

UC Berkeley

UC Berkeley Previously Published Works

Title

A corpus-based study of variation in and extension of two Paraguayan Guaraní nasalisation patterns

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/8bk4270q>

Author

Russell, Katherine R

Publication Date

2025-04-09

Peer reviewed

A corpus-based study of variation in and extension of two Paraguayan Guaraní nasalisation patterns

Katherine R. Russell

October 18, 2024

Abstract

In Paraguayan Guaraní (PG), nasalisation processes affect material to both the left and right of a stressed nasal vowel. While some prior literature has claimed that bidirectional harmony is active in the language, others have noted that progressive nasalisation appears to be morpheme-specific and likely dependent on a different mechanism than regressive nasal harmony. Recent work shows that Spanish-origin lexical items participate in regressive nasal harmony, but the interactions of etymological origin and progressive nasalisation remain unclear. Drawing on a corpus of 26 sociolinguistic interviews as well as elicitation with native speakers of PG, I argue that the mechanisms underlying the two types of nasalisation in the language are in fact different. I propose that PG regressive nasalisation is best analyzed as productive nasal harmony, while progressive nasalisation represents a case of morpheme-specific allomorphy. Additionally, though the PG pattern of regressive nasal harmony has been extended to items of Spanish origin, this is not the case for progressive nasalisation. This corpus study provides invaluable insight into the specific factors that condition variation in nasalisation processes, contributing to a growing literature investigating variable application of harmony.

1 Introduction

Two directions of nasalisation — regressive (leftward) and progressive (rightward) — are attested in Paraguayan Guaraní (referred to throughout with the initialism PG; ISO: gug), a Tupí-Guaraní language spoken by around 6.5 million people, primarily in Paraguay. Segments preceding a stressed nasal vowel are realized as anticipatorily nasalised: this is visible in (1a), as nasality spreads leftward from the root-final stressed vowel /ẽ/ in the root ‘arrive’. Nasalisation of a suffix or enclitic is also attested, triggered by the same root-final stressed vowel: the enclitic meaning ‘until’ surfaces with an initial nasal in (1a), as opposed to the initial voiceless stop of the same morpheme in an oral context (1b).¹

- (1) a. mbaʔe'ʋe nd-o-j'ko=j ă-ŋ^wă'hẽ=mẽʋe
nothing NEG-3.A-be=NEG 1SG.A-arrive=until
‘Nothing happened until I arrived.’
b. mbaʔe'ʋe nd-o-j'ko=j a-'ha=peʋe
nothing NEG-3.A-be=NEG 1SG.A-go=until
‘Nothing happened until I left.’

20210301_mcg

Drawing on data like that in (1), some previous work has claimed that PG represents a case of bidirectional harmony (Lunt, 1973; Goldsmith, 1976). Others have noted, however, that progressive nasalisation seems morpheme-specific (Lapierre & Michael, 2018; Estigarribia, 2021): I investigate these conflicting assessments here. This work also addresses the interactions of etymological origin and application of nasalisation. Spanish-origin roots are extremely frequent in PG, and, due to differences in phonotactic constraints between Spanish and PG, provide an interesting lens through which to view PG nasalisation patterns. Regressive nasal harmony can be triggered by a nasal consonant within a Spanish-origin root (Russell, 2022a); however, the question of whether Spanish-origin roots may trigger progressive nasalisation as well has not yet been addressed in the literature.

In this paper, I tackle the question of whether regressive and progressive nasalisation processes in PG are in fact distinct, and if so, what different mechanisms underlie the two types of nasalisation. I examine the two directions of nasalisation and their interactions with root etymological origin through a corpus study of actual application rates,

¹All PG examples are represented using a three-line gloss method. First, the word or sentence is spelled in its phonetic representation in the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). Spanish-origin morphemes are italicised. These graphic representations are then followed by morphemic glossing (abbreviations provided in the appendix) and English translations. Example sentences from primary data are noted with a reference, composed of the date in YYYYMMDD format and a three-letter code identifying the consultant. When multiple sentences within a single example come from the same session, I provide the code only for the first sentence. All materials collected are publicly available online through the California Language Archive (Gomez et al., 2020) and are accessible at <http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.7297/X2PR7TNF>.

presenting the first quantitative study of nasalisation rate in PG. I find that direction does in fact affect application of nasalisation processes, and that nasalisation rate is influenced by different factors for each direction of nasalisation. Variation in the regressive nasalisation triggered by a root is influenced by factors including the morphosyntactic status of the affix and the token frequency of the root. Crucially, the process of regressive nasal harmony has been extended to Spanish-origin items, to the point that etymological origin of the root is not a significant predictor of application of nasal harmony. However, root etymological origin does greatly impact progressive nasalisation rate. I propose that regressive nasalisation is best analyzed as (productive) nasal harmony, while progressive nasalisation represents a case of morpheme-specific phonologically conditioned suppletive allomorphy.

This paper is structured as follows: in Section 2, I provide background on PG and its morphophonology. I then present an overview of nasality and nasalisation in PG in Section 3, including the two nasalisation processes in question: regressive nasal harmony and morpheme-specific progressive nasalisation. I introduce their interactions with Spanish-origin items in Section 4. Next, I present and briefly discuss the findings of a quantitative corpus study of nasalisation in PG in Section 5. I connect these findings to the larger picture of PG nasalisation and variation in vowel harmony cross-linguistically in Section 6, then briefly conclude in Section 7. Data presented here, unless otherwise cited, comes from two sources: elicitation data collected remotely with two native speakers of Paraguayan Guaraní (Gomez et al., 2020), and a corpus of sociolinguistic interviews conducted in Paraguay (Bittar, 2021).

2 Background

PG is one of the most widely spoken indigenous languages of the Americas: indeed, Paraguay is the only American nation where an indigenous language has survived as a majority language spoken by the non-indigenous population (Estigarribia, 2020). Spanish colonisers arrived in what is now Paraguay in the early 1500s, but never had a large administrative presence and did not enforce the exclusive use of Spanish. The few Spanish men that lived in the region generally married ethnically Guaraní women, who raised their children speaking Guaraní (Morínigo, 1959). The use of the Guaraní language has been a strong symbol of national identity for centuries, particularly as a way for Paraguayans to differentiate themselves from their neighbors in times of conflict (Estigarribia, 2015). Today, PG is an official language of Paraguay, along with Spanish (Constitución Política, 1992). It has been present in all schools in the country, either as the primary language of instruction or as a separate subject, since 1994.

2.1 PG morphophonology

Paraguayan Guaraní is an agglutinative language; many different morphemes are expressed as prefixes or suffixes within the verbal complex (Ayala, 1996; Zubizarreta, 2022; Hamidzadeh & Russell, 2014). The full verbal complex template is as follows (Table 1):

optative prefix	t(V)-
negative prefix	n(V)-
agreement prefix	1SG.A a-, 2SG.A re-, etc.
voice prefixes	AGD je-, RECIP jo-, CAUS mō-
(incorporated noun)	
epenthesis	j-
ROOT	
derivational suffixes	ATTEN -uĩ, TRANS -ka, etc.
control predicate suffixes	DESID -se, TOTAL -pa, etc.
magnitude suffixes	INTENS -ite, DIM -ĩi, etc.
mood suffixes	FUT -ta, FRUS -mōʔã, etc.
various other suffixes	‘in vain’ -rei, ‘pretend’ -waʔu, etc.
negative enclitic	NEG =(r)i
various enclitics	Q =pa, COND =rãmō, etc.

Table 1: Full verbal complex template in Paraguayan Guaraní

This order of elements within the verbal complex interacts with morphophonological processes in the language. The root and its prefixes form a prosodic word, which is the unit of nasalisation and stress assignment (Russell, 2022b), while suffixes constitute separate prosodic words of their own (Dąbkowski, 2022).

2.1.1 Agreement

PG makes use of two sets of agreement morphology, which I term ‘Set A’ and ‘Set B’ here. In Table 2, below, I present the full independent form of each subject pronoun, followed by the corresponding set A and B forms. Set A agreement has been previously analyzed as true phi-agreement, as opposed to the Set B clitics (Woolford, 2016; Zubizarreta & Pancheva, 2017).

	full	A	B
1SG	ʃe	a-	ʃe=
1PL.INCL	ɲãnde	ja-	ɲãnde=
1PL.EXCL	ore	ro-	ore=
1>2SG	N/A	ro-	N/A
1>2PL	N/A	po-	N/A
2SG	nde	re-	nde=
2PL	pěě	pe-	pěnde=
3	haʔe	o-	i=

Table 2: PG pronoun paradigm

Set A agreement is used when the transitive subject (2a) or active intransitive subject (2b) controls agreement.

- (2) a. a-h-e'ʃa ara'ʔi
 1SG.A-H-see cloud
 ‘I see a cloud.’ 20210216_mcg
- b. a-jero'ki
 1SG.A-dance
 ‘I dance.’ 20201112_mcg

Set B forms are used when the transitive object (3a) or stative intransitive subject (3b) controls agreement. The system of argument cross-reference in PG is a case of hierarchical agreement: subject and object cross-referencing morphemes compete for a single slot, and the winner is the form higher on the person hierarchy (Velázquez Castillo, 1991; Nichols, 1992; Siewierska, 1996). Additionally, set B forms are used in possessive contexts (3c).

- (3) a. ha'ʔe ʃe=ʔe'ru kaʔa'ʔi=pe
 3 1SG.B=bring forest=LOC
 ‘He brought me to the forest.’ 20200929_mcg
- b. ʃe ʃe=r-o'ʔi
 1SG 1SG.B=R-cold
 ‘I am cold.’ 20200916_mcg
- c. ʃe=r-oʔa
 1SG.B=R-house
 ‘my house’ 20201105_mcg

2.1.2 Stress

Primary stress is systematically assigned to the final syllable of the prosodic word. A root and its prefixes constitute a single prosodic word: a root-final syllable receives primary stress, with a few lexical exceptions (Gregores & Suárez, 1967).

- (4) a-ʈʰaˈta
1SG.A-walk
‘I walk.’

20210401_ixo

Suffixes in PG fall within one of two domains, classified by whether or not the suffix can bear stress (Mistieri, 2013). This is a property of the suffix itself: for instance, the totalitative suffix is stress-bearing (5a), while the future suffix is not (5b). As exemplified by the final syllable of the root ‘walk’ in (5a), the final syllable of an embedded prosodic word is realised with secondary stress, even when this results in a surface stress clash.

- (5) a. a-ʈʰaˈtaˈpa
1SG.A-walk-TOTAL
‘I finished walking.’
b. a-ʈʰaˈta-ta
1SG.A-walk-FUT
‘I will walk.’

20210503_mcg

20210401_ixo

The ability to bear stress is not strictly conditioned by semantics: in fact, whether or not a suffix bears stress is actually attributable chiefly to historical origin. Stress-bearing suffixes can generally be reconstructed as having coda consonants in Proto-Tupí-Guaraní, while non-stress-bearing suffixes ended in open syllables (Jensen, 1998; Russell, 2023). All stress-bearing suffixes linearly precede all non-stress-bearing-suffixes and enclitics, and primary stress is assigned to the final syllable within the domain of stress-bearing suffixes.

3 Nasality and nasalisation in Paraguayan Guaraní

3.1 Nasality

PG has a six-vowel system, as displayed in the vowel space below (Table 3). Vowel length is not contrastive. All vowels have nasal counterparts.

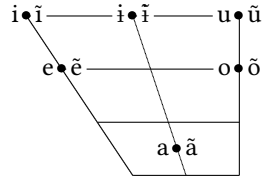


Table 3: Paraguayan Guaraní phonemic vowel inventory

Vowel nasality is contrastive only if that vowel is stressed (Barratt, 1981; Walker, 1999). Typically, the vowel which receives the primary stress within a lexical item is the root-final vowel (Cabral and Rodrigues, 2011; Adelaar, 1994; Mistieri, 2013). Preceding a stressed root-final nasal vowel, all previous vowels within the word also predictably surface as nasal. I interpret this generalisation as evidence that only a vowel which receives stress may be specified phonologically as either oral or nasal: all other vowels within the phonological word are underlyingly unspecified for nasality, and predictably surface as either nasal or oral due to the influence of the stressed vowel. Therefore, the minimal pair [tuˈpa] ‘bed’ vs. [tũˈpã] ‘God’ exists in the language, but there are no possible counterparts like *[tũˈpa] or *[tuˈpã], in which nasality is contrastive on an unstressed, non-root-final vowel.

The inventory of consonants in PG, including those of ‘mixed’ articulation, is represented in Table 4.

Notably, there are no voiced stops in the inventory. However, segments of ‘mixed’ articulation, in which a consonant begins as a nasal and ends as a voiced stop, are present in PG. The status of these ‘mixed’ segments has long been debated in the Tupí-Guaraní literature. Analyses vary between arguing that they are the surface result of the pre-nasalisation of oral stops (Gregores & Suárez, 1967; Rose, 2008; Daviet, 2016) versus the post-oralisation of nasal consonants (Piggott, 1992; Cardoso, 2009; Lapierre & Michael, 2018; Estigarribia, 2021). I take the latter position, that

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Post-alv.	Palatal	Velar	Labiovelar	Glottal
Plosive	p	t			k	k ^w	ʔ
Nasal	m	n		ɲ	ŋ	ŋ ^w	
Mixed	mb	nd			ŋg	ŋg ^w	
Flap		ɾ					
Fricative		s	ʃ				h
Approx	ʋ			j	ɰ	ɰ ^w	
Lateral		l					

Table 4: Paraguayan Guaraní consonant inventory, including phonemes and mixed articulation allophones

these ‘mixed’ segments are post-oralised allophones of nasal consonants. The surface form of an underlying nasal consonant is determined by its immediate phonological environment: before an oral vowel, a nasal stop surfaces as its partially oralised allophone, as the result of shielding (Stanton, 2017). Before a nasal vowel, a nasal consonant surfaces faithfully as nasal, while an underlying oral approximant surfaces as nasalised. Consonants alternate as in Table 5, below.

	Underlying	_V	_Ũ
/N/	/m/	[mb]	[m]
	/n/	[nd]	[n]
	/ɲ/	[ŋg]	[ɲ]
	/ɲ ^w /	[ŋg ^w]	[ɲ ^w]
/J/	/ɾ/	[ɾ]	[ɾ̃]
	/ʋ/	[ʋ]	[ʋ̃]
	/j/	[j] ~ [j̃]	[j̃]
	/ɰ/	[ɰ]	[ɰ̃]
	/ɰ ^w /	[ɰ ^w]	[ɰ̃ ^w]

Table 5: Allophonic consonant alternations before oral vs. nasal vowels

3.2 Nasalisation

Both regressive (leftward) and progressive (rightward) spreads of nasalisation are attested in Paraguayan Guaraní. I argue that these two types of nasalisation differ in important ways. In this study, I investigate what conditions variation in nasalisation, and how that variation is connected to the direction of nasalisation.

