



**Where do dialectal effects on speech processing come from?  
Evidence from a cross-dialect investigation**

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4 **Evidence from a cross-dialect investigation**  
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45 stimuli and running the experiments.  
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**Abstract**

Accented speech has been seen as an additional impediment for speech processing; it usually adds linguistic and cognitive load to the listener's task. In the current study we analyze where the processing costs of regional dialects come from, a question that has not been answered yet. We quantify the proficiency of Basque-Spanish bilinguals who have different native dialects of Basque on many dimensions and test for costs at each of three levels of processing – phonemic discrimination, word recognition, and semantic processing. The ability to discriminate a dialect-specific contrast is affected by a bilingual's linguistic background less than lexical access is, and an individual's difficulty in lexical access is correlated with basic discrimination problems. Once lexical access is achieved, dialectal variation has little impact on post-access semantic processing.

**Key-words**

Cross-dialect variation, accented speech, speech perception, spoken word recognition, very early and proficient bilinguals.

## Introduction

To a person born and raised in Dallas, the speech of a native New Yorker sounds rather odd. Conversely, a Southern accent is quite marked for the native New Yorker. And, a native of Chicago will notice odd properties in the speech of both of these others. The differences reflect the impact of dialects of American English. The same kind of dialectal clash is experienced by individuals from Paris versus Marseille, given the quite different dialects of French in these two places. In the current study, our focus will be on such regional accents, as they constitute a natural source of variation in any spoken language. Our test case involves dialectal variation in Basque, which illustrates that one does not need to travel almost a thousand kilometers to find these differences – regions within a hundred kilometers of each other can show substantial dialectal variation.

Although listeners usually succeed in adjusting to variation produced by another user of their own language (e.g. Clopper & Pisoni, 2004), a growing body of evidence shows that perceptual difficulties can arise among native listeners for phonemic contrasts that do not belong to their regional dialect (e.g., Conrey, Potts, & Niedzielski, 2005; Dufour, Brunellière, & Nguyen, 2013; Ingram & Park, 1997). Hence, it is necessary to make an explicit distinction between the native language and the native dialect. Most prior dialectal studies have been designed to show that regional accents have costs on spoken word recognition (Deelman & Connine, 2001; Floccia, Goslin, Girard, & Konopczynski, 2006; Gaskell & Marslen-Wilson, 1996; Gow, 2001, 2003; Janson & Schulman, 1983; LoCasto & Connine, 2002; McLennan, Luce, & Charles-Luce, 2003; Mitterer & Blomert, 2003; Scott & Cutler, 1984). This is an important finding, but it remains to be determined where these dialectal effects come from. This is the goal of the current study: We seek to localize any dialectal effects by testing how cross-dialect variation influences speech processing at different levels of representation. Prior work has not examined how phonemic discrimination capacity might contrast with lexical activation (at either the word form or semantic level) in cases of cross-dialect variation. Such an analysis is fundamental in order to fully understand the representation of dialectal variants.

By focusing on dialects of Basque, our study also allows us to examine how regional dialects are perceived by bilinguals – all of the participants in our study were highly fluent, very early Basque-Spanish bilinguals. A great deal of recent research has shown that it is necessary to

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3 consider the differences and commonalities between bilinguals' and monolinguals' speech  
4 processing. Our study thus tests whether bilinguals' linguistic experience affects the way they  
5 adjust to regional accents, as it does in monolinguals (e.g., Conrey et al., 2005; Dufour et al.,  
6 2013; Floccia, Butler, Goslin, & Ellis, 2009; Floccia et al., 2006).

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10 The observed processing costs for non-native dialects have varied quite a bit across  
11 different studies. In some studies that tested vocalic contrasts, listeners showed no perceptual  
12 difficulties with the non-native dialect (Cutler, Smits, & Cooper, 2005; Dufour, Nguyen, &  
13 Frauenfelder, 2007). In contrast, Conrey et al. (2005) found that for dialects with merged  
14 phonemic contrasts that remain contrastive in other varieties of same the language, listeners of  
15 the merged dialect show poorer discrimination of the critical contrast than of control contrasts  
16 shared by the two dialects. More surprisingly, the merged contrast seems to affect the perception  
17 of listeners of the unmerged dialect as well, with worse performance on the merged contrasts  
18 than on control contrasts. This tendency has been interpreted as the effect of exposure to  
19 speakers of the merged dialect (Brunellière, Dufour, Nguyen, & Frauenfelder, 2009; Conrey et  
20 al., 2005). Most of the studies analyzing perceptual accommodation to a merged contrast by  
21 different groups of listeners have looked at vocalic contrasts. The fact that vowels are perceived  
22 less categorically than consonants might have influenced the results – effects have been found in  
23 both directions, either facilitating or hindering discrimination. In the current study we investigate  
24 the source of these effects, using a consonant contrast that differs across two dialects of Basque.  
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#### 41 Phonemic contrast of interest

42 Standard Basque includes two voiceless fricatives that contrast in their active place of  
43 articulation: apical alveolar /s/ vs. laminal alveolar /s̺/. This is one-phonetic-feature contrast that  
44 makes minimal pairs in Standard Basque but that does not exist in Castilian Spanish, which only  
45 has the apical /s/ sound. The apical-laminal contrast of Standard Basque also is absent in the  
46 Western dialect of Basque because the Western dialect merges the sibilant fricatives' contrast in  
47 favor of the apical sound (/s̺/ > /s/). Although it has additional distinctive morphological and  
48 phonological characteristics that make it distinguishable from other Basque dialects, for the  
49 purposes of this study we will only focus on the fricative merger. "Standard" Basque is meant to  
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3 cover all non-merging Basque dialects. In Table 1 we present the phonemic distribution of the  
4 fricatives of interest in Castilian Spanish and in the two dialects of Basque.  
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19 It is important to know that there is also another source of variation that results in the  
20 same kind of apical articulation of the laminal fricative: mispronunciations by native speakers of  
21 Spanish who learn Basque. These speakers often mispronounce the laminal sound (not part of  
22 their native inventory) as apical (present in their native inventory). Thus, both accents – the  
23 Western accent and Spanish-accented Basque – merge the alveolar contrast into the same sound,  
24 but the context and additional morphophonological characteristics of the input inform the listener  
25 about the accent they are hearing. In the current study, “accented speech” refers to either  
26 Western vernacular pronunciation or Spanish-influenced pronunciation, which in both cases  
27 involves the change of /s̺/ to /s̠/.  
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30 We (Larraza, Samuel, & Oñederra, submitted) recently investigated how Basque  
31 bilinguals perceive syllables and words that contain this critical Basque contrast, examining  
32 effects of the age at which a bilingual learned Standard Basque, and the effect of having either  
33 Spanish or French as a first language. In the current study, we use the same set of tasks as before,  
34 but we test Spanish-Basque very early bilinguals who are native speakers of the Western dialect.  
35 We report the results for these native Western speakers, together with results from the  
36 simultaneous Spanish-Basque bilinguals from the previous study. This provides a direct  
37 comparison of two groups of very early Spanish-Basque bilinguals who differ in their native  
38 dialect of Basque – Standard versus Western.  
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51 Best’s Perceptual Assimilation Model, PAM (Best, 1995; Best & Tyler, 2007) and  
52 Flege’s Speech Learning Model, SLM (Flege, 1995), primarily proposed in the context of  
53 second-language speech perception, can be used to predict performance by bilinguals with  
54 different regional dialects. Even though PAM focuses on the invariant articulatory gestures that  
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3 listeners extract from the speech signal, and SLM states that listeners form categories from  
4 acoustic-phonetic cues, both models predict that listeners should be able to discriminate sounds  
5 that are not considered to be equivalent to native phonemes. For the case under study here, both  
6 PAM and SLM would predict that Western speakers should have some ability to distinguish the  
7 critical sounds, to the extent that they perceive any of the acoustic properties of the laminal /s/  
8 sound. Greater experience with the non-native dialect will result in better attuned perception,  
9 enabling more precise discrimination of the non-native sound.  
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16 Stampe's Natural Phonology Theory, NP (Stampe, 1979) makes a similar prediction.  
17 According to NP, implicit phonetic forces in human vocalization and perception govern the  
18 sound patterns of languages, "naturally" adjusting our phonological intentions to our phonetic  
19 capacities (Donegan & Stampe, 1979). NP explains the sound learning process as the  
20 suppression of natural phonetic constraints. Overcoming these implicit constraints gives a  
21 speaker the capacity to distinguish (both in perception and production) sounds of the language.  
22 Phonological acquisition is thus interpreted by NP in terms of inhibition of natural mental  
23 processes. In line with PAM and SLM, NP predicts that the phonological processes of the native  
24 language or dialect will affect later language learning and processing, in both perception and  
25 production. That is, unsuppressed phonetic constraints will influence the learning of non-native  
26 sounds and sequences. For the phonemic contrast of interest (present in Standard Basque but not  
27 in the Western dialect and Spanish), it remains to be seen if Western speakers still have the  
28 natural phonetic constraint active, or if instead they are able to inhibit it thanks to their contact  
29 with Standard Basque. If the latter is true, Western speakers will successfully discriminate the  
30 critical phonemic contrast. But if the former is true, very poor discrimination would be expected.  
31 Basque bilinguals' language experience will be a determinant of the degree of difficulty and/or  
32 success in inhibiting L1 processes (Larraza, 2009).  
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46 Note that for all three theories, the most straightforward predictions are for performance  
47 on a basic discrimination task: Should a given listener be expected to succeed in discriminating  
48 the apical and laminal variants? Normal language use, of course, does not involve such basic  
49 discrimination – it is grounded in recognizing the words that a person hears. Therefore, in order  
50 to understand how dialectal variation affects word recognition, in our previous study and in the  
51 current one we had subjects complete three experiments that targeted different levels of  
52 representation. An AXB discrimination task probes basic phonetic-phonological discrimination  
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3 performance for which models like PAM, SLM, and NP make predictions. An auditory lexical  
4 decision task measures dialectal effects in lexical access, and an auditory semantic priming task  
5 tests whether there are any post-lexical access effects of dialectal variation. Conducting these  
6 experiments as a set allows us to determine where any costs arise. The experiments were run  
7 within-subjects so that we can test whether difficulties at one level of processing (e.g., basic  
8 discrimination of a contrast) correlate with performance at other levels (e.g., lexical access). All  
9 participants did the semantic priming task first, then the AXB task, with the lexical decision task  
10 run last to prevent listeners from becoming aware of the phonemic contrast of interest. For clarity  
11 of the exposition, we report the experiments in ascending order: (1) phonetic processing, (2)  
12 lexical access, and (3) semantic association. Full stimulus lists and procedural details beyond  
13 those reported here are provided in Larraza, Samuel, and Oñederra (submitted).  
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### 26 **Experiment 1: AXB Discrimination task**

