁵

22 According to Bauernschmidt's (1965) study of syllable dynamics in
23 Guerrero Amuzgo, the stem-final syllable is stressed; the stem can be
24 followed by suffixes. The stressed syllable obligatorily comprises an onset
25 and a nucleus, and can carry a tone (see also Williams (2005) for a dis-
26 cussion of tones in this language).

27 The phonetic realization of stress in Amuzgo is dependent on syllable
28 type. Amuzgo exhibits a distinction, identified in many Oto-Manguean
29 languages, between syllable types known in the literature as *controlled*
30 and *ballistic*.⁶ There is considerable discussion of this contrast in the litera-
31 ture, which is more or less equivalent to a distinction between long and
32 short syllables. Bauernschmidt (1965: 472) notes distinctions between con-
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35 5. It should be kept in mind that here and elsewhere the numbers of speakers
36 provided for a given language are only approximate, often based on a census
37 that may date back as much as 20 years. Most of the time, the numbers pro-
38 vided are gathered from the Ethnologue.

39 6. For the distinction between 'ballistic' and 'controlled' in the Oto-Manguean
40 languages, see the recent study by Herrera (2009), who shows that, at least in
this family, the distinction is expressed by a contrast between breathy voice
and creaky voice vowels.

1 trolled and ballistic syllables having to do with stress. In particular, when
 2 stressed, the “checked nucleus of the ballistic syllable shows minimum
 3 duration of voicing; that of the controlled syllable shows maximum dura-
 4 tion of voicing [where voicing refers to duration of voicing in the nucleus
 5 HRW]. Although unchecked stressed syllables do not show as pronounced
 6 a contrast in this respect, here too voicing tends to be shorter in the ballis-
 7 tic syllable nucleus. Unstressed syllables show no consistent contrast in
 8 duration of voicing.” There are also some tonal differences between con-
 9 trolled and ballistic stressed syllables: controlled syllables show high and
 10 mid tones with a downward drifting pitch contour, and low tone with an
 11 upward drift. Ballistic syllables realize high, mid, and low tones as rapid
 12 downglides.

13 5.1.2. Chinantecan

14 The Ethnologue lists fourteen Chinantecan languages. The total number
 15 of Chinantec speakers is estimated at around 102,000. Most live in
 16 Oaxaca and Veracruz, Mexico, especially in the districts of Cuicatlán,
 17 Ixtlán de Juárez, Tuxtepec and Choapan.

18 Usually in the Chinantecan languages there is a single stress, occurring on
 19 the final syllable, the stem; pre-tonic and post-tonic syllables are not stressed.
 20 The stressed syllable often has greater phonological and morphological com-
 21 plexity than the unstressed syllables. Contrasts are generally diminished
 22 on pre-stem and post-stem material. In several of the Chinantecan lan-
 23 guages, suffix tones are not contrastive, being determinable from the
 24 tone of the stem. Languages of this family exhibit the contrast between
 25 controlled and ballistic syllables introduced above; languages differ in
 26 constraints on ballistic syllables; see Silverman (2009) for a recent over-
 27 view. This section is a brief review of the literature on stress in different
 28 languages of this subfamily.

29 StressTyp contains an entry for Lealao Chinantec:⁷

31 **Chinanteco, Lealao [LEX]**

32 *Oto-Manguan, Chinantecan.* North Oaxaca, San Juan Lealao, Latani,
 33 and Tres Ríos (Mexico).

- 34 • Stress is lexically distinctive. Words can be stressless. There is tone (not
 35 indicated).

36 η i: ‘his/her voice’ fi ‘road’
 37
 38 ‘ η i: ‘high’ ‘fi ‘handle’

39
 40 7. In Part II of this book all StressTyp entries are presented with the sources that
 they are based on.

1 According to Rupp's (1990: 63) description of Lealao Chinantec "the pho-
 2 nological word is typically just one stressed syllable, although a verb may
 3 be realized phonologically as a string of as many as six syllables. The
 4 stressed syllable is the last syllable of the word unless the word ends with
 5 one of five unstressed person markers"; thus the stress falls on the last syl-
 6 lable of the stem. Rupp (1989: 3) further notes that most Chinantec words
 7 have simple roots or stems, and that the root is the domain for stress, by
 8 which he means that it is only the root that shows a contrast between con-
 9 trolled and ballistic syllables.

10 Silverman (1997), in a study of tone sandhi in Comaltepec Chinantec,
 11 notes that words are generally monosyllabic, with rare polysyllabic roots.
 12 Inflection is often found through modification of the root vowel, resulting
 13 in monosyllabic stems that bear stress (Silverman 2009).

14 Robbins (1968) and Gardner and Merrifield (1990: 93) observe for
 15 Quiotepec Chinantec that only one syllable per word is stressed, the
 16 stressed syllable representing a major class lexical item. Most such words
 17 are monosyllabic, but a few have a pretonic syllable marking categories
 18 such as tense-aspect and direction. In Quiotepec Chinantec, the pre-stem
 19 syllables occur with simple tones, not with contours, while the stem can
 20 have contours as well (Robbins 1968); post-tonic syllables have their tone
 21 determined by the tone of the tonic syllable. There are also post-tonic
 22 syllables that generally mark personal pronouns and possessors. These
 23 suffixes can affect the tone of the stem.

24 Westley (1971: 160), in a study of Tepetotutla Chinantec, observes that
 25 there is one stressed syllable per word, the final syllable. Foris (2000) finds
 26 for Sochiapan Chinantec stress occurs on the final syllable in polysyllabic
 27 words.

28 29 5.1.3. Mixtecan

30 Mixtecan is a large group with subgroups of Mixtec-Cuicatec and Trique
 31 with a total of 57 languages, according to the Ethnologue (Lewis 2009).
 32

33 5.1.3.1. Cuicatec

34 The Cuicatecs inhabit the towns of Teutila and Tepeuxila in western
 35 Oaxaca. In 2000 they numbered around 23,000, of whom an estimated
 36 65% still spoke the language. Two languages are listed under Cuicateco
 37 in the Ethnologue.
 38

39 Cuicatec generally has stress on the first syllable of the unit called the
 40 couplet (see the discussion below), although Needham and Davis (1946)

1 note that its location is not well understood. They also say that stress may
 2 be attracted to a high tone at the end of a morpheme, although the condi-
 3 tions are not totally clear. Bradley (1991), in a study of the syntax of Con-
 4 cepción Pápalo Cuicatec, makes some notes about phonology. Roots are
 5 monosyllabic or bisyllabic, with stress on the first syllable and with
 6 stressed vowels being long.

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9

5.1.3.2. Mixtec

10 At the end of the 20th century, the fifty-two Mixtecan languages listed in
 11 Ethnologue taken together were estimated to be spoken by about 300,000
 12 people, in the Mexican states of Oaxaca, Guerrero and Puebla.

13 In the literature on Mixtec stress, the term ‘couplet’ is frequently en-
 14 countered. K. Pike (1948) introduced the term ‘tonemic couplet’ in a study
 15 of San Miguel el Grande Mixtec, referring to this unit as the locus of con-
 16 trastive tone (see also Gerfen (1996) for discussion). In the introduction of
 17 her detailed study of Mixtec phonological systems, Josserand (1983) notes
 18 that Proto-Mixtec and all modern and historically documented systems
 19 share a set of basic properties, one of which is the couplet, which she de-
 20 fines as “a microsegment composed of two syllables and carrying stress on
 21 the first of these two (1983: 180).” Josserand further notes that the first of
 22 these syllables is often marked by additional phonetic features such as
 23 vowel length, pre-aspiration of following consonants, or glottalization. It
 24 is also the syllable that is most likely to engage in tone perturbations,
 25 besides being the locus of paradigmatic consonant alternations and of stress.
 26 The couplet is claimed to be the basis for word building and is similar to a
 27 grammatical unit, but there is no categorical one-to-one relation between
 28 morpheme (root or stem) and couplet (181). In Josserand’s own terms “It
 29 is more satisfying to understand the couplet as a phonological or surface
 30 form for underlying morphological material to fit into, or accommodate
 31 itself to, for its spoken realizations. Nonetheless, the couplet is essential
 32 for the description of the morphological canons, i.e., the base forms and
 33 morpheme structure rules which precede the morphotactic processes so
 34 common in all Otomanguan languages” (183). This position is widely
 35 adopted in the literature. According to Suárez (1983: 53) stress in Mixtec
 36 languages usually falls on the first syllable of the root and remains invari-
 37 able when affixes are added. North and Shields (1977) consider the couplet
 38 as the nucleus of both the phonological and grammatical word (citing
 39 K. Pike 1948, among others), as well as the relevant unit for tone
 40 contrasts. Thus, in Mixtecan in general, the couplet appears to be an

1 important unit, attracting stress and allowing several contrasts that are
2 not found elsewhere. In current terminology, the couplet might be referred
3 to as a trochaic foot.

4 In his discussion of the couplet in Mixtec, DiCanio (2008) comments
5 on its status in several languages of this family. Faraclas (1983) states for
6 Chalcatongo Mixtec that the basic stem is disyllabic, CVCV or CVV,
7 sequences that were composed probably of two [or more] morphemes his-
8 torically. In the same language, glottalization is restricted to couplet-initial
9 syllables (Macaulay 1996). In Coatzospan Mixtec (Gerfen 1999), glottali-
10 zation is licensed under stress, with the stressed syllable being initial in the
11 word, and, in compounds, the initial syllable of the first morpheme is
12 stressed.

13 Pankratz and E. Pike (1967) discuss stress in Ayutla Mixtec, saying that
14 the couplet coincides with the grammatical stem (288), with stress gener-
15 ally falling on the first syllable of the couplet. The couplet can be preceded
16 and followed by affixes. Some examples are given below, where the acute
17 accent represents stress and the numbers tone.

18 (5) Ayutla Mixtec

- 19 couplet only ñú²maʔ³ ‘wax’ (292)
20
21 precouplet + couplet jí³-dú²?va³ ‘spider web’ (292)

22 Pankratz and E. Pike remark that each phonological word has a word
23 stress, occurring on the couplet or on a post-couplet syllable. Tone func-
24 tions as a conditioner for the placement of word stress, which is attracted
25 to what they call tone 1 (high tone) in a couplet or post-couplet syllable,
26 whereas, in the absence of a tone 1, word stress goes on the first syllable of
27 the couplet, as is illustrated in the examples below (cf. section 4.2.2.):

- 28
29 (6) jí¹ñu¹ra¹ ‘his pineapple’ (293)
30 ku¹-tátà¹ra¹ ‘he is taking medicine’ (293)
31 ku²nu³rá¹ ‘his tobacco’ (293)
32 sa³ta³-rá¹ ‘he bought’ (293) (Couplet plus postcouplet)

34 In Mortensen (2005), the distribution of stress in this language is defined
35 by way of a more intricate set of conditions:

36
37 (7) Tone-dependent stress in Ayutla Mixtec

38 Within the stem + suffix domain, stress the leftmost H-toned syllable
39 immediately followed by the L-toned syllable, else stress the leftmost
40 M-toned syllable immediately followed by a L-toned syllable, else
 stress the leftmost H-toned syllable, else stress the leftmost syllable.

1 Interestingly, Mortensen suggests that Pankratz and E. Pike's tone-
2 dependent stress is likely to represent phonetic pitch prominence.

3 In Huajuapán Mixtec, E. Pike and Cowan (1967) also identify the couplet
4 as an important unit, with stress on the first syllable of the couplet
5 unless there is a following syllable within the word with a lower tone; in
6 that case, word stress occurs on the syllable preceding the lower tone;
7 stress never precedes the couplet. Tones are mostly predictable on non-
8 stem morphemes.

9 North and Shields (1977) discuss stress in their work on Silacayoapan
10 Mixtec. This language also has stress on the first syllable of the couplet.
11 There are conditions under which stress (and high tone) shift to the second
12 member of the couplet.