3.2.1 Regressive nasal harmony

Many languages of the Tupí-Guaraní family, including Paraguayan Guaraní, exhibit long-distance regressive nasal harmony systems (Lapierre & Michael, 2018; Miranda, 2018; Miranda & Picanço, 2020; Baraúna, 2020). The harmony system in Paraguayan Guaraní has been the subject of extensive description and analysis in the theoretical literature for decades (Gregores & Suárez, 1967; Goldsmith, 1976; Piggott, 1992; Steriade, 1993; Beckman, 1998; Walker, 1999, 2000; Kaiser, 2008). Nasality spreads leftwards from a phonemic nasal vowel, and the domain of nasal harmony is the root and its prefixes (Lapierre & Michael, 2018). The effects of nasal harmony are clear from the juxtaposition of (6a-b). The two sentences differ in whether the root – ‘know’ in (6a) vs. ‘hug’ in (6b) – contains a phonemic nasal vowel, which in turn results in different surface forms of all other morphemes within the word.

- (6) a. ndo-ro-jo-k^wa'a=j
NEG-1PL.EXCL.A-RECIP-know=NEG
‘We don’t know each other.’
b. nō-rō-ɲō-ãɲũ'ã=j
NEG-1PL.EXCL.A-RECIP-hug=NEG

20210316_mcg

‘We don’t hug each other.’

20210315_ixo

The example in (6b) demonstrates that the presence of a phonemic nasal vowel results in nasalisation of segments to its left within the word. In PG, a phonemic nasal consonant additionally triggers regressive nasalisation, as in (7). I assume that the underlying form of the root ‘listen’ is /h-enu/, with a nasal consonant /n/ and oral vowel /u/: the underlying nasal consonant surfaces as post-oralised before the oral vowel, and spreads its nasality leftward. As a result, prefixes before a root containing a nasal consonant surface as nasalised (7). All prefixes show predictable effects of regressive nasal harmony.

- (7) nō-ĩō-ɲō-h-ẽ'ndu=j
NEG-1PL.EXCL.A-RECIP-H-listen=NEG
‘We don’t listen to each other.’

20210224_ixo

Voiceless obstruents /p/, /t/, /k/, /h/ and /ʔ/ are transparent to regressive nasal harmony, as visible in the roots ‘cut’ (8a) and ‘hit’ (8b), while all other segments in the inventory show surface effects of nasalisation.² No consonants in the inventory block the spread of nasality.

- (8) a. ǎj-kĩ'tĩ i'vi'ra ki'se=pe
1SG.A-cut wood knife=LOC
‘I cut the wood with a knife.’
b. õ-ɲẽ-nũ'pã
3.A-AGD-hit
‘He was hit.’

20210426_mcg

20201112_mcg

Just as a nasal consonant within a root triggers nasalisation of segments to its left, so does a nasal consonant within a prefix, like the initial segment of the causative prefix (9a). However, a nasal vowel or consonant within a suffix does not trigger the nasalisation of earlier material within the word. For instance, the frustrative suffix contains a final nasal vowel /ã/, which triggers nasalisation within the suffix itself, but not beyond (9b).³

- (9) a. haʔe õ-ɲẽ-mbo-vi,ʔa-k^wa'a i=ʃu'pe
3 3.A-AGD-CAUS-happy-know 3.B=DOM
‘He knows how to make himself happy.’
b. ʃe a-vi,ʔa-mõ'ʔã
1SG 1SG.A-happy-FRUS
‘I was almost happy.’

20201020_ixo

20201008_mcg

The presence of a suffix with an initial alveolar flap and following nasal vowel exceptionally results in the spreading of nasality one segment to the left:⁴ in (10), for instance, the final vowel /o/ of the root ‘wife’ surfaces as phonetically nasal, but does not trigger nasalisation of segments further to the left. I assume that this surface form is articulatorily, rather than phonologically, driven.

- (10) /ʃe=remireko-rã/
[ʃẽ=ĩẽmbirekõ-ĩã]
1SG.B=wife-N.FUT
‘my fiancée’

²There is one exception to this generalisation: the alveolar lateral, which is a voiced sonorant, does not show any effect of nasalisation and could therefore also be considered to be transparent to nasal harmony. However, this segment has a unique distribution in PG, as it is found only in ideophones and loanwords (Estigarribia, 2020).

³I assume that the domain of nasal harmony in Paraguayan Guaraní is the prosodic word, and that the frustrative suffix [-mõ'ã] constitutes a prosodic word of its own. This analysis is essentially a reframing in prosodic terms of the proposal put forth by Beckman (1998) that stressed syllables, both primary and secondary, block nasal harmony.

⁴The phenomenon of surface nasalization described in this paragraph applies in the case of the nominal future suffix /-rã/ as shown in (10), as well as in the case of the conditional suffix /-ramõ/, sometimes pronounced as [-ĩõ].

In summary, nasality spreads from a phonemic nasal vowel or consonant within the phonological word in PG. This nasal harmony process takes places from right to left, as it affects segments to the left of the trigger. Regressive nasal harmony targets all segments except voiceless obstruents, which are transparent to harmony.

3.2.2 Progressive nasalisation

Nasalisation in PG also has a limited rightward spread. Following a stressed nasal vowel, the locative enclitic /=pe/ may undergo nasalisation to surface as [=mẽ] (11b).

- (11) a. tu^hpa=pe
bed=LOC
‘to the bed’ 20210303_ixo
- b. tũ^hpã=mẽ
God=LOC
‘to God’

While regressive nasalisation spreads throughout roots and all prefixes, progressive nasalisation occurs only with a very select group of targets (Lunt, 1973; Humbert & Piggott, 1997). In his grammar of PG, Estigarribia lists eleven suffixes and enclitics affected by progressive nasalisation (Estigarribia, 2020): each morpheme appears with one allomorph following an oral vowel, and a different (nasal) allomorph following an oral vowel (Table 6). I find that only five of these eleven suffixes productively undergo nasalisation for the speakers with whom I worked, listed as ‘productive’ in Table 6.⁵ The productive morphemes include the totalitative (TOTAL) which indicates application and/or exhaustion of a given event to the whole object or subject (Estigarribia, 2020), the locative (LOC), an enclitic indicating ‘until’, the incipient (INCIP) representing the immediate future, and the nominal past (N.PST) which restricts the temporal interpretation of a noun to the past, similar to English ‘former’ (Tonhauser, 2007). The unproductive morphemes include the collective (COLL) indicating plurality of countable items, the collective plural (COLL.PL) indicating a place of abundance, various passive nominalisers, and the enclitic meaning ‘towards’.

	V_	Ṽ_	GLOSS
<i>Productive</i>	-pa	-mba	TOTAL
	=pe	=mẽ	LOC
	=peve	=mẽve	‘until’
	-pota	-mbota	INCIP
	-k ^w e	-ŋ ^w ẽ	N.PST
<i>Unproductive</i>	=k ^w era	=ŋg ^w era	COLL
	-ty	-ndy	COLL.PL
	-py	-mby	NMLZ.PASS
	-pyre	-mbyre	NMLZ.PASS.PST
	-pyrã	-mbyrã	NMLZ.PASS.FUT
	=uqoto	=ŋuqoto	‘towards’

Table 6: Allomorphs of target suffixes in Paraguayan Guaraní

While voiceless stops are transparent to regressive nasal harmony, progressive nasalisation exclusively targets morphemes with initial voiceless stops.⁶ Some suffixes and enclitics undergo total nasalisation – e.g. LOC [pe] ~ [mẽ] – while the initial voiceless stop of others pre-nasalises – e.g. TOTAL [pa] ~ [mba]. This distinc-

⁵It is unclear exactly what might account for the difference in the number of morphemes with nasal allomorphs that I present here versus the number given in Estigarribia’s grammar (e.g. social factors like age or region). For the speakers with whom I have worked, the collective plural and passive nominaliser morphemes do not appear to be productive in any form, whether oral or nasal. The collective and ‘towards’ morphemes can productively attach, but always appear in their oral forms.

⁶The enclitic =uqoto ‘towards’ begins with a velar approximant in PG; however, it is reconstructed in Proto-Tupí-Guaraní as *kotý with an initial voiceless stop (Jensen, 1998, p. 514). As suggested by a reviewer, the fact that the initial consonant of this morpheme no longer forms a natural class with the others may provide part of the explanation for why it is synchronically a non-undergoer.

tion is attributable to historical origin (Russell, 2023): suffixes which pre-nasalise have earlier origins as roots,⁷ and the pre-nasalisation of voiceless-stop-initial roots was a productive process in Proto-Tupí-Guaraní (Estigarribia, 2021).

While regressive nasalisation may be triggered either by a phonemic nasal vowel or consonant, the same is not true for progressive nasalisation. If a nasal consonant is followed by an oral vowel, and therefore surfaces as post-oralised, as in the root /h-enu/ ‘listen’, nasality cannot spread rightwards (12b). Therefore, only stressed nasal vowels should be able to trigger progressive nasalisation in PG.

- (12) a. ā-h-ẽ'ndú
1SG.A-H-listen
‘I listened.’20210223_ixo
- b. ā-h-ẽ.ndu-'pa *āhẽndumba
1SG.A-H-listen-TOTAL
‘I finished listening.’

Progressive nasalisation involves the rightward spread of nasality. The trigger is a phonemic nasal vowel, and the target is a suffix-initial syllable beginning with a voiceless stop belonging to one of the five productive suffixes listed in Table 6. The surface effect of progressive nasalisation differs based on the suffix: some suffixes show the effects of full nasalisation, while others pre-nasalise.

3.3 Interim summary

I have described two processes of nasalisation in Paraguayan Guaraní. In Table 7, below, I compare several properties of these processes. Regressive harmony targets all previous segments except for voiceless obstruents, which are transparent. Progressive nasalisation, on the other hand, exclusively targets syllables with initial voiceless stops. Additionally, regressive harmony appears to be fully productive, while progressive nasalisation is limited to a very small number of particular suffixes and enclitics, with morpheme-specific effects.

	regressive harmony	progressive nasalisation
<i>Direction</i>	R-to-L	L-to-R
<i>Trigger</i>	nasal V or C	nasal V
<i>Target</i>	all segments except voiceless obstruents	suffix-initial voiceless stop (within a handful of morphemes)
<i>Morphological conditioning</i>	none	morpheme-specific (pre-nasalisation or full nasalisation)
<i>Domain</i>	root + prefixes	suffix-initial syllable

Table 7: Comparing directions of nasalisation in Paraguayan Guaraní

I now turn to examine the interactions of these two nasalisation processes with roots of Spanish etymological origin. Russell (2022a) finds that the presence of a nasal consonant in a Spanish-origin root can trigger the nasalisation of prefixes. The observation that regressive nasal harmony also applies to some extent to Spanish-origin roots provides support for the claim that it is in fact a productive process in the language. However, the interactions of progressive nasalisation and Spanish-origin roots have gone unreported in prior literature: I seek to fill that gap here. Gaining insight into these interactions is crucial to an understanding of the differences between regressive and progressive nasalisation in Paraguayan Guaraní.

⁷The totalitative [pa] ~ [mba] is reconstructed as originating from the Proto-Tupí-Guaraní root *pab ‘to finish’ (PG pa) (Jensen, 1998, p. 537) and the incipient [pota] ~ [mbota] from the root *potár ‘to want’ (PG pota) (Jensen, 1998, p. 536).

4 Spanish-origin items

Paraguay has been cited as a case of a country in which stable bilingualism is the norm (Romaine, 1995; Trudgill, 1995). According to the 2012 census of Paraguay, 77 percent of Paraguayans speak Guaraní (DGEEC, 2012). Of that 77 percent, 8 percent do not speak Spanish. Additionally, 73 percent of Paraguayans speak Spanish, of which 5 percent do not speak Guaraní. Since the majority of the population is bilingual with PG and Spanish, there is no clear division between the two languages in everyday life. The term *Jopará*, which means ‘mixture’ in PG, refers to the colloquial variety which involves frequent language mixing between PG and Spanish (Lustig, 2010; Estigarribia, 2015). The intricacies of Jopará have been documented and described in many publications, including Morínigo (1959); Melià (1974); Boidin (2006); Bakker et al. (2008); Palacios Alcaine (2008); Dietrich (2010); Lustig (2010); Cardona (2008), among others. The use of morphemes from both Spanish and PG is extremely common at all levels of formality of language use in Paraguay, but the amount contributed from each language varies considerably (Estigarribia, 2015), and sociolinguistic work has focused on the comparative uses of PG and Spanish in different spheres (Choi, 2003, 2004, 2005; Zajícová, 2009; Gynan, 1998, 2011). Studies of language attitudes in Paraguay have found that the population generally holds positive attitudes towards both languages, albeit for different reasons: people report a sense of pride and identity related to the use of PG, and connect the use of Spanish to economic value (Choi, 2003; Gynan, 2011). Language use in Paraguay is fundamentally multilingual, and speakers recruit their knowledge of both languages in everyday speech. In this study, I focus specifically on the use of lexical items of both PG and Spanish origin within Paraguayan Guaraní.

4.1 Phonotactic adaptation

Individual Spanish-origin lexical items display various repairs of violations of PG phonotactics. Pinta & Smith (2017) propose five lexical strata in PG, based on phonological repairs of loanwords from Spanish, as reproduced in Table 8. They identify four different properties: the presence of a nasal coda (N CODAS), any coda consonant (CODAS), non-final stress (NON-FINAL STRESS), and complex onsets (#CC). The more properties that are repaired, the more native-like a stratum is, and conversely, the more properties that are tolerated, the more foreign-like a stratum is. Pinta & Smith do not consider behavior in contexts of nasalisation in their analysis of lexical strata.

Table 8: Lexical strata in Paraguayan Guaraní; reproduced from Pinta & Smith (2017, p. 306).

