

Dialectometry-Based Classification of Central-Southern Italian Dialects

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Abstract

This paper provides a new classification of Central-Southern Italian dialects using dialectometric methods. All varieties considered are analysed and cast in a data set where homogeneous areas are evaluated according to a selected list of phonetic features. Using numerical evaluation of these features and Manhattan distance, a linguistic distance rule is defined. On this basis, the classification problem is formulated as a clustering problem, and a k-means algorithm is used. Additionally, an ad-hoc rule is set to identify transitional areas and silhouette analysis is used to select the most appropriate number of clusters. While meaningful results are obtained for each number of clusters, a nine-group classification emerges as the most appropriate. As the results suggest, this classification is less subjective, more precise, and more comprehensive than traditional ones based on selected isoglosses.

1 Introduction

The standard classification of peninsular Italian dialects is that proposed by G.B. Pellegrini [Pellegrini, 1977]. Within the Italo-Romance branch of the Romance languages, the dialectal areas (systems) identified are: i) Tuscan, ii) Central (*Mediano*), iii) Intermediate Southern, and iv) Extreme Southern. Area i) largely corresponds to Tuscany. Area ii) comprises of four subareas (Central Marchigiano in Central Marche, Umbrian, Latian in Central-Northern Latium, and Cicolano-Sabino-Aquilano between Latium and the Abruzzi). Area iii) is further subdivided into five subareas (Southern Marchigiano-Abruzzese, Molisano, Apulian, Southern Latian-Campanian, Lucanian-Northern Calabrian). Area iv) comprises of three subareas (Salentino, Central-Southern Calabrese, and Sicilian). These subareas, largely inspired by the administrative regions (*Regioni*) of Italy, are further subdivided into sub-sub-areas Ia, Ib, etc., often corresponding to a provincial (*Provincia*) level.

In SIL International’s Ethnologue database [Eberhard et al. 2022], upon which ISO 693-3 is based, Italian (*ita*) is based on Pellegrini’s Tuscan and Cen-

tral, Napoletano-Calabrese (nap) is based on Pellegrini’s Intermediate Southern, and Sicilian (scn) on Pellegrini’s Extreme Southern. UNESCO’s endangered languages list [Moseley, 2010] and the Glottolog database [Hammarström et al., 2022] adopt a virtually identical classification, albeit with slight differences in naming, even including some of Pellegrini’s subareas.

While Pellegrini’s primary classification is largely based on phonetic and morphological isoglosses (up to 33 for the whole of Italy), the subarea classification is much less clear and seems rather to be grounded on administrative subdivisions, probably due to lack of data by the author. For example, the boundaries between Molisano and Southern Latian-Campanian, or between the latter and Apulian, resp., Lucanian-Northern Calabrian, largely reflect the administrative boundaries between the corresponding regions.

The goal of this work is to investigate to which extent modern dialectometry confirms the standard picture. Dialectometry [Séguy, 1973, Goebel, 1982] aims at providing an objective view of dialect variation through the use of quantitative data analysis. In particular, dialectometric clustering has been applied to several regions, including The Netherlands [Wieling & Nerbonne, 2011], Catalonia [Valls et al., 2012], English dialects [Wieling et al., 2013]. In Italy, relevant examples are mostly concerning Tuscany [Montemagni & Wieling, 2016].

In these works, various clustering techniques have been applied mainly on the basis of distance matrices, although other examples exist [Syrjanen et al., 2016]. Distance matrices collect the linguistic distances between any pair of N sites or areas. Linguistic distance has been defined in several different ways.

One common procedure consists in considering categorical lexical data, that is, M entries in a linguistic atlas, which may have up to P variants each. A distance between two sites is then defined by counting the number of pairwise variant mismatches for all features. An example is the Relative Difference Value (RDV), initially used as a difference function for unequivocal outcomes of features [Goebel, 2010] and later adapted to cover features with multiple possible outcomes [Pickl, 2014]. A slightly modified metric, the Weighted Identity/difference Value (WIV), can use weights to emphasise some particular features [Goebel, 1982]. This approach has been extended to variables/features other than lexical, i.e., phonological rules [Valls et al., 2012].

Another approach considers individual word pronunciations, which are converted in edit-distances between strings of characters, typically using one particular location as a reference. The most common edit distance used is Levenshtein distance [Levenshtein, 1966], which describe the cost (number of elementary operations) of changing one string into another or, equivalently, the character mismatches when the string are opportunely aligned. More refined methods with variable costs of substitutions (weights) also exist, such as the PMI-based Levenshtein distance [Wieling et al., 2014]. Once normalized by the length of alignment, the edit distances between m word pairs can be then aggregated by taking their average [Heeringa, 2004], leading to the distance between two varieties.

Once a distance matrix is obtained, several analyses can be performed, the basic ones being beam maps, honeycomb maps, and cluster analysis. Among

clustering techniques, hierarchical clustering such as complete-linkage, UPGMA or Ward’s has been more often used [Goebl, 2008]. Partitional clustering has been somehow less used in dialectometry, although both k-means and k-medoid clustering have been applied on different kinds of linguistic data [Hyvönen et al., 2007, Burridge et al., 2019, Cheshire et al., 2011, Syrjanen et al., 2016].

Hierarchical clustering or k-medoid can be used directly once the distance matrix is defined since these methods only need the distance metric between the sites. On the contrary, k-means requires to evaluate the distance between actual sites and iteratively updated centroids, which do not correspond to any site, therefore preventing the use of pre-calculated distance matrices.

