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Not-so-strange bedfellows: Documentation, description, and sociolinguistics in Gaza

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Abstract

Arabic is often investigated within dialectological frameworks that emerged in the 19th century, though that work now exists alongside decades of variationist sociolinguistic research. The latter method typically produces abundant data, recorded at very high quality, which lend themselves to being transcribed, described and preserved. This paper presents descriptive information on the Arabic dialect of Gaza City, based on recent sociolinguistic fieldwork conducted in the Gaza Strip with 39 speakers from the wider Gaza City community. These descriptive aspects of the dialect are presented as part of a broader discussion regarding the need for a more holistic integration of sociolinguistics and language description and documentation in work on understudied or endangered varieties of Arabic.

Keywords: Gaza, documentation, description, Arabic, sociolinguistics

Résumé

La langue arabe est souvent étudiée au sein de cadres dialectologiques ayant émergé au 19^e siècle, mais ce travail existe maintenant de compagnie avec quelques décennies de recherches en linguistique variationniste. Cette dernière méthode produit généralement des données abondantes, en enregistrements de très haute qualité, se prêtant bien à la transcription, à la description et à la conservation. Le présent article, qui fournit des informations descriptives sur le dialecte arabe de la ville de Gaza, se fonde sur un travail de terrain sociolinguistique mené récemment dans la bande de Gaza avec 39 locuteurs de la communauté de Gaza. Ces aspects descriptifs du dialecte sont présentés dans le cadre d'une discussion plus large sur la nécessité d'une intégration plus holistique de la sociolinguistique, ainsi que de la description et de la documentation linguistique, dans des recherches sur les variétés d'arabe peu étudiées ou menacées.

Mots-clés: Gaza, la documentation, la description, l'arabe, la sociolinguistique

1. INTRODUCTION

Since the 1970s, there has been a steady rise in sociolinguistic interest in Arabic. Sociolinguistic research has been conducted in many of the major urban centers

46 where Arabic is spoken, including Amman (Al-Wer 2007b), Manama (Holes 1987),
47 Damascus (Ismail 2008), Beirut (Germanos 2011), Cairo (Haeri 1997), and
48 Casablanca (Hachimi 2007).¹ More recently, scholars have turned their attention to
49 more rural or isolated varieties of the language, or varieties which lack sufficient
50 documentation and description (e.g., Alessa 2008, Al-Qahtani 2015, Al-Wer and
51 Al-Qahtani *in press*).

52 This shift towards examining language change in Arabic-speaking communities
53 where research has not previously been conducted is welcome, given that the bulk of
54 sociolinguistic interest has been on English-speaking communities (Stanford 2016).
55 This more recent focus on understudied varieties of Arabic also raises an important
56 question: what is the role of sociolinguists in these situations, with respect to more
57 general concerns regarding language documentation and description?²

58 Taking my own site of research, Gaza City, as a point of investigation, I examine
59 the available knowledge on Gaza's sociolinguistic landscape while providing addi-
60 tional qualitative information based on recent fieldwork with speakers of Gaza
61 City Arabic (GCA), the variety spoken by the indigenous, non-refugee residents of
62 the city. By revisiting my own corpus, which has until now been viewed solely
63 through a variationist lens, I point Arabic sociolinguistics towards a discussion that
64 focuses on how language description or documentation can be integrated into socio-
65 linguistic research, and what this integration provides from both a research- and a
66 community-based perspective. Situating a qualitative discussion within the broader
67 sociolinguistic landscape of Gaza, this study presents these two facets of work on
68 GCA as going hand in hand towards understanding the dialect and the precarious posi-
69 tion of the community itself in one of the world's longest running conflicts, the
70 Israel-Palestine conflict.

71 I begin by examining the growth of Arabic sociolinguistics within the broader
72 sociolinguistic enterprise. Following this look at the evolution of the field, I move
73 on to viewing Arabic varieties through the lens of language endangerment.
74 Considering language endangerment within the context of Arabic represents an
75 important but often unarticulated facet of descriptive work on Arabic varieties. I
76 then contextualize these broader discussions within my own body of research on
77 Gaza City, providing a qualitative account of a number of features of the city's
78 dialect. In doing so, I highlight potential paths forward for Arabic sociolinguistics
79 that may bring it closer to research conducted in the language documentation and
80 description paradigms.

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86 ¹Abbreviation used throughout this article: GCA: Gaza City Arabic.

87 ²Himmelman (1998) has laid out the distinction between documentation as an emphasis
88 on primary data from a given language, and description as an analysis of this data. For the pur-
89 poses of my argument this distinction is not crucial, however I have endeavoured to keep the
90 distinction intact throughout my discussion to avoid conflating the two.

2. ARABIC DIALECTOLOGY AND THE BIRTH OF ARABIC SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Although Arabic dialectology has a time-depth almost equal to that of its English counterpart (Bergsträßer 1915), Arabic sociolinguistics has largely emerged out of the early sociolinguistic tradition, which treats variation as inherent to the linguistic system, and seeks to understand how the social life of a community influences the directionality and extent of language variation and change (Labov 1963). Despite its emergence from an already established intellectual tradition, Arabic sociolinguistics still relies heavily on the work of dialectologists. However, reliance on the dialectological tradition often manifests in the utilization of texts and descriptions collected many decades earlier. This is especially true in cases where sociolinguists are researching under-documented Arabic varieties (such as GCA). Arabic sociolinguists are thus often forced to rely on sources that are sometimes out of date, or simply unavailable. Taking GCA as an example, the most reliable source on the dialect (Bergsträßer 1915) was published over a century ago, before the massive refugee influxes into Gaza that have taken place since 1948, drastically changing the city's demographic makeup.