	N CODAS	CODAS	NON-FINAL STRESS	#CC
1. Nativ(ised)				
2. Mostly nativised	Repaired	Repaired	Repaired	<i>Tolerated</i>
3. Partially nativised	Repaired	Repaired	<i>Tolerated</i>	<i>Tolerated</i>
4. Barely nativised	Repaired	<i>Tolerated</i>	<i>Tolerated</i>	<i>Tolerated</i>
5. Unadapted	<i>Tolerated</i>	<i>Tolerated</i>	<i>Tolerated</i>	<i>Tolerated</i>

I provide an example of a lexical item from each stratum below in Table 9: examples are taken from Pinta & Smith (2017)’s discussion of their proposed strata. In the nativ(ised) stratum, which includes native Guaraní items as well as fully nativised loans, all syllables are open, stress is final, and no complex onsets occur, as visible from the adaptation of *culantro* ‘coriander’ to [kura’tũ]. In the mostly nativised stratum, all syllables are open and stress is final, but onset consonant clusters are tolerated, as in the initial syllable of ‘Pluto’. In the partially nativised stratum, all syllables are open, but non-final stress is tolerated, and onset consonant clusters are tolerated, as evidenced by the adaptation of ‘London’ with the onset cluster in the second syllable intact, but the final coda /s/ deleted. In the barely nativised stratum, non-nasal codas are tolerated, as are non-final stress patterns and onset consonant clusters: however, nasal codas are repaired, as visible from the adaptation of the nucleus and coda of ‘department store’ as a nasal vowel. Finally, in the unadapted stratum, non-final stress and onset consonant clusters are tolerated, and codas of all kinds are tolerated, including nasal ones, as in the first syllable of ‘salad’.

The stratum into which a loan falls is partially a reflection of the time depth of the loan, à la Itô & Mester (1999), but is mainly dependent on the loan’s phonotactic similarity to PG in its unadapted form. For instance, adaptation of the Spanish word *papá* ‘father’ into PG necessitates no overt repair of PG phonotactics, and would thereby be

Table 9: Examples of adaptations sorted by stratum in Paraguayan Guaraní

	Spanish	Guaraní	Gloss
1. Nativ(ised)	<i>culantro</i> [ku.'lan.tro]	[ku.ra.'tũ]	‘coriander’
2. Mostly nativised	<i>Plutón</i> [plu.'ton]	[plu.'tõ]	‘Pluto’
3. Partially nativised	<i>Londres</i> ['lon.dres]	['lo.ndre]	‘London’
4. Barely nativised	<i>almacén</i> [al.ma.'sen]	[al.ma.'sẽ]	‘department store’
5. Unadapted	<i>ensalada</i> [en.sa.'la.ða]	[en.sa.'la.da]	‘salad’

classified as Level 1 (‘native’). I acknowledge the limits of this system of lexical stratum, and use it here simply as a proxy measure for quantifying the well-formedness of a Spanish-origin lexical item within PG phonotactics.

4.2 Nasality

Paraguayan Spanish has three phonemic nasal consonants (bilabial /m/, alveolar /n/, and palatal /ɲ/), but no phonemic nasal vowels (Cassano, 1971). It is not the case that vowels are never pronounced with phonetic nasalisation in Spanish: however, nasalisation is not a target of speech production in Spanish vowels, and nasalisation is not a phonologically active feature of vowels in the language (Solé, 1992). Spanish borrowings contain surface phonotactic environments that never occur natively in PG, since phonemic nasal consonants in PG always surface as partially oralised allophones before oral vowels. An underlying sequence /ma/ must be realised either as [mba] or as [mã] on the surface in PG due to phonotactic constraints in the language; however, lexical items of Spanish origin are not subject to the same phonotactic constraints. In some older borrowings, this mismatch in phonotactics is in fact repaired (Table 10). Some sequences of a vowel and nasal coda consonant in Spanish borrowings are reinterpreted in PG as phonemic nasal vowels. In words like ‘heart’, ‘pants’, and ‘soap’, a word-final VN sequence in Spanish is reinterpreted as a stressed nasal vowel in PG, and these words obey nasal harmony within the root. The word for ‘pillow’ demonstrates the outcome when a nasal consonant within a Spanish-origin root does not appear within the stressed vowel: this /m/ spreads its nasality leftwards, and surfaces as post-oralled [mb], exactly as expected given the phonotactic constraints of PG.

Spanish	PG	GLOSS
kora'son	kõřã'sõ	‘heart’ (cf. Spanish <i>corazón</i>)
kal'son	kã'sõ	‘pants’ (cf. Spanish <i>calzón</i>)
xa'βon	hã'ũõ	‘soap’ (cf. Spanish <i>jabón</i>)
almo'aða	ãrãmbo'ha	‘pillow’ (cf. Spanish <i>almohada</i>)

Table 10: Adaptations of selected Spanish-origin items with nasal consonants into Paraguayan Guaraní

However, most Spanish-origin items are pronounced roughly as they are in Spanish: nasal-oral sequences are not repaired, and these items do not exhibit root-internal nasal harmony. The difference in strategy between adaptations to morpheme-internal nasal harmony and apparent non-adaptations is likely related to the diachronic expansion of PG-Spanish bilingualism in Paraguay. Spanish influence on PG took place slowly and gradually over a long period of time, until quite recently, when urbanisation has accelerated the rate of Guaraní speakers acquiring and using Spanish (Zajícová, 2009; Fernández Barrera, 2015). Since the majority of users of PG today are bilingual with Spanish, they seem to be more tolerant of violations of PG phonotactics by Spanish-origin items (Pinta, 2013; Pinta & Smith, 2017). Earlier borrowings, therefore, underwent nativisation more than recent borrowings, which maintain the phonology of Spanish more faithfully.

4.3 Nasalisation

The presence of a nasal consonant within a Spanish-origin root triggers nasalisation of prefixes (Thun, 2005; Russell, 2022a), even when the vowels and consonants in between are oral (13). Examples below are presented using a four-line method, in which the top line is the assumed underlying representation, with Spanish-origin roots (in Spanish

orthography) italicised, and underlying nasal consonants bolded. In the second line – the surface IPA representation – the targets of nasalisation are underlined.

- (13) a. /ja-jo-*traiciona*-ta/
 [ɲã-ɲõ-*trajisjo* na-ta]
 1PL.INCL.A-RECIP-betray-FUT
 ‘We are going to betray each other.’ 20210329_mcg
- b. /nV-ja-je-*reconoce*=i/
 [nã-ɲã-ɲẽ-*rekono* se=j]
 NEG-1PL.INCL.A-AGD-recognise=NEG
 ‘We don’t recognise ourselves.’
- c. /n-o-je-*soluciona*=i=va/
 [n-õ-ɲẽ-*solusjo* na=j=va]
 NEG-3.A-AGD-solve=NEG=REL
 ‘that it would not be solved’

The presence of a nasal consonant may also trigger nasalisation in suffixes, even when the vowels and consonants in between are oral (14).

- (14) a. /ʃe a-i *cocina*=pe/
 [ʃe ăi *kosi* na=*mẽ*]
 1SG 1SG.A-be kitchen=LOC
 ‘I am in the kitchen.’ 20210217_ixo
- b. /o-je-*maquilla*=peve ʃe n-a-*reconoce*=i ʃupe/
 [õ-ɲẽ-*maki* ʎa=*mẽve* ʃe n-ă-*rekono* se=j ʃu'pe]
 3.A-AGD-makeup=until 1SG NEG-1SG.A-recognise=NEG DOM
 ‘Until she put on makeup, I didn’t recognise her.’ 20210303_ixo
- c. /a-*nada*-pa=mã/
 [ă-na, ɔa-*mba*=mã]
 1SG.A-swim-TOTAL=already
 ‘She finished swimming.’ 20210426_mcg

However, importantly, both consultants in an elicitation setting often expressed uncertainty regarding the acceptability of the combination of a Spanish-origin root and suffix nasalisation (15).

- (15) a. /ʃe a-*soña*-pa-ite=mã/
 [ʃe a-so,ɲa, pa-j'te=mã]
 1SG 1SG.A-dream-TOTAL-INTENS=already
 ‘I finished dreaming.’ 20210421_ixo
- b. /ʃe a-*soña*-pa-ite=mã/
 [ʃe a-so,ɲa, mba-j'te=mã]
 1SG 1SG.A-dream-TOTAL-INTENS=already
Elicitor: Can I also say this to mean ‘I finished dreaming’?
Consultant: Yes, some people say it, but I’m not sure which is correct (*pa* or *mba*).

Spanish-origin roots may participate in nasalisation of prefixes and suffixes, but not in root-internal harmony, with the exception of the few nativised borrowings. The interactions of Spanish-origin items with regressive nasal harmony have previously been analyzed as the innovation of a novel system of consonant harmony, in which a nasal consonant within a Spanish-origin root is in correspondence with consonants in prefixes, resulting in nasalisation of those prefixal consonants (Russell, 2022a). Interactions of Spanish-origin roots and progressive nasalisation are still unclear at this point. Although both consultants produce and accept some forms in which a nasal consonant within a Spanish-origin root triggers progressive nasalisation in an elicitation setting, they also verbally express uncertainty about the acceptability of similar forms.

5 Quantifying variation

In the elicitation context in which data was collected, variation in actual application of nasalisation abounded. In separate elicitation sessions, a consultant provided two different PG forms for the same English sentence: one in which no prefixes nasalised (16a) and one in which only the prefix closest to the root nasalised (16b). The same consultant also accepted a third form, in which all prefixes were pronounced as nasalised, in the second session (16c).

- (16) /no-ro-jo-reconoce=i/
- a. [ndo-ro-jo-rekono'se=j]
NEG-1PL.EXCL.A-RECIP-recognise=NEG
'We don't recognise each other.' 20210316_mcg
 - b. [ndo-ro-ɲō-rekono'se=j]
NEG-1PL.EXCL.A-RECIP-recognise=NEG
'We don't recognise each other.' 20210329_mcg
 - c. [nō-rō-ɲō-rekono'se=j]
NEG-1PL.EXCL.A-RECIP-recognise=NEG
Elicitor: Can I also say this to mean 'we don't recognise each other'?
Consultant: Yes, you can say that too.

The quantitative analysis of variation is not informative in an elicitation context, because the frequency of forms is determined by the question-and-answer format of the elicitation interaction and may not reflect the distribution of forms in spontaneous language use. I therefore now turn to corpus data from sociolinguistic interviews to examine variation in nasalisation in PG and its interactions with direction of nasalisation and root etymological origin.

5.1 Methods

The data presented here comes from a corpus of sociolinguistic interviews with native Paraguayan Guaraní speakers in Paraguay (Bittar, 2021). Twenty-six interviews were consulted: all interviews lasted roughly an hour in length. Half of the interview data was collected in the urban Bañado Sur neighborhood of Asunción in 2015. These conversational interviews were conducted by Israel Pedrozo, a resident of Bañado Sur and native speaker of PG and Paraguayan Spanish. The age of the participants in the urban community ranged from 18 to 68 (mean = 43.9, SD = 18.7). The other half of the data was collected in the rural community of San Juan Nepomuceno, roughly 200 kilometers from Asunción. The interviews in this community were conducted between October 2019 and January 2020 by Antonio Zena, a native of San Juan Nepomuceno. The age of the participants in the rural area ranged from 18 to 73 (mean = 45.6, SD = 15.7). For each interview, all utterances were transcribed in PG and translated to Spanish by the interviewers themselves as well as Josefina Bittar, a linguist and heritage speaker of PG.

All potential sites of nasalisation — both instances in which nasalisation of an affix actually occurred, as well as those where it could have but did not — were added to a data frame. The relevant variable context is the combination of an affix affected by nasalisation and a nasal root: either a PG-origin root containing a phonemic nasal segment, or a Spanish-origin root containing a nasal consonant. Data collection was limited to cases of certain affixes: specifically, those affixes in which consonants clearly alternate between oral and nasal, listed in Table 11. nasalisation of affixes that are comprised only of a single vowel, or of a single vowel and obstruent, was not included in the data set, due to the limitations of measuring nasality in these contexts without data about nasal airflow. Additionally, tokens were excluded when it was not possible to ascertain the etymological origin of the root (e.g. *mamá* 'mother').

Though the nominal past tense suffix *k^we* had been found to productively nasalise in the elicitation context, there were no tokens of its nasal form in the corpus, so it was excluded from the dataset. The corpus was also checked for the six target suffixes which had not been found to productively nasalise in the elicitation context (cf. Table 6) — the collective *k^wéra*, the collective plural *ty*, the passive nominalisers *py*, *pyre* and *pyrã*, and the enclitic 'towards' *uqoto*. The corpus included two tokens of the nasal allomorph of the collective *k^wéra*, both following the lexical item

	Gloss	Oral	Nasal
<i>Before root</i>	1PL.INCL.A	ja	ɲã
	1PL.INCL.B	ɲãnde	ɲãñẽ
	2PL.B	pẽnde	pẽñẽ
	2SG.B	nde	nẽ
	AGD	je	ɲẽ
	CAUS	mbo	mõ
	J	j	ɲ
	NEG	nd(V)	n(Ñ)
<i>After root</i>	RECIP	jo	ɲõ
	INCIP	pota	mbota
	LOC	pe	mẽ
	TOTAL 'until'	pa peve	mba mẽve

Table 11: Targets of nasalisation included in the dataset

mitã ‘child’. These tokens were not included in the final dataset. The corpus included no tokens of the collective plural or any of the passive nominalisers, and no tokens of the nasal allomorph of ‘towards’ *ɲoto*.

The total number of tokens included in the dataset was 3641. Each token, defined as an affix which is a potential undergoer of nasalisation, was coded for the dependent variable — whether or not nasalisation of an affix occurred — as well as a number of linguistic and social factors. Social factors included gender (self-identified as male or female), age, and community affiliation (rural or urban). Linguistic factors included direction of nasalisation (regressive or progressive), morpheme identity of the target affix, etymological origin of the root (PG or Spanish), morphological category (adjective, noun or verb), and log-transformed root token frequency within the corpus.⁸ Gender, age and community affiliation (rural or urban) were included in order to investigate whether social factors have any significant impact on application of nasalisation. Older people and rural communities are often associated with a form of PG which is considered more ‘pure’, while young people and urban communities may be associated with bilingualism and language mixing (Gómez-Rendón, 2007; Rubin, 1968). The direction of nasalisation was identified as either regressive (leftward) or progressive (rightward). I have argued that the two types of nasalisation differ in important ways, and therefore hypothesise that they will show significantly different patterns. Several characteristics of the root were identified and included in the analysis: etymological origin (PG or Spanish), morphological category, and log-transformed token frequency.