Dimensionality Reduction (DR) techniques try to reduce the number of variables while preserving the variation as much as possible. For instance, Bipartite Spectral Graph Partitioning (BSGP) using Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) has been used in [Wieling & Nerbonne, 2011, Montemagni & Wieling, 2016, Wieling et al., 2013]. This technique uses a binary segment substitution matrix ($N \times M$) with value $A_{ij} = 1$ when segment substitution j occurs in variety i . SVD is applied to produce a synthetic vector of size $N + M$, which is then processed by k-means, in an attempt to simultaneously cluster sites and linguistic features which give rise to the geographical clustering.

Other dimensionality reduction techniques such as Multidimensional Scaling, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), or Factor Analysis [Pröll et al., 2014] are usually used to discover indirectly latent clusters and dialect continua in the data, e.g., by converting the distance matrix into a $N \times 3$ matrix, then attributing RGB values to rows and visualizing them on maps. However, these DR techniques usually do not provide explicit clustering capability.

Recently, spatial Bayesian Clustering (BC) has been applied to linguistic data by [Romano et al., 2022]. While hard clustering generates clear boundaries between clusters and thus may fail to represent gradual variations in continuous dialect data, in BC clustering is fuzzy: each point belongs to every cluster with a certain probability. Bayesian clustering yields core regions where points predominantly belong to a single cluster and gradual boundaries where points belong to multiple clusters with almost equal probabilities.

The data used for clustering are generally the entries of linguistic atlases. For the region under consideration, the web page of Salzburg dialectometry team [Goebl et al., 2019] provides a classification based on the AIS [Jaberg & Jud, 1987] data and two hierarchical clustering algorithms. However, Central-Southern Italian dialects are classified alongside with other Italian dialects: even setting the number of clusters to the maximum value available (20), only four-five groups emerge in the region considered. Moreover, the results change dramatically depending on the corpus considered, which is probably due to the relatively low number of sites (N less than 100) in the corpus.

In this work, we try to consider all Central-Southern Italian varieties, that is, more than a thousand communes in nine regions: The Marches (South of Esino river), Umbria, Latium, Abruzzi, Molise, Campania, Apulia, Basilicata, and Calabria. To obtain access to useful and homogeneous data, we select the most relevant L phonetic features instead of trying to gather a vocabulary

of word entries. Then we apply k-means clustering to points in an abstract L -dimensional space. Each point represents a group of varieties that are homogeneous according to the selected phonetic features and can be represented as strings of numerical values that describe the outcomes of those features. Thanks to the relatively low dimension of the dataset ($N \times L$), clustering can be performed directly with the k-means algorithm, without the need of dimensionality reduction techniques. Distance can be calculated between any strings, also not representative of any variety, e.g., the k-means centroids. We adopt the silhouette analysis to choose the most appropriate number of clusters. Based on that, we propose a heuristic method to define fuzzy or transitional areas across groups.

2 Method

Varieties are classified according to $L = 18$ phonetic traits, which are listed in Table 1. These traits have been selected according to two principles:

- Being sufficiently compact in their areal distribution, thus avoiding the use of “darting” phenomena occurring here and there. This criterion discarded, e.g., the propagation of /u/ in pre-tonic position (Savoia & Baldi, 2016; Schirru, 2016) or the semivocalization of initial and intervocalic /v/.
- Being sufficiently comprehensive, concerning at least two-three provinces. For this reason, e.g., the palatalization of pre-tonic /a/, which concerns a compact but limited area in Molise (Iannacito, 2002), was discarded.
- Being sufficiently studied (having a sufficient scientific literature) or easy to identify in written texts.

Table 1: Set of phonetic features considered and their possible outcomes.

ℓ	Phonetic trait – Outcomes	Examples	x_ℓ	w_ℓ
1	Metaphony, given /-U/	‘bed’		0.5
	Absent	[ˈlɛtːo]	0	
	Raising-type	[ˈlɛtːu]	1	
	Diphthongization-type	[ˈljɛtːə]	2	
	Monophthongization-type	[ˈlitːə]	3	
2	Metaphony, given /-I/	‘good’ (pl.)		0.5
	Absent	[ˈbɔno]	0	
	Raising-type	[ˈbonu]	1	
	Diphthongization-type	[ˈbwɔnə]	2	
	Monophthongization-type	[ˈbunə]	3	
3	Vocalic differentiation by position	‘thing’, ‘mouth’		1

	Absent	[kɔsə], [vɔkɪə]	0	
	Present (central-southern origin)	[kɔsə], [vɔkɪə]	1	
	Present (northern origin)	[kɔsə], [vɔkɪə]	-1	
4	Word-final vowels	'house', 'heart', 'eight', 'wolf'		1
	Reduction of all (/ə/)	[kəsə], [kɔrə], [ɔtɪə], [lupə]	0	
	Conservation of -a, reduction of others (/a/, /ə/)	[kasa], [kɔrə], [ɔtɪə], [lupə]	1	
	Conservation of three (/a/, /e/-/ə/-/i/, /o/-/u/) or four vowels (with /i/ distinct from /e/-/ə/)	[kasa], [kɔrə]-[kɔri], [ɔtɪu], [lupu]	2	
	Conservation of all five vowels (/a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/)	[kasa], [kɔrə], [ɔtɪo], [lupu]	3	
5	Alteration of -LL-	'horse'		1
	Absent (/ll/)	[ka'val:u]	0	
	Palatal (/j/, /ɣ/, /j/)	[ka'vaj:u]	1	
	Occlusive (/dd/) and retroflex	[ka'vad:u]	2	
6	Metaphony of -A-	'hands'		1
	Absent	[manə]	0	
	Present	[minə]	1	
7	Some groups of consonants + L	'(it) rains', 'white', 'flower'		1
	Standard (/pj/, /bj/, /fj/)	[pjoʋə], [b:jangə], [fjoʋə]	0	
	Alteration of /pl/ > /kj/	[coʋə], [b:jangə], [fjoʋə]	1	
	Further alteration of /bl/ > /j/	[coʋə], [jangə], [fjoʋə]	2	
	Further alteration of /fj/ > /ʃ/, /x/ etc.	[coʋə], [jangə], [foʋə]	3	
8	Apocope of -no, -ne	'bread', 'wine'		0.5
	Absent	[pane], [vino]	0	
	Only -ne	[pə], [vino]	1	
	Both	[pə], [vi]	2	
9	Outcomes of -LJ-	'son'		1
	Palatal (/ɣ/)	[fiʎə]	0	
	Approximant (/j/)	[fiʝə]	1	
	Occlusive (/ʃ/)	[fiʃə]	2	
10	Aspiration of -F-	'coffee'		1
	Absent	[ka'fe]	0	
	Present	[ka'he]	1	
11	Rhotacization of -D-	'tooth'		1
	Absent	[dendə]	0	
	Present	[rɛndə]	1	