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30 Studies on phonemic discrimination of contrasts not present in a listener's native dialect  
31 reveal poorer discrimination by speakers of a merged dialect than native speakers of the non-  
32 merger dialect (Brunellière et al., 2009; Dufour et al., 2013). Our first experiment will tell us  
33 how well Western speakers are able to distinguish the Basque fricative contrast that is not  
34 present in their own dialect, compared to speakers of Standard Basque for whom this is a native  
35 contrast. We predict that Western speakers will show difficulties distinguishing the /s̺/-/s̺̃/  
36 contrast at a low, acoustic-phonetic level, given that this distinction is not part of their native  
37 inventory. However, based on what similar studies show (Cutler et al., 2005; Dufour et al.,  
38 2007), Western speakers may have some sensitivity to the apical-laminal distinction due to its  
39 presence in their linguistic environment (TV, radio, school, interactions with Standard speakers,  
40 etc.), where Standard Basque – and therefore, the /s̺/-/s̺̃/ contrast – is often used. Western  
41 speakers may be comparable to Spanish-Basque (L2) late bilinguals in terms of their difficulty in  
42 perceiving a non-native contrast (Larraza et al. submitted): For the former, the native dialect's  
43 pronunciation would limit performance, while for the latter the late age of acquisition of L2  
44 reduces sensitivity to the contrast.  
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## Method

### Participants

We tested two groups of Spanish-Basque bilinguals who were distinguished by their native dialect of Basque. There were 29 native speakers (20 female) of *Standard Basque* who learned both Spanish and Basque from birth (the Simultaneous Spanish-Basque group of Larraza et al., submitted). None of those Spanish-Basque simultaneous bilinguals had the Western dialect themselves, nor had they been extensively exposed to it. 26 native speakers (20 female, 6 male) of the *Western dialect* composed the second group. This group started learning Spanish on average at 4.1 years. All participants were 18 years of age or older, and spoke Basque very fluently (in a structured interview, their average Basque spoken proficiency was 4.7 on a five-point scale). On a daily basis, Standard speakers used Basque 38% of the time and Western speakers did so 65% of the time. All reported that they had normal hearing, and all received payment for their participation.

### Stimuli and Procedure

On each trial, listeners heard three tokens. The first (A) and last (B) tokens were always phonetically different, and the middle token (X) was always phonetically identical to either the first one, or the second one. The Inter Stimulus Interval (ISI) was 300ms, both between the first and second item, and between the second and third. The task was to decide whether the middle item matched the first sound (AAB) or the last sound (ABB). Subjects were instructed to press one button when the middle item matched the first sound, and a different button with when it matched the last sound. The labels “1” and “3” were shown on the left and right sides, respectively, of a computer monitor. The Inter Trial Interval (ITI) was 1000ms after the subject’s response.

We only tested nonword stimuli – monosyllabic or disyllabic items. The critical sounds were embedded in different plausible phonetic contexts of Basque: #\_V, V\_V, VC\_V. An acoustic analysis of the critical sounds revealed significant differences in three measures of

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3 interest: the apical sound /s/ is shorter and louder than the laminal /ʃ/ sound, and it has a lower  
4 spectral centroid (see Larraza et al. (submitted) for further details).  
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7 Participants listened to 80 critical trials (2 sounds – /s/ and /ʃ/ – x 20 times each x 2  
8 positions – AAB and ABB –); half of the critical trials were monosyllabic and half were  
9 disyllabic. The two critical sounds appeared equally often in AAB and ABB trials. 160 control  
10 trials were included to provide a comparison to other single-feature contrasts. All the control  
11 phonemic contrasts were legal in Basque and Spanish (e.g., /m/-/n/, /p/-/b/, /t/-/d/, etc.). Each  
12 control trial appeared twice as well, once as AAB and once as ABB.  
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17 There were two counterbalanced lists of 240 trials (80 critical, 160 control) that were  
18 identical, except for the voices included in each trial. Each trial presented items recorded by  
19 three different native speakers of Basque, where the “X” item was always in the opposite gender  
20 of the “A” and “B” items (e.g., female1 – male – female2). This was done in order to force a  
21 categorical judgments from listeners, rather than a pure acoustic-phonetic one. All speakers  
22 clearly distinguished the critical sounds, according to a Basque native trained phonetician. Half  
23 of the participants were tested with each list. Trials for each listener were individually  
24 randomized. All stimuli were presented binaurally over Beyerdynamic DT 770 Pro Studio  
25 headphones at a comfortable listening level.  
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### 37 **Results and Discussion**