13 In their very clear description of the phonology of Mixtepec Mixtec, E.
14 Pike and Ibach (1978) observe that in this language the first syllable of the
15 couplet is marked by a lengthened vowel unless it is followed by a glottal
16 stop. It is also stressed, indicated by loudness. They note that, if tone 1
17 (high) or tone 2 (mid) precedes tone 3 (low), the syllable preceding the
18 tone 3 may be louder than the first syllable: *vi¹lu¹-yu* 'my (polite) cat'
19 (272). They note that the loudness is particularly noticeable on the tone
20 clusters 1-3 and 2-3. There are allotones as well as tone sandhi.

21 Gerfen (1996, 1999) offers a discussion of Coatzacoapan Mixtec. Gerfen
22 (1996: 47) defines the couplet as the open class set of morphemes charac-
23 terized by the shapes CVV and (C)VCV, with some rare exceptions. Stress
24 is located on the penultimate syllable of the word, with enclitics ignored
25 for the purposes of stress. The stressed syllable is longer, and is the site of
26 contrastive tone.

27 In a study of Alacatlazala Mixtec, Zylstra (1980: 16) remarks that
28 stems consist of two or three syllables, where the three syllable stems are
29 generally compounds. The word has a single stress, falling on the initial
30 syllable of the couplet, but shifting to the second syllable when the first
31 person postclitic is attached, and on the second syllable of a three-syllable
32 stem. Tones are contrastive within the couplet.

33 The language called Pinotepa Nacional Mixtec in Ethnologue and
34 Jicaltepec Mixtec by Bradley (1970) is analyzed as having two stresses, an
35 initial 'microstress' which is part of the couplet, and thus on the initial
36 syllable of the stem, and a 'macrostress', or sentence stress.

37 The couplet is also relevant in the analysis of Molinos Mixtec (Hunter
38 and E. Pike 1969). Hunter and E. Pike propose that the placement of stress
39 depends on the tone sequence and the position of the couplet within the
40 word, with stress occurring within the couplet. It can occur on either the
first or the second syllable of the couplet depending on the tones. Hunter

1 and E. Pike further propose that if the tones are all level 1 (high) or 2
2 (mid), then all syllables are equally stressed. Hunter and E. Pike note that
3 the couplet is relevant for the placement of stress, for the distribution of
4 some sounds and the distribution of allophones of others, and tone sandhi.

5 E. Pike and Oram (1976) discuss stress in Diuxi Mixtec. As in many
6 other Mixtec dialects/languages, stress falls on the first stem syllable and
7 conditions lengthening of the first vowel or second consonant. According
8 to E. Pike and Oram (1976), a *second* unpredictable stress occurs in Diuxi
9 Mixtec on the second syllable of some stems, but Daly (1978) analyzes
10 these alleged stem-final stresses in terms of tone.

11 The Mixtec languages are very similar in terms of stress, as one con-
12 cludes from the numerous studies devoted to this language group. Across
13 Mixtec, stress is on the first syllable of the couplet, which can be equated
14 with the stem, forming a trochee. This is the site where contrastive tones
15 occur in many of the languages as well as other phonological features.

17 5.1.3.3. Trique

18
19 The Trique languages differ from the other members of the Mixtecan
20 group in the placement of stress. Ethnologue identifies three Trique lan-
21 guages. DiCanio (2008) is a recent source on Trique, with interesting dis-
22 cussion of the historical development of this group.

23 In the Trique languages, stress is word-final, falling on the root. This is
24 also the position of greatest contrast of other phonological features. Tones
25 contrast on this final syllable, being predictable on syllables that precede it
26 (e.g., Hollenbach 1984: 10).

27 In DiCanio's (2008) analysis of Itunyoso Trique, stress is word-final,
28 implemented by an obligatory bimoraic structure in final syllables (non-
29 final syllables are light) and a larger set of licensed contrasts. Similar
30 patterns are found in Copala Trique, where the final syllable carries tone
31 and has a greater potential for contrasts in terms of consonants, vowels,
32 and tone than other syllables (Hollenbach 1977, 1984). Similarly, in
33 Chichahuaxtla Trique, the largest number of contrasts occurs in the final
34 syllable: the opposition between fortis and lenis consonants is only func-
35 tional in this syllable, while it is neutralized elsewhere. Also, the final
36 syllable is longer than the prefinal syllables and hosts a greater number of
37 tonal contrasts (Longacre 1952). Hollenbach (1977: 50) notes that there is
38 phonetic stress on penultimate syllables with mid tone and on penultimate
39 syllables before a final syllable with a medially-checked vowel (V?V, VhV).
40 Suárez (1983: 52) remarks that Chichahuaxtla Trique has stress on the final

1 syllable of the word. Di Canio concludes that root-final stress is a shared
2 characteristic of the Trique languages.

3 4 5.1.4. Otopamean

5 Seventeen different languages compose the Otopamean family of Mexico,
6 which are classified in four major subgroups: Chichimec (one language)
7 spoken in the state of Guanajuato, Matlatzincan (two languages) in the
8 state of Mexico, Pamean (two languages plus one extinct) in the state of
9 San Luis Potosi, while Otomian is subdivided into Mazahuan (two lan-
10 guages), spoken in Michoacan, and Otomian (nine languages) spoken in
11 the states of Puebla, Veracruz, Queretaro, Hidalgo, and Tlaxcala. The
12 numbers of speakers vary greatly among the languages of this family,
13 ranging from over 350,000 speakers for Central Mazahua to the nearly
14 extinct Atzingo Matlatzinca.

15 In reconstructions of the Proto-Otopamean vowel system, Bartholo-
16 mew (1989) proposes that the root contained a vowel or vowel cluster
17 and an optional glottal element; if the vocalic element was a single vowel,
18 that vowel was rearticulated after the glottal element (VʔV or VhV), if
19 it was a vowel cluster, the glottal element was articulated between the
20 vowels.
21

22 5.1.4.1. Chichimec

23
24 Chichimeca-Jonaz (Lastra de Suárez 1984) is a tonal language, with a
25 high tone on one or more syllables. Bisyllabic stems can be HL, LH or
26 HH and, apparently rarely, LL. Trisyllabic stems can be HLL, HLH,
27 LHL, LHH, and so on. No mention is made of stress. Lastra de Suárez
28 does not describe the tonal system, but she marks tone in examples.
29

30 5.1.4.2. Matlatzincan

31
32 Pérez (2007) is a study of Matlatzincan languages of the Oto-Pamean
33 family, Matlatzinca and Ocuilteco, also known as Tlauica. Roots in
34 Matlatzinca are generally monosyllabic, although consonant-final roots
35 have an epenthetic final vowel, showing different patterning than the
36 rare bisyllabic roots. Pérez does not discuss stress in Matlatzinca, and
37 her discussion of tone is quite tentative. Escalante (1999) identifies two
38 tones in Matlatzinca and discusses tone sandhi, without any mention of
39 stress.

40 Muntzel (1986), in a study of the structure of Ocuilteco, notes that

1 primary accent falls on the first syllable of the verb or noun root, causing
 2 a slight lengthening of the vowel, which does not acquire the duration of
 3 the distinctively long vowels. Perez (2007: 128) notes that she did not hear
 4 stress in Tlawika, suggesting the existence of dialect differences.

5 5.1.4.3. Otomian

6 5.1.4.3.1. Otomi

7
 8
 9 Nine Otomi languages are listed in Ethnologue. For those Otomi lan-
 10 guages with reasonable descriptions, the stem is reported to consist of
 11 two syllables, with stress on the first syllable. As in most other languages
 12 in the stock, that syllable is the locus of greater contrast in terms of both
 13 segmental properties and tone.

14 Word stress in Mezquital Otomi is described by Wallis (1968) as falling
 15 on the first syllable of a bisyllabic sequence referred to as the ‘nucleus’,
 16 with the stressed vowel being long and with distinctive tone on the
 17 nucleus, or the stem.

18 In Tenango Otomi, as described by Blight and E. Pike (1976), stress
 19 falls on the first syllable of the stem, which can be preceded by prefixes.
 20 Stress affects the realization of consonants, as, for instance, in the case of
 21 the phonemic voiceless fortis stops that are preaspirated when they are ini-
 22 tial in a stressed syllable (and not part of a cluster). The first syllable of the
 23 stem is stressed; it can be preceded by prefixes. The full range of tonal con-
 24 trasts is found on stressed (stem) syllables, with a reduced set on prefixes.

25 In Temoayan Otomi, Andrews (1949) reports that stress falls on the
 26 first syllable of the root. She remarks that stress and tone are independent,
 27 with some tones restricted to the stressed syllable, or the root, which is
 28 thus the locus of greater contrasts.

29 5.1.4.3.2. Mazahuan

30
 31 Ethnologue lists two Mazahua languages. In these languages, stress occurs
 32 on the first syllable of the stem, which is composed of a root and a stem
 33 formative, as discussed in E. Pike (1951). Stress is accompanied by vowel
 34 lengthening (38) and, as expected, the greatest differentiation of tone
 35 occurs on the stressed syllable. There is also an intonational pitch, which
 36 is final, and tone is not contrastive on the final syllable.

37 5.1.4.4. Pamean

38
 39 Ethnologue identifies three Pamean languages. Both Northern Pame and
 40 Central Pame have many speakers, while Jilipian Pame is extinct. In his

1 detailed study of Northern Pame, Berthiaume (2003) remarks that stress
 2 falls on the lexical root (65), and contrastive tone is found only on the
 3 stressed syllable (41). With one exception, roots are monosyllabic. The
 4 pitch of the non-stressed syllables is determined by the pitch of the root.
 5 Berthiaume also reviews earlier work on Pamean. In a discussion of
 6 Manrique Castañeda's work on Jilipian Pame, he reports that stress
 7 falls on the lexical root, which is also the domain of contrastive tone
 8 (Berthiaume 2003: 17). In Central Pame, based on work by Gibson
 9 (1956), stress is also on the lexical root, and tone is contrastive only in
 10 stressed syllables (Berthiaume 2003: 18).

11

12

13 5.1.5. Popolocan

14

15 Popolocan is another major group of the the Oto-Manguenan language
 16 stock, divided into Chocho-Popolocan, the Mazatecan group, for which
 17 Ethnologue distinguishes eight different languages with about 185,000
 18 speakers altogether living in the states of Oaxaca, Veracruz and Puebla,
 19 and Ixtecan, spoken by 128 individuals in Santa María Ixcatlán in south-
 20 ern central Mexico. Chocho-Popolocan itself is subdivided into Chocho,
 21 spoken in the state of Oaxaca by around 770 speakers and Popolocan,
 22 comprising seven different languages with approximately 60,000 speakers
 23 in the state of Puebla.

23

24

25 5.1.5.1. Chocho-Popolocan

26

27 In her study of Metzontla Popoloca, Veerman-Leichsenring (1984, 1991)
 28 notes that stress, which is realized primarily as duration, falls on the pen-
 29 ultimate syllable of a word. Stops and affricates are preglottalized, while
 30 liquids, approximants, and nasals are lengthened: /čàkū/ 'face' [čàʔkū];
 31 /tīy'é/ 'night' [tīy'é] (page 21). With aspirated consonants, prenasalized
 32 consonants, and voiceless nasals, the consonants are essentially split,
 33 creating a phonetic sequence. When the syllable contains a long vowel or
 34 vowel sequence (including a vowel followed by a glottal stop), the vowel is
 35 long. In general, it is the consonant that shows the effects of accent, and
 36 with monosyllabic words, a prothetic vowel may appear (/kū/ 'animal'
 37 [iʔkū] (page 22).

37

38 In Western Popoloca (Williams and E. Pike 1968: 379), the stressed syl-
 39 lable usually, but not always, coincides with the end of the grammatical
 40 stem. In Northern Popoloca (Stark 1976), tone is contrastive in stems;
 stem tones may override prefix tones. Kalstrom and E. Pike (1968) discuss
 stress in Eastern Popoloca. The penultimate vowel of the stem (the nucleus

1 of the phonological word) receives stress, with the stressed component
 2 being long, either by consonant lengthening or vowel lengthening.

