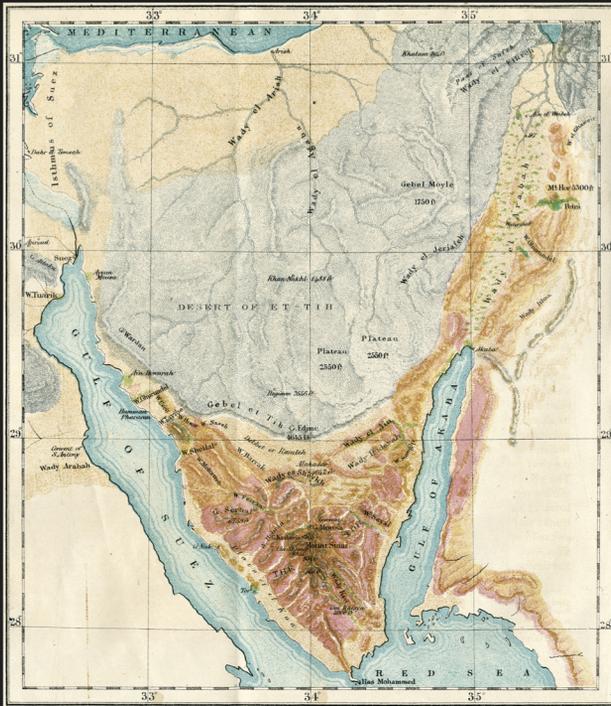


# HdO

## A Grammar of the Bedouin Dialects of Central and Southern Sinai



*by*  
Rudolf E. de Jong

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BRILL

A Grammar of the Bedouin Dialects  
of Central and Southern Sinai

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

B-form	Bedouinized form
com.	communis
cf.	confer
coll.	collective noun
constr.	construction
dem.	demonstrative
dim.	diminutive
fem.	feminine
gen.	genitive
ibid.	ibidem
imper.	imperative
imperf.	imperfect
I.P.A.	International Phonetic Alphabet
intrans.	intransitive
K-form	Koine form
lit.	(translated) literally
masc.	masculine
MDS	Multi-Dimensional Scaling
nom.	nominal
n.u.	nomen unitatis
obj.	object
p.	person
perf.	perfect
pl.	plural
pos.	possessive
pron.	pronominal
rel.	relative
sg.	singular
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
subj.	subject
suff.	suffix
trans.	transitive
A	stressed <i>a</i> or <i>ā</i>
I	short high vowel <i>i</i> or <i>u</i>

Í	stressed short or long high vowel (stressed <i>i</i> , <i>u</i> , <i>ī</i> or <i>ū</i> )
T	feminine morpheme ( <i>tā<sup>3</sup> marbūṭah</i> )
v	any short vowel
V	any short or long vowel
ṽ	any long vowel
C	any consonant; a following subscript number (1, 2, 3 or 4) refers to the numbering of the radical in the root.
X	any back fricative ( <i>x</i> , <i>ǧ</i> , <i>ħ</i> , <sup>ˁ</sup> , <i>h</i> )
M	any velarized consonant (primary or secondary emphatics)
[ ]	phonetic representation between the square brackets
//	phonemic representation between the slashes
	representation of underlying base form
*	precedes historical forms or phonemes, intermediate forms in illustrations of rule ordering, or follows a form with a remark given below
·	precedes a form not heard in the dialect discussed and the form is deemed unlikely to occur in that dialect
+	followed by...
∅	zero
>	develops into (synchronically) or developed into (historically)
<	develops from (synchronically) or developed from (historically)
≠	does not equal
=	equals, is identical with
≈	is almost identical with
...	any combination of Vs (vowels) and/or Cs (consonants) within word boundaries
~	co-occurs with
/	co-occurs not in free variation with
#	speech pause

The list below shows abbreviations used for tribal varieties of Arabic (the asterisk ‘\*’ following the abbreviation indicates that the dialect has been described or partially treated in De Jong 2000). The tribes/non-tribal dialect communities are listed here more or less from north (-east) to west and then south (see map in Appendix ‘Approximate distribution of Bedouin tribes in Sinai and surrounding regions’). Roman numbers indicate to which typological group the dialects have been concluded to belong. In brackets the names of the tribes follow in a classicized transcription:

dialect	group	name of tribe/social entity
ḌA	I	the dialect of the <i>Ḍullām</i> (of the Negev Desert, not in Sinai), as described in Blanc 1970 ( <i>Zullām</i> )
RA*	I	<i>Rmēliyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Rmēlāt</i> ( <i>Rumaylāt</i> )
SA*	I	<i>Swērkiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Sawārkah</i> ( <i>Sawārika</i> )
MLA	I	<i>Mallāhiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Malālḥah</i> ( <i>Malāliḥa</i> )
‘AA*	V	‘ <i>Arāyšiyy</i> , the dialect of <i>al-‘Arīš</i> (not a tribe, but a town)
nTA*	I	Northern <i>Turbāniyy</i> , the dialect of the northern <i>Tarābīn</i> ( <i>Tarābīn</i> )
BaA*	I	<i>Balawiy</i> , the dialect of <i>Baliyy</i> (or <i>Biliyy</i> ) ( <i>Balī</i> )
DA*	IV	<i>Dwēgrīyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Dawāğrah</i> ( <i>Dawāğira</i> )
BA*	III	<i>Bayyāḍiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Bayyāḍiyyah</i> ( <i>Bayyāḍīya</i> )
AxA*	III	<i>Axrasīyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Axārsah</i> (‘ <i>Axārisa</i> )
SaA*	II	<i>Smēniyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Samānah</i> ( <i>Samāina</i> )
‘AgA*	II	‘ <i>Gēliyy</i> , the dialect of the ‘ <i>Agāylah</i> (‘ <i>Aqāyila</i> )
MA*	I	<i>Masūdiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Masāid</i> ( <i>Masāid</i> )
‘AyA*	I	‘ <i>Ayyādiyy</i> , the dialect of the ‘ <i>Ayādah</i> (‘ <i>Ayāyida</i> )
eŠA* near	III	eastern <i>Šarqāwiyy</i> , the dialect of the eastern <i>Šarqiyya</i> (a region in the eastern Nile Delta, not a tribe)
ḤwA	I	<i>Ḥwētiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Ḥwēṭāt</i> ( <i>Ḥuwayṭāt</i> )
ḤwJ	I	<i>Ḥwētiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Ḥwēṭāt</i> ( <i>Ḥuwayṭāt</i> ) in Jordan
AḥA	I	<i>Aḥaywiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Aḥaywāt</i> (‘ <i>Uḥaywāt</i> )
TyA	I	<i>Tihīyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Tayāha</i> ( <i>Tayāhā</i> )
DbA	I	<i>Dibriyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Dbūr</i> ( <i>Dubūr</i> )
TAṢ	I	<i>Turbāniyy</i> of <i>Šadr</i> , the dialect of the <i>Tarābīn</i> of <i>Rās Šadr</i> ( <i>Tarābīn</i> of <i>Ra’s Sudr</i> )
ĠrA	I	<i>Ġarāğriyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Ġarāğrah</i> ( <i>Ġarāğira</i> )
TAN	I	<i>Turbāniyy</i> of <i>Nwēbī</i> , the dialect of the <i>Tarābīn</i> of <i>Nwēbī</i> ( <i>Tarābīn</i> of <i>Nuwaybī</i> )

BdA	I	<i>Badriy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Badārah</i> ( <i>Badāra</i> or <i>Badārā</i> ) <sup>1</sup>
‘LA	VIII	‘ <i>Lēgiy</i> , the dialect of the ‘ <i>Lēgāt</i> (‘ <i>Ulayqāt</i> )
ḤmA	VII	<i>Ḥmēḍiy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Ḥamāḍah</i> ( <i>Ḥamāḍa</i> )
ṢwA	VII	<i>Ṣālḥiy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Ṣawālḥah</i> ( <i>Ṣawālḥa</i> )
GrA	VII	<i>Garrāšiy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Garāršah</i> ( <i>Qarārīša</i> )
ĠbA	VII	<i>Ġbāliyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Ġbāliyyah</i> ( <i>Ġībālīya</i> )
ASA	VII	<i>Sā’idiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Awlād Sā’id</i> (‘ <i>Awlād Sā’id</i> )
HnA	VII	<i>Hindiyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Hanādwah</i> (a non-Bedouin family in Wādiy aṭ-Ṭūr) ( <i>Hanādiwa</i> )
ṬwA	VII	<i>Ṭuwara</i> Arabic: in collective reference to the dialects of the <i>Ġbāliyyah</i> , <i>Awlād Sā’id</i> , <i>Ṣawālḥah</i> , <i>Garāršah</i> and <i>Ḥamāḍah</i> ( <i>Ṭawara</i> )
MzA	VI	<i>Mzēniyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Mzēnah</i> ( <i>Muzayna</i> )
BWA	VI	<i>Wāšliyy</i> , the dialect of the <i>Baniyy Wāšil</i> ( <i>Banū Wāšil</i> )

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<sup>1</sup> See remark \*3 in Introduction I.d.

## PREFACE

For too long our knowledge of the dialects of the central and southern Sinai had remained scanty, and many questions about the linguistic characteristics of these dialects remained unanswered, or at best guessed after. After completing *A Grammar of Bedouin Dialects of the Northern Sinai Littoral* (published in 2000) a logical next step was therefore to research the dialects of Bedouin tribes in the central and southern parts of Sinai as well.

In 2002 I submitted a research proposal to the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (in Dutch Nederlandse Organisatie voor Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek, abbreviated as N.W.O.) to undertake such investigations. In the following year N.W.O. graciously made funds available for the execution of this linguistic research under their post-doctoral programme named VENI. The research proposal was submitted under the title ‘The Bedouin Dialects of the Bedouin Tribes of Central and Southern Sinai; Testing and Adapting Models of Quantitative Comparison’.

The Amsterdam Center for Language and Communication (abbreviated as A.C.L.C.) at the University of Amsterdam acted as host for my research and provided institutional support. Manfred Woidich again allowed me to profit from his extraordinary expertise in the field of Arabic linguistics and dialectology, as well as to be inspired by his thoughts on a variety of topics. I owe N.W.O., A.C.L.C. and Manfred Woidich my gratitude.

To gather linguistic data I spent 8 periods of between 4 and 7 weeks in the area. I usually rented an apartment in Ḍahab for my stay. For always taking care of my local needs such as a reasonably priced apartment, for answering any questions local authorities might have about my activities, and for being a good friend, I wish to thank here ‘Aliy Mḥammad al-‘Āyiš, who is the owner and general manager of Mirage Village in Ḍahab and who is himself a member of the Biyyāḍiyyah in the north of Sinai.<sup>1</sup> In the course of time, apart from being a superb host for his guests, which comes naturally to him, he has proven himself a true friend on numerous occasions.

The person without whom my research and interpreting the results would have been impossible—and much less entertaining in any case—and

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<sup>1</sup> The dialect of the Biyyāḍiyyah was described in De Jong 2000:chapter III.

to whom I am at least equally grateful, is ʿĪd Silīm ʿĪd ʿAwdih al-Aṭraš, known by many as ʿĪd at-Tuṛbāniy.<sup>2</sup> He is a member of the Taṛābīn of Rās Ṣadr (where he was born and raised) and he has travelled the desert since he was seven years old, when as a young boy he would accompany his father on trips to nearly every corner of the Sinai peninsula and into Jordan. His experience in desert travel made him eminently suitable to act as a guide and he could at the same time introduce me to members of the different tribes (he knows virtually every wadi and almost everyone living there). His gentle nature and sense of humor make him an ideal travelling companion, and these qualities combined with his loyalty have made him a good friend for life. Not only did he travel with me, he also made recordings for me in my absence, and sat with me—for weeks on end—behind my desk to make sure I could write it all out, word by word. He would also explain to me many details of Bedouin life in Sinai often not available in books.

For his invaluable help in producing illustrations by means of various computer programs of the SPSS, processing of the data collected during the research for this study, and for his assistance in the interpretation of the outcomes of various calculated plotted maps, I owe my gratitude to Geer Hoppenbrouwers of Hogeschool Zuyd in the Netherlands (in the province of Limburg). In our at times very frequent e-mail contact, but also during our face-to-face meetings, he brought statistics to life, and showed me that it is far removed from the dullness that I had previously associated with this discipline.

Finally, my gratitude is due to all the people who have contributed to this research as informants. Telling stories or speaking about daily activities as subjects for my recordings, or answering questionnaires may not be everyone's favorite pastime, but my interviewees never gave me the feeling that I was overburdening them. I attribute this willingness to cooperate to the generosity of my 'victims' and at the same time often detected a sense of pride among them, that a westerner would come all the way from his homeland with the sole purpose of studying their speech.

Any shortcomings still remaining in this study are of course my own.

Amsterdam, 26 September 2010

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<sup>2</sup> ʿĪd is of the Gṣār clan, for a tribal genealogy of the Taṛābīn see Bailey 1991:290.

## INTRODUCTION

### I. GENERAL

#### a. *Central and Southern Sinai in Recent History*

Over the past twenty years the development of the tourist industry in the area has acquired such speed, that, as an arabist with a special interest in the dialects of Bedouin tribes, I could no longer sit idly by and watch these dialects slowly disappear. In less than two decades Šarm aš-Šēx and its surrounding areas on the southern tip of the peninsula has developed from a sleepy village of fishermen with only a few hotels from the times of Israeli occupation and catering for a few thousand visitors a year into a major attraction for literally hundreds and thousands of tourists from around the world, who go there for the favourable climate,<sup>1</sup> water sports and for some of the world's most spectacular dive sites. This development started from Na'āmah Bay, which lies some 5 kilometres more or less to the east of the village Šarm. After this bay had been filled with hotels, more hotels and tourist villages were constructed between Na'āmah Bay and Šarm, on the plateau between the village and the lighthouse, and farther east from the bay into the direction of the airport. Today there are more than 150 hotels and resorts in the area and more are under construction.

With the development of the tourist industry, thousands of mainland Egyptians flocked into the area to work in the newly built facilities, easily outnumbering the original inhabitants, most of whom are of the Mzēnah tribe. The Bedouin themselves usually work in jobs like driving taxis, guiding tourists on desert safaris, etc.

The numbers of members of Bedouin tribes in Sinai are not certain. Since, to the best of my knowledge, official numbers of Bedouin inhabitants do not appear in state publications,<sup>2</sup> the numbers given here are estimates.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Temperatures during the day vary from around (minimum) 18 or 19 degrees C. in winter to 40 degrees C. or more in summer, see [www.holiday-weather.com](http://www.holiday-weather.com) (accessed 10-18-2010).

<sup>2</sup> I have only seen total numbers of inhabitants published, which include 'immigrants' from the Egyptian mainland.

<sup>3</sup> Von Sarnowski 2004:388 estimates the number of Bedouin in South Sinai at 19,000–27,000. EEAA 2003:3 based on the population census of 1996 estimates the number of

### b. *Cultural Background*

The central part of Sinai, on the Tih plateau, is inhabited mainly by tribes who speak a group I dialect-type (see De Jong 2000:Chapter I). Tribes inhabiting the lower coastal areas on the Gulf of ‘Aqaba and the Gulf of Suez are also speakers of this dialect-type. The higher mountains towards the south are inhabited by tribes who are often collectively referred to as Ṭawara (or Ṭuwara). Most of these tribes immigrated at different times in history coming from the Arabian Peninsula or (via) Palestine and (today’s) Jordan. Of some of these tribes in Sinai today, relatives can still be found in the northern part of the Ḥiğāz, across the Gulf of Aqaba, in present-day Saudi Arabia. Other tribes arrived in Sinai via the mainland of Egypt.

Like the Bedouin in northern Sinai, Bedouin in the centre and south of Sinai are culturally much more part of the larger area known as Arabia Petraea than of Egypt, to which Sinai belongs in a political and administrative sense, and as G.W. Murray (1935:256–257) remarks, “among themselves, they can distinguish each tribe and subtribe by their looks and dialects...”.<sup>4</sup>

### c. *Present-day Distribution of Bedouin Tribes in Central and Southern Sinai and Surrounding Regions*

With an approximate north-south length of 380 kilometres and an east-west width of about 210 kilometres, the surface area of Sinai is some 61,000 square kilometres.

The majority of Sinai’s inhabitants (the total was estimated at 360,000 in 2007)<sup>5</sup> are found along the Mediterranean coast in the north, who live more or less along the main road al-Ganṭarah (on the Suez Canal in the west)—Rafaḥ (on the border with the Gaza Strip in the east). Of this total, more than one third today live in North Sinai’s capital city al-‘Arīš.

Bailey 1985:23 and 2009:xvi show maps of the distribution of tribal confederations in Sinai in the early twentieth century. Interestingly, some

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Bedouin in the Governorate of South Sinai to be in the range of 20,000 to 24,000 and their number is projected to reach 53,800 souls by the year 2017 (ibid.:6).

<sup>4</sup> For other general remarks on the cultural background of Sinai Bedouin, see also De Jong 2000:3–4.

<sup>5</sup> Some 300,000 in the north, 60,000 in the south. Numbers are quoted from the Executive Summary and Recommendations in *Egypt’s Sinai Question, Middle East./North Africa Report N°61* of 30 January 2007, International Crisis Group, see [www.crisisgroup.org](http://www.crisisgroup.org) (accessed 10-18-2010).

tribes<sup>6</sup> in present-day Saudi Arabia just across the Gulf of ‘Aqabah and in Jordan are also indicated on these maps (these are also included in the map below): in the far north of the Ḥiğāz and in the south of Jordan we find Ḥwētāt (on Bailey’s map spelled as Ḥuwaytāt), with to their south (just east of the Tīrān islands in the mouth of the Gulf of ‘Aqabah) the Masā’id and (a little farther to the southeast, along the Arabian Peninsula’s west coast) Bili. These tribes are also found in Sinai today: the Masā’id live in and around the village of Ğilbānah in the northwest, Bili (transcribed as Baliy on the map below) are found not far south from the main road al-Ganṭarah—al-‘Arīš, in an area named Ğarīf al-Ğizlān near ar-Rawḍah in the central northeast, and the Ḥwētāt live in the areas as indicated on the map below.

On the map below I have also indicated the presence of three (sub-) tribal collectives not indicated on the map in Bailey: the Ğarāğrah, whom I interviewed in the area near Wādiy as-Siğ named al-Malbad, the Dbūr, whom I found residing not far south from the road leading through the Mitla pass to Naxl,<sup>7</sup> approximately forty kilometres to the west of Nixl, and also the Malālḥah, who live near the border with Israel in the northeast of Sinai. Another name not indicated on Bailey’s map is that of the Hanādwah, who are actually a family said to be of non-Bedouin origin<sup>8</sup> living in Wādiy at-Ṭūr inside the territory of the Awlād Sa’id.

d. *Remarks on the Arrival of Bedouin Tribes in Central and Southern Sinai and some Remarks on their History*

Most of the tribes of Sinai came to the area between the thirteenth and eighteenth centuries.<sup>9</sup> The history reported for the Ğbāliyyah is undoubtedly one of the most sensational of the tribes in Sinai:<sup>10</sup> one hundred men with their wives and children are said to have been recruited in 530 CE

<sup>6</sup> The different communities are referred to here as ‘tribes’, although I am aware that in some cases ‘tribal confederation’, ‘sub-confederation’, ‘sub-tribe’ or ‘clan’ would be more appropriate terms.

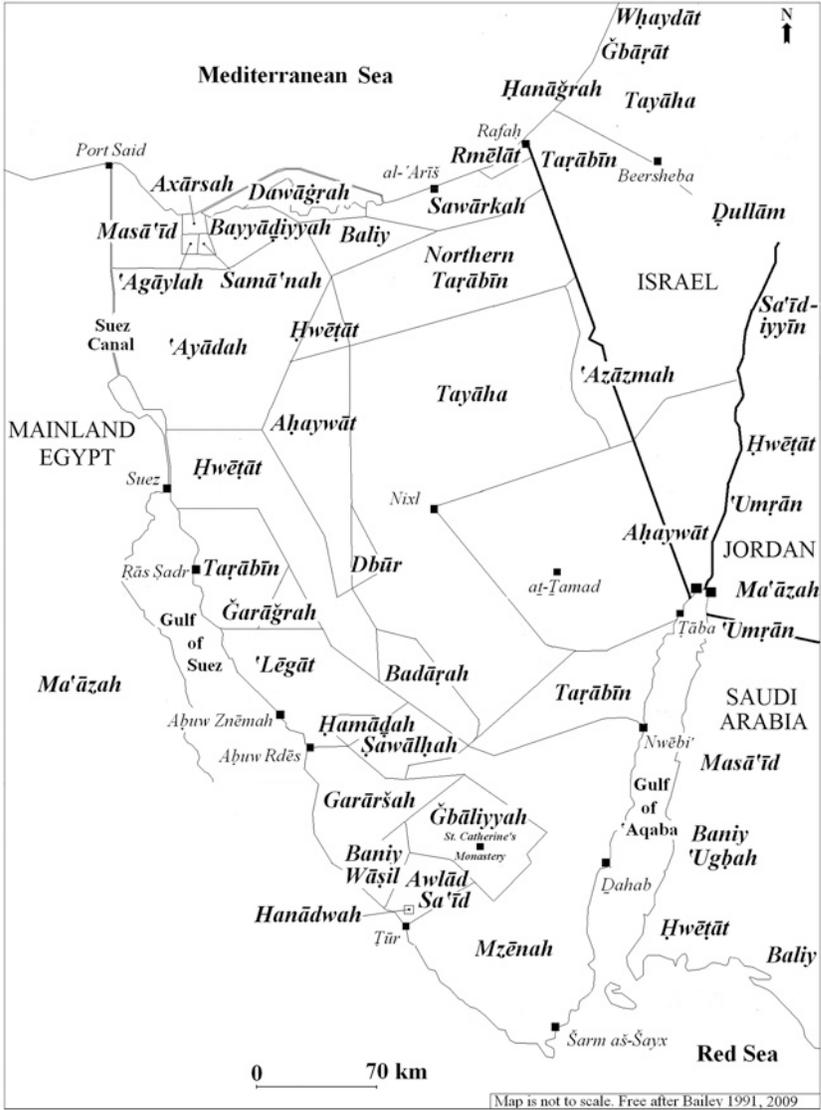
<sup>7</sup> My Turḃāniy informant Eid told me that the name for the Mitla pass is actually derived from *Umm Itlah* “(the region) with the tamarisk tree”. Bailey (1991:344) gives the same etymology.

The town of Naxl in central Sinai is referred to among Sinai Bedouin as Nixl.

<sup>8</sup> Literally their name means “Indians, i.e. (originally) from India”, but this could not be verified.

<sup>9</sup> The dating is in this paragraph is quoted predominantly from Bailey 1985.

<sup>10</sup> The quote in Bailey 1985:26 of the German geographer Carl Ritter is another example of a sensational claim: the ‘Azāmah are claimed to be the “aboriginal inhabitants” of the Negev.



Approximate distribution of Bedouin tribes in Sinai and surrounding regions

in the land of the Wallachians<sup>11</sup> (another document mentions Byzantium (ar-Rūm) and Egypt) by the Emperor Justinian I (c. 482–565 CE) in the pre-islamic period to serve and protect St. Catherine's Monastery together with one hundred men with their wives and children who were sent to Sinai from Egypt. After about one thousand years almost the whole tribe had converted to islam. They remained, however, in the service of the Monastery.<sup>12</sup>

The estimated times of arrival of Bedouin tribes in central and southern Sinai appearing in this study are (as reported in Bailey 1985;<sup>13</sup> tribal names are given in my own transcription;<sup>14</sup> in notes some details of their origins, histories, etc. will be given):

Tribe	Estimated time of arrival
Ġbāliyyah* <sup>1</sup> , Ḥamāḍah* <sup>2</sup>	pre-islamic period
Badārah* <sup>3</sup> , Tayāha* <sup>4</sup> , Baniy Wāṣil* <sup>5</sup>	10th (perhaps earlier) through 13th c.
Ṣawālḥah* <sup>6</sup> , Awlād Sa'īd* <sup>7</sup> , ‘Awārmah* <sup>6</sup> , Lēgāt* <sup>8</sup>	14th c.
Tarābīn* <sup>9</sup> , Garārsah* <sup>10</sup>	16th c.
Ḥwētāt* <sup>11</sup> , Mzēnah* <sup>12</sup>	17th c. (at the latest)

\*<sup>1</sup> For further information on the Ġbāliyyah, see also aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:621–622 and 639–640 and Maiberger 1984:139–149. For an extensive account of their origins, history and present, Hobbs 1995 (especially 139–174) is recommended.

\*<sup>2</sup> For more background information on the history and origin of the Ḥamāḍah, see also aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:620. They are today a small tribe who are involved in mining activities in their mineral-rich area east of Abūw Znēmah, like in Wādiy aṣ-Ṣahaw.<sup>15</sup> (see also remarks under \*<sup>9</sup>). Ṣuqayr 1916:107 writes that before the arrival of the Ṣawālḥah they were in control of the region. After the Ṣawālḥah had arrived, the Lēgāt became their protectors.

<sup>11</sup> In present-day Romania the larger region around Bucharest, between the Transylvanian Alps and the Danube river.

<sup>12</sup> See Bailey 1985:33–35. Maiberger 1984:147–148 quotes Johann Ludwig Burckhardt writing that until well into the eighteenth century a few Ġbāliy families had remained Christians.

<sup>13</sup> See however Stewart 1991, where caution with regard to Bailey's conclusions is advised.

<sup>14</sup> For dates of arrival of tribes in northern Sinai, see Bailey 1985 and De Jong 2000:14–15. For more information on the tribes of the central and south of Sinai, see also Ṣuqayr 1916:106–120.

<sup>15</sup> Aṭ-Ṭayyib 1997:290 lists them as one of the oldest tribes present in Sinai today. See also Ṣuqayr 1916:107, where also the presence of at-Tabanah, as the original inhabitants of the 'garden of Fērān', and al-Mawāṭrah is reported, and who in a distant past have their roots in the Ḥamāḍah. I have not heard the names of these former two groups mentioned during the research for this study.

<sup>\*3</sup> Aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:620 actually spells their name as *al-Badārā* (بدارى), with final 'alif *maqṣūrah*, but it is spelled as بدارة in Šuqayr 1916:107). They are a very small tribe, who are reported to have moved from their earlier abode on Ġabal 'Iġmah (on the central Tih plateau), where they lived together with (and were allies of) the Tayāha. When they fell out with the Tayāha, they allied with the Šafāyḥah (a sub-tribe of the Aḥaywāt).<sup>16</sup> Šuqayr (ibid.) suggests that perhaps the name 'Iġmah is derived from the word (from the same root 'ġ-m) describing their speech as "improper Arabic": *luġah 'a'ġamīyah*.

<sup>\*4</sup> The Tayāha are a relatively large tribe. Aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:566 reports that they came to Sinai with the Banū Hilāl (of 'Adnāni origin)<sup>17</sup> and that they were among the first tribes to 'settle' on the Tih plateau. After the Tarābīn had arrived there, several wars were fought over control of the land. Sawārkah, Biliy, Rmēlāt, Samā'nah are mentioned as allies of the Tayāha in these wars. For some time they were also allied with the Ḥwētāt against the Sawārkah. For further details on their history, presence in other countries etc., see ibid.:565–570 and also aṭ-Ṭayyib 1997:227–233.

<sup>\*5</sup> They are reported, also in aṭ-Ṭayyib (see 1993:622 and 1997:292),<sup>18</sup> to be one of the oldest tribes in Sinai. They are said there to have fought numerous wars against the Ḥamāḍah over territory and that both tribes severely weakened each other in the process. After these wars they agreed on a division of the land to the north and south of Wādiy Fērān, which was then later largely occupied by (the various sub-divisions of) the Šawālḥah.

G.W. Murray 1935:243 writes that the original inhabitants of southern Sinai "are said to have been Beni Suleiman, and the Hamada and the Beni Wasil [in my own transcription: Baniy Slēmān, Ḥamāḍah and Baniy Wāšil]. Not long after the Arab conquest of Egypt, the Sawalha and the 'Aleiqat [in my own transcription: Šawālḥah and 'Lēgāt] were living in Sharqiya [...], from which they regularly raided south Sinai to carry off the dates of Feiran or to graze their camels wherever there had been rain. One year, these two tribes migrated *en masse* into the peninsula where they succeeded in conquering the Beni Suleiman and the rest, some of whom fled while others were absorbed into the conquerors [...] [T]he two tribes quarrelled and victory was inclining towards the Sawalha when there arrived from Arabia seven tents of the Muzeina [in my own transcription: Mzēnah], the remnant of a noble tribe flying from the results of a blood feud. These asked permission of the Sawalha to share their grazing. But this the Sawalha refused, unless the Muzeina paid them tribute. So the proud Muzeina went off to join the 'Aleiqat and both tribes together overcame the Sawalha in a battle fought in the Watia Pass [in my own transcription: Wātyah. The pass is located at appr. 28.41.40 North and 33.58.53 East, see Google Earth] on the main road to the Monastery. A sensible compromise then took place by which the three tribes divided the peninsula among them."

<sup>\*6</sup> In the map below I have indicated the Šawālḥah as a separate entity positioned in the area where Bailey 1985:23 indicated the presence of the 'Awārmah. I have not met people who claimed to be members of the 'Awārmah<sup>19</sup> (see also the quote from G.W. Murray 1935 in the previous remark).

<sup>16</sup> Aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:620 adds a footnote reporting that some Aḥaywāt claim that the Badārāh are originally of Aḥaywiyy origin. See also Aṭ-Ṭayyib 1997:290–291. Today they are found in aṭ-Ṭamrah near Ġabal Ḥmayyir, which is part of the 'Dividing Valleys' between the Tih Plateau and the Sinai Massif, see Greenwood 1997:27 (figure 3-1), The geomorphic regions of Sinai.

<sup>17</sup> The Banū Hilāl were led by their legendary commander 'Amr ibn al-'Āš when they conquered Egypt in the seventh century CE.

<sup>18</sup> Their origin is reported to be Qaḥṭāniy, through Čuḍām and Banū 'Uqbah.

<sup>19</sup> Aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:642 actually mentions the 'Awārmah as one of the four sub-tribes of the Šawālḥah: al-'Awārimah, al-Maḥāsinaḥ, ar-Raḍāwinah and an-Nawāširaḥ (in my transcription: 'Awārmah, Maḥāsnaḥ, Raḍāwnah and Nawāšrah). For the history and origin

<sup>\*7</sup> Aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:681–682 (see also 1997:360–367) relates a story describing how the Awlād Saʿīd joined the tribe of Ṣawālḥah during their days in the Ḥiḡāz, after which they came to Sinai together. In *ibid.* it is also reported that a branch (named Awlād Sayf) of the Awlād Saʿīd are originally Masāʿid.

<sup>\*8</sup> For a short history of the origin, present location(s) and activities of the ʿLēgāt in Sinai,<sup>20</sup> see also aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:701–711 and 1997:475–489. Aṭ-Ṭayyib (1993:710 and 1997:487) however quotes Aḥmad Luṭfi as-Sayyid in his book *qabāʾil al-ʿarab fi miṣr* on the date of arrival of the ʿLēgāt in Sinai as being in the tenth century Ḥiḡrah (i.e. appr. in the sixteenth century CE) (see also quote from G.W. Murray 1935 in remark <sup>\*5</sup> above).

<sup>\*9</sup> The large tribe of at-Taṛābīn<sup>21</sup> in earlier times occupied land in central Sinai, but later, in the eighteenth century, expanded and moved into different directions at the expense of other tribes claiming their territories for themselves.<sup>22</sup>

<sup>\*10</sup> The Garāršah are said to be a section of the Ṣawālḥah (see Bailey 1985:33; I have heard the same from my own informants).

Bailey (1985:28–29) reports that the ʿAwārmah, Awlād Saʿīd and Garāršah are jointly known as the Ṣawālḥah.<sup>23</sup>

Bailey (1985:33) also reports a war that took place around 1600 between the Ṣawālḥah and ʿLēgāt.

<sup>\*11</sup> The Ḥwētāt in Sinai are only a small group,<sup>24</sup> but large numbers of the Ḥwētāt live as an amalgam of sub-tribes or clans of various origins in southern Jordan and the far northwestern region of Saudi Arabia just south of the border with Jordan. According to Von Oppenheim,<sup>25</sup> they occupy a special place among the Bedouin tribes in terms of genealogy. They are said to be offspring of an Egyptian man Ḥuwayṭ, who traveled to ʿAqabah where he fell ill. He was then given shelter by a member of the Banīy ʿAṭīyyah (who are still also today found in Jordan). When Ḥuwayṭ had recovered from his illness, he stayed in ʿAqabah, and managed to guile the Banīy ʿAṭīyyah out of their profitable business of

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of the Ṣawālḥah see aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:623–644. See also Maiberger 1984:141 (paraphrased:), where he mentions the ʿAwāreme (who are said to be the sub-section of the Ṣawālḥah who originally conquered the area), the Qarāreše (Garāršah in my transcription) (who—as owners of the best palm orchards in Wādiy Fērān—were the richest among the otherwise destitute Ṭawara), and the Awlād Saʿīd as sub-sections of the Ṣawālḥah. The name Ṣawālḥah derives from the prophet (an-nabiy) Ṣāliḥ, from whom they claim descent. Together with the ʿLēgāt the Ṣawālḥah secured an income (in the form of bread paid by the monks) as ʿProtectorsʼ of pilgrims *en route* from Cairo to the monastery.

<sup>20</sup> They are for instance reported to be allies of the Mzēnah and Ḥamāḍah and to have been in territorial disputes with the Ṣawālḥah.

<sup>21</sup> Their name Taṛābīn is said to derive from their place of origin Wādiy at-Tarabah or the town of that name, located to the northwest of aṭ-Ṭāʿif in present day Saudi Arabia. Today sections of this tribe are also present in the Gaza area and the Negev Desert, see also aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:554–564.

Stewart 1991:106 also mentions that the Taṛābīn were part of the Banīy ʿAṭīyya.

<sup>22</sup> Bailey 1985:25 reports that they moved into ʿAyyādiy territory to their west (now Taṛābīn of Rās Ṣadr), the Mzēnah to their south (now Taṛābīn of Nwēbiʿ) and Wḥayḍāt, Ġbārāt (now found to the north of Gaza) and Rmēlāt (in my own transcription) to their north (now northern Taṛābīn). In turn, they had their “own place in drought-ridden central Sinai taken over by the Aḥaywāt, although not by conquest”, see *ibid.* For more on the Taṛābīn see also aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:554–570 and aṭ-Ṭayyib 1997:210–226.

<sup>23</sup> I have treated them as separate entities, in conformity with how informants themselves defined their affiliations.

<sup>24</sup> See Von Oppenheim 1943:154–155.

<sup>25</sup> See Von Oppenheim 1943:291.

protecting grain transports from Syria to pilgrimage stations. Only part of them became nomadic, and only at a later point in history.<sup>26</sup>

<sup>\*12</sup> The Mzēnah are reported (see Bailey 1985:33) to be originally of ‘Adnānī (northern Arabian tribes) origin, but they later (between the 14th and 16th centuries) joined the Qaḥṭānī (southern Arabian) Ḥarb. For a description of their origins, history, presence in Sinai and other locations, see also aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:687–700 and 1997:368–474. (See also the quote from G.W. Murray 1935 in remark <sup>\*5</sup> above).

e. *Professional Activities of Bedouin in Central Southern Sinai Today*

Many of the Bedouin who live near or on the coast of the Gulf of ‘Aqabah make a living in the tourist industry. The focal point of this industry is Šarm aš-Šayx, where hundreds of thousands of tourists come for sunshine and diving, every year generating billions of dollars of income for the Egyptian economy. Most of this money is, however, earned by mainland Egyptians and relatively very little trickles down to the local Bedouin population. Bedouin work mainly as taxi drivers, desert safari guides, and run small businesses like rental shops for diving equipment, cafeterias and small restaurants or sell souvenirs and camel rides. Only few Bedouin have seen opportunities to start their own hotel businesses or larger transport companies for tourists.<sup>27</sup>

About an hour’s drive from the airport of Šarm aš-Šayx, Dahab also takes its share of tourism revenues, albeit a mere fraction of the money made in Šarm. Farther to the north in Nwēbi’, which is about a two hours’ drive from Šarm airport, and along the coast stretching towards Ṭāba, much money has been invested to develop the tourism industry by (again predominantly) mainland Egyptians, but ever since the second *intifāḍah*<sup>28</sup> many of the tourists from or via Israel that would come to this area have stayed away.<sup>29</sup> The result is a coastal area filled with half-finished concrete constructions, lying untouched while investors wait for better times. Only a limited number of hotels and a handful of holiday camps run by local Bedouin are open for the few tourists who do come.

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<sup>26</sup> For a description and list of sub-sections of the Ḥwēḡāt in Jordan and mainland Egypt, see Von Oppenheim 1943:291–308. For more information on their background and history, see Maulvi Al-Haq, Al-Huwaytat in: Encyclopaedic ethnography of Middle-East and Central Asia (Vol. I):287–289.

<sup>27</sup> Most of the larger tourism businesses are controlled by mainland Egyptians.

<sup>28</sup> The second *intifāḍah* started at the al-‘Aqṣā mosque in late September 2000.

<sup>29</sup> As part of the Camp David Accords, Israelis (and other tourists entering from Israel at Ṭāba) are allowed to travel into Sinai and visit the east coast of Sinai and its towns (including Šarm aš-Šayx and St Catherine’s Monastery) on a 14-day permit available at the border. Israeli authorities (the Counter Terrorism Division) have however issued warnings to their citizens not to travel to Sinai due to the threat of terrorist attacks.

On the coast of the Gulf of Suez more tourist facilities are being developed. The focal point for this business in this area is Rās Šadr (the name of the town is usually spelled ‘Ras Sudr’ on road signs) and the coast to its south. These facilities mainly cater for holiday makers from Cairo, Rās Šadr being only a two and a half to three hours’ drive away from the capital.

Other sources of income for Bedouin include fishing, herding small cattle, some modest crop farming in a *karm*,<sup>30</sup> transporting fresh water from the mountains to hotels and also smuggling.<sup>31</sup> Nowadays members of Bedouin tribes also find employment in development projects like the large scale South Sinai Regional Development Programme (SSRDP), which is funded by the European Union.<sup>32</sup>

#### f. *Research Questions and Purpose of this Study*

The volume in hand is the second on Bedouin dialects in Sinai after the first volume, which is on the Bedouin dialects of the northern Sinai littoral. The primary aim of this study is to give a synchronic description of the Bedouin dialects of central and southern Sinai and thus to complete the description of the Bedouin dialects of the Sinai Desert.<sup>33</sup>

This study is also aimed at testing the hypothesis that dialect-typological group of Northwestern Arabic dialects, as proposed by Palva 1991, continues farther south into Sinai, and to investigate the type of differences

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<sup>30</sup> Lack of fresh water is one of the main problems in Sinai (in 2005 southern Sinai had been without any significant rainfall for fifteen years). Several kinds of fruits and vegetables are grown, as well as poppies and marihuana (in more isolated places) for the production of drugs. These crops are grown on ground water (delivered by means of drip irrigation), but due to the lack of rain and the large quantities which have already been trucked to Šarm aš-Šayx for the tourist industry, the ground water has already run out in several places. In some areas rain-fed agriculture is sometimes possible in *šūd* (sg. *sidd* ‘dam’). See also fn 129, p. 104.

<sup>31</sup> This is said to include drugs (I was told that in January 2008 1 kilo of marihuana cost LE 50.-, 1 *wigīyyah* (about 6 or 7 in a kilo) of opium LE 450.-, both locally grown in the central areas, and a kilo of heroine LE 70,000.-), and even women, who come on charter flights to Šarm (many from Russia and the Ukraine) to work in prostitution in Israel. Smuggling of fire arms and explosives is also said to take place.

<sup>32</sup> A total of 64 million Euros has been allotted to this project by the European Union. For more information, see webpage <http://www.eu-ssrdp.org/> (accessed 10-18-2010).

<sup>33</sup> There are publications, however, which partially fill this gap: Nishio 1992 gives a basic vocabulary of the speech of the Ġbāliyyah, Stewart 1990 is a very valuable collection of texts (in transcription, and with translation in Stewart 1988) on customary law recorded mainly among the Aḥaywāt, but also some of the other tribes. Stewart 1987 gives some texts and provides a sketch of the dialect of the Aḥaywāt. Material presented by Stewart was incorporated into De Jong 2000. Material presented by Nishio will be referred to in descriptive chapter I below.

which exist between the NWA dialects in this area. A similar related question is how far the Negev-type (the dialect of the *Ḍullām*) can be concluded to stretch into Sinai.<sup>34</sup>

In northern Sinai a continuum of dialects with an east-west dimension was identified as constituting the transition of a largely Bedouin dialect-type (that of the Negev spoken by the *Ḍullām* as described in Blanc 1970, or the group I-type as described in De Jong 2000) towards the much more sedentary type as spoken in the eastern part of the Nile Delta, such as described in Abul Fadl 1961, Woidich 1979 and 1980 and in Behnstedt and Woidich 1985).<sup>35</sup> The sedentary characteristics of the western dialects in the north, in particular those of group III (i.e. BA and AxA), are very likely to be due to dialect contact with sedentary dialects of the eastern Delta.

Another question to be investigated in this study is therefore whether similar sedentary influences can be traced in the dialects of the central and southern Sinai, which are geographically so much farther removed from sedentary dialects spoken on the Egyptian mainland than the dialects of group III.

In De Jong 2000:283 the pronominal suffixes *-ʔk* for the 2nd p. sg. masculine and *-k* for the sg. fem. found in group II of the north were surmised to be a feature more typical of southern Sinai dialects. Another question is therefore whether this is indeed the case, and if so, how widespread this feature is.

A secondary purpose of this study is to apply the ‘step’ method introduced in De Jong 2000:614–621 to the dialects of central and southern Sinai and compare these to results of comparisons of the same dialects with the help of techniques of multi-dimensional scaling and clustering by generating a dendrogram.

## II. FIELDWORK METHODOLOGY

### a. *Infrastructural Arrangements*

As a ‘base’ to work from for my field research I had chosen the small town of *Ḍahab*, situated on the east coast of Sinai and more or less half way between *Šarm aš-Šayx* and *Nwēbi*. The advantage of this town is that it

<sup>34</sup> This question was already posed in Blanc 1970:2.

<sup>35</sup> See De Jong 2000:621–627.

was within reasonable travelling distance from the locations I wanted to visit for my recordings, while at the same time I was able to more or less ‘mix in’ with the numbers of tourists who come to spend a holiday in Dahab.<sup>36</sup> On most of my visits I used a rented car from Cairo, while for recordings ‘off the beaten track’ I would sometimes rent a Toyota pick up truck, which handled remarkably well in sandy conditions. On other occasions I was able to bring a 4 X 4 vehicle (a Mitsubishi Pajero). With this vehicle I could visit Badārah in the area of ar-Ṛamlah and ‘Lēgāt and Ḥamāḍah in other hard-to-access areas in the central western parts of southern Sinai.

In Dahab I would rent an apartment with a desk, where I could write out my recordings with my guide and main informant Eid and where I would also occasionally conduct recording sessions with informants.<sup>37</sup>

Recordings were made with digital recorders (2 Apple iPods and an Archos recorder)<sup>38</sup> in MP-3 or WAVE format. To make sure speech was recorded properly, I always used extra cassette recorders making simultaneous recordings.<sup>39</sup> The advantages of digital recordings are many: almost instant copies on computer become possible (without loss of sound quality), no wear and tear of audio tapes, and the recorders were easy to recharge with special cigarette lighter adaptors in a car. Other advantages are that recording of a speaker would not have to be interrupted to flip or change an audio tape, so that the speaker would be less actively reminded of the fact that he was being recorded. At ‘home’ in Dahab I would usually burn copies of these recordings on CD, and work with these copies on CD players (with extra battery powered Sony speakers) to write the texts out on my computer with the help of my friend Eid. The computer I used was an Apple G4, on which I had installed the necessary fonts for transcription and which were created by Manfred Woidich.

After my experiences with chances for permission for my research in northern Sinai, I had decided not to apply for official permission to

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<sup>36</sup> At the time of my field trips the town of Nwēbi‘ had almost no tourists, and my chances to keep a low profile would have been much slimmer, while the town of Šarm aš-Šayx was too heavily infested with security personnel (the town regularly hosts international conferences and summit meetings) to remain relatively unnoticed.

<sup>37</sup> Most of the recordings were however conducted *in situ*.

<sup>38</sup> These were about the size of a pack of cigarettes.

<sup>39</sup> Although the sound quality was excellent when set to the maximum sampling rate, the Archos recorder I used (with an external Soundman ‘Kopfmikrofon’) was quite difficult to operate, especially in conditions without light. After pressing the wrong invisible button, this could result in loss of the recording. The iPods were much easier to handle with a Griffin iTalk click-on microphone.

conduct my research in the centre and south, but to simply maintain as low a profile as possible. To remain friends with military or security personnel manning road blocks, a pack of cigarettes, or a bottle of water could work miracles.<sup>40</sup>

b. *Selecting Targets for Field Research*

During the research needed for this study the same assumption was made as for the previous research in northern Sinai: that the dialect of members of the same tribal collective will not be substantially different in different locations within the same *dīrah* (or ‘tribal area’). At the same time, some differences did show up in places inside the same *dīrah*.

An example of such differences showing up among speakers of the same tribal collective is the treatment of ‘original anaptyctics’ in initial position in the suffixed preposition *m(i)* ‘with’ (see <sup>\*6</sup> in chapter I, 3.1.16.) in different areas inside the *dīrah* of the Ġbāliyyah; speakers of Ġbāliyy who live near the monastery tend to say e.g. for “with him” *im’uh* (where *i* is an anaptyctic vowel), while speakers of Ġbāliyy in Mrēr (in Wādiy aš-Šēx) will more regularly stress the anaptyctic as in *im’uh* (which leads to the conclusion that the morphophonemic base of the in the latter case is actually |im’|). Another example are the genitive exponents in use for ‘indirect annexation’ among speakers of the Mzēnah. Speakers of Mzēniyy living in Ḍahab and near to the coast will generally use *šuġl*, while speakers of Mzēniyy living more inland will more regularly use *ħagg* (see chapter II, 3.1.11.). When such differences did show up among speakers of the same tribal collective, separate mention of this is made in the descriptive chapters.

To select the tribal communities to be approached for this study, I made an inventarisation based on the map in Bailey 1991 (also in Bailey 2009). I would then go out to the tribal areas where these collectives were to be found, and would try to conduct interviews with speakers after having been introduced to them by my guide and travelling companion Eid al-Aṭraš.<sup>41</sup> In the course of my research I would sometimes also hear

<sup>40</sup> If one passes through a road block three times a week, every time claiming a different purpose of the journey, such as Ġabal al-Banāt, St. Catherine’s Monastery, the Blue Desert, or some other local attraction, one sometimes has to prop up one’s credibility with a little present.

<sup>41</sup> The method of selecting informants, topics discussed during interviews, some of the difficulties associated with field research and the general methodological approach are described in De Jong 2000:20–21 and 23–30.

names mentioned of tribal collectives not indicated (or known by another name) on the map in Bailey 1991, I would then go to the *dīrahs* of these collectives to conduct interviews with speakers there as well. I would not attempt to subsume such collectives under a larger collective (like the *Dbūr*, of whom it is reported that they are a sub-section of the *Ḥwētāt*, or the *Badārah*, of whom it is said that they are originally *Aḥaywāt*, or in any case lived in close contact with a sub-section of the *Aḥaywāt* for a considerable length of time), but I would simply accept the way speakers identified themselves, at face value, so to speak.<sup>42</sup>

I did however take note of the remarks I had heard about the origins of such smaller collectives, and at a later stage compared the typological position of such a sub-group with that of their original (usually) larger tribal collective with the help of Multi-Dimensional Scaling plots. Not surprisingly perhaps, such collectives show up relatively near each other in such Multi-Dimensional Scaling plots (see in the appendix below, where *DbA* is plotted in the immediate vicinity of *ḤwA* and *BdA* shows up very near *AḥA*), which means that such tribal collectives show relatively few differences in a linguistic sense (for other remarks made by informants, see Conclusions, IV. e.).

### c. *Selecting Informants*

Informants for interviews were—like so often in Arabic dialect research—selected on the basis of practical considerations: those who were prepared and able to be interviewed were invited to cooperate. Due to the conservative nature of Bedouin society, interviewing women was often not possible. Like in other areas of Sinai, women spend most of their time inside their homes or at a younger age herding goats and sheep. In towns like *Dahab* and *Nwēbi'* younger girls can often be seen trying to sell locally produced souvenir trinkets like bracelets, purses, etc. to tourists. Approaching a woman who is alone—e.g. when she is out herding goats and sheep in the desert, or shopping in town—is regarded as extremely bad manners and is for Bedouin themselves even punishable under customary law (اقصاع الغريفي in Arabic).

There were a few exceptions: of the *Tayāha* I interviewed an elderly lady. This was possible because my guide and main informant *Eid* (ʿīd) knew her personally, as he had spent time in prison with her son for more

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<sup>42</sup> After all, if speakers do not identify themselves as belonging to a certain larger (or smaller) tribal group, or another group altogether, who am I to suggest that they should?

than a year.<sup>43</sup> I have also often spoken to the mother of my main informant Eid, a Tuḫbāniyyih of appr. 65 years old.

Below the persons who were more or less formally interviewed<sup>44</sup> during this research<sup>45</sup> (their ages at times of recording follow in brackets) are listed. These interviewees are referred to by their first names only:

### *Group I*

*Tarābīn Nwēbi'* Šēx Šēš (47) (Nwēbi') + several Tuḫbāniy visitors from around Nwēbi' and Wādiy Watīr in his mag'ad. The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is TAN.

*Tarābīn Rās Šadr* ʿĪd (33) (Rās Šadr) (+ 4 or 5 of his friends of appr. the same age in Rās Šadr/Aḫuw Šwayrah, his mother, appr. 60). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is TAŞ.

*Ġarāğrah* Ṭalāl (29) (born al-Bāğah/Wādiy as-Sīg); Swēlim (35) (born in Rās as-Sīg); Ġamāl (appr. 32) (born in Wādiy as-Sīg); Mḫammad (appr. 32) (born in Wādiy as-Sīg); Silmiy (53) (born in al-Malbad/Wādiy as-Sīg). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is ĠrA.

*Tayāha* Mḫammad (34) (recorded in Aḫuw Šwayrah); Slēm (49) (Rās aš-Šētān, from Rās ʿBēd appr. 105 km south of al-ʿArīš); Aḫm Xiḏr (appr. 65) (recorded near (northeast of) aṭ-Ṭarfa;<sup>46</sup>); Xiḏr (32) (northeast of aṭ-Ṭarfa). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is TyA.

<sup>43</sup> Many Bedouin men have spent time in prisons, often even without official charges.

<sup>44</sup> "More or less formally" should be interpreted to mean that I conducted recording sessions with them. Often enough though, I met people during my travels with whom I chatted and on whose speech I would then later—immediately after the conversation—take notes if I was certain to which tribal groups they belonged, e.g. several Mzēnah in ʿAyn Ḥuḏrah, a couple of Ḥwētāt on the main road through the Mitla pass, Ḥamāḏah on the way from the Ġabal Ḥmayyir area to Wādiy Liḫyān, several ʿLēgāt near the area where I had interviewed Badārah (in the Ġabal Ḥmayyir area), Awlād Saʿīd near al-Buwayb, just south of Wādiy Fērān, Tarābīn in Dahab, etc.

<sup>45</sup> Since I used to rent an apartment in Dahab during the several periods of my field research, I have spoken with and listened to many more individuals than those listed here. I would then also usually ask them about their tribal backgrounds. Many of these speakers were of course Mzēnah, but also members of other tribes of Sinai (including tribes from the north) can be found in this town.

<sup>46</sup> Appr. coordinates are 28.44.15 North and 33.58.48 East.

*Malālḥah* Xiḍr (80); Salmān (appr. 30); Zāyid (67); all three from al-Madfūnih/Nagʿ Šabānih, very near (appr. 300 metres) the border with Israel. The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is MIA.

*Ḥwētāt* Slēmān (46) (born and living in al-Ġidy); Mḥammad (born in al-Ḥammih, 20 km east of al-Ġidy); ʿĪd (28) (born and living in al-Ġidy). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is ḤWA.

*Dbūr* al-Ḥaġġ Farāġ (62); ʿAwdih (appr. 45, though claims to be 60); Slēmān (appr. 35); Mḥammad (appr. 40, born in Tṛayfih). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is DbA.

*Badārah* ʿAṭiyih (60) (born on the Tih plateau); Silmān (55) (born on the Tih plateau). Both from aṛ-Ṛamlah, near Ġabal Ḥmayyir, some 10 to 12 kilometres almost due west from Ġabal Fōgah.<sup>47</sup> The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is BdA.

#### *Group VI*

*Mzēnah* Ḥasan (54) (from Ḍahab); Mḥammad (from Ḍahab/ʿAṣalah) (appr. 28); ʿĀyid (25) (from Ḍahab/ʿAṣalah); ʿAbdallāh (appr. 34) (from Ḍahab); Fraḡ (appr. 40) (on main road St Catherine's police post and appr. 30 km west of the police post at the intersection of the Nwebi/Ḍahab road and the east-west route to St Catherine's monastery).<sup>48</sup> The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is MzA.

*Baniy Wāṣil* Mḥammad (60) (born in Wādiy Ṭammān, to the southeast of Wādiy aṭ-Ṭūr, about 30 km from the main road to Šarm); Sālim (25) (born in the mountains east southeast of aṭ-Ṭūr, near Wādiy Sli').<sup>49</sup> The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is BWA.

<sup>47</sup> Coordinates appr. 29.02.52 North and 33.33.38 East. I have also spoken to four other men of the Badārah, but could not make recordings on that occasion. When sufficiently zoomed in, their four or five tents are visible on Google Earth as white rectangles (the tents are nowadays made of flour sacks donated by USAID). Three more tents (white and brown) are visible at 29.02.36 North and 33.34.18 East.

<sup>48</sup> Coordinates are appr. 28.48.18 North and 34.17.56 East, see Google Earth.

<sup>49</sup> Depending on dialect, this may also be pronounced as Wādiy Islah, Wādiy Aslah or Wādiy Sliy. See 1.2.4.4. and 3.1.5. in the descriptive chapters below. In Šuqayr 1916:69 the name is spelled in Arabic as .

*Group VII*

*Hanādwah* Ġim'ih (29) (born in Wādiy Fērān); Ḥamd (also known by his nickname Mundi) (26) (born in Wādiy Fērān); Slēmān (64) (born in Wādiy Fērān). All were interviewed in Wādiy aṭ-Ṭūr, a few kilometres to the northeast of aṭ-Ṭūr, Ḥamd was also recorded on several occasions in Dahab. The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is HnA.

*Garāršah* Maḥmūd (24) (from il-Ḥiṣwah, Wādiy Fērān); 'Īd (22) (from il-Ḥiṣwah, Wādiy Fērān); Ḥsēn (54) (from il-Ḥiṣwah, Wādiy Fērān); Ḥsēn (24) (from il-Ḥiṣwah, Wādiy Fērān); Mūsih (24).<sup>50</sup> The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is GrA.

*Ḥamāḍah* Maḥmūd (30) (born in Sēl Ba'ba');<sup>51</sup> 'Awwād (55) (Wādiy Liḥyān); Sa'ad (36) (Wādiy Liḥyān).<sup>52</sup> The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is ḤmA.

*Ġbālīyyah* il-Ḥaġġ Msallam (67) (from Brēgah, between Fērān and Ḥiṣwah/Wādiy Fērān); Mūsa (28) (Wādiy iṛ-Rāḥah, appr. 3 km north of the monastery); 'Aṭwah (30) (Wādiy iṛ-Rāḥah); Silēmān (27) (St Catherine village); Silēmān (36) (Mrēr, appr. 30 km into Wādiy aš-Šēx from the police post at St. Catherine's); Aḥuw Ḥmēd (38) (Mrēr). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is ĠbA.

*Awlād Sa'īd* 'Ōdah (35) (from Wādiy Ṣlāf. 2 years 'i'dādiy in Ṭūr); Niṣṣār (appr. 65) (from Wādiy Ṣlāf); Maḥmūd (appr. 60) (from Wādiy Ṣlāf). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is ASA.

<sup>50</sup> Ḥiṣwah is in Wādiy Fērān, coordinates are appr. 28.43.13 North and 33.36.33 East, see Google Earth.

<sup>51</sup> The mouth of Wādiy Ba'ba' is just to the northeast of Aḥuw Rdēs and just to the northwest of Wādiy Maġārah. Coordinates are appr. 28.54 North and 33.15 East on Google Earth. The area of Uḥḥ Buġmah is well known among geologists for its manganese deposits. Already in pharaonic times, in the general area around Sarābiṭ alXādīm and in Wādiy Maġārah turquoise was mined.

<sup>52</sup> Wādiy Liḥyān (not indicated on Google Earth, but located appr. at 29.01 North and 33.25 East) is some kilometres (north) from Wādiy Mukattab, which is appr. at 28.50.58 North and 33.25.35 East and to the southwest Sarābiṭ alXādīm. In this wadi there are several Nabataean and Byzantine rock inscriptions.

Şawālḥah Ḥsēn (38) (born in Xbayyir/Wādiy Fērān); Ğim'ih (18) (born in Aḅuw Rdēs, lives in Xbayyir/Wādiy Fērān); 'Aṭwah (36) (born in Xbayyir/Wādiy Fērān). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is ŞwA.

### *Group VIII*

'Lēgāt Sa'ād (appr. 40) (born in Sarābiṭ al-Xādim); Xiḍr (appr. 35) (from Sarābiṭ al-Xādim); Mḥammad (33) (from Sarābiṭ al-Xādim); Slēm (appr. 42) (from Sarābiṭ al-Xādim). The abbreviation used here to refer to their dialect is 'LA.

#### *d. Gathering Linguistic Material*

In principle, the mode of operations described in De Jong 2000:23–30 was followed for this research as well.

#### *e. Difficulties during Field Research*

Problems connected to conducting research in Sinai have been referred to before,<sup>53</sup> and since the times of my previous research in northern Sinai, matters in this respect have hardly changed for the better. If anything, local authorities have become all the more wary of foreigners who exhibit no particular interest in diving and/or sunshine.

At the same time, however, it seems that gradually the realisation has been sinking in that such foreigners too come in a variety of shapes, and with a variety of interests, and that not all of them are out to smudge the reputation of Egypt, but may have a genuine academic interest.

Apart from the known difficulties associated with field research needed for dialect studies in Egypt, additional complications arose when tourist facilities in southern Sinai became the target of terrorist attacks.

Three simultaneous suicide bomb attacks took place in Dahab on the 24th of April 2006 (it was the early evening of the very day I had arrived there for more field work). Before these attacks, on the 7th of October 2004, the Hilton hotel in Ṭāba, campsites north of Nwēbi<sup>54</sup> / Rās aš-Şayṭān had been targeted, which in turn came more than a year after on the 23rd

<sup>53</sup> See also remarks in De Jong 2000:18.

<sup>54</sup> Although I transcribe Nwēbi', as a transliteration for Arabic on road signs, Dr Frank Stewart (in personal communication) advised me to correct this to read Nwēb'ih (as is his practice in several of his publications). I have chosen however to maintain my original transcription.

of July 2005 bombs had exploded in Šarm aš-Šayx (of which one was a large car bomb driven into the reception area of the Ghazala Gardens Hotel). All in all, more than a hundred people lost their lives in these bombings, and hundreds more were wounded.

Since security forces almost immediately suspected Bedouin involvement in these attacks, thousands of Bedouin were rounded up and put under detention in al-‘Arīš. Only after several months, when the involvement in the attacks of 2004 of a few members of one of the Bedouin tribes had become clear, three suspects were (within a matter of days) tracked down in the desert near the mountain range of Šadr al-Ḥayṭān (to the east of Rās Šadr) with the help of members of different Bedouin tribes, who had decided to assist authorities in their hunt to testify to their abhorrence for the terrorist acts ascribed to these three. The suspects died in the shoot-outs that ensued. Many of the estimated three thousand Bedouin who had been rounded up, however, remained in custody for a long time.

In the weeks following such attacks it was usually impossible to go out into the desert and look for informants to interview. On several occasions my regular informant Eid was taken from my car at one of the road blocks and locked up in prison or a police station, until some influential local tribesmen could be found to go there and seek his release. After a few of these incidents (he was arrested three times in the four weeks immediately after the Ḍahab bombings), we decided to work on recordings that we already had instead, and not to venture out of town until the situation had quieted down. This should in part explain why the average number of speakers is a little lower than during my previous research in northern Sinai. On the other hand, the number of Bedouin inhabitants of this southern region is also considerably smaller than in the north.

### III. PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

#### a. *Presentation of the Data and Selecting Criteria for Comparison*

In this volume the data are presented in a manner similar to the method followed in De Jong 2000. As a very useful tool for linguistic description, the method used in Blanc 1970 is also followed here.

The emphasis again tends to be on differences between dialects, rather than shared characteristics.<sup>55</sup> A selection of features which show up as dif-

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<sup>55</sup> For remarks on this issue, see De Jong 2000:31.

ferences between dialects in the area is then represented in maps in the appendix of this volume. As parameters for comparison, the same features that were selected (from publications on surrounding dialects) to serve as criteria in De Jong 2000, have been used here. The purpose is to facilitate direct comparison with dialects of the northern littoral (described in De Jong 2000) and to this end the numbering of the paragraphs in the volume in hand runs parallel (with a few minor modifications) to the numbering used there.

This also implies that in some cases no information is given in some of the paragraphs due to the fact that such information was not available, or the situation is different in the dialects discussed in the volume in hand. For a discussion on the selection of criteria for comparison, see De Jong 2000:30–50.

In De Jong 2000 the identified area of transition (the ‘continuum’) between ‘Bedouin’ dialects of the type such as that spoken in the Negev (the dialect of the Ḍullām, described in Blanc 1970) was reflected in the gradual disappearance of certain ‘Bedouin’ dialectal features. The selection of criteria was in part also directed at illustrating the presence of such a continuum. For the sake of comparability, I have used the same criteria here, and although they do not produce the same or another type of transitional area of Bedouin vs non-Bedouin (or ‘less Bedouin’), most of these criteria proved useful to illustrate differences in the central and southern area as well.

#### b. *Method of Description*

The methods and terminology used in this study are the same as those used in De Jong 2000. For a succinct description of these, see *ibid.*:50–54.



## CHAPTER ONE

### A DESCRIPTION OF THE DIALECTS OF THE ĠBĀLIYYAH, AWLĀD SA'ĪD, ŞAWĀLĤAH, GARĀRŞAH AND ĤAMĀḌAH WITH REMARKS ON THE DIALECTS OF THE HANĀDWĀH AND 'LĒĠĀT

#### INTRODUCTION

In 1992 Tetsuo Nishio published a basic vocabulary of the dialect of the Ġbāliyyah tribe in the central south of Sinai. More recently Roy Bernabela of the University of Leiden sent me his BA-thesis (2009) which contains four highly entertaining *ġūl*-stories recorded from Ġbāliyy speakers near St Catherine's monastery. Many references in this chapter will be made to Nishio 1992 and I have also included remarks on data found in Bernabela 2009. We shall see that many of the information listed there for ĠbA is corroborated by the findings of the research lying at the basis of this chapter. Where differences do turn up, many of these can be ascribed to differences in interpretation of the phonological system and therefore also in methods of transcription. To refer to forms listed in Nishio 1992 I shall use my own phonological transcription (such as ġ for j, š for ſ, ǰ for ǰ, etc., except where differences—mainly in representations for vowels—between Nishio's transcription and my own may be relevant for a variety reasons, e.g. final -ε has not been replaced by (in my transcription) -i('), -e(') or -a and the vowels e or ə have not been replaced by a or i, etc. Where phonological implications are connected to adaptations in transcriptions, these are expounded in accompanying lines.

In this chapter I hope to shed some more light on the questions that may have arisen from Nishio 1992, and additional material is presented including material on neighbouring dialects: the dialects spoken by the Awlād Sa'īd, Şawālḥah and Garārşah. With some reservation, I have also added the dialect of the Ĥamāḏah to this group, which I have numbered as VII. Although there are some differences, these dialects show a large number of similarities justifying their treatment as one typological group. In addition, the chapter contains remarks on the Hanādwah, who are one of the families said to be of non-Bedouin origin living in Wādiy aṭ-Ṭūr (just to the northeast of the town of aṭ-Ṭūr).

I have not made recordings in the town of aţ-Ṭūr,<sup>1</sup> since it is a mixing bowl of various Egyptian dialects from the mainland.<sup>2</sup>

For the sake of brevity, the dialects of the Ğbāliyyah, Awlād Sa'īd, Şawālĥah, Garārşah and ĤamāÐah will be collectively referred to as ṬwA (Ṭuwara Arabic). The dialect of the 'Lēgāt is not included in ṬwA here, although often (in other publications) the tribe of the 'Lēgāt is also regarded as part of the Ṭuwara (i.e. tribes inhabiting the region known as aţ-Ṭūr).<sup>3</sup>

The 'Lēgāt are a relatively large tribe, and live on the Gulf of Suez and farther inland as direct neighbours with the much smaller tribe of ĤamāÐah. Their neighbours to the north are the Taṛābīn of Rās Şadr.<sup>4</sup> In a dialect-typological sense, their dialect takes up a middle position between the dialects of ṬwA and HnA on the one hand, and group VI on the other (see MDS plots in the appendix). The dialect of the 'Lēgāt, which is concluded to be a separate group (VIII) in this study, will be referred to as 'LA.

The dialect of the Mzēnah and that of the Baniy Wāşil are treated separately in chapter II (as group VI).<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Being the capital of the governorate South Sinai, a large proportion of its inhabitants are mainland Egyptians, who work there as civil servants.

<sup>2</sup> This is not to say that the dialectal varieties found there, or whatever has resulted so far from contact between the different varieties, would be uninteresting. A description of the linguistic dynamics found in this town would however deserve much more space than can be afforded in this study.

<sup>3</sup> Von Oppenheim 1942:156 mentions the tribes of Şawālĥah, 'Lēgāt, Ğbāliyyah and Mzēnah as parts of the Ṭuwara. For a brief summary of their history, see Von Oppenheim 1942:156–166. See also Maiberger 1984:139–149 on the different tribal collectives that inhabit the region of southern Sinai. Ibid.:156–157 mentions Baniy Wāşil as an off-shoot of Baniy 'Ugbah of the Ĥiġāz and as one of the oldest tribes of the Ṭūr area, having arrived there after the ĤamāÐah.

<sup>4</sup> Although the dirah of the Taṛābīn of Şadr borders directly on that of the 'Lēgāt to their south, the majority of Taṛābīn live in the northern part in and around Rās Şadr and Aḅuw Şwayrah leaving the southern part of Tuṛbāniy territory (along the coast on the Gulf of Suez) near 'Lēgiy territory virtually uninhabited.

<sup>5</sup> I have concluded on linguistic grounds that the dialects of the southern part of Sinai (i.e. excluding group I dialects) can be assigned to three different groups.

1. PHONOLOGY

1.1. *Consonants*

1.1.1. *Inventory of consonants*

The inventory of consonantal phonemes of ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA is identical with that of group VI (described in chapter II):

	bilabial		labdent.		alveolar		intdent.		postalv.		palatal		velar		uvul.		phar.		laryng.	
	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd
plosive		b			t	d							k	g	(q)					(ʻ)
emph.					ṭ								ḳ <sup>*1</sup>							
nasal		m			n															
fricative			f		s	z	ṯ	ḏ	š	(ž)			x	ḡ			ħ	ʕ	h	
emph.					ṣ	(ẓ)		ḏ̣												
affricate												ǧ								
trill					r															
emph.					(ṛ)															
lateral					l															
emph.					ḷ															
glides		w									y									

vd = voiced, vl = voiceless, emph. = emphatic/velarized

\*1 The greatest difference with the phoneme inventory of group I is the presence of both phonemes /k/ and /ḳ/, which is also a feature of group II in the north (see De Jong 2000:248, 282–285) and of dialects of group VI. Like in MzA (see chapter II), a minimal pair *bētḳ—bētḳ* (i.e. a strictly phonological representation being /bētḳ/—/bētḳ/) “your (sg. masc.—sg. fem.) house” isolates /k/ and /ḳ/ as phonemes in ṬwA and also in HnA and in ‘LA.<sup>6</sup>

1.1.2. *Interdental fricatives /ṯ/, /ḏ/ and /ḏ̣/*

Like in almost all Sinai dialects, reflexes of \*ṯ and \*ḏ are interdental *ṯ* and *ḏ* (I.P.A. [θ] and [ð] respectively). Examples listed below can be heard in all dialects discussed here.

Examples of /ṯ/ for \*ṯ are: *ḳṯār* “many (pl.)”, *ṯalātīn* “thirty”, *ṯūm* “garlic”.

<sup>6</sup> The conclusion of vowelless personal pronominal suffixes is drawn from the fact that suffixation of these pronominals will result in consonant clusters, which then draw stress onto a directly preceding short vowel, e.g. *wálad + k > waládk* “your (sg. masc.) son” and *wálad + k > waládk* “your (sg. fem.) son” (see 2.1.1.1. and NOTE in 3.1.12.2.). This is in contrast to the pron. suffix *-k* for the sg. masc. in the Naǧḏiy dialect of the Dawāǧrah of the north, where a final cluster *-Ck* will not attract stress onto the directly preceding vowel, e.g. *wáladk* “your son”, *ṯabbna yḳrimk* “may our Lord have mercy on you” (see De Jong 2000:434–435 and 450–451).

Examples of /d/ for \*ḏ are: *tāxdin* “you (pl. fem.) take”, *bdār* “seeds” (but see remark below) and *dān* “ear”.

There are also exceptions: “refrigerator”<sup>7</sup> and “ice; snow” are with plosive *t* (for \*ṭ) in ṬWA and 'LA: *tillāğah* and *talğ*.

The reflex for \*ṭ may be *s*—mainly so in lexemes which must have been borrowed from or through a dialect without interdental, like Cairene<sup>8</sup>—as in *masalan* “for instance”, *masal* “(wise) saying”, *ḥādsih* “accident”, *mērūs* “inherited” (see also remark in 1.2.4.1.), *yisig bēhuṇ* “he trusts them”, *sābtah* “fixed (sg. fem.)” and for *z* for \*ḏ, as in *bizr* “seed” and *bizrih* “seed (n.u.)” (though pl. *bdār!* and *budrah* “seeds (like powder) from a palm tree” (the latter in HnA) and *kaza* “such and so”).

Emphatic interdental *ḏ* (I.P.A. velarized [ð̣]) is the reflex of both \*ḏ and \*ḏ̣, e.g. (as the reflex of \*ḏ in) *Ramaḏān* “Ramadan”, *itnaḏḏifhi* # “you clean it (sg. fem.)”, *ḏāf* “guest” and *‘uridha* “its (sg. fem.) width” and (as a reflex for \*ḏ̣ in) *thāfid* ‘*ilēh* “you protect it” (but *maḥafūz!*), *xudriy* “type of green tobacco”, *awaḏ* “compensation”.

Like in group VI, *z* is the current reflex in lexemes like *mwazzaf* “civil servant”, *zābit* “officer”, *b-izẓabt* “precisely”, *binzabbit* “we do a proper job”, *nizām* “system”. Some other examples are: *btizhar* “she becomes lucky”, *nazarīyruk* “your (critical) vision”, *biybawwizha* “he ruins it (sg. fem.)”, *mazbūt* “precise(ly)” and *maḥafūz* “well-kept”.<sup>9</sup>

In ṬWA and HnA the sg. masc. demonstrative (*hā-*)*da* ~ *dī* “this (sg. masc.)” is not velarized. Also *hāda* (~ less frequent *da* or *dī*) in 'LA lacks velarization.

### 1.1.3. Velar stops /k/ and /g/

Like in all other dialects of Sinai, \*k and \*q have unaffricated reflexes *k* and *g*.

In ṬWA, HnA and also in 'LA *ḵ* and *k* are heard and all have a minimal pair showing phonemic opposition *bēt<sup>u</sup>ḵ* “your (sg. masc.) house”—*bēt<sup>f</sup>k* “your (sg. fem.) house”.

In ḤmA the suffix *-kiy* for the 2nd p. sg. fem. is also used (though not *-ak* for the sg. masc.!), but mainly when *v̄* precedes, e.g. *warākiy* “behind you

<sup>7</sup> For “freezer” I recorded *flēzar* in ŞWA.

<sup>8</sup> For the following examples in Cairene Arabic, see Hinds and Badawi 1986.

<sup>9</sup> For ĞBA Nishio 1992 reports *ḏ* for \*ḏ in *bidr* (p. 18 (III-16)), *ḏ* in *m(u)waḏḏaf* (p. 58 (VIII-40)) and *ḥafaḏ*, *yahafaḏ* (p. 96 (XIV-26)). The emphatic plosive *ḏ* (pp. 5–6 (I-42)) is reported in *dēḏ*, *dyūḏ* “breast” and in *ğaḏbān* “angry” (p. 116 (XVI-22)).

(sg. fem.), *fikiy* “in you (sg. fem.)” and *‘ilēkiy* “on you (sg. fem.)” (the latter ~ *‘ilik*). In ‘LA too this allomorph *-kiy* varies with *-k* when *v̄* precedes.

In the word “cigarette” we hear *g* rather than *ǧ* (recorded in GrA, ĞbA and BWA): *sgārah* (pl. *saḡāyir*).

#### 1.1.4. Post alveolar affricate /ǧ/

The fricative allophone *ž* (I.P.A. [ʒ], i.e. without the initial full closure of [d]) for /ǧ/ is very frequent in ṬwA.<sup>10</sup> It was not heard in HnA or ‘LA.

#### 1.1.5. Emphatic alveolar stop /ṭ/

Glottalization of the emphatic *ṭ* was not noticed as a characteristic of ṬwA, HnA or ‘LA.

#### 1.1.6. Glottal stop (hamzah)

The reflex for \*ʾ in the verb *ask* is ‘ in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA *sa‘al, yas‘al*.<sup>11</sup>

In \**ra’s* “head”, loss of ‘ is complemented by lengthening the preceding vowel *rās* in all dialects. The pl. is *rūs* in ĞbA, ṢwA, HnA and ‘LA, but pl. *ryūs* in GrA, ASA and ḤmA.

Reflexes of the pl. pattern CiCaC (or CuCaC) are often áCCaC in ṢwA, GrA, ASA and HnA (e.g. *áḡgan* “injections”, *ášnaṭ* “suitcases”, *árkab* “knees”, *ánxaṭ* “noses”). The *hamzah* that precedes this initial *a-* (e.g. # *‘anxaṭ*) is dropped when it directly follows a consonant, e.g. (*i*)*lášnaṭ* “the suitcases”.

In ĞbA I have only recorded *šnaṭ* as in *hāt iššnáṭ* “get the suitcases!”, (*i*)*lí’náb* “the grapes”, (*i*)*liḡgán* “the injections”.<sup>12</sup> Similar forms are current in ‘LA.

<sup>10</sup> Bernabela 2009 transcribes *ž* throughout his texts for ĞbA.

<sup>11</sup> Also reported for ĞbA in Nishio 1992:73–74 (X-9).

<sup>12</sup> For ĞbA Nishio 1992:38 (V-35) recorded (*šanṭāt* ~) *šonaṭ* as pl. for *šanṭa*. Similarly (p. 36 (V-25)) plurals are (*šōkāt* ~) *šowak*, (p. 34 (V-9)) (pl. of *golle*) *golal* “water jars”, (pl. of *ḥōša*) (*ḥōšāt* ~) *ḥowaṣ*, (p. 34 (V-9)) (known in other parts of Sinai as *xūšah*) “knife”, (pl. of *ḥalle*) (*ḥallāt* ~) *ḥelal* (p. 34 (V-10)) “cooking pot”, *nogaṭ* (pl. of *nogṭa*) (p. 143 (XX-11)) “point, dot” etc., but *lōḍa* “room” (with (originally) the article incorporated in the stem as a first radical!) and the pl. form coined on the pattern *aCCaC* *alwaḍ* (p. 26 (IV-6)). Of these pl. forms only the last strikes me as proper ĞbA. The other plurals of the pattern CiCaC are likely to be K-forms; such plurals are also current in e.g. Cairene.

1.1.7. *Secondary velarization*

There is a clear lack of velarization in ASA, ŖwA, GrA and HnA forms *rikkih*, *árkab* (pl. *rkab* in ĤmA and ĞbA) “knee(s)”. All dialects discussed in this chapter have a pl. demonstrative *dill* (-*ih*) “these” (although ~ *dum* for pl. masc.) and also the sg. masc. demonstrative is without velarization: (*hā-*) *da* ~ *dī* “this”.

Velarization spreads into the long *ā* in *kubḥāyih* in all dialects, except in ĞbA and HnA (there *kubbāyih*) and in all dialects, except ‘LA, the pl. forms of *kiṭīr* “much, many” and *kibīr* “big; old” both lack velarization: forms are *ktār* and *kbār* (*ā* is just below I.P.A. [ɛ:]) and also *kamān* “also” is not velarized. In ‘LA, however, the pl. for *kibīr* is velarized, while the pl. for *kiṭīr* is not: ‘LA forms are *kḥār* (I.P.A. [kba:ɣ]) and *ktār* (I.P.A. [kθæ:ɣ]).

Imperatives of the verbs “eat” and “take” are clearly velarized, i.e. and (*u*)*ḥul*, (*u*)*ḥlīy*, etc. and similarly so in ‘LA, but there without the initial *u-*.

Imperfect forms vary (per dialect) in degree of velarization, but all dialects (though in ASA *yākul* ~ *yākil*) have *u* as a base vowel: *yāxud*, *yākul*. In ‘LA velarization is clear in *yāḥul* and *yāḥud* (but also *yākil* and *yāxid* were recorded there).

The other forms listed for group VI may also be heard in ṬwA and HnA. Some additional examples for ṬwA and HnA are: *ištáḡal* “he worked”, *yīštáḡluw* “they work”, *saḥxnāh* “we slaughtered it”, *ḡāl* “say”, *ṣamḥah* “sand”, *ḡalḥān* “poor, wretched”, *burduḡāl* “orange[s]” and *xālī* “my uncle”. In ‘LA there are forms like *ḡāl*, *yḡūl* “say”, *xallāha* “he let her”, *txallhin* “you let them (fem.)”, *aṣṣamḥah* “the Sands (area south of the Tih escarpment)”, *ḡabīl* “before”, *naxál* “palm trees”, *ḡalīḡah* “thick (sg. fem.)”, *ṣuḡl* “genitive marker”.

1.1.8. *Liquids ḡ and ṣ*

Generally, like in group I, the sequence *ār* will be velarized (I.P.A. [a:ɣ]), unless *i* follows within morpheme boundaries (see also De Jong 2000:65–67). An exception is the pl. forms for *kiṭīr* “many” and *kibīr* “big; old” which are unvelarized *ktār* and *kbār* in ṬwA and HnA (i.e. ending in I.P.A. [a:ɣ]), but (unvelarized) *ktār* and (velarized) *kḥār* in ‘LA.

Examples with velarized *ār* listed for group VI may also be heard in ṬwA and HnA. Some additional examples are: *fār* “dust”, *zwārah* “(annual) visit to the tomb of a *wiliy*”, *zyārah* “visit”, *dāruh* “his house”, *fār* “rats; mice” and *ḡizzār* “butcher”, *sqārah* “cigarette”. Some ‘LA examples are *fār*, *dār*,

*Badārah* “name of a neighbouring tribe”, *‘amār* “enough (said to politely refuse tea or coffee)”, *nār* “fire”, *nahār* “daytime”.

Like in group VI, velarization is prevented by (even when elided) *i* following an *ār* sequence within morpheme boundaries, e.g.: *wārid* “having watered” and *wārdih* “having watered (sg. fem.)”, *šārib*, (pl.) *šuwārib* “lip”, *imbāriḥ* “yesterday”, *bārdih* “cold (sg. fem.)”, *bikāriġ* “coffee pots”. Examples in ‘LA are: *sāriḥ* “having taken the small cattle out to graze”, *‘arif* “knowing”, *ḥāriṭ* “ploughing”, *šārib* “lip” and *taġārib* “experiences”.

Also sequences *rā* are generally not velarized when (vanished) *i* follows in the next syllable within morpheme boundaries or precedes. Examples listed for group VI are also heard in ṬwA and HnA. More examples are: *farāšīḥ* “loaves of bread baked on the *šāz* (= *šāġ*)”, *zrā‘ah* “agriculture”, *darāhim* “money”, *drā‘* (< \**dirā‘*) “arm”, *mifṭirāt* or *mifitrāt* “having eaten breakfast (pl. fem.)” and also (in ASA) *zērān*, pl. of *zōr* “throat”. Examples in ‘LA are: *iġrān* “feet”,<sup>13</sup> *rā‘iy* “herdsman”, *Garārših* “name of tribe”.

#### 1.1.9. Nasal *n*

No remarks.

#### 1.1.10. Devoicing of final voiced stops, liquids and nasals in pause

Devoicing of final voiced stops liquids and nasals in pause is regular in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA.

### 1.2. Vowels

#### 1.2.1. Inventory of vowel phonemes

The inventory for vowel phonemes in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA contains three short vowels and five long vowels:

short:	<i>i</i>	<i>u</i>	long:	<i>ī</i>	<i>ū</i>
				<i>ē</i>	<i>ō</i>
	<i>a</i>			<i>ā</i>	

<sup>13</sup> *iġr*, pl. *iġrān* “foot”. The root *‘-ġ-r* is also current for “foot” in dialects of the Šām, see e.g. Hava 1982.

1.2.2. *Long vowels*1.2.2.1. *Allophones of long vowels ē and ī*

Unlike in group I dialects, and like in group VI, phonetic overlapping of /ē/ and /ī/ is rare in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

The phonemic status of /ē/ and /ī/ can be established with the same minimal pairs as in group VI.

A difference with group VI is that diphthong \**ay* has also been monophthongized to /ē/, even in positions preceded by emphatics or back spirants (see also 1.2.4.).

The risk of homophonic clash of low reflexes of \**ay* and high realizations of /ā/ is largely avoided;<sup>14</sup> low realizations of /ē/ occur after emphatics or back spirants and are then near I.P.A. [ɛ:] (indicated here as *ā̄*, e.g. *xār* “good”, *ħāt* “walls”), but realizations of /ā/ following emphatics tend to be near [ɑ:] and /ā/ following back spirants (if not velarized, like in e.g. *xāf* [xɑ:f] “he feared” and *ġāb* [ɣɑ:b] “he was absent”) are nearer to [ɑ:], e.g. *ħāl* “state” and *ām* “he floated”.

1.2.2.2. *Allophones of long vowels ō and ū*

Like diphthong \**ay*, diphthong \**aw* has been monophthongized to /ō/, even when it is preceded by emphatics or back spirants, (see also 1.2.4.).

The minimal pairs for group VI also isolate phonemes in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

In positions influenced by velarization, /ū/ is realized relatively low, near I.P.A. [o:], but /ō/ is realized even lower: in that case /ō/ tends to be lowered to near I.P.A. [ɔ:], e.g. *xɔ:f* “fear” and *ħɔ:l* “year”.

In verbs with *wāw* as *C*<sub>1</sub> the diphthong *aw* has usually been monophthongized, as is illustrated in e.g. *nōgaf* “we stand” and also *tōgid* “you light” (both in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA). In all dialects discussed here the imperative of *w-ʿy* “pay attention, take heed” has an initial diphthong: *awʿin rūskin/ryūskin* “mind (pl. fem.) your heads!”.

1.2.2.3. *Allophones of long vowel ā*

The long vowel *ā* may have a realization as high as somewhere between I.P.A. [æ:] and [ɛ:]. This occurs in neutral positions and is not dependant on following by *i* or *ī* in the next syllable (but within morpheme boundaries), e.g. *fūršāħah* “loaf of bread from a *šāġ*” and also the realization of /ā/ in *zimān* “in the past”, *īyyām* “days”, *ħayāħ* “life” and *siyāl* (raised *a* in

<sup>14</sup> The word ‘avoided’ is not intended to imply a conscious choice by speakers.

*sayāl*) “acacia tree”. Realizations of /ā/ are not noticeably different when *i* follows in the next syllable (within morpheme boundaries), as in *ysābig* “he races”.

ā in velarized environments is realized near I.P.A. [ɑ:], as in *rāsī* “my head”, *dārī* “my house” and *ǧārī* “my neighbour”.

The difference in realizations of ā in *rāsī* and *rāsīy* may be explained by recognizing either /ā/ and velarized /ā/ as separate phonemes, or /r/ and velarized /r/ as separate phonemes. A similar difference in the realization of ā (and *r*) is found in e.g. the pair *fāris* (I.P.A. [ˈfæ:ris]) “knight”—*fār* (I.P.A. [fɑ:ɾ]) “mouse; rat”.<sup>15</sup>

#### 1.2.2.4. Shortening of long vowels

Like in group I dialects, shortening of unstressed long vowels is a characteristic of allegro style of speech in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA as well.

#### 1.2.3. Short vowels

##### 1.2.3.1. Isolating phonemes /i/, /u/ and /a/

Minimal pairs producing the phonemes /i/, /u/ and /a/ in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are listed below. In a number of (near) minimal pairs /i/ and /u/ can be isolated as phonemes, but these are only found in closed syllables:

<i>xiḍr</i> “male given name”	– <i>xuḍr</i> “green (pl. com.)”
<i>xirm</i> “long species of fish”	– <i>xuɾm</i> “hole”
<i>gurb</i> “nearness”	– <i>girbih</i> “watersack”
<i>hibb</i> “kiss!”	– <i>ḥubb</i> “love”
<i>ṣifr</i> “zero”	– <i>ṣufr</i> “yellow (pl. com.)”
<i>šigguh</i> “his guest section of the tent”	– <i>šuggah</i> “fishing net”

Minimal pairs to isolate /a/ on the one hand, and /i/ or /u/ on the other hand are much easier to find, e.g.:

<i>ḥabb</i> “grain”	– <i>ḥubb</i> “love”
<i>ḥatt</i> “he placed”	– <i>ḥutt</i> “place!”
<i>šadd</i> “he pulled”	– <i>šidd!</i> “pull!”

An additional minimal pair is (verbal measure 4) *yin'im* “bestow favours”—(verbal measure 1) *yun'im* “become soft”.

<sup>15</sup> Bernabela 2009:13 gives IPA [ɛ:] in neutral environments, [ɑ:] following ʻ and ḥ, and [ɑ:] in velarized environments.

1.2.3.2. *Phonetic factors influencing the quality of I*

In principle, distribution of short high vowels *i* and *u* is governed by the same rules as described for group I in De Jong 2000:70–74: a short high vowel tends to be *u* in velarized and/or labial environment, otherwise *i*.

In the pl. com. forms for colours and physical defects all dialects show C<sub>1</sub>uC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub> as the pattern, i.e. like in MzA of group VI. Only in ĞbA both 'imy and 'umy were recorded for “blind”.<sup>16</sup>

All dialects of group VII (except ASA and ĤmA, see 3.2.2.3.) have only *u* as imperfect vowel of primae hamzah verbs: *yāxud* and *yākul* “he takes” and “he eats”. In 'LA imperfect forms both with *i* as well as *u* were heard.

Also *u* in the sg. masc. imperative: *kul* and *xud* “eat!” and “take!” (resp.) and clear velarization, caused by the ‘vanished’ *u*:<sup>17</sup> *xđiy* and *kđiy* (sg. fem.), *xđuw* and *kđuw* (pl. masc.) and *xđin* and *kđin* (pl. fem.).

Imperfect forms of mediae geminatae verbs recorded in group VII corroborate the rule formulated in De Jong 2000:72–73: *u* appears near primary and (potentially) secondary emphatics, while *i* appears in neutral environments.

Examples listed for group VI may be heard with the same high vowels in ʦwA and HnA. Some additional examples are: (*u* in) *yruşş* “pile up”, *yruġġ* “flatten”, *ybuġġ* “spit”, *yxurř* “leak water”, *yħukk* “rub” and (*i* in) *ydizz* “push”, *yhiġġ* “run away”, *yġizz* “shear (wool of sheep)”, *yġiss* “test”, *y'izz* ‘ala “hurt”, *yšinn* “sizzle (in hot oil)”, *yħill* “be ĥalāl”, *yġiff* “become dry” and *yšigg* “split”.<sup>18</sup>

1.2.3.3. *Morphological conditioning of the short high vowel*

Morphological conditioning of the high vowel is like in group VI.

The exception to morphological conditioning noticed in group VI is also in group VII found in some forms coloured by the extreme velarization caused by the pronominal suffix *-k* or *-uk*. Examples in group VII are (a measure 1 medial geminate verb) *wala yhumṃuḵ* “don’t let it bother you!”, (colouring of the suffixed fem. morpheme *-it-*) *nuxřút<sup>u</sup>k* “your nose”, *şuġħút<sup>u</sup>k* “yours (sg. fem.)”, and (colouring of *i* in the act. participle of measure 3) *ana mkāwúnk* “I’m fighting you”.

<sup>16</sup> Nishio 1992:2 (I-9) reports ‘mī (which must be a misprint for mī) for ĞbA.

<sup>17</sup> See remarks in Blanc 1970:127–128.

<sup>18</sup> It is not clear why *ydugg* “punch”, *ylugg* “hit” is usually with *u*, while *yšigg* is with *i*, but similar variation was noticed for the high vowel in the contiguity of *k* (e.g. *yřikk* and *yřukk* “untie”, but in different dialects) see De Jong 2000:73–74. Cf. also the verb *katt*, and the imperfect is then *ykit* or *ykut* “go downstream in a wadi”, as reported for group I dialects in Chapter III, 1.2.3.2.

1.2.3.4. *Allophones of short vowels*

Allophones of short vowels do not differ much from what was described for group I in De Jong 2000:74–77, although some allophones, notably of /a/, may appear in environments different—or are more frequent, or less frequent—from those in group I.

1.2.3.4.1. *Allophones of /i/*

Allophones of /i/ are like those described for group VI.

1.2.3.4.2. *Allophones of /u/*

Allophones of /u/ are like those described for group VI.

1.2.3.4.3. *Allophones of /a/*1.2.3.4.3.1. */a/ in non-raised positions*

Allophones of /a/ in non-raised positions are like those described for group VI.

1.2.3.4.3.2. *Raising of (\*)/a/ preceding long stressed vowels*

Like in group VI, *a* is raised in a great number of stress-preceding positions in ṬwA, HnA and also ṬA:

- preceding stressed Cī: *ǧirīd* “palm leaves”, *midīnih* “town”, *digīg* “dough”, *xifǧ* “light”, *irīs* “bridegroom”, *hirīd* “parrot fish”, and also *Ilý* “male given name \**Alī*” and verb forms *nisīt* “I forgot”, *ligūt* “I found” and even 1st p. sg. com. imperfect forms of mediae *yā*’ verbs *išil* “I carry” *irīd* “I want” (see remark \* below).

Such raising is not inhibited by any phonetic factors, but is optional, as may be concluded from many examples which show *a* in such positions as well, e.g. *kaṭīr* “much, many”, *kabīr* “big; old”, *taxīn* “thick”, *ṭawīl* “long, tall”, *dagīg* “dough”, *xamīs* “Thursday”, *ḥadīd* “iron”.

- no instances were recorded of raised *a* preceding stressed CCī: *baṭṭīx* “watermelon”, *sakkīnah* “knife”, *barmīl* “drum”, *Katrīn* “(St.) Catherine” and also *garnīt* “octopus” (similarly in ṬA).
- (preceding stressed Cē): *ilēkum* “on you (pl. masc.)”, *ligēnāh* “we found him”, *mišēt* “he walked”, *fidēt* “I sacrificed”. In ṬA raising of *a* preceding *ē* in the suffixed preposition *‘ala* was not observed: *alēha* “on her” (but there was raising in *ilūh*, see remark \*4 in 3.1.16.).
- (preceding CCē) *middēt* “I stretched”, *sawwēt* “I did/made” and *istamirrēna* “we continued”, *istaiddēt* “I prepared”.<sup>19</sup>

<sup>19</sup> Such raising is not consistently reported for ḠbA in Nishio 1992. Among isolated examples there, however, is: *sawwēt* “I made” (p. 99 (XIV-37)).

- (preceding stressed Cā): *midāris* “schools”, *misāfih* “distance”, *filāyik iššēd* “(small) fishing boats (with sails)”, *bihāyim* “cattle (pl.)”, *dibāyih* “animals for slaughter”, *digāyig* “minutes”. In ḶA such raising also takes place (but is less frequent than in ṬwA and HnA): *gibāyil* “tribes”, but *manātiġ* “regions”, *mašāyix* “sheikhs” and *ġawāliġ* “carpets”.
  - (preceding stressed CCā): *niġġār* “carpenter”, *tillāġah* “fridge”, *zihġānīn* “fed up (pl. masc.)”, *šigrā* “white (sg. fem.)”, *tuṛmā* “gap-toothed (sg. fem.)”, In ḶA such raising occurs mainly in neutral environments: *kislān* “lazy”, *wiġʿān* “suffering pain” and *suwwāġ* “driver”, but *ʿaṭšān* “thirsty”, *ġaltān* “wrong”, *ġalbān* “poor, destitute”, *fallāḥ* “farmer” and also (but without apparent phonetic factors inhibiting raising) *šabʿān* “having eaten one’s fill”.<sup>20</sup>
  - (preceding stressed ū): *buxūr* “incense”, *xurūf* “lamb”, *ġinūb* ~ *ġunūb* “south” and (with initial \*hamzah) *ubūy* “my father” and *uxūy* “my brother”, and also 1st p. sg. com. imperfect forms of mediae *wāw* verbs *ugūm* “I get up”, *ugūl* “I say” (see remark \* below). Similar examples in ḶA are *guʿūd* “young male camel”, *fuṭūr* “breakfast”, *lugūḥ* “pregnant (of a camel)”, *ubūh* “his father”.
- Like raising of *a* preceding *ī*, raising of *a* preceding *ū* is optional; forms like *ʿaġūz* “old lady”, *ġanūb* “south”, *yahūd* “Jews” may also be heard. In ḶA: *rasūl* “Prophet”, *ḥamūlah* “animal led to a party for slaughter as a present”.
- (preceding stressed *a*): *ma tiḥatkūniš* “not under you”, *ma tiḥáthiš* “not under her”, *ʿiláy* “on me”, *ġimálʿk*, “your camel” and in ḶA *ġimál* “camel”.
  - (preceding stressed *u*): *uxušš* “I enter”, *ugušš* “I follow tracks” and in ḶA *ʿilūh* “on him” (see remark \*<sup>4</sup> in 3.1.16.).
  - (preceding stressed *i*, verb forms) *išidd* “I pull”, *iliff* “I wrap” (see remark \* below).

In ṬwA and HnA stress in perfect forms of verbal measures *n-1* and *1-t* is *inwákal*, *ittáfag*, etc. (see 2.1.1.1.). The article is not stressed in a sequence *ilCvCv(+)* (see 2.1.1.).

<sup>20</sup> Some examples of such raising reported for ĜbA in Nishio 1992 are: *rijjāl* “man” (p. 48 (VII-11)), *fillāḥ* “peasant, farmer” (p. 59 (VIII-44)), *keslān* “lazy” (p. 110 (XV-31)), *defyān* “warm” (p. 123 (XVII-32)), *telfān* “slender” (p. 125 (XX-25)) and *wusxān* “dirty” (p. 152 (XXI-30)), but no raising in *ḥallāġ* “barber”, *najjār* “carpenter”, *ḥaddād* “smith” (p. 58 (VIII-37, 38, 39)), *ṭayyāra* “aeroplane”, *barrād* “teapot” (p. 99 (XIV-37)), *ġaḍbān* “angry” (with *ḍ!*) (p. 116 (XVI-22)) and *makkār* “cunning” (p. 148 (XXI-8)).

In ‘LA stress in verbal measures *n-1* and *1-t* is like in group ṬwA and HnA: *inwákal*, *ittáfag*, but in ‘LA the article—like in groups I and VI—is stressable in a sequence alCvCv(+), e.g. *álǧimal* “the camel” and *áddawa* “the medicine”.

Again like in groups I and VI, when *a* follows stressed *i* in closed syllable, it is raised in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA, as in imperfects of measures *n-1* and *1-t*: *yínḍirib* “he is beaten”, *yíttifig* “he agrees”.<sup>21</sup>

\* Forms like *axušš*, *aḥutt*, *ašidd*, *aliff* etc. may also be heard in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA, but it is not possible to conclude here whether raising of *a* (> *uḥutt*, *išidd*, etc.) is optional, or whether forms without raising are actually loans from a dialect where such raising does not take place (like e.g. Cairene). The same holds for variation in forms like *ugūm-agūm* “I rise” and *išil-ašil* “I carry”.

#### 1.2.3.4.3.3. Raising of the feminine morpheme (T)

The *a* of the fem. morpheme is regularly raised in neutral environments and reaches a phonetic value near I.P.A. [ɪh].<sup>22</sup>

Such raising is basically a pausal phenomenon. Examples are: *ilká’akah díy bya’aginha ‘aǧin mazbūṭ xāliṣ* “(for) this ka’akah he kneads the dough extremely well”, *tíšluh šwayyah nihā w šwayyah nihā bitkūn il’ariḍ . . . suxnat* “you take it out, a bit here and a bit here (i.e. there) and the ground will have become hot”.

Examples with raising in pause *ḥilwah ḥilwah bitnaḍḍfilmi’ dih . . .* “good, good, it (sg. fem.) cleans the stomach” and *lamma btínḥišiy tamir . . . bingūl ‘alēha šannih* “when it is stuffed with dates . . . we call it a basket”. Examples in ‘LA: *hāda kamān gabūlt i’Lēgāt . . . barḍuḵ faḍākih* “this is also the ‘Lēgāt tribe . . . there too” and *‘irf aḍḍēf min bi’id, ḡāy min iblād tānyih* “he knew that the guest came from far, that he had come from another land.”

In velarized environments such raising does not take place, e.g. *‘a ḥḥāṭah #* “on the wall”, *ngārah #* “carpentry”. *txallḥa ḡalīḍah #* “you make (lit. let be) it (sg. fem.) thick”, *naḥs ilḡiṣṣah #* “the same story”.

<sup>21</sup> And like in group VI, in the verb forms *yínḍirib* and *yíttifig*, the raised *a* will again ‘surface’ as *a* when in closed syllables, e.g. *yinḍárbuw* and *yittáḡguw*, see also 3.2.3.1.1.

<sup>22</sup> Nishio 1992:XV reports ‘imālah up to I.P.A. [ɛ] in ĠbA. My impression was that it could reach up to [ɪ] in ĠbA, and often with a following glottal stop when final [ɛ] represented final *-ā* or *-ā’*.

In ṬwA and HnA raising is not inhibited by the pharyngeals ' and ĥ, e.g. *wās'ih* # “wide (sg. fem.)”, *sab'ih* # “seven”, *ilFāṭḥih* # “the Fāṭḥah sūrah”, *dībīḥih* “animal for slaughter”.

#### 1.2.3.5. *Prosodic lengthening of short vowels*

To express extra emphasis, such as on long durations of time, long distances, great quantities and the like, speakers often prosodically lengthen short vowels. Examples are: *la ḥa:dd sanah xamsih* “(I was in school all the time) until the fifth year” and *iysallūh 'ala nnār kidiy lamma: yansāf* “they cook it over the fire like this (all the time) until it dries”.

#### 1.2.4. *Long vowels and diphthongs*

##### 1.2.4.1. *Monophthongization of diphthongs \*ay and \*aw*

In positions not influenced by velarization, or preceded by X, older diphthongs \*ay and \*aw have in most cases become monophthongal ē and ō with realizations near I.P.A. [e:] and [o:].

Examples of /ē/ for \*ay are: *itnēn* “two”, *bēn* “between”, *lēlih* “evening”, *sēl* “flood”, *ġwēl* (dim. of *ġāl*) “little side” and examples for /ō/ for \*aw are *mōt* “death”, *yōm* “day”, *fōg* “above”, *sōdīy* “black (sg. fem.)”, *gōmah* “(manner of) standing up”.

When \*ay and \*aw are preceded by X or velarized consonants, they have been monophthongized to be /ē/ and /ō/ as well, but are usually realized a little lower than I.P.A. [e:] and [o:], just above [ɛ:] and [ɔ:].

Examples are (for /ē/) *'ān* “eye”, *d'āfīn* “little children”, *ḥāṭah* “wall”, *xār* “good”, *şād* “hunting”, *dāf* “guest”, *ṭār* “birds”, and verbs *ḥaṭṭāna* “we placed” and *iştarāna* “we bought” and (for /ō/) *ḥo:l* “year”, *'o:dah* “male given name 'Ōdah”, *xo:f* “fear”, *šo:t* “sound; voice”, though when *h* precedes, /ē/ or /ō/, it is near I.P.A. [e:] and [o:] (resp.), as in *Aḥuw Hēb* “name of a snake charmer (of the Awlād Sa'īd)” and *hōdaġ* “camel litter (formerly used for the bride in a wedding procession)”.

In a few cases the diphthong \*aw has a /ē/ reflex: *mēġūd* (though ~ *mawġūd*, root *w-ġ-d*) “present”, *mērūs* “inherited” (root *w-r-ṭ*, see remark in 1.1.2.) and also *mērakah* (root *w-r-k*) “leather riding cushion supporting the lower leg”.

In some cases monophthongization in neutral environments has not taken place, *mawġūd* “present (adj.)”, *aw'a* “watch out!”<sup>23</sup> and also *taybīs*

<sup>23</sup> In ŞwA, ASA and HnA *aw'a* is conjugated: *aw'a tans!*, *aw'iy tansiy!*, etc. “don't you forget!” In the other dialects it was left unconjugated for number and gender, e.g. *aw'a tansin* “don't you (pl. fem.) forget”.

“drying”. The advantage is that arrangement of root consonants in the various morphological patterns has remained transparent.

In ‘LA the form *zraygān* “dark-coloured thoroughbred camel” was recorded, which is probably a loan from group I type dialects.<sup>24</sup>

The suffixed preposition *lay* “to me” and also *bay* “with me” are actually better interpreted as *lay + y* and *bay + y*.

#### 1.2.4.2. Isolating long vowels /ī/, /ū/, /ā/, /ē/ and /ō/ as phonemes

Phonetic overlapping of /ē/ and /ī/ in neutral environments is not characteristic of ṬWA, HnA or ‘LA.

Minimal pairs to isolate phonemes in group VI also work here:

*dēr* “monastery”—*dīr* “turn (trans.)!”—*dūr* “turn (intrans.)!”—*dōr* “floor (in a building)”—*dār* “house”  
*ġībuh* “bring it!”—*ġēbuh* “his pocket”—*ġābuh* “he brought it”  
*gōm* “enemy tribe”—*gūm* “get up!”

Suffixed prepositions *lay* “to me”, *‘alay* “on me” and *fay* “in me” are actually better interpreted as final *ay + y*; *fayy* must have been formed in analogy to the former two forms.

In *law* “if” and *aw* “or” the diphthong has remained intact.

#### 1.2.4.3. Allophones of ā

Like in the dialect of the Ṭarābīn of group I, *ā* in neutral surroundings is realized as near I.P.A. [ɛ:]. Unlike Turbāniy, however, *ā* in open syllable and neutral surroundings does not need Ci following within morpheme boundaries for such I.P.A. values to be reached.

In MzA this [ɛ:] for *ā* is reached also when āC is morpheme-final, e.g. *ktār* “many (pl. com.)”, *šgāg* “compartments of the tent”, *hbāl* “ropes”, *šāših* “screen” and also *wāhid* “one”, *sārhih* “out grazing (goats and sheep)”, *nāgtī* “my she-camel”.

#### 1.2.4.4. Reflexes of final \*-ā(ʾ)

Like in group VI, the reflex of final \*-ā in neutral environments in ṬWA and HnA is often -iʾ. Like in group VI, stress will be on the vowel of a heavy sequence that precedes, but in in group VII this includes vowels that were originally anaptyctics and which have become part of the morphophonemic base.

<sup>24</sup> See Stewart 1990:286 (glossary). A *wḍayhān* is a light-coloured thoroughbred he-camel, see *ibid.* 276. A clue for these forms to be of group I origin is the hypocoristic -*an* suffix in these names, see De Jong 2000:153.

Another difference is stress in a sequence CaCa(C): CáCa(C) in VI and CaCá(C) in VII. Examples of such differences in stress are:

group VI and 'LA	group VII	
šti'	íšti'	"winter"
ṣalāt ilí'ší', ṣalāt í'ší'	ṣalāt tlí'ší'	"the evening prayer"

Group VI 'išt', group VII and 'LA 'áští\* "dinner"

\* When *a* directly precedes the reflex of final *\*-ā(')* in open syllable, it is usually not raised.<sup>25</sup> More often, forms are like *il'áša'*, *ilǧáda'*. Forms with raising 'áští', *ǧáde'* were recorded in pause and only in GrA and ṢWA. Unraised forms *ǧáda'* and 'áša' were heard in sandhi.

Other recorded examples with raised reflexes of final *-ā(')* are: *if'i* "viper", *Wādiy Íslí* (stressed on initial *I*) "Wādiy Isla" *ǧi'* "he came", *ilbunn dī* "these coffeebeans", *tižibhi'* "you get it (sg. fem.)", 'ala gadd ḥālni' "as much as we can afford", *iftarni'* "we had breakfast". Comparable examples in 'LA are: *ǧi'*, *(i)líf'ih* and also *(i)líf'iy* "the viper", *ábwalad dī* "this boy", *ǧambhi'* "next to her", *biddni'* "we want" and *ilíkrih* "the wages".

Reflexes of final *\*-ā(')* preceded by velarized consonants are not raised, have remained long and are often cut off—especially in pause—by a glottal stop. Examples are: (sg. fem. forms of colours) *xadṛā(')* "green", *bēḍā(')* "white" and (optionally) raised *a* in syllable preceding final *ā* in the examples *ziṛǧā(')* "black (lit. blue)", *ḥimrā(')* "red" and *ṣifrā(')* "yellow". Similarly, sg. fem. forms of physical defects are *ḥamǧā(')* "stupid", *ṭarmā(')* "gap-toothed". Such examples are also available for 'LA.

When no phonetic factors interfere, raising of final *\*-ā(')* in sg. fem. forms of colours and physical defects will reach (stressed) *-íy*, as in e.g. (colours) *sōdíy* "black; bad", *šahábíy* "sand-coloured", *ǧabšíy* "dark" and (physical defects) *ḥōlíy* "cross-eyed", *hablíy* "dim-witted", 'aržíy "limping (sg. fem.)", 'amyíy "blind" and šōlíy "left-handed". Such examples are also found in 'LA.

N.B. "here" is *nihā(')* or *nihāniy* in ṬWA, HnA and 'LA, but also *híniy* was recorded in ṢWA, ASA, HnA, (only once in) ḤmA and K-form *hina* or *hínih* in all dialects.

<sup>25</sup> In group I raising of final *-ā(')* is also prevented by *a* directly preceding in open syllable, see Blanc 1970:124 (13) and De Jong 2000:82.

In dialects of group I raising (there to final *-íy*) is inhibited by (underlying) *a* preceding in open syllable.<sup>26</sup> In group VII raising to *-i'* tends to be prevented by *a* preceding in open syllable (see remark \* above in 1.2.4.4.). Examples are: *iddáwa'* “the medicine”, *issáma'* “the sky”, (verb forms) *fáda'* “he sacrificed”, *máša'* “he walked”, *sáwa'* “together”, *istáwa'* “it became cooked” and also *ána'* “I”.

In 'LA some examples are: *áddawa* “the medicine”, *ál'aša* “the dinner”, *máša'* and *ána*.

The forms with raised final *\*-ā* (> *-i'*) do not only occur in pause, but also in sentence-medial positions. Such raising is therefore concluded to have led to morphological restructuring, e.g. *iḥna ittaṣalni' buh* “we contacted him”, *ḥatta líf'i' ma tagdarš tuktulhi'* “even the viper you cannot kill”.

The (often unreleased) glottal stop following the final vowel is not only regular when this vowel is stressed, but occurs also when it is unstressed.

When suffixed, raising in the verb form *ǧi'* “he came” will be absent, e.g. *law ḡā'k dixil* “if somebody comes to you as a *daxil*”.<sup>27</sup> Similarly, when *kri'* is suffixed, final *-i'* will be *-ā+*, e.g. *krāh* “his wages” and *krā'k* “your wages” (example from 'LA).

#### 1.2.4.5. Allophones of long vowels *ē*, *ī*, *ō*, and *ū*

##### 1.2.4.5.1. Lowering effect of preceding emphatics on *ī* and *ū*

Primary and secondary emphatics will lower the phonetic value of following *ī* and *ū* towards (resp.) I.P.A. [e:] and [o:] and like in group VI such lowering is clearer in the case of following *ū*; with following *ī* it is less clear, but an on-glide is clearly audible.

Reflexes of *\*ay* and *\*aw*, also when following velarized consonants, have been monophthongized to be /*ē*/ and /*ō*/, but their realizations tend to be lower: nearer to I.P.A. [ɛ:] and [ɔ:].

##### 1.2.4.5.2. Off-glide in *ē* and *ī*

The same type of off-glides in /*ē*/ and /*ī*/, as described for group VI, may also be heard in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

<sup>26</sup> See Blanc 1970:124 (13) and De Jong 2000:82.

<sup>27</sup> A *daxil* is someone who seeks refuge (e.g. after having committed a crime) in the house of someone else. The 'host' is then obliged to take care (lodge him, and if necessary, defend him) of his *daxil* for three days (and one third of a day) and seek legal assistance to have the problem of his *daxil* resolved.

1.2.4.5.3. *Off-glide in ō and ū*

The same type of off-glides in /ō/ and /ū/, as described for group VI, may also be heard in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

1.2.4.6. *Diphthongs*

ṬwA, HnA and 'LA have two diphthongs: *iy* and *uw*. Older diphthongs \**ay* and \**aw* have been monophthongized as /ē/ and /ō/.

1.2.4.6.1. *Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw*1.2.4.6.1.1. Reflexes of \**ay* and \**aw* in neutral environments

In positions not preceded by or velarized consonants \**ay* and \**aw* have usually become ē and ō, cf. 1.2.4.1.

1.2.4.6.1.2. Reflexes of \**ay* and \**aw* in non-neutral environments1.2.4.6.1.2.1. Reflexes of \**ay* and \**aw* preceded by X.

Cf. 1.2.4.1

1.2.4.6.1.2.2. Diphthongs \**ay* and \**aw* preceded by velarized consonants.

Cf. 1.2.4.1

1.2.4.6.2. *Diphthongs -iy and -uw*

## 1.2.4.6.2.1. Reflexes of final \*-ī and \*-ū

Final diphthongs *-iy* and *-uw*, which in part reflect older \*-ī and \*-ū are best heard in lento speech and occur both in sentence medial as well as in sentence final positions. In allegro forms these diphthongs tend to be reduced to *-i* and *-u* (I.P.A. [i] and [u], i.e. not lowered [ɪ] and [ʊ]).

The reinterpretation of morpheme boundaries, as described for group VI, has not taken place in ṬwA, HnA or 'LA.

Examples of diphthongs *iy* and *uw* created by anaptyxis are: *mašiy* # “walking” and # *iyxāf* “he fears” and *ħašuw* # “filling, stuffing”, *xatuwṭēn* “two steps” and # *uwlād* “children”. In the latter three instances, one may also hear the diphthong *iw*.

Instances of final *-iy* as reflexes of \*-ī are like those reported for group VI.

Like in group VI, many final *yā'* verbs with an *i*-type conjugation in the perfect have adopted—though often only partially—an *a*-type perfect in ṬwA and HnA. Examples are *maša* “he walked” (but *mišyit* “she walked”), *nāsa* and *nāsat* (but also *nisyit*) and also *ligiy* ~ *laga* “he found”, *ligyit* ~ *lagat* “she found”, etc. (for further detail, see 3.2.2.5.1.). In 'LA *maša* was recorded with a regular paradigm of the *a*-type and *ligiy* with a regular *i*-type paradigm.

Final *-iy* may also reflect older final *\*-ā* in the pattern *\*CaCCā* for physical defects: *arǧiy* “limping (sg. fem.)”, *hablīy* “simple-minded (sg. fem.)”, *amyīy* “blind” and the sg. fem. pattern for colours (also *\*CaCCā*) *sōdīy* “black”, *šahabīy* “sand-coloured”.<sup>28</sup>

Apart from *nihā (-niy)* for “here”, the form *hīniy* is also often heard (though not recorded in ‘LA).

Final *-iy* reflects final *\*-ī* in *bīriy* “innocent”, final *\*-īy* in *šābiy* “boy”, *gāwīy* “strong” and *nībiy* “prophet”, *\*-ay* in *šiy* “thing” and also the nisbah-ending for the sg. masc., e.g. *Su‘ūdīy* “Saudi”.

#### 1.2.4.7. Prosodic lengthening of long vowels and diphthongs

Examples of long vowels being lengthened: (expressing great surprise) *yā salā:m* “my goodness”, (expressing an extreme degree) *hayāh šī‘bah xā:līs* “a very difficult life” and in ‘LA *ḍalla nā:yim* “he remained asleep (for a long time)”.

## 2. STRESS AND PHONOTACTICS

### 2.1. Stress

#### 2.1.1. Rules for word-stress

Stress in ṬWA and HnA is of the máktabah-type. Rule order is the same as in group VI.

Verbal gahawah-forms of the *i*-type imperfect, like *yāḥartuw* “they plough”, receive special treatment (see 2.1.2.4.).

The rules for ṬWA and HnA are (for ĞBA there are exceptions like *īššī* “the winter”):

1. Like in group VI.
2. The domain of stress is formed by either:
  - a. the last two syllables of a word, also if this includes the article *il-* as the penultimate syllable,
  - b. or the last four syllables, when these are without article, or verbal pre- or infixes, but including suffixes,
  - c. or, in the presence of a verbal in- or prefix, the last three syllables including the vowel of the syllable preceding the in- or prefix, but only when the verb form is an imperfect or a participle. When the verb form is perfect, the vowel of the prefix or the vowel preceding the infix is not stressable.

<sup>28</sup> Also in ĞbA 1992, see ?arji (sic.) (a misprint for—in my own transcription—*arǧiy*) on p. 7 (I-61).

3. Stress is placed according to the criterion of quantity, i.e. vowels of heavy sequences are stressed.
4. The following types of 'heavy' sequences occur: vCC(C) and v̄C(C) (including v̄(h)).
5. The vowel of the first heavy sequence from the right is stressed (see examples in 2.1.1.1.)
6. In the absence of a heavy syllable, stress the vowel in the first syllable from the left.

The exception made for resyllabification of CaCaCaCv(C) sequences in MzA of group VI is not necessary for ṬwA, HnA or 'LA, since such sequences are not resyllabified.

In ḤmA the presumably older stress system is being replaced by the system described above. The older stress system—much (but not totally) like that described for group I—is characterized by the following forms: *wálad*, *náxaḷ*, *kátab*, *kátabat*, *rágabah*, *náxaḷah*, *yáḥariṭ*, *yáḥarṭuw*, *álwalad*, *ál'aša'*, *íl'ší'*, *šnaṭ*, *áššnaṭ*, *ánǧasal*, *yínǧisil*, *inǧásaluw*, *áštaǧal*, *yíštiǧil*, *ištáǧaluw*, *kátabatuh*, *rágabatuh* and *yá'araguw*.

In 'LA the article is a stressable unit (e.g. *álǧamal*, but forms like *ilǧamal* were also heard, though less regularly), but unlike other dialects that may stress the article, 'LA does not allow stressing of initial vowels in the perfect of measures *n-1* and *1-t*. 'LA is thus the only dialect in Sinai with a stressable article, but which does not allow stress on initial vowels in the perfect verbal of measures *n-1* and *1-t*.

#### 2.1.1.1. *Stress in words with heavy sequences*

Examples of stress in words with 'heavy' sequences are in ṬwA and HnA: *íššti'* "the winter" (ĞbA), *il'aša'* "the dinner", *ilíf'i'* "the viper" (second *i* is originally anaptyctic), *šalāt il'ší'* "evening prayer", *ilá'lab* "the tins", *mádrasah* "school", *ištáǧal* "he worked", *ittáfag* "he agreed", *inǧasal* "he was washed", *ilbášal* "the onions", *ilwálad* "the boy/son", *ittáfaguw* "they agreed", *inǧásaluw* "they were washed", *ḥšiy* "rocks",<sup>29</sup> *šólý* "left-handed (sg. fem.)" and *šahabý* "sand-coloured (sg. fem.)".

As far as stress in reflexes of \*CiCa(C) is concerned, 'LA appears to be in a process of transition; when the first C is not a sunletter, an anaptyctic vowel will separate this C and *l* of the article, when the article precedes. Although stress rules specify that the vowel of the article should then

<sup>29</sup> In 'LA the form *ilihši'* "the rocks" was also recorded.

be stressed (being the vowel in the ‘underlying’ heavy sequence vlCC), the anaptyctic may receive stress instead (see scenario 1 below). When the first C is a ‘sunletter’ no anaptyctic appears, since the *l* of the article assimilates to this ‘sunletter’. The vowel of the article is then stressed (see scenario 2 below). Schematically:

scenario 1:

\*C<sub>m</sub>iCaC > C<sub>m</sub>CaC > vl + C<sub>m</sub>CaC > vlC<sub>m</sub>CaC > vlv<sub>a</sub>C<sub>m</sub>CaC  
 vlv<sub>a</sub>C<sub>m</sub>CaC or vlv<sub>s</sub>C<sub>m</sub>CaC

scenario 2:

\*C<sub>s</sub>iCaC > C<sub>s</sub>CaC > vl + C<sub>s</sub>CaC > vC<sub>s</sub>C<sub>s</sub>CaC > vC<sub>s</sub>C<sub>s</sub>CaC

C<sub>s</sub> = ‘sunletter’ consonant            vl = article *il-* or *al-*  
 C<sub>m</sub> = ‘moonletter’ consonant        v̇ = stressed short v: *í* or *á*  
 v<sub>a</sub> = anaptyctic vowel colouring with the following vowel  
 v̇<sub>s</sub> = originally anaptyctic vowel, after having become stable and part of the morphophonemic base, and is therefore stressable

When anaptyctics preceding forms with initial C<sub>m</sub> have become stable and the anaptyctic has become part of the morphophonemic base as the initial vowel, this new initial vowel will be stressed if it is part of a heavy sequence.

A next, or parallel step in this development is anaptyctics becoming stable base vowels where they precede CC; a cluster # CC or C CC needs to be resolved, so that an anaptyctic will be inserted preceding the last CC of such a cluster. The anaptyctic—colouring with the base vowel of the following noun<sup>30</sup>—can thus become stable, and therefore become part of the morphophonemic base and be stressed,<sup>31</sup> e.g.

origin	elision	cluster	anaptyxis	stress
* <i>durah</i>	> <i>drah</i>	> C + <i>drah</i>	> C v <sub>a</sub> <i>drah</i>	> <i>ádrah</i> (v <sub>s</sub> <i>drah</i> )

When the article is then prefixed, the resulting form will be *aládrah* ‘the sorghum’, since the new base vowel prevents the prerequisite of contact of *l* and the ‘sunletter’ *d* for assimilation to take place. Another example is *alángar* ‘the potholes’.

<sup>30</sup> Such colouring of the anaptyctic was also reported for group II in the north, see De Jong 2000:270.

<sup>31</sup> In fact, this development is also a more rigorous application of the rule that base forms can only have initial C- or (‘)v-; there is a phonotactic constraint barring initial CC.

Forms in ĞLA are: *isőti*, *ál'aőa*, *ilíf'ih*, *ilí'ő* ~ *il'ő*, *áligrab* “the water-sacks” (but *alángar* “the potholes”), *álabar* “the needles” and also *aláđrah* “the sorghum”.

Other forms with heavy sequences in ṬWA, HnA and ĞLA: *ṭil'na* “we rose”, *waládk* “your (sg. masc.) son”, *waládk* “your (sg. fem.) son”, *úmmuk* “your mother”, *őti* “winter”, *zēn* “good”, *zēnih* “good (sg. fem.)”, *zēnīn* “good (pl. masc.)”.

### 2.1.1.2. Examples of stress in words without heavy sequences

#### 2.1.1.2.1. Stress in CvCvC(v)

Stress in (C)v<sub>1</sub>Cv(C):<sup>32</sup>

(<sup>1</sup>)v<sub>1</sub>CvC: *úkul* “eat!”, *úgum* “stand up!”, *isil* “carry!”, *ánam* “go to sleep!”, *ábar* “needles” (“I come” is *igiy*). ĞLA forms are: *kuł*, *gūł*, *gūm*, *őil*, *nām*.<sup>33</sup> Cv<sub>1</sub>Cv(<sup>1</sup>): *áőa* “dinner”, *máőa* “he walked”, *dáwa* “medicine” (“stick” was recorded as *aőā*). The same forms are found in ĞLA.

Cv<sub>1</sub>CvC: *ğamal* “camels”, *őáğar* “trees”, *ğátas* “he dived”; *wáğaf* “he stood up”, *wárag* “paper” and *őabiy* “boy”, *bíriy* “innocent”, *ťariy* “moist; soft” (“he goes” is *yigiy*, also in ĞLA). In ĞLA both types of stress are heard: *walád* or *wálad*, although the latter stress type is more current.

#### 2.1.1.2.2. Stress in (C)vCvCv(C) and (C)vCvCvCv(C)

(C)vCvCv(C): *xášabah* “piece of firewood”, *đárabuw* “they hit (perfect)”, *báladuh* “his country”, *násatuh* “she forgot him”, *ma násatuő* “she did not forget him” (the latter two not in ĞLA), and gahawah-forms *áhamar* “red”, *ná'agih* “ewe”, *á'arag* “I sweat”, *áharit* “I plough”, *ğahawah* “coffee”.<sup>34</sup>

(C)vCvCvCv(C): *đárabatuh* “she hit him”, *ma đárabatuő* “she did not hit him”, *řáğabatuh* “his neck” and gahawah-forms *ğahawatuh* “his coffee”, *ta'aragin* “you (pl. fem.) sweat”.

*ilxášabah* “the piece of firewood”, *ilbádawiy* “the Bedouin (sg.)”, (gahawah-form) *innáxalah* “the palm tree”, *ibtáħafrow* “they dig”, *iőtáğalat* “she worked”, *inbášatuw* “they rejoiced”, *ittáfagat* “she agreed”, *tağáwwazat* “she got married”, *takállamuw* “they spoke”.

<sup>32</sup> When v<sub>1</sub> in this pattern is not preceded by C, it is underlying |a|.

<sup>33</sup> Forms of the mediae infirmae verbs like *gum* / *úgum* or *gum* / *úgum* were checked, but were rejected as not proper ĞLA.

<sup>34</sup> Stress reported for ĞbA in Nishio 1992 is the same, see p. 146 (XX-30 and 33). However, *ibid.* p. 7 (I-6i) reports (in my transcription) a'rağ “lame” (without gahawah-vowel).

2.1.2. *Exceptions to the stress rule*2.1.2.1. *Stress on reflexes of \*-ā' and \*-ā*

Like in group VI (and also in group IV, see De Jong 2000:428), reflexes of \*-ā', which have not been raised due to phonetic factors described in 1.2.4.4., will be stressed, when they have remained long and thus form a heavy sequence, e.g. *xadrā'* ("green (sg. fem.)"), *šifrā'* ("yellow (sg. fem.)"), *bēdā'* ("white (sg. fem.)"), *girā'* ("bald (sg. fem.)"), *iwrā'* ("one-eyed (sg. fem.)"). Such stressing is regular in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.<sup>35</sup>

In phonetically neutral surroundings, final -ā' of sg. fem. forms of colours and physical defects is raised to -iy (see 1.2.4.4.). Such raised -iy reflexes are then stressed, even if (other) heavy sequences precede, e.g. *sōdīy* "black (sg. fem.)", *šadfīy* "left-handed (sg. fem.)", *hawliy* "cross-eyed (sg. fem.)". Notice however stress in *hīniy* "here", although more regular for "here" is *nihā*. Also in a gahawah-form, in which the gahawah-vowel has resolved the cluster forming the heavy sequence, the reflex of -ā' receives stress: (*šahbā'* >) *šahabīy* "sand-coloured (sg. fem.)". These forms are current in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

Reflexes of final \*-ā' that are short -a' or -i' are stressed in conformity with the rules in 2.1.1.2. When no heavy sequences precede, e.g. (forms in ṬwA and HnA) (*il*)*'áša'* "(the) dinner", (*il*)*ǧáda'* "(the) lunch", (*is*)*sáma'* "the sky",<sup>36</sup> but with heavy sequences available: *iššī'* "the winter", *šalāt ilí'šī'* (base form is *i'šī'*) "evening prayer", *ilíf'i'* "the viper" and *Wādiy Íslī'* (stress on initial I) "Wadi Islah".

Note: there is variation, however: (only) in ĞbA and ḤmA forms with stress on the final vowel like *šalāt ilí'šī'* "evening prayer", *ilíf'i'* "the viper", *wagt iššī'* "the winter time" and *Ġabal iĠni'*<sup>37</sup> "the mountain of canals/water ducts (situated in the Mağārah area)" were also heard.

Since heavy sequences always precede within word boundaries, raised reflexes of pronominal suffixes will not be stressed, e.g. *mnākulhi'* "we eat it (sg. fem.)", *šuftti'* (< *šuft* + *ha*) "I saw her". Verbal endings that developed from \*-ā also remain unstressed, e.g. *šufni'* "we saw" and *máša'* "he walked". The reflex of final \*-ā' will only be stressed if it is the only vowel available, e.g. *ilwálad dī'* "this boy", *ǧī'* "he came".

<sup>35</sup> Nishio 1992 reports the same in terms of stress and raising for ĞbA, see p. 16 (XX-30 to XX-35), e.g. (in Nishio's transcription) *ḥamrā* and *sūdī*.

<sup>36</sup> Nishio 1992 reports the same type of stress in ĞbA, see e.g. p. 119 (XVII-1) *sáma*, but does not indicate stress in *ǧade* and *'aše*.

<sup>37</sup> In Tuḥbāniy dialect this mountain is referred to as *Ġibál iĠniy*; *ḡniy* is a pl. form < \**qinā'*.

2.1.2.2. *Stress on final nominal \*-īy reflexes in \*CaCīy*

In ṬwA and HnA, reflexes of the pattern CaCīy are CaCiy or (after raising the short vowel a) CiCiy are stressed on the penultimate, which is in conformity with the rules formulated in 2.1.1.2.

2.1.2.3. *Stress in al/il + \*CaCīy*

Prefixing an article to a CaCīy sequence has no consequences for the assignment of stress in ṬwA and HnA, e.g. *innibiy* or *innābiy* “the Prophet” and *iŖŖābiy* “the boy”. In ĤmA *ānnibiy* was recorded and in ĞbA *innibiy*.

*Ŗabiy* (pl. *Ŗibyān*) “boy” with suffixes: *Ŗabīyyuĥ* “your boy”, *Ŗabīyyi* “my boy”, *Ŗabīyyhuĥ* “their boy”.

2.1.2.4. *Stress in suffixed gahawah-forms*

In ṬwA, HnA and 'LA stress in gahawah-forms is like in group VI (*naxāĥa* “her date palms”, *gāhawatuĥ* “his coffee” and (*i*- and *u*-type gahawah-imperfect verb forms) *yā'aĝnuĥ* “he kneads it” and *tāxabṭin* “you (pl. fem.) knock”).<sup>38</sup>

Resyllabication of sequences CaCaCatv (> CaCCitv) is not a characteristic of ṬwA, HnA or 'LA.

2.1.2.5. *Stress in vCCICv*

Like in group VI, a short high vowel is not dropped from a sequence vC<sub>a</sub>C<sub>a</sub>IC<sub>a</sub>v and stress is placed according to rules in 2.1.1.2., e.g. *bitĝāzzizuh* “you sow it (of watermellon seed, by inserting each seed into its own hole in the soil)”. In this example reduction of the geminate is clearly audible.

An example in 'LA is *bīyballilūha* “they make it (sg. fem.) wet”. For active participles of the verb *ta'aknan* “be irritated”, see 2.4.4.

2.1.3. *Stress units*2.1.3.1. *Stress in combinations with preposition min and negated personal pronominals*

Like in group I, the preposition *min* may form one stress unit with the following word, as in *mīn-taĥat* “from below”, *mīn-kidīy* “from this” and *mīn-ihnīy* “from here” (the latter BWA).

In negated pronominals stress is as follows (recorded in HnA, ŖwA, ĞbA, ASA):

<sup>38</sup> Nishio 1992 lists many gahawah-forms for ĞbA as well, e.g. (p. 19 (III-31) *gahawē*, (p. 28 (IV-25)) *faĥam* “charcoal” and verbs: (p. 101–102) (XIV-54) *yaxalaṭ* “mix”, (p. 102 (XIV-55)) *yāĥafer* “dig” and (p. 115 (XVI-19) *yāĥazen* “be sad”, etc.

		sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>mahūš</i>	<i>mahínš</i>
	fem.	<i>mahiš</i>	<i>mahúmš</i>
2.	masc.	<i>mántiš</i>	<i>mantūš</i>
	fem.	<i>mantiš</i>	<i>mantínš</i>
1.	com.	<i>maniš</i>	<i>máħniš</i>

Negated pronominals recorded in HmA are: *māhū*, *māhī*, *mintih*, *mintiy*, *mānī*, *miħna*, *mintuw*, *mintin*, *māhuḡ*, *māhin*.

In GrA direct elicitation yielded the following forms:<sup>39</sup> *māhū*, *māhī*, *mantih*, *mantiy*, *mānī*, *māhuḡ*, *māhin*, *mantum*, *mantin*, *maħna*.

In ‘LA the single negation with preceding *mā* is current. Elicited forms are: *māhū*, *māhī*, *mantah*, *mantiy*, *mānī*, *māhuḡ*, *māhin*, *mantuw* / *mantum*, *mantin*, *maħna*.

### 2.1.3.2. Enclitically suffixed prepositions l and b

#### 2.1.3.2.1. Enclisis of the suffixed preposition l

Enclitic suffixation of the suffixed preposition l occurs regularly. Examples are: *yug’úd-luh šaharān ṭalāṭih* “it stays (for itself) two or three months” (GrA), *ibyāxūd-luh btā’ sā’tēn* “he spends about two hours” (ĜbA), *biyrūhū-luh* “they go to him” (ŠwA), *aṗawwīḡ-luh giddām ilmī’ād ib yōm aw yōmēn* “I go to him one or two days before the appointment” (ASA) and *naħafir-luh* “we dig (a hole) for it” (HmA).

Such enclitic suffixing was found to be especially current in HnA, e.g.: *ibyibgā-luh mōsim* “there is a season for it” (HnA), *innās bitgūm taħšā-luh . . . hašiy* “people then stuff it (properly)” (HnA), *imwazzaf byāxud-luh talatmīyt iġnēh* “a civil servant gets (for himself) three hundred pounds” (HnA).

An example in ‘LA is: *biyṭallī’-luh* “he gets out for him”.

#### 2.1.3.2.2. Enclisis of the suffixed preposition b

Enclisis of suffixed preposition b is less current than that of suffixed l, but does take place, e.g. *mistahtīr-buh* “making fun of him” (ASA), *w inġammīs-buh* “and we dip (food) with it”, *timšī-buh* “you go with him” (HnA), *ibyihimmū-buh htimām ġāmīd* “they attach great importance to it” (HnA). In ‘LA it was not recorded.

<sup>39</sup> Negation in GrA is usually constructed with single *mā*, without *-š(i)*, see also 3.1.12.3. and 4.2.

2.2. *Phonotactics*2.2.1. *The gahawah-syndrome*2.2.1.1. *The gahawah-syndrome: a-insertion in \*aXC sequences*

Like in many dialects of Sinai, the gahawah-syndrome is active in ṬwA and HnA. Some of many examples are: *šáħar* “month”, *şalāt ilmaġarib* “prayer at sunset”, *bá'ad* “after”, *byaxaṭibha* “he gets engaged to her”, *ahabal* “stupid”, *aħawal* “cross-eyed”, *şahabíy* “sand-coloured”, *taħat* “under”.<sup>40</sup>

In 'LA we see similar forms, but stress may be on the vowel of the second syllable, e.g. *naxál* “palm trees”, *Sa'ád* “male given name”,

2.2.1.2. *Morphological categories showing variation*

The gahawah-syndrome is active in forms of the past participle (i.e. where  $C_1 = X$ :  $maXC_2\bar{u}C_3$ ) like *maħafūr* “dug”, *maxarūm* “pierced”, *maħabūs* “imprisoned”, *maħaṭūt* “placed” and *má'agūl* “reasonable”, *má'adūd* “few, countable” and *maġaşüb* “forced, compelled”, but also *maxzūn* “stored”, *Maħmūd* “male given name” and *maxṭūbah* “engaged (sg. fem.)”.

Exceptions are also found with the pattern  $maXC_2vC_3(ah)$ : *maġarib* “time of sunset”, *máxazan* “storage place, but also *maġrib*, *maxzan* and *maħġar* “stone quarry”.

Examples in 'LA: *má'arūfīn* “known (pl. masc.)”, *maxarūm* “pierced”, *maxaṭūbah* “engaged (sg. fem.)”, *maġarib* “time of sunset”, but also *maħṭūt* “placed”.

2.2.1.3. *Morphological categories in which the gahawah-syndrome is not active*

In ṬwA, HnA and 'LA the gahawah-syndrome is not active in derived verbal measures. Examples are like those listed for group VI.

Examples of the absence of the gahawah-syndrome in elatives are: *aħsan* “better/best”, *aħla* “more/more beautiful, sweeter/sweetest”, *aġlab* “more/most” (and also *aġlabiyyah* “majority”), *aġla* “more/most expensive” and the name *Aħmad*.

<sup>40</sup> Nishio 1992 cites numerous instances of the gahawah-syndrome for ĞbA too, but there are also exceptions, such as *a'rağ* “lame” (p. 7 (I-61)), *ta'bān* “tired” (p. 41 (VI-9)), *lağwe* “language” (p. 72 (X-1)), *rağwe* “bubble, foam” (p. 125 (XVII-48)), *waħla* “mud” (p. 127 (XVII-64)) and verbs like *'awağ*, *ya'wağ* “bend” (p. 99 (XIV-41)) and *xiliş*, *yaxlaş* “end” (p. 103 (XV-4)) and other forms. N.B. the imperfect of a (there measure 1) verb like *'aṭa*, *ya'ti* “give” listed on p. 82 (XII-1) is best interpreted as an *i*-type, with here *a* as transcription of the allophonic realisation of *i* under influence of the *ayn* (in my own transcription this would be *yī'tīy*). A similar example is (also measure 1) *'azam*, *ya'zim* “invite” (p. 90 (XIII-21)), which in my own transcription would be *'azam*, *yī'zim*.

The gahawah-syndrome also usually remains absent in loans from Standard Arabic like *ya'niy* “that is, it means”, *yaḥṣal* “it happens” and another measure 1 verb *ya'mal*<sup>41</sup> “he makes, does”.

The fem. morpheme in construct state becomes *-at* when it follows XaC (also where *a* is a gahawah-vowel), so that the sequence CaXaCat is the result. When such a sequence is directly suffixed with a vowel-initial suffix, the resulting CaXaCatv sequence is not resyllabified (contrast possible resyllabification in MzA of group VI). Examples are *naxaḷati* “my palm tree” and *gáhawatuh* “his coffee”.

### 2.2.2. Articulatory delay in the realization of alveolar sonorants (liquids *l*, *r* and *n*)

#### 2.2.2.1. Articulatory delay in the realization of *r*: the bukaṛa-syndrome

Examples of bukaṛa-vowels are (underlined): *azaraḡ* “dark brown”, *tagara lFāthih* “you recite the Fātiḥah”, *duḡiriy* “straight ahead, right away”, *tzaḡirit* “she ululates”, *ygōtirin* “they (fem.) go”, *xuḡiriy* “type of cheap green tobacco (smoked in rolled cigarettes)”.

Examples of the bukaṛa-syndrome inhibiting the elision of a preceding high vowel are *l āxir innahār* “until the end of the day” and *indawwir ilḡamal* “we look for the camel”.

Examples of the ‘greater’ or ‘expanded’ bukaṛa-syndrome creating vowels: *fi lḡaṣir*<sup>42</sup> *ibtaxazin-luḡ* “in the storage you store it for yourself” and *fi lḡidir ib ḡāluh* “all of it in the pot” and in ‘LA *Ṣadir ilḤēṭān* “name of a mountain range, south of Umm Iṭlah<sup>43</sup> pass”.

#### 2.2.2.2. Influence of *l*

Like *r*, *l* may also be involved in inhibiting elision of the short vowel. Examples are (preserved vowels underlined) *ibyinzil isSwēs* “he goes down to Suez”, *hādiy btākil ilḡarbū* “this one (fem.) eats jerboa” (though also *ibtākl iṭwēr* “it (fem.) eats small birds”) and *f-awwil ilwagt* “in the beginning”. An example in ‘LA is *ḡāl yā raḡil ilmasal di* “he said ‘oh man, this saying...’”.

Examples of ‘expanded’ or ‘greater’ bukaṛa-vowels preceding *l* in sandhi (where the vowel is not a cluster-resolving anaptyctic as described in

<sup>41</sup> Much more current for “make, do” is the measure 2 verb *sawwa, ysawwiy*.

<sup>42</sup> *ḡaṣr*, pl. *ḡṣūr*: a small cave-like hollow in the side of a mountain or *katarah* (a clay mound) used as a safe storage for goods (esp. foodstuffs).

<sup>43</sup> The ‘Umm Iṭlah pass, on the main road from the Ahmad Ḥamdi tunnel near Suez to Nixl, is usually indicated on maps as ‘Mitla pass’, see fn 7, p. 3.

2.3.2.) are ('greater' bukaṛa-vowels underlined): *w il'akīl iyyāmha kamān ṣī'ib* "food was also difficult (to get) in those days" and *iḥuṭṭuh fi ssi'in iw yug'ūd-luh yōm* "and you put it in the goat skin and it sits (there for itself) for a day".

2.2.2.2.1. *The high vowel preceding l in \*ibil and \*raḡil*

The form bil or ibil was not recorded.

*raḡil* for "man" was only recorded once in ḤmA and once in 'LA, but there were numerous instances of *yā rāḡil. riḡḡāl* or *raḡḡāl* (pl. *rḡāl*) is current for "man".

2.2.2.3. *Articulatory delay in the realization of n*

Non-elision of short high vowels preceding *n* in otherwise eligible positions is quite regular, e.g. (here underlined) *yōmīn iygassim* "when he allots" and *iygūmīn anniswān yāḥalbīn adduwābb* (i.e. not *\*iygūmn anniswān yāḥalibn adduwābb*) "the women then (get up and) milk the animals".

Also, an anaptyctic vowel in sandhi is often inserted in positions not covered by the anaptyxis rule (see 2.3. below). Examples are: *assamīn aššīḥiy* "the wormwood ghee", and *ibyanfa' l albaṭīn iw fih šīḡār l ašṣadir iw fih šīḡār l iddišbih* "it is good for the stomach and there are plants (i.e. herbs) for the chest and there are plants for (treating) a cold".<sup>44</sup>

2.2.3. *Articulatory delay of 'ayn following geminates*

Articulatory delay of 'ayn following geminates was not noticed as a regular feature.

### 2.3. Anaptyxis

Rules formulated for group VI are also valid for ṬwA, HnA and 'LA. For ḠbA Nishio reports several instances of schwa resolving a consonant cluster  $C_a C_a C_b$  (where  $C_a C_a$  is a geminate), e.g. (p. 196) *hī biddəḥ timši* "she wishes to leave (or walk)", *biddəḥ* "we wish" and *biddəḥen* "you (pl. fem.) wish" and also (p. 56 (VIII-9)) non-elision of high vowels in *mdarrəse* and *mdarrəsīn* for (respectively) "teacher (fem.)" and "teachers".

<sup>44</sup> *dišbih* is used for common cold (with coughing), a more severe cold with flu-like symptoms is usually referred to as *ḥabṣah*. Bailey 2009:343 (glossary) lists *dishba* as "the flu".

2.3.1. *Word-medial anaptyxis*

Word-medial clusters (in bold print below) resulting from high vowel elision are usually—depending on the relative sonority of the consonants involved<sup>45</sup>—resolved by inserting an anaptyctic vowel preceding the last two consonants of the cluster, e.g.

*yiktib + uw* > \**yikt**buw*** > *yik**it**buw* “they write”  
*yug’ud + uw* > \**yug’**duw*** > *yúgu’**duw*** “they sit”<sup>46</sup>

Also when suffixation results in a cluster, this cluster is resolved, e.g.:

*tisg*<sup>\*1</sup> + *ha* > \**tis**gha*** > *tis**ig**ha* “you water it”

\*1 *tisg*: an apocopated imperfect of 2nd p. sg. masc. (root *s-q-y*).

2.3.2. *Anaptyxis in sandhi*2.3.2.1. *Anaptyxis in clusters resulting from ‘colliding’ morphological base forms*

Examples of sandhi clusters of four consonants, caused by the collision of morphological base forms, which are resolved by insertion of an anaptyctic preceding the last two consonant (clusters are in bold print, cluster-resolving anaptyctics are underlined):

*sab’ snīn*<sup>47</sup> > *sab’ isnīn* “seven years”.  
 # *byasrah* w *byidwiy mi’ ġamaluh* > # *ibyasrah* w *ibyidwiy mi’ ġamaluh* “he goes away and comes back at sunset with his camel”.

2.3.2.2. *Anaptyxis in #CC and CC#*

When speech pause directly precedes or follows CC, the resulting cluster #CC or CC# is resolved (anaptyctics underlined), e.g.:

#CC > # iCC: # *byasrah* > # *ibyasrah*  
 and  
 CC# > CiC #: *b irriġl* # > *b irriġil* #

<sup>45</sup> For the role of relative sonority, see remarks in De Jong 2000:125–26.

<sup>46</sup> Nishio 1992 gives numerous instances in which word-medial with subsequent anaptyxis does not take place, e.g. imperatives of “write” (sg. fem.) *iktibi*, (pl. masc.) *iktibu* and (pl. fem.) *iktiben* (p. 76 (X-27), imperfect forms (pl. masc.) *yodrobu*, (pl. fem.) *yodroben*, etc. (p. 88 (XIII-11) and also imperf. forms (pl. masc.) *yinzəlu* and (pl. fem.), *yinzəlen*, etc.

<sup>47</sup> The base form is with initial consonant, which may be concluded from forms preceded by the article (its *l* assimilates to the first consonant), e.g.: *iššġayyir*, *iSwēs* and also *issnīn* (not (*i*)*lišġayyir*, (*i*)*liSwēs* or (*i*)*lišnīn*).

An example in ĞLA is: *maṭraḥ ma timis, iris* “wherever you are in the evening, spend the night there (lit. throw out your anchor)” (a saying advising not to travel by night); *tims* is an apocopated imperfect (root *m-s-y*), *irs* is an apocopated imperative (root *r-s-y*).

### 2.3.2.3. Consonant clusters resulting from I-elision in sandhi, with subsequent anaptyxis

Some examples of clusters in sandhi after I-elision, eliminated by anaptyxis from ṬWA, HnA (intermediate forms with clusters are marked \*):

(base forms, high vowel eligible for elision underlined, stress has already been placed)  
*sámnit il'anz* >  
 (after elision of unstressed high vowel, cluster in bold print)  
 \* *sámnt il'anz* >  
 (after stress and anaptyxis, anaptyctic underlined: surface forms)  
*sámint il'anz* “the ghee of the goats”

Another example is:

(base forms, high vowel eligible for elision underlined, stress has already been placed)  
*níliḡ iššāz* >  
 (after elision of unstressed high vowel, cluster in bold print)  
 \* *nílhḡ iššāz* >  
 (after anaptyxis, anaptyctic underlined: surface forms)  
*níliḡ iššāz* “we put the šāḡ (on the fire)”

A similar example heard in ĞLA is *úḍrub ilmi'zih* > \* *úḍrb ilmi'zih* > *úḍurb ilmi'zih* “hit the goat”.

### 2.3.2.4. Resyllabication of word-medial CVCCICV, and of CVCCIC VC sequences in sandhi

Resyllabication of a word-medial sequence CVCCICV > CVCICCV (e.g. *yikitbuw*) is compulsory, while resyllabication of a sandhi sequence CVC-CIC VC > CVCICC VC (e.g. *níliḡ iššāz*) is optional.

### 2.3.3. Exceptions to the anaptyxis rule

#### 2.3.3.1. Unresolved consonant clusters

Like in group I, not all clusters are eliminated. Especially clusters of which the first consonant is nasal or a liquid followed by a voiceless second consonant (predominantly stops),<sup>48</sup> e.g.: *kalthi* “I ate it (sg. fem.)”, *talgha* “you will find her”, *kāwantnī* “you fought me”, *fihint?* # “did you understand?”

<sup>48</sup> For similar phonetic conditioning, see De Jong 2000:123–128.

Clusters may be left unresolved in sandhi as well, e.g. *gult hēhū dī!* ‘I said ‘there he is!’” and *‘ind bētuh* “near his house”.

When assimilation between the first and second consonant takes place, the cluster will remain intact as well, e.g. (in sandhi) *xatt bāluḵ* “you see?”.

These and other similar examples were recorded in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA.

### 2.3.3.2. *The role of sonority of consonants involved in unresolved clusters*

See remarks in De Jong 2000:125–126.

#### 2.3.3.3. *Some special cases with regard to anaptyxis*

##### 2.3.3.3.1. *Consonant clusters with initial geminates*

When the first two consonants of a three-consonant cluster form a geminate, this geminate is usually (partially) reduced, e.g. (word-medial) *biddha* “she wants, needs”. Examples listed for group VI may be heard in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA as well.

##### 2.3.3.3.2. *Preposition ‘ind + C*

The suffixed preposition *‘ind* takes vowel-initial allomorphs of the pronominal suffixes, e.g. *‘indaha* (‘*indihi*) “with her”, *‘induḵ* “with you (sg. masc.)”, *‘indik* “with you (sg. fem.)”, *‘induhuw* “with them (pl. masc.)”, *‘indihin* “with them (pl. fem.)”, *‘induḵum* (~-uḵuw) “with you (pl. masc.)”, *‘indikin* “with you (pl. fem.)” and *‘indina* “with us”. The same forms are heard in ‘LA.

Clusters in sandhi are left intact, however, e.g.: *‘ind wāhid* “with someone” and in ‘LA *‘ind ‘arbānuh* “with his family”.

##### 2.3.3.3.3. *The 2nd p. sg. masc. and fem. pronominal suffixes in consonant clusters*

In ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA (like in group VI) the pronominal suffixes of the 2nd p. sg. masc. and fem. -ḵ and -k (resp.) are vowelless when preceded by one consonant. This may be concluded from stress assignment, but it is difficult to conclude whether an anaptyctic is present or not; especially with a voiceless consonant preceding and a vowel following ḵ (in sandhi), there may be a voiceless anaptyctic or none at all.