In researching understudied Arabic varieties, we can ask how sociolinguistic interest can enrich and foster further descriptive and documentary work. Similarly, we can ask what sociolinguists gain from incorporating descriptive and documentary methods into our research, and how we can integrate the goals of these two approaches in a way that is beneficial for both the researcher and the community. Focusing on bringing these different strands of research together will allow sociolinguists to make use of often large bodies of data, moving their analyses beyond accounts that focus on small collections of variables.

Following a discussion of language endangerment as it relates to Arabic, the remainder of this article investigates GCA, from the early dialect atlas published in 1915 to a qualitative discussion based on the sociolinguistic work that I conducted almost a century later, in 2013. What follows highlights the information available to us from the scattered sources on GCA and how a descriptive focus based on later sociolinguistic research provides a new understanding of a handful of features of the dialect.

3. IS ARABIC ENDANGERED?

Arabic is spoken by roughly three hundred million people around the world. Typologically, scholars of Arabic delineate the distribution of Arabic dialects along Western (*maghrebi*) and Eastern (*mashreqi*) lines, with the dividing isogloss between the two varieties running roughly along the Nile Delta of Egypt. The distinction between these two Arabic varieties typically focuses on the morphology of the first person imperfective singular and plural verb forms. In areas west of the isogloss, both the singular and plural in the first person are formed with a word-initial *n-*, while the plural form also takes a word-final *-u* (e.g., [niktib] 'I write', [niktibu] 'We write'). Contrasting with Western dialects, in Eastern varieties the first person

136 singular lacks word-initial *n*-, while the plural further lacks word-final *-u* (Versteegh
137 1997, Al-Wer and de Jong 2017 *in press*).

138 From this broad Western–Eastern categorization, the spectrum of dialect group-
139 ings can be further narrowed, with Arabists often ascribing nation-state-based labels
140 to different dialect groupings (e.g., Palestinian, Lebanese, Moroccan). These labels
141 imply a certain degree of linguistic homogeneity based on present-day political
142 borders which is ultimately misleading, with immense diversity existing within the
143 political boundaries of a given state. Cadora (1992) highlights the diversity within
144 Arabic dialects through a taxonomy classifying spoken varieties on urban vs. rural,
145 and Bedouin vs. sedentary lines. As with nation-state-based labels, this taxonomy
146 provides general groupings of linguistic features but does not suggest strict linguistic
147 homogeneity within any given group.

148 Viewing the language as a whole, Arabic is far from endangered. However, mass
149 migration, political conflict, and long-term demographic changes throughout the
150 Arabic-speaking world have created a situation in which numerous varieties of
151 Arabic are endangered, with a number becoming as mutually unintelligible as
152 some Germanic languages. Of the endangered Arabic varieties, two of the most
153 well-known are the Qashqadarya and Bukhara varieties spoken in Uzbekistan
154 (Chikovani 2002, 2009). Although both varieties exist within the Uzbek state, they
155 are mutually unintelligible both in relation to each other – as a result of contact
156 with genetically unrelated languages (Uzbek and Tajik) – and in relation to more
157 “mainstream” Arabic varieties spoken elsewhere, particularly in urban centers such
158 as Cairo (Woidich 2007), Beirut (Naïm 2007), or Amman (Al-Wer 2007a). Two addi-
159 tional endangered varieties of Arabic, both of which lack thorough documentation,
160 can be identified in Iran (Seeger 2013) and Afghanistan (Ingham 2003).

161 Even within communities where substantial research has been carried out, it is
162 still possible to identify cases of Arabic varieties that have been lost. Blanc’s
163 (1964) description of Muslim, Christian, and Jewish varieties of Bahgdadi Arabic
164 provided one of the most well-known accounts of language variation stratified
165 along religious lines. However, Abu Haidar’s (1991) later work suggests that the
166 Christian variety of Baghdad Arabic is likely to be receding, while the Jewish
167 variety has likely been lost.

168 Even for varieties that may not be considered endangered by most established
169 metrics, there is an impetus among researchers to document or describe the particu-
170 lars of these varieties. Given the sheer number of spoken Arabic varieties, along with
171 the uniquely turbulent sociopolitical environment in the Arabic-speaking world,
172 many Arabic varieties remain undocumented. Filling these gaps in the linguistic
173 record represents an important area of research, and one that the political situation
174 makes increasingly challenging. One case that perhaps best exemplifies these chal-
175 lenges is the status of certain varieties of Syrian Arabic, which may now be in
176 danger as a result of the precarious socio-political context of the Syrian Civil War
177 that has affected the Syrian community since 2011. Cases such as Syria or Gaza
178 City, which I elaborate on below, are of particular concern for scholars committed
179 to documenting and describing Arabic varieties, or attempting to assist community
180

181 members in documenting language and associated knowledge in one of the world's
 182 most socio-politically fraught regions.