12	Degemination of -RR- and other geminates	‘ground’		1
	Absent	[ˈtɛr:a]	0	
	Present (of -rr-)	[ˈtɛra]	1	
	Present (of -rr- and others)	[ˈtɛra]	2	
13	Postnasal sonorization of stops and progressive assimilation in groups of /n/ + stops	‘spring’, ‘when’		1
	Both present	[ˈfɔnde], [ˈkwan:o]	0	
	Only assimilation	[ˈfontɛ], [ˈkwan:o]	1	
	Both absent	[ˈfontɛ], [ˈkwando]	2	
14	“Florentine” Anaphonesis	‘tongue’		1
	Absent	[ˈlɛŋgwa]	0	
	Present	[ˈliŋgwa]	1	
15	Some groups of consonants + J	‘arm’, ‘to eat’, ‘to go out’		1
	Standard (/tʃ/, /ɲ/, /j/)	[ˈvrɑtʃ:ə], [maˈɲ:a], [ˈji]	0	
	Alteration of /kj/ > /ts/	[ˈvrɑts:ə], [maˈɲ:a], [ˈji]	1	
	Further alteration of /ngj/ > /nɟʒ/	[ˈvrɑts:ə], [maˈnɟʒa], [ˈji]	2	
	Further alteration of /j/ > /ʃ/	[ˈvrɑts:ə], [maˈnɟʒa], [ˈʃi]	3	
16	Group R + J	‘baker’		1
	Central-southern /r/	[forˈnaro]	0	
	Tuscan /j/	[forˈnaʝo]	1	
17	Group S + J	‘kiss’		1
	Postalveolar (/ʃ/)	[ˈvaʃə]	0	
	Alveolar (/s/)	[ˈvasə]	1	
18	Tonic vowel system	‘snow’, ‘month’, ‘cross’		1
	Common Romance	[ˈnevə], [ˈmesə], [ˈkrɔtʃə]	0	
	“Romanian”	[ˈnevə], [ˈmesə], [ˈkrutʃə]	1	
	“Sardinian”	[ˈnivə], [ˈmesə], [ˈkrutʃə]	2	
	“Sicilian”	[ˈnivə], [ˈmisə], [ˈkrutʃə]	3	

Traditionally, most of these features are associated with “isoglosses” that have been used to define dialect groups or subgroups. For instance, trait no. 4 is the definitory isogloss that separates the Central dialects from Intermediate-Southern dialects in the classification of Pellegrini.

All varieties in the geographical space considered have been inspected and attributed a numerical value for each trait. Traits that have just two outcomes can generate either a digit 0 (in general, absence of that trait) or 1 (presence). Traits with multiple (P) outcomes can generate digits ranging from 0 to $P - 1$ where 0 is generally attributed to the “most standard” outcome, and the digit increases with the degree of deviation from this standard. The numerical values of each outcome are equally listed in Table 1. In case of intermediate, simultaneous, or uncertain outcomes, sometimes fractional values have been

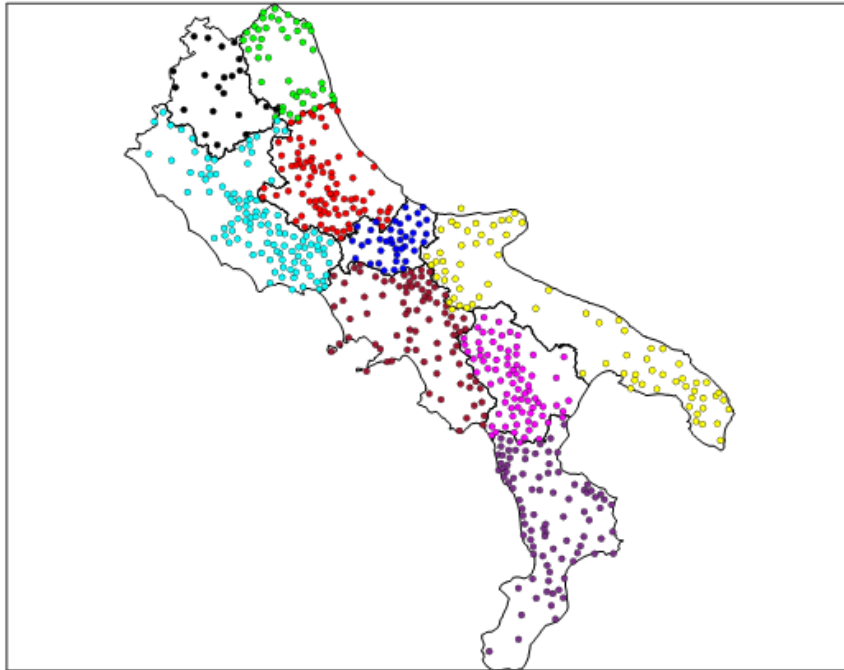


Figure 1: Localization of the homogeneous areas (circles). Each colour corresponds to one of the administrative regions. Boundaries between regions are drawn.

used.