Examples are *arkáb“ḵ ibyōḡ‘innuḵ* “your knees hurt you (sg. masc.)”. *arkáb‘k ibyōḡ‘innik* “your knees hurt you (sg. fem.)”. In ‘LA *law arwáh“ḵ ibyunguz min ‘induh* “if he smells you he jumps from his place”.

When more than one consonant precedes the personal- pronominal suffixes take allomorphic shapes -uḵ (for sg. masc.) and -ik (for sg. fem.) e.g. *xalluḵ gā‘id* “remain seated”, *‘induḵ* “with you”.<sup>49</sup>

<sup>49</sup> Nishio 1992:178 (XXV-6) reports ku ~ ok and adds that “in rapid speech the last vowel /u/ is reduced to schwa, or often inaudible, in which case the redundant phonetic feature

2.3.4. *Phonetic quality of the anaptyctic*2.3.4.1. *Phonetic quality of word-medial anaptyctics*

The phonetic quality of the word-medial anaptyctic vowel is a lax and centralized [ɪ], towards [ə], in front environments and a lax and centralized [ʊ], towards a moderately rounded [ə], in back environments.<sup>50</sup>

2.3.4.1.1. *Phonetic quality of word-medial anaptyxis in clusters form “colliding” base forms*

The situation in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA is like in group VI.

2.3.4.1.2. *Phonetic quality of anaptyctics in clusters after I-elision*

The situation in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA is like in group VI.

2.3.4.1.3. *Anaptyctics in clusters resulting from elision of i from T*

The situation in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA is like in group VI.

2.3.4.2. *Phonetic quality of anaptyctics in sandhi*2.3.4.2.1. *Phonetic quality of word-initial anaptyctics in sandhi*

Word-initial anaptyctics tend to have a phonetic value of near a lax and centralized [ɪ].

Examples listed for group VI also illustrate the situation in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

In ṬwA, HnA imperatives of the verbs *xáđ* “take” and *kál* “eat” are *úkuł*, # *ukłý*, # *ukłúw*, # *ukłín* and *úxuđ*, # *uxđý*, # *uxđúw*, # *uxđín*.<sup>51</sup>

In 'LA the sg. masc. is *kuł* and (velarized) *xuđ*, but the other imperatives are the same.

2.3.4.2.2. *Phonetic quality of word-final anaptyctics*

Anaptyctics resolving word-final clusters have a phonetic quality near I.P.A. [ʊ] in labial and/or velarized environments. Anaptyctics in neutral environments will be near (centralized) [ɪ]. Examples listed for group VI can also be heard in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

of aspiration might become relevant”. I did not notice any relevant degree of aspiration. For the conclusion drawn here of /k/ and /k/ as separate phonemes see 1.1.1. and 3.1.12.3.1.

<sup>50</sup> This is the same as described for group I in De Jong 2000:128.

<sup>51</sup> Nishio 1992:91 (XIV-2) lists *oxod ~ xod*, *oxođi ~ xođi*, *oxođu ~ xođu*, *oxođen ~ xođen*, but *okul ~ kul*, *okli*, *oklu* and *oklen* for ĞbA. In the majority of cases Nishio indicates non-elision of the short high vowel reflexes of CiCaC, e.g. *zubab* “penises” (p. 7 (I-54)), *kusas* “vulvas” (p. 7 (I-56)), *őowak* “ploughs” (p. 36 (V-25)), *őonađ* “bags” (p. 38 (V-35)), *turab* “graves” (p. 44 (VI-29)), *sikak* “roads” (p. 69–70 (IX-24)), *geőaő* “stories” (p. 74 (X-14)), *nogađ* “points” (p. 143 (XX-11)), *heđađ* “places” (p. 154 (XXII-1)), *nimar* “numbers” (p. 173 (XXIV-48)) and also *dora* (p. 17 (III-11)), *gora* “villages” (p. 55 VIII-1)).

2.3.5. *Stressed original anaptyctics*

In the reflex of the pattern CīCaC (i.e. CuCaC or CiCaC) in ṬwA (except ĞbA) and HnA originally anaptyctic vowels have become part of the morphophonemic base. Stress is then placed in conformity with rules described in 2.1.1. In most cases the phonetic value of the vowel is coloured in by the vowel already present in the pattern.

Examples are (for the pattern \*CīCaC) (with initial *a-*) *árkab* “knees”, *ášnaṭ* “suitcases, bags”, *áštāl* “seedlings”, *áhgan* “injections”, *ánxaṛ* “noses”, *áwraš* “workshops”, *ángar* “pits”, *álmaḍ* “lamps (sg. *lambah*)”, *ágraḥ* “water skins”, *álab* “tins; packets”, *ašwar* “pictures”, *áxša* “testicles” and (with initial *i-*) *íšti* “winter”, *ífi* “viper”, *šalāt íší* “evening prayer”.

Forms recorded in ĞbA are more like those heard in group I (apart from the fact that the article is not stressed in ĞbA) e.g. *hāt iligráb* “bring the waterskins”, (*i*)*lihgán* “the injections”, *iššnáṭ* “the suitcases, bags” and comparable stressing in the form *šalāt ilíší* “the evening prayer” (though also *ilíší* was heard).<sup>52</sup>

In ‘LA there is a development in progress; in some cases the new pattern aCCaC has already come into use (e.g. *áhgan*, *ángar*), in other cases the pattern CCaC is still being used (see also remarks in 2.1.1.1.), e.g. *álgraḥ* “the waterskins” (not (*a*)*lágraḥ*).

See also stress patterns in imperative forms of the verbs (3.2.2.3.) “eat” and “take”.

Notice that the development of original anaptyctics becoming stressable and colouring with the base vowel has taken place in dialects of the Samānah and ‘Agāyilah in the north of Sinai (group II) as well, see De Jong 2000:270–271.

Examples of plurals with \*’ as the first radical are (’)*ábaṛ* “needles”<sup>53</sup> and (’)*áwaḍ* “rooms”.

Plurals ending in \*-īy have reflexes -iy like in: *gniy* “bunches of dates”,<sup>54</sup> *hšiy* “rocks”,<sup>55</sup> *rhiy* “hand mills” and *šiy* “sticks”.

<sup>52</sup> See also remarks in 1.2.4.4. above.

<sup>53</sup> See also Nishio 1992:16.

<sup>54</sup> From the context it is clear that the pl. of “date bunches” is meant here. Compare also differences in stress and pronunciation in *Bīr iGnī* | *Bīr iGnīy* | *Bīr Ignah* (the latter stressed on I) (located at appr. 28.51.51 North and 33.43.35 East). Compare this to the different pronunciations of *Wādīy Sli*’, *Wādīy Sliy*, or *Wādīy Islah* | *Aslah* (cf. 1.2.4.4. and 3.1.5.).

<sup>55</sup> In ‘LA a form *liḥši*’ was recorded, which must reflect the coll. *ḥašan* (root *ḥ-ṣ-y*). I do not have an explanation for the raising of final -ā preceded by the emphatic *šād*.

In ṬwA (however, for remarks on ĞbA see 3.1.16.) and HnA the preposition *m(i)'* followed by a vowel-initial suffix will be stressed as follows, e.g. *ím'uh*, *ím'uĥ*, *ím'ik*, except stress is on the final (long) vowel in *im'ī*. Negated forms are stressed *má-m'uŒ*, *ma ml'ĥuŒ*, *ma ml'kiŒ* and (more predictably) *ma m'is̄*.

In 'LA the suffixed preposition *m'* will be stressed on the vowel of a vowel-initial suffix, e.g. *m'úĥ* "with you" and *m'úh* "with him" (for more remarks on stress in suffixed prepositions see 3.1.16.).

#### 2.4. Elision of Short Vowels

ṬwA, HnA and 'LA are 'différentiels' in terms of short vowel elision.<sup>56</sup> The rule is like that already formulated for group VI. The rules for morphophonemic elision are compulsory.

##### 2.4.1. Morphophonemic I-elision

Rules given for group VI are valid here as well.

##### 2.4.2. I-elision in sandhi

Like in group VI, morphophonemic elisions of short high vowels *i* and *u* are compulsory, but comparable elisions in sandhi are optional.

##### 2.4.3. Cyclic anaptyxis rule in sandhi

The optional I-elision rule in sandhi may be applied after the execution of the anaptyxis rule, e.g. (the cluster is underlined and in bold print, the anaptyctics are in bold print and the high vowel eligible for sandhi-elision is underlined):

- 1) *bittallí' + 'yūn > bittallí' 'yūn > bittallí' í'yūn > bittallí' í'yūn* "it (sg. fem.) grows flower buds".

In this first example the cluster "y is resolved, after which the high vowel *i* preceding it lands in open syllable (thus becoming eligible for elision) and is dropped.

Like in group VI, the I-elision rule may also be *re*-applied after execution of the rule for anaptyxis, as in the example: *urbuĥ ĥzāmuĥ > urbuĥ ĥzāmuĥ > urbuĥ ĥzāmuĥ > úrbuĥ ĥzāmuĥ* "fasten your seat belt".

<sup>56</sup> See Cantineau 1936:49.

In this second example the cluster *tʰz* is resolved, after which the high vowel *u* preceding *t* is in open syllable (thus becoming eligible for elision) and is dropped, creating a new cluster *rbt*, which is then eliminated by insertion of another anaptyctic *u*.

Such examples are also found in ṬLA.

#### 2.4.4. Exceptions to the *I*-elision rule

When  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  in  $C_a C_a I C_b$  are phonetically close or identical, *I* is not dropped. An example is *bitġázzizuh* “you sow it (of watermelon seed, by inserting each seed into its own hole in the soil)”.

Another exception to the high vowel elision rule was found through direct elicitation in ŠwA, ḤmA and HnA with the act. participles (sg. fem.) *mta’ákninih*, (pl. masc.) *mta’akninīn* and (pl. fem.) *mta’aknināt* “irritated”. In ASA the *i*-elision does take place (with immediate subsequent anaptyxis) *mta’akinnih*, *-īn*, *-āt* and in ĠbA and ṬLA both *mta’ákninih* and *mta’akinnih* (and *mit’akninīn* | *mit’akinnīn*, *mit’aknināt* | *mit’akinnāt*) were recorded.

#### 2.5. Assimilation

Three types of contact assimilations can be identified: regressive (partial or total), progressive (partial or total) and reciprocal (total).<sup>57</sup>

Apart from contact assimilations of *l* of the article *il-* or *al-* to ‘sunletters’, *l* is also—more regularly so than in group VI—assimilated to following *ġ*, as in *iġġild* “the skin”, *iġġizzār* “the butcher”, *iġġism* “the body” and *iġġamr* “the live embers” and *iġġim’ah ġġāyih* “the next Friday”. This type of assimilation may be regularly heard in ṬwA, HnA and ṬLA. Assimilation of *l* to initial *k* was not recorded.

Assimilations listed for group VI are current in ṬwA, HnA and ṬLA as well. Some additional examples are:

Regressive total:

<i>t + s</i>	> <i>ss</i>	<i>ssūg</i> “you drive”
<i>t + š</i>	> <i>šš</i>	<i>ššall</i> “you pray”
<i>t + ḍ</i>	> <i>ḍḍ</i>	<i>biḍḍall</i> “you stay/keep on”

An example of regressive total assimilation with reduction of the preceding geminate is (recorded in ṬLA):

<sup>57</sup> For remarks on contact assimilation involving the spread of velarization cf. 1.1.7.

$ll + n > nnn$  (I.P.A. [n:]) *xannī* “let me”

Instances of regressive partial assimilation were also recorded in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

Progressive total assimilation of initial *h-* of pronominal suffixes to preceding voiceless consonants is regular in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA, as well as reciprocal total assimilations of the type reported for group VI, e.g. *arīssa* “her bridegroom”, *maṣlahatta* “her department”, *taslaxxa* “you skin it (sg. fem.)”.

In a number of instances the mutual influence of hissing sounds has resulted in a metathesis. Examples in the dialects discussed here are *ṣāğ* (or *ṣāž*) > *šāz* “iron baking sheet”, *sīğih* (or *sīžih*) > *šīzih* “game of *sīğah*”. In ĞbA I heard both *šizn* and *siğn* “prison” and *bitsağğil* and *bitsazzil* “you record”, but in ASA I heard only *basağğil* “I record”.

Another example of the mutual influence of hissing sounds in all dialects is: *šamš* “sun”, but in all dialects *šağar* “trees” is current.

### 3. MORPHOLOGY

#### 3.1. Nominal Morphology

##### 3.1.1. Raising of *a*

###### 3.1.1.1. Raising of \**a* in $C_1aC_2iC_3(ah)$

Raising of *a* in the nominal pattern  $C_1aC_2iC_3(ah)$  occurs regularly, but is optional. Although such raising is much less regular when *X* precedes or follows *a*, it does take place in such positions. The high vowel that results from such raising is not elided.<sup>58</sup>

To illustrate, some forms that were recorded with and without raising in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA are: *kaṭīr* ~ *kiṭīr* “many; much”, *kabūr* ~ *kibūr* “big; old”, *garīb* ~ *girīb* “relative (related person)”, *gadīm* ~ *gidīm* “old”, *dagīg* ~ *digīg* “flour”, *arīs* ~ *irīs* “bridegroom”, *ağīnih* ~ *iğīnih* “dough”, *ba'īd* ~ *bi'īd* “far”, *taxīn* ~ *tixīn* “thick, fat”, *xafīf* ~ *xifīf* “light (in weight)”, *xamīs* ~ *ximīs* “Thursday”, *ğalīd* ~ *ğilīd* “fat”, *naḏīf* ~ *niḏīf* “clean”.

<sup>58</sup> This situation is the same as what was described for group II in the north, see De Jong 2000:272–273. Nishio 1992, however, lists several instances of elisions of this vowel, as in e.g. *ṭgīl* “heavy” (p. 176 (XXIV-74)), *ktīr* “many, much” (p. 176 (XXIV-74)), etc. See also remark \*2 on (non-) elision of ‘underlying *a*’ in 3.2.2.1. and in verbs like *nisiy* and *ligiy* in 3.2.2.5.1.

Some forms recorded only without raising are: *ḥadīd* “iron”, *dalīl* “list (of persons)”, *ṭarīg* “road”, *gaṭīrah* “boat”, *ṣaḥīḥ* “correct”, *raxīṣ* “cheap”, *la'im* “mean person”, (‘) *akīd* “certain”.

Some forms recorded only with raising are: *midīnih* “town”, *yimīn* “right (direction)”, *mi'iz* “goat”, *sirīr* “bed”, *fisīx* “salted fish”.

### 3.1.1.1.2. Raising of a in \*CaCȳ ( $C_3 = y$ )

Raising of a preceding \*CaCȳ ( $C_3 = y$ ) occurs often, but variation is still heard as well. Examples are: *bīriy* “innocent”, *gūwiy* “strong”, *ṭīriy* “moist; soft”, *wīliy* ~ *wāliy* “saint”, *‘Iliy* ~ *‘Aliy* “name” and *nībiy* ~ *nābiy* “Prophet”. A form recorded in ‘LA is *guwīy*.

### 3.1.1.2. Raising of a in open syllable preceding stressed í

No remarks for TwA and HnA.

### 3.1.1.3. Raising of a in CaCCiC(-ah)

Raising of a in CaCCiC(-ah) was not recorded, e.g. *baṭṭīx* “watermelon”, *kabrīt* “matches”, *barmīl* “drum”, *Katrīn* “(St.) Catherine”, *zambīl* “basket for sand”, *sakkīnah* “knife” and *garnīṭ* “octopus”. Also verbal nouns of measure 2 do not show such raising, e.g. *taḡlib* “throwing out (of a line, fishing)” and (‘LA) *tašnīn* “taking aim”.

### 3.1.1.4. Raising of a in CaCCāC

Raising of a in the pattern CaCCāC in ĞbA and GrA is almost without exception when it concerns patterns  $C_1aC_2C_2āC_3$  and  $C_1aC_2C_3ān$ . These patterns have been morphologically restructured as  $C_1iC_2C_2āC_3$  and  $C_1iC_2C_3ān$ .

Examples in TwA and HnA: *šigḡāl*<sup>59</sup> “busy, functioning”, *riḡḡāl* “man”, *siyyāl* “acacia tree”, *millāḥ* “salty type of herb”, *niḡḡār* “carpenter”, *tillāḡah* “fridge”, *willā'ah* “lighter”, *ḥissās* “sensitive”, *ḥiḡḡāriy* “pickaxe”, *milyān* “full”, *sīyyārah* “car”, *ḡiltān* “mistaken”, *diblān* “wrinkled (of skin of fruit)”, although also *ḡaltān* and *raḡḡāl* were recorded.<sup>60</sup>

In ‘LA comparable forms show that morphological restructuring has not taken place, but that raising is optional: *šab'ān* “satiated”, *raddāḡah* “roast pit”, *ragḡāṣah* “dancer (fem.)”, *aṭšān* “thirsty”, *ḡaltān* “mistaken”,

<sup>59</sup> In ĞbA *ḡḡ* in *šagḡāl* was several times pronounced with very little friction, and sounded more like velarized *gg*.

<sup>60</sup> Nishio 1992 also lists several instances of such raising in ĞbA, but mainly in neutral environments, e.g. *tilfān* “thin, lean” (p. 41 (VI-8)), *wuḡ'ān* “ill” (p. 41 (VI-11)), *riḡḡāl* “(adult) man” (p. 48 (VII-11)), but also *naḡḡār* “carpenter” (p. 58 (VIII-38)) and *kaslān* “lazy” (p. 149 (XXI-9)). Nishio usually transcribes a in positions influenced by emphatics or back spirants, e.g. *baṭṭāniye* “blanket” (p. 29 (IV-35)), *naḡḡāra* “glasses” (p. 33 (V-3)), *‘aryān* “naked” (p. 13 (II-4)), *ḡamyān* and *aṭšān* (both) “thirsty” (p. 23 (III-53)), *šagḡāl* “servant” (p. 53 (VII-43)) and also *ḡa'ān* “hungry” (root ḡ-w-‘) (p. 23 (III-53)).

*ġalbān* “poor, destitute”, *fallāḥ* “farmer”, *Sallām* “male given name”, *rawyān* “well-watered” and (raising in) *kislān* “lazy”, *wiġ'ān* “suffering pain”, *siyyāl* “acacia”, *suwwāġ* “driver”, *tillāġah* “fridge”, *buṛṛād* “kettle” and *wayyāh* ~ *wiyyāh* “with him”.

Also in other patterns *a* is often raised in Twa and HnA when it precedes CCā, e.g.: *hibbāyāt* “corns, seeds”, *miṛṛāt* “times” and also in the pattern for sg. fem. adjectives of colours and physical defects (\*CaCCā'), as in *ṭirmā* “gap-toothed (sg. fem.)”, *gir'ā* “bald (sg. fem.)”, *'iwrā* “one-eyed (sg. fem.)”, *gilbā* “stupid (sg. fem.)” and *ḥimṛā* “red (sg. fem.)”, *ṣifṛā* “yellow (sg. fem.)”, *zīrgā* “black (lit. blue, sg. fem.)” and also *xidrā* “green (sg. fem.)”. Though forms like *xadrā* and *ḥamṛā* were also recorded. In 'LA examples are: *xadrā*, *ḥamṛā*, *samṛā*, but also *zīrgā*, *ṭirmā* “gap-toothed (sg. fem.)”.

Notice that raising of *a* in the pattern for sg. fem. for colours and physical defects may only take place when final *-ā(')* has not been raised to *-īy*, e.g. *'arġīy* “limping (sg. fem.)”, and also the gahawah-form *ṣahabīy* “light coloured (sg. fem.)”.

In ASA, ṢwA, ḤmA and HnA similar raising may take place, but there it is optional and X preceding *a* usually constitutes an inhibiting factor, e.g. *Naṣṣār* ~ *Niṣṣār* “male given name”, *raġġāl* ~ *riġġāl* “man”, *niġġār* “carpenter”, *Silmān* “male given name”, *ṣiyyād* “fisherman” (but *ṣayyādiyyah* “dish with fish”), *biṭṭāniyyah* “blanket”, *kislān* “lazy”, *wiġ'ān* “suffering pain”, *šib'ān* “sated, full”, *ziḡānīn* “fed up (pl. masc.)”.

Variation or no raising in *ġaltān* “mistaken”, *ġalbān* “poor, wretched”, *'ayyān* “ill”, *ta'bān* “tired”, *malyān* “full”, *'iṣšān* ~ *'atšān* “thirsty” and in sg. fem. adjectives for colours and physical defects: *zīrgā* ~ *zargā* “black (lit. blue, sg. fem.)”, *ḥimṛā* ~ *ḥamṛā* red (sg. fem.)”, *raddāḥah* ~ *riddāḥah* “trap net (used to catch birds)”, *ṣafrā* “yellow (sg. fem.)”, *ḥamġā* “stupid, silly (sg. fem.)”, *maṛṛāt* “times”, *ḥabbāt* “corns, bits” and *mi'nāt* + “the meaning of”.

The conclusion for ḤmA, ṢwA, ASA and HnA is that, just like in 'LA, such raising has not led to morphological restructuring, but is optional in neutral environments.

### 3.1.1.5. Raising of *a* in ...CaCāC...

Raising of *a* preceding Cā is current, but is concluded to be optional, since it is often absent in more careful speech.

Some of many examples are: *ġināyāt* “small water courses”, *ġināyin* “gardens”, *zimān* “in the past”, *ġizāz* “glass”, *ṭimānīn* “eighty”, *midāris* “schools”, *misāfiḥ* “distance”, *mišākil* “problems”, *filāyik iṣṣēd* “(small) fishing boats (with sails)”, *bihāyim* “cattle (pl.)”, *ḍibāyih* “animals for slaughter”, *diġāyig*

“minutes”, *šimāl* “north”, *kimān* “also”, *dirāhim* “money”, *ma mišās* “he did not go”, *ilifā’iy* “the vipers”.<sup>61</sup>

In labial environments, raising of *a* may also be towards [u], as in *šuwārib* “lips”, *muwā’in* “receptacles”, *fuwākih* “(different types of) fruit” and *kumān* “also”.

Examples without raising are: *kamān* “also”, *banāt* “girls”, *tamām* “excellent”, *makān* “place”, *kabābīy* “cups”, *ganāh* “small water course”, *šamāl* “north”, *ṭamāṭim* “tomatoes”.

Here too, raising occurs less when *l* or *r* follows *a*, or *X* precedes, e.g. *malāyīn* “millions”, *šalāh* “prayer”, *ṭalāṭah* “three”, *xalāš* “ready”, *salām* “peace”, *Garāršah* “name of tribe”, *farāših* “thin loaves of bread baked on a *šāz* (i.e. a *šāḡ*)”, *maṛākib* “boats”, *farā’nah* “Faraos”, and *’asān* “because”, *ḥašāh* “rock”, *xawāḡih* “foreigner”, *Ḥamāḍah* “name of tribe”, *ḥayāh* “life”, *ḡazāl* “gazelle”. Also when ’ precedes, raising is not regular, e.g. (’)*amākin* “places”, (’)*ašābi’* “fingers; toes”. Such examples may also be heard in ‘LA.

This raising of *a* in open syllable directly preceding stressed *ā* was found to be much less current in the dialect of the Šawālḥah (ŠwA) than in the other ṬwA dialects.

### 3.1.1.6. Raising of *a* in ...CaCá...

Given the different rules for stress in groups VI and VII (CaCáC and CáCaC resp.), *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *á* is not as regular as in group VI. However, when *a* is found in this position and in neutral environments, raising may occur like in group VI, but only optionally so, e.g. *’iláy* “on me”, *ḡimál’k* “your camel”, *tiḥáthi* “under her”, *ma tiḥáthiš* “not under her”.

Such raising only occurs on a limited scale, however; examples of non-raising are numerous, e.g.: *dabáḥtuh* “I slaughtered it”, *ṛagabát’k* “your neck”, *katábt* “I wrote” and also *ḡahawátḡum* “your (pl. masc.) coffee”.

Since the stress pattern CaCáC is current in ‘LA, many more instances were to be expected of this type of raising. Its occurrence is, however, limited. Examples are: *ḡimál* “camel”, *ḡibál* “mountain” and *muṭár* “rain”.

### 3.1.1.7. Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *A*

Like in group II of the north, raising of *a* towards I.P.A. [ɪ] preceding *Cā* is current, but similar raising of *a* preceding stressed *Cá* is not regular in ṬwA and HnA, although in ‘LA a limited number of instances of such raising were recorded.

<sup>61</sup> Compare C.A. *af’ a*’, pl. *afā’i*’ (root *f’-y*).

3.1.1.8. *Raising of a in CaCūC(ah)*

Like raising of *a* towards I.P.A. [ɪ] in open syllable preceding Cī, *a* in open syllable is also often raised—usually towards I.P.A. [ʊ]—when it precedes Cū. Examples are: *buxūr* “incense”, *xurūf* “lamb”, *ġinūb* ~ *ġunūb* “south”, *ġumūs* “food dip”, *urūs* “bridegroom”, *fuṭūr* “breakfast”, *yuhūd* “Jews” and (with initial *hamzah*) *uḫūy* “my father” and *uxūy* “my brother”, and also 1st p. sg. com. imperfect forms of mediae *wāw* verbs *ugūm* “I get up”, *ugūl* “I say”. These forms may be heard in ṬwA, HnA and also in 'LA. Some additional 'LA examples are *lugūḥ* “pregnant (of a she-camel)” and *gu'ūd* “young male camel”.

Like raising of *a* preceding *ī*, raising of *a* preceding *ū* is optional; forms like *'aġūz* “old lady”, *ġanūb* “south”, *'arūsah* “bride”, *ḥamūlih* “animal led to a party to be slaughtered”, *yahūd* “Jews” may also be heard. Such forms were recorded in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

Notice also the form (in HnA) *'abūr* in the name *madrasat il'Abūr* “the Crossing<sup>62</sup> School”. Since *u* of the first syllable in the MSA loan *'ubūr* is not dropped in pronunciation, which would result in *'būr* (compare e.g. *'yūn* < *'uyūn* for “eyes”, see 3.1.5.), it appears to be interpreted as raised *a* (which is not dropped in such positions) and the base form is concluded to be *'abūr*. Since raising of *a* in such positions is however only optional, one may also hear a form like *'abūr*. Similar reasoning would lie behind the form (also loaned from MSA) *ḥakūmah* “government”.

Notice also that some surface forms of the type CaCūC are actually underlying CāCūC, with reduced *ā*; such shortened *a* for *ā* is not raised, examples are *mā'ūn* (*ma'ūn*) “container”, *nāmūsiyyih* (*namūsiyyih*) “mosquito net”.

A gahawah-vowel in open syllable preceding Cū is not raised, e.g. *maxaṭūb* “engaged”, *ma'arūf* “known”, *maḥafūḍ* “well-kept”, *ma'adūs* “lentil soup” (such forms were recorded in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA).

3.1.1.9. *Raising of a in open syllable preceding stressed u*

*a* in open syllable preceding stressed *ú* is found much less often in group VII than in group VI. Although this may be partly due to differences in stress patterns (C'CVc in ṬwA and HnA as opposed to CvC'c), such 'LA forms (which also stresses CvC'c) are few.

<sup>62</sup> The ‘crossing’, C.A. *'ubūr*, refers to the crossing of the Suez Canal of the Egyptian army into Sinai during the 1973 Arab-Israeli War (also referred to as Ramadan War, October War or Yom Kippur War).

Some instances of *u*-type verbal perfects are *ǰuluḏt* “I grew fat”, *ǰuluḏtin* “you (pl. fem.) grew fat”.

A form quite typical for ‘LA (i.e. it was only heard sporadically in ḤmA and not in the other dialects discussed here) is *‘ilúh*, which also appears without raising as *‘alúh* “on him” (see remark \*4 in 3.1.16.). Notice here that in the absence of velarization or labialization, raising is towards *i*, even though the stressed vowel following is *u*.

### 3.1.1.10. *a-raising rules combined*

Combining the rules for raising of *a* described in the paragraphs above, we may summarize as follows:

$$a > I / C_a \_ C_b \bar{I}C$$

$\bar{I}$  = long vowel  $\bar{u}$  or  $\bar{i}$

$I$  = short high vowel  $u$  if  $\bar{I}$  is  $\bar{u}$ ; short high vowel  $i$  if  $\bar{I}$  is  $\bar{i}$

$C_b$  = consonant capable of carrying velarization in case of raising to  $u$

Notice the difference with the rule formulated in De Jong 2000:150; the provision of  $C_a \neq *$  made for the group I dialects described there is not made here, i.e. preceding “\*hamzah” does not inhibit such raising in the dialects described here.

### 3.1.2. *Reflexes of \*C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah)*

For reflexes of CaCC(-ah) the following forms were recorded in ṬwA: *badw* “Bedouin”, *táḥat* “under” (also ‘LA), *fáḥam* “coal”, *waḥdah* (~ *wiḥdih* in ĠbA, ḤmA and ‘LA) “one (sg. fem.)”, *naḥyih* “direction”, *šá‘ab* “difficult”, *šakl* “shape”, *šáḥan* “dish, plate” (also ‘LA), *ǰady* “kid goat” (also ‘LA), *šadr* “chest”, *wakl* “food” (also ‘LA), *karš* “(fat) belly”, *kalb* “dog” and *ǰidd* “grandfather” (also ‘LA) and *ǰifn* “eyelid”.

### 3.1.3. *Reflexes of \*CaCiC(ah)*

*wirk* “thigh”,<sup>63</sup> *kitf* “shoulder”, *kilmih* “word”, *širkih* “company”.

### 3.1.4. *Reflexes of C<sub>1</sub>uC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah)*

Some reflexes of C<sub>1</sub>uC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah) are: *bunn* “coffee beans”, *rizz* “rice”, *kull* “all; every” (also ‘LA), *umḥ* “mother” (also ‘LA), *uxt* “sister” (also ‘LA), *Ǧim‘ih* “male given name” (also ‘LA), *muddih* “period”, *ḥurmah* “woman” (also

<sup>63</sup> For ĠbA *wilk*, *wlāk* is reported in Nishio 1992:7 (I-58).

‘LA), *zibdiḥ* “butter” (also ‘LA), *rikbih* “knee”, *hinnih* “they (fem.)” (also ‘LA), *Œuggah* “a woven length of a tent (about 1 m. wide)”.

### 3.1.5. *Absence of I in open syllables preceding stress*

As is the case in all dialects of Sinai, a high vowel *i* or *u* in open initial syllables of the type CIC(V) preceding stress (on V) is dropped.

When V is a long vowel, an initial CC cluster is the result, e.g.: *snġn* “years”, *yġn* “eyes” and *ġnġh* “pound (money)”, *ġbġl* “mountains”, *ġŒayyir* “short”. Such forms are regular in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA.

When V is a short vowel, the anaptyctic vowel which precedes the CC cluster ‘on the surface’ has become part of the morphological base.<sup>64</sup> The phonetic value of this anaptyctic is steered by the vowel that was already part of the base. Examples with short vowels are: *ġrkab* “knees”, *ġḥgan* “injections”, *if‘i* “viper”, *iŒti* “winter”. Such forms are regular in ṬwA and HnA, but in ‘LA forms like *ḥgan*, *Œnaṭ* “suitcases” and *‘nab* “grapes” are predominant, although also forms *if‘iy* ~ *if‘ih* are heard.

Exceptions to such elisions are often found in MSA loans, e.g.: *niŒġm* (all dialects) “system”, *bidġyithi* “its (sg. fem.) beginning”, *xumġl* “tiredness” (ĞbA), *nihġ‘iy* “final” (ĞbA), *siyġḥah* “tourism” (ḤmA), *‘ibġrah* ‘an “consisting of” (ŒwA) and *ġizġz* “glass” (although perhaps better interpreted as underlying |ġazġz|) (‘LA).

Verb forms listed for group VI are also current in ṬwA and HnA. The verb “come” however has imperfect forms with a long base vowel *ġ*, e.g. *yġġiy* “he comes”, which is again like forms in group II of the north (see De Jong 2000:307, contrast with groups I and VI, see 3.2.2.6.1.).

### 3.1.6. *Diminutive patterns*

The usual diminutives expressing ‘littleness’, ‘shortness’, ‘narrowness’ etc. were recorded as e.g. *ġrayyib* “near”, *Œġayyir* “small; young”, *rfayyī* “narrow”, *ḏ‘ayyifih* “weak (sg. fem.)”, *ġġayyil* “few; little”, *kwayyis* “good”, *Œwayyih* “a bit” and (as a common dim. used to euphemistically refer to women) *ḥrayyim* “women”.

<sup>64</sup> The implication of such elisions is that stress was CICġC, and that it must have shifted in the course of time.

In ŠwA the viper (*ilíf‘i*) was also referred to as *swēd illēl*, lit. “the (little) blackness of night”. Other diminutives are: *rišrēš maṭar*<sup>65</sup> “a few drops of rain”, *ibtākl iṭwēr* “it (sg. fem.) eats small birds”, *zrēgān* “dark-coloured thoroughbred camel”, *yā-buw šhayybi* “my little friend (as a form of address)”.

Except in the form *zrēgān*, the hypocoristic *-ān* suffix, which was recorded in some of the dialects of group I,<sup>66</sup> was not heard in ṬwA and HnA.

### 3.1.7. Pattern $aC_1C_2aC_3$

The pattern used for colours and physical (and sometimes mental) defects is (for sg. masc.)  $aC_1C_2aC_3$  (e.g. *abyad*) and  $aC_1aC_2aC_3$  (e.g. *āḥamar*, stressed on the first syllable) where  $C_1 = X$ . Other examples are like those listed for group VI.

The sg. fem. forms have a  $C_1aC_2C_3ā$  pattern, with a final *-ā* that has remained long and which is often in pause followed by an unreleased glottal stop (e.g. *bēḏā’, ḥamrā’*). There is an additional *a* following  $C_2$  when it is X and final *-ā* is raised to *-íy* when  $C_3$  is neutral (e.g. *šḥabíy*). Other examples are like those listed for group VI.

In the pl. com. forms for colours and physical defects all dialects (including ‘LA) show  $C_1uC_2C_3$  as the pattern, i.e. like in MzA of group VI. Only in ĠbA both *‘imy* and *‘umy* for “blind” were heard.

Plural forms for “black” and “white” are *sūd* ( $C_2 = wāw$ ) and *bīḏ* ( $C_2 = yā’$ ).

### 3.1.8. The relative patterns $aC_1C_2aC_3$ , $aC_1aC_2C_3$ and $aC_1C_2a$

The relative patterns are like in group VI:  $aC_1C_2aC_3$ , e.g. *aktar* “more; most”,  $aC_1aC_2C_3$ , e.g. *agall* “less; least” and  $aC_1C_2a$  (without gahawah-vowel), e.g. *aḥla* “sweeter; sweetest”.

<sup>65</sup> Notice reduplication of the biconsonantal root *r-š-š* with its general meaning of “spray, spatter, splash” to express. See also EALL 2009 (Vol IV):50–53.

<sup>66</sup> See De Jong 2000:153.

3.1.9. *Initial a*3.1.9.1. *The article and the relative pronoun*

The article is *il-* in all dialects and the relative pronoun is *illiy*. The article is not a stressable unit (see 2.1.1.), except in ĤmA, where the (stressable) article *al-* is used parallel to the (unstressable) article *il-*. Examples in ĤmA are *ál'aš'i' ~ il'aša'* “the dinner”, *álġada' ~ ilġáda'* “the lunch”, *álġanam ~ ilġánam* “the sheep”.

Examples in other dialects of ṬWA are: *ilġámal* “the camel”, *tá'aġn il'aġīnah dīyyih* “you knead this dough”.

The relative pronoun is *illiy*. Examples are: *fih amākin ġaṭs ĥilwah nihā fi Đáhab.w illiy biyrawwḥ Uḥuw lHōl*<sup>67</sup> “there are beautiful dive sites here in Đahab. And there are those (lit. sg.) who go to the Blue Hole” and *ḥasab kimmīyt illaban illiy 'induk' ād* “depending on how much milk you have, of course”.

An example of how *il-* and *al-* may appear side by side in ĤmA: *nasraḥ b ilġánam w iḥna šġayyrīn. inġōtir ilbarṛ yā salām iyṭubb álmuṭar...* “we used to roam around with the small cattle when we were young, we used to go to the desert, oh my goodness, and (then) the rain would fall...”.

Only in ĞbA and ĤmA *l* of the article assimilates to *šti'*, as in *f-iššti'* “in (the) winter”. In other dialects one will hear *fi líšti'*. Similarly (in ĤmA) *hāt áššnaṭ* “go get the bags!”, where the other dialects have *ilášnaṭ*.<sup>68</sup> An example from ASA is *hatíġib ilášwar walla tánam 'ilēhin* “are you going to bring the photos or keep them (fem.) for yourself (lit. sleep on them)?”.

'Specifying' *ha-* was heard used only in adverbial *halḥīn* “now”, e.g. *fih bu'ran bitxāf halḥīn law nizilt iššāri', bitxāf mi l'aṛabiyyih* “there are camels that are afraid, if you would now go out on the street, they would be afraid of a car”.

In 'LA the preference is for *al-* and *alliy*, but *il-* and *illiy* have also been recorded. The article *il-* (with initial *i*) is heard mainly when preceding a noun with a high vowel, as in e.g. *šalāt ilmīġrib* “the sunset prayer”, *ilíkri(')* “the wages”, but also *álfaras ~ ilfáras* “the horse”. When the article is stressed, the vowel is usually *a* (e.g. *álġada'* “lunch”, *ál'aša'* “dinner”,

<sup>67</sup> *Aḥuw lHōl*—literally “the Sfinx”—is the local name for the dive site known in English as (almost homophonic) the “Blue Hole”. The dive site is located at approximately 28.34.20 North and 34.32.13 East, see Google Earth.

<sup>68</sup> For differences in stress inside ĞbA (i.e. spoken near the monastery or in Wādiy aš-Šēx near aṭ-Ṭarfa) see remarks below in 3.1.16.

*álgrab* “the watersacks”), but sometimes colours with the vowel of the noun, as in *šalāt lli‘ši* “evening prayer” and *lliši* “the rocks”.

### 3.1.9.2. Other instances of initial a

Forms in ṬwA and HnA are: *uḥḥ* “mother”, *uxt* “sister”, *iḥna* “we”, (‘) *ábar* “needles” and (‘) *áwaḍ* “rooms”. Forms recorded in ‘LA are *uḥḥ*, *uxt*, *álabar* and *álawāḍ*.

For *a*-initial plurals for the \*CICaC pattern (e.g. *ágrab* “water skins” and *áṣwar* “pictures”; in ‘LA *álgrab* was heard), see 2.3.5.

### 3.1.10. The feminine morpheme (T) in genitive construction

T in genitive construction is treated like in the dialect of the Samā‘nah of group II in the north:<sup>69</sup> T preceded by any sequence –CaC (including C + gahawah-vowel a + C) in genitive construction becomes –CaCat. The rule is:

T > at / ... CaC\_\_ + gen.

C = any consonant

a = any a, including a produced by the gahawah-syndrome

Nishio 1992:XV, however, describes a situation for ĞbA in which the phonetic quality of the T-vowel is basically phonetically conditioned: “[t]he reflex of the Classical Arabic feminine ending *-ah* (*tā’ marbūṭa*) is *-ε* (cf. in the possessive construction, [-εt] ~ [-et] ~ [-t] except when after the emphatic consonants, or /r/, /x/, /ġ/, /ḥ/, /‘.”

#### 3.1.10.1. T in genitive construction preceded by a in open syllable

Like in group VI, the feminine morpheme *-ah* ~ *-ih* in construct state becomes *-at* when aC directly precedes. Examples of aCT + suffix: (dual) *sanatēn* “two years” and *raġabatuh* “his neck”.

Notice that resyllabication of a sequence CaCaCTv does not take place in ṬwA or HnA (contrast MzA of group VI), whether these are suffixed verbals or nominals, e.g. *raġabatuh* “his neck” and also verb form *ḍárabatuh* “she hit him”.

#### 3.1.10.2. The rule for T not directly preceded by aC or v̄

Like in group VI when not preceded by aC, the fem. morpheme *-ah* becomes *-it* (or *-t* when a long vowel v̄ directly precedes, see 3.1.10.4.) in construct state.

<sup>69</sup> See De Jong 2000:279–281.

The *i* of the ending *-it* may then be subject to the rule for high vowel elision, after which often an anaptyctic is inserted. Examples listed for group VI may also illustrate the situation in ṬwA and HnA.

3.1.10.3. *T preceded by the gahawah-vowel a*

Forms in which a gahawah-vowel *a* directly precedes T in open syllable are treated in the same way as forms in which such a preceding *a* is 'historical'.<sup>70</sup> Examples are: *gahawatī* "my coffee", *gāhawatuḥ* "his coffee", *gahawát<sup>u</sup>k* "your coffee" and *naxalātī* "my date palm", *naxaláthum* "their date palm" and *naxalát<sup>u</sup>k* "your (sg. fem.) date palm", etc.

3.1.10.4. *T following ā*

T preceded by *ā* yields *-āḥ*, e.g. *şalāḥ* "prayer" and when in construction, T > *-t*, as in *şalāt ilí ší* "the evening prayer".

3.1.10.5. *Nominal ending -it in construction vs. verbal 3rd p. sg. perf. ending -at*  
The high vowel *i* of the nominal ending *-it* is dropped when it is in open unstressed syllable, e.g. *nāgtuḥ* "his she-camel".

The low vowel *a* in verbal forms of the 3rd p. sg. perf. is not dropped, e.g. *şāfatuḥ* "she saw him" and *ma şāfatuş* "she did not see him".

3.1.11. *Genitive marker*

The genitive marker is *şuġl*, but in ĞbA also *ḥagg* was recorded in spontaneous text. Informants who claimed (when asked) that *ḥagg* was used in their dialects too were speakers of ASA and HnA. *ḥagg* does not appear to be current in GrA, ŞwA and ĤmA.

Apart from *şuġl* and *ḥagg*, K-form *btā'* is often used.<sup>71</sup>

The paradigms for *şuġl* and *ḥagg* are like those listed for group VI, except the 3rd and 2nd p. pl. masc. suffixes, which are *-huw* and *-kuw* in group VI: see 3.1.12. for the suffixes in ṬwA and HnA.<sup>72</sup>

A preference for the construct state instead of indirect annexation could not be concluded from the available data.

<sup>70</sup> For a different situation in group I, see De Jong 2000:158–160.

<sup>71</sup> Nishio 1992:192–194 (XXVII-8) reports the same three possibilities for ĞbA.

<sup>72</sup> In Nishio 1992:192–194 (XVII-8) transcribes a as T vowel in closed syllables in *şoġlat* + C and *ḥaggat* + C (e.g. *şoġlatne* and *ḥaggatne* "our") and *ət* for T in open syllables: (with T-vowel not elided!) *şuġlāti* and *ḥaggāti* "my" (though elision of the *ə* is given as an option in e.g. *marr(ə)tēn* "twice" (p. 173 (XXIV-49)), but *e* in e.g. *bta'etne* "ours" and the T-vowel elided in open syllables, e.g. in *bta'ti* "my").

3.1.12. *Personal pronominals*3.1.12.1. *Independent pronominals*

In ṬwA and HnA the following independent pronominals are used:

	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>hū / huwwa</i> <sup>73</sup>	<i>hum(ṁa)</i> <sup>74</sup>
fem.	<i>hī / hiyya</i> <sup>75</sup>	<i>hin(na)</i> <sup>76</sup>
2. masc.	<i>intah</i> <sup>77</sup> / <i>intih</i>	<i>intuṁ / intuw</i> <sup>78</sup>
fem.	<i>intiy</i> <sup>79</sup>	<i>intin</i> <sup>80</sup>
1. com.	<i>ána</i> <sup>81</sup>	<i>iḥna</i> <sup>82</sup>

In ṢwA, HnA, ĞbA and ASA the following negated pronominals are used:

	negated*	
	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>mahiš</i>	<i>mahúṁš</i>
fem.	<i>mahüş</i>	<i>mahínš</i>
2. masc.	<i>mántiš</i>	<i>mantüş</i>
fem.	<i>mantiš</i>	<i>mantínš</i>
1. com.	<i>maniš</i>	<i>máḥniš</i>

\* In GrA direct elicitation yielded: *māhū, māhī, mantih, mantiy, mana, māhum, māhin, mantuṁ, mantin* and *maḥna*.

In ḤmA and (additional forms in) ĞbA the forms recorded are: *mānī, mintih, mintiy, māhū, māhī, miḥna, mintuw / mintuṁ, mintin, māhum, māhin*.

3.1.12.2. *Pronominal suffixes*

In ṬwA, HnA and ṬLA the following pronominal suffixes are used:

	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	(C)C- <i>u(h), v̄-(h)</i> <sup>*1</sup>	- <i>hum</i> <sup>*5</sup>
fem.	- <i>ha</i> / - <i>hi'</i> <sup>*2</sup>	- <i>hin</i> <sup>*5</sup>

<sup>73</sup> Nishio 1992:179 (XXV-13) gives "hū (~ hūwa cf. < CLA or Cairene Ar.)."

<sup>74</sup> Nishio 1992:180 (XXV-17) gives "hummo (~ humma cf. < Cairene Ar. Young people prefer this form.)" for ĞbA.

<sup>75</sup> Nishio 1992:179 (XXV-15) gives "hī (~ hiye ~ hiya < CLA or Cairene Ar.)" for ĞbA.

<sup>76</sup> Nishio 1992:180 (XXV-19) gives "henne" for ĞbA.

<sup>77</sup> Nishio 1992:178 (XXV-3) only gives *inta* for ĞbA.

<sup>78</sup> Nishio 1992:179 (XXV-9) only reports the form "intu (~ intow cf. [intów])", without final -m.

<sup>79</sup> Nishio 1992:178 (XXV-5) gives "inti (~ intey cf. [intéy])" for ĞbA.

<sup>80</sup> Nishio 1992:179 (XXV-11) gives *inten* for ĞbA.

<sup>81</sup> Nishio 1992:178 (XXV-1) also gives *ána* for ĞbA.

<sup>82</sup> Nishio 1992:178 (XXV-3) also gives *iḥna* for ĞbA.

2. masc.	C- <sup>u</sup> k, CC-uk, v̄- <sup>u</sup> k <sup>*3</sup>	-kum <sup>*6</sup> ~ -kuw
fem.	C-k, CC-ik, v̄-k <sup>*3</sup>	-kin <sup>*6</sup>
1. com.	(C)C-ī, v̄-y (poss.)	-na / -ni(‘) <sup>*2</sup>
	-nī (obj.) <sup>*4</sup>	

Initial *h* of the suffixes (in 3rd sg. fem and 3rd pl. masc. and fem.) often assimilates to a voiceless preceding consonant, e.g. *bētum* “their house”.<sup>83</sup>

For allomorphs used with the preposition ‘*ind*, see below 3.1.16.

<sup>\*1</sup> Like in group VI, ṬWA, HnA and ‘LA have the *-u(h)* suffix for the 3rd p. sg. masc. (contrast with *-ah/-ih* in group I, see De Jong 2000:164–165).

Some examples are: *ṭá’amuh hīluw* “its taste is sweet”, *udugguh* “I pound it”, *saḷaxnāh* “we skinned it”.<sup>84</sup>

<sup>\*2</sup> Endings in *-i’* occur mainly in pause and in neutral environments.<sup>85</sup>

<sup>\*3</sup> For remarks on the use of superscript <sup>u</sup>, see remark <sup>\*2</sup> of 3.1.12.2. of group VI in chapter II. For a likely development of these suffixes see the note below these remarks.

<sup>\*4</sup> Suffixes *-ī* and *-nī* for the 1st p. sg. com. are stressed. Unstressed *-i* and *-ni* also occur.<sup>86</sup>

<sup>\*5</sup> Parallel to independent pronominals, the 3rd p. pl. masc. suffix is formed with *-ṇ*, rather than with *-w* (the latter being characteristic of group VI).<sup>87</sup>

<sup>\*6</sup> Like in the speech of older men of the Samā’nah of group II of the north (see De Jong 2000:282–286), final *-ṇ* is regular for the 2nd p. pl. masc.<sup>88</sup>

See also verbal endings in *-ṇ* in 3.2.1.1. and 3.2.1.2. below.

#### NOTE

The suffixes *-k* and *-k* as pronominal suffixes for the second person sg. (resp.) masc. and fem. are likely to have developed in the following manner:

<sup>83</sup> Such assimilations are also reported for ĞbA, see Nishio 1992:180.

<sup>84</sup> For ĞbA Nishio 1992:179 (XXV-14) gives consonant + o and long vowel v̄ + (h).

<sup>85</sup> Nishio 1992:178–179 (XXV-4 and 16) only gives hē for the 3rd p. sg. fem. And nē for the 1st p. pl.com. in ĞbA.

<sup>86</sup> These stressed and unstressed forms are also reported in Nishio 1992:178 (XXV-2) for ĞbA.

<sup>87</sup> Nishio 1992:178–179 (XXV-8) gives k ~ ek for the 2nd p. sg. fem. and ken for the 2nd p. pl. fem.

<sup>88</sup> Nishio 1992:179 (XXV-10) for ĞbA also lists final *-m* in kom. For the pl. fem. form Nishio 1992:179 (XXV-12) gives ken.

In the verbal system of these dialects the endings *-uw* and *-in* are current for the pl. forms for masc. and fem. (resp.). This is the case in both the second person and the third person, e.g. (for the third p. pl.) (imperf.)

*y-ikitb-uw* and *y-ikitb-in* and (perf.) *katab-uw* and *katab-in*, and (for the second p. pl.) (imperf.) *t-ikitb-uw* and *t-ikitb-in* and (perf.) *katab-t-uw* and *katab-t-in*.

In the forms above I have ‘split’ the endings of the second person pl. in the perfect forms into two separate morphemes, since we are dealing here with a reinterpretation of morpheme boundaries in which *-uw* signals ‘pl. masc.’ and *-in* signals ‘pl. fem.’. Logically then, the *-t-* preceding these pl. morphemes, just like in sg. forms, signals ‘second person’ (apart from the fact that sg. com. also has *-t*).

Parallel to this reinterpretation the pronominal system was reinterpreted as *-uw* signalling ‘pl. masc.’ and *-in* signalling ‘pl. fem.’. The *-h-* of the third person was then interpreted as signalling ‘third person’ (masc. *-h-uw* and fem. *-h-in*), while *-k-* was taken to be signalling ‘second person’ in the pronominal system, like *-t-* in the plural suffixes of the perfect in the verbal system.

This reinterpretation could take place only after velarization/ pharyngealization of the preceding *k* (due to the influence of following *-uw* on this *-k-*) had become stable, which resulted in the second person endings pl. masc. *-kuw* and pl. fem. *-kin*. ‘Subtracting’ the reinterpreted new pl. morphemes *-uw* and *-in* (just like in the verbal system) then resulted in second person pronominal suffixes to be used for the sg.: (masc.) *-k* and (fem.) *-k*.

In dialects of group VI this reasoning by analogy (though presumably not a conscious process) was taken a step further; since *-h-* signals ‘third’ person, adding pl. suffixes *-uw* and *-in* resulted in the pronominal suffixes for the pl. (masc.) *-h-uw* and (fem.) *-h-in*.<sup>89</sup>

Since the reinterpretation of morpheme boundaries resulted in a pronominal system that is internally quite logical,<sup>90</sup> even dialects that use a different system may copy this new logical system—wholly or partially—into their own systems.

Notice that in dialects of group VII where we have pronominal suffixes *-huṃ* and *-hin* and verbal second person pl. suffixes *-tum* and *-tin* (if these are indeed ‘original’ verbal endings of the second p. pl.) comparable

<sup>89</sup> See also De Jong 2000: 169, remark \*3).

<sup>90</sup> If we accept that ‘internal logic’ of a system significantly contributes to chances of this system to be copied by speakers of dialects with a different system.

reasoning by analogy has resulted in verbal perfect and imperfect endings *-um* (or *-uṃ*) and *-in*, as in perfect (masc.) *katab-um* and (fem.) *katab-in*, and imperfect (masc.) *y-īkitb-um* and (fem.) *y-īkitb-in*. One of my Ġēgiy informants explained that the *-uṃ* endings are used in more formal settings, such as court sessions.

### 3.1.12.3. *Pronominal suffixes and negation*

When forms with pronominal suffixes are negated with the compound negation *ma . . . -š*, we have the following forms:

		“want need” <sup>91</sup>		negated	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>bidduh</i>	<i>biddhuṃ</i>	<i>ma bidduš*</i>	<i>ma biddhúṃš</i>
	fem.	<i>biddhiʾ</i>	<i>biddhin</i>	<i>ma biddhiš*</i>	<i>ma biddhínš</i>
2.	masc.	<i>bidduk</i>	<i>biddkuṃ /-kuw</i>	<i>ma biddúšš</i>	<i>ma biddkúṃš /-kúš</i>
	fem.	<i>biddik</i>	<i>biddkin</i>	<i>ma biddíkš</i>	<i>ma biddkínš</i>
1.	com.	<i>biddī</i>	<i>biddniʾ</i>	<i>ma biddīš</i>	<i>ma biddniš*</i>

\* Notice that negated forms do not show lengthened vowels and stress does not shift (like in e.g. Cairene Arabic: *ma šuftūš* “I did not see him”, *ma šuftahāš* “I did not see her”, *ma šuftināš* “you did not see us”), and that the *-š* is simply affixed to the final vowel, even if this vowel has been raised. For this reason (i.e. the absence of lengthening), it seems fair to assume that *-kuṃ* is the ‘original’ pron. suffix rather than *-kuw*, since one would not expect lengthening of a final vowel (*\*ū < -u(w)*) with affixed *-š* (i.e. *-ūš* as in *-kúš*) in a system where other vowels are not lengthened when they precede affixed *-š*. A form comparable to the unlengthened forms in *ma bidduš*, *ma biddhiš* and *ma biddniš* would have been *\*ma biddkuš*.

Some examples of negated verb forms are:

		negated
<i>kátabatuh</i>	“she wrote it (sg. masc.)”	<i>ma kátabatuš</i>
<i>katabáttiʾ</i>	“she wrote it (sg. fem.)”	<i>ma katabáttiš</i>
<i>katábtuh</i>	“I wrote it (sg. masc.)”	<i>ma katábtuš</i>
<i>katábtiiʾ</i>	“I wrote it (sg. fem.)”	<i>ma katabttiš</i>

<sup>91</sup> Nishio 1992:196–197 (XXVII-21) also lists *bidd*, but indicates with a schwa that a cluster *dd + C* is resolved, as in e.g. *hī biddəhe timši* “she wishes to leave (or walk)” and *biddəne* “we wish”. Also in verb forms the high vowel tends not to be dropped when preceded by a geminate but is reduced to schwa (“in rapid speech”) in Nishio’s material on ĠbA, it seems, e.g. Nishio 1992:96 (XIV-27) *ydawwəru*, *ydawwəren* “they (masc., fem.) search”, etc. Such forms were not heard in my recordings.

<i>i'itnī yyāh</i>	“give it (sg. masc.) to me”	<i>ma tī'itnīš iyyāh</i>
<i>i'tūnī yyāh</i>	“give (pl. masc.) it to me”	<i>ma tī'tūnīš iyyāh</i>
<i>i'tīhi yyāh</i>	“give (sg. fem.) it (fem.) to her”	<i>ma tī'tīhiš iyyāh</i>
<i>i'tūha</i>	“give (pl. masc.) it to her”	<i>ma tī'tūhaš iyyāh*</i>
<i>i'tīnhī</i>	“give (pl. fem.) it to her”	<i>ma tī'tīnhīš iyyāh*</i>
<i>i'tīnnuh</i>	“give (pl. fem.) it to him”	<i>ma tī'tīnnuš iyyāh</i>

\* Notice the difference in phonetic quality of the vowels preceding -š; the (originally) pausal vowel is directly suffixed with -š.

Other such examples are: *ukūlhi'* “eat (sg. masc.) it (sg. gem.)”, (negated) *ma tākūlhiš* “don't eat (sg. masc.) it (sg. fem.)”, *uḳlīhi'* “eat (sg. fem.) it (sg. fem.)” is negated as *ma tāḳlīhiš* “don't eat (sg. fem.) it (sg. fem.)”, but *uḳlūha* “eat (pl. masc.) it (sg. fem.)” is negated as *ma tāḳlūhaš* “don't (pl. masc.) eat it (sg. fem.)”.

<i>išīlhi'</i> “take it (sg. fem.) away”	negated
<i>išluh</i> “take it (sg. masc.) away”	<i>ma tišīlhiš / ma tšīlhiš</i>
<i>(i)šīlūha</i> “take (pl. masc.) it (sg. fem.) away”	<i>ma tišluš / ma tšīluš</i>
<i>(i)šīlīnuh</i> “take (pl. fem.) it away”	<i>ma tšīlūhaš</i>
<i>(i)šīlūh</i> “take (pl. masc.) it (sg. masc.) away”	<i>ma tšīlīnuš</i>
	<i>ma tšīlūš*</i>

\* Notice that this form is homophonous with the negation of unsuffixed (i.e. without object suffixes) forms:

<i>(i)šīluw</i> “take (pl. masc.) away”	negated as
	<i>ma tšīlūš</i>

Other such examples are:

<i>uxdīh</i> “take (sg. fem.) it”	both negated as
<i>úxdīy</i> “take (sg. fem.)”	<i>ma tāxdīš</i>

and

<i>uxdūh</i> “take (pl. masc.) it”	both negated as
<i>úxduw</i> “take (pl. masc.)”	<i>ma tāxdūš</i>

Similarly, the vowel in the pronominal suffix *-na* is not lengthened when it is in turn suffixed with -š, e.g. *šāfni'* “he saw us”, (negated) *ma šāfniš* “he did not see us” and *šālūni'* “they carried us”, (negated) *ma šālūniš* “they did not carry us”.

N.B.

This treatment of the pl. com. pronominal suffix *-na* differs from treatment of the verbal suffix *-na*: in contrast to the vowel of the pronominal suffix, the vowel of the verbal suffix is lengthened before -š, e.g. *šufna* “we

saw” is negated as *ma šufnāš* “we did not see”, and also suffixed *šufnāh* “we saw him” is negated as (homophonous) *ma šufnāš* “we did not see him”. Similarly, the negated 3rd p. sg. masc. form of the verb “come” is *ma ġāš* “he did not come”, not *ma ġiš* (cf. 3.2.2.6. below).

These remarks do not apply to ‘LA, since ‘LA hardly uses compound negation; negating suffixed verbs in ‘LA is done with preceding *mā*, e.g. *mā byaḥašūh* “they do not stuff it (sg.fem.) (i.e. of food)” and *mā yākilha* “he does not eat it” and *mā byibnūh* “they do not build it” (see also remarks in 3.1.16. and 4.2. of this chapter).

### 3.1.13. *Demonstratives*

#### 3.1.13.1. *Near and far deixis*

Near deixis\*<sup>1</sup>:

	sg.	pl.* <sup>3</sup>
masc.	( <i>hā-</i> ) <i>dah</i> * <sup>2</sup>	( <i>hā-</i> ) <i>dill(-ih)</i> * <sup>4</sup>
fem.	( <i>hā-</i> ) <i>dīy</i>	

\*<sup>1</sup> Forms without initial *hā-* are much more regular than in group I. In dialects other than ḤmA, the forms with initial *hā-* occur mainly in the sg.

\*<sup>2</sup> In pause, and at times also sentence-medially often *dī*’ or *dīh*.

\*<sup>3</sup> In HnA the pl. forms (masc.) *innās duw* and (fem.) *ilīḥrayyim dinn(-ih)* were also recorded.

\*<sup>4</sup> In ḤmA also *hādōl(-ah)* can be heard. Forms with prefixed *hā-* (also in far deixis) are more regular in ḤmA.<sup>92</sup>

In ‘LA the form *duḥ* (~ *dillih*) was also elicited (but a conceivable *din* for the pl. fem was rejected when suggested).

Nishio 1992:181 (XXV-24) gives *dell* ~ *dōl* (the latter being more used among younger speakers) and *dell*et for the fem. in ĞbA.

Notice the absence of velarization in these pl. demonstrative forms. These forms are strongly reminiscent of forms *hadella* and *hadelle* reported by Bergsträsser<sup>93</sup> for the ‘Amārīn near Wādiy Mūsa.

Far deixis\*<sup>1</sup>

	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>dāk(-ah)</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>dallāk(-ah)</i> * <sup>2</sup>
fem.	<i>dīk(-ih)</i>	

<sup>92</sup> Bernabela 2009:27 reports several instances of *dōl* for the pl. masc. and one instance of *dillah* for the pl. fem.

<sup>93</sup> Cf. Bergsträsser 1915. Cf. also the remark in Palva 1991:164.

\*<sub>1</sub> Like in near deixis, also in far deixis ḤmA tends to have forms with initial *hā-*: *hādāḳ(-ah)*, *hādīk(-ih)* and *hādallāḳ(-ah)*.

For ĞbA Nishio 1992:181–182 (XVV-25 and 26) lists *dāka* ~ *hadāka* for sg. masc., *dīke* ~ *hadīke* for sg. fem. and *dallāka* for pl. masc. and *dallāket* for pl. fem. and adds that in the pl. the masc. form is often used “when used as subject”.

\*<sub>2</sub> Velarization present in the forms for far deixis, but absent in the forms for near deixis, is likely to be the result of spreading from velarized *ḳ*.

Like in group VI, “there he/she is (lit.: has come)” or “there they are (masc./fem.) (lit. have come)” is *hēhū ḡīʾ*, *hēhī ḡāt*, *hēhuṃ(ṃa) ḡuw* and *hēhin(na) ḡīn*.

In ĞbA also the following forms were elicited:

*ilihṛummah hikín(nih)* “those women (there)”  
*innās hukúṃ(ṃa)* “those people (there)”  
*ilwálad hukúw(wah)* “that boy (there)”  
*ilbint hikty(yih)* “that girl (there)”

The *k* may also be doubled. Forms recorded in ĞbA and ASA are:

*hukkū ḡīʾ* “there he has come”, *hikkī ḡāt* “there she has come”, *hukkūṃ(ṃah) ḡuw* “there they have come”, *hikkīn(nah) ḡīn* “there they (fem.) have come”.

The origin of these presentatives is probably *hāk* + *hū* or *huwwa*, after which *k* + *h* was assimilated to *kk* and *ā* of *hāk* was shortened and harmonized with the vowel of the suffixed pronominal.

### 3.1.13.2. Specifying *ha-*

Specifying *ha-* was heard only in *halḥīn* “now”.

### 3.1.14. Interrogatives

Interrogatives for 1) “who?”, 2) “what?”, 3) “why?”, 4) “when?”, 5) “where?”, 6) “which?”, 7) “how?”, 8) “how much?”, 9) “how many/much?”.

1) *mīn*, 2) *ēš* / *ēh*, 3) *lēš* / *lēh*, 4) *(i)mtēh* (*mtēn* in ḤmA and ASA and *(i)mtēn* ~ *mitēn* in ĞbA) and *wagtēš* (less regular *wagtēh*), 5) *wēn*, 6) *īyyāt* + sg., 7) *kēf\**, 8) *kam* + sg. “how many?”, *kuṭrāš* / *kuṭrēš* “how much?”, 9) *gaddēš* / *giddēš*.

Nishio 1992 lists the following forms for ĞbA: 1) *mīn* (p. 183 (XXV-30)), 2) *ēš* ~ *ē* (p. 183–184 (XXV-31)), 3) *lēš* ~ *lē* (p. 184 (XXV35)), 4) *mitēn* (~ *imta* from Cairene Arabic) (p. 184 (XXV-36)), 5) *wēn* (~ *fēn* from Cairene Arabic) (p. 184 (XXV-34)), 6) *ayyu* (p. 184 (XXV-32)), 7) *kēf* (~ *izzay* from Cairene

Arabic) (p. 184 (XXV-33)), bkam (p. 185 (XXV-38)), 9) kam (XXV-37)) and translates gaddēš ~ gadreš as “how far” (p. 185 (XXV, 39)).

\* Bernabela 2009:21 (and in also his texts) reports several instances in ĞbA of *izzāy* or *izzayy* ~ *azzayy* (no instances of *kēf* or *kīf*) which I attribute to adaptation by the speaker to the speech of the interviewer (who spoke Cairene).

### 3.1.15. *Adverbs*

3.1.15.1. *Adverbs: “there”, “over there (far away)”, “here”, “thus”, “now”, “still”, “afterwards, after that”*

“Here” is *nihā*(<sup>ˈ</sup>) or *nihāniy*\*<sup>1</sup> (*fi dī* is also used) K-form *hīnih* also appears and perhaps the original form is *hīniy*, “there” is *hnūtiy* or *hnōtiy*\*<sup>2</sup> (*fi dāk(-ah)* is also used, *hnuh* occurs less), *ġād*, sometimes *ġādiy* (both with open *ā*) is used for “over there (far away)” (the opposite being *ġāy* “nearby”). “Thus” is *kīdiy* or *kīdiyyih*, “now” is *halhīn*, “still” is *lissā*(<sup>ˈ</sup>) (and K-form *lissa*) and “afterwards, after that” is *ba'adēn*.

\*<sup>1</sup> *nihāniy* was not heard in ĞbA. Like in group VI, when the preposition *min* precedes *nihā*(<sup>ˈ</sup>), one syllable is haplogically dropped, e.g. *mi-nhā*(<sup>ˈ</sup>) or *mi-nhāniy* “from here; this way (in this direction)”. Bernabela 2009:28 reports *hnūt* and *nihīniy* and a shortened form *nihiy* for ĞbA. Nishio 1992:182 (XXV-28), however, does report *nhāni* and (as a form from Cairene?) *heni* (~ *hena*) for ĞbA.

As a possible origin for the locative adverb *nihā*, one could think of \**hinā* or \**hunā* followed by the (postpositioned, see 3.1.9.1. of chapter III) deictic element *hā*, producing \**hināhā* or \**hunāhā* (stressed on final syllable), after which *ā* of the second syllable was shortened (> \**hinahā* or \**hunahā*, see 1.2.24.), the resulting short *a* was raised (> \**hīnihā* or \**hūnihā*, see 3.1.1.5.) and the first syllable was dropped. On the historical order of these developments it can only be stated with relative certainty that shortening of *ā* and consequent raising of the resulting *a* must have taken place in that order.

\*<sup>2</sup> Nishio 1992:182 (XXV-28) reports *henōt* (i.e. without final -i(y)) and (as a form from Cairene?) *hnāk* (~ *henāk*) for ĞbA.

### 3.1.15.2. *“maybe”*

For “maybe” no forms based on the root *x-w-f* (e.g. *xōf aḷḷah*) or *k-w-d* (e.g. *kūd*) were recorded, but only *yimkin* “maybe, possibly”.

3.1.15.3. *bilḥēl* “at all”

*bilḥēl* “very, extremely” was heard in ĠbA only in combination with a negation in the meaning of “at all”: *baṭlaʿ mašiy ʿana. bass b ilḡamal ma ṭiliʿ tiš. b iṣṣarāḥah, miš b ilḥēl ilbu ʿrān ma barīdhiṣ* “I go out on foot, but I have not gone out with a camel. Frankly, I don’t like camels at all”. Another example is *rawwaḥt iddēr, iw fataḥna ṣṣubih. issuwwāḥ māš ilḡimʿah suwwāḥ b ilḥēl* “I went to the monastery, and we opened up (i.e. their souvenir shop) in the morning. There are no tourists, on Friday there are no tourists at all”.

3.1.15.4. *bišwēš* “slowly, carefully”

Adverbial *bišwēš* was not recorded in ṬwA, nor in HnA or ʿLA. Instead, a construction like *šwayyih šwayyih* “bit by bit” is used.

3.1.15.5. *min xōf* “lest”

*min xōf* in the sense of “lest” (see De Jong 2000:179) was not recorded.

Instead, a construction with *aḥsan* was recorded in HnA: *bitsawwha, mumkin itxallha ḡalīdah, bass in tabḡa ṛfayyʿah tabḡa ēh? aḥsan ibtīstiwiy* “you make it, you could make it thick, but if it is thin it what? Otherwise (lest) it becomes cooked”.

3.1.16. *Prepositions + pers. pronominal suffixes*

Suffixed prepositions recorded in ṬwA, HnA and ʿLA (unless explicitly stated otherwise) are: (suffixes *-ha* and *-na* are usually *-hi* and *-ni* in neutral environments and in ʿLA 2nd p. pl. masc. final *-uw* varies with final *-um*)

	<i>l</i> <sup>+*</sup> <sub>1</sub>		<i>ʿala</i> <sup>+*</sup> <sub>4</sub>		<i>(i)m(i)</i> <sup>+</sup> <sub>6</sub>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>luh</i>	<i>lēhum</i>	<i>ʿilēh</i>	<i>ʿilēhum</i>	<i>imʿuh</i>	<i>miḥhum</i>
fem.	<i>lēha</i>	<i>lēhin</i>	<i>ʿilēha</i>	<i>ʿilēhin</i>	<i>miḥha</i>	<i>miḥhin</i>
2. masc.	<i>luḵ</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>lēʿkuḥ</i>	<i>ʿilēḵ</i>	<i>ʿilēʿkuḥ</i>	<i>imʿuḵ</i>	<i>miʿkuḥ</i>
fem.	<i>lik</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>lēkin</i>	<i>ʿilēk</i>	<i>ʿilēkin</i>	<i>imʿik</i>	<i>miʿkin</i>
1. com.	<i>li</i> <sup>*3</sup>	<i>lēna</i>	<i>ʿaláy(y)</i> <sup>*5</sup>	<i>ʿilēna</i>	<i>imʿi</i>	<i>miʿna</i>

\*<sub>1</sub> The preposition *l* + suffix may in turn again be enclitically suffixed, e.g. *biyṭallīʿ-luh* “he takes out for himself”. This was however only observed with a suffix *-uh*.<sup>94</sup>

\*<sub>2</sub> In ḤmA *lēḵ* and *lēk* or *lēkiy*.

<sup>94</sup> In forms like *ḡāl luḵ* or *ḡāl luḥ* it is not possible to conclude enclitic sufficing; ‘proof of such enclisis would be stress shift or lengthening of a directly preceding vowel, as in e.g. Cairene *ḡibtū-luḥ* “I brought it for him” or *ʿalī-ḡu* “she said to him”. Examples of such vowel lengthening or stress shift were not recorded in these dialects.

\*<sup>3</sup> In ASA and 'LA *lay*.

\*<sup>4</sup> In 'LA direct elicitation yielded (sg.) 'luh, 'lēha, 'luḵ, 'lik, 'lay and (pl.) 'lēhuḡ, 'lēhin, 'lēḵuḡ / -uw, 'lēkin, 'lēna but in spontaneous texts only forms like 'alūh ~ 'ilūh (and also 'alēh), 'alēha, 'alēḵuw / -uḡ etc. occurred. In ĤmA both 'alēh ~ 'ilēh and less regularly 'alūh ~ 'ilūh can be heard.

\*<sup>5</sup> In ĞbA both 'aláy and 'ilēy (compare *īdēy* "my hands") were recorded.

\*<sup>6</sup> In GrA full paradigmatic levelling has produced variant forms (for consonant-initial suffixes) *ími'ha*, *ími'huḡ*, *ími'hin*, *ími'ḵuḡ*, *ími'kin* and *ími'na*, leading to the conclusion that the underlying morphological base is |im'| in this case.

In ĞbA near the monastery and in 'LA forms without stressed original anaptyctic are current: (sg.) *m'uh*, *m'uḵ*, *m'ik* and *m'ī*. In Mrēr (in Wādiy aš-Şēx) ĞbA forms are like those listed in the paradigm above (*ím'uh*, etc.).

In ĤmA 3rd p. sg. masc. was recorded as *m'uh*, and 2nd p. sg. masc. and fem. as *mí'uḵ* and *mí'ik* resp.

	<i>fi+</i>		<i>fōg+<sup>*3</sup></i>		<i>min+</i>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>fih</i>	<i>fihuḡ</i>	<i>fōguh</i>	<i>fōghuḡ</i>	<i>minnuh</i>	<i>minhuḡ</i>
fem.	<i>fīha</i>	<i>fīhin</i>	<i>fōgha</i>	<i>fōghin</i>	<i>minha</i>	<i>minhin</i>
2. masc.	<i>fī'ḵ</i>	<i>fī'ḵuḡ</i>	<i>fōguḵ<sup>*4</sup></i>	<i>fōgḵuḡ</i>	<i>minnuḵ<sup>*5</sup></i>	<i>minḵuḡ</i>
fem.	<i>fīk<sup>*1</sup></i>	<i>fīkin</i>	<i>fōgik<sup>*4</sup></i>	<i>fōgkin</i>	<i>minnik<sup>*5</sup></i>	<i>minkin</i>
1. com.	<i>fī<sup>*2</sup></i>	<i>fīna</i>	<i>fōgī</i>	<i>fōgna</i>	<i>minnī</i>	<i>minna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> In 'LA *fīkiy*.

\*<sup>2</sup> In ASA, ĞbA and 'LA *fīnī*.

\*<sup>3</sup> For "above" also *min ḥard+* pron. suffix is used: *min ḥardī*, *min ḥarduḵ* etc.

\*<sup>4</sup> Since in negated forms (see below) the high vowels *i* and *u* are stressed, I have not interpreted these as anaptyctic vowels, but as morphophonemically present vowels (hence their notation is not superscript).

\*<sup>5</sup> Notice doubling of the *n* here indicating that the suffixes are vowel-initial in these cases: *-uḵ* and *-ik*.

	<i>waṛa+</i>		'ind+	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>waṛāh</i>	<i>waṛāhuḡ</i>	<i>'induh</i>	<i>'induhuḡ</i>
fem.	<i>waṛāha<sup>*1</sup></i>	<i>waṛāhin</i>	<i>'indaha<sup>*5</sup></i>	<i>'indihin</i>
2. masc.	<i>waṛā'ḵ<sup>*2</sup></i>	<i>waṛāḵuḡ</i>	<i>'induḵ</i>	<i>'induḵuḡ</i>
fem.	<i>waṛāk<sup>*2</sup></i>	<i>waṛākin</i>	<i>'indik</i>	<i>'indikin</i>
1. com.	<i>waṛāy<sup>*3</sup></i>	<i>waṛāna<sup>*4</sup></i>	<i>'indī</i>	<i>'indina</i>

In the following notes below a few remarks follow on negated suffixed forms. These remarks do not apply to 'LA, since 'LA does not use compound negation; negating suffixed prepositions in 'LA is done with preceding *mā*, e.g. *mā waṛāha*, *mā 'indī*, etc. (see also remarks in 3.1.12.3. and 4.2.).

\*<sup>1</sup> In ASA *waṛāha* (negated *ma waṛāhaš*), but in ĞbA *waṛahi*' and (negated *ma waṛāhiš*).

\*<sup>2</sup> Negated forms in ŠwA were recorded as (sg. masc.) *ma waṛā'kš* and (sg. fem.) *ma waṛākš*. Other dialects have negated forms (sg. masc.) *ma waṛā'kuš* and (sg. fem.) *ma waṛākiš* (compare negated 'ala+ below).

\*<sup>3</sup> Negated *ma waṛāyš*.

\*<sup>4</sup> Negated *ma waṛāniš*.

\*<sup>5</sup> When the final vowel is raised, the vowel preceding *h* will be raised as well: 'indihī'.

Other examples of negated suffixed prepositions in ṬwA and HnA are (not in 'LA):

negated:

	'ala+ <sup>*1</sup>		<i>fōg+</i>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>ma 'ilēš</i>	<i>ma 'ilēhūmš</i>	<i>ma fōguš</i>	<i>ma fōghūmš</i>
fem.	<i>ma 'ilēhiš</i>	<i>ma 'ilēhūnš</i>	<i>ma fōghiš</i>	<i>ma fōghūnš</i>
2. masc.	<i>ma 'ilē'kuš</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>ma 'ilē'kūmš</i>	<i>ma fōgúkš</i> <sup>*4</sup>	<i>ma fōgkūmš</i>
fem.	<i>ma 'ilēkiš</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>ma 'ilēkīnš</i>	<i>ma fōgikš</i> <sup>*4</sup>	<i>ma fōgkīnš</i>
1. com.	<i>ma 'aláyš</i> <sup>*3</sup>	<i>ma 'ilēniš</i>	<i>ma fōgiš</i>	<i>ma fōgniš</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Like in group VI, raising of short *a* to *i* in open syllables preceding stressed *ē* (as indicated here) is optional, but very regular.

As independent prepositions both 'ala and 'a (not only when preceding the article) are current, e.g. 'a *ǧamb* "aside".

\*<sup>2</sup> In ŠwA negated forms are *ma 'alē'kš* and *ma 'alēkš*.

\*<sup>3</sup> In ĞbA *ma 'ilēyš* was also recorded.

\*<sup>4</sup> On the status of high vowels *i* and *u* in these forms, see remark <sup>\*4</sup> to paradigm *fōg+* above.

	(i)m(i)'+		<i>mīn+</i>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>má-m'uš</i>	<i>ma mīhūmš</i>	<i>ma mīnnuš</i>	<i>ma mīnhūmš</i>
fem.	<i>ma mīhhiš</i>	<i>ma mīhūnš</i>	<i>ma mīnhīš</i>	<i>ma mīnhūnš</i>
2. masc.	<i>ma m'úkš</i>	<i>ma mī'kūmš</i>	<i>ma mīnnú'kš</i>	<i>ma mīnkūmš</i>
fem.	<i>ma m'íkš</i>	<i>ma mī'kīnš</i>	<i>ma mīnníkš</i>	<i>ma mīnkīnš</i>
1. com.	<i>ma m'iš</i>	<i>ma mī'niš</i>	<i>ma mīnniš</i>	<i>ma mīnniš</i>

## 3.1.17. Numerals and counted plurals

## 3.1.17.1. Cardinal numbers 1–10

Independent cardinal numbers in ȚWA, HnA and ʿLA are (forms that precede counted nouns follow in brackets):<sup>95</sup> *wāḥid* / *wiḥdih*<sup>\*1</sup>, *tnēn* / *ṭintēn*<sup>\*2</sup>, *ṭalāṭih* (*ṭalāt*), *arbaʿah* (*aṛbaʿ*), *xamsih* (*xams*), *sittih* (*sitt*), *sabʿih* (*sabʿ*), *tamānyih* (*tāman*), *tisʿih* (*tisʿ*), *ʿaőarah* (*aőar*).

<sup>\*1</sup> *wāḥid* and *wiḥdih* may follow the counted noun as adjectives for extra emphasis, e.g. *walad wāḥid* “one boy” and *bint wiḥdih* “one girl”.

<sup>\*2</sup> *tnēn* and *ṭintēn* may follow the counted dual form of the noun as adjectives for extra emphasis, e.g. *waladēn iṭnēn* “two boys” and *īdēy iṭṭintēn* or *īdēy ṭintēnhin* “my two hands”.

Some plural forms of nouns are counted with proclitic *t-* (a remnant of the fem. morpheme in construct state), e.g. *ʿaőar t-infār* “ten people”, *ṭalāt t-yyām* “three days”.

## 3.1.17.2. Ordinal numbers 1–10

Only three ordinals were recorded in ȚWA, HnA and ʿLA: *awwil*, *tāniy*, *tālīt*.

3.1.17.3. Numerals: *n* and up

Numerals recorded in ȚWA, HnA and ʿLA are:

*iḥdāőar*<sup>\*1</sup>, *iṭnāőar*, *ṭalattāőar*, *aṛbaʿtāőar*, *xamistāőar*, *siṭṭāőar*, *sabaʿtāőar*, *tamanṭāőar*, *tisaʿtāőar*<sup>\*2</sup>, *ʿiőrīn*, *ṭalāṭīn*, *aṛbaʿīn*, *xamsīn*, *sittīn*, *sabʿīn*, *tamānīn*, *tisʿīn*, *miyyih*, *miyytēn*, *ṭulīṭmiyyih*, *ṛubiʿmiyyih*, *xumismiyyih*, *suttmiyyih*, *subiʿmiyyih*, *ṭuminmiyyih*, *tusiʿmiyyih*, *alf*, *alfēn*, *ṭalat t-ālāf*, *xamis t-ālāf*, *aṛbaʿ t-ālāf*, *sitt t-ālāf*, *sabiʿ t-ālāf*, *taman t-ālāf*, *tisiʿ t-ālāf*, *ʿaőar t-ālāf*, *miṭ alf*, *miyytēn alf*, *milyōn*<sup>\*3</sup> (and *ṭalāt malāyin*).

<sup>\*1</sup> In ʿLA *ḥidāőar*

<sup>\*2</sup> Forms recorded in HnA have endings in *-āőir*. In őWA also shorter forms like *sittāʿiő*, *sabiʿtāʿiő* and *tamanṭāʿiő* were recorded in allegro speech. Informants for ASA claimed endings in *-āʿiő* are more current than those ending in *-āőir* or *-aőar*.

<sup>\*3</sup> In HnA and ʿLA *malyōn*.

Some plurals recorded with proclitic *t-* are: *ṭalāt t-iőkāl* “three shapes”, *ṭalāt t-ālāf* “three thousand”, *ʿaőar t-yyām* “ten days”, *xamis t-uőhur* “six

<sup>95</sup> For numerals recorded in őBA in Nishio 1992 see pp. 169–175 (XXIV-2 to XXIV-71).

months”, *arba' t-irbi'* “four descent groups (of a tribe)”, *taman t-infār* “eight persons”.

Months are usually referred to by numbers, but in ŠwA also *šahaṛ Imšīr* was mentioned (the Coptic month of Amshir, 6th month of the Coptic calender).

### 3.1.18. *The dual*

Suffixing *-ēn* (or *-ān*) to the sg. form of a noun forms the dual, e.g. *nuṣṣān* “two halves”, *šahaṛān* “two months”, *marrtēn* “two times”, *xatīwtēn* “two steps”.

Older forms of the dual are used in expressions for body parts, e.g. *riġlēy* “my (two) legs”, *riġlē“k* “my (two) hands” and *īdēy* “my (two) hands” and *īdē“k* “your (two) hands”.\*

\* In ĠbA forms with initial *a-* were recorded: *adēy* and *adē“k* and also *adēhum* “their hands” (pl. *adēn*).<sup>96</sup>

## 3.2. *Verbal Morphology*

In the dialects of the Ḥamāḍah (ḤmA) and ‘Lēgāt (‘LA) several instances of *-um* (~ *-uw*) endings in perfect and imperfect for the 2nd and 3rd p. pl. masc. were recorded. The remarks on perfect and imperfect forms in 3.2.1.1. and 3.2.1.2. should be extrapolated for the entire verb system.

### 3.2.1. *Regular verbs*

#### 3.2.1.1. *Regular verbs perfect*

In ḤmA and also ‘LA the verbal ending of the 2nd p. ending *-tum* is also often heard as a variant.

In some, but fewer instances, the ending *-um* was also heard being used as a variant to the ending *-uw* for the 3rd p. pl. masc., both in the perfect and in the imperfect. Such verbal endings are reminiscent of verbal endings recorded in the dialect of the Samā‘nah of group II in the north.<sup>97</sup>

The final *-m* is also heard in the 2nd p. pl. masc. pronominals *intum* and the suffix *-kum*, and these pronominals are also current—though

<sup>96</sup> Nishio 1992:5 (I-36) gives sg. *yīd* and pl. *yīdēn/yīdēn*, e.g. *xamse yīdēn*.

<sup>97</sup> See De Jong 2000:297–298.

co-occurring with *intuw* and *-kuw*—in surrounding dialects of group VII GrA, ŒwA, ĞbA, ASA and HnA.<sup>98</sup>

Of the two variant verbal endings of the perfect *-tuw* and *-tum* the latter appears to be losing ground to the former, while *-um* as a variant for *-uw* has almost entirely disappeared.

Like in group VI, the 2nd and 3rd p. pl. fem. ending is *-in* (including the *a*- and *i*-types of the *tertiaef infirmae*). The perfect ending of the 3rd p. sg. fem. may be *-at* or *-it*, depending on the vowel-type of the perfect (contrast group VI in chapter II).

Perfects of measure 1 verbs come in three types: C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>1</sub>iC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>1</sub>uC<sub>2</sub>uC<sub>3</sub>. The paradigms are:

		<i>a</i> -type perfect* <sup>1</sup>		<i>i</i> -type perfect* <sup>2</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>kĀtab</i>	<i>kĀtabuw</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>Œġrib</i>	<i>Œġribuw</i> * <sup>4</sup>
	fem.	<i>kĀtabat</i>	<i>kĀtabin</i>	<i>Œġribit</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>Œġribin</i>
2. masc.		<i>kĀtĀbt</i>	<i>kĀtĀbtuw</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>Œġribt</i>	<i>Œġribtuw</i> * <sup>4</sup>
	fem.	<i>kĀtĀbtġy</i>	<i>kĀtĀbtin</i>	<i>Œġribtġy</i>	<i>Œġribtin</i>
1. com.		<i>kĀtĀbt</i>	<i>kĀtĀbna</i>	<i>Œġribt</i>	<i>Œġribna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> *a* may be raised to *i* in pre-stress syllables, e.g. *kitĀbtġy*, but such raising is less regular than in group VI.

\*<sup>2</sup> The short high vowel *i* of the first syllable is actually underlying |a| and is therefore not dropped in open unstressed syllables (so e.g. not *Œġribt*, *Œġribtġy*, etc.).

Nishio 1992, however, almost invariably indicates instances of such high vowel elision from the unstressed first syllable in ĞbA, e.g. *smi't* "I heard" (p. 11 (I-76)), *lbist* "I got dressed" (p. 13 (II-2)), *Œġribt* "I drank" (p. 21 (III-46)) and also *ġrġt* "I ran" (p. 67 (IX-17)) as a form used by younger speakers, *lgġt* "I found" (p. 96–97b (XIV-28)), etc.

\*<sup>3</sup> Notice the ending *-it* instead of *-at* used in group VI.

\*<sup>4</sup> In ĤmA (and also in 'LA) often *katabtum* and *Œġribtum*. Notice that similar forms were recorded in the dialect of the SamĀ'nah in northern Sinai (see De Jong 2000:298). *-um* endings in the 3rd p. pl. masc. perfect forms were also recorded in ĤmA (like the situation in SaA), but were rarer, e.g. *Ĥaṭṭum* "they placed", *iŒtĀrum* "they bought", *lĀġum* "they found". Notice that also in the dialect of Cairo both *katabu* ~ *katabum* and *kābtu* ~

<sup>98</sup> The same verbal endings were recorded in the speech of older members of the SamĀ'nah of group II in the north, see De Jong 2000:296–301. In this dialect of group II, older speakers also used the ending *-um* for 2nd and 3rd p. pl. masc. forms in the imperfect, see remarks in 3.2.1.2. below.

*katabtum* can be heard, of which the forms in *-m* are characterized as “sub-standard” (see Woidich 2006:75) (see also remarks on imperfect forms in 3.2.1.2. below).

### 3.2.1.2. Regular verbs imperfect

Like in many dialects in Sinai, the imperfect is characterized by vowel harmony in the verbal prefixes. Like in group VI, this vowel harmony is also found in the 1st. p. sg. com. of *i-* and *u-*type imperfects (contrast e.g. group I, where we have initial *a-* for 1st p. sg. com. in all (three) vowel types, see De Jong 2000:299).<sup>99</sup>

There are three imperfect patterns:  $yaC_1C_2CaC_3$ ,  $yuC_1C_2CuC_3$  and  $yiC_1C_2iC_3$ . The paradigms for ṬwA, HnA and ṬA are identical to those listed for group VI, but for ḤmA and ṬA the following remarks should be added:

For ḤmA several (spontaneously produced) instances of *-um* (but *--uw*) were recorded for the 3rd and 2nd p. pl. masc., e.g. *yḥuṭṭum* “they place”, *ṭḥuṭṭum* “you (pl. masc.) place”, *yīštirum* “they buy”, *yafḍum* “they sacrifice”, *tafḍum* “you (pl. masc.) sacrifice”, *yriḍum* “they want”, *triḍum* “you (pl. masc.) want”. When such forms were checked separately (i.e. on another occasion with another speaker), they were rejected, and forms with *-uw* endings were accepted only.

Also in ṬA some instances (but less regularly than in ḤmA) of *-um* endings for 2nd and 3rd pl. masc. imperfect forms were heard. One Ṭēgiy informant explained that *-uw* endings were used in ‘faster’ speech, while *-um* endings would be used in more formal speech, e.g. by a *gāḍiy* “judge”. Notice that similar forms were also recorded in the dialect of the Samānah in the Gaṭyah oasis in the north (cf. De Jong 2000:296–309 and map 54 in the appendix). See also NOTE in 3.1.12.2.

Measure 1 verbs *i*-type (e.g. *yaḥarīt*) and *a*-type (e.g. *yaʿarag*) with  $C_1 = X$  have the same paradigms as group VI. Perfects and participles of these verbs *ḥarat* and *ʿirig* are like *katab* and *šrib* (see 3.2.1.1.).

### 3.2.1.3. Reflexes of older $*C_1aC_2uC_3$ , $*yaC_1C_2uC_3$

*u*-type perfect\*<sub>1</sub>  
“grow fat”

	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>ḡuluḍ</i>	<i>ḡulḍuw</i>
fem.	<i>ḡulḍit</i>	<i>ḡulḍin</i>

<sup>99</sup> Nishio 1992 reports the possibility of vowel harmony for the first person sg. com. in *i-* and *u-*type imperfects in ḠbA too, e.g. *aḍrob ~ oḍrob* “I hit” (p. 88 (XIII-11)) and *enzil* “I descend” (p. 107 (XV-15)).

2. masc.	<i>ġuluđt</i>	<i>ġuluđtuw</i>
fem.	<i>ġuluđtiy</i>	<i>ġuluđtin</i>
1. com.	<i>ġuluđt</i>	<i>ġuluđna</i>

The Classical Arabic ‘Eigenschaften’ verb-type (which expresses a certain personal characteristic) may have  $C_1uC_2uC_3$ ,  $yuC_1C_2uC_3$  reflexes (imperfect paradigm is like that of *yúđrub* in MzA and BWA, see 3.2.1.2. in chapter II). This appears to be the case when the perfect is velarized. When velarization is absent, the perfect tends to be  $C_1iC_2iC_3$  and the imperfect then  $yaC_1C_2aC_3$ .

A paradigm elicited in ASA is: (sg.) *túxun*, *túxnit*, *tuxínt*, *tuxíntiy*, *tuxínt* and (pl.) *túxnuw*, *túxnin*, *tuxíntuw*, *tuxíntin*, *tuxínna*. The imperfect is *yutxun*.

In ĞbA, ŒwA, ĤmA, GrA and HnA also *ġuluđ* (~ *ġiliđ* in ĞbA) (and imperf. *yuġluđ*, in ‘LA *ġiliđ*, *yuġluđ*), but *túxin* (imperfect *yatxan*) and *kibir* (imperfect *yakbar*).

The short vowel of the first syllable in the perfect may be *i* or *u*, but it is not dropped, and is therefore best interpreted as underlying |a|.

#### 3.2.1.4. Regular verbs participles

Like in group VI, active participles in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are formed with the patterns  $C_1āC_2iC_3$ ,  $C_1āC_2C_3ah/-ih$  (sg. fem.),  $C_1āC_2C_3in$  (pl. masc.),  $C_1āC_2C_3āt$  (pl. fem.).

When the sg. fem. participle is suffixed with an object, it is in construct state with this suffix. Examples are: ‘*āwiztuh* “she wants/loves him” and (in ‘LA) *rāyidtuh* “she wants him”. In HnA a form ‘*āriftha* “she knows her” was recorded several times, instead of expected ‘*āriftha*.

#### 3.2.1.5. Regular verbs imperatives

Imperatives of regular verbs in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are like in group VI, e.g. *áftah*, *áftahiy*, *áftahuw*, *áftahin* “open!”, *úġ’ud*, *úġu’diy*, *úġu’duw*, *úġu’din* “sit down!” and *ínzil*, *ínzliy*, *ínzluw*, *ínzlin* “come down!”.

### 3.2.2. Irregular and other verbs

#### 3.2.2.1. Verbs $C_1 = w$ (*primae wāw*)

Imperfect, perfect, and imperative paradigms for measure 1 verbs  $C_1 = w$  are like in group VI, e.g. *yōrid* and *yōġaf*.

In ĤmA “stand” was recorded with an *i*-type imperfect: *yōġif* “he stands”, *yōġfuw* “they stand”, etc.

In two instances in ASA verbs without the *wāw*, i.e. with an initial short vowel, were recorded: *tālid* “she gives birth” and *yisig bēhum* “he trusts

them". The latter of these is probably a loan, of which *s* for *\*t* (root *w-t-q*) is indicative (see 1.1.2.).

*aw'a* may in some dialects be left unconjugated and be used more as a general particle of warning, e.g. (in GrA) *aw'a tans*, *aw'a tansiy*, *aw'a tansuw* and *aw'a tansin* "don't you forget! (for sg. masc., sg. fem., pl. masc. and pl. fem. resp.)".

But imperative forms were also recorded in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA: *aw'a rāsuk*, *aw'iy rāsik*, *aw'uw ryūsukum*, and *aw'in ryūskin* (although the pl. of *rās* in HnA and 'LA is *rūs*).

In ĞbA: *aw'a rāsuk*, *aw'a rāsik*, *aw'a rūskum*, *aw'a rūskin*.

In ṢwA a particle *aw'* was also recorded with pronominal suffixes for the person addressed: *aw'uk tans*, *aw'ik tansiy*, *awu'kum tansuw*, *aw'ikin tansin* (notice also the insertion of anaptyctics in the last two examples).<sup>100</sup>

#### Participles:

Active participles have a  $C_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  pattern, e.g. (with velarized first syllables) *wārid*, *wardih*, *wārdīn*, *wārdāt* "having watered".

The passive participle for the root *w-ğ-d* was recorded as *mawğūd* in all dialects, but in ĞbA and ṢwA the form *mēğūd* was also heard, and in ĞbA also the form *mērūs* "inherited" (see remark on root *w-r-t* above).<sup>101</sup>

#### 3.2.2.2. Verbs $C_1 = y$ (*primae yā'*)

Like in group VI, the only verb recorded with  $C_1 = y$  is *yibis*, *yēbas* "dry (intransitive)" in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

#### 3.2.2.3. Verbs $C_1 = *$ (*primae hamzah*)

The two verbs "eat" and "take" have similar conjugations. Both have a limited, but clear degree of velarization in the imperfect and all dialects have *u* as the imperfect vowel, as in *yākul* and *yāxud*, but in ḤmA also *i* was elicited, as in *yākil* and *yāxiḍ*. In ASA both *yākil* and *yākul* were recorded, but the base vowel *u* appeared to be conditioned by its phonetic environment; *u* only appeared when *luk* "for you" followed, as in (several

<sup>100</sup> These anaptyctic vowels also cause the *w* to become vowel-initial in the surface form. In these cases the diphthong *aw* is clearly not treated like its product of monophthongization *ō*. For an interesting discussion on the topic of mono- or poly-phonemicity of diphthongs *ay* and *aw* in Old Arabic and in the modern Arabic dialects, see Fischer 1967.

<sup>101</sup> Compare also the form *miğūd* reported in Blanc 1970:25, fn 42 and the form *mayğūd* heard in the dialect of the Masā'id in the north of Sinai (see De Jong 2000:194). Henkin in EALL 2008:362 also reports *mawlūd* ~ *maylūd* "born" in Negev Arabic.

instances of) *yākul luĥ* “he eats for you” (an instance of the ethical dative, see 4.14.3.). The perfect forms are all without initial *a-*: *kal* and *xad*.

The sg. masc. imperative may be with initial stressed *ú-* in all dialects except ĤmA and 'LA as in *úkul* and *úxuđ*, but was also recorded as *kul* and *xuđ* in all dialects, except in ŐwA and ASA (compare with the sg. masc. imperatives of mediae geminatae in 3.2.2.4.2.).

The sg. fem. appears with initial stressed *ú-* (*úĥliy*) in ŐwA, GrA, ASA and HnA. In ĞbA it is *ĥliy* or *úĥliy* and in ĤmA it is *ĥliy*.

Similarly, plural forms are *úĥluw* (masc.) and *úĥlin* (fem.) in ŐwA, GrA, ASA and HnA. In ĞbA co-occurring forms are *ĥluw*, *ĥlin* and *úĥluw* and *úĥlin*<sup>102</sup> and in ĤmA forms are only without initial *u-*: *ĥluw* and *ĥlin*. Like in ĤmA, imperatives in 'LA are *ĥul*, *ĥliy*, *ĥluw*, *ĥlin* and *xuđ*, *xđiy*, *xđuw* and *xđin*.

Compare this to the occurrence of stressed original anaptyctics (in 2.3.5.) and the absence of a stressed original anaptyctic in the suffixed preposition *m(i)'* as opposed to its presence in other dialects of this group (see 3.1.16.).

Active participles in ˆwA, HnA and 'LA are with initial *m-*: *māxid*, *māxdih*, *māxdīn*, *māxdāt* and *mākil*, *māĥlih*, *māĥlīn* and *māĥlāt*.

The verbal noun in ˆwA and HnA is *wakl* “eating” (also “food”) and the passive verb “be eaten” is *inwákal*, *yīnwīkil*, but in ĞbA also *intákal*, *yīntīkil* was recorded.

### 3.2.2.4. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (mediae infirmae)

#### 3.2.2.4.1. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (mediae infirmae) perf. and imperf.

Like in group VI, in ˆwA and HnA a short base vowel is characteristic for the 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect and imperative forms of mediae infirmae verbs, although forms with long base vowels may also be heard.

The perfect and imperfect paradigms are like in group VI (except for the ending *-tum*, see above in 3.2.1.1.), but instead of sg. masc. imperfect forms *t(u)gūm tgūm* heard in group VI, in ˆwA and HnA we hear *túgum* / *tgūm* and also *tīšil* / *tīl* and *tánam* / *tnām*.

However, during direct elicitation, my ĤmA informants rejected suggested forms like *túgum* and *tánam* and only accepted the form *tīšil* with difficulty. Some of my ĞbA informants rejected *tánam*, but forms like *tīšil*,

<sup>102</sup> Nishio 1992:91 (XIV-2) lists *oxod ~ xod*, *oxodi ~ xodi*, *oxodu ~ xodu*, *oxoden ~ xoden*, but (p. 20–21 (III-43)) *okul ~ kul*, *okli*, *oklu* and *oklen* for ĞbA.

*túgu!*, *túguṃ* were produced spontaneously, e.g. *túguṃ tíǰib illaban* “you then (get up) and get the milk”.

When such shorter 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect forms are suffixed, we get forms like e.g. *tíšluh* “you carry it (sg. masc.)”, *ma tíšluš* “don’t carry it!”, *ma tíšlhiš* “don’t carry it (sg. fem.)”, *bitǰíbha* “you bring her” and *btu’úzha* “you want it (sg. fem.)”.

N.B. Imperfect and imperative forms for the 2nd p. sg. masc. with a short base vowel are not characteristic of ‘LA. If ‘LA speakers use such forms, this is attributed (by other ‘LA speakers) to the influence of speakers of other dialects. Forms claimed as proper ‘LA are (imperfect) *tšil*, *tnām*, *tgū!* and (imperative) *šil*, *nām*, *gū!*. Sg. fem. and pl. masc. and fem. forms are like those described for ṬwA and HnA, e.g. *šily*, *šiluṃ*, *šilin*; *gūly*, *gūluṃ*, *gūlin* and also *nāmiy*, *nāmuṃ*, *namin*.

Participles in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are like in group VI, e.g. *šāyil*, *šāylih*, *šāylin*, *šāylāt*.

The perfect of the verb *šāf*, *yšūf* was recorded in ṬwA and HnA with short vowel *u* only: *šuft* “I saw” (not recorded in ‘LA).

Verbs  $C_2 = y$  are like in group VI as well, e.g. *šāl*, *yšil* (and *šilt*) (for a remark on originally measure 4 verb *rād*, *yrīd*, see 3.2.3.7.2.).

### 3.2.2.4.2. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*) imperatives

Like in the imperfect, imperatives of the 2nd p. sg. masc. often have short base vowels. They may also have an initial short vowel (recorded in ĞbA) *šil* ~ *íšil* “carry!”, *gu!* ~ *úgu!* “say!” and also *nam* ~ *ánam* “go to sleep!”.<sup>103</sup> In ĞbA the sg. masc. imperative with a short base vowel may or may not have an initial vowel as well (contrast with other dialects in this group, see below). This is concomitant with comparable imperative forms of primae hamzah verbs in ĞbA, see 3.2.2.3.

The other imperatives (for sg. fem, pl. masc. and pl. fem. resp.) are: *šily*, *šiluṃ*, *šilin*; *gūly*, *gūluṃ*, *gūlin* and *nāmiy*, *nāmuṃ*, *namin*.<sup>104</sup>

When the forms for the sg. masc. are suffixed, resulting forms are like: *šíluh* (ĞbA), *išluh* and (*i*)*šílhi*. Dialects that have initial *u-* in imperative

<sup>103</sup> For ĞbA Nishio 1992:30 (IV-37) for “sleep” gives *nām*, *nām* (sic.), *nāmu* and *nāmen* and for “say” (p. 72–73 (X-6)) *ogol* ~ *gol* ~ *gūl*, *gūli*, *gūlu* and *gūlen*.

<sup>104</sup> For ĞbA Nishio 1992:31 (IV-41) gives *gom* ~ *gūm* ~ *ugūm*, *gūmi* ~ *ugūmi*, but for the pl. only *gūmu* and *gūmen*.

forms for “eat” and “take” (see 3.2.2.3.), also have initial short vowels in imperatives of *mediae infirmae* verbs.

In some dialects, the initial short vowel spread through the whole paradigm (paradigmatic levelling): in ŐwA, for instance *iŐl iŐŐwĀl* “carry the sacks!”, *iŐlihi' ~ őlihi'* “carry (sg. fem.) them (sg. fem.)!”, *iŐliuha ~ őliuha'* “carry (pl. masc.) them (sg. fem.)!” and *iŐlinnuh ~ őlinnuh* “carry (pl. fem.) it (sg. masc.)”. In GrA, ASA and HnA imperative forms recorded were *úgum* or *gūm*, *ugūmiy*, *ugūmuw*, *ugūmin* for “stand up!”. In these dialects (i.e. GrA, ŐwA, ASA and HnA) a short base vowel does not appear after an initial vowel (compare this to sg. masc. imperatives in ŐwA and GrA of *primaie hamzah* verbs in 3.2.2.3.). In ĤmA the sg. masc. does not have an initial vowel, but the form is *gum* or *gūm*.

Imperatives used with the verb *ġĀb*, *yġġb* “bring” are: *hĀt*, *hĀtiy*, *hĀtuw*, *hĀtin*.

For a remark on the absence of shortened long base vowels in the 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect and imperative forms in 'LA, see 3.2.2.4.1. above.

### 3.2.2.4.3. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*) participles

Active participles of measure 1 in ŤwA, HnA and 'LA are formed with the patterns  $C_1\bar{ā}yC_3$  or  $C_1\bar{ā}yC_3ih$ ,  $C_1\bar{ā}yC_3in$  and  $C_1\bar{ā}yC_3āt$ .

A passive participle recorded for *ġĀl*, *yġūl* is *magyūl* “said, spoken” (in ASA and ŐwA) and for *řĀd*, *yřġd* is *maryūd* “wanted” (ASA).

### 3.2.2.5. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaie infirmae*)

#### 3.2.2.5.1. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaie infirmae*) perfect

Many informants for ŤwA and HnA produced mixed paradigms for the perfect of *tertiaie infirmae* verbs.

In 'LA informants kept the *a*-type and *i*-type perfects apart better.

Unmixed paradigms for the *a*- and *i*-type perfects are:

	perfect		“walk” (ĞbA)* <sup>1</sup>		“find” (ĞbA)* <sup>2</sup>	
			sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.			<i>máŐa'</i>	<i>máŐuw</i>	<i>liġiy</i>	<i>liġyuw</i>
fem.			<i>máŐat</i>	<i>máŐin</i>	<i>liġiyit</i>	<i>liġyin</i>
2. masc.			<i>miŐġġt</i>	<i>miŐġġtuw</i>	<i>liġit</i>	<i>liġituw</i>
fem.			<i>miŐġġtiy</i>	<i>miŐġġtin</i>	<i>liġitiy</i>	<i>liġitin</i>
1. com.			<i>miŐġġt</i>	<i>miŐġġna</i>	<i>liġit</i>	<i>liġina</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> The same paradigms were recorded in ŐwA and 'LA (*maŐa* is also *a*-type perfect there).

Raising of *a* preceding  $\bar{e}$ , as is reflected in the paradigm above, is current in the *a*-type perfect, e.g. *mišēt* < *mašēt*. Such raising is however optional.<sup>105</sup>

\*<sub>2</sub> Similar paradigms were recorded for *yansa*, *nísiy* “forget”, and these were also recorded in ‘LA.

The high vowel *i* of the first syllable is to be interpreted as a raised ‘underlying’ *a*, since it is not dropped in unstressed positions. Such raising of *a* presumably began in positions preceding stressed  $\bar{i}$ , after which the resulting *i* became stable—i.e. such raising was no longer optional—and then spread through the paradigm (paradigmatic levelling) to replace *a* in all positions.

A mixed paradigm for the perfect of the verb “forget” was recorded in ASA:

perfect		“forget” (ASA)	
		sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>nása’</i>	<i>nisyuw</i>
	fem.	<i>násat/nisyit</i>	<i>nisyin</i>
2. masc.		<i>nisīt</i>	<i>nisītuw</i>
	fem.	<i>nisītiy</i>	<i>nisītin</i>
1. com.		<i>nisīt</i>	<i>nisīna</i>

One of the GrA informants had similar difficulties with the perfect of the verbs *máša’* / *míši̇y*. The paradigm he produced was: (sg.) *míši̇y* / *máša*, *máša*t, *mišēt*, *mišēti̇y*, *mišēt* and (pl.) *míši̇y*uw / *mášu*w, *máši̇y*in / *máši̇n*, *mišēt*uw, *mišēt*in, *mišēna*. He also produced a mixed paradigm for *lígiy* “find” (forms were: (sg.) *lígiy*, *lígiy*t, *ligīt*, *ligīti̇y*, *ligīt* and (pl.) *lígiy*uw, *lígiy*in, *ligēt*uw / *ligītu*w, *ligīt*in, *ligēna*).

Also in HnA forms of both the *i*-type and of the *a*-type may be heard used for the perfect in verbs like *laga* / *ligiy* and *nisiy* / *nasa’*. The verb *maša* is, however, clearly *a*-type in HnA (for a remark on measure 1 verbs, which were originally measure 4 verbs in HnA, see 3.2.3.7.1).

Paradigms for “find” recorded in ASA and ḤmA were exactly like those listed for ĠbA (above).<sup>106</sup> Also *nisiy* and *miši̇y* are clearly *i*-types in ḤmA.

<sup>105</sup> Nishio 1992:66 (IX-16) gives final -ε (as in *maše*) in the 3rd p. sg. masc., does not indicate glottalization of final -a in this position nor raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed  $\bar{e}$ .

<sup>106</sup> Nishio 1992:112 (XVI-5) lists *nisi* “forget” as an *i*-type perfect.

Notice that perfect conjugations in which *a*- and *i*-types have mixed also occur in groups I and VI.

Nishio 1992, however, does list many forms with such elision in ĞbA, see remark \*<sup>2</sup> in 3.2.1.1. above. This was not observed in ĞbA by myself<sup>107</sup> (cf. also remark in fn to 3.1.1.1. on (non-) elision of ‘underlying’ *a* in CaCĪC).

N.B. Although 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfects and imperatives with shortened long base vowels (of mediae infirmae verbs) are absent from ‘LA (see 3.2.2.4.1.), apocopated imperfect and imperative forms for the 2nd p. sg. masc. of tertiae infirmae verbs are current in ‘LA. ‘LA thus occupies a middle position between group VII dialects (which show both base vowel shortening and apocopation of tertiae infirmae) and TAŐ (TuřbĀniy of RĀs Őadr) (which shows none of these).

### 3.2.2.5.2. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (tertiae infirmae) imperfect

Tertiae infirmae verbs in ŤwA, HnA and ‘LA are:

imperfect		“find” <sup>*1</sup>		“walk”	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>yalga</i>	<i>yalguw</i>	<i>yimőiy</i>	<i>yimőuw</i>
	fem.	<i>talga</i>	<i>talgin</i>	<i>timőiy</i>	<i>yimőin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>talg</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>talguw</i>	<i>timő</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>timőuw</i>
	fem.	<i>talgiy</i>	<i>talgin</i>	<i>timőiy</i>	<i>timőin</i>
1.	com.	<i>alga</i>	<i>nalga</i>	<i>imőiy</i>	<i>nimőiy</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> The type of raising of final *-a* (e.g. *yansi*‘) heard in group VI is not current here.

\*<sup>2</sup> Apocopated imperfects for the 2nd p. sg. masc. are very regular.<sup>108</sup>

Suffixed examples recorded in ŤwA, HnA and ‘LA are: *algĀ*<sup>u</sup>*k* “I find you”, (apocopated) *talgnĪ* “you find me”, *hayalgĪnĪ* “they will find me”, *hayalgĪk* “they will find you”, *hayalgĪnnu**k* “they (fem.) will find you”. In the latter example, *i* of the verbal ending may colour (towards I.P.A. [u]) with velarization of the pronominal suffix, i.e. *yalgunnu**k* “they (fem.) find you”. Forms with measure 1: (apocopated) *hatalghi*‘ “you (sg. masc.) will find

<sup>107</sup> Bernabela 2009 heard *ligĕt* “I found” (p. 66), *ligĪhum* “he found them” (p.79) and also *maligĪtő* “I did not find”. He recognizes that *ligĕt* is probably an *a*-type (with raised *a* in the first syllable). The paradigm of the *i*-type without elision of the first vowel is listed on p. 50.

<sup>108</sup> Also reported for ĞbA in Nishio 1992, e.g. *tagr* “you read” (p. 76 (X-28)), *tiĝr* “you run” (p. 66–67 (IX-17)).

her”, *hatilgāhi*’ (with prefix vowel *a* raised > *i*) “she will find her”, *hatalgīhi*’ “you (sg. fem.) will find her” (for suffixed measure 3 forms, see 3.2.3.6.1.).

### 3.2.2.5.3. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaef infirmae*) imperatives

Like apocopated imperfect forms for the 2nd p. sg. masc., apocopated imperative forms for sg. masc. are current in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA, e.g. irm (írím #) “throw”, irmuh “throw it (away)” and imš “walk; go!”. The other forms are irmiy / imšiy, irmuw / imšuw and írmin / imšin.<sup>109</sup>

### 3.2.2.5.4. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaef infirmae*) participles

Active participles have the patterns  $C_1\bar{a}C_2iy$ ,  $C_1\bar{a}C_2yih$ ,  $C_1\bar{a}C_2yīn$  and  $C_1\bar{a}C_2yāt$ . Examples are fādiy, fādyih, fādyīn, fādyāt “having sacrificed”.

### 3.2.2.5.5. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaef infirmae*) verbal nouns

A verbal noun of a verb  $C_3 = y$  (*tertiaef infirmae*) is mašy.

### 3.2.2.6. The verb “come”

#### 3.2.2.6.1. The verb “come” perfect and imperfect

The verb “come” was recorded in ḤmA as (differences with paradigms for the other dialects are given in notes; apart from these differences, paradigms for this verb are the same in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA) :

	perfect		imperfect* <sup>4</sup>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	ǧi’* <sup>1</sup>	ǧum* <sup>2</sup>	yīǧiy	yīǧuw
fem.	ǧāt	ǧīn* <sup>3</sup>	tīǧiy	yīǧīn* <sup>3</sup>
2. masc.	ǧīt	ǧītum* <sup>2</sup>	tīǧiy* <sup>4</sup>	tīǧuw
fem.	ǧītiy	ǧītin* <sup>3</sup>	tīǧiy	tīǧīn* <sup>3</sup>
1. com.	ǧūt	ǧīna	tīǧiy	nīǧiy

\*<sup>1</sup> When suffixes follow, final *-i*’ will be *ā* as in *ǧā’k* “he came to you” and *ma ǧāš* “he did not come” (see also remark N.B. in 3.1.12.3.).

\*<sup>2</sup> Instead of final *-m* of ḤmA, other ṬwA dialects and HnA have final *-w*: *ǧuw* and *ǧītuw* (which are also parallel forms in ḤmA).

In ‘LA only *ǧuw* was heard, but given the several instances of 3rd p. pl. masc. perfect forms with final *-m* (e.g. *katabum* “they wrote”), it seems safe to assume that the form *ǧum* will also be heard in ‘LA, just as *ǧītuw* co-occurs with *ǧītum* (see also remarks in 3.2.1.1. and 3.2.1.2. above). For a remark on the development of the verbal suffix *-um* see NOTE in 3.1.12.2.

Notice that the form *ǧum* is also current in Cairene Arabic.

<sup>109</sup> Also reported in ĠbA by Nishio 1992, e.g. er’ “see” (p. 9 (I-73)), aǧr’ “run” (p. 76 (X-28)), but only imši “go” (p. 66 (IX-16)) and “run” eǧri (p. 67–67 (IX-17)).

\*3 When suffixed with consonant-initial suffixes, the final *-n* is doubled, e.g. *ġitinnuh* “you (pl. fem.) came to him”, (and examples for ṬwA and 'LA) *ma ġinnuš* “they (fem.) did not come to him” and *ma tiġinnuš* “don't (pl. fem.) go to him!”.

\*4 Notice the long vowel *ī* in the imperfect paradigm. In ĞbA both long vowel *ī* and short vowel *i* were recorded in this verb: *yīġiy* ~ *yġiy*, *nīġiy* ~ *nġiy*, *īġiy* ~ *ġiy*, but only *tiġ* as the apocopated form for the 2nd p. sg. masc.<sup>100</sup>

GrA, ŞwA, ASA and HnA have long *ī* in the imperfect, except in GrA, ŞwA and ASA, where also *tiġ* occurs as the shortened and apocopated form. In HnA and 'LA only the apocopated form *tiġ* was heard.

### 3.2.2.6.2. The verb “come” imperatives

Imperatives used with the verb “come” are: ta'āl, ta'āliy, ta'āluw and ta'ālin.<sup>101</sup> In one instance in ĤmA ta'āluw *īġuw* “come (pl. masc.)” was recorded.

In 'LA the 2nd p. sg. masc. imperative was recorded as (without final *-l*) *ta'ā* (other forms in 'LA are like those listed above).

### 3.2.2.6.3. The verb “come” participles

Participles of the verb “come” are: ġāy, ġāyih, ġāyīn, ġāyāt in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA.

## 3.2.2.7. Verbs $C_2 = C_3$ (mediae geminatae)

### 3.2.2.7.1. Verbs $C_2 = C_3$ (mediae geminatae) perfect and imperfect

Mediae geminatae verbs in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA have the following paradigms:

	perfect* <sup>1</sup>		imperfect	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>xašš</i>	<i>xaššuw</i>	<i>yxušš</i>	<i>yxuššuw</i> * <sup>2</sup>
fem.	<i>xaššat</i>	<i>xaššin</i>	<i>txušš</i>	<i>yxuššin</i>
2. masc.	<i>xiššēt</i>	<i>xiššētuw</i>	<i>txušš</i>	<i>txuššuw</i> * <sup>2</sup>
fem.	<i>xiššētīy</i>	<i>xiššētīn</i>	<i>txuššīy</i>	<i>txuššin</i>
1. com.	<i>xiššēt</i>	<i>xiššēna</i>	<i>uxušš</i>	<i>nxušš</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Raising of *a* preceding *ē* is regular in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA (like in group VI and in the dialect of Biliy in the north, see De Jong 2000:205) and is not

<sup>100</sup> The same paradigms for perfect and imperfect (but only with long base vowel *ī*) are reported for ĞbA in Nishio 1992:62 (IX-2), but parallel to ġum the forms *jū* and *jow* are also listed, and parallel to the 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect form *tīji* the apocopated form listed there is *tīj*. The 2nd p. pl. masc. perfect form listed there is without final *-m*: *jītu*.

<sup>101</sup> The same forms are listed for ĞbA in Nishio 1992:62 (IX-2).

prevented by preceding *x*, although such raising does not take place when *a* is preceded by *h* (see remark below).<sup>112</sup>

When the geminate is velarized, the *ē* of the ending is lowered (indicated here as *ā*, near I.P.A. [ɛ:]), but not diphthongal *ay*. E.g. *ḥaṭṭāt* ‘I placed’ and in ḤmA *ḥaṭṭum* ‘they placed’ and *ḥaṭṭātum* ‘you (pl. masc.) placed’ (notice that *a* is not raised, so not *·ḥiṭṭāt* or *·ḥuṭṭāt*, or something similar). In ‘LA *ḥaṭṭātum* was elicited.

\*<sub>2</sub>Forms elicited in ḤmA are (pl. masc.) *yḥuṭṭum* and *ṭhuṭṭum*. In ‘LA *ṭhuṭṭum* was elicited.

### 3.2.2.7.2. Verbs $C_2 = C_3$ (*mediae geminatae*) imperatives

Imperatives of *mediae geminatae* verbs in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are like in group VI, e.g. *limm*, *limmiy*, *limmuw*, *limmin* ‘gather!’ and with base vowel *u*: *xušš*, *xuššiy*, *xuššuw*, *xuššin* ‘enter!’.

### 3.2.2.7.3. Verbs $C_2 = C_3$ (*mediae geminatae*)

Active participles of medial geminate verbs in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are e.g.: *lāmm*, *lāmmih*, *lāmmīn*, *lāmmāt* ‘having gathered’.

Passive participles may be subject to the gahawah-rule when  $C_1 = X$ , e.g. *maḥaṭūṭ* ‘placed’, *maxarūm* ‘pierced’, *ma’arūfah* ‘known (sg. fem.)’, etc.

## 3.2.3. Derived measures

### 3.2.3.1. Measure n-1

#### 3.2.3.1.1. Measure n-1 sound roots

In ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA the vowel in the preformative of measure n-1 is not stressable in the perfect, but may be stressed in the imperfect. The underlying patterns are: (i)nC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, yinC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>. The *a* in the imperfect is raised to *i* in open syllables, but ‘reappears’ in closed syllables. Paradigms are:

‘be beaten’

	perfect		imperfect	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	(i)nḍárab	(i)nḍárabuw	yinḍárib	yinḍárbuw
fem.	(i)nḍárabat	(i)nḍárabīn	tinḍárib	yinḍárbīn
2. masc.	(i)nḍárábt	(i)nḍárábtuw	tinḍárib	tinḍárbuw
fem.	(i)nḍárábtīy	(i)nḍárábtīn	tinḍárbīy	tinḍárbīn
1. com.	(i)nḍárábt	(i)nḍárabna	inḍárib	ninḍárib

<sup>112</sup> Nishio 1992 does not report comparable raising for ĠbA, e.g. *laffēt* ‘I turned around’ (p. 65 (IX-10)), *addēt* ‘I gave’ (p. 82 (XII-1)), *zaggēt* ‘I pushed’ (p. 94 (XIV-13)), *lammēt* ‘I gathered’ (p. 98 (XIV-36)), etc.

Participles are: *mınđirib*, *mınđárbih*, *mınđarbĭn*, *mınđarbĭt*.

3.2.3.1.2. *Measure n-1 C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae)*

Patterns for perfect and imperfect of measure n-1 of medial geminate verbs in ẗwA, HnA and ‘LA are: (i)nC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub> and yinC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>, e.g. inĥaṭṭ, yinĥaṭṭ “be placed”.

3.2.3.1.3. *Measure n-1 C<sub>2</sub> = y or w (mediae infirmae)*

The patterns for perfect and imperfect of measure n-1 of medial weak verbs are: inC<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>3</sub> and yinC<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>3</sub>. Paradigms in ẗwA, HnA and ‘LA are like those listed for group VI, e.g. inşāl, yinşāl “be carried (away)”.

3.2.3.1.4. *Measure n-1 C<sub>2</sub> = y or w (mediae infirmae) participles*

Participles are shaped on the pattern minC<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>3</sub> and are like those listed for group VI.

3.2.3.2. *Measure t-1*

Only one instance of measure t-1 was recorded in ŞwA: *tĭṭhirig* “it (sg. fem.) is burnt”.

3.2.3.3. *Measure 1-t*

3.2.3.3.1. *Measure 1-t sound roots*

Underlying patterns for measure 1-t are: (i)C<sub>1</sub>taC<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub> yiC<sub>1</sub>taC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>, with a of the imperfect being raised to i in open syllables (e.g. níġtimi “we gather”), but ‘reappearing’ as a in closed syllables (e.g. yiġtam‘uw “they gather”).<sup>113</sup> Like in measure n-1, raised a is found in the unstressed syllables of the surface form for the imperfect, e.g.: (i)ştáġal, yiştġil “work”, (i)ttáfag, yĭttifig “agree” and (i)stáwa, yĭstiwiy “ripen; be cooked (of food)”.

Paradigms in ẗwA, HnA and ‘LA are:

“buy”

	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>yĭstiriy</i>	<i>yĭstiruw</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>ĭstára</i>	<i>ĭstáruw</i> <sup>*2</sup>
fem.	<i>tĭstiriy</i>	<i>tĭstirin</i>	<i>ĭstárat</i>	<i>ĭstáran</i>
2. masc.	<i>tĭstiy</i> <sup>*1</sup>	<i>tĭstiruw</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>ĭstarāt</i>	<i>ĭstarātuw</i> <sup>*2</sup>
fem.	<i>tĭstiriy</i>	<i>tĭstirin</i>	<i>ĭstarāṭty</i>	<i>ĭstarāṭtin</i>
1. com.	<i>ĭstiriy</i>	<i>nĭstiriy</i>	<i>ĭstarāt</i>	<i>ĭstarāna</i>

<sup>\*1</sup> Notice again the apocoped form, also reported for ĞbA in Nishio 1992:83–84 (XII-4).

<sup>113</sup> Nishio 1992 does not report such ‘reappearing’ a in closed syllables in ĞbA, e.g. (p. 105 (XV-11) *yijtim‘u* “they gather”).

\*<sub>2</sub> In ḤmA also forms (imperfect) *yīštīrum* and *tīštīrum* and (perfect) *īštārum* and *īštāātum* were recorded.

Participles are: *mīštīriy*, *mištaryih*, *mištaryīn*, *mištaryāt*.

Imperatives are: *īštīr* (apocopated),<sup>114</sup> *īštīriy*, *īštīruw*, *īštīrin*

### 3.2.3.3.2. Measure 1-t $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*)

An example of a medial weak measure 1-t verb is *īštāg*, *yīštāg* (I) “long (for)”.<sup>115</sup>

### 3.2.3.3.3. Measure 1-t $C_2 = C_3$ (*mediae geminatae*)

Examples of medial geminate measure 1-t verbs are *iltamm*, *yiltamm* “gather, assemble (of people)” and *imtadd*, *yimtadd* “stretch out (in surface)”.

### 3.2.3.3.4. Measure 1-t participles

Patterns for measure 1-t participles in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are  $miC_1tiC_2iC_3$  (underlying  $miC_1taC_2iC_3$ )  $miC_1taC_2C_3ah/ih$ ,  $miC_1taC_2C_3in$ ,  $miC_1taC_2C_3āt$ .

Examples are: *mīštīgil* “working”, *mīštarsih* “predatory (of animals)”, *mīštīriy* “having bought (sg. masc.)”, *mištaryih* “having bought (sg. fem.)”, *mīttīfig* “agreed (sg. masc.)”, *mīttāfgāt* “agreed (pl. fem.)”.

Examples of participles of medial geminate and medial weak verbs are: *mīštāg lēha* “longing for her”, *mīltammīn* “having gathered (pl. masc.)”, *mīmtaddih* “stretching out (in surface) (sg. fem.)”.

### 3.2.3.4. Measure ista-1

#### 3.2.3.4.1. Measure ista-1 sound roots

Like measure 2, measure ista-1 has alternating short vowels: a in the perfect and i in the imperfect. The paradigms in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are like those listed for group VI.<sup>116</sup>

#### 3.2.3.4.2. Measure ista-1 $C_2 = y$ (*mediae infirmae*)

No perfect or imperfect forms of measure ista-1 verbs of medial weak roots were recorded.

<sup>114</sup> Also reported for ḠbA in Nishio 1992:83–84 (XII-4) (there: *eštīr*).

<sup>115</sup> Nishio 1992:109 (XV-24) reports e.g. *xtāt* (sic.), *yixtār* “choose, select”.

<sup>116</sup> Alternating vowels are also reported for ḠbA in Nishio 1992, e.g. p. 109 (XV-27) and p. 113 (XVI-11) and p. 95 (XIV-22) *sta’mal yista’mel* “use”, but not in e.g. p. 22 (III-50) *stafraq*, *yistafrāg* “vomit”.

3.2.3.4.3. *Measure ista-1 C<sub>3</sub> = y (tertiaie infirmae)*

Measure ista-1 verbs of final weak roots were not recorded in ṬwA or HnA. In 'LA a verb istagda (1st p. sg. com. istagdēt), yistagdiy (3rd p. pl. masc. yistagduw) “take up a new habit by following an example” was recorded.

3.2.3.4.4. *Measure ista-1 verbs C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae)*

Patterns for medial geminate measure ista-1 verbs are: istaC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>, yistaC<sub>1</sub>iC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>, e.g. (i)sta'add, yista'idd “prepare oneself”.<sup>117</sup> Forms (reflecting optional raising of a preceding stressed ē) recorded in 'LA are: (sg.) ista'add, ista'addat, isti'iddēt, isti'iddētiy, ista'iddēt and (pl.) ista'adduw, ista'addin, ista'iddētuw, ista'iddētīn isti'iddēne', see also remark in 3.2.2.7.1.

3.2.3.4.5. *Measure ista-1 participles*

Participles of measure ista-1 verbs have the pattern mistaC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>, e.g. mistaḡrib “finding strange”.

For measure ista-1 verbs of medial weak roots the pattern is mistaC<sub>1</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>: *mistaḡil* “impossible, absurd” and (a clear MSA loan) *mistaḡimih* “straight”.

For mediae geminatae the pattern is mistaC<sub>1</sub>iC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>: *mista'idd* “having prepared oneself, ready”.

3.2.3.5. *Measures 2 and t-2*

In ṬwA, HnA and 'LA the patterns for measure 2 are: (perfect) C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, (imperfect) yC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>.

Measure t-2 has morphologically fixed *a*. The patterns are (perfect) taC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, (imperfect) ytaC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>.

3.2.3.5.1. *Examples of measure 2 sound roots*

Like in other groups, the high vowel *i* of imperfect measure 2 may be elided in open syllables. The initial geminate of the resulting cluster may then be reduced. Examples of morphophonemic elisions are: *biyfaḡḡmuw* “they make charcoal”, *biyḡammsuh* ‘a nnār “he roasts it on the fire”, *txazznuh* “you store it”.

Examples of sandhi elisions: *twall' innār* “you light the fire” and *bitḡall' i'yūn* “it (sg. fem.) grows buds (of a plant)”.

*r* following the high vowel *i* may inhibit its morphophonemic elision, e.g. *imwaxxirih* “pushing back (sg. fem.)” and an example in sandhi *biykab-bir il'aḡim* “the bones grow”. Examples with *l* in a similar elision-inhibiting role were not recorded.

<sup>117</sup> For ĞbA Nishio 1992:104 (XV-6) reports e.g. *stamarr*, *yistimirr* “continue”.

When  $C_2 = C_3$ , the elision of *i* does not take place, but the geminate may be reduced, e.g. *bitġázzizuh* “you sow it (of watermelon seed, by inserting each seed into its own hole in the soil)”. A similar example from ‘LA is *biyballilūha* “they moisten it (sg. fem.)”.

### 3.2.3.5.2. Measure 2 tertiae infirmae

Paradigms for measure 2 tertiae infirmae verbs in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are like those listed for group VI.

	perfect		imperfect	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>sawwa</i>	<i>sawwuw</i>	<i>ysawwiy</i>	<i>ysawwuw</i>
fem.	<i>sawwat</i>	<i>sawwin</i>	<i>tsawwiy</i>	<i>ysawwin</i>
2. masc.	<i>suwwēt</i>	<i>suwwētuw</i> <sup>*1</sup>	<i>tsaww<sup>*2</sup>/-iy</i>	<i>tsawwuw</i>
fem.	<i>suwwētīy</i>	<i>suwwētīn</i>	<i>tsawwiy</i>	<i>tsawwin</i>
1. com.	<i>suwwēt</i>	<i>suwwēna</i>	<i>asawwiy</i>	<i>nsawwiy</i>

<sup>\*1</sup> In ḤmA and ‘LA ~ *-tum*. Suggested perfect forms *sawwum* and imperfect *ysawwum* for the 3rd p. pl. masc. were not accepted in ḤmA (not checked in ‘LA).

<sup>\*2</sup> An example of suffixation of an apocopated form is *twarra-yyāh* “you show it (sg. fem.) to her”. For ĠbA Nishio 1992 also reports apocoptation, e.g. *twarra* “you show” (p. 97 (XIV-29)).

### 3.2.3.5.3. Examples of measure 2 primae hamzah

The verb “feed” is *wakkal*, *ywakkil* “give food”, e.g. *itwakkil ilġanam* “you feed the sheep” (in ‘LA *itwakkil alġanam*) and *wadda*, *ywaddiy* “bring, take to”, e.g. *ywaddūh Maṣir* “they take him to Egypt (i.e. the mainland)”.

### 3.2.3.5.4. Measure t-2 imperfect and perfect

In measure t-2 the vowel *a* is morphologically fixed for the perfect and imperfect. Patterns in ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are  $taC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ ,  $ytaC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ .

Like in group VI, the *ta-* prefix in the perfect and imperfect of measure t-2 is stable and is only rarely reduced to *(i)t-*.<sup>118</sup>

Reduction of initial *tta-* > *ta-* in the imperfect is regular like in group VI.<sup>119</sup> The paradigms are:

<sup>118</sup> Nishio 1992:105 (XV-8) however lists many instances of such reduction for ĠbA, e.g. p. 105 (XV-8) *ṭarrak*, *yitṭarrak* “move, be in motion”, p. 72 (X-3) *ṭarrarf*, *yitṭarrarf* (ma’) “speak with” and *tballal*, *yitballal* “be(come) wet”.

<sup>119</sup> Nishio 1992 does not report such reduction in ĠbA (see also preceding fn), e.g. on p. 113 (XVI-8) *tit‘allam*.

“have dinner”

		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>ta'ašša</i>	<i>ta'aššuw</i>	<i>yta'ašša</i>	<i>yta'aššuw</i>
	fem.	<i>ta'aššat</i>	<i>ta'aššin</i>	<i>ta'ašša</i>	<i>yta'aššin</i>
2. masc.		<i>ta'aššēt</i>	<i>ta'aššētuw</i>	<i>ta'ašš</i>	<i>ta'aššuw</i>
	fem.	<i>ta'aššētiy</i>	<i>ta'aššētin</i>	<i>ta'aššiy</i>	<i>ta'aššin</i>
1. com.		<i>ta'aššēt</i>	<i>ta'aššēna</i>	<i>ata'ašša</i>	<i>nta'ašša</i>

Like in group VI, unstressed *a* of the preformative *ta-* preceding stress may be raised, e.g. *tí'aššēt*.

### 3.2.3.5.5. Measures 2 and t-2 verbal nouns

Verbal nouns for measure 2 have a  $taC_1C_2iC_3$  pattern, e.g. (MSA loan) *ta'ġil* “postponement”, *ta'līg* “hanging up” and a *gahawah*-form *ta'awīr* “wounding” and a form *tašnīn* “taking aim” in 'LA.

A  $C_3 = y$  verbal noun was not recorded, nor a verbal noun for measure *t-2*.

### 3.2.3.5.6. Measures 2 and t-2 participles

In ṬwA, HnA and 'LA active participles of measure 2 have a  $mC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (-ih/ -ah, -īn, -āt) pattern. Passive participles have a  $mC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$  (-ih/ -ah, -īn, -āt) pattern. Examples are like those listed for group VI.

Like in group VI, the *ta-* preformative of measure *t-2* is often reduced to *t-* in participles in ṬwA and HnA (though less so in 'LA!), so that both patterns for *t-2* active participles  $mtaC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt) and  $mitC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt) occur, e.g. *mtaġawwiz* ~ *mitġawwiz* “married” and for  $C_3 = y$ ) *mtaġaddiy* ~ *mitġaddiy* “having eaten lunch”.

### 3.2.3.6. Measures 3 and t-3

Measure 3 has morphologically alternating vowels in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA: *i* in the imperfect and *a* in the perfect. Patterns for measure 3 are:  $C_1āC_2aC_3$ ,  $yC_1āC_2iC_3$ .

Also in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA, measure *t-3* has morphologically fixed *a* in the perfect and imperfect, and like in measure *t-2*, reduction of the *ta-*preformative to *t-* does occur, but is not very regular. Patterns for measure *t-3* are:  $taC_1āC_2aC_3$ ,  $ytaC_1āC_2iC_3$ . Like in measure *t-2*, initial *tt-* in the imperfect is reduced to *t-* (see examples in 3.2.3.6.1).<sup>120</sup>

#### 3.2.3.6.1. Examples of measures 3 and t-3

Paradigms for measure 3 are like those listed for group VI. Also paradigms for a measure 3  $C_3 = y$  verb are like those listed for group VI.

<sup>120</sup> Nishio 1992:3 (I-23) lists *taṭāwab*, *ytaṭāwab* “yawn” without reduction of the *ta-* preformative.

Examples of apocopated imperfects of *tertia infirmae* verbs are: *b il'arabiyyah twāṭ 'ilēh* “with the car you go down on it (to crush it, i.e. a snake)”. Another example is: *tlāg ihwalad, itlāguh* “you find the boy, you find him” (the latter example also in 'LA).<sup>121</sup>

The verb *lāga, ylāgiy* is often used alongside *ligiy, yalga*, without apparent difference in meaning: *hanlāgīhi* or *hanilgāhi* “we'll find her” and *hatlāghin* or *hatalghin* “you (sg. masc.) will find them (fem.)”. Other forms recorded through direct elicitation are: (measure 3) *hatlāgīh* “you (sg. fem.) will find him”, *hatlāginhin* “you (pl. fem.) will find them (fem.)”, *hatlāgūhum* “you (pl. masc.) will find them (masc.)” (for suffixed measure 1 examples, see 3.2.2.5.2.).

Examples for measure *t-3* are: *iytašāgaluw ššwāl* “they throw the sacks together”, *taḍāyag* “he became angry”, *tanāwaš* (< *ttanāwaš*) “you pick (of fruit from a tree)”, *tašāfa* (< *ttāšāfa*) *lḥayyah mn illaban* “the water becomes cleared from the milk”.

An example in 'LA is *biytadāwalūh* “they exchange it (among themselves)”.

### 3.2.3.6.2. Measures 3 and *t-3* participles

Active participles of measure 3 have the pattern  $mC_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (-ih / ah, -in, -āt), e.g. *mwāfiḡ* “agreeing”, *mlāgyih* “having found (sg. fem.)”, *mkāwnīn* “fighting (pl. masc.)” and in 'LA *m'āwid* “returning” and *mlāgī'k* “finding/meeting (sg. masc.) you”.

A passive participle (pattern  $mC_1\bar{a}C_2aC_3$ ) is the origin for the loan *mwāšalāt* “public transport”.

Active participles of measure *t-3* have the pattern  $mtaC_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  or  $mitC_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (-ih / ah, -in, -āt). Not enough instances of participles of measure *t-3* were recorded to draw conclusions on reduction of the *ta-* preformative, i.e. initial *mta-* > *mit-*. An elicited example is *mitkāwnīn* “fighting (pl. masc.)”.

### 3.2.3.6.3. Measures 3 and *t-3* verbal nouns

A verbal noun for measure 3 that was recorded is *mmārasat ilḥayāh* “experience in life”. Verbal nouns of the type  $tC_1\bar{e}C_2iC_3$  were not recorded.

### 3.2.3.7. Measure 4

#### 3.2.3.7.1. Measure 4 sound roots perfect and imperfect

Like in many Bedouin dialects of Sinai, measure 4 is active in ṬWA, HnA and 'LA as well.

<sup>121</sup> Similar apocopation in ĠbA.

In HnA, however, several originally measure 4 verbs have joined measure 1, or co-occur as measure 1 with measure 4, e.g. *a'ṭa* ~ *'aṭa*, *yī'ṭiy* (and participles *mī'ṭiy* ~ *'aṭiy*, *mī'ṭiyih* ~ *'aṭiyih*, etc.) “give”. Examples of its use as measure 1 are *'aṭuw* “they gave” and *hinnih 'aṭinnuh* “they (fem.) gave him”. The paradigm for the perfect *'aṭa* is thus a measure 1 *a*-type, i.e. like *maša* in HnA: (sg.) *'aṭa*, *'aṭat*, *'aṭāt*, *'aṭāṭiy*, *'aṭāt* and (pl.) *'aṭuw*, *'aṭin*, *'aṭāṭuw*, *'aṭāṭin*, *'aṭāna*. In 'LA the verb is still full measure 4: *a'ṭa* (1st. p. sg. com. *a'ṭāt*), *yī'ṭiy* and participles *mī'ṭiy*, *mī'ṭiyih*, *mī'ṭiyīn*, *mī'ṭiyāt*.

Other verbs are *fāṭar*, *yifṭir* “have breakfast” (paradigms like *kātab*, *yiktib*, see 3.2.1.1.) and *dāwa*, *yidwiy* “return home before sunset with goats and sheep”. The measure 1 participles of these verbs co-occur with measure 4 participles: *fāṭir* ~ *mifṭir* and *dāwiy* ~ *midwiy*.<sup>122</sup> In 'LA these verbs are (measure 1) *dāwa*, *yidwiy* with participle *dāwiy*, and (measure 4) *aṭar*, *yifṭir* and participle *mifṭir*.

The patterns are  $aC_1C_2aC_3$  for the perfect and  $yiC_1C_2iC_3$ . The paradigms are like those listed for group VI, including raising of unstressed initial *a* > *i*, e.g. *iftārt* “I had breakfast”. Such raising of unstressed initial *a* is also heard in 'LA, e.g. *i'ṭāt* “I gave”.

The imperfect paradigm for *yifṭir* is like that of *yiktib*, see 3.2.1.2.

### 3.2.3.7.2. Measure 4 $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*) perfect and imperfect

In all dialects described here the verb “want” has become measure 1. This is to be concluded from the shape of the participles: *ṙāyid*, *ṙāydih*, *ṙāydīn*, *ṙāydāt* and passive participles *maryūd*, *-ih*, *-in* and *-āt*, e.g. ('LA) *iza māhī ṙāyidtuḥ ibtuṣrud 'innuh* “if she doesn't want (to marry) him, she flees from him”.

Only one instance of a participle of a *media infirma* measure 4 verb was recorded (in ASA): *mġir* “running fast”.

### 3.2.3.7.3. Measure 4 $C_3 = y$ (*tertia infirmae*) perfect and imperfect

Like in group VI, *a'ṭa*, *yī'ṭiy* is a measure 4 verb in most dialects (in ASA, GrA, ŞwA and ĤmA). In HnA only measure 1 *'aṭa* was recorded (see remark above) and in ĞbA only *idda*, *yiddiy* was heard for “give”, e.g. *biddik tiddinī lmiftāḥ* “you (sg. fem.) need to give me the key” and (apocopated) *bidduḥ tiddnī lmiftāḥ* “you (sg. masc.) need to give me the key”.

The perfect and imperfect paradigms for *a'ṭa*, *yī'ṭiy* are:

<sup>122</sup> In e.g. the dialect of the Tarābīn of group I, these verbs are all clearly measure 4: *a'ṭa*, *yī'ṭiy*, *aṭar*, *yifṭir* and *aḍwa*, *yidwiy* with matching participles *mī'ṭiy*, *mifṭir* and *midwiy*. Also in ĞbA, ĤmA: *dāwa*, *yidwiy* and participles *dāwiy*, *dāwiyih* etc.

"give"				
	perfect		imperfect	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>a'ta</i>	<i>a'tuw</i>	<i>yi'tiy</i>	<i>yi'tuw</i>
fem.	<i>a'tat</i>	<i>a'tin</i>	<i>ti'tiy</i>	<i>ti'tin</i>
2. masc.	<i>a'tāt</i>	<i>a'tātuw</i>	<i>ti't*</i> / -iy	<i>ti'tuw</i>
fem.	<i>a'tātiy</i>	<i>a'tātin</i>	<i>ti'tiy</i>	<i>ti'tin</i>
1. com.	<i>a'tāt</i>	<i>a'tāna</i>	<i>i'tiy</i>	<i>ni'tiy</i>

\* Notice the presence of the apocopated 2nd p. sg. masc. forms in measure 4 as well.

#### 3.2.3.7.4. Measure 4 $C_1 = w$ (primae wāw) perfect and imperfect

A measure 4 prima wāw (and also tertia yā') verb recorded in ĞbA is awfa yūfiy, as in gaḥil ma yūfiy ilarba' sā'āt "before 4 hours have (fully) passed".<sup>123</sup>

#### 3.2.3.7.5. Measure 4 $C_2 = C_3$ (mediae geminatae) perfect and imperfect

Verb forms of measure 4  $C_2 = C_3$  (mediae geminatae) were not recorded, or not recognized as such.

Examples of imperatives for measure 4 sound roots are like imperatives for the *i*-type imperfect (see: 3.2.1.5.).

Imperatives of  $C_3 = y$  roots are: (apocopated) *i't*, *i'tiy*, *i'tuw*, *i'tin*.

Suffixed examples are: *i'ith-iyāha* "give it (sg. fem.) to her", *i'tuh luh* "give it to him".

#### 3.2.3.7.7. Measure 4 participles

The participles for sound roots have a  $miC_1C_2iC_3$  pattern, e.g. miftir, miftirih, miftirīn, miftirāt "having eaten breakfast".

For mediae infirmae there are participles of the type  $mC_1iC_3$ , like *mjūr*, *-ih*, *-īn*, *-āt* "running fast".

#### 3.2.3.8. Measure 9

Paradigms for measure 9 in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA are the same as for group VI, except the diphthong *ay* in the endings of the perfect are monophthongal *ē* (with velarized consonants preceding *ē* is lowered to *ā*, i.e. I.P.A. [ɛ:]) in group VII, e.g. *iḥmarṛātuw* "you (pl. masc.) turned red", participles are *miḥmarṛ*, *-ah*, *-īn*, *-āt*.

<sup>123</sup> The verb *awfa*, *yūfiy* was also recorded in group I in the north, see De Jong 2000:219.

3.2.3.9. *Quadriliteral verbs*

Like measure 2, quadriliteral verbs have morphologically alternating vowels in the imperfect (vowel *i*) and perfect (vowel *a*).<sup>124</sup> The paradigms listed for group VI *zaġraṭ*, *yaġriṭ* “ululate” are the same in group VII. Other examples are: *biykarikmūh* “they add curcumin to it”, *bitġáribluh* “she sieves it”.

The typically Bedouin verb type with inserted *wāw* between C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>: C<sub>1</sub>ōC<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, yC<sub>1</sub>ōC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub> has the following paradigms:

		“go”			
		perfect		imperfect*	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>gōṭar</i>	<i>gōṭaruw</i>	<i>ygōṭir</i>	<i>ygōṭ<sup>u</sup>ruw</i>
	fem.	<i>gōṭart</i>	<i>gōṭarin</i>	<i>tgōṭir</i>	<i>ygōṭ<sup>r</sup>rin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>gōṭart</i>	<i>gōṭartuw</i>	<i>tgōṭir</i>	<i>tgōṭ<sup>u</sup>ruw</i>
	fem.	<i>gōṭartiy</i>	<i>gōṭartin</i>	<i>tgōṭ<sup>r</sup>riy</i>	<i>tgōṭ<sup>r</sup>rin</i>
1.	com.	<i>gōṭart</i>	<i>gōṭarna</i>	<i>agōṭir</i>	<i>ngōṭir</i>

\* The superscript vowels in this paradigm are bukaṛa- vowels.

An example of such a verb recorded in ‘LA is (with diphthong!) *biyrawb<sup>u</sup>uw nnās* “people perform the maṛbū‘ah”.<sup>125</sup>

Quadriliteral verbs may also have a *ta-* preformative. The stem vowel of the perfect and imperfect is then fixed *a*.

		“be irritated, annoyed”			
		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>ta‘aknan</i>	<i>ta‘aknanuw</i>	<i>ya‘aknan</i>	<i>ya‘aknanuw</i>
	fem.	<i>ta‘aknanat</i>	<i>ta‘aknanin</i>	<i>ta‘aknan</i>	<i>ta‘aknanin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>ta‘aknant</i>	<i>ta‘aknantum/-uw</i>	<i>ta‘aknan</i>	<i>ta‘aknanuw</i>
	fem.	<i>ta‘aknantiy</i>	<i>ta‘aknantin</i>	<i>ta‘aknaniy</i>	<i>ta‘aknanin</i>
1.	com.	<i>ta‘aknant</i>	<i>ta‘aknanna</i>	<i>ata‘aknan</i>	<i>nta‘aknan</i>

Participles: *mta‘aknin*, *mta‘akninih*, *mta‘akninin* / *mta‘akinnin*, *mta‘aknināt* / *mta‘akinnāt*. Notice that elision of the the short high vowel *i* does not necessarily take place (compare this to the non-elision of high vowels in measure 2 verbs of mediae geminatae, see 2.1.2.5. and 3.2.3.5.1.).

For the verbal noun *t‘iknin*<sup>126</sup> was recorded.

<sup>124</sup> Nishio 1992, however, reports a number of instances with ‘fixed’ *a* in perfect and imperfect, e.g. (p. 62 (IX-1) *gōṭar*, *ygōṭar* “leave”, and also (p. 72 (X-3) *dardaš*, *ydardaš* “debate”.

<sup>125</sup> During night time festivities older men stand in a square (*maṛbū‘ah*) and improvise verse to each other.

<sup>126</sup> See remark in Stewart 1990:8 (text 1), fn 55 on the form *tširriṭ* formed on a pattern for verbal nouns used for both measure 2 and *t-2* verbs. See also Abul Fadl 1961:286 on

A quadrilateral verb with  $C_4 = y$  is *tagahwa*, *ytagahwa* and has the following paradigms:

		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>tagahwa</i>	<i>tagahwuw</i>	<i>ytagahwa</i>	<i>ytagahwuw</i>
	fem.	<i>tagahwat</i>	<i>tagahwin</i>	<i>tagahwa</i>	<i>ytagahwin</i>
2. masc.		<i>tagahwēt</i>	<i>tagahwētuw</i>	<i>tagahw*</i>	<i>tagahwuw</i>
	fem.	<i>tagahwētiy</i>	<i>tagahwētīn</i>	<i>tagahwiy</i>	<i>tagahwin</i>
1. com.		<i>tagahwēt</i>	<i>tagahwēna</i>	<i>atagahwa</i>	<i>ntagahwa</i>

\* When in pause, *tagáhuw #*.