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 185 **4. GAZA CITY ARABIC: FROM SCATTERED TEXTS TO SOCIOLINGUISTIC**
 186 **INTERVIEWS**

187
 188 The earliest description of GCA dates from the work of German dialectologist
 189 Gotthelf Bergsträßer (1915). Bergsträßer's account of Gaza City was part of a
 190 dialect atlas of Arabic varieties in the Levant, with Gaza City representing one part
 191 of a much larger project. Aside from this early work, scattered texts collected by
 192 Barnea (1973) and Salonen (1979, 1980) represent the only other accounts of this
 193 variety.

194 The representativeness of Salonen's data has been called into question by de
 195 Jong (2000), given that the bulk of Salonen's speakers were from villages between
 196 Gaza City in the north of the Gaza Strip and Khan Younis in the south. Although
 197 the distance between these villages and Gaza City is only 20 kilometers, significant
 198 variation exists between varieties of Arabic spoken in urban centres and rural villages
 199 (Cadora 1992). Salonen's speakers were also interviewed in the diaspora, so the
 200 potential for contact with other varieties of Arabic remains unknown. As a result,
 201 Bergsträßer's description of only a handful of features of GCA is the most reliable
 202 account of the dialect available, even though it was collected over a century ago,
 203 prior to the massive demographic changes that have taken place in Gaza following
 204 the influx of Palestinian refugees into the territory since 1948.

205 When looking at the features of GCA discussed by Bergsträßer, one of the most
 206 profound shifts that we can identify relates to the realization of the voiceless uvular
 207 stop, /q/. Across spoken Arabic varieties the phoneme is commonly realized as [q, k,
 208 ʔ, g], but beyond this regional variation, research has shown that variation in /q/ can
 209 also be marked along macrosociological lines. Previous research has provided cases
 210 where variation in the realization of this phoneme has been stratified along age,
 211 gender, or religious lines (e.g., Holes 1987; Al-Wer 2007b; Hachimi 2007, 2012).

212 Bergsträßer's early account describes a glottal [ʔ] realization of /q/ being pre-
 213 dominant in Gaza City (1915: map 4). This glottal realization is also attested as a
 214 common feature of urban Palestinian varieties of Arabic more generally
 215 (Rosenhouse 2007, Shahin 2007). What makes Bergsträßer's account important is
 216 his statement that the glottal realization is typical of Gaza's Christian residents,
 217 noting that in the areas surrounding Gaza City and among non-Christians the
 218 voiced velar [g] realization of /q/ was primary. For Gazan Christians to favour the
 219 glottal realization of /q/ is not all that surprising, given that Christian Palestinian
 220 Arabic has been described as being more "urban" (Rosenhouse 2007) and the
 221 glottal realization is the common urban reflex of this phoneme across Palestinian
 222 Arabic (Shahin 2007). What makes Bergsträßer's early attestation of [ʔ] as a
 223 feature of Christian speech important is that in GCA today the realization of /q/
 224 has shifted to the voiced velar [g] (Cotter 2016c). De Jong (2000) has argued that
 225 this shift from [ʔ] to [g] has likely come as a result of contact between speakers of

226 Bedouin varieties of Arabic and speakers of urban varieties. The primary outcome of
 227 this contact is that the dialect has largely shifted to [g], with both Muslims and
 228 Christians now favoring the voiced velar realization.

229 Despite the frequency of the [g] realization of /q/, within the corpus of data col-
 230 lected from 22 indigenous Gazans in 2013, /q/ is variably realized between [g] and [ʔ]
 231 along gender lines (Cotter 2016c). In this respect, male speakers primarily realize /q/
 232 as a voiced velar [g], while female speakers show higher rates of [ʔ] (Table 1).

233 Gender also contributes to variation of /q/ in the speech of Palestinian refugees
 234 originally from the city of Jaffa who have been in Gaza City since 1948. In this com-
 235 munity, female speakers show a near-categorical tendency to realize /q/ as [ʔ], while
 236 male speakers overwhelmingly realize it as [g] (Cotter 2016c: 241), based on a
 237 sample of 575 tokens from 22 speakers. This stratification among refugee speakers
 238 and the retention of [ʔ] among female refugees has been argued to stem from the
 239 high social salience of variation in this phoneme (Cotter and Horesh 2015). The reten-
 240 tion of [ʔ] among female refugees has been argued to have links to the indexical field
 241 (Eckert 2008) of the glottal variant, indexing identity claims that locate speakers as
 242 members of the Jaffa community (Cotter and Horesh 2015: 478).

243 The creation of Israel in 1948 brought about the displacement of hundreds of
 244 thousands of Palestinians, many of whom ended up in the Gaza Strip. Of this
 245 refugee community, which is today over 80% of the population of Gaza, many
 246 members are of dialect backgrounds from the Naqab desert and village communities
 247 whose dialects feature a voiced velar realization for /q/ (Henkin 2010, Shawarbah
 248 2012). Add to this that Bergsträßer's account attests neighboring dialects realizing
 249 /q/ as [g] and the situation becomes less surprising. What is clear, however, is that
 250 despite the frequency of the voiced velar realization in the speech of indigenous
 251 Gaza City speakers, it is still variable, a potential change in progress, with the
 252 glottal variant becoming more common over each generation in the age-stratified
 253 data from female speakers (Cotter 2016c).

