

1  
2 **Allophonic familiarity differentiates word representations in the brain of native speakers of**  
3 **regional linguistic varieties.**  
4

5  
6  
7 Giuseppe Di Dona<sup>1</sup>, Federica Mantione<sup>1</sup>, Birgit Alber<sup>2</sup>, Simone Sulpizio<sup>3,4</sup>, & Francesco  
8 Vespignani<sup>5</sup>

9 <sup>1</sup> Dipartimento di Psicologia e Scienze Cognitive, Università degli Studi di Trento, Italy

10 <sup>2</sup> Facoltà di Scienze della Formazione, Libera Università di Bolzano, Italy

11 <sup>3</sup> Dipartimento di Psicologia, Università degli Studi di Milano-Bicocca, Italy

12 <sup>4</sup> Milan Center for Neuroscience (NeuroMi), University of Milano-Bicocca, Italy

13 <sup>5</sup> Dipartimento di Psicologia dello Sviluppo e della Socializzazione, Università degli Studi di  
14 Padova, Italy

15  
16  
17  
18  
19 Author Note

20 Correspondence concerning the article should be addressed to: Giuseppe Di Dona, Dipartimento di  
21 Psicologia e Scienze Cognitive, Università degli Studi di Trento, Corso Bettini 84, 38068 –  
22 Rovereto (TN), Italy. e-mail: giuseppe.didona@gmail.com

23

24

25 **Abstract**

26

27 This study aims to shed light on the issue whether familiar allophonic variation is encoded in word  
28 representations. Both Italian speakers born in Trentino and speakers born in the Central-Southern  
29 regions of Italy took part in the experiment. We tested the MMN elicited by the same word  
30 encompassing two different allophones, one of which was more familiar to one group of  
31 participants than to the other, depending on their regional variety of Italian. The Trentino group  
32 showed an enhanced MMN for the word embedding the familiar variant while Central-Southern  
33 speakers showed no difference. The amplitude of the MMN for the unfamiliar word variant in  
34 Trentino speakers showed an inverse correlation with the passive exposure to the Trentino dialect.  
35 We conclude that words embedding familiar and unfamiliar allophones are differently represented  
36 in the brain of native speakers of regional language and the degree of differentiation is modulated  
37 by individual experience.

38

39 **Keywords:** Word representation; Multilingualism; Regional language; Allophonic variation;  
40 Allophonic familiarity; EEG; Mismatch Negativity; MMN; Memory retrieval; Individual  
41 differences

42

43

## 1. Introduction

44

45 Listeners can recognize words despite the great amount of physical variability in speech signals.  
46 This is possible thanks to complex cognitive mechanisms that allow robust speech perception in  
47 non-ideal conditions characterized by noise, ambiguity, and acoustic-phonetic variations (Eisner &  
48 McQueen, 2018). This last source of variability may be particularly detrimental to speech  
49 perception as in order to understand words, acoustic-phonetic features must be mapped onto defined  
50 sound units (Lieberman et al., 1967) that, when combined, form meaningful words. Phonemes are  
51 thought to be the fundamental sound units that, at the word level, cannot be interchanged without  
52 altering or disrupting the meaning (Trubetzkoy, 1969). For instance, the English word *bus* [bʌs]  
53 becomes *buzz* [bʌz] if the final /s/ phoneme is substituted with a /z/ phoneme, with [bʌs] and [bʌz]  
54 thus forming a minimal pair. Phonemes must be thought as classes of sounds rather than single units  
55 with specific phonetic features. The members of such classes are defined as allophones, and their  
56 phonetic realization might change on the basis of specific rules. For instance, the initial and final /t/  
57 phonemes in the English word *test*, are not phonetically equivalent: while the /t/ phoneme is  
58 produced as the aspirated [t<sup>h</sup>] allophone when it is syllable initial, it is produced as [t] when it is  
59 syllable final (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2014). Conversely to phonemes, if two allophones of the same  
60 phonemic class (e.g., [t<sup>h</sup>] and [t]) are interchanged, word meaning is not disrupted (Avery et al.,  
61 2008).

62 Linguistic productions are rich in allophonic variations (Chambers et al., 2002), which lead  
63 to different acoustic realizations of a same word. Systematic patterns of allophonic variation are  
64 typical to linguistic varieties (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2014) and can be considered a solid cue to  
65 their identification (van Bezooijen & Gooskens, 1999). Speakers of different linguistic varieties of  
66 the same standard language can be familiar with different allophones that appear in specific  
67 phonological contexts and with specific frequency distributions within their respective varieties

68 (Calabrese, 2012; Chambers et al., 2002). While the cognitive (McClelland & Elman, 1986;  
69 Mitterer et al., 2013; Norris & McQueen, 2008) and neurophysiological mechanisms (Hickok &  
70 Poeppel, 2007) that map phonemes and other sub-lexical units onto lexical representations have  
71 been described in quite some detail, it is currently unclear: a) how the speech recognition system  
72 takes care of allophonic variation and still correctly recognizes words; b) to what extent the  
73 exposure to specific allophones, qualified as allophonic familiarity, can refine word representations  
74 and improve the recognition capacity. The present study aims to fill this gap by investigating the  
75 impact of allophonic variation on the retrieval processes of word representations. In so doing, this  
76 study also addresses the role of allophonic familiarity contingent to the quantity of exposure to a  
77 specific language variety.

78         Few studies so far used electrophysiological measures to investigate allophonic variations  
79 and allophonic familiarity. These studies focused on the Mismatch Negativity (MMN), (Näätänen et  
80 al., 2007), an ERP component thought to index specific memory retrieval processes. MMN is  
81 elicited when a change in auditory stimulation is detected, irrespectively of the listener's attention  
82 (Näätänen & Michie, 1979). MMN is typically measured using a passive-oddball task in which a  
83 sound is repeatedly presented (standard stimulus) and infrequently replaced by a different sound  
84 (deviant stimulus). Compared to the standard stimulus, the deviant stimulus elicits a larger  
85 negativity (i.e., the MMN) peaking ~150-250 ms after stimulus onset, and mainly visible on fronto-  
86 central electrodes (Näätänen, 1995). This effect is thought to index a violation of the representation  
87 of the standard sound in short-term memory (Näätänen et al., 2005). Moreover, to the best of our  
88 knowledge, no study has investigated allophonic discrimination and allophonic familiarity within  
89 meaningful words. These two aspects could be pivotal to explain how the speech recognition  
90 systems adapts to phonetic variability while correctly understanding words. Of particular interest  
91 with respect to our purpose is the finding that the MMN shows larger amplitude waveforms when  
92 the deviant stimulus is a phoneme or a word of the listener's native language, compared to when it

93 belongs to an unknown language (Dehaene-Lambertz, 1997; Näätänen et al., 1997; Cheour et al.,  
94 1998; Pulvermüller et al., 2001; Shtyrov & Pulvermüller, 2002; Pulvermüller et al., 2004). This  
95 *enhancement effect* has been interpreted as an index of a memory-trace retrieval process of  
96 phonemes and words from long-term memory. Therefore, the use of such a measure could be very  
97 well suited to reach the aim of our experiment, allowing us to implicitly test for the presence of  
98 specific memory traces for words embedding familiar allophones.

99         The outcomes of this study, which capitalizes on an innovative use of the MMN (i.e., an  
100 implicit electrophysiological measure) to investigate allophonic processing in real words, might be  
101 very informative for the theoretical accounts of spoken word recognition. We considered three main  
102 theoretical accounts of spoken word recognition — in which the impact of allophonic variation is  
103 addressed — to orient our experimental hypotheses. First, according to the inference-based account,  
104 speech is encoded into abstract features that activate single abstract lexical representations. In this  
105 class of models, pronunciation variants are accommodated to match the activated representation on  
106 the basis of inferential processes (Gaskell & Marslen-Wilson, 1998). This means that listeners  
107 exploit specific sets of rules to make inferences about the phonological viability of specific  
108 allophones before accessing the lexicon and retrieving word representations efficiently. Gaskell and  
109 Marslen-Wilson (1996) studied the place assimilation, a particular kind of phonetic variation that  
110 occurs at word boundaries. In English, the final consonant of a word can be articulated using the  
111 same place of articulation of the initial consonant of the following word. For instance, when word  
112 final coronals (e.g., /t/, /d/, /n/) are followed by word initial labials (e.g., /p/, /b/, /m/) the first are  
113 realized assimilating the place of articulation of the latter. The use of cross-modal repetition  
114 priming showed that when phonological variation results from an illegal assimilation of place of  
115 articulation (e.g., “wickib game”), word recognition is slower with respect to when phonological  
116 variation adheres to assimilation rules (e.g., “wickib prank”). Additionally, the effect was larger for  
117 meaningful words with respect to non-words, suggesting that the lexical status can facilitate the

118 application of such assimilation rules. Further, the efficiency of inferential processes is thought to  
119 depend on the allophonic variant distribution within a language, meaning that large sets of similarly  
120 structured variants can lead to the generalization of the inferential processes (Pierrehumbert, 2006).  
121 Second, episodic models (Goldinger, 1998), instead, postulate that variants are integrated into  
122 lexical representations, meaning that surface phonetic details are always retained in the lexicon. In  
123 this scenario, successful word recognition depends on the degree of similarity between the input  
124 phonetic word form and the previously encountered variants, without the intervention of inferential  
125 cognitive processes that constrain lexical access. In a series of experiments, Goldinger (1996)  
126 showed that during word recognition performed on words uttered by different speakers, listeners  
127 performed with higher accuracy if in a previous exposure phase they heard the exact same word  
128 uttered by the same speaker, with respect to when the speaker was new. This suggests that listeners  
129 do store phonetic details of the words they hear, a conclusion which is in neat opposition with the  
130 notion of abstract word representations postulated in the inference-based account. Third, the hybrid  
131 approach theorizes the existence of multiple abstract representations of single words, and their  
132 activation is biased by the frequency of occurrence of an input variant, or in other words, allophonic  
133 familiarity (Connine & Pinnow, 2006). To this regard Pinnow & Connine (2014) studied schwa  
134 vowel deletion by which the English word *catholic* (/kæθəljɪk/) can be produced as /kæθljɪk/, without  
135 the schwa in the second syllable. Authors showed that in a lexical decision task with words  
136 embedding schwa deletions, words in which schwa deletion was more frequent were recognized  
137 faster with respect to words in which schwa deletion was less frequent. Further, exposure to low-  
138 frequency words for which schwa deletion had low frequency speeded up the recognition process in  
139 participants.