Resulting from this transcription, each dialect corresponds to a string of L digits, $\{x_\ell\}_1^L$. Varieties that are geographically adjacent and share the same string are considered as equal and form a “homogeneous area” (HA) for the purposes of this study. In the whole space, no less than $N = 628$ homogeneous areas have been identified in this way: 108 in Latium, 89 in Calabria, 88 in the Abruzzi, 83 in Campania, 79 in Basilicata, 76 in Apulia, 40 in Molise, 44 in the Marches, 21 in Umbria. The localization of these areas is shown schematically in Fig. 1. Their actual extension and the varieties included in each of them are detailed in the companion web site.

Each homogeneous area represents one point in the data set used for the classification. The metrics used is the Manhattan distance

$$D_{ij} = \sum_{\ell} w_{\ell} |x_{i\ell} - x_{j\ell}|, \quad (1)$$

where $|\cdot|$ denotes the absolute value and w is a vector of weights. In this study, w_{ℓ} is always 1 except for $\ell = \{1, 2, 8\}$ where $w = 0.5$ has been used, see Table

1. We note that this procedure is roughly equivalent to ‘count the isoglosses’ between two different locations.

Based on this metric, a k-means algorithm has been used to classify the N L -dimensional points into K groups. This well-known algorithm tries to attribute each point to one of the clusters by minimising the within-cluster sum of Manhattan distances, that is,

$$\min \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{x_i \in C_k} \sum_{\ell=1}^L w_\ell |x_{i\ell} - m_{k\ell}|, \quad (2)$$

where the centroid m_k is defined as the mean of points belonging to cluster k (C_k),

$$m_k = \frac{1}{\text{card}(C_k)} \sum_{x_j \in C_k} x_j. \quad (3)$$

In practice, the algorithm proceeds iteratively. First, a set of K means is randomly generated. Then, each point is attributed to the cluster with the ‘nearest’ mean. Further, means are recalculated based on the points attributed to each cluster. This process is repeated for T iterations. However, the algorithm is not guaranteed to find the optimum, i.e., the clustering that minimizes the objective in (2) [Russel & Norvig, 2020]. For this reason, the algorithm is run for R times, each time with a different (random) initialization of the means. For each run, the objective is calculated and finally the run with the minimal objective is chosen as the result. For this study, the algorithm is parametrized with $T = 20$ and $R = 200K$.

To choose the optimal number of clusters K , the silhouette analysis is used. According to this method, a silhouette metric is defined as a function of the number of clusters as

$$\sigma(K) = \left\langle \frac{b_i - a_i}{\max(a_i, b_i)} \right\rangle \quad (4)$$

where $\langle \cdot \rangle$ denotes the average over all points i , and

$$a_i = \frac{1}{\text{card}(C_I) - 1} \sum_{j \in C_I, j \neq i} D_{ij}, \quad b_i = \min_{J \neq I} \frac{1}{\text{card}(C_J)} \sum_{j \in C_J} D_{ij} \quad (5)$$

are the mean distance between point i and all other points in the same cluster C_I and the smallest mean distance of i to all points in any other cluster, respectively. The optimal number of clusters is chosen as to maximise the silhouette. The silhouette coefficient $SC = \max_K \sigma(K)$ summarizes the final result.

It is common opinion that belonging to one particular dialectal group is not a rigid attribute, but instead, transition bands exist. To retrieve this intuitive behaviour in a quantitative way, we have used the following method. We compute the distance between each HA and the centroids of all clusters,

$$D_i^k = \sum_{\ell} w_\ell |x_{i\ell} - m_{k\ell}|. \quad (6)$$

The lowest distance corresponds by definition to the cluster k to which the HA is member. If the difference between the second lowest distance (say, with cluster h) and the lowest distance is less than a specified fraction of the lowest distance, then that HA is marked as a transitional area between cluster k and cluster h ,

$$i \in C_{KH} \quad \text{if} \quad D_i^h < D_i^\ell, \forall \ell \neq \{k, h\} \cap D_i^h < (1 + \xi) D_i^k. \quad (7)$$

3 Data

Data for all varieties considered have been collected from multiple and diverse sources, including material covering the phonetics of specific varieties (see Selected Sources: Specific Varieties), larger areas or entire regions (see Selected Sources: Larger Areas), comprehensive monographies (see Selected Sources: Comprehensive Monographies) and linguistic atlases (see Selected Sources: Linguistic Atlases) including acoustic atlases. Other acoustic material available on the web, both ethnographic and spontaneous, has also provided data for certain dialectal traits. Good dialectal dictionaries, although often written by non-professional researchers, have been found for many varieties. Dialectal literature (mostly, poetry) in specific varieties and collections covering broader areas have been also perused, particularly for those traits that are unambiguous when written. Many of these non-scholarly sources are listed in the companion website. Less canonically, many data have been obtained by inspecting, searching, and sometimes querying dialect-oriented groups in social networks such as Facebook. Older scholarly data have been systematically checked in the (written) conversations found in these groups.

As a result, a database containing thousands of observations has been prepared and is available to the readers upon request to the author. Based on that, the strings for each variety have been constructed and the homogeneous areas identified.

Inspection of unclassified results provides already some useful insight. For instance, it is possible to graphically represent on a map the distances from a given HA, creating similarity maps as defined in [Goebl et al., 2019]. Moreover, “isogloss maps” and “beam maps” have been also created. Examples of the latter for all regions considered are shown in the companion website, where only ‘beams’ corresponding to distances $D \leq 1$ are plotted, depicting the emergence of dialectal continua. However, this analysis yields many small continua and a large number of isolated areas (whose distance with all conterminous areas is larger than 1), making a significant classification impossible. For this purpose, the most useful analysis is that of clustering, which is presented in the next section.