254 Another focus of sociolinguistic interest in GCA has been the Arabic feminine
 255 gender marker (Cotter and Horesh 2015, Cotter 2016a), a word-final vocalic mor-
 256 pheme realized in Standard Arabic as [a].³ Bergsträßer's account does not mention
 257 this morpheme directly, but describes GCA as lacking much of the vowel raising
 258 common in Levantine varieties of Arabic (1915: maps 6 and 8). In earlier research
 259 (Cotter and Horesh 2015) which examined this morpheme in the speech of both indi-
 260 genous Gazans and Jaffa refugees living in Gaza City, the feminine marker was not
 261 considered to be a sociolinguistic variable in GCA, as no variation was detectable
 262 based on the auditory coding methods used in the previous study. In contrast,
 263 across generations, Palestinian refugees living in Gaza City showed clear lowering
 264 and backing of the raised [e] realization of the vowel common in their traditional dia-
 265 lects to the point where young speakers were realizing the vowel as [a].

266 More recent research (Cotter 2016a) has re-examined the feminine marker in the
 267 speech of indigenous Gazans, showing, through acoustic analyses of 525 tokens

269 ³The vowel is unraised in Standard Arabic, which is often considered a default basis of
 270 comparison for this feature.

Gender	[ʔ]	[g]	%[ʔ]	Total
Female	44	142	24%	186
Male	10	181	5%	191
				377

Cotter 2016c

Table 1: Cross-tabulation of the realization of (q) in the speech of 22 indigenous Gazans along gender lines

produced by 15 speakers, with approximately five representing each of three generations, that a change is taking place in GCA. Although in the speech of elderly speakers of GCA the vowel does not appear as high as the [e] common in most urban Palestinian dialects, it nonetheless shows clear lowering and backing over each generation; the same pattern that was evidenced in the data from Jaffa refugees in Gaza City in Cotter (2015). The result is that in the speech of the youngest generation in both communities, the realization of this vowel is much closer to [a]. Cotter (2016a) attributes this shift to the effects of dialect contact in Gaza, given that many of the refugee communities in Gaza City are of dialect backgrounds that do not raise the feminine marker.

Moving beyond the features of GCA that have been analyzed through a socio-linguistic framework, in the remainder of this section I re-examine a number of Bergsträßer's observations, providing a qualitative account of these features based on data from the corpus of indigenous Gazans who were interviewed in 2013 (Table 2). This corpus consists of 39 sociolinguistic interviews, ranging from 20 minutes to two and a half hours in length, conducted with Palestinians in Gaza City. Of these 39 interviews, 32 were conducted with indigenous residents whose families trace their history back to Gaza City for multiple generations. The remaining seven speakers are Palestinian refugees originally from the city of Jaffa, whose families fled Jaffa in 1948 and came to Gaza. The speech of this refugee community is not examined in the discussion below, but has been discussed elsewhere (Cotter and Horesh 2015). The interviews were conducted by the author, with the help of three local community members as research assistants.

Age	Indigenous Gazans		Jaffa Refugees	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
17–39	8	4	2	1
40–64	13	3	2	0
65+	2	2	0	2
Total	32		7	

Table 2: Demographic makeup of the corpus of data collected from Gaza City in 2013

316 Cotter (2016b) investigated the status of the Arabic interdental fricatives /θ, ð, ðˤ/
 317 in Gaza City. The available descriptive accounts of GCA paint an unclear picture of
 318 these phonemes, with Bergsträßer (1915: map 1) describing them as stops [t, d, dˤ].
 319 The stop realizations of the interdentals are a common feature of urban Levantine var-
 320 ieties of Arabic, and within Palestinian Arabic the replacement of the interdentals
 321 with stops has been described in cities like Jerusalem (Rosenhouse 2007) and Jaffa
 322 (Horesh 2000). However, the transcripts of Salonen's (1979, 1980) texts from
 323 Gaza City showed a limited degree of variation between the interdentals and their
 324 stop counterparts. Salonen's small sample size and the reality that the speakers
 325 were not actually from Gaza City (de Jong 2000) makes it difficult to draw conclu-
 326 sions regarding the stability of this variation.

327 Within the corpus of data collected from Gaza City in 2013, the interdentals /θ, ð,
 328 ðˤ/ are categorically realized as their stop counterparts [t, d, dˤ] (Cotter 2016b: 160).
 329 Examples that highlight the stop realizations of these phonemes can be seen in cases
 330 such as /iθne:n/ ~ [itne:n] 'two', /ma-naxuð-ij/ ~ [m-naxud-ij] 'we don't take', and
 331 /naðˤall/ ~ [ndˤall] 'we stayed' (Cotter 2016b: 156, 158, 159). The only exceptions
 332 to the stop realizations come in the form of lexical items from formal registers or
 333 Standard Arabic that show incomplete nativization into the dialect. In these cases,
 334 the interdentals may be retained or realized as [s, z, zˤ] respectively. This suggests
 335 that GCA is still in line with Bergsträßer's account in realizing the interdentals cat-
 336 egorically as their stop counterparts [t, d, dˤ], despite decades of migration and dialect
 337 contact. However, the variability in Salonen's (1979, 1980) texts, and attestations by
 338 his speakers that they were from village areas outside of Gaza City suggests that there
 339 ~~likely were~~ and could still be, other Arabic varieties in Gaza that retain the
 340 interdentals.