140           Additionally, in order to study the relationship between allophonic variation and allophonic  
141 familiarity during word recognition, it is necessary to consider how allophones are perceived in  
142 isolation first, as well as the influence of phonological contexts. Pallier, Bosch, and Sebastián-

143 Gallés (1997) investigated the discrimination of the [ɛ–e] contrast, which is allophonic in Spanish  
 144 (i.e., [e] appears in closed syllables before m, n, t, θ, s as in [baˈlenθja], *Valencia* while [ɛ] appears  
 145 in closed syllables when it is not followed by m, n, t, θ, s as in [ˈbɛlja], *Belgian*, but phonemic in  
 146 Catalan (e.g., [te], *take* and [tɛ], *tea*). In a 2-AFC phoneme categorization task with stimuli from a  
 147 [ɛ–e] continuum, participants were asked to report if the isolated vowels sounded more like the /e/  
 148 in the Catalan word for “*Pere*” ([perə], Peter), or more like the /ɛ/ in Catalan word “*pera*” ([perə],  
 149 pear). Secondly, they were asked to perform a same-different discrimination task with stimulus  
 150 pairs from the continuum. Results showed clear categorical perception (i.e., steep categorization  
 151 curve and high discrimination accuracy also with acoustically ambiguous stimulus pairs) in  
 152 Spanish-Catalan bilinguals with Catalan-speaking parents with respect to Spanish Catalan  
 153 bilinguals with Spanish-speaking parents. This result is in line with another study in which English  
 154 and Spanish participants were asked to judge the similarity between different VCV sequences (e.g.,  
 155 ada, ara, aða) embedding either [d], [ð] or [r]: both the [d–ð] and the [d–r] contrast (the former  
 156 being phonemic in English but allophonic in Spanish, the latter being the opposite) are rated as  
 157 more similar when they are recognized as allophones with respect to when they are intended as  
 158 phonemes (Boomershine et al., 2008). These two studies suggest that when allophonic contrasts are  
 159 presented as isolated stimuli, they are harder to discriminate both implicitly (i.e., through  
 160 categorization and discrimination tasks) and explicitly (i.e., through similarity judgements).

161 Although, contrastive results were found in a study by Peperkamp, Pettinato, and Dupoux  
 162 (2003) in which French listeners performed a same-different task hearing the allophones [ʁ] and [χ]  
 163 and phonemes /m/ and /n/ spliced into isolated VC syllables (e.g., aʁ, iχ; am, in). In another  
 164 condition, participants performed the same task on VCCV sequences in which the first VC  
 165 sequence was the test syllable embedding the allophone or the phoneme while the second CV  
 166 syllable was the “context” syllable (e.g., as in aʁdi). Results showed that, when presented in  
 167 isolation, phonemic and allophonic contrasts were both well discriminated by listeners, but when

168 embedded in the VCCV sequences, allophonic contrasts were much more difficult to perceive with  
169 respect to phonemic contrasts and to allophonic contrasts presented in isolation. Further, authors  
170 showed that participants' allophonic discrimination accuracy improved after additional exposure  
171 task in which they listened to a list of VCCV where the first VC syllable embedded a stimulus of a  
172 [ɣ]-[χ] continuum. Authors suggested that despite the inconsistency of allophonic discrimination  
173 accuracy between their and previous studies, recorded when allophones are presented in isolation,  
174 the presence of a phonological context (i.e., the context syllable) largely hinders allophonic  
175 discrimination. However, this initial impairment in allophonic discrimination was reduced as a  
176 result of exposure.

177 Further, in a behavioural and EEG study on allophonic discrimination of isolated segments,  
178 Miglietta, Grimaldi, and Calabrese (2013) tested the discrimination of the [ɛ-e] and the /e-/i/  
179 contrast, respectively allophonic and phonemic for the speakers of Southern-Italian dialect of  
180 Tricase, spoken in Southern Apulia region. In line with Peperkamp et al. (2003), in a same-different  
181 discrimination task, participants could easily distinguish both the phonemic and the allophonic  
182 contrast. Additionally, as the MMN elicited by the /e-/i/ phonemic contrast peaked earlier with  
183 respect to the one elicited by allophonic [ɛ]-[e] contrast, authors suggested that phonemic contrasts  
184 are still easier to perceive thanks to a *phonemic* mode of perception which is faster than the  
185 *phonetic* mode of perception, which should be employed to perceive allophones belonging to the  
186 same phonological category.

187 Interestingly, allophonic familiarity seems to revert this impairment. Bühler et al. (2017)  
188 tested the effects of familiarity with specific allophones in native speakers of Standard German and  
189 Swiss German. In a behavioural experiment, the authors measured the discrimination of the  
190 allophonic contrasts [t-th] (familiar for Standard German) and [t-t:] (familiar for Swiss German)  
191 embedded in a pseudoword by means of a same-different task. Results showed higher



192 discrimination accuracy in Swiss German speakers for the [t–t:] contrast with respect to Standard  
193 German ones. While Swiss German listeners could better discriminate the familiar [t–t:] contrast,  
194 Standard German listeners’ performance was compatible with an assimilated representation of  $\text{t}$   
195 and  $\text{t}^h$ . The [t–th] contrast, instead, appeared to be easily discriminable by both linguistic groups,  
196 possibly because of larger acoustic differences. Additionally, in a MMN experiment where the same  
197 contrasts embedded in pseudowords were presented in oddball blocks, each group showed smaller  
198 MMN effects when the deviant pseudoword contained a familiar allophone suggesting that  
199 allophonic familiarity allows listeners to process allophonic contrasts more efficiently.

200         While contrasting results have been found regarding the discrimination of allophones in  
201 isolation (Boomershine et al., 2008; Miglietta et al., 2013; Pallier et al., 1997), in the light of the  
202 three theoretical accounts of spoken word recognition taken into consideration, the inference-based  
203 account can only explain the allophonic discrimination impairment when allophones are presented  
204 in a phonological context as in Peperkamp et al., (2003), as it predicts that variation (i.e., allophonic  
205 productions) can be accommodated on the basis of rules depending on the phonological context but  
206 cannot account for the discrimination improvement induced by exposure. Instead, the episodic  
207 model would predict that phonetic details are always accessible to listeners, in evident contrast with  
208 studies showing impairment of allophonic discrimination (Boomershine et al., 2008; Pallier et al.,  
209 1997; Peperkamp et al., 2003). Further, the hybrid account predicts that while inferential processes  
210 are normally sufficient to accommodate phonetic variation into abstract word representations,  
211 listeners would get additional benefits by being exposed to infrequent variants, enhancing lexical  
212 access. This model would be appropriate to explain the post-exposure improved allophonic  
213 discrimination accuracy of Peperkamp et al. (2003) and the allophonic familiarity effect in Bühler et  
214 al. (2017).

215           Despite allophonic familiarity being beneficial for pseudoword processing (Bühler et al.,  
216 2017), it is still unknown whether this profitable relationship could also hold for word processing.  
217 According to the inference-based account, allophonic familiarity should exclusively impact on the  
218 cost of mapping sounds to abstract pre-lexical units, with no influence on word retrieval per se.  
219 Instead, the episodic account would predict that allophonic familiarity could facilitate lexical  
220 access, as familiar allophones would be embedded in frequently encountered word episodes stored  
221 in memory. Similar predictions can be made for the hybrid account, as allophonic familiarity could  
222 still facilitate lexical access to abstract word representations as a function of the frequency of  
223 occurrence of the specific word variant.

224           To study the extent to which listeners are able to process familiar allophonic variations and  
225 how this process can mediate the retrieval processes of word representations in different varieties of  
226 the same language, we took advantage from patterns of variation displayed in Italian regional  
227 varieties (Krämer, 2009). Specifically, linguistic variation is encountered not only across the high  
228 number of Italian local dialects, but also in the use that speakers make of the standard language,  
229 which in turn is often influenced by the local dialects. Therefore, speakers of Italian may be  
230 exposed to up to three varieties: a local dialect, a regional variety of the standard language (regional  
231 varieties, for short), and the normative standard language as it is presented, e.g., in the media.

232           We focused on a specific phonological phenomenon, that is the voicing of sibilant  
233 consonants in the Trentino regional variety of Italian. Sibilants do not contrast for voicing in all  
234 phonological contexts, nor in all regional varieties of Italian (Krämer, 2003). It has been observed  
235 (Bertinetto & Loporcaro 2015) that Central and Southern regional varieties, similarly to the  
236 normative Standard conveyed by the media, implement a contrast in terms of voicing word-  
237 medially in intervocalic contexts (*fu[s]o*, 'spindle' vs. *fu[z]o* 'melted'), while in Northern regional  
238 varieties this contrast is neutralized in favor of the voiced sibilant (*fu[z]o*, 'spindle, melted'). In

239 word-initial prevocalic contexts, sibilants are produced as voiceless in all regional varieties (*sale*,  
 240 'salt'). Since pre-consonantally sibilants are assimilated in voicing in all varieties and word-final  
 241 sibilants occur only in loan-words, this means that voiceless and voiced sibilants have phonemic  
 242 status in the sound system of Central and Southern regional Standard varieties – albeit only in  
 243 intervocalic contexts. In Northern regional varieties, voiceless and voiced consonants are in  
 244 complementary distribution in all contexts.

245         Of particular interest to our work is the word-medial context where the sibilant is preceded  
 246 by a sonorant. In this context, regional varieties of Standard Italian generally produce a voiceless  
 247 sibilant (*sen[s]o*, 'sense'). However, the Trentino variety of Standard Italian – a variety spoken in  
 248 Trentino, a north-eastern Italian province populated by ~543.000 inhabitants (*Resident Population*  
 249 *on 1st January : Provincia Autonoma Trento*, n.d.) –, shows a unique slight deviation from the  
 250 general production pattern of other Northern varieties of regional Italian. The sibilant following a  
 251 sonorant consonant is often realized as voiced (e.g., *sen[z]o*, 'sense'), a characteristic also consistent  
 252 with data collected for dialect surveys. Thus, in the dialect elicitation project VinKo (Rabanus et al.,  
 253 2021), of 81 participants self-identifying as speakers of a Trentino dialect, 64% (N = 52)  
 254 pronounced the word *senso* ('sense') with a voiced sibilant as *sen[z]o*, while the remaining 36% (N  
 255 = 29) pronounced it as *sen[s]o* ( $\chi^2(1, N = 81) = 5.98, p < 0.05$ ). This indicates that this feature of  
 256 the local dialect has been preserved to some extent also in the regional version of the standard  
 257 language. We capitalized on this critical difference between Trentino and all other regional Italian  
 258 varieties and recorded the MMN associated to the presentation of a single word (*senso*, 'sense')  
 259 embedding either the consonant cluster with the voiced sibilant [nz] typical for the Trentino  
 260 regional variety, or the voiceless sibilant [ns] that belongs to other productions of regional Italian.  
 261 In both varieties, the two forms are allophonic in postsonorant position in the sense that no  
 262 phonemic contrast between voiced and voiceless sibilants is implemented in this context. In general,  
 263 also in Central and Southern varieties a phonemic contrast between the two sounds arises only in

264 intervocalic contexts, as discussed above. We gathered two groups of Italian native speakers. The  
265 first group was formed by participants that were born and always lived in Trentino, to which the  
266 voiced sibilant is familiar in this context, and the second group was composed of participants born  
267 and raised in the Central and Southern regions of Italy, familiar with the voiceless sibilant.