- 3
 4 (8) nte:⁴to² ‘tall’
 5 nkā:³ō² ‘liver’

6 With certain suffixes, the stress is realized as what the authors call con-
 7 sonant stress, lengthening the last consonant of the root.

- 8
 9 (9) tʃi:³ka³ ‘metal object’
 10 tʃi⁴ka⁴n:a²³ ‘my metal object’

11 Words with this stress type are noted to be infrequent.

12 Consonant lengthening affects the initial consonant of the last syllable.
 13 However, when certain suffixes follow, the initial consonant of the suffix
 14 lengthens.

- 15
 16 (10) to¹t:e⁴ ‘woman’s shawl’
 17 to¹te⁴n:a¹³ ‘my shawl’

18 There are also vowels inserted in phrases, referred to as rhythmical syllables.

- 19
 20 (11) kʔoe⁴n:a²thā³h:ma⁴ ‘she bought beans’ h:ma⁴
 21 i²h:ma⁴ kʔoe⁴n:a²thā³ ‘beans she bought’ i²h:ma⁴

22
 23 Stark and Machin (1977), in a study of Tlacoyalco Popoloca, also iden-
 24 tify two types of stress, consonant stress and vowel stress, each marked by
 25 duration. Consonant stress occurs on the final syllable and moves when a
 26 suffix is added.

27 28 5.1.5.2. Mazatecan

29 In a study of comparative Mazatecan, Kirk (1966: 9) reconstructs for
 30 Proto-Mazatec heavy stress on the final syllable of the stem, with weak
 31 stress elsewhere. This system is also found in the contemporary Mazatec
 32 languages studied by this author (1966: 13).

33 E. Pike (1956: 71) notes for Soyaltepec Mazatec that stress falls at the
 34 end of the grammatical word. She further points out that non-phonemic
 35 length of consonants is found in stressed syllables, which is different for
 36 Huautla Mazatec, where this length is not found.

37 38 5.1.6. Subtiaba-Tlapanecan

39
 40 The status of the Subtiaba-Tlapanecan group as part of Oto-Manguean
 has been of some debate. Its phonology is not well described in the avail-

1 able literature. Suárez (1983: 52) notes that in Me'phaa (formerly called
2 Tlapanec) stress is determined by tones, with the second syllable of a bisyl-
3 labic word made prominent with a low-high tone sequence and the first
4 syllable with a high-low tone sequence.

5

6 5.1.7. Zapotecan

7
8 With approximately 482,000 speakers, the Zapotecan family of Mexico is
9 one of the largest families in the Otomanguean stock, not only in terms of
10 its number of speakers, but also as regards the number of different lan-
11 guages. The Chatino subbranch contains seven different languages, spoken
12 in the state of Oaxaca, whereas for the Zapotecan subgroup, Ethnologue
13 distinguishes as many as fifty-seven different languages, all spoken in the
14 states of Oaxaca and Veracruz.

15

16 5.1.7.1. Chatino

17
18 StressTyp contains an entry for Yaitepec Chatino:

19

20 **Chatino, Yaitepec (dialect of Chatino) [U]**

21

22 *Oto-Manguean, Zapotecan, Chatino. Oaxaca (Mexico).*

- 23 • Stress falls on ultimate syllable.

24 'slyəʔ 'cotton' ti'ʔa 'water'

25 kwiʔ'ya 'eagle' tʃi'kwiʔ 'to talk'

26

27 Upson and Longacre (1965: 314) reconstruct final-syllable stress for Proto-
28 Chatino. Upson (1968: 3), referring to the contemporary Chatino lan-
29 guages, observes that stress falls on the last long vowel of the stem, and,
30 in the absence of long vowels, on the stem-final syllable. Stressed vowels
31 are longer than unstressed vowels.

32

33 Pride (1984), in a study of Tataltepec Chatino, reports that the final
34 syllable is the tonic or stressed syllable. The full set of vowel phonemes
35 occur in this syllable, with phonetic lengthening. Pride notes that the tonic
36 syllable is the minimal phonological word, which may be preceded by up
37 to three syllables. Tone contrasts are also greatest on the tonic syllable,
38 with seven contrastive tones. He proposes a four-way tone contrast on
39 the penult, and a two-way contrast elsewhere. In Yaitepec Chatino as
40 well, the final syllable is stressed (Pride 1963: 19). The final syllable is the
sole carrier of contrastive tone and the contrastive presence or absence of
nasalization and glottal stop.

1 5.1.7.2. Zapotec

2

3 Zapotec is a complex group of 57 languages. In Zapotecan, stress usually
4 falls on the root, which is one or two syllables long, and, most of the time,
5 the stressed syllable predictably lengthens.

6 In Cajonos Zapotec, stress falls on the root (Nellis and Hollenbach
7 1980), which is typically one or two syllables long, with some exceptional
8 three-syllable roots. Stress is reported to be penultimate in a vowel-final
9 polysyllabic root and final otherwise. Root stress is retained under suffixation.
10 Fortis consonants are longer after a stressed vowel; stressed vowels
11 lengthen before lenis consonants. Recent Spanish loans retain the stress
12 position of Spanish.

13 For Isthmus Zapotec, Marlett and Pickett (1987: 406) find that stress
14 falls on the first rhyme of the root. In earlier work on the phonology of
15 this language, Pickett (1951) argues that stress placement is predictable.
16 Marlett and Pickett further report that branching rhymes are found only
17 in stressed syllables. After a stressed vowel, obstruents lengthen phonetically;
18 otherwise, the vowel lengthens.

19 In Zoogocho Zapotec, stress falls on the penultimate syllable of the
20 stem (Sonnenschein 2005); in a stem consisting of two roots, it falls on
21 the second. The phonological shape of the word base is CV(C(V)).

22 Sicoli (2007), in a study of three Zapotec languages of the Sierra Sur of
23 Oaxaca, notes a bimoraic minimum. Stress-induced consonant lengthening
24 occurs, similar to that found in Isthmus Zapotec (Mock 1985). In
25 both cases, the vowel of the stressed syllable lengthens unless it is followed
26 by a fortis consonant, in which case that consonant lengthens.

27 In Guelavía Zapotec (Jones and Knudson 1977: 163) there is one
28 stressed syllable per word, generally the penultimate syllable. The stressed
29 syllable tends to have higher pitch, lengthening of a following fortis con-
30 sonant, and lengthening or rearticulation of vowels with a following lenis
31 consonant or when syllable-final.

32 Tilquiapanz Zapotec (Merrill 2008) has stress on the root syllable.
33 Merrill notes that it usually falls on the final root syllable, but sometimes
34 on the penultimate syllable. Glottalized vowels are possible only in the
35 root syllable, while word-final unstressed vowels usually devoice.

36 Choapan Zapotec (Lyman and Lyman 1977) also has one stressed syllable
37 per word. Stress must occur on a complex nucleus unless all nuclei are of
38 equal length, in which case it is penultimate (Lyman and Lyman 1977: 149).
39 Affixes are more restricted in terms of syllable shape than stems are.

40

1 Beam de Azcona (2004) is a study of Coatlán-Loxicha Zapotec. Most
 2 words are monosyllabic due to the historical deletion of non-tonic vowels.
 3 The only syllable of the stem bears stress. The few polysyllabic words,
 4 which are historical compounds, have final stress. Stressed syllables can
 5 take any tone; unstressed syllables only realize high tone.

6 In San Francisco Ozolotepec Zapotec (Leander 2008), roots are com-
 7 posed of a single syllable, which also realizes the stress. Unstressed vowels
 8 are centralized and sometimes deleted (43), with the stressed syllable host-
 9 ing the largest number of contrasts. San Juan Mixtepec Zapotec, as
 10 studied by Nelson (2004), has roots that are generally a single syllable,
 11 which bears the stress.

12 Simple stems are monosyllabic in Guevea de Humboldt Zapotec (Marks
 13 1980). In compounds, the final syllable is stressed. The stressed syllable
 14 undergoes a variety of morphophonemic changes.

15

16 5.1.8. Summary: Oto-Manguean

17
 18 In the above survey, we have discussed the word prosody of the Oto-
 19 Manugean languages for which we have found useful descriptions in the
 20 literature. In these languages, lexical and grammatical tone is usually
 21 found, as well as some interesting laryngeal contrasts. There is ample evi-
 22 dence that in languages of the Oto-Manguean family the root is the locus
 23 of stress and, expectedly, it is also the position that shows the greatest
 24 number of phonological contrasts. While Rensch (1976) reconstructs a
 25 two-syllable stem for Proto-Otomanguean with stress on the first vowel,
 26 there are languages in which the second stem-vowel is stressed, as well as
 27 languages that have single-syllable stressed roots. A common feature of all
 28 the languages of this family is that the root licenses more segmental and
 29 tonal contrasts than affixes do. Moreover, the root is obligatorily bimoraic
 30 in the majority of languages. In general, no mention is made of the
 31 phonetic properties of stress.

32 Oto-Manguean languages have been cited as stress-attracting tone
 33 languages and as tone-attracting stress languages (see section 4.2). In the
 34 former, tone is lexical while stress is predictable. In our interpretation,
 35 the richness of tonal contrasts that occurs in the stressed syllable is a
 36 consequence of the fact that stress is a feature of the root; stress is mor-
 37 phologically controlled, and because it is, we expect to find the full range
 38 of contrasts in the stressed root syllable. Several of the languages have
 39 been argued to show tone-dependent stress systems, with stress attracted
 40 to certain tones, and, in some cases, more than one stress depending on

1 tone. While this analysis may account for the facts, it might not be the
 2 only one possible. Higher-level intonation may play a role, as is evident
 3 in many of the descriptions, where stress is described at different levels of
 4 structure. This is clearly an area for further study.

5
 6 5.2. *Mixe-Zoque*

7 The Mixe-Zoque languages are spoken in and around the Isthmus of
 8 Tehuantepec, Mexico. Mixe has around 90,000 speakers, Zoque has
 9 some 60,000 speakers, and the Popoluca languages, of which some are
 10 Mixean and some Zoquean, have approximately 69,000 speakers.

11 Wichman (1995) offers a classification of the Mixe-Zoque group, for
 12 which the Ethnologue lists 17 languages, based on comparative evidence,
 13 including evidence from stress:

- 14 (12) Mixean Oaxaca-Mixean Lowland Mixe: Coatlán, Guichicovi
 15 Midland Mixe: Japtapec
 16 South Highland Mixe: Tlahuiltepec
 17 North Highland Mixe: Totontepec
 18
 19 +Tapachulteco
 20 Oluta Popoluca⁸
 21 Sayula Popoluca
 22 Zoque Gulf Zoque Ayapa Zoque
 23 Texistepec Zoque
 24 Soteapan Zoque
 25 Chimalapa Zoque Santa Maria Chimalapa
 26 (Oaxaca) San Miguel Chimalapa
 27 Chiapas Zoque
 28

29 Here we review the information that Wichmann supplies about the Mixean
 30 languages and his reconstruction of proto-Mixe-Zoquean stress. Wichmann
 31 does not discuss the stress systems of the contemporary Zoquean languages,
 32 but refers to different bibliographical sources for information (page xiiiv).

33 In Tlahuiltepec (Wichmann 1995: 25 (based on Lyon 1980: 33)), primary
 34 accent is on the last heavy syllable of the word or, if there is no heavy
 35 syllable, on the final syllable. In Jaltapec (Wichmann 1995: 47), accent is
 36 on the final syllable if it is closed or ends in a long vowel, otherwise stress
 37 is on the penultimate syllable. This generalization does not apply to
 38 suffixes or enclitics and loans from Spanish. In Coatlán (Wichmann 1995:

39
 40 8. The PopolUcan languages in this family should not be confused with the
 PopolOcan languages in the Oto-Manguean family.