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39 Missing responses (1.1%) and trials with responses faster than 200ms or slower than  
40 2500ms (1.8%) were not included in the analyses. Due to a software problem, data files were  
41 corrupted for some of the subjects, leaving 21 speakers (15 female) for the Standard Basque  
42 group; no files were lost for the Western speakers.  
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46 Analyses were conducted using the *lme4* package (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker,  
47 2013) for linear mixed-effect models in R (R Development Core Team, 2012). The intercept, the  
48 estimated regression coefficients (Estimate), standard error (SE) and t/Wald’s z values resulting  
49 from the linear mixed-effect model analysis are reported for each comparison of interest. Current  
50 implementations of the *lmer* function do not provide p-values when models have both random  
51 slopes and intercepts. Thus, the t-values reported in the text are treated as approximations to z,  
52 and any absolute value of t greater than 2 was considered to be a significant difference. Both  
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3 accuracy and RT were analyzed as the dependent variables. The fixed factors were Native  
4 Dialect (Standard versus Western), Condition (Critical versus Control pairs) and Position (AAB  
5 versus ABB).  
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9 For this and for the following experiments, we built a series of models adding the fixed  
10 factors as well as their interactions incrementally by increasing the complexity of the random-  
11 effects structure, as Barr, Levy, Scheepers, and Tily (2013) suggest. An initial analysis  
12 determined that List was not playing any role in the discrimination of the two sounds of interest,  
13 therefore we did not include it as a factor in the main analyses. Similarly, Position (AAB versus  
14 ABB) was only used to reduce error variance from the two factors of theoretical interest.  
15 Improved fit was assessed using the likelihood ratio test. Subsequently, we included by-subject  
16 and by-item random intercepts and random slopes, and the main effects of Native Dialect and  
17 Condition were assessed by testing how much the model fit increased when adding each of these  
18 factors individually. The base model included by-subjects and by-item random intercepts and  
19 random slopes, together with an interaction of Native Dialect by Condition among the fixed  
20 factors, given that it provided greater explanatory power. The reference level for the intercept  
21 was set to the Standard Basque group and control condition.  
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25 Accuracy: As the left side of Figure 1 shows, critical items (90% accuracy) were harder  
26 to distinguish than control stimuli (97%) for both dialect groups, leading to a significant effect of  
27 Condition (Intercept: 5.57, SE: 0.29,  $\beta$ : -1.04, SE: 0.35, Wald's z: -2.94). Bilinguals who speak  
28 Standard Basque performed significantly better than Western speakers ( $\beta$ : -0.65, SE: 0.32,  
29 Wald's z: -2.07). Of particular importance to our main issue, this advantage was more  
30 pronounced when discriminating the critical contrast, resulting in a significant interaction of  
31 Native Dialect by Condition ( $\beta$ : -0.9, SE: 0.4, Wald's z: -2.24).  
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35 Response Times: Incorrect trials (5.04%) were excluded from the reaction time analysis.  
36 In agreement with the accuracy results, critical sounds were not only harder to discriminate, they  
37 also generated longer reaction times (781ms) than control (689ms) contrasts, leading to a  
38 significant effect of Condition (Intercept: 671.37, SE: 21.47,  $\beta$ : 59.18, SE: 19.49, t: 3.04).  
39 Critical sounds slowed down the response times for the Western speakers more than for the  
40 Standard speakers, producing a significant interaction of Native Dialect by Condition ( $\beta$ : 80.26,  
41 SE: 27.01, t: 2.97). Thus, both the accuracy and the response time data show an additional cost  
42 for Western dialect speakers when the critical sounds had to be discriminated.  
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16 In the Western dialect the contrast between the apical and laminal fricatives is merged;  
17 that was the motivation for contrasting this group with the Standard Basque-Spanish  
18 simultaneous group. The results of Experiment 1 show that the Western group performed  
19 significantly more poorly than the Standard group, a difference that was reflected in both  
20 accuracy and reaction time; there were clear native dialect effects for the critical sounds.  
21 Although 86% correct accuracy is very much better than chance, it is well below the near-perfect  
22 performance of the Standard Basque speakers. Moreover, this percentage should be considered in  
23 the context of the relatively easy AXB discrimination task, where sounds to be matched appear  
24 in isolation.  
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32 This effect of the regional dialect agrees with the predictions of Stampe's NP, Best's  
33 PAM and Flege's SLM. Specifically, Natural Phonology would claim that Western speakers are  
34 hampered by the natural phonetic constraints that their native dialect has imposed on them in  
35 relation to voiceless alveolar fricatives. The NP analysis would be that Western listeners have a  
36 phonological process that specifies that *all voiceless alveolar fricatives must be* [+apical]. Even  
37 if they have learned to perceive and pronounce the /ɣ/-/ɣ̥/ distinction to some degree, this  
38 phonological process has not been fully deactivated, leading to inconsistent discrimination. In  
39 NP, processes can only be inhibited, rather than completely suppressed, and processes that  
40 remain active govern, among other things, one's native accent (Donegan & Stampe, 2009). PAM  
41 would consider the critical case as a category goodness assimilation contrast (Best, 1995; Best &  
42 Tyler, 2007) in which Western speakers treat the (non-native) laminal /ɣ̥/ phoneme as a deviant  
43 phone of their native apical sound. In contrast, the Standard Basque /ɣ̥/ sound can be considered a  
44 better fitting phone for their native apical phoneme. In these cases, PAM predicts that learners  
45 might achieve some discriminability of the non-native phones, but this will depend on how far  
46 they locate the deviant phone from their native one. SLM predicts that a new phonemic category  
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3 will be built for a non-native sound that phonetically differs from the closest L1 phoneme, as  
4 long as the listener perceives some acoustic difference between them. The newly established  
5 category would not necessarily be the same as the phone built by a native speaker; it might differ  
6 in some specific features, or feature weightings (Flege, Munro, & MacKay, 1995). From all three  
7 theoretical perspectives, a bilingual's native dialect causes some difficulty with a non-native  
8 dialectal contrast, just as a native language interferes with processing a non-native contrast. As  
9 Dufour et al. (2007) suggested, simple exposure to a dialect is not sufficient to overcome the  
10 challenge presented by a contrast when one's own dialect has merged this contrast, even in a  
11 relatively simple discrimination situation.  
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### 23 **Experiment 2: Auditory Lexical Decision Task**

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26 A central question of the current study is how discrimination capacity impacts word  
27 recognition. We address this question by measuring how much the two types of bilinguals are  
28 affected by phonetic variation during lexical access. There are relatively few studies looking at  
29 the cost of regional accents in word recognition. The few studies that have investigated  
30 processing costs caused by within-language accents have found that unfamiliar regional accents  
31 initially slow down the identification of target words in continuous speech (Floccia et al., 2009;  
32 Floccia et al., 2006).  
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39 Evans and Iverson (2004) first showed that adaptation to regional accents depends on the  
40 native dialect of the listeners. Listening to regional accents of British English, native English  
41 speakers normalized their vowel categorizations differently depending on their native dialect and  
42 the target accent. Thus, listeners from the south versus the north of England, who had distinct  
43 linguistic experiences, did not equally adjust to certain accents of British English. Based on this  
44 pattern, our prediction is that a listener's native dialect of Basque will affect perception of the /s/-  
45 /ʃ/ distinction at the lexical level. Given that in Experiment 1 Standard and Western speakers  
46 performed significantly differently in discriminating the critical contrast, we expect Western  
47 speakers to have difficulties differentiating the apical and laminal fricatives when these sounds  
48 are embedded in words.  
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## Method

### Participants

The participants were the same as those in Experiment 1: 29 native speakers of Standard Basque and 26 native Western speakers.

### Stimulus Materials

We selected 24 Basque words containing the apical /s̺/ sound (following Basque graphemes, S-words), and 24 words with the laminal /s̠/ sound (Z-words). The critical S-words and Z-words were comparable in terms of frequency (word frequency per million: S-words: 26.2, Z-words: 39.8,  $t(23)=0.53$ ,  $p>.05$ ) and length (number of syllables: both sets had on average 3.96 syllables), based on the EHME database (Landa, Sarasola, & Salaburu, 2010).

For each set of 24 critical words, we made the same number of nonwords (24 S-nonwords and 24 Z-nonwords) by exchanging one phonetic feature, the feature that differentiates the apical /s̺/ and laminal /s̠/ sounds. S-nonwords were made from words that originally contained /s̺/, replacing that with the apical /s̠/: e.g., [gi.ʃar.te.a] ‘the society’ > \*[gi.ʃar.te.a]. Similarly, the /s̠/ sound in Basque words was replaced with the laminal /s̺/, producing Z-nonwords: e.g., [ba.βe.ʒa] ‘the protection’ > \*[ba.βe.ʒa]. The S-nonwords correspond to the Western dialect merger, while the Z-nonwords are not directly linked to any widespread dialect. Therefore, we consider Z-nonwords “unlicensed” in terms of Basque dialectal characteristics. ‘Accented variants’ will refer to utterances that contain the S sound replacing the Z sound. In order to be considered full Western variants, these utterances would require further phonological and morphological changes beyond the fricative merger. ‘Accented variants’ rather than full Western variants were chosen for this task as an abstraction of dialectal characteristics – to see how much perceptual accommodation is evoked by a single dialectal feature. The stimuli were recorded by a native speaker of Standard Basque; critical nonwords were pronounced by having the speaker replace the original fricative in the standard word with the contrasting segment (i.e., S > Z, or Z > S). In acoustic measurements of the S-words vs. Z-nonwords and the Z-words vs. S-nonwords the apical sounds were louder and had a lower frequency spectral centroid than the laminal sounds. Duration did not reliably distinguish the two sounds.

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There were 72 control items, including 24 control words that did not contain /s/ or /z/. To balance the number of words (48 in total, 24 critical plus 24 control) and nonwords, we recorded 48 control nonwords the each included a single phonetic feature change, comparable to the /s/-/z/ exchange (e.g., /k/-/g/, /m/-/n/, /p/-/b/, etc); all were contrasts present in both Basque and Spanish. The controls allow us to see whether participants' performance just depends on acoustic-phonetic similarity or if instead, dialect-based changes are less discriminable. If S- and Z-nonwords create similar error patterns to control nonwords, then acoustic-phonetic similarity is the most reasonable driving force. However, if the pattern for S-nonwords differs from the pattern for control nonwords, then perceptual readjustment to the dialect is implicated.

### Design and Procedure

Participants did 12 practice trials that were not included in the analyses. On each trial, participants heard a token and had to decide whether it was a real Basque word or not. The labels 'Nonword' (Ez-hitza) and 'Word' (Hitza) written in Basque were shown on the left and right sides, respectively, of a computer monitor, and subjects pushed one of two buttons to respond.

There were two counterbalanced lists of 120 trials (48 critical, 72 control). The word and nonword version of the same item never appeared in the same list. Half of the participants were tested with each list, with the items for each listener individually randomized. Participants were given up to 2500ms to respond, with the next trial beginning 750ms after the subject's response (or after the maximum time). The task took about five minutes.

Participants were informed that nonwords would be very similar to real words, and to only accept a word when they did not notice any mispronunciation in it. In addition, to make sure that listeners would not be biased against accepting accented variants as valid words, they were told to accept an item as valid if they found it natural and likely to be heard in casual speech conversations.