268         Starting from the MMN modulations induced by the lexical status of stimuli (Endrass et al.,  
269 2004; Pulvermüller et al., 2001, 2004; Shtyrov & Pulvermüller, 2002; Tavano et al., 2012) we  
270 generated different sets of predictions for the three different theoretical frameworks. Considering  
271 the inference-based account, no variant-specific modulations of the MMN should emerge: the  
272 automatic retrieval processes always probe the same word representation despite phonetic variation  
273 and allophonic familiarity. In other words, Trentino speakers and Central-Southern speakers should  
274 show MMN with comparable amplitude for words embedding the voiced (e.g., *sen[z]o*, ‘sense’) or  
275 the voiceless sibilant (e.g., *sen[s]o*, ‘sense’). Episodic models, instead, would predict larger MMN  
276 amplitude when listeners hear words embedding the respective familiar allophones signaling the  
277 presence of variant-specific word representations. Thus, Trentino speakers should show a larger  
278 MMN for words embedding the voiced sibilant (*sen[z]o*), while Central-Southern speakers should  
279 show the opposite pattern. Finally, the hybrid approach would predict that words embedding  
280 familiar allophones would have an ad-hoc representation in the brain. According to this account,  
281 Central-Southern speakers should show no difference in the MMN amplitude between the variant  
282 with the voiced sibilant (*sen[z]o*) and that with the voiceless sibilant (*sen[s]o*). Since they have  
283 never been exposed to the voiced sibilant in this specific phonological context, they putatively have  
284 only one assimilated representation for both variants of the word that is accessed through inferential  
285 processes. Differently, Trentino speakers should show a larger MMN for the word embedding the  
286 voiced sibilant (*sen[z]o*), as they are familiar with this variant. It is important to note that Trentino  
287 speakers are likely to be acquainted with the standard pronunciation (*sen[s]o*) by hearing it in  
288 formal and/or educational contexts. Additionally, if familiarity with specific allophonic productions

289 modulate the electrophysiological correlates of memory retrieval (i.e., the enhanced MMN), we  
290 expect a relation between the magnitude of the MMN and the degree of exposure to the familiar  
291 allophonic production. To further test this hypothesis, self-reported frequencies of production and  
292 listening to the Trentino dialect, which is also characterized by the allophonic variation in exam,  
293 were collected in Trentino speakers.

294

## 2. Methods

### 295 2.1 Participants

296 Eighty-nine healthy right-handed Italian native speakers were recruited ( $F = 51$ ,  $M_{age} = 20.96$ ,  $SD =$   
297  $3.40$ ). Participants reported to have normal hearing, to be neurologically healthy and not to be under  
298 medication that could alter cognitive functioning. Two experimental groups were formed. The  
299 Trentino Group ( $n = 38$ ,  $F = 21$ ,  $M_{age} = 22.47$ ,  $SD = 4.35$ ) was composed of participants born and  
300 raised in Trentino, a north-eastern region of Italy, while The Central-Southern Group ( $n = 51$ ,  $F =$   
301  $30$ ,  $M_{age} = 19.90$ ,  $SD = 1.97$ ) was composed of participants born in Central-Southern Italian regions  
302 (in particular, in the area below the La Spezia-Rimini line<sup>1</sup>) that moved to Trentino not later than 1  
303 month before being tested. Before moving, these participants were never immersed in a Northern  
304 Italian speaking environment. All participants were tested in the EEG laboratory of the University  
305 of Trento in the Trentino Region. The Central-Southern Group included more participants as they  
306 were also involved in a parallel experimental study. Participants in both groups reported to have  
307 lived in the same region for at least 10 consecutive years and to have at least 1 parent born in their  
308 region of living. Some participants were excluded because of technical problems with the EEG  
309 recording devices and the presence of excessive noise in the data (see section 2.4 *EEG recording*  
310 *and preprocessing*). Moreover, in order to meet the constraints of the selected framework for

---

<sup>1</sup> According to Maiden & Parry, (1997), the La Spezia-Rimini line consists in an important bundle of isoglosses which divide Western from Eastern Romance languages as well as Northern from Central and Southern Italian dialects.

311 statistical analyses (see section 2.5 *Statistical Analyses*), the Central-Southern group was  
312 subsampled to make it identical in numerosity to the Trentino group. The final sample was  
313 composed of 30 participants in the Trentino Group ( $F = 18$ ,  $Mage = 22.93$ ,  $SD = 4.62$ ) and 30  
314 participants in the Central-Southern Group ( $F = 18$ ,  $Mage = 20.2$ ,  $SD = 2.24$ ). All participants  
315 expressed their informed consent and received (according to their preference) either monetary  
316 reimbursement (15 € per session) or university credits for their participation. The study was  
317 conducted in line with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Ethical Committee of  
318 The University of Trento (protocol id:2017-26).

## 319 **2.2 Stimuli**

320 A female Italian native speaker, born, raised, and living in Trentino, was recruited to record the  
321 stimuli. The speaker reported to be aware of the peculiar Trentino speakers' production of sibilants  
322 with respect to other Italian speakers. The speaker was asked to read the sentence 'Questa cosa non  
323 ha senso' (lit. *This thing has no sense*, "This thing makes no sense") once producing the word  
324 'senso' with the voiceless sibilant [s] after the nasal (Standard Italian), and once with the voiced  
325 sibilant [z] (Trentino variant). The target word was placed in broad focus at the end of the sentence,  
326 in order to elicit a clearly accented production. The speaker recorded every sentence 3 times.  
327 Sentences were recorded at 44100 Hz in a silent room with a professional recorder.

328         The 3 tokens of each target stimulus (*sen[s]o*, *sen[z]o*) were extracted from the sentences.  
329 The tokens were annotated for single phonemes using the software Praat (Paul Boersma & David  
330 Weenink, 2018). The duration of each phoneme was measured for all 6 tokens. The voiced and  
331 voiceless tokens differed in duration with respect to the word-medial sibilant, with the voiced  
332 tokens showing a longer nasal /n/ and a shorter post-nasal /z/ than voiceless tokens. Tokens were re-  
333 synthesized using the PSOLA overlap-add algorithm (Moulines & Charpentier, 1990), and the

334 duration of each phoneme was set to the average duration values, calculated for each phoneme  
 335 across all tokens (Table 1).

336 Table 1. *Duration of phonemes in milliseconds for each of the initial tokens and average duration*

| Phoneme | Sen[s]o  |          |          | Sen[z]o  |          |          | Average  |
|---------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
|         | Token 1  | Token 2  | Token 3  | Token 1  | Token 2  | Token 3  |          |
| s       | 116.8 ms | 115.2 ms | 107.5 ms | 111.9 ms | 107.2 ms | 108.0 ms | 111.1 ms |
| e       | 131.3 ms | 144.8 ms | 136.1 ms | 137.6 ms | 158.3 ms | 134.3 ms | 140.4 ms |
| n       | 71.3 ms  | 58.6 ms  | 79.5 ms  | 93.6 ms  | 90.0 ms  | 100.4 ms | 82.2 ms  |
| s - z   | 133.9 ms | 146.7 ms | 126.6 ms | 76.4 ms  | 88.5 ms  | 77.6 ms  | 108.3 ms |
| o       | 177.8 ms | 181.5 ms | 184.7 ms | 188.0 ms | 214.5 ms | 226.2 ms | 195.4 ms |

337  
 338 The intensity of all tokens was equalized to an average value of 72 dB. Since there was no  
 339 stop or silence between the first vowel and the critical phoneme (/s/-/z/), stimuli were not cross-  
 340 spliced to avoid unnatural transitions in the cross-splicing point (Steinberg et al., 2012). Pitch and  
 341 intensity profiles along with F1, F2, F3 formants, were inspected to identify possible systematic  
 342 differences before the onset of the critical phoneme. As expected, all stimuli were highly similar  
 343 before the onset of /n/. Only tokens of voiced sibilants showed the presence of a pitch contour. The  
 344 nasal consonant showed a lower pitch frequency in the voiceless than in the voiced tokens. F0  
 345 lowering through larynx lowering is an automatic side effect of the articulation of voiced obstruents  
 346 and is often deliberately extended by speakers to preceding vowels (or, in this case, sonorants),  
 347 possibly to favor perception of the obstruent as voiced (Kingston, 2011). Spectrograms of the  
 348 experimental stimuli are available in Supplementary Materials.

### 349 2.3 Procedure

350 Participants were tested individually in a dimly lit room. They were initially asked to fill in a brief  
 351 questionnaire to collect demographic information (age, gender, educational attainment, geographic  
 352 origin, place of residence) and language background and to make sure they satisfied the inclusion

353 criteria of the study. After installation of the EEG cap, they were seated in front of a laptop  
354 computer and were asked to watch a silent video of our choice while paying no attention to the  
355 sounds they heard. Auditory stimulation was delivered by E-Prime 2 software (Schneider &  
356 Zuccoloto, 2007) via two speakers at fixed volume (72 dB) positioned at ~40 cm from the  
357 participants' ear line while EEG signal was recorded. Two oddball blocks of auditory stimuli were  
358 presented. Each block was composed of standard (i.e., frequently presented) stimuli, which were  
359 presented 630 times, and deviant (i.e., infrequently presented) stimuli, which was presented 120  
360 times (probability of occurrence = .16). In one block, the Trentino variant *sen[z]o* (voiced sibilant)  
361 was used as deviant stimulus and the standard Italian *sen[s]o* (voiceless sibilant) as standard  
362 stimulus, while in the other block it was the opposite. The 3 tokens for *sen[z]o* and the 3 token for  
363 *sen[s]o* were equiprobably presented both as standard and as deviant stimuli. In the block in which  
364 *sen[s]o* was presented as standard stimulus and *sen[z]o* as deviant, in each standard trial one of the  
365 3 tokens of *sen[s]o* was presented with identical probability across tokens. The same logic was used  
366 for deviant *sen[z]o* and likewise for the block in which the standard/deviant status was reversed  
367 (i.e., *sen[z]o* standard and *sen[s]o* deviant). Each stimulus lasted 680 ms and was played one after  
368 the other, with an interstimulus interval (ISI) of 418 ms. Within each block, standard and deviant  
369 stimuli were randomly presented, with the constraint that at least two standards had to occur before  
370 each deviant. Each block lasted approximately 15 minutes with a small break between the two. The  
371 order of the blocks was counterbalanced across participants. Each experimental session lasted  
372 approximately 1 hour per participant: about 30 minutes for preparation and 30 minutes for the  
373 experiment.

374           After the EEG session, the spontaneous production of the sibilant in the participants of the  
375 Trentino Group was evaluated, by asking them an apparently unrelated question that could elicit the  
376 production of a word containing the consonant cluster /n+/s/ (“Per salire al terzo piano di un  
377 palazzo, puoi prendere le scale oppure...?”), “If you need to go to the third floor of a building you



378 can take the stairs or...?"; Answer: "l'ascensore", 'The elevator'). This allowed us to assess whether  
379 they spontaneously produced the /s/ phoneme either as voiceless or voiced. Finally, participants of  
380 the Trentino Group were asked to fill in a brief Sociolinguistic Questionnaire to investigate the  
381 frequency of speaking and listening to the Trentino dialect: They were asked to express on a  
382 1(never) to 5 (always) points Likert scale how frequently they speak or listen to the Trentino dialect  
383 with family members and friends – scores for speaking and listening were separately collected. The  
384 questionnaire is available in the Supplementary Materials.