1 47; Hoogshagen 1984: 5), “stress occurs on the last syllable of an un-
 2 inflected word that ends in a consonant or a long vowel and on the next
 3 to last syllable of an uninflected word that ends in a short vowel. Stress
 4 occurs on the last syllable of the stem of an inflected word unless a stress
 5 carrying suffix is present, in which case the suffix will carry the stress. The
 6 stress-carrying suffixes are *-yi:* (object person focus), *-i:* (nominalizer) and
 7 *-o?* (repetitive).” In Guichicovi (Wichmann 1995: 60), accent falls on the
 8 rightmost heavy syllable. Wichmann does not mention where stress falls
 9 in words that have no heavy syllables.

10 According to Wichmann (1995: 81): “although both [Sayula and Oluta
 11 Popoluca] verge toward having phonemic stress, stress assignment rules in
 12 both languages can be shown to directly reflect [Proto-Mixean] stress rules
 13 which were automatic.” In Sayula Popoluca accent goes on the rightmost
 14 heavy syllable or else to the leftmost syllable in the rightmost root. Certain
 15 suffixes are inherently accented (Wichmann 1995: 81). In Oluta Popoluca
 16 accent is final if the final syllable ends in a consonant or has a long vowel,
 17 otherwise it is penultimate. Wichmann remarks that in this language most
 18 syllables are closed because of a process of final glottalization. This may
 19 obscure the fact that Oluta Popoluca has a ‘right most heavy’ pattern
 20 (Wichmann 1995: 85).

21 In Totontepec, accent is on the rightmost heavy syllable, otherwise on
 22 the final closed syllable, otherwise on the penultimate syllable (Wichmann
 23 1995: 81, after Schoenhals and Schoenhals 1965: 302). Wichmann pro-
 24 poses that the stress pattern of Sayula Popoluca, where accent goes to the
 25 rightmost heavy syllable, or else to the leftmost syllable in the rightmost
 26 root, may be applicable in Totontepec as well, considering this from the
 27 perspective of reconstruction of proto-Mixean.

28 Wichmann’s reconstruction for proto-Mixean emphasizes the recurrence
 29 of stress on the rightmost heavy syllable. He suspects that this feature goes
 30 back to proto-Mixe-Zoquean, but the Zoquean languages lost distinctive
 31 length. Zoquean then generalized in one of two directions: root stress
 32 (since roots would be the typical locus of heavy syllables) or, focussing
 33 on the default pattern when heavy syllables were absent, right-edge stress.

34 For proto-Mixean languages Wichmann reconstructs the following
 35 rule:

- 36 (13) a. accent is on the rightmost heavy (V:, V:?, V?, Vh)
 37 b. else on the rightmost root: verbs: ultimate, nonverb:
 38 penultimate
 39 c. Some suffixes are inherently accented and as such attract the
 40 primary accent

1 His reconstruction for stress in proto-Zoquean is given in (14) (p. 89):

- 2
3 (14) a. Stress in on/in the root: verbs: ultimate, nonverb:
4 penultimate/first syllable
5 b. Some suffixes are inherently accented and as such attract the
6 primary accent

7 For proto-Mixe-Zoquean Wichmann reconstructs the system as essentially
8 identical to that of Proto-Mixean.
9

10 5.2.1. Mixe(an)
11

12 Ethnologue (2009) lists three major Mixe languages, Eastern, Veracruz,
13 and Western, each of which has several dialects. Here we describe the
14 stress pattern of Ayutla Mixe (South Highland Mixe), based on Romero-
15 Méndez (2008: 80 ff.). In this language stress is word-final for all parts of
16 speech except for verbs, which have stem-final stress. Phonetically, stress
17 involves higher pitch and greater intensity. In compounds, the last syllable
18 of the second root is stressed:

- 19 (15) (a) káj-^ltse'e 'chilacayote/cidra'
20 jaguar-pumpkin
21 (b) kapy-^lkäp 'bamboo basket'
22 bamboo-basket
23

24 Prefixes do not interact with stress patterns. When a prefix is added, the
25 root still bears the stress (16):
26

- 27 (16) (a) nē-^lmajtsk 'second'
28 ORDINAL-two
29 (b) t-ak-^ljo'kx 's/he heats it'
30 3A-CAUS-heat
31 (c) a-^lkē'ëy-y 'lid'
32 EDGE-cover.with.hands-DEP
33
34

35 In the verb, it is possible to add as many as three syllables to the right of
36 the root, while the main stress remains on the last syllable of the root:

- 37 (17) (a) ^lpëjk-ë-p 's/he got sick'
38 be.sick-INV-INDEP
39 (b) ^lpëjk-ë-të-p 'they got sick'
40 be.sick-INV-PL-INDEP

1 (c) 'pəjk-ë-në-të-p 'they have got sick'
 2 be.sick-INV-PERF-PL-INDEP

3 (d) a'məjk-ë-në-të-p 'they have had nightmares'
 4 have.nightmare-INV-PERF-PL-INDEP
 5

6 The plural marker, which can be used with only a few nouns, is the only
 7 inflectional suffix that nouns can take. In this case, the suffix receives
 8 stress:

9 (18) (a) mē'jä'äy 'old person' vs.

10 (b) mē,jä'äy-təjk 'old people'

11 In contrast, the diminutive marker does not take primary stress:

12 (19) 'təjk-u'unk 'little house'

13 Clitics cannot bear stress, even if they are in final position.

14 In a trisyllabic word, the leftmost syllable receives secondary stress
 15 and the last syllable retains the primary stress, as in (20). If the third
 16 syllable in a trisyllabic word is a suffix, then the stress goes on the second
 17 syllable and there is no secondary stress, as in (21).

18 (20) a) [ni'ti'gi:k] 'third'

19 b) [dagam'bik^j] 's/he makes him angry'

20 c) [ajɣ:'ʌʂp] 'very poor'

21 (21) a) a'mək-ë-p 's/he has nightmares'
 22 be.sick-INV-INDEP

23 b) am'too-të-p 'they hear'
 24 hear-PL-INDEP

25 It is possible to have a secondary stress to the right of the stem, but only if
 26 there are more than two syllabic suffixes, as in (17c–d) above. In cases
 27 like this, the last syllable of the root bears primary stress and the last
 28 syllable of the word has the secondary stress. Romero adds (p. 83): “As
 29 far as I have seen, some other Mixe languages seem to have a stress
 30 pattern very similar.”

31 5.2.2. Zoque(an)

32 Three major Zoquean groups are indicated in Ethnologue, Chiapas
 33 Zoque, Oaxaca Zoque, and Veracruz Zoque, each with some subdivisions.
 34 StressTyp contains one entry for this subfamily:

1 **Zoque, Copainalá [P]**2 *Mixe-Zoque, Zoque, Chiapas Zoque.* Copainalá, Northern Chiapas
3 (Mexico).

- 4 • Primary stress falls on the penultimate syllable of the stress group.
-
- 5 • Secondary stress on the first syllable if there are three or more syllables.

6
7 ,min'keʔtpa 'he is coming again'

8 ,minsukkeʔtpa'ʔitti 'they are coming again'

9
10 According to Hurch and Rhodes (1996) clashes are allowed. All stressed
11 vowels lengthen.

12 (22) [ʔà:ná:sa] 'orange'

13 [hèʔepíkpa] 'he is breathing'

14
15 In Sierra Popoluca (Gulf Zoquean), according to Foster and Foster
16 (2008), the primary stress occurs on the penult of most parts of speech,
17 but in verbs the stress is on the final syllable.18
19 5.3. *Totonacan*20 The Totonacan family, consisting of twelve languages, is divided into two
21 major groups in Ethnologue (Lewis 2009), Tepehua and Totonac. A con-
22 siderable amount of work has been done on this language family recently,
23 which we discuss in this section. Recent work suggests that there might be
24 a relationship between Totonacan and Mixe-Zoque (see Brown, Beck,
25 Kondrak, Watters, and Wichmann forthcoming).26 McFarland (2009) cites an unpublished study by MacKay, who argues
27 that primary stress in Totonaco-Tepehua falls on the final syllable when it
28 is heavy and on the pre-final syllable when the final syllable is light. The
29 definition of heavy syllable varies from language to language, but it is
30 generally CVV or CV(V)C, where the final consonant is h, ʔ, m, n, l, y,
31 w. While this regular pattern is encountered in the various languages
32 that are discussed below, in some languages this system is broken by
33 construction-specific stress patterns and by forms which do not meet the
34 generalization. For this reason, these languages are often described as
35 having phonemic stress.
3637 5.3.1. *Tepehua*38
39 Three languages are recognized under Tepehua in Ethnologue, Huehuetla
40 Tepehua (3000 speakers), Pisaflores Tepehua (4000 speakers), and Tlachi-
chilco Tepehua (3000 speakers); all are spoken in western central Mexico.

1 5.3.1.1. Tlachichilco Tepehua

2 According to Watters (1980), Tlachichilco Tepehua has one stressed syllable
3 in a word. Prestressed syllables have mid pitch; stressed and post-stress
4 syllables are high in pitch except before pause. There are adjustments
5 in speech, with word boundaries often lost. Stress is maintained but the
6 intonation pattern suggests a single word with high pitch falling on the
7 last stressed syllable in the intonational phrase. Watters (1988) adds that
8 Tlachichilco Tepehua has stress on a final syllable if it is heavy; otherwise
9 stress is penultimate. There are two exceptions.
10

11 5.3.1.2. Huehuetla Tepehua

12 Kung (2007), in a study of Huehuetla Tepehua, is concerned largely with
13 stress placement. She distinguishes for this language three stress patterns,
14 one in native words, a second in ideophones, and a third in loanwords
15 (Kung 2007: 104). She also notes that stressed vowels are lengthened
16 (2007: 31).
17

18 In native, non-ideophonic words, there are two degrees of stress, with
19 primary stress on the ultimate, penultimate, or antepenultimate syllable;
20 its particular placement depends on syllable structure, word length, and
21 word class. More generally, Kung notes that primary stress falls on the final
22 syllable if it ends in a sonorant (m, n, l, r, ʀ) or glide (h ? w j) (23); other-
23 wise the penult is stressed (24). Long vowels do not attract primary stress
24 (25). Secondary stress is assigned to alternate syllables preceding the
25 primary stress. The first column in the examples indicates the orthographic
26 representation of the word. The examples below are taken from Kung
27 (2007: 108–123)

28 (23) Final sonorant-closed syllable

29 7akminaaw /ʔa-k-min-a/-w/ [ʔak.mi'a:u] 'we excl will come'
30 laqtz'in /laqts'in/ [laq.'ts'in] 'she sees it/him/her'
31

32 (24) Final syllable open or closed by non-sonorant

33 k'i7ut'i /ki-ʔu-t'i/ [k'i.'ʔu.ɖi] 'you eat me'
34 palata /palata/ [pa.'la.ta] 'more, better'
35 p'it'ilh /p'it'i-li/ ['bi.ɖɪ] 'she scrubbed it'
36

37 (25) Final long vowel

38 7e7eyxtaa /aqejʃta:/ [a.'ʔeiʃ.ta:] 'tree species'
39

40 There are some prefixes that cannot take primary stress, with stress
unexpectedly falling on a final syllable that ends in a non-sonorant. Kung

1 also notes that there are noun suffixes that cause violations of the stress
2 patterns.

3 Ideophones show their own stress pattern, with primary stress on the
4 first syllable and secondary stress on all subsequent syllables.

5 (26) chilili [ˈtʃi.li.li] ‘sensation of fear’
6

7 In Spanish loanwords, primary stress falls on the syllable that corre-
8 sponds to the stress-bearing syllable in Spanish, with secondary stress on
9 alternate syllables. The Spanish word is shown in the third column, with
10 its stressed syllable underlined. Only primary stress is shown.