Tokens were also coded for three additional factors which are relevant only for Spanish-origin items: phonotactic well-formedness of the root as per Paraguayan Guaraní phonotactics (measured from 1 to 5 as per Pinta & Smith (2017)’s classification), distance (in segments) between the trigger and target, and whether or not the nasal consonant trigger appears in the stressed syllable. Phonotactic well-formedness (lexical stratum) is relevant only for Spanish-origin items as all PG-origin items in the corpus fall within the native stratum. If the phonological similarity of a Spanish-origin root to native PG items is a factor in predicting its rate of nasalizing affixes, lexical stratum is expected to have a significant effect. The distance between the trigger and target was measured in terms of number of intervening segments, in order to investigate if distance has a significant impact on application of nasalisation. Since oral consonants and vowels may intervene between a trigger within a Spanish-origin root and a target, this distance ranges in the corpus from zero to 10 segments. In every case of a PG-origin item triggering nasalisation, though, the distance is zero. Finally, stress was included as a factor in order to assess if the relationship between stress and nasality in PG holds for Spanish-origin items as well: namely, that nasality is contrastive only on a stressed vowel, as described in Section 3.1. Stress was coded as binary: Yes if the nasal consonant trigger within a root appears in the stressed syllable, and No if the nasal consonant trigger appears within an unstressed syllable. Because of PG-internal

⁸Log-transformed frequency was used in order to dampen potential effects of a small number of very high frequency roots. An alternative formulation of frequency was also coded. In this formulation, the number of times the root triggering nasalisation occurs with a given affix was divided by total root token frequency within the corpus, in order to reflect the frequency of the affix+root collocation. Due to the potential overlap with root token frequency, the two factors were not included in the same model. Collocation frequency was not found to be an improvement over root token frequency in any model.

phonotactics, regressive nasal harmony can be triggered by either a nasal consonant or stressed nasal vowel. If a nasal consonant within a Spanish-origin root behaves like a phonemic nasal consonant within a PG-origin root, it is predicted to be able to trigger regressive nasal harmony. However, progressive nasalisation may only be triggered by a stressed nasal vowel, never by a phonemic nasal consonant (cf. 12). Therefore, every trigger of suffix nasalisation is predicted to be a nasal vowel within a stressed syllable. This factor was included in order to evaluate whether a root in which a nasal consonant trigger appears within a stressed syllable nasalises suffixes at a significantly higher rate than those in which the trigger of nasalisation appears in an unstressed syllable.

5.2 Findings

As indicated in Table 12, below, the corpus includes more tokens of regressive nasal harmony than progressive nasalisation. Tokens of PG-origin triggers of nasal harmony slightly outnumber Spanish-origin triggers. However, Spanish-origin roots appear in contexts of progressive nasalisation more frequently than PG-origin roots: this is likely attributable to the high frequency of suffixes attaching to proper nouns like place names, which are often of Spanish origin. The rate of nasalisation triggered by PG-origin roots is over 90 percent for both directions. With Spanish-origin roots, however, we see a drastic difference in nasalisation rate between regressive harmony, where nasalisation occurs 77.6% of the time, and progressive nasalisation, where it occurs with a mere 5.7% of the tokens. It is clear that a more in-depth investigation of the difference in nasalisation rates along the axis of direction, as well as by etymological origin of the root, is necessary.

Direction	With PG-origin root	% Nasal	With SP-origin root	% Nasal	Total % Nasal
Regressive	1575	90.7%	1172	77.6%	84.1%
Progressive	389	90.2%	505	5.7%	47.9%

Table 12: Distribution of tokens by direction and etymological origin

Looking at nasalisation rates for specific affixes proves to be particularly enlightening (Table 13). A PG-origin root triggers nasalisation of most prefixes over 90 percent of the time, with three notable exceptions: the three set B morphemes (that is, the forms used when the transitive object or stative intransitive subject controls agreement). The lower nasalisation rate of these morphemes may reflect their distinct morphological status, as they have been analyzed as proclitics (Woolford, 2016; Zubizarreta & Pancheva, 2017). The rate of prefix nasalisation triggered by Spanish-origin roots is generally slightly lower, but consistently above 85 percent. With the three set B morphemes, however, again nasalisation rates are much lower. When it comes to suffixes and enclitics, we see differences between individual morphemes. The large gap between the relatively high rates of nasalisation following a PG-origin root and the quite low rates of nasalisation following a Spanish-origin root is apparent.

	Affix	With PG-origin root	% Nasal	With SP-origin root	% Nasal	Total % Nasal
<i>Before root</i>	NEG	525	94.5%	207	85.0%	91.7%
	1PL.INCL.A	148	97.3%	54	88.9%	95.0%
	1PL.INCL.B	56	33.9%	67	5.97%	18.7%
	2PL.B	23	30.4%	17	17.6%	25.0%
	2SG.B	333	85.6%	182	43.4%	70.5%
	AGD	290	97.9%	434 ⁹	91.0%	93.7%
	CAUS	108	93.5%	29	100%	94.9%
	RECIP	36	100%	37	91.9%	95.9%
	J	56	100%	145	97.9%	98.5%
<i>After root</i>	INCIP	5	60%	2	0%	42.8%
	TOTAL	180	99.4%	31	45.2%	90.4%
	LOC	188	86.2%	457	2.6%	28.5%
	‘until’	15	40%	9	11.1%	29.2%

Table 13: Distribution of tokens by affix and root etymological origin

⁹The high number of tokens of AGD before Spanish-origin roots is likely due to calquing from Spanish *se* middle constructions (Bittar, 2021).

5.2.1 Regressive nasal harmony

The total number of tokens included in the dataset of regressive harmony was 2747 (1575 tokens preceding roots of PG origin, plus 1172 tokens preceding roots of Spanish origin). The variation in regressive nasal harmony was statistically modeled using mixed-effects logistic regression.¹⁰ The model included seven fixed effects – gender, age, community affiliation, target affix identity, root etymological origin, morphological category, and frequency – and a by-speaker random intercept. The three factors specified in section 5.1 which are relevant only for Spanish-origin items (lexical stratum of the root, distance between trigger and target, and whether or not the nasal consonant trigger appears in the stressed syllable) were not included in this model due to the asymmetry in the data. The model also included an interaction term between the target of harmony and the etymological origin of the root. None of the social factors significantly improved model fit at the threshold of $p < 0.05$. Additionally, morphological category had no significant impact on model fit. Though root origin was not significant as a main effect, it is significant in its interactions with target identity. The non-significant predictors were removed, with the exception of those involved in significant interactions, resulting in the final model in Table 14. The marginal r^2 of this model is 0.348, representing the variance explained solely by the fixed effects, and the conditional r^2 is 0.363, representing the variance explained by the entire model. In the model summary, a positive estimate indicates that the given factor level favors the nasal variant compared to the baseline, while a negative estimate indicates that the level favors the oral variant. Figures are included in the appendix.

	Estimate	Std. Error	z-value	p-value	sig
(Intercept)	9.190e-01	3.174e-02	28.956	<0.001	***
Morpheme1PL.INCL.B (vs. Morpheme1PL.INCL.A)	-6.410e-01	4.492e-02	-14.268	<0.001	***
Morpheme2PL.B	-6.758e-01	6.455e-02	-10.470	<0.001	***
Morpheme2SG.B	-1.158e-01	2.918e-02	-3.967	<0.001	***
MorphemeAGD	9.297e-03	2.898e-02	0.321	0.748	
MorphemeCAUS	-3.572e-02	3.624e-02	-0.986	0.324	
MorphemeJ	2.368e-02	4.508e-02	0.525	0.599	
MorphemeNEG	-3.849e-02	2.678e-02	-1.437	0.151	
MorphemeRECIP	3.976e-02	5.334e-02	0.745	0.456	
RootOriginSpanish (vs. RootOriginGuaraní)	-6.196e-02	4.600e-02	-1.347	0.178	
RootLogFrequency	1.081e-02	3.657e-03	2.957	0.003	**
Morpheme1PL.INCL.B:RootOriginSpanish	-1.797e-01	6.903e-02	-2.603	0.009	**
Morpheme2PL.B:RootOriginSpanish	-5.860e-02	1.018e-01	-0.576	0.565	
Morpheme2SG.B:RootOriginSpanish	-3.386e-01	5.264e-02	-6.433	<0.001	***
MorphemeAGD:RootOriginSpanish	1.398e-02	5.035e-02	0.278	0.781	
MorphemeCAUS:RootOriginSpanish	1.451e-01	7.509e-02	1.932	0.053	.
MorphemeJ:RootOriginSpanish	6.908e-02	6.405e-02	1.078	0.281	
MorphemeNEG:RootOriginSpanish	-5.729e-03	5.126e-02	-0.112	0.911	
MorphemeRECIP:RootOriginSpanish	-8.920e-03	8.105e-02	-0.110	0.912	

Table 14: Summary of model of regressive harmony

¹⁰Logistic regressions were run using the lme4 package in R (Bates et al., 2015). Values for r^2 were calculated using the MuMIn package in R (Bartón, 2022).

Set B morphemes nasalise at a significantly lower rate than other morphemes. Root token frequency is significant in the model of regressive nasal harmony: the more frequent a root within the corpus, the higher the predicted rate of nasalisation. Etymological origin of the root is significant only in its interaction with two of the three set B morphemes.

Variation in regressive nasal harmony triggered by only PG-origin items was modeled using mixed-effects logistic regression to isolate the factors relevant for those items. The total number of tokens included in this dataset was 1575. This model included six fixed effects – gender, age, community affiliation, target identity, morphological category, and root token frequency, as well as a by-speaker random intercept. Again, none of the social factors significantly improved model fit at the threshold of $p < 0.05$. Morphological category and root frequency also had no significant impact on model fit. The non-significant predictors were removed, resulting in the final model in Table 15. The marginal r^2 of this model is 0.233 and the conditional r^2 is 0.240.

	Estimate	Std. Error	z-value	p-value	sig
(Intercept)	9.752e-01	2.160e-02	45.139	<0.001	***
Morpheme1PL.INCL.B (vs. Morpheme1PL.INCL.A)	-6.388e-01	4.011e-02	-15.926	<0.001	***
Morpheme2PL.B	-6.777e-01	4.011e-02	-11.731	<0.001	***
Morpheme2SG.B	-1.175e-01	2.598e-02	-4.522	<0.001	***
MorphemeAGD	4.084e-03	2.586e-02	0.158	0.875	
MorphemeCAUS	-3.974e-02	3.228e-02	-1.231	0.219	
MorphemeJ	2.270e-02	4.026e-02	0.564	0.573	
MorphemeNEG	-3.189e-02	2.390e-02	-1.334	0.182	
MorphemeRECIP	2.124e-02	4.748e-02	0.447	0.655	

Table 15: Summary of model of regressive harmony triggered by PG-origin items

The only significant predictor was the target identity of the morpheme: specifically, Set B morphemes nasalise at a significantly lower rate than other morphemes.

Variation in regressive nasal harmony triggered by only Spanish-origin items was modeled using mixed-effects logistic regression to isolate the factors relevant for those items. The total number of tokens included in this dataset was 1172. This model included nine fixed effects – gender, age, community affiliation, target identity, morphological category, and frequency, and two additional factors: root lexical stratum and distance – as well as a by-speaker random intercept, and an interaction between the target of harmony and the lexical stratum of the root. Again, none of the social factors significantly improved model fit at the threshold of $p < 0.05$. Morphological category also had no significant impact on model fit. The lexical stratum of the root was not significant, either as a main effect or in an interaction with the target morpheme identity. The non-significant predictors were removed, resulting in the final model in Table 16. The marginal r^2 of this model is 0.398 and the conditional r^2 is 0.422.

	Estimate	Std. Error	z-value	p-value	sig
(Intercept)	9.167e-01	5.216e-02	17.576	<0.001	***
Morpheme1PL.INCL.B (vs. Morpheme1PL.INCL.A)	-7.999e-01	5.845e-02	-13.684	<0.001	***
Morpheme2PL.B	-7.180e-01	8.965e-02	-8.009	<0.001	***
Morpheme2SG.B	-4.545e-01	5.054e-02	-8.991	<0.001	***
MorphemeAGD	2.534e-02	4.626e-02	0.548	0.584	
MorphemeCAUS	1.118e-01	7.345e-02	1.522	0.128	
MorphemeJ	8.135e-02	5.121e-02	1.589	0.112	
MorphemeNEG	-4.065e-02	4.887e-02	-0.832	0.406	
MorphemeRECIP	-3.075e-02	6.889e-02	-0.446	0.655	
RootLogFrequency	1.274e-02	6.103e-03	2.087	0.037	*
Distance	-2.518e-02	5.306e-03	-4.746	<0.001	***

Table 16: Summary of model of regressive harmony triggered by Spanish-origin items

In summary, Set B agreement morphemes nasalise at a significantly lower rate than all other morphemes. The token frequency of the trigger of nasal harmony significantly positively correlates with nasalisation rate. Spanish-origin roots do *not* trigger nasalisation at a significantly lower rate than PG-origin roots; however, root etymological origin is significant in its interaction with certain Set B morphemes. In such cases, Spanish-origin roots trigger nasalisation of Set B morphemes at a lower rate. When looking specifically at Spanish-origin roots, the lexical stratum of the root does not significantly affect the rate of nasalisation. An increase in distance between trigger and target significantly negatively correlates with nasalisation rate.

5.2.2 Progressive nasalisation

When running a statistical analysis of the progressive nasalisation data, the INCIP suffix was excluded from the model due to the low number of available tokens ($n = 7$). The total number of tokens included in the dataset of progressive nasalisation was 880. The variation in progressive nasalisation was statistically modeled using mixed-effects logistic regression, including seven fixed effects — gender, age, community affiliation, target affix identity, root etymological origin, morphological category, and frequency — and a by-speaker random intercept. The model also included an interaction term between the target morpheme identity and the etymological origin of the root. Again, none of the social factors significantly improved model fit. Additionally, neither morphological category of the root nor root token frequency had a significant impact on model fit. The non-significant predictors were removed, resulting in the final model in Table 17. The marginal r^2 of this model is 0.779 and the conditional r^2 is 0.793. Figures are included in the appendix.

	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value	sig
(Intercept)	0.86487	0.01985	43.561	<0.001	***
MorphemeTOTAL (vs. MorphemeLOC)	0.13096	0.02408	5.440	<0.001	***
MorphemeUNTIL	-0.47385	0.06122	-7.740	<0.001	***
RootOriginSpanish (vs. RootOriginGuaraní)	-0.83633	0.01977	-42.300	<0.001	***
MorphemeTOTAL:RootOriginSpanish	0.29073	0.04873	5.966	<0.001	***
MorphemeUNTIL:RootOriginSpanish	0.54703	0.09779	5.594	<0.001	***

Table 17: Summary of model of progressive nasalisation

All three morphemes included in this model display distinctly different patterns of nasalisation. Spanish-origin roots are predicted to trigger nasalisation at a lower rate than PG-origin roots across the board: however, the size of this effect is specific to each morpheme.

Variation in progressive nasal harmony triggered by only PG-origin items was modeled using mixed-effects logistic regression to isolate the factors relevant for those items. The total number of tokens included in this dataset was 389. This model included six fixed effects — gender, age, community affiliation, target identity, morphological category, and root token frequency, as well as a by-speaker random intercept and an interaction term between target identity and root frequency. Again, none of the social factors significantly improved model fit at the threshold of $p < 0.05$. Morphological category also had no significant impact on model fit. The non-significant predictors were removed, resulting in the final model in Table 18. The marginal r^2 of this model is 0.228 and the conditional r^2 is 0.300.