385

## 386 **2.4 EEG recording and preprocessing**

387 The EEG signal was acquired with an eego sports system (ANT Neuro) at a sampling rate of 1000  
388 Hz, from 64 Ag/AgCl shielded electrodes (ANT Neuro Waveguard Cap) placed on the scalp  
389 according to the 10-10 international electrode positioning system and referenced to the CPz site.  
390 Electro-oculograms were recorded with an additional EOG electrode placed under the left eye.  
391 Impedance of each electrode was kept below 20 k $\Omega$ . Four participants of the Trentino group were  
392 excluded due to a failure of the EEG recording device. EEG data were re-referenced to average  
393 reference (excluding EOG and mastoid channels), resampled at 250 Hz, and digitally filtered with a  
394 50 Hz notch filter and a passband Butterworth filter (0.01-30 Hz, Order 4). Independent Component  
395 Analysis with ICA Infomax algorithm (Amari et al., 1996) was run on the continuous signal and  
396 components corresponding to eye blinks were visually identified and removed. Epochs were  
397 extracted in the -200 ms prior and 800 ms post word onset and baseline correction was performed  
398 using the whole pre-stimulus interval. Epochs were time-locked to word onset as acoustic-phonetic  
399 differences originating from co-articulation and voicing could shift the onset of the MMN in time  
400 from the predicted time point (i.e., at 333 ms, corresponding to the onset of the allophone of interest  
401 [s]/[z]). Epochs with signal amplitude exceeding a [-100  $\mu$ V 100  $\mu$ V] threshold in any channel were  
402 rejected to remove excessively noisy epochs. After this procedure, 4 participants from the Trentino

403 group and 4 participants from the Central-Southern group were excluded from the analysis as they  
404 showed less than 100 deviant artifact-free epochs for each condition. The preprocessing procedures  
405 were performed using MATLAB toolboxes EEGLAB (Delorme & Makeig, 2004) and ERPLAB  
406 (Lopez-Calderon & Luck, 2014).

407

## 408 **2.5 Statistical Analyses**

409 Differences between groups and conditions were evaluated using a nonparametric cluster-based  
410 permutation approach. This approach was preferred to the parametric one because it allowed us to  
411 perform greater amounts of statistical comparisons along different electrode sites and time bins  
412 while still being sure of controlling the family-wise error rate (FWER). This need was imposed by  
413 the nature of the stimuli we deployed: even though speech stimuli were matched as much as  
414 possible along different physical dimensions, it is difficult to fully account for small idiosyncrasies  
415 in each token, which could affect the spatio-temporal characteristics of the component of interest.

416 In this approach, data points with a p-value  $< .05$  (critical alpha level, two-tailed) are  
417 selected and clustered on the basis of temporal and spatial adjacency. Cluster statistics were  
418 calculated by summing all the t-values within any identified cluster. The distribution of t-values  
419 under the null hypothesis was computed by calculating the test statistic several times ( $N = 10,000$ )  
420 on random partitions of the data shuffled across conditions. The proportion of random partitions  
421 where the observed t-value is larger than the t-value drawn from the permutation distribution  
422 represents the cluster p-value (Maris & Oostenveld, 2007). When independent samples (i.e., groups)  
423 are compared with this method, the dimensions of each sample must meet. For this reason, the  
424 Central-Southern ( $n = 47$ ) was randomly subsampled to match the size of the Trentino group after  
425 preprocessing ( $n = 30$ ).

426 Time-locked ERP responses were calculated within each individual participant for  
427 voiceless and voiced stimuli for all conditions: *sen[s]o* standard, *sen[s]o* deviant, *sen[z]o* standard,

428 *sen[z]o* deviant. The MMN was calculated across blocks by subtracting the standard ERPs from the  
 429 deviant ERPs within the same stimulus type:  $MMN_{sen[s]o} = sen[s]o \text{ deviant} - sen[s]o \text{ standard}$ ;  
 430  $MMN_{sen[z]o} = sen[z]o \text{ deviant} - sen[z]o \text{ standard}$ . The aim of this computation, which is  
 431 extensively used in the literature (Eulitz & Lahiri, 2004; Fu & Monahan, 2021; Hestvik &  
 432 Durvasula, 2016; Jacobsen, Schröger, & Alter, 2004; Jacobsen, Schröger, & Sussman, 2004; Peter  
 433 et al., 2010; Steinberg et al., 2010) is to reduce the effect of physical differences that occur between  
 434 standard and deviant stimuli and to isolate the effect of the cognitive process of interest. Presenting  
 435 the same deviant stimulus as standard in another block, allows to record the exogenous activity  
 436 related to that specific stimulus that can be subtracted out from the deviant ERP.

437 Cluster-based permutation tests were implemented using the MATLAB toolbox FieldTrip  
 438 (Oostenveld et al., 2011). The signal amplitude of the ERPs across conditions (*sen[s]o* standard vs  
 439 *sen[s]o* deviant and *sen[z]o* standard vs *sen[z]o* deviant) was compared by multiple t-tests within  
 440 each experimental group, performed at each data point in a subset of channels containing Pre-  
 441 frontal, Frontal, Fronto-Central and Central electrode sites (Fp1, Fpz, Fp2, F7, F3, Fz, F4, F8, FC5,  
 442 FC1, FC2, FC6, C3, Cz, C4, F5, F1, F2, F6, FC3, FCz, FC4, C5, C1, C2, C6) where MMN is  
 443 typically distributed (Näätänen et al., 2007). The amplitude of MMN responses for *sen[s]o* and  
 444 *sen[z]o* was then compared within groups in the largest time window where deviant ERPs  
 445 significantly differed from standard ERPs. Interaction effects between groups and word variant  
 446 were evaluated confronting the difference obtained by subtracting signal amplitude of MMN  
 447 *sen[s]o* from the one of MMN *sen[z]o* between groups. MMN peaks were identified as the most  
 448 negative points, in the 200-800 ms time window. Peak latency was measured within each  
 449 combination of group and word variant by averaging the peak latency value of each individual  
 450 participant across all channels in the channel pool reported above.

451 The self-reported frequencies of speaking and listening to dialect were analyzed by means  
 452 of an Ordinal Logistic Regression Model using the package “MASS” (Venables & Ripley, 2002) in

453 R Software (R Core Team, 2013). Data were fitted to the full model with fixed factors of activity  
454 (speaking, listening), context (friends, family), sex (female, male) and their interactions. The best  
455 model was selected via likelihood-ratio Chi-squared tests performed with the drop1 R function. The  
456 p-values of the reported effects were calculated by comparing the associated t-value with the normal  
457 distribution.

458         The amplitudes of the MMN for both *sen[s]o* and *sen[z]o* were evaluated for each  
459 participant of the Trentino group as the average across the electrode sites and the time bins that  
460 formed a significant cluster in the comparison between the two MMN waveforms. The obtained  
461 values of the MMN amplitude were tested for correlations with the responses of each item of the  
462 Sociolinguistic Questionnaire by calculating the Kendall rank correlation coefficient (Abdi, 2007).  
463 P-values of the correlation tests were corrected with the False Discovery Rate correction (Benjamini  
464 & Hochberg, 1995).

465

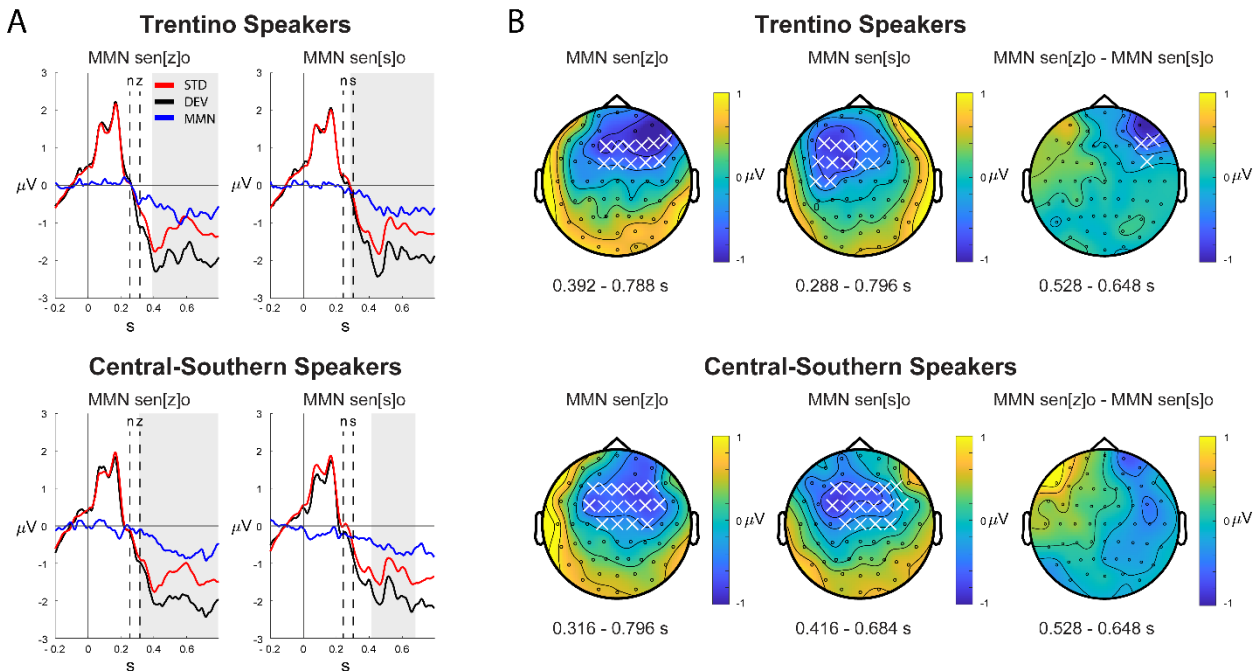
466

### 3. Results

#### 467 3.1 EEG data

468 A sustained MMN response after word onset was successfully elicited in every group and for every  
469 word variant, mainly distributed across Frontal and Fronto-Central electrode sites. The Trentino  
470 group showed a significant negative cluster ( $p < .001$ ), indicating a negative ERP effect of *sen[z]o*  
471 deviant with respect to *sen[z]o* standard in the 392-788 ms time window (peak at  $518 \pm 153$  ms) and  
472 of *sen[s]o* deviant with respect of *sen[s]o* standard in the 288-796 ms time window (peak at  $507 \pm$   
473  $147$  ms). The Central-Southern group also showed a significant negative cluster ( $p = .002$ ) in the  
474 316-700 ms time window between *sen[z]o* standard and *sen[z]o* deviant (peak at  $527 \pm 145$  ms) and  
475 in the 416-684 ms time window between *sen[s]o* standard and *sen[s]o* deviant ( $p < .001$ , peak at  
476  $502 \pm 166$  ms). When looking at within-group differences the analysis showed a significant cluster  
477 ( $p = .020$ ) for Trentino speakers only, approximately between 528 and 648 ms and predominately

478 distributed over frontal and frontocentral right channels (F6, F8, FC6): MMN response was larger  
 479 for voiced (familiar) than for voiceless (less familiar) stimuli on frontal right electrodes<sup>2</sup>. No  
 480 significant clusters were found in the between-group analyses. Results are summarized in Figure 1.



481

482 **Figure 1.** MMN to *sen[s]o* and *sen[z]o* for the Trentino and the Central-Southern speakers' group.