341 A further point of descriptive interest, the realization of /d̤/ in Gaza City, was
 342 reported by Bergsträßer (1915: map 2) to be realized as [ʒ], a common reflex in
 343 urban Palestinian dialects. However, de Jong's (2000) reanalysis of Salonen's texts
 344 noted that based on those materials /d̤/ was realized as [d̤̤] which is common in
 345 Bedouin dialects in the area surrounding Gaza City. Based on the data collected in
 346 2013, [d̤̤] as a realization of /d̤/ is predominant in the speech of indigenous Gaza
 347 City residents, surfacing in examples such as /d̤̤amal-ak/ ~ [d̤̤amal-ak] 'your (m.)
 348 camel' and /natfarrad̤̤/ ~ [natfarrad̤̤] 'we watch', contrasting with Bergsträßer's
 349 early account.

350 Bergsträßer (1915: map 11) also describes the diphthong /ai/ as being partially
 351 preserved in the Bedouin dialect areas surrounding Gaza City; however in Gaza
 352 City today, both /ai/ and /aw/ have been fully monophthongized to [e:] and [o:].
 353 Examples of this process can be seen in cases such as /bait/ ~ [be:t] 'house' and
 354 /fawq/ ~ [fo:g] 'up'. In this case Salonen's texts also suggest the monophthongization
 355 of /ai/ and /aw/ (de Jong 2000: 537, Salonen 1979: 40).

356 GCA also takes part in a process common in Levantine varieties of Arabic
 357 whereby short vowels are elided in open unstressed syllables (de Jong 2000: 542–
 358 543). Examples of this process from the interviews conducted in 2013 can be seen
 359 in cases like /sila:h/ ~ [sla:h] 'weapons', /kabi:r/ ~ [kbi:r] 'big (m)', and /zira:ʕa/ ~
 360 [zra:ʕa] 'farming'. Across the data collected in Gaza City, the dialect elides these

361 short vowels in open unstressed syllables in a fashion similar to neighbouring dialects
 362 (Blanc 1970, Rosenhouse 2007). Although this type of elision is common in
 363 Palestinian Arabic, it has never been documented in GCA outside of de Jong's
 364 (2000) attestations based on Salonen's texts, and represents one of a number of
 365 descriptive areas for which we simply did not have sufficient data in the past.

366 With respect to the first person plural pronoun (Standard Arabic /nahnu/),
 367 Bergsträßer (1915: map 14) notes Gaza City's reflex as [əhna], while Salonen's
 368 texts provide alternates in the form of [nəhna] and [aħna] (de Jong 2000: 548).
 369 Within the 2013 corpus the [əhna] form is predominant. Additionally, based on the
 370 data in the corpus the interrogative 'what?' is realized in GCA interchangeably as
 371 [e:] and [fu:], in line with what Bergsträßer reported for the dialect in 1915 (map 16).

372 The irregular verbs /akal/ 'he ate' and /axaḏ/ 'he took' are reported by
 373 Bergsträßer to be realized with a long [a:], as in [ja:kul] 'he eats'. Salonen's texts
 374 paint a similar picture (1980: 9–11). The 2013 data suggests that this is still the
 375 norm in GCA, with attested cases in [na:kul] 'we eat' and [b-ja:klu] 'they eat'.⁴
 376 Additionally, the data collected in 2013 yielded no occurrences of the alternate
 377 long [o:] form (e.g., [bo:kul] 'he eats'). However, in the final portion of the inter-
 378 views, which focused on language, speakers suggested that in other areas of the
 379 Gaza Strip these irregular verbs are realized with [o:]. That being said, the only
 380 attested occurrences in the data are of the [a:] form.

381 GCA also does not appear to take part in the 'gahawa syndrome' (de Jong 2011),
 382 a process of resyllabification via the insertion of an epenthetic [a] vowel following
 383 back spirants, when these are preceded by [a]. The canonical example, /qahwa/
 384 [gahwa] > [gahawa] 'coffee', shows how this process manifests. Bergsträßer's
 385 (1915) dialect atlas makes no mention of the process, but based on Salonen's
 386 (1979, 1980) texts de Jong (2000) notes that the process appears to be inactive in
 387 Gaza City. However, he does note some candidates for the process appearing in
 388 Salonen's texts such as [jahar] 'month' and [baħar] 'sea' (de Jong 2000: 540). My
 389 fieldwork supports de Jong's hypothesis that the process is not active in the dialect
 390 of the city. The canonical form, [gahwa], was realized invariably without the epen-
 391 thetic vowel. One of the cases noted by de Jong, /baħr/ 'sea', underwent epenthesis
 392 in at least one instance, realized as [baħar]. However, across the corpus this is not
 393 regular and it is typologically unlikely that Gaza City has this process.

394 With respect to forms of negation in GCA, Bergsträßer (1915: map 21) reports
 395 the bipartite compound [ma-...-j] form being active in Gaza City. This bipartite neg-
 396 ation is a common feature of urban Palestinian varieties of Arabic (Lucas 2010).
 397 However, de Jong (2000) reports based on Salonen's texts that GCA favours the
 398 pre-verbal negative *ma:-*, for example, [ma ruħt] 'I didn't go', but also notes a
 399 number of instances of the bipartite form in Salonen's texts. De Jong (2000) also
 400 reports some instances of pre-verbal *ma-* in the bipartite form eliding, leaving only
 401 the post-verbal negative *-f*, for example, [ruħti] 'I didn't go'.

402 In the 2013 corpus, all three forms of negation appear; but qualitatively, de Jong's
 403 point that the pre-verbal *ma:-* is more common appears to be supported by the data.