4 Results

Clustering with several values of K ranging from 2 to 11 have been run and inspected. For higher values of K the overall results become very sensitive to the random initialization, unstable, and thus are not shown. Table 2 summarizes the main divides (traditionally, the “isoglosses”) that characterize each new partition, as well as the new groups that emerge from it.

The silhouette factor as a function of K is shown in 2. Values are given as the mean of four series of runs plus/minus the standard deviation. When the latter is small, it means that the results are stable when different series of runs are executed. As it can be observed, the factor σ generally decreases with the number of clusters, with the coincidence intervals of two consecutive K that are generally not overlapping. However, two values of K emerge as local maxima, namely, $K = 2$ and 4. A third cluster number, $K = 9$ has a mean silhouette factor that is close to that with $K = 8$. Moreover, there is an overlap of the respective confidence intervals, which means that for some series of runs the silhouette could be higher with $K = 9$ than with $K = 8$.

Table 2: Clustering results as a function of the no. of clusters K .
New groups in bold.

K	Main new divide (w.r.t. $K - 1$)	Groups identified	σ
2	Salerno-Lucera-Vieste (SLV)	Northern space vs. Southern space	0.400 ± 0.000
3	Gaeta-Sora-Termoli (GST), Alento-Agri-Taranto-Brindisi	Northern, Central , Southern subspaces	0.361 ± 0.002
4	GST, SLV, Alento-Crati-Nardò-Brindisi	Northern, Central-Northern , Central-Southern , Southern subspaces	0.365 ± 0.000
5	Sora-L’Aquila-S. Benedetto	Northern subspace, Abruzzese , Central-Northern, Central-Southern, Southern subspaces	0.341 ± 0.000
6	Foggia-Potenza-Cassano	Northern subspace, Abruzzese, Central-Northern subspace, Apulian , Irpino-Lucanian , Southern subspace	0.329 ± 0.003

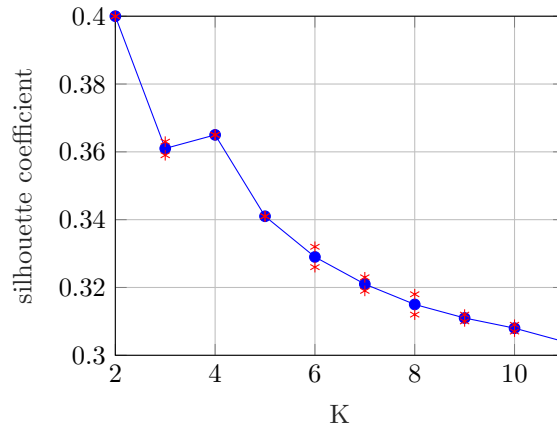


Figure 2: Silhouette coefficient as a function of the number of groups.

7	Pollino-Sila-Lamezia	Northern subspace, Abruzzese, Central-Northern subspace, Apulian, Irpino-Lucanian, Cosentino , Salentino-Calabrian	0.321 ± 0.002
8	Latina-Ancona	Perimedian , Median , Abruzzese, Central-Northern subspace, Apulian, Irpino-Lucanian, Cosentino, Salentino-Calabrian	0.315 ± 0.003
9	irregular	Perimedian, Median, Abruzzese, Sannite , Neapolitan-Molisano , Apulian, Irpino-Lucanian, Cosentino, Salentino-Calabrian	0.311 ± 0.001
10	Irregular	As above, but Irpino-Lucanian split in two groups	0.308 ± 0.001
11	Irregular	As above, but Marsican-Southern Latian split from Abruzzese	0.304 ± 0.002

Table 3: List of Province codes. Regional capital cities in bold.

THE MARCHES (<i>Marche</i>)		CAMPANIA	
Ancona	AN	Avellino	AV
Ascoli Piceno	AP	Benevento	BN
Fermo	FM	Caserta	CE
Macerata	MC	Napoli	NA
UMBRIA		Salerno	SA
Perugia	PG	APULIA (<i>Puglia</i>)	
Terni	TN	Bari	BA
LATIUM (<i>Lazio</i>)		Barletta-Andria-Trani	BT
Frosinone	FR	Brindisi	BR
Latina	LT	Foggia	FG
Rieti	RI	Lecce	LE
Roma	RM	Taranto	TA
Viterbo	VT	BASILICATA	
ABRUZZI (<i>Abruzzo</i>)		Matera	MT
L'Aquila	AQ	Potenza	PZ
Chieti	CH	CALABRIA	
Pescara	PE	Cosenza	CS
Teramo	TE	Catanzaro	CZ
MOLISE		Crotone	KR
Campobasso	CB	Reggio di Calabria	RC
Isernia	IS	Vibo Valentia	VV

The first optimal classification with $K = 2$ divides the overall space considered into a Northern and a Southern space, separated by a line that resembles the traditional Salerno-Lucera (actually, Salerno-Lucera (FG)-Vieste (FG), SLV) isogloss bundle. For instance, around this line lays the northern limit of $KJ > /ts:/$ (see trait 15 in Table 1).

In the partition with $K = 4$ each of these subspaces split in two. Thus, a Northern subspace is separated from a Central-Northern subspace by a line running from around Gaeta (LT) on the Tyrrhenian coast to around Termoli (CB) on the Adriatic coast, with an elbow around Sora (FR). The Central-Northern subspace is separated from a Central-Southern subspace by a SLV line, although not exactly coincident with the previous one. Finally, the Central-Southern subspace is separated from a Southern subspace by two lines, one running from around the mouth of the Alento river (SA) on the Tyrrhenian coast to the mouth of the Crati river (CS) on the Ionian coast, the other running from around Nardò (LE) on the Ionian coast to around Brindisi on the Adriatic coast.