483 (A) MMN (blue) is plotted for the Fz site within every group and for every word variant by

484 subtracting the standard ERP (red) from the deviant ERP (black). The time-window in which

485 significant clusters were found is represented by light grey areas. Vertical dashed lines indicate the

486 onset of /n/ and [s]-[z] respectively. (B) Topographies show the spatial distribution of the MMN in

<sup>2</sup> It is worth noting that the topography of the differential effects between the two MMNs depicted in Figure 1 (5th column) might resemble the topography of an independent component of horizontal eye movements, as noted by an anonymous reviewer. Considering that the topographies of MMN *sen[z]o* and MMN *sen[s]o* are lateralized towards opposite directions in both groups, if they were contaminated by eye-movements artifacts they would reflect saccadic activity directed towards opposite directions on the basis of the condition. Although some saccades probably occurred during the experiment (since participants were free to move their gaze and visual attention towards different part of the screen while the silent movie was played) it is highly unlikely that they could be linked and time-locked to our auditory stimulation, as they were mostly elicited by visual stimulation. In fact, while the visual stimulation could likely elicit saccades towards random directions at any given time-point, the auditory stimulation was delivered with equal intensity from a left and a right speaker irrespectively of the condition. Therefore, it is safe to assume that auditory stimulation could not systematically elicit saccades time-locked with auditory events directed towards different directions on the basis of the condition.

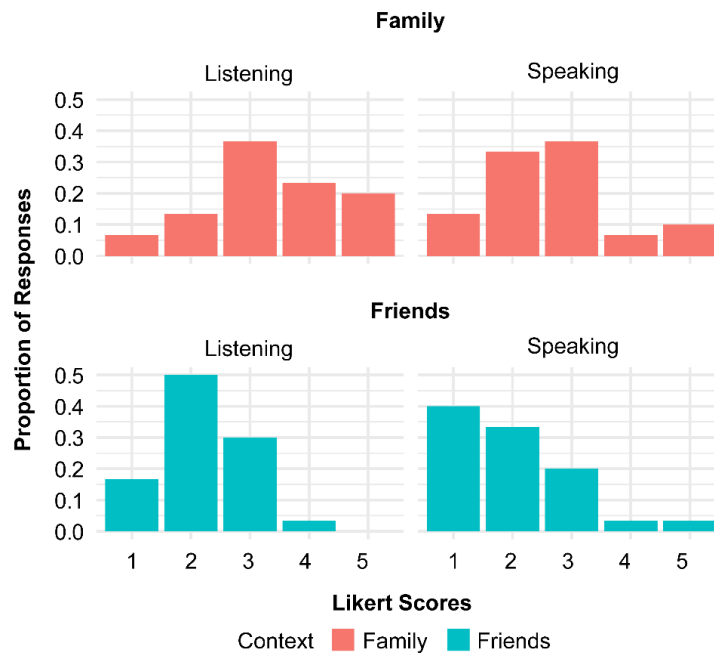
487 the time windows indicated below the maps that correspond to the temporal extension of the cluster.  
488 Electrodes that were included in the clusters for more than 50% of the samples within the cluster  
489 time windows are represented by white marks superimposed to the maps. The topographical map  
490 representing the difference between the two MMN waveforms in Central–Southern speakers (2<sup>nd</sup>  
491 row, rightmost plot) refers to the time window in which a significant cluster is found for Trentino  
492 speakers only for illustrative purposes.

493

### 494 **3.2 Sociolinguistic Questionnaire and Production data**

495 The data of the sociolinguistic questionnaire administered to the Trentino Group are summarized in  
496 Table 2. The final Ordinal Logistic Regression Model predicted the rate of dialect use as a function  
497 of activity (speaking and listening), context (friends and family) and sex (female, male) as fixed  
498 factors. The model showed significant effects of context ( $\beta = 1.89$ ,  $SE = 0.44$ ,  $t = 4.21$ ,  $p < .001$ )  
499 and activity ( $\beta = 0.94$ ,  $SE = 0.34$ ,  $t = 2.75$ ,  $p = .006$ ), indicating that participants reported to listen to  
500 dialect more likely than to speak it and to listen to or speak dialect more likely with family members  
501 than with friends. All the Trentino participants included in the final sample, spontaneously  
502 produced the critical sibilant phoneme as voiced.

503



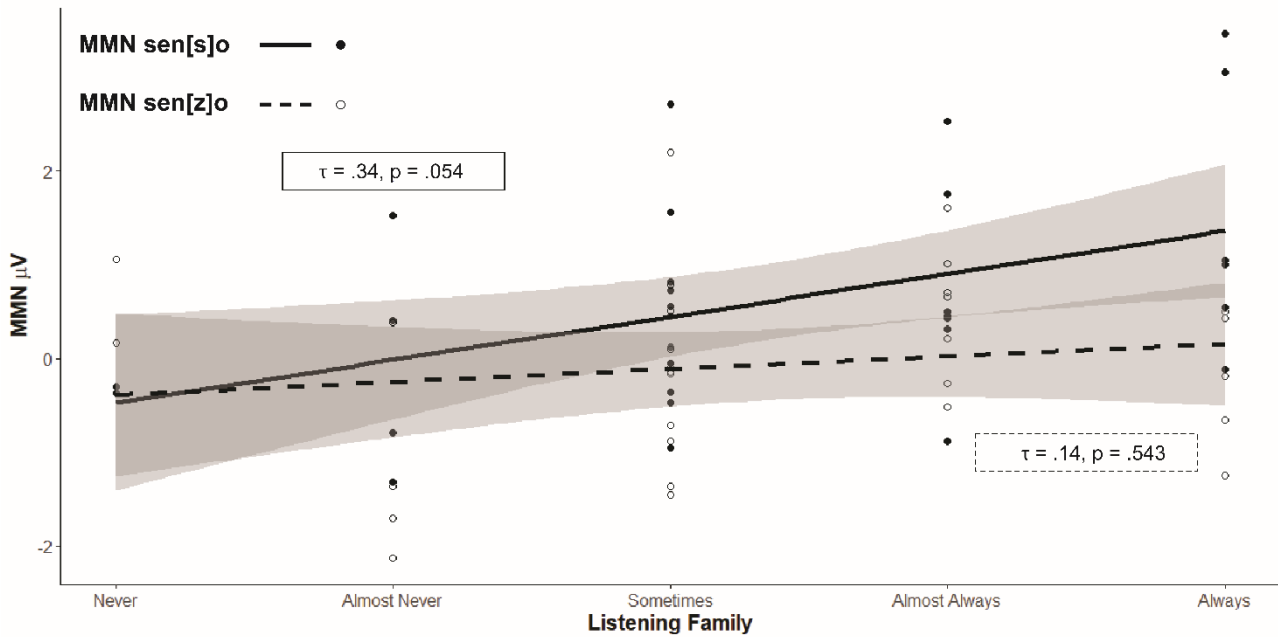
504

505 **Figure 2.** Proportion of Likert Scores of the Sociolinguistic Questionnaire divided by Context  
 506 (Family, Friends) and Activity (Listening, Speaking).

507

### 508 3.3 Correlations

509 There was a marginally significant positive correlation between the amplitude of MMN to *sen[s]o*  
 510 and the self-reported frequency of listening to dialect in family contexts ( $\tau = .34$ ,  $p = .054$ ): The  
 511 more participants reported to be passively exposed to dialect in family context, the weaker (i.e., less  
 512 negative) the MMN elicited by the deviant word embedding the Standard Italian voiceless sibilant  
 513 (Figure 2). No further correlation approached significance (all  $p$ s > .24).



514

515 **Figure 3.** Correlation between the amplitude of MMN and the self-reported frequency of listening

516 to dialect from family members. Black dots represent individual observations of the amplitude of

517 MMN to *sen[s]o* in function of the self-reported frequencies of listening to dialect from family

518 members; black solid line represents the slope of the correlation. White dots represent individual

519 observations of the amplitude of MMN to *sen[z]o* in function of the self-reported frequencies of

520 listening to dialect from family members; black dashed line represents the slope of the correlation.

521 The Gray areas represents C.I.

522

523

#### 4. Discussion

524 This ERP study investigated how allophonic variation and familiarity with specific allophones

525 influence automatic memory retrieval processes for words. Native speakers of the Trentino regional

526 variety of Italian and of Central-Southern Italian varieties took part in the study. We tested the

527 MMN elicited by the presentation of the word *senso* embedding either the voiced sibilant (*sen[z]o*),528 typical of the Trentino regional Italian, or the voiceless sibilant (*sen[s]o*) of Standard Italian and of

529 the Central-Southern varieties of Italian. Additionally, measures of self-reported frequency of use of



530 the Trentino dialect were collected to investigate the impact of exposure to the allophonic variant on  
 531 the electrophysiological response of the Trentino speakers.

532 The ERP data showed that a sustained MMN response was successfully elicited for both  
 533 deviant *sen[s]o* and *sen[z]o* in both groups, mainly distributed across Frontal and Fronto-Central  
 534 electrode lines. The deviant ERP showed a clear negative displacement from the standard ERP (on  
 535 average) from 300 ms until 800 ms after word onset, as indicated by the significant clusters. The  
 536 peak latency of the MMN is overall consistent with the perception of a phonetic difference in the  
 537 time window of the critical sibilant (i.e., 150-200 ms after sibilant onset; Näätänen et al., 2007). The  
 538 successful elicitation of the MMN response indicated that both Trentino and Central-Southern  
 539 speakers pre-attentively detected the phonetic dissimilarities occurring between the two variants of  
 540 the word. This may be apparently in contrast with the behavioural results by Peperkamp et al.  
 541 (2003), who found that allophonic discrimination is more difficult when allophones were embedded  
 542 in a non-lexical but phonologically legal context. However, electrophysiological measures are more  
 543 sensitive to the processing of small acoustic differences that may not be detected by behavioural  
 544 measures (van Zuijen et al., 2006). Our finding thus suggests that listeners pre-attentively perceive  
 545 allophonic variations embedded in meaningful words.

546 Within group comparisons revealed that, in the Trentino speakers' group, the familiar  
 547 *sen[z]o* elicited a larger MMN response at the rightmost Frontal and Fronto-central electrode sites  
 548 than the unfamiliar *sen[s]o*, while no amplitude differences between the MMN elicited by *sen[s]o*  
 549 and *sen[z]o* were found for the Central-Southern speakers' group. However, between group  
 550 comparisons indicated that the amplitude difference between MMN *sen[s]o* and MMN *sen[z]o*  
 551 found for Trentino speakers was not statistically different from the one computed for Central-  
 552 Southern speakers. This result may suggest that both groups do not have differentiated word  
 553 representations for *sen[s]o* and *sen[z]o*, despite the latter supposedly being the most frequent  
 554 production for Trentino speakers and the actual version spontaneously produced by the Trentino

555 participants of the present study. The inference-based account for word recognition (Gaskell &  
556 Marslen-Wilson, 1998) would predict that listeners can accommodate phonetic variability – hence  
557 allophonic variations – via inferential processes that follow the rules dictated by the phonological  
558 context. We specifically predicted that if this model was the best one to explain the perception of  
559 allophonic variation in word contexts, no variant-specific amplitude modulation of the MMN would  
560 have emerged. To this regard, previous studies showed that the MMN is larger when the deviant  
561 stimulus belongs to the listener’s native language (Dehaene-Lambertz, 1997) and form a  
562 meaningful word (Shtyrov & Pulvermüller, 2002). Authors interpreted this effect as an index of an  
563 automatic memory trace retrieval process for native phonemes or known words, but the presence of  
564 this effect does not emerge from our between-group analyses. While both groups have shown to  
565 perceive the [s]-[z] contrast in a word context (as indicated by the presence of a clear MMN for  
566 both word variants), participants might not have differentiated word representations for *sen[s]o* and  
567 *sen[z]o* and simply access the same abstract *senso* representation by accommodating allophonic  
568 variation thanks to inferential processes.