### Results and Discussion

Statistical analyses were conducted as in Experiment 1. The base model included Native Dialect (Standard vs. Western), Lexicality (word vs. nonword) and Sound (S, Z and control) as

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3 fixed factors. To account for possible confounding interactions among these predictors, the  
4 model included a 3-way interaction among the fixed factors (Native Dialect X Lexicality X  
5 Sound). The reference level was set to the Standard group, word condition and control sound.  
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7 RTs were measured from the onset of the item. Missing responses (1.1%) and time-outs (1.6%)  
8 were treated as in Experiment 1. Figure 2 presents the accuracy and reaction time data for the  
9 word and nonword stimuli.  
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14 Accuracy: As expected, accuracy for words was very good, with 95% correct report  
15 overall, significantly better than for nonwords (71%) (Intercept: 4.06, SE: 0.41,  $\beta$ : -1.49, SE: 0.5,  
16 Wald's z: -2.99). Both groups performed significantly worse on the critical nonwords than on  
17 control nonwords, with the S sound creating the most difficulty. The Western speakers accepted  
18 S-nonwords as valid Basque items over 90% of the time, and even the Standard speakers did so  
19 78% of the time. This larger nonword acceptance by the Western group produced a significant  
20 three-way interaction of Native Dialect by Lexicality by Sound ( $\beta$ : -2.21, SE: 0.76, Wald's z: -  
21 2.91). The strong tendency to accept S-nonwords is due to listeners' perceptual accommodation  
22 of accented variants. In fact, this is not an error in the sense that these nonwords are valid items  
23 in the Western accent (but not in Standard Basque, even though the Standard group accepted  
24 these as words almost 80% of the time).  
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34 This caveat does not apply to Z-nonwords, given that there is no dialectal basis for these  
35 items. Despite these being unlicensed forms, Western speakers accepted them 59% of the time;  
36 speakers of Standard Basque did so only 22% of the time. This pattern produced a significant  
37 three-way interaction of Native Dialect by Lexicality by Sound due to the poorer performance by  
38 Western speakers ( $\beta$ : -3.54, SE: 0.8, Wald's z: -4.44). Even though the acceptance rate of Z-  
39 nonwords was lower than for S-nonwords, it was still considerably higher than for control  
40 nonwords (on average 9.4%).  
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46 Response Times: Incorrect trials (19%) were excluded from the reaction time analyses.  
47 Both groups show very similar RT patterns in word recognition, with good accuracy associated  
48 with fast responses. Overall, both Standard and Western speakers showed significantly faster  
49 responses for words (982ms) than nonwords (1110ms) (Intercept: 931.3, SE: 25.9,  $\beta$ : 183.33, SE:  
50 25.53, t: 7.18). There was a general cost for the critical sounds over the controls: control words  
51 (936ms) were recognized faster than Z-words (1006ms) and S-words (1050ms). This was also  
52 the case for nonwords: control items (1085ms) were followed by Z-nonwords (1207ms) and S-  
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3 nonwords (1305ms). The longer responses for the critical sounds in comparison to control  
4 sounds yielded significant effects of Sound: S sound ( $\beta$ : 120.67, SE: 25.39, t: 4.75) and Z sound  
5 ( $\beta$ : 65.2, SE: 25.38, t: 2.57). There was also a significant interaction of Native Dialect by  
6 Lexicality by Sound, due to the longer responses by Western speakers to Z-nonwords ( $\beta$ : 171.55  
7 SE: 31.3, t: 5.48). In combination with the poorer accuracy results, this suggests that these items  
8 are especially hard for Western speakers.  
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27 A critical question is whether there is a latency cost for perceptual adjustment to a dialect.  
28 Figure 3 presents the data that bear on this question. Two comparisons are of interest: reaction  
29 time differences for recognizing standard variants (Z-words) versus accented variants (S-  
30 nonwords), and reaction time differences on accepting accented (S-nonwords) versus unlicensed  
31 variants (Z-nonwords). The three stimulus types produced consistent responses across the two  
32 groups: accented variants were recognized more slowly than standard words, but faster than  
33 unlicensed variants. Even Western speakers recognized standard items faster than the accented  
34 variants that are closer to their own productions. This pattern is consistent with the results of  
35 Sumner and Samuel (2009), who found an advantage for the standard form, even for dialect  
36 speakers. The slower reaction times for Z-nonwords indicate that when bilinguals incorrectly  
37 accept them, this is a harder decision that requires more time.  
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3 Because we used a within-subject design in which we tested participants' performance at  
4 the phonetic-phonological level (Experiment 1) and at the level of lexical access (Experiment 2),  
5 we can measure whether the acceptance of critical nonwords was correlated with the  
6 discrimination capacity shown at the phonetic level. As Figure 4 shows, a strong negative  
7 correlation was found for both groups regarding the acceptance of Z-nonwords: Standard  
8 speakers:  $r=-0.69$ ,  $p<.001$ ; Western speakers:  $r=-0.56$ ,  $p<.001$ . The worse the accuracy  
9 distinguishing /s/ and /ʒ/ on the AXB discrimination task, the more listeners accepted Z-  
10 nonwords as valid Basque utterances. Recall that the percentage of Z-nonword acceptance in  
11 Western speakers (59%) was much higher than that of the Standard Basque speakers (22%).  
12 Western speakers, who had trouble distinguishing the critical Basque contrast at the phonetic  
13 level, also have difficulty distinguishing /s/-/ʒ/ exchanges at the lexical level. This makes them  
14 accept nonwords that have no accent-based cause, producing chance level acceptance rates for  
15 unlicensed variation. This tendency has little to do with perceptual remapping of Basque  
16 dialectal variation. The results clearly indicate that difficulties at the phonetic level propagate  
17 into difficulties at the lexical level. Together with the discrimination difficulties Western  
18 speakers showed at the phonetic-phonological level, the high acceptance of Z-nonwords could  
19 reflect an underspecification of the Z sound in the phonemic inventory of Western speakers.  
20 Given that this sound is not part of their native repertoire, these speakers might treat it as an  
21 allophone of their native S sound, leading Z-nonwords to behave as lexical allophones of S-  
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51 Interestingly, there is no such significant correlation between discrimination accuracy and  
52 the acceptance of S-nonwords: Standard speakers:  $r=0.3$ ,  $p=.19$ ; Western speakers:  $r=-0.16$ ,  
53  $p=.44$ . This divergent pattern of correlations indicates that the capacity to encode phonetic-  
54 phonological information does not alter the ability to accommodate dialectal variation, as  
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opposed to the rejection of unlicensed variation. The results of Experiment 2 thus show a clear dissociation between the processing of nonwords that are dialectally valid versus those that are dialectally unusual or unlicensed.

### Experiment 3: Auditory Semantic Priming

Experiments 1 and 2 have shown that bilinguals' native dialect of Basque affects the way they discriminate the /s̺/-/s̠/ contrast at the phonetic level and how they deal with variation during lexical access. To further analyze how lexical processing is affected by regional dialects, the current experiment measures semantic activation caused by accented variants once these have been recognized by the listener. Semantic priming is well suited for this goal, as it reflects the associative strength between concepts in semantic memory (Meyer & Schvaneveldt, 1971), with faster processing latencies when a word (the target) is related to a concept previously presented (the prime). In Experiment 3 we test whether Basque accented variants (S-nonwords) are as effective as standard items (Z-words) in priming a semantically related word. We investigate how accented utterances are represented in the mental lexicon by different types of bilinguals, measuring if experience with the dialect determines the effectiveness of S-nonwords in creating priming effects.

We include a Context manipulation to modify the likelihood that S-nonwords are treated as accented variants and not as mere mispronunciations. The Context factor had two levels – Standard versus Dialect – and was implemented as a between-subjects manipulation. It consisted of recorded instructions that participants heard before the task. These instructions were spoken either in Standard Basque or Western (Dialectal) Basque. Subjects given the Dialectal context receive evidence of the speaker's Western accent, potentially helping these listeners during the experiment itself to interpret the /s̺/ > /s̠/ articulation as the Western merger, rather than as a mispronunciation. If such an interpretation aids lexical access, accented variants in this Context will potentially show larger priming effects.

The current experiment allows us to compare initial encoding (i.e. the phonetic and lexical processes tested in Experiments 1 and 2) with post-access lexical activation. If perceptual remapping to dialectal variation only affects initial encoding, then even Western speakers who

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3 showed difficulties adjusting to legal versus unlicensed variants in Experiment 2 should show no  
4 differential costs once lexical access has been achieved.  
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## 10 **Method**

### 11 **Participants**

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15 The same bilinguals who took part in the previous tests did this task.  
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### 19 **Stimulus Materials**