When including only tokens of progressive nasalisation following a Spanish-origin root, the total number of tokens included in this dataset was 497. This model included nine fixed effects — gender, age, community affiliation, target affix identity, morphological category, frequency, root lexical stratum, stress and distance — and a by-speaker random intercept, as well as an interaction term between lexical stratum and affix morpheme identity. Again, none of the social factors significantly improved model fit, and neither morphological category of the root nor frequency had a significant impact on model fit. The non-significant predictors were removed, resulting in the final model in Table 19. The marginal r^2 of this model is 0.376 and the conditional r^2 is 0.437. The probability of the nasal variant is predicted to be above zero only for those lexical items which most closely resemble PG-origin items in terms of lexical stratum, distance between target and trigger of nasalisation, and stress. Specifically, the Spanish-origin items which most closely resemble PG-origin items are those which include few, if any, violations of PG phonotactics, bear

	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value	sig
(Intercept)	0.882009	0.055569	15.872	<0.001	***
MorphemeTOTAL (vs. MorphemeLOC)	0.113746	0.080087	1.420	0.15637	
MorphemeUNTIL	0.732358	0.265141	2.762	0.00603	**
Frequency	-0.004157	0.010667	-0.390	0.69700	
MorphemeTOTAL:Frequency	0.003841	0.015463	0.248	0.80399	
MorphemeUNTIL:Frequency	-0.209630	0.044454	-4.716	<0.001	***

Table 18: Summary of model of progressive nasalisation with PG-origin roots

stress on a syllable containing a nasal consonant, and have little to no intervening material between that syllable and a prefix.

	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value	sig
(Intercept)	0.309904	0.039670	7.812	<0.001	***
MorphemeTOTAL (vs. MorphemeLOC)	0.631322	0.081444	7.752	<0.001	***
MorphemeUNTIL	0.252467	0.224856	1.123	0.262	
Stratum	-0.084342	0.010163	-8.299	<0.001	***
StressY (vs. StressN)	0.112010	0.018720	5.983	<0.001	***
Distance	-0.030308	0.005867	-5.166	<0.001	***
MorphemeTOTAL:Stratum	-0.211826	0.041799	-5.068	<0.001	***
MorphemeUNTIL:Stratum	-0.064950	0.072044	-0.902	0.368	

Table 19: Summary of model of progressive nasalisation triggered by Spanish-origin items

Looking at all contexts of progressive nasalisation, all morphemes nasalise at significantly different rates from each other, and Spanish-origin roots undergo nasalisation at a significantly lower rate than PG-origin roots. The interaction between root origin and morpheme identity is significant for all morphemes. When examining only nasalisation triggered by Spanish-origin items, lexical stratum has a significant impact: the more phonotactically well-formed a root is in PG, the higher the rate of nasalisation. In fact, only those Spanish-origin roots which share their phonological properties with PG-origin roots are predicted to trigger progressive nasalisation at all. Roots in which the trigger of nasalisation appears within a stressed syllable nasalise at a significantly higher rate than those in which the trigger is in an unstressed syllable, signifying that the language-specific connection between stress and nasality in PG is maintained for Spanish-origin roots as well. An increase in distance between trigger and target significantly negatively correlates with nasalisation rate.

6 Discussion

All nasalisation effects cannot be attributed to a single (morpho-)phonological process in PG. Findings from both data collected through elicitation as well as statistical modeling of a corpus of sociolinguistic interviews provide strong support for an analysis in which regressive nasal harmony and progressive nasalisation are in fact distinct processes, rather than reflections of bidirectional harmony. Regressive and progressive nasalisation differ in their effects and domains. While regressive nasalisation affects all segments except voiceless obstruents, progressive nasalisation targets only suffix-initial syllables beginning in voiceless stops, and the actual realisation of nasalisation depends on the individual morpheme. Regressive nasalisation is productive, to the point that even a nasal consonant within a Spanish-origin root may trigger nasalisation of prefixes. Nevertheless, this nasalisation pattern is distinct from that triggered by PG-origin roots, because it can operate at a distance. Progressive nasalisation, on the other hand, productively applies only for a very small number of suffixes and enclitics. Even among that limited set, actual rates of nasalisation are specific to each morpheme. Variation is additionally conditioned by different factors within

each type of nasalisation. The rate at which regressive nasal harmony applies is predicted to differ significantly between different classes in the morphology, as proclitics and prefixes pattern distinctly from each other. This relationship between harmony and the morphosyntax points to a synchronically active process in which phonological constraints interact differently with proclitics and prefixes. In progressive nasalisation, however, phonologically or morphologically similar morphemes do not pattern together: rather, each morpheme behaves distinctly.

Additionally, PG regressive nasal harmony has been extended to Spanish-origin items: neither etymological origin nor lexical stratum is significant as a predictor of the application rate of nasal harmony. Even though Spanish-origin roots do not participate in root-internal harmony, a nasal consonant within such a root can trigger the nasalisation of prefixes and proclitics, constituting a case of innovated long-distance consonant harmony (Russell, 2022a). Progressive nasalisation, though, has not been extended to Spanish-origin roots. Root etymological origin — PG vs. Spanish — accounts for the majority of the variation in progressive nasalisation. The rate of progressive nasalisation triggered by a Spanish-origin root is predicted to be above zero only when that Spanish-origin root closely resembles a PG-origin root in terms of phonotactics: lexical stratum, co-occurrence of stress and nasality on the same syllable, and distance between trigger and target of nasalisation are all significant. Interactions with root etymological origin point to the synchronic productivity of regressive nasal harmony, which is productive with all Spanish-origin items, as opposed to progressive nasalisation, which is limited only to the most nativised of Spanish-origin lexical items. The findings contribute to the larger literature concerning the adaptation of loaned material to harmony systems: cross-linguistically, it has been claimed that harmony applies at a lower rate, if at all, to loanwords (Clements & Sezer, 1982; Ringen & Heinämäki, 1999; Kertész, 2003; Puthuval, 2013). In this study, I have shown that although Spanish-origin roots can trigger the nasalisation of prefixes and proclitics in PG, they do so at a significantly lower rate than PG-origin roots.

Nasal harmony and progressive nasalisation are dependent on different mechanisms, consistent with proposals made by Lapierre & Michael (2018) and Estigarribia (2021), and counter to the claim that PG makes use of bidirectional harmony (Lunt, 1973; Goldsmith, 1976). Regressive nasal harmony in PG can be straightforwardly handled as a synchronically active phenomenon arising through the combination of two different nasalisation processes: agreement of adjacent syllable nuclei, plus coarticulation within syllables (Thomas, 2014; Russell, 2022a). I assume that variation in nasal harmony arises from reweighting of phonological constraints, though I leave the specifics of this analysis for future work. I propose that progressive nasalisation, on the other hand, is best accounted for as suppletive allomorphy, in which each suffix or enclitic which productively nasalises is associated with both an oral and nasal allomorph. The actual forms of the allomorphs are not predictable from the synchronic phonology, and are instead morpheme-specific vestiges of diachronic nasalisation processes. Specifically, root-initial voiceless stop pre-nasalisation is attributable to a historical nasalisation process that has ceased to be productive in PG (Estigarribia, 2021; Russell, 2023). Rates of progressive nasalisation therefore represent different rates of selection of each allomorph, which are particular to the specific suffix or enclitic.

Findings about the differences between regressive and progressive nasalisation in PG have implications for our understanding of directionality in harmony. The default direction of harmony has been found to be regressive (Hyman, 2002; Hansson, 2001, 2010), which is reflected in PG. Directionality has also been argued to follow from morphological structure (Baković, 2000, 2003). In such a proposal, harmony is stem-controlled, operating from the root outwards to affixes. This therefore predicts that prefixing languages will exhibit regressive harmony, suffixing languages will exhibit progressive harmony, and languages with both prefixes and suffixes will exhibit bidirectional harmony. The PG nasalisation system I have described here appears to constitute a counterexample to the latter prediction, as PG is a language with both prefixes and suffixes, and yet I argue that the observed patterns are *not* reflections of bidirectional harmony.¹¹ I propose that a more appropriate formulation of the proposal would involve invoking prosodic structure as well as, or in place of, morphological structure. The domain of nasal harmony in PG is the prosodic word, which includes prefixes but excludes suffixes. If directionality follows from prosodic structure, harmony is predicted to apply at the prosodic word level: such an analysis would not predict progressive nasal harmony in PG, which is indeed borne out here. Further research is necessary to assess the typological validity of this prosodic analysis of the directionality of harmony.

Though languages with vowel and/or consonant harmony systems are widespread around the world (Rose & Walker, 2011), many have never been examined through quantitative studies of variable harmony application

¹¹As a reviewer points out, though, the source of this apparent counterexample could be attributed to an asymmetry within the morphology of PG itself, as the language can be considered to be more heavily prefixing than suffixing.

rate, as I have presented here. A close examination of the factors that condition variation in harmony provides invaluable insight into the mechanisms underlying harmony. In the existing literature across typologically distinct languages, several factors have been found to significantly affect the application rate of harmony, including distance between trigger and target in Navajo (Martin, 2005; Palakurthy, 2021), distance in terms of morphological template in Tommo So (McPherson & Hayes, 2016), and root token frequency in Uyghur (Mayer, 2021). The present study of PG nasal harmony supports these previous findings, as well as adding morphosyntactic attachment as another relevant factor.

The application rate of sibilant harmony in Navajo [nav, Athabaskan, USA] decreases with distance (measured in syllables) between the trigger and target (Martin, 2005). The results of this corpus-based study of PG nasalisation parallel this finding, although distance is relevant only in the case of Spanish-origin roots. The importance of distance between the trigger and target of harmony is not particularly surprising, as cases of long-distance harmony are quite rare (Rose & Walker, 2011) – and a greater distance between trigger and target could lessen the effects of functional motivations for harmony like speech planning and coarticulation. In common analyses of harmony, like Agreement by Correspondence (Rose & Walker, 2004), which treat harmony processes as a form of featural agreement between segments, correspondence relations exist between similar segments, such that corresponding segments agree on the surface with respect to a feature, like nasality. Correspondence between segments may be limited at a specified distance (Bennett, 2015; Shih & Inkelas, 2019). In order to model a pattern like that of nasal harmony with Spanish-origin items in PG, distance may thereby be represented, potentially gradiently, as a factor in the application of harmony.

Vowel harmony in suffixes in Tommo So [dto, Dogon, Mali] applies with diminishing frequency in outer layers of the morphology (McPherson & Hayes, 2016). Unlike the findings described for Navajo (and here for PG), the Tommo So pattern is not necessarily connected to distance in number of segments or syllables, but rather distance in terms of layers of the morphology. In PG, though, differential application of nasalisation to individual morphemes appears to be most closely connected to the distinction between cliticisation and affixation, rather than the slot in the verbal template (cf. Table 1). The negative prefix, for instance, is further removed from the root than agreement in terms of the verbal template, but nasalises at a higher rate than the Set B agreement morphemes. Additionally, the two sets of agreement morphemes compete for a single slot (Velázquez Castillo, 1991), and yet display significantly different rates of nasalisation. However, if we disregard the exceptional Set B morphemes, PG nasal harmony interactions with prefixes do appear to follow the Tommo So pattern, although nasalisation rates are quite similar across the board. The negation prefix, which is the outermost layer of the morphology examined in this study, has the lowest nasalisation rate, at 91.7%. Additionally, the epenthetic /j/, which is the innermost layer of morphology examined in this study, has the highest nasalisation rate, at 98%.

Backness harmony in Uyghur [uig, Turkic, China] is correlated with the token frequency of the root (Mayer, 2021). In Uyghur, a vowel raising process converts harmonic vowels into transparent vowels, thereby rendering the harmony pattern opaque. The rate of opaque harmony for a root is predicted by its token frequency: the more frequent a root is overall, the more likely it is to display opaque harmony. In this study, I have found frequency to be relevant for PG nasal harmony as well: the more frequent the root, the more likely it is to trigger nasal harmony. The interactions between frequency and harmony application rate present an opportunity for interesting future connections to the larger literature regarding frequency effects on phonological processes (e.g. Bybee, 2002; Anttila, 2006; Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Kawahara, 2012).

The Paraguayan Guaraní corpus data sheds light on another factor conditioning variation which has as of yet not been discussed in the prior literature: different types of morphosyntactic attachment reflect distinct harmony patterns. I have shown that there is a significant difference in rate of application of nasal harmony between the three Set B morphemes and all other prefixes, in that Set B morphemes nasalise at a much lower rate. This difference is not attributable to any different phonological property of Set B morphemes, and instead may reflect a morphological difference between prefixation and cliticisation. Questions still remain, however, regarding the behavior of specific morphemes as well as the interactions between root origin and Set B morphemes. The 2sg.B proclitic, for instance, does nasalise at a lower rate than prefixes, but to a lesser extent: it is possible that frequency effects could be at play here, as tokens of the 2sg.B proclitic are quite frequent in the corpus, particularly compared to other Set B proclitics. Further investigation of the interactions of PG morphosyntax and phonology is necessary: regardless, this data makes an important contribution to the literature in demonstrating that morphosyntax could be a significant factor conditioning variation of harmony application.

Finally, these findings run counter to several persistent language ideologies. None of the social factors included in this study – gender, age, and community affiliation (specifically, rural versus urban setting) – were found to significantly improve model fit for any of the models presented here. Within Paraguay, ideologies of linguistic purism abound, in which rural communities are associated with ‘true’ PG, and urban communities with bilingualism and language mixing with Spanish (Gómez-Rendón, 2007; Rubin, 1968). Additionally, rural communities in Paraguay are reported to have a higher degree of language loyalty to Guaraní than urban communities (Solé, 1991; Gynan, 1998). Ideologies around the relative purity of rural versus urban PG go hand in hand with attitudes related to age. As urban areas are associated with youth in Paraguay, there is an expectation that younger generations of people in Paraguay are more likely to be bilingual with PG and Spanish, and more likely to be exposed to bilingual speech (Bittar, 2021). Given that nasal harmony is a characteristic property of PG, and is absent in Spanish, one could hypothesise that rates of nasalisation would be higher for speakers in rural communities (and for older speakers) than those for young speakers and those in urban communities. However, again, no social factors were found to significantly contribute to predicted nasalisation rate at all.¹² These findings are informative in that they potentially counter widespread ideologies, deconstructing the artificial construction of an ‘idyllic rural space’ and veneration of the speech of elders as more pure (Gordon, 2019). It remains to be seen whether this lack of differentiation according to age and setting holds for other phonetic, phonological and morphosyntactic factors in PG.