A further relevant partition is obtained with $K = 9$, not only because a substantial plateau of σ is observed, but also because the results are more stable than with $K = 7$ or $K = 8$ (lower std). Incidentally, this value of K matches the number of administrative regions (Regioni) in the space considered. This partition could be thus a promising basis for the definition of more accurate

“regional languages” in this half of Italy. The groups identified by clustering with $K = 9$ are listed in Table 2 and detailed here from North to South as:

1. “Perimedian” group, including provincial capitals AN, PG, VT, RM, LT, and areas in Northern Marche, in Central-Western Umbria, in Western Latium, besides a hamlet (frazione) in Basilicata (a Marchigiano colony).
2. “Median” group, including provincial capitals MC, FM, TN, RI, FR, AQ, and areas in Central Marche, South-Eastern Umbria, Central Latium, Western Abruzzi.
3. “Abruzzese” group, including provincial capitals AP, TE, PE, CH, and areas in Southern Marche, Eastern Abruzzi, Southern Latium, besides two smaller areas in Molise.
4. “Samnite” group, including provincial capitals IS, CB, BN, and areas in South-Eastern Latium, Western Molise, Northern Campania, besides some smaller areas in Campania, Northern Apulia, and Basilicata around and including the provincial capital PZ (Gallo-Italic colonies).
5. “Neapolitan-Molisano” group, including provincial capitals NA, CE, SA, and areas in Central Campania, Eastern Molise, besides some smaller areas in North-Western Apulia.
6. “Apulian” group, including provincial capitals FG, BAT, BA, TA, MT, BR, and areas in Northern-Central Apulia, South-Eastern Basilicata, North-Eastern Calabria, besides some smaller areas in Central Campania.
7. “Irpino-Lucanian” group, including provincial capital AV and areas in Southern-Eastern Campania, Western Basilicata, and North-Eastern Apulia.
8. “Cosentino” group, including provincial capital CS and areas in Southern Campania (likely having a Greek substratum), Northern Calabria, besides some smaller areas in Basilicata (most of them being or having been Gallo-Italic colonies).
9. “Salentino-Calabrian” group, including provincial capitals LE, KR, VV, CZ, RC, and areas in Southern Apulia and Central-Southern Calabria, besides some smaller areas in Northern Calabria.

Figure 3 shows the attribution of each HA to one of the nine clusters, identified by a colour. It must be noted that the k-means algorithm has no knowledge about the spatial correlation between the HA, each of them representing a “point” in an 18-dimensional space, with these points that can be geographically ordered in any arbitrary way. Though, the spatial consistency of the results is striking, and the groups obtained clearly recall traditional regions and dialectal groups. The actual boundaries between the nine groups can be traced on a map as depicted in Fig. 4.

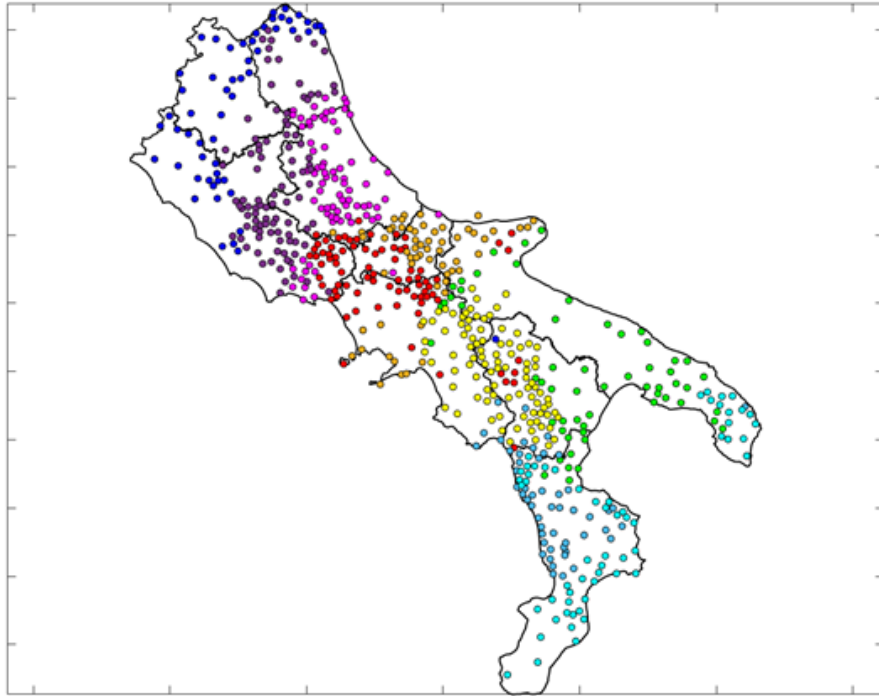


Figure 3: HA clustered in $K = 9$ groups: schematic representation. Each colour corresponds to one group: blue (Perimedian), purple (Median), pink (Abruzzese), red (Samnite), orange (Neapolitan-Molisano), green (Apulian), yellow (Irpino-Lucanian), grey blue (Cosentino), light blue (Salentino-Calabrian).