An apocopated imperative for the sg. masc. is *tagahw* “drink tea / coffee!”. Participles are *mtagahwiy*, *mtagáhíwyih*, *mtagahíwyīn*, *mtagahíwyāt*.

#### 4. REMARKS ON PHRASEOLOGY

##### 4.1. Nunation

Tanwīn is not a feature of ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA, but in loans from MSA and in poetry nunation does occur. Recorded examples are: (all loans from MSA) *ṭab’an* “of course”, *masalan* “for instance”, *‘ammatan* “in general”, *dāyman* “always” (< MSA *dā’iman*), *ḥālīyyan* “currently”, *aḥyānan* “now and then” and *tagrīban* “approximately”.

##### 4.2. Negation

In ṬwA and HnA a verb is usually negated with compound *mā* + verb form + -š. Examples are *dawwir dawwir iza mā liqītīš ‘arǧá’-luh tāniy* “keep looking (for it), (and) if you don’t find any, go back to him”, *ma bingattī’iš siyyāl* “we don’t cut down acacia trees”, *ma farašáttīš* (< *ma farašat* + *hi’* + š) “she did not spread it out”, *ma na’aráfhaš* “we don’t know her” (for more detail on negated pronominals and negated verb forms with pronominal suffixes, see 3.1.12).

A negated suffixed preposition is *ma luḳš da’awah* “it is no concern of yours”. For more detail on negation of suffixed prepositions, see 3.1.16.

A single negation with only *mā* preceding the verb form may also be heard, but is much less frequent, and seems to be reserved for more emphatic

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verbal nouns of measure *t-2 tuḥussun* “Besserung”, *tu’uhhud* “Verpflichtung” and *tukubbur* “Hochmut”.

negation, often accompanied by *xāliš* “at all”. Examples are *w Allāh mā ğāni* “By God, he did not come to us” and *biddakkirna la hāğāt mā na'ariffa* “you remind us of things we don't know (i.e. had forgotten about)”.

In 'LA verbs are regularly negated with single preceding *mā* (the compound negation is the exception in 'LA). Also negated pronominals, prepositions etc. are negated with preceding *mā*. Examples in 'LA are: *mā ṭallāgithē* “I had not divorced her”, *fih nās halĥin ibyākl-ālbalaĥ iw hū ṭāzah mā byaĥašūh* “there are people now who eat the dates while they're fresh (and who) don't stuff them”, *iza mā 'induh ḥalāl* “if he doesn't have small cattle (for slaughter)”, *ġāl aḅuw lbint 'māhī maxaṭūbāh* “the father of the girl said ‘she is not engaged’”.

#### 4.3. The *b*-imperfect

The originally sedentary feature of the *b*-imperfect to express the habitual present tense is also current in ṬwA, HnA and 'LA. Some examples in ṬwA are *āywah biyhuttūh f-āġraḅ* “yes, they put it in goat skins”, *ma bingattī'š siyyāl* “we don't cut down acacia trees”, *innāġah biysībūha ... ibtimšiy l waĥadha fi Őaĥara. iw kull Őaĥar aw Őahrēn wāĥid bišūffi* “the she-camel, they let her go ... she goes alone in the desert. And every month or two months somebody sees her”. *yōm akbar, mumkin iykūn 'induh sanah biyġibuh ... 'induh fi lbēt iw huwwa ēš? biyṭabb'uh. ya'niy biyrabbīh* “when it is older, it could be a year old, (then) he gets it ... (and keeps it) with him in his house, while he what? He trains it, that is, he raises it”.

Two examples from 'LA are: *ba'adēn uḅūh ... biyrawwiĥ larriġġāl ... aḅuw lbint ... iw biyxarrfuh* “after that his father ... goes to the man ... the father of the girl ... and speaks to him”, *biyšūf bint ibt'iqḅuh* “he sees a girl that he likes”.

#### 4.4. Future Marker

To express “volition” or “need” *bidd* + pron. suffix may be used in ṬwA, HnA and also in 'LA.

Often not only volition or need is expressed, but also a sense of futurity of the action expressed in the following verb. Examples are: (futurity/volition) *biddī-ġul luḅ 'ala hāġih [...] ilġaṣalah diy ... halĥin xallēt Maĥmūd iyġawwiz bintī ...* “I want to/shall tell you something ... this twig ... I have now (agreed to) let Maĥmūd marry my daughter”.

To express futurity. the imperfect form may also have prefixed *ha-*, e.g. *hantašarraflēha fi lġamūs ...* “we'll make do with it in the (preparation of) food dip” and *iw ba'ad kiḍiy btāġasluh ... ġasil ġāmid xāliš. hatlāġih ṭiriy* “and after that you wash it thoroughly, and you'll find it is dry ...”.

In these and other instances there was less emphasis on ‘inevitability’ than was noticeable in examples for group VI.

The future may however also be expressed with the simple imperfect, as in *ássalag yizǧatte . . .*<sup>127</sup> *lamma yulǧuṭha*. *mā yākilha lamma yǧībha la šāḥbuh. iyǧūm šāḥbuh dābīḥḥe* ‘the hunting dog runs after it . . . until it catches it (fem.). He will not eat it (fem.) until he brings it to its master. His master then slaughters it’.

#### 4.5. *fih* “there is / are”

*fih* is used to express existence or availability of something, e.g. *fih wāhid šāḥibna nihāniy mumkin nāxuḍ minnuh l’arabiyyah nkutt bēha lwādiy* “there is a friend of ours here whose car we can take with which we go down the wadi” and (‘LA) *fih nās biyšūffa* “there are people who see her”.

The negation is usually *ma fiš*, also in ‘LA (!), e.g. *w Allāh ḡār rišrēš maṭar mā fiš* “by God, except for a few drops there hasn’t been any rain” and (‘LA) *aza mā fiš ḥurmah fāḍyah lēhin* “if there is not a woman free for them (i.e. to take care of the animals)”.

Also *māš* may be used for negation: *issuwwāḥ māš ilǧim ‘ah suwwāḥ b ilḥel* “the tourist, on Friday(s) there are no tourists at all”. *māš* was not heard in ‘LA.

#### 4.6. *Some Conjunctions*

##### 4.6.1. *Conjunctions lamma and yōm*

Like in many dialects of Sinai, conjunctions *lamma* and *yōm*, or variant forms based on these, are used for “when”.

##### 4.6.1.1. *yōm*

##### 4.6.1.1.1. *yōm used independently*

*yōm* may be used meaning “when”, e.g. *il‘anz yōm taḥalibha kiḍiy w ithuṭṭuh fi ssi‘in kimān . . . illaban* “the goat, when you milk it like, and you put it in the goatskin<sup>128</sup> also . . . the milk”, *ṭab‘an illaban yōm iykūn kiṭir binḥuṭṭuh fiḥ ēh?* “of course, when there is a lot of milk we put it in what?”, *ilmaṭar illiy nāzil dī*, *yōm yinzil ‘ala gizāz l’arabiyyah . . . ṭin* “this rain that falls, when it comes down on the glass of the car . . . it is mud” and (from ‘LA) *yōm řawwaḥ ‘ind ḥurumtuh bidduh ynām ḡambhi* “when

<sup>127</sup> *yizǧatte* > *yizǧat* + *ha*.

<sup>128</sup> A *si‘n* is a leather bag made of goatskin in which butter is churned.

he came to his wife he wanted to go asleep beside her” and *yōm assaddah řawyānah byatla'* “when the dam<sup>129</sup> is watered it grows”.

#### 4.6.1.1.2. *yōm* in combination with in

##### 4.6.1.1.2.1. *yōmin* used independently

*yōmin* may also be used for “when”, like in the following examples: *yōmin ligihi* “when he found her...” and (from 'LA) *aŐŐubih yōmin ma yiġiy l alfaxx iw lannha malġuťah* “when he comes to the trap in the morning, there she is, caught”.

##### 4.6.1.1.2.2. *yōmin* + obj. suffix as subject of the clause

There is an example of *yōmin* suffixed with a dummy subject (-*uh*); the subject is “I”: *ba'adēn řawwalthuŐ hūniy yōminnuh iťtarrēt iġiy wařa li'yāl 'aŐān ilmidāris* “after that I moved them here, when I was forced to come with (lit. after) the children because of the schools” (*ťť* in *iťtarrēt* is assimilated < *đť*). No such example in 'LA.

##### 4.6.1.1.2.3. *min yōm*

*min yōm(in)* is often used for “as soon as” or “from the moment that”, e.g. *min yōm ana-ddēt ilgaŐalah*<sup>130</sup> *xalāŐ* “from the moment that I give the twig, it's done” and ('LA) *min yōm a'ťuħ algaŐalah xalāŐ 'irif hādīy řuřumtuħ, ib sinnt Ałłāh w rasul-a'ťuħ...*<sup>131</sup> *gaŐalatuh* “from the moment that they have (i.e. the father of the bride) has given him the twig, *xalāŐ*, he knows that she (lit. this) is his wife... according to the tradition of God and his Prophet they have given him... his twig”.

##### 4.6.1.1.2.4. *min yōm* in combination with *ma*

A combinations of *min yōm* and *ma* was only recorded in 'LA: *min yōm ma 'āyzah tuŐřud, mařřah mařřtēn řalāťah xalāŐ lāzim iťťalligha...xalāŐ māħī 'āyiztuħ* “from the moment that she wants to flee, once, twice, three times, that's it, he has to divorce her (i.e. grant her her wish for a divorce), (because) she does not want him”.

<sup>129</sup> The ‘dam’ is actually the soil behind a dam on which water collects.

<sup>130</sup> A *gaŐalah* “twig” is given to the groom by the father of the prospective bride in betrothal ceremonies. See also Bailey 2009:350 (glossary).

<sup>131</sup> *rasul-a'ťuħ*: *rasuluh* + *a'ťuħ*. The phrase *b sinnt Ałłāh w rasuluh* is often added to descriptions of practices whose islamic origin(s) are doubtful. See also remark in fn 430, De Jong 2000:219 and Őuqayr 1916:387–388.

4.6.1.2. *lamma* and *lumma*

*lamma* is often used for “when” and “until”. Also a form like *lam* was recorded (variants *lumma* or *lum* were not heard).

4.6.1.2.1. *lamma* “when” used independently

Examples of *lamma* used for “when”: *tiġb ilʿanz, iw tísigha mayyah lamma tkūn ʿaṣṣānah walla ḥāġih, iw baʿad ma taṣarab. timsikha, wāḥid ibyimsik-luḵ iw wāḥid ibyadbaḥ. bitgūl bismillāh Allāhu ʿakbar iw taḍbaḥ* “you get the goat, and you give it water when it is thirsty or something. And after it drinks you take hold of it, someone holds it for you and someone (else) slaughters. You say ‘in the name of God, God is great’, and you slaughter”.

Another example is: *lamma nnās ibyasmaʿuw xabīʿ illibbah kiḍiy, ilkull ibyáʿarf inn fiḥ wāḥid žiʿ* ... “when people hear such knocking on the loaf,<sup>132</sup> everybody knows that someone has come (as a visitor) ...”. An example in ʿLA is (both in the meaning of “until” and “when”) *bitsawwiy zzibdeh, iw bitxuḍḍ assi in ... itxuḍḍuh ... lamma tṛawwbuh. lamma yrūb bitṭallʿ azzib-dah minnuh* “she makes butter, and she churns the goat skin ... she churns it ... until she causes it to curdle. When it curdles, she takes the butter out of it (i.e. from the goat skin)”.

Another form recorded in GrA is *ānāt*, which is used for “when”: *ānāt ma yístiwiy biykūn tamir layyin šār* “when it matures it will have become tender (soft) dates”.

4.6.1.2.2. *lamma* + in

The only recorded example (in ASA) of *lamma* + in (*lumma* + in was not recorded) is *budxul ʿād ʿind innās illiy baṛra, [kiḍiy] fi ḥmāyithum ... lamman inšuf ilmúskilih diy, iw taxlaṣ* “so I take refuge with people who are outside (i.e. outside my own community), like that in their protection ... until we see (look into) this problem, and it is resolved”.

4.6.1.2.3. *lamma* and *lumma* “until”

*lamma* (*lumma* was not recorded) maybe used in combination with *laġāyit* for “until”, e.g. *bitduggha dagg fi lhōn ... laġāyat lamma yunʿum kiḍiy* “you crush it (sg. fem.) in the mortar ... until it becomes soft” and *biyġib miṣwāṭ kiḍiy xaṣab, iw byuḍrubha bēha barḍuh āh? laġāyat lamma taġadiy ... zayy izzibdah fi baʿaḍha* “he takes a wooden spoon, like, and stirs it (sg. fem.) with it (sg. fem.) and also what? until it becomes ... like butter mixed together”.

<sup>132</sup> The *libbah* is a loaf of bread baked in live embers and hot sand. When it is done, the loaf is beaten to get rid of the dust and ashes.

An example of *lamma* used as “until” without *lağāyit* is *tīğib ilḥaṭab dī, imn issiyyāl, w itwall’ innār lamma ēh yáhağim yáğadīy ġamir* “you get this firewood, from the acacia, and you light the fire (and let it burn) until what? The flames die down (and) it becomes glowing embers”.

An example in ‘LA: *ana xannī-ṭawwil bālī lamma şşabāḥ yaṭla’...w aṛawwḥ ilmag’ad w anām fih* “(addressing himself) let me be patient until the morning comes... and let me go back to the mag’ad<sup>133</sup> and sleep there”.

#### 4.6.1.3. lōm (+ in)

An example of *min lōm* in the meaning of “from the moment that” (in ASA): *biyrawwī’ ind<sup>134</sup> ilAḥēwāt biyrawwī’ ind ilGirārşih biyrawwī’ ind ilīMzēnih, ana min lōm biyrawwihḥ kiđiy mā-garrib luh* “he goes to the Aḥaywāt, he goes to the Garārşah, he goes to the Mzēnah, from the moment that he goes (like this), I didn’t go near him”. Another example is *min lōm hū ġawwazha* “from the moment he married her” and from ‘LA *lōm tiğ talgha lannha xāđđit issī’in, w imsawwyah libbah w fātṭitta<sup>135</sup>* “when you come you find her and (lo!) there she has churned the goat skin, and she has made libbah and she has made fattah of it (sg. fem.)”.

#### 4.6.2. ḥatta

##### 4.6.2.1. ḥatta “until”, “so that”

*ḥatta* was not recorded in the meaning of “until” or “so that”.

### 4.7. Auxiliaries and Verbal Particles

#### 4.7.1. gām

*gām* used as a ‘marker of consequent action’ was recorded only in ‘LA:<sup>136</sup> *iw ḥāl...gām xallāha w uğuḅ sanatēn...zabbaṭ álḥaṭab, iw ġāb addabāyih, iw ġāb ibyūt áşša’ar* “and in case... he has then left her and

<sup>133</sup> A *mag’ad* is a place where men meet and a host receives his guests, and where they drink coffee or tea and exchange stories and news.

<sup>134</sup> *h* + ‘ often assimilates to ‘, also in sandhi: *biyrawwih’ ind > biyrawwī’ ind*.

<sup>135</sup> *fātṭitta = (fātṭah) fātṭit + ha* “having made it (sg. fem.) into fattah”. When suffixing the obj. pron. suffix to the sg. fem. act. participle the fem. morpheme becomes *-it* here, instead of *-it*. This appears to be typical of ‘LA (as I was told by a Turbāniy informant). Another example (provided by the same Turbāniy informant) is *māklītha* “having (sg. fem.) eaten it (sg. fem.)”. For such suffixation as a trait of *fellāḥi* dialects in Transjordan and Ḥōrān, see Cantineau 1946:22–225 and Palva 2008a:61. See also EALL 2006 (Vol. I):263 (Rosenhouse: Bedouin Arabic).

<sup>136</sup> The three instances recorded in ‘LA showed a 3rd p. sg. masc. subject. ‘Unconjugated’ can therefore not be concluded.

after two years . . . he has prepared the firewood, and brought the animals for slaughter, and has brought the tents”.

#### 4.7.2. *rāḥ*

Examples of the use of *rāḥ* used as an auxiliary were recorded only in ḤmA: *lamma rāḥ karraḥa winha manganiz [ . . . ] manganiz nimraḥ wāḥid . . . ḡi' gāl ḡār itwaddīnī ibmakān dī' . . . [ . . . ] rāḥ iywaddī<sup>137</sup> 'a-skandariyyih gāl 'itwaddīnī makānuh* “when he then (went and) analyzed it, lo it was (i.e. turned out to be) manganese [ . . . ] top quality manganese.<sup>138</sup> He came and said ‘you have to take me to this place’ . . . [ . . . ] he was going to send it to (a laboratory in) Alexandria, he said ‘take me to its place’ (i.e. where you found it)”.

#### 4.7.3. *Conditional particles*

##### 4.7.3.1. *Variations on kān as a conditional particle*

###### 4.7.3.1.1. *in + kān*

An example of *in + kān* “if” in ṬwA and HnA: *iw šūfuw-nkān talguw lē<sup>u</sup>ḵum bu ṛān 'induh* “and look if you find camels of yours with him”, *w inguṣṣ inkān ḡurṛt ilbu ṛān fihī* “and we follow the tracks if the camel tracks are in it” and in ṬA *w alfuṭūr ba'adiyyta<sup>139</sup> nkān 'āwz itsawwha bitsawwha* “and (the breakfast) after this (lit. it (sg. fem.) if you want to prepare it (sg. fem.), you prepare it (sg. fem.)”.

###### 4.7.3.1.2. *Suffixed inkān*

Instances of suffixed *kān* or *inkān* were not recorded in any of the dialects discussed here.

###### 4.7.3.1.3. *il + kān*

Instances of *il + kān* were not recorded.

###### 4.7.3.1.4. *kān preceded by CA loans iz or iza*

The following example of *kān* preceded by *iz* is not very coherent: *izkān . . . ṣāḥbuh-lliy yḡībuh . . . 'arif nimraḥ-zkān nimṛit baṭāḡtuh . . . w ā'arfuh bass* “if . . . its owner who brings him . . . you know the number, if

<sup>137</sup> *ywaddī' a* is assimilated < *ywaddīh 'a*.

<sup>138</sup> In the area of Umm Buḡmah manganese deposits have been found. A Google search on the internet with search criteria “Um Bogma” or “Oleikat” (i.e. Ṭēḡāt) will yield references to geological reports on these deposits. Google Earth indicates Umm Bugma as being located at appr. 29.00.43 North and 33.20.28 East, which is the area of Sēl Ba'ba' (“Wadi Baba”).

See also Greenwood 1997:35 (figure 3-6) (there transcribed as Um Bogma).

<sup>139</sup> See remark in fn 135, p. 106.

the number of his I.D., I just want to know him (i.e. who he is)". A more coherent sentence is: *iw ba'ad kidiy xamis 'aşař digāyig xamışaşar digīgih binfalliḥa-z kån ġamiř ḥiluw* "and after like five, ten minutes, fifteen minutes we take it out if it is (a fire of) good embers" and *izkån wāḥid 'ayyān walla ḥāġah biyġībūh luh* "if someone is ill or something, they bring it to him."

Instances of *iz(a) + kån* were not recorded in 'LA. Instead, several instances of *iza* or *iz*, and even more regularly *az(a)* were heard as independent conditionals, e.g. *iza mā 'induh ḥalāl* "if he does not have small cattle (for slaughter)", *iz fatt alfattah mażbūṭ xālīş* "if he has prepared the fattah very well..." and *aza gāluw 'la' lāzim tuskun 'indina* "if they say 'No, you have to live with us'...", *aza luġūḥ, bitxallhe'... imşammalah* "if she is pregnant (i.e. the she-camel), you make sure she gets a şamlah."<sup>140</sup>

#### 4.7.3.1.5. *kån as an independent conditional*

*kån* used independently as conditional "if" was recorded often, but an example is: *kån im'ūķ dirāhim* "if you have money". No such examples were recorded in 'LA.

#### 4.7.3.1.6. *kån, inkån or ilkån introducing alternatives*

*kån* may introduce alternatives: *iddaxil kån Şarim, aw issyāḥah 'āmmatan fi liblād diy* "an income is (i.e. can be made in) Sharm, or (in) tourism in general in this land". No such examples were recorded in 'LA.

#### 4.7.3.2. *Absence of a conditional particle*

Conditional sentences are often not introduced by a particle. An example is: *ḥumḥa kånuw... ḥumḥa rrgāl 'āyzīn yūġu'duw sāwa', fiḥ makān... ilmaġma' barra* "they were... if they are men who want to sit together, there is a place... the meeting place is outside". Another example from 'LA is: *māḥi luġūḥ, bitbarrik 'alēha tānīy* "if she is not pregnant (i.e. the she-camel), you have her covered (i.e. to be impregnated) again".

## 4.8. Presentative Particles

### 4.8.1. *ir' or ar'*

Presentatives *ir'* or *ar'* were not recorded in ṬWA or HnA, nor in 'LA.

<sup>140</sup> A *şamlah* is a piece of cloth covering the vagina of the she-camel. This is used to make sure that she can only have been impregnated by a thoroughbred camel.

4.8.2. *hē* + suffix

The presentative particle *hē* followed by a personal pronominal to draw the listeners attention to something or someone is current, e.g. *hēhū ḡi!* “there he has come!”, *hēhī ḡāt* “there she has come!”, *hēhuwwa ḡuw* “there they (masc.) have come!”, *hēhinnah ḡin* “there they (fem.) have come!”. In ‘LA an example is: *w lin ḡi hēhuwwih* “and there he came”.

This presentative *hē* must have developed from *hāy*, which shortens to *hay* in unstressed positions.<sup>141</sup>

Another possibility recorded in ASA is *hvk* (in which *v* is the short high vowel colouring with the following vowel) followed by a pronominal of which initial *h* assimilates to *k*, e.g. *hukkuwwa* or *hukkū* “there you have him”, *hikkiyyih* “there you have her”, *hukkuḡma* “there you have them”, *hikkinnih* “there you have them (fem.)”.

This presentative element *hvk* or must have developed from a presentative *hāk*<sup>142</sup> (< *hā* + *k*) of which the long vowel was shortened, due to its unstressed position in forms like *hāk* + *huḡma* or *hāk* + *hiyya*, after which the resulting short *a* (e.g. as in assumed intermediate forms *\*hakuḡma* and *\*hakiyya*) could assume the colour of the following vowel: > *hukkuḡma* and *hikkiyya*.

4.8.3. Particle *wlin* ~ *wilin*, *win*

The particle *wlin* is mainly used to present a sudden or unexpected turn in a narration. Although in the first example below, like also in examples for group VI, the development referred to is hardly unexpected or sudden: *iw biḥuṭṭuh [...] fi nnār galiy galiy lamma tḡūb fi baʿadha w baʿad kiḡiy biḥuṭṭha w innha samin šīḡiy* “and you put it on (lit. in) the fire to boil and boil until it melts together, and there you have wormwood ghee”.

Another example is *ndawwir iNmēr iw linn ḡurrit ḡamal hēhī giddāmma ḡimrā* “we went to Nmēr and there were the tracks of a camel and there she was in front of us, red (colour)” and *baʿad talat sāʿāt kiḡiy w linnī b xēr. ana banabbīṭ tanbīṭ fi lblād* “after three hours or so I was alright again. (and) I was jumping about on the ground”.

In ASA a similar *iw lannuh hū b nafsuh* “and there he was himself” was also recorded (see remark in next paragraph).

<sup>141</sup> For remarks on *hāy* and *hay* (< *hā* + *y*) see De Jong 2000:235–236.

<sup>142</sup> On the difference in deictic function between *hay* or *hāy* and *hāk*, see De Jong 2000:236.

*w lin / lan* was also recorded in 'LA, often in combination with *hā-* or *hē-* + pron. suffix and not necessarily with preceding *w*: *lan hāhū lfaras* "there was the horse", *iw lan hēhū issēl ġāy* "and there is the flood coming" and a suffixed example *yōm yġiy luh linnuh, linnuh lāġiṯha'* "when he comes to it, there it (i.e. the trap) . . . , there it has caught her (i.e. an animal)".

#### 4.8.4. Particle *wlā* +

An example of the presentative particle *wlā* is probably *w lannuh* (see preceding paragraph 4.8.3.) consisting of the elements *w* + *lā* + *inn* + *uh*.

In 'LA the presentative *lan* co-occurs with *lin*, of which the former is probably the result of *lā* + *in* (see examples in 4.8.3.).

#### 4.9. ġayr

*ġār* (< *ġayr*) may be used preceding imperfect forms to express the necessity of the action,<sup>143</sup> e.g. *hāda ġār niġġār inġibuh lēhin w Allāh . . .* "this we have to get a carpenter for them (pl. fem.), by God . . .".

Also in 'LA several examples of *ġēr* were heard, e.g.: *gāl hū ġēr iġib issēf w aġta' rāġabatuh* "he said 'I have to get the sword and decapitate him". Instances of reduced *ġayr* were recorded as *ir*, e.g.: *law kalát"ķ bidduķ, ir kān daktūr walla bidduķ, iza f-albaṛṛ kamān mā ḥāwalā"ķ daktūr ir kān insān ḥāwiy* "if it bites you (i.e. a snake) you need, it should be a doctor, or you need, if you're in the desert and also there is no doctor near (lit. around) you, it must be a person (who is) a snake charmer" and *ibyīdirsuw b ālġimal, iw ġār insān 'arīf iysawwih* "they thresh with the camel, and it should be someone who knows how to do it".

#### 4.10. Intensifying Particle *la*

The particle *la* intensifying the 1st p. sg. com. was not recorded in any of the dialects discussed here.

#### 4.11. *bidd* or *widd* + pron. suffix

To express "want" or "need" speakers of ṬwA and HnA use suffixed *bidd* (~ suffixed *badd* in ĞbA), but in ḤmA suffixed *widd* was also heard. Exam-

<sup>143</sup> See Hopkins 1990.

ples for “need” or “want” are: *biddna nkutt fi lwādiy* “we want to go down the wadi”, *bidduh ygōtir* “he wants to go (away)”.

An example of *bidd* expressing futurity, rather than “want” or “need” is *iḥna zayy ibtā ʿtalaṭ marrāt biddna nḏi ʿfi lbahaṛ* “something like three times we were going to get lost at sea” (HnA).

*bidd* is also used in ʿLA, e.g. *iḥna biddni ʿ... nirsiy ʿādiy* “so we’ll anchor (here) (i.e. make camp for the night)” and *ana biddi-tagaddam... māšiy* “I shall / want to continue walking”.

#### 4.12. ʿād

The particle ʿād is current to express “so, thus, then”. Examples are: *bitmad-did fi liblād. iw btaṭla ʿbaṭṭixah... id ʿayyfah kiḏiy ssā ʿ, ʿawwil ma yaṭla ʿ, iw byakbar iw ba ʿād-ma yakbar, tūkun ithāfīd ʿilēh ʿād intih... ʿan ʿdarb iššamš ilguwīyih.*” It grows out over the soil, and a watermelon grows... still a bit weak, when it comes up, and it grows, and after it grows, you should then be protecting it... from the strong radiation (lit. beating) of the sun”. Another example is *hāda biykaddib ʿād* “so this man is lying”.

An example of ʿād in ʿLA is *iw ʿugub kiḏiy ʿād waddāha dāruh* “so after that he took her home”, but often the forms ʿādiy or ʿādīyt also occur: *hū ʿādīyt ʿind aḏḏēf mistaḡra* “so he is served a proper meal with the guest (i.e. who actually received the invitation and through whose company he is also invited for the meal)”.<sup>144</sup>

#### 4.13. yabga

Like in group VI, *yabga* is not very current in ṬwA, HnA or ʿLA, but may be heard at times meaning “so, then”, as in *w iṭṭa ʿam illiy fiha bardagān. yabga šārat bitḡīb xēr aḡtar* “and its taste is oranges, so then it brings more good (i.e. it is even better)”.

<sup>144</sup> A proper meal fit to be served to a respected guest is called *grā ʿ* (n.u. *garwah*) and usually consists of rice and meat. Other ingredients instead of meat are also acceptable, if the host is unable to serve meat. Compare also Stewart 1990:222 (glossary), root *g-r-y*, 4th measure (*agra, yigrīy*) “to entertain, feed guests” and *grīy* “hospitality, the food etc. that is given to a guest”. See also Bailey 2004:173 (entry 449). In a similar context I have also heard *ilxubiz mā byigrīy* “bread is not a proper meal”. See however also fn 36, p. 208 for *grīy* as a pl. form for *garyih*.

4.14. *Characteristics of the Narrative Style*4.14.1. *Imperative of narration*

Instances of the narrative imperative were not recorded in ẗwA, HnA or 'LA.<sup>145</sup>

4.14.2. *kān as a temporal marker*

Unconjugated *kān* used as a marker to indicate the past is current in ẗwA and HnA, e.g. *kān inġib ilMansiy min Aḅuw Rdēs* “we used to get ilMansiy from Abuw Rdēs”, *kān binḥuṭṭ ġēr izzētūn* “we used to plant olive trees only”.

However, *kān* was more frequently used as a verb and conjugated as such, e.g. *kānat ilġnēnah ḍiy kullha kānat milyānih. kān milyān ēh? baṭāṭis w ixḍār. innās kānat ēh? kānat ibtūġiy hina 'a ṭul* “this whole garden was full. It was full with what? Potatoes and vegetables. People used to what? They used to come here directly”.

Findings for 'LA were similar.

4.14.3. *Dativus ethicus*

Some instances of the ethical dative are: *w itwiġġ innār minnuh w iysr luḡ tamām xāliṣ* “and you light the fire with it (i.e. firewood) and it becomes perfect for you”, *iw ba'ad kiḍiy bitġib maṣfa 'imāmah-w ayyi ḥāġih, iw bitṣaff 'ilēh iw bitṭall' izzēt iw bitsaww luḡ imṛaggagah 'ilēh aw bissaww luḡ ayyi ḥāġih* “and after that you get the cloth-sieve or anything, and you sieve with it and you get the oil out and you make *mṛaggagah*<sup>146</sup> for yourself with it or you make anything for yourself” and *mumkin yākul luḡ faṭisih, yākul luḡ bahīmah mayytih, yākul luḡ ayyi ḥāġah xalāṣ* “he could eat for you (meat of) a corpse”, he could eat for you (meat of) dead livestock, he could eat anything at all for you”.<sup>147</sup>

<sup>145</sup> This should not be taken to mean that these dialects lack this feature; it is simply not present in my material.

<sup>146</sup> *mṛaggagah* is like *fattah*: a dish with torn pieces of flat bread in oil and herbs.

<sup>147</sup> The translation with ‘could’ reflects that the person in question (a boy who has been chosen to grow up to be a snake charmer) should avoid eating what is mentioned, and that people should take extra care with his food. It is believed that the wrong food—anything *ḥarām*—will ruin his special gift.

An example in ‘LA is: *gāl luḡ hāda krāk ‘indī b xamištāšar sanah* “he says (lit. said) to you, here is your pay<sup>148</sup> that I owe you for fifteen years (of work)”.

#### 4.15. *Pluralis paucitatis*

For limited or countable numbers often the healthy plural form is used, instead of the broken plural. Examples are: *xuḍrawāt—xḍār* “vegetables” (HnA), *nuxrāt—ánxaṣ* “noses” (GrA), *banāt—bnittih* “girls”, *šuggāt—šgāg* “woven lengths of a tent”, *ḥabbāt—ḥbūb* “grains; pills” (both ASA), *šwālāt—šwilih* “sacks (for grain)” (ŠwA).

#### 4.16. *Concord*

Limited or countable numbers of things tend to be referred to in the pl. fem. Examples are: (A) *‘āwzīn iṣṣabābīk w ilbībān ...* (B) *lā lā dīllih šuḡlithin dīl ṭawilah ‘ilēne ...* (A) *walla nḡīb lēna niḡḡār?* (B) *hāda ḡār niḡḡār inḡibuh lēhin w Aḷḷah* “(A) we want to fit the windows and the doors (B) No, no, the work on these things is too much for us (to handle). (A) or shall we get ourselves a carpenter? (B) (for) This (is something), we have to get a carpenter for them, by God”. Another example is *illiy žāb luḡ sittīn išwāl walla ḥāḡah biywaddihin ilmaṭṭanih, lākin išwāl wāhid biywaddih ilbēt ibyaṭṭan ‘a rḥā ...* “he who has harvested (lit. brought) sixty sacks or something for himself, takes them to the mill, but (if it is just) one sack he takes (it) home and grinds (it) on the hand mill” and *fih amākin iḡsūr<sup>149</sup> innās imsawwīnḥin zamān, fa biytaxazzan fihin* “there are places for storage that people made in the old days, so they store (goods) in them”.

The following is a reference to a pl. of animals (here camels): *w Aḷḷah w ṭabbēna lGā ‘il‘ašir, w Aḷḷah w iḥna nnām luḡ ‘ilēhin ... išṣād išṣād išṣād išṣād lamma ḡīna Bīr Mūs-Aḅuw ‘Aṭwa* “By God, and we went to *ilGā*<sup>150</sup> in the afternoon, by God, while we lay flat on them (for you),<sup>151</sup> fleeing, fleeing, fleeing, fleeing until we came to Bīr Mūsā Aḅuw ‘Aṭwa”.

Some examples in ‘LA are: *fih iḡsūr ilḡsūr dīl biyḥuṭṭuw alḡirbah fihin* “there are storage caves. They put the girbah (a goat skin sack) in these

<sup>148</sup> Root *k-r-y*, I have also recorded *ikrih* and *krāh* “his pay”.

<sup>149</sup> *ḡsūr* (sg. *ḡašr*), see fn 42, p. 47.

<sup>150</sup> The (largely empty) sandy coastal plain near aṭ-Ṭūr. See also fn 1, Chapter Two below.

<sup>151</sup> *luḡ* “for you” is an instance of the ethical dative, see 4.14.3.

storage caves”, (talking about animals) *algizlān dillah mā biyṭḥin fi lwāṭiy, ġār fi ġġbāl, fi ġġbāl albi'ideh* “these gazelles don’t come down in low areas, (you’ll find them) only in the mountains, in the far mountains” and *ibtasraḥ ib bi'rānuḳ, iw tīġiy 'a nāyyt ālġada . . . itgayyidhin w itxallḥin . . . fi ġāl 'an alḥalāl* “you go out grazing with your camels, and you come by lunch time, you hobble them and leave them . . . away (lit. aside) from the small cattle”.

##### 5. A SKETCHY REMARK ON PITCH

The type of pitch heard in group I predominantly among older men in the northeast was not heard in ṬwA or HnA, nor in 'LA.

## CHAPTER TWO

### A DESCRIPTION OF THE DIALECTS OF THE MZĒNAH AND BANIY WĀŞIL

#### INTRODUCTION

The largest tribe of the central, south and southeastern Sinai are the Mzēnah (or Muzaynah). The much smaller tribe of Baniy Wāşil live near the town of aṭ-Ṭūr and towards the east of it and in the western part of the massif of the central south of Sinai, where they are neighbours of the Awlād Saʿīd<sup>1</sup> and the Garārşah, who live to their north. The dialects of Mzēnah (MzA) and Baniy Wāşil (BWA) share some important characteristics, and are therefore treated in one chapter. Originally, however, the dialect of the Baniy Wāşil must have been more like the dialect-type of group I, with which it still shares a number of features not found in Mzēniy. Some of these features actually occur parallel to features also heard in Mzēniy, while other characteristics are still uniquely (inside Sinai, that is) found in group I. Wāşliy is therefore treated here together with Mzēniy, partly for contrastive purposes and partly because it must have developed towards Mzēniy.

On the location of Baniy Wāşil, as it appears on the maps in this study, the following must be taken into account: although their territory does not directly border on the territory of the Mzēnah, in practice the Awlād Saʿīd, whose territory is indicated to lie between that of the Baniy Wāşil and that of the Mzēnah, actually live more inland, i.e. in and around Wādiy Şlāf in the central mountain massif,<sup>2</sup> where they are direct neighbours of the Ğbāliyyah. The coastal plain of the dīrah of the Awlād Saʿīd is in fact empty land (the sandy coastal plain al-Gāʿ), and hence the Baniy Wāşil are—more or less—direct neighbours of the Mzēnah.

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<sup>1</sup> Although the *dīrah* of Awlād Saʿīd is indicated on the map as bordering the Gulf of Suez, members of this tribe actually do not live in this deserted coastal plain (known as *Gāʿ ašŞarm* or simply *alGāʿ*), but are found more up in the mountains to the east. In effect, the Mzēnah and Baniy Wāşil (who do inhabit the coastal area on the Gulf of Suez near aṭ-Ṭūr) are direct neighbours.

<sup>2</sup> The coordinates are appr. 28.32.35 North and 33.43.55 East, see Google Earth.

In the following chapter a description of the characteristics of both dialects is given, unless explicitly stated otherwise.

## 1. PHONOLOGY

### 1.1. Consonants

#### 1.1.1. Inventory of consonants

The inventory of consonantal phonemes of MzA and BWA is:

	bilabial		labdent.		alveolar		intdent.		postalv.		palatal		velar		uvul.		phar.		laryng.	
	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd
plosive		b			t	d							k	g	(q)					(ʔ)
emph.					ṭ								ḳ*							
nasal		m				n														
fricative			f		s	z	ṭ	ḍ	š	(ž)			x	ġ			ħ	ʕ		h
emph.					ṣ	(z)		ḍ												
affricate													ǧ							
trill						r														
emph.						(r)														
lateral						l														
emph.						l̥														
glides		w											y							

vd = voiced, vl = voiceless, emph. = emphatic/velarized

The greatest difference with the inventory of group I is the presence of both /k/ and /ḳ/, which is also a feature of group II in the north and of dialects of groups VII and VIII. A minimal pair *xuḍ bāluḳ*—*xḍiy bālik* (though ~ *bālikiy* in BWA) “pay attention (sg. masc.—sg. fem.)” isolates /k/ and /ḳ/ as phonemes.

\*: See remarks in 1.1.3. below.

#### 1.1.2. Interdental fricatives /ṭ/, /ḍ/ and /ǧ/

The reflexes of \*ṭ and \*ḍ are interdentals ṭ and ḍ (I.P.A. [θ] and [ð] respectively).

Examples for \*ṭ are: *naḥarit̥* “we plough” (MzA), *tān̥iy* “second” (both), *ṭyāb* “clothes” (BWA), (ʔ)*aṭarhuw* “their tracks” (BWA).

For \*ḍ: *nāxid̥* “we take” (both), *m̥igḍāf* “oar” (MzA), *mnaḍbaḥuh* “we slaughter him” (MzA), *iḍn* “ear” (MzA), *ḍikr* “mention” (BWA), *ḍim̥imih* “ugly” (BWA), *xuḍ bāluḳ* “pay attention, mind you” (BWA).

There are also exceptions: “refrigerator” and “ice; snow” are with *t* in both dialects: *tillāḡah* and *talḡ*.

In some loans from MSA (presumably via speakers of Cairene) the reflex for \*t̄ is s, e.g. *ḥadīs* “modern” (BWA) and also *ḥaras* (!)<sup>3</sup> “he ploughed” (BWA), *masalan* “for instance” (both) and for \*ḍ it is sometimes z, as in *bizr* “seed” (BWA) and *kizāluk*<sup>4</sup> “as well”.

Emphatic ḍ (I.P.A. velarized [ð̣]) is the interdental reflex of \*ḍ and \*ḍ̣, e.g. (as reflex of \*ḍ in) *ṛawḍ* (pl. *rīḍān*) “small wadi between low mountains” (BWA), *uḍfur*, pl. *aḍāfir* “finger” (MzA), *ḍayf* “guest” (both) and (as a reflex for \*ḍ in) *yḍall* “he remains” (both) and *ḍāharuh* “his back” (BWA) and *ālgāḍa* “(the) inferior type of firewood” (BWA).

In a number of lexemes z (usually loans from MSA or Egyptian Arabic) is the current reflex, like in *mwazzafīn* “civil servants”, *zubbāt* “officers” (both BWA), *b-iẓẓabt* “precisely” (both), *binzabbīt* “we do a proper job”, *nizām* “system” (both MzA), etc.

In both dialects the sg. masc. demonstrative (*hā-*)*da* “this (sg. masc.)” is without velarization.

### 1.1.3. Velar stops /k/ and /g/

Like in the other dialects of Sinai, \*k and \*q have unaffricated reflexes *k* and *g*.

Although in both dialects *ḵ* and *k* are heard, only in MzA we find a true phonemic opposition in a minimal pair like *īduk* “your (sg. masc.) hand”—*īdik* “your (sg. fem.) hand”; in BWA (sg. fem.) pronominal suffixes *-ik* and *-kiy* are used as parallel forms<sup>5</sup> (i.e. *īdik*, as well as *īdkiy*, the latter of which is the original BWA form and which is normally used). A true phonemic opposition between /ḵ/ and /k/,<sup>6</sup> such as that existing in MzA, appears to be developing in BWA.

Similarly we find the (sg. masc.) pron. suffix C-*ak* (and its allomorph *ṽ-k*) parallel to the (sg. masc.) pronominal suffix *-ḵ* in BWA.

In MzA “cigarette” is *siḡārah* (not like in many other dialects *siḡārah*).

<sup>3</sup> A sibilant s for interdental t̄ in the verb *ḥarat*, *yaḥarīt* “plough” is usually (i.e. in other dialects of Sinai) not one of the exceptions.

<sup>4</sup> Compare MSA *ka-dālik*, of which morpheme boundaries were reinterpreted as *kaḍā-l-ik*, after which *l-ik* “to you (sg. fem.)” was adapted as *l-uk* (for sg. masc.).

<sup>5</sup> For the notion of ‘parallel forms’ as a characteristic of a transitional stage in dialect change due to dialect contact, see Trudgill 1983:chapter 5 and remarks in De Jong 2000:28, 596–597.

<sup>6</sup> ‘True’ in the sense that the two phonemes can be isolated in a minimal pair.

1.1.4. *Post alveolar affricate /ǧ/*

The allophone ʒ (I.P.A. [ʒ]) for /ǧ/ is particularly frequent in MzA. It was not recorded in BWA.

1.1.5. *Emphatic alveolar stop /t̤/*

In all dialects of group I of the south, and also in group VI, a measure of glottalization in the realisation of /t̤/ may occur. Often the glottal release, which coincides with the release of the t̤, is not very clear. What is clear, is the lack of aspiration in the release of t̤, and the immediate onset of a following vowel.

1.1.6. *Glottal stop (hamzah)*

Like in many dialects of Sinai, the reflex for \*ʔ in the verb ask is ʔ: *saʔal, yasʔal*.

In \**raʔs* “head”, loss of ʔ is complemented by lengthening the preceding vowel > *rās* (pl. *rūs*).

1.1.7. *Secondary velarization*

What strikes the ear first of all when one hears MzA is the lack of velarization in positions where neighbouring group I dialects in Sinai appear to have it almost as a matter of natural fact. It is a feature of which one of my Mzēniy informants was quite aware; when asked to mention a few differences of his own dialect with that of the Taṛābīn (who are their neighbours to the north), he mentioned *kibbāyih* “(drinking) glass”, pl. *kibābiy*, where a Turḃāniy would say *kubḃāyih* and *kuḃābiy*. MzA *rikbih* (pl. *rkab*) “knee” is pronounced *rukḃah* (pl. *rḃab*) in TAN, and MzA *siwwāg* “driver” is *sawwāg* in TAN.

The imperfects of “eat” and “take” are not (or at best only minimally) velarized, whereas the imperatives are: (imperfects) *yāxiḏ* and *yākil*, but velarization is heard in (imperative forms) *kuḏ* and *xuḏ*.

Compared to TAN, long *ā* in MzA is also noticeably higher in positions not influenced by velarization, e.g. *ṣiyyād* “fisherman”, *riǧǧāl* “man”, *kiššāf* “flashlight”, *ʔišān* “thirsty” (*ā* is used here to indicate a phonetic value between I.P.A. [æ:] and [ɛ:]). In TAN the long *ā* is considerably lower (nearer to I.P.A. [a:]): *ṣiyyād*, *raǧǧāl*, *kaššāf*, *ʔišān*.

Another difference with TAN is MzA and BWA demonstrative *hāḏa* (~ *dah* / *dī* #), where TAN has *hāḏa*, and the pl. form (*hā-*) *dil* (-*ih*) or *dillēl* (-*ih*) (~ *hāḏōl* in BWA) where group I dialects have heavily velarized forms

like *hādōl* (-ah) or *hōdāl* (-lah).<sup>7</sup> Another difference is (MzA) *kimān*(-iy)—(TAN) *ḵumān* “also”.

### 1.1.8. Liquids *l* and *r*

On the other hand, MzA and BWA, like many dialects in Sinai (including TAN), have strong velarization<sup>8</sup> in *xāf* “he feared” (and also *xāyif* “afraid” in MzA), *ḡāb* “he was absent”, *ruḡfān* “loaves (of bread)”, (in the first syllable of) *xfāyyif* “light”, *nār* “fire”, *xyār* “gherkins” and (*i*)*nfār* “persons” and *ḥimrā* “red (sg. fem.)”, *‘iwṛā* “one eyed (sg. fem.)”, *biṛān* “camels” and *rās* “head” (but no velarization in *frāš* “blanket”).

Uvulars followed by *l* or *r* are especially prone to become velarized as an accompanying phonetic feature,<sup>9</sup> e.g. *aḡlabiyyah* “majority”, *šujl* “genitive exponent”, *naxal* “palm trees”, *xal!* “let! (imperative)”, *nuxrah* (pl. *nxar*) “nose”, *baxarriḥ* “I speak”, *nugrah* (pl. *ngar*) “pit, pothole”, *bagra* “I read (i.e. study)”, *garār* “decision”, *grayyib* “near”, *galb* “heart”, *gālat* “she said”, *glayyil* “few, little” (*glāl* “few (pl.)” and *agall!* “less”) and *Rās Aḥuw Gaḷlūm* “name of a cape between Dahab and Nwēbi”.

Generally, like in group I, the combination *ār* will be velarized, unless *i* follows within morpheme boundaries (see also De Jong 2000:65–67). An exception is the pl. for *kitīr* “many”, which is *ktār* in MzA and BWA (with a long *ā* almost as high up as I.P.A. [ɛː]), but velarized *ktār* in TAN, whereas groups I and VI both have velarized *kbār* as the pl. for *kibūr* “old, big”. There are many examples of velarized *ār*, of which some are: *miṭmārah* “(cylindrically shaped) grain silo”,<sup>10</sup> *xyār* “gherkins” (BWA), *sinnārah* “fishing hook”, *nār* “fire”, *nahār* “day (-light)”. Also: *sigārah* “cigarette”, *xuwwār* “inferior type of camel, raised for its meat”, *byār* “wells”, *Badārah* “name of the tribe Badārah”.

Notice, however, how following (either ‘vanished’ *i* within morpheme boundaries blocks such velarization, e.g.: *mizāri* ‘lands for cultivation’, *midāris* “schools”, *šāri* “street” and *‘arīf* “knowing (sg. masc.)”.

<sup>7</sup> See De Jong 2000:170–172.

<sup>8</sup> Combinations of a velar (*g*, *x* or *ḡ*) with *l*, *r* or *b* will often produce velarization, especially with *u*, *ū* or *a*, *ā* in their vicinity.

<sup>9</sup> The articulation of uvulars involves some raising of the back of the tongue (towards the uvula). The process of velarization also involves a degree of raising of the back of the tongue.

<sup>10</sup> *miṭmārah* is also used for “pit for storing grain or belongings”, see Bailey 2009:347 (glossary). The rocky mountains, more or less shaped like grain silos and located appr. at 28.51.46 North and 34.27.31 East, are also locally known as *Ḡabal Maṭāmūr*.

Also sequences *rā* are generally not velarized when (vanished) *i* precedes, or follows in the next syllable within morpheme boundaries, e.g. *marākib* “boats”, *grāyah* (cf. MSA *qirā’ah*) “studying (lit. reading)”, *frāš* “blanket” (cf. MSA *firāš*), *Garāršah* “name of tribe” (compare with MSA *Qarārišah*) and *rākib* “riding (sg. masc.)”, but there is velarization in forms like *rās* “head”, *barrād* “teapot” and *ḥarārah* “heat”.

#### 1.1.9. *Nasal n*

No remarks.

#### 1.1.10. *Devoicing of final voiced stops, liquids and nasals in pause*

Devoicing of voiced stops, liquids and nasals in pause is regular in MzA and BWA.

One of my informants claimed that one feature of MzA is the type of glottalization of *ā* in a final sequence *-āC* in pause, by which the final consonant is no longer produced (compare the situation described in remarks on TyA in 1.1.10. of chapter III). I have not been able to verify his claim.

### 1.2. *Vowels*

#### 1.2.1. *Inventory of vowel phonemes*

The inventory for vowel phonemes contains three short vowels and five long vowels:

short:	<i>i</i>	<i>u</i>	long:	<i>ī</i>	<i>ū</i>
				<i>ē</i>	<i>ō</i>
	<i>a</i>				<i>ā</i>

#### 1.2.2. *Long vowels*

##### 1.2.2.1. *Allophones of long vowels ē and ī*

Unlike in group I dialects, phonetic overlapping of /*ē*/ and /*ī*/ is rare in group VI dialects.

The phonemic status of /*ē*/ and /*ī*/ can be established with a minimal pair like: *šēn* “bad”—*šīn* “name of letter š”, and /*ā*/ may be isolated by pairing either of these with (*min*) *šān* “because of”.

In MzA imperfect forms of the verb “dry” (root *y-b-s*) monophthongization takes place, e.g. *yēbas* (< \**yaybas*) “he dries (intrans.)”.

### 1.2.2.2. *Allophones of long vowels $\bar{o}$ and $\bar{u}$*

In neutral environments, i.e. in the absence of velarization and without preceding back spirants, older diphthongs \**ay* and \**aw* have been monophthongized as  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{o}$ . As long vowels, the phonemic status of / $\bar{u}$ / and / $\bar{o}$ / can be established through minimal pairs like:

*rūḥ* “go! (imperative sg. masc.)”—*rōḥ* “soul”  
*gūl* “say! (imperative sg. masc.)”—*gōl* “speaking”.

In positions influenced by velarization, / $\bar{u}$ / is realized relatively low, near I.P.A. [o:].

In verbs with *wāw* as  $C_1$  the diphthong *aw* has usually been monophthongized, as is illustrated in e.g. *nōgaf* “we stand” and also *tōgid* “you light” (both in MzA and BWA). In both dialects the imperative of *w-ʿy* “pay attention, take heed” has an initial diphthong: *awʿin rūskin* “mind (pl. fem.) your heads!”.<sup>11</sup>

### 1.2.2.3. *Allophones of long vowel $\bar{a}$*

Allophones of the long vowel / $\bar{a}$ / are ruled by the same principles as in group VII.

### 1.2.2.4. *Shortening of long vowels*

Like in group I dialects, shortening of unstressed long vowels is a characteristic of allegro style of speech in group VI dialects as well.

## 1.2.3. *Short vowels*

### 1.2.3.1. *Isolating phonemes /i/, /u/ and /a/*

Minimal pairs listed for groups VII and VIII also produce the phonemes /i/, /u/ and /a/ in MzA and BWA.

### 1.2.3.2. *Phonetic factors influencing the quality of I*

In principle, distribution of short high vowels *i* and *u* is governed by the same rules as described for group I in De Jong 2000:70–74: a short high vowel tends to be *u* (i.e. near I.P.A. [ʊ]) in velarized and/or labial environment, otherwise *i* (i.e. near I.P.A. [ɪ]).

The pl. com. of *ašdaf* “left-handed” was recorded as *šidf* in BWA, but as *šudf* in MzA. Similarly, the pl. com. of *aʿaraġ* “lame, limping” has the high

<sup>11</sup> The imperative *awʿa* is often not inflected for number or gender, e.g. *awʿa rūskuw!* or *awʿa rāsik!* (instead of *awʿuw* and *awʿiy* respectively). Apocopated imperative forms of this verb have not been recorded, thus e.g. *awʿa tans!* “don’t you forget!”.

vowel *i* in *irġ* in BWA, but *u* in *urġ* in MzA and that of *a'ama* “blind” is *imy* in BWA, but *umy* in MzA. Other pl. com. forms of the pattern  $aC_1C_2aC_3$ , used for colours and physical defects, recorded in both dialects have a  $C_1uC_2C_3$  pattern (most have some degree of velarization), e.g. (sg. masc. *aḥamaṛ*) *ḥumṛ* “red”, (sg. masc. *azrag*) *zurg* “black”,<sup>12</sup> (sg. masc. *axaḍar*)<sup>13</sup> *xuḍr* “green”, (sg. masc. *aṣfar*) *ṣufr* “yellow” and (sg. masc. *ahabal*) *hubl* “dim-witted” (where labialization of the *b* triggers the appearance of *u*), (sg. masc. *agra*) *gur* “bald”, *turm* (sg. masc. *aṭram*) “gap-toothed”.

Both dialects have *i* in the imperfect of primae hamzah verbs: *yāxid* and *yākil* “he takes” and “he eats”, but *u* in the sg. masc. imperative: *kuḷ* and *xuḍ* “eat!” and “take!” (resp.) and clear velarization, caused by the ‘vanished’ *u*:<sup>14</sup> *xḍiy* and *kḍiy* (sg. fem.), *xḍuw* and *kḍuw* (pl. masc.) and *xḍin* and *kḍin* (pl. fem.).

Imperfect forms of mediae geminatae verbs recorded in group VI corroborate the rule formulated in De Jong 2000:72–73: *u* appears near primary and (potentially) secondary emphatics, while *i* appears in neutral environments. Examples are:

MzA: *yḥutt* “place”, *yrudd* “answer”, *ydugg* “inject (with a needle)”, *yṣunn* “wait”, *yxuḍḍ* “churn”, *yxuṣṣ* “enter”, *ykuṭt* “go down a wadi”, *yṭubb* “go on a journey to”, *ylugg* “hit”,<sup>15</sup> *yḍurr* “damage”, *yṣubb* “pour out”, *yfikk* “loosen”, *ywiṣṣ* “swing a fishing net over one’s head”,<sup>16</sup> *ymidd* “stretch”, *ytiff* “spit”, *yliff* “wrap”, *yidd* “count”, *yfitt* “prepare *fatītah*”.

### 1.2.3.3. Morphological conditioning of the short high vowel

So far we have seen that often a velarized or labial environment triggers the appearance of *u*. Morphology, however, will over-rule this phonetic feature, as far as distribution of short high vowels is concerned. For instance, measures 2, 3 and 4 will have *i* in the imperfect forms, such as  $yC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (measure 2),  $yC_1āC_2iC_3$  (measure 3),  $yiC_1C_2iC_3$  (measure 4),

<sup>12</sup> *azrag* lit. “blue” is often used euphemistically for “black”.

<sup>13</sup> In MzA *axaḍar* was also recorded in the meaning of “wet”, as in *iw hū yġġy mġir kiḍiyiyih b i dāduh ... iw ḡlḍuh ilēh, l issā' axaḍar hū* “and he comes running like this with his (diving) gear ... with his diving suit (lit. skin) on, still wet he was ...”.

<sup>14</sup> See remarks in Blanc 1970:16 [127]!

<sup>15</sup> *lagg, ylugg* is listed as “snatch, grab” in Stewart 1990:245 (glossary), but my recording calls for a translation like “hit, strike”, as in [*alġarrah byirikdūha eh?*] *fi ṣṣamš, itlugg fīha ṣṣams* “[they place the earthenware pot where?] in the sun, [where] the sun hits (i.e. shines on) it” as a method to let milk ferment to produce *rāyib*.

<sup>16</sup> The verb *waṣṣ, ywiṣṣ* is onomatopaeic.

$yinC_1iC_2iC_3$  (measure  $n-1$ ) and  $yiC_1tiC_2iC_3$ <sup>17</sup> (measure  $1-t$ ) and  $yistaC_1C_2iC_3$  (measure  $ista-1$ ). Other examples are the active participles of the measures:  $C_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (measure 1),  $mC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (measure 2),  $mC_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (measure 3) and  $miC_1C_2iC_3$  (measure 4),  $mtaC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (measure  $ta-2$ ),  $mtaC_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (measure  $ta-3$ ),  $minC_1iC_2iC_3$  (measure  $n-1$ ),  $miC_1tiC_2iC_3$  (measure  $1-t$ )<sup>18</sup> and  $mistaC_1C_2iC_3$  (measure  $ista-1$ ).

An exception to such morphological conditioning is found in forms coloured by the strong velarization caused by the pronominal suffix  $-k$  or  $-uk$ , as in *tušgúlk* “she occupies you/keeps you busy” and also the vowel of the fem. morpheme in construct state may be affected, as in *nuxrútk* “your (sg. masc.) nose”, contrasting with *nuxrítik* “your (sg. fem.) nose”.

#### 1.2.3.4. Allophones of short vowels

Allophones of short vowels do not differ much from what was described for group I in De Jong 2000:74–77, although some allophones, notably of /a/, may appear in environments different—or are more frequent, or less frequent—from those in group I.

##### 1.2.3.4.1. Allophones of /i/

When in stressed and neutral positions, short high vowel /i/ will be realized near I.P.A. [ɪ] and slightly higher nearer to [i] when it precedes *y*, e.g. *židd* [ʒɪd:] “grandfather”, *nirmiy* [ˈnɪrmiy] “we throw” and *dišbih* [ˈdɪʃbi<sup>h</sup>] “cold (disease)”.

When in velarized positions, backing and centralizing takes place, resulting in [ɨ], e.g. *ṭibb* “(practicing) medicine” [tɨb:].

When laryngeals precede, they usually have a lowering effect on /i/, resulting in [e] or slightly higher, e.g. *hiluw* # [ˈħelu<sup>w</sup>] “beautiful, sweet”, *xirm* [xerm] “large species of fish”.

##### 1.2.3.4.2. Allophones of /u/

In neutral positions short high vowel /u/ will be realized near I.P.A. [ʊ], and slightly higher [u] when it precedes *w*, e.g. *yuskun* [ˈjʊskʊn] “he lives (inhabits)”, *nāmuw* “they slept” [ˈnæ:mu<sup>w</sup>].<sup>19</sup>

When velarized consonants or laryngeals precede, lowering tends to take place, resulting in a realization near I.P.A. [o], e.g. *ğumsih* [ˈɣʊmsɪ<sup>h</sup>] “food dip”, *ḥurmah* [ˈħʊrma<sup>h</sup>] “woman”, *xuṭwah* [ˈxʊtwa<sup>h</sup>] “step”.

<sup>17</sup> See following fn.

<sup>18</sup> When in closed syllable, the vowel preceding  $C_2$  will be *a* in measures  $n-1$  and  $1-t$  (or VII and VIII resp.), e.g. *yindarbuw* “they are beaten” and *mindarbah* “having been beaten (sg. fem.)” and *yištaḡlin* “they (fem.) work” and *mištaḡlin* “working (pl. masc.)”.

<sup>19</sup> On the articulatory position of [æ] see remark in De Jong 2000:59–60, fn 10.

1.2.3.4.3. *Allophones of /a/*1.2.3.4.3.1. */a/ in non-raised positions.*

The realization of short low vowel /a/ in neutral environments will be near I.P.A. [ɐ], e.g. *tānam* [ˈtənəm] “you sleep”, *maddat* [ˈmɛdːɛt] “she stretched out”.

Where pharyngeals precede, /a/ has a realization near open and front I.P.A. [a], e.g. *ḥarīm* [ħaˈri:m] “womenfolk”, *arǧy* [ʕarˈdʒiy] “lame, limping (sg. fem.)” and also with *h* preceding, as in *šahabíy* [ʃahaˈbiy] “gray-coloured (sg. fem.)”.

In velarized environments, /a/ is realized near I.P.A. [ɑ], e.g. *baḥar* [ˈbaħɑr] “sea” and *nugṭah* [ˈnogṭɑh] “police post” and *ḥabšah* [ˈħabʃɑh] “severe cold (disease)”.

1.2.3.4.3.2. *Raising of (\* )/a/ preceding long stressed vowels*

The short vowel /a/ is raised in a variety of positions preceding stress:

- preceding stressed Cī: *kibūr* “large; old”, *šidīd* “strong”, *ǧilīd* “fat, thick”, *xifif* “light”, *irīs* “bridegroom”, *ḥirīd* “parrot fish”, and also *ʕlly* “male given name \*ʕAlī” and verb forms *nisīt* “I forgot”, *ligīt* “I found”. Instances of *a* preceding stressed CCī were not recorded: *baṭṭīx* “watermelon”, *sabʕīn* “seventy”.
- (preceding stressed Cē): *ʕlēh* “on him”, *ligēna* “we found”, *mišēt* “I walked”, *bidēna* “we started”, (preceding CCē) *middēt* “I stretched”, *suwwēt* “I did/made” and *istinnēni*(#) “we waited” (but *istanna* “he waited”).
- (preceding stressed Cā): *ʕsākīr* “soldiers”, *zimān* “in the old days (used as adverb)”, *timānyih* “eight”; (preceding stressed CCā): *riǧǧāl* “man”, *šyyād* “fisherman”, *kiššāf* “search light”, *biṭṭāriyyih* “flashlight”, *zīrgā* “blue (sg. fem.)”. *miṣṣāt* “times”, *miʕnāt* (*ḥāǧih*) “the meaning (of sth)”.
- (preceding stressed ū): *urūs* “groom”, *isSuʕūdiyyih* “Saudi Arabia”, *šuʕūr* “emperor (fish species)”.<sup>20</sup>
- (preceding stressed a): *ǧimāl* “camels”, *ǧiʕadna* “we sat down”, *xuḅār* “information”, *niháb“k*, “he plundered you”.
- (preceding stressed u): *kubūr* “he grew”, *ǧulūd* “he grew fat”.
- (preceding stressed i): *širīb* “he drank”, *biríy* “innocent”, *ǧuwíy* “strong”.

<sup>20</sup> Of the Lethrinidae: the longnosed emperor is *Lethrinus olivaceus*.

Raising of *a* also takes place following stressed *a*, as in *ánwikal* “it was eaten”, *áttifag* “he agreed”, *háwǵisat* “she improvised song”, *ánnixal* “the palmtrees”, *álhíwi* “the wind”, *ál’iši* “the dinner” and *ádduwa* “the medicine”.

Also when *a* follows stressed *i* in closed syllable, it is raised, as in *yínđirib* “he is beaten”, *yíttifig* “he agrees”.<sup>21</sup>

#### 1.2.3.4.3.3. Raising of the feminine morpheme (T)

The *a* of the fem. morpheme is regularly raised in neutral environments and reaches a phonetic value near I.P.A. [ɪh]. This is not only a pausal phenomenon, but occurs sentence-medial as well. Examples are *kull wāhid* ‘*induh xurṛāfah ḥibwih biyǵībhi*’ “everyone has a nice story which he tells”, *lamma llēlih gōṭarat* “until the evening has passed”, *ṭalla* ‘*gišīdih fi wiḥdih rāyidhi*’ “he recited a poem on a girl with whom he was in love”.

In velarized environments such raising does not take place, e.g. *gāmat ḥurṛmah* # “a woman stood up”, (a mock rhyme) *binǵīb lēna faṛxah simīnih, iw līhiy simīnih bi lmarṛah* “we get for ourselves a fat chicken, but it is not fat at all”. Other examples are: *bisīṭah* “simple”, *ǵilīdah* “fat”, *xuṭwah* “step”, *igāmah* “snake-like species of sea fish”, *ramlah* “sand”.

Raising is not inhibited by the pharyngeals ‘ and *ħ*, e.g. *ṛfayy’ih* “thin”, *sām’ih* “hearing (sg. fem.)”, *Ṣuwālḥih* “name of a tribe”, *mirǵēḥih* “swing”, *ṣafīḥih* “cannister (of 20 litres)”.

#### 1.2.3.5. Prosodic lengthening of short vowels

To express extra emphasis, such as on long durations of time, long distances or great quantities, speakers often prosodically lengthen short (but also long, see 1.2.4.7.) vowels. Examples are *bti:ǵluh* ‘*ala lmayyih*’ “you boil it (for a long time) in water”, *iw binǵaṭṭiy lḥaṭab buh ku:llī:tuh* “we cover a:ll the firewood with it”.

### 1.2.4. Long vowels and diphthongs

#### 1.2.4.1. Monophthongization of diphthongs \*ay and \*aw

In positions not influenced by velarization, or preceded by X, older diphthongs \*ay and \*aw have in most cases become monophthongal *ē* and *ō*.

<sup>21</sup> In verb forms like *hawǵisat* and *yínđirib* and *yíttifig*, the raised *a* will again surface as *a* when it is in closed syllables, e.g. *hawǵast* “I improvised song”, *yinđarbuw* “they are beaten” and *yittafguw* “they agree” (see also 3.2.3.1.1. and 3.2.3.3.1.).

Examples for \**ay* are: *itnēn* “two”, *bēn* “between”, *lēlih* “evening”, *sēl* “flood”, *ǧwēl* (dim. to *ǧāl*) “little side” and examples for *ō*: *mōt* “death”, *yōm* “day”, *fōg* “above”, *sōdīy* “black (sg. fem.)”, *gōmah* “(manner of) standing up”.

In some cases such monophthongization in neutral environments has not taken place, *mawǧūd* “present (adj.)”, *aw’a* “watch out!”<sup>22</sup> and also *taybīs* “drying”.

In forms like *b’aytarān* velarization has also spread backwards, preserving *ay* as a diphthong. Diphtongal \**aw* is preserved by spread of velarization as *aw* or *ow* in e.g. *gowtaruw* “they went”.

In MzA (of ‘Ayn Ḥuḍrah<sup>23</sup> and of a family in Wādiy ‘Arādah) forms like *mēǧūd* “present” and *mēlūd* “born” have also been recorded.

#### 1.2.4.2. Isolating long vowels /ī/, /ū/, /ā/, /ē/ and /ō/ as phonemes

In many dialects of group I phonetic overlapping of /ē/ and /ī/ in neutral environments occurs. Such is not the case in MzA and BWA. Finding (near) minimal pairs to isolate these phonemes is not a problem:

*dēr* “monastery”—*dūr* “turn (trans.)!”—*dūr* “turn (intrans.)!”—*dōr* “floor (in a building)”—*dār* “house”  
*ǧībīh* “bringing”—*ǧēbuh* “his pocket”—*ǧābuh* “he brought it”  
*gōm* “enemy tribe”—*gūm* “get up!”

Suffixed prepositions *lay* “to me”, *aláy* “on me” and *fay* “in me” are actually better interpreted as final *-ay + y*.

#### 1.2.4.3. Allophones of ā

Like in the dialect of the Tarābīn of group I, *ā* in neutral surroundings is realized as near I.P.A. [ɛ:]. Unlike Turbāniy, however, *ā* in open syllable and neutral surroundings does not need Ci following within morpheme boundaries for such I.P.A. values to be reached.

In MzA this [ɛ:] for *ā* is reached also when āC is morpheme-final, e.g. *ktār* “many (pl. com.)”, *šgāg* “compartments of the tent”, *ḥbāl* “ropes”, *šāšīh* “screen” and also *wāhid* “one”, *sārḥīh* “out grazing (goats and sheep) (sg. fem.)”, *nāgtī* “my she-camel”.

<sup>22</sup> *aw’a* is often left unconjugated, and has thus developed into a general particle of warning or admonition, as in *aw’a tans!* “don’t you forget!”

<sup>23</sup> Von Oppenheim 1942:159 mentions ‘Ayn Ḥuḍrah as ‘Lēgiy territory (in his transcription: ‘Olēkāt). Today this oasis is inhabited by members of the Mzēnah.

1.2.4.4. *Reflexes of final \*-ā(ʾ)*

Like in the dialect of Biliy in the north,<sup>24</sup> the reflex of final \*-ā in neutral environments in MzA and BWA is often -*l*. Examples are: *Wādīy Slī* “Wadi Isla”,<sup>25</sup> *šti* “winter” and verb form *ǧī* (< \*ǧā) “he came”.<sup>26</sup>

Final -*l* will be unstressed when a heavy sequence precedes. The vowel of the heavy sequence is then stressed. E.g. *áššīfī* “the curing”, (*wāhid*) *mīnnī* “(one) of us”, *táfdī* “you sacrifice” and *yánsī* “he forgets”.

However, in sg. fem. forms (cf. MSA CaCCā) that come with the (sg. masc.) aCCaC pattern for physical defects and colours, we do find raising like in group I, e.g.: *šadfīy* “left-handed (sg. fem.)”, *hawlíy* “cross-eyed” and *hablíy* “stupid”, unless such raising is prevented by phonetic factors, such as velarization, as in e.g. (colours) *samrā* “brown”, *xadrā* “green”, *hamrā* “red”, *zargā* “black; blue” and (physical defects) *iwrā* “one-eyed”, *girā* “bald” and *doṛā* “absent minded”. The final stressed -ā may be cut off in pause by a flottal stop, e.g. *xadrā* #.

N.B. “here” is *nihā(ʾ)* in MzA and BWA.

In dialects of group I raising (there to final -*ly*) is inhibited by (underlying) *a* preceding in open syllable.<sup>27</sup> Such is not the case in MzA and BWA, e.g. *hiwí* “wind”, *iší* “dinner”, *diwí* “medicine” (in MzA), *simí* “heaven” and also verb forms like *miší* (< \*mašā) “he went”, *ligí* (< \*lagā) “he found” and *tawaffí* “he died”.

When (secondary) emphatics precede, final \*-ā(ʾ) is not raised, while reflexes of \*-ā have remained long and reflexes of \*-ā are short. Examples are: *ǧtá* “covers”, *ašá* “stick”, *fiḏá* “free time”, *ṛhā* “hand mill”, *Wādīy ṭṬarfā* “name of a wadi”,<sup>28</sup> *bēḏā* “white (sg. fem.)”, *hamrā* “red (sg. fem.)”, *xadrā* “green (sg. fem.)”, *ǧawá* “flirting”, *duwá* “medicine” (in BWA, but in MzA *diwí*), *ragtā* “speckled (sg. fem.)”, *zargā* “black; blue; dark coloured (sg. fem.)”, *samrā* “brown (sg. fem.)”.

In BWA *álma(ʾ)* “the water” and in MzA *álmi* were recorded for “the water” (~ in both with much more frequent *mayyih*).

<sup>24</sup> See De Jong 2000:81.

<sup>25</sup> My Turbāniy informant pronounced *Wādīy Slīy*. The name of this wadi is often spelled ‘Isla’ on maps (cf. 1.2.4.4. and 3.1.5.). The wadi is located somewhat to the south-east of aṭ-Ṭūr, where it disappears into the south-western high mountains.

<sup>26</sup> Like in the dialect of Biliy in the north, see De Jong 2000:83.

<sup>27</sup> See Blanc 1970:12 [123] and De Jong 2000:82.

<sup>28</sup> The wadi is situated at the far high end of Wādīy Fērān in central Sinai and is Ġbāliy territory bordering on Mzēniy territory.

Final \*-ā is not raised in the elative *aḥla* “sweeter; more beautiful”.

Several of the preceding examples also show raising of final -ā, although preceded by *a* in open syllable, does take place,<sup>29</sup> e.g. *duwá'* or *diwí'* and verb forms like *mišl'* and *liḡl'*.

The forms with raised final \*-ā (> -i') do not only occur in pause, but also in sentence-medial positions. Such raising is therefore concluded to have led to morphological restructuring.

The—usually unreleased—glottal stop following the final vowel is not only highly regular when this vowel is stressed, but also when it is unstressed.

In MzA forms like *ǧānī* “he came to me” were heard, but also forms with lengthened [ɪ], as in *hū ǧi:k* “he came to you (sg. masc.)”: not with IPA [i:], but with lengthened [ɪ]: [dʒɪ:k] “he came to you (sg. masc.)” and also *hū ǧi:k* (IPA [dʒɪ:k]) “he came to you (sg. fem.)”. In BWA such lengthened [ɪ:] was not heard.

#### 1.2.4.5. Allophones of long vowels ē, ī, ō, and ū

##### 1.2.4.5.1. Lowering effect of preceding emphatics on ī and ū

Like in group I (see De Jong 2000:85), primary and secondary emphatics will lower the phonetic value of following *ī* and *ū* towards (resp.) I.P.A. [e:] and [o:]. Such lowering is clearer in the case of following *ū*; with following *ī* it is less clear, but an on-glide is apparent.

Like in group I, reflexes of \**ay* and \**aw* following emphatics have remained diphthongal, which prevents homophonic clash with lowered *ī* and *ū* in positions preceded by emphatics.

##### 1.2.4.5.2. Off-glide in ē and ī

An off-glide in the realisation of *ē* and *ī* is often audible, when these are followed by an emphatic. Examples are (from both dialects) *gēḡ* (I.P.A. [ge:<sup>a</sup>θ̣]) “chain”, (a less clearly audible off-glide in) *Fērān* [fe:<sup>a</sup>ɾa:n] “Wadi Fērān”, *bīḡ* (I.P.A. [bi:<sup>a</sup>θ̣]) “white (pl. com.)”, *ziliḡ* (I.P.A. [zi'li:<sup>a</sup>ʔ]) “young goat or gazelle” and *mšēḡah* [# ʔəm'fe:<sup>a</sup>ʔa<sup>h</sup>] “type of herb”.

Comparable off-glides, but then towards I.P.A. [a], are heard when *ḥ* or <sup>ʿ</sup> follow *ē* or *ī*, e.g. *ǧinnēḥih* I.P.A. [dʒɪ'ne:<sup>a</sup>ḥe<sup>h</sup>] “brown surgeonfish”,<sup>30</sup> *bē<sup>ʿ</sup>* I.P.A. [be:<sup>a</sup>ʕ] “selling”, *tasriḥ* I.P.A. [tes'ri:<sup>a</sup>ḥ] “permission”, *ših* [ʃi:<sup>a</sup>ḥ] “white

<sup>29</sup> Which is also the case in the dialect of Biliy, see De Jong 2000:82 (1.2.4.4.3.2.).

<sup>30</sup> Lat. *Acanthurus nigrofuscus*.

wormwood”<sup>31</sup> and *itbī* I.P.A. [ʔət'biːʔ] “you sell”, but less clearly audible in *Nfē'āt* [ʔənfeːʔ'et] “name of a family of Banyi Wāšil”.

#### 1.2.4.5.3. *Off-glide in ō and ū*

Like in group I off-glides towards I.P.A. [a] are audible in *ō* and *ū* when these are followed by emphatics, e.g. *gōtarat* [ˈgoːʔarət] “she went”.

Off-glides in *ō* and *ū* towards I.P.A. [a] are clear when ' or *h* follow, e.g. *nō* [noːʔ] “type, sort”, *ǧū* I.P.A. [dʒuːʔ] “famine”, *misūh* [məs'uːʔ] “milk camel” (there were no instances recorded with *ō* followed by *h*, but e.g. *lōh* “(wooden) board, panel” would thus be [loːʔ]).

#### 1.2.4.6. *Diphthongs*

MzA and BWA have four diphthongs: *ay*, *aw*, *iy* and *uw*.

##### 1.2.4.6.1. *Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw*

###### 1.2.4.6.1.1. Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw in neutral environments

In positions not preceded by or velarized consonants *\*aw* and *\*ay* have usually become *ō* and *ē*.

###### 1.2.4.6.1.2. Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw in non-neutral environments

###### 1.2.4.6.1.2.1. Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw preceded by X

Like in group I, MzA and BWA have phonologically conditioned diphthongs for *\*aw* and *\*ay* in positions preceded by back spirants *X* (i.e. *x*, *ǧ*, *h*, ' and *h*. For the latter, see remark below). In some instances, a diphthong is audible without being attributable to phonetic conditioning, as in *sanatayn* “two years” (MzA).

Examples with *X* preceding *\*ay* are: *xayt* “thread”, *ǧayrī* “(someone) other than I”, *b ilhayl* “very”, ' *ayn* “eye”, but the only form with preceding *h* recorded is *nhēdih* “a type of herb (used to treat kidney disease)”.<sup>32</sup>

Examples with *X* preceding *\*aw* are: *xawf* “fear”, *hawl* “year”, ' *Awdih* “male given name” and a Bedouin verb<sup>33</sup> *hawǧas*, *yhawǧis* “improvise singing”, *hawmal*, *yhawmil* “bring a *hamūlah*<sup>34</sup> for a feast”.

<sup>31</sup> Lat. *Artemisia herba-alba*, used to prepare *samn šūhīy* “ghee”.

<sup>32</sup> Perhaps the reference was to the Egyptian desert weed *Cymbopogon proximus*.

<sup>33</sup> Verbs of the type CawCaC, yCawCiC (with inserted *wāw*) are considered to be typically Bedouin, see Palva 1991:155.

<sup>34</sup> A *hamūlah* is an “animal led to a party to be slaughtered as a present”.

1.2.4.6.1.2.2. Diphthongs \*ay and \*aw preceded by velarized consonants  
 Examples of \*ay with a velarized consonant preceding: *şayf* “summer”,  
*ḡayf* “guest”, *haṭṭayt* “I put (perfect)”. Examples with the secondarily  
 velarized consonants preceding are: *īstarayt* “I bought”, *iḡmaṛrayt* “I  
 turned red”, *taḡaṛraynā* “we waited for you”, *kitrayš?* “how much?”,  
*ḡallayna* “we remained” and also *şannayt*<sup>35</sup> “I kept quiet”, *ḡawayt*<sup>36</sup> “I  
 returned home at sunset (with goats and sheep)” and *ṭaraḡbayzih* “table”.<sup>37</sup>

Examples of \*aw with a velarized consonant preceding are fewer: *şawm*  
 “fasting”, *ṭawr* (pl. *ṭūrān*) “overhanging cliff” and *ṛawḡ* (pl. *ṛiḡān*) “small  
 wadi”.

1.2.4.6.1.2.3. Reduction of diphthongs ay and aw

The diphthong in *ḡayr* is often reduced to *a* and then complementary  
 lengthened. Examples are: *ḡār ānnaxal*, *mā fiḡ izrā’ah zamān* “only palm  
 trees, there was no agriculture in the past” and *’ašān law daggat wāḡhid*  
*minni’*, *ḡār kān iyṛawwiḡ l ittaktūr*<sup>38</sup> “because if it would sting one of us, he  
 would have to go to the doctor”.

Diphthongs are much less regularly than in group I reduced to *a* or *ā*.

‘Systemzwang’ has preserved diphthongs in e.g. *taybīs* “drying (measure 2  
 verbal noun)” (but not in the imperfect form of measure 1 *yēbas* “it (masc.)  
 dries”), *šawlīy* “left-handed (sg. fem.)” and *mawḡūd* “present (adj.)”. Another  
 instance may be *aw’a* “beware, watch out!” (other imperatives  
 of primae *wāw* verbs are with initial *ō*: *ōḡaf!* “stand still!”, *ōrid!* “fetch water!”).

1.2.4.6.2. Diphthongs -iy and -uw

1.2.4.6.2.1. Reflexes of final \*-ī and \*-ū

Final diphthongs -iy and -uw, which in part reflect older final \*-ī and \*-ū  
 are best heard in lento speech and occur both in sentence medial as well  
 as in sentence final positions.

In verbs the ending -uw has developed as a morpheme signalling pl.  
 masc., but also in pronominal suffixes. Examples are: (verbal perfect)

<sup>35</sup> In this example, velarization caused by *şād* is carried through the word by *nn*, which  
 then causes the diphthongal realization in the final syllable.

<sup>36</sup> *ḡawā*, *yīḡwīy* is a measure 1 verb in MzA and BWA. In several group I dialects it is  
 measure 4 *aḡwa*, *yīḡwīy*.

<sup>37</sup> The latter does not reflect Older Arabic *ay*, but is a loan—perhaps via Cairene—from  
 Greek *τράπεζα*. In e.g. TAŞ the diphthong is not present: there *ṭarabēzah*.

<sup>38</sup> *taktūr* “doctor” (cf. Cairene *daktūr*, see Hinds and Badawi 1986) was also recorded in  
 TyA, see Shawarbah 2007:419. A comparable example there is *taṭtar* “notebook” (cf. Cairene  
*daṭtar*, see Hinds and Badawi 1986).

*katab-uw* “they wrote”, *katabt-uw* “you (pl. masc.) wrote”, (verbal imperfect) *yikitb-uw* “they (pl. masc.) write”, *tikitb-uw* “you (pl. masc.) write” and in pronominal suffixes *bēth-uw* “their (pl. masc.) house” and *bētk-uw* “your (pl. masc.) house”.<sup>39</sup>

Anaptyxis may also create final *-uw* to eliminate final *-CC* clusters, e.g. *ḥiluw* # “pretty, beautiful” (morphological base *ḥilw*) and *daluw* # “pail” (morphological base *datw*).

Instances of final *-iy* are much more numerous. Examples of verbal endings are (perfect) *katabt-iy* “you (sg. fem.) wrote” and (imperfect) *tikitb-iy* “you (sg. fem.) write”. In verbs where  $C_3 = y$  (imperfect) *yimšiy* “he walks”, *yawwiy* “he makes” and *yīḡiy* “he comes”, etc.

In MzA and BWA an *-iy* ending in the 3rd p. sg. masc. of *i*-type perfects is rare. Instead, final *y* verbs nearly all have an *a*-type perfect e.g. *nisi* “he forgot”.<sup>40</sup> Final *-iy* may also reflect older final *\*-ā*, as in (MzA) *miy* “water”, (reflecting the sg. fem. pattern *\*CaCCā* for physical defects) *arḡiy* “limping (sg. fem.)”, *hablīy* “simple-minded (sg. fem.)”, *amyīy* “blind” and the sg. fem. pattern for colours (also *\*CaCCā*) *sawdīy* “black”, *ṣaḥabīy* “sand-coloured”. Although a regular reflex for final *\*-ā* is stressed *-i*, *-iy* reflects *\*-ā* in *hniy*<sup>41</sup> “here” (in BWA only; “here” is *nihā(-niy)* in MzA). Final *-iy* reflects final *\*-i* in *birīy* “innocent”, final *\*-īy* in *šibīy* “boy”, *\*-ay* in *šīy* “thing” and is of course also the nisba ending for the sg. masc., e.g. *Maṣriy* “Egyptian”.

Anaptyxis may also create final (but unstressed) *-iy* sequences, as in e.g. *imiy* # “(pl. com.) blind” (morphological base *imy*) and *ḡidiy* # “billy goat” (morphological base *ḡidy*).

#### 1.2.4.7. Prosodic lengthening of long vowels and diphthongs

The first element of the diphthong *ay* is often lengthened,<sup>42</sup> e.g. *ʿa:yš* “bread”, *ʿa:yb* “disgraceful act”, *xa:yṭni* “our (fishing) line”. Such lengthening of diphthongs is also heard in some of the dialects of group I (TAN, TAŞ, ḤwA, ĞrA and BdA, see chapter III) and also takes place without an apparent intention to express extra emphasis.<sup>43</sup>

<sup>39</sup> For further detail on the development of *-uw* in pronominal suffixes, see 3.1.12.2.

<sup>40</sup> Although labelling the form *nisi* as an *a*-type perfect may look like a contradiction, the interpretation of *nisi* < *\*nasā* (after applying the rule described for raising of final *\*-ā*, and subsequently the rule for raising of short *a* in open pre-stress syllable) is plausible (see remark \*1 in 3.2.2.5.1.).

<sup>41</sup> Final stressed *-īy* for *\*-ā* is regular in group I. In the dialect of Biliy, however, the same *-i* reflex was recorded for *\*-ā* and also *\*-ā*, see De Jong 2000:89.

<sup>42</sup> This was not observed with the diphthong *aw*, but this may be due to the fact that *aw* occurs much less frequently than *ay*.

<sup>43</sup> Lengthening of diphthongs was also reported to be a feature of the dialect of the Dawāḡrah in northern Sinai, see De Jong 2000:420–421.

## 2. STRESS AND PHONOTACTICS

2.1. *Stress*2.1.1. *Rules for word-stress*

In terms of rule order, the rule for word stress follows the rule for elision, but precedes the rule for anaptyxis. Stress is of the máktabah-type. Verbal gahawah-forms of the *i*-type imperfect, like *yáḥartuw* “they plough”, receive special treatment (see 2.1.2.4.).

Rules for word-stress are:

- 1) Speech pause does not have the function of a consonant for the stress rule.
- 2) The domain of stress is formed by:
  - a.) either the last three syllables of a word, including the article *al-* or *il-* and the verbal *an-* prefix of measure *n-1* and the syllable preceding the *t*-infix of measure *1-t* and suffixes, if these are part of the last three syllables,
  - b.) or, in the absence of an article, infix or prefix, the last four syllables.
- 3) Stress is placed according to the criterion of quantity, i.e. vowels of heavy sequences are stressed.
- 4) The following types of ‘heavy’ sequences occur:  $vCC(C)$  and  $\bar{v}C(C)$  (including  $\bar{v}(h)$ ).
- 5) The vowel of the first heavy sequence from the right is stressed (see examples in 2.1.1.1.).
- 6) In the absence of a heavy syllable, stress the vowel in the first syllable from the left if more than two syllables are available, otherwise stress the last syllable.

An exception may be made when of four syllables the first three syllables are open and contain *a*, and the last syllable is not heavy, i.e.  $CaCaCaCv(C)$ . In that case the sequence maybe resyllabified as  $CaCCiCv(C)$  and is stressed on the first syllable:  $CáCCiCv(C)$ , e.g. *ḍárbituh* “she hit him” and *rágbituh* “his neck”. This type of resyllabification was recorded in MzA, but not in BWA.

Also if resyllabification is absent, the first syllable is stressed:  $CáCaCaCv(C)$ , e.g. *ḍárabatuh* and *rágabatuh*.

2.1.1.1. *Stress in words with heavy sequences*

Examples of stress in words with ‘heavy’ sequences are: *mádrasih* “school”, *áštaja!* “he worked”, *áttifag* “he agreed”, *ánjasal* “he was washed”, *álbuṣal*

“the onions”, *álwalad* “the boy/son”, *íššti* “the winter”, *íl’iši* “the dinner”,<sup>44</sup> *árrkab* “the knees”, *áligmam* “the Moray eels”, *álíbkál*<sup>45</sup> “the jerrycans”, *úliḥšiy* “the rocks” (in the latter two examples anaptyctics are underlined) and *šawlíy* “left-handed (sg. fem.)”, *šahabíy* “sand-coloured (sg. fem.)”, *tilí’na* “we rose”, *waládk* “your (sg. masc.) son”, *waládk* “your (sg. fem.) son”, *ámṣuk* “your mother” (MzA), *šti* “winter”, *zēn* “good”, *zēnih* “good (sg. fem.)”, *zēnīn* “good (pl. masc.)”.

#### 2.1.1.2. Examples of stress in words without heavy sequences

##### 2.1.1.2.1. Stress in CvCvC(v)

Stress in (C)v<sub>1</sub>Cv(C)<sup>46</sup> is placed thus:

(<sup>’</sup>)v<sub>1</sub>CvC: *akál* “he ate”, *axád* “he took”, *ugúm* “stand up!”, *iǧý* “I come”  
Cv<sub>1</sub>Cv(’): *ašá* “stick”, *iší* “dinner”, *miší* “he walked”, *duwá* “medicine”  
(~ *díwí*).

Cv<sub>1</sub>CvC: *ǧimál* “camels”, *šiǧár* “trees”, *ǧitás* “he dived”; *wuǧáf* “he stood up”,  
*warág* “paper” and *yǧý* “he goes”, *šibíy* “boy”, *biríy* “innocent”, *tiríy* “moist;  
soft”.

##### 2.1.1.2.2. Stress in (C)vCvCv(C) and (C)vCvCvCv(C)

Examples of stress in (C)vCvCv(C) sequences are:

(C)vCvCv(C): *ákalat* “she ate”, (gahawah-form) *áḥamar* “red”, *xášabih* “piece of firewood”, *ḍárabuw* “they hit (perfect)”, *báladuh* “his country”, *násatuh* “she forgot him” and gahawah-forms *gáhawah* “coffee”, *ná’aǧih* “ewe”, *áharit* “I plough” and *yáǧatis* “he dives”.

(C)vCvCvCv(C): *ákalatuh* “she ate it” (or MzA *áklituh*), *ḍárabatuh* “she hit him” (or MzA *ḍárbituh*), *fárašatuh* “she spread it (sg. masc.) out” (or MzA *fáršituh*), *ráǧabatuh* “his neck” (or MzA *ráǧbituh*) and gahawah-forms *gáhawatuh* “his coffee” (or MzA *gáhwituh*), *láḥamatuh* “his (piece of) meat” (or MzA *láḥmituh*), *tá’aragin* “you (pl. fem.) sweat”, *yá’araguw* “they sweat”.

*alxášabih* “the piece of firewood”, *albádawiy* “the Bedouin (sg.)”, (gahawah-form) *annáxaḥ* “the palm tree”, (gahawah-form) *ibtáḥafruw* “they dig”, *ištáǧalat* “she worked”, *inbášaṭuw* “they rejoiced”, *ittáfaǧat* “she agreed”, *tiǧáwwazat* “she got married”, *takállamuw* “they spoke”.

<sup>44</sup> But notice *a* in the article in *áššifi* “the healing”.

<sup>45</sup> The word *buklah* (pl. *bkal*) is used for a plastic jerrycan in MzA.

<sup>46</sup> When *v*<sub>1</sub> in this pattern is not preceded by *C*, it is underlyingly |a|.

### 2.1.2. *Exceptions to the stress rule*

#### 2.1.2.1. *Stress on reflexes of \*-ā' and \*-ā*

Reflexes of \*-ā', which have not been raised (see 1.2.4.4. above), will be stressed, when they have remained long and thus form a heavy sequence, e.g. *xaḏrā* "green (sg. fem.)", *şifrā* "yellow (sg. fem.)", *bēḏā* "white (sg. fem.)", *gir'ā* "bald (sg. fem.)", *iwrā* "one-eyed (sg. fem.)".

In positions not influenced by velarization, -ā' is raised to -iy (see 1.2.4.4.) Such raised -iy reflexes are then stressed, even if (other) heavy sequences precede, e.g. *sōdīy* "black (sg. fem.)", *şadfiy* "left-handed (sg. fem.)", *ḥawlīy* "cross-eyed (sg. fem.)" and *hniy* "here" (only in BWA), although more regular for "here" is *niḥā*.

Also in a gahawah-form, in which the gahawah-vowel has resolved the cluster forming the heavy sequence, the reflex of -ā' receives stress: (*şahbā'* >) *şahabīy* "sand coloured (sg. fem.)".

Reflexes of final \*-ā in neutral environments are final -i'. The resulting forms are then stressed in conformity to the rules in 2.1.1.2. Examples are *şti'* "winter; rain", *mi'* "water", *wādīy Slī'* "wadi Isla", *simī'* "sky", *diwī'* "medicine", *işī'* "lunch", *siḏī'* "healing", *māşti'* "winter".

Examples of pronominal suffixes \*-hā and \*-nā are *tanshi'* "forget her!", *giṭ'ah minhi'* "a piece of it (sg. fem.)", *ğdūdni'* "our forefathers", *ba'aḏni'* "(we) each other" and of the sg. masc. demonstrative *ālwalad dī'* "this boy". When velarization has spread, *a* in pronominal suffixes is not raised, e.g. *uxūha'* "her brother", *binzabbīḥa'* "we do it (sg. fem.) properly".

Examples of such raising in verb forms in which C<sub>3</sub> = y are (perfect) *mişī'* "he walked", *ligī'* "he found", *sawwi'* "he did" and *ğī'<sup>3</sup>* "he came". Examples of imperfect forms are *yansi'* "he forgets", *ytağaddi'* "he has lunch".

Examples of reflexes of \*-ā preceded by velarized consonants are *ālğaḏa'* "type of wood (does not burn like embers)", *baḥḥa'* "outside", verb forms (imperfect) *yarḏa'* "he agrees happily" and *şalla'* "he prayed".

#### 2.1.2.2. *Stress on final nominal \*-īy reflexes in \*CaCīy*

In MzA and BWA, reflexes of the pattern CaCīy are CaCiy or (after raising the short vowel *a*) CiCiy and are stressed on the ultimate, which is in conformity with the rules formulated in 2.1.1.2.

#### 2.1.2.3. *Stress in al/il + \*CaCīy*

When the article precedes a reflex of CaCīy, the resulting cluster will draw stress onto its directly preceding vowel, e.g. *innibiy* "the Prophet" and *işşibiy* "the boy".

#### 2.1.2.4. *Stress in suffixed gahawah-forms*

In forms with consonant-initial suffixes closing the syllable with the gahawah-vowel, this vowel is stressed, e.g. *ba'áđhin* “each other (pl. fem.)”, *sađánha*<sup>47</sup> “her plate”.

With the fem. morpheme becoming *-at* in construct state, stress is placed according to rules described in 2.1.1.2., e.g. *gáhawatuh* “his coffee”.

In verb forms of *i-* or *u-*type imperfects, the gahawah-vowel is dropped when vowel-initial suffixes are appended, but stress is not placed on the gahawah-vowel, which then directly precedes the resulting consonant cluster, e.g. *yáhartuw* “they plough”, *tá'ađnuh* “you knead it (sg. masc.)”, *yáxabtuw* “they knock”.

Resyllabified MzA forms of the type CaCaCatv > CaCCitv are stressed on the first syllable; resyllabification of such forms cancels the high-vowel elision rule and the resulting form is stressed according to rules described in 2.1.1.2., e.g. *xášbituh*<sup>48</sup> “his piece of wood” (contrast e.g. *wákiltuh* “eating it (sg. masc.)” and *ríkibtuh* “his knee”).

#### 2.1.2.5. *Stress in vCCICv*

A short high vowel is not dropped from a sequence in which the consonant preceding it is phonetically close to, or identical with the consonant following it and stress is placed according to rules in 2.1.1.2., e.g. *ṭhálliluh* “you analyze it”, *đidditi* “my grandmother”.

### 2.1.3. *Stress units*

#### 2.1.3.1. *Stress in combinations with preposition min and negated personal pronominals*

Like in group I, the preposition *min* may form one stress unit with the following word, as in *mín-tađat* “from below”, *mín-kidiy* “from this” and *mín-ihniy* “from here” (the latter BWA).

For stress in negated personal pronominals, see 3.1.12.1. of this chapter.

#### 2.1.3.2. *Enclitically suffixed prepositions l and b*

##### 2.1.3.2.1. *Enclisis of the suffixed preposition l*

Enclitic suffixation of the preposition *l* occurs only sporadically.<sup>49</sup> The examples (all from MzA) are *đā-luđ* “he came to you”, *gult-ilhi* “I said to

<sup>47</sup> I hear *sīn*, rather than *šād*.

<sup>48</sup> Notice also that the high vowel elision rule is not applied after stress placement, hence *xášbituh*, not *xášibtuh* (contrasting with a form like *ilibtuh* “his packet”).

<sup>49</sup> In as far as such may be concluded; it is not possible to conclude enclitic suffixing

her” (notice that the form is not *lēha*), *aḥsál-luḵ* “it is best for you” (assimilated *aḥsan+luḵ*) and *a‘míl-luḵ* “I’ll make for you”.<sup>50</sup>

### 2.1.3.2.2. Enclisis of the suffixed preposition b

Instances of enclitic suffixation of the preposition *b* were not recorded.

## 2.2. Phonotactics

### 2.2.1. The gahawah-syndrome

#### 2.2.1.1. The gahawah-syndrome: a-insertion in \*aXC sequences

The gahawah-syndrome is active in MzA and BWA; *a* is inserted in a sequence XC when this sequence is preceded by *a*. The rule is:

$$\emptyset > a / (C)aX\_C(V)$$

X = any of the back spirants *h, ḥ, ‘, x, ġ*

The resulting vowel may be stressed according to rules described in 2.1.1.2. Exceptions to these rules with regard to stress in gahawah-forms are described in 2.1.2.4. Examples of gahawah-forms are: (\**naxl*) *naxál* “palm trees”, (\**sahl*) *sahál* “easy”, (\**axḍar*) *áxaḍar* “green”, (\**aḥtal*) *áḥatal* “stupid”, (\**šahbā’*) *šahabíy* “sand coloured (sg. fem.)”, (\**ğahlān*) *ğahalān* “ignorant”, (\**mahmūl*) *mahamūl* “neglected”, (\**maxrūm*) *maxarūm* “pierced”, (\**maḥtūt*) *maḥatūt* “placed”, (\**maxfy*) *máxafy* “hidden” and verb forms (\**yaxtib*) *yáxaṭib* “he proposes (for marriage)”, (\**yaḥšūh*) *yaḥašūh* “they fill it”, (\**ta‘raguw*) *ta‘araḡuw* “you (pl. masc.) sweat”.

#### 2.2.1.2. Morphological categories showing variation

Although the gahawah-syndrome is active in forms of the past participle (i.e. where  $C_1 = X$ :  $maXC_2\bar{u}C_3$ ) like *maxarūm* “pierced”, *mahamūl* “neglected” and *ma‘agūl* “reasonable”, it was not recorded in *maxšūš* “specialized” and *maḥsūb ‘ala* “reckoned with”.

Exceptions are also found with the pattern  $maXC_2aC_3(ah)$ : *ma‘rakah* “battle”, *maḥkamah* “court of justice”, *maḡrib* “time of sunset”.

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from a form *gult+luḥ*, since stress does not shift (as in e.g. *gālát-luḥ*) and no vowel is lengthened (as in e.g. *gāḷūluḥ* “they said to him”).

<sup>50</sup> The verb form must be a loan (an indication is also the initial vowel: *a‘míl* instead of *i‘míl*), see also remark in following fn.

2.2.1.3. *Morphological categories in which the gahawah-syndrome is not active*

The gahawah-syndrome is not active in derived verbal measures, e.g. (measure 4) *a'ṭa* “he gave”, (measure *ista*-1) *istaḥmal*, *yistaḥmil* “bear, endure”, *istaḡrab*, *yistaḡrib* “wonder, be amazed”, *ista'mal*, *yista'mil* “use”. Quadriliteral verbs *gahwa*, *yigahwiy* “serve coffee or tea to”, *zaḡraṭ*, *yzaḡriṭ* “ululate” and a passive participle *mga'tal* “handicapped in the legs” and *ta*-quadriliteral *tagahwa*, *ytagahwa* “be served coffee or tea”.

Examples of elatives are *aḥsan* “better”, *aḥla* “more beautiful, sweetest”, *aḫṭar* “most dangerous”, but *áḡalaḏ* “thicker”.

In loans from Standard Arabic (or Cairene Arabic) like *maḥkamah* (see above) the syndrome is not active. Other examples are: *raḡma 'ann* “although”, *aḡlabiyya* “majority”, *taḥliyyih* “analysis”, *ṃayyah ma'daniyyih* “mineral water”, *ya'niy* “that is, it means”, *yaḥṣal* “it happens” and another measure 1 verb *ya'mal*<sup>51</sup> “he makes, does”.

The fem. morpheme in construct state becomes *-at*, also when it follows *XaC* (i.e. where *a* is a gahawah-vowel), so that the sequence *CaXaCat* is the result. When such a sequence is directly suffixed with a vowel-initial suffix, the *CaXaCatv* sequence—like any other sequence of the type *CaCaCatv*—tends to be resyllabified as *CaXCitv* in *MzA*.

Examples are *naxṭiti* “my palm tree” and *gáḥwituh* “his coffee”. When such resyllabification does not take place, the resulting forms are of the type *CaXaCatv*, as in e.g. *laḥamatī* “my piece of meat” and *dáxanatum* “its (sg. masc.) smoke” (for further details, see 2.1.1.).

2.2.2. *Articulatory delay in the realization of alveolar sonorants (liquids l, r and n)*

2.2.2.1. *Articulatory delay in the realization of r: the bukaṛa-syndrome*

Often the ‘simple’ bukaṛa-syndrome<sup>52</sup> creates an intrusive vowel in a sequence *Crv*. The vowel created is inserted between *C* and *r* and is in phonetic quality guided by the vowel following *r*. A summary of the rule is:

$$\emptyset > v_b / -C\_Rv_a$$

$$v_b = v_a \text{ or } v_b \approx v_a$$

$$R = r \text{ or } r'$$

C = any consonant

<sup>51</sup> Much more current for “make, do” is *sawwa*, *ysawwiy*.

<sup>52</sup> See also EALL 2006 (Vol. II):320–322.

Examples of bukaṛa-vowels are (underlined): *zajarat* “she ululated”, *tzagir*it “she ululates”, *tušurud* “she flees”, *gaṭarah* “drop (noun)”, *kuburuw* “they grew old”, *tufurukha* “you rub it (sg. fem.)”.

Examples of the bukaṛa-syndrome inhibiting the elision of a preceding high vowel are: *tkassir isnūn* “it (sg. fem.) breaks your teeth”, *miš gādir iyḡib* “he is not able to bring”.

Examples of the ‘greater’ or ‘expanded’ bukaṛa-syndrome creating vowels: *mitir iw nuṣṣ* “a meter and a half”, *ḡamir issiyāl* “the embers of the acacia tree”.

#### 2.2.2.2. Influence of l

Like *r*, *l* may also be involved in inhibiting elision of the short vowel. Examples are (preserved vowels underlined) *tākil imn ālbaḥar* “you eat from the sea”, *yinzil išwayyih* “it comes down a little”, ‘*ayyil išḡayyir* “a young child”, *biyḥawmil alḥamāyil* “he brings the animals to be slaughtered (to a wedding party)”.

Examples of ‘expanded’ or ‘greater’ bukaṛa-vowels preceding *l* in sandhi (where the vowel is not a cluster-resolving anaptyctic as described in 2.3.2.) are (‘greater’ bukaṛa-vowels underlined): *šuḡul iḡdūdna* “of our forefathers”, *āṣil ana ḡibit* “because I brought”, *gaḥil irḏiy nafsi* “before I please myself”, *gaḥil il’Uṭmāniyyin* “before the Ottomans”.

##### 2.2.2.2.1. The high vowel preceding l in \*ibil and \*raḡil

One of the forms for she-camels is *bil*, and with article *ālbil* (BWA, not recorded in MzA). *raḡil* for “man” was only recorded once in BWA (and numerous instances of *yā rāḡil*). In MzA *riḡḡāl* (pl. *rḡāl*) is current for “man”.

##### 2.2.2.3. Articulatory delay in the realization of n

The realization of *n* is often delayed, which leads to an intrusive vowel being realized with an I.P.A. value around [ə], e.g. (here indicated in superscript) *fōḡ<sup>ə</sup>na* “above us”, *ittafag<sup>ə</sup>na* “we agreed”, *axād<sup>ə</sup>ni* “we took”, *yib<sup>ə</sup>nih* “he builds it”. An instance in sandhi is in e.g. (vowel underlined) *bithuṭṭuh fi ssiin iw bitxuḏḏuh* “you put it in the goat skin and you churn it”.

##### 2.2.3. Articulatory delay of ‘ayn following geminates

In isolated instances an articulatory delay of ‘ayn following a geminate can be heard, e.g. *binḥuṭṭ<sup>ə</sup> alḥ* “we put on it”.

2.3. *Anaptyxis*

In terms of rule order, the anaptyxis rule follows the rules for elision and stress.

The rules are:

- 1.) In the anaptyxis rule speech pause has the same function as a consonant.
- 2.) Clusters of three or four consonants are usually resolved by inserting an anaptyctic vowel preceding the last two consonants of the cluster. The rule for anaptyxis is:

$$\emptyset > I / (C_a)C_b\text{---}C_cC_d$$

I = anaptyctic vowel

The rule holds for word-medial clusters, as well as sandhi clusters.

2.3.1. *Word-medial anaptyxis*

Like in other dialect groups in Sinai, word-medial clusters (in bold print below) resulting from high vowel elision are resolved by inserting an anaptyctic vowel (underlined below) preceding the last two consonants of the cluster, e.g.

<i>yurbuṭ + uw</i>	> * <i>yurbṭuw</i>	> <i>yúr<u>u</u>bṭuw</i> "they tie"
<i>tuḍrub + uh</i>	> * <i>tuḍr<u>u</u>buh</i>	> <i>tú<u>ḍ</u>urbuh</i> "she hits him".

2.3.2. *Anaptyxis in sandhi*2.3.2.1. *Anaptyxis in clusters resulting from 'colliding' morphological base forms*

Examples of sandhi clusters of four consonants caused by the collision of morphological base forms, which are resolved by insertion of an anaptyctic preceding the last two consonants: (the first cluster is four consonants, the second is three (both in bold print, anaptyctics are underlined):

*ʿind Rǧūm Zwayyid*<sup>53</sup> > *ʿind iRǧūm iZwayyid* "near Zwayyid's rock piles".

<sup>53</sup> *rǧūm*, sg. *rǧm* is a pile of small rocks alongside a path or track to indicate its direction, see Bailey 1991:438 and Holes and Abu Athera 2009:246 (glossary).

Another example of (word-medial) collision of base forms is:

# *btiṭw* + *ha w btiḥš* + *ha tamr* # > # *btiṭw* *ha w btiḥš* *ha tamr* # > # *ibtīṭw* *ha w ibtiḥš* *ha tamir* # “you fold it (sg. fem.) and stuff it (sg. fem.) with dates” (both verb forms are apocopated imperfects).

### 2.3.2.2. Anaptyxis in #CC and CC#

When speech pause directly precedes or follows CC, the resulting cluster #CC or CC# is resolved, e.g. (clusters are bold, anaptyctics are underlined): # + *ḥġār kirīmah* > \* # *ḥġār kirīmah* > # *ḥġār kirīmah* “precious stones” and *Maṣr* + # > \* *Maṣr* # > # *Maṣir* # “Egypt (the mainland), Cairo”.

### 2.3.2.3. Consonant clusters resulting from I-elision in sandhi, with subsequent anaptyxis

Some examples of clusters in sandhi after I-elision, eliminated by anaptyxis (intermediate forms with clusters are marked with \*):

(base forms, high vowel eligible for elision underlined)  
*w btiḥg iddagīg w bta'aġnuh* >  
 (after elision of high vowel, clusters in bold print)  
 \* *w btiḥg iddagīg w bta'aġnuh* >  
 (after stress and anaptyxis, anaptyctics underlined: surface forms)  
*w ibtiḥg iddagīg w ibta'aġnuh* “and you take the dough and knead it”.

Another example is:

(base forms, high vowel eligible for elision underlined)  
*yimsik alfanāġil* >  
 (after elision of high vowel, cluster in bold print)  
 \* *yimsk alfanāġil* >  
 (after stress and anaptyxis, anaptyctic underlined: surface forms)  
*yimisk alfanāġil* “he takes the cups”

### 2.3.2.4. Resyllabication of word-medial CVCCICV, and of CVCCIC VC sequences in sandhi

The resyllabication of a word-medial sequence CVCCICV > CVCICCV (e.g. *yikitbuw*) is compulsory, while resyllabication of a sandhi sequence CVC-CIC VC > CVCICC VC (e.g. *yimisk alfanāġil*) is optional.

### 2.3.3. Exceptions to the anaptyxis rule

#### 2.3.3.1. Unresolved consonant clusters

Like in group I, not all clusters are eliminated. Especially clusters of which the first consonant is a semi-vowel, a nasal or a liquid followed by a voice-

less second consonant,<sup>54</sup> e.g.: *ilħalb hāda* “this milking”, *alGlā‘iyiyih* “location where water from šarafat ilGā‘ flows into Wādiy Fēṛān”, *‘amaltha* “I did it (sg. fem.)”, *ālgrab* “the water skins”, *tušgūlḵ* #<sup>55</sup> “it (sg. fem.) occupies you”, *tanshi* “forget her!”, *fiħimt lay kēh?* “do you understand what I mean?” and (with semi vowels) *mīyt kiluh* “a hundred kilometres”, *ištaraṯtha* “I bought it (sg. fem.)”. But in some cases, also when the second consonant is voiced, the cluster is left intact, as in *ğildha* “her skin” (where *d* is homorganic with *l*) and *yinzluw* “they go down”.

Examples of other sandhi clusters left intact are: *int ‘ārif* “you know”, *yā bint!* # “hey, girl!” and *‘ind Binīy Wāšil* “with the Baniy Wāšil” (see 2.3.3.3.2.) and *gult lēhuw* “I said to them”.

When assimilation between the first and second consonant takes place, the cluster will remain intact as well, e.g. (*axadtha* >) *axattha* “I took it (sg. fem.)”.

### 2.3.3.2. *The role of sonority of consonants involved in unresolved clusters*

See remarks in De Jong 2000:125–126.

### 2.3.3.3. *Some special cases with regard to anaptyxis*

#### 2.3.3.3.1. *Consonant clusters with initial geminates*

When the first two consonants of a three-consonant cluster form a geminate, this geminate is usually (partially) reduced, e.g. (word-medial) *biddna* “we want, need”, *nmiddhin* “we stretch them (fem.) out”, *thuṯṯha* “you place it (fem.)” *ithammṣ ilbunn* “you roast the coffeebeans”, *tğammr išwayyih* “it (sg. fem.) becomes glowing embers a little”. Sandhi examples are: *nxuṣṣ fi* “we enter into”, *nuṣṣ kiluh* “half a kilo”, *biḍḍall*<sup>56</sup> *ṯūlyōmuk* “you stay the (lit. your) whole day”, *sinn* # “tooth” and *ħaṯṯ #* “he placed”, *nšidd* # “we pull tight”.

When a cluster contains a geminate and two other consonants, it is resolved, e.g. *bass iḡrūš* “but sharks”, *ṯābb iNwēbi* “going to (sg. masc.) Nwēbi”, *sitt išhūr* “six months”.

#### 2.3.3.3.2. *Preposition ‘ind + C*

The suffixed preposition *‘ind* takes vowel-initial allomorphs of the pronominal suffixes, e.g. *‘indaha* “with her”, *‘induk* “with you (sg. masc.)”, *‘indik* “with you (sg. fem.)”, *‘induhuw* “with them (pl. masc.)”, *‘indihin* “with them (pl. fem.)”, *‘indukuw* “with you (pl. masc.)”, *‘indikin* “with you (pl. fem.)” and *‘indina* “with us”.

<sup>54</sup> For similar phonetic conditioning, see De Jong 2000:123–128.

<sup>55</sup> Velarization spread through the whole word, colouring the vowels *i* (of measure 4, as in *yišgīl*) to *u*.

<sup>56</sup> *biḍḍall*: assimilated *biḍḍall*.

Clusters in sandhi are left unresolved, e.g. (underlined): *'ind Biniy Wāşil* “with the Baniy Wāşil”, *la 'ind şulbuk* “(submerged in water) up to your waist”, *'ind ġidditī rĥā* “my grandmother has a hand mill”.

### 2.3.3.3.3. *The 2nd p. sg. masc. and fem. pronominal suffixes in consonant clusters*

Like in group II of the north (the dialects of Samā'nah and 'Agāyilah), the pronominal suffixes of the 2nd p. sg. masc. and fem. *-k* and *-k* (resp.), are vowelless when preceded by one consonant. This may be concluded from stress assignment, but it is difficult to decide whether an anptyctic is present or not; especially with a voiceless consonant preceding and a vowel following *k* (in sandhi), there may be a vowelless anptyctic, or none at all, as in e.g. *illiy yaṭla' min ḍimmūt k i'itnī yyāh* “whatever comes out of your goodness, give it to me”. Other examples are: *ḥurmit k* # “your wife”, *awşuf k* # “I'll describe to you”. *nāġit k* “your (sg. masc.) she-camel”, *maṭrāh k* # “your place” and *nuxrūt k* # “your (sg. masc.) nose”, contrasting with *nuxrūt k* # “your (sg. fem.) nose”.

When assimilation takes place, an anptyctic is absent, e.g. *sarāk k* (< *sarāg+k*) “he robbed you”.

When more than one consonant directly precede, the personal pronominal suffixes take allomorphs *-uk* (for sg. masc.) and *-ik* (for sg. fem.) e.g. *xalluk gā'id* “remain seated”, *'induk* “with you”, *şadruk* “your chest”, *naşuk* “yourself”, *'umruk* “your age” and (doubling of *n* in the preposition *min*) *minnu k* “from you”. The latter example is actually a strong indication that we are dealing with a vowel-initial allomorph; *n* of the preposition *min* is only doubled in such cases (i.e. the suffixed form is not *\*min k* or *\*min k*).

### 2.3.4. *Phonetic quality of the anptyctic*

#### 2.3.4.1. *Phonetic quality of word-medial anptyctics*

The phonetic quality of the word-medial anptyctic vowel is a lax and centralized [ɪ], towards [ə], in front environments and a lax and centralized [ʊ], towards a moderately rounded [ə], in back environments.<sup>57</sup>

#### 2.3.4.1.1. *Phonetic quality of word-medial anptyxis in clusters form “colliding” base forms*

Examples of the phonetic quality of word-medial anptyxis in clusters form “colliding” base forms are:

<sup>57</sup> This is the same as what was described for group I in De Jong 2000:128.

*irm* + *ha* > \**irmha* > *írinha* “throw it (sg. fem.)”  
*šujl* + *ha* > \**šujlha* > *šúǰulha* “hers” (suffixed genitive exponent)

#### 2.3.4.1.2. *Phonetic quality of anaptyctics in clusters after I-elision*

The phonetic quality of the anaptyctic resolving a cluster resulting from high vowel elision is the same as (or near to) that of the vowel from whose elision the cluster resulted (anaptyctic vowels underlined).

Example with *i*:

	base form	elision	anaptyxis	
<i>yisrig+uw</i>	>* <i>yisriguw</i>	>* <i>yisrguw</i>	> <i>yis<u>ir</u>guw</i>	“they steal”

Example with *u*:

<i>tuktul+uw</i>	>* <i>tuktuluw</i>	>* <i>tuktluw</i>	> <i>tú<u>ku</u>tluw</i>	“you (pl. masc.) hit”
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#### 2.3.4.1.3. *Anaptyctics in clusters resulting from elision of i from T*

Anaptyctics eliminating clusters resulting from high vowel elision from *-it* (the fem. morpheme in construct state) are phonetically conditioned by the phonetic value of surrounding consonants: *i* in neutral environments and *u* in velarized environments (anaptyctic vowels are underlined) (examples of *i*): *xiligtuh* “his ugly mug”, *ilibtuh* “his packet” and (examples of *u*) *húrumtuh* “his wife” and *šúgultī* “mine (suffixed genitive exponent)”.

#### 2.3.4.2. *Phonetic quality of anaptyctics in sandhi*

##### 2.3.4.2.1. *Phonetic quality of word-initial anaptyctics in sandhi*

Word-initial anaptyctics tend to have a phonetic value of around a lax and centralized [ɪ].

Examples of word-initial anaptyctics (underlined): # *itkūn irfayy'ih* “it (sg. fem.) will be thin”, *zilit išjayyir* “a young goat or gazelle”, # *iymūš išwayyih* “it becomes a little soft/moist”, *ahád imn išhābuk* # “one of your friends”.

Imperatives of the verbs *axád* “take” and *akál* “eat” are *kul*, # *uklíy*, # *uklíw*, # *uklín* and *xuḍ*, # *uxḍíy*, # *uxḍíw*, # *uxḍín* (initial *u-* in these forms is an anaptyctic resolving a cluster # CC).

##### 2.3.4.2.2. *Phonetic quality of word-final anaptyctics*

Anaptyctics resolving word-final clusters have a phonetic quality near I.P.A. [u] in labial and/or velarized environments.

Examples are: *baduw* # “Bedouin”, *hiluw* # “sweet, beautiful”, *dalw* # “pail”, *šuǰul* # “of (genitive exponent)”, *tuhur* # “circumcision”, *humur* “red (pl. com.)”, *zurug* “black (pl. com.; lit. “blue”)”, *íduk* # “your (sg. masc.)”



### 2.4.1. Morphophonemic I-elision

The rule for elision of unstressed I in open syllable preceded by only one consonant:

$$I > \emptyset / VC_a\_C_bV$$

Examples are (high vowel eligible for elision in bold print): *nizil* + *uw* > \**niziluw* > *nizluw* “they descended”, *simi'* + *at* > \**simi'at* > *sim'at* “she heard”, *kubur* + *at* > \**kuburat* > *kubrat* “she grew older”, *tāxid* + *in* > \**tāxidīn* > *tāxdīn* “you (pl. fem.) take”, *mištaġil* (= underlying |mištaġil|) + *ah* > \**mištaġilih* > *mištaġlih* “working (sg. fem.)” and *taharīt* + *uw* > \**taharītuw* > *tahartuw* “you (pl. masc.) plough”.

The rule for elision of unstressed I in open syllable preceded by two consonants is:

$$I > \emptyset / VC_aC_b\_C_cV$$

Examples of immediate elimination of a cluster resulting from high vowel elision: *tufruš* + *iy* > \**tufrušiy* > *túfuršiy* “you (sg. fem.) spread out”, *yiktib* + *in* > \**yiktibin* > *yíkitbin* “they (pl. fem.) write”.

When an unstressed high vowel follows a geminate, it is dropped and the geminate is reduced. The rule is:

$$I > \emptyset / VC_aC_a\_C_bV$$

$VC_aC_a$  = geminate

Examples are: *ynadḍif* + *uw* > # *ynadḍifuw* “they clean”, *tḍayyif* > *uw* + *nī* > # *iḍḍayyfūnī* (< *iḍḍayyfūnī*) “you receive me as a guest”.

### 2.4.2. I-elision in sandhi

I-elision in sandhi may take place like morphophonemic elisions described above, but such sandhi-elisions are optional, examples are (high vowels eligible for elision are in bold print): *btílħig iddagīg* > *btílħg iddagīg* > # *ibtílħg iddagīg* “you take the dough”, *byúmsik issi'n* > *byúmsk issi'n* > # *ibyúmsk issi'in* # “he takes the goatskin (used for churning butter)”.

### 2.4.3. Cyclic anaptyxis rule in sandhi

The optional I-elision rule in sandhi may be applied after the execution of the anaptyxis rule, e.g. (the cluster is underlined and in bold print, the anaptyctics are in bold print and the high vowel eligible for sandhi-elision is underlined):

- 1) *twakkil* + *ʿyālk* > *twakkil* ʿyālk > *twakkil* *iʿyālk* > (including word-initial and word-final anaptyxis) # *itwakkl* *iʿyāluḵ* # “you feed your children”.

In this first example the cluster *lʿy* is resolved, after which the high vowel preceding it lands in open syllable (thus becoming eligible for elision) and is dropped.

The rule for anaptyxis may also be re-applied after execution of the rule for anaptyxis,<sup>61</sup> as in the example:

- 2) *nīlbis* + *ḡlūdniʿ* > *nīlbis* ḡlūdniʿ > *nīlbis* *iḡlūdniʿ* > *nīlbs* *iḡlūdniʿ* > *nīlbis* *iḡlūdniʿ* “we put on our diving suits (lit. our skins)”.

In this second example the cluster *sḡl* is resolved, after which the high vowel preceding it lands in open syllable (thus becoming eligible for elision) and is dropped, creating a new cluster *lbs*, which is then eliminated by insertion of another anaptyctic vowel.

#### 2.4.4. Exceptions to the I-elision rule

When  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  in  $C_a C_a C_b$  are phonetically close or identical, I (underlined in the examples below) is not dropped, and the geminate may be reduced. Examples are: *ḡidditī* “my grandmother”, *thālliluh* “you analyze it (sg. masc.)”.

#### 2.5. Assimilation

Three types of contact assimilations can be identified: regressive (partial or total), progressive (partial or total) and reciprocal (total) assimilation (instances of contact assimilation involving the spread of velarization are treated in 1.1.7.).

Apart from contact assimilations of *l* of the article *il-* or *al-* to ‘sunletters’, *l* is also sometimes—this is by no means regular—assimilated to following *ḡ* or *k*, as in *iḡḡibneh* “the cheese”. *alxayṭ b aḡḡḡlab* “the line with the hooks (used for fishing)” and also *ikkīs* “the bag”.

<sup>61</sup> The example in De Jong 2000:134–135 only illustrates the application of the I-elision rule after the execution of the anaptyxis rule (like the first example here). The second example here clearly illustrates re-application and cyclicity of the I-elision rule.

Instances of regressive total assimilation are:

<i>n + r</i>	> <i>rr</i>	<i>birrağǧid</i> “we pile”
<i>t + š</i>	> <i>tš</i>	<i>ššily</i> “you carry”
<i>t + z</i>	> <i>zz</i>	<i>zzīd</i> “it (sg. fem.) increases”
<i>t + d</i>	> <i>dd</i>	<i>ddīr</i> “you turn (fem.)”
<i>ǧ + t</i>	> <i>tt</i>	<i>axatt</i> “I took”
<i>t + š</i>	> <i>šš</i>	<i>ššidd</i> “you pull”

Instances of regressive partial assimilation are:

<i>t + z</i>	> <i>dz</i>	<i>dzīd</i> “it (sg. fem.) increases”
<i>t + ǧ</i>	> <i>dǧ</i>	<i>dǧīb</i> “you bring”
<i>b + n</i>	> <i>mn</i>	<i>mnaǧbaḥuh</i> “we slaughter him”
<i>n + ǧ</i>	> <i>ŋǧ</i>	<i>maŋǧad</i> “fireplace”

progressive total:

Initial *h-* of pronominal suffixes often totally assimilates to preceding voiceless consonants, e.g.

<i>aǧlabiyiyit + hin</i>	> <i>aǧlabiyiyittin</i> “the majority of them (fem.)”
<i>ǧimāʿat + huw</i>	> <i>ǧimāʿattuw</i> “their group of people”
<i>tuḥbux + ha</i>	> <i>tuḥbuxxa</i> “you cook it (sg. fem.)”
<i>naftaḥ + ha</i>	> <i>naftaḥḥa</i> “we open it (sg. fem.)”

Other instances of progressive total assimilation are:

<i>zaǧraṭ + tīy</i>	> <i>zaǧraṭtīy</i> “you (sg. fem.) ululated”
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Instances of reciprocal total assimilations are:

<i>baraǧǧī + ha</i>	> <i>baraǧīḥe</i> “I return it (sg. fem.)”
<i>mablaǧ + hin</i>	> <i>miblaḥxin</i> “their (fem.) price”

In a number of instances the mutual influence of hissing sounds has resulted in a metathesis. An example in both dialects is *sīǧih* (or *sīžih*) > *šizih* “game of *sīǧah*”, in MzA *šāz* (< *šāǧ/sāǧ* or *šāǧ/sāž*), but in BWA *šāǧ* “iron baking sheet”. Additional examples in MzA are *šizn* (< *siǧn* or *sīžn*) “prison”, *mšazzil* (> *saǧǧil* or *sažžil*) “recorder” and *našz* (> *našǧ* or *našž*) “weaving”, but in BWA *siǧn* and *tasǧil* “recording”.

Another example of the mutual influence of hissing sounds is MzA is *šamš* (> *šams*) “sun”, but BWA *šams*, and in both dialects *šaǧar* “trees” is current.

## 3. MORPHOLOGY

## 3.1. Nominal Morphology

3.1.1. Raising of *a*3.1.1.1. Raising of *a* in  $C_1aC_2iC_3$  (ah)

Raising of *a* in the nominal pattern  $C_1aC_2iC_3$ (ah) occurs regularly, but is optional. Such raising is not inhibited by phonetic factors.

Examples are: *šidīd* “intense, strong”, *kiṭīr* “many, much”, *kibīr* “large, old”, *ǧilīd* “fat, thick”, *ʿifīg*, *ʿirīs* “groom”, *xifīf* “light”. But also forms without raising have been recorded: *kaṭīr*, *kaḅīr*, *ʿafīg*, *xafīf*, etc.

3.1.1.2. Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *i*

For instances of raising of *a* in the *i*-type perfect (with underlying pattern CaCiC) of verbs, see 3.2.1.1. below.

3.1.1.3. Raising of *a* in CaCCiC(-ah)

Raising of *a* in CaCCiC(-ah) was not recorded, e.g. *baṭṭīx* “water melon”, *xamsīn* “fifty”, *sabʿīn* “seventy” and a verbal noun *taǧlib* “throwing out (of a fishing line)”.

3.1.1.4. Raising of *a* in CaCCāC

Raising of *a* in CaCCāC(+) is regular. Examples are: *riǧǧāl* “man”, *šiyyād* “fisherman”, *siyyāl*<sup>62</sup> “acacia tree”, *kiššāf* “search light”, *biṭṭāriyyih* “flashlight”, *zīrgā* “blue (sg. fem.)”, *šifrā* “yellow (sg. fem.)”, *himrā* “red (sg. fem.)”, *girʿā* “bald (sg. fem.)”, *miṣrāt* “times”, *miʿnāt* (*ḥāǧih*) “the meaning (of sth)”, *Wādīy Wirdān* “Wadi Wardān”.

3.1.1.5. Raising of *a* in ...CaCāC...

When not followed by *l* or *r* and not preceded by *ʿ*, unstressed *a* preceding *ā* may be raised to *i* or *u*. Examples are: (*i* in) *ǧizāyiz* “bottles”, *mišāyix* “sheikhs”, *diǧāyig* “minutes”, *dināǧiy*<sup>63</sup> “small boats” (BWA), *gibāyil* “tribes”, *tikātrih* “doctors” and (*u* in) *Šuwālḥih* “name of tribe *Šawālḥah*”, *buwāšiy*

<sup>62</sup> *sayyāl* is likely to be a folk etymology for *sayāl*. The connotation must be with ‘a tree growing by a *sēl* (“flood, watercourse”).

<sup>63</sup> The sg. *dinǧiy* is a loan from English dingy, which must have come through one of the Egyptian dialects where the reflex for \*ǧ is *g* and where the English [dʒ] was replaced by [g]. Compare this to an opposite development of *g* in Egyptian *ǧinēh* (a loan from English guinea), where [g] was replaced by [dʒ] by speakers of *ǧīm*-speaking dialects, who pronounce *ǧ(i)nēh*. Other such examples are *siǧārah* “cigarette” and *ǧrām* “gram”, which became *siǧārah* and *ǧrām* in many *ǧīm*-speaking dialects (though in MzA *siǧārah* is current).

“a type of fish (pl. form)”, *min muwālīd Ḍahāb* “born in Ḍahab” and also (as an exception) *duṛāhim* “money” (but see remark below) and verb forms *nisāh* “he forgot him” and *ligāh* “he found him”.

Such raising is however optional, since there are also many instances in which it is absent, e.g. *masākinhuw* “their dwellings”, ‘*Azāzmih* “name of a tribe (living partly in Sinai and partly in the Negev)”, *Ḥamāḍah* “name of a tribe”, *zamān* “in the past”, *gabāyil* “tribes” and also verb forms *ytawāḡad* “it (sg. masc.) exists” and *yta‘ālaḡ* “he receives medical treatment”.

When *a* is followed by *l* or *r* or preceded by ‘ or X, this type of raising is much less regular, e.g.: *ṭalāṭih* “three”, *Tarābīn* “name of a tribe”, *warā‘k* “behind you”, *marākīb* “boats” and (with ‘ preceding) ‘*asāsāthuw* “their origins”. ‘*ažānib* “foreigners”, ‘*ašābī* “fingers” and ‘*aḍāfir̄k* “your (sg. fem.) nails”. Examples in which X precedes *a* are: ‘*ašān* “because”, ‘*ḥawāliy* “about, approximately”, ‘*ḥarārah* “heat”, *xalāš* “that’s it!”, *ḡazāl* “gazelle” and *hawā‘k* “your desire”.

### 3.1.1.6. Raising of *a* in ...CaCá...

*a* in open syllable preceding stressed *á* is often—but only optionally so—raised to *I* in neutral environments,<sup>64</sup> e.g.: *sináh* “year”, *šīḡár* “trees”, *libán* “milk”, *ḡimál* “camel”, *fīḍá* “free time”, *Ḍihāb* “name of the town Ḍahab”, a gahawah-form *šihár* “month” and verb forms *ligát* “she found”, *kitáb* “he wrote”.

Raising towards [u] is heard in the examples: *mā m‘uḡ duwá* “medicine”, *wurág* “paper” (though more regularly *warág*).

Such raising is (usually) absent when ‘ or X precedes, e.g.: (‘)*aḥád* “anyone” and verb forms (‘)*akál* “he ate” and (‘)*axáḍ* “he took” and (with X preceding) *ḥaṭáb* “firewood”, *ḡanáṃ* “small cattle”, *adád* “number”, *arāḡ* “sweat” and *xalág* “He created”, but also *ḡiṭás* “he dived” and *mā m‘uḡ xubár* “you have no clue/idea”.

### 3.1.1.7. Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *A*

Both types of *a*-raising described in 3.1.1.5. and 3.1.1.6. can be combined in one rule (see also De Jong 2000:147):

$$\begin{array}{l}
 C_a \neq *' \text{ or } X \\
 C_b \neq l.
 \end{array}
 \quad
 a > I / C_a \_ C_b A
 \quad
 \begin{array}{l}
 A = \text{stressed } a \text{ or } \bar{a} \\
 I = \text{high short vowel } i \text{ or } u
 \end{array}$$

<sup>64</sup> See the rule in De Jong 2000:145 is:  $a > I / C_a \_ C_b \acute{a}$ , where  $C_a \neq *'$  or  $X$  and  $C_b \neq l$ .

And like in group I, stress of A does not have to be primary for such raising to take place. Instances where stress on A is secondary are, e.g.: *ǧibābīl* “mountains”, *min muwālīd Dīhāb* “born in Dīhāb”, *mikānī* “my place” and *ānwīkal* “it was eaten”, *hāwǧīsat* “she improvised song”, *ānīxal* “the palmtrees” and also in forms with final raised reflexes of *-ā(ʾ)*, such as *āddīwī* “the medicine” and *āssīmī* “the sky”.

### 3.1.1.8. Raising of *a* in *CaCūC(ah)*

Like in the pattern *CaCīC(ah)*, *a* is often raised to *i* in the pattern *CaCūC(ah)*, but instances of absence of such raising were also recorded. Examples are *lugūnih* “a child with keen intelligence”,<sup>65</sup> *yuhūd* “Jews”, *Suʾūdiyyih* ~ *Saʾūdiyyih* “Saudi Arabia”, *guʾūd* “young male camel”, *ǧumūs* “food dip”, *xurūf* “lamb”, but also *ǧanūb* “south”, *aǧūz* “old woman”, *ʾarūs* ~ *ʾurūs* “bridegroom”, *šāʾūr* ~ *šūʾūr* “emperor (fish species)” and also *ḥakūmah* “government”.<sup>66</sup>

Also when (ʾ) precedes, such raising often takes place: (ʾ)*ubūy* “my father”, (ʾ)*uxūh* “his brother” and also in verb forms (ʾ)*ugūm* “I get up, (ʾ)*ušūf* “I see”.<sup>67</sup>

### 3.1.1.9. Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *u*

Like raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *i*, *a* in similar positions preceding stressed *ú* is also raised, e.g.: *kubūr* “he grew”, *ǧulúḍ* “he grew fat”.

### 3.1.1.10. *a*-raising rules combined

If we combine the different possibilities of raising in one rule, this rule is:

$$a > i / C\_Cí(C)$$

I = short high vowel *u* if  $\acute{I} = \acute{u}$  or  $\bar{u}$ , *i* if  $\acute{I} = \acute{i}$  or  $\bar{i}$   
 C = any consonant

Notice that the rule is more general than the (second) one formulated in De Jong 2000:150, since we do not need to make a provision here for the first C not being hamzah.

<sup>65</sup> The word was used in reference to a child, who is recognized at an early age to have a keen intelligence, and is therefore raised to become a *ḥāwīy* “snake charmer”. It is related to the root *l-q-n* “learn; have keen intelligence” and must mean “endowed with intelligence” and/or “(to be) taught through instruction”.

<sup>66</sup> See also fn 18, Chapter Two in De Jong 2000:149.

<sup>67</sup> Such raising following ʾ is not current in group I (see De Jong 2000:147–149).

3.1.2. Reflexes of \*C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah)

Examples of reflexes of \*C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah) are: *badw* “Bedouin (pl.)”, *ǧady* (BWA) “kid goat”, *taḥát* ~ *tihát* “under”, *fahám* “coal”, *šikl* “shape”, *šahán* ~ *šihán* “dish”, *kalb* “dog”.

Also: *wiǧh* “face”, *wiḥdih* “one (fem.)”, *naḥyih* “direction”, *ši‘b* ~ *ša‘b* (the latter perhaps a K-form; notice the absence of a gahawah-vowel), *šadr* “chest”, *wakl* “food” and *ǧidd* “grandfather”.

## 3.1.3. Reflexes of \*CaCiC(ah)

Examples of reflexes of \*CaCiC(ah) are: *kilmih* “word”, *širkih* “company”, *kitf* “shoulder”.

3.1.4. Reflexes of C<sub>1</sub>uC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah)

Examples of reflexes of \*C<sub>1</sub>uC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah) are: *bunn* “coffee beans”, *rizz* (~ *ruzz* in Mza) “rice”, *kull* “all; every”, *amḥ* “mother” (~ *uḥ* in BWA), *uxt* “sister”.

Also: *ǧim‘ih* “male given name”, *sinnih* “usage” (BWA), *middih* “period”, *hinnih* “they (pl. fem.)”, *zibdiḥ* “butter”.

Forms with sufficient backing show *u*, as in *šuggah* “fishing net” (Mza), *xuṭwah* “step”, *nuḡtah* “police checkpoint”, *ǧumsih* “food dip”, *rukbah* “knee” (BWA) (but *rikbih* (Mza)), *ḥurmah* “woman”.

3.1.5. Absence of *I* in open syllables preceding stress

Like in all dialects of Sinai, a high vowel *i* or *u* in open initial syllables of the type CiC(V) preceding stress (on V) is dropped, resulting in initial CC clusters. Examples are: *ǧlūd* “skins”, *ǧūnī* “my eyes”, *xšēšāt* “little huts”, *Ḥmēd* “male given name”, *byēt ša‘ár* “little tent”, *blād* “land”, *ǧbāl* “mountains”, *snīn* “years”, *ǧlayyil* “little; few”, *ǧlāl* “few (pl.)” and *štīy* “winter”. Examples with stressed short vowels are: *gmam* “Morrays eels”, *rkab* “knees” (Mza).

Exceptions to such elisions are (loans from MSA) *šu‘ūn iǧtimā‘iyiyih* “social affairs”, *nizām* “system”.<sup>68</sup> Another exception is *šayd furūsīyyih* “hunting on horseback” (in BWA), where the influence of *r* may have prevented elision of *u* in *furūsīyyih* (if it is not a loan from MSA altogether). For other ‘surface’ forms with initial sequences of the type CiCā... or

<sup>68</sup> Notice also *z* here instead of more regularly expected emphatic interdental *ǧ*.

CuCā..., CiCī... or CuCī... and CuCū... or CiCū... see 3.1.1.7.–3.1.1.10. above.

Also in verb forms a short high vowel in open unstressed syllable is not found, e.g. *ygūl* “he says”, *tšil* “you carry”, *tnām* “you sleep”, *nhuṭṭ* “we place”, *tšiddiy* “you (sg. fem.) pull tight”, *ygōṭruw* “they go”. Notice, however, that in the verb “come” the vowel of the first syllable is not dropped, e.g. *tiġiy* “you come”, *yiġiy* “he comes” (contrast with forms *tġiy* and *yġiy* heard in group I).<sup>69</sup>

### 3.1.6. Diminutive patterns

A number of diminutive forms were recorded in MzA and BWA. Apart from the usual forms such as *glayyil* “few”, *gšayyir* “short”, *rfayyi* “thin”, *šġayyir* “small; young”, *kwayyis* “good” and *šwayyih* “a bit”, etc., other recorded examples are: *sraybih* “small group (of people)”, *byēt ša’ār* “little tent”, *xšēšāt* “little huts”, *bnayyih* “little girl”, *wlēd* “little boy” and also a very regular (i.e. in Sinai) *hṛayyim* “women”.

The hypochoristic *-ān* suffix, which was recorded in some of the dialects of group I (especially dialects in the east like AḥA), was not heard in MzA or BWA.

### 3.1.7. Pattern $aC_1C_2aC_3$

The pattern used for colours and physical (and sometimes mental) defects is  $aC_1C_2aC_3$  and  $aC_1aC_2aC_3$  (stressed on the first syllable) where  $C_1 = X$ . Examples are: *abyad* “white”, *azrag* (euphemistically; the word *aswad* is avoided) “black; dark coloured”, *ašhab* “light coloured, pale” (and with  $C_1 = X$ ) *áhamar* “red”, *áxadar* “green”, *áhawal* “cross-eyed”, *áhabal* “stupid”, *á’ama* “blind” and *áxaraš* “mute”, *á’araġ* “limping”.

The sg. fem. forms have a  $CaCCā$  pattern, with a final *-ā* that has remained long and which is often in pause followed by an unreleased glottal stop, e.g. *bēḏā*, *hamrā*. There is an added *a* following  $C_2$  when it is X and final *ā* is raised (to *-íy*) when  $C_3$  is neutral, e.g. *arġíy* and *šaḥabíy*.

Most pl. com. forms have a  $C_1uC_2C_3$  pattern, e.g. *zurg*, *sumr*, *xuḏr*, *humr* and *hubl*, but some forms that lack velarization were recorded with a  $C_1iC_2C_3$  pattern, e.g. *irġ*, *šiḥb*. Plural forms for “black” and “white” are *sūd* ( $C_2 = wāw$ ) and *bīḏ* ( $C_2 = yā$ ).

<sup>69</sup> See De Jong 2000:203–204.

3.1.8. *The elative patterns aC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, aC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub> and aC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>a*

The elative pattern is aC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, e.g. *ak̄tar* “more/most”, *akbar* “bigger/biggest; older/oldest”, *ashal* “easier/easiest”, *aṣ‘ab* “more difficult/most difficult”.

In MzA forms *aḥla* “sweeter/sweetest; better/best” and *aḥsan* “better/best” were recorded several times without a gahawah-vowel (similarly *ağlabiyyih* “majority”), but a gahawah-vowel was heard in *axaṭar* “more dangerous/most dangerous” (though also *axṭar*). *ajalad̄* “thicker” and also *aḥala* in BWA.

Elatives of geminate roots have a pattern aC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub> (where C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub>), e.g. *agaḥḥ* “less/least” and *ahamm* “more important/most important”.

3.1.9. *Initial a*3.1.9.1. *The article and the relative pronoun*

The article may be *al-* or *il-*; *al-* is mainly used when the following nominal has Ca as its initial sequence, but this is in no way regularly so. When the article is stressed, however, the article tends to be *ál-* when (underlying) Ca or CCaC follows, and *íl-* when other sequences follow. Examples with (underlying) Ca following are: *álbaḥar* “the sea”, *álǧimal* “the camel”, *áddiwī* “the medicine”, *ássimi* “the sky”, *áṣṣaḥan* “the plate”, but (when preceding sequences other than Ca) *íliḥṣiy* “the rocks” and *ílif‘i* “the viper”, *íšṣṭi* “the winter”, but *íšṣibiy* “the boy” (underlying form is |ṣabiy|). With CCaC following: *árrkab* “the knees”, *ánnxar* “the noses”, *áll‘af* “the bait (pl.)”, *áṣṣnaṭ* “the suitcases”.

When *ī* or *iy* precedes the article *al-*, it is dropped, as in, e.g. *f-aṭṭūr* “in aṭ-ṭūr” and *f-awwalha w ḥatta f-āxirha* “in its (sg. fem.) beginning and even in its (sg. fem.) end”.

In some cases in BWA the possessive suffix *-ī* was not dropped against initial *a-* of a following verb, but an intrusive (voiced?) *h* was inserted instead, e.g. *widdī -h-aṣalliy* “I want / am going to pray”, *widdī -h-anām* “I want to (go to) sleep”. This not only occurred with following initial *a-*, but also in directly elicited instances like *widdī-h-uḍrub* “I want to hit”, *widdī-h-ugūm* “I want to get up”, *widdī-h-ōgaf* “I want to stop”, *widdī-h-ākil* “I want to eat” and also with initial *i-* following, as in *widdī-h-iṣīl* “I want to carry”.

The relative pronoun is *illiy*, e.g. *illiy ‘āyiz luh kīlu, w illiy ‘āyiz luh nuṣṣ kīlu* “(there are) those who want a kilo and others who want half a kilo”.

‘Specifying’ *ha-* was heard used only in adverbial *halḥīn* (often *halḥīnit* in MzA) “now”.

3.1.9.2. *Other instances of initial a*

Another instance of initial *a* is *aṃṃ* “mother” (in MzA, in BWA *uṃṃ*), “we” is *iḥna*, “sister” is *uxt*.

Like in group I, plural forms reflecting older \*CICaC have a CCaC pattern, e.g. *gṃaṃ* “Murray eels”, *rkab* “knees” (MzA), *rxaş* “licences”, *ʿnab* “grapes” (BWA), *ḥgan* “injections”, *šnaṭ* “suitcases”, *lʿaf* “bait (pl.)”, although the pl. for (ʿ)*ibriḥ* is (ʿ)*abár* “needles”.

3.1.10. *The feminine morpheme (T) in genitive construction*3.1.10.1. *T in genitive construction preceded by a in open syllable*

The feminine morpheme *-ah* ~ *-ih* in construct state becomes *-at* when aC directly precedes. Examples of aCT + suffix: *máratuh* “his wife”, *sánatuh* “his year”, *xašabátuk* “your piece of wood”.

In the case of CaCaCT + v(C) sequences in MzA, a special provision needs to be made for *a*-elision in the rule for short vowel elision, which in terms of rule ordering precedes the rule for T. This should explain why T becomes *-it* in such cases: since *a* has been dropped from CaCaCTv (resulting in CaCCTv), T is no longer directly preceded by aC, but by CC. Therefore T > it, resulting in a sequence CaCCitv. Since the rule for short vowel elision has already been executed (and this rule is not cyclic!), such CaCCitv sequences will not be resyllabified to (after applying stress and anaptyxis rules) become CáCiCtv, but the sequence is stressed and appears on the surface as CáCCitv. Examples of such sequences are *rágbituh* “his neck”, *xášbituh* “his piece of wood”.

Verbal forms of the 3rd p. sg. fem. *a*-type perfect + vowel are resyllabified analogous to the suffixed nominals; the rule was generalized to cover all (including verbal) sequences: CaCaCat + v > CaCCitv, e.g. (*farašat* + *uh* >) *fáršituh* “she spread it out” and (*katabat* + *uh* >) *kátbituh* “she wrote it”.

The advantage of fitting the extra provision with regard to elision of *a* into the ordering of rules is that the T-rule, which holds in almost all Sinai dialects, does not have to be customized to fit the situation in MzA.

Also, an advantage of this rule-generalization is that no separate rule is needed for the sudden appearance of *-it* in the case of the 3rd p. sg. fem. of *a*-type perfects when vowel-initial suffixes are appended.<sup>70</sup>

<sup>70</sup> From the point of view of historical development, such a rule would be highly unlikely, since the verbal ending is *-at* under all other circumstances, see verbal morphology in 3.2.

3.1.10.2. *The rule for T not directly preceded by aC or v̄*

When not preceded by aC, the fem. morpheme *-ah* becomes *-it* (or *-t* when a long vowel  $\bar{v}$  directly precedes, see 3.1.10.4.) in construct state.

The *i* of the ending *-it* may then be subject to the rule for high vowel elision, after which often an anaptyctic vowel is inserted (underlined in following examples), e.g.: *ʿilibtuh* “his packet”, *ʿilbít<sup>u</sup>ḵ* “your packet”, *fátirit arbaʿ snīn* (with sandhi elision and anaptyxis >) *fátirt<sup>u</sup> arbaʿ isnīn* “a period of four years”, *nāgtuh* “his she-camel”, *nāgít<sup>u</sup>ḵ* “your (sg. masc.) she-camel”. In strongly velarized environments T may be realized as *-ut*, as in *nuxrút<sup>u</sup>ḵ* “your (sg. masc.) nose”, contrasting with *nuxrít<sup>u</sup>ḵ* “your (sg. fem.) nose”.

3.1.10.3. *T preceded by the gahawah-vowel a*

Forms in which a gahawah-vowel *a* is in open syllable directly preceding T are treated the same way as forms in which such a preceding *a* is ‘historical’. Almost paradoxically so, the forms *gahwitī* and *gáhwitu* (and similar forms like *lahmitī* and *láhmituh*) show that the gahawah-syndrome has created fully-fledged syllables in these nominals, for if the gahawah-vowel *a* would have been a mere anaptyctic vowel (i.e. more like in verb forms, cf. 2.1.2.4.), one might have expected forms like *gahawtī* and *gáhawtu*. The fact that the gahawah-vowel *a* is dropped from (intermediate) forms like *\*gahawatī* and *\*gahawatuh* thus illustrates that we are dealing with a full short vowel *a* (produced by the gahawah-syndrome), since only CaCaCT + v sequences are affected by the special provision made in the short vowel elision rule (as described above).

3.1.10.4. *T following ā*

T preceded by  $\bar{a}$  yields *-āh*, e.g. *hamātuh* “his mother-in-law”,

In one instance *\*maʿnā* (spelled in Arabic with *ʿalif maqṣūrah*: معنی) was interpreted as T-final (as occurs more often in other dialects as well): *miʿnāt ilkilmiḥ* “the meaning of the word”.

3.1.10.5. *Nominal ending -it in construction vs. verbal 3rd p. sg. perf. ending -at*

The high vowel *i* of the nominal ending *-it* is dropped when it is in open unstressed syllable, e.g. *nāgtuh* “his she-camel”, *gattāytuh* “its (sg. masc.) cover”.

The low vowel *a* in verbal forms of the 3rd p. sg. perf. is not dropped, e.g. *šāfatuh* “she saw him” and *lāgatuh* “she found him”, *kāwanatuh* “she fought him”.

3.1.11. *Genitive marker*

The genitive marker is *šūġl*, but in more isolated areas (away from the coast) *ħagg* is more current in MzA. In BWA *šūġl* is the current form, although *ħagg* may also be heard. Though not as regularly as *šūġl*, the K-form *btā'* may also be heard. The form *tabā'* was heard only once in MzA.