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21 48 associated pairs of Basque words were chosen to create our related prime-target pairs.  
22 The *related* primes were standard Z-words that were semantically associated with the target  
23 word: e.g., PRIME: *zilarra* ‘the silver’- TARGET: *urrea* ‘the gold’. For each related prime-  
24 target pair, we constructed an *unrelated* prime-target pair (e.g., *aingerua* ‘the angel’ – *urrea* ‘the  
25 gold’), where the related *zilarra* and unrelated *aingerua* primes had the same frequency and no  
26 semantic relationship.  
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31 Similarly, *accented* primes were created from the related primes. For a detailed  
32 examination of the effects of accented variants, in this task we explicitly compare a) variants  
33 containing the /s̺/ > /s̠/ exchange (as before) and b) full Western variants that include the /s̺/ > /s̠/  
34 exchange and additional morphonological changes. The goal is to see whether these two types of  
35 variation produce similar activation of semantically related words. Hence, among the 48  
36 accented primes, half contained a *single-feature-change* to the standard Z-word Related primes  
37 (e.g., *zilarra* > *\*silarra* – *urrea* ‘the gold’). These items are equivalent to S-nonwords used in  
38 Experiment 2. The other 24 accented primes included *2-feature-changes* that corresponded to  
39 full Western variants: e.g., *eguskixa*, from the standard *eguzkia* ‘the sun’. In this case, an  
40 epenthetic consonant is added intervocally ( *-i + -a > -ixa*) together with the dialectal /s̺/ > /s̠/  
41 merger.  
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51 Two types of *control nonword* primes were constructed. Single-phonetic-feature control  
52 mispronunciations included exchanges comparable to the merger (e.g., /g/ > /k/, /d/ > /t/, /n/ >  
53 /m/, /r/ > /t/, /e/ > /i/), for example *zilarra* > *\*zilara* (/r/ > /t/) – *urrea* ‘the gold’. 2-feature-  
54 change control nonwords were included to match the number of features changed in Western  
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3 variants. Thus, if a Western variant included the fricative merger plus an epenthetic consonant,  
4 then the control nonword would contain comparable changes. For instance, for the Western  
5 variant *eguskixa*, the control would have the same epenthetic consonant plus a control feature  
6 exchange (e.g., *eguzkia* > *\*ekuzkixa*: 1) *-i + -a* > *-ixa*, 2) */g/* > */k/*). Bigram frequency was  
7 considered when creating the control primes, so that the bigrams in these items were as frequent  
8 as the ones in real words.

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14 Table 2 provides an example of the *single-feature-change trials* and an example of the 2-  
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16 *feature-change trials*.

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30 In total, there were 48 stimulus sets that included four conditions: Related, Unrelated,  
31 Accented and Control Nonword. The primes of the Related, Accented and Control conditions  
32 were based on Z-words. Within a stimulus set only primes varied; the target was the same across  
33 the four conditions. Four counterbalanced lists were used, with the four types of primes rotated  
34 across the lists. This ensured that each target word was presented to a participant only once. All  
35 subjects received the same 48 critical targets. The design thus provides a within-subject and  
36 within-item measure of priming.

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42 Stimuli were recorded by a native speaker of the Western dialect who, due to her close  
43 contact with other Basque regions, was bidialectal (Standard and Western dialects). Her  
44 pronunciation was assessed by a phonetician, a native speaker of Standard Basque, who  
45 confirmed that she was able to perfectly distinguish the */s̺/* and */s̠/* sounds when speaking in  
46 Standard Basque.

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51 In addition to the 48 critical trials, there were 240 filler trials. The same proportion of  
52 nonwords and words were included in prime and target positions of filler and critical trials.  
53 Nonwords followed Basque phonotactics but had no meaning. These were included to balance  
54 the nonwords included on the critical trials, and to greatly reduce the proportion of related items  
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3 that each listener heard. Among fillers, 120 of the primes were words and 120 were nonwords;  
4 similarly, 120 of the targets were words and 120 were nonwords. Each nonword used as a filler  
5 was made with a single-phonetic-feature change relative to its counterpart standard word. Primes  
6 and targets were randomly combined to create filler trials.  
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10 Recall that we introduced a Context manipulation by varying whether pre-experiment  
11 instructions were presented in Standard versus Western Basque (the instructions contained no  
12 instances of the critical /s̺/, /s̻/ sounds). We reinforced the Context manipulation by using  
13 different sets of filler items for the two Context cases. Fillers were pronounced in the Western  
14 accent for the *Dialectal Context*, and in the Standard accent for the *Standard Context*.  
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### 23 **Design and Procedure**

24 The task was an auditory lexical decision test with semantic priming. On each trial,  
25 participants heard two tokens and they had to decide whether the second one was a real Basque  
26 word or not; the prime-target ISI was 500ms. Subjects were instructed to press one response  
27 button when the second item (the *target*) was a valid Basque word, and a different button when  
28 the second item was not a real word. The labels ‘Nonword’ and ‘Word’ written in Basque were  
29 shown on the left and right sides, respectively, of a computer monitor.  
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35 There were four counterbalanced lists of 288 trials (48 critical, 240 filler). The four  
36 counterbalanced lists were crossed with the two Contexts, resulting in eight stimulus conditions  
37 (4 lists x 2 contexts). Participants were randomly assigned to conditions so that there were  
38 approximately the same number of subjects per list and context. Trials for each listener were  
39 individually randomized. All stimuli were presented using the same equipment as in Experiments  
40 1 and 2. Each trial began 1000ms after the subject’s response on the previous trial, with a  
41 maximum response time of 2500ms. The task took approximately 23 minutes.  
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### 51 **Results and Discussion**

52 The central question of Experiment 3 is whether, for each Dialect group, Accented  
53 primes are as effective as Related semantic primes, with both types being compared to Unrelated  
54 primes. This question was addressed using the same statistical analysis approach as in  
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3 Experiments 1 and 2. Both accuracy and RTs were analyzed. The base model included Native  
4 Dialect (Standard vs. Western), Priming Condition (with six levels: Related, Unrelated,  
5 Accented\_1-feature change, Accented\_2-feature change, Control Nonword\_1-feature change,  
6 Control Nonword\_2-feature change) and Context (Standard vs. Dialect) as fixed factors, with the  
7 interaction of Native Dialect by Context also included. The reference level was set to the  
8 Standard group, the Unrelated condition and the Standard Context.  
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14 Participants with accuracy lower than 85% on the lexical decision task were not included  
15 in the analyses, eliminating one subject from the Standard group and one from the Western  
16 group. This left 28 subjects in the Standard group and 25 subjects in the Western group. Missing  
17 responses (0.4%) and time-outs (0.9%) were treated as in Experiments 1 and 2. Figure 5 shows  
18 the accuracy and reaction time results, and Table 3 shows the corresponding priming effects.  
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42 Accuracy: Overall, there were no systematic differences in accuracy across conditions.  
43 Performance was consistently very high; all conditions were above 97% correct on average,  
44 leading to a non-significant effect of condition (comparing all the conditions of interest to the  
45 Unrelated case, all the z values were between 1.2 and 0.3). Accuracy was slightly better in the  
46 Dialectal context, producing a marginal effect of Context (Intercept: 11.47, SE: 3.61,  $\beta$ : 4.55, SE:  
47 2.44, Wald's z: 1.88). The interaction of Native Dialect by Context was marginal as well  
48 (Intercept: 5.43, SE: 0.96,  $\beta$ : -1.48, SE: 0.76, Wald's z: -1.93), driven by the slightly lower  
49 performance of the Standard group on the Standard context.  
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3        Response Times: Incorrect trials (1.6%) were not included in the reaction time analyses.  
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5 Performance by the two groups was generally quite similar, as the non-significant effect of  
6 Native Dialect reflects (Intercept: 935.89, SE: 38.35,  $\beta$ : -1.76, SE: 51.46,  $t$ : -0.03, n.s.). The non-  
7 significant effect of Context ( $\beta$ : -21.68, SE: 48.68,  $t$ : -0.45, n.s.) demonstrates that priming did  
8 not differ across the Standard and Dialectal contexts, contrary to our expectations. The  
9 interaction of Native Dialect by Context was not significant either; the Dialect context did not  
10 even help Western speakers to recognize the target items faster ( $\beta$ : 63.25, SE: 70.79,  $t$ : 0.89,  
11 n.s.).  
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14        Using the Unrelated case as a baseline, different priming conditions led to different  
15 results. There was a significant effect for the Related condition ( $\beta$ : -55.26, SE: 20.58,  $t$ : -2.69), as  
16 well as for those that minimally diverged from it: there was significant priming for both the 1-  
17 feature Accented condition ( $\beta$ : -62.9, SE: 25.17,  $t$ : 2.5) and the 1-feature Control Nonword case  
18 ( $\beta$ : -65.64, SE: 25.19,  $t$ : -2.61). In contrast, those conditions with two features changed did not  
19 produce significantly more priming than that in the Unrelated condition ( $t$  values were between -  
20 1.5 and -1.3). Overall, both the Standard and Western groups show consistent priming effects for  
21 the Related, 1-feature Accented and 1-feature Control Nonwords. In a similar series of priming  
22 experiments, Connine, Blasko, and Titone (1993) also found that minimally different  
23 pseudowords produced significant priming effects on related targets, but no priming effects were  
24 produced by pseudowords made with three features changed.  
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27        Recall that when we compared listeners' ability to discriminate the critical contrast at the  
28 phonetic level (AXB) with their performance on lexical decision (Experiment 2), we found a  
29 negative correlation: the lower the discrimination accuracy, the more listeners accepted  
30 unlicensed variants as valid Basque items. Comparable correlation analyses were conducted for  
31 the semantic priming task: We measured whether the priming effects caused by 1-feature  
32 Accented primes correlated with discrimination performance on the critical contrast. Neither  
33 group showed a significant correlation between the two tasks (Standard:  $r=-0.42$ ,  $p=.06$ ;  
34 Western:  $r=-0.06$ ,  $p=.8$ ). Thus, unlike initial lexical access, the priming effects caused by the S-  
35 nonwords are not driven by listeners' discrimination capacity.  
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38        As Table 3 shows, in general there were stronger priming effects for Western speakers  
39 than for the Standard speakers. The difference was clearly most pronounced for the 2-feature-  
40 change primes: The Western speakers showed similar priming effects for 1- and 2-feature-  
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3 change Accented variants, while 2-feature Accented variants were not effective primes for  
4 Standard speakers. Given that these changes are aspects of the Western dialect, these variants are  
5 natural and common utterances for the Western speakers. As a result, words with such changes  
6 are effective in a semantic priming task. It appears that the Standard speakers can accommodate  
7 the apical-laminal variation, but not more.  
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12 If we compare the Western speakers' results to the results for speakers of a New York  
13 City dialect in the Sumner and Samuel (2009) study, there are some clear similarities and  
14 dissimilarities. Western listeners accepted both standard dialectal variants, much as New York  
15 (NY) dialect speakers did in immediate processing tasks (i.e., form and semantic priming) for  
16 variants in the standard General American (GA) dialect. The authors suggested that this could be  
17 due to the influence of formal learning, media, etc. In contrast, GA listeners (analogous to the  
18 Standard Basque group here) treated dialectal variants more like nonwords. Unlike this pattern,  
19 we found a significant priming effect for dialectal primes with native speakers of Standard  
20 Basque as well. The greater acceptance of dialectal variation for the Basque case may reflect the  
21 greater familiarity of Standard Basque speakers with Western Basque speakers. One very  
22 interesting feature of the Sumner and Samuel (2009) study is an analysis of the stored form in  
23 lexical memory. By using long-term repetition priming, they confirmed that there was a benefit  
24 for General American (Standard American English) primes in the long term, even for NY dialect  
25 speakers. The results in Sumner and Samuel (2005) are also consistent with this finding: In the  
26 long-term there is an advantage for canonical (standard) forms.  
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## 42 **General Discussion**