569         The absence of between-group effect is critical for the interpretation of results. However,  
570 considering the patterns at the within-group level – which showed a significant difference between  
571 MMN *sen[s]o* and MMN *sen[z]o* for Trentino speakers but not for the Central-Southern speakers –  
572 one possibility is that, although our samples were relatively large, our study lacked the sufficient  
573 power to highlight a between-group difference given a) the extremely conservative nature of the  
574 statistical approach we employed and b) the intrinsic weakness in term of statistical power of the  
575 between group analysis – as a matter of fact, any linear combination of ERP data has the advantage  
576 of removing non relevant aspects of the EEG, but at the same time strongly affects signal-to-noise  
577 ratio (Luck, 2014). With respect to this last consideration, it must be noted that the between-group  
578 comparison is relative to a difference (group) in a difference (MMN *sen[s]o* and MMN *sen[z]o*) of  
579 a differential effect (deviant minus standard). Therefore, with this possibility in mind, we now

580 attempt to tentatively discuss the results of the within-group analyses. Looking at the results for  
581 Trentino speakers only, it might be possible that larger amplitude MMN may be elicited also when  
582 words embed familiar allophones with respect to when they do not. Native speakers of the Trentino  
583 variety are exposed to both allophonic variants as they can hear Standard Italian *sen[s]o* in  
584 educational and institutional contexts or through media, but they can putatively hear Trentino  
585 *sen[z]o* more frequently, especially in family contexts or with friends. Being frequently exposed to  
586 the word variant *sen[z]o*, native speakers of the Trentino variety may have built differentiated  
587 memory traces for the familiar *sen[z]o* and the less familiar *sen[s]o*. Conversely, Central-Southern  
588 speakers were never exposed to the Trentino variety prior to participating in the experiment. Thus,  
589 it is unlikely that they developed two separated word representations for *sen[s]o* and *sen[z]o*, while  
590 still being able to discriminate the phonetic differences between the two.

591           One similar study investigated whether native speakers of Standard American English  
592 (SAE) could pick up dialect specific phonetic features by comparing the MMN elicited by the word  
593 *hello* produced in SAE dialect and the MMN elicited by the same word produced in African  
594 American English dialect (AAE) (Scharinger et al., 2011). Results showed a reliable elicitation of  
595 the MMN for both versions of the word while no MMN was found in a control condition in which  
596 the standard-deviant acoustic differences were acoustically matched with the ones characterizing  
597 the condition in which SAE and the AAE stimuli were presented. Authors argued that while  
598 acoustic differences may have had a role in determining the elicitation of the MMN to SAE and  
599 AAE stimuli, since no MMN emerged in the control condition, results mainly reflect a top-down  
600 modulation induced by dialectal knowledge in long-term memory. Moreover, authors showed that  
601 the MMN to SAE stimuli (which were familiar to SAE participants) was larger than that elicited by  
602 unfamiliar AAE stimuli. This specific result is in line with the within-group results of the present  
603 study for Trentino speakers, showing a larger amplitude MMN for the familiar *sen[z]o* vs the  
604 unfamiliar *sen[s]o*.

605           With respect to the three theoretical accounts of word recognition, always bearing in mind  
606 the absence of between-groups differences, the patterns emerging at the within-groups level of  
607 Trentino and Central-Southern speakers might be compatible with the hybrid account of word  
608 recognition. This class of models predicts that specific abstract representations for frequent word  
609 variants may be developed to reduce the impact of word retrieval on cognitive resources (Connine  
610 & Pinnow, 2006; Pinnow & Connine, 2014) as a function of the quantity of exposure with the  
611 specific word variants (Sumner & Samuel, 2009). That is, the access to word variants  
612 representations is weighted by the frequency of occurrence: Trentino speakers might have two  
613 separated word representations for *sen[s]o* and *sen[z]o*, with the representation for *sen[z]o* having  
614 stronger activation weights, given that this word variant is encountered more frequently with respect  
615 to *sen[s]o*. Hence, they showed a larger amplitude MMN to the more frequent *sen[z]o*, a result in  
616 line with another study with Russian speakers in which MMN to frequent vs infrequent words  
617 showed larger amplitude (Aleksandrov et al., 2017). Instead, Central-Southern speakers did not  
618 show the opposite pattern even if they are more familiar with *sen[s]o* (Standard Italian). This  
619 pattern can also be explained through the lens of the hybrid approach, which does not exclude the  
620 usage of inferential processes to accommodate allophonic variation. When encountering the  
621 unfamiliar allophone [z] in a context where [s] is expected, Central-Southern speakers might have  
622 assimilated the [z] allophone within the native phonological /s/ category, thus retrieving the  
623 “standard form” (i.e., an abstract representation) of the word *senso*.

624           In contrast with the interpretation of the between-group analysis, the pattern of within-  
625 group results would not fit completely with the inference-based account. This would only be apt to  
626 explain the results for Central-Southern speakers which may have accommodated the allophonic  
627 variation into a single abstract representation of the word *senso* (‘sense’) but not the results for  
628 Trentino speakers. The episodic account could still explain the results for Trentino speakers, as it  
629 predicts the existence of frequency-weighted episodic memories for all the encountered word

630 variants, but it would not be apt to explain the results for Central-Southern speakers as if they only  
631 have experienced the *sen[s]o* variant, they would have shown a stronger MMN for that specific  
632 word. The interpretation of the within-group results is also in line with Sebastián-Gallés, Vera-  
633 Constán, Larsson, Costa, & Deco (2009) who show that Catalan listeners form differentiated lexical  
634 representations for words spoken in a Spanish dialect as a result of prolonged exposure, while  
635 phonemic categories are not affected. Catalan listeners recognize /e/ and /ɛ/ as separate phonemes,  
636 while Spanish listeners assimilate them in /e/. In this study, Catalan listeners showed a N400 for  
637 words vs non-words contrasting only for /e/ - /ɛ/ vowels but did not show any effect when the  
638 contrast was /ɛ/ - /e/ and the non-word containing /e/ was a recognized word variant in Spanish. In  
639 addition, the amplitude of MMN for /de/ - /dɛ/ contrast in isolation did not reveal any difference,  
640 suggesting no violation of phonemic boundary.

641           It is important to note that the right topographical distribution of the difference between  
642 the two MMNs for Trentino Speakers slightly diverges from the typical distribution of the  
643 enhancement effect, which is usually more evident on the midline electrodes (Pulvermüller &  
644 Shtyrov, 2006). The reason for this topographical inconsistency may lie in the involvement of  
645 phonetic analysis processes. Bühler, Schmid, and Maurer (2017) showed that when familiar vs  
646 unfamiliar allophones are embedded in pseudowords, the MMN is weaker for familiar allophones.  
647 Moreover, source reconstruction suggests the right hemisphere as a possible source of the effect.  
648 Authors suggest that the activity of the right-lateralized sources is linked to a stronger need of non-  
649 linguistic phonetic analysis of unfamiliar sounds that can impact linguistic processes. This  
650 topographical distribution of the effect converges with the one reported in the scalp topographies of  
651 our study, yet the direction of the effect at the ERP level seems to differ. The origin of this  
652 divergence may lie in the different role the right-lateralized processes would undertake when  
653 meaningful words are presented to the listener. In fact, during word perception, the right  
654 hemisphere is involved in acoustic/phonetic analysis that supports left-hemispheric phonemic

655 processes and its involvement seems to be facilitated by lexical context (Wolmetz et al., 2011).  
656 Bühler, Schmid et al. (2017) suggest that when pseudowords are presented in the experiment, right-  
657 lateralized processes reflect non-linguistic phonetic analysis that is still facilitated by allophonic  
658 familiarity. However, when meaningful words are presented, lexical and phonetic information could  
659 be mutually beneficial. In this way, while the output of right-lateralised phonetic processes can be  
660 channelled into a word form, the word recognition system can finally encode familiar phonetic  
661 information and retrieve the appropriate representation. Following the hybrid account of word  
662 recognition models, these results could indicate that specific phonetic representations are formed for  
663 frequent allophonic productions and their activation may also rely on right-lateralized processes.

664         An additional clarification about the role of exposure to specific word variants comes  
665 from the results of the correlation analyses. The marginally significant correlation between the self-  
666 reported frequency of listening to the Trentino dialect in familiar context and the MMN *sen[s]o*  
667 suggests that higher frequency of exposure to the dialect in Trentino speakers was associated to  
668 smaller MMN to the unfamiliar *sen[s]o* on frontal and frontocentral right electrodes, while no  
669 correlation was found for the MMN to the familiar *sen[z]o*. Moreover, as indicated by the  
670 regression analyses, both passive and active exposure to dialect were more likely to happen in  
671 familiar context. This suggests that the more individual listeners are exposed to a specific word  
672 embedding familiar allophones, the lesser the phonetic-related processes are involved when  
673 standard phonology is heard.

#### 674 **4.1 Final remarks and conclusions.**

675 A critical aspect of this study clearly relates to the inconsistencies between the interpretation of the  
676 results based on the between-group effect and the one emerging from the within-group effects.  
677 While the between-group results could be framed by the inference-based accounts of word  
678 recognition, the within-group results as well as the correlation analyses might suggest that the  
679 hybrid approach would be more suited. To this regard, it must be acknowledged that the link

680 between our data and spoken word recognition models is indirect as it is basically grounded on the  
681 hypothesis that MMN electrophysiological response is strongly dependent on long term memory  
682 representation of spoken words. This link is supported by extensive empirical data on this topic  
683 (Endrass et al., 2004; Pulvermüller et al., 2001, 2004; Shtyrov & Pulvermüller, 2002; Tavano et al.,  
684 2012), showing a larger amplitude MMN for word stimuli with respect to phonologically balanced  
685 non-words. However, the difference between *sen[s]o* and *sen[z]o* is allophonic, thus possibly more  
686 fine-grained with respect to a definite lexical contrast between words and non-words. In fact, a  
687 crossover interaction could have been predicted only if lexical representation of spoken words  
688 would be firmly linked to the way a word is produced. Therefore, this caveat possibly makes our  
689 paradigm rather suboptimal for strong inferential conclusions about models of spoken word  
690 recognition which revolve around lexical access. Further studies on this matter should possibly use  
691 very large sample sizes as well as try to include additional behavioural measures (e.g.,  
692 discrimination and categorization tasks) and sociolinguistic questionnaire that could guide the  
693 interpretation of the electrophysiological measures both at the between- and within-group level.

694 Another potential limit of our study is the occurrence of an early onset of the MMN  
695 response, which suggests that words could be pre-attentively discriminated slightly before the onset  
696 of the /s/ phoneme. The F0 lowering on the nasal consonant preceding the onset of the voiced  
697 sibilant may have served as additional phonetic cue to signal the upcoming allophonic variation.  
698 This particular cue which is generated by an automatic process may further be considered as a  
699 proper part of the whole allophonic variation. However, the peak latencies of the MMN response  
700 suggest that the presentation of the critical sibilant phoneme still generated the strongest negative  
701 peak amplitudes in the deviant ERPs. When multiple phonetic violations of the standard word  
702 representation in short-term memory occur, MMN can also appear with contingent multiple peaks  
703 (Truckenbrodt et al., 2014). While we have not been able to statistically address the detection of  
704 multiple MMN peaks at single subject level, the grand-average plots suggest the possibility that our

705 average MMN are built up by multiple peaks that may be due to the detection of multiple deviant  
706 features in each single token in slightly different time points. To avoid possible confounds and  
707 misinterpretations, the presence of statistically significant differences located outside the temporal  
708 bounds of the MMN peak consistent with the presentation of the /s/-/z/ phoneme were treated with  
709 caution.