The paradigms for suffixed *šūġl*(*ah*) and *ħagg*(*ah*) are as follows:

e.g.	<i>ilbēt</i> +		<i>il' ilbih</i> +	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>šūġluh</i>	<i>šūġluħuw</i>	<i>šūġultuh</i>	<i>šūġlithuw</i>
fem.	<i>šūġluħa</i>	<i>šūġluħin</i>	<i>šūġliħa</i>	<i>šūġliħin</i>
2. masc.	<i>šūġluħ</i>	<i>šūġluħuw</i>	<i>šūġliħ'k</i>	<i>šūġliħ'kuw</i>
fem.	<i>šūġlik</i>	<i>šūġlikin</i>	<i>šūġliħ'k</i>	<i>šūġliħ'kin</i>
1. com.	<i>šūġli</i>	<i>šūġluna</i>	<i>šūġliħ</i>	<i>šūġliħna</i>

Pl. forms used for humans are *šūġlīn* and *šūġlāt*: e.g. *iliwlād šūġlīn ilmádrasih* “the boys of the school” and *ilbanāt šūġlāt ilmádrasih* “the girls of the school”. Also for smaller or numbers the pl. fem. is used: *ittalātah ġinēhāt dillih šūġlāt'k* “these three pounds are yours”.

e.g.	<i>ilbēt</i> +		<i>il' ilbih</i> +	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>ħagghuw</i>	<i>ħagghuw</i>	<i>ħaggtuh</i>	<i>ħagghithuw</i>
fem.	<i>ħaggha</i>	<i>ħagghin</i>	<i>ħagghitha</i>	<i>ħagghithin</i>
2. masc.	<i>ħagguħ</i>	<i>ħagguħuw</i>	<i>ħagghit'k</i>	<i>ħagghit'kuw</i>
fem.	<i>ħagghik</i>	<i>ħagghikin</i>	<i>ħagghit'k</i>	<i>ħagghit'kin</i>
1. com.	<i>ħagghī</i>	<i>ħagghna</i>	<i>ħagghit</i>	<i>ħagghitna</i>

Pl. forms for humans are *ħaggīn* and *ħaggāt*: e.g. *iliwlād ħaggīn ilmádrasih* and *ilbanāt ħaggāt ilmádrasih*. Like in the case of *šūġlāt*, the pl. fem. *ħaggāt* is often used for smaller numbers: *ittalātah ġinēhāt dillih ħaggāt'k*.

A preference for the construct state instead of indirect annexation could not be concluded from the available data.

3.1.12. *Personal pronominals*3.1.12.1. *Independent pronominals*

In MzA the following independent pronominals are used:

				negated:	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	
3. masc.	<i>hū</i>	<i>huwwa(h)</i>	<i>mūhū*</i>	<i>mūhuwwa(h)</i>	
fem.	<i>hī</i>	<i>hinnah</i>	<i>mīhī*</i>	<i>mīhinnih</i>	
2. masc.	<i>int(ah)</i>	<i>intuw</i>	<i>mīnt(ah)</i>	<i>mintuw</i>	
fem.	<i>intiy</i>	<i>intin</i>	<i>mīntiy</i>	<i>mintin</i>	
1. com.	<i>ana</i>	<i>iḥna</i>	<i>mānī*</i>	<i>mīḥna</i>	

Direct elicitation yielded the following negated forms in BWA: *māhū\**, *māhī\**, *mīntah*, *mintiy*, *mānī\**, *māhuḥma*, *māhinnah*, *mintuw*, *mintin*, *mīḥna*.

\* In these forms stress is on the vowel of the first syllable.

For a likely development of the pl. masc. form *huwwa*—in which reinterpretation of morpheme boundaries must have played an important role—see 3.1.12.2. in the preceding chapter and also De Jong 2000:163.

### 3.1.12.2. Pronominal suffixes

In MzA the following pronominal suffixes are used:

	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	(C)C- <i>u(h)</i> * <sub>1</sub> , <i>v̄-(h)</i>	- <i>huw</i> * <sub>4</sub>
fem.	- <i>ha</i>	- <i>hin</i>
2. masc.	C- <sup>u</sup> <i>k</i> , CC- <i>uk</i> , <i>v̄-<sup>u</sup>k</i> * <sub>2</sub>	- <i>kuw</i>
fem.	C- <sup>i</sup> <i>k</i> , CC- <i>ik</i> , <i>v̄-<sup>i</sup>k</i> * <sub>2</sub>	- <i>kin</i>
1. com.	(C)C- <i>ī</i> , <i>v̄-y</i> (poss.)	- <i>na</i>
	- <i>nī</i> (obj.)* <sub>3</sub>	

For allomorphs used with the preposition *ind*, see below 3.1.16.

\*<sub>1</sub> Notice the *-u(h)* suffix for the 3rd p. sg. masc., instead of *-ah/ -ih* which we find in group I.

\*<sub>2</sub> The superscript vowel <sup>u</sup> serves to indicate a considerable degree of velarization (accompanied by lip rounding); it is not to be interpreted as a vowel, which may be concluded from stress placement and (lack of) short high vowel elisions in forms like *huṛmít<sup>u</sup>k* “your (sg. masc.) wife” and *nāgít<sup>u</sup>k* “your (sg. masc.) she-camel”. Contrast this with forms followed by 2nd p. sg. fem. suffixes: *ilbít<sup>i</sup>k* “your (sg. fem.) pack”, *nāgít<sup>i</sup>k*.

When <sup>u</sup>*k* is suffixed to *v̄*, the long vowel colours strongly towards [u] before *k* is released, e.g.: *ilē<sup>u</sup>k* “on you”, *fī<sup>u</sup>k* “in you”, *gīfā<sup>u</sup>k* “your neck”. Contrast these with forms followed by 2nd p. sg. fem. suffixes: *ilēk*, *fīk* and *gīfāk*.

When lip-rounding is already present, there appears to be a slight difference in the pronunciation of *uḅūk* “your (sg. masc.) father” and *uḅūk*

“your (sg. fem.) father”; the long vowel *ū* preceding *ḵ* is more tense than *ū* preceding *k*.<sup>71</sup>

\*<sup>3</sup> Like most in Bedouin dialects of Sinai<sup>72</sup> we find stressed suffixes *-ī* and *-nī* for the 1st p. sg. com. Unstressed *-i* and *-ni* also occur.

\*<sup>4</sup> Parallel to independent pronominals, the 3rd p. pl. masc. suffix is formed with *-w*, rather than with *-m* (although a few instances with final *-m* were recorded).

For the development of second person pronominal suffixes *-ḵ* and *-k* see NOTE in 3.1.12.2. in the preceding chapter.

### 3.1.13. *Demonstratives*

#### 3.1.13.1. *Near and far deixis*

Near deixis\*<sup>2</sup>:

	sg.	pl.
masc.	( <i>hā</i> ) <i>dāḵ</i> * <sup>1</sup>	( <i>hā</i> ) <i>dill(ih)</i> * <sup>2</sup>
fem.	( <i>hā</i> ) <i>dīy</i>	( <i>hā</i> ) <i>dillih</i> / <i>dillēl(ih)</i> * <sup>2</sup>

Forms without initial *hā*- are much more regular than in group I.

Far deixis\*<sup>2</sup>:

	sg.	pl.
masc.	( <i>hā</i> ) <i>dāḵ(ah)</i>	( <i>hā</i> ) <i>dállaḵ(ah)</i> * <sup>2</sup>
fem.	( <i>hā</i> ) <i>dīk(ah)</i>	

\*<sup>1</sup> In pause often *dih* or *dī*.

\*<sup>2</sup> The forms listed here with initial *hā* are current in BWA, but occur only sporadically in MzA. Another pl. form recorded in MzA was *hādēlah*. For presence / absence of velarization in these forms, see remarks \*<sup>2</sup> and \*<sup>4</sup> in chapter I, 3.1.13.1.

To express “there he/she is (lit.: has come)” or “there they are (masc./fem.) (lit. have come)” a prefix *hē*- precedes the personal pronominals, as in *hēhū ḡi!* “there he is!”, *hēhī ḡāt* “there she is!”, *hēhuwwa ḡuw* “there they (masc.) are!”, *hēhinnah ḡin* “there they (fem.) are!”.

<sup>71</sup> These remarks are based on mere impressions, not on precise machine-aided measurements.

<sup>72</sup> See De Jong (2000:3.1.12.2. of ch. I–III) and (2003:163).

3.1.13.2. *Specifying ha-*

Specifying *ha-*, which is especially current in group I dialects (see De Jong 2000:172–173), was heard only in *halh̄in* (~ *halh̄init* in MzA) “now” and once in *halyōm* “today” (the latter only recorded in BWA).

3.1.14. *Interrogatives*

*m̄in* is used independently for “who?”, but another possibility to enquire after someone’s identity is *min* (with a short vowel) in combination with a pron. suff., as in *min hū-h-intih?* “who are you?”.

“What?” is *ēš?* (~ much less often *ēh*); “why?” is *lēh?* (both in sentence-initial, as well as sentence-final position); “where?” is *wēn?*; “when?” is *mitēh?* or *wagtēš?*; “how?” is *kēf?*; “how much?” is *gaddēš?*; *kam* + sg.? is “how many?”, *yāt bēt* “which house?” and *yāt bint* “which girl?”.

3.1.15. *Adverbs*3.1.15.1. *Adverbs: “there”, “over there (far away)”, “here”, “thus”, “now”, “still”, “afterwards, after that”*

“Here” is *nihā*(‘) or *nihāniy*\* in MzA and *hniy* in BWA (*fi hāda* is also used), “there” is *hnuh* or *hnūtiy* (*fi hādāk* is also used), *gād* (with open *ā*) is used for “over there (far away)”. “Thus” is *kidiy* or often *kidiyyih* (and less often *kidiyyāniy*), “now” is *halh̄in* (~ *halh̄init* in MzA), “still” is *l issā* and “afterwards, after that” is *ba’adēn*.

\* When *min* precedes *nihā*’, one syllable is haplogically dropped, e.g. *im̄šin mi-nhā*’ or *mi-nhāniy* “go away (pl. fem.) from here!”.

3.1.15.2. *“maybe”*

For “maybe” no forms based on the root *x-w-f* (for undesirable possibilities, e.g. *xāfallah*, see De Jong 2000:177) or *k-w-d* (for positive possibilities, *kūd* see *ibid.* 178) were recorded, but only *yimkin*.

3.1.15.3. *billhayl “very, extremely”*

*b ilhayl* “very, extremely” is often used in BWA to qualify an adjective, e.g. *iw ḥāliyyan fi liyyām hādīy fi Sīnah māhuw kaṭīrīn [...] miš kaṭīrīn b ilhayl...* “And now, these days, they are not many in Sinai [...] They are not very many...”. Another example is [...] *iw zayy kidiy b idēḥk, bitgaṭṭī’... alkā’akih w tufurukha w biḥuṭṭ’ ālēha lēha... issamin iw lāha ḥilwih b ilhayl...* “and like this with your hands you break the cookie to pieces and crumble it. And you add, put ghee on it, and (then) it is extremely tasty...”.

## 3.1.15.4. bišwēš “slowly, carefully”

The adverb *bišwēš* was not recorded in MzA or BWA. Instead, a construction like *šwayyih šwayyih* is current.

## 3.1.15.5. min xawf “lest”

*min xawf* in the sense of “lest” (see De Jong 2000:179) was not recorded.

## 3.1.16. Prepositions + pers. pronominal suffixes

In BWA the pron. suffix for the 2nd p. sg. fem. *-k* co-occurs with *-kiy*, e.g. *fik ~ fikiy* “in you (sg. fem)”. and also *lik ~ likiy* “to you (sg. fem.)”.

In direct elicitation, the *-ak* suffix was also recorded for the 2nd p. sg. masc., though in spontaneous texts only *-ʔk* or *-uk* was heard.

Suffixed prepositions in MzA are:

<i>li</i> + * <sup>1</sup>		ʿ <i>ala</i> + * <sup>2</sup>		<i>m(i)</i> ʿ + * <sup>3</sup>	
<i>luh</i>	<i>lēhuw</i>	ʿ <i>ilēh</i>	<i>ʿilēhuw</i>	<i>mʿuh</i>	<i>miḥhuw</i>
<i>lēha</i>	<i>lēhin</i>	ʿ <i>ilēha</i>	<i>ʿilēhin</i>	<i>miḥha</i>	<i>miḥhin</i>
<i>luḵ</i>	<i>lēʔkuw</i>	ʿ <i>ilēʔk</i>	<i>ʿilēʔkuw</i>	<i>mʿuk</i>	<i>miʿkuw</i>
<i>lik</i>	<i>lēkin</i>	ʿ <i>ilēk</i>	<i>ʿilēkin</i>	<i>mʿik</i>	<i>miʿkin</i>
<i>lay(y)</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>lēna</i>	ʿ <i>alay(y)</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>ʿilēna</i>	<i>mʿī</i>	<i>miʿna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> The paradigm is mixed; forms like *lēʔk* and *lēh* are much less frequently used than *luḵ* and *luh*. A similar paradigm is used for *b* +. The suffixed proposition *l*+ may be enclitically suffixed, e.g. *ḡāluḵ* “he came to you”, *gultilhi* “I said to her” (notice that the form is not *lēha*), *aḥsāl-luḵ* “it is best for you” (assimilated *aḥsan* + *luḵ*), but this is not always the case, as may be concluded from stress in e.g. *ḡālat luh* “she said to him”, *tfakkir luh* “you look at him” (i.e. these examples are not stressed *ḡālāt-luh* and *tfakkir-luh*, which would be the forms in case of enclitic suffixing).

In BWA the short base instead of the forms with *ē* is more current: *lha*, *lhuw*, *lhin*, *lkuw*, *lkin* and *lna*.

\*<sup>2</sup> Raising of short *a* to *i* in open syllables preceding stressed *ē* (as indicated here) is optional, but very regular.

BWA forms are the same, though raising of *a* in these positions is much less regular than in MzA.

As independent prepositions both ʿ*ala* and ʿ*a* (not only when preceding the article) are current.

\*<sup>3</sup> The short vowel *i* is dropped when vowel-initial suffixes follow (including *-uk* and *-ik*), but stressed when consonant-initial suffixes are involved and ʿ and *h* reciprocally assimilate to become *ḥh*.

\*<sup>4</sup> For a remark on *lay* and ʿ*aláy*, see 1.2.4.1.

In BWA forms are the same.

<i>fi</i> +		<i>fōg</i> +* <sup>1</sup>		<i>min</i> +* <sup>2</sup>	
<i>fih</i>	<i>fihuw</i>	<i>fōguh</i>	<i>fōghuw</i>	<i>minnuh</i>	<i>minhuw</i>
<i>fihā</i>	<i>fihin</i>	<i>fōgha</i>	<i>fōghin</i>	<i>minha</i>	<i>minhin</i>
<i>fī<sup>u</sup>ḱ</i>	<i>fī<sup>u</sup>ḱuw</i>	<i>fōg<sup>u</sup>ḱ</i>	<i>fōgḱuw</i>	<i>minnuḱ</i>	<i>minḱuw</i>
<i>fīḱ</i>	<i>fīkin</i>	<i>fōg<sup>i</sup>ḱ</i>	<i>fōgkin</i>	<i>minnik</i>	<i>minkin</i>
<i>fay(y)</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>fina</i>	<i>fōgī</i>	<i>fōgna</i>	<i>minnī</i>	<i>minna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Alternatively one can say *min ḥardī* “above me” *min ḥarduḱ* “above you (sg. masc.)”, etc.<sup>73</sup>

\*<sup>2</sup> Notice here that the *n* is doubled preceding the short vowels in the suffixes *-uḱ* and *-ik*, which indicates that the vowels of these allomorphs are not merely anaptyctic vowels.

\*<sup>3</sup> *fay* must have developed in analogy to *lay* and *‘aláy*, see remark above.

The preposition *min* is usually stressed in the compounds *mín-taḥat* “from below”, *mín-kiḏiy* “from this”.

<i>warā</i> +		<i>‘ind</i> +	
<i>warāh</i>	<i>warāhuw</i>	<i>‘induh</i>	<i>‘induhuw</i> * <sup>2</sup>
<i>warāha</i>	<i>warāhin</i>	<i>‘indaha</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>‘indihin</i> * <sup>2</sup>
<i>warā<sup>u</sup>ḱ</i>	<i>warāḱuw</i>	<i>‘induḱ</i>	<i>‘induḱuw</i> * <sup>2</sup>
<i>warāk</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>warākin</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>‘indik</i>	<i>‘indikin</i> * <sup>2</sup>
<i>warāy</i>	<i>warāna</i>	<i>‘indī</i>	<i>‘indina</i> * <sup>2</sup>

\*<sup>1</sup> In the forms for the 2nd p. fem. the velarization created by the preceding *r* is gradually lost during articulation of the following *ā*. Thus an opposition between *warā<sup>u</sup>ḱ* and *warāk* is maintained.

\*<sup>2</sup> Notice that the allomorphs used with this preposition are all vowel-initial.

### 3.1.17. Numerals and counted plurals

#### 3.1.17.1. Cardinal numbers 1–10

Independent cardinal numbers are (forms that precede counted nouns follow in brackets): *wāhid* / *wiḥdih*\*<sup>1</sup>, *tnēn* / *tintēn*\*<sup>2</sup>, *ṭalāṭih* (*ṭalāt* or *ṭalāt*), *aṛba‘ah* (*aṛba‘*), *xamsih* (*xams*), *sittih* (*sitt*), *sab‘ih* (*sab‘*), *ṭamānyih* (*ṭamān* or *ṭamān*), *tis‘ih* (*tis‘*), *‘aṣaṛah* (*‘aṣaṛ*).

<sup>73</sup> Šuqayr (1916:341), however, lists *ḥard* in the meaning of *bi ḡānib* “beside”.

\*<sup>1</sup> *wāḥid* and *wiḥdih* may follow the counted noun as adjectives for extra emphasis, e.g. *walad wāḥid* “one boy” and *bint wiḥdih* “one girl”.

\*<sup>2</sup> *tnēn* and *ṭintēn* may follow the counted dual form of the noun as adjectives for extra emphasis, e.g. *waladēn itnēn* “two boys” and *īdēy ittintēn* or *īdēy ṭintēnhin* “my two hands”.

Some plural forms of nouns are counted with proclitic *t-* (a remnant of the fem. morpheme in construct state), e.g. ‘*ašar t-infār* “ten people”, *ṭalat t-īyyām* “three days”.

### 3.1.17.2. Ordinal numbers 1–10

Only three ordinals were recorded: *awwil*, *tāniy*, *tālīt*.

### 3.1.17.3. Numerals: *n* and up

*ḥidāšir*, *itnāšir*, *ṭalatāšir*, *aṛbaṭāšir*, *xamištāšir*, *sittāšir*, *sabaṭāšir*, *ṭamanāšir*, *tisiṭāšir*, *isrīn*, *ṭalātīn*, *aṛbīn*, *xamsīn*, *sittīn*, *sabīn*, *ṭamanīn*, *tisīn*, *miyyih*, *miyytēn*, *tultmiyyih*, *rubīmiyyih*, *xumsmiyyih*, *suttmiyyih*, *subīmiyyih*, *tuminmiyyih*, *tusiṣmiyyih*, *alf*, *alfēn*, *ṭalat t-ālāf*, *xamis t-ālāf*, *aṛba t-ālāf*, *sitt t-ālāf*, *sabī t-ālāf*, *ṭaman t-ālāf*, *tisi t-ālāf*, ‘*ašar t-ālāf*, *miyyit alf*, *miyytēn alf*, *malyūn*.

### 3.1.18. The dual

Suffixing *-ēn* or *-ayn* to the sg. form of a noun forms the dual, e.g. *šahaṛayn* “two months”, *sbūayn* “two weeks”, *nōayn* “two kinds” and *-ēn* (in neutral environments) ‘*aṛabiyytēn* “two cars”, *miyytēn* “two hundred”, *rikibtēn* “two knees”, *sanatēn* “two years”, *bintēn* “two girls”.

Older forms of the dual are used in expressions for body parts, e.g. *riḡlēy* “my (two) legs” and *riḡlē<sup>u</sup>ḳ* “my (two) hands” and *īdēy* “my (two) hands” and *īdē<sup>u</sup>ḳ* “your (two) hands”.

## 3.2. Verbal Morphology

### 3.2.1. Regular verbs

#### 3.2.1.1. Regular verbs perfect

In all vowel-types of the perfect and imperfect, the 2nd and 3rd p. pl. masc. ending is *-uw*, the 2nd and 3rd p. pl. fem. ending is *-in* (including the *a-* and *i-* types of the tertiae infirmae) and the ending of the 3rd p. sg. fem. is *-at* (except in the verb ‘come’, see below).<sup>74</sup>

<sup>74</sup> These are differences with group I dialects (see De Jong 2000: several paragraphs under 3.2. in chapter I.

Perfects of measure 1 verbs come in three types:  $C_1 a C_2 a C_3$ ,  $C_1 i C_2 i C_3$  and  $C_1 u C_2 u C_3$ . The paradigms are:

		<i>a</i> -type perfect* <sup>1</sup>		<i>i</i> -type perfect* <sup>3</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>kitáb</i>	<i>kátabuw</i>	<i>šírīb</i>	<i>šírībuw</i>
	fem.	<i>kátabat</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>kátabin</i>	<i>šírībat</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>šírībin</i>
2. masc.		<i>kitábt</i>	<i>kitábtuw</i>	<i>šírībt</i>	<i>šírībtuw</i> * <sup>5</sup>
	fem.	<i>kitábtīy</i>	<i>kitábtin</i>	<i>šírībtīy</i>	<i>šírībtin</i>
1. com.		<i>kitábt</i>	<i>kitábna</i>	<i>šírībt</i>	<i>šírībna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Notice that *a* (in the first syllable) is raised to *i* in pre-stress syllables. In a labial environment raising of unstressed *a* in the first syllable tends to be towards *u*, as in *wugáft* ‘I stopped’ and *wugáftin* ‘you (pl. fem.) stopped’, but *wágafat* ‘she stopped’ and *wágafin* ‘they (pl. fem.) stopped’.

\*<sup>2</sup> When suffixed with a vowel-initial suffix forms are: *kátbitu* or *kátabatu* ‘she wrote it (sg. masc.)’. The latter form may be due to influence from one of the neighbouring dialects (such as TAN), where the form is not resyllabified.

\*<sup>3</sup> The short high vowel *i* of the first syllable is actually underlying |a| and is therefore not dropped in open pre-stress syllables. This underlying |a| does not ‘reappear’ in closed syllables (in contrast with reappearing |a| in some –not all– of the dialects of group I).

\*<sup>4</sup> Notice that the ending here is *-at* in the *i*-type perfect, not *-it* (contrasting with surrounding dialect groups).

\*<sup>5</sup> ‘Almost’ *šírībtum*: one of my informants had a tendency to almost close his lips (approximating I.P.A. [m]) when articulating *w* of pl. verbal endings; one had to look carefully to see that he was not actually producing *m*, because it often sounded as such, also because of the high degree of nasalisation which accompanied his realisation of such final *wāw*<sup>75</sup> (see also remarks on the situation in ḤmA (of group VII) and ‘LA (group VIII) in 3.2.1.1. of the preceding chapter).

### 3.2.1.2. *Regular verbs imperfect*

Like in many dialects in Sinai, the imperfect is characterized by vowel harmony in the verbal prefixes. Another interesting feature is that this vowel harmony has spread through the entire paradigm and that it includes the 1st. p. com. sg. This accounts for the absence of initial *a-* in

<sup>75</sup> This is reminiscent of verbal endings in group II of northern Sinai, see De Jong (2000:3.2. of chapter II). See also remarks in 3.2. above.

the 1st. p. sg. com. of *i*- and *u*-type imperfects, which we do find in many other dialect groups (see 3.2.1.2. of the various chapters).

There are three imperfect patterns:  $yaC_1C_2CaC_3$ ,  $yuC_1C_2CuC_3$  and  $yiC_1C_2iC_3$ , all of which are characterized by vowel harmony in the prefixes:

		<i>a</i> -type imperfect* <sup>1</sup>		<i>i</i> -type imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>yáṣṣrab</i>	<i>yáṣṣrabuw</i>	<i>yíktib</i>	<i>yíkitbuw</i>
	fem.	<i>táṣṣrab</i>	<i>yáṣṣrabin</i>	<i>tíktib</i>	<i>yíkitbin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>táṣṣrab</i>	<i>táṣṣrabuw</i>	<i>tíktib</i>	<i>tíkitbuw</i>
	fem.	<i>táṣṣrabiy</i>	<i>táṣṣrabin</i>	<i>tíktibiy</i>	<i>tíkitbin</i>
1.	com.	<i>áṣṣrab</i>	<i>náṣṣrab</i>	<i>íktib</i>	<i>níktib</i>
		<i>u</i> -type imperfect* <sup>2</sup>			
		sg.	pl.		
3.	masc.	<i>yúḍrub</i>	<i>yúḍrubuw</i>		
	fem.	<i>tuḍrub</i>	<i>yúḍrubin</i>		
2.	masc.	<i>tuḍrub</i>	<i>túḍrubuw</i>		
	fem.	<i>túḍrubiy</i>	<i>túḍrubin</i>		
1.	com.	<i>uḍrub</i>	<i>nuḍrub</i>		

\*<sup>1</sup> Notice the lack of vowel harmony in the endings of 2 sg. fem., 2 pl. masc. and fem. and 3 pl. masc. and fem. (in contrast with group I).<sup>76</sup>

\*<sup>2</sup> In the *u*-type—provided velarization is lacking—the anaptyctic vowel in the imperfect forms tends to vary, i.e. either *i* or *u*. One may hear e.g. *túgu' duw* as well as *túgi' duw* for “you (pl. masc.) sit”, but in velarized forms the anaptyctic *u* is regular, like in the paradigm listed here.

Measure 1 verbs with  $C_1 = X$  have the following paradigms:

		<i>i</i> -type* <sup>1</sup> imperfect* <sup>2</sup>		<i>a</i> -type imperfect* <sup>2</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>yáḥarīt</i>	<i>yáḥartuw</i>	<i>yá'arag</i>	<i>yá'araguw</i>
	fem.	<i>táḥarīt</i>	<i>yáḥartin</i>	<i>tá'arag</i>	<i>yá'aragin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>táḥarīt</i>	<i>táḥartuw</i>	<i>tá'arag</i>	<i>tá'araguw</i>
	fem.	<i>táḥarīty</i>	<i>táḥartin</i>	<i>tá'aragiy</i>	<i>tá'aragin</i>
1.	com.	<i>áḥarīt</i>	<i>náḥarīt</i>	<i>á'arag</i>	<i>ná'arag</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Notice that the lack of vowel harmony in *i*-type imperfects like *yáḥarīt* implies that, from a historical perspective, the gahawah-rule must be understood to ante-date the rule for vowel harmony (hence forms like e.g. *yíḥrīt* are not heard in these dialects).

<sup>76</sup> See De Jong 2000:190–191.

\*<sub>2</sub> Perfect *ḥarát* like *katáb* (see 3.2.1.1.). My BWA informant articulated *sīn* instead of *tā'*, e.g. *yáḥaris* and *yáḥarsuw*, etc.

\*<sub>3</sub> Perfect *'iríg* like *simí'* (see 3.2.1.1.).

Active participles are: *hārit*, *hārtih*, *hārtīn*, *hārtāt*.

Active participles of the type  $C_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (etc.) for the verb *'iríg*, *yá'arag* are not really used, instead for "sweating" one may hear: *'argān*, *'argānih*, *'argānīn*, *'argānāt*.

### 3.2.1.3. Reflexes of older \* $C_1aC_2uC_3$ , \* $yaC_1C_2uC_3$

		u-type perfect* <sub>1</sub>	
		sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>kubur</i>	<i>kubruw</i>
	fem.	<i>kubrat</i> * <sub>2</sub>	<i>kubrun</i> * <sub>3</sub>
2. masc.		<i>kuburt</i>	<i>kuburtuw</i>
	fem.	<i>kuburtiy</i>	<i>kuburtin</i>
1. com.		<i>kuburt</i>	<i>kuburna</i>

\*<sub>1</sub> The Classical Arabic 'Eigenschaften' verb-type (which expresses a certain characteristic)  $C_1aC_2uC_3a$ ,  $yaC_1C_2uC_3u$  has  $C_1uC_2uC_3$ ,  $yuC_1C_2uC_3$  reflexes (imperfect paradigm like *yudrub*, see 3.2.1.2.). Notice that, like in reflexes of C.A. \* $C_1aC_2iC_3a$  (such as, e.g., *širib*), the high vowel of the first syllable of the perfect is not dropped in unstressed positions (so not e.g. *·kuburt* for "I grew"). We may conclude therefore that also in the case of  $C_1uC_2uC_3$  perfects, the *u* of the first syllable is actually underlying |a| (i.e. like *i* in the first syllable of  $C_1iC_2iC_3$  perfects, see \*<sub>3</sub> in 3.2.1.1.).

Other *u*-type perfects are: *tuxunt* "I became fat", *hī ḡulḡat* "she became fat", *hinnih ḡulḡin* "they (fem.) became fat", *iddinyah sux<sup>u</sup>nat* "the weather became hot" (for superscript <sup>u</sup>, see 2.2.2.3.) and *innās kuṭruw* "people became many".

\*<sub>2</sub> Notice the ending *-at* here, cf. remark \*<sub>4</sub> in 3.2.1.1. above.

\*<sub>3</sub> Notice that the vowel of the ending *-in* colours with the preceding vowels (> *-un*).<sup>77</sup>

### 3.2.1.4. Regular verbs participles

Active participles are formed with the patterns  $C_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (sg. masc.)  $C_1\bar{a}C_2C_3ah/-ih$  (sg. fem.),  $C_1\bar{a}C_2C_3īn$  (pl. masc.)  $C_1\bar{a}C_2C_3āt$  (pl. fem.).

<sup>77</sup> Similar colouring was noticed in the imperfect form *yukburun*, recorded in the dialect of the Rmēlāt in the north, see De Jong:2000:191.

When the sg. fem. participle is suffixed with an object, it is in construct state with this suffix. Examples are: *bānīytuh* “having built it (sg. masc.)”, *hī mīhī ‘āyīztuh* “she does not want/love him”.

### 3.2.1.5. Regular verbs imperatives

Imperatives of regular verbs have a harmonized initial vowel, while endings are like those in the imperfect paradigm, e.g. *ásma‘*, *ásma‘iy*, *ásma‘uw*, *ásma‘in* “listen!”, *úḍrub*, *úḍrubīy*, *úḍrubuw*, *úḍrubin* “hit!” and *íktib*, *íktibīy*, *íktibuw*, *íktibin* “write!”.

### 3.2.2. Irregular and other verbs

#### 3.2.2.1. Verbs $C_1 = w$ (primae wāw)

Imperfect paradigms of verbs with *wāw* as  $C_1$  are:

		<i>i</i> -type*		<i>a</i> -type	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>yōrid</i>	<i>yōrduw</i>	<i>yōgaf</i>	<i>yōgafuw</i>
	fem.	<i>tōrid</i>	<i>yōrdin</i>	<i>tōgaf</i>	<i>yōgafin</i>
2. masc.		<i>tōrid</i>	<i>tōrduw</i>	<i>tōgaf</i>	<i>tōgafuw</i>
	fem.	<i>tōrdīy</i>	<i>tōrdin</i>	<i>tōgafiy</i>	<i>tōgafin</i>
1. com.		<i>ōrid</i>	<i>nōrid</i>	<i>ōgaf</i>	<i>nōgaf</i>

\* The *ō* in this paradigm reflects older *a* in the preformatives of *i*-type imperfects as well, as in e.g. \**yawrid*, and these are presumably older than the forms with harmonized vowels like e.g. *yiktib*. Diphthongal preformatives were not recorded.

The imperfect of the verb “light, kindle” was recorded as *yōgid*.

The perfects of prima *wāw* verbs are  $C_1iC_2iC_3$  or  $C_1aC_2aC_3$  (see above).

The imperatives are:

		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
masc.		<i>ōrid</i>	<i>ōrduw</i>	<i>ōgaf</i>	<i>ōgafuw</i>
	fem.	<i>ōrdīy</i>	<i>ōrdin</i>	<i>ōgafiy</i>	<i>ōgafin</i>

The imperative *áw‘a* was said to occur in that form only (i.e. uninflected for number or gender): “mind your head(s)!” is thus:

		sg.	pl.
masc.		<i>áw‘a rās‘k</i>	<i>áw‘a rūsķuw</i>
	fem.	<i>áw‘a rās‘k</i>	<i>áw‘a rūsķin</i>

Participles:

Active participles have a  $C_1āC_2iC_3$  pattern, e.g. (with velarized first syllables) *wāgīf*, *wāgīfh*, *wāgīfn*, *wāgīfāt* “standing”.

The passive participle for the root *w-ǧ-d* was recorded as *mawǧūd* (see 1.2.4.1.).

### 3.2.2.2. Verbs $C_1 = y$ (*primae yā'*)

The only verb recorded with  $C_1 = y$  is *yibis, yēbas* “dry (intrans.)”.

### 3.2.2.3. Verbs $C_1 = '$ (*primae hamzah*)

The two verbs “eat” and “take” have similar conjugations. The perfect and imperfect paradigms for “eat” are:

	perfect		imperfect	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>akál</i>	<i>ákaluw</i>	<i>yākil</i>	<i>yākluw</i>
fem.	<i>ákalat</i>	<i>ákalin</i>	<i>tākil</i>	<i>yāklin</i>
2. masc.	<i>akalt</i>	<i>akaltuw</i>	<i>tākil</i>	<i>tākluw</i>
fem.	<i>akaltiy</i>	<i>akaltin</i>	<i>tāklīy</i>	<i>tāklin</i>
1. com.	<i>akalt</i>	<i>akalne</i>	<i>ākil</i>	<i>nākil</i>

Active participles are: *mākil, māklīh, māklīn, māklāt*. Past participles are *māxūd, -ah, -āt, -īn*, which is also used meaning “daft”.

Imperatives are (these forms are considerably velarized): *ḫud, ḫdīy, ḫduw* and *ḫdīn*. Also *ḫul, ḫlīy, ḫluw, ḫlīn*. Notice the absence of stressed initial *u-* in these forms; an unstressed *u-* may precede in forms like (here in superscript) “*ḫ<sup>u</sup>dīy* and “*ḫ<sup>u</sup>luw*, but is then—as should be concluded from its lack of stress—a mere anaptyctic vowel.

The verbal nominal is *wakl* “eating” and the passive verb “be eaten” is *ánwikal, yínwikil*.

### 3.2.2.4. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*)

A characteristic of southern dialects is the short base vowel in the 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect and imperative forms. In MzA and BWA these co-occur with forms with a long base vowel, but in BWA forms with the long base vowel are more current than those with a short vowel.

Perfect and imperfect forms of *mediae infirmae* are:

$C_2 = w$		“get up”			
	perfect		imperfect		
	sg.	pl.	sg.		pl.
3. masc.	<i>gāṇ</i>	<i>gāṇuw</i>	<i>ygūṇ</i>		<i>ygūṇuw</i>
fem.	<i>gāṇat</i>	<i>gāṇin</i>	<i>tgūṇ</i>		<i>ygūṇin</i>
2. masc.	<i>gumt</i>	<i>gumtuw</i>	<i>tgūṇ / t(u)gūṇ</i>		<i>tgūṇuw</i>
fem.	<i>gumtiy</i>	<i>gumtin</i>	<i>tgūṇiy</i>		<i>tgūṇin</i>
1. com.	<i>gumt</i>	<i>gumna</i>	<i>ugūṇ</i>		<i>ngūṇ</i>

Participles are: *gāyim*, *gāymih*, *gāymīn*, *gāymāt* (no velarization).

The verb *šāf*, *yšūf* was recorded in MzA with short vowel *u*, as in *šuft*, as well as with *i*, as in *šift* “I saw”.

		“sleep”			
		perfect*		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>nām</i>	<i>nāmuw</i>	<i>ynām</i>	<i>ynāmuw</i>
	fem.	<i>nāmat</i>	<i>nāmin</i>	<i>tnām</i>	<i>tnāmin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>nimt</i>	<i>nimtuw</i>	<i>tnām / t(a)nām</i>	<i>tnāmuw</i>
	fem.	<i>nimtiy</i>	<i>nimtin</i>	<i>tnāmīy</i>	<i>tnāmin</i>
1.	com.	<i>nimt</i>	<i>nimne</i>	<i>anām</i>	<i>nnām</i>

Participles: *nāyim*, *nāymih*, *nāymīn*, *nāymāt*.

		“carry”			
		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>šāl</i>	<i>šāluw</i>	<i>yšīl</i>	<i>yšīluw</i>
	fem.	<i>šālat</i>	<i>šālin</i>	<i>tšīl</i>	<i>yšīlin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>šīlt</i>	<i>šīltuw</i>	<i>tšīl / t(i)šīl</i>	<i>tšīluw</i>
	fem.	<i>šīltiy</i>	<i>šīltin</i>	<i>tšīliy</i>	<i>tšīlin</i>
1.	com.	<i>šīlt</i>	<i>šīlna</i>	<i>išīl</i>	<i>nšīl</i>

N.B. Where there is variation in group I dialects between the 3rd p. sg. masc. forms *biyšīl* and *bišīl*, both meaning “he carries” (see De Jong 2000:199), in group VI a form like *bišīl* “he carries” (after reduction of the diphthong *iy > i*) has become homophonous with the form for the 1st p. sg. com. “I carry”.

#### 3.2.2.4.2. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*) imperatives

Like in the imperfect, imperatives of the 2nd p. sg. masc. often have short base vowels and may have a short vowel preceding, as in *šīl* “carry!”, *ugūṃ* “get up!”. Examples are: *nām*, *nāmīy*, *nāmuw*, *nāmin*, *gūṃ* / *ugūṃ*, *gūṃīy*, *gūṃuw*, *gūṃin*.

Imperatives used with the verb *ǧāb*, *yǧīb* are: *hāt*, *hātiy*, *hātuw*, *hātin*.

#### 3.2.2.4.3. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*) participles

Active participles of measure 1 are formed with the patterns  $C_1\ddot{a}y_iC_3$ ,  $C_1\ddot{a}yC_3ih$ ,  $C_1\ddot{a}yC_3in$  and  $C_1\ddot{a}yC_3āt$ .

A passive participle is *mašyūl* etc.

3.2.2.5. Verbs  $C_3 = y$  (*tertiaef infirmae*)3.2.2.5.1. Verbs  $C_3 = y$  (*tertiaef infirmae*) perfect

Below two paradigms are listed of perfects of *tertiaef infirma* verbs that are actually mixed; some forms originate from the *a*-type perfect, while other forms in the same paradigm are originally *i*-type forms:

In MzA the following paradigms were elicited:

	“forget”		“go, walk”	
	<i>i</i> -type perfect		<i>a</i> -type perfect* <sup>2</sup>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>nisiʻ</i>	<i>nisyuw</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>mišʻ</i>	<i>mišyuw</i>
fem.	<i>nisyat</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>nisyin</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>mišyat</i>	<i>mišyin</i>
2. masc.	<i>nisīt</i>	<i>nisītuw</i>	<i>mišēt</i>	<i>mišētuw</i>
fem.	<i>nisītiy</i>	<i>nisītin</i>	<i>mišētiy</i>	<i>mišētīn</i>
1. com.	<i>nisīt</i>	<i>nisīna</i>	<i>mišēt</i>	<i>mišēna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Another informant, however, claimed that forms like *ligyuw* and *ligyin* are not MzA. According to him, proper MzA forms are *ligūw* (< \**laguw*) (a suffixed example is *ligūh*) and *ligīn* (< \**lagin*) (a suffixed example is *ligīn-nuh*) and by analogy one would then also expect *ligāt* for the 3rd p. sg. fem. (< \**lagat*). The 3rd p. sg. masc. form *nisiʻ* (< \**nasā*)—instead of *nisīy*—must then have crossed over from the *a*-type perfect (compare *mišʻ*, see remark below). for the paradigm of the *i*-type elicited in BWA, see below.

\*<sup>2</sup> The verb is listed here as an *a*-type perfect, since *mišʻ* must have developed from \**mašā*, and endings in *-ē* + clearly belong to the *a*-type (for raising of the *a* preceding the stressed *ē* see 1.2.3.4.3.2.), but the endings of the 3rd p. pl. and 3rd p. sg. fem. (i.e. those with *y*) are identical with the *i*-type endings. For similar *a*-type forms recorded in the dialect of Biliy of group I in northern Sinai, see De Jong 2000:201. The forms of the *a*-type perfect in BWA are the same as in MzA.

Suffixed forms are, e.g.: *nisītuh* “I forgot him” and *nisīnāh* “we forgot him”, which are quite straight forward *i*-type, but forms like *nisāh* “he forgot him” and *ligāh* “he found him” point to the *a*-type. Similarly: *hī nisīyituh* or *násatuh* “she forgot him” and *ligyituh* or (less current) *lágatuh* “she found him”. Other examples (with doubling of *n*) in *nisītinnuh* “you (pl. fem.) forgot him” and *nisyinnuh* or (alternatively) *nisinnuh* “they (f.) forgot him” and alternatives like *ligyūh* / *lagūh* (after raising *ligūh*) “they found him”.

Imperatives of *tertiaef yāʻ* verbs are apocopated in the sg. masc., e.g. the verbs *yirmiy* “throw” and *yimšiy*:

	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>irm*</i> / <i>imš</i>	<i>irmuw</i> / <i>imšuw</i>
fem.	<i>irmiy</i> / <i>imšiy</i>	<i>irmin</i> / <i>imšin</i>

\* When followed by a pause or a consonant, an anaptyctic vowel appears, e.g. (underlined): *irm #!* “throw!” and *irmha* “throw it (fem.) away!”.

The paradigm of the *i*-type perfect recorded from BWA informants is almost identical to that of group I, however (De Jong 2000:201).

	“forget”	
	perfect	
	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>nisíy</i>	<i>nisyuw</i>
fem.	<i>nisyat</i>	<i>nisyin</i>
2. masc.	<i>nisīt</i>	<i>nisītuw</i>
fem.	<i>nisītiy</i>	<i>nisītin</i>
1. com.	<i>nisīt</i>	<i>nisīna</i>

N.B. *i* in the first syllable of these verbs is not elided.

### 3.2.2.5.2. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaef infirmae*) imperfect

	“forget”		“go, walk”	
	<i>a</i> -type imperfect*		<i>i</i> -type imperfect	
	sg.	pl.	SG	PL
3. masc.	<i>yansi'</i>	<i>yansuw</i>	<i>yimšiy</i>	<i>yimšuw</i>
fem.	<i>tansi'</i>	<i>yansin</i>	<i>timšiy</i>	<i>yimšin</i>
2. masc.	<i>tans</i>	<i>tansuw</i>	<i>timš /-iy</i>	<i>timšuw</i>
fem.	<i>tansiy</i>	<i>tansin</i>	<i>timšiy</i>	<i>timšin</i>
1. com.	<i>ansi'</i>	<i>nansi'</i>	<i>imšiy</i>	<i>nimšiy</i>

\* Verb forms are listed here in their unsuffixed shapes; when suffixed, *i' > ā*, as in e.g. *yansāhi'* “he forgets her” (contrast with remark in \*2 on treatment of final *-i'* in *ǧi'* “he came” in 3.2.2.6.1.).

N.B. Apocopated *tertiaef infirmae* 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect forms are very regular in group VI. Other examples are *aǧ!abiyyah lliy btalghuw sakanuw fi wiǧih gibil ašŠa'id* “the majority of those you find settled down in the south in Upper Egypt”, *hatlāguh* “you’ll find him”, *aw'a tans!* “don’t you forget!” and *iw biti:ǧluh* “and you boil it (a long time)”.

### 3.2.2.5.3. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaef infirmae*) imperatives

Like apocopated imperfect forms for the 2nd p. sg. masc., apocopated imperative forms for sg. masc. are current, e.g. *irimhi'* “throw it (sg. fem.) away!”, *ansuh* “forget him!”.

3.2.2.5.4. *Verbs C<sub>3</sub> = y (tertiaie infirmae) participles*

Active participles have the patterns C<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>2</sub>iy, C<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>2</sub>yih, C<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>2</sub>yīn and C<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>2</sub>yāt. E.g. *lāgyīy*, *lāgyih*, *lāgyīn*, *lāgyāt* “having found”.

3.2.2.5.5. *Verbs C<sub>3</sub> = y (tertiaie infirmae) verbal nouns*

No instances of verbal nouns of tertiaie infirmae were recorded.

3.2.2.6. *The verb “come”*3.2.2.6.1. *The verb “come” perfect and imperfect*

		“come”			
		perfect* <sup>1</sup>		imperfect* <sup>1</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>ǧī</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>ǧuw</i>	<i>yǧǧīy</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>yǧǧūw</i>
	fem.	<i>ǧāt</i>	<i>ǧīn</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>tǧǧīy</i>	<i>yǧǧīn</i>
2. masc.		<i>ǧīt</i>	<i>ǧītuw</i>	<i>tǧǧīy</i> * <sup>5</sup>	<i>tǧǧūw</i>
	fem.	<i>ǧītiy</i>	<i>ǧītin</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>tǧǧīy</i>	<i>tǧǧīn</i>
1. com.		<i>ǧīt</i>	<i>ǧīne</i> <sup>7</sup>	<i>iǧǧīy</i> * <sup>6</sup>	<i>niǧǧīy</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Apart from stress in the imperfect paradigm, these forms are reminiscent of forms heard in the dialect of Biliy (see De Jong 2000:204).

\*<sup>2</sup> But when suffixed: *hū ǧānī* “he came to me”, but both *hū ǧā<sup>u</sup>k* and *hū ǧī<sup>u</sup>k* (i.e. not with IPA [i:], but with lengthened [1]: [dʒi:ˈk]) were heard for “he came to you (sg. masc.)” and also *hū ǧī:k* (IPA [dʒi:k]) “he came to you (sg. fem.)”.

\*<sup>3</sup> *n* is doubled when followed by a vowel-initial pronominal suffix, as in *tǧǧīnnu fi dāruh* and *ǧītīnnu fi dāruh*, and also doubling of the *n* when followed by a consonant-initial suffix, including those of the 2nd p. sg.: *ǧīnnuḵ / ǧīnnik* “they (fem.) came to you sg. masc. / sg. fem.”.

\*<sup>4</sup> In rapid speech *byǧǧīy* may be realized as *biǧǧīy*, making it homophonous with the form for 1st p. sg. com., e.g. *fi ṣṣayf biǧǧīy riḥ kiṭīr*, *iw fiḥ fi lmašti<sup>7</sup> byǧǧīy riḥ kiṭīr* “in summer a lot of wind comes, and there are (times also) in winter that a lot of wind comes”.

\*<sup>5</sup> Notice the apocopated imperfect form for the 2nd. p. sg. masc., which is in complete conformity with the treatment of tertia yā<sup>7</sup> verbs.

\*<sup>6</sup> The form *aǧǧīy* came out through direct elicitation in MzA, but the form *iǧǧīy* is more logical and was indeed recorded regularly in MzA and also in BWA.

3.2.2.6.2. *The verb “come” imperatives*

Imperatives used with the verb “come” are: *ta<sup>7</sup>āl*, *ta<sup>7</sup>āliy*, *ta<sup>7</sup>āluw*, *ta<sup>7</sup>ālin*.

3.2.2.6.3. *The verb “come” participles*

Participles of the verb “come” are: *ġāy*, *ġāyih*, *ġāyīn*, *ġāyāt*.

3.2.2.7. *Verbs  $C_2 = C_3$  (mediae geminatae)*3.2.2.7.1. *Verbs  $C_2 = C_3$  (mediae geminatae) perfect and imperfect*

		“stretch”			
		perfect*		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>madd</i>	<i>madduw</i>	<i>ymidd</i>	<i>ymidduw</i>
	fem.	<i>maddat</i>	<i>maddin</i>	<i>tmidd</i>	<i>ymiddin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>middēt</i>	<i>middētuw</i>	<i>tmidd</i>	<i>tmidduw</i>
	fem.	<i>middētīy</i>	<i>middētīn</i>	<i>tmiddiy</i>	<i>tmiddin</i>
1.	com.	<i>middēt</i>	<i>middēna</i>	<i>imidd</i>	<i>nmidd</i>

\* Raising of *a* in closed syllable preceding stressed *ē* is regular (like in the dialect of Biliy of group I in the north and also in groups II<sup>78</sup> and VII. See also remark to the perfect paradigm in 3.2.3.5.2.

When the geminate is velarized, the *ē* of the ending is diphthongal *ay*, as in e.g. *ħaṭṭayt* “I placed”. *a* in closed syllable preceding *ay* is not raised. When the geminate is velarized, the imperfect usually has *u* as a base vowel, e.g. *yħuṭṭ* “place”.

3.2.2.7.2. *Verbs  $C_2 = C_3$  (mediae geminatae) imperatives*

Imperatives of mediae geminate verbs are e.g. *šidd*, *šiddiy*, *šidduw*, *šiddin* “pull!” and with base vowel *u*: *ħuṭṭ*, *ħuṭṭiy*, *ħuṭṭuw*, *ħuṭṭin* “place!”.

3.2.2.7.3. *Verbs  $C_2 = C_3$  (mediae geminatae)*

Active participles geminate verbs are e.g.: *mādd*, *māddih*, *māddīn*, *māddāt*.

Passive participles may be subject to the gahawah-rule when  $C_1 = X$ , e.g. *maħaṭṭūṭ* “placed”, but this was not heard in *maxšūš* “special”.

3.2.3. *Derived measures*3.2.3.1. *Measure n-1*3.2.3.1.1. *Measure n-1 sound roots*

Measure *n-1* is used to express the passive. The underlying patterns are  $anC_1aC_2aC_3$ ,  $ynC_1aC_2iC_3$ . The vowel of the preformative (in both perfect and imperfect) may be stressed in positions eligible for stress and surface

<sup>78</sup> For the dialect of Biliy, see De Jong 2000:205. For group II, see *ibid.*:309.

forms often show raised *a*, e.g. *ángiṭa'*, *yíngiṭi'* “be cut”, *ánwikal*, *yínwikal* “be eaten”. The paradigms are:

		“rejoice”			
		perfect		imperfect*	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>ánbiṣat</i>	<i>inbáṣatuw</i>	<i>yínbiṣit</i>	<i>yinbáṣtūw</i>
	fem.	<i>inbáṣatāt</i>	<i>inbáṣatīn</i>	<i>tínbiṣit</i>	<i>yinbáṣtīn</i>
2.	masc.	<i>inbaṣátt</i>	<i>inbaṣáttuw</i>	<i>tínbiṣit</i>	<i>tinbáṣtūw</i>
	fem.	<i>inbaṣáttiy</i>	<i>inbaṣáttin</i>	<i>tinbáṣtīy</i>	<i>tinbáṣtīn</i>
1.	com.	<i>inbaṣátt</i>	<i>inbaṣátna</i>	<i>ínbiṣit</i>	<i>nínbiṣit</i>

\* In the imperfect forms the underlying |a| ‘reappears’ in syllables closed by  $C_2$  (here *ṣ*) after elision of *i* preceding  $C_3$  (here *t*). The fact that the *i* preceding *ṣ* is actually underlying |a| can also be concluded from the fact that it is not elided from forms like *yínbiṣit* (i.e. the form is not *yín(i)bṣit*; a form which would be analogous in terms of elision and anaptyxis to a form like *yíkitbuw*). In a similar manner, the participles are formed using the underlying pattern  $\text{min}C_1aC_2iC_3$ , e.g. *múnbiṣit*, *minbaṣtah*, *minbaṣtīn*, *minbaṣtāt* “rejoicing”.

The inflectional base of the verb has been reinterpreted as underlying |inbaṣit|, instead of |nbaṣit|; verbal prefixes are then vowelless (i.e. *y-*, *t-* and *n-*) and for the 1st p. sg. com. the prefix is  $\emptyset$  (see also below *inšāl* in 3.2.3.1.3.).

### 3.2.3.1.2. Measure $n-1$ $C_2 = C_3$ (*mediae geminatae*)

Patterns for perfect and imperfect of measure  $n-1$  of medial geminate verbs are:  $\text{in}C_1aC_2C_3$  and  $\text{yin}C_1aC_2C_3$ , e.g. *inḥaṭṭ*, *yinḥaṭṭ* “be placed” and *inṣabb*, *yinṣabb* “be poured”.<sup>79</sup>

### 3.2.3.1.3. Measure $n-1$ $C_2 = y$ or *w* (*mediae infirmae*)

The patterns for perfect and imperfect of measure  $n-1$  of medial weak verbs are:  $\text{in}C_1āC_3$  and  $\text{yin}C_1āC_3$ , e.g.

		“be carried”			
		perfect		imperfect*	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>inšāl</i>	<i>inšāluw</i>	<i>yinšāl</i>	<i>yinšāluw</i>
	fem.	<i>inšālat</i>	<i>inšālin</i>	<i>tinšāl</i>	<i>yinšālin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>inšilt</i>	<i>inšiltuw</i>	<i>tinšāl</i>	<i>tinšāluw</i>
	fem.	<i>inšiltiy</i>	<i>inšiltin</i>	<i>tinšālty</i>	<i>tinšālin</i>
1.	com.	<i>inšilt</i>	<i>inšilne</i>	<i>inšāl*</i>	<i>ninšāl</i>

\* Notice the absence of vowel harmony, and the paradigmatically fixed intital *i-*.

<sup>79</sup> It is unsure whether the initial vowel of the perfect is *a-* (i.e. *anḥaṭṭ*) or *i-*.

3.2.3.1.4. *Measure n-1*  $C_2 = y$  or  $w$  (*mediae infirmae*) participles  
Participles are shaped on the pattern  $miC_1\bar{a}C_3$ : *minšāl*, *minšālah*, *minšālīn*, *minšālāt* “carried away, removed”.

3.2.3.2. *Measure t-1*

No instances of measure *t-1* were recorded in these dialects.

3.2.3.3. *Measure 1-t*

3.2.3.3.1. *Measure 1-t sound roots*

Underlying patterns for measure *1-t* are:  $aC_1taC_2aC_3$   $yiC_1taC_2iC_3$ . Like in measure *n-1*, raised *a* is found in unstressed syllables of the surface forms, e.g.: *áštīǧal*, *yíštīǧil* “work”, *áttifag*, *yíttifig* “agree” and *ástuwa*, *yístiwiy* “ripen; be cooked (of food)”. Paradigms for  $C_3 = y$  are:

		“buy”				
			perfect		imperfect	
			sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.		<i>áštara</i>	<i>áštaruw</i>	<i>yíštiry</i>	<i>yíštiruw</i>
	fem.		<i>áštarat</i>	<i>áštarin</i>	<i>tíštiry</i>	<i>yíštirin</i>
2.	masc.		<i>ištarayt</i>	<i>ištaraytuw</i>	<i>tíštiry</i>	<i>tíštiruw</i>
	fem.		<i>ištaraytiy</i>	<i>ištaraytin</i>	<i>tíštiry</i>	<i>tíštirin</i>
1.	com.		<i>ištarayt</i>	<i>ištarayna</i>	<i>ištiry</i>	<i>níštiry</i>

3.2.3.3.2. *Measure 1-t*  $C_2 = w$  or  $y$  (*mediae infirmae*)

An example of a medial weak measure *1-t* verb is *ihtāǧ*, *yihtāǧ* “need”.

3.2.3.3.3. *Measure 1-t*  $C_2 = C_3$  (*mediae geminatae*)

An example of a medial geminate measure *1-t* verb is *i‘tazz*, *yí‘tazz* (*bi*) “be proud (of)”.

3.2.3.3.4. *Measure 1-t participles*

Patterns for measure *1-t* participles are  $miC_1tiC_2iC_3$  (underlying  $miC_1taC_2iC_3$ ),  $miC_1taC_2C_3$  *ah/ih*,  $miC_1taC_2C_3in$ ,  $miC_1taC_2C_3āt$ .

Examples are: *míštīǧil* “working”, *míftársih* “predatory (of animals)”, *místiwiy* “ripe, cooked (sg. masc.)”, *místáwiyih* “ripe cooked (sg. fem.)”. *mítifig* “agreed (sg. masc.)”, *mittafgāt* “agreed (pl. fem.)” and *mítiniy* “taking care of, providing for”.

Examples of participles of medial geminate and medial weak verbs are: *míhtāǧ* “in need”, *miltammīn* “having gathered (pl. masc.)”.

One example of a passive *1-t* participle is *mittahamīn* “accused (pl. masc.)” (cf. C.A. root *w-h-m*).

3.2.3.4. *Measure ista-1*3.2.3.4.1. *Measure ista-1 sound roots*

Like measure 2, measure *ista-1* has morphologically alternating short vowels: *a* in the perfect and *i* in the imperfect. The paradigms are:

		“ask for information”			
		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>istafham</i>	<i>istafhamuw</i>	<i>yistafhim</i>	<i>yistáfihmuw</i>
	fem.	<i>istafhamat</i>	<i>istafhamin</i>	<i>tistafhim</i>	<i>yistáfihmin</i>
2. masc.		<i>istafhamt</i>	<i>istafhamtuw</i>	<i>tistafhim</i>	<i>tistáfihmuw</i>
	fem.	<i>istafhamtÿ</i>	<i>istafhamtin</i>	<i>tistáfihmiy</i>	<i>tistáfihmin</i>
1. com.		<i>istafhamt</i>	<i>istafhamna</i>	<i>astafhim</i>	<i>nistafhim</i>

3.2.3.4.2. *Measure ista-1 C<sub>2</sub> = y (mediae infirmae)*

Measure *ista-1* verbs of medial weak roots were not recorded.

3.2.3.4.3. *Measure ista-1 C<sub>3</sub> = y (tertia infirmae)*

Measure *ista-1* verbs of final weak roots were not recorded.

3.2.3.4.4. *Measure ista-1 verbs C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae)*

Patterns for medial geminate measure *ista-1* verbs are:  $istaC_1aC_2C_3$ ,  $yistaC_1iC_2C_3$ , an example is (*i*)*sta'add*, *yista'idd* “prepare oneself”.

Short *a* in the perfect preceding stressed  $\bar{e}$  may be raised (e.g. *ista'addēt* > *ista'iddēt*), see also remarks in 3.2.2.7.1. and 3.2.3.5.2.

3.2.3.4.5. *Measure ista-1 participles*

Participles of measure *ista-1* verbs have the pattern  $mistaC_1C_2iC_3$ , e.g. *mista'ġil* “in a hurry”.

For *mediae geminatae* the pattern is  $mistaC_1iC_2C_3$ : *mista'idd* “having prepared, ready”.

3.2.3.5. *Measures 2 and t-2*

Measure 2 has morphologically alternating short vowels: *a* in the perfect and *i* in the imperfect. The patterns are:  $C_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ ,  $yC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$ .

Measure *t-2* has morphologically fixed *a*. The patterns are  $taC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ ,  $ytaC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ .

3.2.3.5.1. *Examples of measure 2 sound roots*

Like in group I, the high vowel *i* of imperfect measure 2 may be elided in open syllables. The initial geminate of the resulting cluster may then be reduced. Examples are: *yžabb'uw* “they do a proper job”, *bittall'uw gišāyid* “you (pl. masc.) recite (lit. bring up) poems”, *bīybarrkuw 'ašil* “they let a throughbred cover”, the latter in I.P.A. [b<sup>i</sup>ˈbarkoʷ ʔaˈsɛːl].

Similar elisions may take place in sandhi, as in *ṭammṣ ilbunn* “you roast the coffee beans” and *w itxalliy ṭḡammr išwayyih* “and you let it (burn) a little (to) become glowing embers”.

*r* or *l* following the high vowel *i* may inhibit its morphophonemic elision, e.g. *itfassiruh* “you explain it” and *biy’assirin im’úk išwayyih* “they (pl. fem.) have some influence on you”.

When  $C_2 = C_3$ , the elision of *i* does not take place, but the geminate may be reduced, e.g. *ṭhálliluh* “you analyze it” (I.P.A. [ət’ħalilo<sup>h</sup>]).

### 3.2.3.5.2. Measure 2 tertiae infirmae

Paradigms for measure 2 tertiae infirmae verbs are:

	perfect* <sup>1</sup>		imperfect	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>sawwi</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>sawwuw</i>	<i>ysawwīy</i>	<i>ysawwuw</i>
fem.	<i>sawwat</i>	<i>sawwin</i>	<i>tsawwīy</i>	<i>ysawwin</i>
2. masc.	<i>suwwēt</i>	<i>suwwētuw</i>	<i>tsaww/-iy</i>	<i>tsawwuw</i>
fem.	<i>suwwētīy</i>	<i>suwwētīn</i>	<i>tsawwīy</i>	<i>tsawwin</i>
1. com.	<i>suwwēt</i>	<i>suwwēni</i>	<i>asawwīy</i>	<i>nsawwīy</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> For raising of *a* in closed syllable preceding stressed  $\bar{e}$  see remark in 3.2.2.7.1.

\*<sup>2</sup> Like in forms of the imperfect (see remark \* in 3.2.2.5.2.) final  $-i > -\bar{a}$  when suffixed, e.g. *sawwāh* “he did it”.

### 3.2.3.5.3. Examples of measure 2 primae hamzah

The verb “feed” is *wakkal*, *ywakkil*, e.g. *ḥatta mā ywakkilūne #* “so that they wouldn’t give us food”, *gi’adna šahaṣayn, fi lḡbāl ḥādīy binḥūm. innās kānat bitxāf itwakkilne* “we stayed two months in these mountains as we moved around. People were afraid to give us food”.

### 3.2.3.5.4. Measure t-2 imperfect and perfect

In measure *t-2* the vowel *a* is morphologically fixed for the perfect and imperfect. Patterns are  $taC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ ,  $ytaC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ .

Unlike the situation in group I dialects (especially so in those of the Rmēlāt and Sawārkah, see De Jong 2000:212), the *ta-* prefix in the perfect and imperfect of measure *t-2* is stable and is hardly ever reduced to  $(i)t-$ .

When the imperfect preformative *t-* of the 3rd p. sg. fem. and of the 2nd. p. sg. and pl. masc. and fem. precedes, the resulting sequence *tta-* is reduced to *ta-*.<sup>80</sup> For tertiae infirmae *t-2* verbs the paradigms are:

<sup>80</sup> I have referred to this before as a haplological drop of the verbal prefix *ta-* (from an initial sequence *\*tata-*). This interpretation however pre-supposes verbal imperfect pre-

		perfect* <sup>1</sup>		imperfect* <sup>1</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>taǧaddi'</i>	<i>taǧadduw</i>	<i>taǧaddi'</i>	<i>ytaǧadduw</i>	
fem.	<i>taǧaddat</i>	<i>taǧaddin</i>	<i>taǧaddi'</i>	<i>ytaǧaddin</i>	
2. masc.	<i>taǧaddēt</i>	<i>taǧaddētuw</i>	<i>taǧaddi'</i>	<i>taǧadduw</i>	
fem.	<i>taǧaddētiy</i>	<i>taǧaddētin</i>	<i>taǧaddi'y</i>	<i>taǧaddin</i>	
1. com.	<i>taǧaddēt</i>	<i>taǧaddēni'</i>	<i>ataǧaddi'</i>	<i>ntaǧaddi'</i>	

\*<sup>1</sup> With a verb like *ta'ašša*, *yta'ašša* "have dinner" raising of *a* in the *ta*-prefix is regular, e.g. (perfect) *ti'aššat*, *ti'aššēt* and (imperfect) 2nd p. sg. masc. *ti'ašš*.

Notice that the 3rd. p. pl. masc. and fem. of the perfect have become homophonic with the 2nd p. pl. masc. and fem. (respectively) of the imperfect. And the 3rd. p. sg. masc. of the perfect is homophonic with the 3rd. p. sg. fem. of the imperfect.

Raising of final *\*-ā* is indicated here as *-i'*, but phonetic values may also be slightly lower (i.e. nearer to I.P.A. [e<sup>?</sup>]).

\*<sup>2</sup> Notice also apocopation.

### 3.2.3.5.5. Measures 2 and t-2 verbal nouns

Verbal nouns for measure 2 have a  $taC_1C_2iC_3$  pattern, e.g. *taǧlib* "throwing out (of a fish line)", *taybīs* "drying (trans.)", *tadrīb* "training (trans.)" and a gahawah-form *taḥadīr* "coming down".

A  $C_3 = y$  verbal noun is found in *tirbāt alǧīmal* "training the camel".

Verbal nouns for measure *t-2* were not recorded. For the quadriliteral verb *ta'aknan*, *yta'aknan* "be annoyed", however, the verbal noun *t'iknin* was recorded.

### 3.2.3.5.6. Measures 2 and t-2 participles

Active participles of measure 2 have a  $mC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt) pattern, e.g. *m'aggid* "travelling", *m'allig* "keeping suspended", for  $C_3 = y$  *msawwiy*, *msawwyih* etc., "making, doing" and for  $C_2 = C_3$  *mǧaddid*, *mǧaddidih* (without elision of the short vowel *i*), etc. "renewing".

The pattern for the passive measure 2 participle is  $mC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt), e.g.: *mlawwan* "coloured", *mnaššaf* "dried, hardened" and *mtallal* "piled up", for  $C_3 = y$  *msawwa*, *msawwayih* etc., "made, done" and for  $C_2 = C_3$  *mǧaddad*, *mǧaddadih* etc. "renewed".

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fixes like *ta-*, *ya-*, and *na-*, whereas these are actually *t-*, *y-* and *n-* (the latter two implying the first). The interpretation of reduction of the initial geminate is therefore preferred here.

The pattern for measure *t*-2 active participles is  $mtaC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt), but in participles often the *ta*- prefix has been reduced to *t*- (pattern  $mitC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt), e.g. *mit'aşşil* "deep-rooted", *mithaddir* (*min*) "originating (from)", *mitğawwiz* "married" and for  $C_3 = y$ ) *mtağaddiy*, *mtağaddyih* etc. "having eaten lunch" and also *mitharriy*, *mitharriyh* etc. "striving for, aspiring".

### 3.2.3.6. Measures 3 and *t*-3

Like measure 2, measure 3 has morphologically alternating vowels: *i* in the imperfect and *a* in the perfect. Patterns for measure 3 are:  $C_1āC_2aC_3$ ,  $yC_1āC_2iC_3$ .

Measure *t*-3 has morphologically fixed *a* in the perfect and imperfect, and like in measure *t*-2, the *ta*-preformative is not often reduced to *t*-. Patterns for measure *t*-3 are:  $taC_1āC_2aC_3$ ,  $ytaC_1āC_2iC_3$ .

Also like in measure *t*-2, the *ta*-preformative of measure *t*-3 in the perfect is usually not reduced to (*i*)*t*-.

#### 3.2.3.6.1. Examples of measures 3 and *t*-3

Paradigms for measure 3 are:

		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>kāwan</i>	<i>kāwanuw</i>	<i>ykāwin</i>	<i>ykāwnuw</i>
	fem.	<i>kāwanat</i>	<i>kāwanin</i>	<i>tkāwin</i>	<i>ykāwnin</i>
2. masc.		<i>kāwant</i>	<i>kāwantin</i>	<i>tkāwin</i>	<i>tkāwnuw</i>
	fem.	<i>kāwantiy</i>	<i>kāwantuw</i>	<i>tkāwniy</i>	<i>tkāwnin</i>
1. com.		<i>kāwant</i>	<i>kāwanna</i>	<i>akāwin</i>	<i>nkāwin</i>

Some suffixed examples are: suffixed: *kāwanatuh* (stressed on first syllable) "she quarrelled with him", *kāwannāh* "we quarrelled with him", *kāwantinnuh* "you (pl. fem.) quarrelled with him" and (imperfect) *tkāwnīh* "you (sg. fem.) quarrel with him", *ykāwninnuh* "they (fem.) quarrel with him", *ykāwnūh* "they (masc.) quarrel with him".

A  $C_3 = y$  verb has the following paradigms:

		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>lāga</i>	<i>lāguw*<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>ylāgiy</i>	<i>ylāguw</i>
	fem.	<i>lāgat</i>	<i>lāgin*<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>tlāgiy</i>	<i>ylāgin</i>
2. masc.		<i>lāgēt</i>	<i>lāgētuw</i>	<i>tlāg*<sup>2</sup>/-iy</i>	<i>tlāguw</i>
	fem.	<i>lāgētiy</i>	<i>lāgētin</i>	<i>tlāgiy</i>	<i>tlāgin</i>
1. com.		<i>lāgēt</i>	<i>lāgēna</i>	<i>alāgiy</i>	<i>nlāgiy</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Notice the absence of vowel harmony in the endings: *-uw* and *-in* instead of *-aw* and *-an* current in group I.

\*<sup>2</sup> Apocopated 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect forms also occur in measure 3.

Some examples of suffixed forms are: *hū lāgāh* “he met/found him”, *hī lāgāt<sup>u</sup>k* “she met/found you (sg. masc.)”, *hī lāgatuh* “she met/found him” (cf. 3.1.10.5.) and *hinnah biylāginnuk* /-*innik* “they meet/find you (sg. masc./fem.)”.

Examples for measure *t*-3 are: [*kān*] *bintarāfag iw bintasābag* “we used to travel together and race together” and (for  $C_3 = y$ ) *bukrah hantalāga* “tomorrow we’ll meet”, *huwwa ytalāguw* “they meet”, *intin talāgin* (like in measure *t*-2, initial *tta-* is reduced to *ta-*, cf. 3.2.3.5.4.) “you (pl. fem.) meet”. The vowel *a* preceding stress may be raised, as in the example *yti’ālağ* “he receives medical treatment” and the perfect *tihālafuw* “they became allies”.

Notice again the absence of vowel harmony in the 3rd and 2nd p. pl. masc. and sg.: *-uw* and *-in*, contrasting with *-aw* or *-ow* and *-an* in group I.

### 3.2.3.6.2. Measures 3 and *t*-3 participles

Active participles of measure 3 have the pattern  $mC_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt), e.g. *mğāhdīn* “fighting (pl. masc.) in a *ğihād*”, *mkāf’ih* “compensating (sg. fem.)”.

A passive participle (pattern  $mC_1\bar{a}C_2aC_3$ ) is *mṭāradīn* “having been pushed back (in a fight)”.

Active participles of measure *t*-3 have the pattern  $mtaC_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  or  $mitC_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt); like in participles of measure *t*-2 (cf. 3.2.3.5.6.), the *ta-* preformative is often reduced to (*i*)*t-*. Both *mtawāğdih* and *mitwāğdih* “present (sg. fem.)” were recorded and also *mithāyig lay* “it seems to me” (cf. MSA root h-y-’).

### 3.2.3.6.3. Measures 3 and *t*-3 verbal nouns

A verbal noun for measure 3 that was recorded is *ğihād* “war against unbelievers” and another is *msā’adah* “help, assistance”. Verbal nouns of the type  $tC_1\bar{e}C_2iC_3$  were not recorded.<sup>81</sup>

### 3.2.3.7. Measure 4

#### 3.2.3.7.1. Measure 4 sound roots perfect and imperfect

Like in many Bedouin dialects of Sinai, verbal measure 4 is found in group VI as well.

<sup>81</sup> Such as they have been reported for the dialect of the Aḥaywāt of group I, see Stewart 1990: 186 (text 69) and 118 (text 37).

The patterns are  $aC_1C_2aC_3$  for the perfect and  $yiC_1C_2iC_3$ . The paradigms are:

		“have breakfast”			
		perfect		imperfect* <sup>2</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>áḥtar</i>	<i>áḥtaruw</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>yíḥtir</i>	<i>yíḥtiruw</i>
	fem.	<i>áḥtarat</i>	<i>áḥtarin</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>tíḥtir</i>	<i>yíḥtirin</i>
2. masc.		<i>ifḥtart</i>	<i>ifḥtartuw</i>	<i>tíḥtir</i>	<i>tíḥtiruw</i>
	fem.	<i>ifḥtartiy</i>	<i>ifḥartin</i>	<i>tíḥtiriy</i>	<i>tíḥtirin</i>
1. com.		<i>ifḥtart</i>	<i>ifḥtarna</i>	<i>ifḥtir</i>	<i>níḥtir</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Notice again the absence of vowel harmony in the endings

\*<sup>2</sup> The anaptyctic vowel in forms like (here underlined) *tíḥtiruw* and *yíḥtirin* is voiceless and therefore barely audible.

3.2.3.7.2. Measure 4  $C_2 = w$  or  $y$  (*mediae infirmae*) perfect and imperfect

Patterns for measure 4 *mediae infirmae* are:  $C_1\bar{a}C_3$  ( $C_1iC_3\bar{t}$ )  $yC_1\bar{i}C_3$ , e.g. *rād* “he wanted”, *ridt* (I.P.A. [rit:]) “I wanted”, *yrād* “he wants”. The paradigms are like those of *šāl*, *yšil* (see 3.2.2.4.).

Some examples of suffixed forms are: *rādatih* “she wanted him”, *ridnāh* “we wanted him”, *intuw ridtūh* “you (pl. masc.) wanted him”, *intin ridtin-nuh* “you (pl. fem.) wanted him” and *rādinnuh* “they (fem.) wanted him”.

3.2.3.7.3. Measure 4  $C_3 = y$  (*tertia infirmae*) perfect and imperfect

The patterns for measure 4  $C_3 = y$  (*tertia infirmae*) are  $aC_1C_2a$  (perfect) and  $yiC_1C_2iy$  (imperfect). The paradigms are:

		“give”			
		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>áḥta</i>	<i>áḥtuw</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>yíḥtuw</i>	<i>yíḥtuw</i>
	fem.	<i>áḥtat</i>	<i>áḥtin</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>yíḥtin</i>	<i>yíḥtin</i>
2. masc.		<i>aḥtáy</i>	<i>aḥtaytuw</i>	<i>tíḥt<sup>*</sup>iy</i>	<i>tíḥtuw</i>
	fem.	<i>aḥtáytiy</i>	<i>aḥtaytin</i>	<i>tíḥtiy</i>	<i>tíḥtin</i>
1. com.		<i>aḥtáy</i>	<i>aḥtayna</i>	<i>íḥtiy</i>	<i>níḥtiy</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Notice the absence of vowel harmony in the endings in *tertiae yā* perfects as well: *-uw* and *-in* instead of *-aw* and *-an* current in group I.

\*<sup>2</sup> Notice the presence of the apocopated 2nd p. sg. masc. forms in measure 4 as well.

Some suffixed examples are: *hinnah aḥtinnuh* “they (fem.) gave him” and *hinnah aḥtinnuh iyyāh* “they (fem.) gave it to him”.

3.2.3.7.4. *Measure 4 C<sub>1</sub> = w (primae wāw) perfect and imperfect*

An example of a measure 4 C<sub>1</sub> = w (primae wāw) verb is *awǧaʿ, yūǧiʿ* “hurt, cause pain to”, e.g. *ibtūǧʿuh* “it (sg. fem.) hurts him” and *ʿidnī awǧaʿatnī* “my ear hurt me”.

3.2.3.7.5. *Measure 4 C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae) perfect and imperfect*

Verb forms of measure 4 C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae) were not recorded, or not recognized as such.

3.2.3.7.6. *Measure 4 imperatives*

Examples of imperatives for measure 4 sound roots are like imperatives for the *i*-type imperfect (see 3.2.1.5.).

Imperatives of C<sub>3</sub> = *y* roots are: *iʿt* (apocopated), *iʿtīy*, *iʿtuw*, *iʿtin*. Suffixed examples are: *iʿiḥ-īyyāha* “give it (sg. fem.) to her”, *iʿtuh luh* “give it to him”.

3.2.3.7.7. *Measure 4 participles*

The participles for sound roots have a miCCiC pattern, e.g. *mifṭīr*, *mifṭīriḥ*, *mifṭīrīn*, *mifṭīrāt* “having eaten breakfast”.

For mediae infirmae there are participles of the type *mīd*, *-ih*, *-īn*, *-āt* “wanting”.<sup>82</sup> Another example is *mǧīr* “running”.

3.2.3.8. *Measure 9*

Paradigms for measure 9 are:

		“turn red”			
		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>iḥmaṛṛ</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛuw</i>	<i>yihmaṛṛ</i>	<i>yihmaṛṛuw</i>
	fem.	<i>iḥmaṛṛat</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛin</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛ</i>	<i>yihmaṛṛin</i>
2. masc.		<i>iḥmaṛṛayt</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛaytuw</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛ</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛuw</i>
	fem.	<i>iḥmaṛṛaytiy</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛaytin</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛiy</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛin</i>
1. com.		<i>iḥmaṛṛayt</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛayne</i>	<i>aḥmaṛṛ</i>	<i>niḥmaṛṛ</i>

Participles are: *miḥmaṛṛ*, *-ah*, *-īn*, *āt*.

3.2.3.9. *Quadriliteral verbs*

Like measure 2, quadriliteral verbs have morphologically alternating vowels in the imperfect (*i*) and perfect (*a*).

<sup>82</sup> Though for the verb *rād*, *yīd* measure 1 participles *rāyīd*, *-ih* etc. were also accepted by my informants.

		“ululate”			
		perfect* <sup>1</sup>		imperfect* <sup>2</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>zagrāt</i>	<i>zagrātuw</i>	<i>yzagrīt</i>	<i>yzágrirtuw</i>
	fem.	<i>zagrātat</i>	<i>zagrātin</i>	<i>tzagrīt</i>	<i>yzágrirtin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>zagratt</i>	<i>zagrattuw</i>	<i>tzagrīt</i>	<i>tzágrirtuw</i>
	fem.	<i>zagrattiy</i>	<i>zagrattin</i>	<i>tzágrirtiy</i>	<i>tzágrirtin</i>
1.	com.	<i>zagratt</i>	<i>zagrattne</i>	<i>azagrīt</i>	<i>nzagrīt</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> *tt* is assimilated to *tt*, e.g. *zagrattiy*.

\*<sup>2</sup> Initial *tz* is assimilated to *dz* or *zz*, e.g. (partially) # *idzagrīt* or (totally) # *izzagrīt*.

		“improvise rhymed song”			
		perfect*		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>hawġas</i>	<i>hawġisuw</i>	<i>yhawġis</i>	<i>yhawġisuw</i>
	fem.	<i>hawġisat</i>	<i>hawġasin</i>	<i>thawġis</i>	<i>yhawġisin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>hawġast</i>	<i>hawġastuw</i>	<i>thawġis</i>	<i>thawġisuw</i>
	fem.	<i>hawġastiy</i>	<i>hawġastin</i>	<i>thawġisiy</i>	<i>thawġisin</i>
1.	com.	<i>hawġast</i>	<i>hawġasna</i>	<i>ahawġis</i>	<i>nhawġis</i>

\* Forms like *hawġisat* and *hawġisuw* show raising of *a > i* (see 3.1.1.7.).

The verbal noun is *hġēsiy* or *thīġis*. Similarly, the verb *hawġan*, *yhawġin* “improvise rhymed song in public” has verbal nouns *hġēniy* or *thīġin*.

#### 4. REMARKS ON PHRASEOLOGY

##### 4.1. Nunation

*Tanwīn* is not a feature of MzA or BWA.

Of course, there are the loans from MSA, which may have come via other dialects, such as *masalan* “for instance”; the *s* for \**ṭ* (in a *tā*’-speaking dialect!) is a clue that this loan came via a dialect in which interdental sibilants are not part of the phoneme inventory, such as Cairene.

Other examples of such MSA loans with nunation are: *tab’an* “of course”, *tagriban* “approximately”, *’aşlan* “in origin”, *fi’lan* “indeed, actually” and *hālīyyan* “currently”.

##### 4.2. Negation

Negating a verb is done with *mā* preceding the verb form, although bipartite *mā* + verb form + *š* is also used. Of my informants, one speaker

used *mā* + verb form for more emphatic negation (almost always in combination with *xālīš* “at all”) and the compound negation for ‘normal’ negation. Another informant, who actually speaks the ‘original’ dialect better, used the single negation, and only the compound negation by way of exception.

Examples are *iw biytarağğuw lmašāyix illiy kân hīnha mawğūdīn mā ywaddūhuw Falaštīn iywaddūhuw Mašir* # “and they asked the sheikhs, who were there at that time, not to send them to Palestine, (but) to send them to Egypt...” and *hād-illiy ya’niy btākluh, law mā lihág daktūr aw hāwiy biymūt* “and this (person) that he (i.e. a snake) bites, if he doesn’t (quickly) get to a doctor or a snake charmer, he dies”.

#### 4.3. The b-imperfect

The originally sedentary feature of the *b*-imperfect to express the habitual present tense is widespread in Sinai.<sup>83</sup>

Some examples are *iw biddugg bi’id ilhōn ingūl’alēh’id ilhōn, iw ba’ad kidīyyih... ilbarṛād hū ibyigly binhuṭṭ ēh?* “and you pound it with the pestle, we call it the pestle, and after that... (when the water in) the teapot is boiling and we put what?” and *hū mūhū fāhim kidīy, hū mūhū ‘ārīf... innha mā bitrīduh* “he did not understand this, he did not know... that she did not want him” *w Aḷḷah btug’ud kidīyyih w bitgahwiy nnās*<sup>84</sup> *iw btaxarraf iw bitğīb... bithawğis ilkalām illiy zimān* “By God, you sit down like this and you give the people coffee (or tea)<sup>85</sup> and you talk and you get... you improvise the type of talk of old times”.

See also remark in 3.2.2.4. on reduction of the diphthong in a form like *biyšīl* > *bišīl*.

#### 4.4. Future Marker

To express “volition” or “need” MzA uses *bidd* + pron. suffix (see also 4.11.).<sup>86</sup>

Often not only volition or need is expressed, but also a sense of futurity of the action expressed in the following verb. Examples are: (futurity)

<sup>83</sup> It is current in all dialects of Sinai, except in that of the Dawāğrah, see De Jong 2000: 224–226, 318–319, 394, 478, 527 and 691 (map 69).

<sup>84</sup> *bitgahwiy nnās* or *bitgahw innās* (the latter with apocopation); these two sequences are homophonous.

<sup>85</sup> The verb *gahwa, ygahwiy* is used for “serve a hot drink”, i.e. either coffee or tea.

<sup>86</sup> In contrast, *widd* is current in group I, see De Jong 2000:238–239.

*halhīnit bidd-āxd iššuggah w uxušš... w unšur* “now I shall take the net and go in (i.e. into the water), and spread it”.

To express futurity, the imperfect form may also have prefixed *ha-*, e.g. *ya'niy halhīnit áwalad il'ašil illiy hū 'indina nihá'... hatlāguh ibyasma' kilām uḫūh* “that is, the true son that we have here with us, you will find that he listens to what his father says”. In the instances recorded, this *ha-* was invariably used to express inevitability connected to stating a general truth. *law istagduw 'a lhikāyah diy, hayagṭa' -áššiḡar,*<sup>87</sup> *hayagṭa' ūh* “if they would seek to imitate this (story), they would cut down the trees, they would cut them down”.

In the many cases, however, the future is expressed with the simple imperfect, as in *intah law ga'att bukraḥ hinih, ašūfluḡ wāḥid iygūlluḡ ēh? 'al-ēh? 'ala ttadrīb diḥ*. “If you stay here tomorrow, I'll get you someone who will tell you what? About what? About this training (of camels)”.

#### 4.5. *fih* “there is / are”

*fih* is used to express existence or availability of something,<sup>88</sup> e.g. *iw fih i'šāb fi lbaṛṛ bitdāwiy ssukkaṛ* “and there are herbs in the desert which cure diabetes”.

The negation is usually *mā fih* (or K-form *ma fiš*), e.g. *ḡār ánnaxaḷ, mā fih izrā'ah zamān* “there were only palm trees, in the old times there was no agriculture”.

Also *māš* may be used for negation (but was only heard in BWA): *gaḅ! ilfašil kān ya'niy ḥwēl alfēn ittālā... ya'niy māš kaṭīr* “before the separation there was, that is, around two thousand, three... that is, there was not much” and *w Aḷḷāḥiy māš isdūd fihe... iblādna hāḡiy* “By God, there are no dams in it... (in) (this) our land”.

#### 4.6. Some Conjunctions

##### 4.6.1. Conjunctions *lamma* and *yōm*

Like in many dialects of Sinai, conjunctions *lamma* and *yōm*, or variant forms based on these, are used for “when”.<sup>89</sup>

<sup>87</sup> *hayagṭa'uw + aššiḡar*.

<sup>88</sup> *fih* ‘functions as a prepositional predicate of a nominal sentence’, cf. Grotzfeld 1964:87.

<sup>89</sup> For use of *yōm* in dialects of northern Sinai, see De Jong 2000:692 (map 71).

4.6.1.1. *yōm*4.6.1.1.1. *yōm used independently*

*yōm* may be used meaning “when”, e.g. *yōm lihguw waṛ-ábil, šār ilkōn...yōm šār ilkōn gāmuw gasamuw mí' izwayyid innuṣṣ* “when they had caught up with the (tribe who had stolen their) camels, there was a fight. When the fight was over they then<sup>90</sup> divided (the camels) equally with (Sheikh) Zwayyid”. Another example is *ya'niy kilu ...itnēn kilu yōm ma fš hawa xāliṣ* “(we catch) like a kilo, two kilos when there is no wind at all” and *fih mayyih, halhīn ilǧbāl yōm tiǧhī, subhān Allāh ṛabbna mí'tiniy kull šiy* “there is water. If you come to the mountains now—God be praised—our Lord takes care of everything”.

4.6.1.1.2. *yōm in combination with in*4.6.1.1.2.1. *yōmin used independently*

*yōmin* may also be used for “when”, like in the following example: *ya'niy kunna šabāb 'ala zzamil w intasābag w insābig yōmin nǧ-ál'arab,*<sup>91</sup> *fihimt lay kēf?* “that is, we were young lads riding camels, and we'd race each other and we'd race and when we'd come to the village, you see what I mean?”

*yōmin* was only recorded in BWA.

4.6.1.1.2.2. *yōmin + obj. suffix as subject of the clause*

There were no instances of direct suffixing of *yōmin*.

4.6.1.1.2.3. *min yōm*

*min yōm(in)* is often used for “as soon as” or “from the moment that”, e.g. *kunt fi Maṭariyyih sākīn, bass bašūf ilǧbālāt hāḍōlah 'ala 'yūnī w aná fi Maṭariyyih law-ddūnī min yōmin fakkat Sīnih, law kull yōm alf iǧnēh mānī gā'id* “I was living in Maṭariyya,<sup>92</sup> but I kept seeing these mountains on my retina (lit. my eyes) while I was in Maṭariyya. (even) If they, ever since Sinai was liberated, would have given me a thousand pounds for every day, I would not have stayed (in Maṭariyya)”.

Another example is *min yōm addā'k gaṣalatha ḥurmit'k* “from the moment that they have given you her twig,<sup>93</sup> she's your wife”.

<sup>90</sup> *gāmuw* (lit. “the stood up”) is here translated as “then”, i.e. like unconjugated *gām*, which is often used in narrating a chain of events that took place in the past, see De Jong 2000:231.

<sup>91</sup> *nǧiy + ál'arab*.

<sup>92</sup> Many members of Bedouin tribes in Sinai spent the years of the Israeli occupation of Sinai (following the 1967 war) as refugees in the Egyptian Nile Delta.

<sup>93</sup> A twig is traditionally given to the groom in betrothal ceremonies as a token of the girl's engagement to him.

4.6.1.1.2.4. *min yōm* in combination with *ma*4.6.1.2. *lamma* and *lumma*

Both *lamma* and its variant *lumma* (probably a hybrid form of *lamma* and *yōm ma*) are often used for “when” and “until”.

4.6.1.2.1. *lamma* and *lumma* “when” used independently

Examples of *lamma* used for “when”: *alḥīnit lamma bigūl luḵ intah min wēn?* *bitgūl luh ana Mzēniy* “now, when he says to you ‘Where are you from?’ You say to him ‘I am a Mzēniy’”, *inhuḡ gōṭaruw hnūh ašil lamma tḡakkir Sīna zamān alblād hēdiy maḡál* “they went there because when you would see (as it was) before this land was dry”.

An example of *lumma* (current in MzA, but not in BWA) *inta lḥīn aḡḡayf lumma biyǧīr<sup>k</sup>, lumma byǧīy dḡayf, ta‘mal luh gahwah<sup>94</sup>* “Now when the guest comes to you, when the guest comes, you make coffee for him”.

4.6.1.2.2. *lamma* + *in*. *lamma* or *lumma* + *in* was not recorded4.6.1.2.3. *lamma* and *lumma* “until”

*lumma* (see also remark below in 4.6.1.3.) or *lamma* may be used in combination with *laǧāyit* for “until”, e.g. (prosodically lengthened *a* in the first syllable) *la:ǧāyit lumma ddaxanah btabga bēḡā’* “until (when) the smoke becomes white”. But also without *laǧāyit*, as in *iw byinḡaṭṭ luh šwayyih zayy ma tgūl fi ššamis lamma yrūb* “and it is placed in the sun a bit, as you say, until it curdles” and *bithuṭṭ... ḡamir issiyyāl nār lamma táhaḡam* “you put... coal of the acacia tree in the fire (and wait) until it becomes coal”.<sup>95</sup>

4.6.1.3. *lōm* (+ *in*)

An example of *lōm* + *ma* was recorded in MzA: *iw ḡīna Dīḡáb nihāniy lōmma midāris fátaḡin...* “and we came to Dāhab here when schools (were) opened”. *lumma* of the preceding paragraph is to be interpreted as shortened *lōm+ma*.

*lōm* was not heard in BWA.

<sup>94</sup> The last part of the sentence shows Koine influences; instead of *ta‘mal luh gahwah*, proper MzA would be more something like *itsaww luh gāhawah* or *tḡahwih*.

<sup>95</sup> “Become coal” is a gloss from my informant. I could not find a dictionary which lists this verb, but I suppose that the root *h-ḡ-m* is in some way related to the root *ḡ-m-r*, as in *ḡamriyyih* “glowing ember”.

4.6.2. *ḥatta*4.6.2.1. *ḥatta* “until”, “so that”

*ḥatta* “until” was recorded in *bitdugguh iw biti:ḡluh*<sup>96</sup> ‘*ala lḡayyih aw mā ḥatta tiḡluh* ‘*a lḡayyih* “you pound it and boil it in water or water until you boil it in water”.

*ḥatta* was also recorded meaning “so that”: *ya’niy halḥīnit álwalad il’aṣil illiy hū ‘ūdina nihā’... hatlāḡuh ibyasma’ kilām aḡūh. ibyarḡa’... ya’niy ḥatta ‘aḡūḡ ibyarḡa’ alē’k w amḡuḡ ibtarḡa’ alē’k... “that is, the decent son that we have here (in our community)... you’ll find that he listens to (the words of) his father. He is pleased... that is, so that your father is pleased with you and your mother is pleased with you”.*

4.7. *Auxiliaries and Verbal Particles*4.7.1. *gām*

Unconjugated *gām* used as a ‘marker of consequent action’ was not recorded in these dialects. In only one instance (but conjugated) *gāmūw* was used in a narration of events: *yōm ṣār ilkōn gāmūw yōm liḡuww war-álbil, ṣār ilkōn... yōm ṣār ilkōn gāmūw gasamuw mi’ iZwayyid innuṣṣ* “when they had caught up with the (tribe who had stolen their) camels, there was a fight. When the fight was over they then divided (the camels) equally with (Sheikh) Zwayyid”.

4.7.2. *rāḥ*

*rāḥ* was not recorded as an auxiliary or particle in MzA or BWA.

4.7.3. *Conditional particles*4.7.3.1. *Variations on kān as a conditional particle*4.7.3.1.1. *in + kān*

An example of *in + kān* “if”: *min zilīṡ iṣḡayyir zayy zilīṡ ṣa:yd aw zilīṡ ḡanáḡ mā yḡurr bass inkān min zilīṡ iṣṣa:yd aḡala l il’ukkah... “(skin) from a young animal like a young gazelle or a young goat, it is not bad, but if it is from the young gazelle, it is better for the ‘ukkah”.*<sup>97</sup>

<sup>96</sup> Prosodic lengthening is here used to express long duration of time, see also 1.2.3.5.

<sup>97</sup> A ‘*ukkah* is like a watersack (*girbih*) made from animal skin, but smaller and made from the skin of a young animal, making the leather smoother.

4.7.3.1.2. *Suffixed inkān*

Instances of suffixed *kān* were not recorded.

4.7.3.1.3. *il + kān*

Instances of *il + kān* were not recorded.

4.7.3.1.4. *kān preceded by CA loans iz or iza*

An example of *kān* preceded by *iz* or *iza* meaning “if”: (a line of poetry) *w izkān intuw bitliffūh ‘ala miyyih* “and if you’re going to be around here a hundred (counts)” and *ra‘ānī[yih]...alimsimmih diyyih. dīy iz kān nilgāha fi šgāgni’...gār naḡṭa‘ aššuggah kidīy...w intušši’* “a scorpion fish, this venomous one. If we find this in our nets, we have to cut the net like this... and throw it away”.

4.7.3.1.5. *kān as an independent conditional*

An example of *kān* used independently as conditional “if”: *iḥna bniftixir bēha ḥatta kān biygūluw waddīy w hātīy* “we are proud of it (sg. fem.) even if they treat us like slaves (lit. they say “bring (this), get (that)!”)”.

Another example is: *law žin ib tafkīr, kān iddaḡāhim dīllih...masalan alḥinit ‘ašar t-ālāf...ixlāl arba‘ t-ušhur xamis t-ušhur...i‘ ašar t-ālāf dīllih talghin ‘iśrīn alf* “if it (i.e. the money) came (to you) by brainwork, if this money...for instance it is ten thousand now...over four or five months... you’ll find that these ten thousand pounds have become twenty thousand”.

4.7.3.1.6. *kān, inkān or ilkān introducing alternatives*

*kān* may introduce alternatives, like in *ḥakamuw ‘alēhuw b sinih ṭarid...min Sīnih b ilmaḡḡrah ḥatta mā ywakkūne...kān wālidī w uxtī w uxūy w...ya‘niy nāsī... “they sentenced them to a year of total exile... from Sinai, so that they would not (be able to) feed us, be it my mother and my sister and my brother and... (all) my family, that is”.*

Another example is: *w inḥuṭṭuh fiha. kān ḡilīd aw irfayyī‘ lāzm iykūn miš ya‘niy nō‘ayn* “and we put it in there. Be it thick or thin, it shouldn’t be two kinds (mixed), that is”.

4.7.3.2. *Absence of a conditional particle*

Often conditional sentences are not introduced by a particle, e.g. *il... alḥīn ákalat ib sínaha, hū ytiff kidīy f-īdu, iw yaxabaṭha kidīy* “the... now if it has bitten with its tooth, he (i.e. the snake charmer) spits in his hand, like this, and slaps it (sg. fem. i.e. the place of the bite)” and *liḡaṭnāh fi lxēt. iw mnā...mnimšiy šwayyah zayy ‘ašarah mitir, iw binunšur tānīy* “if we have

caught it in the net, (and) then we what? We walk a little farther, like ten metres, and we throw out (our net) again”.<sup>98</sup>

#### 4.8. Presentative Particles

##### 4.8.1. *ir* or *ar*

Presentatives *ir* or *ar* were not recorded.

##### 4.8.2. *hē* + suffix

To draw the listener’s attention to something or someone, a presentative particle *hē* may be used followed by a personal pronominal, e.g. *hēhū ġi!* “there he is!”, *hēhī ġāt* “there she is!”, *hēhuwwa ġuw* “there they (masc.) are!”, *hēhinnah ġin* “there they (fem.) are!” (lit. “has/have come”).

##### 4.8.3. Particle *wlin* ~ *wilin*, *win*

The particle *wlin* is used mainly to present a sudden or unexpected turn in a narration,<sup>99</sup> but in the following example the development referred to is hardly unexpected or sudden: *‘ašar dagāyig iw tiglibha ma fiš dig . . . kam digiġih w tiglibha ‘a lġāl ittāny w linnhī yōm āstuwat . . . bittallihha* “ten minutes and you flip it over after less than a min . . . a few minutes and you turn it on its other side and there it is, when it has become cooked . . . you take it out”.

Another example is with the variant particle *ilin* + suffix: *w fi lxaṛṛāfah diyyih . . . ilinnih irkāb ġin*<sup>100</sup> “and in this story . . . there they were, the riding animals came” (recorded in MzA).

##### 4.8.4. Particle *wlā* +

An example of the presentative particle *wlā* (used more or less like *wlin*): *w ibtalħagħa ‘a ššāġ ġalibtēn talātih wlāha mistawjih* “and you put it on the šāġ and flip it two or three times, and there it is: cooked!” (recorded in BWA).

<sup>98</sup> The fishing technique described is with nets (sg. *šuggah*, pl. *šgāg*) on a line (*xayt*; here *xēt*) while the fishermen stand on the edge of the coral reef by the deep water (*‘ala ħarf ilbāħah*) and throw out their nets on the deep side.

<sup>99</sup> See Blanc 1970:34 (145).

<sup>100</sup> *rkāb* is pl. (of small numbers) of *irkābih*. Notice that the reference is in the pl. fem., see ‘concord’ in 4.16.

## 4.9. ġayr

*ġār* (< *ġayr*) may be used preceding imperfect forms to express the necessity of the action, e.g. *ilimħilliy ġār iyxaddim* ‘a *ḍḍayf* “the host should serve the guest” and *rawwaħna luh, ana gult ēh? ġār arawwiħ luh. awaddih l alħurmah diy, yimkin áššifi’ al-īdhi<sup>h</sup>* “we went to him, [and] I said what? I need to go to him. I’ll take him to this woman, maybe she can cure him (lit. the cure is by her hand)”.

4.10. Intensifying Particle *la*

The particle *la* intensifying the 1st p. sg. com. was not recorded.

4.11. *bidd* or *widd* + *pron. suffix*

To express “want” or “need” speakers of BWA use *bidd* and *widd* side by side (the latter is heard more inland, the former nearer to the coast). In MzA only suffixed *bidd* is common.<sup>101</sup> Examples for “need” or “want” are: *widdna nlaggiy Wādiy Sli<sup>102</sup>* “we want to go to Wādiy Islah” (BWA), *ēš bidduk?* “what do you want?”, *bidduh yāxid šigār mi-nhānīy iyħálliluh* “he wants to take plants from here to analyze them (sg. masc.)”.

Like in other dialects as well, often not only volition is expressed, but also a sense of futurity of the action expressed in the following verb, e.g. *halħīnit bidd-āxḍ iššuggah w uxušš... w unšur* “now I shall take the net and go in (i.e. into the water), and spread (it) out”.

## 4.12. ‘ād

The particle ‘*ād* is current to express “so, thus, then”. Examples are: ‘*ād yōm tišrif ‘ala šarafat ilGā’ ibyīnšabb ġād fi sēl Wādiy Fērān* “so when you look out at the highest point of alGā’ it flows there into the flood course of Wadi Fērān” and ‘*ād wēn lagga?* “so where did he go?”.

4.13. *yabga*

*yabga* is not very current, but may be heard at times meaning “so, then”, as in *yabga ta ‘ámhin ħiluw* “so their (pl. fem.) taste is sweet”.

<sup>101</sup> In group I *widd* is current.

<sup>102</sup> Wādiy Isla (as it is usually indicated on maps) runs from almost due east of aṭ-Ṭūr into the mountains. In group I the name of this wadi is pronounced Sliy (cf. 1.2.4.4. and 3.1.5.).

4.14. *Characteristics of the Narrative Style*4.14.1. *Imperative of narration*

The narrative imperative is one of the characteristics of the narrative style. An example is *w ašhabuw syūf. zimān ġār b isyūf. [...] iw taxx taxx taxx w asla'uw kitif wāhid, iw hū yušurud, úšurduw rawwḥuw tTaṛābīn...* “and they drew (their) swords. In the old days it was only with swords [...] And they hit and hit and hit, and they wounded somebody's shoulder, while he was fleeing, they fled and went to the Taṛābīn”. Another example is (after somebody had stepped on a mine) *innās ġuw 'ilēh dammuh kulluh fi ddaġ'ah, nāzil...zayy ssēl. limmūh w ahānuw dammuh, iw huṭṭuw 'a lbi'ir iw yimšuw* “people came to him, all his blood had run on the ground... like a flood. They gathered it together and buried his blood and put him on a camel and they went away”.

4.14.2. *kān as a temporal marker*

As another characteristic of the narrative style, unconjugated *kān* can be used as a marker to indicate the past, e.g. *bass zimān fi sSu'ūdīyyah hnūtiy kān innās mā btalga tākil* “but in the past in Saudi Arabia over there people could not find (anything) to eat”, *ilmayyah kān bitganniy fi lwādiy hāda* “water used to flow through (narrow) canals in this wadi”. In most cases, however, *kān* is conjugated for number and gender.

4.14.3. *Dativus ethicus*

Several instances of the ethical dative were recorded. Examples are: *kān 'indīn-ayw-marākib...marākib bass iṣġayyrāt ya'nīy...iṣġayyrāt...tālātah mitir aw arbá'ah mitir ya'nīy timšiy bēhin min ba'ad ášša'ab timš luḳ iṭnēn bēha* “yes, we used to have boats...boats, but small, that is...small ones... three or four meters (in length), that is, you go with them beyond the reef, you go for yourself two (kilometers) with them”. Another example is: *min yōm itxušš luḳ talāt arba' mitir ba'id an išša'ab ma biyġi'k xālīš. lākin law mišēt 'á-šša'ab byimšiy waṛā'k* “when you go (for yourself) in (into the sea) three or four metres, far away from the reef, it (i.e. the Morray eel) will not come to you at all. But if you walk on the (edge of the) reef, it will come after you”.

4.15. *Pluralis paucitatis*

For limited or countable numbers often the healthy plural form is used, instead of the broken plural. Examples are: *tamān faṭīrāt* ‘*ašar faṭīrāt* “eight loaves, ten loaves”. Another pl. form, used for greater or unspecified numbers is the broken pl. *faṭāyir*.

Similarly, a pl. is used in designations of quantity like *w ithuṭṭ* ‘*alēhin ēh? gadd* ‘*ašar iḡrāmāt minhin* “and you put what on them? About (the quantity of) ten grams of these (lit. them (pl. fem.))” (see remark in fn 63, p. 148) and ‘*ašar kilāt* (~ ‘*ašarah kilu*) “ten kilos”.

4.16. *Concord*

Limited or countable numbers of things are referred to in the pl. fem. and so are plurals of animals. Examples are: *bingīb arṟuḡfān iw birraḡḡidhin f-áššahan* “we bring the loaves of bread and we pile them up on a plate” and *il’ ašar t-alāf dillih talghin išrīn alf* “these ten thousand (pounds), you’ll find them (to have increased to) twenty thousand”. Other examples are: *halhīn ihwidyān... aḡlabīyttin la Biniy Wāšil... ka milkiyyih, tawḡad lēhin waṟág fi ddēr, tawḡad lēhin waṟág kidiy... ya’niy... aḡlabīyt ihwidyān inNabig... išŠarim...* “nowadays most of the wadis belong to the Baniy Wāšil... as property, you’ll find a piece of paper on them in the monastery, you’ll find a piece of paper on them like that... that is... most of the wadis near Nabg, Šarm...”. Also plurals of animals are referred to in pl. fem., e.g. *iw fih hūt kūtīr f-álbiḡar iw fih iḡrūš, bass iḡrūš diy mā-ḡadd ya’niy mā-ḡadd ibyākilhin. bass ya’niy ibnišādhin barḡuh b ilxayṭ biyḡīn fi lxayṭ barḡuh* “and there is a lot of fish in the sea, and there are sharks, but these sharks, that is, nobody eats them. But, that is, we fish for them also with a line, they also come on a line”.

## 5. A SKETCHY REMARK ON PITCH

The type of pitch often heard in the speech of (predominantly older) men of group I was not heard in MzA or BWA.<sup>103</sup>

<sup>103</sup> I merely conclude the absence of this feature in my material. I do not exclude the possibility of its existence in this group.

## CHAPTER THREE

### A DESCRIPTION OF THE DIALECTS OF THE TAṚĀBĪN, ḤWĒṬĀT, ĞARĀĞRAH, TAYĀHA, BADĀRAH, DBŪR AND MALĀLḤAH

#### INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the Bedouin dialects of the Taṛābīn<sup>1</sup> (of Rās Ṣadr on the Gulf of Suez, abbreviated as TAṢ, and of Nwēbi‘ on the Gulf of ‘Aqabah, abbreviated as TAN), Ḥwēṭāt (of Ğidy in Sinai,<sup>2</sup> abbreviated as ḤwA), Ğarāğrah (of Malbad, some 40 km to the southeast of Rās Ṣadr,<sup>3</sup> abbreviated as ĞrA), Tayāha (on the Tih plateau of central Sinai, abbreviated as TyA), Badārah (in aṛ-Ṛamlah,<sup>4</sup> abbreviated as BdA), Dbūr (some kilometres south of Qal‘at al-Ğindiy,<sup>5</sup> abbreviated as DbA) and MalālḤah (on the border with Israel, not far from al-Gṣaymah,<sup>6</sup> abbreviated as MIA) are described as forming the southern continuation of group I.<sup>7</sup> This is also the dialect type spoken in the northern Sinai by the tribes Rmēlāt, Sawārkah, Biliy, Masā‘īd, ‘Ayāydaḥ, (farther into eastern central Sinai) Aḥaywāt (as it appears in Stewart 1987 and 1990) and the Taṛābīn of the north. This type, which was earlier described in De Jong 2000:Chapter 1, links up to the dialect spoken by the Ḍullām in the Negev Desert, described in Blanc:1970. The same dialect type is spoken by branches of the Bedouin

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<sup>1</sup> The Taṛābīn claim descent from the Bugūm of the southern Ḥiğāz (see Holes and Abu Athera 2009:62 [fn 4] and 66 [fn 67]).

<sup>2</sup> Geographical coordinates of Ğabal al-Ğidy are appr. 30.10.00 North and 33.09.00 East, see Google Earth (there spelled Jabal al Jiddī).

<sup>3</sup> Geographical coordinates of nearby Ğabal al-Malbad are appr. 29.29.41 North and 33.05.55 East, see Google Earth.

<sup>4</sup> Badārah were recorded in a small settlement located at appr. 29.02.50 North and 33.33.39 East, see Google Earth. Another recording session was conducted farther towards the east a few kilometres south of Ğabal Fōgah or Fawga, coordinates appr. 29.01.26 North and 33.40.22 East, and 29.02.35 North and 33.34.18 East, see Google Earth.

<sup>5</sup> Geographical coordinates of Qal‘at al-Ğindy are appr. 29.51.00 North and 33.07.50 East, see Google Earth. If my memory serves me well, it is the settlement visible on Google Earth around the coordinates 29.48.30 North and 33.07.30 East.

<sup>6</sup> Al-Gṣaymah is at appr. 30.40.08 North and 34.22.00 East, see Google Earth (there spelled Quseima).

<sup>7</sup> The MalālḤah are actually on the border with Israel in the northeast of Sinai. They were included here, since their dialect was not discussed in De Jong 2000.

tribes Tayāha, Taṛābīn and ‘Azāzmah living in the Negev Desert, and has been succinctly described in Henkin 2008. The dialects of the same group I (or Negev-) type, but spoken more toward the central parts of Sinai (ḤwA,<sup>8</sup> DbA, BdA, TyA, ĞrA, TAŞ, TAN and MIA)<sup>9</sup> will be collectively referred to here as ‘southern group I dialects’.

## 1. PHONOLOGY

### 1.1. Consonants

#### 1.1.1. Inventory of consonants

The inventory of consonantal phonemes of ḤwA, DbA, BdA, TyA, ĞrA, TAŞ, TAN and MIA (in the northeast) is identical to that of group I in De Jong 2000:<sup>10</sup>

	bilabial		labdent.		alveolar		intdent.		postalv.		palatal		velar		uvul.		phar.		laryng.	
	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd
plosive					t	d							k	g	(q)					(ʾ)
emph.					ṭ															
nasal	m				n															
fricative			f		s	z	ṭ	ḍ	š	(ž)			x	ġ			ħ	ʿ	h	
emph.					ṣ	(z)		ḍ												
affricate												ğ								
trill					r															
emph.					(r)															
lateral					l															
emph.					l															
glides	w											y								

vd = voiced, vl = voiceless, emph. = emphatic/velarized

Of consonants listed here, those in brackets are heard in loans, such as q and ʾ in the word *qurʾān* “Koran”. They are marginal as a phoneme, such as z in *zabbat*, *yḏabbīṭ* “do properly”, or are allophone, such as ž for ġ; in

<sup>8</sup> The triangular area in the central north of Sinai which is indicated on the map as Ḥwēṭiy territory (between the dīrahs of ʿAyA, nTA and AḥA) was not visited during this research. For the maps in the appendix I have simply followed the findings for ḤwA as spoken by Ḥwēṭāt to the southwest of this area to colour in this area as well.

<sup>9</sup> See remark in fn 7, p. 193.

<sup>10</sup> Cf. De Jong 2000:59.

some of the dialects *ʒ* is highly regular, while in other dialects it is rare. The phonemic status of *ɾ* is sometimes disputed, and therefore *ɾ* is bracketed in this inventory.<sup>11</sup>

### 1.1.2. Interdental fricatives /t̪/, /d̪/ and /d̪ʁ/

Reflexes of \*t̪ and \*d̪ are interdentals t̪ and d̪ (I.P.A. [θ] and [ð] respectively. Emphatic d̪ (I.P.A. velarized [ð̠]) is the interdental reflex of both \*d̪ and \*ḏ, e.g. (as reflex of \*d̪ in) *rawḏ* (pl. *riḏān*) “small watercourse between low mountains” (DbA), *ḥāmīḏ* “sour” (BdA), *ḏayf* “guest” (TyA) and (as a reflex for \*ḏ in) *yḏall* “he remains” (TAN) and *ḏaharah* “his back” and *ḏimy* “thirst” (both ĞrA).

In a number of lexemes *ʒ* (usually loans from MSA or Egyptian Arabic) is the current reflex, like in *ʒābit* “officer”, *b aʒʒabt* “precisely”, *mazbūt* “correct”, *muḥāfiʒ* “governor”, *niʒām* “system”, *ʒurūf* “circumstances” (TyA) (notice that in the latter three examples short high vowels have not been dropped from the open initial syllables, which is another indication of their status as loans), *naʒʒam*, *ynaʒʒim* “organize”, *ḥāwūʒ* (pl. *ḥawāwīʒ*) “large storage tank for oil” (in ḤwA and TAŞ), *ḥāǧih fiʒīʾah* “a disgusting thing” (DbA), etc.<sup>12</sup>

In all dialects both *hāḏa* and velarized *hāḏa* “this (sg. masc.)” may be heard, except in ḤwA, where such velarization as in the latter form is not current.

The reflexes for \*t̪ and \*d̪ are interdentals t̪ and d̪. Examples for \*t̪ are: *naḥarīt* “we plough” (ĞrA), *tillāǧah* “refrigerator” (BdA and *tallāǧah* and *talǧ* “ice, snow” in TAŞ),<sup>13</sup> *biʿtannuw lha* “they come back to her” (ḤwA).

For \*d̪: *nubḏur* “we sow” (ḤwA), *kiḏb* “lying” (BdA) and *adbaḥah* “I slaughter it (masc.)” and *midrāh*<sup>14</sup> “winnowing fork” (both ĞrA).

There are also exceptions: in ḤwA \*t̪ in “refrigerator” and “ice; snow” has a reflex *t̪*:<sup>15</sup> *tillāǧah*, *talǧ* and also *ḥaddūtih* “story; fairy tale” (BdA, TAŞ).

In some loans from MSA (presumably via speakers of Cairene) the reflex for \*t̪ is *s*, e.g. *taʾsīr* “influence” (TAN), *bitʾassir ʾalēh* “it (fem.) has an

<sup>11</sup> For remarks on the notation of *r* or *ɾ*, see De Jong 2000:65–67.

<sup>12</sup> Additional examples may be found in De Jong 2000:60. In TAN *mḥāfiḏ* with emphatic interdental as final consonant was also recorded.

<sup>13</sup> In winter temperatures below zero are not uncommon in the higher parts of the mountainous region of southern Sinai.

<sup>14</sup> I was told that the ‘older’ word for “winnowing fork” in ĞrA is actually *digrān*, a term I also heard used by speakers of ḤwA.

<sup>15</sup> *t̪* for \*t̪ in lexemes *talǧ* and *tillāǧah* is also regular in dialects of groups VI and VII in 1.1.2. of chapters I and II.

influence on him” (TyA), *tuṛās* “legacy” (ḤwA), *ḥādsih* “accident”, *bi ḥays* (cf. MSA *bi ḥaytu*) “so as to...” (TAŞ) and *masalan* “for instance” (all dialects), and for \*ḏ it is z, as in *zakālak*<sup>16</sup> “likewise” (DbA) or *kazālak* (TAŞ), *bala m’āxza* “no offense intended” (DbA) and *bizr* “seed” and *bizrih* “seed (n.u.)”, but *hū byubḏur ibḏār* “he sows seeds” (TAŞ).

### 1.1.3. Velar stops /k/ and /g/

Like in other group I dialects \*k and \*q have unaffricated reflexes *k* (I.P.A. [k]) and *g* (I.P.A. [g]). These group I dialects do not have a separate phoneme /ḳ/ (contrast groups II, VI, VII and VIII).

### 1.1.4. Post alveolar affricate /ǧ/

A regular realisation of /ǧ/ in southern group I dialects is [dʒ] (with varying degrees of the plosive onset [d] of this affricate; also [dʒ]). The fricative allophone ʒ (I.P.A. [ʒ]) for /ǧ/ is more regular in southern group I dialects than in those of the north and it is particularly frequent in ḤwA.

### 1.1.5. Emphatic alveolar stop /ṭ/

In all southern dialects of group I a measure of glottalization in the realisation of /ṭ/ may occur. Often the glottal release, which coincides with the release of the *ṭ*, is not very clear. Much more clearly audible is the complete lack of aspiration in the release of *ṭ*—resulting from the total closure of the vocal cords—and the immediate onset of voicing for the following vowel, which coincides with the release of *ṭ*.

In one case the reflex for \*ṭ was *t*: *ti‘mih* “bait”, which must be related to the root *ṭ-‘-m* (DbA). The form *tal‘ah* “(a usually rocky) watercourse between two mountains used to climb through (i.e. a pass)” is presumably related to the root *ṭ-l-‘* “ascend” (TAŞ).

### 1.1.6. Glottal stop (hamzah)

Like in many other groups in Sinai, the reflex for \*ʾ in the verb “ask” is ʾ: *sa‘al*, *yas‘al*. Also the presentative *arʾ* or *irʾ* “behold!” shows ʾ for \*ʾ (< root \*r-ʾ-y).<sup>17</sup>

<sup>16</sup> Compare MSA *ka-dālik*, after metathesis > *ḏakālik*, and after reinterpreting morpheme boundaries of *ḏa-kālik* as *ḏakā-lik*, after which *-lik* could be interpreted as the suffixed preposition *l* used as a presentative. See also remark on *kizāluḏ* in fn 4, p. 117.

<sup>17</sup> Also reported for TyA of the Negev, see Shawarbah 2007:418.

In \**ra*'s "head", loss of ' is complemented by lengthening the preceding vowel *rās* in all dialects. The pl. is *rūs* in TyA, ḤwA, DbA, BdA, ĞrA, but pl. *ryūs* in TAŞ and TAN.

Reflexes of the pl. pattern \*CiCaC (or \*CuCaC) are often CCaC in these group I dialects, e.g. *rkaḥ* "knees", *šnaḥ* "suitcases", *ḥgan* "injections", *nxaḥ* "noses", etc.

#### 1.1.7. Secondary velarization

Like in dialects of group I in the north (see De Jong 2000:63–65), secondary velarization is a feature typical of southern group I dialects as well. In many cases a combination of a velar (*g*, *x* or *ǧ*) with *l*, *r* or *b* will produce velarization, especially with *u*, *ū* or *a*, *ā* in its vicinity. Some of many examples are: *xuḷḷah*, (pl.) *xḷaḷ* "screened off private section of a tent" (TAŞ), *mxallaḷ* "pickled" (ĞrA), *ānnaḷ* "the palm tree" (ĞrA), *ǧrāb* "crow" (ĞrA), *ǧallaḥ* "grain, cereals" (ĞrA), *ǧūlah* "desert giant" (ĞrA), *šūǧl albaḥr* "of the desert" (ĞrA), *uǧḥah* "after him" (DbA), *ǧaḷḥ* "heart" (DbA), *ǧāḥiḷha* "before her" (ĞrA), *xallaḥum* "he let them" and *xallaḥ ytaǧalla* "let him go free" (both BdA), *ǧlayyil* "little", *agalla* "less; least" (both TAŞ).

Notice the phonemic difference in this respect between *gullaḥ*, pl. *ǧlaḷ* "pitcher, jug" and *gillaḥ* "lack, paucity".<sup>18</sup>

#### 1.1.8. Liquids *l* and *r*

In ḤwA there is a phonemic opposition between /*r*/ and /*ṛ*/ in the minimal pair *drās* "threshing" and *drās* "the hard remains of the stems after threshing (thrown away as refuse)". In TyA a near minimal pair *dāriy* "knowing (sg. masc.)"—*dārī* "my house" (though stress differs) may be used to isolate /*r*/ and /*ṛ*/ as phonemes as well.

Generally, the combination *ār* will be velarized, unless *i* follows within morpheme boundaries (see also De Jong 2000:65–67). There are many examples, of which some are: *miṭmārah* "storage for grain", *škārah* "sack

<sup>18</sup> There is a phonemic difference, but to identify the different phonemes causing this difference in meaning is problematic.

A *gullaḥ* "waterjar" (pl. *ǧlaḷ*) is referred to as *bittiyih* (pl. *batātīy*) in TAŞ, while older people refer to the waterjug as *zimzimiyih* (which reflects underlying *a* in the second syllable, hence not *zimzimiyih*), cf. the well *Zamzam* in Mecca. The word *gullaḥ* is also used in metaphorical reference to a shell fired by a tank. *karniffah* (pl. *karānīf*), originally refers to the thick part of the palm leaf where it attaches to the stem, but is now also used metaphorically for the head of a tank-fired shell.

for grain” (ḤwA), *faxxār* “pottery”, *nār* “fire”, *nahār* “day(-light)”, *ġrār* “jar (pl.)” and *ktār* “many (pl. com.)”, *kbār* “old (pl. com.)”. Also: *mixšār* “large wooden fork used to stir food”, *zwārah* “visit to (the tomb of) a saint” (DbA), *xuwwār* “inferior type of camel, bred for meat”, *byār* “wells”, *Badārah* “name of the tribe Badārah”, *ḥwār* “one-year-old camel” (all TyA).

Notice, however, how following (either present or elided) *i* within morpheme boundaries blocks such velarization, e.g.: *albāriḥ* “yesterday”, *šārib* “lip; having drunk (sg. masc.)”, ‘*aqārib* “scorpions”, *sāriḥ* “taking the goats and sheep out to graze (sg. masc.)” and (elided) ‘*ārfin* “knowing (pl.)”, *Bšāriy* “of the tribe *Bišāriyyah* (referring to a type of camel)”, *šāri* “street”, *xarārīf* “stories” and *tārīx* “history”.

Another illustration is the difference in velarization (i.e. its presence or absence) in *bindārġiḥ mdāraġiḥ* “we take it (in travel) in stages” and in the plural form in *Sēl liXbār* “the Wādiy (lit. Stream) of the fields”, but the other pl. form *xibāriy* “agricultural (plots of) land fed by rainwater”.

#### 1.1.9. Nasal *n*

No remarks.

#### 1.1.10. Devoicing of final voiced stops, liquids and nasals in pause

A feature noticed in TyA is the glottalization of (especially) the *ā* in an ending *-āC* in pause > *-āʔ*, after which the C (in all recorded instances this was an alveolar) is no longer pronounced. Examples are (the dropped final consonant is indicated in square brackets): *Fērāʔ* # [n] “Wādiy Fērān”, *kattāʔ* # [t] “killer”, *Nṣayrāʔ* # [t] “(a sub tribe) Nṣayrāt”, *blāʔ* # [d] “land”.

### 1.2. Vowels

#### 1.2.1. Inventory of vowel phonemes

Like northern group I dialects, southern group I dialects have three short vowels and five long vowels:

short:	<i>i</i>	<i>u</i>	long:	<i>ī</i>	<i>ū</i>
				<i>ē</i>	<i>ō</i>
	<i>a</i>			<i>ā</i>	

## 1.2.2. Long vowels

1.2.2.1. Allophones of long vowels  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{i}$ 

Like in group I dialects of the north, phonetic overlapping of / $\bar{e}$ / and / $\bar{i}$ / occurs in most southern group I dialects as well. However, in TAŞ, ĞrA and TAN this feature was found to be less regular than in the other group I dialects. Examples are *sīf* “sword” (TyA), *zīn* “good” (TyA).

Notwithstanding such phonetic overlapping, the phonemic status of phonemes / $\bar{e}$ / and / $\bar{i}$ / can be established with a minimal pair like *šēn* “bad”—*šīn* “name of letter š”.

In several dialects of group I imperfect forms of the verb “dry” (root *y-b-s*) monophthongization has remained absent, keeping the morphological pattern transparent, e.g. *yaybas* “he dries (intrans.)” (recorded in ḤwA, ĞrA, TyA, TAŞ).

1.2.2.2. Allophones of long vowels  $\bar{o}$  and  $\bar{u}$ 

In neutral environments, i.e. in the absence of velarization and without preceding back spirants, older diphthongs \**ay* and \**aw* have been monophthongized as  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{o}$ . As long vowels, the phonemic status of / $\bar{u}$ / and / $\bar{o}$ / can be established through a minimal pair like: *rūḥ* “go! (imperative sg. masc.)”—*rōḥ* “soul”.

In positions influenced by velarization, / $\bar{u}$ / is realized relatively low, near I.P.A. [o:], but phonemic clash with reflexes of \**aw* is avoided, since \**aw* tends to be realized as a diphthong *aw* in such positions.

In verbs with *wāw* as their first radical, the diphthong *aw* has often not been monophthongized, which keeps verb forms morphologically transparent, e.g. *nawgaf* “we stand” as opposed to monophthongization in *tōgid* “you light” (both in DbA and ḤwA) and *tawṣafnī* “you describe to me” and *tōzin* “you weigh” (both in TAŞ). But in TyA both *yawṣal* “he arrives” and *yawrid* “he gives water” have diphthongs. In ĞrA there appears to be a tendency to monophthongize *aw* in closed syllables, e.g. *yawrid* “he waters”, but *yōrduw* “they water”. Examples in BdA: *yowgaf* “he stands” and *yōkiha* “he ties it (fem.) closed”.

Some  $C_1 = w$  verbs in ḤwA also have imperfect forms occurring without incorporated *wāw*,<sup>19</sup> e.g. *tigīf* “she stands”, *tagfīn* “they (pl. fem.) stand”, *yirīd* “he waters” and *tardiy* “you (sg. fem.) water”, but a form like *tizīn* for “you weigh” was not accepted during direct elicitation.

<sup>19</sup> Shawarbah 2007:432 also reports *yīr(i)d* and *yīṣil* for TyA.

Notice that in the forms *tigif* and *yirid* the vowel of the first syllable is actually underlying *a*, hence it is not dropped in open unstressed syllable (which would have resulted in forms like *•tigif* and *•yirid*) and ‘reappears’ as *a* in closed syllables (cf. the sg. fem. forms quoted).

### 1.2.2.3. Allophones of long vowel *ā*

The long vowel *ā* may have a realization as high as I.P.A. [ɛ:], mainly in neutral positions and when followed by *i* or *ī* in the next syllable (but within morpheme boundaries), as in *nāsīy* ‘having forgotten (act. part. sg. masc.)’, *nāyim* ‘asleep (act. part. sg. masc.)’, *rāsīy* ‘anchored (act. part. sg. masc.)’, *dārīy* ‘knowing (act. part. sg. masc.)’ and *ġārīy* ‘running (act. part. sg. masc.)’.

But *ā* is realized nearer to I.P.A. [a:] in positions like *nās* ‘people’, and also in *nāsī* ‘my people’ (contrast *nāsīy* above).

Also in ḤwA the phonetic difference between *ā* in *mākīl* ‘having (sg. masc.) eaten’ and *nāyim* ‘sleeping (sg. masc.)’ (both near I.P.A. [ɛ:]) and in *nākīl* ‘we eat’ and *nām* ‘he slept’ (both nearer to I.P.A. [a:]) is clear. Another example is /ā/ (near I.P.A. [a:]) in *šāl* ‘he carried’ and *šāyil* ‘carrying’, where /ā/ is nearer to I.P.A. [ɛ:].

In velarized environments, *ā* is realized near I.P.A. [ɑ:], as in *rāsī* ‘my head’, *dārī* ‘my house’ and *ġārī* ‘my neighbour’.

The difference in realizations of *ā* in *rāsī* and *rāsīy* may be explained by recognizing either /ā/ and velarized /ạ̄/, or /r/ and velarized /ṛ/ as separate phonemes. In the case of differences in a near minimal pair like *nāsīy* and *nāsī*, absence or presence of velarization is irrelevant. We could isolate /ɛ:/ and /ā/ as separate phonemes.<sup>20</sup>

However, since *nāsī* is stressed on the final syllable, whereas *nāsīy* is stressed on the first, concluding stress as being phonemic would be equally justified, if we would choose to regard [ɛ:] and [ɑ:] as allomorphs of /ā/.

### 1.2.2.4. Shortening of long vowels

Like in northern group I dialects, shortening of unstressed long vowels is a feature of allegro style in southern group I dialects as well.<sup>21</sup>

<sup>20</sup> The problem of identifying phonemes in cases such as described here was discussed before in De Jong 2000:65–67.

<sup>21</sup> Shawarbah 2007:421 reports for TyA of the Negev that shortening of long vowels in unstressed positions only occurs in open syllables; in closed syllables their length is retained.

1.2.3. *Short vowels*1.2.3.1. *Isolating phonemes /i/, /u/ and /a/*

In a number of minimal pairs short high vowels /i/ and /u/ can be isolated as phonemes:

<i>Xiḍr</i> “male given name”	– <i>xuḍr</i> “green (pl. com.)”
<i>xirm</i> “elongated species of fish”	– <i>xuṛm</i> “hole”
<i>‘igb</i> “offspring”	– <i>‘ugb</i> “after”
<i>girbih</i> “watersack”	– <i>gurb</i> “nearness”
<i>hibb</i> “kiss!”	– <i>hubb</i> “love”
<i>ṣifr</i> “zero”	– <i>ṣufr</i> “yellow (pl. com.)”
<i>šiggah</i> “his guest section of the tent”	– <i>šuggah</i> “fishing net”

Minimal pairs to isolate /a/ on the one hand, and /i/ or /u/ on the other hand are much easier to find, e.g.:

<i>habb</i> “grain”	– <i>hubb</i> “love”
<i>haṭṭ</i> “he placed”	– <i>huṭṭ!</i> “place!”
<i>šadd</i> “he pulled”	– <i>šidd!</i> “pull!”

1.2.3.2. *Phonetic factors influencing the quality of I*

The subject of phonetic factors influencing the phonetic quality of *I* has been discussed at some length in De Jong 2000:70–74.

In the pl. com. form for colours or physical defects *i* tends to show up in neutral environments, and *u* in velarized or labial environments, but different dialects show different short vowels. Forms recorded are:

*šidf* in ĞrA, TyA, ḤwA, BdA, DbA, but *šudf* in TAŞ “left-handed (pl. com.)”; *‘imy* in ĞrA, ḤwA, BdA, DbA, but *‘umy* in TyA and TAŞ “blind (pl. com.)”; *‘irġ* in ĞrA and BdA, but *‘urġ* in TyA, ḤwA and TAŞ “limping (pl. com.)”; *zirġ* in ĞrA, TyA and ḤwA, but *zurġ* in TAŞ, BdA and DbA “blue; black (pl. com.)”; *hibl* in BdA, but *hubl* in DbA “dim-witted (pl. com.)”.

Apart from such variation in different tribal dialects, *u* is regular in *humr* “red (pl. com.)”, *xuḍr* “green (pl. com.)” and *ṣufr* “yellow (pl. com.)” in all dialects. Other recorded forms pl. com. are *turš* “deaf” (TyA), *humg* “stupid, silly” and *xurš* “dumb” (both ḤwA and TyA).

The short vowel in the imperfect of the verbs “eat” and “take” is *i* in all dialects discussed here: *yākil* and *yāxid*. Imperatives of these verbs tend to have *u* in the velarized forms of the sg. masc.: *xuḍ* and *kuḷ* (velarization is

indicated here with a subscript dot in *ḏ* and *l*).<sup>22</sup> In the other forms *u* is dropped, but velarization remains, as in (sg. fem.) *xḏiy*, *kḏiy*, (pl. masc.) *xḏuw*, *kḏuw* and (pl. fem.) *xḏin kḏin*. When such forms are preceded by a consonant, an anaptyctic vowel with a phonetic value near I.P.A. [u] is regular: *yā nās ukḏúw* “eat, people!” and *yā ḥrayym ukḏlín* “eat, women!” (examples from TAŞ).

Like in other dialects of Sinai, medial geminate verbs tend to show *i* in neutral environments, and *u* elsewhere. Some of many examples are (for all dialects, unless indicated otherwise), *u* in: *ydugg* “hit, pound”, *yḏurr* “be harmful to”, *yxuḏḏ* “churn”, *ykuḏḏ* “bite”, *ymuşş* “suck”, *yşubb* “pour”, *yṭubb* “find, encounter; go to”, *yxuşş* “enter”, *yṭuşş* “throw”, *yḥuṭṭ* “place”, *yrudd* “be related to; answer”, *yṭuxx* “shoot, fire”, *yluxx* “be soaked in”, *yruşş* “sprinkle”, *yġukk* “churn, shake” and *ykutt* ~ *ykitt* “go downstream in a wadi” (ḤwA, BdA, but ~ *ykitt* in TAŞ).<sup>23</sup>

*i* is heard in: *yşidd* “pull, tighten”, *yfik* “loosen”, *yliḥ* “go around, turn”, *ymidd* “stretch out”, *ytiḥ* “spit”, *yşirr* “let dry (of dates) in a *maşarrah*”, *yriḥ* “flutter (of tent cloth)”, *yġiḥ* “dry”, *ytim* “take place”, *yhim* “be important for”.

### 1.2.3.3. Morphological conditioning of the short high vowel

Since a separate phoneme /k/ is not found in group I, exceptions like those noted for groups VI–VIII (and in group II)<sup>24</sup> are not found in group I.

### 1.2.3.4. Allophones of short vowels

Allophones of short vowels *i*, *u* and *a* are like those described for group I in De Jong 2000:74–76, which are in turn also like those in group VI.

#### 1.2.3.4.1. Allophones of /i/

Allophones of /i/ are like those described for group VI.

#### 1.2.3.4.2. Allophones of /u/

Allophones of /u/ are like those described for group VI.

<sup>22</sup> A supra-segmental feature like velarization could also have been indicated in *x* or *k*, e.g. *xuḏ* and *kuḏ*, or throughout, e.g. *xuḏ* and *kuḏ*, but since velarization spreads, marking it in one location may be sufficient.

<sup>23</sup> Again we see variation of the high vowel in the contiguity of *k*, see remark in fn 18, p. 30 above.

<sup>24</sup> See De Jong 2000:253.

1.2.3.4.3. *Allophones of /a/*1.2.3.4.3.1. */a/ in non-raised positions*

Allophones of /a/ in non-raised positions are like those described for group VI.

1.2.3.4.3.2. *Raising of (\*)/a/ preceding long stressed vowels*

Although raising of *a* in the pattern CaCīC has been characterized as regular and therefore morphophonemic in dialects of group I of the north, such raising is optional in most southern group I dialects, except in ḤwA, where it is also concluded to be morphophonemic. In DbA raising of *a* tends to be inhibited by preceding *ḥ*, *ʿ*, *x* or *ǧ* (with preceding *h* was not recorded in DbA).

Except when *a* is preceded by *ʿ*, such raising is not inhibited by phonetic factors in the other southern group I dialects. Examples recorded are (illustrating all dialects, except ḤwA and DbA): *ṣarīmih* ~ *ṣirīmih* “bridle”, *alʿArīš* ~ *alʿIrīš* “name of the town al-Arish”, *xalīǧ* ~ *xilīǧ* “gulf”, *ʿarīs* ~ *ʿirīs* “bridegroom”, *raḥīl* “travelers”, *daǧīǧ* ~ *diǧīǧ* “flour”, *rafiǧ* ~ *rifiǧ* “companion”, *raḥīf* “thin”, *ǧalīd* ~ *ǧulīd* “thick”, *raǧīǧ* “thin”, *xafīf* ~ *xifīf* “light” and also *ǧanīy* “rich”.

Forms only recorded with raised *a* are: *gibīlah* “tribe”, *kitīr* “much, many”, *ǧimīʿ* “all”, *biʿīr* “camel”, *kibīr* “big; old”, *ṣiǧīr* “small; young”, *gidīm* “old”, *ʿirīs* “bridegroom”, *iǧīn* “dough”, *ḥizīn* “sad”, *dixīl* “guest taking refuge”, *ṣiǧīǧ* “brother”, *širīf* “honourable”, *riǧīf* “loaf of flat round bread”, *bixīl* “stingy”, *ʿIlīy* “male given name ‘Aliy” and *ṭirīy* “moist, soft”.

In most group I dialects of central and southern Sinai preceding hamzah blocks such raising, e.g. *ʿašīl* “thoroughbred” and *ʿatīm* “orphan” and also in verb forms (*ʿ*)*aǧīb* “I bring”, (*ʿ*)*ašīl* “I carry”, (*ʿ*)*aǧīk* “I come to you”, (*ʿ*)*arīd* “I want” and (*ʿ*)*abīʿ* “I sell” (see however remarks in 3.1.1.8. and 3.2.1.2.). Forms with the *b*-imperfect are treated similarly, e.g. *babīʿ*, *barīd* (raising of *a* in mediae *yāʿ* verbs of the type (*b*)*ibīʿ* or (*b*)*irīd* for the 1st p. com. sg. is rare in the dialects discussed here, see also remarks in 3.2.1.2.).

- No instances were recorded of raised *a* preceding stressed CCī, examples are: *baṭṭīx* “watermelon”, *baddīʿ* “improviser of rhyme”, *xarriǧ* “alumnus”, *sakkīnah* “knife”, *ǧarnūṭ* “octopus”, *sabīn* “seventy”, *xamsīn* “fifty”, *Katrīn* “(St.) Catherine”, *kabrīt* “matches”, *xanzīr* “extra growth of twigs (to be removed) on lower stem of the grafted almond plant (lit. pig)”, *ǧarǧīriḥ* “watercress (n.u.) (?)” and many more.
- Instances of raising of *a* preceding stressed Cē: in TyA, ḤwA and DbA one will hear e.g. *ʿilēha* ~ *ʿalēha* “on him”). Such raising in the suffixed

preposition *‘ala* (e.g. *‘alēh* > *‘ilēh*) was not observed in TAŞ, TAN, ĞrA, MlA or BdA.

In verb forms we find optional raising in ḤwA, TyA, ĞrA like *mašēt* ~ *mišēt* “I walked” (~ *mišit* in ḤwA), *laġēt* ~ *liġēt* “I found” (~ *liġit* in ḤwA, TyA), *fadēt* ~ *fidēt* “I sacrificed”, though in MlA, TAŞ and BdA such raising was absent; forms there are e.g. *mašēt*, *fadēt* (*liġit* only appears as *i*-type). Notice that in verb forms of the *a*-type imperfect raising of *a* may take place when it precedes *ē*, but not in forms with diphthongs (i.e. when it precedes *ay*), so e.g. *ṛamayt* “I threw”, *ḏawayt* “I went home before sunset”.

- raising of *a* preceding CCē is not current in MlA, TAŞ, TAN (though once *suwwēt*), BdA or TyA. Forms with raised *a*, though optionally so, like *middēt*, *šiddēt* etc. are however current in ĞrA, ḤwA and somewhat less so in DbA.
- raising of *a* preceding stressed Cā is regular in all dialects discussed here, but optional, e.g.: *Tayāha* ~ *Tiyāha* “name of tribe Tayāha”, *Ġamāl* ~ *Ġimāl* “Ġamāl (‘Abd anNāšir)”, *ribā’* “camel in its sixth year”,<sup>25</sup> *ġināh* “small irrigation canal”, *ġarādil* ~ *ġirādil* “buckets”, *bahāyim* ~ *bihāyim* “cattle (pl.)”, *gazāzih* ~ *gizāzih* “bottle”, *Sawārkih* ~ *Suwārkih* “name of tribe Sawārakah”.
- raising of *a* preceding stressed CCā is optional: *fissāy* “expert farter”, *ġiṣṣāš* “tracker”, *billāš* “thief; extortionist”, *biṛrād* “teapot”, *tillāġih* “fridge” and *wiġ’ān* “suffering pain”, *milyān* “full”, *hiġġān* “camel rider”. Such raising was heard mainly in BdA, ḤwA, ĞrA and TyA, but was found to be much less current in MlA, TAN, TAŞ and DbA.

N.B. sg. fem. forms of colours and physical defects have short stressed final *-á(‘)* (if not raised).

- raising of *a* preceding stressed *ū* is optional: *ġumūs* ~ *ġamūs* “food dip”, *xurūf* ~ *xarūf* “lamb”, *ġunūb* ~ *ġanūb* “south” and *yuhūd* ~ *yahūd* “Jews”. With initial hamzah such raising remains absent (contrast with groups VI–VIII): (‘)*abūy* “my father” and (‘)*axūy* “my brother”, and 1st p. sg. com. imperfect forms of mediae *wāw* verbs (‘)*aġūm* “I get up”, (‘)*aġūl* “I say” (see remark \* below).
- raising of *a* preceding stressed *a*: (all dialects have a CaCÁc stress-type) *ġimāl* “camel”, *libán* “milk”, *šġár* “trees”, (a gahawah-form) *šihár* “month”, *sibág* “race”, *mi’áh* “with him” and verb forms *mišá’* “he walked”, *kitáb* “he wrote” and (gahawah-form) *yixázín* “he stores”. Here

<sup>25</sup> See Stewart 1990:255 (glossary).

too preceding hamzah prevents such raising, e.g. (ʾ)*adáb* “good manners”, a verb form (ʾ)*axád* “he took” (TyA) and gahawah-forms like (ʾ)*ahál* “people”, (ʾ)*a’áma* “blind”, (ʾ)*a’áraġ* “limping, lame” and (ʾ)*axáđar* “green”.

- raising of *a* preceding stressed *u* does not occur when \*hamzah precedes the *a*: (ʾ)*axušš* “I enter”, (ʾ)*aħutt* “I place” (in contrast to such forms as *uxušš* etc., heard mainly in groups VI–VIII).
- raising of *a* preceding stressed *i* does not occur when hamzah precedes the *a*: (ʾ)*ašidd* “I pull tight”, (ʾ)*amidd* “I stretch out” (in contrast to such forms as *išidd* and *imidd* etc. heard in groups VI–VIII).

Stress in perfect forms of verbal measures *n*-1 and 1-*t* is *ánwikal*, *áttifag*, etc. (see 3.2.3.1. and 3.2.3.3.). The article is stressed in a sequence *álCvCv(+)* (see 2.1.1.1.), e.g. *álġimal* “the camel”, *álbušal* “the onions”.

Like in groups VI–VIII, when *a* follows stressed *i* in closed syllable, it is raised, as in *yínđirib* “he is beaten”, *yíttifig* “he agrees”.<sup>26</sup>

#### 1.2.3.4.3.3. Raising of the feminine morpheme (T)

The *a* of the fem. morpheme is regularly raised in neutral environments and reaches a phonetic value near I.P.A. [i<sup>h</sup>].

Such raising is usually found in pausal positions, but also, though less regularly so, sentence-medially. Examples are: *ġibál al’Iġmih ba’ád atTih* “The Iġmah mountain lies behind the Tih”, (first word in) *kilmih magyūlah* “a spoken word”, *ba’ád kiđiy aġattīha b almallih xāliš* “after that I cover it completely with hot sand”,<sup>27</sup> *tītil’ allibbih w lannha ēh? mistawyih tamām attamām* “you take out the libbih and there it is what? Perfectly cooked”.

In velarized environments such raising does not take place, e.g. *šurťah* “police”, *ġilīđah šwayyih* “a little thick”, (second word in) *kilmih magyūlah* “a spoken word”, *alġiššah* “the story”, *baxūrah* “incense”, *xūxah* (velarized throughout) “peach”, *ađmah* “bone”, *māsk alxūšah f-īđi* “holding the knife in my hand”.

Raising is not inhibited by the pharyngeals ʿ and ħ, e.g. *mā tukfurha ʿašān mā tíʿaffan itxallha fāťih* “don’t close it (i.e. the bottle), so that it doesn’t spoil, you leave it open”.

<sup>26</sup> And also like in groups VI–VIII, in the verb forms *yínđirib* and *yíttifig*, the raised *a* will again ‘reappear’ as *a* when in closed syllables, e.g. *yínđárbuw* and *yíttáfguw*, see also 3.2.3.1.1.

<sup>27</sup> *mallih* is the hot sand under the glowing embers in which the loaf of bread (*libbih*) is baked. A *libbih* is a thick round of dough baked in hot sand and embers. This type of bread is also prepared by men when they are travelling.

1.2.3.5. *Prosodic lengthening of short vowels*

To express extra emphasis, such as on long durations of time, long distances or great quantities, speakers often prosodically lengthen short vowels. Examples are: *iw minnih āh? iysawwlūh yōm yabrā:d fi mā'un naḍīf* “and after that what? they carefully pour it into a bottle (through a funnel) when it (slowly) cools off in a clean container”, *maḥāl mā biyǧǧy maṭār wala kān ligīt alḥamād hāda axaḍar* “barren, no rain comes (to it) nor did I ever see (lit. find) this flat stony land<sup>28</sup> green”.

1.2.4. *Long vowels and diphthongs*1.2.4.1. *Monophthongization of diphthongs \*ay and \*aw*

Like in group VI, in positions not influenced by velarization, or preceded by X, older diphthongs \*ay and \*aw have in most cases become monophthongal ē and ō with realizations near I.P.A. [e:] and [o:].

Examples listed for group VI for \*ay may also be heard in group I. Some additional examples are: *ǧēšna* “our army”, *šēn* “bad, ugly”, *swēkin* “(dim. of) living”, *asSwēs* “Suez”, *zēt* “oil” and examples for ō listed for group VI may also be heard in group I, *nō* “type, sort”, *ǧōz* “husband”, *ǧōltak* “what you said (lit. your saying)”, *lōnah* “its (sg. masc.) colour”, *ǧōm* “enemy tribe”, *ǧōz* “sandy hill, dune”, and *lōz* “almonds”.

When \*ay and \*aw are preceded by X or velarized consonants, they have not been monophthongized, but have remained diphthongal.

Examples are (for ay) *ʿayn* “eye”, *ʿayš* “food”, *xayr* “goodness”, *xayl* “horses”, *ḥayṭ* “walls”, *ṣayd* “hunting”, *ḍayf* “guest”, and examples of verbs are *ḥaṭṭayna* “we placed”, *xadḍayna* “we churned”, *išṭarayna* “we bought”, *ḍaḷḷayt* “I stayed” and (for aw) *ḥawl* “year”, *ʿAwdih* “given name ‘Awdah”, *xawf* “fear”, *ṣawt* “sound; voice”.<sup>29</sup>

There is a tendency to prosodically lengthen the first element of the diphthong ay (which has an I.P.A. value between [a] and [ɛ]), especially in positions with primary stress. Forms with such lengthened diphthongs were heard mainly in TAŞ, TAN, ĞrA and BdA. Examples are *ʿa:yš* “food”, *ʿa:y:n* “eye”, *ʿa:y:b* “disgrace”, *xa:yṭ* “thread”, *xa:y:nih* “severe cold (as a disease)”, *ḥa:y:l* “strength”, *ṣa:y:f* “summer”, *ṣa:y:d* “hunting”, *Fra:yǧ* “male given

<sup>28</sup> Stewart 1990:232 (glossary) lists *ḥamādih* “flat barren stony land”. For further references, see *ibid*.

<sup>29</sup> Shawarbah 2007:422–423 describes a situation for TyA of the Negev where monophthongization of \*ay (as ē or ī) and \*aw (as ō) is general and not conditioned by phonetic environment.

name *Frayğ*. Similar lengthening of *aw* was heard in *tga:wɫir* “you go” and *bya:wɫuw* “they travel (on foot?)”.

In some cases monophthongization in neutral environments has not taken place, *mawğūd* “present (adj.)”, *aw'a* “watch out!”<sup>30</sup> and also *šawlıy* “left-handed (sg. fem.)” and also verb forms like *awrid* “I water” and *awgaf* “I stand up” and *ğawna* “they came to us”. The advantage is that the arrangement of root consonants in a morphological pattern like  $aC_1C_2aC_3$  (as in *awgaf* instead of *ōgaf*, compare e.g. *ašrab* “I drink”) has remained transparent.

The suffixed preposition *lay* “to me”, *bay* “with me” are better interpreted as *lay + y* and *bay + y*. In analogy to these forms, one will also hear *fay* “in me” in all dialects (~ *fini* in ĞrA).

#### 1.2.4.2. Isolating long vowels /ī/, /ū/, /ā/, /ē/ and /ō/ as phonemes

In many dialects of group I the phonetic difference between /ē/ and /ī/ in neutral environments is often minimal, and in some lexemes the phonemes overlap. Such overlapping results from the higher realisation of /ē/, rather than from a lower realisation of /ī/. Examples are *sīf* “sword”, *šīx* “sheikh”, *bīt* “house”, *itnīn* “two”, *sanatīn* “two years”, *zīn* “good”, *ḏ'ayfīn* *iftītāt* (< *ftētāt*) “tiny children”. In such examples the *ē* is not quite full *ī*, but it is very near [i:].

A few instances of such overlapping were heard in MlA, TyA, HwA, DbA and ĞrA but none were heard in TAN, TAŞ and BdA.<sup>31</sup> Possible minimal pairs to isolate the five long vowels are (see also De Jong 2000:79):

*dēr* “monastery”—*dīr* “turn (trans.)”—*dūr* “turn (intrans.)”—*dōr* “floor (in a building)”—*dār* “house”  
*ğābih/-ah* “bring it!”—*ğēbih/-ah* “his pocket”—*ğābih/-ah* “he brought it”, *gōm* “enemy tribe”—*gūm* “get up!”

#### 1.2.4.3. Allophones of ā

In the dialect of the Taṛābīn of group I, *ā* in neutral surroundings is realized near I.P.A. [ɛ:], but this is the case usually only when *i* follows (within morpheme boundaries) in the next syllable (like e.g. *ārif* “knowing” and *mizāri* “fields for agriculture”, but *rāyib* “curdled (of milk)”, or ‘vanished’ *i* disappeared from a preceding syllable, e.g. *drās* “threshing”. In other

<sup>30</sup> In HwA, ASA and HnA *aw'a* is conjugated: *aw'a tans!*, *aw'iy tansiy!*, etc. “don't you forget!”. In the other dialects it was left unconjugated for number and gender, e.g. *aw'a tansin* “don't you (pl. fem.) forget”.

<sup>31</sup> My Turbāniy informant claimed such overlapping to be a feature of northeastern (of Sinai) dialects, e.g. Rmēlāt and Sawārkah. See also MAP 5 in De Jong 2000:659 (appendix).

(non-velarized) environments the phonetic value is slightly lower, nearer to [æ:],<sup>32</sup> as in for instance in *šāyī* “my tea”. Thus also the phonetic difference in /ā/ in the examples *šāl* (near I.P.A. [æ:]) “he carried” and *šāyil* (nearer to I.P.A. [ε:]) “carrying”.<sup>33</sup>

When velarization is involved, /ā/ is backed as I.P.A. [ɑ:] as in *dār* “house”, *xalāš* “and that’s it!”, *ḍārūbah* “thoroughbred (fem.) camel”, etc.