404
 405 ⁴Palestinian Arabic, like many other varieties, marks the imperfective tense with a *b-* prefix.

406 That being said, there is still evidence of the bipartite form in cases like [m-naxud-ij]
 407 ‘we don’t take’. While Bergsträßer’s attestation of the bipartite form is supported, today
 408 the situation appears much more complex, potentially as a result of the large-scale
 409 dialect contact taking place in Gaza post-1948. Regardless of the source, the situation
 410 for this and other features in Gaza City, particularly the two cases of lexical variation
 411 discussed below, is one where numerous parallel forms exist side by side.

412 The first case of lexical variation from the corpus is /halqe:t/ ‘now’. Given the
 413 prominent variation across Palestinian dialects in the realization of the voiceless
 414 uvular stop as [g] or [ʔ], this lexical item is often realized as [halge:t] or [halʔe:t].
 415 Additional variants of /halqe:t/ can surface as [hallaʔ], [hal-wagit], and [halhi:n].
 416 The third of these variants is typically described as Bedouin in origin. The realization
 417 of /halqe:t/ attested in 1915 was [halʔe:t] (Bergsträßer 1915: map 27). Today, however,
 418 GCA appears to run the gamut of variation for this lexical item. With the exception of
 419 [halhi:n], the remaining variants were all attested in various forms throughout the 2013
 420 data. However, [halge:t] was the overwhelmingly common variant, which is in line
 421 with Bergsträßer’s initial report, despite the shift in /q/ in GCA from [ʔ] to [g].

422 Variation in the adverb /ha:na/ ‘here’ is common in GCA as well. Bergsträßer
 423 (1915: map 25) describes /ha:na/ being realized by Bedouin speakers surrounding
 424 Gaza City as [ho:na], with the final [a] optionally elided. In neighbouring urban
 425 areas [ha:na] was common. In reanalyzing Salonen’s (1979, 1980) texts, de Jong
 426 (2000: 550) notes considerable variation in the realization of /ha:na/ with no linguistic
 427 factors constraining the use of a given form. Based on the interview data from 2013,
 428 /ha:na/ in GCA surfaces as both [ha:na] and the form that elides the final vowel, [ha:
 429 n]. In addition, the lexeme can also be realized as [ho:n]. This suggests a situation
 430 similar to what Bergsträßer described in his earlier account.

431 As I noted above, given the turbulent history of Gaza since 1948 there have been
 432 immense waves of refugee migration into the Gaza Strip. This has created a linguistic
 433 situation that has largely remained a mystery, despite the territory itself being a major
 434 player in international politics. The linguistic features discussed in this section, both
 435 those cases where sociolinguistic variation has been documented and more recent
 436 qualitative observations, highlight potential outcomes of the type of dialect contact
 437 endemic to this particular sociopolitical context, and provide rich ground for future
 438 analysis. As our focus within Arabic sociolinguistics shifts towards engaging with
 439 the goals of description and documentation, we are better positioned to situate vari-
 440 ation within its broader linguistic and social context. To do so will not only strengthen
 441 our treatments of language in the Arabic speaking world, but will also allow us to
 442 better address the concerns and goals of the communities in which we work.
 443 Addressing these concerns is an area that I return to below.

444

445

446 5. SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPLEXITY IN GAZA CITY

447

448 Beyond the descriptive aspects of the dialect provided above, there are also a number
 449 of more macro-linguistic points about the Gaza Strip that become apparent when one
 450 looks at the data. The first of these, alluded to in Section 4, is that Bedouin tribes still

live in the southern areas of the Gaza Strip, particularly surrounding the southern city of Rafah, close to the present-day border with Egypt. Historically, it was clear that Bedouin tribes had migrated into Gaza and the Sinai Peninsula (Stewart 1991); however, given the demographic shifts that have taken place in Gaza their current status was uncertain. Based on narratives from members of the Gaza City community, the recent fieldwork suggests that at least one group, the Tarabīn, a major tribe of the Sinai and Naqab desert, still lives in Gaza today. One question that remains is to what extent their varieties of Arabic are still spoken.

Another point worth further discussion is the status of Gaza's Christian community. As noted above, a dwindling indigenous Christian community remains in the Gaza Strip. Today this community is concentrated almost entirely in Gaza City and is situated largely around the (Orthodox) Church of Saint Porphyrius, along with local Baptist and Catholic churches. Members of the community placed its current size at roughly 1,200–1,300 members, and noted that many Christians left during periods when entering and leaving Gaza was easier. Despite its small size, this Christian community has existed in Gaza City for roughly 1,600 years, with the original construction of the Church of Saint Porphyrius dating to the fifth century. However, the potential for linguistic variation stratified along religious lines, which has been documented elsewhere in the Arabic-speaking world (e.g., Al-Wer et al. 2015, Blanc 1964), remains to be investigated in Gaza City.

Beyond the dwindling Christian population, a minority Dom community also calls Gaza home. The Dom are an Indo-Aryan community, speakers of Domari, an endangered Indo-Aryan language related to but distinct from Romani. Matras (2012) provided a thorough grammatical description of the Jerusalem variety of Domari, while Herin (2012, 2014) has provided an additional account of the Domari varieties spoken in Aleppo and Saraqib (Syria), and in Beirut (Lebanon).