710           Additionally, it is worth acknowledging that while the current implementation of the  
711 MMN paradigm nicely accounts for the influence of physical features of the stimuli on the MMN  
712 waveform, it cannot avoid alleged contaminations due to the different direction of change detection  
713 between standard and deviant stimuli. In fact, while MMNs were computed by subtracting the ERPs  
714 of each standard stimulus by the one elicited by the same stimulus presented as deviant, both  
715 deviants occurred in different “standard contexts” (i.e., the deviant sen[z]o after standard sen[s]o,  
716 and the deviant sen[s]o after standard sen[z]o). Future studies might develop new implementations  
717 of the MMN paradigm that could both control for the effects due to physical features of the single  
718 stimuli and for the ones stemming from possible differences related to the direction of change  
719 between the stimuli.

720           In conclusion, by capitalizing on multilingual experience of people speaking Italian and  
721 different regional varieties, we suggest that words embedding familiar allophones and words  
722 embedding standard phonemes are differently represented in the brain of native speakers of a  
723 specific regional variety. At the electrophysiological level, this difference may be characterized by  
724 the additional involvement of specific right-lateralized processes of phonetic analysis that enrich  
725 word representations with familiar phonetic information, supporting the hybrid account of word  
726 recognition. Moreover, the strength of activation of such processes seems to be modulated by the  
727 individual degree of exposure with allophonic word forms.

728

729



730 **Acknowledgements:** The research leading to these results has received funding from the  
 731 European Union's Seventh Framework Programme for research, technological development and  
 732 demonstration under grant agreement no. 613465, “AThEME”.

733

734 **Declaration of Competing Interest:** none.

735

736 **Data Statement:** The datasets acquired in the context of the present study are not publicly available  
 737 because consent for publication was not obtained from the participants. Data and scripts are  
 738 available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

739

740

741

## References

- 742 Abdi, H. (2007). The Kendall rank correlation coefficient. *Encyclopedia of Measurement and Statistics*. Sage, Thousand  
 743 Oaks, CA, 508–510.
- 744 Amari, S., Cichocki, A., & Yang, H. H. (1996). *A new learning algorithm for blind signal separation*. 757–763.
- 745 Avery, P., Dresher, B. E., & Rice, K. (2008). *Contrast in phonology: Theory, perception, acquisition* (Vol. 13). Walter  
 746 de Gruyter.
- 747 Bertinetto, P. M., & Loporcaro, M. (2005). The sound pattern of Standard Italian, as compared with the varieties spoken  
 748 in Florence, Milan and Rome. *Journal of the International Phonetic Association*, 35(02), 131.  
 749 <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0025100305002148>
- 750 Boomershine, A., Hall, K. C., Hume, E., & Johnson, K. (2008). The impact of allophony versus contrast on speech  
 751 perception. *Contrast in Phonology: Theory, Perception, Acquisition*, 13, 145–172.
- 752 Bühler, J. C., Schmid, S., & Maurer, U. (2017). Influence of dialect use on speech perception: A mismatch negativity  
 753 study. *Language, Cognition and Neuroscience*, 32(6), 757–775.  
 754 <https://doi.org/10.1080/23273798.2016.1272704>

- 755 Calabrese, A. (2012). Auditory representations and phonological illusions: A linguist's perspective on the  
 756 neuropsychological bases of speech perception. *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, 25(5), 355–381.  
 757 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneuroling.2011.03.005>
- 758 Chambers, J. K., Trudgill, P., & Schilling-Estes, N. (2002). *The handbook of language variation and change*. Wiley  
 759 Online Library.
- 760 Cheour, M., Ceponiene, R., Lehtokoski, A., Luuk, A., Allik, J., Alho, K., & Näätänen, R. (1998). Development of  
 761 language-specific phoneme representations in the infant brain. *Nature Neuroscience*, 1(5), 351–353.  
 762 <https://doi.org/10.1038/1561>
- 763 Connine, C. M., & Pinnow, E. (2006). Phonological variation in spoken word recognition: Episodes and abstractions.  
 764 *The Linguistic Review*, 23(3), 235–245.
- 765 Dehaene-Lambertz, G. (1997). Electrophysiological correlates of categorical phoneme perception in adults.  
 766 *Neuroreport*, 8(4), 919–924.
- 767 Delorme, A., & Makeig, S. (2004). EEGLAB: An open source toolbox for analysis of single-trial EEG dynamics  
 768 including independent component analysis. *Journal of Neuroscience Methods*, 134(1), 9–21.  
 769 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2003.10.009>
- 770 Eisner, F., & McQueen, J. M. (2018). Speech perception. *Stevens' Handbook of Experimental Psychology and*  
 771 *Cognitive Neuroscience*, 3, 1–46.
- 772 Endrass, T., Mohr, B., & Pulvermuller, F. (2004). Enhanced mismatch negativity brain response after binaural word  
 773 presentation. *European Journal of Neuroscience*, 19(6), 1653–1660. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-9568.2004.03247.x)  
 774 [9568.2004.03247.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-9568.2004.03247.x)
- 775 Eulitz, C., & Lahiri, A. (2004). Neurobiological Evidence for Abstract Phonological Representations in the Mental  
 776 Lexicon during Speech Recognition. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 16(4), 577–583.  
 777 <https://doi.org/10.1162/089892904323057308>
- 778 Fasold, R. W., & Connor-Linton, J. (2014). *An introduction to language and linguistics*. Cambridge university press.
- 779 Fu, Z., & Monahan, P. J. (2021). Extracting Phonetic Features From Natural Classes: A Mismatch Negativity Study of  
 780 Mandarin Chinese Retroflex Consonants. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 15, 609898.  
 781 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2021.609898>
- 782 Gaskell, M. G., & Marslen-Wilson, W. D. (1998). Mechanisms of phonological inference in speech perception. *Journal*  
 783 *of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 24(2), 380. [https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-](https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-1523.24.2.380)  
 784 [1523.24.2.380](https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-1523.24.2.380)

- 785 Goldinger, S. D. (1998). Echoes of echoes? An episodic theory of lexical access. *Psychological Review*, *105*(2), 251.  
 786 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.105.2.251>
- 787 Hestvik, A., & Durvasula, K. (2016). Neurobiological evidence for voicing underspecification in English. *Brain and*  
 788 *Language*, *152*, 28–43.
- 789 Hickok, G., & Poeppel, D. (2007). The cortical organization of speech processing. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, *8*(5),  
 790 393–402. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn2113>
- 791 Jacobsen, T., Schröger, E., & Alter, K. (2004). Pre-attentive perception of vowel phonemes from variable speech  
 792 stimuli. *Psychophysiology*, *41*(4), 654–659. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1469-8986.2004.00175.x>
- 793 Jacobsen, T., Schröger, E., & Sussman, E. (2004). Pre-attentive categorization of vowel formant structure in complex  
 794 tones. *Cognitive Brain Research*, *20*(3), 473–479. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogbrainres.2004.03.021>
- 795 Kingston, J. (2011). Tonogenesis: Tonogenesis. In M. van Oostendorp, C. J. Ewen, E. Hume, & K. Rice (Eds.), *The*  
 796 *Blackwell Companion to Phonology* (pp. 1–30). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.  
 797 <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444335262.wbctp0097>
- 798 Krämer, M. (2003). Variation of s-voicing in two varieties of Italian. *Proceedings of the XXVIIIth Incontro Di*  
 799 *Grammatica Generativa. Lecce: Congedo Editore.*
- 800 Krämer, M. (2009). *The phonology of Italian*. Oxford University Press.
- 801 Liberman, A. M., Cooper, F. S., Shankweiler, D. P., & Studdert-Kennedy, M. (1967). Perception of the speech code.  
 802 *Psychological Review*, *74*(6), 431. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0020279>
- 803 Lopez-Calderon, J., & Luck, S. J. (2014). ERPLAB: an open-source toolbox for the analysis of event-related potentials.  
 804 *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, *8*, 213. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2014.00213>
- 805 Maiden, M., & Parry, M. (1997). Introduction. In *The dialects of Italy* (p. 3). Routledge.
- 806 Maris, E., & Oostenveld, R. (2007). Nonparametric statistical testing of EEG- and MEG-data. *Journal of Neuroscience*  
 807 *Methods*, *164*(1), 177–190. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2007.03.024>
- 808 McClelland, J. L., & Elman, J. L. (1986). The TRACE model of speech perception. *Cognitive Psychology*, *18*(1), 1–86.  
 809 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0285\(86\)90015-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0285(86)90015-0)
- 810 Miglietta, S., Grimaldi, M., & Calabrese, A. (2013). Conditioned allophony in speech perception: An ERP study. *Brain*  
 811 *and Language*, *126*(3), 285–290. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandl.2013.06.001>
- 812 Mitterer, H., Scharenborg, O., & McQueen, J. M. (2013). Phonological abstraction without phonemes in speech  
 813 perception. *Cognition*, *129*(2), 356–361. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2013.07.011>