Minimal pairs, or near minimal pairs like *ḡārī* “my neighbour” and *ḡārīy* “running” thus become possible. Similarly *dārī* “my house” and *dārīy* “knowing” (both with [ɑ:] and [ε:] resp.), but the question remains which phonemes are actually isolated.<sup>34</sup>

#### 1.2.4.4. Reflexes of final \*-ā(ʾ)

Like in dialects of group I in the north, the reflex of final \*-ā in neutral environments is often *-īy*.<sup>35</sup> Some examples found in all dialects discussed here are: *štīy* / *ášštīy* “(the) winter”, *šīy* / *álīšīy* “(the) evening”, *hniy* “here”, *grīy* “villages”,<sup>36</sup> *mīy* / *álmīy* “(the) water”. Colours are: *sawdíy* or *sōdíy* “black (sg. fem.)”, (a gahawah-form) *šahabíy* “sand-coloured”, *hamšíy* “a darker shade than *šahabíy* (sg. fem.)”. Physical defects: *arḡíy* “limping (sg. fem.)”, *hamḡíy* “stupid (sg. fem.)”, *xarsíy* “dumb, mute (sg. fem.)”, *hawlíy* “cross-eyed (sg. fem.)”, *šadfíy* “left-handed (sg. fem.)”, *amyíy* “blind (sg. fem.)” and a diminutive form *grayíy* “little bald (dim., sg. fem.)”.

Raising was also heard in the forms *ilyiy* (compare CA *ulyā*) “upper grinding stone of a hand mill” and *dinyiy* “world”, *atTrayyíy* “the Pleiades” (in TAŠ, but in BdA *atTrayyih*), *Ġawzíy* “Gemini” in BdA and *gniy* “singing” in TyA.

In the perfect verb form *ġaʾ* “he came” such raising is absent (contrast the DWA form *ġíy*, see De Jong 2000:416). Raising is also absent in the pron. suffix of the 1st p. pl. com. *-na* “our; us”, e.g. *w imʾaggid f-alwādíy w aššāyib, Allāh yarḥamih, [mā] ʾindina ḥmār nāgl iḡrayyibih fi ḍahárih ilná* “and he was going in the wadi, and the old man—God rest his soul—

<sup>32</sup> Similar remarks on the phonetic quality of /ā/ were made for nTA in De Jong 2000:69 (there abbreviated as TA).

<sup>33</sup> Shawarbah 2007:423–424 reports a high degree of *imālah* for medial *ā* in specified neutral environments in the speech of the Qdīrāt sub-confederation of the Tiyāha of the Negev, e.g. *wēdíy* “wadi”, *Sēlim* “male name *Sālim*”, *ʿeyiš* “alive” and *ḥēmíy* “hot”, etc.

<sup>34</sup> See also remarks in De Jong 2000:65–66.

<sup>35</sup> Such extreme *imālah* is also reported for TyA of the Negev, see Shawarbah 2007:424.

<sup>36</sup> *grīy* (as a pl. of *garyih*) was recorded in ḤWA. However, Blanc 1970:125 [14] gives *grīy* as a pl. for *garyih* and glosses *grīy* as “hospitality”. If the ancestral form would be *\*qurā* (i.e. like in Classical Arabic), the pl. reflex *grīy* instead of *gīriy* makes better sense. See also fn 144, p. 111 for *grīy* in the meaning of “proper food served to a respected guest”.

(and) we did not have a donkey, was carrying a small waterskin on his back to us” (TyA).

In MIA and TyA final *\*-ā* of the pron. suffix of the 3rd p. sg. fem. is raised, e.g. *ṛabbayttīy<sup>37</sup> w māt abūhiy w hī mā ṛabʿanat, wala ḥatt-āddriy ḡaʿ ʿalēhiy. iw fi ḡizittiy...maʿit...yamʿatawhiy mn ihnīy min-hāda. w iykāwnūhiy lā tḡiy ʿindī* “I raised her and her father died before she was (even) 40 days old, and I even stopped breast feeding her (lit. ‘nor did the milk come to her’, i.e. because of the shock suffered by the mother caused by her husband’s death). And after her wedding...snatched (lit. snatching)...they snatched (lit. imperfect: they snatch) her away from here, from here. And they had to fight her so she would not come (back) to me” (TyA) and *itgūm itṭa ʿimhiy<sup>38</sup> b xūxah...itḡib min ḡuṣn alxūxah w itraggidhiy fihiy...* “you then go and graft it with a peach tree...you get one of the twigs of the peach tree and you tuck it (sg. fem.) into it (sg. fem.)”<sup>39</sup> (MIA). The form *ykāwnūhiy* in the former example also shows that preceding *ū* does not inhibit raising of the final *a* in *-ha*.<sup>40</sup>

In the other dialects (TAN, TAŞ, HwA, ĞrA, DbA and BdA) raising of *\*-ā* in this pronominal suffix is absent. Instead, a glottal catch, especially in pause, often accompanies the final (short) *-a*, e.g. *b addastah baḡibhaʿ #* “by the dozen I get it (sg. fem.)” (TAŞ), *yaʿniy kān aḡna mnazzmīnhaʿ...ifwāḡ ʿa talaṭ t-iyyām..* “that is, we used to organize it (sg. fem.)...in heats over three days...” (talking about camel racing) (HwA).

When back spirants *ḡ*, *x*, *ḡ* or velarized consonants directly precede final *\*-ā*, it is not raised, but in most cases has a *-aʿ* (with glottal stop, also in sandhi, and usually stressed) reflex. Examples are: *mīn-ihniy bnáxaṭir<sup>41</sup> ašṣaṭṭ...ʿala zzamil [...]* *iw binḡib ʿalēhin idrāʿ* “from here we go to the market on the coast...on camels [...] and we bring sorghum on them (i.e. on their backs)” (HwA), *kān ʿindak ṣafrāʿ...áṣṣafrāʿ hēdiy mānī ʿāriḡha biyḡūluw ʿalēha ēš...* “if you have jaundice...this jaundice I don’t know (it) what they call it...”. Other examples are: *bēḡáʿ<sup>42</sup>* “white (sg. fem.)”,

<sup>37</sup> Assimilated *ṛabbayt + hiy*, see 2.5. of this chapter.

<sup>38</sup> Assimilated *t + ṭaʿimhiy*, see 2.5. of this chapter.

<sup>39</sup> *raggad, yraggid* would literally mean “cause to lie down/sleep”, but here it refers to inserting (i.e. grafting) the twig into the incision in the stem and then cover it (usually with tape). Compare to “abdecken (bei Tomatenanbau, d.h. die Pflanze in eine Grube drücken und mit Erde überdecken)” in Behnstedt and Woidich 1994:168.

<sup>40</sup> Contrast with remarks on group I dialects in northern Sinai in De Jong 2000:166.

<sup>41</sup> For the verb *xataṛ, yaxaṭir* see Stewart 1990:283 (glossary): “to go to get supplies of corn and the like”.

<sup>42</sup> In HwA and DbA reduction of *ē* in this form was observed: *biḡáʿ*.

*zargá' ~ zirgá'* “blue” (in all dialects)<sup>43</sup> (often as a euphemism for “black”), *xadrá'* “green (sg. fem.)”, *'awrá'* “one-eyed (sg. fem.)”, *gar'á'* “bald (sg. fem.)” (but notice raising—since here further spread of velarization to the right is blocked by *y*—in the diminutive form *gray'íy*).<sup>44</sup>

N.B. In MLA some instances of the sg. fem. were recorded with long final *-ā*, *ṣafrā*, *zargā*, *xadrā* and also *ḍaḥā* “morning”.

When historical *a* in open syllable directly precedes, raising of final *\*-ā(')* remains absent, e.g. *gīfá'* “neck”, *aná'* “I”, *ḡaṭá'* “cover, lid”, *ḡadá'* “lunch”, *'ašá'* “dinner”, *dawá'* “medicine”, *samá'* “sky”, *sawá'* “together”, *ṭaná'* “young boy”.

In a form like *raxá'* “abundance”, *ḍaḥá'* “morning” there is a combination of inhibiting factors preventing such raising (historical *a* in open syllable preceding and *X* preceding in combination with the spread of velarization).

When *a* in preceding open syllable is not historical, but a gahawah-vowel, such raising of final *\*-ā(')* is not inhibited, e.g. *ṣaḥabíy* “sand-coloured (sg. fem.)”, *kaḥalíy* “variety of blueweed”.

In TAŞ a phonemic difference in stress was noticed in the pair of adjectives *ḥawlíy* and *ḥáwlíy*: *saxaḥ ḥawlíy* “a cross-eyed (sg. fem.) lamb”—*ḡídíy ḥáwlíy* “a one-year-old billy goat”.

Like in other dialects of group I (see De Jong 2000:82), a short (underlying) *a* in open syllable directly preceding will prevent such raising (provided this *a* is not a gahawah-vowel), e.g. *'ašá'* “dinner”, *ḡadá'* “lunch”, *nidá'* “moistness, dew”, *gīfá'* “nape of the neck”,<sup>45</sup> *aná'* “I” and also in velarized forms like *ṭará'* “moist ground”, *waṛá'* “behind”, *ḍará'* “windscreen”, *gaḍá'* “law”.

Final *-a* in verb forms of the perfect of *tertiaef infirmae* is not raised, e.g. *fadá'* “he sacrificed”, *mašá'* “he walked” and also velarized forms like *ramá'* “he threw”, *waṭá'* “he went to buy”.

When the preceding *a* is a gahawah-vowel, raising in neutral environments is not prevented, e.g. *ṣaḥabíy* “sand-coloured (sg. fem.)”, *kaḥalíy* “variety of blueweed”.

These reflexes of final *\*-ā*, whether raised or not, are usually stressed, even when a heavy sequence precedes within morpheme boundaries, e.g.

<sup>43</sup> Contrast *zargíy* in ḌA, see Blanc 1970:124 [13].

<sup>44</sup> In TyA of the Negev the un-raised stressed endings are also short and are cut off with a glottal stop, e.g. *biḡá'* “white (fem.)” and *'orá'* “one-eyed (fem.)”, see Shawarbah 2007:422, 425 and remark on p. 418.

<sup>45</sup> The vowel *i* in the forms *nidá'* and *gīfá'* is raised (underlying) *a*.

*sōdīy* or *sawdīy* “black (sg. fem.)”, ‘*arǧīy* “limping (sg. fem.)” and *xadṛá* “green (sg. fem.)”, *ṭarmá* “gap-toothed (sg. fem.)”.

When the preceding heavy sequence contains the article, stress on the article is regular, e.g. *ásštiy* “the winter”, *álfīy* (*al + fīy*) “the viper”, *álgada* “the lunch”, *ánnida* “the moistness, dew” and *gillt álḥaya* “impudence”.

N.B. “here” is *hniy* in all dialects (although in MIA ~ *hāna*) and K-form *hina* may be heard in all dialects.

The forms with final *-iy* also occur sentence-medial. When suffixed, however, long *ā* will ‘reappear’. An illustrative example is in Bailey 2004:173 (entries 449 and 450, in my own transcription) *wāǧib al-ḥisnīy ‘ala griy wa driy* (3 instances of raising) “he who’s received benefaction must feed and shelter”, but no raising in (two) suffixed forms in *man ad’a li ḥisnāh yāxid garāh* “he who’s invited his benefactor will feed him”.<sup>46</sup>

#### 1.2.4.5. Allophones of long vowels ē, ī, ō, and ū

##### 1.2.4.5.1. Lowering effect of preceding emphatics on ī and ū

Primary and secondary emphatics will lower the phonetic value of following *ī* and *ū* towards (but not completely) (resp.) I.P.A. [e:] and [o:].

##### 1.2.4.5.2. Off-glide in ē and ī

Off-glides in /ē/ and /ī/ have been described for group I in De Jong 2000:85–86.

##### 1.2.4.5.3. Off-glide in ō and ū

Off-glides in /ō/ and /ū/ have been described for group I in De Jong 2000:86.

#### 1.2.4.6. Diphthongs

Dialects of group I have four diphthongs: *ay*, *aw*, *iy* and *uw*. Although the transcription of poems recorded from the Tīhiy poet “Tayāhā” (Ḥusayn bin ‘Īd bin Ḥamad bin Mišliḥ bin ‘Āmir at-Tayāhā) and the Turbāniy poet “Unayz” (‘Unayz Aḥuw Sālīm Swaylim al-‘Urḏī) in Holes and Abu Athera 2009<sup>47</sup> does not reflect diphthongal reflexes of \**ay* and \**aw* when preceded

<sup>46</sup> Such reappearance of *ā* in suffixed forms is also reported for TyA of the Negev, e.g. *mī zīy*, but *mī zāna* “our goats”, see Shawarbah 2007:424.

<sup>47</sup> See pp. 47–62 for “Unayz” and pp. 67–81 for “Tayāhā”. Examples in ‘Unayz’s poetry are: *ǧēr* (p. 53, l. 6), *‘ēbin* (p. 53, l. 8), *raḏēna* (p. 56, l. 10), *‘ēn* (p. 57, l. 21), *ḥōl* (p. 60, l. 19), *ḥēt* (p. 61, l. 4), *ǧēbat* (p. 61, l. 9) though *gaḏḏaynāhin* (p. 54). In Tayāhā’s poetry: *al-guṣēma* (p. 69, l. 5), *fīr ōn* (p. 69, l. 13), *xēš* (p. 72, l. 11), *ōn* (p. 77, l. 5), *‘ēnah* (p. 79, l. 3), *ḏēf* (p. 79, l. 10), *xēr* (ibid.), *ǧēnah* (p. 80, l. 11), but also *ḏallaw* (p. 80, l. 21).

by X or in velarized environments,<sup>48</sup> my own findings for the dialects TyA and TAN described here are quite conclusive: in such positions reflexes tend to be diphthongal in these dialects of group I.<sup>49</sup>

#### 1.2.4.6.1. Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw

##### 1.2.4.6.1.1. Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw in neutral environments

In positions not preceded by X (i.e. back spirants *h*, *ʕ*, *x*, *ġ* or *h*) or velarized consonants \*ay and \*aw have usually become *ē* and *ō*, cf. 1.2.4.1.

In final positions, verbal endings *ay* and *aw* have also remained diphthongal, as in e.g. *tansay* “you (sg. fem.) forget”, *yansaw* “they forget”, *ḥaraṭaw* “they ploughed” and also *ġaw* “they came”.<sup>50</sup>

In some cases monophthongization in neutral environments has not taken place, which has preserved morphological transparency, e.g. *taybīs* “drying (transitive verbal noun of measure 2 verb root *y-b-s*)”, *sawdīy* (~ *sōdīy*) “black (sg. fem.)”, *mawġūd* “present”, and also initial sequences of prima *wāw* verbs often show diphthongs, e.g. *awġaf* “I stand up”, *nawrid* “we give water”, although such forms co-occur with monophthongized forms (in this case *ōġaf* and *nōrid*). The prima *yāʾ* verb (perfect) *yibis* “dry (intrans.)” also shows a diphthong in the imperfect *yaybas*, although the form with the monophthong *yēbas* also occurs.

##### 1.2.4.6.1.2. Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw in non-neutral environments

###### 1.2.4.6.1.2.1. Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw preceded by X

Reflexes of \*ay and \*aw preceded by X have remained diphthongal. Phonetic values range between [ai] and [ei] for \*ay and between [au] and [ou] for \*aw. Some examples are: (for *ay*) *xayl* “horses”, *ġayl* “rain”, *Aḥaywāt* “name of tribe (dim.)”, *ʿayb* “disgrace” and *min yōm ṭulūʿ iShayl*, *iḡxall-attamir hayl* “when the rising of Canopus<sup>51</sup> (is there), it causes the dates to fall” (recorded in BdA), (for *aw*) *hawġal* “wooden threshing board”, *ḥawlīy* “cross-eyed”, *ḥawl* “year”, *ʿawrāʾ* “one-eyed (sg. fem.)”, *xawf* “fear” (an

<sup>48</sup> Also for TyA of the Negev unconditional monophthongization of \*ay and \*aw (> *ē* or *ī* and *ō* resp.) is reported, see Shawarbah 2007:422–423.

<sup>49</sup> One of my TAN informants is actually a son of the late ʿNēz.

<sup>50</sup> Although I recorded a few instances of endings *-iy* and *-uw* in TAN and TyA in *a*-type imperfects (as in e.g. *tāšrabiy* and *yāšrabuw*), in the majority of possible cases the endings are in conformity with the rule formulated for group I, e.g. *tāšrabay* and *yāšrabaw*.

<sup>51</sup> Canopus (Ar. *Suhayl*) is visible just above the horizon in the southern sky around mid-October. See also the proverb in Bailey 2004:75: *suhayl yixallī ar-ruṭab hayl* (in my own transcription this would be *iShayl iḡxall-árṭab hayl*) “Canopus makes the ripe dates fall”. Dates are said to be ripe for harvest as early as July in Nwēbiʿ, then two months later in Fērān, another month later in Rās Šadr and again a month later in the Delta.

example of *ġ* preceding *aw* was not recorded). Examples of verb forms are *yadbaħaw* [ˈyɛðbɛħau] “they slaughter”, *tázra‘aw* [ˈtɛzrɛʔau] “you (pl. masc.) grow (crops)”.

1.2.4.6.1.2.2. Diphthongs \**ay* and \**aw* preceded by velarized consonants  
 Reflexes of \**ay* and \**aw* preceded by velarized consonants have remained diphthongal. The phonetic value of the first element of the diphthongs tends to be slightly raised and is higher than when preceded by X: [ɛi] and [ou]. Examples listed in De Jong 2000:87–88 may serve to illustrate the situation in the group I dialects discussed here as well: (for *ay*) *ʔayr* IPA [ʔɛir] “birds”, *ɖayf* [ðɛif] “guest”, *ʂayf* [ʂɛif] “summer” and (for *aw*) *ʂawm* [sɔum] “fasting”, *tawr* [ʔɔur] “overhanging cliff”.

Other diphthongs were heard in *tawr* “bull” and *tawb* “garment”, where velarization has spread backwards (i.e. from right to left) through the word.

#### 1.2.4.6.2. Diphthongs -iy and -uw

##### 1.2.4.6.2.1. Reflexes of final \*-ī and \*-ū

Like in other dialects of Sinai, the diphthongs *iy* and *uw* occur in a variety of positions.

Unlike the situation in group VI, *i*-type perfect forms of the tertia *yā* verbs pattern 3rd p. sg. masc. CiCiy (underlying |CaCiy|) commonly occur in group I. Examples are: *liġý* “he found”, *fiħý* “he was surprised”, *dirý* (*b*) “he became aware (of)”, *nišý* “he forgot”, *ġilý* “it became expensive”.

Final -*iy* may also reflect older final \*-ā́, as in *miy* “water”, in the saying *alħisniy tnazzl alġidir ‘an alġidir*, lit. “benefaction removes one cooking pot (over a fire) (to make place) for another”,<sup>52</sup> (reflecting the sg. fem. pattern \*CaCCā́ for physical defects) *arġý* “limping (sg. fem.)”, *ħablý* “simple-minded (sg. fem.)”, *amyý* “blind” and the sg. fem. pattern for colours (also \*CaCCā́) *sawdíy* “black”, *šahabý* “sand-coloured”. -*iy* may also reflect \*-ā́, as in *ħniy*<sup>53</sup> “here”, *mi‘ziy* “goats”.<sup>54</sup> In groups VI–VIII the reflex for \*-ā́(´) is often -*i*´, except in patterns for sg. fem. forms for colour or physical defects. The regular reflex then, like in group I, is -*ý*.

<sup>52</sup> A saying expressing the right of a host to come to someone else who has a fire, to cook food there for his guests; the man with the fire then as a deed of benefaction will remove his own pot to make place for the pot of the man acting as a host. See also Bailey 2004:164 (saying 419). In a more general sense the saying may also call for a special favour for those who have special obligations (like having to receive a guest).

<sup>53</sup> Final stressed -*ý* for \*-ā́ is regular in group I. In the dialect of Biliy, however, the same -*i*´ reflex was recorded for \*-ā́ and also \*-ā́, see De Jong 2000:89.

<sup>54</sup> See also Stewart 1990:248 (glossary), root *m-‘z*.

Like in group VI, final *-iy* may reflect final *\*-ī* in *birīy* “innocent”, final *\*-īy* in *šibīy* “boy”, *ġanīy* “rich”, *ṭirīy* “moist; soft”, *\*-ay* in *šīy* “thing” and the nisbah ending for the sg. masc., e.g. *‘Abbādīy* “(member) of the ‘Abābdah”.<sup>55</sup>

Instances of final (but unstressed) *-iy* sequences created by anaptyxis are: *ḥákīy* # “telling” and *ġīdīy* # “billy goat” (the morphological bases are *ḥaky* and *ġidy* resp.).

Instances of final *-uw* or *-iw* sequences created by word-final anaptyxis are: *baduw* # “Bedouin (pl.)”, *ḥiluw* # “sweet; beautiful”.

Examples of diphthongs created by word-medial anaptyxis are: *biyšūf* “he sees”, *káwīyha* “its (sg. fem.) cauterization” and *aliwlād* “the boys”.

For remarks on diphthongal endings in *a*- and *i*-type perfects of *tertia infirmae* see 3.2.2.5.1.

The adverb “here” is in most dialects *hniy*, which may derive directly from *hunā(‘)* or *hinā(‘)*.

Final *-iy* reflects final *\*-ī* in *birīy* “innocent”, final *\*-īy* in *nibīy* “Prophet”, *šibīy* “boy”, *ġiwīy* “strong”, final *\*-ay* in *šīy* “thing” and the nisbah-ending for the sg. masc., e.g. *Su‘ūdīy* “Saudi”.

#### 1.2.4.7. Prosodic lengthening of long vowels and diphthongs

Long vowels may be lengthened: (expressing a long duration of time) *w iytaxālaṭaw w yal‘aba:w lamma yitilfiw* “and they mingle and play (a long time) until they grow tired”, (expressing an extreme degree) *alihṛayyim haḍallāk ib‘ā:d* “those women faaar away”, *ṣayyitta bā:rdih* “its (sg. fem.) water is (extremely) cold”.

The first element of a diphthong is also often lengthened. This occurs mainly in TAN, TAŞ, ḤwA, ĠrA and BdA (much less regularly in the other dialects) and predominantly so in monosyllabics, e.g. *‘a:yš* “bread; food”, *ḥa:yṭ* “walls”, *‘a:yn* “eye”, *xa:yṭ* “thread”. Such lengthening does not appear to be related to extra emphasis.

<sup>55</sup> The ‘Abābdah are an Arabic speaking (though originally speakers of Beja, a Cushitic language) African tribe living in the eastern desert of Egypt (and across the border in northeastern Sudan), to the south of the Ma‘āzah.

## 2. STRESS AND PHONOTACTICS

2.1. *Stress*2.1.1. *Rules for word-stress*

Stress in group I is of the máktabah-type. Rule order is the same as in group VI: elision—stress—anaptyxis.<sup>56</sup>

Verbal gahawah-forms of the *i*-type imperfect, like *yáḥalbuw* “they milk”, receive special treatment (see 2.1.2.4.).

The stress rules for central and southern group I dialects are like those described for group I in De Jong 2000:91–92. The rules can be summarized as follows:

- 1) Speech pause # does not have the function of a consonant for the stress rule (contrast # for anaptyxis rule below in 2.3.)
- 2) The domain of stress is formed by
  - a.) the last three syllables of a word, including the article *al-* and the verbal *an-* prefix (and the suffixes), the vowel preceding the *t*-infix (of measure 1-*t*) if these are part of the last three syllables.
  - b.) or the last four syllables, when there are no heavy sequences
- 3) Stress is placed according to the criterion of quantity, i.e. vowels of heavy sequences are stressed.
- 4) The following types of ‘heavy’ sequences occur: *vCC(C)* and *v̄C(C)* (including *v̄(h)*).
- 5) The vowel of the first heavy sequence from the right is stressed (see examples in 2.1.1.1.)
- 6) a) In the absence of a heavy syllable, stress the vowel in the second syllable from the left (all dialects except TAŞ), or
  - b) In the absence of a heavy sequence, stress the vowel in the first syllable from the left (TAŞ).

<sup>56</sup> The same rule order is reported for TyA of Negev in Shawarbah 2007:425. Stress in Negev TyA can be characterized as: *fa'ál*, *fi'úl/fi'ú'íl/fa'íl* or *fa'úl*, *fa'álah/-ih*, *fa'álatih*, *fa'á(')/fi'íy*, *yí'iy/yáf'a* (tertia inf.), *álfa'al* (stressed article), *ánfa'al*, *yínfa'il* (surface form *yínfi'il*), *ánfa'álat* (verb measure *n-1*), *áfta'al*, *yífta'il* (surface form *yífti'il*), *afta'álat* (verb measure 1-*t*).

2.1.1.1. *Stress in words with heavy sequences*

Examples of stress in words with ‘heavy’ sequences are:

*ásštiy* “the winter”, *ál’aša* ‘the dinner, *álfīy* “the viper” (first *i* is anaptyctic), *šalāt álíšiy* (first *i* is anaptyctic) “evening prayer”, *áli’lab* (first *i* is anaptyctic) “the tins”, *mádrasah* “school”, *ásštaǵa!* “he worked”, *áttafag* “he agreed”, *ánǵasal* “he was washed”, *álbašal* “the onions”, *ábwalad* “the boy/son”, *ḍarábt* “I hit (perfect)”, *ṭíl’na* “we rose”, *ḍarábtih* “I hit (perfect) him”, *waládkiy* “your (sg. fem.) son”, *zēnīn* (*ī* stressed) “good (pl.masc.)”.

For forms like *líbsitih* “she wore it”, *libístih* “I wore it” and *šírbitih* “she drank it”, *širíbtih* “I drank it” recorded in ĞRA, see remarks in 2.4.4.

2.1.1.2. *Examples of stress in words without heavy sequences*2.1.1.2.1. *Stress in CvCvC(v)*

Examples of stress in (C)v<sub>1</sub>Cv(C)<sup>57</sup> are:

(<sup>1</sup>)v<sub>1</sub>CvC: in all dialects: *abár* “needles”, *ahál* “people, family”, *akál* “he ate” (the latter only in DbA, TyA, ḤwA; *kal* in TAŞ, TAN, BdA, MIA, ĞRA), (“I come” is *aǵíy* in all dialects of group I).

CvCv(‘): *aśá* “dinner”, *maśá* “he walked”, *dawá* “medicine”, *ḥayá* “shame, bashfulness”.

Cv<sub>1</sub>CvC: *ḥanáš* “spider”, *malág* “hard flat rock (on which no footprints show)”, *ǵaṭás* “he dived”; *wagáf* “he stood up”, *waṛág* “paper” and *šibíy* “boy”, *biríy* “innocent”, *ṭiríy* “moist; soft” (“he comes” is *yǵíy*) and gahawah-forms *šahán* “plate”, *šahár* “month” and *ba’ád* “after”.

2.1.1.2.2. *Stress in (C)vCvCv(C) and (C)vCvCvCv(C)*

In the following sequences stress is placed thus:

(C)v<sub>1</sub>CvCv(C): stress in TAŞ is only on the initial syllable: *xášabah* “piece of firewood”, *fárašat* “she spread out”, (and gahawah-forms) *ǵáhawah* “coffee”, *áxaḍar* “green”, *áharit* “I plough”, *á’arag* “I sweat”, *táharit* “he ploughs”, *yá’arag* “he sweats”, *ḍárabaw* “they beat (perf.)”. Also when (C)(v)C precedes a sequence (C)v<sub>1</sub>CvCv(C) stress is on the first open syllable from the left: *inwákalat* “she was eaten”, *ištáǵaḷat* “she worked”, *ittáfagaw* “they

<sup>57</sup> When v<sub>1</sub> in this pattern is not preceded by C, it is underlying |a|.

agreed”, *al’árabiy* “Arabic”, *albádawiy* “the Bedouin”, and also (*i*)*byáhafraw* “they dig” (for such gahawah-forms of *i*-type imperfects with vowel-initial endings see remark in 2.1.2.4. below) and *aláhamar* “the red” and *aláxaḍar* “the green”.<sup>58</sup>

Stress in TAN, ĞrA, TyA, ḤwA, DbA and BdA (for remark on MIA see \*<sup>1</sup> below) is on the second syllable: *xašábah*, *farášat*, *ḍarábaw*, *Tawárah* or (with raised pre-stress *a*) *Tuwárah* “Tawarah (tribes)”, *akálat* “she ate” (the latter only in DbA, TyA, ḤwA) and (gahawah-forms) *gaháwah*, *axáḍar*, *ahárit*, *a’árag*, *tahárit*, *ya’árag*

When (C)(v)C precedes a sequence (C)v<sub>1</sub>Cv(C) in these dialects (but see remark \*<sup>2</sup> on TyA below) stress is also on the second open syllable from the left: *algaháwah* “the coffee”, *annahásal* “the (big black) ant”, *ingalábat* “she overturned”, *ixtaláfat* “she was different”, *ištaǧálat* “she worked”, *aššagárah* “the tree; bush”, *alwaraǧah* “the paper (n.u.)”, *azza’átar* “the thyme”, *annaxálah* “the palm tree”, *ištaǧálaw* “they worked”, *inḍarában* “they (fem.) were beaten”, *azzalámah* “the man”, *inḍarábat* “she was beaten”, *assabáǧah* “the race”, *a’ǧabátih* “she pleased him”, but also (gahawah-forms) *alaxáḍar* “the green” and *alahámar* “the red”<sup>59</sup> and also *azZagárah* “Wādiy Zaǧarah (a tributary of Wādiy Dahab)”.

When the heavy sequence preceding (C)vCvC(C) is created by a long vowel, stress is usually also on the penultimate syllable, e.g. *kāwanátih* “she fought him” (recorded in TyA, ḤwA, BdA, ĞrA), but *kāwanatih* in DbA and also *mgāḥalatak* “the meeting with you” (the latter two stressed on long *ā*) in BdA.

(C)vCvCvC(C): stress in TAN, TyA, ḤwA, DbA and BdA is on the third syllable from the right: *raǧábatih*, *naxálatih*, *ya’áragaw*, *ya’áragan*, *yahártuw*, etc.

Stress in such sequences in TAŞ and MIA is on the fourth syllable from the right: *raǧabatah*, *naxalatah*, *yá’aragaw*, *yá’aragan*, *yáhartuw*, etc. (for such gahawah-forms of *i*-type imperfects with vowel-initial endings see remark in 2.1.2.4. below) (for a remark on ĞrA see \*<sup>3</sup> below).

In forms which become like a CvCvCvC(C) (‘surface’) sequence as a result of bukaḥa-insertion (see 2.2.2.1.), the bukaḥa-vowel is ignored for the placement of stress, e.g. (bukaḥa-vowel underlined) *záǧaraḩat* “she ululated”.

<sup>58</sup> The latter two of which are—in terms of stress assignment—best interpreted as *al’axaḍar* and *al’ahamar*.

<sup>59</sup> See preceding fn.

\*<sup>1</sup> In MIA stress varies in ((C)(v)C) (C)vCvCv(C); both (*al*)*gaṣálah* and (*al*)*gáṣalah*, (*al*)*gaháwah* and (*al*)*gáhawah*, *sákanaw* and *sakánaw* “they settled”, etc. can be heard. Similar variation occurs in TyA, but only when (C)(v)C precedes a sequence (C)v<sub>1</sub>CvCv(C): *aššáğarah* “the tree; bush” *algáṣalah* “the twig”, *minṭá’amah* “grafted (sg. fem.)”, but also *mašlahátak* “your interest”.<sup>60</sup>

\*<sup>2</sup> TyA however shows variation, since also forms with stress on the first open syllable from the left were recorded, like *azzálamah* “the man”, *ingálabat* “she overturned”, *ingáta’an* “they (pl. fem.) were cut off”, *inhášaraw* “they were crammed together”.

\*<sup>3</sup> Stress in ĞrA is placed thus: *ragábatih*, *farášatih*, *naxálatak*, *naxálatih*, but in elicited verb forms the gahawah-vowel was ignored and stress was placed accordingly: *yá’aragaw* “they sweat”, *tá’aragan* “you (pl. fem.) sweat”, *tá’aragay* “you (sg. fem. sweat)” (i.e. stress is placed as if forms are *ya’ragaw*, *ta’ragan*, *ta’ragay* resp., which are therefore concluded to be the underlying base forms).

## 2.1.2. Exceptions to the stress rule

### 2.1.2.1. Stress on reflexes of \*-ā’ and \*-ā

Reflexes of \*-ā’ in the sg. fem. of colours and physical defects, whether raised or not, will be stressed, although they have been reduced to short vowels, e.g. *xadrá(’)* “green (sg. fem.)”, *ṣafrá(’)* “yellow (sg. fem.)”, *bēdá(’)* “white (sg. fem.)”, *gará(’)* “bald (sg. fem.)”, *awrá(’)* “one-eyed (sg. fem.)”.

These reflexes are also stressed when they have been raised (to final -iy, see 1.2.4.4.), e.g. *sōdíy* ~ *sawdíy* “black (sg. fem.)”, *šadfīy* “left-handed (sg. fem.)”, *hawlíy* “cross-eyed (sg. fem.)” and also with a gahawah-form *šahabíy* “sand-coloured (sg. fem.) (i.e. yellowish light brown)”.

Notice that stress in forms like *ašá’*, *dawá’*, pronominal *aná’* and also a verb form *mašá’* etc. is in conformity with the stress rules, and also when the article precedes and receives stress, this is according to stress rules, e.g. *ál’aša’*, *áddawa’* and also *míy* “water”, *štíy* “winter”, *šíy* “evening” and *álmíy* “the water”, *ášštíy* “the winter” and *šalāt álíšiy* (where the first *i* is anaptyctic) “the evening prayer”.

Reflexes of -ā in pronominal suffixes, whether raised or not, will not be stressed (unless they are part of the only syllable available for stress, e.g.

<sup>60</sup> Such variation in stress is also present in dialects spoken nearby, such as those of the northern Tarābīn, Sawārkah and Rmēlāt, see De Jong 2000:664 (map 15).

*lná'* “to us”), e.g. *‘indina(‘)* “with us”, *yǧīna(‘)* “he comes to us” and *mínha(‘)* or *mínhiy* “from her”.

The pair *saxaḷah ḥawlíy* “a cross-eyed (sg. fem.) lamb”—*ǧídíy ḥáwlíy* “one-year-old billy goat” could be used to show phonemicity of stress (recorded in TAŞ).

#### 2.1.2.2. Stress on final nominal \*-īy reflexes in \*CaCīy

In group I, reflexes of the pattern \*CaCīy are CaCīy or (after raising the short vowel *a*) CiCīy and are stressed on the ultimate, which is in conformity with the rules formulated in 2.1.1.2., e.g. *wilíy* “holy man”, *nabíy* ~ *nibíy* “prophet”, *ṣibíy* “boy”.

#### 2.1.2.3. Stress in al + \*CaCīy

When the article precedes a CaCīy sequence it is stressed, e.g. *ánnibíy* or *ánnibiy* “the Prophet”, *áṣṣabíy* or *áṣṣibiy* “the boy” and *áwilíy* “the holy man”.

#### 2.1.2.4. Stress in suffixed gahawah-forms

Examples of stress in gahawah-forms (see also 2.1.1.2.2.) are: *ba‘áḏhum* “each other”, *naxáḷha* “her datepalm”.

For assignment of stress in *i*- and *u*-type gahawah-imperfects the elision of the high vowel, made possible by the insertion of a gahawah-vowel, is ignored, e.g. *yáḥalbin* “they (fem.) milk”, *táḥartuw* “you (pl. masc.) plough”, *táxabṭah* “you beat it” (these latter three in TAŞ and MIA) or *yaháḷbin*, *tahártuw*, *taxáḷtah* (other dialects).

Resyllabication of sequences CaCaCatv > CaCCitv is not a characteristic of group I dialects.

#### 2.1.2.5. Stress in vCCICv

A short high vowel is not dropped from a sequence vC<sub>a</sub>C<sub>a</sub>IC<sub>a</sub>V and stress is placed according to rules in 2.1.1.2., e.g. *biyḥálliluw* “they make heaps” and *biyǧaffífūhin* “they dry them (fem.)” and *sadditī* “my dam”. The geminate is in these cases reduced.<sup>61</sup>

An exception to this exception recorded in TAN and TAŞ is sg. fem. *m‘ayyyih*, pl. masc. *m‘ayyyīn* and pl. fem. *m‘ayyyāt* (sg. masc. *m‘ayyiy*) (i.e. the forms are not *•m‘ayyiyih*, *•m‘ayyiyīn* and *•m‘ayyiyāt*) for “feeble, sapless (esp. as a result of too much food or drink)”.

For active participles of the verb *ta‘aknan* “be irritated”, see 2.4.4.

<sup>61</sup> The same is reported for TyA of the Negev, see Shawarbah 2007:421.

2.1.3. *Stress units*2.1.3.1. *Stress in combinations with preposition min and negated personal pronominals*

Like in group VI, the preposition *min* may form one stress unit with the following word, as in *mín-taḥat* “from below”, *mín-kidīy* “from this”, *mín-ihniy* “from here”, *mín-ihnuh* “from there”, *mín-waṛa*’ “from behind”.

In negated pronominals stress is on the first syllable: *mānī*, *minta*, *mintiy*, *mihna*, *mintuw*, *mintin mūhū*, *mīha* (also *mīhī*), *mūhum*, *mihin* or *māhin* (in forms like *mūhūmma* and *mihinna* stress is on the second syllable).

2.1.3.2. *Enclitically suffixed prepositions l and b*2.1.3.2.1. *Enclisis of the suffixed preposition l*

Enclitic suffixation of the suffixed preposition *l* is less regular than in group VII, but does occur. An example (in ĞrA) is ‘*ala ḥittah ygūl-ilhá*’, *iygūl-ilh-Aḥmḥ Sa’id* “to an area he calls, he calls (it) Aḥmḥ Sa’id”. Notice that in case of enclitic suffixing the shorter form *lha* is used instead of the independent form *lēha*.

2.1.3.2.2. *Enclisis of the suffixed preposition b*

Enclitic suffixing of suffixed preposition *b* was not recorded.

2.2. *Phonotactics*2.2.1. *The gahawah-syndrome*2.2.1.1. *The gahawah-syndrome: a-insertion in \*aXC sequences*

The gahawah-syndrome is active in all dialects discussed here. Some of many examples are: *ḍahár* “back”, *saxálah* “lamb”, *šaharayn* “two months”, *yahalbūha* “they milk her”, *Zaġárah* “name of a tributary wadi (coming from the west) of Wādiy Ḍahab some 10 km northwest of the town Ḍahab”, *aḥáwal* “cross-eyed”, *šahabíy* “sand-coloured”, *taḥát* “under”.

2.2.1.2. *Morphological categories showing variation*

The gahawah-syndrome is active in forms of the past participle (i.e. where  $C_1 = X$ :  $maXC_2\bar{u}C_3$ ) like *ma’arūf* “known”, *ma’azūl* “separated, isolated”, *ma’agūl* “reasonable”, *maḥarūt* “ploughed”, *maḥarūg* “burnt”, *maḥaṭūt* “placed” and *maxarūm* “pierced”, but also *maxlūt* “mixed”, *maxšūš* “special”, *mahyūn* “insulted”.

Exceptions are also found with the pattern  $maXC_2vC_3(ah)$ : *maġarib* “time of sunset”, *maḥawíy* “treated by a ḥawíy (i.e. a snake charmer)”, *maxazan* “storage place”, but also (a loan) *mahraġān* “festival”.

Although derived measures are usually unaffected by the gahawah-syndrome, some verbal nouns of measure 2 do show gahawah-vowels, like in DbA *taḥagīg* (< *taḥgīg*) “allotment of shares of food (*ḥiggih*) during the annual visit to a sheikh’s tomb (*zwārah*)” was recorded, in MIA *taġarīb* “going north”,<sup>62</sup> in ĞrA *taḥawīš* “collecting”, *ta‘ašīb* “removing weeds”, *taḥabiš faḥám* “making (by controlled burning) of charcoal”. But forms without gahawah-vowels were also recorded, e.g. *taḥwilna* “our transfer”, *ta‘dīb* “punishment” and *taḥbiš faḥám* (in TAŞ).

2.2.1.3. *Morphological categories in which the gahawah-syndrome is not active*  
The gahawah-syndrome is not active in derived verbal measures (for exceptions in verbal nouns of measure 2, see remark in the preceding paragraph 2.2.1.2. above). Examples are like those listed for group VI.

The examples of elatives listed for ṬwA, HnA and ‘LA are also found in our group I dialects discussed here: *aḥsan* “better/best”, *aḥla* “more/more beautiful, sweeter/sweetest”, *aġlab* “more/most” (and also a loan *aġlabiyyah* “majority”) and *aġla* “more/most expensive”.

In loans (from Standard Arabic or Cairene) the gahawah-syndrome is usually absent, e.g. *baḥs* “research”<sup>63</sup> and *aḥlan!* “welcome!” and also *ya‘niy* “that is; it means”, and *ya‘mal*<sup>64</sup> “he makes”.

Like in group VII, the fem. morpheme in construct state becomes *-at* when it follows XaC (also where *a* is a gahawah-vowel), so that the sequence CaXaCat is the result. When such a sequence is directly suffixed with a vowel-initial suffix, the resulting CaXaCatv sequence is not resyllabified (contrast MzA of group VI). Examples are *naxaḥlatī* “my palm tree” and *gáhawatak* (TAŞ and MIA) or *gaháwatak* “your coffee” (other southern group I dialects).

2.2.2. *Articulatory delay in the realization of alveolar sonorants (liquids l, r and n)*

2.2.2.1. *Articulatory delay in the realization of r: the bukaṛa-syndrome*

Examples of bukaṛa-vowels are (underlined): *ḥiġūriḥ* “his lap”, *yašaraban* “they (fem.) drink”, *zaġaraṭat* “she ululated”, *katuruw*<sup>65</sup> “they became many”.

<sup>62</sup> On the system of orientation of tribes in the north of Sinai, see De Jong 2000:469, fn 48.

<sup>63</sup> *baḥs* instead of MSA *baḥt*: s for ṭ is an indication that the loan came via a sedentary dialect such as Cairene, which lacks interdental s in its phoneme inventory.

<sup>64</sup> See remark in fn 51, p. 137.

<sup>65</sup> Since *a* of the first syllable only appears in closed syllables (e.g. *kuṭūr*, but *katrit*), the underlined *u* is here interpreted as a vowel created by the bukaṛa-syndrome, rather than a vowel whose elision is inhibited by it.

Examples of the bukaṛa-syndrome inhibiting the elision of a preceding high vowel are *alīkbār tafātīr alīšjār* “old people are the records of young people”<sup>66</sup> and *ykasīr albīkāriġ* “he smashes the coffee pots”.

Examples of the ‘greater’ or ‘expanded’ bukaṛa-syndrome creating vowels: *Ṣadīr alḤayṭān* “Ṣadr al-Ḥayṭān; name of the mountain range between Rās Ṣadr and Nixl”.

The form *nūbuḍur al’ays* “we sow the (seeds for making) bread” is comparable to the form *yūḍukur ānnibiy* discussed in De Jong 2000:114. The application of rules is as follows (here the high vowel eligible for elision is in bold print; the anaptyctic is underlined; the bukaṛa-vowel is bold and underlined):

	base form	sandi elision	anaptyxis	bukaṛa-insertion
<i>yudkur + v</i>	<i>yudkur v</i>	<i>yudkr v</i>	<i>yūḍukr v</i>	<i>yūḍukur v</i>
<i>nubḍur + v</i>	<i>nubḍur v</i>	<i>nubḍr v</i>	<i>nūbuḍr v</i>	<i>nūbuḍur v</i>

N.B. Since the bukaṛa-rule is a late phonetic surface rule, the vowels produced by it are inconsequential for the placement of stress (i.e. the stress rule is applied before the bukaṛa-rule), e.g. *zāġaraṭan* “they (fem.) ululated”, also in dialects that would otherwise stress CaváCaCv(C), as in e.g. *raġábatak* “your neck” (see remark in 2.1.1.2.2.).

#### 2.2.2.2. Influence of l

Like *r*, *l* may also be involved in inhibiting elision of the short vowel. Examples are (preserved vowels underlined) *min aġdam gibāyil alliy hin-nih ... alliy humṃma Badārah* “of the oldest tribes, which are ... who are Badārah”, *nizīl alxawāġih* “the foreigner got out (of the car)” and *min awwīl al’umr* “from the beginning of (his) life”.

Examples of ‘expanded’ or ‘greater’ bukaṛa-vowels preceding *l* in sandhi (where the vowel is not a cluster-resolving anaptyctic as described in 2.3.2.) are (‘greater’ bukaṛa-vowels underlined): *aṣīl abwādiy fih imlūhih barḍak* “because there is also salinity (of the soil) in the wadi”, *aṛṛamīl assāxin* “the hot sand”.

#### 2.2.2.2.1. The high vowel preceding l in \*’ibil and \*raġil

The forms *bil* “camels” and *álbil* “the camels” and *bīlha* “her camels” were recorded several times in ḤwA (not in the other dialects).

<sup>66</sup> *tafātīr*, cf. MSA *daftar*, *daḤātīr*. The saying stresses the importance of oral tradition: young people should use the experience of older people by consulting them. More or less like the African (Senegalese?) saying “when an old man dies, a library burns down”.

Like in group VII, *ṛāḡil*, mainly in in the exclamation *yā ṛāḡil* can be heard regularly. In one instance (in TAS) a woman was addressed with the fem. form *ṛāḡlih*: *ṭab w Allāhiy yā ṛāḡlih, úgu'diy 'indihin* “okay, by God, woman, (go) stay with them (i.e. your children)”.

*ṛāḡil* for was recorded a few times, but the current word for “man” is *raḡḡāl* (or, with a raised vowel *a*, *riḡḡāl*, pl. *rḡāl*).

### 2.2.2.3. *Articulatory delay in the realization of n*

A short high vowel *i* in open syllable in sandhi is often not elided, due to a delay in the realization of *n*, e.g. *ba'aḡin aná* “I knead”, *biyšūfin al'ayš* “they (fem.) see the bread”. The (relatively) high sonority of *n* may also create a preceding vowel as in *assamin aššihy* “the white wormwood ghee”.

Articulatory delay in (*fōgna >*) *fōgəna* “above us” was also recorded several times.

### 2.2.3. *Articulatory delay of 'ayn following geminates*

Instances of articulatory delay of 'ayn following geminates were not noticed.

## 2.3. *Anaptyxis*

Rules formulated for group VI are also valid for group I dialects.

### 2.3.1. *Word-medial anaptyxis*

Word-medial anaptyxis takes place like in group VI.

### 2.3.2. *Anaptyxis in sandhi*

#### 2.3.2.1. *Anaptyxis in clusters resulting from 'colliding' morphological base forms*

In group I dialects sandhi clusters of four consonants caused by the collision of morphological base forms are resolved through anaptyxis like in group VI.

#### 2.3.2.2. *Anaptyxis in #CC and CC#*

When speech pause directly precedes or follows CC, the resulting cluster #CC or CC# is resolved like in group VI.

#### 2.3.2.3. *Consonant clusters resulting from I-elision in sandhi, with subsequent anaptyxis*

One example of clusters in sandhi after I-elision, eliminated by anaptyxis (the intermediate form with cluster is marked here with a preceding \*):

(base forms, high vowel eligible for elision underlined)

*mihnit alḥurmah* >

(after elision of high vowel, cluster in bold print)

\* *mihnt alḥurmah* >

(after stress and anaptyxis, anaptyctic underlined: surface forms)

*mihnt alḥurmah* “the woman’s job”.

#### 2.3.2.4. *Resyllabication of word-medial CVCCICV, and of CVCCIC VC sequences in sandhi*

Like in group VI, the resyllabication of a word-medial sequence CVCCICV > CVCICCV (e.g. *yiktibuw* > *yikitbuw*) is compulsory, while resyllabication of a sandhi sequence CVCCIC VC > CVCICC VC (e.g. *mihnit alḥurmah* > *mihnt alḥurmah*) is optional (see 2.3.2.3.).

#### 2.3.3. *Exceptions to the anaptyxis rule*

##### 2.3.3.1. *Unresolved consonant clusters*

Not all clusters are eliminated. Especially clusters of which the first consonant is nasal or a liquid followed by a voiceless second consonant are left intact,<sup>67</sup> e.g.: *sa’altha* “I asked her”, *ta’allamtha* “I learned them (pl. fem.)”, *bintha* “her daughter”, *aftakart* # “I thought”.

Clusters may be left unresolved in sandhi as well, e.g. *ištaḡalt fi Šarm aššēx* “I worked in Šarm aššēx”, *gult ‘anha* “I said about her” and *‘ind ba’adḥum* “with each other”, *gāmat albint maḥḥa* “the girl got up with her”, *širt baxlaṭ* “I started to be confused”.

When assimilation between the first and second consonant takes place, the cluster will remain intact as well, e.g. (in sandhi) *istafatt kitīr* “I gained a lot” (< *istafadt*).

##### 2.3.3.2. *The role of sonority of consonants involved in unresolved clusters*

See remarks in De Jong 2000:125–126.

##### 2.3.3.3. *Some special cases with regard to anaptyxis*

###### 2.3.3.3.1. *Consonant clusters with initial geminates*

When the first two consonants of a three-consonant cluster form a geminate, this geminate is usually (partially) reduced, e.g. (word-medial) *widdna* “we want, need”, *gillt al’ilm* “lack of science” and *lih aḍḍwēw ‘ād* “so it (sg. masc.) had the little light”. Examples of such reduction listed for group VI may be heard in group I as well.

<sup>67</sup> For similar phonetic conditioning, see De Jong 2000:123–128.

### 2.3.3.3.2. *Preposition 'ind + C*

The suffixed preposition *'ind* takes vowel-initial allomorphs of the pronominal suffixes, e.g. *'indaha* “with her”, *'indak* “with you (sg. masc.)”, *'indikiy* “with you (sg. fem.)”, *'induhuw* “with them (pl. masc.)”, *'indihin* “with them (pl. fem.)”, *'indukuw* “with you (pl. masc.)”, *'indikin* “with you (pl. fem.)” and *'indina* “with us”.

Clusters in sandhi are left intact, however, e.g.: *'ind 'ammih* “with his uncle”.

### 2.3.3.3.3. *The 2nd p. sg. masc. and fem. pronominal suffixes in consonant clusters*

The 2nd p. sg. masc. pronominal suffixes *C-ak / v̄-k* behave predictably in group I.

### 2.3.4. *Phonetic quality of the anaptyctic*

#### 2.3.4.1. *Phonetic quality of word-medial anaptyctics*

The phonetic quality of the word-medial anaptyctic vowel is a lax and centralized [ɪ], towards [ə], in front environments and a lax and centralized [ʊ], towards a moderately rounded [ə], in back environments.<sup>68</sup>

#### 2.3.4.1.1. *Phonetic quality of word-medial anaptyxis in clusters form “colliding” base forms*

The situation is like in group VI (and also group I in De Jong 2000:128).

#### 2.3.4.1.2. *Phonetic quality of anaptyctics in clusters after I-elision*

The situation is like in group VI (and also group I in De Jong 2000:129).

#### 2.3.4.1.3. *Anaptyctics in clusters resulting from elision of i from T*

The situation is like in group VI.

### 2.3.4.2. *Phonetic quality of anaptyctics in sandhi*

#### 2.3.4.2.1. *Phonetic quality of word-initial anaptyctics in sandhi*

Word-initial anaptyctic vowels tend to have a phonetic value near a lax and centralized [ɪ].

Examples listed for group VI (and also for group I in De Jong 2000:130) also illustrate the situation in ṬwA and HnA.

Imperatives of the verbs (*a*)*xad* “take” and (*a*)*kal* “eat” are *ɣud*, *ɣd̥iy*, *ɣduw*, *ɣdin* and *kul*, *kl̥iy*, *kl̥iɰw*, *kl̥in*.<sup>69</sup> When a speech pause precedes, the

<sup>68</sup> This is the same as described for group I in De Jong 2000:128.

<sup>69</sup> All these imperative forms show considerable velarization.

anaptyctic vowel resolving an initial cluster will be near I.P.A. [v], e.g. # *uklīy*, # *uklūw*, # *uklīn* (not recorded in MLA).

#### 2.3.4.2.2. *Phonetic quality of word-final anaptyctics*

Anaptyctic vowels resolving word-final clusters have a phonetic quality near I.P.A. [v] in labial and/or velarized environments. Anaptyctics in neutral environments will be near (centralized) [ɪ]. Examples for group VI (and those listed for group I in De Jong 2000:130–131) can also be heard in group I dialects discussed here.

#### 2.3.5. *Stressed original anaptyctics*

The reflex of the pattern CICA<sub>C</sub> (i.e. \*CuCaC or \*CiCaC) is CCA<sub>C</sub>. Stress is then placed in conformity with rules described in 2.1.1. When a consonant or speech pause precedes, the cluster # CC or C CC will often be resolved by an anaptyctic (indicated here as ə): # *əgráb*, *áləgrab* “waterskins”, # *əḡgán*, *áləḡgan* “injections”, # *əwráś*, *áləwráś* “workshops”. But when assimilation precedes, a resulting geminate will be reduced, and anaptyxis will not take place, e.g. # *əṣwar*, *áṣṣwar* (pronounced *áṣwar*) “pictures”, # *ənxár*, *ánnxar* (pronounced *ánxar*) “noses”. These anaptyctic vowels are not stressed in the group I dialects discussed here.

Plurals include: *ʿšiy*, *áləʿšiy* “sticks”, *ḥšiy*, *áləḥšiy* “stones”, but there are no anaptyctic vowels in forms with an assimilated preceding article like (*al* + *rḥiy* >) *árrḥiy* “hand mills”, and also (*al* + *lḥiy* >) *állḥiy* “beards”.

N.B. Of these dialects some have short forms like *lha*’ or *lhya*, *lná*’ etc., or longer forms like *lēha*, *lēna* etc. Forms of the suffixed preposition *l* with initial stressed *l*- were not recorded in these group I dialects in the centre and south of Sinai (for more remarks on suffixed prepositions see 3.1.16.).

### 2.4. *Elision of Short Vowels*

All group I dialects are ‘différentiels’ in terms of short vowel elision.<sup>70</sup> The rule for elision is like that given for group VI.

The rules of morphophonemic elision are compulsory.

#### 2.4.1. *Morphophonemic I-elision*

Rules given for group VI are valid here as well.

<sup>70</sup> The same is reported for TyA of the Negev, see Shawarbah 2007:421.

#### 2.4.2. *I-elision in sandhi*

Like in group VI, morphophonemic elisions of short high vowels *i* and *u* in group I are compulsory, but comparable elisions in sandhi are optional.

#### 2.4.3. *Cyclic anaptyxis rule in sandhi*

The optional I-elision rule in sandhi may be applied after the execution of the anaptyxis rule, e.g. (the cluster is underlined and in bold print, the anaptyctic vowels are in bold print and the high vowel eligible for sandhi-elision is underlined):

*yrawwih* + *lh*n > *yrawwih* **lhn** > *yrawwih* **ih**n > *yraww* **ih**n “he goes to them (fem.)”.

In this first example the cluster *hlh* is resolved, after which the high vowel *i* preceding it lands in open syllable (thus becoming eligible for elision) and is dropped.

Like in group VI, the I-elision rule may also be *re*-applied after execution of the rule for anaptyxis, as in the example: *túḍrub* **ḍúḍfak** > *túḍrub* **id**úḍfak > *túḍrb* **id**úḍfak > *túḍurb* **id**úḍfak “you beat your children”.

In this second example the cluster *bḍ* is resolved, after which the high vowel *u* preceding *b* is in open syllable (thus becoming eligible for elision) and is dropped, creating a new cluster *ḍrb*, which is then eliminated by insertion of another anaptyctic vowel, in this case *u*.

#### 2.4.4. *Exceptions to the I-elision rule*

When  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  in  $C_a C_a C_b$  are phonetically close or identical, the short high vowel *I* is not dropped. Examples are (a suffixed noun) *sadditī* “my dam (where crops are grown)”, (a verb form) *yhálliluw* “they make heaps” and (participles) *mballilih*, *mballilīn* and *mballilāt* “having made wet”.

Also in sandhi this type of elision does not take place, e.g. *šiddit alḥarārah* “the intensity of the heat” (with clearly audible reduction of the geminate *dd*).

Like in ṬwA, ḤmA and HnA of group VI, elision of the high vowel does not take place in the act. participles (sg. fem.) *mta'ákninih*, (pl. masc.) *mta'ákninīn* and (pl. fem.) *mta'áknināt* “irritated”. This was the case in TAŞ, ḤwA, DbA, but in ĞrA direct elicitation produced the forms *mta'áknin*, *mta'ákinnih*, *mta'ákinīn*, *mta'ákinnāt* (the forms were not recorded in the other dialects).

As another exception to this I-elision rule, forms recorded in ĞrA like (preserved high vowel is underlined) *l**ī**sītih* or *l**ā**bsītih* “she wore it” and *š**ī**rītih* or *š**ā**rītih* “she drank it” should be mentioned; the forms recorded were *not* (after elision and subsequent anaptyxis; anaptyctics in bold print) *l**ī**bistih* or *l**ā**bistih* and *š**ī**ribtih* or *š**ā**ribtih*, which one might have expected.

Such forms were however recorded in TAṢ, so that stress may be interpreted to have acquired a phonemic function: *š**ī**ribtah* “she drank it” as opposed to *š**ī**rībtah* “I drank it” (see remarks in 3.2.1.1.).

### 2.5. Assimilation

Three types of contact assimilations of consonants can be identified:

- regressive partial or total,
- progressive partial or total and
- reciprocal total.

The *l* of the article only rarely assimilates to a following *ǧ*, as in e.g. *aǧǧamr* “the live embers”. Assimilation of *l* to initial *k* was not recorded. For examples of these types of assimilation, see De Jong 2000:136–137. In addition to examples listed there, an example of progressive total assimilation recorded in TyA is:

*t + h > tt* as in *bnaharīttiy* (< *bnaharīthy*) “we plough it”.

The type of metathesis of hissing sounds recorded in groups VI and VII (see 2.5. in the relevant chapters) was not heard in these southern and central group I dialects. Instead, forms like *šāǧ* “iron baking sheet”, *sīǧih* “game of *sīǧah*”, *siǧn* “prison” and *tasǧūl* “recording”, etc. are current.

In these central and southern group I dialects *šams* is current for “sun” and *šaǧar* for “trees”.

## 3. MORPHOLOGY

### 3.1. Nominal Morphology

#### 3.1.1. Raising of *a*

##### 3.1.1.1. Raising of *a* in $C_1aC_2\bar{i}C_3(ah)$

Raising of *a* in the nominal pattern  $C_1aC_2\bar{i}C_3(ah)$  occurs regularly, but is optional in southern group I dialects (except in ḤWA, see remark below). Such raising is only inhibited by preceding ’ and is less regular when X

precedes or follows *a*, although it may take place in such positions (especially when following *ʿ*, see examples below). The resulting high ‘surface’ vowel *i* is not elided.<sup>71</sup> In HwA instances of non-raising were so few that morphological restructuring may be concluded. In DbA raising is mainly absent when *ʿ*, *ǧ*, *h* or *x* precedes, e.g. *ʿaḏīm* “enormous”, *ǧalīḏ* “fat, bulky”, *ǧarīb* “strange”, *xalīṭah* “mixture”, *ḥaǧīǧīy* “real” (instances with preceding *h* were not recorded). For examples see 1.2.3.4.3.2. of this chapter.

### 3.1.1.1.2. Raising of *a* in \*CaCīy ( $C_3 = y$ )

Raising of *a* preceding \*CaCīy ( $C_3 = y$ ) occurs often, but variation is still heard as well, e.g. *birīy* “innocent”, (reflecting final \**-īy*) in *šibīy* “boy”, *ǧanīy* “rich”, *ṭirīy* “moist; soft”, *nibīy* ~ *nábīy* “Prophet”, *guwīy* “strong”, *wilīy* ~ *walīy* “saint”, *Ilīy* ~ *ʿAlīy* “male given name”.

### 3.1.1.2. Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *i*

For raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *i* in verb forms (with underlying  $C_1aC_2iC_3$  pattern for the *i*-type perfect), see 3.2.2.1.

### 3.1.1.3. Raising of *a* in CaCCīC(-ah)

The short vowel *a* preceding stressed CCi is not raised. Examples are: *baṭṭīx* “watermelon”, *baddīʿ* “improviser of rhyme”, *xarriǧ* “alumnus”, *sakkīnah* “knife”, *ǧarnīṭ* “octopus”, *sabīn* “seventy”, *xamsīn* “fifty”, *Katrīn* “(St.) Catherine”, *kabrīt* “matches”. Also in verbal nouns of measure 2 such raising is absent, e.g. *targīʿ* “grafting”, *tašǧīl* “putting in operation” and also in a gahawah-form like *taǧarīb* “going north” (see for other examples 2.2.1.2. above).

### 3.1.1.4. Raising of *a* in CaCCāC

Raising of *a* preceding stressed CCā is optional: *ǧiṣṣāš* “tracker”, *billāš* “thief; extortionist”, *fissāy* “expert farter”, *biṣṣād* “teapot”, *ṭillāǧīh* “fridge” and *wiǧʿān* “suffering pain”, *milyān* ~ *malyān* “full”, *ǧaltān* ~ *ǧiltān* “mistaken”, *Silmān* “male given name Salmān”, *mirdān* “ill”, *fihyān* “surprised”, *kislān* “lazy”, *hiǧǧān* “camel rider”, *siyyāl* ~ *sayyāl* “acacia trees (coll.)”, but also *ʿaṭšān* “thirsty”, *ʿaṭlān* “broken, not functioning” and *bakkākah* “lighter”.<sup>72</sup> Although such raising was heard in all dialects, it is less current in TAN and TAŞ.

N.B. sg. fem. forms of colours and physical defects have short stressed final *-á(ʿ)* (if not raised) (except in MIA, where long final *-ā* is also heard).

<sup>71</sup> This situation is the same as what has been described for group II in the north, see De Jong 2000:272–273.

<sup>72</sup> The word *bakkākah* is used in TyA; in most dialects of Sinai the word for “lighter” is *giddāḥah*.

The *a* in closed syllable may then be raised, but this is optional, e.g. *ḥimrā* ‘red (sg. fem.)’, *ḥimgá* ‘stupid (sg. fem.)’, but also *zargá* ‘black; blue (sg. fem.)’, *ṣafrá* ‘yellow’, etc.

Like in group VI, raising of *a* in the pattern for sg. fem. for colours and physical defects may only take place when final *-ā(ʾ)* has *not* been raised to *-íy*.

### 3.1.1.5. Raising of *a* in... CaCāC...

Raising of *a* preceding Cā is extremely current, but is concluded to be optional, since it is often absent in more careful speech.

Some of many examples are: *matān* ~ *mītān*, ‘when?’ (in ḤwA), *gibāyil* ‘tribes’, *zimān* ‘before in olden times’, *gizāyiz* ‘bottles’, *bikāriġ* ‘coffee pots’, *Tiyāha* ‘name of a tribe Tayāha’, *ġināyin* ‘gardens’.

In labial environments, raising may also be towards [u], as in *muwārik* ‘cushions supporting the camel rider’s leg’ (pl. of *mēraḥah* or *mōraḥah*, see also remarks in 1.2.4.1. and in fn 101, p. 83) and *zuwāyir* ‘annual visits to sheikhs’ tombs (pl. of *zwāraḥ*), *Ṣuwālḥih* ‘name of the tribe Ṣawālḥah’.

Examples without raising are: *talātīn* ‘thirty’, *nahār* ‘day’, *tamām* ‘excellent’, *Badāraḥ* ‘name of a tribe’, *tafātir* ‘records’, *ganāt asSwēs* ‘Suez Canal’, *šamāl* ‘north’.

Also in group I, raising is less regular when *l* or *r* follows *a*, or X precedes, e.g. *kalām* ‘speaking’, *talātah* ‘three’, *xalāš* ‘ready’, *salām* ‘peace’, *Garārših* ‘name of a tribe’, *farāših* ‘thin loaves of bread baked on a *šāġ*’, *marāġih* ‘swings (three legs) for the goat skin (used to churn butter)’, *ḥalāl* ‘small cattle’, *axawāt* ‘sisters’, *ʾašān* ‘because’, *ḥayātak* ‘your life’, *ḥamādih* ‘flat barren land’, *ġarāyir* ‘large sack (pl. of *ġarāraḥ*)’,<sup>73</sup> Also when ʾ precedes, raising remains absent, e.g. (ʾ)*ašāyil* ‘thoroughbreds’, (ʾ)*asāsih* ‘his origin’.

### 3.1.1.6. Raising of *a* in... CaCá...

*a* in open syllable preceding stressed *á* is often (but optionally so) raised (like in group VI), e.g. (raising towards I.P.A. [I]) *ġimál* ‘camel’, *risán* ‘halter’, *libán* ‘milk’, *sibáġah* ‘race’ (*sábagah* in TAṢ), *šġárah* ‘tree’ (*šáġarah* in TAṢ), a verb form *misák* ‘he took’ and (towards [v] in labial and/or velarized environment) *muṭár* ‘rain’, *duwá* ‘medicine’. And also in gahawah-forms such raising may take place, e.g. *tihát* ‘under’, *šihár* ‘month’ and in verb forms like *yíʾaríf* ‘he knows’.

<sup>73</sup> *ġarāyir*: see *ġarāra* in Behnstedt and Woidich 1994:334–335 (glossary).

Such raising is generally absent when the *a* is preceded by \*', e.g. (')*abár* "needles" and (')*axád* "he took".

Also, when *a* is followed by *l*, such raising tends to remain absent, e.g. *gałám* "pen", *malág* "hard flat ground (like rock, in which traces are invisible)", *zalámah* "man", or when X precedes, e.g. *hağár* "rock, stone", *ğanáam* "goats and sheep", *xašáb* "firewood", etc. (see De Jong 2000:145–147).

### 3.1.1.7. Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *A*

To summarize the *a*-raising rules in one optional rule we can write:<sup>74</sup>

$$a > I / C_a \_ C_b A$$

$C_a \neq *'$  or X  
 $C_b \neq l$

A = stressed *a* or  $\bar{a}$   
I = high vowel *i* or *u*

N.B. Raising of *a* may also take place when stress on *A* is secondary, e.g. *fásсібag* "in the race", verb forms *ánkital* "he was beaten", *ástuwat* "it (sg. fem.) became ripe/cooked" and *muwālīd* "births", *muwāzīn* "weighing scales (pl. of *mīzān*)".

### 3.1.1.8. Raising of *a* in *CaCūC(ah)*

Raising of *a* preceding  $\bar{u}$  is optional, e.g. *ğumūs* ~ *ğamūs* "food dip", *xurūf* ~ *xarūf* "lamb", *ğunūb* ~ *ğanūb* "south" and *yuhūd* ~ *yahūd* "Jews", *đurūbah* ~ *đarūbah* "beautiful young camel",<sup>75</sup> *urūs* ~ *arūs* "bride", *uğūz* ~ *ağūz* "old lady". With initial *hamzah* such raising is absent in most dialects (contrast with groups VI–VIII): *abūy* "my father" and *axūy* "my brother", and 1st p. sg. com. imperfect forms of mediae *wāw* verbs *agūm* "I get up", *agūl* "I say" (see remark \* below). However, in dialects indicated below, isolated instances of such raising were heard when \*hamzah preceded, as in *ubūh* ~ *abūh* "father" (TAN), *uxūk* ~ *axūk* "your brother", *ugūm* ~ *agūm* "I rise" (both HwA), Such raising with preceding \*hamzah was not heard in TAŞ, ĞrA, BdA, DbA or MIA.

Underlying *CāCūC* with reduced  $\bar{a}$ ; *ma'ūn* "container", *babūr* "tractor", *ganūn* "law", *ba'ūđah* "mosquitos". In one instance in TyA raising in *babūr* yielded *bubūr*.

The gahawah-vowel in open syllable preceding *Cū* is not raised, e.g. *maħatūđ* "placed", *ma'agūd* "tied", *maħabūs* "locked up", *maxanūg* "constricted; suffocated".

<sup>74</sup> See also De Jong 2000:147.

<sup>75</sup> *đarūbah* ~ *đurūbah* is used to refer to a recently acquired beautiful camel or car. It can also be used to refer to one's recent bride, e.g. *đurūbtī*.

3.1.1.9. *Raising of a in open syllable preceding stressed u*

Unstressed *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *u* (in the following syllable) is regularly raised, e.g. *kubūr* “he grew”, *kuṭūr* “he became many”, *tuxún* “he became thick”, *ġulúḍ* “he became fat”.

The raised *a* has remained underlying |a| however. It (as a surface *u*) is therefore not dropped in unstressed open syllables. In addition, in many dialects the vowel ‘re-surfaces’ as *a* in closed syllables, e.g. *kabrit* “she grew”, *ġaldit* “she became fat”.<sup>76</sup>

3.1.1.10. *a-raising rules combined*

Like in dialects of group I in the north (see De Jong 2000:150), we can combine the rules for raising of *a* preceding a long stressed high vowel:

$$a > I / C_a \_ C_b \bar{I}C$$

$\bar{I}$  = long vowel  $\bar{u}$  or  $\bar{i}$

I = short high vowel *u* if  $\bar{I}$  is  $\bar{u}$ ; short high vowel *i* if  $\bar{I}$  is  $\bar{i}$

$C_a \neq *$  (hamzah)

$C_b$  = consonant capable of carrying velarization in case of raising to *u*

Notice that, like in group I dialects of the north (see De Jong 2000:150), the provision of  $C_a \neq *$  is made for the group I dialects described here, i.e. preceding “\*hamzah” inhibits such raising. However, in TAN and ḤWA a few forms were recorded which did show such raising: *uḅūh* ~ *aḅūh* and *ugūl* ~ *agūl* “I say”.

3.1.2. *Reflexes of \*C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah)*

For reflexes of CaCC(-ah) the following forms were recorded (in all dialects, unless indicated otherwise): *badw* “Bedouin”, *taḥát* “under”, *fahám* “charcoal”, *waḥdih* (but ~ *wiḥdih* in ĞRA) “one (sg. fem.)”, *naḥyih* “direction”, *ša’áb* “difficult”, *šakl* “shape”, *šaḥan* “dish, plate”, *ġidy* “billy goat” (TAŞ, ḤWA, DbA, MIA, ĞRA), *ġady* (BdA), *šadr* “chest”, (*’*)*akl* (TAŞ, TAN, DbA, MIA), *wakl* “food” (BdA), *kirš* (TAŞ) “(fat) belly”, *kalb* “dog”, *ġidd* “grandfather” and *ġifn* “eyelid” (TAŞ).

<sup>76</sup> Direct elicitation, however, yielded forms like *tuxnit* “she became thick” in ĞRA, *ġulḍin* “they (f.) became fat”; here the *a* did not ‘resurface’, although the vowel is still to be regarded as underlying |a|, since it is not dropped in open unstressed syllables, e.g. also in these dialects the 3rd p. sg. masc. forms are *tuxún* (not *•tuxun*) and *ġulúḍ* (not *•ġluḍ*).

3.1.3. *Reflexes of \*CaCiC(ah)*

In all dialects, unless indicated otherwise: *wirk* “thigh” (TAŞ), *kitf* “shoulder” (ḤwA, ĞrA, TAŞ and TyA; other dialects not recorded), *kilmih* “word”, *širkih* “company”.

*xāšīn* in TyA, *xīšīn* in TAŞ

3.1.4. *Reflexes of C<sub>1</sub>uC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah)*

Some reflexes of C<sub>1</sub>uC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>(ah) are (in all dialects, unless indicated otherwise): *bunn* “coffee beans”, *rizz* “rice”, *kull* “all; every”, *aḥḥ* (all except BdA;<sup>77</sup> ~ *uḥḥ* in ĞrA), *uḥḥ* “mother” (BdA), *uxt* “sister”, *Ġim‘ih* “male given name” (not recorded in TAN, DbA, BdA), *muddih* “period”, *ḥurmah* “woman”, *zibdiḥ* “butter”, *rukbaḥ* “knee” (ḤwA, TyA, TAŞ, ĞrA, TAN, not recorded in other dialects), *hinnih* “they (fem.)”, *šuggaḥ* “a woven length of a tent (about 1 m. wide)” (TAŞ, MIA, BdA, TyA, ḤwA, not recorded in other dialects).

3.1.5. *Absence of I in open syllables preceding stress*

As is the case in all dialects of Sinai, a high vowel I (i.e. *i* or *u*) in open initial syllables of the type CIC(+ V) preceding stress (on V) is dropped.

When V is a long vowel, an initial CC cluster is the result, e.g.: *snūn* “years”, *‘yūn* “eyes” and *ġnēḥ* “pound (money)”, *ġbāl* “mountains”, *drās* “threshing”.

Also when V is a short vowel, an initial cluster CC will result, e.g. *rkab* “knees”, *šnaṭ* “suitcases”, *grab* “watersacks (goat skins)” and also in diminutives (see 3.1.6. below) like *gšayyir* “short” (\**gušayyir*), *bwēt* “little house/tent” (\**buwayt*).

Exceptions to such elisions are (often loans from MSA, probably via a dialect such as Cairene Arabic), e.g.: *niḏām* “system” (all dialects), *šinā‘iy* “artificial” (TAŞ), *tiġārah* “trade” (MIA), *ġirāḥah* “surgery” (MIA), (2 instances in) *zurūf ḥukūmiyyah* “government circumstances” (TyA), *bidāyt albaṭṭīx* “the beginning of the watermelon (i.e. the season for growing watermelon)” (TyA), *‘umūman* “in general” (TyA) and *turās* “legacy” (ḤwA).

Notice that in the instances *niḏām* and *zurūf* the sibilant *z* is heard instead of more typically Bedouin *ḏ*. In the example *turās* we have sibilant

<sup>77</sup> Also *aḥḥ* in TyA of the Negev, see Shawarbah 2007:330.

s instead of more typically Bedouin *t* (compare MSA *turāt*). These are additional indications that we are dealing with loans.

Other instances of non-elision include: *tulūḥḥin* “their (fem.) rising (of stars)” (BdA) and all dialects have *gizāzih* (after raising of *a* in the first syllable of *gazāzah*) for “bottle”.

Verb forms listed for group VI are also current in our group I dialects and the verb “come” has the imperfect form *yġiy* “he comes”.

### 3.1.6. *Diminutive patterns*

The usual diminutives expressing ‘littleness’, ‘shortness’, ‘narrowness’ etc. were also recorded in our group I dialects (see examples listed in 3.1.6. for group VI) and also *ḥrayyim* is current. In addition, many diminutive forms were heard, and especially in the speech of an elderly woman of the Tayāha, e.g. *ḏ’ayfin iftētāt* “tiny children”, *swēkin* “living (more or less)”, *wlēdi* “my little son”, *gray’iy* “bald (sg. fem.)”.

Another diminutive pattern heard in TyA is  $C_1C_2ayC_3\bar{u}C_3$  (i.e.  $C_3$  is reduplicated) in *baṭṭix iṣḡayrūr* “small watermellons”.<sup>78</sup> The same pattern is used in TAŞ as in (after reduction of the diphthong) *şġarūrah*, *şġarūrīn*, *şġarūrāt* and also *graybūb* “nearish”. Another diminutive heard in TAŞ is *ōḏah sgantūtah* is a “tiny house/room”,<sup>79</sup> *i’lēġān*, *iḡaṣiḡsūh ḡṣayḡṣāt iṣḡayyrāt* “they cut it up into little pieces”.

A lexical item coined on the CaCCūC(-ah) pattern in *kaṣṣūsah* “wheel chair” (TyA).

The hypochoresic *-ān* suffix, which was recorded in some of the dialects of group I in the north,<sup>80</sup> was also heard in TAN, but not in the other dialects. Examples in TAN are: *hniyyān* “here” and *kidīyyān* “thus” and alternatively *hniyyāniy* and *kidīyyāniy* (see 3.1.15.1.).<sup>81</sup>

### 3.1.7. *Pattern aC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>*

The pattern used for colours and physical (and sometimes mental) defects is (for sg. masc.)  $aC_1C_2aC_3$  (e.g. *abyaḏ*) and  $aC_1aC_2aC_3$  (e.g. *āḥamaṣ*, stressed

<sup>78</sup> Diminutive patterns are reported to be very common in TyA of the Negev, see Shawarbah 2007:427.

<sup>79</sup> *ōḏah* is also used for “small (stone) house”.

<sup>80</sup> See De Jong 2000:153. It thus appears to be mainly in use among tribes of the eastern central and northern Sinai.

<sup>81</sup> The *-ān* suffix is also heard in TyA of the Negev, see Shawarbah 2007:427–428.

on the first syllable) where  $C_1 = X$ . Other examples are like those listed for group VI.

The sg. fem. forms have a  $C_1 a C_2 C_3 a$  pattern, with a final  $*-ā$  that has been shortened and which is often in pause followed by an unreleased glottal stop (e.g. *bēḏáʿ*, *ḥamrāʿ*; in MLA some forms were recorded with long final  $-ā$ ).<sup>82</sup> There is an additional  $a$  following  $C_2$  when it is  $X$  and final  $*-ā$  is raised to  $-íy$  when  $C_3$  is neutral (e.g. *ṣaḥabíy*). Other examples are like those listed for group VI.

In the pl. com. forms for colours and physical defects all dialects show  $C_1 i C_2 C_3$  as the pattern, i.e.  $C_1 i C_2 C_3$  or  $C_1 u C_2 C_3$  (see 1.2.3.2.). Plural forms for “black” and “white” are *sūd* ( $C_2 = wāw$ ) and *bīḏ* ( $C_2 = yāʾ$ ).

### 3.1.8. The elative patterns $aC_1 C_2 aC_3$ , $aC_1 aC_2 C_3$ and $aC_1 C_2 a$

Elative patterns in group I are like in group VI:  $aC_1 C_2 aC_3$ , e.g. *akṭar* “more; most”,  $aC_1 aC_2 C_3$ , e.g. *aqall* “less; least” and  $aC_1 C_2 a$  (without gahawah-vowel), e.g. *aḥla* “sweeter; sweetest”.

### 3.1.9. Initial $a$

#### 3.1.9.1. The article and the relative pronoun

The article is  $al-$  in all dialects of group I and the relative pronoun is *alliy*.<sup>83</sup> The article is a stressable unit (see 2.1.1.).

Examples are: *yōm iyṭīḥ álmaṭar* [...] *biyḥuṭṭuw bdārḥum* “when the rain falls, they plant their seeds”.

The relative pronoun is *alliy*. Examples are: *alliy byaṣṣrab immn aḥḥāmiḏ ḥāda w alliy biyfitt minnih* “there are those<sup>84</sup> who drink from this sour (milk) and there are those who make fattah with it”.

The vowel in the preposition *fi* is often dropped when it collides with  $a-$  of the article, as in e.g. *f-áṣṣṭiy* “in the winter” and *f-álǧibal* “in the desert (lit. the mountains)” and also with unstressed  $a$  of the article, as in *f-atwādiy* “in the wadi”.

Prepositioned  $ha-$  was heard used predominantly in adverbial *halḥīn* “now”.

<sup>82</sup> Like in the dialect of the Dawāgrah, see De Jong 2000:446 and 661 (map 9).

<sup>83</sup> Holes and Abu Athera 2009:214 also report  $al-$  and *alliy* as the current forms in their corpus of Bedouin poetry; the exception is their poet Šbaylāt (of Baniy Ḥasan in northern Jordan), who uses *il-* and *illi* thus “aligning himself [...] with the ‘sedentary’ dialects”.

<sup>84</sup> *alliy* is often elliptically used for something like *fīh (min an-)nās alliy*...

Only in a few instances *ha-* was used in its ‘specifying’ function: *fi ha-ddikmiḥ ‘a ṭūl lā šilēhāt wala ġayriḥ f-áddkam* “there are no chalets in (i.e. near) that hill or anything (at all) in the hills” (ḤwA), *šuft miy . . . tāfiḥ fi ha-lġiddāf* “I saw water . . . overflowing in this ferry boat” (TyA).

Much more current in ḤwA, however, is postpositioned *ha*, e.g. *alliy ‘āwiz iy . . . iynawwi‘ f-álbil ássibag immn ássibag ha biywaddih immn álġimal ha* “there are those who want to vary in (sending) camels from one race to this other race (and) who will send from these camels” (for more detail, see 3.1.13.2.).

### 3.1.9.2. Other instances of initial *a*

Other instances of initial *a-* are: *aḥḥ* (except *uḥḥ* in BdA and *aḥḥ* ~ *uḥḥ* in ĞrA) “mother”, *uxt* “sister” in all dialects, *aḥna* is “we” in ḤwA and *aḥna* ~ *iḥna* in ĞrA (in the other dialects only *iḥna*) and the pl. for (‘) *ibrah* “needles is (‘) *abár*. In all dialects pl. forms of the type CCaC are current, e.g. *šwar* “pictures” and *ġrab* “waterskins”.

*yā yuḥḥna* is used in many group I dialects (also those that have *aḥḥ* for “mother”) for “oh mother”.

### 3.1.10. The feminine morpheme (*T*) in genitive construction

T in genitive construction is treated like in the dialect of the Samā‘nah of group II in the north;<sup>85</sup> the vowel of T in construct state will be *a*, whenever *a* precedes in open syllable. Otherwise, the T-vowel will be *i* in construct state when a consonant precedes, or absent when a long vowel precedes.<sup>86</sup>

#### 3.1.10.1. *T* in genitive construction preceded by *a* in open syllable

Like in group VI, the feminine morpheme *-ah* ~ *-ih* in construct state becomes *-at* when aC directly precedes. Examples of aCT + suffix: (dual) *sanatēn* “two years” and *ṛagabatih* “his neck” (for stress, see 2.1.1.2.2.).

Notice that resyllabication of a (nominal or verbal) CaCaCTv sequence does not take place in group I dialects (contrast MzA of group VI), e.g. *ḍarabatih* “she hit him” and *ṛagabatih* “his neck”.

<sup>85</sup> See De Jong 2000:279–281.

<sup>86</sup> In TyA of the Negev T > *-at* when historical aC directly precedes, otherwise > *-t* or *-it*, see Shawarbah 2007:424.

3.1.10.2. *The rule for T not directly preceded by aC or v̄*

Like in group VI when not preceded by aC, the fem. morpheme *-ah* becomes *-it* (or *-t* when a long vowel  $\bar{v}$  directly precedes, see 3.1.10.4.) in construct state.

The *i* of the ending *-it* may then be subject to the rule for high vowel elision, after which resulting clusters are often eliminated by insertion of an anaptyctic. Examples listed for group VI may also illustrate the situation in our southern group I dialects discussed here.

3.1.10.3. *T preceded by the gawahah-vowel a*

Forms in which a gawahah-vowel *a* directly precedes T in open syllable are treated the same way as forms in which such a preceding *a* is 'historical'. Examples are: *gahawati* "my coffee", *gahawatah* "his coffee" and *gahawatak* "your coffee" (for stress in these forms see 2.1.1.2.2.) (treatment of T preceded by the gawahah-vowel *a* could not be checked in MIA).<sup>87</sup>

3.1.10.4. *T following ā*

T preceded by  $\bar{a}$  yields  $\bar{a}h$ , e.g. *ḥamāh* "mother-in-law" and when in construction, T > *-t*, as in *ḥamātak* "your mother-in-law".

3.1.10.5. *Nominal ending -it in construction vs. verbal 3rd p. sg. perf. ending -at*

The high vowel *i* of the nominal ending *-it* is dropped when it is in open unstressed syllable, e.g. *nāqtah* "his she-camel".

The low vowel *a* in verbal forms of the 3rd p. sg. perf. is not dropped, e.g. *lāgatah* "she found him".

3.1.11. *Genitive marker*

The genitive marker is *šūǧl* for sg. masc., *šūǧlah* (sg. fem.), *šūǧlīn* (pl. masc.) and *šūǧlāt* (pl. fem.) in our group I dialects discussed here; *ḥagg(ah)* is not used. Sometimes the K-form *btā'* is used.

Paradigms in these dialects are:

e.g.	<i>ilbēt</i> +		<i>il' ilbih</i> +	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>šūǧlah</i>	<i>šūǧluḥm/-w</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>šūǧltaḥ</i>	<i>šūǧliḥm/-w</i> <sup>*1*2</sup>
fem.	<i>šūǧluḥa</i>	<i>šūǧluḥin</i>	<i>šūǧliḥa</i> <sup>*1</sup>	<i>šūǧliḥin</i> <sup>*1</sup>
2. masc.	<i>šūǧlak</i>	<i>šūǧluḥkuw</i>	<i>šūǧltaḥ</i>	<i>šūǧliḥkuw</i>
fem.	<i>šūǧluḥkiy</i>	<i>šūǧluḥkin</i>	<i>šūǧliḥkiy</i>	<i>šūǧliḥkin</i>
1. com.	<i>šūǧlī</i>	<i>šūǧluḥna</i>	<i>šūǧlūḥtī</i>	<i>šūǧliḥna</i>

<sup>87</sup> In TyA of the Negev T preceded by gawahah-vowel *a* > *-it*, e.g. *ra'awit ḡanām* "grazing small cattle", see Shawarbah 2007:244.

\*<sup>1</sup> *t + h* will often assimilate to *tt*, e.g. *šuglittuw*, see 2.5.

\*<sup>2</sup> For a remark on the suffix *-huw*, see 3.1.12.2.

A preference for the construct state instead of indirect annexation could not be concluded from the available data.

### 3.1.12. Personal pronominals

#### 3.1.12.1. Independent pronominals

In group I dialects of the central and southern Sinai the following independent pronominals are used:<sup>88</sup>

	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>hū</i>	<i>hum(ṃa) / huwwa</i> * <sup>1</sup>
fem.	<i>hī</i>	<i>hin(na)</i>
2. masc.	<i>int(ih)</i>	<i>intuw</i>
fem.	<i>intiy</i>	<i>intin</i>
1. com.	<i>aná</i>	<i>iḥna</i> * <sup>2</sup>

\*<sup>1</sup> *huwwa* was also heard used for the pl. masc. in TAN, MIA, but not in the other dialects of group I discussed here.<sup>89</sup>

\*<sup>2</sup> In ḤWA *aḥna*; in ĠrA *iḥna ~ aḥna*.

Negated<sup>90</sup> (in all forms stress is on the first syllable, except in *mūhūṃma* and *mīhīnna*)\*<sup>1</sup>:

	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>mūhū</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>mūhum(ṃa)</i> * <sup>4</sup>
fem.	<i>mīhī</i>	<i>mīhin(na)</i> * <sup>5</sup>
2. masc.	<i>mint(ih)</i>	<i>mintuw</i>
fem.	<i>mintiy</i>	<i>mintin</i>
1. com.	<i>māni</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>maḥna</i> * <sup>6</sup>

\*<sup>1</sup> In ĠrA direct elicitation yielded ‘double’ forms like *aná mānī*, *int(ih) mint(ih)*, *intiy mintiy*, *hū mūhū*. Such double forms are also often used in the other dialects.

\*<sup>2</sup> *mūhū ~ māhū* in ḤWA

<sup>88</sup> Independent pronominals in TyA of the Negev are: *anā(h)*, *intih (int)*, *intiy*, *hū(h)*, *hī (h)*, *aḥna*, *intuw*, *intin*, *hūm(ṃah)* and *hin(nih)*, see Shawarbah 2007:426.

<sup>89</sup> For possible origins of the forms (possessive/object) *-huw* and the subj. (independent) pronominal *huwwa*, see De Jong 2000:163 (remark \*2)) and NOTE in 3.1.12.2. of chapter I.

<sup>90</sup> In poetry recorded by Holes and Abu Athera (2009:225) the negation is commonly *mā + pronoun (+ bi)*.

\*<sub>3</sub> *māna* in ḤwA

\*<sub>4</sub> *mūhuwwa* or *māhuwwa* was not recorded in TAN or MLA

\*<sub>5</sub> *māhin* was also heard in BdA

\*<sub>6</sub> *miḥna* in DbA, BdA, ĞrA

### 3.1.12.2. Pronominal suffixes

In group I the following pronominal suffixes are used:

	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	C- <i>ah</i> / C- <i>ih</i> * <sub>1</sub> , $\bar{v}$ -( <i>h</i> )	- <i>huṃ</i> * <sub>6</sub>
fem.	- <i>ha</i> * <sub>2</sub>	- <i>hin</i>
2. masc.	C- <i>ak</i> , $\bar{v}$ - <i>k</i> * <sub>3</sub>	- <i>kuw</i> * <sub>7</sub>
fem.	- <i>kiy</i> * <sub>4</sub>	- <i>kin</i>
1. com.	(C)C- $\bar{i}$ , $\bar{v}$ - <i>y</i> (poss.)	- <i>na</i>
	- <i>nī</i> (obj.)* <sub>5</sub>	

Assimilation of initial *h* to preceding voiceless consonants is current in our group I dialects, e.g. *simi'tta* "I heard her", *tbuxxa* "you spray it (sg. fem.)", *ḥiṣsa* "her noise".<sup>91</sup>

For allomorphs used in combination with the preposition *ind*, see below 3.1.16.

\*<sub>1</sub> Group I, has with *-ah/-ih*, contrasting with *-u(h)* of groups VI–VIII.

\*<sub>2</sub> *-ha* ~ *-hiy* in MLA and in TyA (*-hiy* is predominant in the latter).<sup>92</sup> The pron. suffix *-hiy* was also heard in group I dialects in the north of Sinai. The (partial) phonetic conditioning effective in group I dialects of the north (i.e. directly preceding  $\bar{u}$  calling for the appearance of *-ha* there instead of *-hiy*),<sup>93</sup> is concluded not to be operative in MLA and TyA. Examples in MLA are: *iw minnih biyṭa' mūhiy*, *iw yaḡṭa'aw w iygusṣūhiy* "and then they graft it (sg. fem.), and they cut and clip it (sg. fem.)" and *aḇūhiy* "her father".

\*<sub>3</sub> Contrast C-*ak* and  $\bar{v}$ -*k* with heavily velarized *-ḳ/ -uḵ* of groups VI–VIII.

\*<sub>4</sub> Invariable *-kiy* is characteristic of group I, see also De Jong 2000:164. Contrast with *-k* and *-ik* of groups VI–VIII.

\*<sub>5</sub> Suffixes  $\bar{i}$  and  $\bar{nī}$  for the 1st p. sg. com. are stressed, but unstressed *-i* and *-ni* also occur.

<sup>91</sup> The spelling with 3 identical consonants is for reasons of morphological transparency. These forms are not different from *tbuxxa* and *ḥiṣsa*.

<sup>92</sup> For *-ha* or *-hiy* among sub-confederations of Tiyāha in Negev see Shawarbah 2007:426.

<sup>93</sup> See De Jong 2000:164–166 and 674 (appendix), map 35.

\*6 *-huw* ~ *-huṃ* in ḤwA, MlA, ĞrA and TAN. Also a lengthened suffix *-huwwa* was also heard (in TAN). Such forms were also heard in group VI (see also De Jong 2000: 169, remark \*3).

\*7 *-kum* is reported in poetry texts (by a speaker of TAN) recorded in Holes and Abu Athera 2009:234 as an alternative form (in a more formal register) for *-ku(w)* in two poems addressed to the late King Hussein of Jordan, “perhaps as a token of respect for the king”.

### 3.1.12.3. *Pronominal suffixes and negation*

In group I the negation is formed with single (preceding) *mā*, which leaves pronominal suffixes unaffected.

### 3.1.13. *Demonstratives*

#### 3.1.13.1. *Near and far deixis*

Demonstratives in TAŞ and TAN are:

Near deixis* <sup>1</sup>		Far deixis		
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>hāḍa</i> * <sup>2</sup>	com. <i>hāḍōl</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>hāḍāk(ah)</i> * <sup>4</sup>	com. <i>hōḍallāk(ah)</i>
fem.	<i>hēḍiy</i>		<i>hēḍik(ih)</i> * <sup>4</sup>	

\*<sup>1</sup> The same forms were heard in TAN.

\*<sup>2</sup> Unvelarized *hāḍa* is sporadic in TAŞ, but *hāḍa* ~ *hāḍa* in TAN.

\*<sup>3</sup> *hōḍal* was also elicited in TAŞ, but did not occur in spontaneous speech.

\*<sup>4</sup> The same forms were heard in TAN.

“There . . . is/are!” *hayhū ḡa*’, *hayhī ḡat*, *hayhuṃ ḡaw*, *hayhin ḡan*.

Demonstratives in TyA are:

Near deixis			
	sg.		pl.
masc.	<i>hāḍa</i> ~ <i>hāḍa</i>	com.	<i>hāḍaḷ</i> ~ <i>hāḍōḷ</i> ~ <i>hōḍaḷ</i>
fem.	<i>hēḍiy</i>		
Far deixis*			
	sg.		pl.
masc.	<i>hāḍāk(ah)</i>	com.	<i>hāḍollāk(ah)</i> ~ <i>hōḍallāk(ah)</i>
fem.	<i>hēḍik(ih)</i>		

\* Forms without initial *hā-*, *hē-* or *hō-* are rare.

During direct elicitation, the existence of forms like *hēhū* or *hayhū* in TyA was denied. Instead, forms like *ar’ih ḡa*’ “there he has come”, *áriḥḥiy ḡat*

“there she has come!”, *annās áriḥḥum ġaw* “there the people have come!” were said to be current (see 4.8.1.).

Demonstratives in ḤwA are:

Near deixis			Far deixis*		
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	
masc.	<i>hāḍa</i>	com. <i>hāḍa!(lah)</i>	<i>hādāk(ah)</i>	com. <i>hādōllāk(ah)~</i>	
fem.	<i>hēḍiy*</i>		<i>hēḍik(ih)</i>	<i>hādōllāk</i>	

\* *hāḍiy* was heard three times, but with an exceptionally high *ā*, (slightly higher than I.P.A. [ɛ:], but not fully [e:]).

As a feature considered (by several informants of different tribes) to be very typical of ḤwA, Ḥwēṭiy speakers often use postpositioned *ha* (undifferentiated for gender and number). Examples are: *w alliy ‘āwiz yašrab minnih ā... alhāmiḍ ha* “and there are those who want to drink from it, what... (from) this sour (milk)” (for a remark on the elliptic use of *alliy*, see fn 84, p. 235). Another example is *aššġayyrāt ha* “these young ones (pl. fem.) (in ref. to camels)”.<sup>94</sup>

“There he/she/they is/are (litt. has/have come)!” is *hayhū ġa’, hayhī ġat, hayhuḥ ġaw* and *hayhin ġan*.

Demonstratives in DbA are:

Near deixis		
	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>hāḍa ~ hāḍa</i>	com. <i>hāḍa!(lah)*</i>
fem.	<i>hēḍiy</i>	

\* Notice the same demonstrative for the pl. com. in ḤwA (see above).

Far deixis*		
	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>hādāk(ah)~hādāk(ah)</i>	com. <i>hādōllāk(ah)</i>
fem.	<i>hēḍik(ih)</i>	

*hayhū*... “there he...” was recorded once.

<sup>94</sup> For a discussion on attributive *hā*, see Fischer 1959:56.

Demonstratives in MIA are:

Near deixis		Far deixis*			
	sg.		pl.	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>hāḍa</i> ~ <i>hāḍa</i>	com.	<i>hāḍōl</i>	<i>hāḍāk(ah)</i>	com. <i>hāḍōllāk(ah)</i>
fem.	<i>hēḍiy</i> ~ <i>hāḍiy</i>		~ <i>hōḍaḷ</i>	<i>hāḍīk(ih)</i>	~ <i>hēḍīk(ih)*</i>

\* *hēḍīkt alḥīn* was recorded three times for “now, at this moment”.

The system of demonstratives in BdA is clearly mixed; *hā-* or *hē-* initial demonstratives for near deixis only occur in the singular, while the only pl. form *ḍillih* must be due to contact with (one of the) dialects of the bordering tribes Ṣawālḥah (group VII) and ‘Lēgāt (group VIII).

Demonstratives in BdA are:

Near deixis		Far deixis			
	sg.		pl.	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>hāḍa</i> ~ <i>hāḍa</i> * <sup>1</sup>	com.	<i>ḍillih</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>(hā)ḍāk(ah)</i> * <sup>4</sup>	com. <i>(hā) ḍaḷlāk(ah)</i>
fem.	<i>hēḍiy</i> * <sup>2</sup>			<i>hēḍīk(ih)</i>	

\*<sup>1</sup> Sentence-final *ḍī* was recorded twice.

\*<sup>2</sup> Sentence-final *ḍiy* was recorded three times and also *hāḍiy* was heard twice.

\*<sup>3</sup> *hā-*initial demonstratives for pl. com. were not recorded, whereas *ḍillih* was recorded five times.<sup>95</sup>

\*<sup>4</sup> *hāḍāk* was recorded twice, and once *ḍākah*.

*ar’ih* was recorded for “there he is!”

Demonstratives in ĞrA are:

Near deixis		Far deixis			
	sg.		pl.	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>hāḍa</i> ~ <i>hāḍa</i>	com.	<i>hāḍaḷ</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>hāḍāk(ah)</i>	com. <i>hāḍaḷlāk(ah)</i>
fem.	<i>hēḍiy</i> * <sup>1</sup>			<i>hēḍīk(ih)</i>	

\*<sup>1</sup> *ḍiy* was recorded three times.

\*<sup>2</sup> In one instance a separate demonstrative for the pl. fem. was recorded during direct elicitation: *aliḥṛayyim hāḍan* “these women”. This dem. was however not heard in spontaneous text.

<sup>95</sup> For a demonstrative *dillā* in combination with a noun in older texts (Nuzhat an-nufūs), see Zack 2009:103.

“There he/she/they is/are (lit. has/have come)” is *hēhū ġa’*, *hēhī ġat*, *hēhuṃṃa ġaw* and *hēhinnah ġan*. Alternatively *ir’* + pron. suffix is used: *ír’ih ġa’*, *ír’ihḥa ġat*, *ír’ihḥuṃ ġaw* and *ír’ihḥin ġan* (see 4.8.1.).

### 3.1.13.2. Specifying ha-

Specifying<sup>96</sup> *ha-* is quite regularly used in southern group I dialects. Examples are *binfitt halfattih ‘a tūl* “we immediately make this fattah” (DbA), *bitġibha min hassūg* “you get it (sg. fem.) from the (lit. this) market” (MLA), *w alliy msawwiyy... miṭmārah f-alblād—bingūl ‘alēha miṭmārah—halmiṭmārah hēdiy byilihūha ttibin...* “and there are those who have made ... an underground grain storage in the ground—we call it (sg. fem.) a *miṭmārah*—this *miṭmārah* they add the straw to it (sg. fem.)” (HwA), and in all dialects *halḥin* is current for “now”.

### 3.1.14. Interrogatives

Interrogatives recorded in southern group I dialects for

1) “who?”, 2) “what?”, 3) “why?”, 4) “when?”, 5) “where?”, 6) “which?”, 7) “how?”, 8) “how much?”, 9) “how many/much?”:

in HwA and DbA: 1) *min*, 2) *wiš*, *ēš / ēh*, 3) *lēh*, 4) *matān / mitān*, *wagtēh*, 5) *wēn*, 6) *yāt* + sg., 7) *kēf*, 8) *kam* + sg., 9) *kuṭrayh*, *gaddēh*.

in TAŞ (marked with \* were also recorded in TAN): 1) *min\**, 2) *ēš\** / *ēh\**, 3) *lēš\** / *lēh\**, 4) *matá(‘)* / *matā*, *wagtēš*, 5) *wēn\**, 6) *yāt* + sg., 7) *kēf\**, 8) *kam\** + sg., 9) *gaddēš* / *giddēš*.

in ĞrA: 1) *min*, 2) *ēh*, *ēš* (the latter much less), 3) *lēh*, 4) *matā / mitā*, 5) *wēn*, 6) *yāt* + sg., 7) *kēf*, 8) *kām*<sup>\*1</sup> + sg., 9) *kuṭrayh*, *gaddēh*.

<sup>\*1</sup> *kām* (with long *ā*) was elicited, *kam* (with short vowel) was not recorded.

in TyA: 1) *min*, 2) *ayš* / *ēš* / *ēh*, 3) *lēš*, 4) ?, 5) *wēn*, 6) *yāt* + sg., 7) *kēf*, 8) *kam* + sg., 9) *kuṭrayš*.

in BdA: 1) *min*, 2) *ēš* / *ēh*, 3) *lēš* / *lēh*, 4) *matā*, 5) *wēn*, 6) *yāt* + sg., 7) *kēf*, 8) *kam* + sg., 9) *kuṭrayš*, *gaddēš*.

in MLA: 1) *min*, 2) *ēš* / *ēh*, 3) *lēš* / *lēh*, 4) ?, 5) *wēn*, 6) *yāt* + sg., 7) *kēf* / *kif*, 8) *kam* + sg., 9)?

<sup>96</sup> See Blau 1960:20 and Grotzfeld 1964:46–47.

3.1.15. *Adverbs*

3.1.15.1. *Adverbs: “there”, “over there (far away)”, “here”, “thus”, “now”, “still”, “afterwards, after that”*

Adverbs recorded are:

“there”	<i>hnuh</i> <sup>*1</sup> (all dialects)
“there”	<i>fi hādāk</i> (MIA, ĠrA, TyA, DbA, BdA) <i>fi hādākah</i> (DbA)
“over there (far away)”	<i>ġād</i> (all dialects) <i>ġādīy</i> (TyA, TAŞ, TAN)
“here”	<i>hnīy</i> <sup>*1</sup> (all dialects) <i>hnīyyih</i> (all dialects) <i>hnīyyān(iy)</i> (TAN, TyA) <sup>*2</sup>
“here”	<i>fi hāḍa</i> (MIA, TyA, DbA)
“thus”	<i>kiḍīy</i> (all dialects) <i>kiḍīyyih</i> (all dialects) <i>kiḍīyyān(iy)</i> (TAN, TyA) <sup>*2</sup>
“now”	<i>halḥīn</i> (all dialects)
“still”	<i>lissā</i> <sup>ʿ</sup> (ĠrA, DbA, ḤwA, BdA, TAŞ, TAN, ḤwA) <i>assā</i> <sup>ʿ</sup> (TyA, ḤwA)
“afterwards, after that”	<i>mīnih</i> (all dialects) <i>ʿuḡuḅ kiḍīy</i> (all dialects) <i>bāʿ adēn</i> (all dialects)

<sup>\*1</sup> *mīn-ihnīy* “from here; this way”, *mīn-ihnuh* “from there” are treated as one unit for stress assignment.

<sup>\*2</sup> The hypocoristic *-ān(iy)* suffix is typical for group I dialects in the (north-)east of Sinai. It was also recorded in the dialects of the Sawārkah, Rmēlāt and Aḥaywāt, see De Jong 2000:153.<sup>97</sup>

The connector *ʿuḡuḅ ma* (*ʿuḡḅ + ma*) is sometimes shortened to *ʿuḡma*, e.g. *ʿuḡma ḥalāfaw ʿalēhum addīn* “after they had sworn an oath on their religion to them” (BdA).

3.1.15.2. *“maybe”*

For “maybe” direct elicitation in TAŞ yielded forms based on the root *x-w-f* (e.g. *xōfallah*) and *k-w-d* (e.g. *kūd*). *xōfallah* / *xawfallah* / (sometimes reduced as) *xāfallah* is used to refer to undesired possibilities, while *kūd* refers to desired possibilities.<sup>98</sup> *kūd* may also be suffixed, examples are: *ālġimal kūdinnah zēn* “maybe (let’s hope) the camels are good”, *arraġāġīl*

<sup>97</sup> See also Brockelmann 1966 (Vol. I):394.

<sup>98</sup> See also Holes and Abu Athera 2009:226 and De Jong 2000:177–178.

*kūdinhuṃ ṭayybīn* “maybe (let’s hope) they are good men” and *alihṭayyīm kūdinhin ṭayybāt* “maybe (let’s hope) they are good women”.

Forms elicited for (variations on) *xawf* are: *xawfallah (inkin) mintin ṭayybāt* “perhaps you (pl. fem.) are no good”. *xāf* (velarized) may also be suffixed, e.g. *xāfinnah mūhū ṭayyib* “perhaps he is no good”, *xāfinkin mintin ṭayybāt* “perhaps you (pl. fem.) are no good” and an unsuffixed form *xāfin*,<sup>99</sup> as in *xāfin mā nalgāha* “perhaps we won’t find it (sg. fem.)”.

### 3.1.15.3. *balḥayl* “very, extremely”

*balḥayl* for “very, extremely” was recorded twice, but only in MIA: (A) *iw tākil... (X) ḥāḡih... (A) ḥāḡah ḥilwah xāliṣ... (X) balḥäyl! w Allāh balḥayl... (A) and you eat... (X) A thing... (A) something very tasty... (X) Very! By God, very (tasty)...*

### 3.1.15.4. *bišwēš* “slowly, carefully”

The adverb *bišwēš* was not recorded in any of the group I dialects discussed here.

### 3.1.15.5. *min xawf* “lest”

*min xawf* in the sense of “lest” (see De Jong 2000:179) was not recorded.

### 3.1.16. *Prepositions + pers. pronominal suffixes*

Suffixed prepositions *l* “for”, *‘ala* “on” and *ma’* “with” in TAŞ, TAN, BdA, MIA, ĞrA, TyA, ḤwA and DbA (unless explicitly stated otherwise)<sup>100</sup> are:

	<i>l+*</i> <sup>1</sup>		<i>‘ala+*</i> <sup>6</sup>		<i>ma’+*</i> <sup>10</sup>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>lah/lih</i> <sup>*2</sup>	<i>lēhuṃ</i> <sup>*5</sup>	<i>‘aláh</i> <sup>*7</sup>	<i>‘alēhuṃ</i> <sup>*5</sup>	<i>mā‘áh</i>	<i>maḥḥuṃ</i> <sup>*5</sup>
fem.	<i>lēha</i> <sup>*3</sup>	<i>lēhin</i>	<i>‘alēha</i> <sup>*8</sup>	<i>‘alēhin</i>	<i>maḥḥa</i> <sup>*8</sup>	<i>maḥḥin</i>
2. masc.	<i>lak</i> <sup>*4</sup>	<i>lēkuw</i>	<i>‘alák</i> <sup>*9</sup>	<i>‘alēkuw</i>	<i>mā‘ák</i>	<i>ma‘kuw</i>
fem.	<i>lēkiy</i>	<i>lēkin</i>	<i>‘alēkiy</i>	<i>‘alēkin</i>	<i>mā‘kiy</i>	<i>ma‘kin</i>
1. com.	<i>lay(y)</i>	<i>lēna</i>	<i>‘aláy(y)</i>	<i>‘alēna</i>	<i>mā‘áy</i>	<i>ma‘na</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> For the paradigm of *l+* in TAN, TyA, DbA and ḤwA see below. The independent preposition is *l ~ li*.

For an alternative paradigm in BdA, see below.

\*<sup>2</sup> The vowel in TAŞ and ĞrA is usually *a*, in BdA *i*. In MIA *lah ~ lēh*.

\*<sup>3</sup> The suffix *-ha ~ -hiy* in MIA.

<sup>99</sup> The form *xāfin* is reminiscent of the form *xafin* reported in Stewart 1990:103 (text 32), l. 87 (+ fn).

<sup>100</sup> TAŞ was taken here as a starting point, and deviations in other dialects are described in notes.

\*4 In MIA *lak* ~ *lĕk*.

\*5 *-huw* in ĠrA. In ḤwA, MIA and TAN *-huṃ* ~ *-huw(wa)*.

\*6 In TyA, DbA and ḤwA raising of the *a* of the first syllable is regular, but only when preceding *ē*. So: *‘ilĕk*, *‘ilĕhuṃ* etc.,<sup>101</sup> but usually absence of raising in *‘aláy*. The independent preposition is *‘a* ~ *‘a*.

\*7 In TAN, BdA, MIA *‘alĕh*. In TyA, ḤwA and DbA *‘ilĕh* ~ *‘alĕh*. In ĠrA *‘alĕh*.

\*8 In TyA *-hiy*. Shawarbah 2007:419 reports for TyA of the Negev the form like *maḥḥiy* “with her” as well.

\*9 In TAN, BdA, MIA *‘alĕk*. In ḤwA and DbA *‘ilĕk*.

\*10 For the paradigm in TAN, see below.

The vowel of the first syllable is *i* in BdA, also in closed (and stressed) syllables: *mi‘áh*, *miḥḥa* etc. Raising of *a* in open unstressed syllable occurs regularly in other dialects, e.g. *mi‘áh* (but *a* in stressed closed syllable, e.g. *má‘kuw*).

The prep. <i>l</i> + in TAN, TyA, DbA, ḤwA (and as alternative in BdA):			The prep. <i>m(i)</i> + in TAN*4	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>lah</i> *1	<i>lhuṃ</i> *5	<i>m‘ah</i>	<i>mi‘huṃ</i> *5*6
fem.	<i>lha</i> *2	<i>lhin</i> *3	<i>mi‘ha</i> *6	<i>mi‘hin</i> *6
2. masc.	<i>lak</i>	<i>lkuw</i>	<i>m‘ak</i>	<i>mi‘kuw</i>
fem.	<i>lkiy</i>	<i>lkin</i> *3	<i>mi‘kiy</i>	<i>mi‘kin</i>
1. com.	<i>lay(y)</i>	<i>lna(‘)</i>	<i>m‘ay</i>	<i>mi‘na</i>

\*1 In TyA *lih*.

\*2 In TyA *lhiy*.

\*3 In ḤwA *lhin* and *lkin* ~ *lhinnih* and *lkinnih*.

\*4 The independent preposition is *m‘*, e.g.: *tāxd im‘ák libbtak fi ḡĕbtak...f-īdak* “you take your libbah (a thick round loaf of bread baked in hot sand) with you in your pocket... in your hand”.

\*5 In ḤwA and TAN *-huṃ* ~ *-huw(wa)*.

\*6 *‘* + *h* often assimilates to *ḥḥ*: *miḥḥa*, *miḥḥuṃ*, *miḥḥin*.

<sup>101</sup> Notice that such raising remains absent when the short *a* is the product of reduction of *ā* in pre-stress position, as in *mag‘ad šasēh* (< *šāsēh*) “a construction of piled rock with an old Ford chassis serving as a roof used as mag‘ad in Malbad (Ġarāġrah)” (ĠrA).

Suffixed prepositions *fi* “in”, *min* “from” and *waṛa* “behind” in TAŞ, TAN, BdA, MIA, ĞrA, TyA, HwA and DbA (unless explicitly stated otherwise) are:

	<i>fi</i> +		<i>min</i> +		<i>waṛa</i> +	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>fah</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>fihum</i> * <sup>5</sup>	<i>minnih</i>	<i>minhum</i> * <sup>5</sup>	<i>waṛāh</i>	<i>waṛāhum</i> * <sup>5</sup>
fem.	<i>fīha</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>fihin</i>	<i>minha</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>minhin</i>	<i>waṛāha</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>waṛāhin</i>
2. masc.	<i>fak</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>fikuw</i>	<i>minnak</i>	<i>minkuw</i>	<i>waṛāk</i>	<i>waṛākuw</i>
fem.	<i>fikiy</i>	<i>fikin</i>	<i>minkiy</i>	<i>minkin</i>	<i>waṛākiy</i>	<i>waṛākin</i>
1. com.	<i>fay(y)</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>fīna</i>	<i>minnī</i>	<i>minna</i>	<i>waṛāy</i>	<i>waṛāna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> *fih* (with short *i*) in MIA, *fih* (with long *ī*) in TAN, BdA, ĞrA, TyA, HwA and DbA. In all dialects: *fih* (with long *ī*) is used for “there is/are”.

\*<sup>2</sup> *-hiy* in TyA.

\*<sup>3</sup> *fik* in TAN, BdA, ĞrA, TyA, HwA and DbA.

\*<sup>4</sup> *fīnī* in ĞrA.

\*<sup>5</sup> *-huw* in ĞrA and *-hum* ~ *-huw* in HwA and TAN.

Suffixed prepositions ‘*ind* “with”, *ḥawāla* “around” and *fōg/fawg* “over” in TAŞ, TAN, BdA, MIA, ĞrA, TyA, HwA and DbA (unless explicitly stated otherwise) are:

	<i>ind</i> +		<i>ḥawāla</i> +	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>indah</i>	<i>induhum</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>ḥawalāh</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>ḥawalāhum</i>
fem.	<i>indaha</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>indihin</i>	<i>ḥawalāha</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>ḥawalāhin</i>
2. masc.	<i>indak</i>	<i>indukuw</i>	<i>ḥawalāk</i>	<i>ḥawalākuw</i>
fem.	<i>indikiy</i>	<i>indikin</i>	<i>ḥawalākiy</i>	<i>ḥawalākin</i>
1. com.	<i>indī</i>	<i>indina</i>	<i>ḥawalāy</i>	<i>ḥawalāna</i>

	<i>fōg</i> +	
	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>fōgah</i>	<i>fōghum</i> * <sup>2</sup>
fem.	<i>fōgha</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>fōghin</i>
2. masc.	<i>fōgak</i>	<i>fōgkuw</i>
fem.	<i>fōgkiy</i>	<i>fōgkin</i>
1. com.	<i>fōgī</i>	<i>fōgna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> *-hiy* in TyA.

\*<sup>2</sup> *-huw* in ĞrA and *-hum* ~ *-huw* in HwA and TAN.

\*<sup>3</sup> This prep. was not recorded with suffixes in BdA, ĞrA and MIA.

\*<sup>4</sup> An alternative *ḥawalāh* was recorded in TAŞ and *ḥawēlah* in TAN.

\*<sup>5</sup> In HwA the preposition is diphthongal: *fawgah*, *fawgha*, etc.

An interesting grammaticalisation recorded in DbA is *byākluw min iġnūbāha* “they eat from all sides (around them)”.

Suffixed prepositions are negated with single preceding *mā*, e.g. *mā ‘indī* “not with me”, *mā fōgak* “not above you”.

### 3.1.17. Numerals and counted plurals

#### 3.1.17.1. Cardinal numbers 1–10

Independent cardinal numbers are (forms that precede counted nouns follow in brackets): *wāḥid* / *wiḥdih*<sup>\*1</sup>, *tnēn* / *ṭintēn*<sup>\*2</sup>, *ṭalāṭih* (*ṭalāt*), *arba‘ah* (*arba‘*), *xamsih* (*xams*), *sittih* (*sitt*), *sab‘ih* (*sab‘*), *ṭamānyih* (*ṭamán*), *tis‘ih* (*tis‘*), *‘ašarah* (*‘ašár*).

<sup>\*1</sup> *wāḥid* and *wiḥdih* may follow the counted noun as adjectives for extra emphasis, e.g. *walad wāḥid* “one boy” and *bint wiḥdih* “one girl”.

<sup>\*2</sup> *tnēn* and *ṭintēn* may follow the counted dual form of the noun as adjectives for extra emphasis, e.g. *waladēn itnēn* “two boys” and *īdāy attintēn* “my two hands” and *riġlāy attintēn* “my two legs” (TyA, TAŞ, ĞrA, ḤwA). The form *adāy* “my hands” was recorded in DbA. Direct elicitation in ḤwA yielded *īdānī* instead of *īdāy* for “my hands”.<sup>102</sup>

Some plural forms of nouns are counted with proclitic *t-* (a remnant of the fem. morpheme in construct state), e.g. *arba‘ t-infār* “four people”, *xamis t-iyām* “five days”.

#### 3.1.17.2. Ordinal numbers 1–10

Only three ordinals were recorded: *awwil*, *tāniy*, *ṭalīt*.

#### 3.1.17.3. Numerals: *n* and *up*

Numerals 11–19 recorded are: *ḥdāšar*, *tnāšar* / *itnāšar*, *ṭalattāšar*, *arba‘ tāšar*, *xamistāšar*, *sittāšar*, *saba‘ tāšar*, *ṭamantāšar*, *tisi‘ tāšar* in all dialects.

In ḤwA and BdA these forms ending in *-āšar* co-occurred with forms ending in *-ā‘iš*, e.g. *ṭalattā‘iš*, *arba‘ tā‘iš*, *xamistā‘iš*,<sup>103</sup> etc. In MIA the months of November and December were referred to as *šahár iḥdā‘iš* and *šahár itnā‘iš* (resp.).

<sup>102</sup> This is perhaps a hybrid form of *īdāy* “my hands” (like in other dialects) and *adānī* “my ears”, or the pl. *īdān* was directly suffixed with the pron.: *īdānī* “my hands”.

<sup>103</sup> In the forms ending in *-āšar* velarization is indicated in *r*, in the forms ending in *-ā‘iš*, it is indicated in the long: *ā*.

Numerals 20–90:

*‘išrīn, ṭalātīn, arba‘īn, xamsīn, sittīn, sab‘īn, ṭamānīn, tis‘īn.*

Numerals 100–900:

*miyyih, mīyṭēn, ṭulīṭmiyyih, ṛubī‘miyyih, xumismiyyih, suttmiyyih, subī‘miyyih, ṭumīnmiyyih, tusī‘miyyih.*

Numerals 1,000–10,000:

*alf, alfēn, ṭalat t-ālāf, xamis t-ālāf, arba‘ t-ālāf, sitt t-ālāf, sabī‘ t-ālāf, ṭaman t-ālāf, tisi‘ t-ālāf, ‘ašar t-ālāf.*

Long *ā* of the first syllable is usually reduced to short *a*, e.g. *ṭalat t-ālāf* “three thousand”.

Numerals 11,000–1,000,000:

*ḥdāšar alf, mūt alf, miyytēn alf, milyōn / malyōn (and ṭalat malāyīn).*

Some plurals recorded with proclitic *t-* are: *tisi‘ t-ālāf* “nine thousand”, *‘ašar t-īyyām* “ten days”, *sitt t-ušhur* “six months”,<sup>104</sup> *sabī‘ t-infār* “seven persons”.

Months are usually referred to by numbers, e.g. *šahār wāḥid* “January”, *f-awwil iḥdā‘iš* “in the beginning of November”.

### 3.1.18. *The dual*

Suffixing *-ēn* (or *-ayn*) to the sg. form of a noun forms the dual, e.g. *raffayn* “two tent sections”, *šaharayn* “two months”, *yōmēn* “two days”, *šwālēn* “two (large) sacks”.

Older forms of the dual (?)<sup>105</sup> are used in expressions for body parts, e.g. TAŞ and TyA forms *riġlāy* “my (two) legs”, *īdāy* “my hands” (unsuffixed pl. forms are *riġlān* and *īdān*).

Forms recorded in ḤwA are: *īd* “hand”, *īdān* “hands”, *īdāha* “her hands”, *īdāhin* “their (fem.) hands”, but *īdānī* “my hands”. A form heard in ĞrA is *īdāhuw* “their hands”.

<sup>104</sup> *sitt t-ušhur* is actually pronounced like *sitt ušhur* (reduced *tt t > tt*). The proclitic *t-* is concluded from other forms, like *xamis t-ušhur* “five months” and *ṭaman t-ušhur* “eight months”.

<sup>105</sup> It is not certain that these forms in final *-ān*, and suffixed as *-ā +*, are older dual forms (see also remarks in De Jong 2000:187 (+ fn 341); one could also imagine a perhaps more likely analogy with pl. forms like *sīgān* (sg. *sāg*) for “thighs”, *kī‘ān* (sg. *kū‘*) “elbows”, *dir‘ān* (sg. *drā‘*) “forearms”.

Plural forms in BdA and DbA are with initial *a-*: *adēk* “your hands”, *adēhuṃ* “their hands”, *adēhin* “their (fem.) hands” and “my hands” in DbA is *adāy*, but was recorded as *adāy* in BdA.

Forms recorded in MIA are only sg.: *id* “hand” and *idī* “my hand”. Forms in TAN are *idak* and *idah*, and pl. forms *idēh* “his hands” and *riġlēh* “his legs”.

These forms are also used as plurals—not only as duals—as is clear from recorded instances like *yākluw b idāhuw* “they eat with their hands” and *biyguṣṣinhin, iw byuḍufrinnah ḍafar . . . ‘al-idāhin . . . āššā‘ar hāḍa* “they (fem.) shave them (fem., i.e. the goats), and they (fem.) plait it (sg. masc.) into a saddle girth . . . this hair” and *ib riġlāhin ibyidirsin* “they (fem.) thresh with their (fem., i.e. animals) feet”.

### 3.2. Verbal Morphology

#### 3.2.1. Regular verbs

##### 3.2.1.1. Regular verbs perfect

For measure 1 the two principal underlying patterns for the perfect are (*i*-type)  $C_1aC_2iC_3$  and (*a*-type)  $C_1aC_2aC_3$  (for  $C_1aC_2uC_3$  see 3.2.1.3.).

The paradigms in TyA are:

		perfect “drink” <sup>*1</sup>		perfect “sit” <sup>*3</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	šribt <sup>*1</sup>	šribna <sup>*1</sup>	ga‘ád	ga‘ádaw <sup>*4</sup>
	fem.	šribt <sup>*1</sup>	šribtuw <sup>*1</sup>	ga‘adat <sup>*4</sup>	ga‘ádan <sup>*4</sup>
2.	masc.	šribtīy <sup>*1</sup>	šribtin <sup>*1</sup>	ga‘adt <sup>*5</sup>	ga‘adtuw <sup>*5</sup>
	fem.	šrib <sup>*1</sup>	šarbuw <sup>*2</sup>	ga‘adtīy <sup>*5</sup>	ga‘adtin <sup>*5</sup>
1.	com.	šarbit <sup>*2</sup>	šarbin <sup>*2</sup>	ga‘adt <sup>*5</sup>	ga‘adna

<sup>\*1</sup> The short vowel *i* of the open and unstressed first syllable is underlying |a| and is therefore not elided in these group I dialects (i.e. forms are not •šrib, •šribt, etc.) (cf. the verb *ġulúḍ* in 3.2.1.3.).

<sup>\*2</sup> Notice that the underlying *a* ‘reappears’ in closed syllables. This is not the case in TAŞ, ĞrA, MIA; forms there are *šribit*, *šribuw* and *šribin*. Other examples are: *tilfiw* “they grew old”, *wiġfit* “she stood”.

Like in TyA, the *a* does ‘reappear’ in ḤwA: *‘argit* “she sweated”, *yabsuw* “they dried”, *waşlit* “she arrived, reached”; DbA: *fahyit* “she was surprised” and *daryit* “she became aware”; BdA: *nasyit* “she forgot”, *ġarmit* “she was fined”; TAN: *fahmit* “she understood” (cf. the verb *ġulúḍ* in 3.2.1.3.).

\*<sup>3</sup> Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stress is regular, but optional, e.g. *fitáh* “he opened”.

\*<sup>4</sup> Stress is CáCaCv in TAŞ. The other group I dialects discussed here (including TAN!) stress CaCáCv (but MLA shows variation in this respect, see remarks in 2.1.1.2.2.).

\*<sup>5</sup> The consonant cluster *dt* assimilates to *tt*.

In TAŞ suffixed forms only distinguished by stress are: *šribtah* “I drank it (sg. masc.)” (< *šribt* + *ah*) and *šribtah* “she drank it (sg. masc.)” (< *šribit* + *ah*).

In ĞrA, however, the high vowel of the verbal ending is not elided (and hence no subsequent anaptyxis takes place): *hī líbsitih* “she wore it”, *hī šribitih* “she drank it”, *hī lígyitih* “she found it”, but *aná libístih* “I wore it”. No such forms were recorded in MLA.

### 3.2.1.2. Regular verbs imperfect

Like in most dialects of Sinai, the imperfect is characterized by vowel harmony in the verbal prefixes, and like in group VI, this vowel harmony is also found in the 1st. p. sg. com. of *i*- and *u*-type imperfects of some of the group I dialects discussed here: ĞrA, BdA and in some instances also in TAN (e.g. *lēš inzil?* “why should I dismount?”). The other group I dialects (TAŞ, TyA, DbA, ĤwA and also the large majority of forms in TAN) have initial *a*- in all vowel types, see also De Jong 2000:299.

There are three imperfect patterns:  $yaC_1C_2CaC_3$ ,  $yuC_1C_2CuC_3$  and  $yiC_1C_2iC_3$ .

		<i>a</i> -type imperfect “drink”	
		sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>yášřab</i>	<i>yášřabaw</i>
	fem.	<i>tášřab</i>	<i>yášřaban</i>
2. masc.		<i>tášřab</i>	<i>tášřabaw</i>
	fem.	<i>tášřabay</i>	<i>tášřaban</i>
1. com.		<i>ášřab</i>	<i>nášřab</i>

Paradigms for *i*- and *u*-type imperfects are like those listed for group VI with differences in initial vowels in the 1st p. sg. com. as described above here (i.e. *aktib* and *ađrub* or *iktib* and *uđrub*).

Measure 1 verbs *i*-type (e.g. *yaħarīt*) and *a*-type (e.g. *ya‘arag*) with  $C_1 = X$  have the following paradigms.

		<i>i</i> -type imperfect* <sup>1</sup>		<i>a</i> -type imperfect* <sup>1</sup>	
		“plough”		“sweat”	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>yaḥárit</i>	<i>yaḥártuw</i>	<i>ya’árag</i>	<i>ya’áragaw</i>
	fem.	<i>taḥárit</i>	<i>taḥártin</i>	<i>ta’árag</i>	<i>ta’áragan</i>
2.	masc.	<i>taḥárit</i>	<i>taḥártuw</i>	<i>ta’árag</i>	<i>ta’áragaw</i>
	fem.	<i>taḥártiy</i>	<i>taḥártin</i>	<i>ta’áragay</i>	<i>ta’áragan</i>
1.	com.	<i>aḥárit</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>naḥárit</i>	<i>a’árag</i>	<i>na’árag</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> For stress in these forms see 2.1.1. and 2.1.2.4.

\*<sup>2</sup> Notice that in gahawah-verb forms the initial vowel does not harmonize with the base vowel of an *i*-type imperfect.

For the morphological status of the *i*, and reasons for not indicating its elision (i.e. the forms are not written here as e.g. *yaḥárt*), see remarks in De Jong 2000:94, fn 94).

Perfects and participles of these verbs *ḥarát* and *’iríg* are like those of *ga’ád* and *širíb* (see 3.2.1.1.).

### 3.2.1.3. Reflexes of older \*C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>uC<sub>3</sub>, \*yaC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>uC<sub>3</sub>

The verb “grow fat” as example of an ‘Eigenschafts’ verb-type elicited in ḤwA, BdA, TAŞ:

		“grow fat”			
		<i>u</i> -type perfect* <sup>1</sup>		<i>u</i> -type imperfect* <sup>3</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>ḡulúḡ</i>	<i>ḡalḡuw</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>yaḡáluḡ</i>	<i>yaḡáḡuw</i>
	fem.	<i>ḡalḡit</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>ḡalḡin</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>taḡáluḡ</i>	<i>yaḡáḡin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>ḡuluḡt</i>	<i>ḡuluḡtuw</i>	<i>taḡáluḡ</i>	<i>taḡáḡuw</i>
	fem.	<i>ḡuluḡtiy</i>	<i>ḡuluḡtin</i>	<i>taḡáḡiy</i>	<i>taḡáḡin</i>
1.	com.	<i>ḡuluḡt</i>	<i>ḡuluḡna</i>	<i>aḡáluḡ</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>naḡáluḡ</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> In unstressed open syllables the surface *u* (of the first syllable) is not dropped (i.e. forms are not *•ḡluḡ*, *•ḡluḡt*, etc.) and is therefore to be interpreted as being underlying |a| (cf. the verb *širíb* in 3.2.1.1.).

\*<sup>2</sup> Notice that the underlying |a| of the pattern ‘reappears’ in closed syllables. This is not the case in TAŞ, ĞrA, MIA; forms recorded there are *ḡulḡit*, *ḡulḡuw* and *ḡulḡin*. For TAN I have extrapolated ‘reappearance’ of *a* here based on its ‘reappearance’ in the *i*-type perfect (compare *širíb* \*<sup>2</sup> in 3.2.1.1.).

\*<sup>3</sup> Due to the relatively high sonority of the preceding *l*, the high vowel *u* is usually dropped when *ḡ* is word-final, e.g. *yaḡáḡḡ* # and *taḡáḡḡ* #. See also remarks \*<sup>1</sup> and \*<sup>2</sup> in 3.2.1.2. on ordering the gahawah-rule and the rule for high vowel elision in the imperfect.

\*<sup>4</sup> Like in *aḥārīt* (see 3.2.1.2. above) the initial vowel does not harmonize with the base vowel.

For the imperfect this paradigm with gahawah-forms was elicited in ḤwA. In other dialects a paradigm like that of *yudrub* (i.e. *yūḡluḡ*, etc.) is current.

#### 3.2.1.4. Regular verbs participles

Like in group VI, active participles are formed with the patterns C<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>ah/-ih (sg. fem.), C<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>īn (pl. masc.), C<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>āt (pl. fem.).

When the sg. fem. participle is suffixed with an object, it is in construct state with this suffix. Examples are: *ṛāyidtiḥ* “she wants/loves him”, *šāribtiḥ* “having drunk (sg. fem.) it (sg. masc.)” (both ḤwA), *šāribtiḥa* “having drunk (sg. fem.) it (sg. fem.)” (TAŞ).

#### 3.2.1.5. Regular verbs imperatives

Imperatives of regular verbs are like in other dialects of group I,<sup>106</sup> e.g. *ášrab*, *ášrabay*, *ášrabaw*, *ášraban* “drink!”, *úḡud*, *úḡudiy*, *úḡuduw*, *úḡudin* “sit down!” and *ímisk*, *ímiskiy*, *ímiskuw*, *ímiskin* “grab, take hold!”.

### 3.2.2. Irregular and other verbs

#### 3.2.2.1. Verbs C<sub>1</sub> = w (*primae wāw*)

In group I dialects discussed here there is a mild preference for monophthongs in *i*-type imperfects, while *a*-type imperfects more often have diphthongs, e.g. *warād*, *yōrid* “give water”, *wazán*, *yōzin* “weigh”, *waşál*, *yawşal* “arrive”, but forms like *yawrid* and *yōşal* were also heard.<sup>107</sup>

		<i>a</i> -type imperfect with <i>wāw</i> * “arrive”	
		sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>yawşal</i>	<i>yawşalaw</i>
	fem.	<i>tawşal</i>	<i>yawşalan</i>
2.	masc.	<i>tawşal</i>	<i>tawşalaw</i>
	fem.	<i>tawşalay</i>	<i>tawşalan</i>
1.	com.	<i>awşal</i>	<i>nawşal</i>

<sup>106</sup> See De Jong 2000:192.

<sup>107</sup> Holes and Abu Athera 2009:212 recorded initial *yā-* in poetry from south Jordan and Sinai. Two instances of forms with initial short vowel (*yaga*<sup>1</sup> and *tigif*), typical of dialects on the periphery of the Syrian desert, were also recorded. These prefixes (i.e. *yā-* etc.) were also reported for the dialect of the Ḥwētāt in southern Jordan, see Palva 1984–86:300.

\* In ḤwA two parallel imperfect paradigms were recorded for the C<sub>1</sub> = *wāw* verb *warad* “give water”: one without *wāw* (*yirid*), and one with incorporated *wāw* (*yōrid*):

The *i*-type imperfect has the following paradigm:

		“water”			
		imperfect without <i>wāw</i> * <sup>1</sup>		imperfect with <i>wāw</i> * <sup>2</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>yirid</i>	<i>yarduw</i>	<i>yōrid</i>	<i>yōrduw</i>
	fem.	<i>tirid</i>	<i>yardin</i>	<i>tōrid</i>	<i>yōrdin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>tirid</i>	<i>tarduw</i>	<i>tōrid</i>	<i>tōrduw</i>
	fem.	<i>tardiy</i>	<i>tardin</i>	<i>tōrdiy</i>	<i>tōrdin</i>
1.	com.	( <sup>ʾ</sup> ) <i>arid</i>	<i>nirid</i>	<i>ōrid</i>	<i>nōrid</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Notice that the vowel of the first syllable is underlying |a|: it is raised to *i* in open unstressed syllable (except when <sup>ʾ</sup> precedes), but appears as *a* in closed (and stressed) syllables. Compare this to the perfect paradigms of *širib* (see 3.2.1.1.) and *ġulúġ* (see 3.2.1.3.).

Similar paradigms in ḤwA were recorded for *yigif* (paradigm like *yirid* above) ~ *yawgaf* (paradigm like *yawšal* above).

\*<sup>2</sup> In ĞrA the imperfect of this verb is with incorporated *wāw*. The tendency during elicitation was to monophthongize *aw* > *ō* in closed syllables, but to maintain diphthongs in open syllables, e.g. *yōrduw* “they give water”, but *yawrid* “he gives water” (the paradigm for the perfect *warád* is like *gaʾád*, see 3.2.1.1.)

Other primae *wāw* verbs are: *waġaʾ*, *yōġiʾ* “hurt”, *waláʾ*, *yawliy* “come near”, *wakáʾ*, *yōkiy* “tie closed”, *waṭáʾ*, *yawṭiy* “go shopping”.

Verbs with the pattern *yiwCiC* or *yiwCaC* (like those current in e.g. Cairene Arabic) were not recorded in these dialects.

Imperatives of the verb *wiʾiy*, *yawʾa* “pay attention” (root *w-ʾ-y*) are *awʾa*, *awʾay*, *awʾaw* and *awʾan* in ḤwA, DbA, e.g. *awʾan rūskin* “mind (pl. fem.) your (pl. fem.) heads!”. Forms recorded in TAŞ, TyA were recorded with base vowels dropped: *awʾa*, *awʾiy*, *awʾin* and *awʾuw*, e.g. *awʾa tans* “don’t you forget (sg. masc.)!” and *awʾin tansin* “don’t you forget (pl. fem.)!”.

In BdA and ĞrA the imperative of the sg. masc. was left unconjugated for grammatical number and gender and used as a general particle of warning (a similar particle was recorded in some dialects of group VII): *awʾa rāsak*, *awʾa rāskiy*, *awʾa rūskuw*, *awʾa rūskin* for “mind your head(s)!” (BdA) and also *awʾa tans*, *awʾa tansay*, *awʾa tansaw* and *awʾa tansan* “don’t

forget!” (ĠrA). Other dialects have regular imperative forms like *aw'an rūskin* and *aw'aw tansaw* (Forms in MIA and TAN were not recorded).

Imperfect forms with base vowel *i* in most dialects have *ō* as in *yōġi* ‘it hurts’, *yōkiy* ‘he ties closed’, *yōrid* ‘he waters’ *yōzin* ‘he weighs’, *yōgid* ‘he lights’ (recorded in MIA, BdA, TAN and ḤwA). Some dialects (also) have diphthongs in these *i*-type imperfects, like *yowluw* ‘they come near’, *yawtuw* ‘they go shopping’ (both MIA), *yawrid* and *yawgid* (both TAŞ), *yawkiy* ‘he ties closed’ but *yōkiha* ‘he ties it (sg. fem.) closed’ (both BdA) and diphthongs in *a*-type imperfects *yawşal* ‘he arrives’, *yawşaf* ‘he describes’ and *yawġa* (all three TAŞ), *yowgaf* or *yawgaf* ‘he stands’ (ḤwA and TAŞ). Sometimes such verbal imperfects are without *wāw*, e.g. *agif* ‘I stand’, *tigif* ‘you stand’ (both ḤwA).

Participles:

Active participles have a  $C_1\bar{a}C_2iC_3$  pattern, e.g. *wārid*, *wāridih*, *wārdin*, *wārdāt* ‘having watered’.

$maC_1C_2\bar{u}C_3$  is the pattern for the past participle, as in *mawġūd* (-*ah*, -*in*, -*āt*) ‘present’ for the root *w-ġ-d* in all dialects except ḤwA, where twice *māġūd* was recorded. Roni Henkin lists a form *maġlūd* co-occurring with *mawlūd*, see Henkin 2008:362 for tribes in the Negev (see also fn 101, p. 83).

### 3.2.2.2. Verbs $C_1 = y$ (*primae yā*)

In TyA, ḤwA, TAŞ and ĠrA the diphthong of the first syllable in the imperfect is left intact (perfect) *yibís*, (imperfect) *yaybas* (not recorded in the other dialects).

Notice that, like in the verb *širib* (see 3.2.1.1.), the vowel of the first syllable of the perfect is underlying |a|, so that it ‘reappears’ in closed syllables (in those dialects that also have *šarbit*): *yibís* ‘it (sg. masc.) dried’, but *yabsit* ‘it (sg. fem.) dried’.

### 3.2.2.3. Verbs $C_1 = *$ (*primae hamzah*)

The verb ‘eat’ has the following paradigms:

		imperfect* <sup>1</sup>		perfect* <sup>2</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>yākil</i>	<i>yākluw</i>	<i>akál</i>	<i>akálaw</i>
	fem.	<i>tākil</i>	<i>yāklin</i>	<i>akálat</i>	<i>akálan</i>
2.	masc.	<i>tākil</i>	<i>tākluw</i>	<i>akalt</i>	<i>akaltuw</i>
	fem.	<i>tākliy</i>	<i>tāklin</i>	<i>akaltiy</i>	<i>akaltin</i>
1.	com.	<i>ākil</i>	<i>nākil</i>	<i>akalt</i>	<i>akalna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> The long vowel *ā* is clearly lower than in the present participle (without velarization) *mākil*, but velarization in the imperfect (as indicated here in *k*)

is only limited in most dialects. Velarization is clearly stronger in BdA. Such velarization could perhaps be described as ‘phantom’ velarization.<sup>108</sup>

All dialects discussed here have the imperfect vowel *i* in the imperfect.  
\*<sup>2</sup> The perfect is without initial *a-* in TAŞ, ĞRA, MIA (TAN is uncertain). Stress is then *kalát*, *kaláw* and *kalán*.

The paradigms for the verb “take” (ʾ-x-d) are comparable (in the perfect *d* + *t* usually assimilates to > *tt*, e.g. *axattuw*).

Present participles are with initial *m-*: *mākil*, *mākliħ*, *māklīn*, *māklāt*.

Past participles are: *māxūd*, *-ah*, *-īn*, *-āt* (all forms are velarized).

Imperatives are: *kuł*, *kliy*, *kluw*, *klin*

The verbal noun is (ʾ)akl “eating” (also “food”), but *waḳł* was recorded in BdA. The passive verb “be eaten” is *ánwakal*, *yínwikil*.

### 3.2.2.4. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*)

#### 3.2.2.4.1. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*) perfect and imperfect

In group I dialects the perfect and imperfect paradigms are:

	“say”	perfect		imperfect* <sup>2</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>gāl</i>	<i>gāław</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>ygül</i>	<i>ygüluw</i>
	fem.	<i>gālat</i>	<i>gālan</i>	<i>tgül</i>	<i>ygülin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>gułt</i>	<i>gułtuw</i>	<i>tgül</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>tgüluw</i>
	fem.	<i>gułtiy</i>	<i>gułtin</i>	<i>tgüliy</i>	<i>tgülin</i>
1.	com.	<i>gułt</i>	<i>gułna</i>	<i>agül</i> * <sup>4</sup>	<i>ngül</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> In TAŞ and ĞRA the ending *-aw* varies with *-uw*. In the other dialects the ending is regularly *-aw*.

\*<sup>2</sup> Media *yā*’ verbs (with long base vowel *i*) have the same endings.

\*<sup>3</sup> Notice that shortened base vowels in the 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect (like e.g. *tanam*, *tuḡul* and *tišil*) were not recorded in these group I dialects.

\*<sup>4</sup> See remarks in 3.2.1.2. on vowel harmony of the initial vowel of the sg. com. (*uḡül*) in ĞRA and BdA.

For media *yā*’ verbs (with long base vowel *ā*) ĤwA, BdA, ĞRA, TyA and TAŞ have the same endings, but forms in DbA were recorded with vowel harmony: *tnāmay*, *ynāmaw*, *ynāman*, *tnāmaw* and *tnāman*. Situation in MIA and TAN is unknown (see also remark \* in 3.2.2.4.2. below).

<sup>108</sup> ‘Phantom’ velarization is here meant to indicate the effect of velarization present in these forms, while the cause of this velarization (originally the vowel *u* in the imperfect) is no longer present, since the vowel *u* has been replaced by *i*. Compare this to velarization left behind by *u* in forms (e.g. *řkab* “knees”, *řrab* “waterskins”), even after its total disappearance; the effect of the so-called vanished *u*, as described in Blanc 1970:128 [17].

The verb *šāf*, *yšūf* was recorded in all dialects with short vowel *u* only: *šuft* “I saw”.

Verbs  $C_2 = y$  are like in group VI as well, e.g. *šāl*, *yšīl* (and *šilt*) (for a remark on originally measure 4 verb *rād*, *yrīd*, see 3.2.3.7.2. of this chapter).

### 3.2.2.4.2. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*) imperatives

Short base vowels in the sg. masc. imperative in *mediae infirmae* verbs are rare; I have heard it in BdA in imperatives *gum* “get up!” and *nam* “go to sleep!”, but other imperatives in BdA all had long base vowels, e.g. *gūl* “say!”, *šīl* “carry, take away!”, although there are also isolated instances of *gul* “say!”.

Regular imperatives have long base vowels:

	long <i>ū</i>		long <i>ī</i>		long <i>ā</i>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
masc.	<i>gūl</i>	<i>gūluw</i>	<i>šīl</i>	<i>šīluw</i>	<i>nām</i>	<i>nāmuw*</i>
fem.	<i>gūliy</i>	<i>gūlin</i>	<i>šīliy</i>	<i>šīlin</i>	<i>nāmiy*</i>	<i>nāmin*</i>

\* These endings without vowel harmony were heard in HwA, BdA, TyA, TAŞ and ĞrA. In DbA the endings were heard with vowel harmony: *nāmay*, *nāmau*, *nāman* (not recorded in TAN and MIA).

Imperatives used with the verb *ġāb*, *yġīb* “bring” are: *hāt*, *hātiy*, *hātuw*, *hātin*.

N.B. Often the diphthong *iy* is reduced to *i* in forms like *biyūl*, *biyšīl* > *bigūl*, *bišīl*.

### 3.2.2.4.3. Verbs $C_2 = w$ or $y$ (*mediae infirmae*) participles

Present participles are like in other groups, e.g. *gāyil*, *gāylih*, *gāylin*, *gāylāt*.

Past participles are *magyūl*, *-ah*, *-īn*, *-āt*, but more current is *mingāl*, *-ah*, *-īn*, *-āt*.

### 3.2.2.5. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertia infirmae*)

#### 3.2.2.5.1. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertia infirmae*) perfect

Like in the other groups of the south of Sinai, *a*-type and *i*-type perfects of *tertia infirmae* verbs have often become mixed.

Unmixed paradigms in TAŞ for the *a*- and *i*-type perfects are:

	perfect			
	“walk” <sup>*1</sup>		“find” <sup>*2</sup>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>mašá(’)</i>	<i>mašáv</i>	<i>ligíy</i>	<i>ligyuw</i>
fem.	<i>mašát</i>	<i>mašán</i>	<i>ligiyit</i>	<i>ligyin</i>
2. masc.	<i>mašēt</i>	<i>mašētuw</i>	<i>ligīt</i>	<i>ligītuw</i>
fem.	<i>mašētiy</i>	<i>mašētin</i>	<i>ligītiy</i>	<i>ligītin</i>
1. com.	<i>mašēt</i>	<i>mašēna</i>	<i>ligīt</i>	<i>ligīna</i>

\*1 Raising of *a* in open pre-stress syllable is current in the *a*-type perfect, e.g. *mišá(')* and *mišēt*.

The same paradigm was recorded in ĞrA, BdA, though in the latter the 3rd p. sg. fem. was produced as *mášyit*.

In DbA and ĤwA the verb has two parallel conjugations: both as *a*-type and as *i*-type, e.g. *mášá ~ mišýy*, *mašát ~ mašyit* and *mišēt (< \*mašēt) ~ mišýt*.

\*2 The same paradigm was recorded in ĞrA

In BdA the 3rd p. sg. masc. is also *ligýy*, but the underlying |a| of the first syllable 'reappears' when the syllable is closed: *lagyit*, *lagyuw* and *lagyin*. In the rest of the paradigm the verb is treated like an *a*-type perfect: *ligēt (< lagēt)*, etc.

In DbA and ĤwA the verb has two parallel conjugations:<sup>109</sup> both as *a*-type and as *i*-type, e.g. *ligá ~ ligýy*, *ligát ~ lagyit* and *ligēt ~ ligýt*.

The perfect paradigm for "forget" recorded in TAŞ is mixed: (sg.) *nasá(')*, *nasát*, *nasýt*, *nasýtýy*, *nasýt* and (pl.) *nasáw*, *nasán*, *nasítuw*, *nasítin*, *nasína*. In these forms *a* of the open first syllable is usually raised to *i*, as in e.g. *nisýt*.

DbA has two parallel conjugations: *nasá(')* ~ *nisýy*, the conjugation elicited for "forget" in ĤwA is unmixed *i*-type: *nisýy*, *nasyit*, *nisýt*, etc.

Material for MIA and TAN was limited, but the same mixed paradigms appear to be in use there.

### 3.2.2.5.2. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertia infirmae*) imperfect

Paradigms for the imperfect in TAŞ are:

	"find"*1		"walk"	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>yalga</i>	<i>yalguw</i> *3	<i>yimšýy</i>	<i>yimšuw</i>
fem.	<i>talga</i>	<i>yalgan</i> *3	<i>timšýy</i>	<i>yimšín</i>
2. masc.	<i>talga</i> *2	<i>talguw</i> *3	<i>timšýy</i> *2	<i>timšuw</i>
fem.	<i>talgýy</i> *3	<i>talgan</i> *3	<i>timšýy</i>	<i>timšín</i>
1. com.	<i>alga</i>	<i>nalga</i>	<i>amšýy</i> *4	<i>nimšýy</i>

\*1 The type of raising of final *-a* (e.g. *yansi'*) heard in group VI is not current here.

\*2 Apocopated imperfects for the 2nd p. sg. masc. are current only in BdA and TyA (where both full forms and apocopated forms may be heard used

<sup>109</sup> 'Parallel' should not be understood here as two conjugations that are kept separate, either by individual speakers or in different contexts. On the contrary: forms from either paradigm appear to be used at random. The topic certainly deserves more space than can be afforded here. On 'parallel forms', see fn 5, p. 117 in this volume.

side by side). Only few instances were heard in ĞrA, DbA and TAN, and none in TAŞ, HwA and MIA.

\*<sup>3</sup> Notice that in the *a*-type the final base vowel *-a* is dropped in the endings of the 2nd p. sg. fem. and the 3rd and 2nd pl. masc. forms, but not in 3rd and 2nd pl. fem. forms.