7 Conclusion

Investigating a corpus of sociolinguistic interviews sheds light on the complex nature of nasalisation in Paraguayan Guaraní. The two types of nasalisation – regressive and progressive – in PG are in fact distinct, and actual nasalisation rates of progressive and regressive nasalisation significantly differ from each other. I argue that regressive nasal harmony is synchronically active, while morpheme-specific progressive nasalisation is phonologically conditioned suppletive allomorphy. Several different factors contribute to the observed nasalisation rate, including the direction of nasalisation, target morpheme identity, root etymological origin, root token frequency, relationship to stress, and distance between the trigger and the target. The etymological origin of the root (Spanish vs. PG) significantly impacts progressive, but not regressive, nasalisation rate, signaling that harmony has been extended to Spanish-origin items. Various phonological factors, like stress and distance, are relevant in determining nasalisation rate when triggered by a Spanish-origin root. Regressive nasal harmony additionally interacts with the morphosyntax: Set B agreement morphemes, which have been analyzed as cliticisation, nasalise at a significantly lower rate than all other prefixes. These findings contribute to a deeper understanding of nasalisation within Paraguayan Guaraní and of the factors that condition variable harmony application rate across languages.

References

- Adelaar, Willem F. H. (1994). The nasal/oral distinction in Paraguayan Guaraní. *Revista Latinoamericana de Estudios Etnolingüísticos* 8. 125–133.
- Anttila, Arto. (2006). Variation and Opacity. *NLLT* 24. 893–944.
- Ayala, Valentín. (1996). *Gramática Guaraní*. Buenos Aires: Edición del Ministerio de Cultura y Educación de la República Argentina.
- Bakker, Dik, Jorge A. Gómez Rendón & Ewald Hekking. (2008). Spanish meets Guaraní, Otomí, and Quechua: A multilingual confrontation. In Thomas Stolz, Dik Bakker & Rosa Salas Palomo (eds.) *Aspects of Language Contact: New Theoretical, Methodological and Empirical Findings with Special Focus on Romancisation Processes*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. 165–238.
- Baković, Eric. (2000). *Harmony, Dominance and Control*. PhD dissertation, Rutgers University.
- Baković, Eric. (2003). Vowel Harmony and Stem Identity. *San Diego Linguistics Papers* 1. 1–42.

¹²As pointed out by a reviewer, the lack of relevance of social factors could potentially have been obscured by a difference in the number of Guaraní- versus Spanish-origin roots used by rural speakers as opposed to urban ones: for instance, rural speakers might have favored more Guaraní-origin roots overall. However, in the corpus consulted for this study, rural speakers used 976 Guaraní-origin roots (51.5%) and 919 Spanish-origin roots (48.5%), while urban speakers used 988 Guaraní-origin roots (56.5%), and 758 Spanish-origin roots (43.4%).

- Baraúna, Fabíola Azevedo. (2020). *Tendência tipológicas de harmonia nasais e palatização em línguas indígenas brasileiras*. PhD dissertation, Instituto de Letras e Comunicação, Universidade Federal do Pará, Belém.
- Barratt, Leslie. (1981). Prenasalised Stops in Guaraní: Where the Autosegment Fails. *Linguistic Analysis* 7(2). 187–202.
- Bartoń, Kamil. (2022). Mu-MIn: Multi-model inference. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=MumIn>.
- Bates, Douglas, Martin Mächler, Ben Bolker & Steve Walker. (2015). Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models Using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software* 67(1). 1–48.
- Beckman, Jill. (1998). *Positional Faithfulness*. PhD dissertation, UMass Amherst.
- Bennett, William. (2015). Assimilation, dissimilation, and surface correspondence in Sundanese. *NLLT* 33. 371–415.
- Bittar Prieto, Josefina. (2021). *Spanish-Origin Verbal and Grammatical Borrowing in Paraguayan Guaraní*. PhD dissertation, University of New Mexico.
- Boidin, Capucine. (2006). Jopara: Una vertiente sol y sombra del mestizaje. In Wolf Dietrich & Haralambos Symeonidis (eds.) *Tupí y Guaraní. Estructuras, Contactos y Desarrollos*. Munster: Lateinamerika Zentrum/Centro Latinoamericano de l'Université de Münster. 303–331.
- Bybee, Joan L. (2002). Word frequency and context of use in lexical diffusion of phonetically conditioned sound change. *Language Variation and Change* 14. 261–290.
- Cabral, Ana Suely Arruda Câmara & Aryon Dall'Igna Rodrigues. (2011). The Interface of Stress and Nasality in Tupí-Guaraní Languages in a Historical Perspective. *Rivista di Linguistica* 7. 1–15.
- Cardona, Maria Zulma. (2008). *The convergence, emergence and transcendence of Jopara: a third language in bilingual Paraguay*. MA thesis, California State University San Marcos.
- Cardoso, Valéria Faria. (2009). Sistematização da Fonologia Kaiowá: Nazalização e/ou Oralização. *Sínteses* 14. 31–72.
- Cassano, Paul. (1971). The Attribution of Vocalic Nasalisation in Paraguayan Spanish to Guaraní Influence. *Romance Notes* 13 (1). 190–192.
- Choi, Jinny K. (2003). Language Attitudes and the Future of Bilingualism: The Case of Paraguay. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 6(2). 81–94.
- Choi, Jinny K. (2004). Language planning and language spread of Guaraní in Paraguay: Comparison, evaluation, and implication. *Language Problems and Language Planning* 28. 241–259.
- Choi, Jinny K. (2005). The linguistic situation in urban Paraguay: A tendency toward Spanish-Guaraní bilingualism? *Spanish Context* 2. 175–201.
- Coetzee, Andries. (2008). Phonological Variation and Lexical Frequency. *Proceedings of the North East Linguistic Society*, NELS 38. 1–28.
- Clements, G.N. & Engin Sezer. (1982). Vowel and Consonant Disharmony in Turkish. In Harry van der Hulst & Norval Smith (eds), *The Structure of Phonological Representations* (Part II). Dordrecht, Foris Publications. 213–255.
- Coetzee, Andries & Shigeto Kawahara. (2012). Frequency biases in phonological variation. *NLLT* 31. 47–89.
- Constitución Política de la República de Paraguay. (1992). Artículo 140.
- Dąbkowski, Maksymilian. (2022). Prosody drives Paraguayan Guaraní suffix order. In Peter Jurgec, Liisa Duncan, Emily Elfner, Yoonjung Kang, Alexei Kochetov, Brittney K. O'Neill, Avery Ozburn, Keren Rice, Nathan Sanders, Jessamyn Schertz, Nate Shaftoe, & Lisa Sullivan (eds.) *Supplemental Proceedings of the 2021 Annual Meeting on Phonology*. 1–12.
- Daviet, Windy. (2016). *Observations Sociolinguistiques et Analyse de la Phonologie du Dialecte ava du Guaraní Bolivien, Langue Tupi-Guaraní de Bolivie*. MA thesis, Université Lumière Lyon.
- Dietrich, Wolf. (2010). Lexical evidence for a redefinition of Paraguayan 'Jopara.' *Language Typology Universals* 63. 39–51.
- Dirección General de Estadística, Encuestas y Censos (DGEEC). (2012). National Population and Housing Census of 2012. Available online: <https://www.ine.gov.py/publication-single.php?codec=MZY>

- (accessed on 30 August 2021).
- Estigarribia, Bruno. (2015). Guaraní-Spanish Jopara Mixing in a Paraguayan Novel. *Journal of Language Contact* 8. 183–222.
- Estigarribia, Bruno. (2020). *A Grammar of Paraguayan Guaraní*. London: UCL Press.
- Estigarribia, Bruno. 2021. A Diachronic Account of Exceptional Progressive nasalisation Patterns in Guaraní Causatives. *IJAL* 87: 203–41.
- Fernández Barrera, Meritxell. (2015). *Paraguayan Guaraní: Some Considerations about Language Mixing and an Acoustic Study of Urban and Rural Vowels*. MA thesis, Leiden University.
- Goldsmith, John A. (1976). *Autosegmental Phonology*. PhD dissertation, MIT.
- Gómez, Mary, Irma Easty Ovelar, Madeline Bossi, Maksymilian Dabkowski, Emily Drummond, Emily Grabowski, Rebecca Jarvis, Phuong Khuu, Lev Michael, & Katherine Russell. (2020). *Berkeley Field Methods: Paraguayan Guaraní*. Survey of California and Other Indian Languages. Berkeley: University of California. <http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.7297/X2PR7TNF>.
- Gómez-Rendón, Jorge. (2007). Grammatical borrowing in Paraguayan Guaraní. In Yaron Matras & Jeanette Sakel (eds.), *Grammatical Borrowing in Cross-Linguistic Perspective*. Berlin, New York: DeGruyter Mouton. 523–550.
- Gordon, Matthew J. (2019). Language Variation and Change in Rural Communities. *Annual Review of Linguistics* 5. 435–453.
- Gregores, Emma, & Jorge A. Suárez. (1967). *A Description of Colloquial Guaraní*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Gynan, Shaw N. (1998). Attitudinal Dimensions of Guaraní-Spanish Bilingualism in Paraguay. *Modern & Classical Languages* 61. 35–59.
- Gynan, Shaw N. (2011). Linguistic Demography and Attitudinal Dimensions of Intergenerational Transmission of Guaraní and Spanish in Paraguay. *Southwest Journal of Linguistics* 30(1). 57–94.
- Hamidzadeh, Khashayar & Kevin Russell. (2014). The phonology of reduplication in Paraguayan Guaraní. In Natalie Weber & Sihwei Chen (eds.) *Proceedings of the Workshop on Structure and Constituency in the Languages of the Americas* 19. 95–108.
- Hansson, Gunnar. (2001). *Theoretical and Typological Issues in Consonant Harmony*. PhD thesis, University of California, Berkeley.
- Hansson, Gunnar. (2010). *Consonant Harmony: Long-Distance Interactions in Phonology*. Berkeley, CA: UC Press.
- Humbert, Helga & Glyne Piggott. (1997). Representations and constraints: The case of Guaraní Nasal harmony. In Geert Booij & Jeroen van de Weijer (eds.) *HIL Phonology Papers III*. The Hague: Holland Academic Graphics. 219–256.
- Hyman, Larry. (2002). Is there a right-to-left bias in vowel harmony? Ms., University of California, Berkeley.
- Itô, Junko & Armin Mester. (1999). The Phonological Lexicon. In Tsujimura, Natsuko (ed.), *The Handbook of Japanese Linguistics*. Blackwell Publishers, Malden, Massachusetts, and Oxford, U.K.. 62–100.
- Jensen, Cheryl. (1998). Comparative Tupi-Guaraní Morphosyntax. In Desmond C. Derbyshire & Geoffrey K. Pullum (eds.) *The Handbook of Amazonian Languages*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. 490–618.
- Kaiser, Eden. (2008). Nasal Spreading in Paraguayan Guaraní: Introducing Long-distance Continuous Spreading. *Amerindia* 32. 283–300.
- Kertész, Zsuzsa. (2003). Vowel harmony and the stratified lexicon of Hungarian. *The Odd Yearbook* 7. 62–77.
- Lapierre, Myriam & Lev Michael. (2017). Nasal segments in Tupí-Guaraní: A comparative synthesis. Paper presented at the 8th Conference on Indigenous Languages of Latin America (CILLA VIII), Austin, TX, USA, October 26–28.
- Lapierre, Myriam & Lev Michael. 2018. Nasal harmony in Tupí-Guaraní: A comparative synthesis. Paper presented at SSLA III, Amherst, MA, USA, October 19–21.
- Lunt, Horace G. (1973). Remarks on nasality: The case of Guaraní. In Stephen R. Anderson (ed.) *A Festschrift for*

- Morris Halle. Austin: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 131–39.
- Lustig, Wolf. (2010). Mba'êichapa oiko la guarani? Guaraní y jopara en el Paraguay. *PAPIA-Revista Brasileira de Estudos do Contato Linguístico* 4. 19–43.
- Martin, Andrew T. (2005). *The Effects of Distance on Lexical Bias: Sibilant Harmony in Navajo Compounds*. MA thesis, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Mayer, Connor. (2005). *Issues in Uyghur backness harmony: Corpus, experimental, and computational studies*. PhD thesis, University of California, Los Angeles.
- McPherson, Laura, & Bruce Hayes. (2016). Relating application frequency to morphological structure: the case of Tommo So vowel harmony. *Phonology* 33. 125–167.
- Melià, Bartomeu. (1974). Hacia una 'tercera lengua' en el Paraguay. *Estudios Paraguayos* 2. 31–71.
- Miranda, Camille Cardoso. (2018). *Estudo comparativo do fenômeno de nasalização em línguas da família Tupi-Guaraní (tronco Tupi)*. PhD thesis, Universidade Federal do Pará.
- Miranda, Camille Cardoso & Gessiane Lobato Picanço. (2020). O fenômeno de nasalização em línguas Tupi-Guaraní. *LIAMES: Línguas Indígenas Americanas* 20. 1–21.
- Mistieri, Fernanda Regina. (2013). *Acento em línguas tupi-guarani: uma análise comparada*. MA thesis, Faculdade de Filosofia, Ciências e Letras, Universidade Estadual Paulista, Araraquara.
- Mohanan, K.P. (1986). The Theory of Lexical Phonology. In Joan Maling & Luigi Rizzi (eds.) *Studies in Natural Language and Linguistic Theory*. Dordrecht: D. Reidel Publishing Company. 1–219.
- Morínigo, Marcos A. (1959). Influencia del español en la estructura lingüística del guaraní. *Filología* 5. 235–47.
- Nichols, Johanna. (1992). *Linguistic Diversity in Space and Time*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Palacios Alcaine, Azucena. (2008). Paraguay. In Azucena Palacios Alcaine (ed.) *El Español en América: Contactos Lingüísticos en Hispanoamérica*. Barcelona: Ariel. 279–300.
- Palakurthy, Kayla. (2021). The status of sibilant harmony in Diné Bizaad (Navajo). *Journal of the IPA* 1–19.
- Piggott, Glyne. (1992). Variability in feature dependency: The case of nasality. *NLLT* 10. 33–78.
- Pinta, Justin. (2013). *Lexical strata in loanword phonology: Spanish loans in Guarani*. MA thesis, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.
- Pinta, Justin, & Jennifer L. Smith. (2017). Spanish Loans and Evidence for Stratification in the Guarani Lexicon. In Bruno Estigarribia & Justin Pinta (eds.) *Guarani Linguistics in the 21st Century*. Leiden: Brill. 285–314.
- Puthaval, Sarala. (2013). *Loanwords, prominence and the basis for Mongolian vowel harmony*. MA thesis, University of Washington.
- Ringen, Catherine & Orvokki Heinämäki. (1999). Variation in Finnish vowel harmony: An OT account. *NLLT* 17. 303–337.
- Rivas, A. (1974). Nasalization in Guaraní. Ms., Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Robboy, W. (1987). Rule-specific transparency and P-bearingness: Evidence from Guaraní nasality processes. Paper presented at the West Coast Conference on Formal Linguistics, Tucson, AZ, USA, March 20–22.
- Romaine, S. (1995). *Bilingualism*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Rose, Françoise. (2008). *Grammaire de Emérillon Teko, une Langue Tupi-Guarani de Guyane Française*. Leuven: Peeters.
- Rose, Sharon, & Rachel Walker. (2004). A typology of consonant agreement as correspondence. *Language* 80. 475–531.
- Rose, Sharon, & Rachel Walker. (2011). Harmony systems. In John Goldsmith, Jason Riggle & Alan C. L. Yu (eds.) *The Handbook of Phonological Theory*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing. 240–90.
- Rubin, Joan. (1968). *National bilingualism in Paraguay*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Russell, Katherine R. (2022). Interactions of Nasal Harmony and Word-Internal Language Mixing in Paraguayan Guaraní. *Languages* 7:67. 1–24.