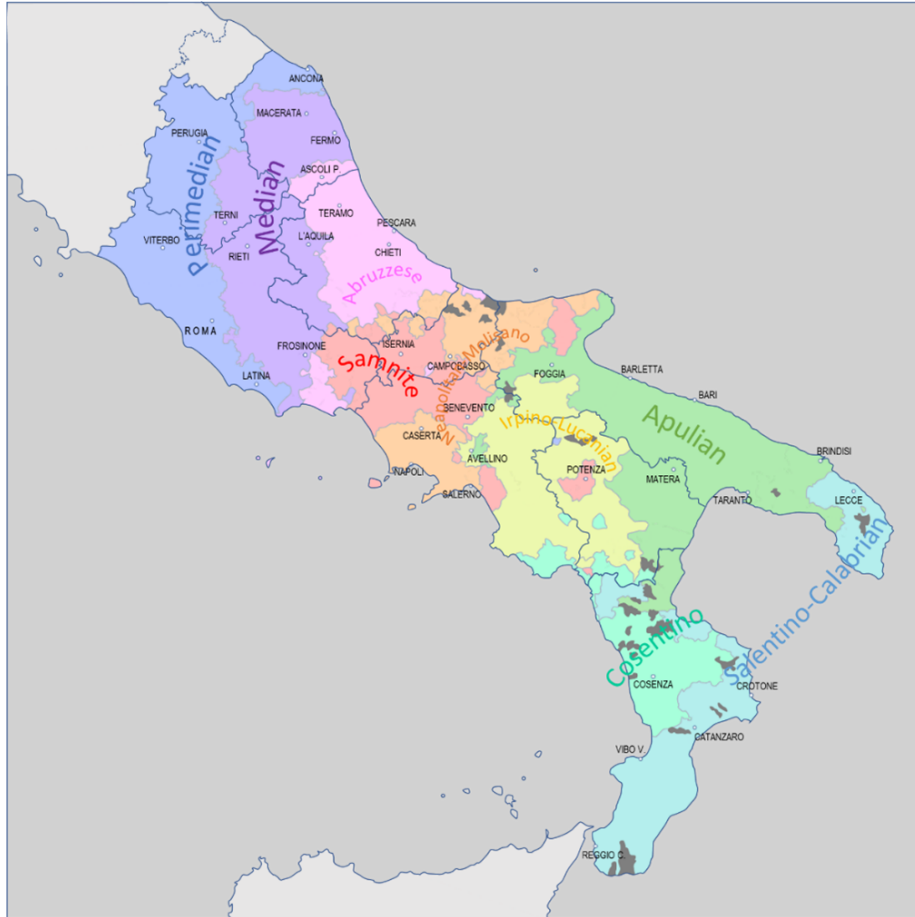


Figure 4: HA clustered in $K=9$ groups: a linguistic map with actual group boundaries. Colours of groups correspond to those of Fig. 3

Boundary between groups 1–2 recalls a well-known isogloss, the Northern limit of simultaneous /nt/ > /nd/ and /nd/ > /nn/ (see trait 13 in Table 1) that traditionally separates the Central Italian dialects into a “Perimedial” and a “Median” section (whence the naming of groups 1 and 2 used here). Boundary 2–3 runs similarly to another definitory isogloss, the Northern limit of [ə] (see trait 4 in Table 1), which serves to separate Central from Southern (“Neapolitan language”) dialects in traditional classifications. Boundary 3–4, or the GST bundle introduced above, is similar to the Northern limit of PL > /kj/ (see trait 7 in Table 1) or isogloss 21 in Pellegrini’s map. Boundary between 4, 5 on one side and 6, 7 on the other, is the SLV bundle discussed above. Boundary between 6, 7 on one side and 8, 9 on the other, recalls the Northern limit of non-standard tonic vowel systems (trait 18 in Table 1), which is different from isogloss 25 (Southern limit of [ə]) that is traditionally used to separate the Intermediate Southern dialects from the Extreme Southern dialects (“Sicilian” language). Finally, the North-South boundary between groups 7, 8 on one side and 6, 9 on the other, matches almost perfectly a less used isogloss, i.e., the Western limit of LJ > /j/ (see trait 9 in Table 1), whereas in traditional classifications the corresponding boundaries are purely administrative.

Figures 5 (schematic view) and 6 (pictorial) show the transitional areas identified with the method (7) of second-best clusters (with $\xi = 0.5$). These results suggest the existence of such areas at the geographical boundary between groups 1 and 2 (in Marche, Umbria, and Latium), 2 and 3 (in Marche, Abruzzi, and Latium), 2 and 4, 3 and 4 (in Latium), 3 and 5 (in Abruzzi and Molise), 4 and 5 (in Molise, Campania and Apulia), 4 and 7 (in Campania), 5 and 6 (in Apulia), 6 and 7 (in Apulia and Basilicata), 7 and 8 (in Basilicata), 6 and 8, 6 and 9 (in Apulia and Calabria), 8 and 9 (in Calabria). Again, these results are consistent with geography in the sense that transitional areas are generally identified between clusters that actually share a geographical border.

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we have presented a dialectometry-based study aimed at classifying the Romance varieties of Central-Southern Italy. We have analysed the thousands of varieties under study and operated a massive pre-treatment of data available from many sources, resulting in a substantial reduction of the problem dimension. We have characterized these varieties with respect to 18 phonetic traits, including the isoglosses that have been traditionally used by linguists to define dialectal groups. On this basis we have identified 628 homogeneous areas as the groups conterminous varieties that share the same traits. As a result, we have got an operating data set of 628 points in an 18-dimensional space, where we could define linguistic distances. We have then formulated the problem as a clustering problem, that is, find the K clusters of those points that minimise the within-cluster linguistic distance. We have used a k-means algorithm to cluster and an ad-hoc rule to define second-best clusters and transitional areas. We have used silhouette analysis to select the most appropriate number of clusters.