\*<sup>4</sup> See remarks in 3.2.1.2. on possible vowel harmony of the initial vowel of the sg. com. (*ímšiy*) in ĞrA and BdA.

Endings with base vowel (i.e. *-ay*, *-an* and *-aw*, as in *talgay*, *t/yalgan* and *t/yalgaw*) were heard in TAN, HwA, DbA and BdA. In ĞrA and TyA these co-occurred with endings without the base vowel. Material is too limited for conclusions on MIA; only one relevant form was recorded there: *talgūhuw* “you’ll find them”.

### 3.2.2.5.3. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaef infirmaef*) imperatives

Dialects where apocopated imperfects are current (mainly in TyA and BdA, but also in ĞrA, DbA and TAN, see remark \*<sup>2</sup> in 3.2.2.5.2.), may also use apocopated imperatives for the sg. masc.

### 3.2.2.5.4. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaef infirmaef*) participles

Active participles have the patterns  $C_1\bar{a}C_2iy$ ,  $C_1\bar{a}C_2yih$ ,  $C_1\bar{a}C_2y\bar{i}n$  and  $C_1\bar{a}C_2y\bar{a}t$ . E.g. *nāsiy*, *nāsyih*, *nāsyin*, *nāsyāt* “having forgotten”.

### 3.2.2.5.5. Verbs $C_3 = y$ (*tertiaef infirmaef*) verbal nouns

A verbal noun of a verb  $C_3 = y$  (*tertiaef infirmaef*) is *mašy*.

## 3.2.2.6. The verb “come”

### 3.2.2.6.1. The verb “come” perfect and imperfect

The verb “come” was recorded in all group I dialects as:

	perfect		imperfect* <sup>1</sup>	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>ǰa(ˀ)</i>	<i>ǰaw</i>	<i>yǰiy</i>	<i>yǰuw</i>
fem.	<i>ǰat</i>	<i>ǰan</i>	<i>tǰiy</i>	<i>yǰin</i>
2. masc.	<i>ǰūt</i>	<i>ǰūtuw</i>	<i>tǰiy</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>tǰuw</i>
fem.	<i>ǰūtiy</i>	<i>ǰūtin</i>	<i>tǰiy</i>	<i>tǰin</i>
1. com.	<i>ǰūt</i>	<i>ǰūna</i>	<i>aǰiy</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>nǰiy</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> In ĞrA forms with initial *t*- often showed a following vowel as well: *tiǰiy* ~ *tǰiy*, *tiǰúw* ~ *tǰuw* and *tiǰin* ~ *tǰin*.

\*<sub>2</sub> The apocopated form in BdA and TyA is *tiġ*.

\*<sub>3</sub> Informants of ĞrA and BdA did not produce a form *iġġy* here (contrast with remarks on vowel harmony in 3.2.1.2.).

### 3.2.2.6.2. *The verb “come” imperatives*

Imperatives used with the verb “come” in ĞrA, BdA and TyA are: *ta’āl*, *ta’āliy*, *ta’āluw* and *ta’ālin*. The same forms are used in TAŞ, but there the pl. fem. shows vowel harmony: *ta’ālan*.

In ĤwA the sg. masc is *ta’ā(’)* and in DbA *ta’āl*. In both ĤwA, DbA the endings of the other forms also show vowel harmony: *ta’ālay*, *ta’ālaw* and *ta’ālan*.

Material for MĀ and TAN is too limited for conclusions.

### 3.2.2.6.3. *The verb “come” participles*

Participles of the verb “come” are: *ġāy*, *ġāyih*, *ġāyīn*, *ġāyāt*.

### 3.2.2.7. *Verbs C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae)*

#### 3.2.2.7.1. *Verbs C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae) perfect and imperfect.*

Paradigms for mediae geminatae verbs are:

		“pull”			
		perfect* <sub>1</sub>		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3.	masc.	<i>šadd</i>	<i>šaddaw</i> * <sub>2</sub>	<i>yšidd</i>	<i>yšidduw</i>
	fem.	<i>šaddat</i>	<i>šaddan</i> * <sub>2</sub>	<i>tšidd</i>	<i>yšiddin</i>
2.	masc.	<i>šaddēt</i>	<i>šaddētuw</i>	<i>tšidd</i>	<i>tšidduw</i>
	fem.	<i>šaddētiy</i>	<i>šaddētin</i>	<i>tšiddiy</i>	<i>tšiddin</i>
1.	com.	<i>šaddēt</i>	<i>šaddēna</i>	<i>ašidd</i> * <sub>3</sub>	<i>nšidd</i>

\*<sub>1</sub> Raising of *a* preceding a syllable with *ē* may occur in ĤwA, DbA and ĞrA (e.g. *šiddēt*), but it is much less regular than in the other dialects, see also remark in 3.2.3.5.2.

When the geminate is velarized, the *ē* of the ending is diphthongal *ay*. E.g. *ħaṭṭayt* “I placed” and *ħaṭṭaytuw* “you (pl. masc.) placed” (notice that *a* is not raised, so not *•ħiṭṭayt* or *•ħuṭṭayt*, or something similar).

\*<sub>2</sub> Notice vowel harmony in the 3rd p. pl. endings in BdA, ĤwA, DbA, ĞrA, MĀ and TAN.

In TAŞ and TyA, however, both *-aw* and *-uw* were heard as endings of the 3rd p. pl. masc., e.g. *ħaṭṭaw* ~ *ħaṭṭuw* “they placed”. In TAŞ forms with the ending *-uw* are most commonly heard.

\*<sub>3</sub> In ĞrA and BdA also forms with vowel harmony were recorded, e.g. *aná biħibb* “I love”, *bišidd* “I pull” (~ *aħibb* and *ašidd*), and also a form *buṭuxx* “I shoot” in TAN, cf. remarks in 3.2.1.2.

3.2.2.7.2. Verbs  $C_2 = C_3$  (*mediae geminatae*) imperatives

Imperatives of *mediae geminate* verbs are e.g. *limm*, *limmiy*, *limmuw*, *limmin* “gather!” and with base vowel *u*: *xušš*, *xuššiy*, *xuššuw*, *xuššin* “enter!”.

3.2.2.7.3. Verbs  $C_2 = C_3$  (*mediae geminatae*)

Active participles *geminate* verbs are e.g.: *lāmm*, *lāmmih*, *lāmmīn*, *lāmmāt* “having gathered”.

Passive participles may be subject to the *gahawah*-rule when  $C_1 = X$ , e.g. *maḥatūṭ* “placed” (see 2.2.1.2.).

## 3.2.3. Derived measures

3.2.3.1. Measure *n-1*3.2.3.1.1. Measure *n-1* sound roots

Like in group VI (but contrast VII and VIII), The vowel in the preformative of measure *n-1* is stressable in the perfect and in the imperfect (see 2.1.1.). The underlying patterns are:  $anC_1aC_2aC_3$ ,  $ynC_1aC_2iC_3$ . The *a* in the imperfect is raised to *i* in open syllables, but ‘reappears’ in closed syllables. Paradigms are:

		“rejoice”			
		perfect* <sup>1</sup>		imperfect* <sup>1</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>ānbiṣat</i>	<i>inbaṣāṭaw</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>yīnbiṣit</i>	<i>yīnbaṣṭuw</i>
	fem.	<i>inbaṣāṭat</i>	<i>inbaṣāṭan</i>	<i>tīnbiṣit</i>	<i>yīnbaṣṭīn</i>
2. masc.		<i>inbaṣāṭt</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>inbaṣāṭtuw</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>tīnbiṣit</i>	<i>tinbaṣṭuw</i>
	fem.	<i>inbaṣāṭtiy</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>inbaṣāṭtin</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>tinbaṣṭiy</i>	<i>tinbaṣṭīn</i>
1. com.		<i>inbaṣāṭt</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>inbaṣaṭna</i>	<i>ānbiṣit</i>	<i>nīnbiṣit</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> For stress in these paradigms, see 2.1.1.

\*<sup>2</sup> *t* + *t* assimilates to *tt*.

\*<sup>3</sup> Vowel harmony is absent in the ending *-uw* in TAṢ. In TyA *-uw* co-occurs with *-aw* and in other dialects the ending is *-aw*.

3.2.3.1.2. Measure *n-1*  $C_2 = C_3$  (*mediae geminatae*)

Patterns for perfect and imperfect of measure *n-1* of medial geminate verbs are:  $(i)nC_1aC_2C_2$  and  $ynC_1aC_2C_2$ , e.g. *indabb*, *yindabb* (*miy*) “be filled (with water)”.

3.2.3.1.3. Measure *n-1*  $C_2 = y$  or *w* (*mediae infirmae*)

The patterns for perfect and imperfect of measure *n-1* of medial weak verbs are:  $inC_1āC_3$  and  $ynC_1āC_3$ . The paradigm for the perfect is:

	“be carried”	
	perfect	
	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>inšāl</i>	<i>inšālaw*</i>
fem.	<i>inšālat</i>	<i>inšālan</i>
2. masc.	<i>inšilt</i>	<i>inšiltuw</i>
fem.	<i>inšiltiy</i>	<i>inšiltin</i>
1. com.	<i>inšilt</i>	<i>inšilna</i>

\* In TAŞ both *-uw* and *-aw* were heard as endings

### 3.2.3.1.4. Measure *n-1* C<sub>2</sub> = *y* or *w* (*mediae infirmae*) participles

Participles are shaped on the patterns minC<sub>1</sub>āC<sub>3</sub>, -ah/-ih, -in, -āt.

### 3.2.3.2. Measure *t-1*

Measure *t-1* was recorded once in TAŞ in (the loan from presumably Cairene) *yittākil* “it (sg. masc.) is eaten”, but the verb current in TAŞ for “be eaten” is (perf.) *ánwakal*, (imperf.) *yínwikil*. No other instances of measure *t-1* were recorded in these group I dialects.

### 3.2.3.3. Measure *1-t*

#### 3.2.3.3.1. Measure *1-t* sound roots

Underlying patterns for measure *1-t* are: aC<sub>1</sub>taC<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub> yiC<sub>1</sub>taC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>. Like in measure *n-1*, *a > i* is found in the unstressed syllables of the surface form for the imperfect (such raising is compulsory) and also in the perfect (where such raising is optional), e.g.: *áštiġal* ~ *áštaġal*, *yíštiġil* “work”, *áttifag* ~ *áttafag*, *yíttifig* “agree” and *ástuwa* ~ *ástawa*, *yístiwiy* “ripen; be cooked (of food)”.

Notice, however, that although the morphophonemic base vowel *a* ‘reappears’ in closed syllables when verbal suffixes follow,<sup>10</sup> e.g. *yíxtilif* + verbal suffix *-uw* > *yixtálfiuw*, no *a* ‘reappears’ in the example *yí‘tibir* “he considers” + pron. obj. suffix *-ih* > *yí‘tibr̥ih* “he considers him” (recorded in TAN).<sup>11</sup>

	“buy” in TyA, BdA, TAŞ, ĞrA			
	perfect		imperfect	
	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.	<i>áštara</i>	<i>áštara<sup>w</sup>*1</i>	<i>yíštiry</i>	<i>yíštáryuw<sup>*3</sup></i>
fem.	<i>áštarat</i>	<i>áštaran</i>	<i>tíštiry</i>	<i>yíštáryin<sup>*3</sup></i>
2. masc.	<i>ištara<sup>y</sup>t</i>	<i>ištara<sup>y</sup>tuw</i>	<i>tíšti<sup>y</sup>*2</i>	<i>tíštáryuw<sup>*3</sup></i>
fem.	<i>ištara<sup>y</sup>tiy</i>	<i>ištara<sup>y</sup>tin</i>	<i>tíštáryiy<sup>*3</sup></i>	<i>tíštáryin<sup>*3</sup></i>
1. com.	<i>ištara<sup>y</sup>t</i>	<i>ištara<sup>y</sup>na</i>	<i>áštiry</i>	<i>níštiry</i>

<sup>10</sup> Similarly so in TyA of the Negev, e.g. *yittafguw* “they agree”, see Shawarbah 2007:296.

<sup>11</sup> The fact that *a* does not ‘reappear’ in this case suggests that the “reappearance” of *a* is not a rule which is synchronically executed.

\*<sub>1</sub> In TAŞ both *-uw* and *-aw* were heard as endings

\*<sub>2</sub> In BdA and TyA apocopated imperfects (like *tíštir*) are possible. In other dialects the form is *tíštiriy*.

\*<sub>3</sub> Notice that the base consonant *y* is not dropped here. In DbA the forms are without the base *yā'*: *tíštiriy*, *y/tíštiruw* and *y/tíštirin*. These forms were reported to be acceptable in ĞrA as well.

In HwA the base *yā'* was dropped only in the 2nd p. sg. fem.: *tíštiriy*, but the pl. forms were *y/tíštáryuw* and *y/tíštáryin*.

The verb was not recorded in MIA and TAN.

Comparable forms occur with the verb *ástuwa*, *yístiwiy*: (e.g.) *yistawyin* “they (pl. fem.) ripen”.

### 3.2.3.3.2. Measure 1-t C<sub>2</sub> = w or y (*mediae infirmae*)

An example of a medial weak measure 1-t verb was not recorded (in the verb *ástawa*, *yístiwiy* the *wāw* is not a weak radical).

### 3.2.3.3.3. Measure 1-t C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (*mediae geminatae*)

An example of a medial geminate measure 1-t verb is *iftakk*, *yiftakk* “be solved (of a dispute/problem)”.

### 3.2.3.3.4. Measure 1-t participles

Patterns for measure 1-t participles are miC<sub>1</sub>tiC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub> (underlying miC<sub>1</sub>taC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>), miC<sub>1</sub>taC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>ah/ih, miC<sub>1</sub>taC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>īn, miC<sub>1</sub>taC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>āt.

Examples are:

sg. masc.	sg. fem.	pl. masc.	pl. fem.	translated
<i>míxtlif</i>	<i>míxtalfih</i>	<i>míxtalfīn</i>	<i>míxtalfāt</i>	“differing”
<i>míštiriy</i>	<i>mištaryih</i>	<i>mištaryīn</i>	<i>mištaryāt</i>	“having bought”
<i>míttifig</i>	<i>mittafgih</i>	<i>mittafgīn</i>	<i>mittafgāt</i>	“agreed”

Examples of participles of medial geminate and medial weak verbs are not available.

### 3.2.3.4. Measure ista-1

#### 3.2.3.4.1. Measure ista-1 sound roots

Like measure 2, measure *ista-1* has alternating short vowels: *a* in the perfect and *i* in the imperfect. The paradigms are like those listed for group VI. An example is *istahwan*, *yistahwin* b “consider to be *hyyin*, i.e. unimportant”.

3.2.3.4.2. *Measure ista-1 C<sub>2</sub> = y (mediae infirmae)*

A measure *ista-1 C<sub>2</sub> = y* (media infirm) verb recorded in TAŞ is *ista'āš* (1st p. sg. com. *ista'īšt*), *yista'īš* (*fī*) “choose to live (in a certain place)”.

3.2.3.4.3. *Measure ista-1 C<sub>3</sub> = y (tertia infirmae)*

A measure *ista-1 verbs C<sub>3</sub> = y* (tertia infirmae) is *istawla*, *yistawliy*. An example of a participle is *kān mistawlīna* “they occupied us (i.e. our land)”.

3.2.3.4.4. *Measure ista-1 verbs C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae)*

Patterns for medial geminate measure *ista-1 verbs* are: *istaC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>*, *yistaC<sub>1</sub>iC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>*.

Paradigms are:

		“prepare oneself”			
		imperfect* <sup>1</sup>		perfect* <sup>2</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>yista'idd</i>	<i>yista'idduw</i>	<i>ista'add</i>	<i>ista'addaw</i> * <sup>3</sup>
	fem.	<i>tista'idd</i>	<i>yista'iddin</i>	<i>ista'addat</i>	<i>ista'addan</i> * <sup>4</sup>
2. masc.		<i>tista'idd</i>	<i>tista'idduw</i>	<i>ista'iddēt</i>	<i>ista'iddētuw</i>
	fem.	<i>tista'iddiy</i>	<i>tista'iddin</i>	<i>ista'iddētīy</i>	<i>ista'iddētīn</i>
1. com.		<i>asta'idd</i>	<i>nista'idd</i>	<i>ista'iddēt</i>	<i>ista'iddēna</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Raising of *a* preceding stressed *i* occurs, but is limited (perhaps under influence of following *ʿ*). See remarks in 3.2.2.7.1. and 3.2.3.5.2.

\*<sup>2</sup> Notice (optional) raising of *a* to *i* in positions preceding stressed *ē*.

\*<sup>3</sup> In TAŞ and TyA the ending was recorded as *-uw*.

\*<sup>4</sup> In TyA the ending was recorded as *-in*, in other dialects (incl. TAŞ) as *-an*.

3.2.3.4.5. *Measure ista-1 participles*

Participles of measure *ista-1 verbs* have the pattern *mistaC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>*, e.g. *mista'ġil*, *mista'ġlīh*, *mista'ġlīn*, *mista'ġlāt* “in a hurry”.

No instances were recorded of measure *ista-1 verbs* of medial weak roots.

For mediae geminatae the pattern is *mistaC<sub>1</sub>iC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>*: *mista'idd*, *mista'iddih*, *mista'iddīn*, *mista'iddāt* “(having) prepared”.

3.2.3.5. *Measures 2 and t-2*

The patterns for measure 2 are: (perfect) *C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>*, (imperfect) *yC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>*.

Measure *t-2* has morphologically fixed *a*. The patterns are (perfect) *taC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>*, (imperfect) *ytaC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>*.

3.2.3.5.1. *Examples of measure 2 sound roots*

Like in other groups, the high vowel *i* of imperfect measure 2 is elided in open syllables. The initial geminate of the resulting cluster may then be reduced. Examples of (compulsory) morphophonemic elisions are: *itgallbih* “you flip it (sg. masc.) over”, *biyǧammruw* “they gather (harvest) with outstretched arms”.<sup>112</sup>

Examples of (optional) sandhi elisions: *nṛawwḥ alMidān* “we go to alMidān”<sup>113</sup> and *binrakkb alfrūd* “we mount the ploughs”.<sup>114</sup>

*r* following the high vowel *i* may inhibit its morpho-phonemic elision, e.g. *biyfakkiruw* (*fi*) “they look (at)” and in sandhi *ydawwir aliḡsūr* “he looks for the safe storages”.<sup>115</sup>

When  $C_2 = C_3$ , the elision of *i* does not take place, but the geminate may be reduced, e.g. *biyḥálliluw* “they make little heaps” and (in sandhi, same root, but different meaning) *mḥallil ibnāklīh yā rāḡil* “(it’s) ḥalāl, we eat it, oh man!”.

The paradigms for measure 2 verbs are:

		“look”			
		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>fákkar</i>	<i>fákkaraw*</i>	<i>yfakkir</i>	<i>yfakkruw</i>
	fem.	<i>fákkarat</i>	<i>fákkaran</i>	<i>tfakkir</i>	<i>yfakkirin</i>
2. masc.		<i>fakkárt</i>	<i>fakkártuw*</i>	<i>tfakkir</i>	<i>tfakkruw</i>
	fem.	<i>fakkártiy</i>	<i>fakkártin</i>	<i>tfakkriy</i>	<i>tfakkirin</i>
1. com.		<i>fakkárt</i>	<i>fakkárna</i>	<i>afakkir</i>	<i>nfakkir</i>

\* TAŞ and TyA have varying *-uw* and *-aw* endings in the 3rd p. pl. masc. of the perfect, e.g. *ṛawwaḥaw* “they went” and *karrabuw* “they tied (ropes)”. In TyA the *-uw* ending appeared during direct elicitation, but *-aw* came out in spontaneous texts.

3.2.3.5.2. *Measure 2 tertiae infirmae*

In the imperfect apocopated forms for the 2nd p. sg. masc. may again be heard mainly in TyA and BdA, but also in: *tsaww* ~ *tsawwiy* “you do”, *tfass* ~ *tfassiy* “you fart”.

Paradigms for tertiae infirmae verbs are:

<sup>112</sup> A *ǧimr* (pl. *ǧmūr*) is the quantity of harvest held in two arms.

<sup>113</sup> The meaning of the verb *ṛawwaḥ*, *yṛawwiḥ* is “go”, rather than its more specific meaning of “go home” (e.g. in Cairene Arabic, see Hinds and Badawi 1986).

<sup>114</sup> *fard*, pl. *frūd* is the current word for “plough”.

<sup>115</sup> For *gaṣr*, pl. *ḡsūr* see fn 42, p. 47.

		“make, do”			
		perfect* <sup>1</sup>		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>sawwa</i>	<i>sawwaw</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>ysawwīy</i>	<i>ysawwuw</i>
	fem.	<i>sawwat</i>	<i>sawwan</i>	<i>tsawwīy</i>	<i>ysawwin</i>
2. masc.		<i>sawwēt</i>	<i>sawwētuw</i>	<i>tsaww /-īy</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>tsawwuw</i>
	fem.	<i>sawwētiy</i>	<i>sawwētin</i>	<i>tsawwīy</i>	<i>tsawwin</i>
1. com.		<i>sawwēt</i>	<i>sawwēna</i>	<i>asawwīy</i>	<i>nsawwīy</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> Raising of *a* preceding stressed *ē* (> *suwwēt*) is a feature of ĞrA, ḤwA and somewhat less so of DbA. Such raising is much less, or not current in MlA, TAŞ, TAN, BdA or TyA (see 1.2.3.4.3.2. and 3.2.2.7.1.).

\*<sup>2</sup> Here too the endings *-aw* and *-uw* were both heard in TAŞ and TyA: *sawwaw* ~ *sawwuw* “they made/did” (other dialects only *sawwaw*).

\*<sup>3</sup> Apocopated forms are regularly heard only in BdA and TyA.

### 3.2.3.5.3. Examples of measure 2 primae hamzah

Like in many other dialects, the verb “feed” is *wakkal*, *ywakkil* “give food” and *wadda*, *ywaddīy* is “bring, take to”.

### 3.2.3.5.4. Measure t-2 imperfect and perfect

In measure *t-2* the vowel *a* is morphologically fixed for the perfect and imperfect. Patterns are  $taC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ ,  $ytaC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$ .

Like in group VI, the *ta-* prefix in the perfect and imperfect of measure *t-2* is stable and is only rarely reduced to *(i)t-*.<sup>116</sup>

		“have lunch”			
		perfect		imperfect* <sup>4</sup>	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>tağadda</i>	<i>tağaddaw</i> * <sup>1</sup>	<i>ytağadda</i>	<i>ytağaddaw</i> * <sup>1</sup>
	fem.	<i>tağaddat</i>	<i>tağaddan</i> * <sup>2</sup>	<i>tağadda</i>	<i>ytağaddan</i> * <sup>2</sup>
2. masc.		<i>tağaddēt</i>	<i>tağaddētuw</i>	<i>tağadd /-a</i> * <sup>5</sup>	<i>tağaddaw</i> * <sup>1</sup>
	fem.	<i>tağaddētiy</i>	<i>tağaddētin</i>	<i>tağadday</i>	<i>tağaddan</i> * <sup>2</sup>
1. com.		<i>tağaddēt</i>	<i>tağaddēna</i> * <sup>3</sup>	<i>atağadda</i>	<i>ntağadda</i>

\*<sup>1</sup> The ending is *-uw* ~ *-aw* in TAŞ and TyA.

\*<sup>2</sup> The ending is *-in* in TAŞ and TyA.

\*<sup>3</sup> *a* of the *ta-* prefix in the perfect may be raised, e.g. *tīğaddēt*.

\*<sup>4</sup> Reduction of initial *tta-* > *ta-* in the imperfect is regular.

\*<sup>5</sup> Apocoptation is only regular in BdA and TyA.

<sup>116</sup> Like with measure *t-2*, reduction of *ta-* > *t-* in measure *t-3* appears to be regular in TyA of the Negev, e.g. *yitrāfag* “he is accompanied on his travel” (Shawarbah 2007:194), *yitlāgaw* “they meet” (ibid.:296).

3.2.3.5.5. *Measures 2 and t-2 verbal nouns*

Verbal nouns for measure 2 have a  $taC_1C_2iC_3$  pattern, e.g. (MSA loan) *tahrib* “smuggling”, *taybīs* “drying (trans.)” and a gahawah-form *taġarīb* “going north”<sup>117</sup> (for more examples see 2.2.1.2.).

Verbal nouns recorded for *t-2* are *tsubbug* “racing (on camels)” (ĤwA) (see fn 126, p. 100) and *tkissir* “breaking into pieces” (ĠrA).

3.2.3.5.6. *Measures 2 and t-2 participles*

Active participles of measure 2 have a  $mC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (-ih/ -ah, -īn, -āt) pattern. Passive participles have a  $mC_1aC_2C_2aC_3$  (-ih/ -ah, -īn, -āt) pattern. An example of a  $C_3 = y$  verb is *mlaggiy*, *mlaggiyh*, *mlaggiyīn*, *mlaggiyāt* “going”.

The *ta-* preformative of measure *t-2* is often reduced to *t-* in participles, so that for *t-2* active participles the pattern is  $mitC_1aC_2C_2iC_3$  (-ih/-ah, -īn, -āt), e.g. *mitraḥḥil* “being on a trek”, *mitdakkir* “remembering”, *mitkassir* “having been broken into pieces”, *mitġaffil* “not paying attention” and (for  $C_3 = y$ ) *mitġaddiy* “having eaten lunch”. This is generally the case in TAŞ, ĤwA, MlA, ĠrA, DbA. On the other hand, also (but fewer) participles with the *ta-* preformative were heard, e.g. *mitamakkin*, *mita’akkid* “convinced” and also *mita’allim* ~ *mit’allim* “educated” (TAN, TyA) and in several dialects *mta’aknin* “irritated” was elicited (data for BdA are insufficient for a conclusion).

3.2.3.6. *Measures 3 and t-3*

Measure 3 has morphologically alternating vowels: *i* in the imperfect and *a* in the perfect. Patterns for measure 3 are:  $C_1āC_2aC_3$ ,  $yC_1āC_2iC_3$ .

Measure *t-3* has morphologically fixed *a* in the perfect and imperfect, and like in measure *t-2*, reduction of the *ta-*preformative to *t-* does occur, but such reduction is rare. Patterns for measure *t-3* are:  $taC_1āC_2aC_3$ ,  $ytaC_1āC_2iC_3$ . Like in measure *t-2*, intital *tt-* in the imperfect is reduced to *t-* (see examples in 3.2.3.6.1.).

3.2.3.6.1. *Examples of measures 3 and t-3*

Examples of measure 3 are: (imperfect) *y’āwid* “return”, *yrāfig* “be a travelling companion for (someone)”, *ylāġiy* “find”, (perfect) *sāfaraw* “they (masc.) traveled”, *sāfaran* “they (fem.) traveled”, *ḥārabaw* “they fought a war against”. Apocopation in 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect of *tertia* *yā’* verbs was again only noticed in TyA and BdA.

<sup>117</sup> For the system of orientation, see remarks in De Jong 2000:469, fn 48.

Examples of measures *t-3*: (imperfect) *biytawāfaḡaw* “they agree (with each other)”, *biytawāʿadaw* “they set a time (for a court session)”,<sup>118</sup> (perfect) *tarāfaḡt* “I was accompanied (on a trip)”, *talāḡēna* “we met each other”, *talāḡan* “they (fem.) met each other”, *taḡārabaw* “they fought a war (against each other)”.

In TAŞ pl. endings for 3rd p. masc. and fem. lacked vowel harmony in some cases, e.g. *biytasābaguw* “they race each other”, *biytaṛāfaḡuw* “they accompany each other (as travelling companions)”, *talāḡin* (< \**ttalāḡin*) “they (fem.) meet each other”, but *talāḡan* “they (fem.) met each other”.

### 3.2.3.6.2. Measures 3 and *t-3* participles

Active participles of measure 3 have the pattern  $mC_1āC_2iC_3$  (-ih / -ah, -īn, -āt), e.g. *mwāfiḡ* “agreeing”, *mlāḡyih* “having found (sg. fem.)”. *mkāwnīn* “fighting (pl. masc.)”.

A passive participle (pattern  $mC_1āC_2aC_3$ ) is the origin for the loans *mḡāwalah* “attempt” and *mṣāʿadah* “help, assistance”.

Like in measure *t-2*, active participles of measure *t-3* often have a reduced preformative (*ta-* > (*i*)*t-*) in the pattern  $mitC_1āC_2iC_3$  (-ih / ah, -īn, -āt) (see also remarks in 3.2.3.5.6.). Among the few instances of participles of measure *t-3* recorded are: *mitdāxlīn* “having sought refuge as *daxīl* (pl. *duxala*) with each other”, *mitwāsyih* “flat, even”.

### 3.2.3.6.3. Measures 3 and *t-3* verbal nouns

Verbal nouns for measure 3 recorded are *mkāsaḡah* “having sex” and a loan *bala mʿāxza*<sup>119</sup> “no offense intended”. Verbal nouns of the type  $tC_1ēC_2iC_3$  were not recorded.

### 3.2.3.7. Measure 4

#### 3.2.3.7.1. Measure 4 sound roots perfect and imperfect

Verbal measure 4 is active in group I. The patterns for this measure are (perfect) (*ʿ*) $aC_1C_2aC_3$ , (imperfect)  $yiC_1C_2iC_3$  and the active participle has a pattern  $miC_1C_2iC_3$  (-ih, -īn, -āt).

Of many examples are: *arkab*, *yirkib*, active participle *mirkib* “cause (someone) to ride”, *asnad*, *yisnid* was heard in MIA for “go to Palestine”<sup>120</sup> and *arʿad*, *yirʿid* in DbA for “thunder”.

The verb *aḡtar*, *yifṭir* “have breakfast” is in most dialects of group I a measure 4, but in some cases (like in TyA) measure 1 may also be used:

<sup>118</sup> In TyA of the Negev such reduction of *ta-* > *t-* appears to be regular, see e.g. *yitḡahwa* “he is served coffee or tea” (Shawarbah 2007:174), *atxayyal* “I imagine” (ibid.:330).

<sup>119</sup> *bala mʿāxza* is probably a loan from MSA via Cairene Arabic, hence *z* as a reflex for \**ḡ*, see also fn 63, p. 221.

<sup>120</sup> Measure 2 for this root *sannad*, *ysannid* is current for “go upstream in a wadi” (being the opposite of the verb *katt*, *ykutt* (or *ykitt*) “go downstream in a wadi”.

*fiṭír* (and, remarkably so, with the ‘reappearing’ *a* in closed syllables of the *i*-type perfect: *faṭrit*),<sup>121</sup> *yifṭir*.

3.2.3.7.2. *Measure 4 C<sub>2</sub> = w or y (mediae infirmae) perfect and imperfect*

The verb *rād*, *yrīd* ‘want’ has become measure 1 in ḤwA, ĞrA, TAŞ, BdA with participles *rāyid*, *rāydih*, *rāydīn*, *rāydāt*.

In TyA participles are *mrīd*, *mṛīdh*, *mṛīdīn* and *mṛīdāt*, but verb forms are without initial *a*: *rād*, *rādat* etc. (situation in MlA, DbA and TAN unknown).

3.2.3.7.3. *Measure 4 C<sub>3</sub> = y (tertia infirmae) perfect and imperfect*

In all group I dialects of southern Sinai the verb *aṭa*, *yīṭiy* is verbal measure 4.

In DbA, ḤwA, ĞrA, TyA, BdA the verb *ḍawá*, *yīḍwiy* ‘return home before sunset (with small cattle)’ is measure 1, the participles are then *ḍāwiy*, *ḍāwiyih*, *ḍāwiyīn*, *ḍāwiyāt*.

In the other tribal dialects TAŞ and ḤwA this verb is current as a measure 4. Participles are then *miḍwiy*, *miḍwiyih*, *miḍwiyīn*, *miḍwiyāt* (situation in MlA unknown).

Another *tertia yā*’ measure 4 verb is *agra yigriy*, with the participle *migriy* ‘serve a proper meal to a guest’.<sup>122</sup>

Like in group VI, *aṭa*, *yīṭiy* is a measure 4 verb in most dialects of group I. The perfect and imperfect paradigms for this verb are:

		“give”			
		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>áṭa(ʿ)</i>	<i>áṭaw</i> <sup>*1</sup>	<i>yīṭiy</i>	<i>yīṭuw</i>
	fem.	<i>áṭat</i>	<i>áṭan</i>	<i>tīṭiy</i>	<i>yīṭīn</i>
2. masc.		<i>aṭayt</i>	<i>aṭaytuw</i>	<i>tīṭ<sup>*2</sup> /-iy</i>	<i>tīṭuw</i>
	fem.	<i>aṭaytiy</i>	<i>aṭaytin</i>	<i>tīṭiy</i>	<i>tīṭīn</i>
1. com.		<i>aṭayt</i>	<i>aṭayna</i>	<i>aṭiy</i>	<i>nīṭiy</i>

<sup>\*1</sup> Also in TAŞ the ending is *-aw* (but often *-uw* elsewhere).<sup>123</sup>

<sup>\*2</sup> Apocopated 2nd p. sg. masc. forms in the imperfect of measure 4 are heard in TyA and BdA.

<sup>121</sup> The term ‘reappearing’ could be a misnomer here, since there may never have been an original perfect form with *a* in the first syllable. The *a* only appears in closed syllables here because the entire measure 1 paradigm (compare *simí* above in 3.2.1.1.) is applied to the root *f-ṭ-r*.

<sup>122</sup> Cf. remarks in fn 144, p. 111.

<sup>123</sup> Such *-aw* endings appear to be phonetically conditioned in TAŞ (i.e. they appear following velarized consonants), at least more so than morphologically conditioned; *-uw* endings also occur in *tertia yā*’ verbs, provided the environment is neutral (i.e. no velarized consonant precedes). The ending *-uw* does however occur in non neutral environments as well (see e.g. measure 9 verbs in 3.2.3.8.).

When followed by a speech pause or a consonant an anaptyctic is inserted: *tīṭ* when followed by # or C.

3.2.3.7.4. *Measure 4 C<sub>1</sub> = w (primae wāw) perfect and imperfect*  
*awka, yūkiy* “tie (closed) tightly” is a prima *wāw*/tertia *yā*’ measure 4 verb.

3.2.3.7.5. *Measure 4 C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae) perfect and imperfect*  
Verb forms of measure 4 C<sub>2</sub> = C<sub>3</sub> (mediae geminatae) were not recorded, or not recognized as such.

3.2.3.7.6. *Measure 4 imperatives*

Examples of imperatives for measure 4 sound roots are like imperatives for the *i*-type imperfect (see: 3.2.1.5.).

Imperatives of C<sub>3</sub> = *y* roots are: for the sg. masc. (apocopated) *iṭ* (~ *iṭiy*) in TyA and BdA, but only *iṭiy* was heard in the other dialects of group I. For sg. fem. *iṭiy*, pl. masc. *iṭuw* and pl. fem. *iṭin*.

3.2.3.7.7. *Measure 4 participles*

The participles for sound roots have a miC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub> pattern, e.g. *miftir, miftirih, miftirīn, miftirāt* “having eaten breakfast”.

Participles of the prima *wāw*/tertia *yā*’ verb *awka, yūkiy* are (act. participles) *mūkiy, mūkiyh, mūkiyīn* and *mūkyāt*<sup>224</sup> and (pass. part.) *mawka, mawkayah, mawkayīn, mawkayāt*.

For mediae infirmae there are participles of the type mC<sub>1</sub>iC<sub>3</sub> (-ih, -īn, -āt) like *mrīd* “wanting” (in TyA, see 3.2.3.7.2.) and also *annās ṭallaw mġirīn* “people appeared (while) running fast” (DbA).

3.2.3.8. *Measure 9*

Paradigms for measure 9 are:

		“turn red”			
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>iḥmaṛṛ</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛaw*</i>	<i>yihmaṛṛ</i>	<i>yihmaṛṛaw*</i>
	fem.	<i>iḥmaṛṛat</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛan</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛ</i>	<i>yihmaṛṛan</i>
2. masc.		<i>iḥmaṛṛayt</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛaytuw</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛ</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛaw*</i>
	fem.	<i>iḥmaṛṛaytīy</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛaytin</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛiy</i>	<i>tihmaṛṛan</i>
1. com.		<i>iḥmaṛṛayt</i>	<i>iḥmaṛṛayna</i>	<i>aḥmaṛṛ</i>	<i>niḥmaṛṛ</i>

\* In TAŞ the endings are *-uw*.

Participles are *mihmaṛṛ, -ah, -īn, āt*

<sup>224</sup> Morphological *i + w > ū*, see De Jong 2000:90.

An interesting measure 9 verb heard in HwA and TAŞ is *iḥlaww, yiḥlaww* “improve (intrans.)” (for a quadrilateral verb based on the root *ḥ-l-w* in BdA see 3.2.3.9. below).

### 3.2.3.9. Quadrilateral verbs

Like measure 2, quadrilateral verbs have morphologically alternating vowels in the imperfect (i) and perfect (a). The paradigms listed for group VI *zağraṭ, yzağriṭ* “ululate” are the same in group I.

The typically Bedouin verb type with inserted *wāw* between  $C_1$  and  $C_2$   $C_1\bar{o}C_2aC_3, yC_1\bar{o}C_2iC_3$  may show a full diphthong like in *gawṭar, ygawṭir* (often so in DbA, HwA), a slightly diphthongal *ow*, e.g. *gowṭar, ygowṭir* (especially so in BdA, but also in other dialects) or monophthongal *ō* (usually so in TAŞ, ĞrA, TyA, MIA and TAN).<sup>125</sup> The paradigms for the verbs (including bukaṛa-vowels, see 2.2.2.1.) are like those listed for group VI.

Quadrilateral verbs may also have a *ta-* preformative. The vowel of the perfect and imperfect is then fixed *a*. A quadrilateral verb with  $C_4 = y$  is *tagahwa, ytagahwa* and has the paradigms:

		“drink coffee/tea”			
		perfect		imperfect	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
3. masc.		<i>tagahwa</i>	<i>tagahwaw*</i>	<i>ytagahwa</i>	<i>ytagahwaw*</i>
	fem.	<i>tagahwat</i>	<i>tagahwan</i>	<i>tagahwa</i>	<i>ytagahwan</i>
2. masc.		<i>tagahwēt</i>	<i>tagahwētuw</i>	<i>tagahw/-a</i>	<i>tagahwaw*</i>
	fem.	<i>tagahwētiy</i>	<i>tagahwētin</i>	<i>tagahwiy</i>	<i>tagahwan</i>
1. com.		<i>tagahwēt</i>	<i>tagahwēna</i>	<i>atagahwa</i>	<i>ntagahwa</i>

\* Endings *-aw* tend to be *-uw* in TAŞ.

An apocopated imperative for the sg. masc. is *tagahw* “drink tea / coffee!” (the final cluster *hw #* is then resolved: *tagáhuw #*).

Participles are *mtagahwiy, mtagáhiwyih, mtagahiwyīn, mtagahiwyāt*.

Other examples (recorded in TAŞ): *tagaḥraṣ, ytagaḥraṣ* “wriggle the body to create a comfortable position to lie down (usually in pain)”, *tagarmaṣ, ytagarmaṣ* “wriggle the body, especially the shoulder, into soft sand to find a more comfortable position to sleep”, *taṭawṭaḥ, ytaṭawṭaḥ* “swing, sway (e.g. of a tree in the wind)”. Another verb heard in TAŞ is *karkam, ykarkim* “add turmeric”.

<sup>125</sup> Realizations listed here are how they were heard as predominant in the dialects mentioned (following in brackets).

In BdA a quadriliteral *iḥlawla*, *yaḥlawliy* expresses an increasing degree of acquiring a certain quality (here *ḥilw* “sweet; good; nice”) “get better and better”, e.g. *alġirbih iḥlawlat* “the watersack became better and better (as a result of it being used)”.

#### 4. REMARKS ON PHRASEOLOGY

##### 4.1. *Nunation*

Tanwīn is not a feature of any of the dialects of group I, but may be heard in poetry or sayings (and then has the shape *-in*).<sup>126</sup>

Loans from MSA which show nunation are like those listed for other dialect groups, e.g.: *ṭab’an* “of course”, *masalan* “for instance”, *‘āmmatan* “in general”, *dāyman* (in ĞrA *dīman* was recorded) “always” (< MSA *dā’iman*), *ḥālīyyan* “currently”, *aḥyānan* “now and then”, *tagrīban* “approximately”.

##### 4.2. *Negation*

A verb is usually negated with single *mā* + verb form.<sup>127</sup> Examples are: *albi’ir hāḍa lah arba’ t-īyyām mā waṛād* “this camel had not drunk for four days”, *azzar’ah hāḍa mā biykallif ya’niy sbū’ isbū’ayn* “this work on the land does not take (more than) like one, two weeks” (ĞrA), *albi’rān alimxawwaṛāt mā bništīrihin xalāṣ* “the bastard camels, we don’t buy them at all” (TyA).<sup>128</sup>

A negated suffixed preposition is *w inn mā finī lay ḥa:yl* “and suddenly there was no strength in me” (ĞrA). For the negation of ‘existential’ *fiḥ* see 4.5. below.

##### 4.3. *The b-imperfect*

Like almost everywhere in Sinai,<sup>129</sup> the *b*-imperfect to express the habitual present tense is also current in group I. Some examples are: *alkilmah hēḍiy bit’assir ‘alēh kibīriḥ* “this word has a great effect on him” (TyA), *min tum-*

<sup>126</sup> Tanwīn (ending *-in*) was noticed by Holes and Abu Athera 2009:214–219 to be “particularly common in the more traditional diction” in the poetry of the two Sinai poets recorded by them (‘Unayz (TAN) and Tayāha (TyA)) and the Ḥwēṭiy poet Barrāk of southern Jordan. Its use is optional and often for metrical reasons.

<sup>127</sup> Holes and Abu Athera (2009:225) found no instances in their corpus of poetry of verbal compound negation *ma . . . ṣ*.

<sup>128</sup> Compare *xawwār* “non-thoroughbred camel”, see Bailey 1991:436.

<sup>129</sup> The only exception to this rule is the dialect of the Dawāḡrah, see De Jong 2000:478.

*mak*<sup>130</sup> *ibtúnufxah* “with (lit. from) your mouth you inflate it” (MIA), *gult ‘ġimalī mā biy’ūz banzīn wala šīy’* “I said ‘my camel doesn’t need petrol or anything” (BdA).<sup>131</sup>

#### 4.4. Future Marker

To express “volition” or “need” *widd* + pron. suffix may be used.

Examples of *widd* expressing futurity/volition are: *asma’*, *widd-axarrfak ‘ala ġiṣṣt aḍḍabb hāḍa*... “listen, I’ll tell you the story of this lizard” (ĠrA), *awṣafnī addarib*... *law widdī aṣrawwiḥ min sábagat il’Irīš fi lMīdān*... *min ‘indak mín-ihniy*... “describe the way to me...if I want to go from the race of al’Arīš at Mīdān...<sup>132</sup> from your place from here...” (TAŠ), *wid-dhin*... *widdhin mákan*... *mákan, mā fih mákan mint mā tġīb wala ḥāġih*... “these things (lit. “they (pl. fem.)”)...they need (spending of) money... money... if there is no money, you don’t get anything” (MIA).

Examples of imperfect forms with prefixed *ha-* to express futurity are: *iw yōm tūġilbih, hayṣīr annā’im taḥát w alxašin fōg* “and when you flip it over, the soft (side) will be down and the coarse (side) will be up” (MIA), *law kattárit lēha*... *fa: algamiḥ*... *iddētha algamiḥ*... *hattalli’ xišīn* “if you add more to it (fem.), then the wheat...if you’ve added wheat to it (fem.)...you’ll take it out coarse” (ĠrA), *miš hatá’arfuw tištarkuw má’ ba’ aḍkuw* “you (pl.) won’t be able to cooperate with each other” (TAŠ).

The future can also be expressed with the simple imperfect, as in *w Aḷḷah lḥīn law tas’al nuṣṣ annās iygūl lak w Aḷḷah mā-driy ‘anha*... “by God, if you now ask half the people they’ll (lit. he’ll) tell you ‘by God, I don’t know about it (sg. fem.)” (BdA).

#### 4.5. *fih* “there is / are”

Examples of *fih* used to express existence or availability of something are *ā fih garyah ísimha Mīdān ássibag hāḍa* “yes, there is a village named Mīdān (where) this race (is held)” (see fn to 4.4.) (HwA), *min hāḍa*... *‘arāb*

<sup>130</sup> “Mouth” is more regularly *afām* or *áfam*.

<sup>131</sup> Holes and Abu Athera (2009:212–213) report that in their Sinai poetry the *b*-imperfect is much less current than in casual speech, but does occur. The “dominant imperfect form [in their Sinai material] is *bi*-less”. In their southern Jordanian material it is rare, but in the material from their northern Jordanian poet “*bi*-forms occur very frequently”.

<sup>132</sup> An annual camel race is held on the plain of Mīdān in northern Sinai, some 22 km west of al’Arīš, see map in De Jong 2000:654 (in appendix), location nr 26.

*ihnīy w fiḥ ‘arāb zayy ‘arāb iFrāyġ*... “from here... (there is) a family here and there are people like the family<sup>133</sup> of Frāyġ” (MLA).

The negation is usually *ma fiḥ*, but sometimes (K-form) *mā fiš* may also be heard. An example is: *hāḍa šāfiy mā fiḥ xarrāf* “this is a thoroughbred, there’s no discussion (about it)” (both ĞrA).

Another current negation is *māš*, e.g. *habbiṭ rāsak lā yšūfak alġazāl... alġazāl law ṭār xalāš almīgrib biyṛūḥ māš ġizlān* “keep your head down, so the gazelle doesn’t see you... if the gazelle flees, that’s it, at sunset time he goes away and there aren’t any gazelles” (TAN).

#### 4.6. Some Conjunctions

##### 4.6.1. Conjunctions *lamma* and *yōm*

Like in many dialects of Sinai, conjunctions *lamma* and *yōm*, or variant forms based on these, are used for “when”.

##### 4.6.1.1. *yōm*

##### 4.6.1.1.1. *yōm* used independently

An example of *yōm* used in the meaning of “when”, e.g. *garrīb garrīb yōm ‘Awdih ġa’ widdah ymidd ‘a lġazāl iw lan ilimḥāfiḍ biy’arrid ib rāsih* “he came<sup>134</sup> nearer and nearer, (and) when ‘Awdah came to take aim at the gazelle, there the Governor suddenly rose with his head (becoming visible)” (TAN), *ā, ḥāribt alWaṭyih lliy bēn alī’Lēgāt iw bēn a... iw bēn ašŠuwālḥih... yom taxālaṭow... alī’Lēgāt w iMzēnih... yōm ġāl aṭ’an yā aṭṭā’ūn* “yes, the war at Waṭyah that took place between the ‘Lēgāt and... the Šawālḥah... when they attacked each other... the ‘Lēgāt and the Mzēnah... when he said ‘let war break out!’ (BdA).<sup>135</sup>

A variant of *yōm* is *yam*, as in the example *iw yam baḥuṭṭ allibbih w bažammirha, iw ‘uḡuḅ ma-žammirha šwayyih kiḍīy, baḥuṭṭ almallih* “and when I put the libbah and roast it in hot embers, and after I have roasted it a little in embers like this, I put the hot sand” (ḤwA).

The *a* in *yam* must be the product of reduction of the diphthong *aw*.

<sup>133</sup> For the different possible translations of ‘*arāb* (pl. ‘*urbān*), see Stewart 1990:199 (glossary).

<sup>134</sup> *garrīb* is an imperative form of the narrative style, see 4.14.1.

<sup>135</sup> *aṭ’an yā ṭā’ūn* “lit. let the bubonic plague break out” is reported (oral communication in the field) to be the war cry of the great tribe of Ḥarb, of whom the Mzēnah are said to be an offshoot, cf. Introduction, I. d. remark \*12.

4.6.1.1.2. *yōm* in combination with in4.6.1.1.2.1. *yōmin* used independently

An example of *yōmin* used independently for “when” is *iw yōmin tístiwiy... biyhuttin ilhá’ assamin iw minnih byigilbūha* “and when it becomes cooked... they add the ghee to it (sg. fem.) and then they stir it (sg. fem.)” (HwA).

4.6.1.1.2.2. *yōmin* + obj. suffix as subject of the clause

There is an example of *yōmin* suffixed with an object suffix as subject; the subject is we: *fiza’na ‘ād, iw yōminna fiza’na... sawwēna ġīna, iw limmēna laḥámih kullah fi gaḷb aššantah* “so we ran away, and when we ran away... we did [...] we came, and we gathered all his flesh in the bag” (DbA).<sup>136</sup>

4.6.1.1.2.3. *min yōm*

An example of *min yōm(in)* used for “as soon as” or “from the moment that”: *kēf bitsawwiy allibbih... min yōm ma bta’ aġinha, lamma bitsaṭwiha w ithakḥikha* “how do you make libbah... from the moment that you knead it (fem.), until you slap it and scrape it”<sup>137</sup> (TAŠ).

4.6.1.1.2.4. *min yōm* in combination with *ma*

An example of *min yōm* in combination with *ma*: *laġāyit bitagaṭṭa’ taḡtī kidiy... laġāyit ma yanšaf. lamma yanšaf... yōm ma yanšaf binġib iš... šwālāt xayš... šikāyir<sup>138</sup> kidiy iw biyta’ abba fthin* “until it is cut to pieces like this... until it dries. until it dries... when it has dried we bring a sack of cloth... bags like this and it is stuffed in them” (HwA).

4.6.1.2. *lamma* and *lumma*

*lamma* is often used for “when” and “until”. Also a form like *lam* was recorded (a variant *lum* was not heard).

4.6.1.2.1. *lamma* “when” used independently

Of many examples of *lamma* used for “when” are: *iw minnah tsawwiy ftha eš lamma tṭallihha?* “and after that what do you do with it (fem.) when you

<sup>136</sup> The story is about a man who died after he had stepped on a land mine; some areas in Sinai are still extremely dangerous because of land mines from past military conflicts.

<sup>137</sup> The *libbah* is baked in hot embers in the sand. When it is ready, the cook will slap the loaf to clean it of sand and scratch and scrape it to remove other irregularities. The two quadrilateral verbs clearly express repetitive actions here.

<sup>138</sup> *škarāh, šakāyir* “gunny sack”, see Wehr 1980.

take it (fem.) out?” (TAŞ) and *lamma tiṭliḥḥa w ilhá ēh? w ilhá bastawik*<sup>139</sup> “when you take it (fem.) out (then) it is what? Then it is (texture like) biscuit” (ḤwA) and *ṛabbna lamma biyrīd azzalámah yíkirmih byíkirmih* “When our Lord wishes to be generous to a man, he is” (BdA).

A form *lam* was also recorded several times, e.g. *iw lam byaṭla‘ ašši‘ir gadd kidiy, ibyanšaf, w ibyaḥaşdūh* “and when the barley has grown (lit. comes up) this high, it dries and they harvest it” (ĞrA).

#### 4.6.1.2.2. *lamma* + in

Examples of *lamman* are few, and were only recorded in ĞrA and TAŞ: in ĞrA *bindarrih lamman laġāyit itsīr gamiḥ šāfiy* “we winnow it until it becomes pure (clean) wheat” and in TAŞ *bass lamman intah lam ḥaṭṭayt kidiy w šaddēt ibyínkirib. iw byurubṭūh mín-taḥat f-ánnigal!* “but when you, when you have placed it and pulled tight it is in distress. And they tie it to the *nagal* from below”.<sup>140</sup> The other dialects did not show instances of *lamman* or variations thereof.

#### 4.6.1.2.3. *lamma* and *lumma* “until”

*lamma* and *lumma* maybe used in combination with *laġāyit* for “until”, e.g. *wāḥid mín ḥiluw la ḥiluw laġāyit . . . lamma biysīr . . . ġamal* “one (grows) from beautiful to (more) beautiful until . . . it becomes . . . a (full grown) camel” (ĞrA) (for an example of *lamman* + *laġāyit* see 4.6.1.2.2. above).

An example of *lamma* used as “until”: *tusxun lamma tiġliy kidiy* “you heat (it) until it boils” (BdA).

An example of *lumma* recorded in TAŞ: *kull ḥamāmih ‘alēha šarāk, áššarak fi ktāfha mín-ihniy, iw mín fōg ēš? alliy hū bi ššūf hāḍa, xīṭān [. . .] zayy kidiyiyih, lumma ēš? ibyinzil aššaqir ‘a ḥamāmih ‘a ḍaḥarḥa* “there is a net on every pigeon, the net is under her shoulders here, and on top what? this (thing) with this wool, threads [. . .] like this, until what? (until) the falcon comes down on the pigeon, on its (fem.) back”.

#### 4.6.1.3. *lōm* (+ in)

*lōm*—but only in TyA and ĞrA—was also heard in the meaning of “when”: *ithuṭṭha f-aššams. lōm itġiy, linn hī ṛāybih* “you put it in the sun. When you come (back), there it (suddenly) is curdled (milk)” (ĞrA).

<sup>139</sup> *bastawik* is a metathesis of *baskawit* “biscuit”.

<sup>140</sup> The technique described here is used to lure precious falcons to a live pigeon tied to the claws of a *nagal* (a cheaper bird of prey). When the *šagr* strikes, its claws will be caught in the net in which the pigeon is tied.

4.6.2. *ḥatta*4.6.2.1. *ḥatta* “until”, “so that”

*ḥatta* was usually recorded in the meaning of “even”, e.g. *w Allāhiy ’inna gaṭá’ abblād yā ’Īd. ḥatta lbarid katalna f-allēl...* “By God, the land has come to misery, oh ’Īd. Even the cold was too much to bear for us (lit. killed us) at night...” (TyA).

4.7. *Auxiliaries and Verbal Particles*4.7.1. *gām*

Unconjugated *gām* used as a ‘marker of consequent action’ was not recorded in these dialects.

4.7.2. *ṛāḥ*

An example of the use of *ṛāḥ* used as an auxiliary recorded in ĆrA: *kān mistawlīnna lMašriyyih, ahna ṛāḥ in ’iš ma’huw.. istawlāna lyahūd ṛāḥ in ’iš ma’huw* “(when) the Egyptians occupied us we (then) lived with them... when the Jews occupied us, we then (went and) lived with them”. The material of the other dialects does not show such examples.

4.7.3. *Conditional particles*4.7.3.1. *Variations on kān as a conditional particle*4.7.3.1.1. *in + kān*

An example of *in + kān* “if”: *inkān fiha ḥarig, biḥukkha* “if there are burnt spots on it (sg. fem.), you wipe it (off)” (HwA).

4.7.3.1.2. *Suffixed inkān*

An instance of suffixed *inkān* is: *ṭab lēš sawwa fihin zayy kiḍiy inkānnih za’īm iw zēn kān...* “okay, so why did he do that to them (fem.) if he was a general and a good man?” (TyA).

4.7.3.1.3. *il + kān*

Instances of *il + kān* were not recorded.

4.7.3.1.4. *kān preceded by CA loans iz or iza*

*izkān ilhá masalan ilhá:...* *maṭabb iddrās bi’īd... biyšiluw ‘a lbi’rān* “if there is for it (fem.), for instance there is for it (fem.) a threshing floor far away, they carry (it) on camels” (HwA).

*izkān lih ṭaláb, biṅṭibih lih ... māš ṭaláb, ibyitawakkal ‘a-llah* “if he has a wish, we get it for him ... if there is no wish, he sets out on his journey” (TyA).<sup>141</sup>

*kān* may also be suffixed, as in *izkānnih ḍayf ḡāliy bnaḍbah lih ... iw izkānnih ḍayf min iligṛayybīn hōḍaḷ bin‘ašših* “if he is a dear guest we slaughter for him ... and if he is a guest of these relatives we give him a (regular) dinner” (TyA).

#### 4.7.3.1.5. *kān as an independent conditional*

An example of *kān* used independently as conditional “if”: *kān ḡitnī f-allēl axarrfak ṛawāy-aktar* “if you would have come to me in the evening I would have told you more stories” (BdA), (S) *iw kān ‘āyz itsawwha fattih ... (‘Ī) aywah ḡūl lay kēf ‘ādiy bitsawwiha fattah yā Slēmān ... (S) And if you want to make it (fem.) as a fattah (food dip) ... (‘Ī) Yes, so tell me then how you make it a fattah, oh Slēmān*” (DbA).

#### 4.7.3.1.6. *kān, inkān or ilkān introducing alternatives*

*kān* may introduce alternatives, like in *šūfuhum kān alī‘Lēgāt walla šṢawālḥih* “go see (pl. masc.) them (to see if they are) ‘Lēgāt or Ṣawālḥah” (BdA). Another example is *yōm táḥašdih bitdawwir lak ḥitt-alliy fih ... iḡbāl fih malág ... táliḡha<sup>142</sup> ēh? mitwāsyih. bitḡūm itkawwmah kullah fōḡ ba‘aḍah. iw minnih bitḡīb álḡimal, kān ‘indak bi‘rān iktār walla bi‘rēn ...* “when you harvest it, you look (for yourself) a piece (of land) in which there is ... desert (land) with hard ground ... you’ll find it (sg. fem.) what? Flat. You (then) start piling everything on top of each other. And then you get the camel, whether you have many camels or (just) two” (ĠrA).

#### 4.7.3.2. *Absence of a conditional particle*

Examples of conditional clauses not introduced by a particle are: *‘indak bahāyim ibtafza‘ itḡīb l aḍḍayf ḡadá* “if you have cattle you run and bring lunch for the guest”, *widdhin mákan ... mákan, mā fih mákan mint mā tḡīb wala ḥāḡih ...* “they (pl. fem.) need (spending of) money ... money ... if there is no money, you don’t get anything” and an example of both an introduced and an un-introduced conditional clause is (talking about a loaf of bread baked in sand) *inkān fīha ḥarig, biḥukkha ... ib xūšah ... mā fīha ḥarig hī bitnaffīḍha-nta lak b ayyi ḥāḡah kidíy* “if it is burnt, you scrape it ... with a knife ... (if) it is not burnt, you clean it (sg. fem.) for yourself with anything like ...”.

<sup>141</sup> *tawakkal, ytawakkal ‘-Allāh* lit. “put one’s trust in God” is the current phrase used for “set out on a journey”.

<sup>142</sup> *táliḡha: talḡ* (apocopated *talga*) + *ha*; the short vowel *i* is an anaptyctic vowel.

4.8. *Presentative Particles*4.8.1. *ir' or ar'*

Examples of presentatives *ir'* or *ar'* are: *ar'ihum*<sup>143</sup> *all-akbar minnī mūhum 'ārfinhin* “see those, who are older than I am, don't know them (fem.)”. Forms with apocoptation are: *ar'ih ġa'* “there he is (lit. has come)!”; *árihħum ġaw* “there they are (lit. have come)!”; *árihħiy ġat* “there she is (lit. has come)!” (TyA). Forms with *ar' + were* also heard in TAŞ and in ĞrA *írihħuw* “there they (masc.) are!” and *írihħin* “there they (fem.) are!”.

4.8.2. *hē + suffix*

The presentative particle *hē* followed by a personal pronominal to draw the listeners attention to something or someone is current, e.g. (recorded in ĞrA) *hēhū ġa'* “there he is!”, *hēhī ġat* “there she is!”, *hēhumma ġaw* “there they (masc.) are!”, *hēhinnah ġan* “there they (fem.) are!”.

In TAŞ forms with *hā + were* recorded, e.g. *hāhī d-almišiklih* “there's the problem!”, but also with initial *hay +*, as in *hayhū ġa'*, *hayhī ġat*, *hayhum ġaw*, *hayhin ġan*. Such initial *hay +* was also heard in DbA and ĤwA.

4.8.3. *Particle wlin ~ wilin, win*

Like other examples for listed for other groups, a development introduced by the particle *wlin* (*w + lin*) need not be unexpected or sudden, but is rather the intended result of an earlier action, as is clear in the first two examples cited here: *wagit ma ṭāb alġurūn biyxallūh mšallab, iwlinn al'ayš waħád w attibin waħád* “when the (threshing on the) threshing floor has been good, he leaves it in a pile,<sup>144</sup> and there's the yield<sup>145</sup> by itself (on one side) and the straw by itself (on the other side)” (ĤwA). Another example is *mumkin itbarrkih min awwil marrah yōm itġy tawgaf, iw linnih yubrūk* “you can let it kneel from the first time when you come and stand still, and then it kneels” (TyA).

<sup>143</sup> Notice that *ar'ihum* is not an apocoptated imperative. The question is also whether full grammaticalization as a particle has actually taken place. Since these recorded examples were directed to one male interlocutor, it cannot be concluded whether or not it (i.e. *ir'iy* or *ar'iy* or its apocoptated pendant) would be conjugated for number and/or gender.

<sup>144</sup> *mšallab* was glossed to me as “in a pile”, but perhaps its meaning is closer to “having been separated into grains of wheat” and is thus related to *šaliba: šalibit ruzz* “Reiskörner (grains of rice)”, see Behnstedt and Woidich 1994:206.

<sup>145</sup> *'ayš* is often used in the general meaning of “food”. Here the reference is clearly to the yield of the harvest.

An example with both *wlā* and *wlin* is: *w ihniyyih w lā wāḥid liqūtih w baʿadēn iw linnih biyṭālib fay wlin biygūl lay gār itsūg alġūrih inta ġūt dārī... “and here there was (suddenly) someone I ran into (lit. I found) and after that (and) there he was making claims against me saying to me ‘you have to pay the truce payment, you were trespassing on my property (lit. house)’”* (ĠrA). Another example is *iwlin mā fih ʿašāʿ* “and there’s (suddenly) no dinner” (TAN).

An example of suffixed *winn* is: *iw ġīna, w Allāhiy w innah lġaww zēn* “and we came, by God, and (suddenly) the weather was fine” (DbA).

A variant *wlan* was also recorded, as in *iw lan ilimḥāfiḍ biyʿarrid ib rāsih* “there suddenly the Governor rose with his head (becoming visible)” (TAN).

#### 4.8.4. Particle *wlā* +

An example of the presentative particle *wlā* is *w lā wāḥid liqūtih* “and (suddenly) there was someone I ran into to” (see preceding paragraph 4.8.3).<sup>146</sup>

#### 4.9. ġayr

*ġār* (< *ġayr*) may be used (in all dialects discussed here) preceding imperfect forms to express the necessity of the action, e.g. *albuṛān ġār ibyitaṭabbaʿan. yaʿniy lbiʿr iw hū ēš, min fōg āssinah ibtabda miʿāh taṭbīʿ ittābbīʿ albiʿr* “the camels need to be trained. That is, the camel when it’s what? Over a year (old) you start training with it, you train the camel” (TAŠ) and another example *alliy ʿāwiz iy... inawwiʿ f-ālbil āssibag inn āssibag ha biywaddih inn ālġimal ha... masalan imṣayyiṭ alġamal attāniy imṣayyiṭ... ġār yiṭlig ʿalēha minnih masalan* “if he wants to diversify the camels (for) the race and this (other) race, he’ll take him from this camel... (there is) for instance a good reputation, the other camel has a good reputation, he then needs to let her be covered by him, for instance...” (TyA).

A particle *irkān* (presumably < \**ġayr kān*) “need be, be only” was heard in TAŠ: *alḥīn intuw sūġkuw... iw ṭalabātkuw rkān alMasūrah* “now, you, your market... and your shopping goods are only from alMāsūrah” and in BdA *hāda-rkān mā maʿāk yúkutlak áḍḍama fih* “(in) this (place) you need to have water with you, otherwise thirst will kill you there (lit. in it)”.

<sup>146</sup> This presentative was also heard by Holes and Abu Athera (2009:227) in the poetry of the Ḥwēṭiy poet Barrāk of southern Jordan.

4.10. *Intensifying Particle la*

The particle *la* intensifying the 1st p. sg. com. was not recorded in these southern group I dialects. There is an example however in which *la* intensifies: *hāda la rašmīy Tihīy* ... “he’s really officially a Tihīy” (BdA).

4.11. *bidd or widd + pron. suffix*

To express “want” or “need” speakers of group I dialects use suffixed *widd*. Examples for “need” or “want” are: *widdī-yyāk itxarrifnī* “I want you to tell me” (TAŞ) and *alblād bass lissā’ widdha takrīm* “but the land still needs to be prepared for agriculture”<sup>147</sup> (ĞrA) and *widd* being translatable with “want” or “in order to” in *garrib garrib yōm ‘Awdih ğa’ widdah ymidd ‘a lġazāl iw lan ilimhāfiḍ biy’arrid ib rāsih* “he came nearer and nearer, when ‘Awdah came he wanted to (or: in order to) take aim at the gazelle, there suddenly the Governor stuck his head out (becoming visible)” (TAN).

Examples of *widd* used to express futurity rather than wish are: *mūhū ‘ārīf zayy intih* ... (interviewee) *lā hāda ‘ād widd-agūl lak, şalliy ‘á-nnibiy* “he doesn’t know (about it) like you ... (interviewee) No, this I’ll tell you then, pray for the Prophet...”,<sup>148</sup> *widd-agūl lak ‘ala ttamir* “I’ll tell you about the dates” (both examples BdA).

An example of *widd* expressing necessity from the viewpoint of the speaker is: *tayyib, halhīn widdak itgūl lay kēf biysawwuw ssamin aššihīy* “okay, now you need to tell me how they make šihīy ghee” (TAŞ).

## 4.12. ‘ād

The particle ‘ād is extremely current to express “so, thus, then”. Examples are: *ṛāyib ... biyhuṭṭūha fi ssī’in ‘ād biṭšir ēh? imsawwyīn ṛawāġih l assī’in* ... “curdled milk ... they put it in the goat skin so then it becomes what? They’ll have made a tripod for the goat skin”<sup>149</sup> (HwA), *lagga yāt iblād, lagga ‘ād itlāwah Şadir walla tlāwah Daháb?* “to which (part of the) land did he go, did he go towards Şadr or towards Dahab?” (TAŞ) and *iw bingayyil wē:n iw bingayyil nuşş alblādāt ‘ādīy ana w Allāh zamān ... iyyām harib* ... “and where do we rest during the heat of the day? And so we’d

<sup>147</sup> A *kařm* (pl. *krūm*) is a private orchard or garden in which people grow their agricultural products.

<sup>148</sup> The phrase *şall(iy) ‘á-nnibiy* is often used to draw the attention of those present to what one has to say.

<sup>149</sup> For an illustration of such a tripod from which the goat skin is swung to churn butter, see Behnstedt and Woidich 1985:59.

rest right in the middle of the lands during the heat of the day. By God, in the old days I... during the days of war..." (BdA).

#### 4.13. *yabga*

*yabga* may be heard sometimes meaning "so, then", as in *yabga hāḍa wāḥid alḥīn ṭilī... min alliy byaḥḥamow* "so this was then someone now... who came forth from those who have a sound understanding" (TAŞ) and *wagīt ma dannat allibbah taharkalat hassētha, yabga llibbah āstuwat* "and when it has sounded (it produces a knocking sound) the libbah it moves a little when you touch it, then the libbah has become cooked" (ḤwA). *ālġimal byiddīha ġamal... yabga šarat fīha ġīmāl...* "the (male) camel gives her a camel... so then there has come a camel in her..." (BdA). Another example in ĞrA is *kull biyrawwiḥ bētiḥ xalāš... yabga... kull rawwaḥ bētiḥ, biyḍall al'aris 'ād w al'arūs gā'dīn... yōm, yōmēn talātiḥ 'ind ba'aḍhuw...* "everybody goes to his home, that's it... so (after) everybody has gone home, the groom and bride stay... for a day, two, three days with each other..." In MIA metathesized *yabga* was recorded.

#### 4.14. *Characteristics of the Narrative Style*

##### 4.14.1. *Imperative of narration*

Some examples of the imperative of narration are: *garrīb yā mḥāfiḍ iw garrīb iw garrīb, iw 'Awdah m'āh iw garrīb w úxumṛuw iw garrīb... alimḥāfiḍ biy'arrid ib rāsīh kiḍiyyān algazāl šāfiḥ šārad...* "the Governor came nearer"<sup>150</sup> and nearer and nearer while 'Awdah was with him and he came nearer and they hid and he came nearer... the Governor sticks his head out like this (and then) the gazelle saw him and fled". Another example is *wadd arrġāl iw hāt arrġāl* "(many) men came and went (lit. send the men and bring the men)" (both examples TAN).

##### 4.14.2. *kān as a temporal marker*

Unconjugated *kān* is very frequently used as a marker to indicate the past, e.g. *ya'niy kān aḥna mnazẓmīnha'... ifwāġ 'a talat t-iyyām...* "that is, we used to organize it (fem.)... in heats (held) over three days..." (ḤwA),

<sup>150</sup> The narrative imperative used directly addresses the Governor: (lit.) "Come nearer, oh Governor".

*inğiblak karṛūsih walla ġhāzāt? gult la' inšūf aliğhāzāt...law karṛūsaḥ*<sup>151</sup> *kān lagētni l alhīn al'amaliyyah ta'bānih* “shall we get you a wheel chair or artificial legs? I said ‘No, let’s see the artificial legs’...if (I would have taken) a wheel chair you would have found me... the whole business until now in poor condition” (TyA) and *basma' xarārīf zamān biygūl lak int tağawwaz w int mintah 'ārīfhiy,*<sup>152</sup> *mā bitšūfha ġār kān bitğiy 'indak* “I hear stories of old times that tell you you’d get married (to a girl) that you didn’t know (lit. while you didn’t know her), you’d not see her until she came to live with you (i.e. on the wedding day itself)” (TAŞ) and *ṭab iw kān biybī'ūh wēn?* “Okay, and where would they sell it (sg. masc.)?” (TAŞ), *iw kān alimhāfiğ iymī:l alá-lğimal iw kā:n iyfassiyy...* “and the Governor bent (all the way) over to the side on the camel and farted...” (TAN) and *ana mānī 'ārīf, mā-na kān bataşayyad ma' nās bass hū fi 'ēş? f-āxir aşşayf* “I don’t know, I used not to go hunting with people, but it is when? At the end of the summer” (TAŞ).

*kān* was much less frequently used as a verb and conjugated as such, but one such example is *alḥurmah hādīy kānat zamān alliy biygūluw lēhiy Šēxah biṭṭill lay* “this woman whom they called Šēxah in the old days used to come and look in on me” (TyA) (*biṭṭill* < *biṭṭill*).

#### 4.14.3. *Dativus ethicus*

Some instances of the ethic dative are:<sup>153</sup> *lamma biyşūfah şağir, biygūm ibyīṭilg lak ānigağ hāḍa* “when a falcon sees it, he’ll then set the nagal free (for you)” (TAN), *aşil fiḥ aṭṭabī'ih, lamma lhīn hādōl ibyib'nuw mā fiş maṭār min xams isnīn, mūhum 'ārfin ṭabī'it Sīnah kēf, banaw lak fi ḥittah w xalāş* “because there is nature, when these (people) are now building while there hasn’t been rain for five years, they don’t know (about) how the nature of Sinai is. They built (something) in a (certain) place (for you) and that’s it” (TAŞ).<sup>154</sup>

<sup>151</sup> *karṛūsih*, lit. “little chair” shaped on the dim. pattern C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub>ūC<sub>3</sub>ah. The text was recorded from a man who had lost his legs after driving over a land mine. He lives in an area where a wheel chair would be useless, since there are no paved roads or paths.

<sup>152</sup> The interviewer, who is a Turbāniy from Rās Şadr, here imitates a more north-eastern type of dialect by substituting *-ha* with *-hiy*, the latter of which is also characteristic of TyA, but not of his own dialect (TAŞ).

<sup>153</sup> Holes and Abu Athera (2009:228) also report instances in the poetry of the Ḥwēṭiy poet Barrāk from southern Jordan.

<sup>154</sup> In the past people have built in the wadi that runs straight through Dahab. When in 2004 a flood came, it washed away a MacDonald’s restaurant, which had been built too near the *sēl* (actually, almost right in the middle of it).

4.15. *Pluralis paucitatis*

For limited or countable numbers often the healthy plural form is used instead of the ‘broken’ plural. Some examples are: *luḡuṃ min abuw rḥāyāt* “a mine with disks” (broken pl. *rḥiy*)<sup>155</sup> (DbA), *dawyāt* “(types of) medicine(s)” (broken pl. *ádiwiyih*) (TAŞ), *arba‘ sanawāt* “four years” (broken pl. *snīn*) (MIA), *talāt marḗāt* “three times” (TAN), *ḡhāzāt* “artificial legs” (broken pl. *áḡihzih*) (TyA).

4.16. *Concord*

An example of a limited number of men is (in the first part of the sentence reference is in the pl. masc.; in the second part the reference to the same men is in pl. fem.):<sup>156</sup> *biytsābagow lēhuw arba‘ huḡḡān mī ba‘adhuw... xamsih, ibyḡḡrīn lēhin itnēn kīlih talāṭah kīlih...* “four camel riders race (for themselves) each other... five, they (pl. fem.) run (for themselves) two kilometres, three kilometres” (ĜrA). another example is: *ḥaṣa lbān, iw sukkur fidḏiy, w alḥilbih... (‘I) w alḥilbih... (X) aywah... hāḏō! tarayyag bīhin aṣṣubuh ‘á-xal-arrīg... (‘I) ‘á-xal-arrīg... (X) aywah saba‘ t-iyām... min yōmin tibdiy fi hāḏōl lamma tōfihīn... (‘I) tamām...* “rosemary, white (lit. silver) sugar and fenugreek... (‘I) and fenugreek... (X) Yes, these you have for breakfast in the morning on an empty stomach... (‘I) On an empty stomach... (X) Yes, (for) seven days... from the moment you start with these until you have finished them (fem.) completely...” (MIA).<sup>157</sup>

## 5. A SKETCHY REMARK ON PITCH

The type of pitch heard in group I predominantly among older men in the north east could also be heard among older men in group I dialects discussed here.

<sup>155</sup> The disks of the landmine are metaphorically compared here to handmills used for grinding, which have a similar shape and size.

<sup>156</sup> Holes and Abu Athera 2009:222 remark that “plural and collective nouns referring to human beings of either gender [also] normally attract fem sing agreement, especially when the reference is generic”. For further interesting observations on ‘agreement’, see *ibid.* 220–223.

<sup>157</sup> For the verb *awfa, yūfy* (or *yōfy*) “achieve in full”, see De Jong 2000:219, fn 430.

## CONCLUSIONS

### I. COMPARING DIALECTS

#### a. *Methods of Comparing Dialects*

To present an overall picture, a number of maps have been added in the appendix, which show a number of features of the dialects spoken in the area. To facilitate direct comparison, data used in maps in De Jong 2000, which cover the dialects of the northern Sinai littoral, have also been incorporated in these maps. A total of 13 maps have been added, which illustrate dialect features not used in De Jong 2000. In these additional maps dialect features are set as criteria for comparison to show differences between dialects spoken by tribes in the centre and south of Sinai; setting the same features as criteria for a comparison to be illustrated in maps would not have yielded very significant results in De Jong 2000, but these criteria do offer new perspectives when the entire area of Sinai is represented in a map.

In De Jong 2000 the northern Sinai littoral was shown to be an area of transition. This transition is between a largely Bedouin type of dialect (labelled group I), spoken by the majority of the Sinai tribes, and which has also been referred to as Negev Arabic (described in Blanc 1970) on the one hand, and the sedentary dialect of the eastern part of the Šarqiyyah province in the Nile Delta of Egypt.

Dialects in De Jong 2000 were compared using the 'step method'. Since the dialects form a geographical continuum, the linear nature of the comparison (i.e. only dialects bordering on each other were compared, mainly in a west-east (or vice versa) distribution) does not present a problem; after having made the comparison the continuum proved to be linguistic as well.<sup>1</sup>

However, since the dialects of central and southern Sinai do not form such a geographical continuum, a comparison using the step method becomes too two-dimensional, since more dimensions are needed to group dialects that do not lie along a more or less neat two-dimensional line.

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<sup>1</sup> One of the reasons is that in the case of the Bedouin dialects of the northern Sinai littoral we saw—from east to west—a gradual disappearance of 'Bedouin' dialectal features, yielding to more sedentary features also found in the dialect of the eastern Nile Delta. The central and southern regions of Sinai do not form a continuum in the same or a comparable manner.

For this reason the method of multi-dimensional scaling yields more reliable results for the grouping of dialects. All dialects (also the ones that do not geographically border on each other) are compared to each other on the basis of all features used as criteria for comparison. This means that also dialects that are far apart will receive a full comparison in this method, whereby the relative typological distance between these geographically far removed dialects can also be established. The advantage is clear: the fact that for instance TAN and TAŞ are clustered relatively near to each other may be interpreted as the result of a common history of these dialects; both are dialects of the same tribe (Taṛābīn), although today these two varieties are spoken at locations hundreds of kilometres apart.<sup>2</sup>

Another advantage of the multi-dimensional scaling method is that parallel forms are more easily fitted into the comparison; every feature receives its own column in which every dialect is marked for the presence or absence of this feature. When two parallel possibilities exist, their presence in the same dialect will be marked in the two columns created to record these features.

To give an example: When dialect A shows the use of interdentals, in dialect B interdentals have been replaced by stops, and in dialect C both forms with interdentals and forms with stops (which were originally interdentals) occur, this will be marked as follows:

E.g. in dialect A we heard: *axaḏ*, *tār*, *ḏarb*, In dialect B: *axad*, *tār*, *ḏarb* and in dialect C: *axaḏ* ~ *axad*, *tār* ~ *tār*, *ḏarb* ~ *ḏarb*

	ṭ, ḏ, ḏ̣	t, d, ḏ
dialect A	+	–
dialect B	–	+
dialect C	+	+

The programmes Proxscal and Alscal will then plot dialect C exactly between dialects A and B (C sharing characteristics with A inasmuch as it shares (other) characteristics with B). Distances between the different points in the plot represent differences between dialects; the greater the distance between two points, the greater the difference between the two dialects represented.

o	o	o
A	C	B

<sup>2</sup> From Nwēbi' (centre of TAN territory) to Rās Şadr (centre of TAŞ territory) is approximately 200 kilometres as the crow flies.

## II. REMARKS TO THE MAPS IN THE APPENDIX

The maps in the appendix are ordered (with a few minor modifications) in conformity with the numbering used in De Jong 2000 (Maps referred to there are indicated in italics and with 'in 2000'). Dialect features were used as criteria for comparison between dialects and the outcome of these comparisons between dialects is illustrated in maps in the appendix of De Jong 2000. When a comparison based on the same criteria yielded no differences inside central and/or southern Sinai, no map has been drawn for that feature in the appendix of the volume in hand. Such features are, however, briefly mentioned in the remarks following below, and have been treated in the relevant paragraphs of the respective descriptive chapters of this study.

When a map was drawn for De Jong 2000, and not for the study in hand, this should be taken to mean that difference(s) with respect to the feature discussed only shows up in the dialects of the northern region discussed in De Jong 2000. References to the paragraphs discussing such features follow the remark in brackets as: '(cf. + numbering)'.

a. *Criteria for Comparison from De Jong 2000 Producing Differences/  
Similarities in Central and Southern Sinai*

Before going into the various differences that are found in dialects of central and southern Sinai, and the maps that illustrate these differences, first a number of characteristics<sup>3</sup> shared by all dialects in the central and southern Sinai are listed here:<sup>4</sup>

NB, in the text below:

- 'No map in this volume' means that the feature discussed is not illustrated in a map in the appendix of this volume, since no differences were found inside central and southern Sinai for that feature set as criterion for comparison.

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<sup>3</sup> The reasons for incorporating the features listed below as a basis for dialect comparison are given in footnotes to the text in De Jong 2000:37–47.

<sup>4</sup> Since there is little point in producing maps that only illustrate shared characteristics throughout the area, such characteristics are listed here separately. For a comparable summary of shared characteristics of dialects in northern Sinai, see De Jong 2000:30–38. To facilitate comparison I have followed the same numbering here, but have had to rearrange the order of listing in a few cases. Where additions had to be made for central and southern Sinai (when differences not found in northern Sinai do occur in this area), this is specifically mentioned.

- ‘No map’ means that neither in De Jong 2000, nor in the volume in hand a map has been produced, since the feature set as criterion does not produce a difference in the entire region of Sinai).
- ‘New MAP (followed by a number from 75 to 87)’ means that an additional map appears in the appendix of this volume below (for a feature for which no map appeared in De Jong 2000). The new maps for additional features set as criteria for comparison have been numbered from MAP 75 to MAP 87 (the last map—MAP 88—shows the subdivision into dialect groups in the entire region of Sinai).
- ‘MAP (followed by a number from 1 to 73)’ means that both in De Jong 2000, as well as in the appendix in this volume a map has been produced to illustrate differences between dialects in the entire region of Sinai. The numbering of these maps is parallel to the numbering used in De Jong 2000.
- Features used in De Jong 2000 to establish relative ‘Bedouinness’ or ‘Sedentariness’ (in a linguistic sense) of dialects under discussion are marked ‘(B-S)’.
- For further remarks see ‘Remarks to the maps in the appendix’ below.

(the numbering/capital letters used here are in reference to the list in De Jong 2000:37–47).

2. and 3. All dialects in central and southern Sinai have three interdental reflexes  $\underline{t}$ ,  $\underline{d}$  for respectively  $*\underline{t}$ ,  $*\underline{d}$  and  $\underline{d}$  in which  $*\underline{d}$  and  $*\underline{d}$  have merged (additional difference for central and southern Sinai) (cf. 1.1.2.)<sup>5</sup> (B-S).

No MAP 2 in this volume (*MAP 2 in 2000*).

No MAP 3 in this volume (*MAP 3 in 2000*).

A. Like in northern Sinai, all dialects in central and southern Sinai have affricate  $\check{g}$  or fricative  $\check{z}$  (or both in free variation) for  $*\check{g}$  (no map, cf. 1.1.4.) (B-S).

B. Like in northern Sinai, all dialects in central and southern Sinai have a voiced (unaffricated) plosive reflex  $g$  for  $*q$  (no map, cf. 1.1.3.) (B-S).

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<sup>5</sup> In the north dialects were identified where  $\underline{d}$  and  $\underline{t}$  were disappearing (Axrasiy, AxA), or had already disappeared (Biyyāḍiy, BA), see De Jong 2000:331–332 and maps 2 and 3 (in *ibid.*, appendix).

- C. Like in northern Sinai, none of the dialects in central and southern Sinai show affrication of \*k or \*q (no map, cf. 1.1.3.) (B-S).
- D. Like in northern Sinai, all dialects have three short vowel phonemes /i/, /u/ and /a/. The short high vowels *i* and *u* can be isolated through minimal pairs, but like in northern Sinai this phonemic opposition is limited (no map, cf. 1.2.3.2.) (B-S).
- E. Like in northern Sinai, reduction of geminated C<sub>2</sub> (C<sub>a</sub>C<sub>a</sub>) when C<sub>3</sub> (C<sub>b</sub>) is followed by V, i.e. a cluster C<sub>a</sub>C<sub>a</sub>C<sub>b</sub>V > C<sub>a</sub>C<sub>b</sub>V: this reduction occurs regularly in all dialects of central and southern Sinai (no map, cf. 2.3.3.3.1.) (B-S).
- F. See remark below.\*
- G. Like in northern Sinai, a preference for the construct state instead of direct annexation was not unequivocally apparent in central or southern Sinai. Instead, a comparison is made on the basis of the use of *btā'*, *šugl*, *ħagg* (MAP 29, cf. 3.1.11.) (B-S).
- H. Like in northern Sinai, nunation (or tanwīn) is not current in any of the dialects of central and southern Sinai (no map, cf. 4.1.) (B-S).
- I. Like in northern Sinai, the locative preposition *fī* “in” occurs in all dialects of central and southern Sinai (no map, cf. 3.1.16.).
- J. Like in northern Sinai, productivity of diminutive patterns is difficult to establish<sup>6</sup> (no map, cf. 3.1.6.) (B-S).
- K. Use of *mār* / *mēr* “so, then, but”, *mār* was heard only in MIA (no map) (B-S).
- L. Use of interrogative ‘*alām* + pron. suffix “why, what for?”: like in northern Sinai, this interrogative has been recorded in several dialects, like the example ‘*alāmuḵ y-Abūw Zēd?*’ (GrA) “what’s the matter with you, Abu Zayd” (no map, cf. 3.1.14.) (B-S).
- \*
- F. Like in northern Sinai, the second pl. masc. pron. suffix *-kuw* is regular in groups I and VI, but in groups VII and VIII we have *-kuw* (or *-ḵuw*) ~ *-kum* (or *-ḵum*) (see new MAP 80, 3.1.12.2.).

Of characteristics used for maps in De Jong 2000 (pp. 37–47, numbering of maps used there again runs parallel to numbering of maps presented here), the following remarks can be made for Bedouin dialects in the centre and south of Sinai.

<sup>6</sup> See remark in De Jong 2000:153, fn 237.

1. /k/ and /ḳ/ as separate phonemes in the phoneme inventory: not in group I, but both are present in phoneme inventories of groups VI–VIII (cf. 1.1.1. and 3.1.12.2.).

MAP 1 in this volume (*MAP 1 in 2000*).

In northern Sinai only two tribal dialects (‘AgA and SaA) showed the presence of /ḳ/ as a separate phoneme. It was surmised then that this was in fact a feature more commonly present in dialects of southern Sinai. It was also reported in De Jong 200:246 that the Samā‘nah had migrated from the southern mountainous region of aṭ-Ṭūr to the Gaṭyah oasis, where they reside today. This migration, as I was told one day by an older Smē‘niy, would have taken place around the year 1900.<sup>7</sup>

The assumption in De Jong 2000:283–285 of /ḳ/ being a more typically southern Sinaitic feature can now indeed be corroborated; we see that the southern groups VI, VII and VIII all show this separate phoneme in their phoneme inventories. The MAP also shows that in ‘AgA and BdA the /k/ in the pronominal suffix *-ak* was heard with a degree of velarization, in any case a higher degree of velarization than in (other) group I dialects. In ‘AgA such velarization would be attributable *-ḳ*, resulting in a compromise form by transferring its velarization onto the new pron. suffix *-aḳ* (hence *-aḳ*). In BdA velarization may be due to dialect contact; the Badārah are surrounded by Ṣawālḥah, and—no longer being on the Tih plateau, but to the south of the escarpment in the reddish sands of ar-Ṛamlah near Ġabal Ḥmayyir<sup>8</sup>—have considerably less contact with other group I tribes like Tiyāha, Ḥwēṭāt and Tarābin (of Nwēbi‘).

2. and 3. See remarks made above (no maps in this volume, cf. 1.1.2.) (both B-S).
4. Secondary velarization, or emphatization: several differences were recorded in the centre and south of Sinai (cf. 1.1.7.).

MAP 4 in this volume (*MAP 4 in 2000*) shows the degree of velarization generally present in the dialects compared here. To illustrate this for central and southern Sinai the pl. forms of *kibīr* and *kiṭīr* are adduced.

<sup>7</sup> Von Oppenheim 1943:164 mentions that (in my translation) “parts of the ‘Olekāt have settled in Upper Egypt [...] Nowadays they mostly call themselves ‘Ogelāt”. These ‘Ogelāt may well be related to the ‘Agāyḥah (i.e. speakers of ‘AgA) whom we find today as neighbours of the Samā‘nah in Bir Gaṭyah, see map in De Jong 2000:656.

<sup>8</sup> Geographical coordinates of their current abode are appr. 29.02.53 North and 33.33.39 East. The white rectangular shapes, already plainly visible from an elevation of 1,000 metres on Google Earth, are their tents, which are made of flour sacks (donated by USAID).

These pl. forms can be velarized, as in *kbār* and *ktār*, or velarization lacks and /ā/ is even realized relatively high (near IPA [ɛ:]), as in *kbār* and *ktār*. In group VI realizations are *kbār*, but no velarization in *ktār*.

5. Partial or complete monophthongization of older diphthongs \*ay and \*aw and possible phonemic overlapping of /ē/ and /ī/ (cf. 1.2.2.1. and 1.2.4.5.).

MAP 5 in this volume (*MAP 5 in 2000*) illustrates which dialects have phonetic overlapping of /ē/ and /ī/ (e.g. *sēf* ~ *sīf* “sword”, *šēx* ~ *šīx* “sheikh”) and which dialects lack this feature.

6. Tendency to retain length of long vowels in unstressed positions. In dialects of central and southern Sinai shortening of long vowels in such positions is a feature of allegro speech (cf. 1.2.2.4.) (B-S).

No MAP 6 in this volume. *MAP 6 in 2000* shows in which dialects shortening of long vowels in unstressed positions takes place. If such shortening occurs in central or southern Sinai dialects, it is a feature of allegro speech and thus clearly of a phonetic nature.

7. Raising of the short vowel *a* in positions preceding A. (cf. 1.2.3.4.3.2., 3.1.1.5., 3.1.1.6. and 3.1.1.7.) (B-S).

MAP 7 in this volume (*MAP 7 in 2000*) shows where short vowel *a* in open syllable tends to be raised when directly preceding primarily stressed *ā* or *a* within word boundaries (e.g. *katábt* > *kitábt* and *bakāriġ* > *bikāriġ*).

8. Raising of the feminine suffix (T) (often referred to as ‘*imālah* of \**-ah*). The map reflects a generalized situation (cf. 1.2.3.4.3.3.).

MAP 8 in this volume (*MAP 8 in 2000*) shows the different degrees of raising of the fem. morpheme *-ah* (either as a pausal feature or a sandhi feature).

9. Extreme raising of final \**-ā* or \**-ā'* > *-iy*, or less extreme raising > *-i'* (MAP 9, cf. 1.2.4.4.) (B-S).

MAP 9 in this volume (*MAP 9 in 2000*) illustrates the different reflexes of final *-ā(')* in neutral (i.e. non-velarized) environments encountered in Sinai.

10. Absence of raising of final *-ā* or *-ā'* (MAP 10, cf. 1.2.4.4.).

MAP 10 in this volume (*MAP 10 in 2000*) shows reflexes of final *-ā(')* in non-raised positions.

11. Diphthongal reflexes of \*ay and \*aw (cf. 1.2.4.1., 1.2.4.6. and 1.2.4.7.).

MAP 11 in this volume (*MAP 11 in 2000*) shows the reflexes of diphthongs \*ay and \*aw when directly preceded by back spirants (X) or emphatics (M) present in Sinai dialects.

12. Stress in mediae geminatae where the geminate is word-final. (cf. 2.1.1.).  
 No MAP 12 in this volume. *MAP 12 in 2000* shows stress in forms with final geminates. In central and southern Sinai the vowel directly preceding a final geminate is invariably stressed (e.g. *yhuṭṭ* “he places”, *tšidd* “you pull”, *tinḥáṭṭ* “it (sg. fem.) is placed”, *aššáṭṭ* or *iššáṭṭ* “the coast”) and thus the whole central and southern region shows no difference in this respect.
13. Stress in maCCaCah (cf. 2.1.1.1.).  
 No MAP 13 in this volume. *MAP 13 in 2000* shows stress assignment in the pattern maCCaCah. All dialects in central and southern Sinai have the máCCaCah stress-type.
14. Stress in \*CaCvC (i.e. surface forms CvCaC, CvCiC or CvCuC) (cf. 2.1.1.2.).  
 MAP 14 in this volume (*MAP 14 in 2000*) illustrates stress assignment in patterns CiCiC (including CuCuC; both being ‘underlying’ CaCi/uC) and CaCaC.
15. Stress in \*CaCaCv (cf. 2.1.1.2.1.).  
 MAP 15 in this volume (*MAP 15 in 2000*) shows stress assignment in the pattern CaCaCv.
16. Stress in \*CaCaCaCv (MAP 16, cf. 2.1.1.2.2., was 2.1.1.2.1.3. in De Jong 2000).  
 MAP 16 in this volume (*MAP 16 in 2000*) shows stress assignment in the pattern CaCaCaCv.
17. Resyllabication of \*CaCaCV sequences. Such resyllabication is not a feature of any of the dialects of central and southern Sinai, e.g. *waragah* “piece of paper”, *gahawah* “coffee” (cf. 2.1.1.2.2., was 2.1.1.2.1.6. in De Jong 2000) (B-S).  
 No MAP 17 in this volume. *MAP 17 in 2000* shows the presence/absence of the Nağdiy type of resyllabification: CaCaCV > CCvCV. This type of resyllabification was not heard in central or southern Sinai.
18. The article and preformatives of measures *n*-1 and 1-*t* as stressable units (cf. 2.1.1.2.2.) (B-S).  
 MAP 18 in this volume (*MAP 18 in 2000*) shows stress assignment in verbal measures *n*-1 (of VII) and 1-*t* (or VIII) and in sequences (with article) alCaCaC.
19. The gahawah-syndrome (cf. 2.2.1. and 2.2.1.3.) (B-S). No MAP 19 in this volume. *MAP 19 in 2000* shows the spread of the gahawah-syndrome. The syndrome is active in all dialects of central and southern Sinai.

20. Presence of initial CCV in a limited number of morphological patterns (cf. 2.3.5.) (B-S).  
MAP 20 in this volume (*MAP 20 in 2000*) shows reflexes of the pattern \*CICaC.
21. Raising of *a* in C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>ah (cf. 1.2.3.4.3.2. and 3.1.1.1.).  
MAP 21 in this volume (*MAP 21 in 2000*) shows raising (or absence of it) of short vowel *a* in pre-stress open syllable in a sequence CaCīC(ah).
22. Raising of *a* in \*CaCCāC (cf. 1.2.3.4.3.2. and 3.1.1.4.).  
MAP 22 in this volume (*MAP 22 in 2000*) shows raising (or absence of it) of short vowel *a* in a pre-stress closed syllable in a sequence CaCCāC(ah).
23. Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding *ū* (cf. 1.2.3.4.3.2. and 3.1.1.8.).  
MAP 23 in this volume (*MAP 23 in 2000*) shows raising (or absence of it) of short vowel *a* in pre-stress open syllable in a sequence CaCūC(ah).
24. The pattern for colours and physical defects (cf. 3.1.7.).  
No MAP 24 in this volume. *MAP 24 in 2000* shows reflexes of the pattern \*<sup>3</sup>aCCaC for colours and physical defects. In southern and central Sinai the current reflex for this pattern is aCCaC in all dialects.
25. The definite article and the relative pronoun (cf. 3.1.9.1.) (B-S).  
MAP 25 in this volume (*MAP 25 in 2000*) shows the form of the article and the relative pronoun.
26. Occurrence of /a/ in the initial syllable of a number of irregular nouns (cf. 3.1.9.2.).  
MAP 26 in this volume (*MAP 26 in 2000*) is on the short initial vowels in the lexemes for “mother” and “sister”.
27. Treatment of T (the feminine suffix morpheme) (cf. 3.1.10.).  
MAP 27 in this volume (*MAP 27 in 2000*) shows the behaviour of the fem. morpheme (T) in construct state.
28. Elision of the T-vowel in construct state (cf. 3.1.10.).  
MAP 28 in this volume (*MAP 28 in 2000*) is on the elision of the short vowel of the fem. morpheme (the T-vowel).
29. The genitive exponent (cf. 3.1.11.).  
MAP 29 in this volume (*MAP 29 in 2000*) shows the different genitive exponents used for the analytical genitive in Sinai dialects.
30. Gender distinction masc./fem. in 2nd and 3rd p. pl. (cf. 3.1.12., 3.2.1.1., 3.2.1.2.) (B-S).  
No MAP 30 in this volume. *MAP 30 in 2000* is on the absence or presence of gender distinction masc./fem. in plurals of personal pronominals, adjectives and verb forms. In all dialects of central and southern Sinai this distinction is made.

31. The independent personal pronominals of the 3rd p. sg. masc. and fem. (cf. 3.1.12.1.).  
MAP 31 (*MAP 31 in 2000*) is on the shapes of the pronominals for the 3rd p. masc. sg. and the 3rd p. sg. fem. “he” and “she”.
32. The 1st p. sg. com. pronominal (cf. 3.1.12.1.).  
No MAP 32 in this volume. *MAP 32 in 2000* is on the shape of the pers. pronominal for the 1st person sg. com. “I”. The form used in the entire central and southern Sinai is *ana*, stressed either on the first or on the second syllable (covered in MAP 14).
33. The 1st p. pl. com. personal pronominal (cf. 3.1.12.1.).  
MAP 33 (*MAP 33 in 2000*) is on the shape of the pers. pronominal for the 1st person pl. com. “we”.
34. The pronominal suffix for the 3rd p. sg. masc. (cf. 3.1.12.2.) (B-S).  
MAP 34 (*MAP 34 in 2000*) is on the shape of the pronominal suffix (obj. or poss.) for the 3rd person sg. masc. “him (obj.)” or “his (poss.)”.
35. The pronominal suffix for the 3rd p. sg. fem. (cf. 3.1.12.2.).  
MAP 35 (*MAP 35 in 2000*) is on the shape of the pronominal suffix (obj. or poss.) for the 3rd person sg. fem. “her”.
36. The pronominal suffix for the 2nd p. sg. masc. (cf. 3.1.12.2.).  
MAP 36 (*MAP 36 in 2000*) is on the shape of the pronominal suffix (obj. or poss.) for the 2nd person sg. masc. “you (obj.)” or “your (poss.)”.
37. The pronominal suffix for the 2nd p. sg. fem. (cf. 3.1.12.2.).  
MAP 37 (*MAP 37 in 2000*) is on the shape of the pronominal suffix (obj. or poss.) for the 2nd person sg. fem. “you (obj.)” or “your (poss.)”.
38. The pronominal suffix for the 1st p. sg. com. (cf. 3.1.12.2.).  
No MAP 38 in this volume. *MAP 38 in 2000* is on the shapes of the pronominal suffixes (obj. and poss.) for the 1st person sg. com. In all of central and southern Sinai “me (obj.)” or “my (poss.)” (stressed)  $\bar{i}$  (possessive) and (stressed)  $-n\bar{i}$  (object) (usually ~ unstressed  $-i$  and  $-ni$ ).
39. Emphatization of  $\bar{d}$  in demonstratives of near deixis if not followed by  $-i$  (cf. 3.1.13.) (B-S).  
MAP 39 (*MAP 39 in 2000*) gives the demonstratives for sg. masc. near deixis “this”.
40. The sg. fem. demonstrative (cf. 3.1.13.).  
MAP 40 (*MAP 40 in 2000*) gives the demonstratives for sg. fem. near deixis “this”.
41. Gender distinction in pl. demonstratives (cf. 3.1.13.1.) (B-S).  
No MAP 41 in this volume. *MAP 41 in 2000* is on gender distinction in pl. demonstratives. In central and southern Sinai no such distinction is made, except in MzA, but material is insufficient for definitive conclu-

- sions. In MAP 32 the pl. com. forms of demonstratives are given for central and southern Sinai (information is incomplete for northern Sinai).
42. Interrogative “who?” (cf. 3.1.14.) (B-S).  
MAP 42 (*MAP 42 in 2000*) compares the different shapes of the interrogative “who?”.
43. Interrogative “where?” (cf. 3.1.14.) (B-S).  
No MAP 43 in this volume. *MAP 43 in 2000* is on the shapes of the interrogative “where?” In central and southern Sinai this interrogative is *wēn* in every dialect.
44. Interrogative “how?” (cf. 3.1.14.) (B-S).  
No MAP 44 in this volume. *MAP 44 in 2000* is on the different forms for the interrogative “how?” In central and southern Sinai the current form is *kēf* or *kīf*.
45. Adverb “there” (cf. 3.1.15.1.) (B-S).  
MAP 45 (*MAP 45 in 2000*) gives forms used for the adverb “there”.
46. Shape of the adverb “here” (cf. 3.1.15.1.) (B-S).  
MAP 46 (*MAP 46 in 2000*) gives forms used for the adverb “here”.
47. The preposition *l* “to” + 3rd p. sg. masc. suffix (cf. 3.1.16.) (B-S).  
MAP 47 (*MAP 47 in 2000*) compares the different varieties of the preposition “to” + 3rd person. sg. masc. suffix: “to him”.
48. The preposition *m(a)* “with” + 3rd p. sg. masc. suffix (cf. 3.1.16.).  
MAP 48 (*MAP 48 in 2000*) gives the different varieties of the preposition “with” + 3rd person sg. masc. suffix: “with him”.
49. Numeral “one (fem.)” (cf. 3.1.17.).  
No MAP 49 in this volume. *MAP 49 in 2000* shows forms of the sg. fem. numeral “one”, The form *wihdih* is current throughout central and southern Sinai.
50. The 3rd p. pl. masc. verbal ending of *a*-type perfects (cf. 3.2.1.1.).  
MAP 50 (*MAP 50 in 2000*) is on presence/absence of vowel harmony in verbal endings of the 3rd person pl. masc. perfect.
51. The 3rd p. pl. fem. verbal ending of *a*-type perfects (cf. 3.2.1.1.).  
MAP 51 (*MAP 51 in 2000*) is on the presence/absence of vowel harmony in verbal endings of the 3rd person pl. fem. *a*-type perfect.
52. The *i*-type perfect (cf. 2.1.1.2.2. and 3.2.1.1.).  
MAP 52 (*MAP 52 in 2000*) is on the *i*-type perfect of verbs \*CaCiC: 3rd person sg. masc., 3rd person sg. fem. and 1st person sg. com.
53. Vowel harmony in the preformative of the imperfect of verbal measure 1. (cf. 3.2.1.2.) (B-S).  
No MAP 53 in this volume. *MAP 53 in 2000* is on the absence/presence of vowel harmony in the preformative of the *a*-type imperfect:

yaCCaC or yiCCaC. All dialects of central and southern Sinai show such vowel harmony, e.g. *yašrab* “he drinks”.

54. The 3rd p. pl. masc. verbal endings of *a-*, *i-* and *u-*types imperfects (cf. 3.2.1.2.).

MAP 54 (*MAP 54 in 2000*) is on the presence/absence of vowel harmony in verbal endings of the 3rd person pl. masc. endings in *a-*, *i-* and *u-*type imperfect.

55. The 3rd p. pl. fem. verbal endings of *a-*, *i-* and *u-*types imperfects (cf. 3.2.1.2.).

MAP 55 (*MAP 55 in 2000*) is on presence/absence of vowel harmony (i.e. low short vowel *a* or high short vowel *i*) in verbal endings of the 3rd person pl. fem. in *a-*, *i-* and *u-*type imperfect.

56. Imperfect preformative of measure 1 primae *wāw* verbs (cf. 3.2.2.1.) (B-S).

No MAP 56 in this volume. *MAP 56 in 2000* is on the vowel in the imperfect preformative of primae *wāw* measure 1 verbs. This vowel is not *i* (as in e.g. *yiwšal*) in central or southern Sinai dialects, but *a* as in *yawšal*, or (*aw >*) monothongized to *ō* (~ *ū*) as in *yōšal*.

57. Perfect of primae *hamzah* verbs (cf. 3.2.2.3.).

MAP 57 (*MAP 57 in 2000*) shows the (3rd person sg. masc.) perfect forms of primae *hamzah* measure 1 verbs: with or without initial *a-*.

58. Imperfect vowel in primae *hamzah* verbs (cf. 3.2.2.3.).

MAP 58 (*MAP 58 in 2000*) is on the vowel *i* or *u* in the (3rd person sg. masc.) imperfect forms of primae *hamzah* measure 1 verbs.

59. The active participle of primae *hamzah* measure 1 verbs (cf. 3.2.2.3.).  
No MAP 59 in this volume. *MAP 59 in 2000* shows the forms of the active participle of primae *hamzah* measure 1 verbs. In central and southern Sinai these are with initial *mā-*: *mākil*, *māxiḏ*.

60. 3rd p. sg. masc. perfect of the verb “come” (cf. 3.2.2.6.1.).

No MAP 60 in this volume. *MAP 60 in 2000* compares perfect forms of the verb “come”: 3rd person sg. masc., 1st person sg. com., 3rd person pl. masc. and 3rd person pl. fem. In none of the dialects of central and southern Sinai initial *i-* or *ī-* (i.e. *iḡa* or *īḡa* for “he came”) is current.

61. Imperfect of the verb “come”. (cf. 3.2.2.6.1.).

MAP 61 (*MAP 61 in 2000*) gives imperfect forms of the verb “come”: 3rd person sg. masc., 1st person sg. com.: with or without lengthened preformative vowel.

62. Measures *n-1*, *1-t* and (*a*)*sta-1* or (*i*)*sta-1* (cf. 3.2.3.1.1. and 3.2.3.3.1.).

MAP 62 (*MAP 62 in 2000*) is on occurrence of initial *a-* in the preformatives of measures *n-1* and *1-t* perfect and on imperfect.

63. Measure (a)sta-1 or (i)sta-1 perfect and imperfect (cf. 3.2.3.4.1.).  
No MAP 63 in this volume. *MAP 63 in 2000* is on measures (i)sta-1: perfect and imperfect. In all dialects of the central and southern Sinai the patterns (i)staC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, yistaC<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub> with morphologically alternating vowels *a* and *i* are current.
64. Measure ta-2 or (i)t-2 (cf. 3.2.3.5.4.).  
No MAP 64 in this volume. *MAP 64 in 2000* is on measures ta-2 or t-2: perfect and imperfect. In the entire central and southern Sinai reducing the preformative ta- to (i)t- may at times occur, but it is not current.
65. Frequency of use of measure 4 verbs (cf. 3.2.3.7.) (B-S).  
No MAP 65 in this volume. *MAP 65 in 2000* is on presence/ absence of measure 4. In the entire central and southern Sinai an active verbal measure 4 is current.
66. Typical Bedouin verbs of the C<sub>1</sub>awC<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>, yC<sub>1</sub>awC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>-type (cf. 3.2.3.9.) (B-S).  
No MAP 66 in this volume. *MAP 66 in 2000* is on the typically 'Bedouin' verb-type with inserted wāw C<sub>1</sub>ōC<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub> (or C<sub>1</sub>awC<sub>2</sub>aC<sub>3</sub>), yC<sub>1</sub>ōC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub> (or yC<sub>1</sub>awC<sub>2</sub>iC<sub>3</sub>). In the entire central and southern Sinai this verb-type occurs regularly.
67. The sg. fem. active participle + object suffix in construct state (cf. 3.2.1.4.) (B-S).  
No MAP 67 in this volume. *MAP 67 in 2000* is on sg. fem. act. participles followed by an obj. suffix: a construct state results, or does not. In all dialects of central and southern Sinai a construct state will result, e.g. *hī mrīdtah* or *rāyidtah* "she wants him".
68. Negation: single *mā* or compound *ma . . . + š* (cf. 4.2.) (B-S).  
MAP 68 (*MAP 68 in 2000*) is on verbal negation: is *mā* + verb form used, or compound *mā* + verb form + *š*?
69. Use of the *b*-imperfect for the habitual present tense (cf. 4.3.) (B-S).  
No MAP 69 in this volume. *MAP 69 in 2000* is on use of the *b*-imperfect. The *b*-imperfect is current in all dialects of central and southern Sinai.
70. Future particle *ha-* (cf. 4.4.).  
No MAP 70 in this volume. *MAP 70 in 2000* is on use of the future particle. The future particle *ha-* may be heard in all dialects of central and southern Sinai.
71. Use of *yōm(-in)* or *lōm(-in)* "when" (cf. 4.6.) (B-S).  
MAP 71 (*MAP 71 in 2000*) is on the occurrence of *yōm*, *lōm* for the conjunction "when". These forms are regular in all dialects of central and southern Sinai.

72. Marker of consequent action (unconjugated) *gām* (cf. 4.7.1).  
 MAP 72 (*MAP 72 in 2000*) is on the occurrence of *gām* as a “marker of consequent action” for the conjunction “when”. This *gām* is not regular in central or southern Sinai dialects; only in ‘LA it was recorded a few times.
73. Use of *widd* or *bidd* (cf. 4.11.) (B-S).  
 MAP 73 (*MAP 73 in 2000*) is on the use of *widd* or *bidd* to express “want” or “need”.
74. No MAP 74 in this volume. *MAP 74 in 2000* shows the dialect groups identified in northern Sinai. A map showing dialect groups in the entire Sinai is MAP 88 in the appendix of the volume in hand.

b. *Added Criteria for Comparison of Dialects in Central and Southern Sinai*

In addition to comparisons based on the 73 features listed above, a total of 13 features are added here to serve as criteria for comparison to further illustrate differences/similarities in dialects of central and southern Sinai. These features (numbered 75–87) are listed below:

75. Raising of *a* in closed syllable preceding stressed  $\bar{e}$ : *lammēt* > *limmēt*, *sawwēt* > *suwwēt* (new MAP 75 in this volume, cf. 1.2.3.4.3.2., 3.2.3.5.2. and 3.2.2.7.1.).
76. Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed  $\bar{e}$ : *mašēt* > *mišēt* (new MAP 76 in this volume, cf. 1.2.3.4.3.2., 3.2.2.5.1.).
77. Mutual influence of hissing sounds: metathesis in forms like *šāǧ—šāz* and *sīǧih—šīzih* (new MAP 77 in this volume, cf. 2.5.).
78. The pl. masc. personal pronominal “they” (new MAP 78 in this volume, cf. 3.1.12.1.).
79. Negated personal pronominals “not he”, “not she”, “not you (sg. masc.)”, “not I” (new MAP 79 in this volume, cf. 3.1.12.1.).
80. The 2nd p. pl. masc. pronominal suffix (new MAP 80 in this volume, cf. 3.1.12.2.).
81. The pl. com. demonstrative “these” (new MAP 81 in this volume, cf. 3.1.13.1.).
82. Interrogative “when?” (new MAP 82 in this volume, cf. 3.1.14.).
83. Shape of the preposition ‘*ala* “on” with 3rd p. sg. masc. suffix (new MAP 83 in this volume, cf. 3.1.16.).
84. The 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect of mediae geminatae verbs (new MAP 84 in this volume, cf. 3.2.2.4.1.).

85. The sg. masc. imperative of mediae geminatae verbs (new MAP 85 in this volume, cf. 3.2.2.4.2.).
86. The 3rd p. sg. masc. perfect of tertiae *yā'* verbs (new MAP 86 in this volume, cf. 1.2.4.4., 3.2.2.5.1.).
87. The apocopated 2nd p. sg. masc. of tertiae infirmae imperfect (new MAP 87 in this volume, cf. 3.2.2.5.1.).

### III. ISOGLOSSES

#### a. *The Identified Isoglosses in Central and Southern Sinai*

Below follows a list of isoglosses which result from the comparison of dialects based on features treated in the maps in the appendix, which were set as criteria for this comparison. The numbering of the criteria corresponds with the numbering of the MAPS in the appendix. The numbering of the criteria (nrs 1–73) here again corresponds to the numbering used in De Jong 2000:600–601.<sup>9</sup> In addition to these, criteria nrs 75–87 (in MAPS 75–87, see preceding paragraph) illustrate further differences between dialects in the centre and south of Sinai.

In some cases—mainly where new features were set as criteria for comparison within the centre and south of Sinai—the data for the dialects in this comparison were incomplete; the dialects discussed in De Jong 2000, which now border on our more northern dialects discussed here, were not compared before on the basis of the additional criteria introduced for the dialects discussed here.

The totals of differences listed below have been calculated as follows: a partial difference has been counted as half in the total; often parallel forms result from dialect contact, so that one form may be identical to a form heard in a neighbouring dialect, while parallel to this form (in the same meaning) another form was heard, which was not heard in the same neighbouring dialect.

In cases where the comparison was incomplete due to the lack of data in one (or both) of the dialects compared, the uncertain outcome has been counted as half as well. The total numbers of isoglosses were calculated to be drawn into MAP 0 in the appendix.

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<sup>9</sup> N.B. the numbering of the isogloss bundles here does not correspond to the numbering of isogloss bundles in De Jong 2000.

The percentages listed below were however calculated on the basis of a corrected total; uncertain outcomes have been subtracted from the total of the 95 features serving as criteria for comparison. Isogloss bundle number –1– may serve as an example: we count 4 full differences and 5 partial differences. These add up to  $(4 + 2.5 =) 6.5$  differences. We also count seven uncertain differences. From the total of 95 we subtract this 7, which brings the corrected total to 88. We then calculate 6.5 as a percentage of 88:  $(6.5 : 88) * 100 = 7.386364$ . This is rounded off to be 7.4%. This means that 7.4% of a total of 88 features set as criteria for comparison between the two (geographically bordering) dialects yield differences. These percentages were calculated to be used in the ‘step method’ calculation.

N.B.

- \* The absolute numbers of isoglosses drawn into MAP o as bundles cannot be compared to the absolute numbers forming isogloss bundles drawn in MAP o in De Jong 2000, since the two maps illustrate comparisons based on different totals of dialect features set as criteria for comparison.
- \* The numbers between hyphens refer to the numbering of isogloss bundles in MAP o in the appendix (these numbers are not related to the numbering of isogloss bundles in De Jong 2000). The numbers followed by a bracket ) refer to the numbering of the maps in the appendix in De Jong 2000 and in the appendix of this volume (but the maps numbered 75–87 only appear in the volume in hand).

–1– Isogloss bundle nr –1– distinguishes SA from MIA.

4 differences: 23), 39), 48), 87)

7 uncertain differences: 4), 27), 37), 72), 77), 79), 82)

5 partial differences: 14), 45), 46), 47), 78)

Total 10 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 88) 7.4%

–2– Isogloss bundle nr –2– distinguishes MIA from nTA.

2 differences: 16), 58)

11 uncertain differences: 4), 23), 57), 72), 76), 77), 78), 79), 81), 82), 87)

5 partial differences: 14), 40), 45), 46), 47)

Total 10 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 84) 5.4%

–3– Isogloss bundle nr –3– distinguishes nTA from TyA.

5 differences: 21), 48), 52), 58), 83)

9 uncertain differences: 4), 27), 72), 76), 77), 79), 81), 82), 87)

4 partial differences: 14), 15), 23), 86)

Total 11,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 86) 8.1%

–4– Isogloss bundle nr –4– distinguishes ‘AyA from AḥA.

4 differences: 16), 23), 52), 85)

9 uncertain differences: 4), 27), 57), 72), 76), 77), 79), 82), 87)

6 partial differences: 14), 15), 35), 46), 48), 58)

Total 11,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 86) 8.1%

–5– Isogloss bundle nr –5– distinguishes ‘AyA from ḤwA.

7 (minus 1\*) differences: 11), 16), 33), 39), 52), 75), 83)\*

10 uncertain differences: 4), 27), 57), 72), 76), 77), 79), 81), 82), 87)

5 partial differences: 14), 15), 35), 48), 58)

\* The difference is in raising of *a* (‘*alēh* > ‘*ilēh*), which is already covered in MAP 76).

Total 13,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 85) 10%

–6– Isogloss bundle nr –6– distinguishes ḤwA from AḥA.

11 (minus 1\*) differences: 11), 23), 33), 35), 39), 72), 75), 76), 82), 83)\*, 85)

1 uncertain difference: 27)

1 partial difference: 46)

\* The difference is in raising of *a* (‘*alēh* > ‘*ilēh*), which is already covered in MAP 76).

Total 10,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 94) 11.1%

–7– Isogloss bundle nr –7– distinguishes ḤwA from TAṢ.

16 (minus 1\*) differences: 5), 7), 15), 16), 21), 22), 33), 39), 52), 57), 71), 75), 76), 81), 82), 83)\*

0 uncertain differences

1 partial difference: 25)

\* The difference is in raising of *a* (*'alēh* > *'ilēh* in 83)), which is already covered in MAP 76).

Total 15,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 16.3%

–8– Isogloss bundle nr –8– distinguishes TyA from AḥA.

8 differences: 21), 23), 48), 72), 76), 81), 83), 87)

2 uncertain differences: 27), 82)

2 partial differences: 46), 86)

Total 10 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 93) 9.7%

–9– Isogloss bundle nr –9– distinguishes AḥA from DbA.

8 differences: 21), 23), 48), 72), 76), 81), 83), 87)

2 uncertain differences: 27), 82)

2 partial differences: 46), 86)

Total 10 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 93) 9.7%

–10– Isogloss bundle nr –10– distinguishes DbA from TyA.

6 differences: 21), 35), 48), 75), 82), 87)

0 uncertain differences

1 partial difference: 81)

Total 6,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 6.8%

–11– Isogloss bundle nr –11– distinguishes TAŞ from ĞrA.

9 differences: 15), 16), 22), 71), 75), 76), 81), 83), 87)

0 uncertain differences

3 partial differences: 7), 26), 33)

Total 10,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 11%

–12– Isogloss bundle nr –12– distinguishes ĞrA from ḤwA.

8 differences: 5), 21), 39), 52), 57), 82), 83), 87)

0 uncertain differences

3 partial differences: 25), 26), 33)

Total 9,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 10%

–13– Isogloss bundle nr –13– distinguishes TAŞ from 'LA.

37 (minus 2\*) differences: 1), 4), 9), 10), 11), 22), 23), 26), 31), 34), 35), 36), 37), 39), 40), 42), 46), 47)\*, 48), 50), 54), 55), 60), 61), 62), 71), 72), 73), 75), 76), 77), 79), 80), 81), 82), 83)\*, 87)

o uncertain differences

5 partial differences: 7), 8), 14), 45), 58)

\* The difference of the different 3rd p. sg. masc. pron. suffix in 47) and 83) is already covered in MAP 34.

Total 37,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 39.5%

–14– Isogloss bundle nr –14– distinguishes ĞrA from 'LA.

34 (minus 2\*) differences: 1), 4), 7), 9), 10), 11), 15), 16), 23), 31), 34), 35), 36), 37), 39), 40), 42), 46), 47)\*, 48), 50), 54), 55), 60), 61), 62), 72), 73), 77), 79), 80), 81), 82, 83)\*

o uncertain differences

6 partial differences: 8), 14), 26), 33), 45), 58)

\* The difference of the different 3rd p. sg. masc. pron. suffix in 47) and 83) is already covered in MAP 34.

Total 35 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 36.8%

–15– Isogloss bundle nr –15– distinguishes HwA from TyA.

9 differences: 11), 21), 33), 35), 39), 48), 75), 82), 87)

o uncertain differences

2 partial differences: 81), 86)

Total 10 differences; percentage of corrected total 10%

–16– Isogloss bundle nr –16– distinguishes 'LA from HwA.

40 (minus 1\*) differences: 1), 4), 5), 7), 8), 9), 10), 11), 15), 21), 23), 26), 31), 33), 34), 35), 36), 37), 40), 42), 46), 47)\*, 48), 50, 52), 54), 55), 57), 60), 61), 62), 72), 73), 77), 79), 80), 81), 82), 83), 87)

o uncertain differences

6 partial differences: 14), 16), 25), 39), 45), 58)

\* The difference of the different 3rd p. sg. masc. pron. suffix in 47) is already covered in MAP 34.

Total 42 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 44.2%

–17– Isogloss bundle nr –17– distinguishes ẒwA from BdA.

11 (minus 1\*) differences: 21), 26), 33), 39), 75), 76), 81), 82), 83)\*, 85), 87)

0 uncertain differences

2 partial differences: 42), 78)

\* The difference is in raising of *a* (‘*alēh* > ‘*ilēh* in 83)), which is already covered in MAP 76).

Total 11 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 11.6%

–18– Isogloss bundle nr –18– distinguishes BdA from TyA.

8 (minus 1\*) differences: 11), 26), 35), 48), 76), 81), 83)\*, 85)

0 uncertain differences

3 partial differences: 42), 78), 86)

\* The difference is in raising of *a* (‘*alēh* > ‘*ilēh* in 83)), which is already covered in MAP 76).

Total 8,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 8.9%

–19– Isogloss bundle nr –19– distinguishes AḥA from TAN.

10 differences: 5), 11), 21), 22), 23), 35), 48), 72), 81), 85)

1 uncertain difference: 27)

2 partial differences: 42), 78)

Total 11 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 94) 11.7%

–20– Isogloss bundle nr –20– distinguishes ʿLA from BdA.

39 (minus 1\*) differences: 1), 4), 5), 7), 8), 9), 10), 11), 15), 16), 23), 31), 34), 35), 36), 37), 39), 40), 46), 47)\*, 48), 50), 52), 54), 55), 57), 60), 61), 62), 72), 73), 75), 76), 77), 79), 80), 82), 83), 85)

0 uncertain differences

7 partial differences: 14), 25), 42), 45), 58), 78), 81)

\* The difference of the different 3rd p. sg. masc. pron. suffix in 47) is already covered in MAP 34.

Total 41,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 43.7%

–21– Isogloss bundle nr –21– distinguishes TyA from TAN.

8 (minus 1\*) differences: 5), 11), 22), 35), 76), 81), 83)\*, 87)

0 uncertain differences

4 partial differences: 42), 46), 78), 86)

\* The difference is in raising of *a* (*'alēh* > *'ilēh* in 83)), which is already covered in MAP 76).

Total 9 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 9.5%

–22– Isogloss bundle nr –22– distinguishes 'LA from ḤmA.

6 differences: 4), 31), 47), 60), 72), 79)

0 uncertain differences

8 partial differences: 14), 18), 45), 68), 81), 83), 84), 86)

Total 10 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 10.5%

–23– Isogloss bundle nr –23– distinguishes 'LA from ŞwA.

11 differences: 4), 18), 20), 37), 48), 68), 71), 72), 83), 84), 85)

0 uncertain differences

8 partial differences: 7), 14), 25), 50), 54), 58), 79), 81)

Total 15 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 15.8%

–24– Isogloss bundle nr –24– distinguishes BdA from ŞwA.

46 (minus 2<sup>\*1</sup> <sup>\*2</sup>) differences: 1), 4), 5), 7), 8), 9), 10), 11), 14), 15), 16), 18), 20), 23), 25), 31), 34), 35), 36), 37), 39), 40), 46), 47)\*, 48), 50), 52), 54), 55), 57), 58), 60), 61), 62), 68), 71), 73), 75), 76), 77), 79), 80), 82), 83)<sup>\*2</sup>, 84), 85)

0 uncertain differences

3 partial differences: 42), 45), 78)

\*1 The difference of the different 3rd p. sg. masc. pron. suffix in 47) is already covered in MAP 34.

\*2 The difference is in raising of *a* (*'alēh* > *'ilēh* in 83)), which is already covered in MAP 76).

Total 45,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 47.9%

–25– Isogloss bundle nr –25– distinguishes 'LA from GrA.

11 differences: 4), 18), 20), 22), 48), 68), 71), 72), 83), 84), 85)

0 uncertain differences

10 partial differences: 14), 25), 37), 39), 40), 46), 50), 54), 58), 81)

Total 16 differences; percentage of corrected total 16.8%

–26– Isogloss bundle nr –26– distinguishes ŞwA from GrA.

1 difference: 22)

0 uncertain differences

5 partial differences: 7), 39), 40), 46), 79)

Total 3,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 3.7%

–27– Isogloss bundle nr –27– distinguishes ŞwA from MzA.

25 (minus 2\*) differences: 4), 7), 8), 11), 14), 18), 20), 22), 26), 31), 48), 52), 57), 58), 61), 62), 68), 71), 78), 79), 80), 82), 84)\*, 85)\*, 86)

0 uncertain differences

8 partial differences: 16), 25), 27), 28), 29), 42), 46), 81)

\* The difference here is mainly in stress, which is already covered in MAP 14.

Total 27 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 28.4%

–28– Isogloss bundle nr –28– distinguishes MzA from TAN.

35 (minus 3\*<sup>1</sup> \*<sup>2</sup>) differences: 1), 4), 9), 10), 15), 16), 22), 23), 27), 34), 35), 36), 37), 39), 40), 46), 47)\*, 48)\*, 50), 52), 54), 55), 60), 61), 73), 75), 76), 77), 81), 82), 83)\*<sup>2</sup>, 84), 85), 86), 87)

0 uncertain differences

5 partial differences: 25), 28), 29), 45), 78)

\*<sup>1</sup> The difference of the different 3rd p. sg. masc. pron. suffix in 47) and 48) is already covered in MAP 34.

\*<sup>2</sup> The difference is in raising of *a* (*'alēh* > *'ilēh* in 83), which is already covered in MAP 76).

Total 34,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 36.3%

–29– Isogloss bundle nr –29– distinguishes GrA from MzA.

24 (minus 2\*) differences: 4), 7), 8), 11), 14), 18), 20), 26), 31), 48), 52), 57), 58), 61), 62), 68), 71), 78), 79), 80), 82), 84)\*, 85)\*, 86)

0 uncertain differences

9 partial differences: 16), 25), 27), 28), 29), 39), 40), 42), 81)

\* The difference here is mainly in stress, which is already covered in MAP 14.

Total 26,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 27.9%

–30– Isogloss bundle nr –30– distinguishes GrA from ĞbA.

1 difference: 79)

0 uncertain differences

7 partial differences: 29), 31)\*, 39), 40), 61), 82), 85)

\* The difference is in frequency of occurrence of the forms discussed, therefore the difference is here concluded to be partial.

Total 4,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 4.7%

–31– Isogloss bundle nr –31– distinguishes ĞbA from MzA.

21 (minus 2 \*<sup>1</sup> \*<sup>3</sup>) differences: 4), 7), 8), 11), 14), 18), 20), 26), 31)\*<sup>1</sup>, 48), 52), 57), 58), 62), 68), 71), 78), 79), 80), 84)\*<sup>3</sup>, 86)

0 uncertain differences

9 partial differences: 16), 25), 27), 28), 42), 61)\*<sup>2</sup>, 81), 82), 85)\*<sup>2</sup>

\*<sup>1</sup> The difference is in frequency of occurrence of the forms discussed, but the difference is greater than in bundle –30–, therefore the difference is here not concluded to be partial.

\*<sup>2</sup> The difference here is partly in stress, which is already covered in MAP 14.

\*<sup>3</sup> The difference here is mainly in stress, which is already covered in MAP 14.

Total 23,5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 24.7%

–32– Isogloss bundle nr –32– distinguishes BWA from GrA.

27 differences: 4), 7), 8), 11), 14), 18), 20), 22), 26), 37), 39), 40), 46), 48), 52), 57), 58), 61), 62), 68), 71), 78), 80), 83), 84), 85), 86)

0 uncertain differences

10 partial differences: 10), 25), 29), 31)\*<sup>1</sup>, 42), 73), 75), 77), 79)\*<sup>2</sup>, 81), 82)

\*<sup>1</sup> The difference is in frequency of occurrence of the forms discussed, therefore the difference is here concluded to be partial.

\*<sup>2</sup> The difference is only in the negated 2nd p. sg. masc. pronominal, therefore a partial difference is concluded.

Total 32 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 33.7%

–33– Isogloss bundle nr –33– distinguishes BWA from ĞbA.

27 differences: 4), 7), 8), 11), 14), 18), 20), 22), 26), 31)\*, 37), 46), 48), 52), 57), 58), 61), 62), 68), 71), 78), 80), 82), 83), 84), 85), 86)

0 uncertain differences

12 partial differences: 10), 25), 39), 40), 42), 49), 73), 75), 77), 79), 80), 81)

\* The difference is in frequency of occurrence of the forms discussed, the difference is here concluded to be not partial, (contrast remark \* below in -34-).

Total 33 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 34.7%

-34- Isogloss bundle nr -34- distinguishes ASA from BwA.

26 differences: 4), 7), 8), 11), 14), 18), 20), 22), 26), 37), 46), 48), 52), 57), 61), 62), 63), 71), 78), 79), 80), 82), 83), 84), 85), 86)

0 uncertain differences

11 partial differences: 10), 25), 31)\*, 39), 40), 42), 58), 73), 75), 77), 81)

\* The difference is in frequency of occurrence of the forms discussed, therefore the difference is here concluded to be partial.

Total 31.5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 33.2%

-35- Isogloss bundle nr -35- distinguishes ASA and ĞbA.

1 difference: 22)

0 uncertain differences

7 partial differences: 31)\*, 46), 58), 61), 79), 82), 85)

\* The difference is in frequency of occurrence of the forms discussed, therefore the difference is here concluded to be partial.

Total 4.5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 4.7%

-36- Isogloss bundle nr -36- distinguishes ASA from HnA.

2 differences: 21), 48)

0 uncertain differences

3 partial differences: 45), 58), 71)

Total 3.5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 3.7%

-37- Isogloss bundle nr -37- distinguishes ASA from MzA.

23 (minus 3\*\*2) differences: 4), 7), 8), 11), 14), 18), 20), 22), 26), 48), 52), 57), 61)\*\*2, 62), 68), 71), 78), 79), 80), 82), 84)\*\*2, 85)\*\*2, 86)

0 uncertain differences

10 partial differences: 16), 25), 27), 28), 31)\*<sup>1</sup>, 42), 45), 46), 58), 81

\*<sup>1</sup> The difference is in frequency of occurrence of the forms discussed, therefore the difference is here concluded to be partial.

\*<sup>2</sup> The difference here is in stress, which is already covered in MAP 14.

Total 25 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 26.3%

–38– Isogloss bundle nr –38– distinguishes ḤmA from ṢwA.

7 differences: 20), 47), 48), 60), 71), 81), 85)

0 uncertain differences

13 partial differences: 7), 18), 25), 31)\*, 37), 50), 54), 58), 68), 79), 83), 84), 86)

\* The difference is in frequency of occurrence of the forms discussed, therefore the difference is here concluded to be partial.

Total 13.5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 14.2%

Finally, to have an idea of the typological distance between the dialects of the Mzēnah and the Baniy Wāṣil,<sup>10</sup> we compare these dialects on the basis of the same criteria:

–39– Isogloss bundle nr –39– is ‘virtual’ and distinguishes BWA from MzA.

9 differences: 37), 39), 40), 46), 79), 82), 83), 84), 85)

0 uncertain differences

9 partial differences: 10), 16), 22), 27), 28), 73), 75), 77), 81)

Total 13.5 differences; percentage of corrected total (= 95) 14.2%

b. *The Step Method to Calculate Relative Typological Distances between Dialects*

The comparisons are made using a total of 95 criteria (73 in maps in De Jong 2000, criteria A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, and I (see De Jong 2000:37–38)

<sup>10</sup> Since the Awlād Sa‘īd (who live more inland in the high mountains towards the east than indicated on the map, see fn 1, p. 115) are not physically located between the two dīrahs of the Mzēnah and Baniy Wāṣil, the dīrahs of the latter two tribes in actual fact border on each other.

and 13 criteria represented by maps 75–87 added in the appendix of this volume):

Score card:

Below the isogloss bundles between dialects have been ranked from low to high.

isogloss bundle number	between dialects	of groups	number of isoglosses of total incl uncertain	subtract from 95 for uncertain	percentage of corrected total
-36-	(ASA-HnA)	VII-VII	3.5	(3.5/95)	3.7%
-26-	(ŞwA-GrA)	VII-VII	3.5	(3.5/95)	3.7%
-35-	(ASA-ĠbA)	VII-VII	4.5	(4.5/95)	4.7%
-30-	(GrA-ĠbA)	VII-VII	4.5	(4.5/95)	4.7%
-2-	(MlA-nTA)	I-I	10	11 (4.5/84)	5.4%
-10-	(DbA-TyA)	I-I	6.5	(6.5/95)	6.8%
-1-	(SA-MlA)	I-I	10	7 (6.5/88)	7.4%
-4-	( <sup>ˈ</sup> AyA-AḥA)	I-I	11.5	9 (7/86)	8.1%
-3-	(nTA-TyA)	I-I	13.5	9 (8/86)	8.1%
-18-	(BdA-TyA)	I-I	8.5	(8.5/95)	8.9%
-21-	(TyA-TAN)	I-I	9	(9/95)	9.5%
-8-	(TyA-AḥA)	I-I	10	2 (9/93)	9.7%
-9-	(AḥA-DbA)	I-I	10	3 (9/93)	9.7%
-5-	( <sup>ˈ</sup> AyA-ḤwA)	I-I	13.5	10 (8.5/85)	10%
-12-	(ĠrA-ḤwA)	I-I	9.5	(9.5/95)	10%
-22-	( <sup>ˈ</sup> LA-ḤmA)	VIII-VII	10	(10/95)	10.5%
-15-	(ḤwA-TyA)	I-I	10	(10/95)	10.5%
-11-	(TAŞ-ĠrA)	I-I	10.5	(10.5/95)	11%
-6-	(ḤwA-AḥA)	I-I	10.5	1 (10.5/94)	11.1%
-17-	(ḤwA-BdA)	I-I	11	(11/95)	11.6%
-19-	(AḥA-TAN)	I-I	11	1 (11/94)	11.7%
-39*	(BwA-MzA)	VI-VI	13.5	(13.5/95)	14.2%
-38-	(ḤmA-ŞwA)	VII-VII	13.5	(13.5/95)	14.2%
-23-	( <sup>ˈ</sup> LA-ŞwA)	VIII-VII	15	(15/95)	15.8%
-7-	(ḤwA-TAŞ)	I-I	15.5	(15.5/95)	16.3%
-25-	( <sup>ˈ</sup> LA-GrA)	VIII-VII	16	(16/95)	16.8%
-31-	(ĠbA-MzA)	VII-VI	23.5	(23.5/95)	24.7%
-37-	(MzA-ASA)	VI-VII	25	(25/95)	26.3%
-29-	(GrA-MzA)	VII-VI	26.5	(26.5/95)	27.9%
-27-	(ŞwA-MzA)	VII-VI	27	(27/95)	28.4%

Table (*cont.*)

isogloss bundle number	between dialects	of groups	number of isoglosses of total incl uncertain	subtract from 95 for uncertain	percentage of corrected total
-34-	(ASA-BWA)	VII-VI	31.5	(31.5/95)	33.2%
-32-	(BWA-GrA)	VI-VII	32	(32/95)	33.7%
-33-	(BWA-ĠbA)	VI-VII	33	(32/95)	34.7%
-28-	(MzA-TAN)	VI-I	34.5	(34.5/95)	36.3%
-14-	(ĠrA-LA)	I-VIII	35	(35/95)	36.8%
-13-	(TAS-LA)	I-VIII	37.5	(37.5/95)	39.5%
-20-	(LA-BdA)	VIII-I	41.5	(41.5/95)	43.7%
-16-	(LA-ḤwA)	VIII-I	42	(42/95)	44.2%
-24-	(BdA-ṢwA)	I-VII	45.5	(45.5/95)	47.9%

\* isogloss bundle -39- is 'virtual' in the map (but 'real' on the ground), see remarks above and in fn 1, p. 115.

Our figured calculations using the step method show a few results that do not appear to be in concord with earlier results in De Jong 2000: the subdivision into groups is not as clear-cut here in terms of percentages as it was in De Jong 2000. The reason appears to be that in De Jong 2000 we were looking at dialects that form a geographical continuum, which makes the comparison between the groups largely uni-directional (i.e. east-west or west-east, depending on preference).

Our dialects in the centre and south of Sinai do not form a comparable continuum, which makes the comparison between more than two groups (I, VI, VII and VIII) multi-directional. Such a garbled picture is also the result of a comparison between dialects of tribes that—even within certain identified groups—have arrived at different times and have over these different periods of time influenced each other to a lesser or greater degree. In addition, the comparison is between dialects of tribes, who can vary greatly with regard to numbers of members.

To give an example: the tribe Ḥamāḍah is considerably smaller (in terms of numbers of members) than the neighbouring tribes of Lēgāt and Ṣawālḥah. ḤmA still shows a number of features which are reminiscent of the group I-type, and presumably this dialect type is much nearer to the original ḤmA-type than the group to which it has now been assigned (i.e. group VII).

The reason to assign ḤmA to group VII is that ḤmA can be concluded to be developing into the direction of this group; ‘originally’ group I features are being replaced by group VII features, as is to be concluded from the variation that occurs. For this reason, ḤmA and ‘LA have been assigned to different groups, even though the MDS plots and the step method both show relative typological proximity. The choice to isolate ‘LA as a group by itself is thus partly subjectively inspired, and it is not being fully illustrated by the quantifying methods applied here. The only exception is the dendrogram (see p. 375 in the appendix), where ‘LA is clearly branched separately, although inside group VI, for instance, the two dialects assigned to the same group (MzA and BWA) branch at exactly the same height. The subjective argument for the decision to nevertheless assign ‘LA to a separate group is in the type of characteristics that distinguish ‘LA from ḤmA (see next paragraph). In any case, ḤmA is not a proto-typical representative of group VII.<sup>11</sup>

c. *A Continuum: From Group VII Through Group VIII Towards Group I*

One may conclude a continuum (albeit on a much smaller scale than the situation on the northern littoral), which is best illustrated in the Alscal (Euclidean Binary, see p. 374) MDS plot: from the typically southern dialect type of group VII (ḤmA is here excluded from VII for not being proto-typical, see remark in the preceding paragraph), the continuum moves through ḤmA, via ‘LA to group I, for although there is always the question of relative ‘typological weight’, some differences in features set as criteria in a comparison tend to be more illustrative than differences found in other features, especially when seen in combination with features present in other groups. One could say that in this sense, although ‘LA and ḤmA show relatively few differences, in cases where they do, ‘LA tends to ‘lean towards’ group I, while ḤmA tends to ‘lean towards’ group VII.

To give an example: in 2.1.1.2.1. some imperative forms present in ṬwA and ‘LA are cited. We see here that ‘LA leans towards group I with its imperative forms *kuḷ*, *gūḷ*, *gūm*, *šīl* and *nām* (without a stressed initial vowel), whereas ṬwA dialects generally do show such vowels, e.g. (ṬwA) *úkuḷ* “eat!”, *úgum* “stand up!”, *íšīl* “carry!” and *ánam* “go to sleep!”.

<sup>11</sup> To cite a parallel with biology: if we were to discuss ‘birds’ in general, we would probably choose to be talking about proto-typical examples like a sparrow, a robin or a canary, rather than an ostridge or a penguin, see Aitchison 1987:51–62.

Another example is the difference between velarization in the pl. forms of *kib̄ir* and *kiṭ̄ir* (*kb̄ār* and *kt̄ār* in 'LA), but lack of velarization in both forms in ṬwA (*kb̄ār* and *kt̄ār*), and 'LA thus takes up an intermediate position between groups VII and I (the latter having *kb̄ār* and *kt̄ār*).

Another illustration of 'LA occupying such an intermediate position between groups VII and I is placement of stress in CvCvC (see 3.2.2.4.1. and 3.2.2.4.2.). Group I dialects surrounding 'LA all have CaCáC or CiCiC, while group VII will stress CáCaC and CíCiC, but in 'LA both possibilities exist as parallel options. This shows that the situation in ḤmA is in these respects more in conformity with the situation in (other) group VII dialects, than it is with the situation in 'LA, or even group I for that matter. The situation in 'LA would then be an indication of influences from surrounding group I dialects, if it is not an original feature of 'LA itself.

There is also the example of a stressable article in the sequence aCaCaC (see 2.1.1.): in 'LA, like in group I, áCaCaC is the rule, whereas in group VII (excluding ḤmA) iCáCaC is regular. ḤmA takes up an intermediate position here, allowing both possibilities as parallel options.

If we combine stressability of the vowel of the article with stress in the perfect on the initial vowel of the *n-1* and *1-t* measures of verbs (see 1.2.3.4.3.2., 3.2.3.1.1. and 3.2.3.3.1.), we see that group I will stress both (e.g. *álbaṣal* and *ánwákal*), group VII will stress neither (in group VII *ilbáṣal* and *inwákal*), while 'LA will stress the article, but not the initial vowel in preformatives of the perfect of *n-1* or *1-t* measures (*álbaṣal*, but *inwákal* and *ittáfag*).

In the negation of verb forms (see 4.2.), we see that 'LA uses the single *mā* + verb form, which is like the situation in group I. ṬwA dialects other than ḤmA will use compound *mā* / *ma* + verb form + *-š(i)*. ḤmA in this case takes up the intermediate position allowing both possibilities as parallel options (without any apparent differences in meaning, such as is the case in some dialects where the single negation with *mā* is used when extra emphasis is intended).

Finally, both 'LA and ḤmA take up an intermediate position between groups VII and I in the allomorphs of the 2nd p. sg. fem. pronominal suffix (see 3.1.12.2.); where group I has invariable *-kiy* and group VII has *v̄-k*, *vC-k* or *CC-ik*, both 'LA and ḤmA have *-ik* when not directly preceded by *v̄*, but *-kiy* when *v̄* directly precedes (i.e. a situation comparable to the allomorphs current in Cairene Arabic, where we have similarly conditioned appearance of allomorphs *-ik* and *-ki*).<sup>12</sup>

<sup>12</sup> Cf. Woidich 2006:40.

Although both 'LA and ḤmA seem to take up an intermediate position between group VII and group I, I have chosen to group 'LA separately as group VIII, because the 2-dimensional MDS plots clearly position it between groups VII and I, while ḤmA is plotted considerably nearer to other group VII dialects, and is thus concluded to be more part of group VII than of group VIII. The dendrogram in the appendix illustrates the same.

In a similar manner the dialect of Baniy Wāṣil has been developing from a presumed 'originally'<sup>13</sup> group I-type towards the dialect-type of the Mzēnah. The assumption of BwA originally being a group I type of dialect appears to be supported by BWA's position on the Alscal Euclidean Binary MDS plot (see p. 374); of all dialects of groups VI, VII and VIII (spoken in the south of Sinai) BWA is located nearest to group I.

If we compare the results of the step method with the multi-dimensional scaling (MDS-) plots produced by Proxscal and Alscal in SPSS we see that these MDS plots provide a better overall picture of the total area.

#### d. *Multi-Dimensional Scaling*

In some cases 'virtual isoglosses' were introduced in the 'step method' to show relative typological distance between dialects that do not geographically directly border on each other—or only seemingly so, as is the case with MzA and BWA.

Since the Proxscal and Alscal programmes (a matrix in the SPSS used for the MDS method) compare all dialects on the basis of the same criteria, all such relative typological distances—also of dialects that do not border on each other and may geographically even be far removed from each other—will receive a graphic representation in the MDS plot generated (see figure 3 in the appendix for the colour version of this plot).

The advantage of this MDS approach over the step method is that relative proximity/distance of every dialect in relation to every other dialect in a larger geographical area is calculated, which is then represented in a plot. Especially in societies with collectives of individuals who are, or were until recently, inherently spatially dynamic (such as a society with (semi-) nomadic tribes), relative typological proximity of dialects that do not geographically directly border on each other is potentially more

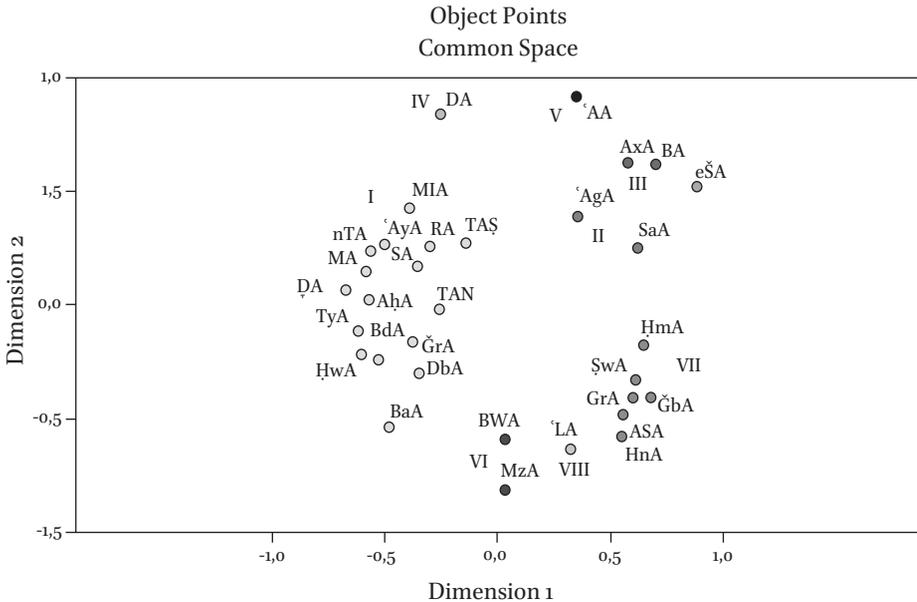
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<sup>13</sup> As I was told by several speakers of surrounding dialects. This is also supported by features (which are also present as parallel to other features in the dialect) still present in BWA. For features that BWA (but not MzA) has in common with group I, see the list in Conclusions, III. g. below. See also remark in fn 5, p. 117 in this volume.

revealing than the same method being applied in inherently spatially static societies (such as is often the case with centuries old villages/towns, rural communities etc. in a more typically non-nomadic context, like for instance in Europe).

In nomadic societies—much more so than in a European context—social collectives like (even if they are only semi-nomadic) tribes travel around, and since much of dialect change originates from contact with speakers of other dialects, influences of dialects of speakers, that today geographically border on these collectives, may have been effective and thus mask an older version of the dialect of that same collective. However, proper interpretation of existing variation may provide insight into earlier stages of such a dialect, at least during the stages in which variation exists, and even after focussing has resulted in the disappearance of parallel forms, interdialect forms may provide such clues.<sup>14</sup>

An example to cite here is the parallel existence of *-ʔk* and *-ak* pronominal suffixes for the 2nd p. sg. masc. in the dialect of older speakers of group II in the north.<sup>15</sup> If we can take the older speaker's word for it—and



Proxscal—Euclidian Binary MDS plot of dialects of Sinai

<sup>14</sup> See Trudgill 1983:chapter 5 and also Woidich 1997.

<sup>15</sup> See De Jong 2000:288.

I saw no reason to doubt him—the Samā‘nah lived in the area of at-Ṭūr until the turn of the 19th–20th century. Since dialects there all have -<sup>u</sup>ḳ, a logical assumption would be that SaA too had -<sup>u</sup>ḳ at the time they moved to the Gatyah oasis in the north. There they came into contact with speakers of Axrasiy (AxA) and Biyyāḍiy (BA), which resulted in the -ak suffix being introduced to speakers of SaA.<sup>16</sup> The velarization present in the form -<sup>u</sup>ḳ was then transferred onto the k of the -ak suffix, resulting in the ‘inter-dialect’ form -aḳ. When both -<sup>u</sup>ḳ and -aḳ were used as parallel forms, “focussing” took place which produced -aḳ as the preferred form, while -<sup>u</sup>ḳ is (was?) only being used by older men<sup>17</sup> and may thus be expected to eventually result in the disappearance of the latter form.

e. ‘Bedouinness’ vs ‘Sedentariness’

In De Jong 2000:37–47 a total of 41 features are listed as criteria to establish relative ‘bedouinness’ or ‘sedentariness’ of dialects. These features are marked as ‘B-S criteria’ (these are also marked as such in the list in ‘Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai’ above). These B-S criteria are listed here with comments on the score of the three typological groups (VI, VII and VIII) discussed in the volume in hand (the numbering used is in reference to the list in De Jong 2000) (For B-S features used as criteria for comparison numbered from A) to L), see “II.a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai” above):

2. All four groups (I, VI, VII and VIII) show interdental reflexes  $\underline{t}$  for \* $\underline{t}$  and  $\underline{d}$  for \* $\underline{d}$ .  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
3. All four groups (I, VI, VII and VIII) show emphatic interdental  $\underline{d}$  for merged \* $\underline{d}$  and \* $\underline{d}$ .  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
4. Secondary velarization: group I dialects in the centre (like in other group I dialects) show velarization in both  $kb\bar{a}r$  and  $kt\bar{a}r$ , groups VI and VIII only have velarization in  $kb\bar{a}r$ , but not in  $kt\bar{a}r$ , and group VII lacks velarization in both forms:  $kb\bar{a}r$  and  $kt\bar{a}r$ .