- Russell, Katherine R. (2022). Reduplication in Paraguayan Guaraní: A novel prosodic analysis. In Noah Elkins, Bruce Hayes, Jinyoung Jo, and Jian-Leat Siah (eds.) *Supplemental Proceedings of the 2022 Annual Meeting on Phonology*. Washington, DC: Linguistic Society of America. 1–13.
- Russell, Katherine R. (2023). Nasalization in Paraguayan Guaraní. In Marianne Huijsmans, D. K. E. Reisinger, and Rose Underhill (eds.) *Proceedings of the Workshop on Structure and Constituency in the Languages of the Americas 25*. Vancouver, BC: UBCWPL. 131–145.
- Shih, Stephanie & Sharon Inkelas. (2019). Autosegmental aims in surface-optimizing phonology. *LI* 50. 137–196.
- Siewierska, Anna. (1996). Word Order Type and Alignment Type. *Sprachtypologie und Universalienforschung* 49(2). 149–176.
- Solé, Yolanda R. (1991). The Guaraní-Spanish situation. *The Georgetown Journal of Languages and Linguistics* 2. 297–348.
- Solé, Maria-Josep. (1992). Phonetic and Phonological Processes: The Case of Nasalization. *Language Speech* 35. 29–43.
- Stanton, Juliet. (2017). *Constraints on the Distribution of Nasal-Stop Sequences: An Argument for Contrast*. PhD thesis, MIT.
- Steriade, Donca. (1993). Closure, release and nasal contours. In Marie K. Huffman & Rena A. Krakow (eds.) *Phonetics and Phonology 5: Nasals, nasalisation and the Velum*. San Diego: Academic Press. 401–470.
- Thun, Harald. (2005). ‘Code switching’, ‘code mixing’, ‘reproduction traditionnelle’ et phénomènes apparentés dans le guaraní paraguayen et dans le castillan du Paraguay. *Rivista di Linguistica* 17. 311–46.
- Thomas, Guillaume. (2014). A split analysis of nasal harmony in Mbyá. *Rivista di Linguistica* 10. 75–104.
- Tonhauser, Judith. (2007). Nominal Tense? The Meaning of Guaraní Nominal Temporal Markers. *Language* 83(4). 831–869.
- Trudgill, P. (1995) *Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Velázquez Castillo, Maura. (1991). The Semantics of Guaraní Agreement Markers. Paper presented at BLS 17, Berkeley, CA, USA.
- Walker, Rachel. (1999). Guaraní voiceless stops in oral versus nasal contexts: An acoustical study. *JIPA* 29. 63–94.
- Walker, Rachel. (2000). Long-distance consonantal identity effects. Paper presented at the West Coast Conference on Formal Linguistics 19, Los Angeles, CA, USA, February 4–6.
- Woolford, Ellen. (2016). Two types of portmanteau agreement: Syntactic and morphological. In Géraldine Legendre, Michael T. Putnam, Henriette de Swart & Erin Zaroukian (eds.) *Optimality-Theoretic Syntax, Semantics and Pragmatics: From Uni- to Bidirectional Optimization*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 111–135.
- Zajícová, Lenka. (2009). *El bilingüismo paraguayo: Usos y actitudes hacia el guaraní y el castellano*. Madrid: Vervuert Verlagsgesellschaft.
- Zubizarreta, Maria Luisa. (2022). The Verbal Phrase in Paraguayan Guaraní: A Case Study on the Role of Prosody in Linearization. *Languages* 7. 221. 1–30.
- Zubizarreta, Maria Luisa & Roumyana Pancheva. (2017). A formal characterization of person-based alignment: The case of Paraguayan Guaraní. *NLLT* 35. 1161–1204.

8 Appendix

8.1 Abbreviations

1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
A	set A agreement prefix
B	set B agreement prefix
AGD	agent demoter
ATTEN	attenuative
CAUS	causative
COLL	collective
COND	conditional
DESID	desiderative
DIM	diminutive
DOM	differential object marking
EXCL	exclusive
FRUS	frustrative
FUT	future
H	relational /h/
INCIP	incipient
INCL	inclusive
INTENS	intensifier
J	epenthetic /j/
LOC	locative
NEG	negative
NMLZ	nominaliser
N.FUT	nominal future
N.PST	nominal past
PASS	passive
PL	plural
Q	question
R	relational /r/
RECIP	reciprocal
REL	relativiser
SG	singular
TOTAL	totalitative
TRANS	transitiviser

8.2 Figures

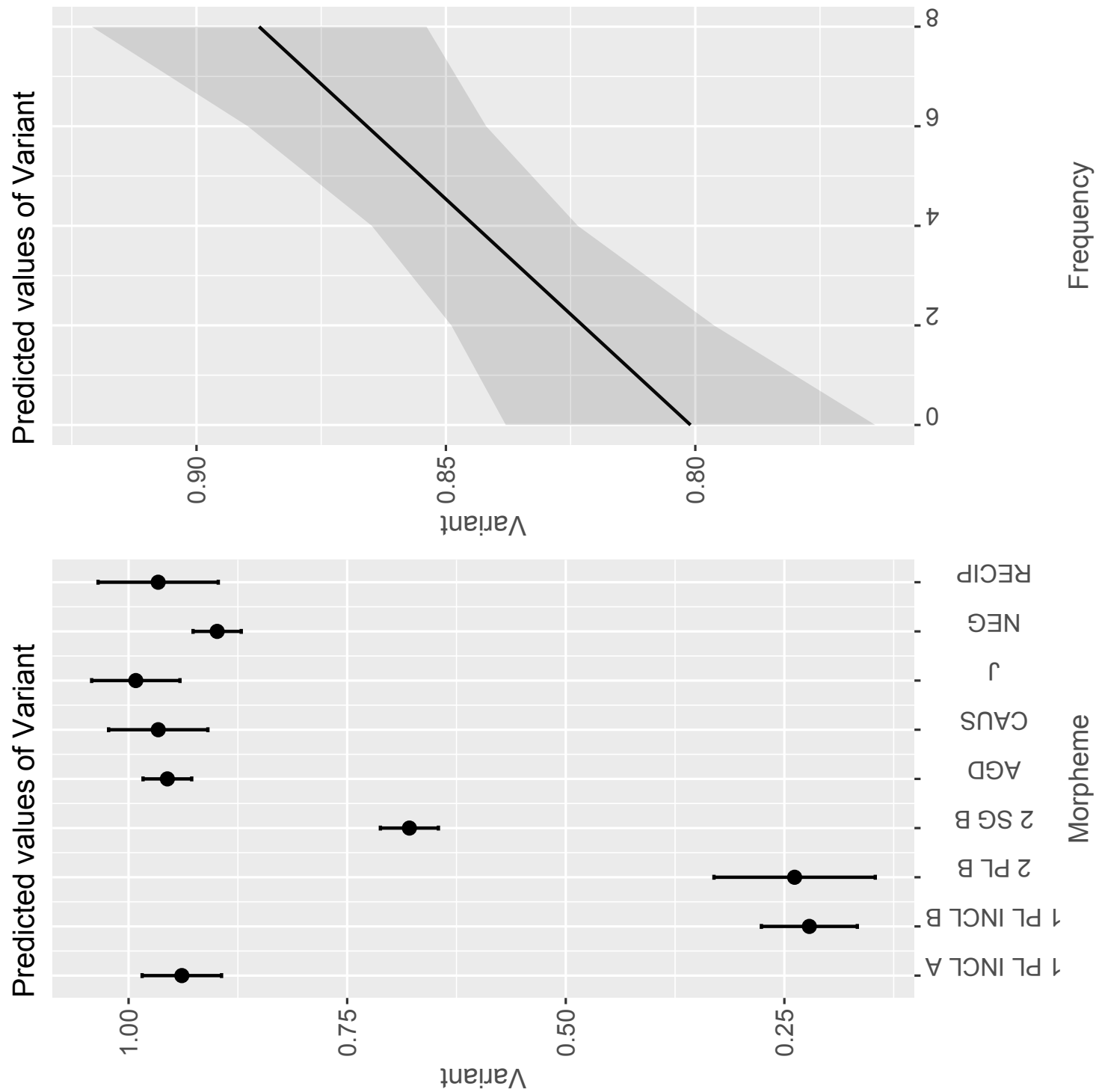


Figure 1: Predicted probabilities of the nasal variant for significant main effects in regressive nasal harmony (see Table 14)

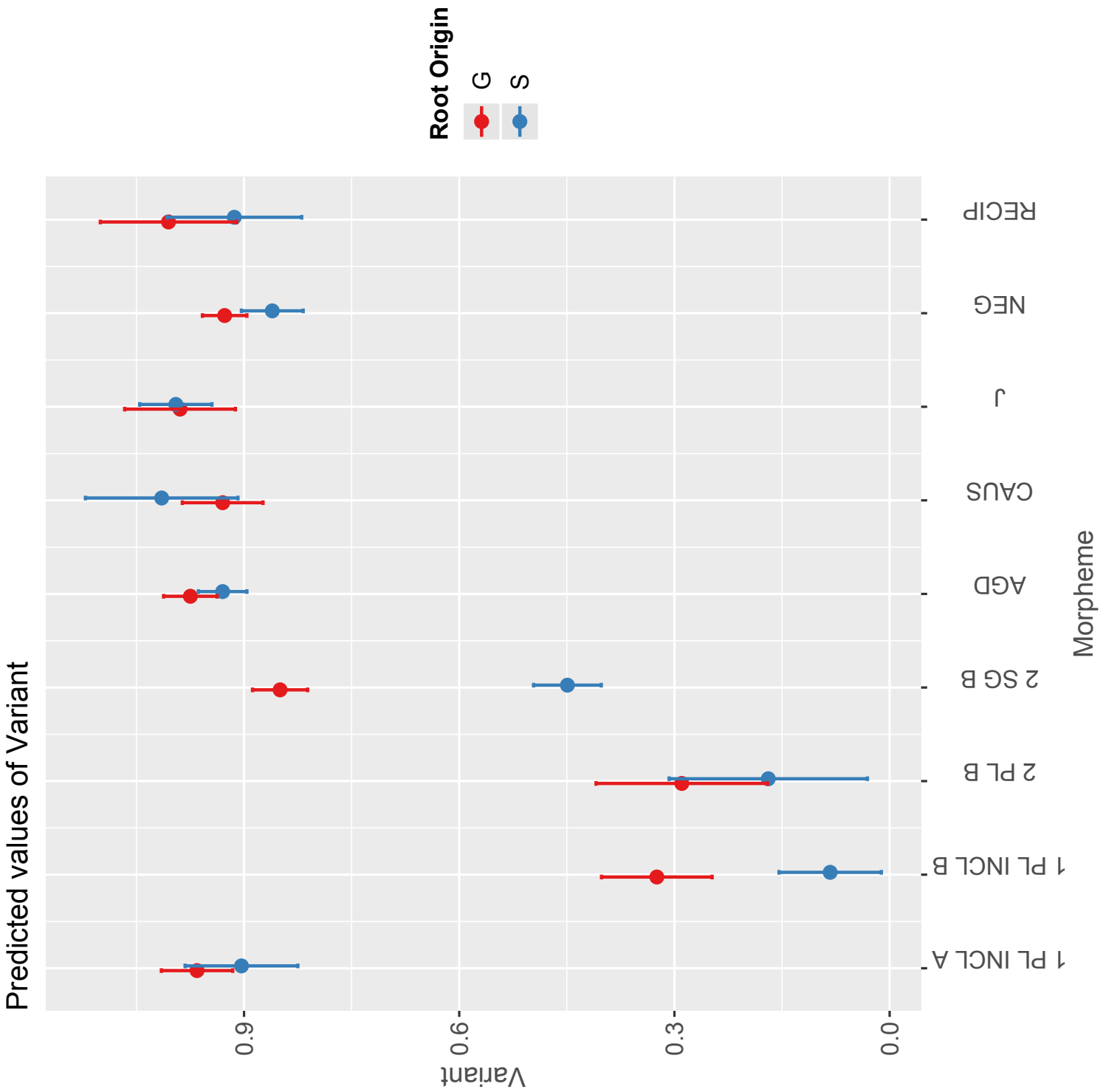


Figure 2: Predicted probability of nasal variant for the interactions of root etymological origin and target morpheme identity in regressive nasal harmony (see Table 14)