11 (27) 7abonalaá [ʔa.βo.ˈna.la:] abonar ‘fertilize’
12 kaapeen [ka:ˈpe:n] café ‘coffee’
13 7aarreesgaalaa [ʔa:re:s.ˈga:lɑ:] arresgar ‘take a chance’
14
15

16 5.3.2. Totonac

17 Ethnologue (Lewis 2009) lists nine Totonac languages, altogether spoken
18 by some 200,000 speakers in central western Mexico. As discussed above,
19 stress generally falls on one of the last two syllables in this family, but
20 there are numerous surface counterexamples to this generalization. Length
21 and laryngealization are contrastive in these languages.
22

23 5.3.2.1. Papantla Totonac

24 In Papantla Totonac (Levy 1990: 25), primary stress is contrastive: ˈpaʃa
25 ‘take a bath 2P SG’ vs. paˈʃa ‘take a bath 1P PL’, although it generally falls
26 on the penultimate or final syllable. The first syllable of a word generally
27 bears secondary stress (MacKay 1999: 409). Levy (1991) further proposes
28 that inflectional affixes are outside the domain of stress assignment, and
29 that stress falls on the final syllable of the imperfective and the penulti-
30 mate syllable of the perfective; see MacKay (1999) for discussion. Levy
31 (1987: 107) notes that primary and secondary stress are realized phoneti-
32 cally as intensity and perhaps as ‘higher’ pitch.
33
34

35 5.3.2.2. Upper Necaxa Totonac

36 Upper Necaxa Totonac is analyzed by Beck (2004: 4) as having phonemic
37 stress, with stress differentiating words of different lexical classes and
38 marking person-aspectual distinctions in some verb classes. Stress is gen-
39 erally final in words ending in a long vowel or a closed syllable and, except
40

1 in verbs, penultimate in words ending in a short vowel. In verbs, stress is
 2 on the final syllable, except for verbs in the perfective aspect or the second
 3 person, in which case it is penultimate.

4 Stress is realized as increased duration and, to a lesser degree, as ampli-
 5 tude. Stressed short vowels are the same duration as long vowels, while
 6 stressed long vowels are not consistently longer than unstressed long
 7 vowels, but instead stress is marked with a rising tone.

8 9 5.3.2.3. Huehuetla Totonac

10 Troiani (2004) treats accent in Huehuetla Totonac as lexical, given mini-
 11 mal pairs such as 'kuku 'uncle' and ku'ku 'sand' (p. 49). Nevertheless,
 12 there are some general tendencies: every lexical root has an accent. In the
 13 verb, suffixation causes alternations in the stress pattern, such that stress is
 14 on the final syllable if it ends in m, n, y, l, w; otherwise it is on the prefinal
 15 syllable. Troiani notes that accent in nouns requires further study. Stress is
 16 realized as intensity and higher pitch, and sometimes as a slight lengthen-
 17 ing of the vowel.
 18

19 20 5.3.2.4. Misantra Totonac

21 MacKay (1994, 1999) and MacKay and Treschsel (2005) are studies of
 22 Misantra Totonac. The sources treat nominal stress and verb stress
 23 separately.

24 There are two degrees of stress in Misantra Totonac. Secondary stress is
 25 attracted to heavy syllables, which are syllables with a branching rhyme,
 26 either a long vowel or a vowel with a following consonant. Primary stress
 27 falls on either the final or penultimate syllable (MacKay 1999: 73).
 28 Phonetically, primary stress is stronger than other stresses, characterized
 29 by longer duration and greater loudness.

30 Primary stress has the word as its domain, with clitics not affected;
 31 clitics themselves are stressed and do not affect the placement of primary
 32 stress.

33 In nominals, stress falls on the penultimate syllable when the word-final
 34 syllable is light, and is attracted to a word-final heavy syllable. The exam-
 35 ples (28–9) are taken from MacKay (1999: 74).
 36

37 (28) min-paa-luu [mímpáalúu] 'your intestines'
 38 ʔukuk [ʔukúk] 'pierced'

39
40 However, word-final syllables closed by a coronal obstruent (t, s, ʃ, t̚) do
 not receive primary stress, as shown in (29):

- 1 (29) mukskut [múkskut] ‘fire’
 2 kutʃiʔ [kútʃiʔ] ‘knife’
 3

4 In general, final syllables with a long vowel are stressed even if they are
 5 closed by a coronal obstruent, although there are some exceptions.

6 MacKay also proposes some instances of lexical stress, with some
 7 stressed CVC syllables ending in a voiceless coronal. In other Totonac
 8 varieties, these words are vowel-final, with the final vowel lost in Misantla
 9 Totonac.

10 In verbs, primary stress falls on the final syllable regardless of its
 11 weight. Word-final inflectional suffixes are never stressed in word-final
 12 position. There are various complications with suffixed forms, for which
 13 MacKay introduces a type of lexical extrametricality.

14 5.3.2.5. Filomeno Mata Totonac

15 McFarland (2009) argues that the regular stress pattern proposed by
 16 MacKay, although it is often found in Filomeno Mata Totonac (examples
 17 in (30)), does not always apply (examples in (31)). Note that final voice-
 18 less vowels as in the last two examples of (30) (called latent vowels by
 19 McFarland) do not count for the purposes of stress. On the other hand,
 20 the last example in (31) is considered to have a final sonorant-closed sylla-
 21 ble. McFarland notes that forms with unpredictable stress occur in 25% of
 22 the monomorphemic items in her nominal database. Stress both fails to
 23 occur on final sonorant-closed syllables, and is found on final syllables
 24 that do not meet the conditions for stress. The following examples are
 25 taken from MacFarland (2009: 52–54):

- 26 (30) tsíisa ‘morning’
 27 súwaʔ ‘black sapote fruit’
 28 tʃíkítʃ’i ‘type of plant’
 29 ʔtantál’ə ‘naked’
 30

- 31 (31) ʃtíilan ‘chicken’
 32 tʃaalí ‘tomorrow’
 33

34 Since counterexamples are numerous, McFarland concludes that stress is
 35 lexical in Filomeno Mata Totonac.

36 McFarland notes several cases of what she terms morphological stress,
 37 or stress assigned by a suffix, as well as special stress patterns in com-
 38 pounds and ideophonic constructions. She argues that morphological
 39
 40

1 stress is associated with what she calls constructions, and not with the
 2 phonological surfacing of an affix. The stress rules are computed based
 3 on the underlying presence of suffixes, some of which do not appear on
 4 the surface. For instance, the imperfective aspect construction has final
 5 stress whether the imperfective suffix *-aa* is present or deleted (page 53).
 6 To give a few examples, the progressive aspect forms a construction that
 7 is associated with stress on the penultimate underlying syllable, as in (32)
 8 and (33).

9 (32) /paati-nan-maa/ [patináma] 'he is suffering'
 10 suffer-HAB-PROG
 11

12 (33) /ʃ-ta-ʔtata-maana-para/ [ʃtaʔtatamaanapá] 'you were listening
 13 PAST-hear2-PROG2-THERE2-2SUB.sg over there'
 14

15 To complicate matters, the second person allomorph of the progressive
 16 *-paa* is always followed by the second person singular suffix *-tj*. This suffix
 17 assigns stress to the syllable preceding *paa*.

18 (34) /taaskux-paa-tj/ [taaskúpaat^hi] 'you are working'
 19 work-PROG2-2SUB.sg
 20

21 In compounds, stress falls on the final syllable of the penult member of
 22 the compound. Sound symbolic adverbs are reduplicated forms, and take
 23 primary stress on each syllable of the reduplicant.

24 Spanish borrowings tend to have penultimate stress, regardless of where
 25 stress is found in Spanish, although some have final stress (*kapé* < *café*).

26 (35) buréko borrego 'sheep'
 27 puusikúlan saecula 'century' (Latin *saecula*; *puu* = LOC)
 28

29 Overall, there is a single stress per word which falls within a three-
 30 syllable window at its right edge, the exact position being lexically deter-
 31 mined in non-derived words and determined by the rightmost stress-
 32 choosing suffix in derived words.
 33

34 5.3.2.6. Summary

35 Accent in Totonacan languages is of interest for several reasons. First,
 36 there are category differences in stress patterns, with different patterns in
 37 nouns and verbs as well as in the onomatopoetic vocabulary in some of
 38 the languages. Second, there are construction-specific stress patterns.
 39
 40

1 Third, in Huehuetla Tepehua, consonant-closed syllables attract primary
2 stress, while lexical long vowels do not, a pattern that has been claimed
3 to not exist.

4 5.4. *Tequistlatecan*

6 Tequistlatecan, also known as Chontal of Oaxaca, has two surviving
7 varieties, Highland Chontal, with 3600 speakers, and Lowland Chontal
8 (also known as Huamelultec, Campbell 1997), with only 950 speakers
9 (Lewis 2009, Ethnologue). There is relatively little documentation avail-
10 able for these languages (see O'Connor 2007 and Maddieson, Avelino,
11 and O'Connor 2009 for discussion), and there is little discussion of the
12 stress system in the literature.

14 5.4.1. Highland Chontal

15 Highland Chontal, as discussed by Turner (1966, 1967), has a single
16 primary stress per word. This syllable is longer than unstressed syllables.

17 Turner (1966) states that stress falls on the penultimate syllable of
18 the word unless it is displaced to the final syllable because of its position
19 in the sentence. In his 1967 work, he further indicates that word stress is
20 complex, with grammatical-phonological interactions also playing a role.
21 He notes that pluralization can be indicated by a stress shift: *lenála* 'the
22 squash stem', *lenalá* 'the squash stems.' Turner also comments on clausal
23 stress, manifested as loudness on the final word.

25 5.4.2. Lowland Chontal

26 Waterhouse and Morrison (1950) make brief comments about stress in
27 Lowland Chontal, remarking that it is phonemic. They cite pairs such as
28 *sánna* 'small crawfish' and *sanná* 'star' to support this analysis.

29 O'Connor (2007) provides a brief introduction to the phonology of
30 Lowland Chontal. With respect to stress, she notes that vowel length is
31 not phonemic but it occurs especially in penultimate stressed syllables (33).

32 Maddieson, Avelino, and O'Connor (2009) is a phonetic study with
33 brief comments about stress. They note that there are five vowels (i e a o u),
34 all of which show some allophonic lengthening, frequently in pretonic
35 syllables.

37 5.5. *Mayan*

38 Mayan is a major language family, with 69 languages listed in Ethno-
39 logue. There are five major divisions, Cholan-Tzeltalan, Huastecan,
40

1 Kanjobalan-Chujean, Quichean-Mamean, and Yucatecan, each with a
 2 number of subdivisions. Three languages of the Mayan linguistic family
 3 have contrastive tone: Yucatec, Uspantec, and one dialect of Tzotzil (San
 4 Bartolo Tzotzil), and there seems to be incipient tone developing in
 5 Mochó⁹. In all these languages the use of tone is restricted. All other
 6 Mayan languages are stress-accent languages without contrastive tone. In
 7 the following a number of stress systems in Mayan languages are dis-
 8 cussed. In our classification of the Mayan languages we follow Campbell,
 9 Kaufman and Smith-Stark (1986).

10 One Mayan language is included in StressTyp.
 11

12 **Pokomchí; Poconchi [U]**
 13

14 *Mayan, Quichean-Mamean, Greater Quichean, Pocom.* North Central
 15 Guatemala.

- 16 • Stress falls on the final syllable.

17 ?e'tal 'to signal' ?au'as 'older brother' ni'naa 'my head'
 18

19
 20 5.5.1. Huastecan

21 Huastec is a Mayan language spoken in a small area of southeastern San
 22 Luis Potosí and northern Veracruz, Mexico. With the now extinct Chico-
 23 muceltec, it forms the Huestecan branch of the Mayan linguistic family.
 24 According to Edmonson (1988), stress in Huastec falls on the rightmost
 25 long vowel of the word or, if there is no long vowel, on the leftmost vowel
 26 (see also Larsen and E. Pike 1949).