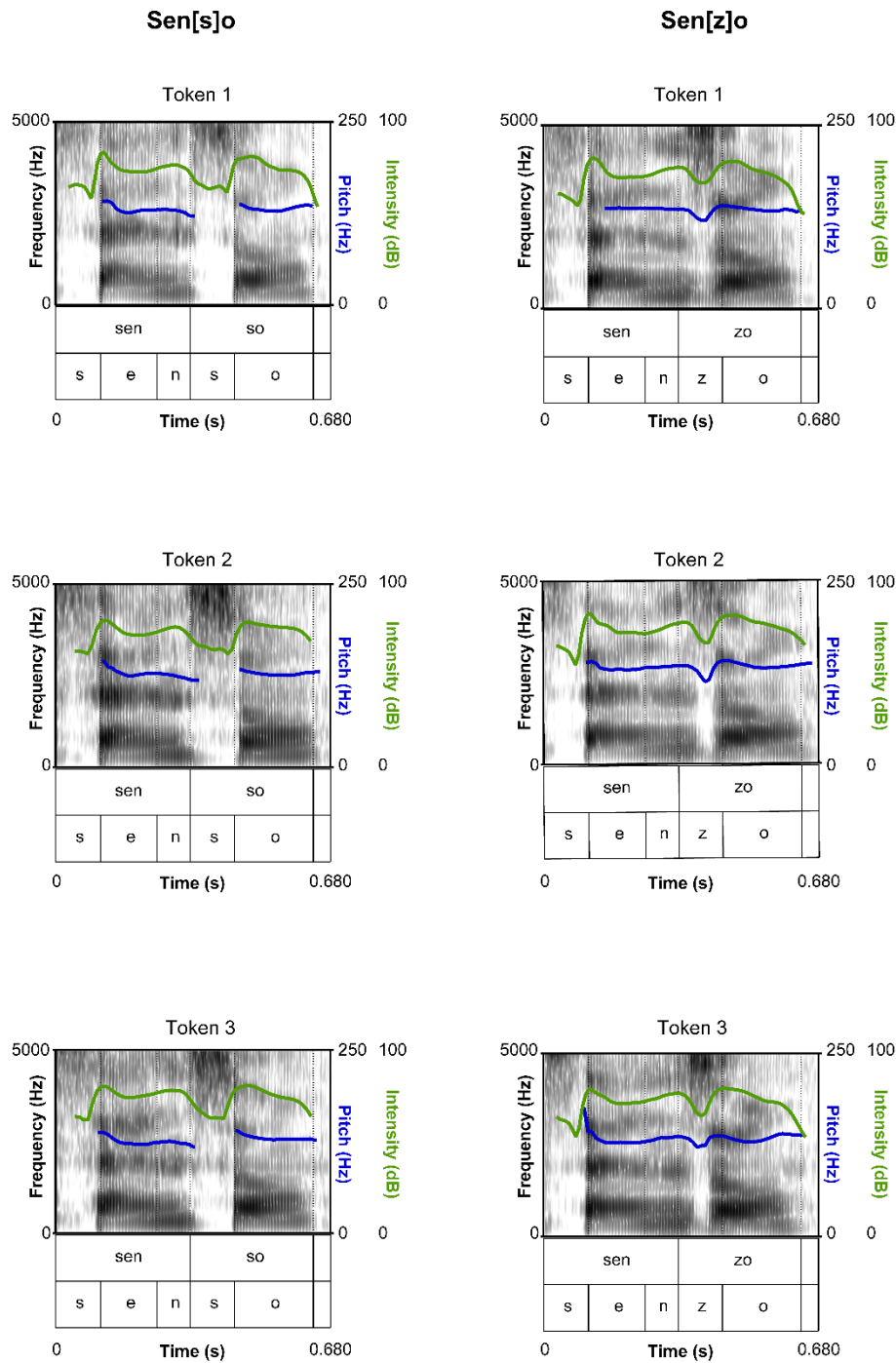
- 814 Moulines, E., & Charpentier, F. (1990). Pitch-synchronous waveform processing techniques for text-to-speech synthesis  
 815 using diphones. *Speech Communication*, 9(5–6), 453–467. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-6393\(90\)90021-Z](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-6393(90)90021-Z)
- 816 Näätänen, R. (1995). The mismatch negativity: A powerful tool for cognitive neuroscience. *Ear and Hearing*, 16(1), 6–  
 817 18.
- 818 Näätänen, R., Jacobsen, T., & Winkler, I. (2005). Memory-based or afferent processes in mismatch negativity (MMN):  
 819 A review of the evidence. *Psychophysiology*, 42(1), 25–32. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8986.2005.00256.x>
- 820 Näätänen, R., Lehtokoski, A., Lennes, M., Cheour, M., Huotilainen, M., Iivonen, A., Vainio, M., Alku, P., Ilmoniemi,  
 821 R. J., Luuk, A., Allik, J., Sinkkonen, J., & Alho, K. (1997). Language-specific phoneme representations  
 822 revealed by electric and magnetic brain responses. *Nature*, 385(6615), 432–434.  
 823 <https://doi.org/10.1038/385432a0>
- 824 Näätänen, R., & Michie, P. T. (1979). Early selective-attention effects on the evoked potential: A critical review and  
 825 reinterpretation. *Biological Psychology*, 8(2), 81–136. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0301-0511\(79\)90053-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0301-0511(79)90053-X)
- 826 Näätänen, R., Paavilainen, P., Rinne, T., & Alho, K. (2007). The mismatch negativity (MMN) in basic research of  
 827 central auditory processing: A review. *Clinical Neurophysiology*, 118(12), 2544–2590.  
 828 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clinph.2007.04.026>
- 829 Norris, D., & McQueen, J. M. (2008). Shortlist B: A Bayesian model of continuous speech recognition. *Psychological*  
 830 *Review*, 115(2), 357–395. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.115.2.357>
- 831 Oostenveld, R., Fries, P., Maris, E., & Schoffelen, J.-M. (2011). FieldTrip: Open Source Software for Advanced  
 832 Analysis of MEG, EEG, and Invasive Electrophysiological Data. *Computational Intelligence and*  
 833 *Neuroscience*, 2011, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2011/156869>
- 834 Pallier, C., Bosch, L., & Sebastián-Gallés, N. (1997). A limit on behavioral plasticity in speech perception. *Cognition*,  
 835 64(3), B9–B17. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-0277\(97\)00030-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-0277(97)00030-9)
- 836 Paul Boersma & David Weenink. (2018). *Praat: Doing phonetics by computer [Computer program]* (Version 6.0.37)  
 837 [Computer software]. <http://www.praat.org/>
- 838 Peperkamp, S., Pettinato, M., & Dupoux, E. (2003). Allophonic variation and the acquisition of phoneme categories.  
 839 *Proceedings of the 27th Annual Boston University Conference on Language Development*, 2, 650–661.
- 840 Peter, V., McArthur, G., & Thompson, W. F. (2010). Effect of deviance direction and calculation method on duration  
 841 and frequency mismatch negativity (MMN). *Neuroscience Letters*, 482(1), 71–75.
- 842 Pierrehumbert, J. B. (2006). The statistical basis of an unnatural alternation. *Laboratory Phonology*, 8, 81–107.

- 843 Pinnow, E., & Connine, C. M. (2014). Phonological variant recognition: Representations and rules. *Language and*  
 844 *Speech*, 57(1), 42–67. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0023830913479105>
- 845 Pulvermüller, F., Kujala, T., Shtyrov, Y., Simola, J., Tiitinen, H., Alku, P., Alho, K., Martinkauppi, S., Ilmoniemi, R. J.,  
 846 & Näätänen, R. (2001). Memory Traces for Words as Revealed by the Mismatch Negativity. *NeuroImage*,  
 847 14(3), 607–616. <https://doi.org/10.1006/nimg.2001.0864>
- 848 Pulvermüller, F., & Shtyrov, Y. (2006). Language outside the focus of attention: The mismatch negativity as a tool for  
 849 studying higher cognitive processes. *Progress in Neurobiology*, 79(1), 49–71.  
 850 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pneurobio.2006.04.004>
- 851 Pulvermüller, F., Shtyrov, Y., Kujala, T., & Näätänen, R. (2004). Word-specific cortical activity as revealed by the  
 852 mismatch negativity. *Psychophysiology*, 41(1), 106–112. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8986.2003.00135.x>
- 853 R Core Team. (2013). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*.
- 854 *Resident population on 1st January: Provincia Autonoma Trento*. (n.d.). Retrieved November 20, 2020, from  
 855 <http://dati.istat.it/Index.aspx?lang=en&SubSessionId=86772a9d-95e2-4b63-98aa-00f55af58157>
- 856 Scharinger, M., Monahan, P. J., & Idsardi, W. J. (2011). You had me at “Hello”: Rapid extraction of dialect information  
 857 from spoken words. *NeuroImage*, 56(4), 2329–2338. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2011.04.007>
- 858 Schneider, E., & Zuccoloto, A. (2007). E-prime 2.0 [Computer software]. *Pittsburg, PA: Psychological Software Tools*.
- 859 Sebastián-Gallés, N., Vera-Constán, F., Larsson, J. P., Costa, A., & Deco, G. (2009). Lexical Plasticity in Early  
 860 Bilinguals Does Not Alter Phoneme Categories: II. Experimental Evidence. *Journal of Cognitive*  
 861 *Neuroscience*, 21(12), 2343–2357. <https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2008.21152>
- 862 Shtyrov, Y., & Pulvermüller, F. (2002). Neurophysiological evidence of memory traces for words in the human brain.  
 863 *Neuroreport*, 13(4), 521–525.
- 864 Steinberg, J., Truckenbrodt, H., & Jacobsen, T. (2010). Preattentive Phonotactic Processing as Indexed by the Mismatch  
 865 Negativity. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 22(10), 2174–2185. <https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2009.21408>
- 866 Steinberg, J., Truckenbrodt, H., & Jacobsen, T. (2012). The role of stimulus cross-splicing in an event-related potentials  
 867 study. Misleading formant transitions hinder automatic phonological processing. *The Journal of the Acoustical*  
 868 *Society of America*, 131(4), 3120–3140. <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.3688515>
- 869 Sumner, M., & Samuel, A. G. (2009). The effect of experience on the perception and representation of dialect variants.  
 870 *Journal of Memory and Language*, 60(4), 487–501. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2009.01.001>

- 871 Tavano, A., Grimm, S., Costa-Faidella, J., Slabu, L., Schröger, E., & Escera, C. (2012). Spectrotemporal processing  
872 drives fast access to memory traces for spoken words. *NeuroImage*, 60(4), 2300–2308.  
873 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2012.02.041>
- 874 Trubetzkoy, N. S. (1969). *Principles of phonology*.
- 875 Truckenbrodt, H., Steinberg, J., Jacobsen, T. K., & Jacobsen, T. (2014). Evidence for the role of German final  
876 devoicing in pre-attentive speech processing: A mismatch negativity study. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 5.  
877 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2014.01317>
- 878 van Bezooijen, R., & Gooskens, C. (1999). Identification of Language Varieties: The Contribution of Different  
879 Linguistic Levels. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 18(1), 31–48.  
880 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X99018001003>
- 881 van Zuijlen, T. L., Simoens, V. L., Paavilainen, P., Nääätänen, R., & Tervaniemi, M. (2006). Implicit, Intuitive, and  
882 Explicit Knowledge of Abstract Regularities in a Sound Sequence: An Event-related Brain Potential Study.  
883 *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 18(8), 1292–1303. <https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2006.18.8.1292>
- 884 Venables, W. N., & Ripley, B. D. (2002). *Modern applied statistics with s* (4th ed.). Springer.  
885 <http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/pub/MASS4/>
- 886 *VinKo ('Varieties in Contact')*. (n.d.). Retrieved January 10, 2021, from <https://www.vinko.it/index.php?lang=en>
- 887 Wolmetz, M., Poeppel, D., & Rapp, B. (2011). What Does the Right Hemisphere Know about Phoneme Categories?  
888 *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 23(3), 552–569. <https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2010.21495>
- 889
- 890
- 891
- 892
- 893
- 894
- 895
- 896
- 897
- 898
- 899
- 900
- 901
- 902

903  
904  
905  
906  
907  
908  
909  
910  
911

### **Supplementary Materials**



912

913 **Figure S1.** Spectrograms of the experimental stimuli with pitch profiles in blue (0-250 Hz) and  
 914 intensity profiles in green (0-100 dB) on the y-axis. Right column shows the spectrograms for each  
 915 of the three tokens for voiceless *sen[s]o*, while left column shows the spectrograms for each of the  
 916 three tokens for voiced *sen[z]o*.

917

918



**Items of The Sociolinguistic Questionnaire**

919  
920  
921  
922  
923  
924  
925  
926  
927  
928  
929  
930  
931  
932  
933  
934  
935  
936  
937  
938  
939  
940  
941  
942  
943  
944  
945  
946  
947  
948  
949  
950  
951  
952  
953

1. How frequently do you speak Trentino dialect with your family members?

- Always
- Almost Always
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

2. How frequently do you speak Trentino dialect with your friends?

- Always
- Almost Always
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

3. How frequently do your family members speak Trentino dialect to you?

- Always
- Almost Always
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

4. How frequently do your friends speak Trentino dialect to you?

- Always
- Almost Always
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never