<sup>16</sup> In some schools in the Gatyah oasis children from different tribes mix.

<sup>17</sup> And perhaps also by women, but there are no recordings of women speakers of this tribe to verify this.

- Score group I: 1; group VI: 0.5; group VII: 0; and group VIII: 0.5.
6. All dialects have a tendency to retain length of long vowels in unstressed positions.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
  7. In all groups *a* in open syllable preceding A (stressed *a* or *ā*) is raised.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
  9. In group I dialects extreme raising of final *\*-ā*(<sup>ʔ</sup>) in neutral surroundings is current. In groups VI, VII and VIII final *\*-ā* is raised in a similar manner, but final *-ā*<sup>ʔ</sup> tends to be reflected as *-i*<sup>ʔ</sup>.  
Group I scores 1, groups VI, VII and VIII score 0.5.
  17. None of the dialects in the centre and south of Sinai show resyllabication of CaCaCv sequences.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 0.
  18. In groups I and VI the definite article and preformatives of verbal measures *n-1* and *1-t* are stressable units (e.g. *álwalad*, *ánḏarab*, *áttafag*). In group VII the article is not stressed (e.g. *ilwálad*), although in ḤmA both stress-types are used (e.g. *álwalad* ~ *ilwálad*). In group VIII the article is also a stressable unit (e.g. *álwalad*).  
Preformatives of the perfect forms of measures *n-1* and *1-t* are not stressed in groups VII and VIII (e.g. *inḏárab*, *ittáfag*).  
Group I scores 1; group VI scores 1; group VII scores 0 (but ḤmA scores 0.25); group VIII scores 0.5.
  19. All dialects have an active gahawah-syndrome.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
  20. Presence of initial CC in a limited number of morphological patterns: all dialects have initial CC in CCv... (e.g. *ḥmār*, *ṣḡūr*). Groups I, VI, VIII and also ḤmA and (part of) ĞbA of group VII have initial CC in CCv... (e.g. *ʔnab* “grapes”, *ḡrab* “watersacks”). Other group VII dialects have however morphologically resolved the initial cluster in this pattern with an initial vowel (e.g. *áʔnab*, *áḡrab*).  
Groups I, VI, VIII and ḤmA and ĞbA of VII score 1. Other dialects of group VII score 0.5.
  25. The initial vowel in the definite article and the relative pronoun: *a* in group I (*al-* and *alliy*). In group VI and ḤmA of group VII *al-* ~ *il-* and *illiy*. In group VII *il-* and *illiy*. In group VIII *il-* ~ *al-* and *alliy*.  
Group I scores 1. Group VI and ḤmA score 0.5, Group VII scores 0. Group VIII scores 0.5.
  30. All dialects have gender distinction in the 2nd and 3rd p. pl. of personal pronouns, adjectives and verbs.

- All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
34. Shape of the personal pronominal suffix for the third p. sg. masc.: *-ah* or *-ih* in group I. Groups VI, VII and VIII all have *-u(h)*.  
Group I scores 1. Groups VI, VII and VIII score 0.
39. Emphatization of *ḍ* in demonstratives *hād+*, if not followed by *i*.  
Group I has *hāḍa* ~ *hāḍa* (with the exception of ḤwA, where only *hāḍa* was heard). In groups VI, VII and VIII such velarization of *ḍ* in this position is absent.  
Group I scores 1. ḤwA, groups VI, VII and VIII score 0.
41. Gender distinction in pl. demonstratives: dialects in central and southern Sinai use pl. com. forms for pl. masc. and fem. (in MzA a pl. form used for the fem. was recorded, but the com. form was more current).  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 0, except MzA, which scores 0.5.
42. All dialects of group I have a short vowel in the interrogative *min* “who?”. Groups VI, VII and VIII have a long vowel in *mīn*.  
Group I scores 1. Other dialects in central and southern Sinai score 0.
43. Initial consonant in the interrogative for “where?": all dialects of central and southern Sinai have initial *w* in *wēn*.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
44. Interrogative for “how”: all dialects have *kēf* or *kīf*.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
45. Adverb for “there”: group I has *hnuh*. Group VI has *hnuh* ~ *hnōṭiy* or *hnūtīy*, groups VII and VIII have *hnōṭiy* or *hnūtīy*. In all dialects the occasional K-form *hnāk* can be heard.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.<sup>18</sup>
46. Adverb for “here”: group I and BWA have *hniy* (or *hniyyih*, and in the central eastern Sinai *hniyyān(iy)*), groups VII and VIII and MzA have *nihā(i')* ~ *nihāniy*. In all dialects the K-form *hina* (often in its adapted shape as *hinih* or *hiniy*).  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.<sup>19</sup>
47. Preposition *l* + vowel-initial suffix: group I has *lah* or *lih*. Groups VI, VII and VIII have *luh*.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1 (see remarks on the suffixes *-uh* or *-ah* / *-ih* below).

<sup>18</sup> Since the true ‘sedentary’ form (i.e. a form used in the Nile Delta and Cairo) is *h(i)nāk*, I regard *hnōṭiy* or *hnūtīy* as ‘Bedouin’ in this context.

<sup>19</sup> Since the true ‘sedentary’ form (i.e. a form used in the Nile Delta and Cairo) is *hina*, I regard *nihā(i')* or *nihāniy* as ‘Bedouin’ in this context.

53. Vowel harmony in the imperfect prefix of verbal measure 1: *yašrab*, *yiktib*, *yugʻud*. All dialects in central and southern Sinai show such harmonized vowels.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
56. Imperfect of primae *wāw* verbs: none of the Bedouin dialects of central and southern Sinai have a morphologically patterned diphthong *iw*. Forms are more typically *yawṣal* or *yōṣal* “he arrives”, and sometimes the *wāw* is dropped from the stem, like in *talid* “she gives birth”.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
65. Use of measure 4 verbs: all dialects use measure 4 verbs relatively frequently.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
66. Typical “Bedouin” verb-type with inserted *wāw*, e.g. *sōlaf*, *ysōlif* “tell”. In all dialects of central and southern Sinai this verb-type is current.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
67. The sg. fem. active participle + object suffix: in all dialects of central and southern Sinai a construct state is current.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
68. Shape of the verbal negation: *mā* + verb or *ma* + verb + *š(i)*. Group I, ‘LA (group VIII) and BWA (of group VI) use the singular negation (*mā* + verb form) almost exclusively. MzA (of group VI) uses both types of negation, and in group VII the compound negation is current (*ma* + verb + *-š*).  
Groups I, VIII (‘LA) and BWA (of group VI) score 1. MzA (of group VI) scores 0.5. Group VII scores 0.
69. The *b*-imperfect: in all dialects of central and southern Sinai the *b*-imperfect is current.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 0.
71. Use of *yōm(in)* or *lōm(in)* for “when”. In all dialects *yōm(in)* or *lōm(in)* is current.  
All dialects in central and southern Sinai score 1.
73. Use of *widd* or *bidd* to express “want; need”: group I uses *widd*. BWA (of group VI) and ḤmA (of group VII) use both. The other dialects of group VII, group VIII and MzA (of group VI) use *bidd*.  
Group I scores 1. BWA (of group VI) and ḤmA (of group VII) score 0.5. MzA, dialects of group VII (except ḤmA) and group VIII (‘LA) score 0.

When we count the ‘Bedouin’ features of dialects of the 30 listed here by adding up the ‘scores’ in the list above, we see the following in the totals:

Group I scores highest<sup>20</sup> with almost all dialects having 27 features as 'Bedouin'. Dialects of group VII score 18.5, except the dialect of the Ḥamāḍah, which scores 19.75 'Bedouin' features. The dialect of the 'Lēgāt (group VIII) scores 21 'Bedouin' features.

Although the dialects of groups VI, VII and VIII score less on Bedouin features (for the Negev dialect) than the group I dialects, if we compare the scores of VI, VII and VIII to scores of the dialects of the Biyyāḍiyyah and Axārsah in the north, we see that the dialects of groups VI, VII and VIII in the south still score considerably higher on Bedouin features than BA (scoring 8) and AxA (scoring 9).<sup>21</sup>

In reference to criteria listed above in 'Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai', the following remarks must be taken into account:

There may be reasons that certain typological differences between dialects in the central and southern area of Sinai are indeed also to be interpreted as forming part of a greater 'development' of dialects away from the Bedouin type towards a more sedentary type, but in this central and southern area of Sinai a direct and explicit geographical dimension—like the east-west dimension reflecting the 'Bedouin—less Bedouin' dimension in the north of Sinai<sup>22</sup>—is lacking. If certain differences are to be attributed at all to dialect contact of 'Bedouin' dialects with the more sedentary type, we would need to know more first of all about the dialects of related (sub-) groups of tribes in other areas such as the related tribal collectives (in many cases with identical names) in present-day Saudi Arabia or Jordan.

Secondly, we would need more historical data on the movement of tribes, or smaller collectives such as families, should we wish to measure with some acceptable accuracy the as yet unquantified influence on Bedouin dialects of speakers of sedentary dialects. To give an example: one

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<sup>20</sup> This is not surprising, since the list was compiled to specifically illustrate the relative 'Bedouinness' of dialects in the north of Sinai as compared to the dialect of the Ḍullām in the Negev, which all belong to the same group I.

<sup>21</sup> BA and AxA are cited here as the clearest examples inside Sinai of Bedouin dialects which have acquired sedentary features through influence of dialect contact with sedentary dialects of the Nile Delta, see De Jong 2000:622–627. The numbers 7 and 8 cited here are the result of a count not made in De Jong 2000, but made here for the purpose of comparing groups VI, VII and VIII to group III in the north. Data on BA and AxA are in De Jong 2000:Chapter III.

<sup>22</sup> See remarks on this east-west dimension in the north of Sinai in De Jong 2000:622–627.

could assume the personal pronominal suffix of the 3rd p. sg. masc. *-ah* or *-ih* to be representative of the ‘Bedouin’ type, and thus conclude the *-uh* suffix (like that recorded in the dialect of the Mzēnah of Sinai) to be more ‘sedentary’ (because it is identical with the *-u* pronominal suffix found in the Nile Delta), but at the same time we do know that in many Bedouin dialects of the Arabian Peninsula—where influence of sedentary dialects, in any case of those spoken in the Nile Delta or Cairo, is highly unlikely—the suffix *-u(h)* is current.<sup>23</sup> In other words, if we do not know the ‘original’ form in dialects of related tribal collectives (like the Mzēnah in Saudi Arabia), a conclusion of sedentary influences being responsible for a change *-ah* > *-uh* would be premature;<sup>24</sup> dialects of groups VII and VIII could have come from the Egyptian mainland with the pron. suffix *-u(h)* already in place, but they may also have settled in Sinai while (still) using *-ah* or *-ih*, while only at a later stage copying the *-uh* suffix from the Mzēnah. On the other hand, a development mirroring this hypothetical development could have also taken place, i.e. the Mzēnah may have arrived in Sinai as *-ah* ~ *-ih* speakers, and only later copied the *-u(h)* from the other southern tribes.

Another example of a more typically ‘sedentary’ characteristic would be the absence of initial consonant clusters,<sup>25</sup> such as in examples in ṬwA (except part of ĠbA) *īšti* ‘winter; rain’, *áḡrab* ‘watersacks’ (which in group I are more typically *štīy* and *ḡrab*, see paragraphs 2.3.5. in the descriptive chapters). Although such stressed ‘original’ anaptyctics may

<sup>23</sup> It is not possible to decide here which form is more ‘Bedouin’ than the other. See, for instance, Prochazka 1988:126, where *-u(h)*, *-ah* and *-ih* (and also other forms) are listed as occurring in the various dialects of Saudi Arabia.

<sup>24</sup> A suggestion once made to me that the speech of Egyptians among the Ġbāliyyah who were sent in the sixth century by emperor Justinian I to serve and protect St. Catherine’s Monastery together with the Wallachians would have had a ‘sedentary’ influence on the speech of tribes in Sinai at that time must be dismissed as an anachronism; having been sent to Sinai before Islam, it is highly unlikely that these Delta Egyptians came there as speakers of Arabic, let alone the Wallachians.

<sup>25</sup> See De Jong 2000:41 (criterion 20: presence of initial CCV in limited morphological patterns). To decide whether initial clusters are tolerated in patterns like CCūC or CCāC, one can add the definite article to such patterns in which the first C is a ‘sunletter’. If assimilation takes place, as in e.g. *al + ṣḡūr* > *aṣṣḡūr* ‘the falcons’ and *al + trāb* > *attrāb* ‘the dust’, one may conclude that initial CC in such morphophonemic patterns is tolerated. Similarly in a pattern CCaC like *al + ṣwar* > *aṣṣwar* ‘the pictures’. If, on the other hand, no assimilation takes place, but an anaptyctic vowel separates the article and the first C, like in e.g. *(i)liṣḡūr*, *(i)liṣrāb* and *(i)liṣwar*, we have to conclude morphophonemic base patterns |iCCūC|, |iCCāC| and |iCCaC|. In the latter pattern the preceding (originally anaptyctic) *i* is then usually stressed on the vowel of the newly available heavy sequence, as in *iṣwar*, or with harmonized vowel *áṣwar* ‘pictures’.

have been the result of dialect contact with sedentary dialects, in the case of Ṭuwara dialects it is very well possible that the development of incorporating anaptyctic vowels into the morphophonemic base (whereby they became stressable) is one that took place independently, if not altogether imported from other dialects from the Arabian Peninsula with which the tribes arrived in Sinai. In any case, in view of the lack of availability of historical data, we cannot definitively draw the conclusion that this feature is due to dialect contact with 'sedentary' dialects.<sup>26</sup>

One clear indication that the influence of sedentary dialects has been weaker at least than in the north, is the fact that dialects in central and southern Sinai without exception (still) have the full set of interdentals (*ṭ*, *ḍ* and *ɖ̣*) in their phoneme inventories. We have seen that in the north the dialect of the Biyyāḏiyyah has lost 'neutral' interdentals *ṭ*, *ḍ*, and that the dialect of the Axārsah (both of group III) is in a process of losing *ṭ* and *ḍ*, both dialects replacing these interdentals with stops *t* and *d*.<sup>27</sup> Such a development has not taken place in central and southern Sinai, and this fact is one of the most telling ones illustrating that dialect contact of sedentary dialects with Bedouin dialects of groups VI, VII and VIII must have been less intense than the dialect contact between sedentary dialects and the dialects of group III in the north, of which many sedentary features are attributable to contact with Delta dialects such as that spoken in the eastern Šarqiyya.

On the other hand, since G.W. Murray 1935 reports that the 'Lēgāt and Šawālḥah lived in the Šarqiyyah before they moved to Sinai almost seven centuries ago (see quote in Introduction, I. d., remark \*5), there is a chance that these tribes introduced sedentary features into the area, which were later through dialect contact copied into the dialects of other tribes already present in the area, or who arrived at a later time. Conversely, in this scenario, and with reference to a certain number of Bedouin features now present in the dialects of the Šawālḥah and 'Lēgāt, one could perhaps speak of re-bedouinization of these dialects; Bedouin features would then have been (re-)introduced into ŠwA and 'LA as a result of contact with speakers of Bedouin dialects. This hypothesis can however only be

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<sup>26</sup> One could perhaps imagine 'sedentary' influence from speakers (of various dialects) of (mainland) Egyptian dialects in the town of aṭ-Ṭūr, but then still we would need more data on the intensity of contact between these townspeople and Bedouin tribes in the area, and also on the dialect-type(s) spoken in aṭ-Ṭūr if we want to arrive at some form of an acceptable conclusion.

<sup>27</sup> See also remarks in De Jong 2000:621–625.

corroborated if we could somehow definitively establish the shape of an earlier type of eastern Šarqāwiy, which is not possible at this stage. We simply do not know the characteristics of the dialect-type (or even different types)—the degree of ‘Bedouinness’ or ‘sedentariness’—spoken in this eastern Delta region in the fourteenth century.

What makes this scenario of ‘re-bedouinization’ less likely, is that one would expect hypercorrections in the re-bedouinized dialects. An example of such hypercorrection would be, in case of a ‘re-split’, an interdental reflex for originally plosives, like *t̪* for \*t, or *d̪* for \*d. I have seen no evidence of such or comparable hypercorrections.

It is more likely that these collectives (the ‘Lēgāt and the Ṣawālḥah) kept speaking their own dialects during their stay in the eastern Delta, or at least their dialects were not extensively influenced by a sedentary type comparable to types heard in the Delta today, and that such ‘re-bedouinization’ did not take place when they moved to Sinai. This situation would be comparable to the situation of the dialect spoken by the Rašāydaḥ, who are known to have continued to speak their own Naḡdiy dialect (in the privacy of their own homes, in any case) in Sudan and also in other areas, even though they have been away from their former abode in the Arabian Peninsula for almost two centuries (since the second half of the 19th century).

f. *The Locations of Isogloss Bundles in Central and Southern Sinai*

Isogloss bundles coincide with boundaries of tribal dirahs, simply because we have chosen geographical borders between the tribal areas (sg. *dīrah*) of different tribes as the location to draw these isoglosses onto the map. To a degree, this is of course artificial, but experience has taught that often the speech of members of the same tribe in the same tribal area will not show very many differences.<sup>28</sup> I did however notice some differences between members of the Ġbāliyyah who live near the monastery of St Catherine, and those who live some 40 kilometres away in Wādiy Fērān/ Wādiy aš-Šēx, in and near Mrēr and aṭ-Ṭarfa.<sup>29</sup> Similarly, Mzēnah who live near the coast will use *šugl* as the genitive exponent, whereas *ḥagg* appears to

<sup>28</sup> See also remarks in De Jong 2000:19.

<sup>29</sup> Hobbs 1995:140 reports that of the estimated 300 families (or 1,500 souls) of the Ġbāliyyah, around half live within a 5 kilometre radius from the monastery, and the other half live in aṭ-Ṭarfa.

be more current with Mzēniy speakers who live more inland, i.e. in the mountains (see 3.1.11.).<sup>30</sup>

Much clearer than in northern Sinai, some of the major isogloss bundles found in central/southern Sinai coincide with visible geological features of the landscape. From the fact that isoglosses in this study are drawn into maps to coincide with borders of tribal *dīrahs*, and borders of some of these *dīrahs* coincide with features of the landscape,<sup>31</sup> the coincidence of isogloss bundles with natural features of the landscape will come as no surprise. In cases where such a natural feature of the landscape is an obstacle for the traveller, isoglosses may accumulate to form thicker bundles. This is no news, of course, since examples from Europe or elsewhere, like rivers (i.e. where they hinder traffic), swamps, mountain ranges, etc. are plentiful.<sup>32</sup>

In Sinai, one of the clearest examples of such coincidence of isogloss bundles with a natural feature of the landscape is the southern escarpment of the Tih plateau,<sup>33</sup> which is also roughly the location of the major isogloss bundles (numbers –16–, –20– and –24– in MAP 88, see appendix) running more or less southeast-northwest through Sinai between dialects of group I (to the northeast) and dialects of group VII (ŠwA) and group VIII (‘LA) (to the southwest). Although the dialect of the Badārah (assigned here to group I) is now spoken to the south of this escarpment as well, this tribe is originally from the Tih plateau, where some of their families may still be found.<sup>34</sup> In figure 1 of the appendix the escarpment

<sup>30</sup> Palva 1984–1986:307 remarks that *ħagg* “is the genitive marker used by many dialects of the Arabian Peninsula”.

<sup>31</sup> A practical way for tribes to decide on the border of their territories is to agree on features of the landscape to represent this border. An example is the “Fjord” on the coast of the Gulf of ‘Aqabah (location appr. 29.25.50 North and 34.49.50 East, see Google Earth), which is accepted by Taṛābīn and Aḥaywāt to be the eastern end of the border between their *dīrahs*.

<sup>32</sup> In northern Sinai we identified an ‘invisible obstacle’ coinciding with such a major isogloss bundle: due to the lowly social status of the Dawārah major isogloss bundles coincide with the borders between their *dirah* and the *dīrahs* of neighbouring tribes, see De Jong 2000:653 (MAP 00 in appendix), isogloss bundles numbers 6 and 8.

<sup>33</sup> The Tih plateau is Eocene limestone, the high mountains to the south are part of a Precambrian Crystalline base, see webpage [http://www.awayaway-sinai.net/main/about\\_sinai.htm](http://www.awayaway-sinai.net/main/about_sinai.htm) (accessed 10-18-2010).

<sup>34</sup> Oral communication from members of the Badārah in the field, and who now live in aṛ-Ṛamlah, the sandy area just to the south of this escarpment. Von Oppenheim 1943:152–153 also mentions the Bedāra (in his transcription) as one of the oldest tribes in Sinai, living on Ġabal ‘Īgmah, who were in a *ħilf* (alliance) with the Tayāha in older times, after which they had ‘Beziehungen’ (relations) with the Ṭuwara (‘Lēgāt) as well, and have ‘now’ (i.e. in his day) returned again to their old protectors the Tayāha. I had the impression during my visits that they had now returned to their earlier protectors the ‘Lēgāt again.

is visible in the map as the darker shade of grey between the brownish/pink area to the south (the area aptly named *aṛ-Ṛamlah*, indicated on the map as *Debbet er Ramleh*) and the high granite mountains of *aṭ-Ṭūr* and the grey area to the north (limestone plateau of *at-Tīh*). This escarpment is very difficult to traverse.<sup>35</sup>

Another example is the isogloss bundle between the dialect of *Taṛābīn* of *Nwēbī'* and that of the *Mzēnah* (nr -28- in MAP 88): although both tribes live on the sandy plain of *Nwēbī'* in the Gulf of 'Aqabah of the mouth of *Wādiy Waṭīr*—the *Taṛābīn* in the northern area and the *Mzēnah* in its southern area—farther inland the border is the mountain range of *Ġabal Gunnah* running more or less east-west,<sup>36</sup> as I was told by my *Tuṛbāniy* informant.

In *Wādiy aš-Šēx* the tribal border between the *Mzēnah* and *Ġbāliyyah* is the (nowadays) asphalt road that leads through *Wādiy aš-Šēx* (to *Wādiy Fērān*): at the stretch of this road to the west of *aṭ-Ṭarfa* *Mzēniy* territory lies to the north and the territory to the south is claimed by the *Ġbāliyyah*.

The dialects of *Baniy Wāṣil* and the *Mzēnah* show a number of important similarities. Since the *Baniy Wāṣil* are said to originally have been speakers of a group I-type of dialect<sup>37</sup>—and if this is true—the dialect that they speak today must be the result of extensive influence from *Mzēniy*. On the map the territories of *Baniy Wāṣil* and *Mzēnah* are separated by the territory of the *Awlād Sa'īd*, which might prompt the question why their dialect (ASA) is not more like that of group VI (i.e. *BWA* and *MzA*), especially if dialect contact is assumed to be the cause of the development of older *BWA* towards the dialect type of *MzA*: how could this contact take place across an area inhabited by another tribe, and how can it be that the dialect of this separating tribe was not or at least much less influenced by *MzA*?

The answer is that the map in this case does not give a realistic picture of where members of the tribes actually live: the *Awlād Sa'īd* live much farther inland (the mountainous area in and around *Wādiy Ṣlāf*; for the location see fn 2, p. 115 in Introduction to Chapter II), thus leaving the

<sup>35</sup> For a map showing the passes leading down from the *Tih* Plateau to the 'Dividing Valleys' (of which the *aṛ-Ṛamlah* area is a part), see Greenwood 1997:35 (Figure 3-6. The Dividing Valleys).

<sup>36</sup> This mountain is erroneously named *Jabal Jannah* on Google Earth, coordinates are appr. 28.52.30 North, 34.07.50 East.

<sup>37</sup> Oral information of sources in the field. See also a comparison of *MzA* and *BWA* below.

sandy coastal plain near the town of aṭ-Ṭūr, which they claim as their dīrah, deserted. The Baniy Wāṣil and Mzēnah can travel through this area freely,<sup>38</sup> but simply will not settle in this empty land, which is also considered to be Saʿīdiy territory.

Territorial disputes also occur from time to time. The latest (in 2008) large scale conflict was between ʿLēgāt and Taṛābīn, when the ʿLēgāt, supported in their territorial ambitions by the Ğarāğrah tried to move into Tuṛbāniy territory south of Rās Ṣadr. The Taṛābīn did not sit idly and watch it occur, but instead rode out to defend their territorial claims in an armed conflict. The matter was settled later in a Bedouin court of justice. Not only were the ʿLēgāt sentenced in this Bedouin court of justice for their expansionist aspirations, the Ğarāğrah too were fined a substantial sum for choosing the ʿLēgiy side in this dispute.<sup>39</sup>

*g. A 'Virtual' Isogloss Bundle, Number -39-: BWA and MzA*

To show the relative typological proximity of the dialects of the Baniy Wāṣil and Mzēnah, a 'virtual' isogloss bundle (number -39-) was drawn into the map (positioned in the Gulf of Suez).

A direct comparison through multi-dimensional scaling already shows their relative proximity. In terms of calculations done for the 'step method' this proximity is expressed as 13.4% of differences as the outcome of the total of comparisons.

We see that BWA is 'partially' or 'wholly' characterized by a number of features that are more of the group I type than of the MzA type. To list examples:

- Like in most group I dialects, raising of short *a* in CaCCāC has not led to morphological restructuring (then > CICCāC), but is absent or rare (unlike the situation in surrounding dialects, where it is frequent and either optional or compulsory) (see MAP 22).
- The use of a sg. fem. pronominal suffix *-kīy*, either when following *v̄*, or invariably so (i.e. preceded by any combination of vowels and/or consonants, like in group I) (see MAP 37).

<sup>38</sup> This is not to say that a tribe would otherwise normally deny a traveller passage through their dīrah. The point is that contact between Mzēnah and Awlād Saʿīd and between Baniy Wāṣil and Awlād Saʿīd is likely to be less frequent, and contact between the Mzēnah and Baniy Wāṣil to be more frequent than the situation reflected by the map may suggest.

<sup>39</sup> Oral communication from Tuṛbāniy sources in the field.

- BWA is the only dialect in the area which predominantly uses demonstrative forms with initial *hā-*, like in group I (see MAPS 39 and 40).
- BWA is the only dialect in the area which uses the adverb *hniy* for “here” (see MAP 46).
- The system of negated personal pronominals is basically like in group I (see MAP 79).
- The interrogative “when” is like in group I *matā*, not like in the surrounding dialects (where one will hear (*i*)*mtēh*, *mtēn*, or *mitēn*) (see MAP 82).
- 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect forms and sg. masc. imperatives of mediae infirmae verbs with shortened long vowels are not current (i.e. the situation is like in group I). In surrounding dialects such shortening of the long vowel occurs regularly (see MAPS 84 and 85).

Of the partial differences, it is striking that a form used parallel to a form also known in MzA is often of the type found in group I as well. Examples are:

- Like in group I, a reflex (with short vowel) *-á'* (when preceded by an emphatic) is used as parallel to (with long vowel) *-ā(')* (like in surrounding dialects) for *\*-ā(')*, e.g. *fīdā'* “free time”, but *ṛhā'* “hand mill”.
- Like in group I, *widd* is used to express “want, need”, parallel to *bidd*, the latter being current in surrounding dialects of group VII (see MAP 73).
- Like in group I, raising of *a* in closed syllable preceding stressed *ē* (e.g. *lammēt* > *limmēt*) is often absent, as opposed to the situation in surrounding dialects where such raising is current (see MAP 75).
- Like in group I, the baking sheet (for the preparation of bread) is called a *šāǧ* (as opposed to *šāz* in surrounding dialects). The game of *sīǧih* (*sīǧih* in group I), however, is referred to as *šīzih*, like in surrounding dialects.
- The demonstrative for the pl. com. “these” may be heard with initial *hā-* (i.e. *hādil*), as opposed to surrounding dialects, where only forms without such initial *hā-* are current (this may be due to MzA, which has *hādil* as a parallel form as well, or may be due to forms in group I, where forms with initial *hā-* are predominant).

The combination of these features points toward an earlier group I type of dialect for BWA. This should be seen in combination with the fact that the Baniy Wāṣil were among the earliest tribes to arrive in Sinai (between 10th and 13th centuries, and perhaps even earlier, see Bailey 1985:33–35, and remarks made above in the Introduction, I. d.). Chances that BWA

acquired these group I features through dialect contact with one of the group I dialects are not great, since the *dirah* of Baniy Wāṣil does not border on any of the group I *dirah*'s (nor do I have evidence that it ever did).

The fact that BWA has been grouped together here with MzA to form group VI, is due to the features it shares with MzA. Notwithstanding the relic forms that are assumed to have their origin in its earlier group I-type, some of these features are truly unique for group VI (which makes their origin elsewhere in the region unlikely). E.g.

- The combination of (velarized) *kbār* and (unvelarized) *ktār* (like in MzA) contrasting with (both velarized) *kbār* and *ktār* in group I, and (both unvelarized) *kbār* and *ktār* in surrounding dialects (see MAP 4).
- Raising of *a* in open syllable preceding stressed *a* and also *ā* is like in MzA.
- Initial (')*a*- in “mother”: *'amm* (like in MzA and group I) as opposed to *'umm* in surrounding dialects (see MAP 26).
- The form of the preposition “with” + 3rd p. sg. masc. suffix is *m'uh* “with him” and is identical to the form in MzA (and 'LA and ḤmA), but surrounding and group I dialects have different forms (see MAP 48).
- The 3rd p. sg. fem. perfect of *i*-type is CiCCat like in MzA, but surrounding and group I dialects have other forms (see MAP 52).
- The combination of 3rd p. sg. masc. and 1st p. sg. com. imperfect forms of “come” are *yījý* and *ijý* is like in MzA, but forms differ from surrounding and group I dialects (see MAP 61).
- For the pl. masc. personal pronominal for “they” *huwwa* is current, like in MzA (but most group I dialects have *hum(ma)*) (see MAP 78).
- The reflex for final \*-*ā* in *a*-type *tertia* infirmae (*yā'*) verbs is usually (stressed) *-i'*, like in *miš'i. ligi', nisi'* (see MAP 86).

The grouping of MzA and BWA together in the same group is also supported by the outcome of the plots generated by the SPSS programmes Proxscal and Alscal: the MDS plots (see pp. 373–374), the dendrogram (see p. 375), the multi-dimensional colour plot, and—although to a somewhat lesser extent—the percentages calculated using the step method (see Conclusions, III. b.).

## IV. METHODS OF ILLUSTRATING DIALECT DIFFERENCES

a. *Some Remarks on Methods of Illustrating Typological Similarities/  
Differences of Dialects*

One method of illustrating typological distances between dialects is to take the selection of features as they have been recorded in the data set. In this data set every dialect receives its own horizontal row and selected features are recorded in vertical columns. Presence of a feature is marked with the number “1”, absence of the feature with the number “0”. When parallel forms have been recorded in one dialect, presence of these parallel forms will be marked “1” in an equal number of columns.

On the basis of this data set, a distance matrix is then calculated; for each pair of dialects a relative typological distance is calculated (see the distance matrix in the appendix p. 376) (for dialectometrical measurements of distances based on differences and similarities, see Chapter 11. 2. In Behnstedt and Woidich 2005).

Using the calculated distances from the distance matrix, dialects are then plotted into an imaginary three-dimensional cube.

To each of the three dimensions represented by axes X, Y and Z one of the three basic colours red, green or blue is assigned.

Each axis is subdivided in values between zero and 255, in which zero represents 0 value for the basic colour, and 255 represents maximum value for that same basic colour on this axis.<sup>40</sup>

In this way every point inside the cube receives its own set of three coordinates, the combination of which is unique. Since these coordinates are represented by intensities of basic colours, different colours are produced according to the mix of the different values for these basic colours.

We then take these colours back to the geographical map, and paste them into the *dira*hs of the tribes whose dialects are represented by these colours. The result is a map in which typologically more similar dialects will show relatively similar colours, whereas more strongly differing dialects will receive more strongly differing colours on this map. An example of the situation in Sinai can be found on figure 8a in the Appendix.

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<sup>40</sup> For an introduction to this method of multi-dimensional scaling, see the webpage (in Dutch) by Peter Kleiweg <http://www.let.rug.nl/~kleiweg/Lo4/Tutorial/ti.html.nl> (accessed 10-18-2010), which is part of the Linguistic Atlas of the Middle and South Atlantic States (LAMSAS) project at the University of Groningen (Netherlands).

This map clearly shows the dialect groups as clusters in similar shades of colours:

group I is mainly different shades of light green (and greyish for TAŞ and TAN),

group II is purplish red,

group III is red/dark orange (with a similar shade for eŞA)

group IV is light blue,

group V is purple,

group VI is sea green.

group VII is purple/violet.

group VIII is brownish / dark olive green.

When the three basic colours are assigned to different axes, naturally the colours will change. Examples are figures 8b and 8c in the Appendix.

These maps also appear to corroborate claims of genealogical relatedness of some tribes. The dialects of TAŞ and TAN are spoken by two different branches of Taṛābīn, who live approximately 200 kilometres apart. The fact that they are typologically near is clearly illustrated in the 2-dimensional MDS plots generated by Proxscal and Alscal (see pp. 373–374), where they have been plotted near each other. It is also illustrated by the 3-dimensional colour MDS plot, where the two dialects receive very similar colour shades. The dialect of the northern branch of Taṛābīn (nTA) is however typologically further removed, which is also illustrated in the different plots.

In the same way, the proximity of the two dialects DbA and ḤwA seems to corroborate claims that the two tribes are genetically related, or in any case may have been part of the same confederation in earlier times; the Dbūr are said to have split off from the Ḥwētāt as a ‘āyīlah.<sup>41</sup>

Compare these maps to map 88 of the appendix in which the differences have been interpreted and where every group is represented by one assigned colour.

Group I : yellow	Group II : orange	Group III : pink/light red
Group IV : light blue	Group V : grey/blue	Group VI : green
Group VII : light brown	Group VIII : dark yellow	

<sup>41</sup> Von Oppenheim 1943:154–155 already lists this collective (Debūr in his transcription) as a sub-tribe of the Ḥwētāt, adding that they are “apparently a branch of the Debūr of Transjordan” (see *ibid.*:155, note 5). Aṭ-Ṭayyib 1997:107 also lists the *Dubūr* as one of the branches of the Ḥwētāt.

*The dīrahs of the Ḥwēṭāt and Aḥaywāt*

Although interviews with Ḥwēṭāt were recorded in the area of Ġidy, I have not met with Ḥwēṭāt from the area more to the north in the triangular area drawn on the map between ‘AyA and nTA territory. For the area of Aḥaywāt to the south of this ḤwA area, I have spoken to some Aḥaywiys who live near the road from Ṛās Ṣadr to the main (west-east through central Sinai) road Mitla<sup>42</sup>–Nixl, where some families of the Aḥaywāt live, not far north of Qal‘at alĠindiy.<sup>43</sup>

b. *Multi-Dimensional Scaling in a Two-Dimensional Map*

The MDS plots in the Appendix (pp. 373–374) show a number of interesting results. First of all, the plot supports the grouping of dialects and observations made earlier in De Jong 2000:<sup>44</sup>

- Balawiy Arabic (BaA) is shown to be nearest to (other) group I dialects, but its relative distance from these can still be interpreted as illustrative of the special place it occupies within this group.<sup>45</sup>
- To illustrate the relative typological proximity of group III dialects in the north to the dialect of the eastern Šarqiyah (eŠA) in the Nile Delta, a ‘virtual’ isogloss bundle was introduced in De Jong 2000.<sup>46</sup> The MDS plot also clearly shows this typological proximity.
- The MDS plot corroborates the separate typological status (as not being part of the northern Sinai dialect continuum) of Dwēgriy (DA, group IV) and ‘Arāyšiy (‘AA, group V). The plot also shows that they are sufficiently far removed from other dialects to be considered as separate ‘groups’.
- The MDS plot shows that groups I, II, III and eŠA (eastern Šarqāwiy) of the north are in a linear sequence (‘west-east’ from left to right in the MDS plot), which reflects the typological continuum they form (geographically running in the opposite direction of the MDS plot).

<sup>42</sup> Originally *Umm Itlah*, see remark in fn 7, p. 3.

<sup>43</sup> Qal‘at al-Ġindiy is located at appr. 29.51.04 North and 33.07.50 East, see Google Earth.

<sup>44</sup> Observations made here are really based on the comparison based on 95 features which were selected to serve as criteria. Other characteristics not represented in this comparison further illustrate the same results.

<sup>45</sup> See remarks in De Jong 2000: 57–58.

<sup>46</sup> There bundle number –21–, cf. remarks 611, 615, 619, 622, 625.

c. *Other Results of the MDS Plots*

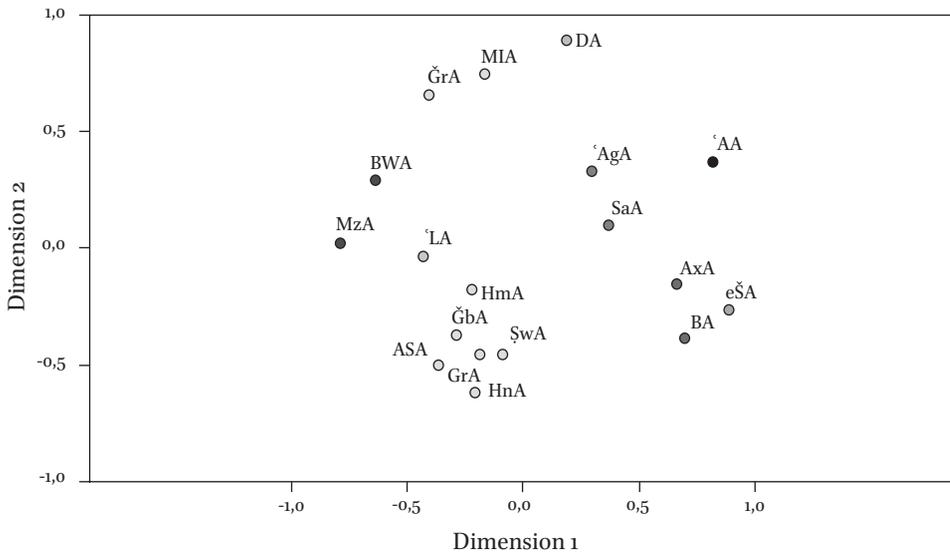
- In De Jong 2000<sup>47</sup> a remark from an older speaker of Smē'niy (SaA of group II in the north) was quoted, in which he claimed that his tribe had until a hundred years earlier lived in aṭ-Ṭūr,<sup>48</sup> where they had owned datepalms. The MDS plot Proxscal Squared Euclidean clearly illustrates the dialect of the Ḥamāḍah (ḤmA of group VII) as being relatively nearest to that of the Samā'nah. The MDS plot generated by Alscal (Euclidean Binary, see pp. 373–374) however does not produce the same result. I have no explanation for this difference between these two plots.
- The dialects of Baniy Wāṣil and Mzēnah are plotted relatively near to each other. This is supported by the relatively limited number of isoglosses in the 'virtual' isogloss bundle introduced in the preceding pages, which also illustrates such relative typological proximity.
- The dialect of Baniy Wāṣil (BWA), which was said by informants to have originally been of the group I-type, is plotted nearer to the group I dialects than any of the other non-group I dialects.

A problem with the outcome of the two-dimensional MDS plot Squared Euclidean Binary (see p. 373) generated by Proxscal is that the distance between e.g. BWA and ĞrA (of different groups: VI and I resp.) is plotted as shorter than the distance between, e.g., ĞrA and MIA, which are of the same group (both of group I), whereas dialects that are typologically more similar should be plotted nearer to each other than dialects that are less similar. The reason is that the number of dialects in group I to be incorporated in the plot is so great that it causes excessive stress, which results from 'cramming' hundreds of dimensions into a two-dimensional space. The result is that a less realistic representation like the one discussed here becomes unavoidable. To illustrate that it is stress that causes such distortion, all group I dialects causing such stress have been omitted from the MDS plot below, except ĞrA and MIA.

In this Proxscal MDS plot we see that the distance between ĞrA and MIA has been restored as being relatively shorter than the distance between ĞrA and BWA (dissimilarities are: BWA – MIA = 76, ĞrA – MIA

<sup>47</sup> See p. 246. For illustration of similarities of these dialects cf. MAPS in the appendix of this volume.

<sup>48</sup> The name aṭ-Ṭūr is generally used to refer to the high mountainous area in southern Sinai, roughly where the Ṭuwaṣa tribes live.



= 44; ĞrA – BWA = 66; MIA – BWA = 76;<sup>49</sup> binary Euclidean distances in the proximity matrix are: BWA – MIA = 8.718; ĞrA – MIA = 6.633; ĞrA – BWA = 8.124, see the proximity matrix on p. 376).

Excessive stress causing such distortions in these two-dimensional representations is less problematic<sup>50</sup> in the MDS plot Euclidean Binary generated by Alscal of the SPSS (see p. 374).

Another interesting aspect of the different methods of multi-dimensional scaling is that these invariably lead the same grouping of dialects. Although different methods applied may inside the generated MDS plots lead to different positions of dialects (like 'AA and DA) that have relatively little in common with the other dialects spoken in Sinai, the different MDS plots do produce comparable clusters of typologically related groups of dialects (see also two other MDS plots and the dendrogram on p. 375).

In addition, we notice that the dialects of groups VI, VII and VIII are all plotted in the southeastern quadrant<sup>51</sup> of the plot generated by Alscal (Euclidean Binary). The importance lies in the fact that, given the diverse

<sup>49</sup> These numbers are only to be interpreted as distances relative to each other; the greater the number, the greater the distance.

<sup>50</sup> By "less problematic" I mean that the resulting plot better represents my own subjective impressions of the typological distances of the groups involved.

<sup>51</sup> The fact that these three groups are plotted in this quadrant is coincidental to some degree, but the relative proximity of the three groups is not.

origins of the tribal communities before they came to Sinai (and at different times in history), dialect contact is highly likely to have been the acting force in bringing these dialects typologically nearer to each other in a process of levelling.<sup>52</sup> In this way the dialects of the different tribes have coalesced (though not entirely) to form a ‘phylum’,<sup>53</sup> which now covers the southern tip of Sinai. Several processes of focusing must have taken place. One clear example is the spread of the  $-(u)k$  (masc.) and  $-(i)k$  (fem.) pronominal suffixes for the 2nd p. sg.; although the proposed development described above (cf. Chapter I, 3.1.12.2., NOTE) may be plausible, it is highly unlikely that the different different tribes who arrived in southern Sinai at different times in history all had these suffixes after having all gone through the same process of innovation (i.e. the reinterpretation of morpheme boundaries) independently and before their arrival in Sinai. A much more plausible scenario is that these suffixes originated in one of the dialects involved in dialect contact, after which they spread throughout the southern region. This development may be difficult to date, but we know that it must have taken place more than a century ago at least, because until ten years ago these suffixes were still present in the dialect of the Samā‘nah in the north, who had emigrated from southern Sinai towards the end of the nineteenth / beginning of the twentieth century (see De Jong 2000:246).

#### d. *Grouping Dialects Using a Dendrogram*

To arrive at a relatively logical grouping another tool used is a dendrogram<sup>54</sup> (generated with the Hierarchical Cluster Analysis of the SPSS) to cluster the dialects of Sinai (including Negev Arabic, ḌA). It is important to remember that a dendrogram illustrates degrees of similarity (or dissimilarity), and

<sup>52</sup> See remarks in Trudgill 1986:39, where the relevance of the geographic parameter of diffusion models is stressed.

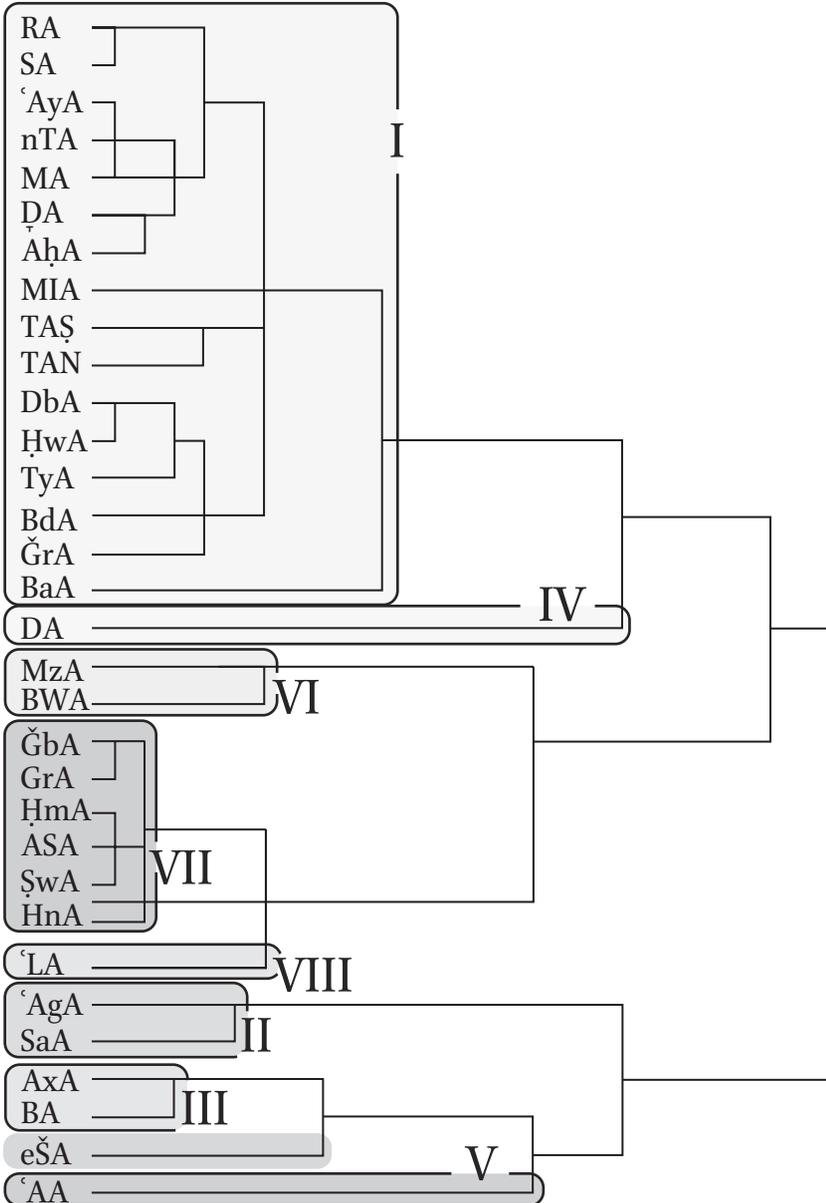
See also Palva 2008b:401 “[...] the Ṭawāra tribes have lived in close alliance since the 17th century (Oppenheim 1943:156–157), and the earlier dialectal differences must have faded away long ago”.

An alternative interpretation could be that these dialects were already much alike before the tribes came to Sinai, but given the heterogeneous history reported for the different tribes in various sources, this is far less likely; in any case this alternative interpretation would fail to explain the current typological position of ḌbA, whose speakers must have come to Sinai in the fifth century CE as non-native speakers of Arabic (see also remarks in fn 24, p. 321).

<sup>53</sup> Other than a possible genetic relationship in the distant past, this term is not meant to suggest a relatively recent common ancestor.

<sup>54</sup> See also Behnstedt and Woidich 2005:129.

that we should not conclude a genealogical relationship. A dendrogram generated for all dialects in Sinai is (grouping with Roman numbering was done by hand, see figure 6 in the appendix for the colour version):



Dendrogram of dialects of Sinai

We see here that the Group I dialects quite neatly cluster together, with BaA occupying a special place inside this group. BaA 'branches' at a lower level, farther to the right, than the other dialects (see remarks in De Jong 2000:57–58). Groups IV and V branch at a relatively low level as well (even farther to the right than BaA), which supports the interpretation of these dialects as separate groups.

Clustering of the dialects that form groups II and III is also clear from this dendrogram. For remarks on decisions to group clusters of dialects in groups VI, VII and VIII in this manner, see remarks in Conclusions, III. c.

The dendrogram also shows that the dialect of the eastern Šarqiyya (eŠA) and the dialects of groups III (BA and AxA) and also V (AA) are all on the same longer branch. This is due to the fact that these dialects are all more of the sedentary type (in comparison to the other dialects represented here in groups, which are more of the Bedouin type).

A plausible interpretation of the existing situation from a socio-linguistic perspective is that the different groups, in as far as dialects were not genealogically related, have developed from a diffuse situation (or situations, since the different tribes arrived at different times in history) towards a more homogeneous situation through dialect contact, in which certain original forms must have been lost due to processes of koineization through stages of levelling (simplification, reduction in irregularities, focusing, dropping minority and otherwise marked speech forms that exist parallel) and which resulted in a synchronically relatively stable dialect (see Trudgill 1986:107–108 and remarks in De Jong 2000:28–29).<sup>55</sup>

To conclude such a development becomes particularly plausible if we consider the case of the 2nd p. sg. masc. and fem. pronominal suffixes <sup>-u</sup>k and <sup>-i</sup>k (resp.); a scenario in which different tribes of different origins arrived at different times in history, but were all already using these pron. suffixes is highly unlikely (see remarks in the preceding paragraph). We may not know where these suffixes originated, but we do know that they spread among this group with its heterogeneous background that currently exists in southern Sinai. Perhaps these suffixes were imported into the area by one of the tribes who arrived there, or perhaps these suffixes even came into being locally as 'interdialect forms' (see Trudgill 1986:62).

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<sup>55</sup> For processes of 'Konvergenz' leading to 'Nivellierung', bringing various dialects closer together, see Diem 1978.

e. *What Informants Say*

In the course of this research several claims were heard made by informants concerning the relationships between the different tribes of Sinai. Although I have chosen not to use these comments for the typological classification and grouping, I consider them interesting enough to be mentioned here. Below is a list of these claims and in comments I have indicated how the results of the MDS plots and the dendrogram (in the appendix) might relate to these claims<sup>56</sup> (the question of whether or not these statements are true is not investigated here).<sup>57</sup>

Remark: the Dbūr are said to be related to (i.e. they originally split off as a family from) the Ḥwēṭāt.

Comment: when we look at the MDS plots, we see that their dialects (DbA and ḤwA resp.) are indeed plotted closely together inside group I. The dendrogram shows the same.

Remark: the Ġarāğrah are said to be related to the Masā'īd (in the north-west), who are in turn said to be related to the Aḥaywāt (living around Nixl and Ṭāba).<sup>58</sup>

Comment: the dialects of the Aḥaywāt and Masā'īd (AḥA and MA resp.) are indeed plotted closely together inside group I. The dialect of the Ġarāğrah (ĠrA), however, is not plotted very near to AḥA and MA (resp.). The dendrogram shows the same.

Remark: the 'Lēgāt are said to be descendents of the neighbouring Ṣawālḥah.

Comment: the MDS plots position their dialects relatively near each other. In the dendrogram these two dialects do not appear very near each other.

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<sup>56</sup> There is of course also the chance that informants conclude a relationship based on features perceived to be similar in the dialects spoken by these tribes.

<sup>57</sup> One could even imagine that people 'invent' a genealogical relationship based on their perception of linguistic similarities with the dialect of another tribe, or simply because they for some reason like to be associated with another tribe or certain other tribes.

Much of the claims listed here can be checked against the information given in Introduction I. d. and in the relevant sources mentioned there.

<sup>58</sup> See also De Jong 2000:11.

Remark: The Garāršah are said to be a section of the Şawālḥah (see also Bailey 1985:33).

Comment: the MDS plots and the dendrogram indeed cluster these two dialects relatively near each other.

Remark: the Taṛābīn are said to be related to Biliy (in the north), but this is quite remote in the past.<sup>59</sup>

Comment: a relationship between (any branch of) the Taṛābīn and Biliy—other than that they have been grouped together<sup>60</sup>—is not evident from the MDS plots or the dendrogram.

Remark: the dialect of the Baniy Wāṣil was more like the dialect-type spoken by group I tribes, but it has changed under influence of dialects of ‘other’ (not further specified) tribes.

Comment: the MDS plots indeed show that Wāṣliyy (BWA), as one of the dialects of the southern groups VI, VII and VIII, is typologically nearest to the group I-type dialects. The dendrogram does not show a direct connection.

In general, one could conclude that remarks made by informants are often on the mark, or quite near it. G.W. Murray’s (1935:256–257) remark on Bedouin in southern Sinai that “among themselves, they can distinguish each tribe and subtribe by their looks and dialects...” is true for the entire region.

#### V. A COMPARISON OF THE DIALECT OF THE ḤWĒṬĀT OF SOUTHERN JORDAN AND THE ḤWĒṬĀT OF SINAI

Prompted by some additional remarks made by Professor Heikki Palva on the dialect of the Ḥwēṭāt, which were partly in reaction to my own remarks on his description of their dialect as spoken by this tribe in southern Jordan, I feel encouraged to once again add a few of my observations.

<sup>59</sup> Stewart (1991:106) reports that the Taṛābīn were part of the Baniy ‘Aṭiyya.

<sup>60</sup> See also De Jong 2000:57–58, fn 3 on the special position of BaA inside group I.

In this research it is assumed that members of the same tribe who live in the same *dīrah* and are in regular contact with each other will also speak the same dialect.<sup>61</sup>

When members of the same tribe have been living in different locations, and have been relatively isolated from each other for longer periods of time, their dialects are bound to show differences, and one may expect that the longer the isolation has lasted, the more differences will have developed.<sup>62</sup>

The majority of those who identify themselves as ẖWĒṬĀt are actually found in southern Jordan and in the adjacent far northwestern corner (the northern Ḥiġāz) of Saudi Arabia. In older times many of the ẖWĒṬĀt settled on the Egyptian mainland, a large group of whom were found around Bilbēs in the eastern Nile Delta. The ẖWĒṬĀt in Sinai are not very numerous, and a small settlement inhabited by them is Ġidy<sup>63</sup> in the north of Sinai. The ẖWĒṬĀt of southern Jordan are said to be an amalgam of different groups of (semi-)sedentary population, many of whom are originally not of Bedouin stock.<sup>64</sup>

My earlier remarks concerned the typological status of the dialect of ẖWĒṬĀt in Jordan,<sup>65</sup> and whether perhaps their dialect formed part of a transition to a more Naġdiyy type of dialect. The following is a comparison of ẖWĒṬĪy spoken in Jordan (referred to here as ẖWJ) as described in Palva 1984–1986 (in this comparison the structure of this article is largely followed).

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<sup>61</sup> This is a sociolinguistically inspired approach that has proven to be a very workable principle in the case of (sometimes still (semi-) nomadic) Bedouin tribes. There are exceptions, of course. See also remarks in De Jong 2000:19.

<sup>62</sup> Either as a result from autonomous developments inside the dialect itself, or as a result of change induced by contacts with speakers of other dialects.

<sup>63</sup> Since the area was said to be teeming with military (for the very strategic Ġidy pass about 20 km north of the Mitla pass), I had interviews there conducted for me by others. The approximate position of the village would be 30.12 North, 33.04 East, just to the northwest of Ġabal alĠidy, and to the north of Ṣadr alḤayṭān, see Google Earth (where it is indicated as Gebel Heitan).

<sup>64</sup> Oral communication from a ẖWĒṬĪy šēx from al-Ġafr interviewed in 2008 in al-Ḥusayniyyah in southern Jordan. He told me that several families or clans had joined the tribe as *duxala* (Classical Arabic *duxalā*), i.e. “people seeking refuge and protection”.

See also remarks in Palva 2008b:402 “[the ẖWĒṬĀt] probably are descendants of an old local population (*aḥl ad-dīre*) (Musil 1926:20), whose culture for centuries has fluctuated between seminomadism and semisedentarism”.

<sup>65</sup> See De Jong 2000:627–630.

I have added notes referring to Ḥwēṭiy poetry as recorded in Holes and Abu Athera 2009 when forms appearing there are different from Palva's description or from my own findings. These poems will be referred to as 'Barrāk'.<sup>66</sup> The abbreviation ḤwA is used here to refer to my own findings for the dialect of Ḥwēṭāt in Sinai. For the sake of brevity, the emphasis in this comparison is on highlighting differences between ḤwA and ḤwJ, while briefly mentioning some similarities.

The texts of the poet Barrāk in Holes and Abu Athera 2009 are essentially the interpretation of the authors<sup>67</sup> of written texts, and are not based on audio recordings. Apart from that, it is known that for poetry not every day spoken dialect is used, but a (higher) register considered to be more appropriate for this purpose. I shall therefore merely mention details of interest without drawing any conclusions from the Barrāk material.

#### *Phonetics*

The inventory of phonemes is almost identical (see Palva 1984–1986:296). One difference is that the affricate *ǧ* has a highly regular allophone (fricative) *ž* in ḤwA. In Barrāk transcription is with *ǧ* throughout and is reported as “always realised as an alveolar affricate” (i.e. I.P.A. [dʒ]).<sup>68</sup>

A glottal stop often follows final stressed *-a* in a pause (Barrāk:296): e.g. *ǧa'* “he came”.

A similar situation in ḤwA, but ' is also often heard following unstressed final *-a*, e.g. *áfda'* “I sacrifice”, *taǧádda'* “he had lunch”, *biyrīdha'* “he wants (i.e. loves) her” and *ál'aša'* “the dinner”.

Such glottalization is not indicated in Barrāk.

Lack of affrication in reflexes of \*k and \*q in ḤwJ: same in ḤwA.

Three short vowel phonemes: /i/, /u/ and /a/ in ḤwJ: same in ḤwA.

<sup>66</sup> “Barrāk” for the poet Barrāk Dāǧiš Ğāziy Aḥuw Tāyih al-Ḥuwayṭiy recorded in Holes and Abu Athera 2009:83–108. Some of his poems appear there in transcription. He is from al-Ġafr in southern Jordan (see *ibid.*:8), some 150 km northeast of 'Aqabah.

<sup>67</sup> For the notation in transcription the interpretation of Said Salman Abu Athera was taken as a starting point for the texts, which were only available on paper (the poet himself had passed away in 1999). Said is himself a Bedouin of the Tarābin, born in the Gaza area, and was raised in Jordan (Clive Holes, personal communication). Chances are therefore considerable that in Barrāk's transcribed poems Said's own Turbāniy or perhaps (partly) Jordanian dialect shines through.

<sup>68</sup> See Holes and Abu Athera 2009:210.

Five long vowel phonemes: /ī/, /ū/ and /ā/, and /ē/ (\*ay) and /ō/ (\*aw) in ḤwJ: same in ḤwA. No real overlap (or fluctuation) of /ē/ with /ī/ or /ō/ with /ū/. In ḤwA very high /ē/ was heard in the lexical items *zēt*, *sēf* and *bēt*, but such high realisations (near I.P.A. [i:]) of /ē/ were the exception, rather than the rule.

Palva (ibid.) reports /ē/ and /ō/ in all positions in ḤwJ, including those preceded by velarized consonants or X. In ḤwA, however, diphthongs have remained in such positions, e.g. *‘ayn* “eye”, *xaymih* “tent”, *nuṣṣayn* “two halves”, *ṣayf* “summer”, *ḏawayt* “I went home before sunset”, *ḥawlīy* “one-eyed (sg. fem.)”, *gawṭar* “he went”. The diphthong in *‘ayš* “bread” was often realised lengthened: *‘a:yš* in ḤwA.

In Barrāk only a few diphthongs occur, e.g. *ḥawl* (p. 93, l. 5), *aṭ-ṭubayg*, (p. 96, l. 37), *ṭaw‘in* (p. 101, l. 4) but more regularly monophthongs are found following back spirants and velarized consonants, e.g.: *ḥēl* and *xēl* (p. 94, ll. 14 and 16) (but here perhaps to rhyme with *sēl* and *mēl*), *ḥēt* (p. 95, l. 30), *‘ēn* (p. 96, l. 43), *tēr* (p. 100, l. 29), *ḡēr* (p. 100, l. 32), *baḡētah* (p. 101, l. 4) (here rhyming with *naḡētah* and *laḡētah*), *šēf* (p. 101, l. 5), *a‘ṭētah* and *na‘ētah* (p. 102, ll. 20 and 21).

In terms of stress, the only difference between ḤwJ and ḤwA appears to be that the former stresses CaCaC(v) (provided it is not CaXaCv),<sup>69</sup> while the latter clearly prefers stress CaCáC(v).

Examples for CaCaC from ḤwA are *malág* “hard soil/rock (i.e. where no foot prints will be visible)”, *libán* “milk” and a gahawah-form *ḏahár* “back”. ḤwA examples for CaCaCv are *sibágah* “race”, *zalámah* “man”, *gaháwah* “coffee”, *ḥanákak* “your mouth”, *afámak* “your mouth”, *taḥárid* (*‘ala*) “you go up (to)”, *na‘árid* “we know”.

In ḤwJ we see forms like (following numbers refer to pages in Palva 2004) *ritam* “retem (firewood)” (203) and *siḡar* “trees” (203) (stressed, according

<sup>69</sup> This is how I interpret Palva’s remarks, see 1984–1986:297. These remarks seem to be contradicted, however, by (verbal) forms listed on p. 299: *k(i)tábat*, *k(i)tábow/-u* and *k(i)tábin*. Although Palva (2004:197,198) repairs the error of listing the forms *ga‘dat*, *ga‘dow/-u* and *ga‘din* by replacing them with the forms *ga‘adat*, *ga‘adow/-u* and *ga‘adin*, we are now faced with a new question: why is \**katab* + *at* stressed *k(i)tábat*, whereas *ga‘ad* + *at* is stressed, I assume, *ga‘adat*? This assumption is not without ground: the form *ga‘dat* could not have been listed if the proper form is *ga‘adat*, since I find it hard to believe that a stressed vowel would have been heard as having been elided. The error of listing the form *ga‘dat* could therefore only be made because the proper form is *ga‘adat*.

When gahawah-forms are involved, we do find a CaCáCv stress-type, e.g. *ba‘áda* (Palva 2004:201).

to Palva's remarks, *rítam* and *síġar*),<sup>70</sup> which prompt the question whether these are perhaps relics of an older CaCáC stress-type (in which the vowel *a* of the first syllable in neutral environments is often raised > CiCáC). In other words: are we dealing with a stress shift in Ḥwēṭiy, and is its older stress-type then more like the present situation in ḤwA of Sinai? (for further remarks, see 'the verb' below)

Apart from stress in sequences mentioned above, stress in both ḤwA and ḤwJ can be characterized by the forms: *ábil* "the camels", *ábwalad* "the boy", *ángalab/yíngilib* (imperfect in ḤwJ would be *yángalib*) "be overturned", *áttafaq/yíttafiq* (imperfect in ḤwJ would be *yáttafiq*)<sup>71</sup> "agree", *bintī* "my daughter", *ḍarabatnī* "she hit me". As for forms in Barrāk, no conclusions can be drawn with regard to stress.

As for the Naġdiy type of resyllabication of CaCaCV sequences (> CCICV, or (gahawah-sequences) CaXaCV > CxaCV), it is not a feature of ḤwA. As for ḤwJ, however, there are several instances of forms that have been subject to this rule. Palva appears to report free variation with respect to the application of this rule.<sup>72</sup> Notice the following forms in Palva 2004. (Following bracketed numbers refer to the pages, the form in square brackets would be the ḤwA equivalent, which are not affected by the Naġdiy resyllabication rule). First of all, gahawah-forms appearing in ḤwJ which are also resyllabified in conformity with the Naġdiy resyllabification rule are (forms listed in square brackets are proper ḤwA forms):

*ghawah* (1984–1986:303) [*gaháwah*], *yġazu* "they raid" (201) [*yaġázuw*], 3 instances of *nxabiz* "we bake" (202) [*naxábiz*], 3 instances of *n'áġin* "we knead" (202) [*na'áġin*], 2 instances of *nġazil* "we spin", *nġázila* "we spin it" (203) [*naġázil* and *naġázlah*] and *nhašid* "we harvest" (204) [*naḥásid*].

<sup>70</sup> I have not listed CaCaC forms preceded by the (stressed) article. Other forms in ḤwJ without such raising are *balad* (204), *haġar* (204, 205, 206), *masak* (206), *walad* (206), *ašar* (207), *sana* (207), *nasab* (207) and *ḥašal* (208). Interestingly, in the paradigms for *kitab* and *širib* (see Palva 1984–1986:299), *i* of the first syllable may only be dropped when it is in open syllable directly preceding a stressed syllable (forms cited are e.g. *š(i)ribti* and *k(i)tábin*). From this a conclusion that the second syllables in *širib* and *kitab* are not stressed logically follows, and therefore these forms must be stressed *kitab* and *širib* (since *·ktáb* and *·širib* are not optional). For further implications, see remarks below in 'the verb'.

<sup>71</sup> For these imperfect forms of measures *n-1* and *1-t* in ḤwJ, see Palva 1984–1986:303.

<sup>72</sup> Listed verb forms with bracketed vowels, like *k(i)tabat* and *y(a)ʿarf* (1984–1986:299), suggest free variation in the application of the Naġdi resyllabication rule and the forms *yahkumu/ yḥakmu* (2004:207) also imply free variation in the application of the gahawah-rule. For Naġdi resyllabification see Prochazka 1988:10–11 and Ingham 1986:276.

But Palva also reports forms in ḤwJ which are not affected by Nağdiy resyllabification are: *ba'áḍa* (2004:201), *ḥaṣalat* (2004:205) *šağara*, *šağarāt* (2004:205), *ga'adu* (2004:205), *ḥaraka* (2004:205), *ḥağara* (2004:206); *darabat* (2004:206), *zalaḇāni* (2004:206), *yáḥafru* (2004:206), *ḥafáraw* (2004:206), *ḥaṣalat* (2004:207), *sanawāt* (2004:207, 208), *'ašara* (2004:207), *waḥade* (2004:207), *'agabe* (2004:207, 208), *madanīye* (2004:207). Such forms are in terms of syllabication identical to comparable ḤwA forms.

In Barrāk instances of CaCaCV were not found.

gawah-forms in Barrāk are: *ar-ra'ad* (p. 86, l. 11), *wa l-wa'ad* (p. 88, l. 4), and verb forms *taḥamdūh* (p. 91, l. 25), but there are also many forms which are not affected by the gawah-syndrome (perhaps for metrical reasons), e.g. *ša'bah* (p. 91, l. 27), *ša'b* (p. 91, l. 28) and *ša'b* (p. 93, l. 8), *an-naxlāt* (p. 99, l. 25) and verb forms *yahfaḍōh* (p. 91, l. 20), *yahkum* (p. 91, l. 28) and *yaxša* (p. 95, l. 23).

### Morphology

Independent pronouns in ḤwA are *aná*, *int(a)*, *intiy*, *hū*, *hī*, *aḥna*, *intuw*, *intin*, *hum(ḥma)* and *hin(na)*. For ḤwJ Palva reports *ana*, *int*, *inti*, *hū*, *hī*, *iḥna* (~ *ḥinna*), *intu*, *intin*, *hum* and *hin*.<sup>73</sup>

Also in Barrāk we find *ḥinna* (p. 95, l. 31).

### Pronominal suffixes

C-ī / V-y (poss.) and -nī (obj.), C-ak / V-k, -kiy, C-ah or C-ih / V-(h), -ha(ʿ), -kuw / -kin, -na(ʿ). In ḤwJ the same suffixes are current, except the allomorph -ih of the 3rd p. sg. masc.<sup>74</sup>

In Barrāk we find singular forms like (3rd p. sg. masc. -ah or -ih) *ša'bah* “his people” (p. 91, l. 27) and *annās kullih* “all people” (p. 85, l. 3) and (v + -h) *yi'tūh* “they give him” (p. 89, l. 22); (3rd p. sg. fem. -ha) *gaṣdha* “her intent” or a long vowel at the end of a hemistich as in *warāhā* “behind her” (p. 86, l. 7); (2nd p. sg. masc. -ak) *ğēšak* “your army” (p. 86, l. 6) or (v + -k) as in *malfāk* “your destination” (p. 93, l. 6); a short final vowel in (1st p. sg. com. -i) *rizgi* “my sustenance” (p. 101, l. 9), (v + -y) *mabdāy* “my principle” (p. 101, l. 6) and (obj. suff. -ni) *talabni* “he asked me” (p. 98, l. 5). Plural

<sup>73</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:297 and 2004:198. Palva also mentions that in pause, *ana*, *hū* and *hī* sometimes have an audible glottal stop following. In ḤwA I have only noticed this in the case of *ana'* #, but then not only in pause.

<sup>74</sup> I follow a slightly different system of transcription in forms like -kuw and -kiy (Palva writes -ku and -ki). I have not recorded (unstressed and short) -i or -ni for the 1st p. com. sg. in ḤwA, which Palva 1984–1986:197 gives for ḤwJ.

forms are (3rd p. pl. masc.) *ahalthum* “their people” (p. 100, l. 33); (3rd p. pl. fem. *-hin*) *la buddhin* “they must”; (2nd p. pl. masc. *-kum*; *-ku(w)* was not recorded) *ġihādkum* “your fight” (p. 86, l. 15); the 2nd p. pl. fem. was not found; (1st p. pl. com. *-na*) *baladna* “our land” (p. 89, l. 17).

*Demonstrative pronouns in ḤwA are*

Near deixis: *hāda*, *hādiy* (~ fewer *hēdiy*), *hadál* (*-lah*),

Far deixis: *hadāk*, *hadik* (*-ih*) (~ fewer *hēdik* (*-ih*)), *hadallāk* (*-ah*)

In ḤwJ the same forms were recorded.<sup>75</sup>

A feature considered very typical of ḤwA by other tribes is the postpositioned demonstrative *ha*, e.g. *álwalad ha...* “this boy”. This feature was not reported for ḤwJ, nor were instances found in Barrāk.

*Interrogatives*

*mīn* is used for “who?” in both ḤwA and ḤwJ.<sup>76</sup>

For the interrogative “what?” *ēh*, much less regularly *ēš* and sometimes *wiš* were heard in ḤwA. For ḤwJ Palva<sup>77</sup> gives *wuš*, co-occurring with *ēš* and K-form *šū* (with proclitic variants *’iš* and *šū*).

“Which” is *yāt* in ḤwA, but *ayy* / *ayya* in ḤwJ.<sup>78</sup>

*The b-imperfect*

For ḤwJ Palva reports that the *b*-imperfect is not current in ḤwJ.<sup>79</sup> Barrāk shows no instances of the *b*-imperfect either. In ḤwA, however, it is as current as in other dialects of Sinai (except in that of the Dawāġrah).

*Indefinite pronouns and the article*<sup>80</sup>

ḤwJ *wāhad*—ḤwA *wāhid* “someone”, both variants have *šiy* “something”, *kam* “some”, “all, every, whole” is *kill* in ḤwJ—*kull* in ḤwA, the article is *al-* in both variants, and also often (‘konkretisierendes’)<sup>81</sup> *hal-*.<sup>82</sup> The relative pronoun is *alli(y)* in both, while *halli* is also reported for ḤwJ (the latter was not heard in ḤwA).

<sup>75</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:298 and 2004:198.

<sup>76</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:298.

<sup>77</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:298 and 2004:198.

<sup>78</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:298.

<sup>79</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:307 and 2004:196.

<sup>80</sup> For remarks on ḤwJ, see Palva 1984–1986:298.

<sup>81</sup> See Blau 1960:20 and Grotzfeld 1964:46–47.

<sup>82</sup> For postpositioned *ha* in ḤwA, see remark in III, 3.1.9.1.

*The verb in ḤwA and ḤwJ*

Perfect verb forms listed for ḤwJ reflect the *a*-type as CiCaC or CaCaC (< \*CaCaC) and the *i*-type as CiCiC or CaCiC (< \*CaCiC). Palva<sup>83</sup> concludes that the vowel of the first syllable in both types depends on the phonetic surroundings. To summarize his point: if *a* of the first syllable in \*CaCaC was realized with a back allophone, it has remained *a* (e.g. *gaʿad*), but if it was realized with a front allophone, it has become *i* (e.g. *kitab*). In the older *i*-type (\*CaCiC) the same development is concluded, but an additional factor of vowel harmony is held responsible for this change. Examples cited are *ʿarif* (< \*CaCiC, in which *a* is concluded to have been realized with a back allophone) and *širib* (< \*CaCiC, where *a* is concluded to have been realized with a front allophone).

Apart from the fact that it is difficult to imagine a back allophone for *a* in *ʿarif* (which would then have to be more or less like (the vowel in the first syllable) *a* in e.g. *ḍarab*, i.e. near I.P.A. [a]),<sup>84</sup> there is a more plausible explanation.

A historically more plausible development to account for raising *a* > *i* in these patterns is to postulate a stress shift from CvCvC to CvCvC (see also Grotzfeld 1969); patterns that are now stressed on the first syllable must have been stressed on the second syllable to allow the vowel *a* in neutral surroundings to be raised to *i*. The scenario in which raising of short vowel *a* > *i* in open syllable preceding a stressed syllable takes place is not unique in the area (see paragraphs 1.2.3.4.3.2. and 3.1.1.6. of preceding descriptive chapters), nor is stress of the CaCáC- or CiCiC-type (see paragraphs 2.1.1.2.1. of preceding descriptive chapters; ḤwA also has CaCáC and CiCiC, e.g. *kitáb* and *širib*).

The implication is that Palva's suggestion of raising of *a* in \*CaCiC (> CiCiC) in ḤwJ as the result of vowel harmony<sup>85</sup> appears to be off the mark. After all, why would *a* in \*CaCaC be raised (> CiCaC) if a mechanism of vowel harmony were operative?<sup>86</sup>

<sup>83</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:298–299.

<sup>84</sup> In fact, preceding *ʿ* or *ḥ* more typically result in an open front allophone near I.P.A. [a].

<sup>85</sup> As was assumed in Palva 1984–1986:298.

<sup>86</sup> Palva *ibid.* recognizes this, but does not elaborate. Also the fact that the vowel of the imperfect preformative does not harmonize with the stem vowel is an indication that vowel harmony (present in almost all dialects of Sinai, including ḤwA) is at least not a very productive rule in ḤwJ (see *ibid.*:299–301). Some examples of such lack of vowel harmony cited for ḤwJ are *yagʿud*, *yaktib*, *yamší*, *yadri*, etc.

The more likely historical development is that after such raising ( $a > i$ ) in neutral surroundings had become stable, resulting in CiCáC and CiCíC,<sup>87</sup> stress shifted onto the first syllable, resulting in the forms that were recorded (e.g. *kítáb* and *šírīb*).

The question remains then, why did stress shift? There is no easy answer, but chances are that ḤwJ has been influenced by a dialect-type which stresses C'vCvC. The dialect-type could be a sedentary (rural or urban) type in southern Jordan, or perhaps even contact with speakers of a Naǧdiy (i.e. a Bedouin type, but non-NWA) type of dialect; after all, the very same vowel and stress-type are current in Naǧdiy (e.g. the active ( $a$ -type) perfect forms *kítáb* “he wrote”, *díbaḥ* “he slaughtered”, but—due to lowering influences of contiguous  $h$  and  $\text{´}$ —no raising in e.g. ( $a$ -type perfect) *ḥálab* “he milked” and *gá'ad* “he sat”<sup>88</sup> and also ( $i$ -type perfect) *ášíg* “he loved”<sup>89</sup>).

The confusing differences in stressing in forms like *gá'adat*, but  $k(i)$  *tábat* and (gahawah-forms)  $y(a)árf$  and *gháwah* are already an indication that dialect contact may have taken place (or is still operative); two systems for stressing sequences of the type CaCaCv(C) appear to be in use and exist side by side as parallel systems. And parallel forms, or parallel systems in this case, are often an indication of dialect contact.<sup>91</sup>

In any case, the topic of stress shift deserves more attention than it can receive here.

Like in ḤwA,  $a$  of the  $i$ -type perfect (underlying |CaCiC|) in ḤwJ ‘reappears’ in closed syllables, e.g. *šarbin* “they (fem.) drank”. A difference is the vowel of the 3rd p. sg. fem. ending: *šarbit* in ḤwA, but *šarbat* in ḤwJ.<sup>92</sup>

<sup>87</sup> Such forms are not exceptional in the area, see map 14 in the appendix.

<sup>88</sup> See Prochazka 1988:28–29.

<sup>89</sup> See *ibid.*:32.

<sup>90</sup> If we look at stress systems current in some Naǧdiy dialects (see Prochazka 1988:20–22), we see that there too a stress shift may have been involved in shaping forms that are heard today. If we take forms like (active) *\*katab* “he wrote” and (internal passive) *\*kltib* (in which  $I = i$  or  $u$ ) “it was written” as starting points, and we assume that both forms were stressed on the ultimate (*katáb* and *kltíb*), postulating stress on the ultimate syllable would not only account for raising of  $a$  in *katáb* > *kítáb*, but also for the elision of the short high vowel  $I$  from the open (first) syllable in *kltíb* > *ktib*. When stress then shifted, it could only do so in the active form (resulting in *kítáb*, cf. *ibid.*:28), but stress could no longer shift in the internal passive form, since the vowel of the first syllable was no longer available after its elision, and stress had to remain where it was: *ktib* (cf. *ibid.*:116). On stress shift in Arabic dialects, see also Grotzfeld 1969.

<sup>91</sup> See Trudgill 1986:107–108 on the dynamics of dialect contact.

<sup>92</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:299.

The vowel of in the 3rd p. pl. fem. perfect ending in ḤwA colours with the base vowel: *-an* in the *a*-type perfect (e.g. *katában*) and *-in* in the *i*-type perfect (e.g. *šarbin*). In ḤwJ the situation is not clear, but Palva—with some hesitation—lists the forms with a fixed *i* in this morpheme (*k(i)tábin* and *šarbin*).<sup>93</sup>

Similar hesitation is apparent in the endings listed for the 3rd p. pl. masc., for which Palva lists *-ow/-u* for both vowel-types of the perfect in ḤwJ (*k(i)tábow/-u* and *šarbow/-u*). In ḤwA vowel harmony produces *-aw* in the *a*-type (*katábaw* or *kitábaw*). The ending in the *i*-type (and also in the *u*-type) is *-uw* (*šarbuw*).

Endings used in the imperfect for the 3rd p. pl. masc. and fem. show the same differences. Examples for the fem. are *byaṭḥanan iw biyǧáriblin* “they (fem.) grind and sieve” in ḤwA, but in ḤwJ *tákitbin* / *taktibin* and *tašrabin*. Examples for the masc. are *yíkitbuw* and *yašrabaw* in ḤwA, but in ḤwJ forms are *yákitbu* / *yaktibu* and *yašrabu*, and fem. pl. forms are *yákitbin* / *yaktibin* and *yašrabin*.<sup>94</sup>

Barrāk lists some forms with the (more Naǧdiy-like) pl. masc. ending *-ūn*, e.g. *yišfūn* (p. 86, l. 6) and *yirmūn* (p. 86, l. 7), but there can be little doubt that this is due to the high register chosen for this poem.<sup>95</sup> Other forms in Barrāk more strongly suggest a situation like in ḤwA, e.g. (perfect) *ihtāǧaw* (p. 95, l. 21) and (imperfect) *yaḏḥakaw* (p. 91, l. 21) and there are many instances where suffixation results in monophthongized *-aw* or *-ow* > *-ō*, as in (perfect) *sawwōh* (p. 90, l. 2) and (imperfect) *yaḥfaḏōh* (p. 91, l. 20), while suffixation of *-uw* results in *-ū*, as in (perfect) and (imperfect) *ysammūh* (p. 90, l. 1) and *taḥamdūh* (p. 91, l. 25).

In poetry (Barrāk, pp. 93–97) many instances may be found of vowel harmony in the pl. fem. endings of perfect and imperfect: *-an* for the *a*-types and *-in* for the *i*-types, e.g. (perfect) *bayyananni* (p. 95, l. 22) and imperfect (*a*-type) *yarḥalanni* (p. 94, l. 18) and (*i*-type) *yihitifinni* (p. 94, l. 11).<sup>96</sup>

In ḤwA the vowel of the imperfect preformative colours with the stem vowel through vowel harmony, e.g. *yiktib*, *yudrub* and *yarǧaʿ*, while in ḤwJ

<sup>93</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:299.

<sup>94</sup> Ibid.:299–300.

<sup>95</sup> The poem was actually recited by the poet to king Ḥusayn of Jordan, see *ibid.*:84–85.

<sup>96</sup> Endings there are actually *-anni* and *-inni*, instead of *-an* and *-in*; the additional *-ni* being a poetic device.

the preformative is with fixed *a*, e.g. *yaktib*, *yaḍrub* and *yarġa*.<sup>97</sup> In Barrāk the system is basically like in ḤwA, e.g. *yisfik* (p. 86, l. 10), *yihyi* (p. 89, l. 25), *yimši* (p. 88, l. 8), *yibnūh* (p. 90, l. 4), *tunkus* (p. 89, l. 15), *yunḍur* (p. 89, l. 26), *yudkur* (p. 100, l. 34), *tunşur* (p. 91, ll. 15, 16), *yuṭlub* (p. 91, l. 23), *nudukrah* (p. 101, l. 9), *yurzug* (p. 101, l. 9) and also *yasrax* (p. 86, l. 14) and *tarkab* (p. 94, ll. 16, 17), but also (exceptions) *ya'izzhum* (p. 89, l. 26) and *tafrig* (p. 96, l. 43).

Imperatives in ḤwA have initial vowels coloured by vowel harmony: *uġ'ud*, *iktib* and *aşrab*. In ḤwJ such colouring is absent from the *a*-type: *uġ'ud*, *iktib*, but *işrab*.<sup>98</sup>

#### *Some weak verbs*

Primaes wāw verbs in ḤwA have incorporated wāw in the preformative, often monophthongal *ō* in the *i*-type, as in *yōrid*, and diphthongal *aw* in the *a*-type, as in *yawşal*. For some verbs another paradigm without incorporated wāw is also available, as in *yigíf* and *yiríd*.

In ḤwJ the preformative contains long *ā*, as in *yāġaf* and *yāşal*. A shorter form *la tiga'* was also recorded in ḤwJ.<sup>99</sup> Barrāk gives a form *yāġafanni* (for the *-ni* ending, see remark above) (p. 96, l. 33).

In tertiae *yā'* *a*-type imperfects in ḤwA the base vowel is not dropped when vowel-initial endings are appended, e.g. *tansay*, *yansaw*. In ḤwJ however the base vowel is dropped, e.g. *tansi*, *yansu*.<sup>100</sup> In Barrāk we find forms like in ḤwA: *yarḍaw* (p. 88, l. 10) and *yitnāsōh* (suffixed *-aw* or *-ow* > *-ō*) (p. 90, l. 9).

The imperfect vowel in the primaes hamzah verbs is *i* in ḤwA, ḤwJ and Barrāk: *yākil* (p. 99, l. 25) and *yāxiḍ* (p. 88, l. 11; p. 96, l. 39).

The perfect forms are with initial *a*- in both ḤwA and ḤwJ: *akal*, *akalt*, etc.

#### *The verb "come"*

In forms in ḤwA the vowel of consonant-initial imperfect preformatives has been dropped (and the final syllable is stressed): *yġiy*, *tġiy*, *nġiy*, *tġuw*,

<sup>97</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:299–301.

<sup>98</sup> Ibid.:300.

<sup>99</sup> Ibid.

<sup>100</sup> Ibid.:301

*tġin*, *yġuw* and *yġin*, but (1st p. com. sg.) *aġý*. In ḤwJ the vowel has not been dropped and is stressed (leaving the ending unstressed): *yġi*, *tġi*, etc.

#### *Derived measures*

In perfect and imperfect of measures *ta-2* and *ta-3*, the *ta-* prefix is only rarely reduced to (*i*)- in ḤwA. Examples are *taġadda*, *ytaġadda* and *tasālam*, *ytaśālam*.

In ḤwJ reduction of *ta* or *tə* > *t* in the imperfect (but not in the perfect) is indicated to be current, as in the examples *taġadda*, *yat(ə)ġadda*/*yit(ə)ġadda* and *tasālam*, *yat(ə)sālam*/*yit(ə)sālam*.<sup>101</sup> In Barrāk we find forms like *iytaraġġāh* (p. 91, l. 13), *tabāšaraw* (p. 91, l. 21), *tasallam* (p. 98, l. 8).

In measures *n-1* and *1-t* the first syllable in the perfect and imperfect is stressable in ḤwA and ḤwJ, but vowelism in the imperfect differs. Examples are *ánfataḥ*, *yínfatiḥ* and *ástawa*, *yístiwiy* in ḤwA, but *ánfataḥ*, *yánfatiḥ* and *ástawa*, *yástawi* in ḤwJ.<sup>102</sup> In Barrāk we find forms like *ida nkasar* (perhaps stressed *id-ánkasar*) (p. 88, l. 15), but also *infaġar* (p. 91, l. 22), *ingalab* (p. 95, l. 27) *yihṭašilhā* (with *a* in the stem, but not in the preformative) (p. 89, l. 21), *yimtaṭilhā* (ibid.) (p. 89, l. 21), *yihṭifinni*<sup>103</sup> (p. 94, l. 11).

#### *Nominal morphology*

The degree of raising of the fem. morpheme differs slightly: in ḤwA up to [i<sup>h</sup>] in neutral surroundings, but in ḤwJ mostly [ε].<sup>104</sup> In Barrāk we see many examples where final *-ih* is transcribed, e.g. the poem on pp. 98–100.

#### *Tanwīn*

*Tanwīn* is not a feature of ḤwA or ḤwJ, but in Barrāk's poems quite a number of instances of are found. The use of *tanwīn* (i.e. appending final *-in*) is however restricted to poetry and sayings and the like and is not current in every day speech.

<sup>101</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:302–303.

<sup>102</sup> Ibid.:303.

<sup>103</sup> The final syllable is a poetic device; the poem rhymes in *-ni*.

<sup>104</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:303.

*Particles*

Some differences between adverbs in ḤwA and ḤwJ<sup>105</sup> are:

ḤwA	ḤwJ	
<i>hniy(yih)</i>	<i>hān</i>	“here”
<i>hnuh</i>	<i>hināk</i>	“there”
<i>kidī(yih)</i>	<i>hēk</i>	“thus, this way”
<i>lēh</i>	<i>lēš</i>	“why?”
<i>mata</i>	<i>matān/mitān, waqtēh</i>	“when?”
<i>kam</i>	<i>kam/kutrayh</i>	“how many?”
<i>gaddēh</i>	<i>gaddēš</i>	“how much?”
<i>dāyman</i>	<i>daym</i>	“always”
<i>‘a(la) ṭul</i>	<i>duḡri</i>	“straight”

*Some differences in conjunctions*

*yōm* is current for “when” in ḤwA and ḤwJ, but *nhār* was not recorded in ḤwA in the same meaning.

*inkān* is current for “if” in ḤwA and ḤwJ (and also Barrāk, e.g. p. 103, ll. 25 and 29), but (‘)ila was not recorded in ḤwA for “if” (but instances in Barrāk are, e.g., on p. 103, ll. 22 and 28), nor was suffixed *kann-* or *kānn-*. In Barrāk an instance of suffixed *kann* is *kannak tidakkar* “if you remember” (p. 102, l. 15).<sup>106</sup>

For “until” *lamma* is current in both ḤwA and ḤwJ, but *lamman* and *yāma* were not recorded for “when” in ḤwA.

*lākin* and *mār* are used for “but, but then” in ḤwJ, but only *bass* was heard in ḤwA for “but”.

*Some differences in (suffixed) prepositions*

Prepositions *ma* “with” and *l* “to” suffixed with the 1st p. sg. com. pronominal are *ma‘āy* and *lay* in ḤwA. In ḤwJ forms are *ma‘i* and *li*.

The shorter form *‘a* for *‘ala* “on” may in ḤwA also be used in positions not directly followed by the article, e.g. *‘a ḡāl* “aside” and *‘a ḡahār ālḡimal* “on the back of the camel”. In ḤwJ *‘a* is only used when the article directly follows.<sup>107</sup>

*mitl* for “as, like” is used in ḤwJ, but in ḤwA *zayy* is current. *mitl* also appears in Barrāk (p. 86, l. 11).

<sup>105</sup> Ibid.:304–305.

<sup>106</sup> A footnote explains *tidakkar* < *titdakkar*, but reduction of the initial geminate *tt* as in *ttidakkar* is very well possible, see remark in fn 80, p. 176.

<sup>107</sup> See Palva 1984–1986:306.

*Differences between some irregular high-frequency nouns*

Similarities in ẖwA and ẖwJ are for “father” (‘)aḅḅ and (‘)aḅū- in construct state; for “mother” (‘)amḡ; for “brother” (‘)axx and (‘)axū- in construct state. A difference is (‘)uxt in ẖwA, but (‘)axt in ẖwJ.

In ẖwA the pl. for “hand” ((‘)īd) is (‘)īdān, in ẖwJ it is (‘)adēn. “Hands” suffixed in ẖwA is īdān- (e.g. īdānī “my hands”), but in ẖwJ it is (‘)adē- (e.g. (‘)adēk “your hands”).

A similarity is (‘)afām for “mouth”, e.g. (‘)afamī “my mouth” and (‘)afāmak “your mouth”.

A difference is “water”: (‘)ālma (with incorporated article!) in ẖwJ, but miy in ẖwA.

*The analytical genitive*

The analytical genitive is not frequent in ẖwJ. In ẖwA the analytical genitive with *šuḡl* is current. I have not come across instances in Barrāk.

*Negated pronominals*

In ẖwA *mūhū* ~ *māhū* and *mīhī* in ẖwA, ẖwJ has *mū* ~ *muhu* and *mī* ~ *mihi*<sup>108</sup> and in Barrāk we find *ma hu* (p. 98, l. 3) and *ma hi* (p. 89, l. 22).

The comparison above shows that between these different branches of the same tribe (or tribal confederation) there are already many differences. The differences found—if there ever was a common starting point—must have arisen not only as a result of dialect contact with other tribes (or they are perhaps ‘internally motivated’), but the development of differences may also have been facilitated by the very lack of contact between the different branches due to their geographical separation over a longer period of time<sup>109</sup> (the ẖwĒṬĀT of Sinai are estimated to have arrived there in the 17th century at the latest, see Introduction, I. c.); as the crow flies the distance between the dīrahs of the ẖwĒṬĀT of Sinai and southern Jordan is approximately 200 km. Apart from that, regular contact between the two branches must have been severely hampered by the presence of new borders that came with the creation of the state of Israel in 1948.

Of the two varieties ẖwA is clearly of the group I type found in Sinai and the Negev (see also MDS plots and dendrogram in the appendix), while ẖwJ shows characteristics that are best attributed to contact with dialects which are more of the Naḡdiy-type (see also remarks made in Palva 2008b:406).

<sup>108</sup> Ibid. 307.

<sup>109</sup> Due to the lack of contact, changes that appear in one variety cannot (any longer) be ‘corrected’ by speakers in another location of originally the same dialect.

## VI. FINAL CONCLUSIONS

a. *The Position of Sinai Dialects in Northwest Arabian Arabic  
(the NWA-group)*

The larger typological dialect group of Northwest Arabian dialects of Arabic (as was proposed in Palva 1991) was shown in De Jong 2000 to be present in northern Sinai (groups I, II and III), along the Mediterranean coast.

When we now check features of groups VI, VII and VIII against features listed as characteristic for NWA dialects in Palva 1991:154–165, we notice the following (only dialects of groups VI, VII and VIII are discussed here<sup>110</sup>):<sup>111</sup>

- i Absence of *tanwīn* and its residues: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 4.1.).
- ii Absence of affricated variants of /g/ (\*q) and /k/ (\*k): groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 1.1.1., 1.1.3.).
- iii Absence of final /n/ in the imperfect, 2nd p. sg. fem., 2nd p. pl. masc. and 3rd p. pl. masc.: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 3.2.1.2.).
- iv Pronominal suffix *-ku* (*-kuw* in my own transcription) in the 2nd p. pl. masc.: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (~ *-kum* in VII and VIII) (cf. 3.1.12.2.).
- v Use of locative preposition *fī*: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 3.1.16.).
- vi Interrogative *kēf*: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 3.1.14.).
- vii Voiced reflex of *qāf*: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 1.1.1., 1.1.3.).
- viii The *gawah*-syndrome and the CVCaCV- > CCVCV- syllable structure:<sup>112</sup> groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 2.2.1.1., 2.1.1.2.1.6. in De Jong 2000 and 2.1.1.2.2. in the vol. in hand).

<sup>110</sup> Since dialects of group I discussed in this volume are grouped together with other group I dialects described in De Jong 2000, whose NWA status has already been established there, the same NWA status of the group I dialects discussed in the volume in hand logically follows.

<sup>111</sup> The features are cited here as they were listed in Palva 1991. In a number of instances additional data have become available and appeared in De Jong 2000. The reader is referred to relevant paragraphs by the numbers following in brackets.

<sup>112</sup> This was rephrased as two separate criteria in De Jong 2000:48–50. The conclusion there was that resyllabication of CaCaCV sequences (> CCVCV) is not a feature of NWA

- ix Gender distinction in the 2nd and 3rd p. pl. in personal pronouns, pronominal suffixes and finite verb forms: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 3.1.12.1., 3.1.12.2., 3.2.1.1., 3.2.1.2.).
- x The definite article (ʾ)*al-* and the relative pronoun (ʾ)*alli/halli*: groups VI, VII and VIII conform only in part: *al-* ~ *il-* and *alliy* ~ *illiy* (cf. 3.1.9.1.).
- xi A number of typical Bedouin lexical items (*gōṭar*, *sōlaf*, *ṭabb* etc.): groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf., e.g., 3.2.3.9.).
- xii Occurrence of stressed variants *-ī* and *-nī* of the pronominal suffix in 1st p. sg. com.: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 3.1.12.2.)
- xiii Occurrence of /a/ in the initial syllable in verbal forms VII–X in the perfect, and the stability of this vowel, shown by stress on the initial syllable when in stressable position: group VI conforms, groups VII and VIII do not conform (cf. 3.2.3.1., 3.2.3.3., 3.2.3.4.).
- xiv Occurrence of /a/ in the initial syllable in a number of irregular nouns (ʾ*amm*, ʾ*axt*, ʾ*axwān*, ʾ*adēn*, ʾ*afām*): MzA of group VI and ĞbA of group VII conform in part. Other dialects do not conform (cf. 3.1.9.2.).
- xv The invariable pronominal suffix *-ki* of the 2nd p. sg. fem.: groups VI, VII and VIII do not conform (cf. 3.1.12.2.).

On characteristics listed in Palva 1991, which are not shared by all NWA dialects, the following remarks are to be added:

- xvi The use of *b*-imperfect: present in groups VI, VII and VIII (cf. 4.3.).
- xvii Vowel harmony in the active imperfect of verbal form I: groups VI, VII and VIII conform (cf. 3.2.1.2.).
- xviii Well-established monophthongs /ō/ and /ē/ vs. partial monophthongization of the older diphthongs, and /ō/ ~ /ū/, /ē/ ~ /ī/ fluctuation: in group VI older diphthongs remain in certain environments, in groups VII and VIII monophthongization is not phonetically conditioned (cf. 1.2.4.).
- xix The phonetically conditioned sg. fem. status absolutus marker allomorphs /-a/ and /-i/ in Sinai and the Negev, vs. a less strong ʾ*imāla* in the front allomorph in the dialects of the Ḥwēṭāt and Baniy ʿAṭīye

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dialects, whereas sequences of the type CICV(C) (where I = *i* or *u*) have as a rule been resyllabified in NWA dialects, e.g. \*ʾ*inab* > ʾ*nab* “grapes”, \**turāb* > *ṭrāb* “dust”.

- (/a/ and /e/): group VI has [i<sup>h</sup>] in neutral environments, groups VII and VIII tend to have slightly lower 'imālah, between [e<sup>h</sup>] and [i<sup>h</sup>] (cf. 1.2.3.4.3.3.).
- xx The pronominal suffixes of the 3rd p. sg. masc. C-*ih*, fem. -*hiy* in the Negev, masc. C-*ah*, fem. -*ha* in Sinai, the Ḥwēṭāt and Bani 'Aṭīye, masc. -*ah*/-*ih*, fem. -*ha* the Bdül, masc. C-*o*, fem. -*ha* the N'ēmāt; groups VI, VII and VIII have masc. -*uh* and fem. -*ha*/-*hi*(') (cf. 3.1.12.2.).
- xxi Occurrence of several different plural forms of the demonstrative pronoun: most dialects in groups VI, VII and VIII show doubling of the *l* (or *l̥*) in the pl. com. demonstrative, e.g. (*hā*)*dill*(-*ih*), *dillēlih*<sup>13</sup> (cf. 3.1.13.).

In addition to these features discussed with regard to NWA dialects in Palva 1991, it is important to note that all dialects of groups VI, VII and VIII (as well as southern dialects of group I) are 'différentiels' in terms of elision of short vowels; short high vowels *i* and *u* are dropped in eligible positions, while (underlying) short low vowel *a* is not elided in comparable positions, e.g. *širib* (|šarib|) + -*it* > *širbit*, *šarbit* or *šarbat*, but *katab* + -*at* > *kátabat* or *katábat* ~ *kitábat* (i.e. not \**katbat*).

Notwithstanding some differences between the dialects spoken in the central and southern regions of Sinai, there can be little doubt that these dialects are indeed a continuation of the NWA-group. There are some features of the southern Sinai dialects, however, that do not conform to the more typically NWA-type. The hypothesis of the presence of NWA Bedouin dialects throughout Sinai (with the exception of the dialect of the Dawāḡrah and that of the town of al-'Arīš, see De Jong chapters IV and V) is nevertheless corroborated.

At the same time the conclusion to be drawn with regard to the question how far the Negev-type stretches into Sinai is that this type is represented by the group I dialects identified, which then border on the southern dialects of groups VI, VII and VIII. For a large part the escarpment of the Tih plateau is the geophysical obstacle where isoglosses accumulate to form the border between the Negev-type and the southern Sinai-type.

<sup>13</sup> This is characterized as "one of the most important peculiarities of the whole NWA group" (cf. Palva 1991:365). Some of the group I dialects (like TAŞ and TAN) may have forms without doubling for near deixis (e.g. *hādōl*, *hāḡal* or *hōḡal*) as current for near deixis, but all have doubling in forms for forms used for far deixis (e.g. *hōḡallāk*(-*ah*) or *hāḡollāk*(-*ah*)).

An earlier hypothesis of the presence of a transitional area in Jordan, where a number of dialect characteristics reported for the Ḥwēṭāt and Bani ‘Aṭiyye (see Palva 1984–86) suggest influences from non-NWA dialects, was contradicted by Palva. The hypothesis was for the presence of a transition area between NWA and a more Nağdi-type of dialect(s) (see also the discussion above in Conclusions, V.).<sup>14</sup>

The question of whether or not dialects are “différentiels” or “non-différentiels”—with NWA dialects being “différentiels”—was not the only indication that the dialects of the Ḥwēṭāt and Bani ‘Aṭiyye have had influences from non-NWA (possibly Nağdi) type of dialects.<sup>15</sup>

Another important indication was the Nağdi-type of resyllabication (CaCaCV > CCvCV), that seems to be current in the dialects of the Bani ‘Aṭiyye and Ḥwēṭāt in Jordan.<sup>16</sup>

In addition, it should be noted that the Ḥwēṭāt are much more a relatively recent amalgam of social entities of different backgrounds<sup>17</sup> than other tribes—such as most tribes in Sinai—who usually have a more homogeneous background, at least in relatively recent history. Chances that (again, relatively) recent additions to this collective known as ‘the Ḥwēṭāt’ have until today preserved some of the features of their original dialects should not be excluded; it may also account for some of the contradictory findings reported for Jordanian ‘Ḥwēṭiy’ in the available literature. Clearly, more research into the dialect situation in southern Jordan and its surroundings is needed to untangle this (seemingly?) contradictory information.

<sup>14</sup> Palva 2008b:407 erroneously quotes the conclusion in De Jong 2000:630 as (quoting from Palva 2008b) “[that] the existence of such a group [i.e. NWA] is questionable and deserves reconsideration”. The passage referred to in De Jong 2000 actually reads: “Palva’s conclusion that Ḥwēṭiy is part of his proposed NWA group deserves [therefore] reconsideration”. In other words: the position of the dialects of the Ḥwēṭāt and Bani ‘Aṭiyye as NWA-type of dialects deserved such reconsideration; the presence of an NWA-group is nowhere questioned in De Jong 2000, nor is it questioned here.

<sup>15</sup> Interestingly, aṭ-Ṭayyib 1993:222 relates stories told by older tribesmen of the Bani ‘Aṭiyye of their origin in the eastern Nağd, from where they (then still known as Ma‘āzah) migrated westward in the beginning of the fifth century Hiğrah (beginning of the eleventh century CE) to Taymā, after which they continued farther westward two centuries later (i.e. the beginning of the thirteenth century CE) to arrive near Tabūk (in present day Saudi Arabia, some 180 kilometres southeast of ‘Aqabah). The Ma‘āzah—or part of this collective—are today found in the eastern desert of Egypt (see map on p. 4 or p. 372).

<sup>16</sup> These and a number of other differences between Ḥwēṭiy as described by Palva and the Negev-type are listed in De Jong 2000:627–630.

<sup>17</sup> See remark \*11 in Introduction, I, d.

Another answer to one of our earlier research questions is that the vowelless pronominal suffixes *-k* for the 2nd p. sg. masc. and *-k* for the sg. fem. are indeed a characteristic feature of the dialects spoken in the south of Sinai; these pron. suffixes are in regular use in groups VI, VII and VIII. The remark of the older speaker of the Samā'nah in the north, that his tribe had until the turn of the century (i.e. around 1900 CE) had their home in the region of aṭ-Ṭūr, may very well be true. If we combine the presence of the *-k* suffix in his speech (SaA) with the presence of the pronominal suffix *-kum* (~ *-kuw*),<sup>118</sup> and also the verbal suffixes ending in *-m* of the 2nd and 3rd p. pl. masc. in the perfect and imperfect,<sup>119</sup> and see that the combination of these characteristics is also found in 'LA and ḤmA, his remark acquires special significance. If linguistic evidence is anything to go by for conclusions on geographical origins of speakers, one would conclude that the Samā'nah (and perhaps also the 'Agāyḥ) must have had their earlier abode in the region north of the lower end (not too far from the Gulf of Suez) of Wādiy Fērān (i.e. the area around Wādiy Ġarandal and Wādiy Liḥyān). Unfortunately, I could not find other indications that would support this conclusion.

Apart from the necessity of more research into the hypothesized border area between the NWA- and Naḡdiy-groups of dialects, a remaining desideratum is a systematic survey of the dialects of the Ḥiḡāz to establish how far—if at all—the North West Arabian dialect group reaches south along the Red Sea coast of western Saudi Arabia.

In the eastern desert of Egypt the dialect of the Ma'āzah (which is hypothesized here to be part of the NWA group) borders on the dialect of the 'Abābdah (which can be seen as the northern extension of the Sudanese type of Arabic dialects,<sup>120</sup> like that of the Šukriyyah<sup>121</sup>). Research into the dialect of the Ma'āzah is needed to establish whether it is indeed the southwestern extremity of the NWA group on the Egyptian mainland.<sup>122</sup>

<sup>118</sup> See De Jong 2000:283–288.

<sup>119</sup> See De Jong 2000:298–299.

<sup>120</sup> As described in De Jong 2002, and see remarks in Woidich and Behnstedt 1980:176 (fn 1).

<sup>121</sup> As described in Reichmuth 1983.

<sup>122</sup> Although Hobbs 1989 is an excellent anthropological study on the Ma'āzah, the transcription used there for Arabic is less suitable for linguistic interpretation of the features of their dialect.

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## INDEX

In terms of alphabetical order, indices in transcription are treated as if they were without diacritics. *ʿayn* precedes ‘a’, and *hamzah* precedes *ʿayn*. Forms with word-initial *hamzah* are listed under the following vowel. Where reference is to two or more of the descriptive chapters (multiple references), the Roman numbering (of the chapters) does not precede the numbering of the paragraphs referred to. Where reference is to only one of the descriptive chapters, the Roman numbering does precede the paragraph numbers. Such single references are listed following the multiple references. E.g., a multiple reference 1.2.3/4 refers to chapters I, II and III, paragraphs 1.2.3. and 1.2.4.

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*win* → presentative particles  
*wlin* → presentative particles  
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*xawf: min* → “lest”  
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*ž* → phonology: post alveolar affricate /ǧ/

## APPENDIX





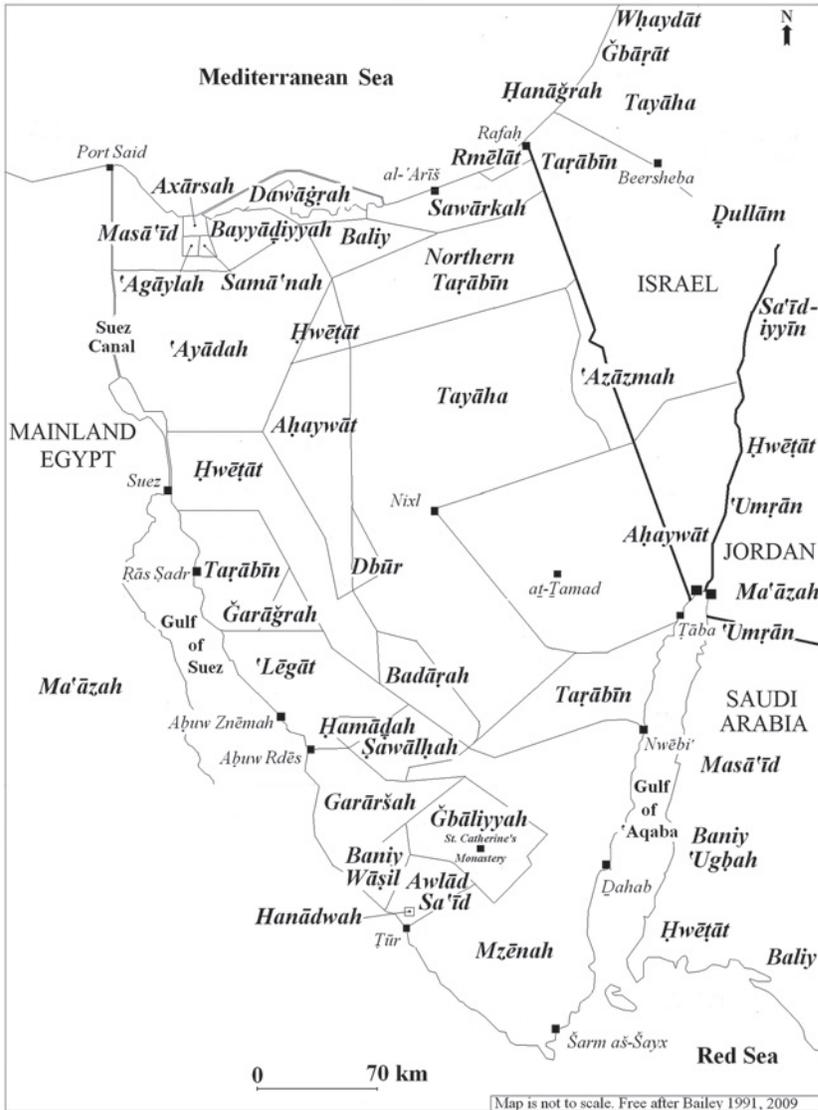


Figure 2. Approximate distribution of Bedouin tribes in Sinai and surrounding regions

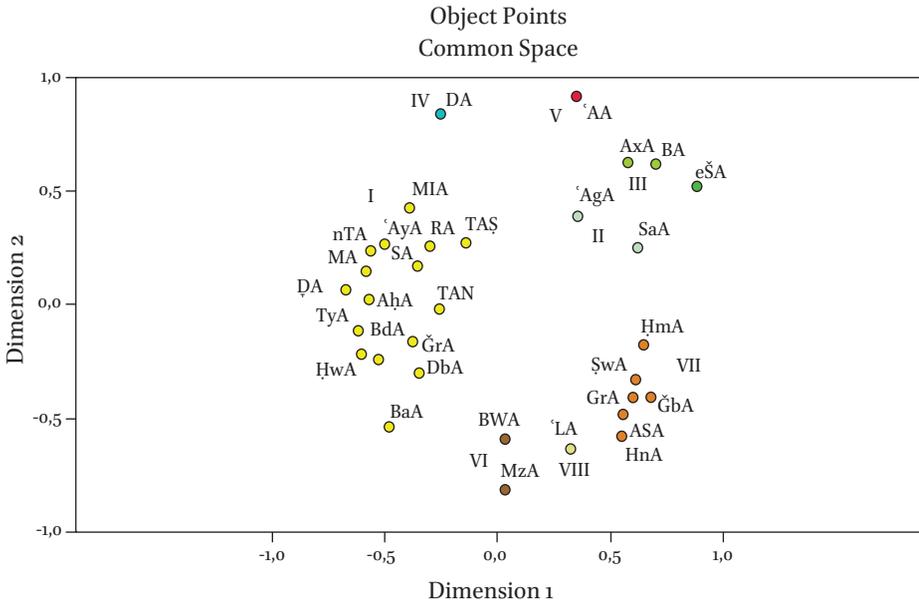


Figure 3. Proxscal—Euclidian Binary MDS plot of dialects of Sinai

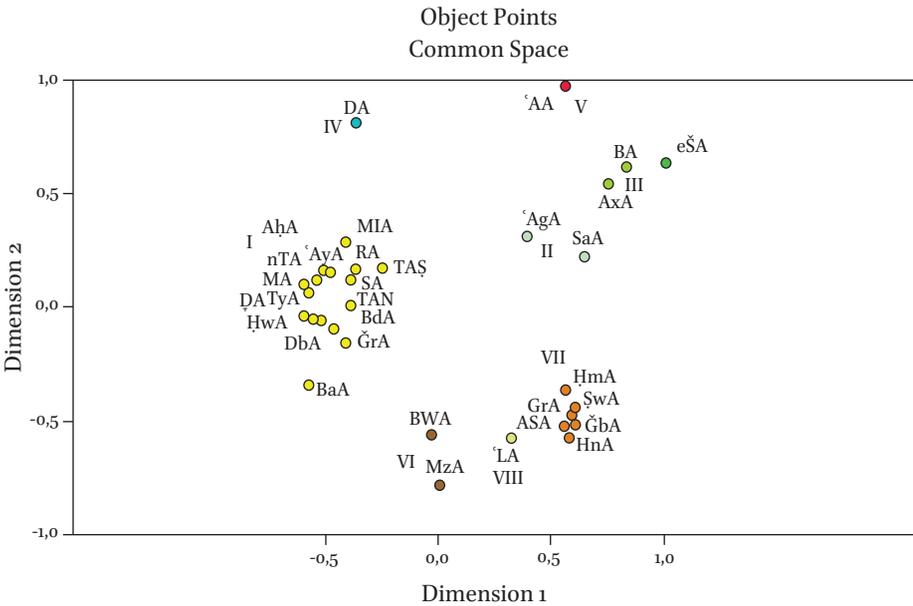


Figure 4. Proxscal—Squared Euclidian Binary MDS plot of dialects of Sinai

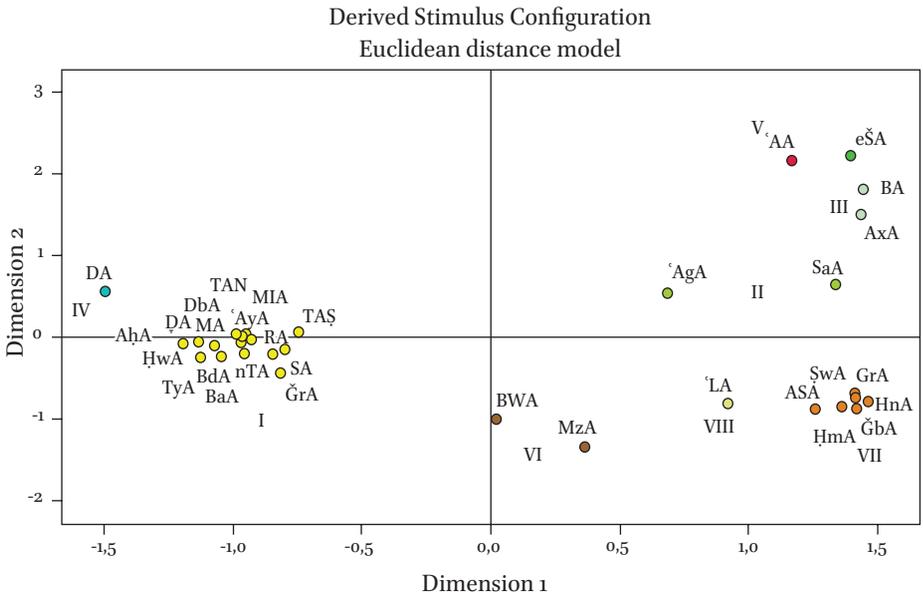


Figure 5. Alscal—Euclidian Binary MDS plot of dialects of Sinai

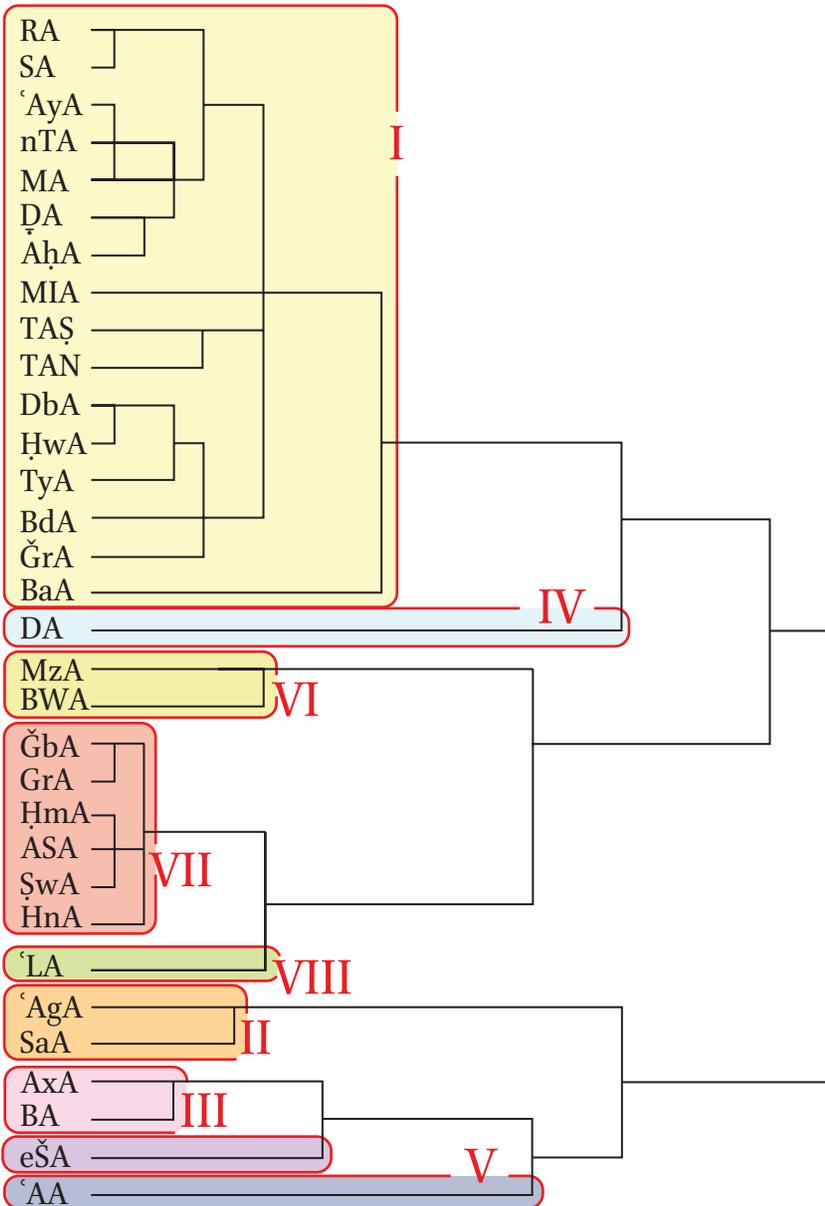


Figure 6. Dendrogram of dialects of Sinai

Proximity Matrix																																	
Binary Euclidean Distances																																	
	sA	MA	AA	SA	BA	DA	RA	AA	RA	DA	sAya	SA	nTA	ABa	MEa	BVA	ASA	Gba	Gra	SWa	Hna	LA	Ga	TAN	Tya	Eda	Dba	Hwa	Hna	MDA			
sA	.000	11.619	6.481	9.592	8.775	5.145	12.083	11.750	7.810	11.705	11.662	11.489	11.576	11.148	11.662	11.576	11.619	11.035	11.000	10.817	10.909	11.091	11.081	11.619	11.091	11.289	11.576	11.180	11.402	11.100	11.533		
MA	11.619	.000	10.724	4.434	10.392	11.136	9.110	6.325	11.225	4.899	4.123	3.317	4.123	3.162	3.662	9.592	8.832	10.536	10.583	10.392	10.392	10.586	9.695	5.477	6.164	5.477	4.472	5.668	4.899	4.796	10.488	5.282	
AA	6.481	10.724	.000	8.124	7.681	8.124	11.225	11.000	8.544	10.536	10.863	10.486	10.724	10.449	10.509	10.100	10.149	8.849	8.644	9.775	8.644	9.110	9.327	8.424	8.680	9.220	9.650	9.592	9.644	9.695	9.327	9.000	
SA	9.592	4.434	8.124	.000	5.000	4.899	10.296	4.434	9.660	9.487	9.167	9.055	9.327	9.391	10.344	9.560	8.944	8.660	8.775	8.775	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	
BA	8.775	10.392	7.681	5.000	.000	8.124	10.630	10.168	9.592	7.788	10.247	9.650	9.950	10.100	10.440	10.168	10.000	8.888	8.602	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	
DA	5.145	11.136	4.123	8.888	8.124	.000	11.533	11.225	8.602	11.045	11.000	11.091	11.000	11.136	11.190	11.576	11.225	10.536	10.677	10.392	10.198	10.488	11.136	11.314	11.091	10.770	10.817	10.770	10.817	10.296	10.954		
RA	7.810	6.325	11.000	8.544	10.168	11.225	9.327	.000	11.091	9.110	8.832	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	
AA	7.810	11.225	8.544	10.168	11.225	9.327	.000	11.091	9.110	8.832	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	8.718	
RA	11.705	4.899	10.536	8.688	9.798	11.045	9.110	6.782	11.402	.000	5.365	5.000	2.646	4.698	4.796	8.695	8.718	10.149	10.100	10.168	10.000	9.788	9.274	6.325	5.631	6.000	5.477	5.916	6.164	6.083	10.100	5.089	
DA	11.662	4.123	10.863	9.487	10.247	11.000	8.832	6.245	11.266	5.365	.000	4.243	5.089	3.973	3.742	6.644	6.000	10.583	10.440	10.440	10.440	9.950	5.668	6.003	5.745	4.796	5.089	5.000	4.472	10.536	5.916		
sAya	11.489	3.317	10.677	9.165	9.950	11.091	8.944	6.245	11.000	5.000	4.243	.000	4.243	3.000	4.472	6.644	6.000	10.296	10.344	10.149	10.344	10.449	9.644	5.385	5.745	5.568	5.196	6.000	5.385	5.382	10.344	5.196	
SA	11.576	4.123	10.486	8.055	9.950	11.000	8.832	6.557	11.081	2.646	5.089	4.243	.000	4.123	4.472	6.434	6.307	10.149	10.149	9.950	9.649	9.220	5.816	5.916	5.385	4.796	5.657	5.916	5.477	10.500	5.000		
nTA	11.446	3.162	10.724	3.327	10.100	11.136	8.775	6.164	11.045	4.899	3.873	3.000	4.123	.000	4.359	9.592	8.832	10.344	10.392	10.168	10.296	10.000	9.695	5.657	5.089	5.916	5.477	5.895	5.916	5.477	10.500	5.089	
ABa	11.682	3.606	10.863	3.381	10.440	11.680	8.944	6.403	11.356	4.796	3.742	4.472	4.472	4.599	.000	9.539	8.888	10.677	10.630	10.536	10.536	9.950	5.385	5.916	5.000	4.359	4.472	4.583	4.472	10.630	5.568		
MEa	11.874	4.622	11.146	10.344	10.168	11.576	10.536	7.028	11.402	6.695	6.844	6.644	6.434	6.623	6.930	.000	6.292	8.185	7.874	8.000	8.387	8.987	7.348	8.832	8.987	8.165	8.381	8.220	6.592	6.164	8.387	6.695	
BVA	11.619	8.832	10.900	9.950	10.000	11.225	9.840	6.655	11.045	8.718	9.000	8.600	8.307	8.623	8.888	5.202	.000	8.307	8.246	8.367	8.485	8.124	7.071	8.124	8.367	8.246	8.602	8.544	8.014	8.775	8.485	8.718	
ASA	11.045	10.536	10.000	8.944	8.888	10.536	10.883	10.344	11.000	10.149	10.583	10.296	10.100	10.344	10.677	8.185	8.307	.000	3.873	3.606	3.000	3.885	6.245	8.849	8.849	8.849	8.849	8.849	8.849	8.849	8.849	8.849	8.849
Gba	11.000	10.583	10.149	8.660	8.602	10.677	10.817	10.206	10.883	10.100	10.536	10.344	10.149	10.392	10.630	7.874	8.246	3.873	.000	3.162	4.000	6.000	6.481	8.899	8.899	8.899	8.899	8.899	8.899	8.899	8.899	8.899	8.899
Gra	10.817	10.392	8.840	8.775	8.718	10.392	10.817	10.206	10.770	10.108	10.440	10.149	10.149	10.108	10.536	8.000	8.387	3.606	3.162	.000	3.162	5.831	6.325	7.088	8.899	10.296	10.302	10.149	10.392	10.536	4.213	10.488	
SWa	10.900	10.392	8.844	8.775	8.718	10.392	10.817	10.108	10.770	10.100	10.440	10.344	9.950	10.036	10.536	8.367	8.385	3.000	4.000	3.162	.000	5.920	6.000	10.000	10.583	10.302	10.149	10.198	10.247	10.108	10.488		
Hna	11.091	10.296	10.149	9.110	8.718	10.677	10.630	10.108	10.883	9.798	10.149	9.840	10.100	10.536	9.387	8.124	5.385	6.000	6.831	5.292	.000	5.292	6.000	5.292	6.065	8.900	10.392	10.108	10.247	10.000	10.149	8.831	10.000
LA	11.091	6.695	9.950	9.327	10.055	10.888	10.440	6.695	11.136	9.274	9.950	9.434	9.220	9.095	9.900	7.348	7.071	6.481	6.325	6.000	5.920	.000	3.381	7.088	8.899	8.900	9.849	8.899	9.950	6.164	8.899		
Gra	11.619	5.477	11.000	9.434	10.296	11.136	9.000	7.071	11.402	6.325	5.668	5.385	5.916	5.657	5.386	8.832	8.124	8.849	8.999	9.798	10.000	9.695	9.381	.000	5.000	4.899	4.600	4.796	4.899	4.796	10.100	6.633	
TAN	11.081	6.164	10.247	8.660	8.695	10.770	9.110	7.746	10.770	8.831	6.403	5.745	5.916	6.000	5.916	8.887	8.950	6.000	8.899	10.000	8.899	9.788	5.089	.000	4.472	6.000	5.668	5.292	5.472	5.668	5.292	5.292	
TAN	11.260	5.477	10.536	2.220	10.000	10.954	9.000	7.348	11.045	6.000	5.745	5.668	5.385	5.777	5.000	9.665	8.246	10.344	10.392	10.206	10.683	10.890	8.900	4.899	4.472	.000	5.000	5.683	5.477	5.668	10.677	6.164	
BVA	11.705	4.472	11.091	9.950	10.770	11.714	9.220	6.928	11.314	5.477	4.796	5.106	4.796	5.000	4.390	8.000	8.124	10.449	10.488	10.392	10.392	10.168	9.800	4.796	5.000	4.000	3.950	4.000	4.123	10.488	5.831		
ASA	11.576	5.668	10.770	9.922	10.344	11.091	8.718	7.141	11.180	5.916	5.000	6.000	5.657	5.916	4.472	2.220	8.844	10.100	10.149	10.149	10.149	10.247	8.840	4.796	5.668	4.553	4.350	4.000	4.796	4.899	10.247	6.683	
Dba	11.180	4.899	10.950	9.434	10.392	10.770	9.327	6.928	11.136	6.164	5.000	5.385	5.916	5.777	5.583	9.592	8.844	10.149	10.488	10.392	10.108	9.899	4.899	5.392	5.477	4.000	4.796	.000	3.000	10.296	5.477		
Hna	11.402	10.488	10.883	8.695	9.440	10.817	9.274	7.000	11.180	6.683	4.472	5.385	4.472	4.434	8.775	10.536	10.630	10.440	10.536	10.536	10.536	10.536	4.796	5.745	5.668	4.123	4.899	3.000	10.440	5.440	5.745		
Hwa	11.000	10.488	9.840	8.327	8.944	10.296	10.954	11.000	10.296	10.954	10.100	10.536	10.344	10.050	10.472	4.243	3.742	5.831	6.164	10.100	10.392	10.677	10.488	10.247	10.488	10.247	10.488	10.247	10.488	10.440	10.440	10.440	
MDA	11.533	5.292	10.440	9.000	8.890	10.954	9.327	7.211	11.136	5.000	5.106	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000	6.695	8.718	10.149	10.488	10.488	10.108	10.000	6.633	5.292	6.164	5.831	6.083	5.477	5.745	10.296	.000		

Figure 7. Binary Euclidean distances in a proximity matrix

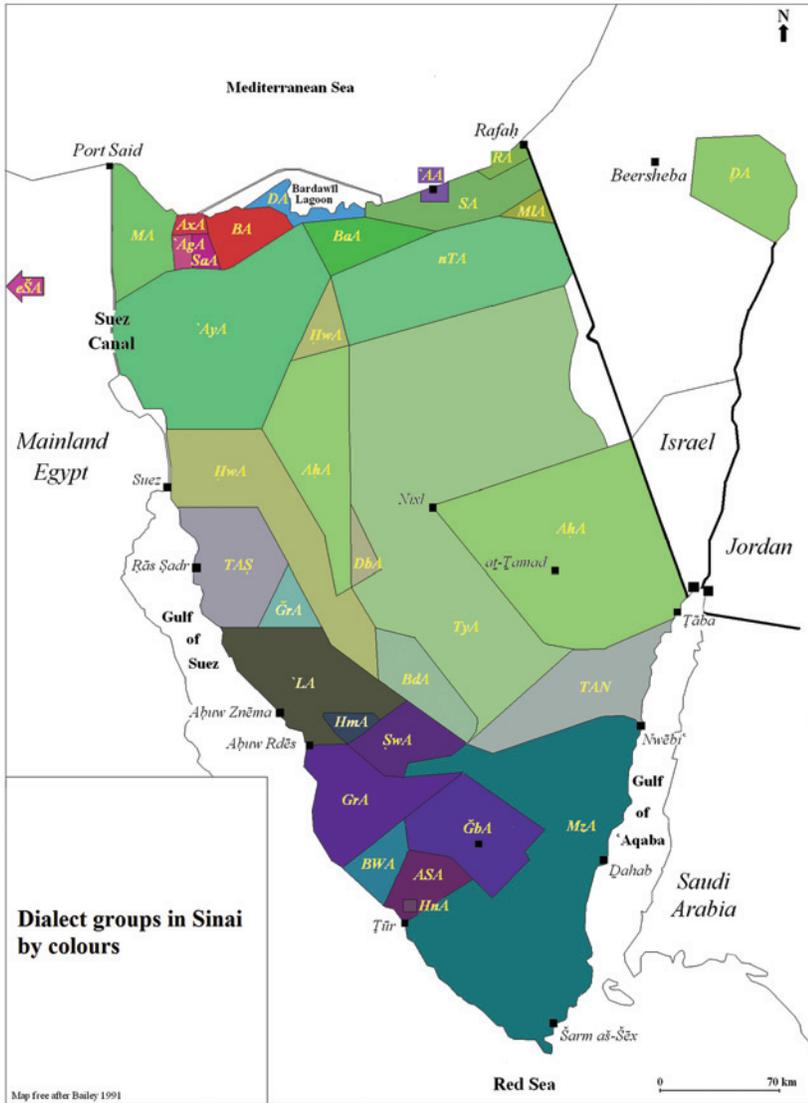


Figure 8a. Dialect groups as clusters in similar shades of colours

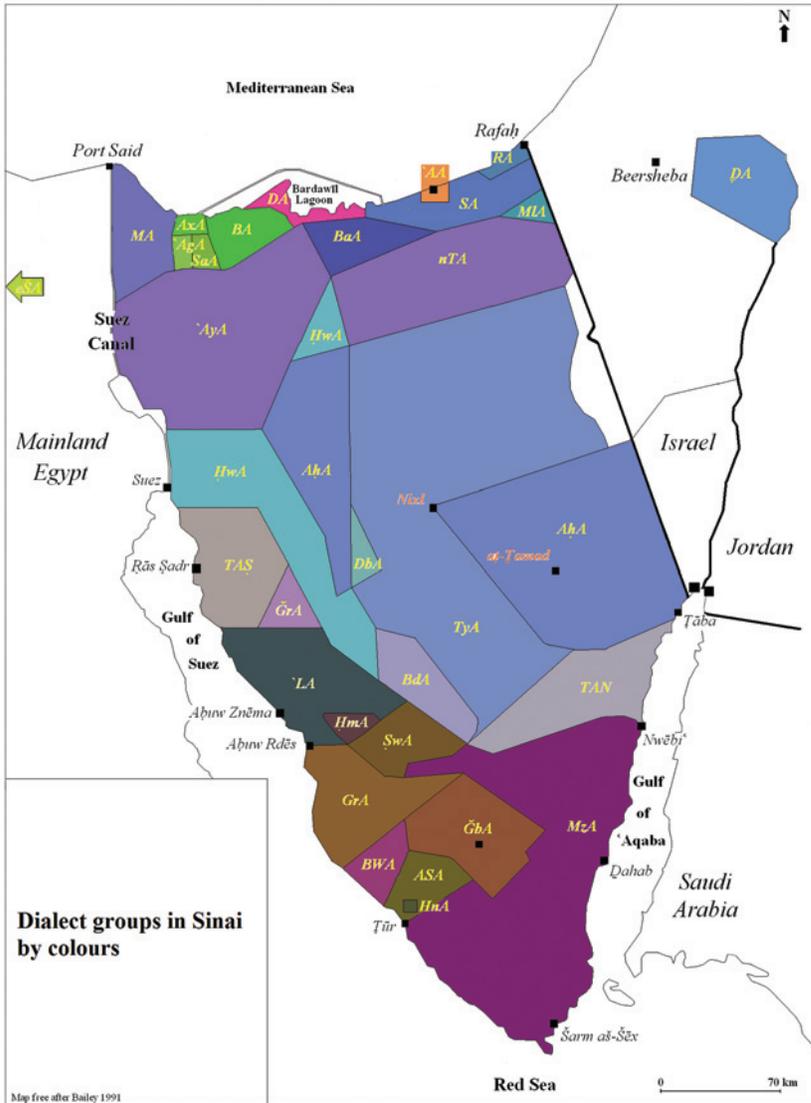


Figure 8b. Dialect groups as clusters in similar shades of colours

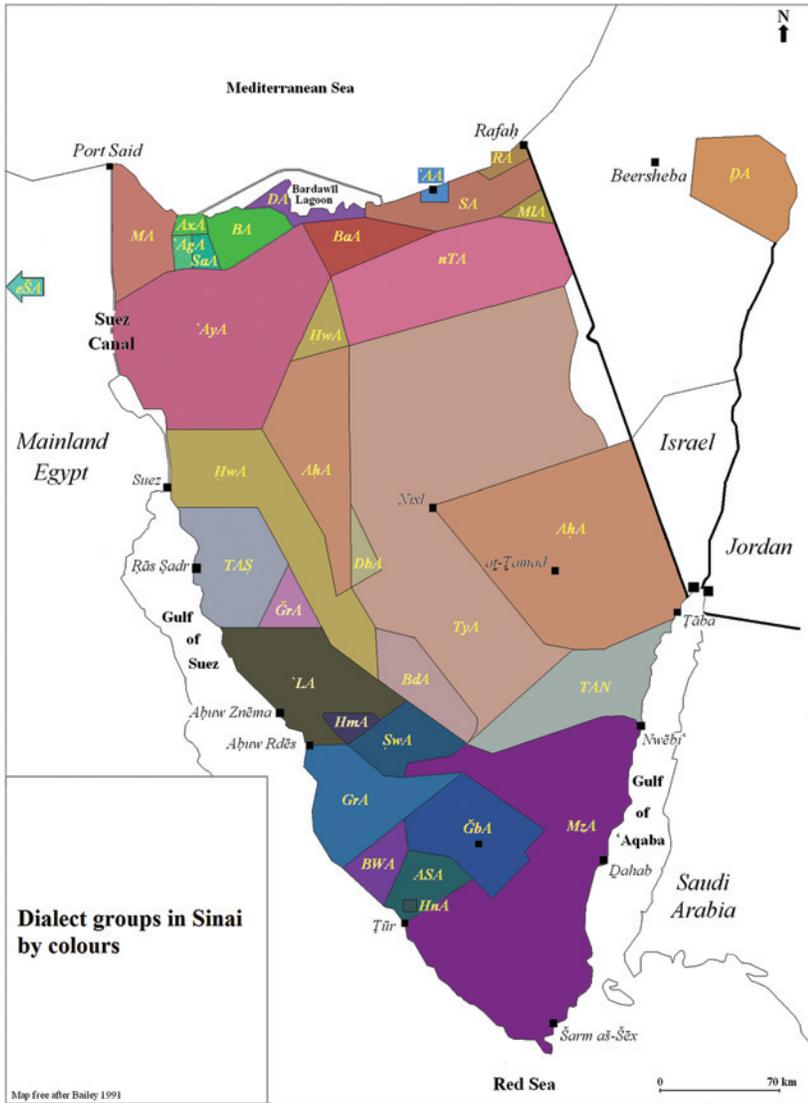
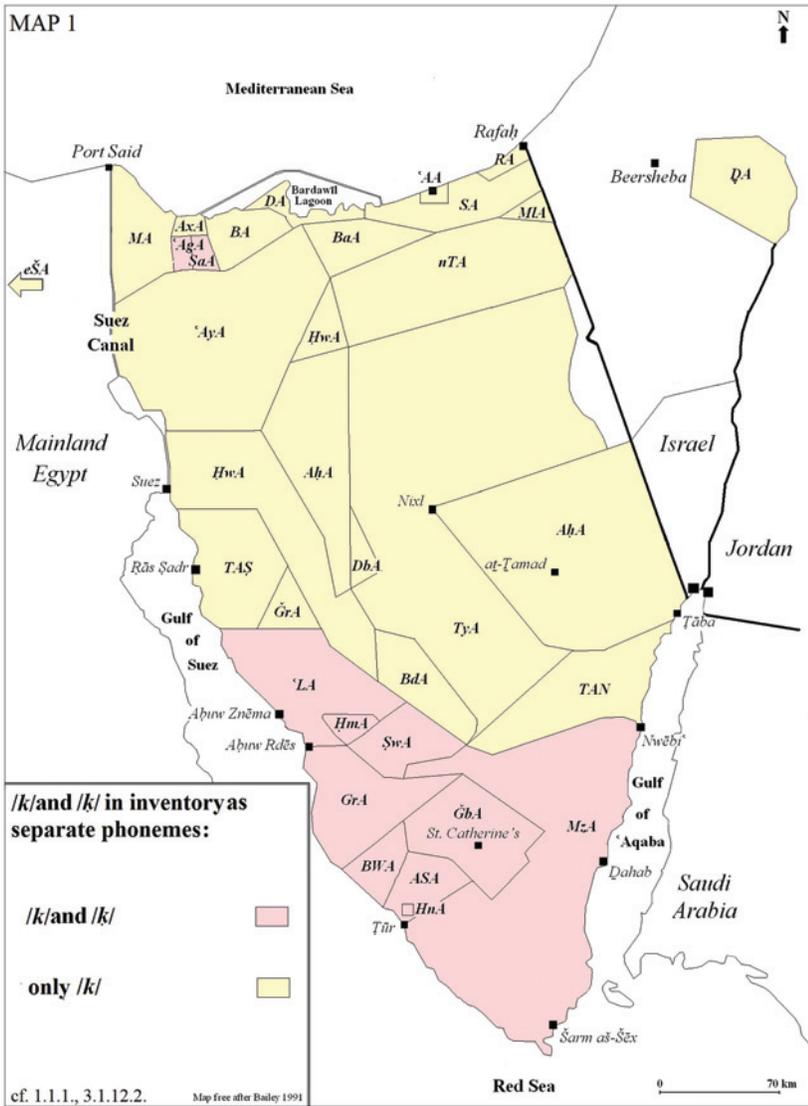


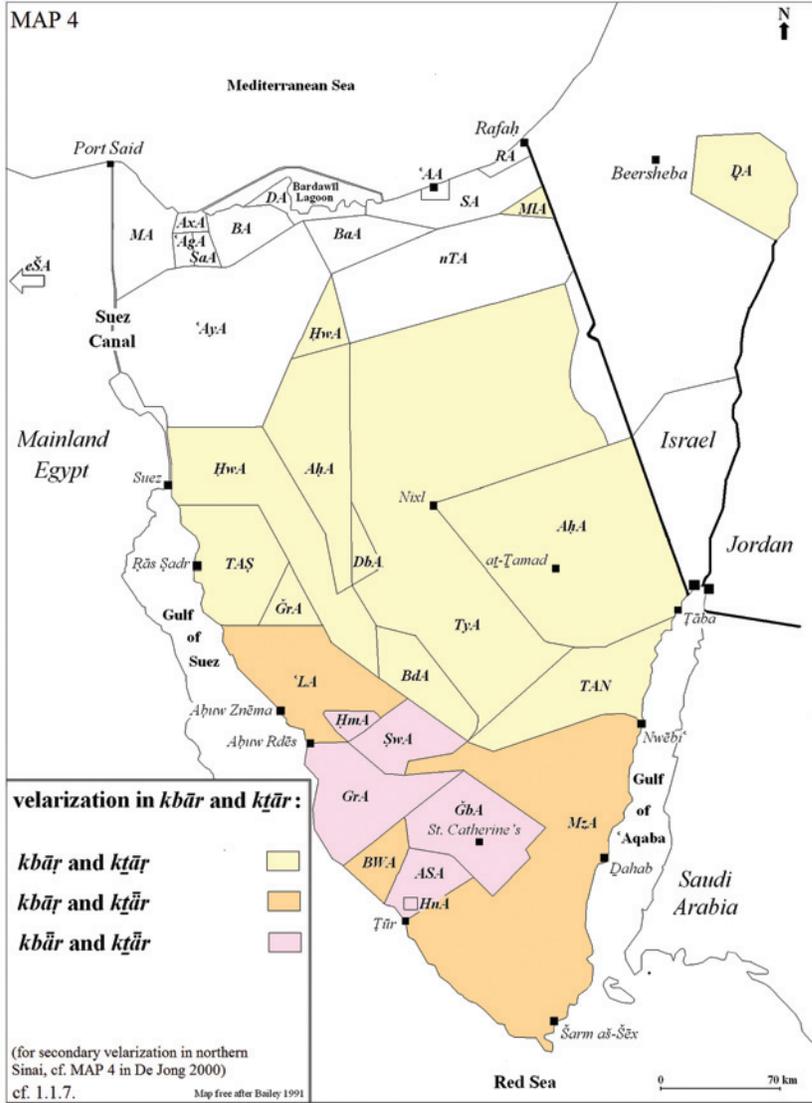
Figure 8c. Dialect groups as clusters in similar shades of colours



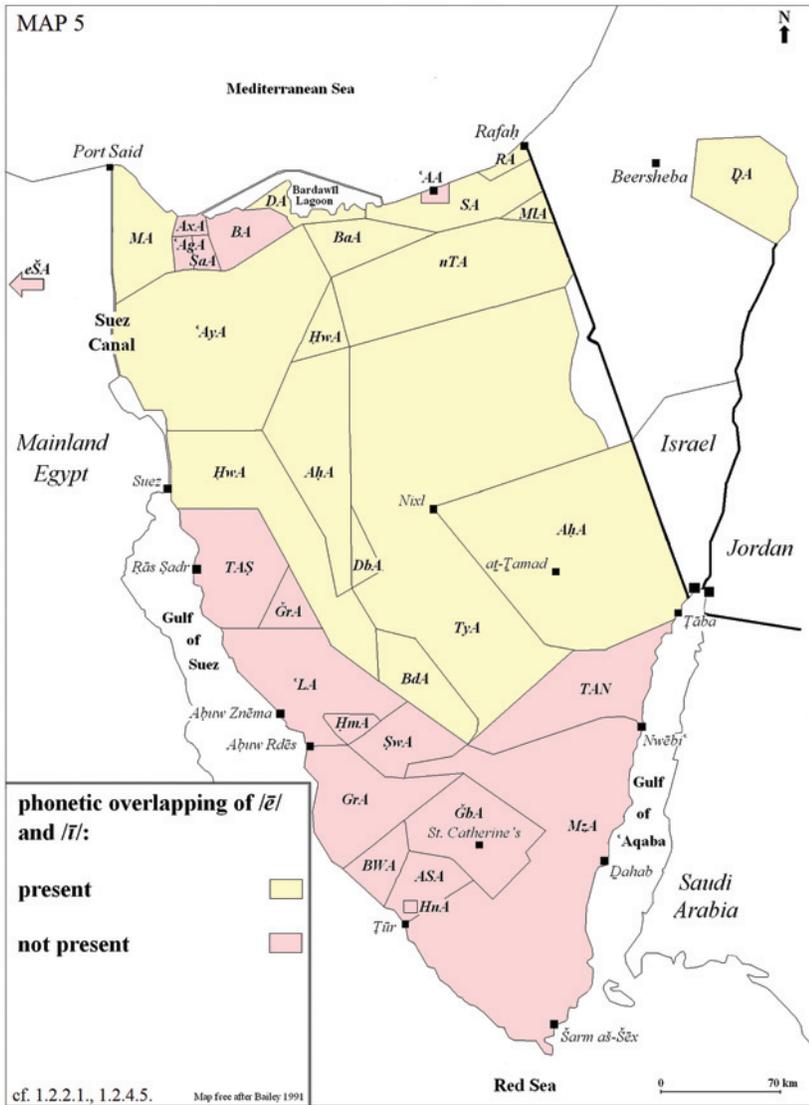


Map 1. /k/ and /k/ as separate phonemes in the phoneme inventory

For remarks on the absence of MAPS 2 and 3 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



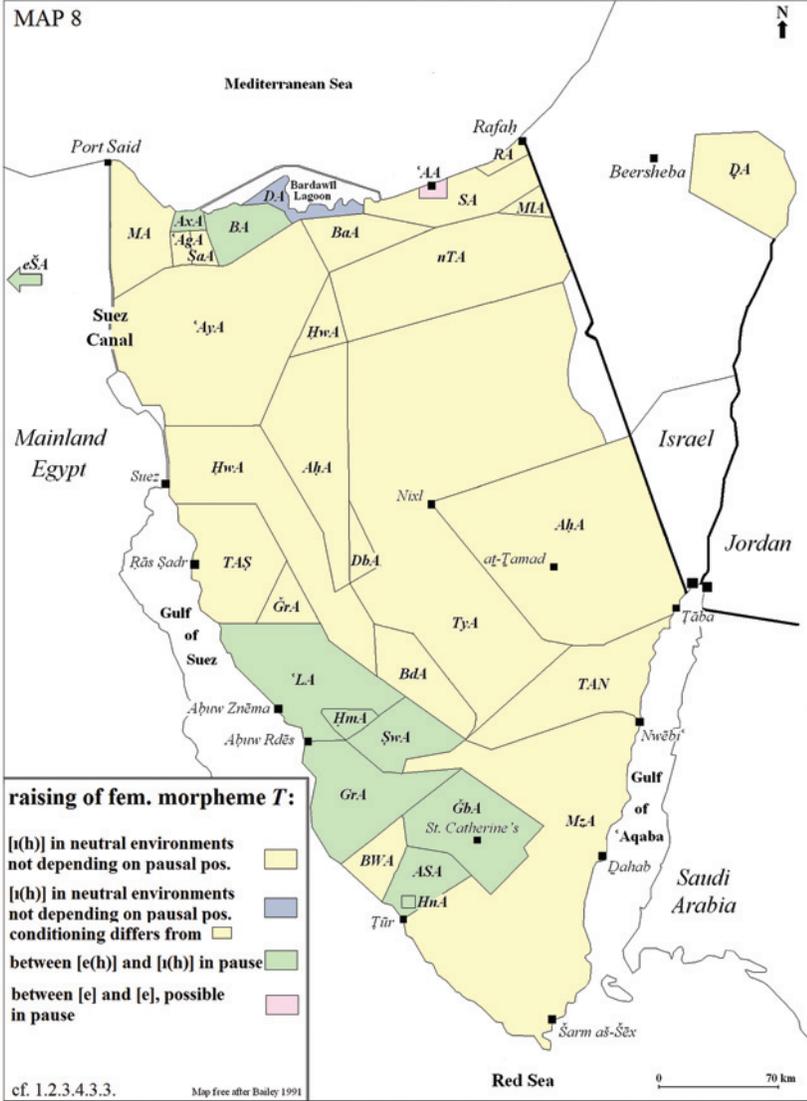
Map 4. Velarization in *kbār* and *kṭār*



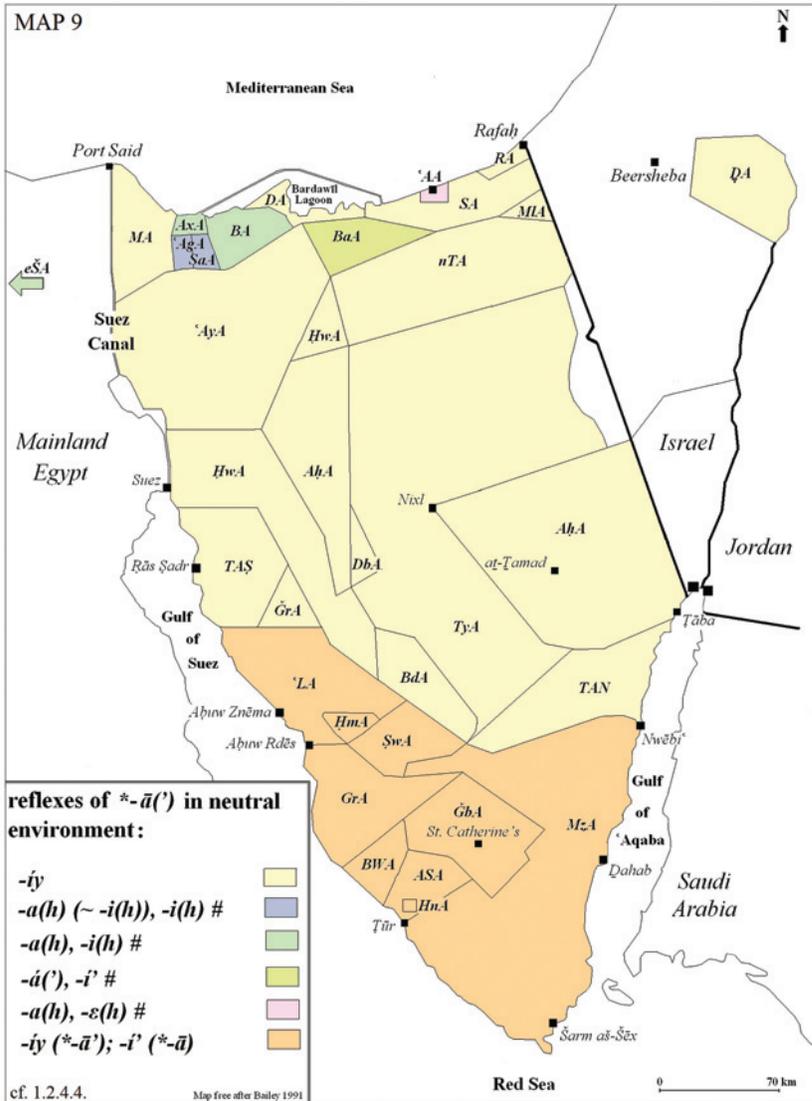
Map 5. Phonetic overlapping of /ē/ and /ī/

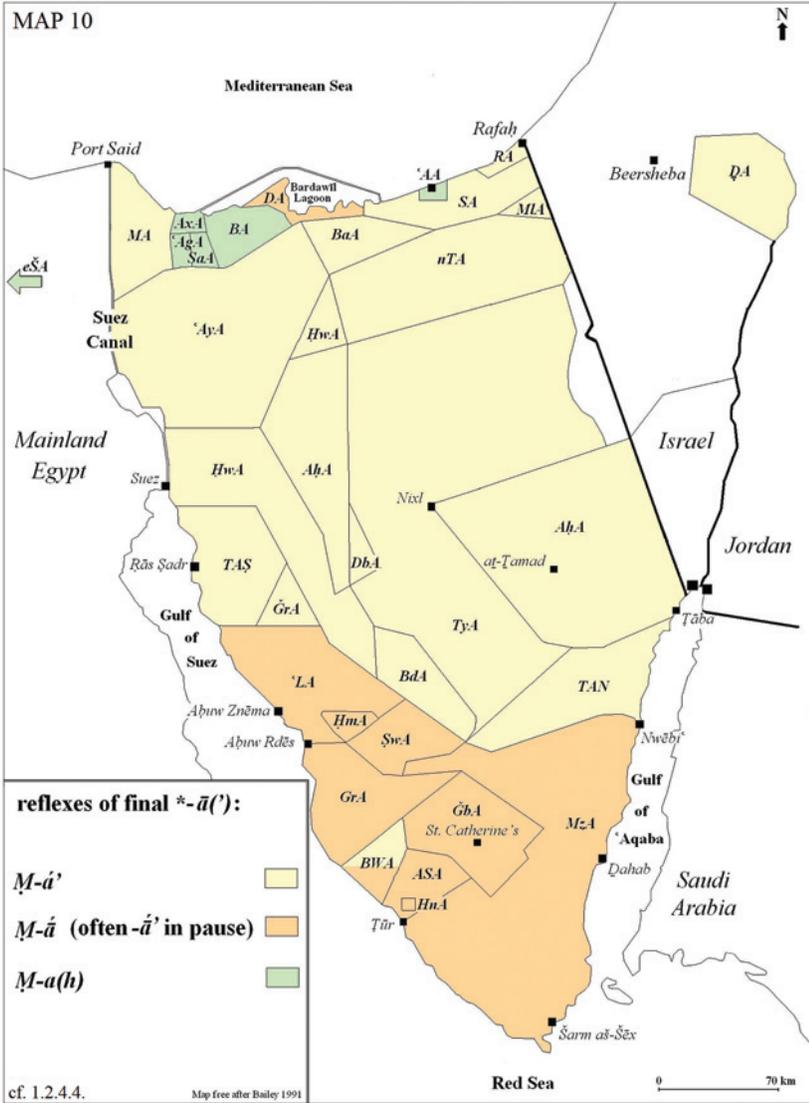
For remarks on the absence of MAP 6 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



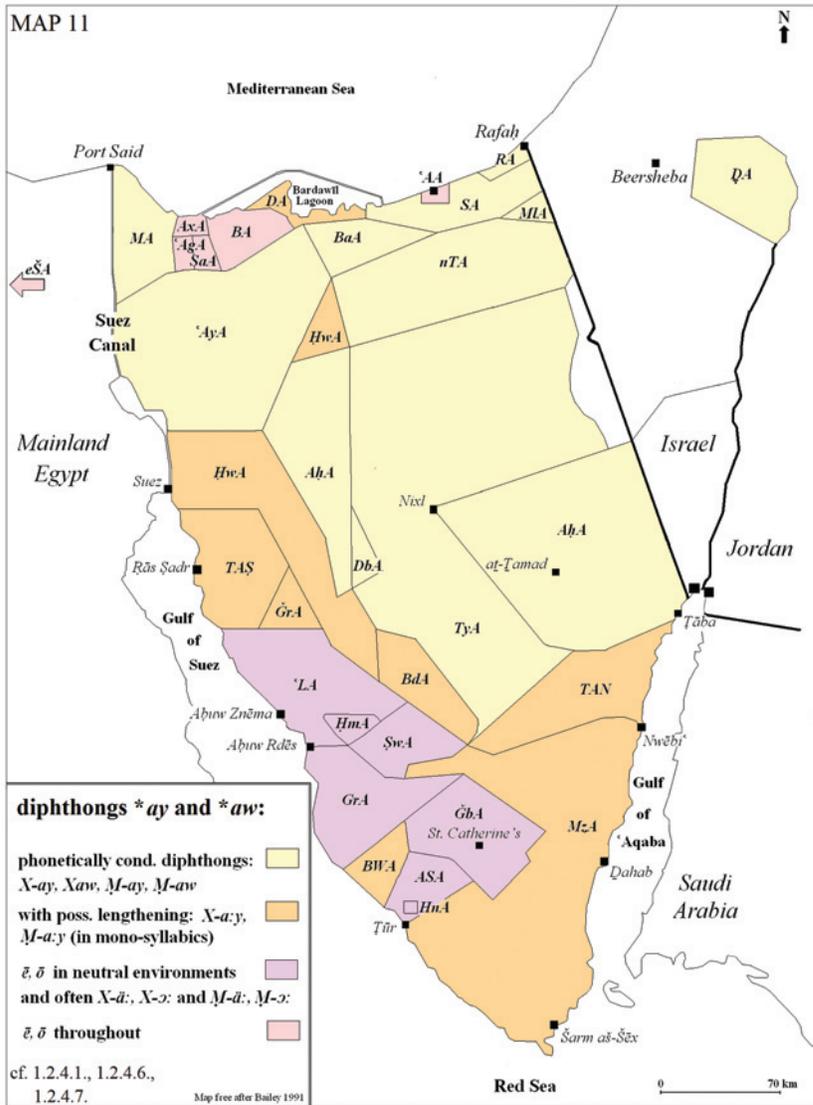


Map 8. Raising of fem. morpheme *T*

Map 9. Reflexes of  $-ā(̣)$  in neutral environment

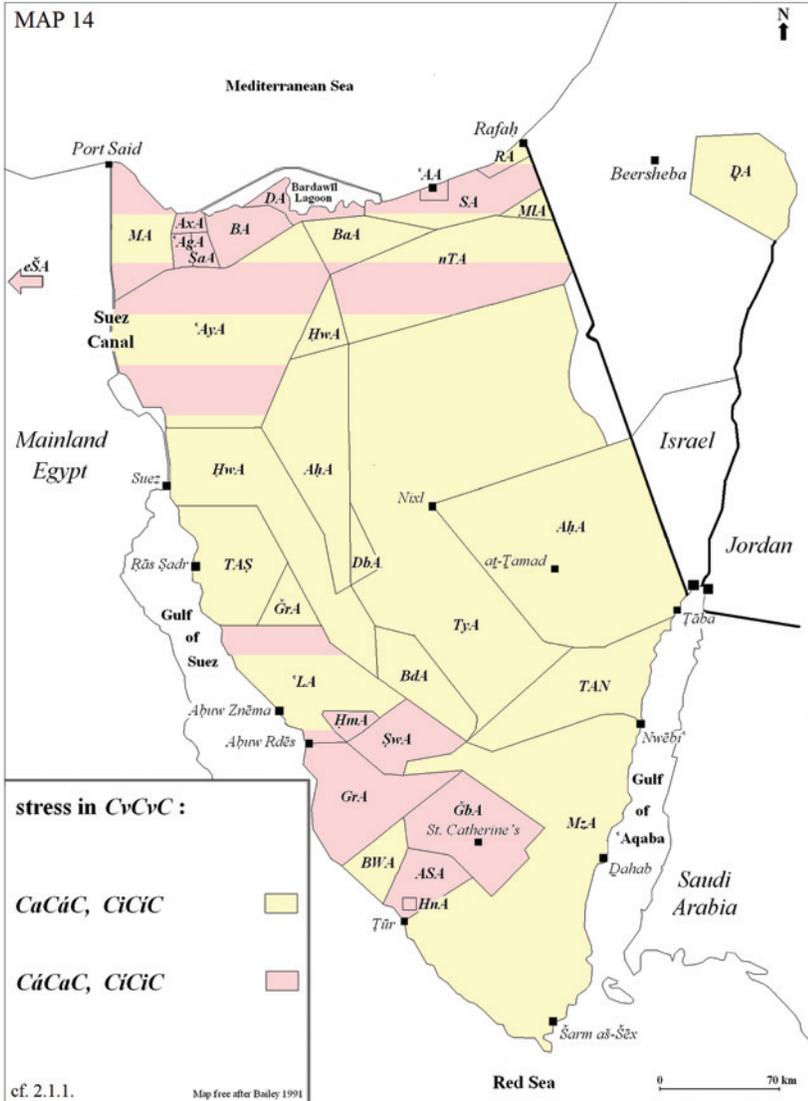


Map 10. Reflexes of final  $*-ā(ʾ)$

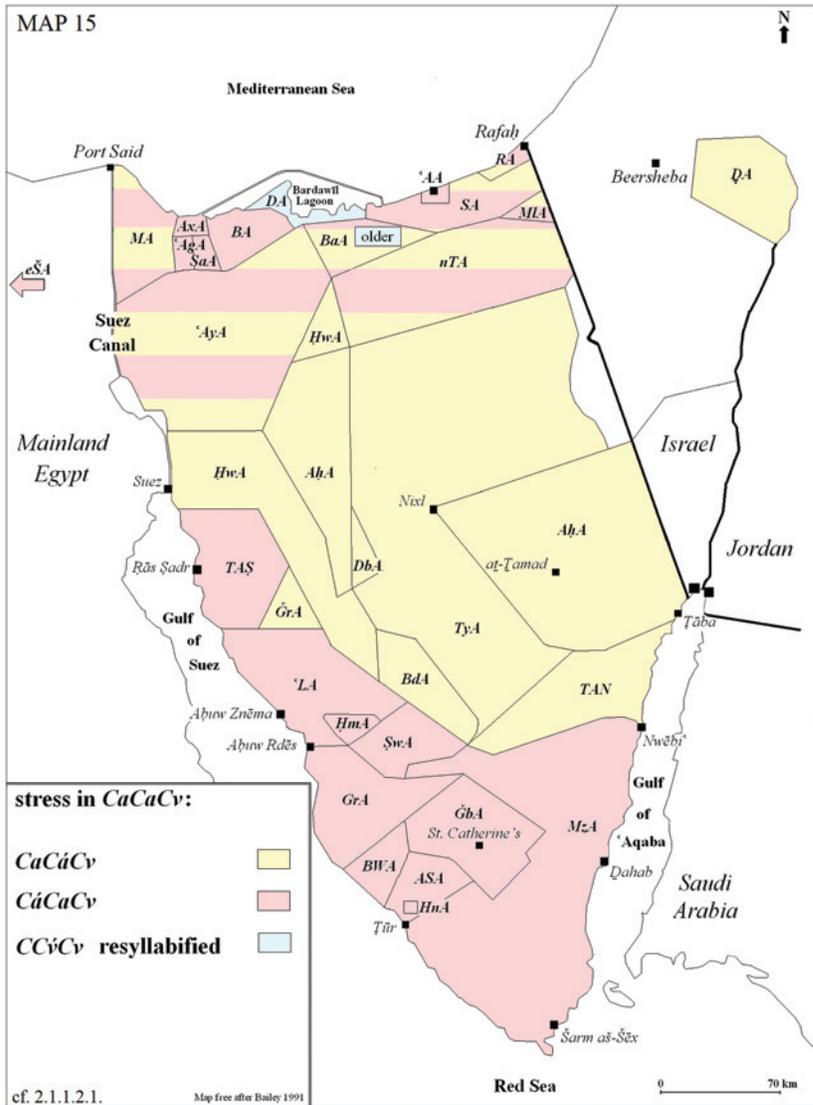


Map 11. Diphthongs \*ay and \*aw

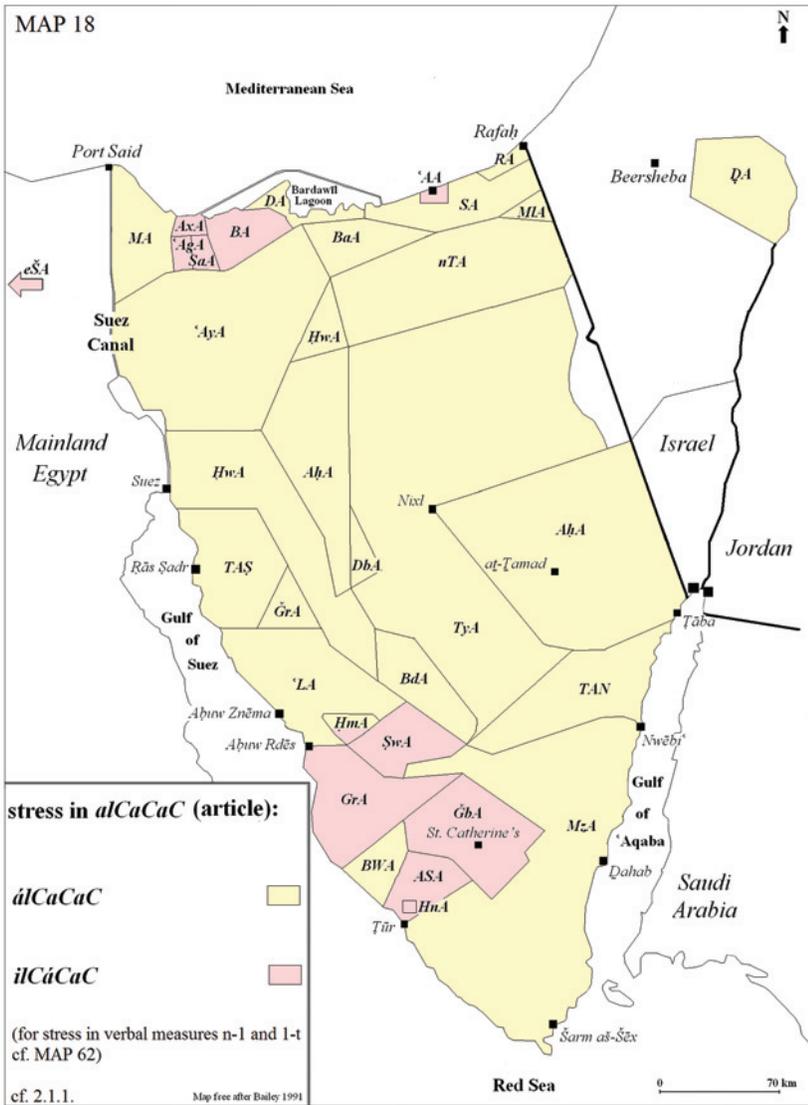
For remarks on the absence of MAPS 12 and 13 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



Map 14. Stress in CvCvC

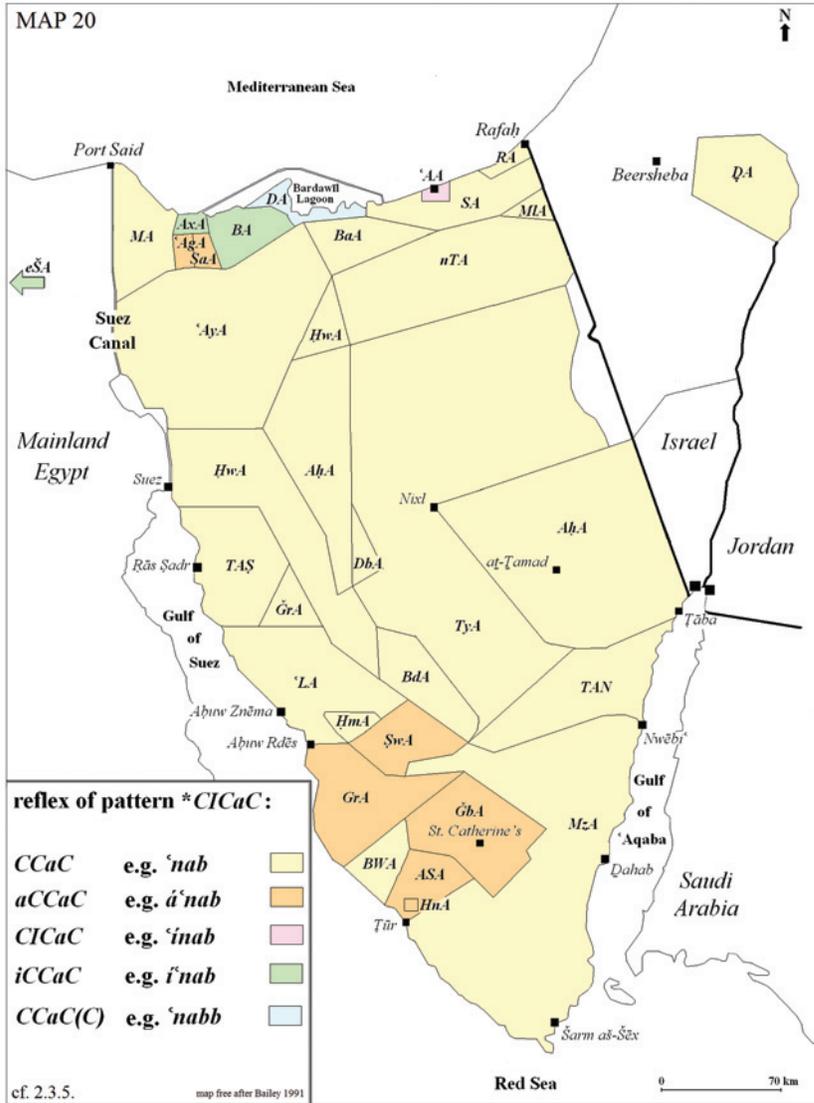
Map 15. Stress in *CaCaCv*

For remarks on the absence of MAPS 16 and 17 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.