27 The language has no secondary stresses, except for a single case in
 28 which primary stress is reduced to secondary stress in words derived
 29 with the compound suffix /-talaab/, which forms unpossessed abstractive
 30 nouns and seems to act as an independent phonological word: /wálab/
 31 'sin' ~ /wálabtalaab/ 'sinfulness'. Some suffixes may trigger changes in the
 32 stress pattern. Unstressed syllables show a tendency towards centralization.

33 A similar analysis of Huastec is proposed in Herrera (2010), who pro-
 34 vides the following examples (observe the lengthening of the stressed
 35 vowel in the adaptation of loans from Spanish (36h–i)):
 36
 37
 38

39 _____
 40 9. Lyle Campbell, personal communication.

- 1 (36) Huastec (Herrera 2010: 3)
 2 (a) tá.mu ‘I have met him’
 3 (b) kí.θib ‘arena’
 4 (c) pák.laθ ‘bent’
 5 (d) pa.t’áal ‘iron’
 6 (e) láab.lij ‘to bless’
 7 (f) tek’θáal ‘to cook’
 8 (g) pa.lu.lúul ‘very soft’
 9 (h) léetsa (<Sp. leche [létʃe]) ‘milk’
 10 (i) lanáaʃ (<Sp naranja [naránxa]) ‘orange’

14 As the examples in (36) show, primary stress is on the leftmost syllable,
 15 unless the word contains a long vowel, in which case the long vowel
 16 attracts stress. Syllables closed by a consonant are not considered heavy
 17 for the purposes of stress. Herrera agrees with Edmonson (1988) that there
 18 are no secondary stresses in Huastec.

20 5.5.2. Yucatecan

21 Yucatec Maya is spoken in the Yucatán Peninsula, northern Belize, and
 22 parts of Guatemala. Together with Lacondón, Mopán, and Itzá, Yucatec
 23 forms the Yucatecan branch of the Mayan linguistic family. The number
 24 of Yucatec Maya speakers is estimated between 800,000 and 1.2 million,
 25 for most of whom the native language remains their first language. In
 26 Yucatec Maya, syllables can have short and long vowels, which, following
 27 Gussenhoven and Teeuwen (2008), we will refer to as short and long syllables.
 28 Long syllables come in three types from the point of view of word
 29 prosody. In (37) below the long syllable types are contrasted with each
 30 other and with the short syllable.

- 32 (37) Gussenhoven and Teeuwen (2008). Examples from Pike (1946)
 33 Short ʔek ‘wasp’
 34 Long High kóot ‘wall’
 35 Long Low ʔaak ‘turtle’
 36 Glottalized ku’uk ‘squirrel’
 37

38
 39 According to Gussenhoven and Teeuwen, “There are no reliable state-
 40 ments on the word stress in the language [...] our tonal analysis suggests

1 that the prosodic syllable types listed [...] are stressed syllables”. The
 2 argument the authors provide for their hypothesis is that tone is
 3 contrastive only in long syllables and word-initial short syllables. This
 4 hypothesis may also explain why long syllables are rarely adjacent in
 5 the same word. It should be observed that, if contrastive tone is on the
 6 stressed syllable, the stress rule for Yucatec Maya looks identical to the
 7 one just seen for Huastec, which has no contrastive tone. Gussenhoven
 8 and Teeuwen propose the following account of surface tones in stressed
 9 syllables:

10 (38) Analysis of Yucatec Maya stressed syllables (Gussenhoven and
 11 Teeuwen 2008)

12	Long High	originates from a lexical H-tone, which becomes
13		linked to the syllable
14	Long Low	receives a default L-Tone
15	Glottalized	originates from a lexical H-tone linked to the
16		first mora
17	Short	receives a default L-tone
18		
19		

20 Unstressed syllables, i.e. accentless words such as function words and non-
 21 initial short syllables, fall outside the association domain for lexical tones
 22 and acquire no default tones themselves, except for an inserted L-tone,
 23 which appears at the sentence level on a toneless mora or syllable between
 24 H-tones.

25 A different account of Yucatec Maya tone is proposed by Frazier
 26 (2009a, 2009b), who observes that, whereas the pitch contour of high
 27 tone vowels is variable depending on the context, the pitch contour of
 28 glottalized vowels is always falling. As an explanation of this behaviour
 29 Frazier suggests that the mora can bear glottalization features in addition
 30 to tonal features and that in Yucatec Maya tone cannot be moved to
 31 a mora that bears glottalization features. This hypothesis clears the way
 32 for an account in which the mora is the only tone bearing unit in all long
 33 syllables, as described below:

34 (39) Analysis of Yucatec Maya stressed syllables (Frazier 2009a)

35	$\dot{\mu} \mu$	$\acute{\mu} \mu$	$\grave{\mu} \mu$
36	∨	∨	∨
37	V	V	V
38	low tone	high tone	glottalized
39			
40			

1 In Itzaj Maya, another language of the Yucatecan branch, stress generally falls on the first syllable of the root as well as on alternate syllables.
 2 In addition, stress falls on long syllables (defined as VV or Vʔ¹⁰), wherever they occur. Phrasal stress is on the last syllable of the phrase and supersedes word-level stress (compare *winik* ‘man’ in the sequences (40a–c)).
 3 In the examples below, we have marked the phrase-final stress with an acute accent, all other stresses with a grave accent; brackets (added by
 4 the authors of this chapter) indicate foot structure.

- 9 (40) Itzaj Maya (Hofling 2000: 6–8; foot structure added by ourselves)
 10 a. (àʔ) (wì.nik)(-éʔ) ‘the man’
 11 DET man-TOP
 12 b. winík ‘man’
 13 c. (nùk-uch) (wìnik)(-óoʔ) ‘great men’
 14 great-ADJ man-PL
 15 d. (àʔ) (nùk-uch) (wìnik)(-òoʔ)(-éʔ) ‘the great men’
 16 DET great-ADJ man-PL-TOP
 17
 18

19 As we have tried to express by the brackets in the examples above, the basic stress system of Itzaj appears to follow a left-to-right moraic trochee rhythm, with the primary stress rule (rightmost syllable) applying at the phrasal level. Only long vowels and Vʔ sequences are bimoraic. Some variations to this basic structure may be heard. For example, a stress may be optionally suppressed before a stress, such that [àʔwì.nikéʔ] ‘the man’ may also be pronounced [aʔwì.nikéʔ], without initial stress.

27 5.5.3. Mamean

28 The language Mam is spoken in the northwestern highlands of Guatemala. It belongs to the Mamean subbranch of the Eastern Mayan languages, along with Teco, Ixil, and Aguacatec. The main stress system of Mam is described by England (1983: 37) as predictable in accordance with the following rules: stress falls on a long vowel in the word (41a–b);
 29 if there is no long vowel, stress falls on the vowel preceding the last glottal
 30
 31
 32
 33
 34

35
 36 10. The fact that both [VV] and [Vʔ] define a bimoraic sequence, but not [VC],
 37 where C is a non-glottal stop, suggests a phonological analysis of [Vʔ] as
 38 /VVʔ/, where the superscript glottal stop defines a distinctive laryngeal property of the long vowel, rather than an independent glottal consonant (compare
 39 Frazier’s analysis of glottalized vowels in Yucatec Maya).
 40

1 stop in the word (41c); if there is no long vowel and no postvocalic glottal
 2 stop, stress falls on the vowel preceding the last consonant in the root
 3 (41d–e). In the dialect of Mam studied by England, spoken in the town
 4 of San Ildefonso Ixtahuacán in the department of Huehuetenango, there
 5 is a constraint against more than one long vowel per word.

- 6 (41) Mam (England, 1983: 37–38)
 7
 8 a. /aq^huuntl/ [ʔaqú:ntl] ‘work’
 9 b. /waq^hnaaya/ [waqná^h:yə] ‘I worked’
 10 c. /pu^hlaʔ/ [pu^hláʔ] ‘dipper’
 11 d. /spiky^ha/ [spík^hʔə] ‘clear’
 12 e. /xpichaq^h/ [ʃ:pičáq^h] ‘raccoon’
 13

14
 15 In Mam, short unstressed vowels are neutralized to [ə] after a stressed
 16 vowel (cf. 41b/d) or (less frequently) are deleted. When a suffix with a
 17 long vowel is added to a stem with a long vowel, either the long vowel of
 18 the stem or the one in the suffix is shortened, conditioned by morphologi-
 19 cal factors. There is also a constraint against glottal stops following short
 20 vowels in words with a long vowel. As we have also seen in Itzaj Maya, in
 21 Mam long vowels as well as sequences of a short vowel plus a glottal stop
 22 act as stress attractors, in keeping with the prominence scale /VV/ > /Vʔ/.
 23 This fact, as well as their natural class behaviour as regards the ban
 24 against their co-occurrence inside words, points to an analysis of /Vʔ/ as
 25 /VVʔ/.

26 Hyman (2006: 239–40) also discusses Mam, with specific reference to
 27 the long vowel constraint, which stipulates that only one long vowel is
 28 allowed per word and that the presence of a long vowel disallows the
 29 presence of a glottalized vowel in the same word. According to Willard
 30 (2004: 41), a suffix may be dominant or recessive, independent of whether
 31 it has a long or short vowel itself, as is illustrated below:

- 32 (42) Dominant/recessive vowel length in Mam
 33
 34 a. recessive short suffix /ooq^h-b^hil/ ooq^h-b^hil ‘sth. that causes crying’
 35 b. recessive long suffix /b^hiitz-oo-/ b^hiitz-a- ‘sing’
 36 c. dominant short suffix /q^hooj-le^hn/ q^hoj-le^hn ‘state of fighting’
 37 d. dominant long suffix /liich^h-ich^hiin/ lich^h-ich^hiin ‘breakable’
 38

39 When a suffix is recessive (42a, b), length is preserved on the preceding
 40 root. If both the recessive suffix and the root have a long vowel, as in

1 (42b), only root length is preserved but when a suffix is dominant, as in
 2 (42c, d), the root vowel ends up short. Hyman notes that while the
 3 shortening seen in (42d) can also be attributed to culminativity, that in
 4 (42c) it cannot be: the dominant short-vowel suffix imposes a short vowel
 5 on the root as well. If the sequence V glottal stop is analyzed as having a
 6 long vowel, as suggested above, then the suffix in (42c) is a dominant long
 7 suffix.

8 Another Mamean language, Aguacateco [L/L], has stress on the last
 9 long vowel, or on the last syllable in case there are no long vowels
 10 (McArthur and McArthur (1956).

12 5.5.4. Quichean

13 Tzutujil belongs to the Quichean subbranch of the Eastern Mayan lan-
 14 guages, along with Quiché, Sacapultec, Cakchikel, and Sipacapeño. The
 15 language has about 50,000 speakers, who live in midwestern Guatemala,
 16 in an area that extends from the highlands on the southern and western
 17 ends of lake Atotlán to the lowlands on the southern Pacific coastal plain.
 18 Stress in Tzutujil native vocabulary is always on the last syllable (43a–b).
 19 The only exception is the ‘connecting’ vowel, which is suffixed to mono-
 20 syllabic adjectives that function as modifiers when preceding their head
 21 noun. The connecting vowel is always unstressed.

23 (43) Tzutujil (Dayley 1985: 29–30)

24	a.	aachi	[a:čí]	‘man’
25	b.	achajiloom	[ačaxiló:mm̩]	‘husband’
26	c.	b'áaka (Sp. vaca)	[b'áaka]	‘cow’
27	d.	serb' íisyo (Sp. servicio)	[serɛbí:syo]	‘service’
28	e.	b'yáaja (Sp. viaje)	[b'yá:xa]	‘trip’
29	f.	kape (Sp. café)	[kapé]	‘coffee’
30	g.	lugaar (Sp. lugar)	[lugá:r̩]	‘place’

33 Stress in loans from Spanish is not predictable, but appears to keep the
 34 position it occupies in Spanish words (32c–g), at least in the examples pro-
 35 vided by Dayley.