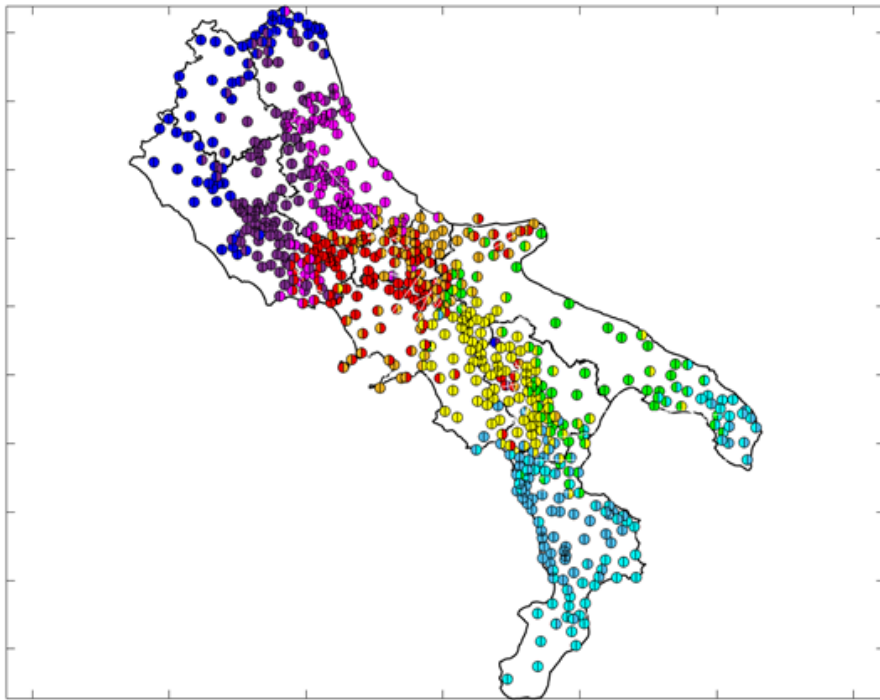


Figure 5: HA clustered in $K=9$ groups with second-best clusters: schematic representation. Core clusters are identified by the left-half colour of the circles; second-best clusters in transitional area are identified by right-half colours.

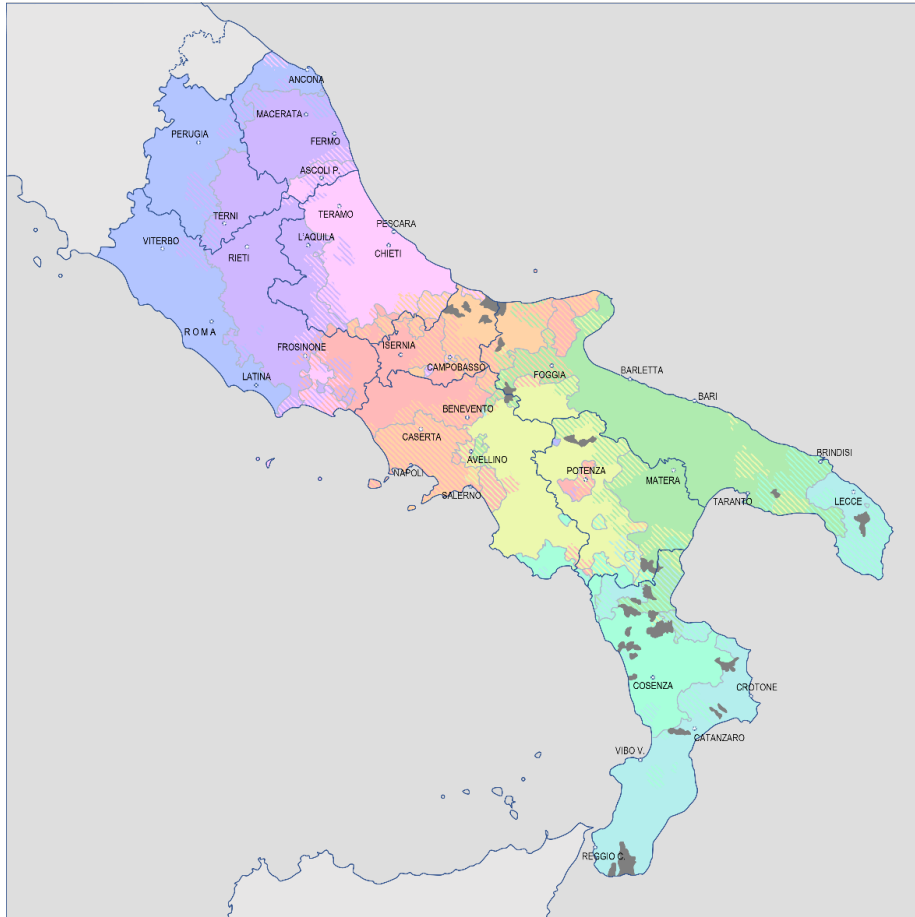


Figure 6: HA clustered in $K=9$ groups with second-best clusters: a linguistic map with actual group boundaries and transitional areas (hatched).

The results are geographically consistent, although the algorithms used have no information about the actual geographical distance between areas or the boundaries shared by them. The methods used suggest that clustering with 9 groups is the most appropriate choice.

The dialectal groups identified (labelled as Perimedian, Median, Abruzzese, Samnite, Neapolitan-Molisano, Apulian, Irpino-Lucanian, Cosentino, and Salentino-Calabrese) resemble but do not coincide with the regional varieties traditionally invoked. Both hard and fuzzy boundaries between them are based only on linguistic considerations, and not administrative or historical boundaries. Often these boundaries coincide at least partially with known isoglosses, suggesting a high linguistic consistency of the results. We conclude that a classification based on these grounds is less arbitrary than traditional ones based on selected isoglosses as it considers multiple dialectal traits. It is also less subjective since the partitioning is made by an algorithm that tries to minimise a clearly defined objective function. Another strength of the method is that it can be readily adapted as long as new data is available, varieties evolve, or corrections are made to the data set.

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