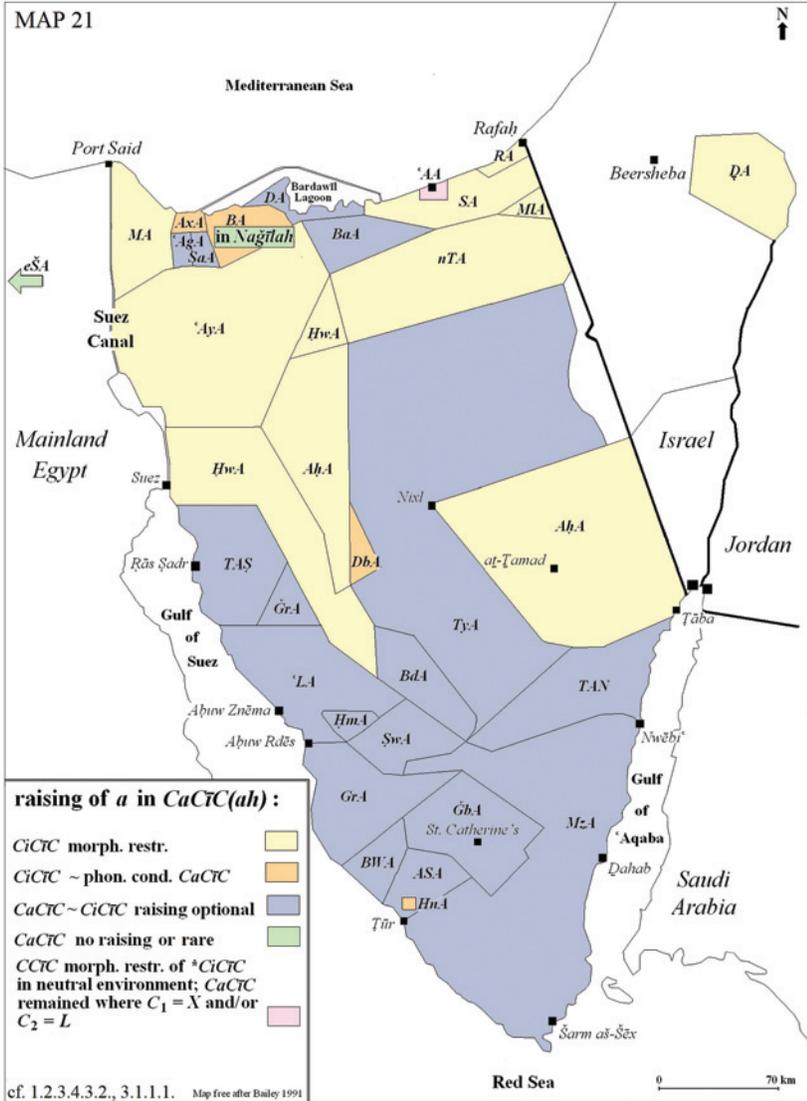


Map 18. Stress in *alCaCaC*

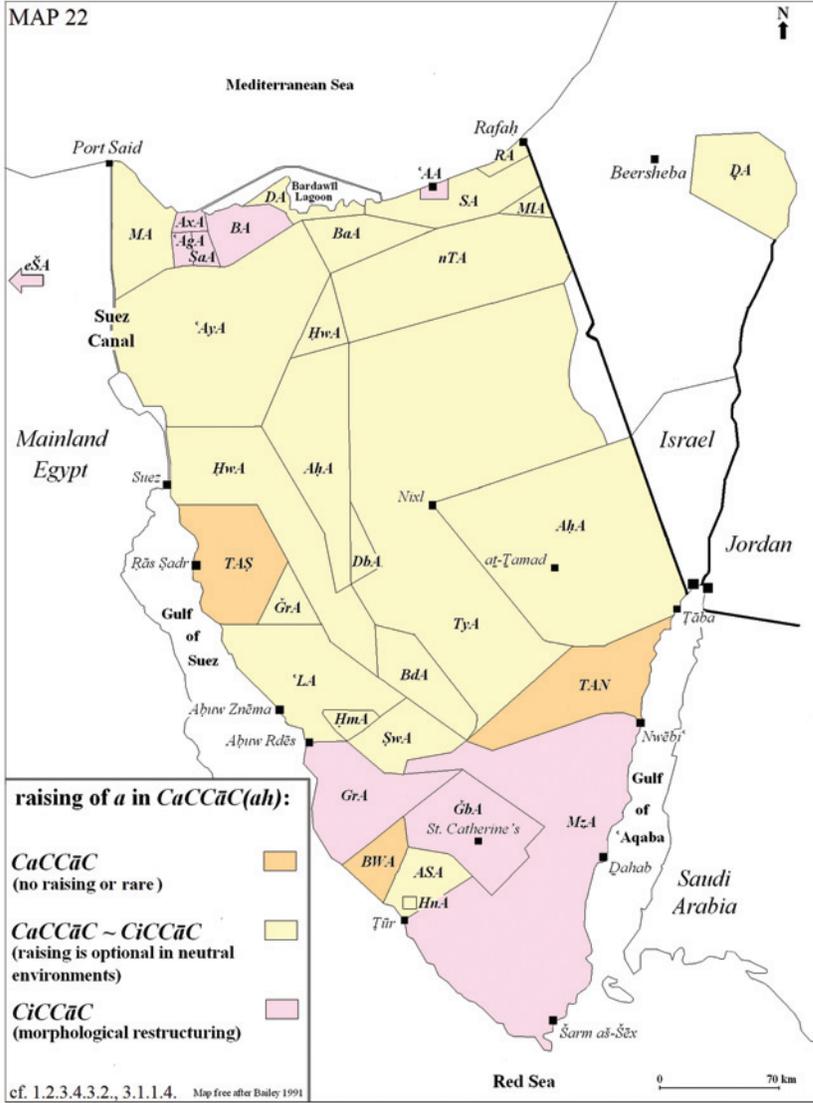
For remarks on the absence of MAP 19 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



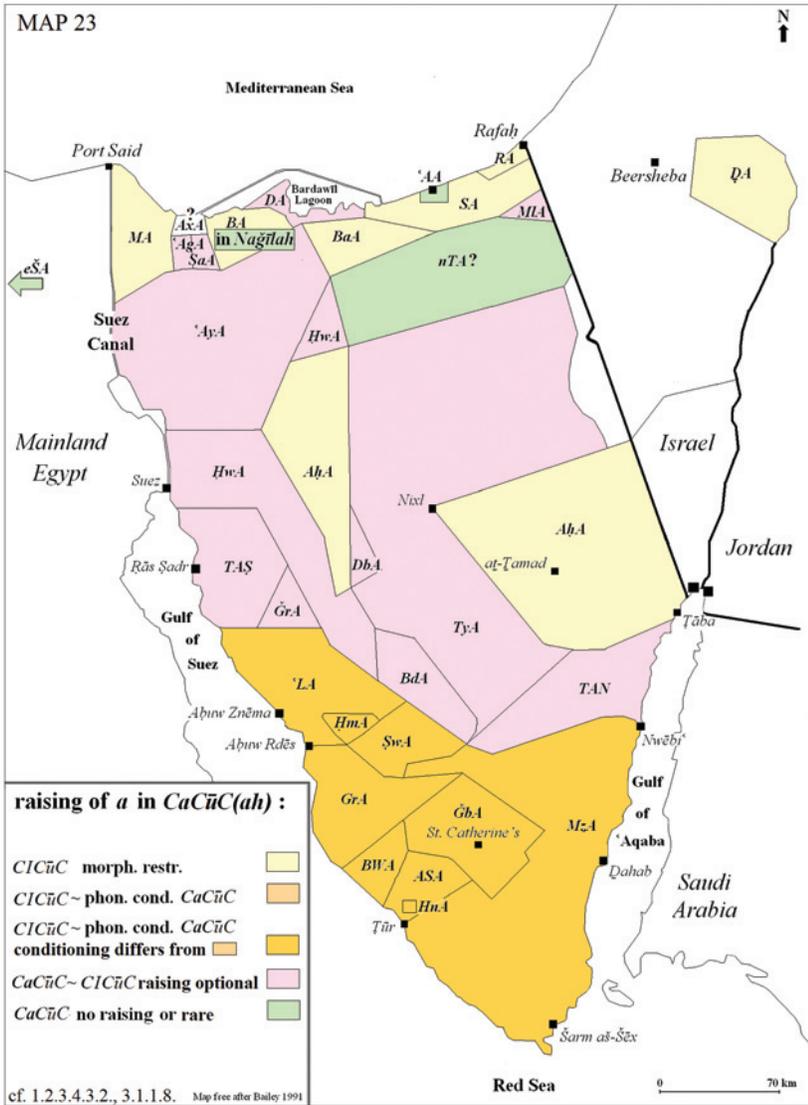
Map 20. Reflex of pattern \*CICaC



Map 21. Raising of a in CaCiC(ah)

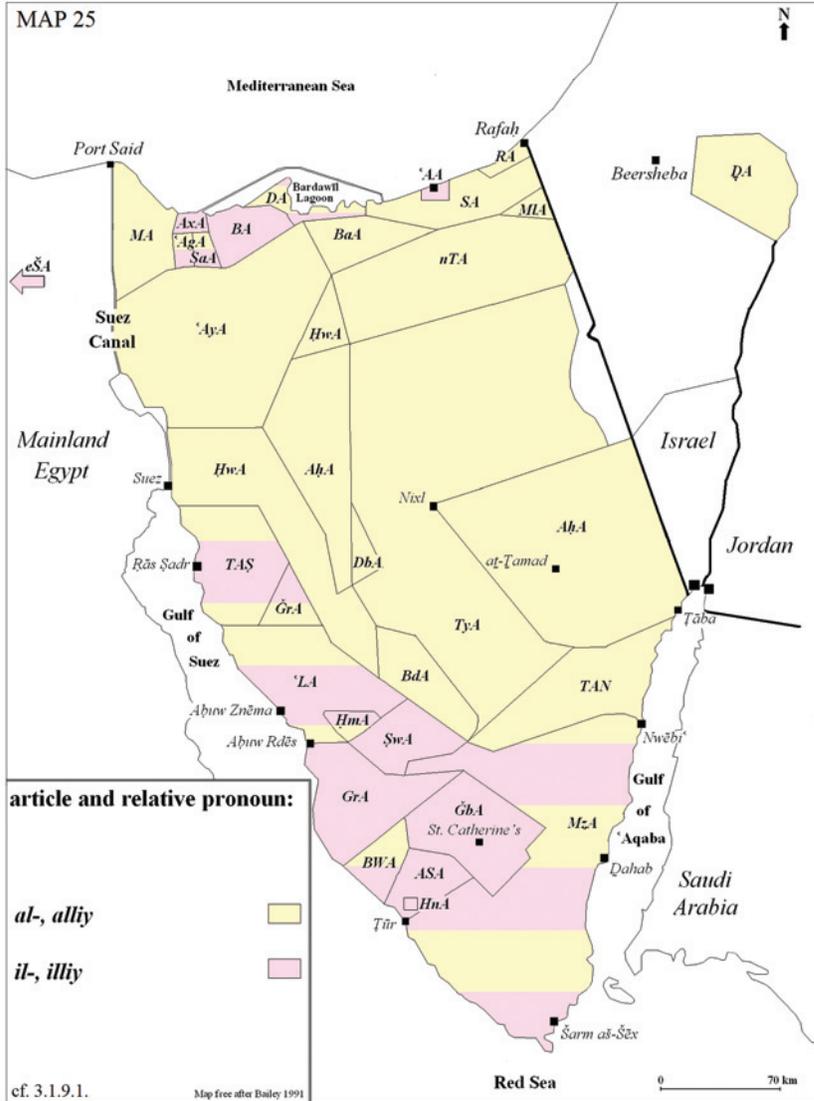


Map 22. Raising of *a* in *CaCCāC(ah)*

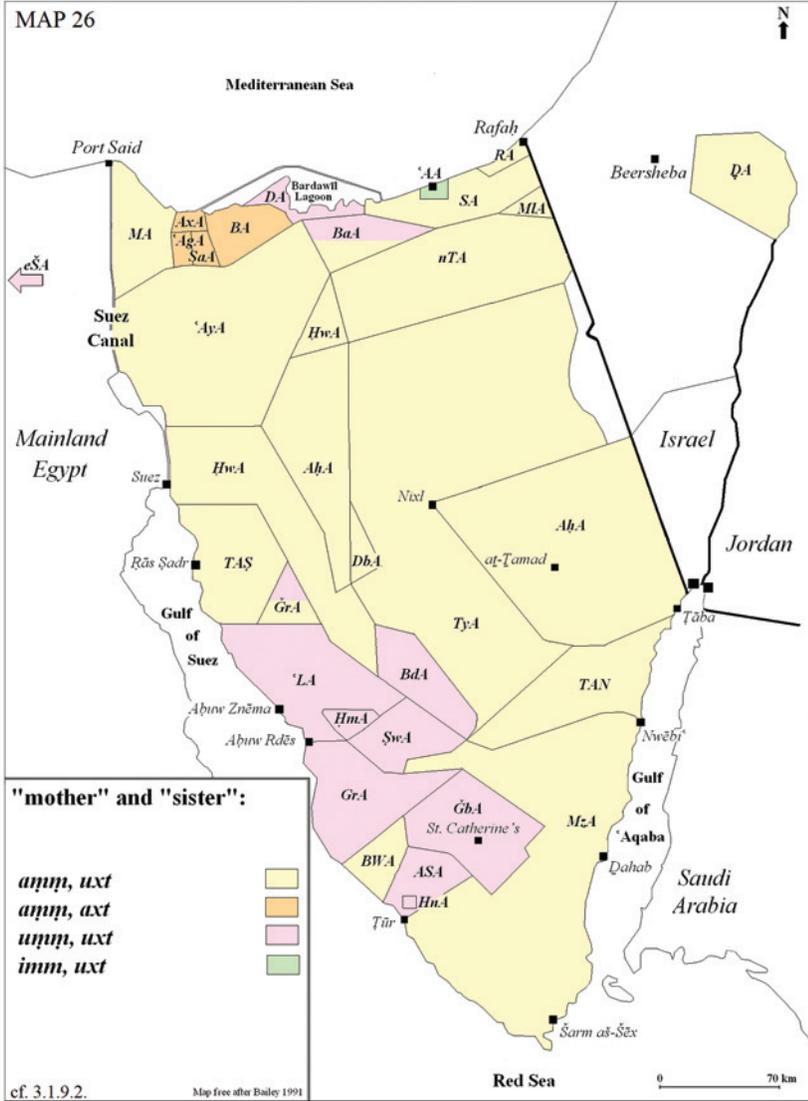


Map 23. Raising of *a* in *CaCūC(ah)*

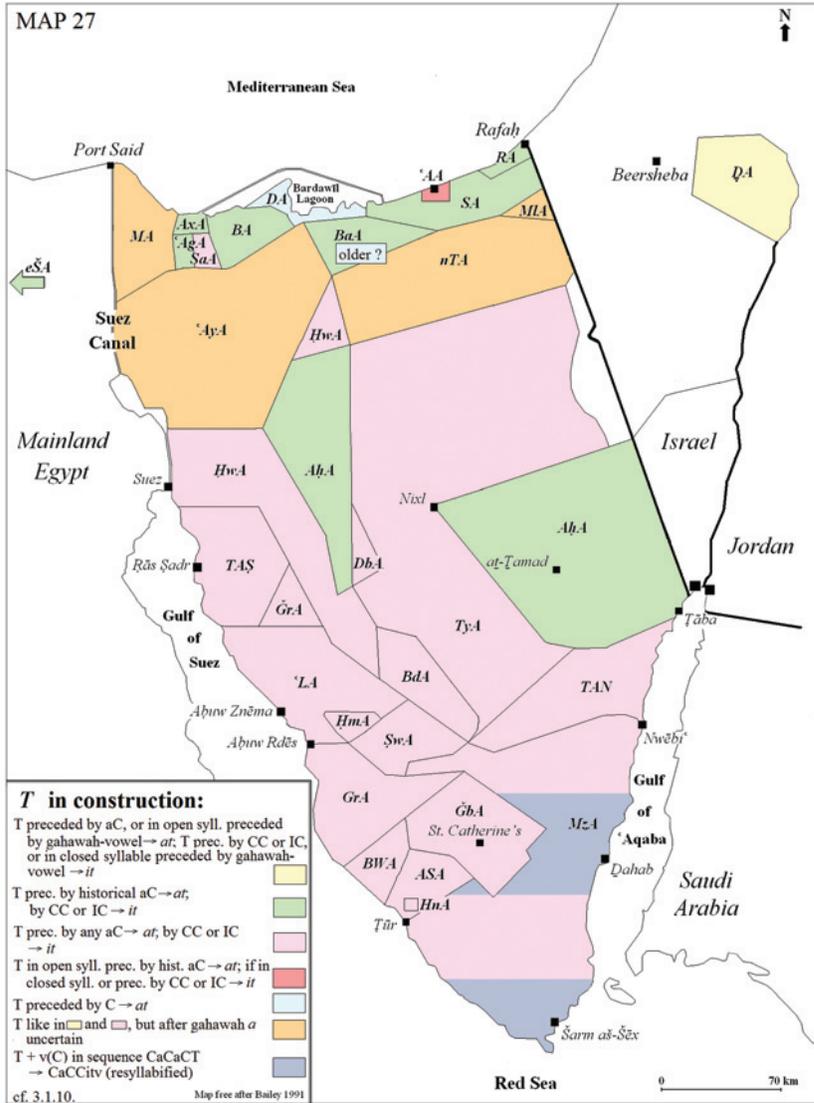
For remarks on the absence of MAP 24 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



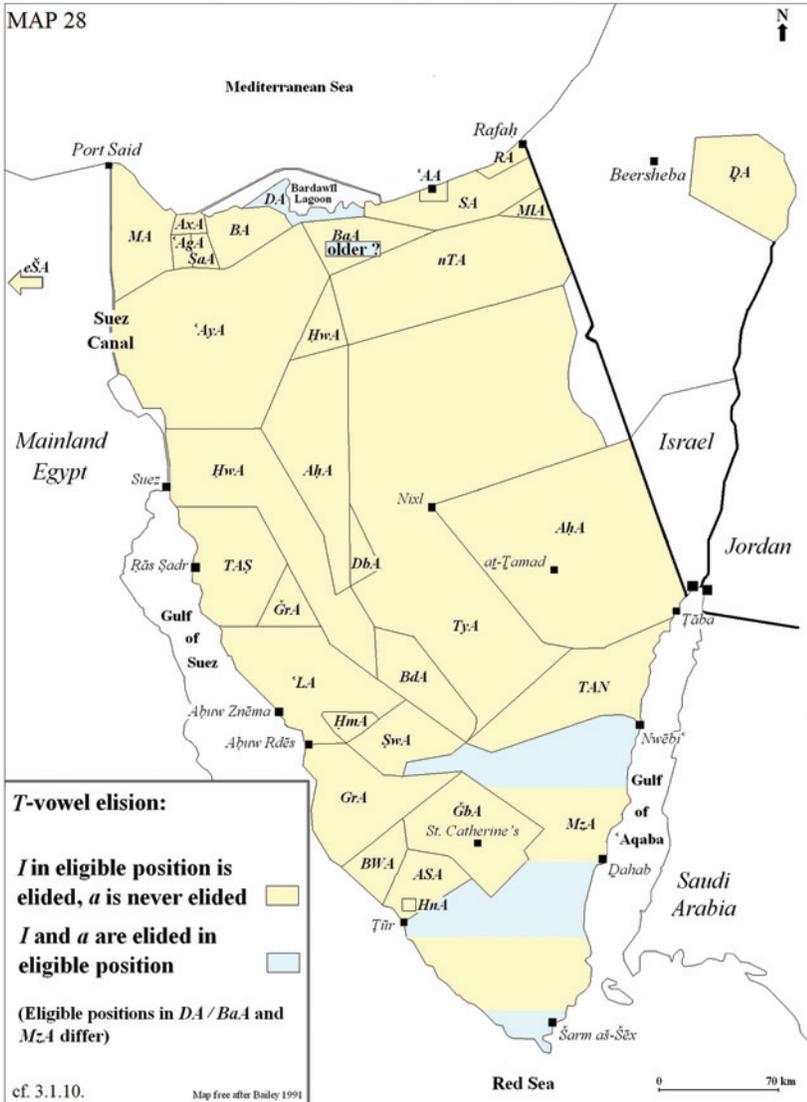
Map 25. Article and relative pronoun



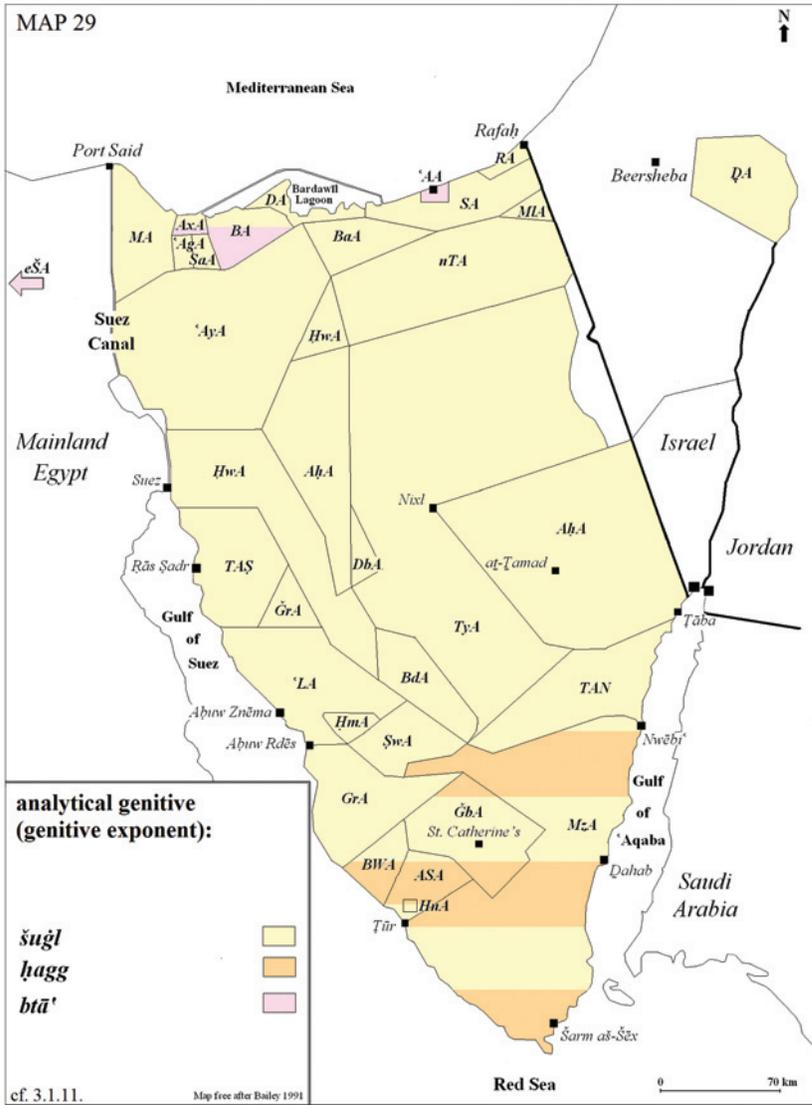
Map 26. "mother" and "sister"



Map 27. *T* in construction

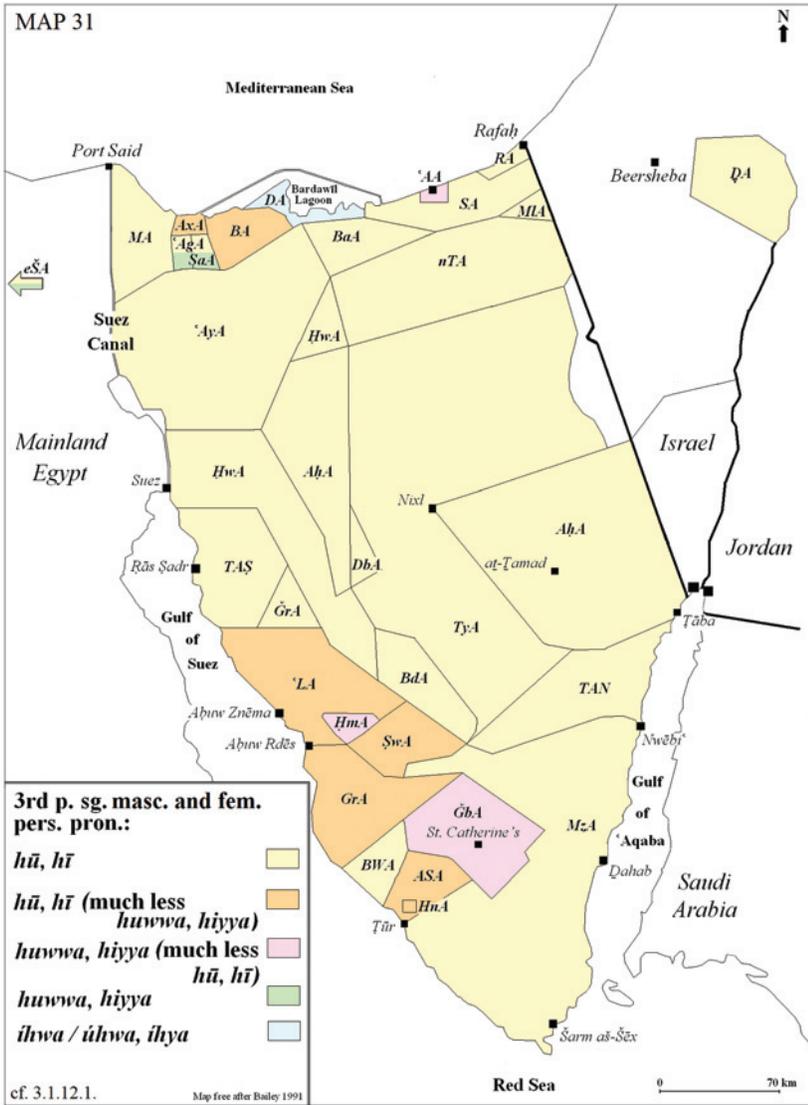


Map 28. T-vowel elision



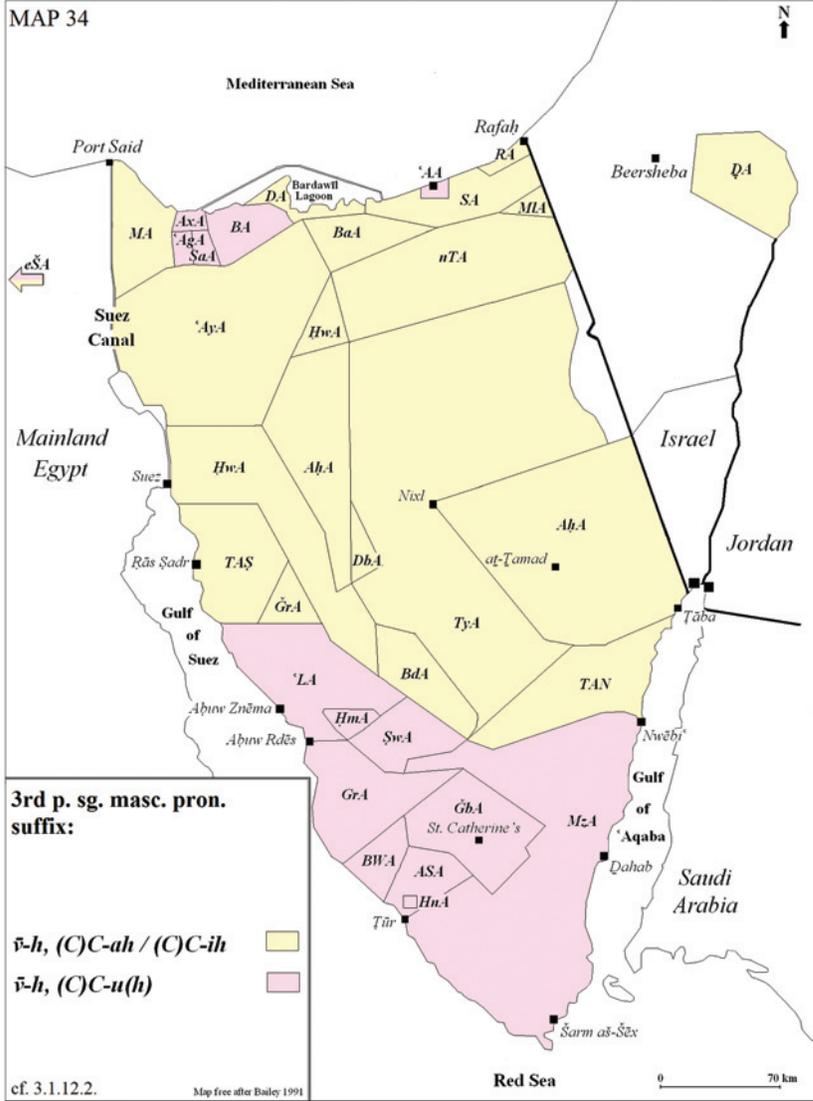
Map 29. Analytical genitive (genitive exponent)

For remarks on the absence of MAP 30 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.

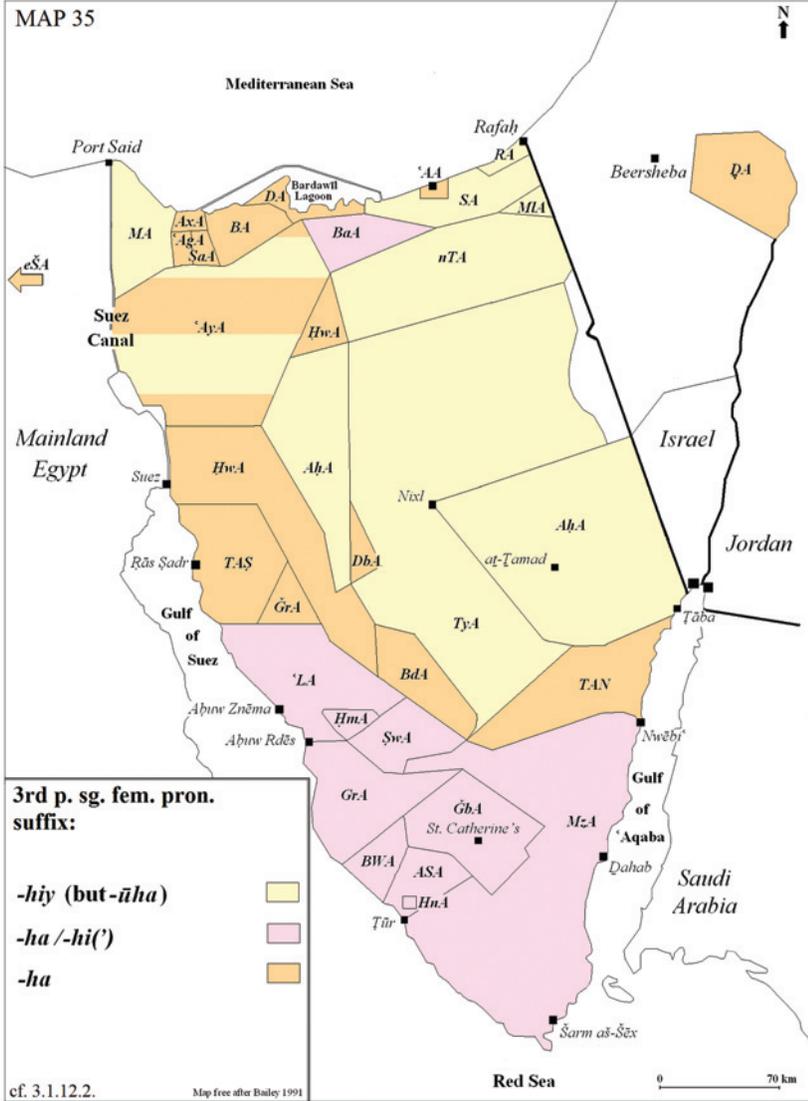


Map 31. The independent personal pronominals of the 3rd p. sg. masc. and fem.

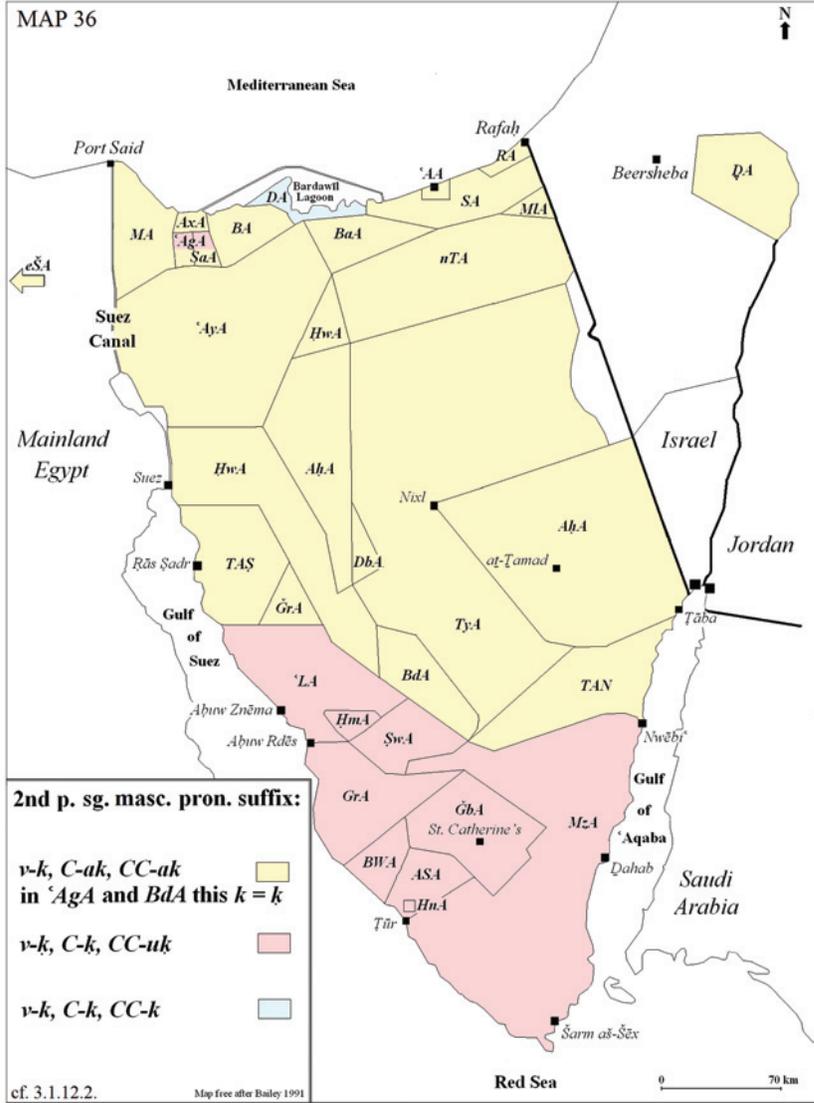
For remarks on the absence of MAPS 32 and 33 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



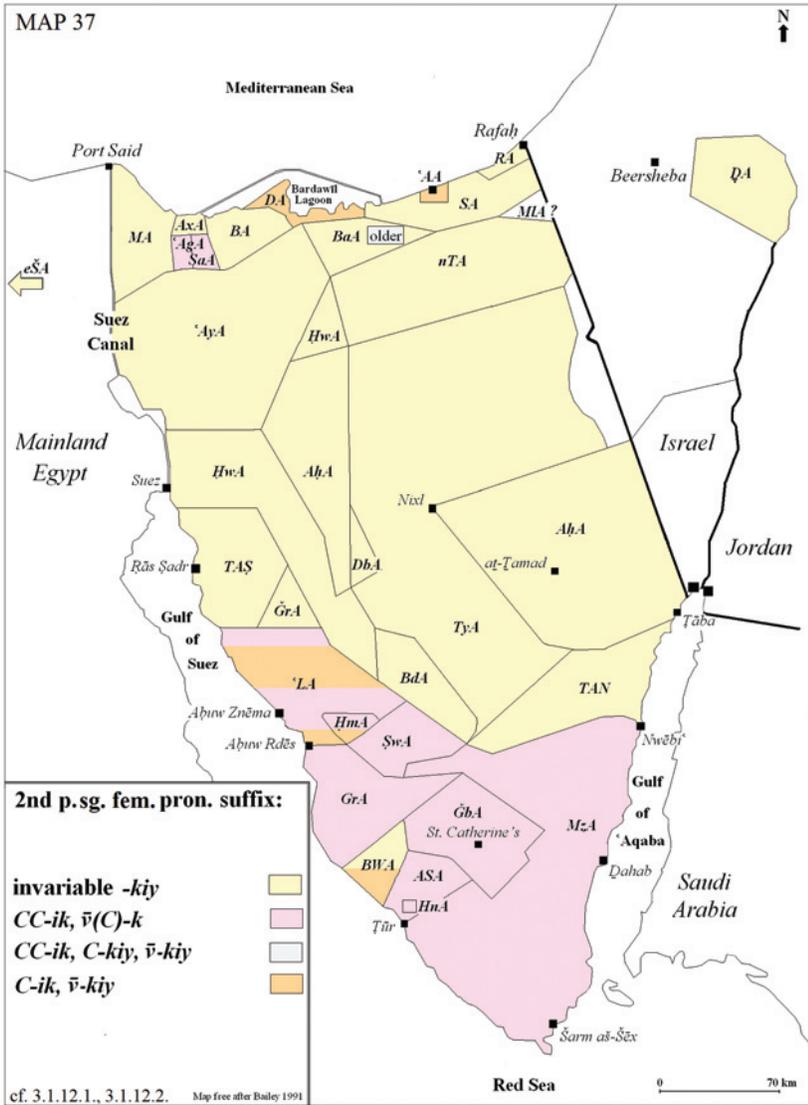
Map 34. 3rd p. sg. masc. pron. suffix



Map 35. 3rd p. sg. fem. pron. suffix

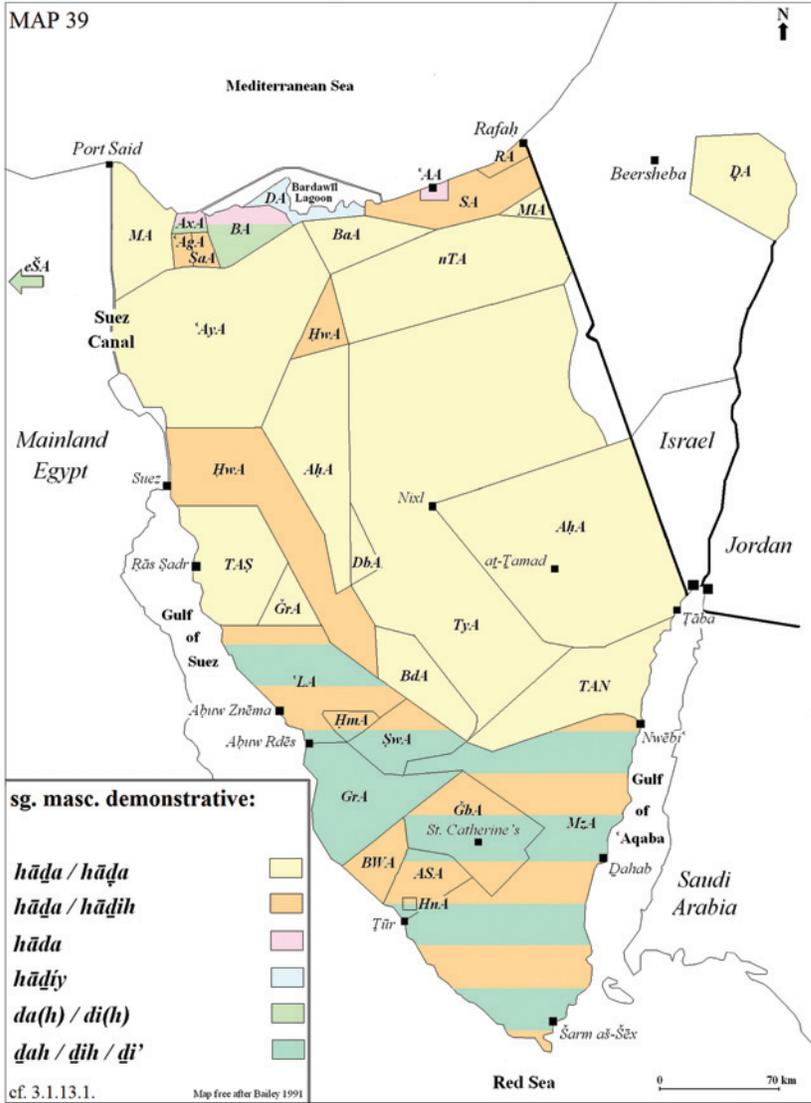


Map 36. 2nd p. sg. masc. pron. suffix

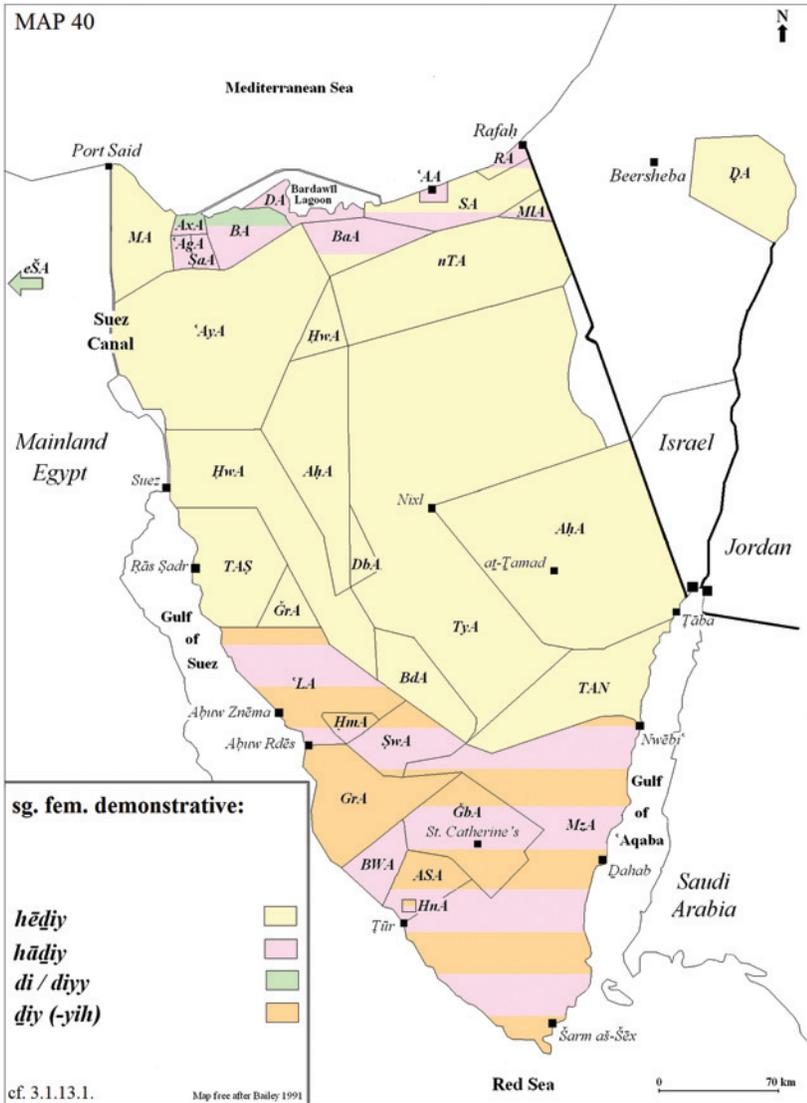


Map 37. 2nd p. sg. fem. pron. suffix

For remarks on the absence of MAP 38 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.

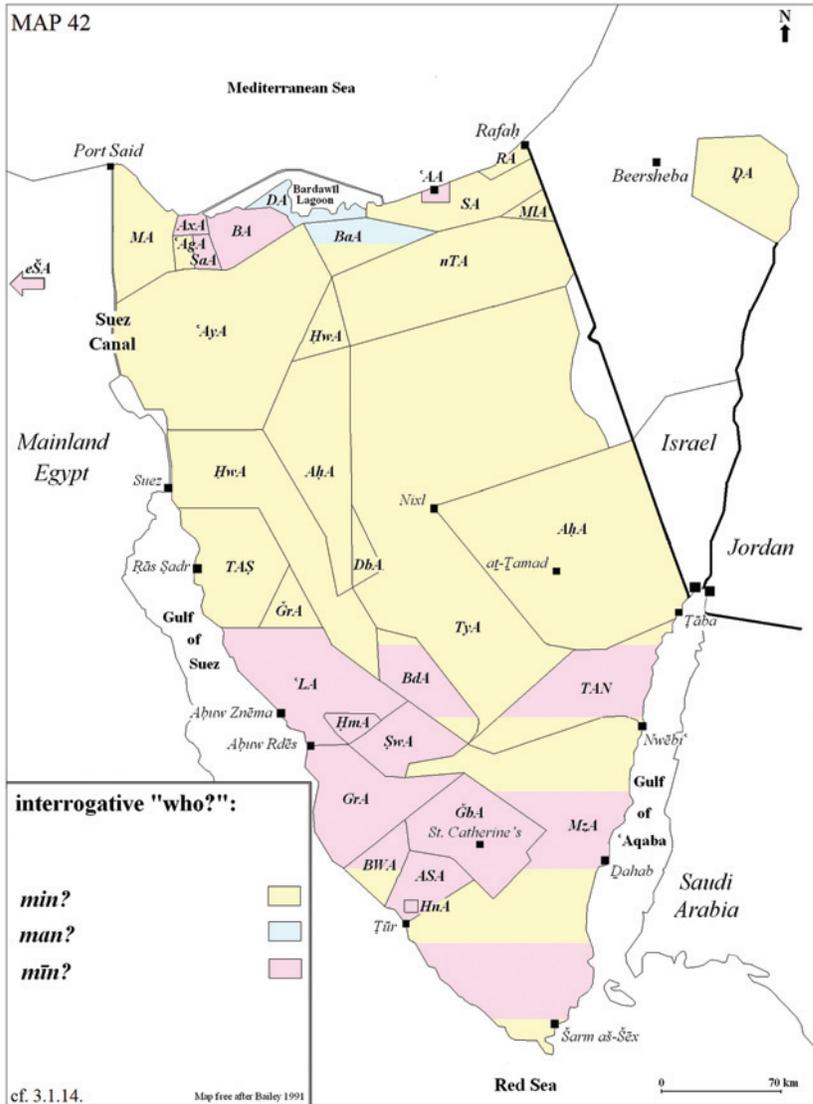


Map 39. sg. masc. demonstrative



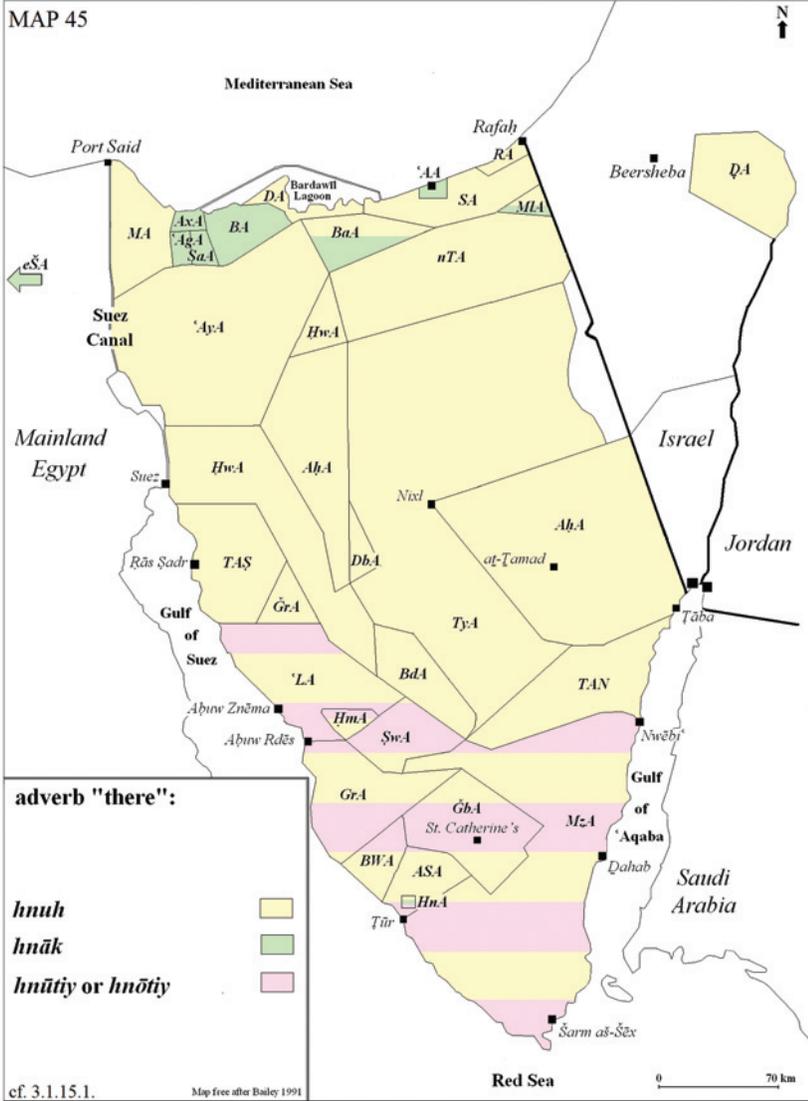
Map 40. sg. fem. demonstrative

For remarks on the absence of MAP 41 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.

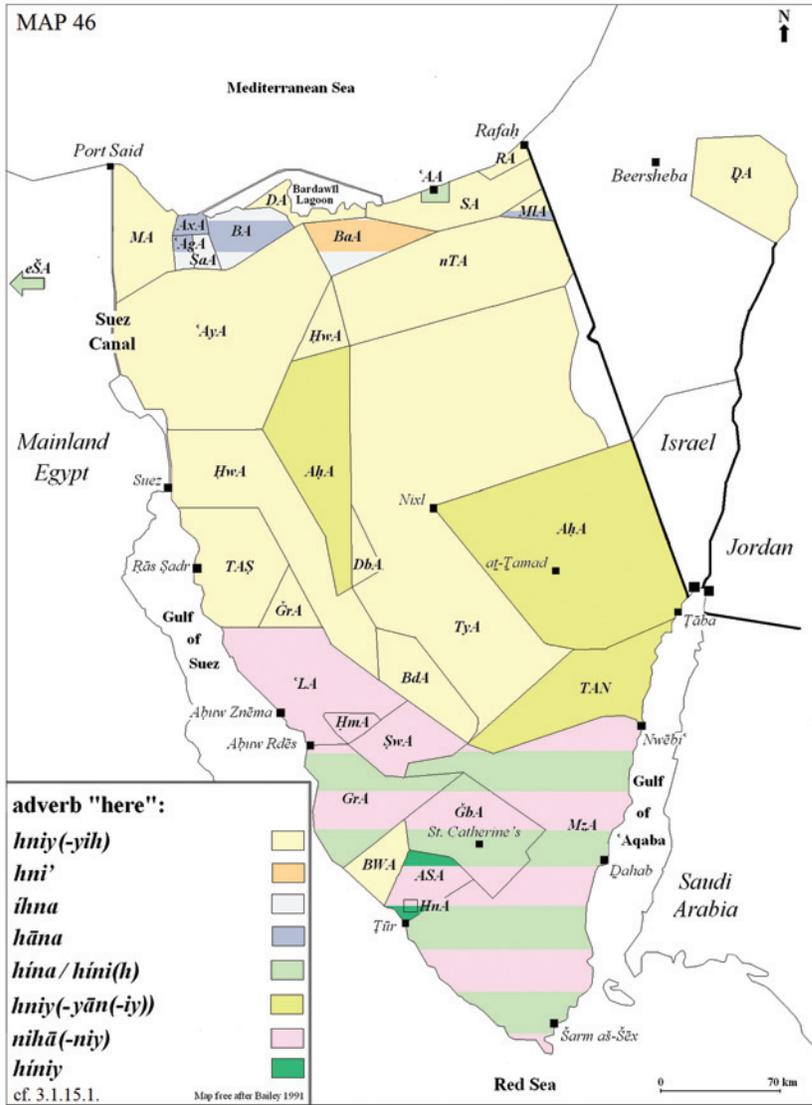


Map 42. Interrogative "who?"

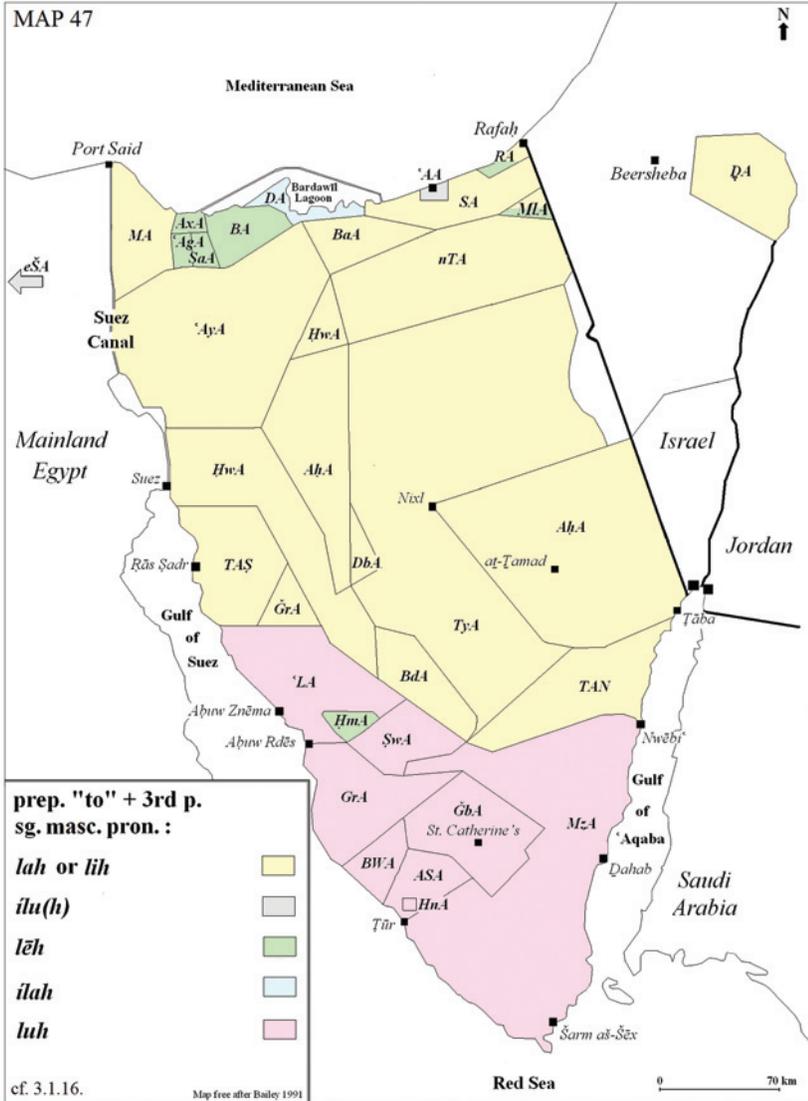
For remarks on the absence of MAPS 43 and 44 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



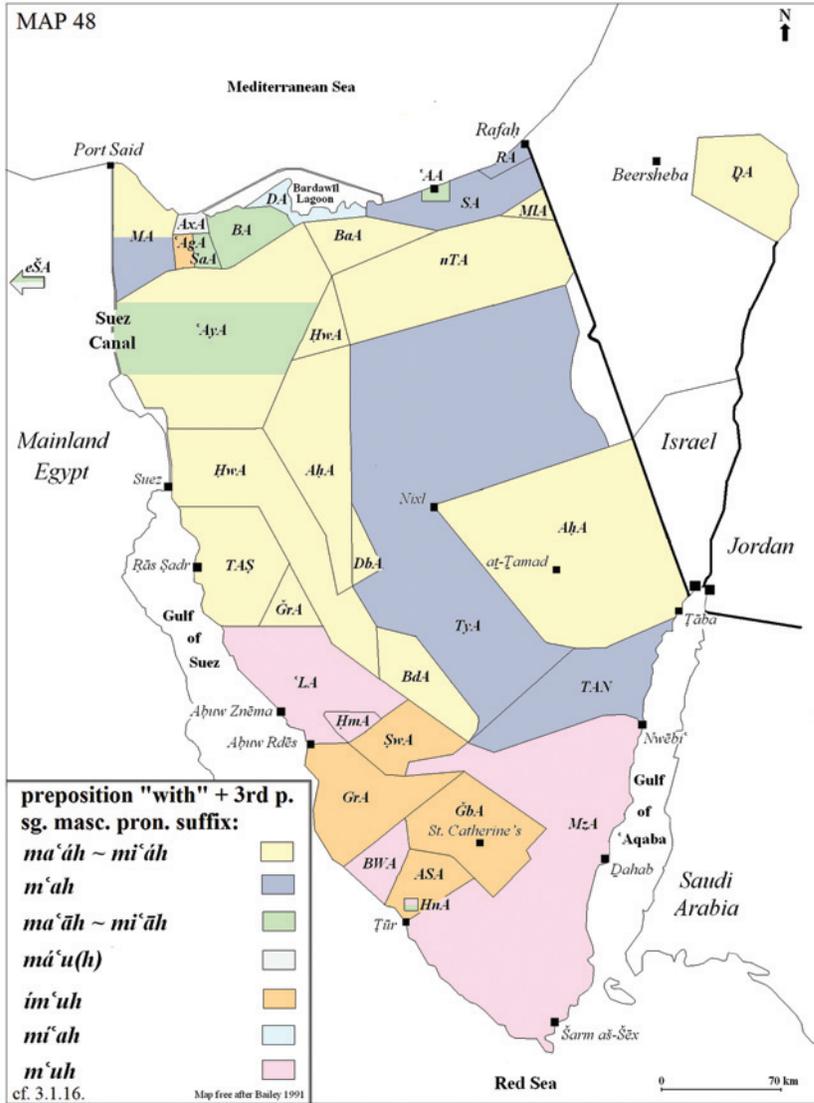
Map 45. Shape of the adverb "there"



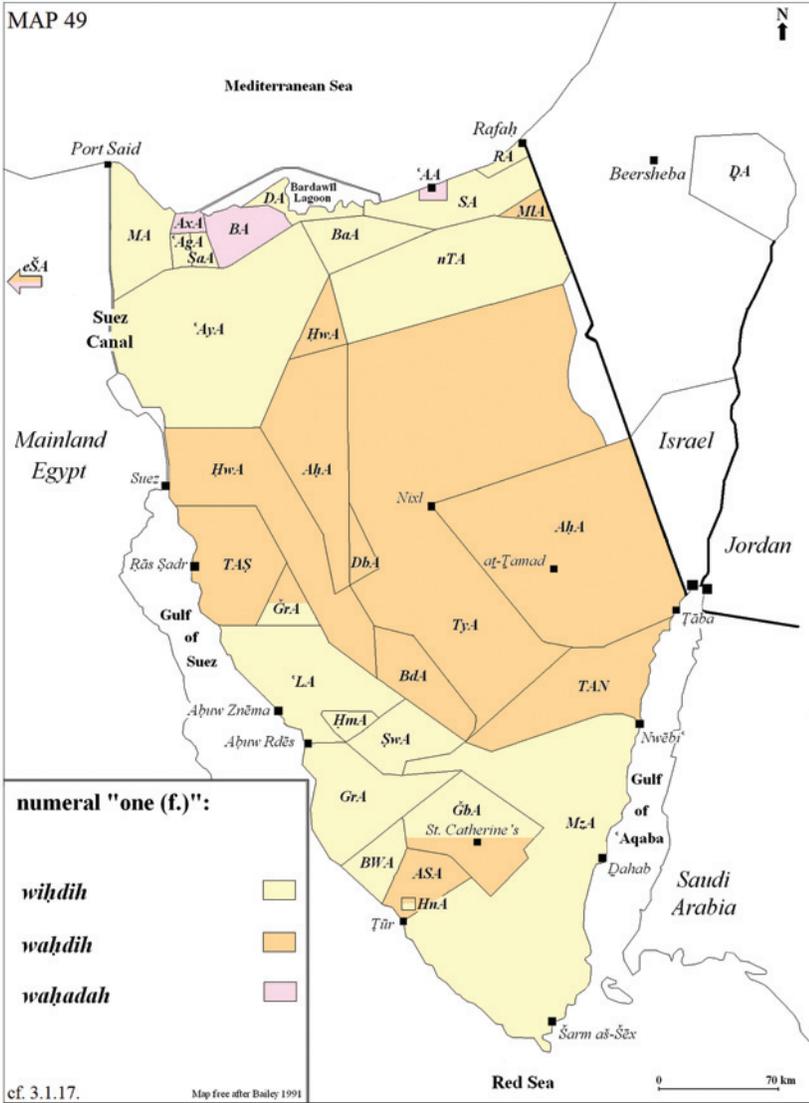
Map 46. Shape of the adverb "here"



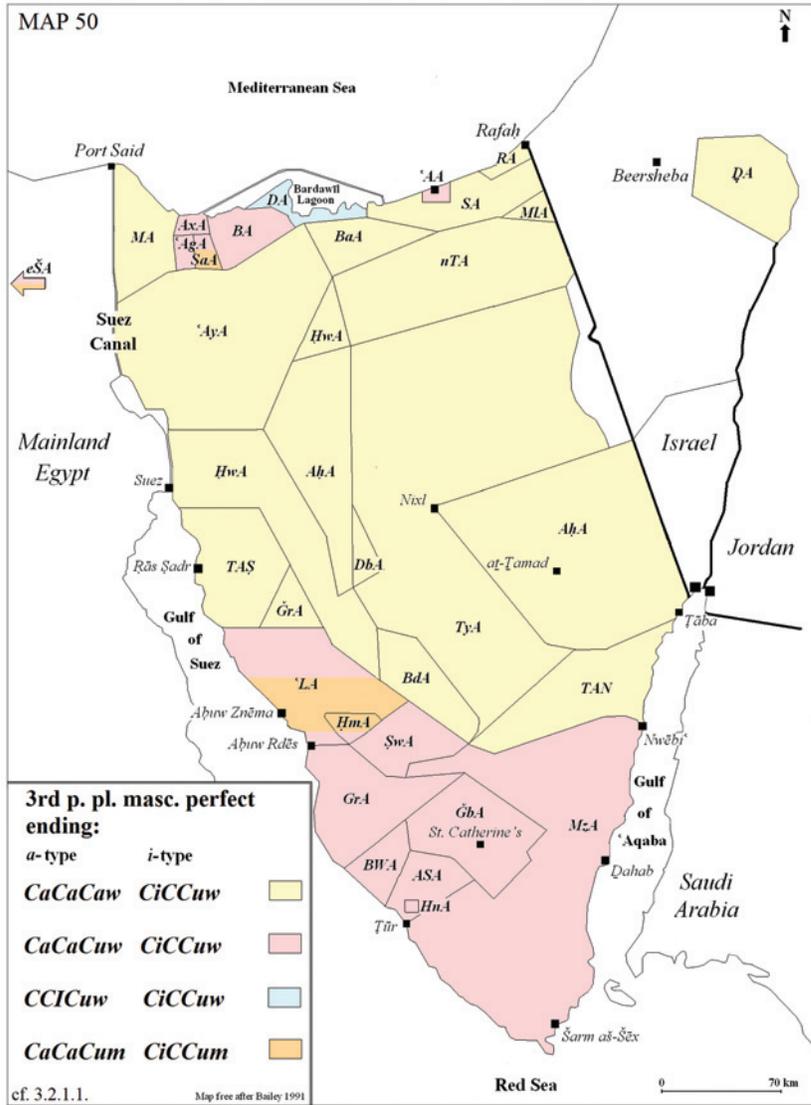
Map 47. The preposition “to” + 3rd p. sg. masc. pron



Map 48. The preposition “with” + 3rd p. sg. masc. suffix

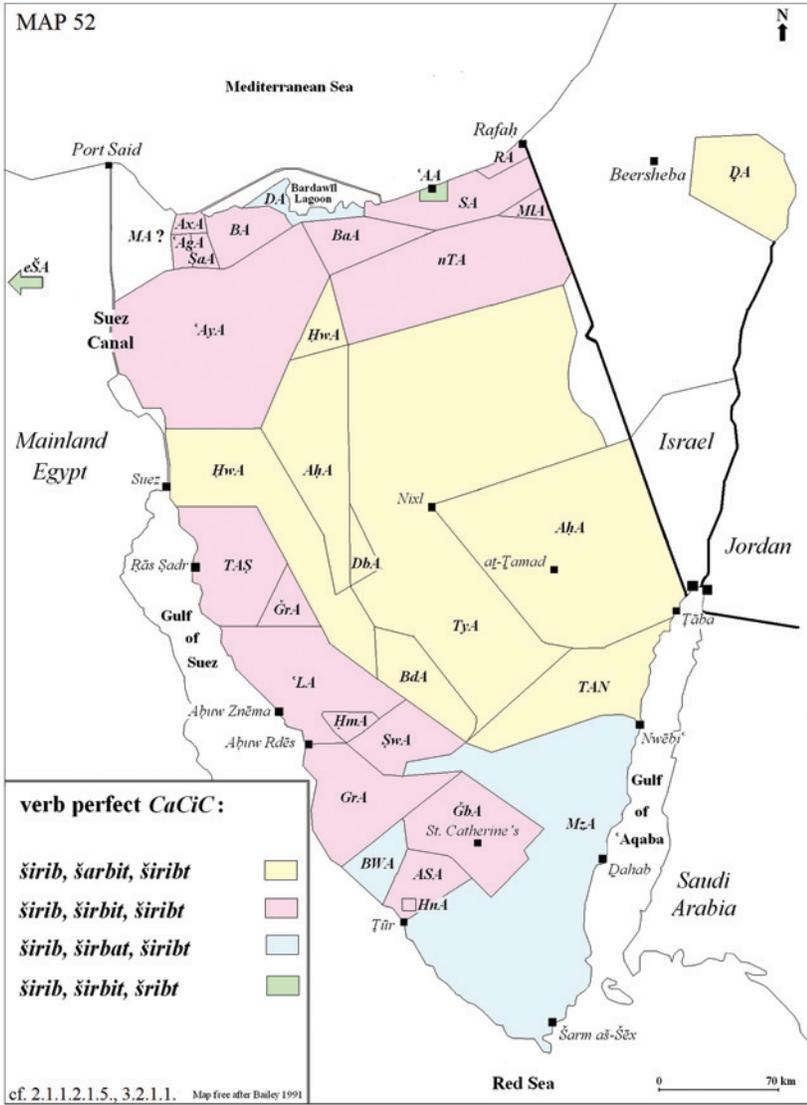


Map 49. Numeral "one (fem.)"



Map 50. 3rd p. pl. masc. perfect ending

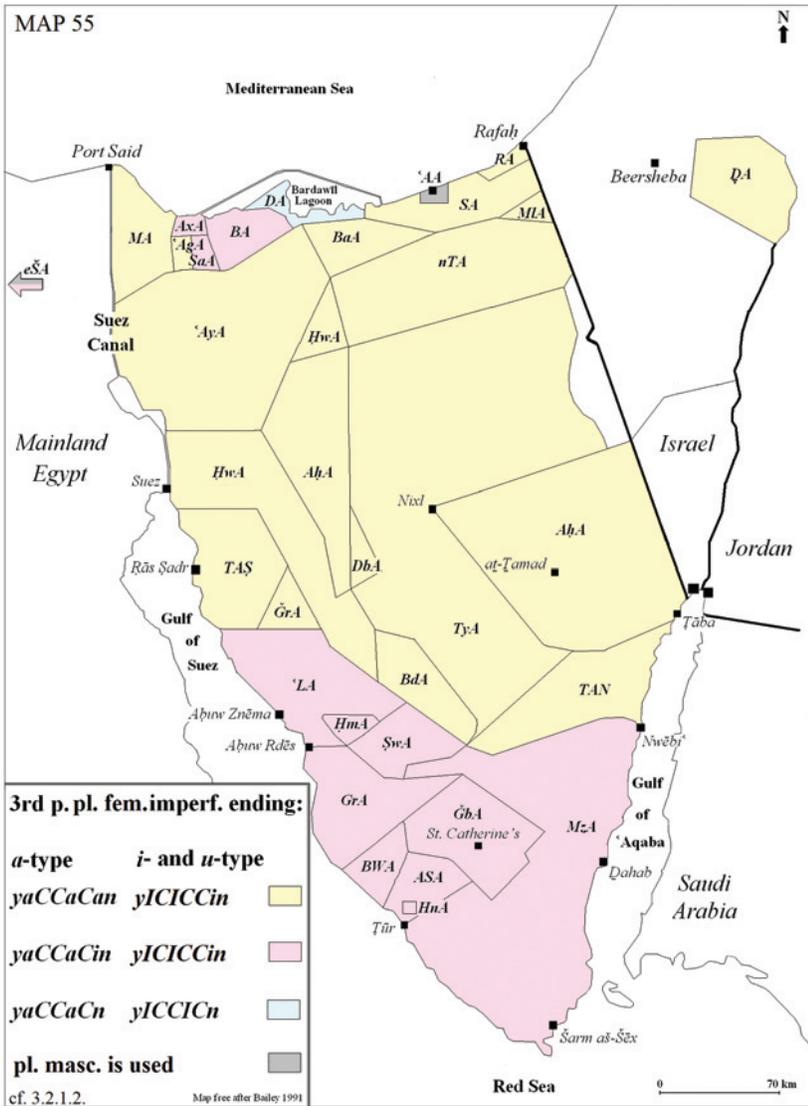
For remarks on the absence of MAP 51 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



Map 52. Verb perfect CaCiC

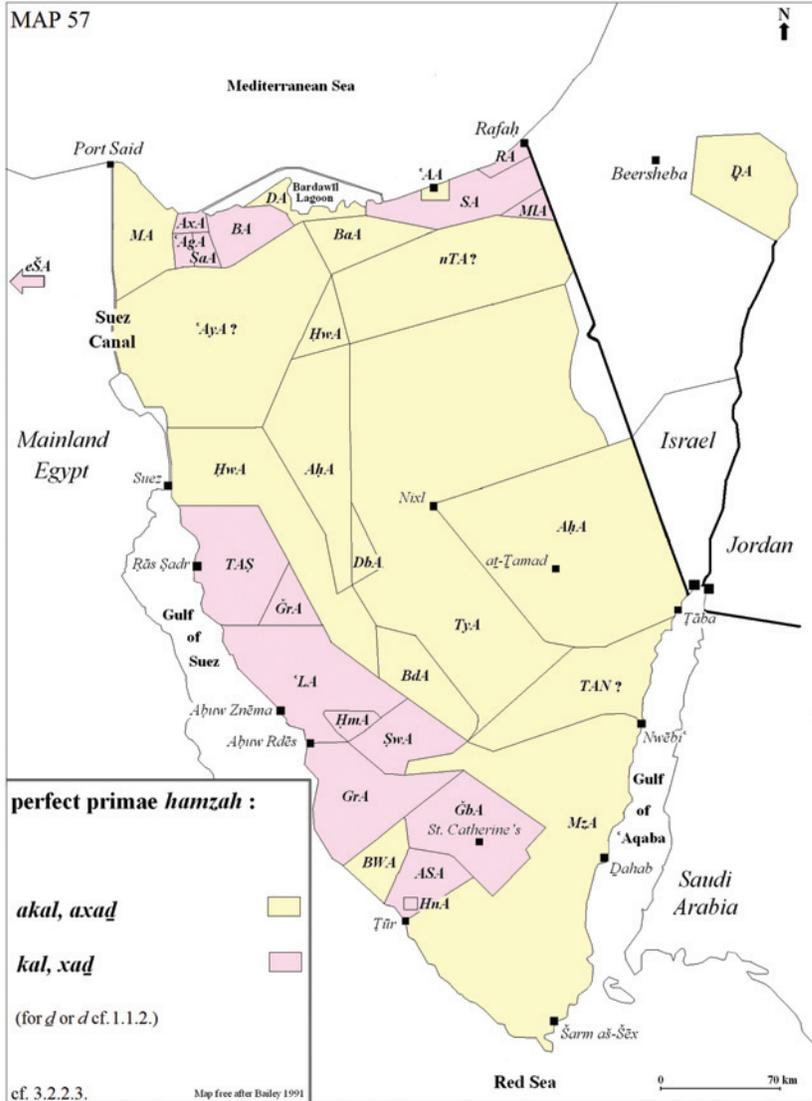
For remarks on the absence of MAP 53 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



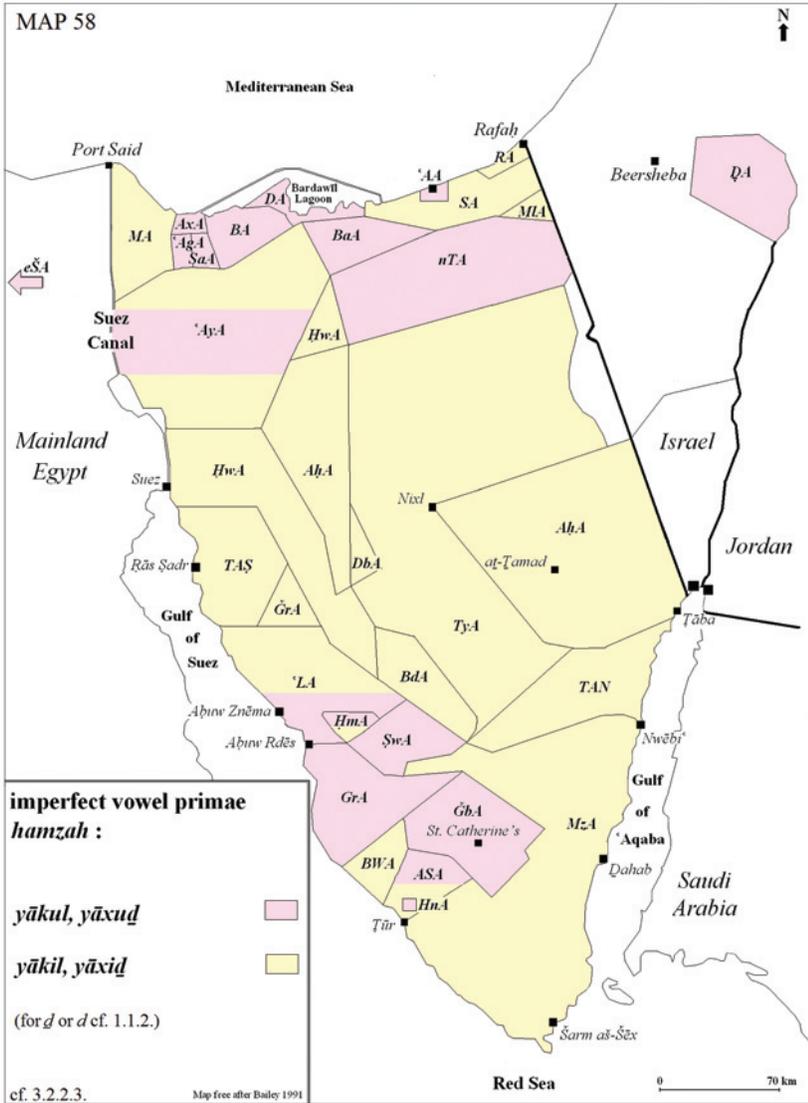


Map 55. 3rd p. pl. fem. imperf. ending

For remarks on the absence of MAP 56 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



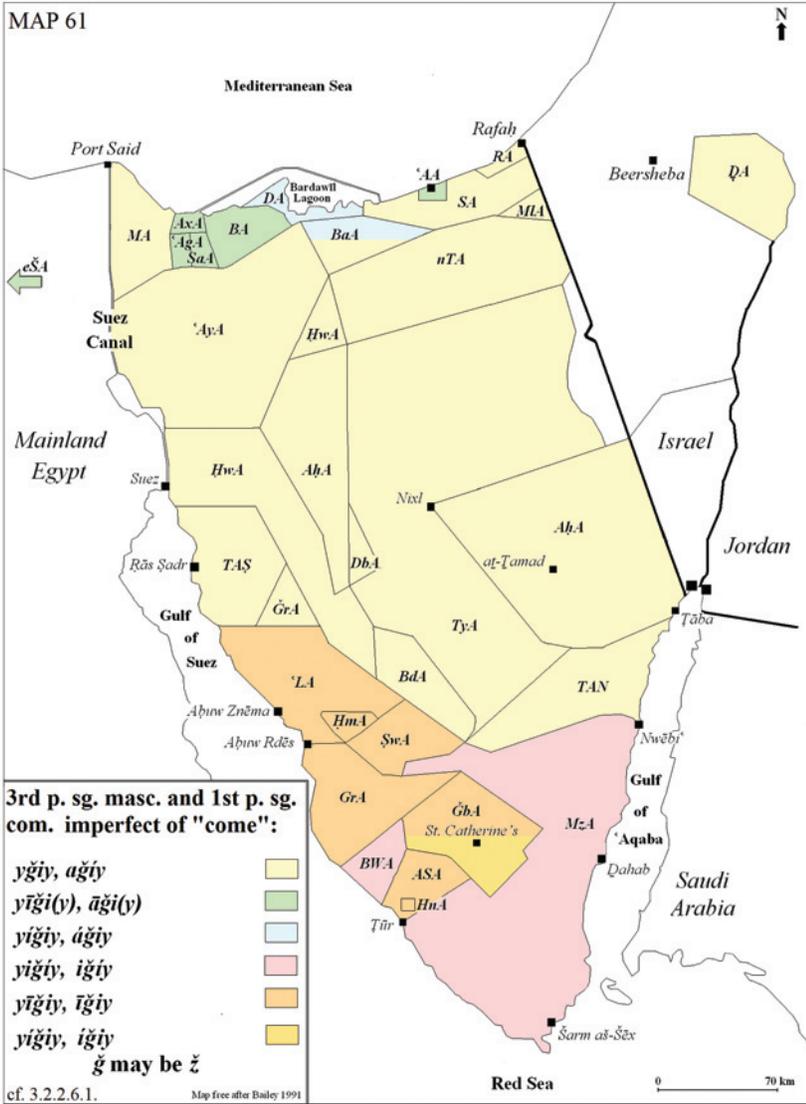
Map 57. Perfect of primae hamzah verbs



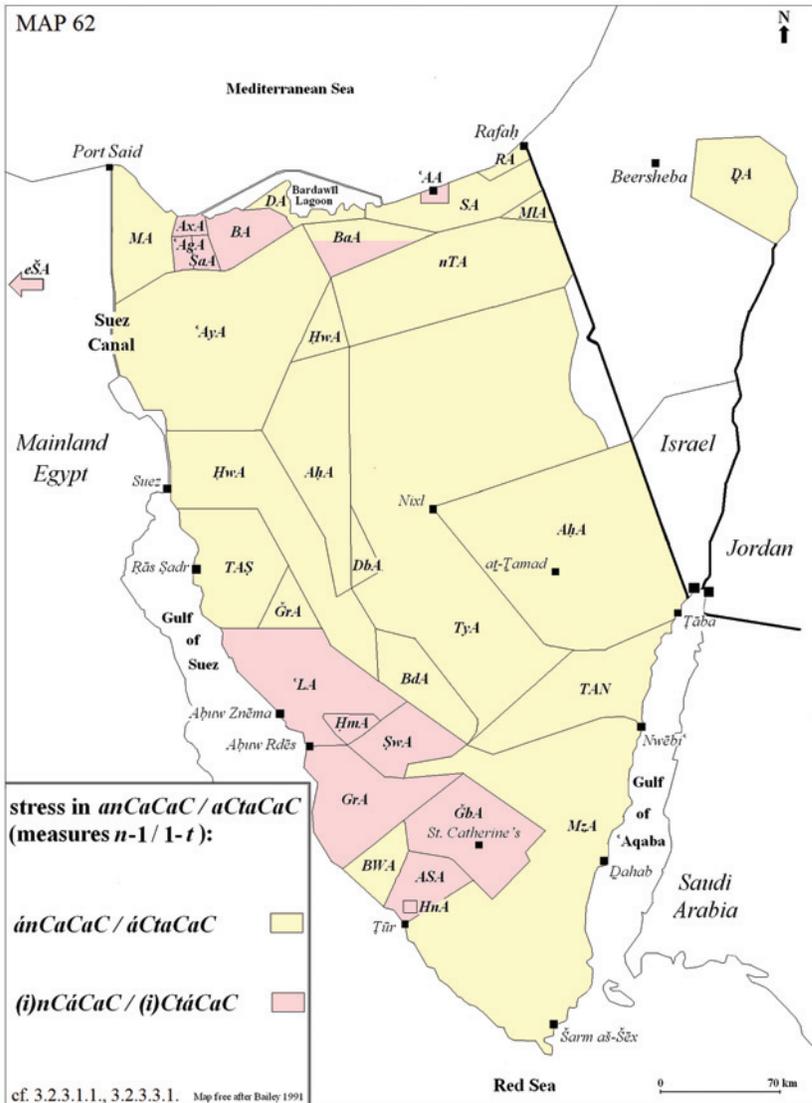
Map 58. Imperfect vowel primae *hamzah* verbs

For remarks on the absence of MAP 59 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



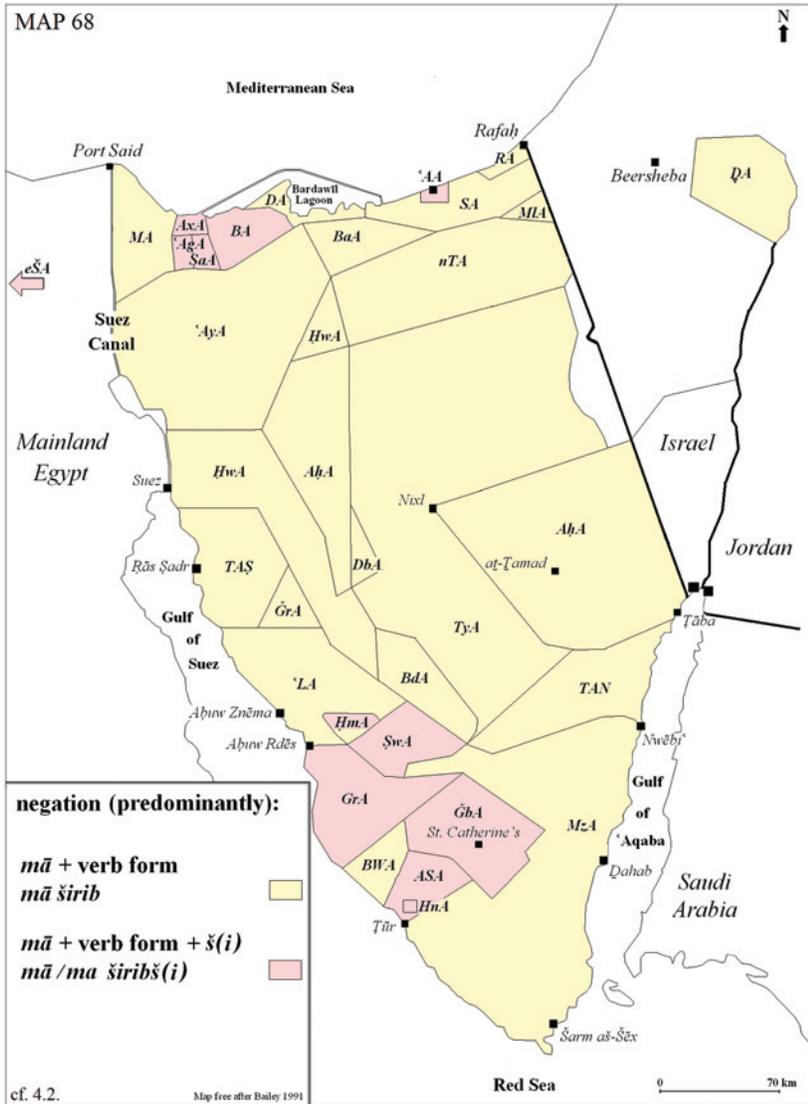


Map 61. 3rd p. sg. masc. and 1st p. sg. com. imperfect of "come"



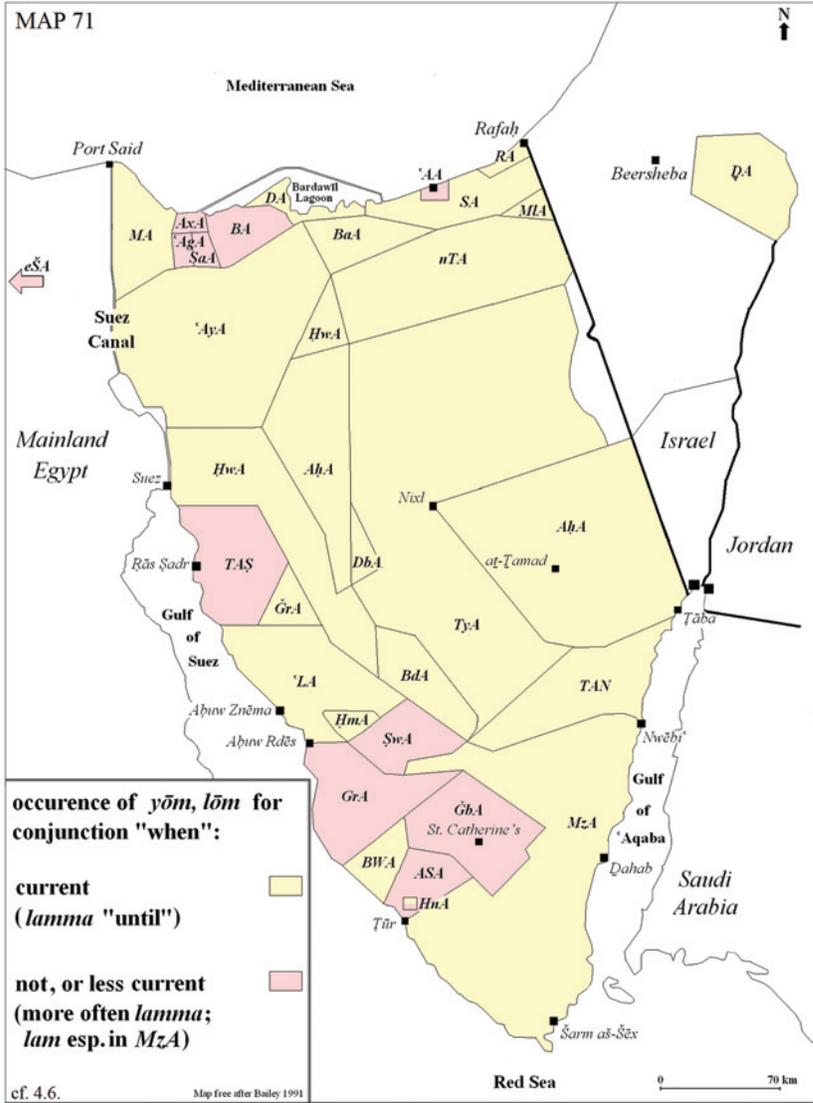
Map 62. Stress in *anCaCaC / aCtaCaC* (measures *n-1 / 1-t*)

For remarks on the absence of MAPS 63, 64, 65, 66 and 67 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.

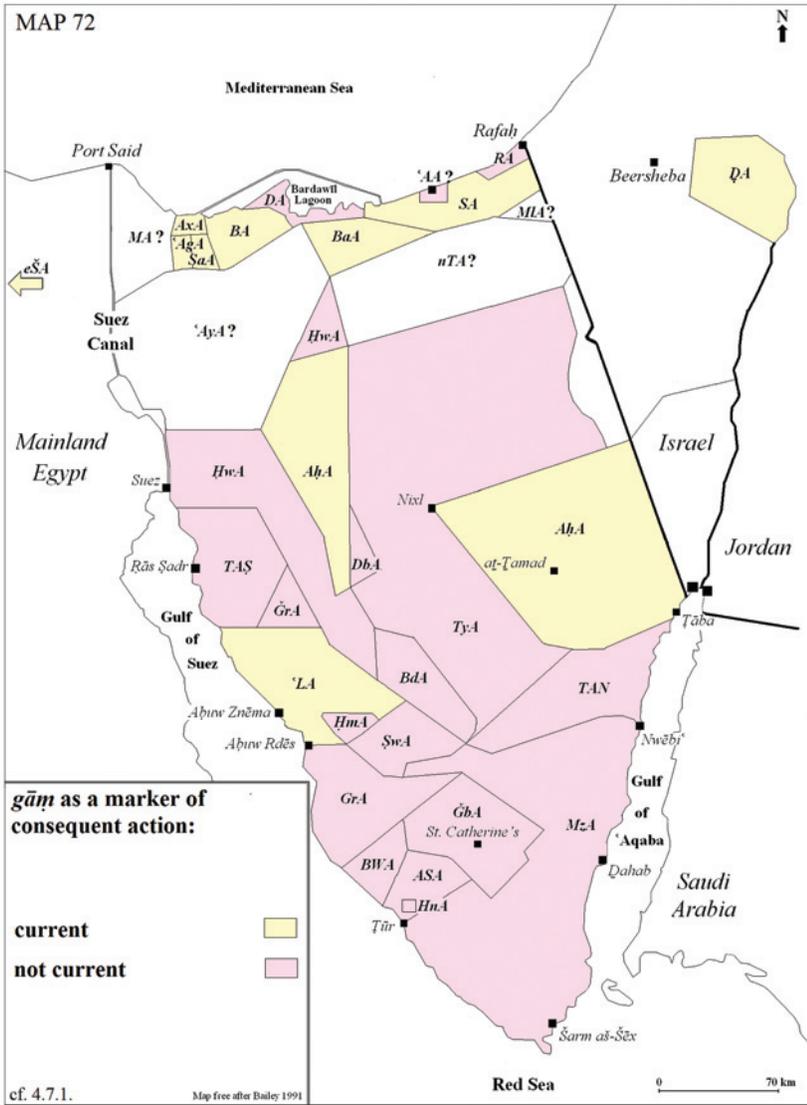


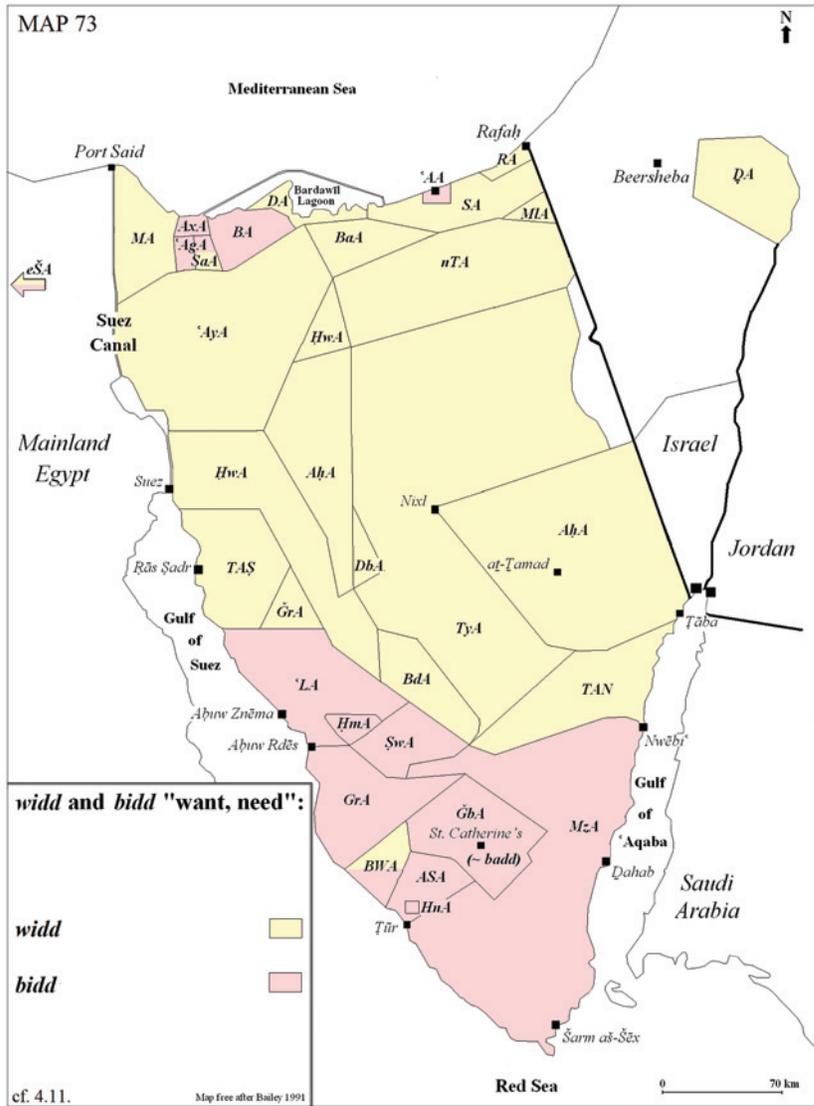
Map 68. Negation (predominantly)

For remarks on the absence of MAPS 69 and 70 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.



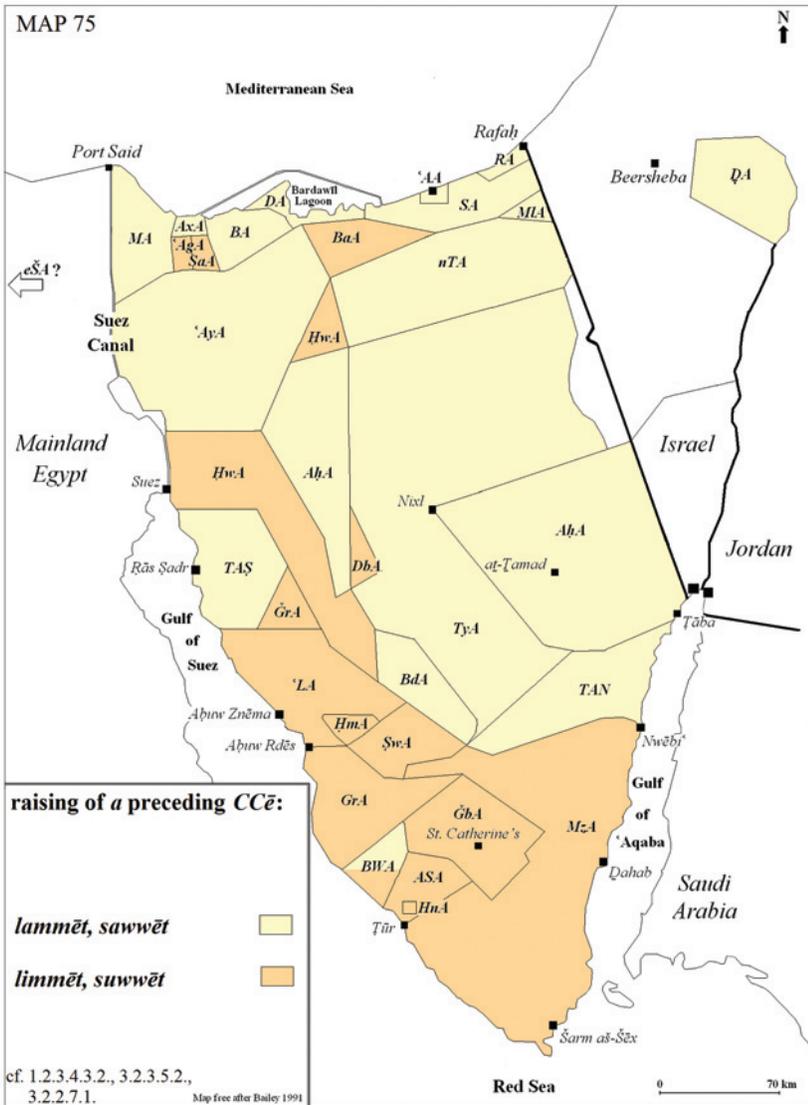
Map 71. Occurrence of *yōm*, *lōm* for conjunction "when"

Map 72. Marker of consequent action (unconjugated) *gām*

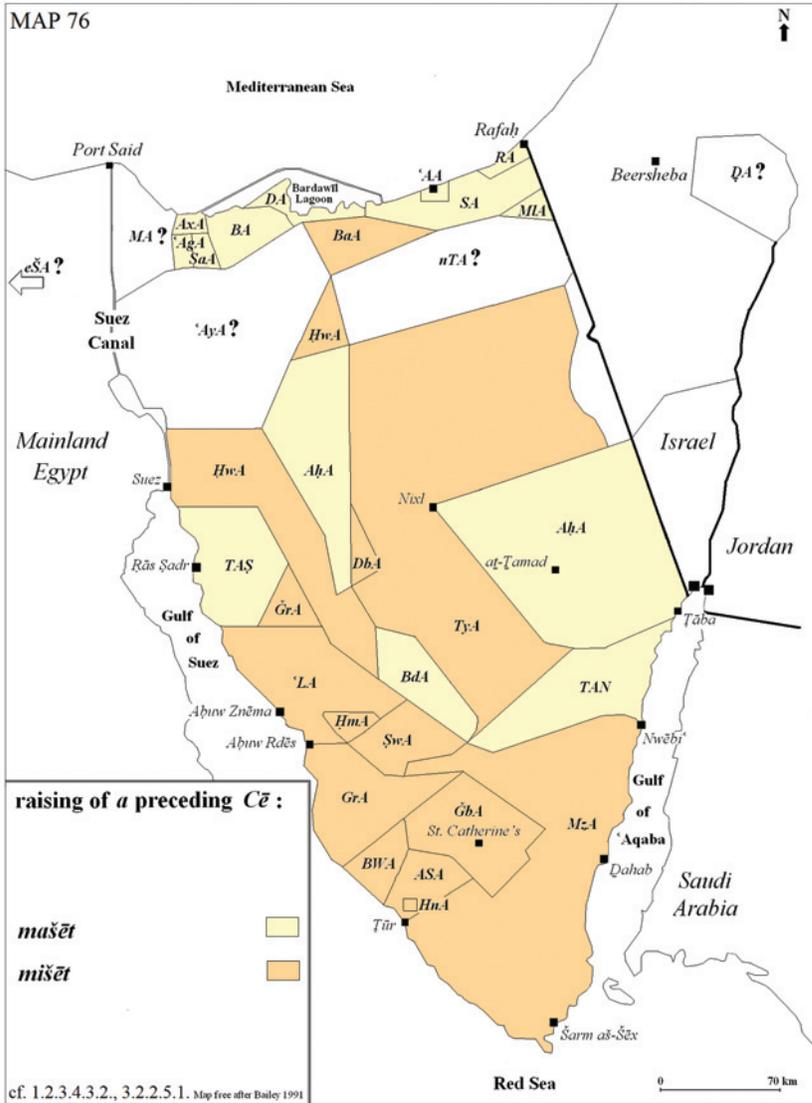


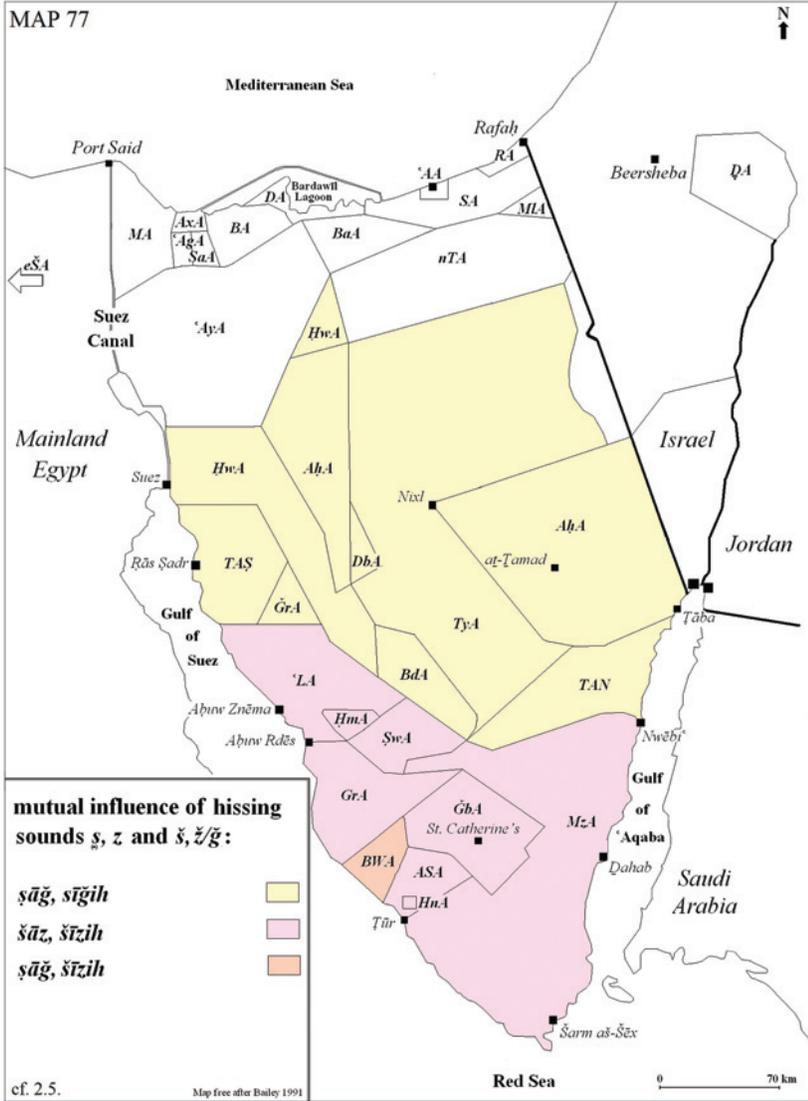
Map 73. Use of *widd* or *bidd*, "want, need"

For remarks on the absence of MAP 74 see Conclusions II. a. Criteria for comparison from De Jong 2000 producing differences/similarities in central and southern Sinai.

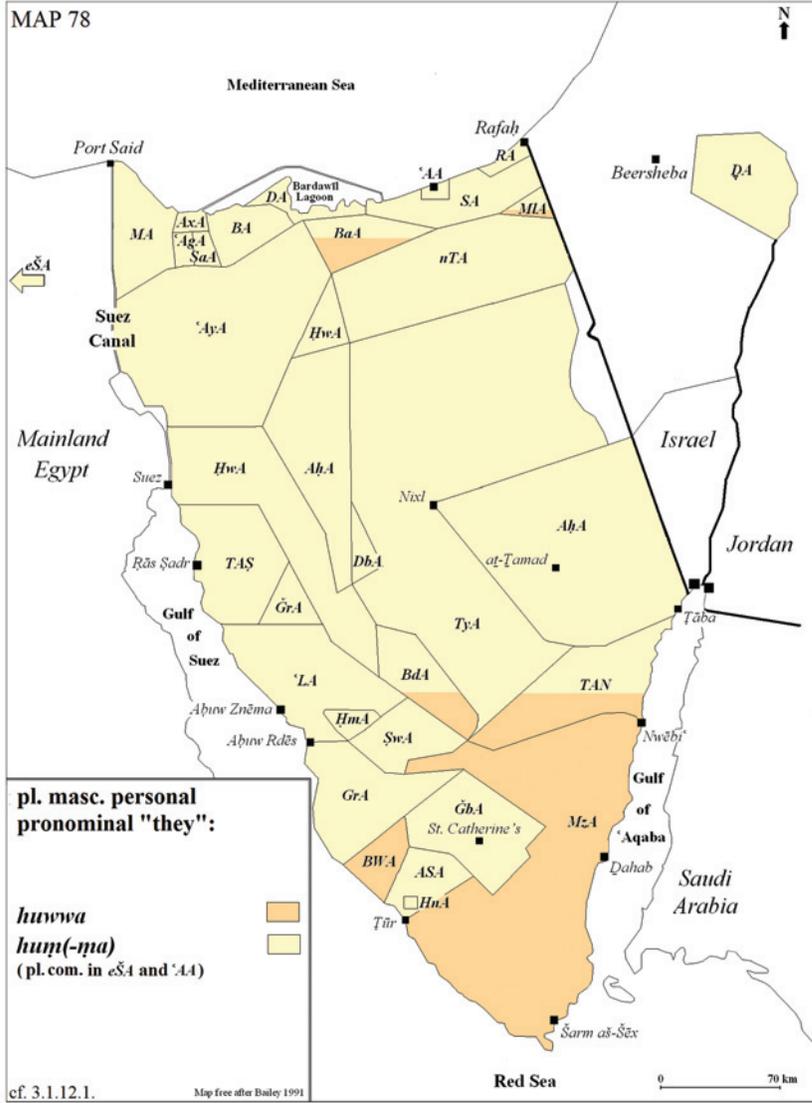


Map 75. Raising of a preceding CCē

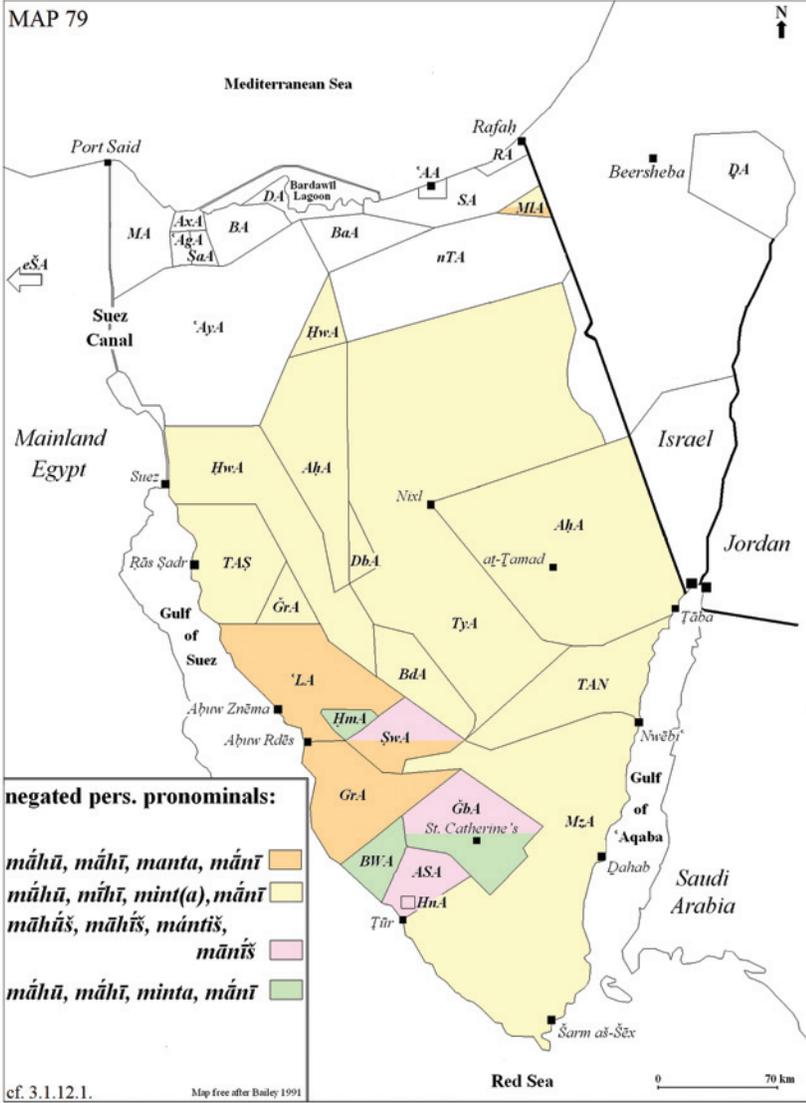
Map 76. Raising of a preceding *Cē*



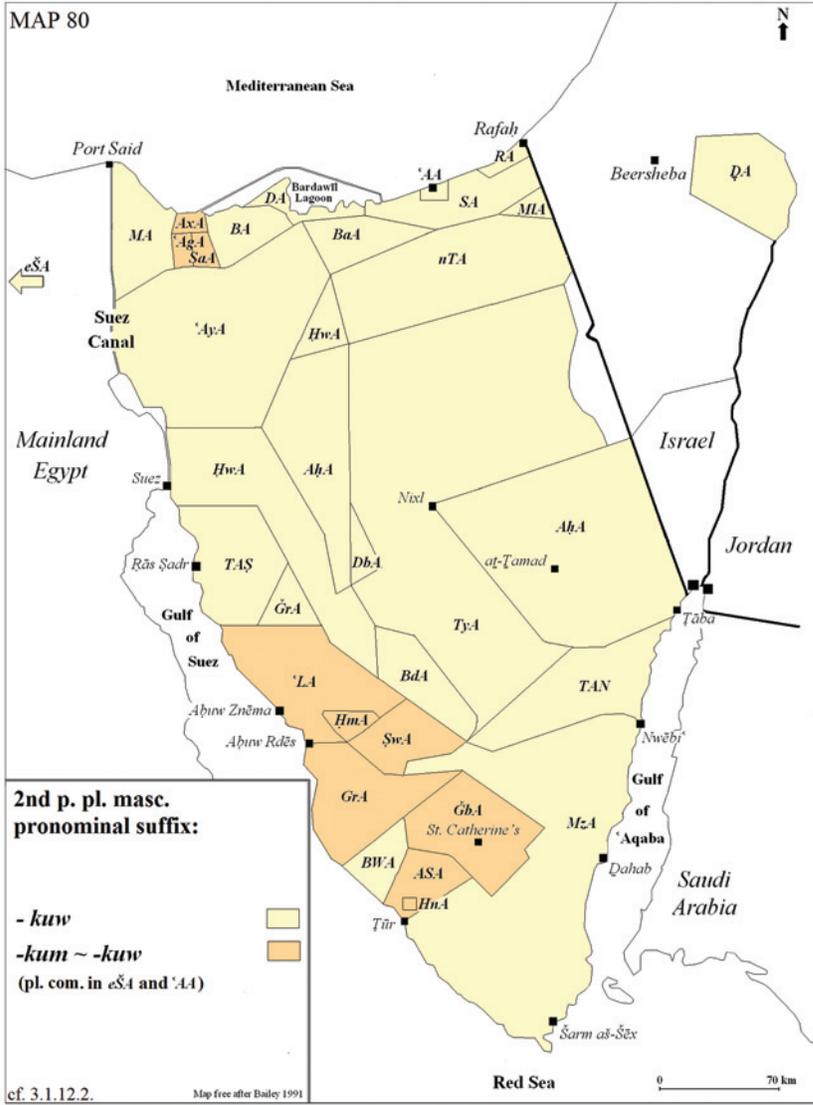
Map 77. Mutual influence of hissing sounds *š*, *z* and *ṣ̌*, *ž/ǧ*



Map 78. The pl. masc. personal pronominal "they"

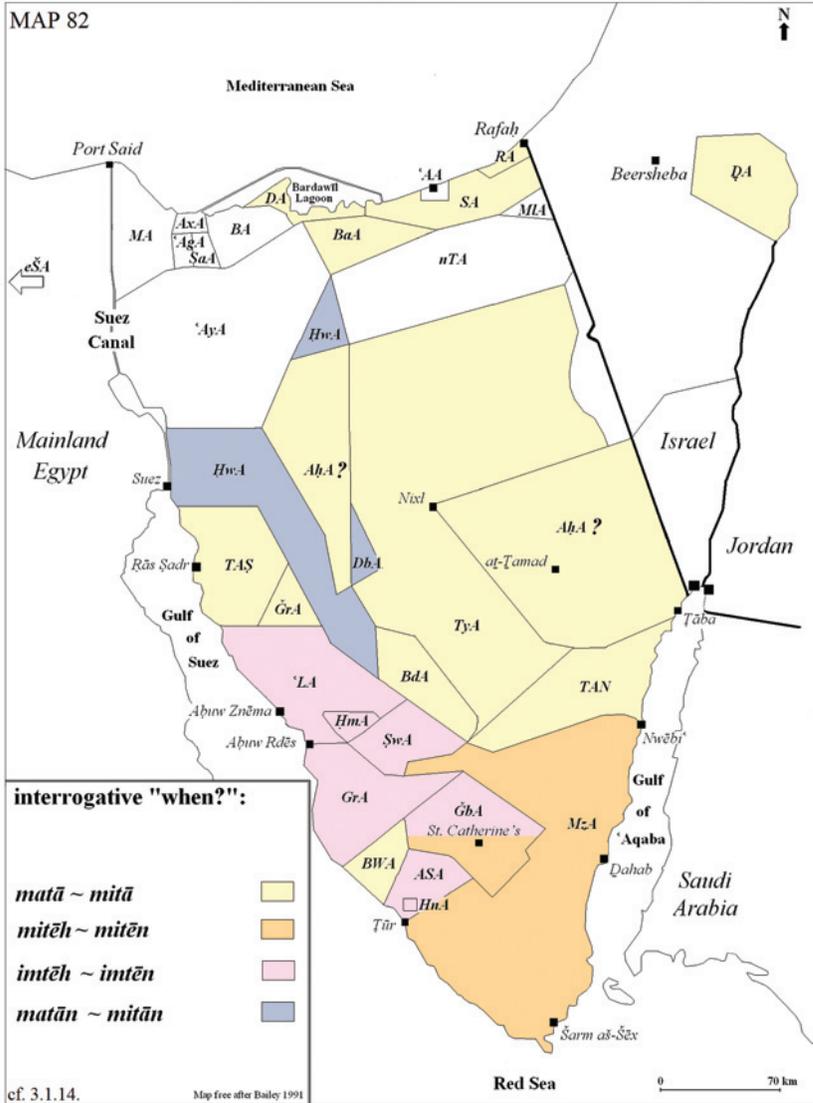


Map 79. Negated personal pronominals



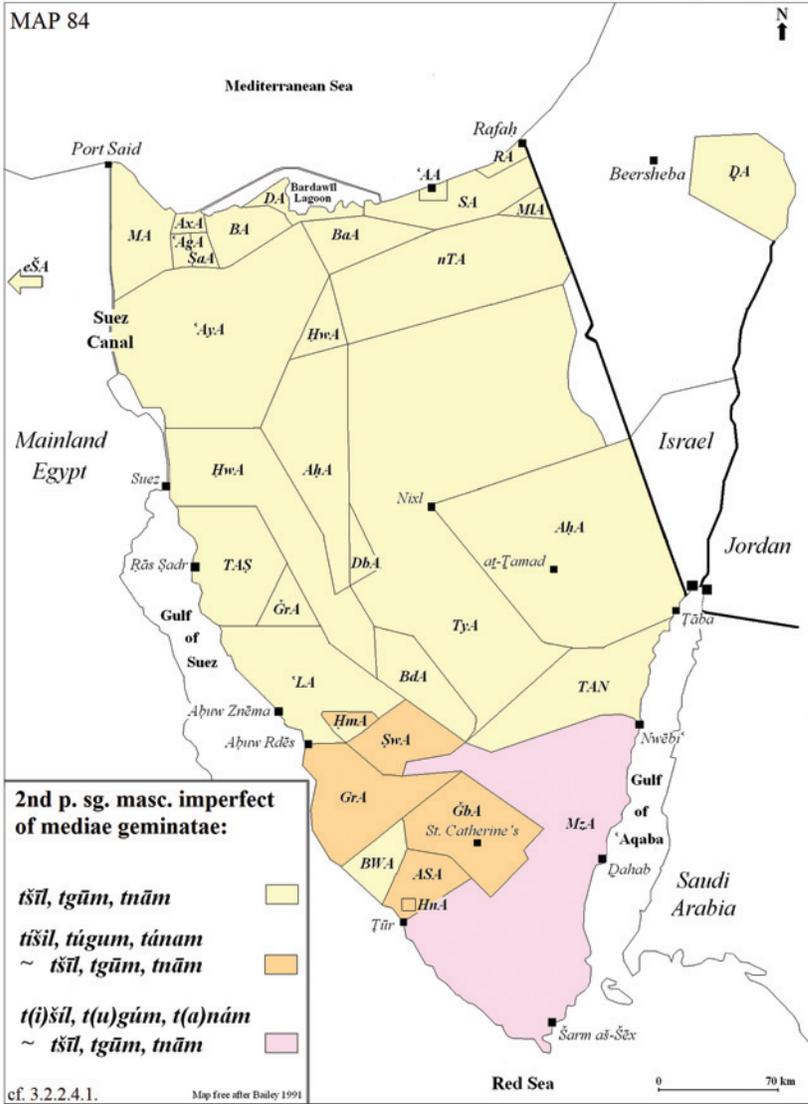
Map 80. 2nd p. pl. masc. pronominal suffix



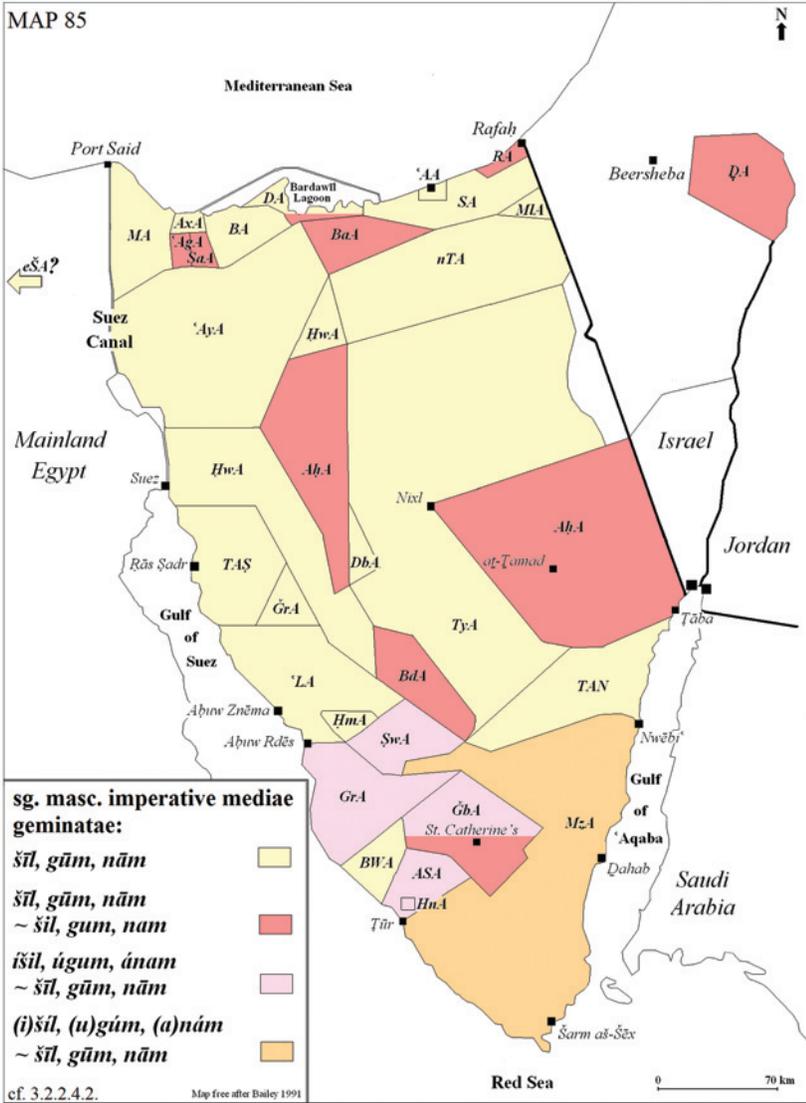


Map 82. Interrogative "when?"

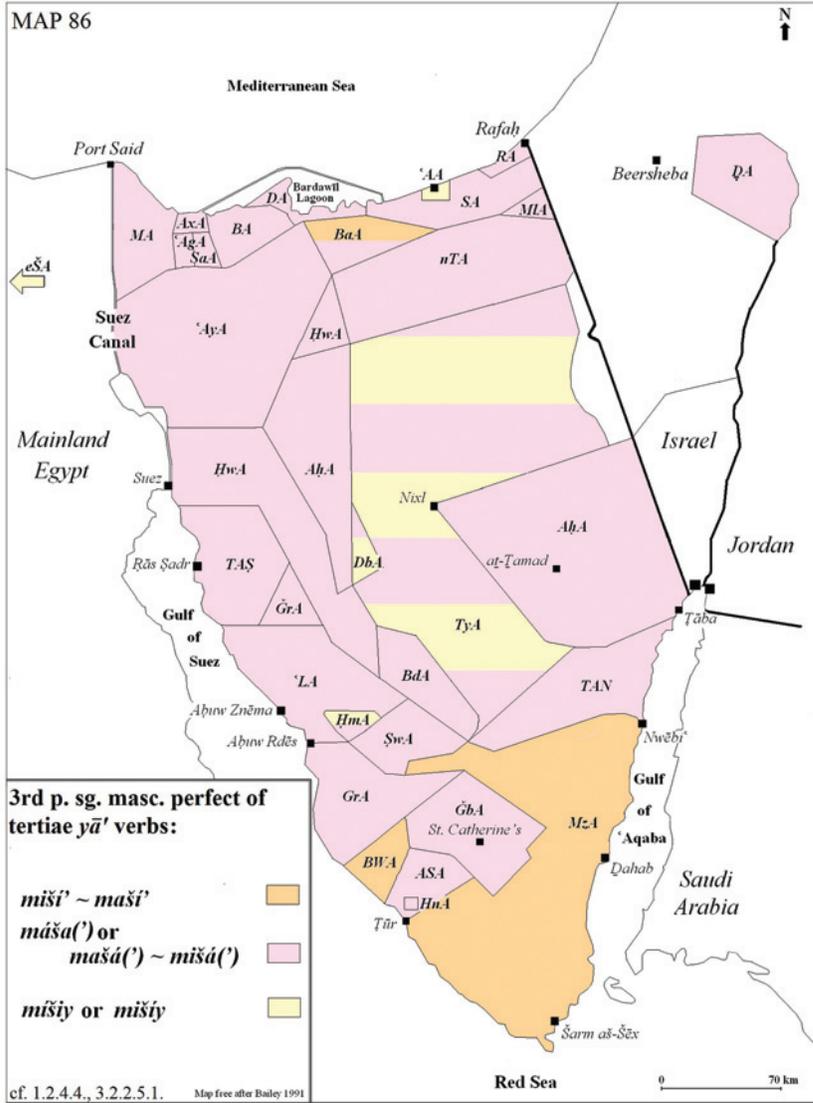




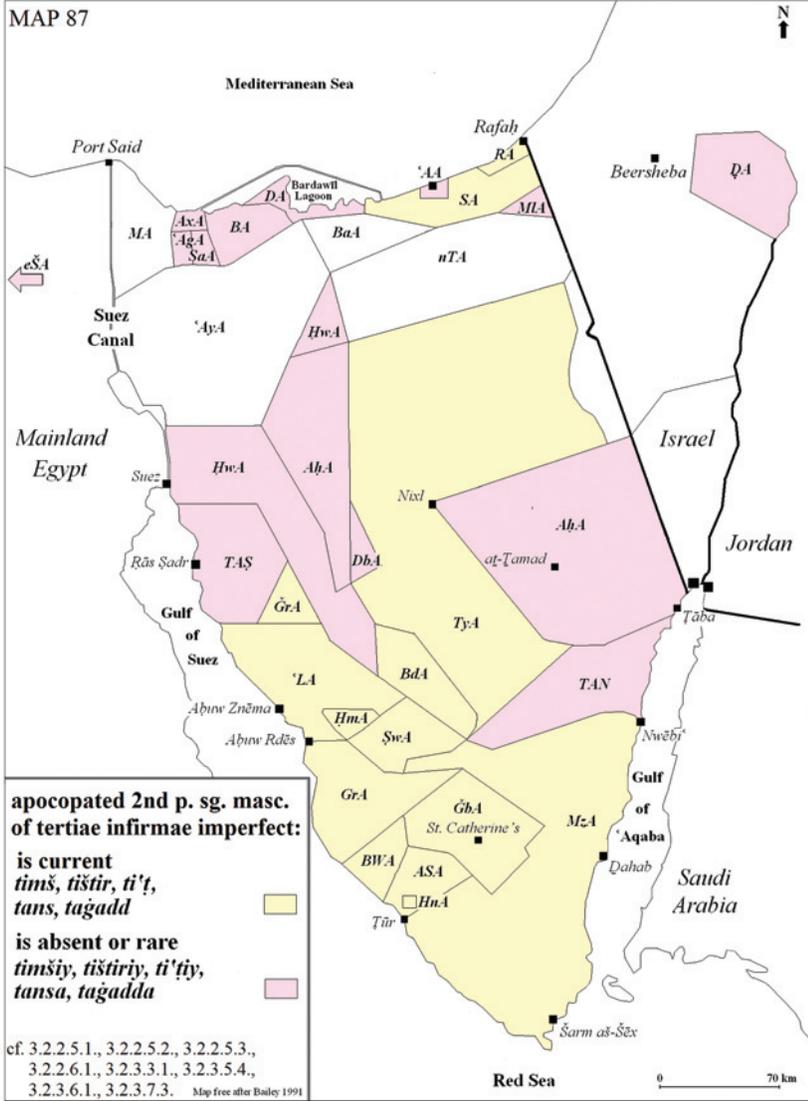
Map 84. 2nd p. sg. masc. imperfect of mediae geminatae



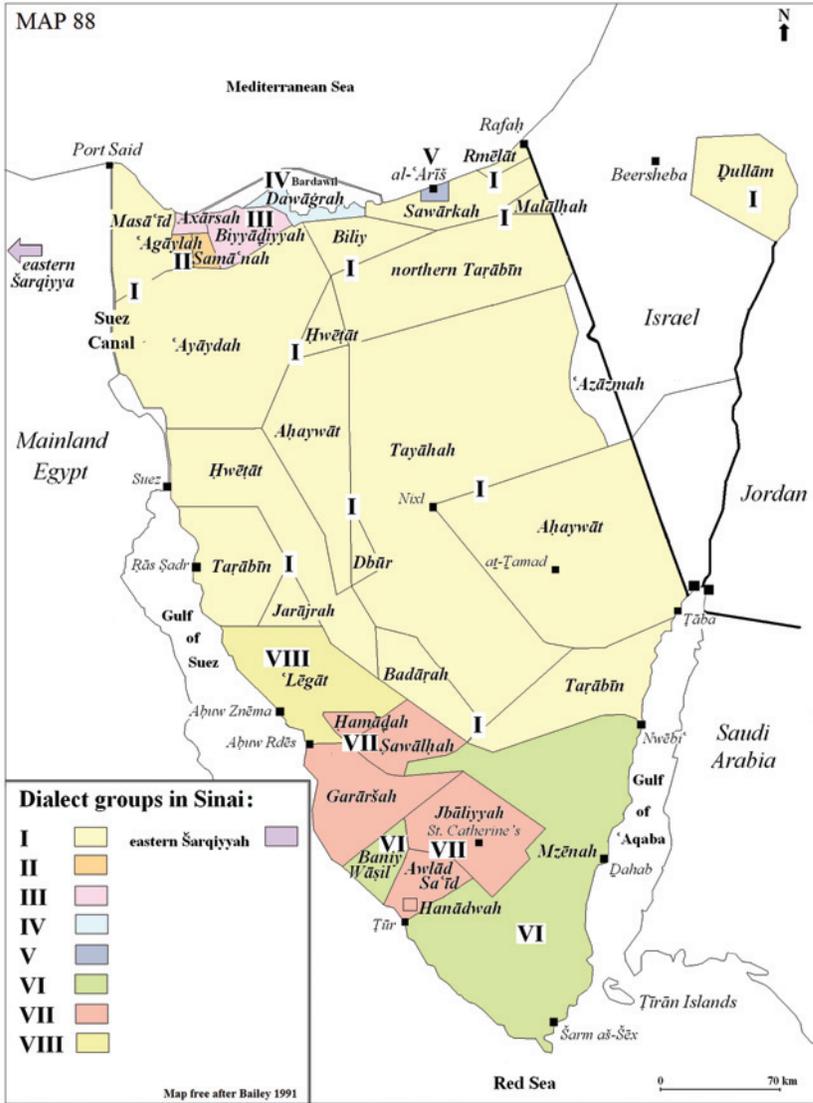
Map 85. Sg. masc. imperative of mediae geminatae verbs



Map 86. 3rd p. sg. masc. perfect of tertiae yā' verbs



Map 87. The apocopated 2nd p. sg. masc. of tertiae infirmae imperfect



Map 88. Dialect groups in Sinai