36 In Quiché, stress falls on the final syllable (Mayers 1966).

38 5.5.6. Kanjobalan

39 The Tojolabal live in Chiapas, Mexico. Their language belongs to the
 40 ‘Kanjobalan proper’ subbranch of Western Maya. In Tojolabal (Furbee-

1 Losee 1976: 184–185), main stress is on the first vowel of the root, except,
 2 again, in Spanish loans. Moreover, at the phrasal level, the last syllable
 3 is always stressed, which produces alternations in the position of stress:
 4 /číníl/ ‘early childhood’ is realized as [číníl] phrase-initially/medially, but
 5 as [číníl] phrase finally. When two primary stresses arise in sequence,
 6 the first one is reduced to a secondary stress. A similar stress pattern is
 7 described by Day (1973) for Jacalteco.

9 5.5.7. Cholan-Tzeltalan

10 The situation described for Tojolabal compares with the one described by
 11 Haviland (1981) for the language Tzotzil, a member of the Tzeltolan sub-
 12 branch of the Cholan-Tzeltalan branch, spoken by around 300,00 speakers
 13 in the state of Chiapas, Mexico. According to Haviland (1981), primary
 14 stress falls on the leftmost syllable of the root. An even stronger stress is
 15 on the final syllable of a phrase or utterance (as before, in the words
 16 below, the grave accent marks word-level primary stress, whereas the
 17 acute accent marks the stronger phrase-final stress):
 18

19 (44) Tzotzil (Haviland 1981: 14)

- 20 a. jvábajóm ‘musician’
 21 b. li jvábajomé ‘the musician’
 22 c. chtàl li jvábajomé ‘the musician arrives’
 23 d. ?ali jvábajomé, chtàl xá ‘the musician arrives already’
 24
 25

26 The language Tzeltal is closely related to Tzotzil and seems to have a very
 27 similar pattern. According to Gerdel (1974) the stress is ‘stress-group
 28 final’. Secondary stress on the first syllable in stress groups of three
 29 syllables.¹¹
 30

31 5.6. Misumalpan

32 The Misumalpan family of Nigeragua contains Mískito (with 145,000
 33 speakers), Sumo (with 7000 speakers) and the extinct Matagalpa and
 34 Cacaopera. StressTyp contains an entry for Mískito, which has initial
 35 stress:
 36
 37
 38
 39

40 11. See also John Haviland, Stuart Robinson & Esteban Gutierrez. An On-line
 Tzotzil Grammar: <http://www.cerf.net/esteban/Tzotzil/>

1 **Mískito [I]**

2 *Misumalpan*. Nicaragua, Honduras.

- 3 • Stress falls on the first syllable of the word.

4
5 'wal 'two' 'utla 'house' 'lawana 'song'

6
7 5.7. *Language isolates*

8 A number of isolates are reported for this area:

- 9
10 (45) Extant isolates: Tol, Seri, Huave, Tarascan (P'urhépecha), Xincan
11 Extinct isolates: Cuitlatec, Naolan, Maratiton, Guaicurian (a family),
12 Alagīlac
13

14 Several of these have entries in StressTyp. Here we provide information
15 about the extant isolates only.

16
17 5.7.1. Tol

18 **Tol; Jicaque [U/P]**

19 *Language Isolate*. Honduras, with about 350 speakers.

- 20 • Stress is usually final if the last syllable is closed, otherwise stress is
21 penultimate.

22
23 'bele 'he talks' na'cʔom 'my wife'
24 nanʔku'pwepe 'left' phes'mas 'skunk'

25
26
27 5.7.2. Seri

28 **Seri [F/F]**

29 *Hokan, Salinan-Seri*. Mexico, Gulf of California. 900 speakers

- 30 • Stress falls on the first complex nucleus of the root, else on the first.
31 • Other complex nuclei bear secondary stress.

32
33 'xpeyo 'sailfish' xa'po: 'sea lion' la'χi:ktim placename

34
35 In Marlett (2008), a different analysis is presented of stress in Seri. This
36 analysis places stress on the final syllable of the root if heavy, otherwise
37 stress is on the penultimate syllable of the root; here, a final VC counts as
38 light. This system then is not unbounded in this analysis. Long vowels and
39 diphthongs only occur contrastively in stressed syllables. This, we take it,
40 implies that such units only occur in the final or prefinal root syllable.

1 There is a bimoraic requirement for the minimal word (which excludes
2 non-major class words). The following examples support the right edge
3 QS analysis:

4	(46)	ʔéʔε	‘plant’	táʃo	‘one’
5		ʔákat	‘shark’	áʃox	‘star’
6		kákni	‘wood ibis’	ʔasʎa	‘Pacific calico scallop’
8		kópʎim	‘nighthawk’	koʔtox	‘a century plant’
9		ʔa:ko	‘house’	sé:ne	‘kindling wood’
10		mó:χon	‘spotted scorpion fish’	sé:nel	‘butterfly’
13		komína	‘Coulter bickel bush’	moχíma	‘yesterday’
15		kanókni	(Heermann’s Gull)’	toʃípʎa	‘side-blotched lizard’
17		kamíʃxix	‘a venus clam’	ʃakápnix	‘ball of dirt or fruit’
18		komá:naʎ	‘yerba mansa’	ʔamí:me	‘sky’
19		takaʃáka	‘inchworm’	kaskamána	‘an unidentified stinkbug’

21 The calculation of the heaviness of the final syllable is dependent on
22 consonant extrametricality.

24	(47)	final VV:	ʔataʎʔá:	‘to buy’
25			χomkaʔái	‘an unidentified small round flounder’
26		final VVC	koká:k	‘Seri people’
27			χomkaʔóix	‘a cholla-like cactus’
28			saʔmé:s	‘orange (fruit)’
29				
30		final VCC	moχʔámt	‘last year’
31			sapátx	‘sweetbush’
32				

33 Marlett notes a number of roots that must be analyzed with an extra-
34 metrical root final syllable:

36	(48)	ká:mopχα	‘white-lined sphinx moth’
37		só:kaxam	‘winged pearl oyster’
38		kótotax	‘boojum tree’
39		ʔásotox	‘a grunt’
40			

1 Examples like the first two in (48) might suggest “that stress may occur
2 even farther to the left because of the long vowel”, and this may have
3 prompted the earlier unbounded analysis. However, the remaining exam-
4 ples in (48) suggest that syllable extrametricality is independently moti-
5 vated in the system.

6 There are, furthermore, exceptions to consonant extrametricality:

7 (49) ʔamák ‘fire’ imoʃít ‘its half’
8

9 Finally, Marlett mentions examples that fail to have final stress despite the
10 fact that the final syllable ends in two consonants.

11 (50) χníkatɬ ‘(Colorado snapper)’
12 jasámikt ‘its tail (of the black sea turtle)’
13

14 Further complications exist in this system and we refer to Marlett (2008)
15 for additional discussion.

17 5.7.3. Huave

18 The 12,000 Huave live in Eastern central Mexico. Kim (2008: 35) reports
19 that “[m]uch of Huave prosody is as yet uninvestigated.” Stress appears to
20 be final and there is no clear evidence for secondary stress or syllable
21 weight distinctions. Other work on Huave can be found in Noyer (1991)
22 and Evanini (2007).
23

24 5.7.4. Tarascan

25 For Tarascan, the Ethnologue distinguishes the languages Purepecha
26 (40,000 speakers) and Western Highland Purepecha (145,000 speakers).
27

28 **Purépecha; Tarasco; Tarascan [I;S]**

29 *Language Isolate*. Michoacán (Mexico).

- 30 • Stress is initial or on the second syllable.

31 'patani ‘to extinguish the fire’ ka'rani ‘to write’
32 xa'potʃ^haakani ‘I will wash my head’
33
34

35 We find a different description in Friedrich (1984: 78–79). Stress is final
36 in roots, which are mostly disyllabic. After the ‘main stress’ there is an
37 alternating pattern of secondary stresses. Final unstressed vowels devoice
38 before pause and final unstressed /i/ and /i/ are deleted before coronal
39 consonants and ‘open juncture’ or pause. Also, final root vowels or ‘theme
40 vowels’ are dropped before conjugational endings. In the general descrip-

1 tion of the phonology we notice examples such as téeksa- ‘stumble’
 2 (p. 79), tperi ‘fallow land’ (77), which suggest that stress is not always
 3 root final.

4 5.7.5. Xincan, Lencan

6 Xincan is a small family of Guatemala that consists of four languages, all
 7 of which are extinct or near extinction. Campbell (1997: 166) notes that
 8 stress falls on the vowel preceding the last consonant, or __C(V)#.

9 Lencan is a family consisting of two languages, Salvadorian Lenca and
 10 Honduran Lenca. Both languages are extinct (Campbell 1976).

11 Campbell (1976: 78), based on work with one speaker of Salvadorian
 12 Lenca, notes that stress is generally on the penultimate syllable, with
 13 some exceptions.

14 5.8. Southern Uto-Aztecan

16 In the remaining sections we turn to the language families the languages of
 17 which are not entirely spoken within Middle America, beginning with
 18 Uto-Aztecan languages. Most of these languages are found in the United
 19 States, but the Southern branch of the Uto-Aztecan family has representa-
 20 tives in Middle America, specifically in Mexico.

21 5.8.1. Pimic: Tepehuan

22 Southeastern Tepehuan is represented in StressTyp.

23 **Tepehuan, Southeastern (dialect of Tepehuan) [I/I] S-E Tepehuan** 24 **11,000 speakers**

25 *Uto-Aztecan, Southern Uto-Aztecan, Sonoran, Tepiman, Southern*
 26 *Tepehuan. Chihuahua, Durango, Nayarit, Sonora, Jalisco (Mexico).*

- 27 • Primary stress occurs on the second syllable of the stem if it contains a
 28 long vowel and the first does not. In all other cases, stress is initial.
- 29 • Secondary stresses on alternate syllables, respecting vowel length.
- 30 • Prefixes do not count for stress assignment.

31 'vaavaʃ 'pheasant' ha'hooñi? 'wives'
 32 hir ko'maarak 'it is wide' hir 'koo?kmarak 'they are wide'

33 5.8.2. Taracahitic: Mayo

34 The almost 40,000 or so speakers of Mayo live in the Mexican states of
 35 Sinaloa and Sonora. In Mayo, high tone is restricted to occurring on either
 36

1 the first or second syllable of a word (Hagberg 2006). Toneless syllables
 2 are L when they occur between the last H and pause, otherwise they are
 3 M. The location of the H is usually a lexical property of roots:

- 4
 5 (51) a. Initial syllable H
 6 chúpnake ‘will harvest’ (tr.)
 7 hí-chupnake ‘will harvest’ (intr.)
 8 hí-hi-chupnake ‘will always harvest (intr.)
 9
 10 b. 2nd syllable H
 11 ponnáke ‘will play’ (tr.)
 12 hi-pónnake ‘will play’ (intr.)
 13 hi-hí-ponnake ‘will always play’ (intr.)
 14

15 In both types, the H tone moves to the left when prefixes are present.
 16 While other Uto-Aztecan languages assign stress from the left edge of the
 17 word, Hagberg analyzes Mayo with a floating H tone whose placement is
 18 determined by roots: “While most theories allow for lexically contrastive
 19 stress, they do not allow lexical accent to float, and yet this is clearly
 20 what happens. Since floating tone is incontrovertibly attested in a number
 21 of other languages, I conclude that Mayo has underlying autosegmental
 22 tone, not accent.” (p. 7).
 23

24 5.8.3. Corachol-Aztecan

25 5.8.3.1. Huichol

26
 27 The 20,000 speakers of Huichol live in Northeast Nayarit and northwest
 28 Jalisco, Mexico. According to Iturrioz (1999), the default position for
 29 stress in Huichol is the penultimate syllable, but some words have final or
 30 antepenultimate stress. Inflectional suffixes are always unstressed (even
 31 those consisting of two syllables) as a result of which in words with inflec-
 32 tional suffixes, the accent may be located further from the right edge than
 33 described by the rules above.
 34

35 5.8.2.2. Nahuatl

36
 37 The Nahuatl family forms the southernmost representative of the Uto-
 38 Aztecan stock and, with one and a half million speakers, it has the greatest
 39 number of speakers of all the indigenous languages of Mexico.