No linguistic information is available on the status of Domari in Gaza, with some of the few recent reports on this community coming by way of discussions about enduring forms of discrimination against the Dom in the Gaza Strip.⁵ Although Domari is outside the scope of this analysis, scholars must first have a thorough understanding of GCA, which represents the primary contact language, if they wish to describe and document an endangered language like Domari and understand the ways in which it may have changed as a result of contact. The case of Gaza's Dom population, as well as the other cultural points mentioned above, are examples of how sociolinguistics intersects with language description and documentation, and with broader cultural concern in Gaza and the Arabic-speaking world more generally.

6. DISCUSSION

When conducting sociolinguistic research, we have the tools and the time to amass sizeable bodies of data from the communities in which we work. What we still

⁵Most recently in 2013 <<http://www.al-monitor.com/pulse/originals/2013/06/gaza-gypsies-dom-racism.html>> (accessed December 15, 2016).

496 lack within Arabic sociolinguistics is a better framework for conducting research in
497 these under-documented Arabic-speaking communities. I offer suggestions in the
498 hope of moving Arabic sociolinguistics towards an integration of two important
499 and intimately connected areas of the linguistic enterprise.

500 One practical way we can integrate sociolinguistic research and lines of inquiry
501 from language description or documentation is to build aspects of both methodolo-
502 gies into the fieldwork enterprise from the outset. In addition to a methodological
503 focus on sociolinguistic interview techniques, we can include documentary and
504 descriptive methods that allow us to capture both kinds of knowledge. Elicitation
505 paradigms and methods for developing consonantal inventories and alternations
506 can be built into our fieldwork. Even when we are working on nearly undescribed
507 varieties, the wealth of information on related Arabic varieties provides us with a
508 starting point. If this foundational task of utilizing descriptive and documentary tech-
509 niques in the study of under-documented varieties of Arabic remains absent from the
510 work of Arabic sociolinguists, at the expense of more holistic descriptions of the var-
511 ieties we study, we risk losing forever the opportunity to document many of these
512 varieties.

513 One promising example of the integration of different methodologies are doc-
514 toral dissertations (e.g., Al-Qahtani 2015) that have incorporated dialectal descrip-
515 tions as component parts of their larger sociolinguistic analyses. These descriptions
516 draw on sociolinguistic data to construct grammatical sketches of the dialects in ques-
517 tion. This is particularly important in cases like that described by Al-Qahtani, who
518 investigates an isolated dialect in Saudi Arabia that had been previously
519 undocumented.

520 Another avenue for integration is cross-disciplinary engagement. This would
521 allow sociolinguists to refine our methodologies to better speak to the specific lin-
522 guistic, social, cultural, and political contexts of the communities in which we
523 work. These collaborative relationships can result in new insights from the available
524 data. Recent work (Al-Wer and Herin 2011, Al-Wer et al. 2015) that bridges the gaps
525 between description, documentation, and sociolinguistics represents a promising
526 start, but further work that strengthens these relationships will not only be beneficial
527 for the scholars involved, but will also produce work that is more holistic in its treat-
528 ment of linguistic as well as social issues.

529 In addition to documenting the particulars of a given dialect, Arabic sociolin-
530 guists are also in a unique position to document culturally significant verbal art
531 forms. It is widely known that folk tales, proverbs, and oral poetry have represented
532 an important component of the sociocultural fabric of the Arabic-speaking commu-
533 nity (Caton 1991, Holes and Abu Athera 2009). Unfortunately, the sociopolitical rup-
534 tures that have taken place in the region mean not only that speakers are forced to
535 uproot their lives, but that forms of verbal art are in danger of slipping from commu-
536 nity memory, giving way to the more practical concerns of day-to-day life.

537 During recent fieldwork that I conducted with Palestinian refugees in northern
538 Jordan, elderly community members reported that what was historically a strong
539 community emphasis on oral poetic production has faded after more than five
540 decades of displacement. Speakers attested that the younger community members

541 are no longer actively producing these verbal art forms. With each passing gener-
542 ation, access to this knowledge fades until it eventually disappears, the result of a
543 long process described to me by members of the community whereby “the poets
544 have died.” Sociolinguistic research conducted in the Arabic-speaking world
545 stands to contribute to the documentation of these forms of verbal art, with collabora-
546 tions like that of Holes and Abu Athera (2009) becoming increasingly important.

547 Beyond collecting and analyzing speech data or oral art forms from these com-
548 munities, a methodology that is more attuned to issues related to description, docu-
549 mentation, and community wellbeing also lends itself to thought about the
550 products that we as researchers can provide that will give something back to the com-
551 munities we work in. Doing so moves us away from the research-centric nature of
552 most fieldwork encounters. At present, this kind of community focus appears to be
553 lacking in much of the research on Arabic; shifting in that direction will not only
554 enrich the quality of our research, but strengthen and improve our relationships
555 with communities themselves.