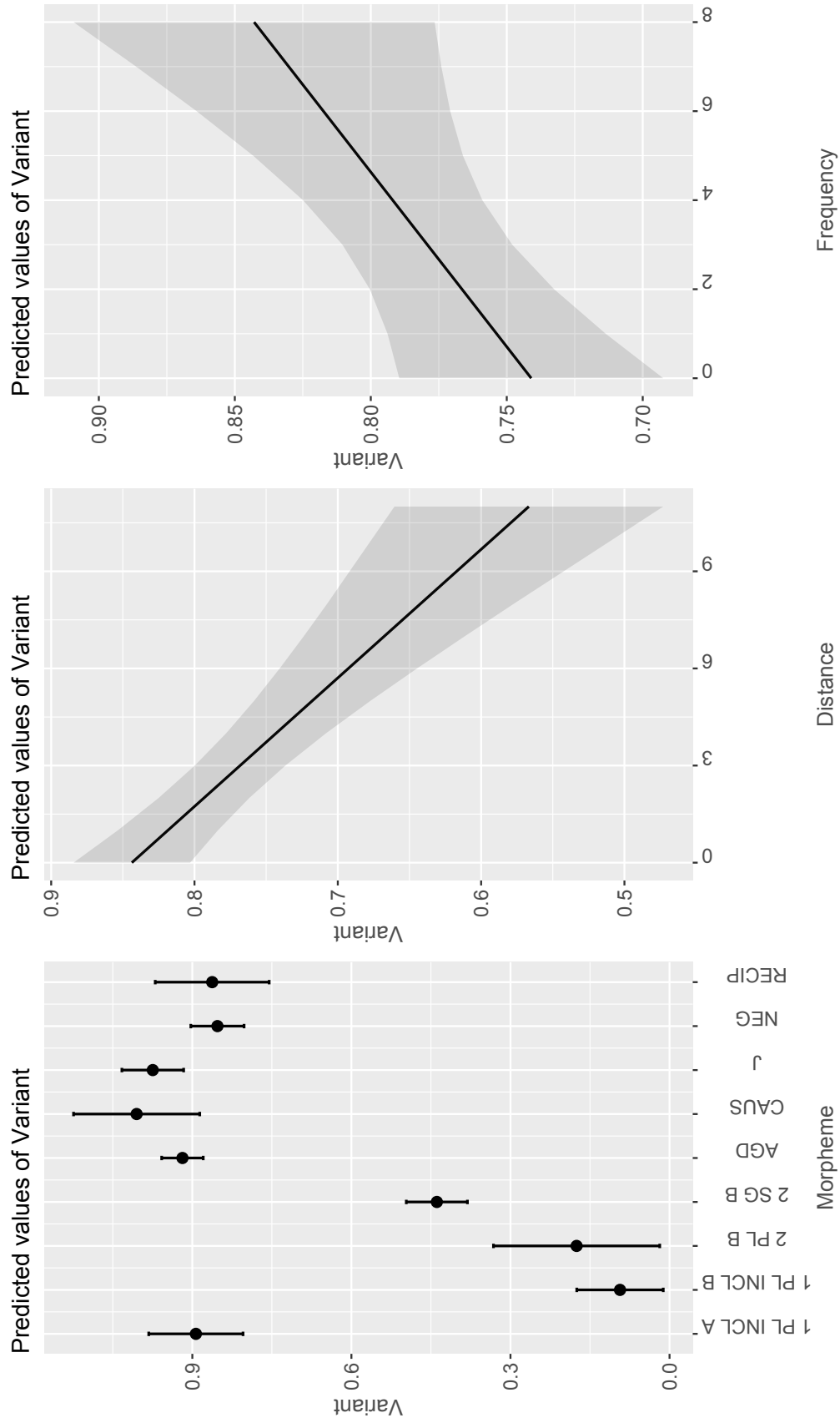


Figure 3: Predicted probability of nasal variant for the significant main effects in regressive nasalisation triggered by Spanish-origin roots (see Table 16)

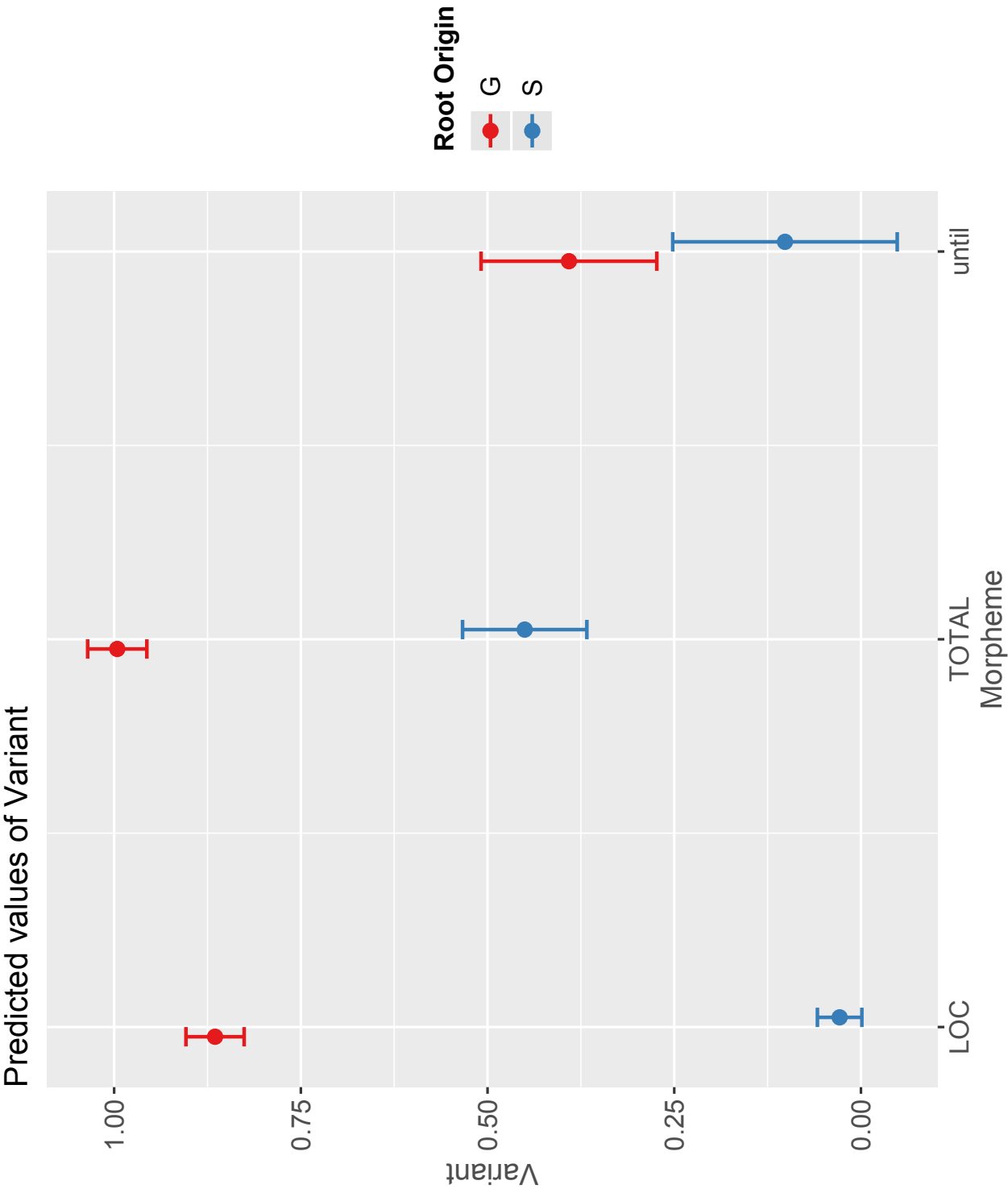


Figure 4: Predicted probability of nasal variant for the interactions of root etymological origin and target morpheme identity in progressive nasalisation (see Table 17)

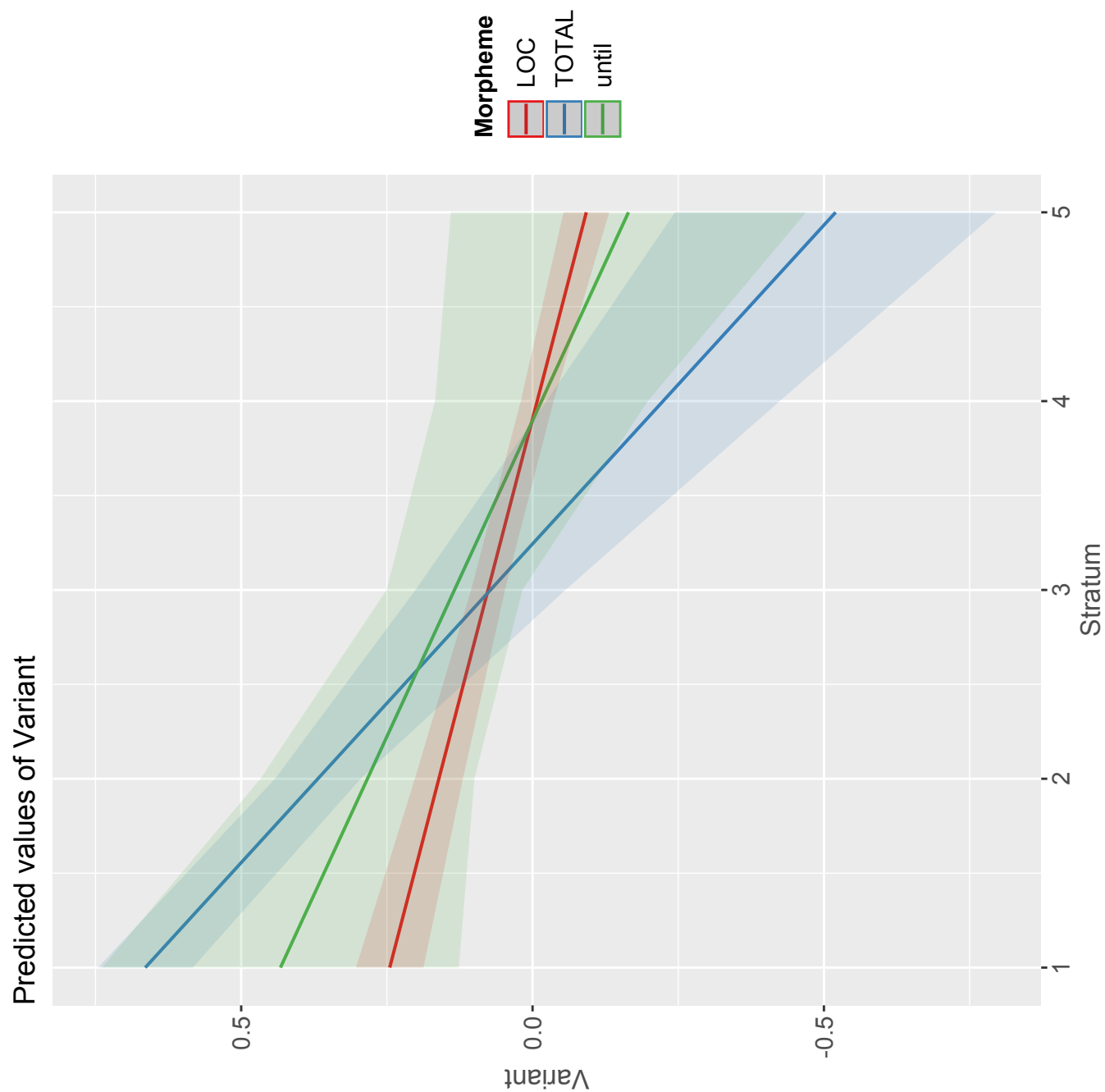


Figure 5: Predicted probability of nasal variant for the interactions of root lexical stratum and target morpheme identity in progressive nasalisation triggered by Spanish-origin roots (see Table 19)

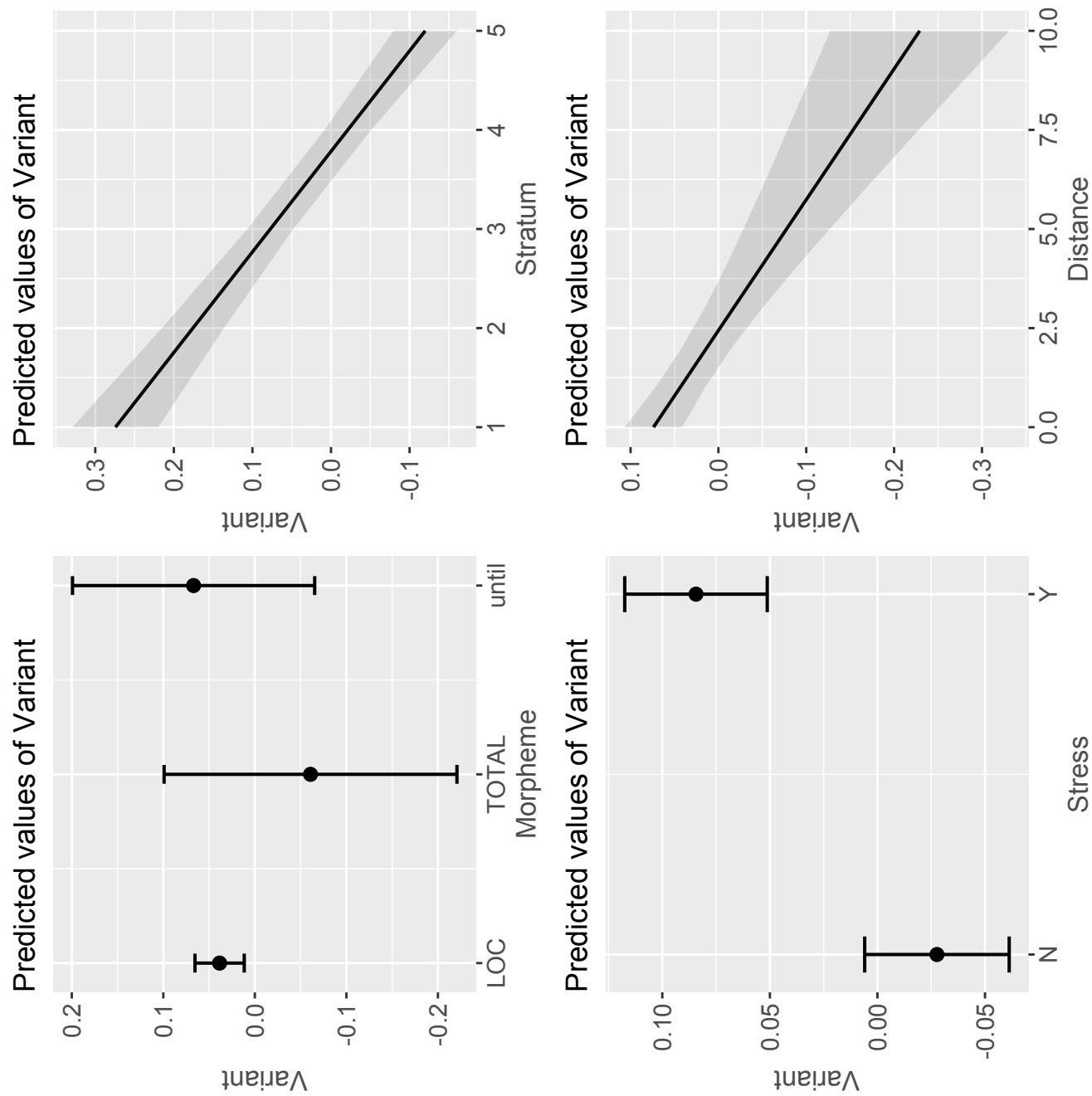


Figure 6: Predicted probability of nasal variant for the significant effects in progressive nasalisation triggered by Spanish-origin roots (see Table 19)