40 Tetelcingo Nahuatl is listed in StressTyp.

1 **Nahuatl, Tetelcingo [P]**

2 *Uto-Aztecan, Southern Uto-Aztecan, Aztecan, Gen. Aztec, Aztec.*
 3 Tetelcingo (Mexico).

- 4 • Stress occurs on the penultimate syllable.
 5 • Otherwise stress falls on the first syllable in verbs and the second in
 6 nouns.

7
 8 'kaktli 'sandal' ka'laki 'enter'

9 a'yohtli 'squash'

10
 11 Nahuatl has many dialects in which, most of the time, stress occurs on the
 12 penultimate syllable of the derived word, with inflectional morphemes
 13 being stress-neutral (Andrews 2003).

14 According to Canger (2000), the penultimate stress accent, which is
 15 predictable in most other dialects of Nahuatl is less stable/predictable in
 16 the Durango variety of Nahuatl, where both final and antepenultimate
 17 stress occur in addition to the default penultimate stress:

18 (52) kinán titóh? 'What is your name?'

19 itokáloha 'they may be named'

20 káskara 'shell'

21
 22 Morphology also plays a limited role. Thus, for example, verbs appear to
 23 have stem-final stress in the plural of certain tenses, while the penultimate
 24 syllable of the stem is stressed in the singular:

25 (53) ki-tása 'he throws'

26 ki-tasál 'they throw'

27
 28 Also, some suffixes attract stress, such as, for example, the imperfect
 29 suffix:

30 (54) ki-tasa-l-á 'he threw'

31
 32 Canger's discussion of adverbs, however, implies that there is some sensi-
 33 tivity to weight, since "they are stressed according to a general rule assign-
 34 ing ultimate stress to those ending in a consonant and penultimate stress
 35 to those ending in a vowel" (p. 377):

36 (55) áso 'maybe'

37 demás 'too'

38
 39 Also, according to Canger, nouns may be diacritically marked for stress.
 40

1 Guion et al (2009) examine Balsas Nahuatl and Ahuelican Nahuatl,
 2 arguing that a mixed stress accent/tone system developed when an F0 con-
 3 tour specification over syllables with breathy codas (co-articulation effect)
 4 was reanalyzed as a phonological tonal specification. According to these
 5 authors, the two dialects of Nahuatl they have examined are the only
 6 ones that have developed tone in addition to a stress accent.

7 According to Robinson (1969) Puebla Nahuatl has contrastive stress,
 8 realized as higher pitch and greater duration. He distinguishes “primary,
 9 secondary, and tertiary accent” but it seems that his “secondary” and
 10 “primary” accents correspond to phrase- and clause-level accents instead
 11 of accents within a single word. The default placement of accent in the
 12 prosodic word is penultimate. Most cases of suffixation causes the accent
 13 to shift to the right, as expected. There are some suffixes, however, whose
 14 presence does not cause accent shift, resulting in an antepenultimate
 15 pattern.

16 5.8.2.2.2. Pipil

18 The almost extinct Pipil language is spoken in El Salvador (and originally
 19 also in Honduras). According to Campbell (1985), Pipil has predictable
 20 penultimate stress with some dialects having final accent due to syncope
 21 of penultimate high vowels in certain environments. Spanish loanwords
 22 can have differing patterns.

24 5.9. *Chibchan*

26 The Chibchan languages are found from Honduras in Central America to
 27 Colombia and Venezuela in South America. In this section, we focus
 28 on the Chibchan languages of Honduras, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, and
 29 Panama.

30 Quesada (2007), based on work by Constenla (1989, 1991, 1995), proposes
 31 the following organization of the Chibchan languages. Paya (Honduras,
 32 also called Pech) constitutes a branch of its own, distinguished from one
 33 other group, the Southern languages. The Southern languages divide into
 34 three subgroups, Pota and Isthmian, of interest here, and Magdalenian
 35 (languages of South America). Pota has two languages, Rama (Nicara-
 36 gua) and Guatuso (Costa Rica; also called Meléku Jaíka), Isthmus divides
 37 into several groups: Viceita, consisting of Bribri (Costa Rica) and Cabécar
 38 (Costa Rica), Teribe (Costa Rica, Panama; also called Naso), Boruca
 39 (Costa Rica; also called Brunca), Guaymian, consisting of Guaymí (Costa
 40 Rica, Panama; also called Ngäbére, Movere, Move), and Bocotá (Costa

1 Rica, Panama; also called Buglere), Doracic, with the extinct Chánguena
 2 and Dorasque, and Cuna (Panama, Columbia; also spelled Kuna). This
 3 classification is somewhat different from the one in Ethnologue (Lewis
 4 2009).

5 Constenla (1981) reconstructs the sound system of Proto-Chibchan,
 6 proposing three suprasegmentals, stress, tone, and nasalization. Constenla
 7 proposes that stress was lexical. Several of the languages exhibit tone
 8 contrasts, which leads Constenla to reconstruct high and low tones for
 9 Proto-Chibchan. While nasalization is not under focus here, it is worthy
 10 of mention as it has prosodic properties.

11 According to Holt (1986, 1999), Paya has two tones, high and low, and
 12 perhaps an extra low tone. There is some tone assimilation. Holt suggests
 13 that there may be two levels of stress, primary and secondary. Stress is
 14 claimed to be predictable on the basis of underlyingly marked tone as
 15 well as from the position of thematic/stem syllables in longer forms. In
 16 verbs, primary stress is typically associated with the last syllable of the
 17 stem. Holt also observes that long vowels occur with full length only in
 18 stressed, open syllables; they are relatively short in closed and unstressed
 19 syllables.

20 The Pota languages, Rama and Guatuso, are non-tonal, as is Cuna,
 21 while the remainder of the Central American Chibchan languages are
 22 classified as tonal (Quesada 2007: 53). Some have only high and low tone
 23 (Paya, Boruca, Guaymí), whereas some others have additional tones (e.g.,
 24 Bribri has four tones, high, low, rising, and falling).

25 While many of the Chibchan languages show reflexes of tone, in Teribe
 26 tone is marginal (Quesada 2000: 37, Oakes 2001: 8). High and low tones
 27 are found in some cases; for instance, tone occurs with colour terms,
 28 indicating colours that are not prototypical, as in *díndin* ‘blue’ vs. *dindin*
 29 ‘light blue’. Quesada claims that stress is phonological, i.e. predictable,
 30 but is affected by sentence stress and is marginal. Word stress generally
 31 falls on the first syllable, but exceptionally on the last syllable. Stress is
 32 dependent on tone and causes a slight lengthening of the vowel (Quesada
 33 (2000: 39)). Contrary to Quesada’s findings, Oakes describes Teribe stress
 34 as unpredictable.

35 According to Quesada (2007: 54), in the Isthmian languages generally,
 36 the root-final syllable is stressed. Constenla (1981) traces this situation
 37 back to Proto-Chibchan, through the loss of final unstressed vowels.

38 Bribri and Cabécar, both tonal languages, have contrastive tone only
 39 on the final syllable, with preceding syllables being tonally neutral. Bribri
 40

1 has four tones (high, low, rising, falling), while Cabécar has three tones
 2 (low, rising, falling; Constenla 1981). Pre-final syllables are also more
 3 limited in terms of vowel quality contrasts, and vowels are shorter and
 4 weaker (Costenla 1981). In addition, nasalization is contrastive only on
 5 the final vowel, and extends leftwards (Constenla 1985).

6 In Boruca, with two tones, high and low, valency alternations may be
 7 indicated by tone, as in the following pairs: *ahd.Rá* ‘(he) abandons’ versus
 8 *áhd.ra* ‘(he) remains’ and *ráhd.ra* ‘(he) goes out’ versus *rahd.rá* ‘(he) takes
 9 out’ (Quesada 2007: 54).

10 Margery (1996: 23) discusses the phonology of Bocotá de Chiriquí,
 11 described as having two suprasegmentals, nasalization and accent; he calls
 12 the language ‘una lengua acentual’. Margery provides a number of mini-
 13 mal pairs for accent: *gúde* ‘eat’ versus *gudé* ‘feline’; *gí.ri* versus ‘after’ *gí.rí*
 14 ‘scabies’; *bá* ‘you (sp.usted)’ versus *ba* ‘form’.

15 Holmer (1946), in his discussion of Cuna as spoken on the San Blas
 16 coast of Panama, reports that syllable stress is even on all syllables except
 17 those with ‘supershort’ vowels. These occur in the last syllable of a stress
 18 unit of more than one syllable, and are generally syncopated (page 187).

19

20

21 6. Conclusions

22

23 The languages of Middle America exhibit many interesting properties with
 24 respect to accent.

25 We have seen that the root is the locus for stress in the Oto-Mangean
 26 languages. In this group, the number of syllables contained in the root
 27 varies among the different languages. In its largest expansion, the root
 28 counts two syllables. Main stress may be on the only root syllable avail-
 29 able or, when the root consists of two syllables, on the first or the second
 30 syllable.

31 In many languages of this area, stressed syllables are heavy on the
 32 surface. In some cases, stress is attracted to heavy syllables, while in other
 33 cases syllables lengthen in response to stress, with either vowels or con-
 34 sonants becoming long. The majority of the Mixe-Zoquean languages
 35 have right-edge oriented stress, which is at least in part weight-sensitive.
 36 Similarly, main stress distribution is quantity-sensitive in the Totonacan
 37 languages, where it is moreover dependent on the lexical category, with
 38 different patterns in nouns and verbs in some languages. Stress falls on
 39 the final syllable when it is heavy (generally CVV or CV(V)C). Equally,
 40 in different ways in the different languages, stress is quantity-sensitive in

1 a number of the linguistic isolates, such as Seri, some of the Southern Uto-
 2 Aztec languages, and Xincan. In Huehuetla Tepehua, syllables closed
 3 by a consonant attract primary stress, while lexical long vowels do not, a
 4 pattern that has been claimed to not exist. The lexical distinction between
 5 nouns and verbs is equally relevant for stress location in Tetelcingo
 6 Nahuatl.

7 In a number of the Middle American languages there is an interaction
 8 between tone and stress, with some clear cases of tone being limited to the
 9 stressed syllable, and some less clear cases of stress attracted to (one of)
 10 the high toned syllable(s). In some of the Mayan languages, stress is
 11 attracted to syllables containing long vowels (of which there is usually
 12 only one per stress domain), with the leftmost syllable as the location for
 13 default stress in words without a long vowel. Huastec, Mam (with some
 14 more complexities), and Yucatec Maya are examples, the latter showing
 15 moreover a tone opposition restricted to the stressed syllable. Some of
 16 the Middle American Chibchan languages, most of which make use of
 17 (some degree of) tone at the lexical level, are repeatedly analyzed as mixed
 18 systems with stress attracted to tone.

19 Finally, with Spanish being the official language of all the Middle-
 20 American nations, all the traditional languages have borrowed words
 21 from Spanish. This makes Middle America an interesting area for testing
 22 theories of loan phonology. As it turns out, the different native languages
 23 differ in their response to loanwords, with some of them maintaining the
 24 original Spanish stress patterns, others adapting the loans to the canonical
 25 stress patterns of their own language, and still others assigning stress to
 26 loanwords in a way that is different from both the native stress rules and
 27 the original Spanish stress.

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