556 Within research on Palestinian Arabic, one potential community-centric focus
557 would be to collect oral history narratives from community members on the
558 seminal events of Palestinian history, akin to work conducted in English sociolinguis-
559 tics (Wolfram and Schilling-Estes 1997). The forced expulsions that coincided with
560 the creation of the state of Israel are now foundational events in Palestinian collective
561 memory (Sa’di and Abu-Lughod 2007) and the generation that experienced these
562 events is rapidly being lost. Researchers working within these communities can aid
563 the community in documenting their lived history while providing members of the
564 community with a record of their experiences. This approach allows us to leave
565 the field having given something back to the community in the form of documenta-
566 tion of the lived experiences of these events, while also opening up the possibility for
567 linguists to store backups of these digital collections off-site in more secure
568 locations.⁶

569 Another component in strengthening the relationship between researchers and
570 the community is developing positive working relationships with community
571 members themselves (Meyerhoff and Stanford 2015). Our research can benefit
572 from collaborating with and training community members to play an active role in
573 developing a research focus that serves both intellectual and community interests
574 (Rice 2006, Czaykowska-Higgins 2009, Crippen and Robinson 2013). This form
575 of collaboration not only results in the collection of the speech data that fuels our
576 sociolinguistic work, but also brings members of the community into the research
577 process and gives them agency in documenting their language and heritage.

578 Even after the end of formal colonial rule in the Middle East, the West has
579 exerted and continues to exert influence across the region. One result of this
580 legacy of outside influence is that individuals in the region have been denied
581 agency in defining the course of their own community’s history. Collaboration
582

583 ⁶The American University of Beirut has recently created an archive of oral histories from
584 the Palestinian community surrounding the events of 1948: <[http://aub.edu.lb/ifi/programs/
585 poha/Pages/index.aspx](http://aub.edu.lb/ifi/programs/poha/Pages/index.aspx)> (accessed December 15, 2016).

586 between researchers and community members provides a space for community
587 voices to enter into broader narratives about the region, and through thoughtful dis-
588 semination of the research (Hill 2002: 130), can play an important role in reshaping
589 the way communities are viewed.

590 Sociolinguistics has, to some extent, grappled with the issue of how engaged and
591 active researchers can or should be in the communities in which they work, especially
592 in research focusing on education and policy (e.g., Labov 2010, Charity-Hudley and
593 Mallinson 2013). Similarly, linguists engaged in language documentation and revital-
594 ization are perhaps more active than other areas of the field in their advocacy for both
595 the linguistic and human rights concerns of communities (Rice 2006, Bower and
596 Warner 2015). Sociolinguists of Arabic, whose work regularly interfaces with the
597 broader geopolitics that affect the Arabic-speaking world, can ask what or how
598 much we should be doing in terms of outreach within or on behalf of the communities
599 that we work in.

600 It goes without saying that community-led efforts should never be overshadowed
601 by initiatives and attempts by outside researchers. At the same time, the decision to do
602 more than collect and analyze data brings with it additional concerns related to how
603 our privilege and position as (often) outside researchers affects the community. If we
604 choose to move beyond our research interests and engage more directly with those
605 broader areas of community concern, we must be prepared to take a back seat to com-
606 munity members. At the same time, we should remain aware of the privileges that we
607 carry with us to the field, as well as the ways in which our approach to knowledge
608 production is rooted in a largely Western intellectual framework (Hill 2002).

609 One potential path forward would be to align ourselves more closely with forms
610 of activism and social justice (Stoecker 1999). Within related disciplines, most prom-
611 inently anthropology, activism has grown substantially and represents an important
612 component of the larger anthropological enterprise for at least some areas within
613 the discipline. Our status as generally privileged foreign researchers has the potential
614 to carry some weight within our home communities and we can attempt to bring the
615 stories, experiences, and voices of the communities we work in to a much wider
616 audience.

617 Regardless of the extent to which we are willing to engage with forms of activ-
618 ism through our work, we must ask: what are our responsibilities to the communities
619 and individuals with whom we work, and how are community members represented
620 as part of our research (Cameron et al. 1992, Rice 2006)? In a climate of harsh public
621 opinion about the Middle East on an international level, we do well to think critically
622 about how the communities that we work in are represented in the knowledge that we
623 produce.

624 Rice (2006: 137) has highlighted the multi-layered matrix of responsibilities that
625 researchers must attend to in their work. Returning something to the community,
626 whether linguistic or otherwise, forms an important part of this process (Rice
627 2006: 139, Wolfram 1993). One important path forward within Arabic sociolinguis-
628 tics will be to work more closely with communities and attempt whenever possible to
629 solicit feedback from community members on the products of our research. Doing so
630

631 will allow us as researchers to better navigate issues of representation while further
 632 bringing community members into the process of knowledge production.

635 7. CONCLUSION

636 Arabic sociolinguistics has expanded a great deal since it began roughly four decades
 637 ago. However, as the other contributions to this issue show, sociolinguistics generally
 638 stands at the crossroads of multiple disciplines and foci. Meyerhoff and Stanford
 639 (2015) have recently reminded us that our intellectual community, committed to
 640 understanding the intersections of language and society, has changed and continues
 641 to change alongside the communities in which we work. Nowhere is this more true
 642 than in the communities where Arabic is spoken; communities that live and change
 643 with some of the world's most socially and politically potent forces.

645 In presenting a number of descriptive features of Gaza City Arabic a century
 646 after their initial documentation, I have endeavoured to show that Arabic sociolin-
 647 guistics has the potential to bridge important gaps between our field and related
 648 areas of research. doing this, we move towards a more holistic understanding of
 649 the linguistic situation in under-documented Arabic-speaking communities. This
 650 new-found understanding, one that reaches across disciplinary boundaries, points
 651 us towards what could perhaps be the more pressing area of focus: how the lives,
 652 experiences, and of course language of these communities are affected by the influ-
 653 ences of regional geopolitics and rapid global and urbanization that define the face of
 654 the Arabic-speaking world.

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