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45 The results of this study demonstrate that not only the native language, but also the  
46 dialect one speaks from birth, will determine the way phonemic contrasts are perceived and  
47 lexical entries are accessed. In particular, the observed effects shed light on regional accent  
48 normalization. The results demonstrate where processing costs arise for accommodating dialectal  
49 variation, and where they do not.  
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54 To be a native speaker of the Western dialect in principle means to have one phonemic  
55 contrast fewer than non-merging Basque speakers do for sibilants. Consequently, as the accuracy  
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3 results of the discrimination task show, Western speakers do not distinguish the /s̺/ and /s̺/ sounds  
4 as they do control sounds. The lower accuracy and longer RTs for the critical sounds are a clear  
5 reflection of the increased difficulty with the phonemic contrast of interest. For Western  
6 speakers, exposure to a dialect (through media, school, etc.) that contains the /s̺/-/s̺/ distinction  
7 has not been enough to support full discrimination of the contrast. Instead, perception is  
8 dominated by the native variant, making the /s̺/ sound non-native like.

14 Phonemic discrimination difficulties potentially may have an impact on word  
15 recognition, and this is exactly what the lexical decision results show for Western speakers. Even  
16 though both groups show largely identical patterns for recognizing words, there are critical  
17 differences in the acceptance of nonwords. The perceptual difficulties Western speakers had at  
18 the phonetic-phonological level led them to accept as words utterances that contained not only  
19 legal, but also unlicensed dialectal variation. Western speakers accepted S-nonwords 91% of the  
20 time and Z-nonwords 59% of the time. The acceptance of the unlicensed Z-nonword variants is  
21 the most striking consequence of dialectal differences, given that Western speakers accepted  
22 them as valid words more than twice as often as Standard speakers did (22%). Hence, the  
23 influence of the native dialect is crucial at the lexical level: it creates spurious activation of  
24 variants with no dialectal basis.

34 Our two different methods of probing the lexicon showed that there is an important  
35 distinction between lexical access and the processing that occurs after initial word recognition: In  
36 most cases, the semantic association caused by accented words did not show any effect of the  
37 native dialect of Basque. In fact, Standard and Western speakers showed extremely similar  
38 priming patterns for the Related, 1-feature Accented and 1-feature Control primes. The Western  
39 speakers did tend to show stronger effects, with a robust difference for the 2-feature Accented  
40 case, the condition that best matched the dialectal variation. The general tendency of listeners in  
41 this task seems to be to respond based on acoustic-phonetic similarity; nonwords with one  
42 feature mispronunciation generate the same priming effect as Related words do (Connine et al.,  
43 1993), regardless of whether they are dialectally valid or not. These results demonstrate that  
44 contrary to the differences we found in lexical access, once lexical items have been activated,  
45 minimally differing variants are equally effective in the semantic associations they produce.

55 Our primary theoretical question is where regional accents affect processing, and our  
56 results demonstrate that a bilingual's native dialect determines one key aspect of lexical access:  
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3 the listener's willingness to accept or reject variation. Western speakers are much more prone to  
4 ignore variation when dealing with the critical /s̺/ and /s̠/ sounds. This could be due to the fact  
5 they experience so much phonetic variation in how these sounds are realized across speakers of  
6 their own dialect versus speakers of more standard varieties.  
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10 The findings of current study also revealed intriguing parallels in the speech processing  
11 of Western speakers and Spanish-Basque late bilinguals (in Larraza et al., submitted). Western  
12 speakers are native speakers of Basque; this is their dominant language and they use it most of  
13 the time (65%) on a daily basis. In contrast, the late bilinguals did not start learning Basque until  
14 they were 7 years old, and they only use Basque about 23% of the time. Given these differences,  
15 it is quite interesting that the groups performed equivalently in the discrimination of the Basque  
16 critical contrast: Western speakers achieved 86% accuracy and late bilinguals 86.4%. It appears  
17 that the perceptual cost imposed by the native dialect on phonemic discrimination is similar to  
18 the native language. In both cases listeners are dealing with a non-native contrast.  
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26 Phonemic discrimination difficulties also had a similar effect on the two groups when  
27 dealing with variation at the lexical level. Both Western and Spanish-Basque late bilinguals were  
28 willing to regularly (over half the time) accept variation that has no dialectal basis. In spite of the  
29 distinct profiles of these listeners, both groups were able to associate accented variants with  
30 semantically related words. Once the lexical entry has been accessed, minimal variation does not  
31 alter the semantic properties of that unit stored in memory. Hence, listeners' lexical knowledge  
32 may allow phonetic variants to be automatically matched with their standard counterparts in such  
33 a way that semantic association still takes place.  
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41 Native speakers of Standard Basque represent the /s̺/ and /s̠/ sounds as two separate  
42 phonemes. Due to their experience with dialectal variation, for these listeners the apical sound  
43 can also act as an allophone of the laminal phoneme in word recognition. In contrast, for Western  
44 speakers only the apical /s̺/ sound constitutes a phoneme, and our results indicate that for these  
45 listeners the laminal variant is an allophone in terms of lexical access. Thus, depending on the  
46 native dialect and language, the same physical-acoustic pronunciation might be considered a  
47 separate phoneme or an unnoticeable allophone. Different experiences with varied  
48 pronunciations causes Standard Basque and Western speakers to have different mappings of the  
49 phonetic input they hear to their underlying abstract phonological and lexical representations.  
50 Our results offer further evidence that phonetic implementation gets established as the language  
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3 is acquired. Flexibility in processing variable forms is not a given, but instead, is enabled by  
4 experience with variation (Sumner & Samuel, 2009). In this sense, exposure to regional varieties  
5 helps to establish the match between the phonemically distinct units and all of their phonetic  
6 occurrences.  
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10 The commonalities in the results for Western speakers and Spanish-Basque late  
11 bilinguals show different dimensions of the effect of native listening and provide an explicit  
12 comparison of native language versus native dialect effects. The results demonstrate that a non-  
13 native dialect and a non-native language can have similar perceptual consequences in a listener's  
14 accepting or rejecting phonetic variation. Thus, it might be more appropriate to think of the  
15 native influence within a gradable dimension (Cutler, 2012). Within such a theoretical  
16 framework, it still is essential to localize the processing points where these graded effects appear,  
17 and the current study has provided new evidence for these loci.  
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**FIGURE CAPTIONS****FIGURE 1**

Accuracy and reaction time results for the AXB task by Spanish-Basque bilinguals with different native dialects of Basque. The error bars in this Figure and in all other Figures represent 95% confidence intervals.

**FIGURE 2**

Accuracy and reaction time results for words and nonwords in the LDT by Spanish-Basque bilinguals with different native dialects of Basque. Note that the left panel below shows the percentage of nonwords that were taken as valid Basque utterances, showing that the two groups systematically accepted S-nonwords.

**FIGURE 3**

Reaction time results for the different stimulus types used in the LDT task. Two comparisons of interest are included: Z-words versus S-nonwords, and S-nonwords versus Z-nonwords, in order to see how licensed and unlicensed dialectal variation is accommodated. Recall that results plotted in the ‘S-nonword’ and ‘Z-nonword’ bars correspond to nonwords that were accepted as valid Basque utterances. These data complement the results shown in Figure 3, in which only correct trials (i.e., rejected nonwords) were included.

**FIGURE 4**

Correlation between the accuracy on the critical contrast discrimination (AXB task) and the acceptance of Z-nonwords (LDT), by native speakers of Standard Basque and Western dialect.

**FIGURE 5**

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3 Accuracy and reaction time results for the Auditory Semantic Priming task by Spanish-Basque  
4 bilinguals with different native dialects of Basque. The solid line corresponds to the Related  
5 condition and the dotted line to the Unrelated condition. The results of the two Contexts (Standard  
6 vs Dialectal) are collapsed due to the very weak effect showed of that factor.  
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14 **TABLE 1**

15 Phonemic distribution of the apico- and lamino-alveolar voiceless fricatives across the languages  
16 of interest (i.e., Basque, Spanish), taking Basque dialects into account. Corresponding graphemes  
17 for the Basque sounds are given in quotations.  
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24 **TABLE 2**

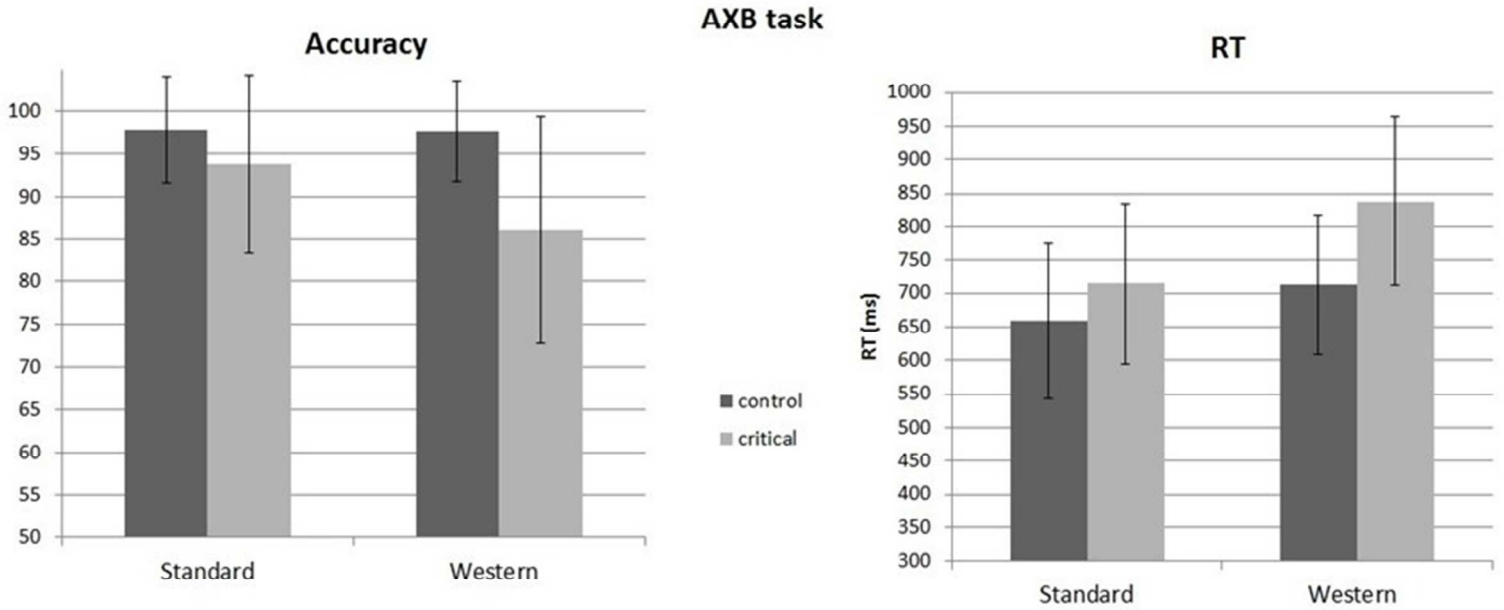
25 Examples of 1-feature-change and 2-feature-change trials used in the Auditory Semantic Priming  
26 experiment. Phonetic features that change in Accented and Control conditions relative to the  
27 Related condition are in bold.  
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34 **TABLE 3**

35 Semantic priming effects, based on reaction times, for the two participant groups across the four  
36 experimental conditions. The results of the Standard and Dialectal contexts are collapsed due to  
37 the very weak effect of that factor.  
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FIGURE 1



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FIGURE 2

LDT task

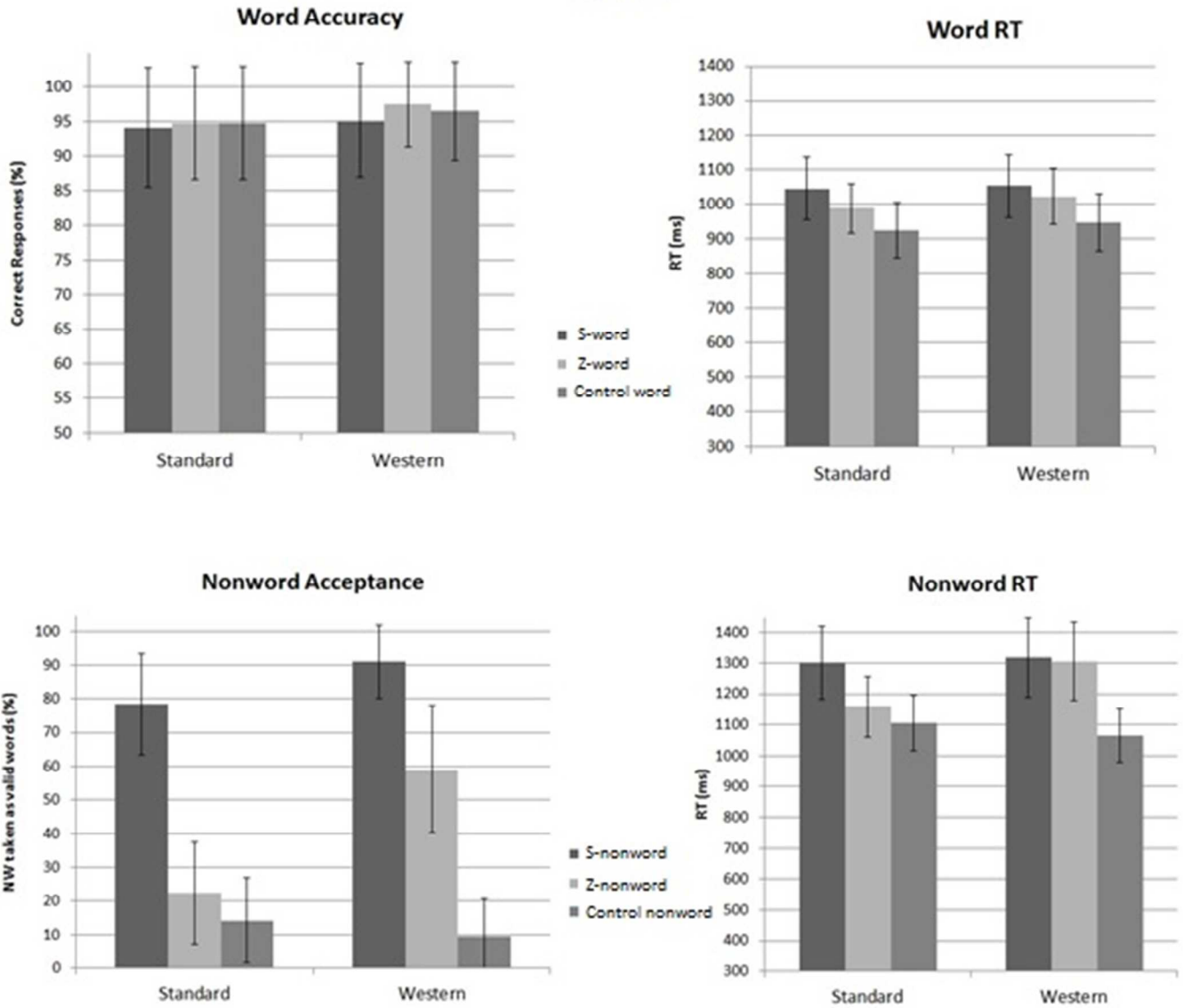


FIGURE 3

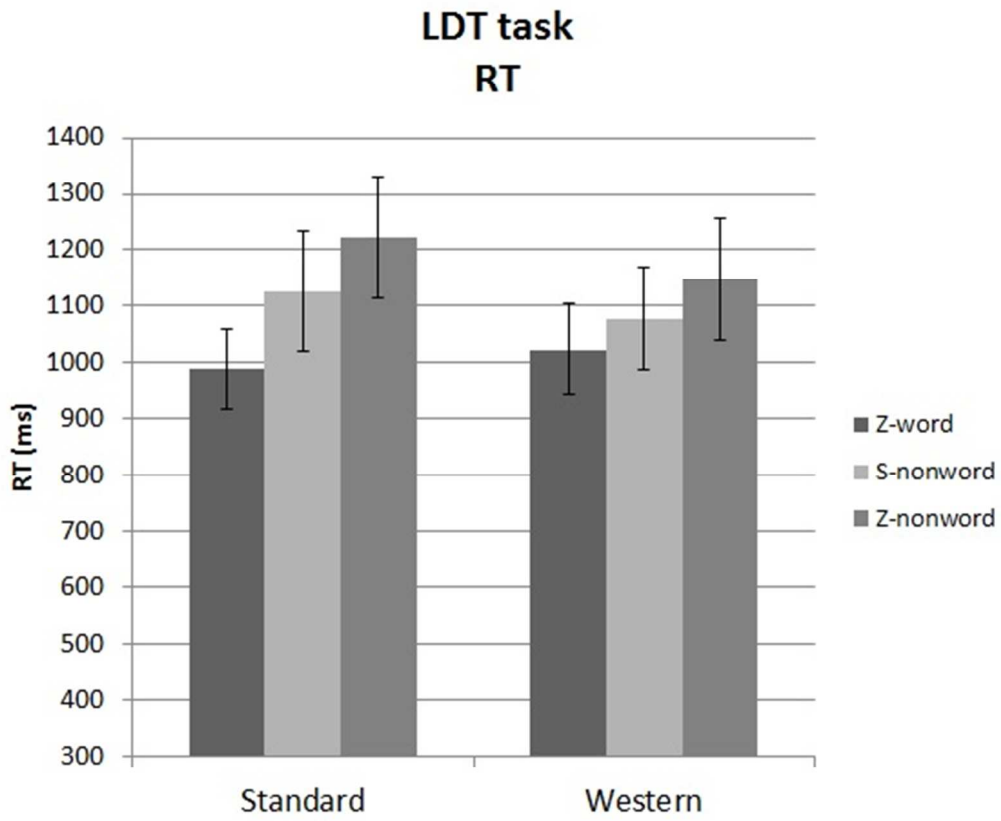


FIGURE 4

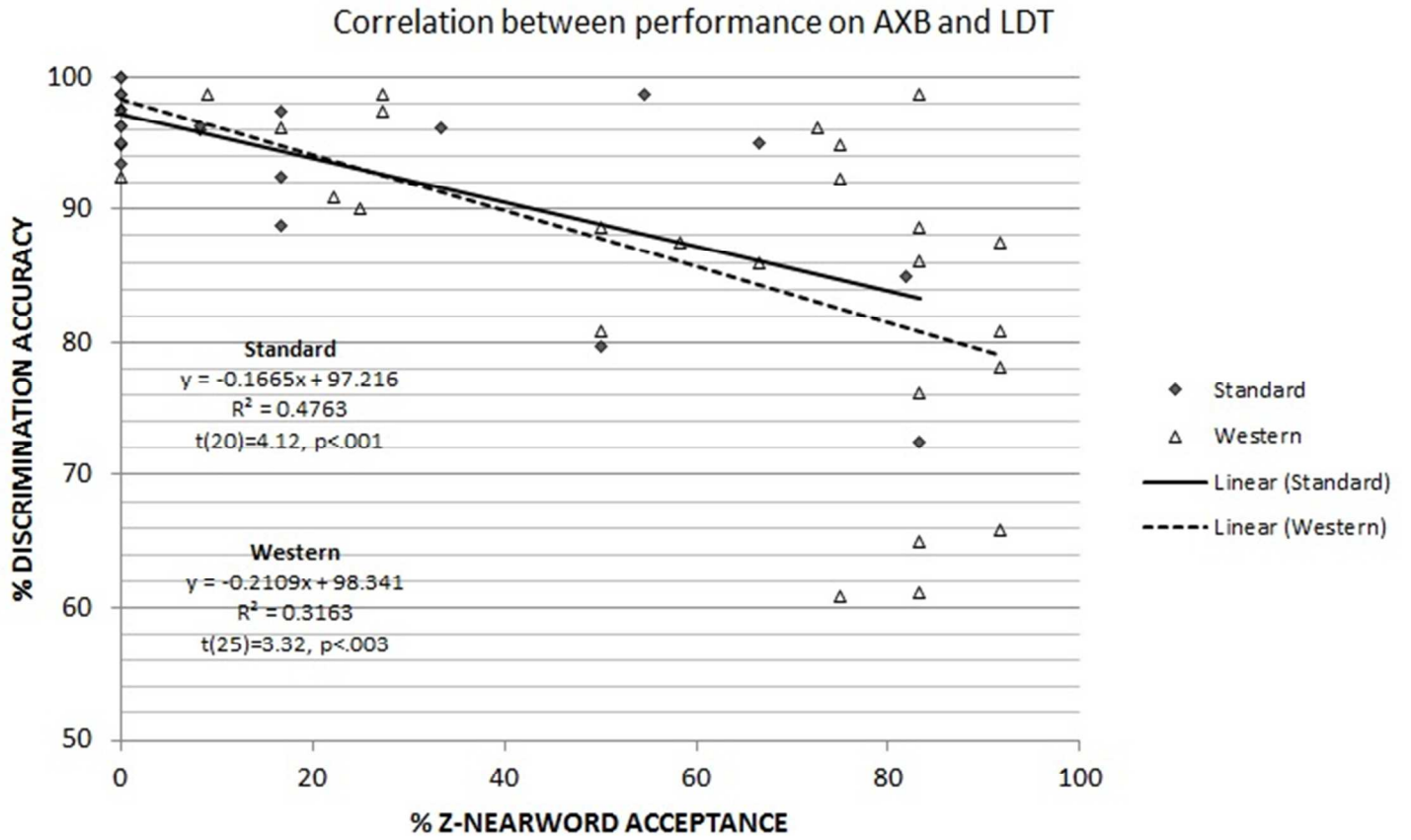


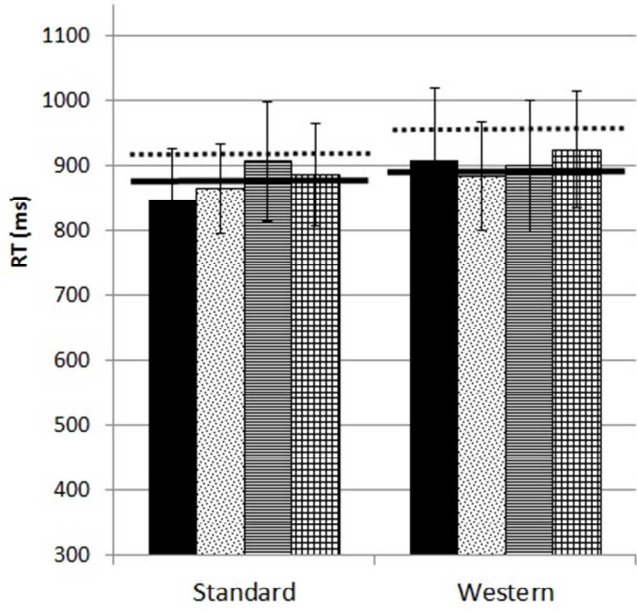
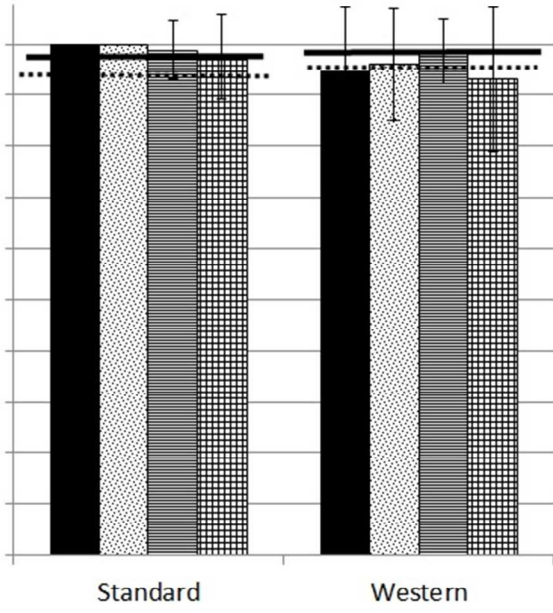
FIGURE 5

Priming task

Accuracy

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TABLE 1

	Basque		Castilian Spanish
	Standard dialect	Western dialect	
Apico-alveolar fricative	/s̺/ “s”	/s̺/	/s̺/
Lamino-alveolar fricative	/s̠/ “z”		-

TABLE 2

CONDITION	<i>single-feature-change</i>		<i>2-feature-change</i>	
	PRIME	TARGET	PRIME	TARGET
<b>1. Related</b>	<i>zilarra</i> 'the silver'	<i>urrea</i> 'the gold'	<i>eguzkia</i> 'the sun'	<i>uda</i> 'the summer'
<b>2. Unrelated</b>	<i>aingerua</i> 'the angel'		<i>iraultza</i> 'the revolution'	
<b>3. Accented</b> (Western variant)	* <i>silarra</i>		* <i>eguskixa</i>	
<b>4. Control Nonword</b>	* <i>zilara</i>		* <i>ekuzkixa</i>	

TABLE 3

Priming Effects (ms)		
	Standard	Western
Related	41.6	70.7
1-feature Accented	67	53.4
1-feature Control Nonword	50.6	77.7
2-feature Accented	8.7	62.4
2-feature Control Nonword	28.3	37.4