A Quantitative Analysis of Code-switching in the Arabic-Romance Kharjas

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A Quantitative Analysis of Code-switching in the Arabic-Romance *Kharjas*

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Abstract
This paper studies code-switching between Andalusian Arabic and Romance in the *kharjas*, the closing verses of the *muwashshabahat* poems. These poems, dating from the 11th to the 14th centuries, were composed in Classical Arabic, while the *kharjas* were written in two languages of Al-Andalus: Andalusian Arabic and Romance. The purpose is to investigate to what degree the structural aspect of code-switching in the *kharjas* conforms to descriptions in the current literature on code-switching in bilingual communities and what that tells us about the degree of bilingualism in Al-Andalus. The 43 *kharjas* (Corriente, 2008) present a total of 104 code-switches: 82 intra-sentential, 13 word-internal and 9 inter-sentential. The base language in the majority of cases is Romance: 73% of the switches occurred from Romance to Arabic. Cross-tabulations of the direction of the switch, lexical category of the switched parts and what immediately precedes and follows them show statistically significant relationships, indicating that the code-switches found in this corpus are not the result of a random process of language mixing resulting in “an outlandish and deliberately unsophisticated patois” (Monroe, 1974:31). A study of the intra-sentential code-switches also contributes to an explanation of the behavior of the Arabic definite article, *al-* and its allomorphs, in Arabic loanwords.

Keywords
code-switching; languages in contact; language change; bilingualism; Andalusian Arabic; Romance

1. Introduction

The language contact situation in Al-Andalus was particularly rich. The Muslim armies did not bring one sole variety of Arabic with them but rather Classical Arabic along with vernacular Arabic, dependent upon the origin of

* We are very grateful to two anonymous reviewers for their suggestions and corrections. All errors remain our own.

the speaker, all in a diglossic relationship. The Arabic spoken in Al-Andalus developed into what is called Andalusian Arabic, studied extensively by Corriente (1977, 1992, 1999). Andalusian Arabic is considered a member of the Western Arabic dialect group that includes North African Arabic vernaculars and Maltese. This group presents substratal influence from Berber, a language that, given the composition of Muslim armies and the different North African dynasties that governed Al-Andalus, was in contact with Andalusian Arabic. Mozarabs, who were Christians living in Al-Andalus, spoke a variety of Romance in the early Middle Ages that showed characteristics quite different from the variety of vulgar Latin which would develop into modern Castilian. In the present work, we will use the term Romance to refer to the variety of Romance spoken in Al-Andalus (Galmés de Fuentes 1983, 1984), which was in contact with Andalusian Arabic and is the Romance found in the *kharjas*.

Castilian Spanish, even though it developed outside of Al-Andalus, was in contact with Mozarab Romance, as well as with vernacular varieties of Arabic. The fruit of such prolonged contact led to the incorporation of approximately 4000 words, including toponyms,\(^1\) based on Arabic etyma (Lapesa 1981: 133). Indeed, Arabic is a considerable lexifying source for Spanish. On the other hand, while the influence of Spanish on Classical Arabic is nonexistent, the North African dialects have some traces from this language as a result of the introduction of Spanish in different periods since the 15th century (Sayahi, 2011, 2012). An example is the case of Northern Moroccan Arabic which has hundreds of Spanish loanwords as a result of its contact with Spanish before and during the Spanish Protectorate in the 20th century (Heath 1989; Ghailani 1997; Sayahi 2005).

After so many years, it may seem impossible to analyze the nature of the complex contact situation in Al-Andalus. However, poets from that period have left us a genre of Hispano-Arabic poetry known as *muwashshah*, composed between the 11th to the 14th centuries. The *muwashshahaat* (plural of *muwashshah*) were written entirely in Arabic script and composed in Classical Arabic, but the ending, known as the *kharja* /ˈkʰar.ʒa/ ‘exit; closure’, was composed in Romance and Andalusian Arabic, with code-switching between the two languages. Monroe (1974: 29) puts it this way: *“The most important part of the poem was the kharja or “exit” which was frequently in Romance or in*

\(^1\) Lapesa (1981: 133) explains that 850 Spanish words have clearly identified Arabic etyma and that another 780 are derivates. There are approximately one thousand toponyms of certain Arabic origin and about 500 of probable Arabic origin. In the present work, we have isolated 1290 loanwords of Arabic origin (*vide infra*).
vernacular Arabic [...] ranging from ironic refusal to crude obscenity, all in an outlandish and deliberately unsophisticated patois”.

*Kharja* A22 (Corriente 2008: 250) is reproduced in (1). Uppercase and lowercase letters represent Romance and Arabic elements, respectively. The translations and glosses into English are by the authors. News of the *kharjas*

(1) **älba ǧīya êstā ǧīya, ǧīya ǧ + alšānsara ūqqa**, ‘a happy day is today, day of the most righteous one,’

**beštiréy mew almudábáj wanišqarr arrúm ūqqa**

*i will wear my brocade suit and I will break my lance.*’

first appeared in Stern’s pioneering articles in 1948 and 1949, followed by that of García Gómez (1952), which contained many of the Romance *kharjas* found in the *Uddat al-Jalīs*, one of the anthologies of *muwashshahaat*. García Gómez further spread his views in his 1965 volume, including the belief that the *kharjas* form part of a primitive Romance lyric tradition in the Iberian Peninsula, cultivated by the Romance speakers in Al-Andalus who maintained that oral legacy even during the Muslim domination. Solà-Solé’s anthology of *kharjas* (1973) offers alternative interpretations to those of García Gómez although relies on many of the latter’s texts. Alan Jones published the first detailed paleographic and linguistic analysis of the *kharjas* in 1988. More recently, researchers, such as Zwartjes (1995), have argued that while the *kharjas* do have some extra Arabic realities, they were composed “completely according to Arabic tradition: historically, prosodically, thematically and stylistically” (Zwartjes, 1995: 248). Corriente’s contributions (1997, 2004, 2008, 2009), based on Jones (1988) and his own work on the Andalusian Arabic dialect (1977, 1992, 1999), offer more refined readings of the *kharjas*, and we base this investigation on the forty-three *kharjas* in Corriente (2008).

Although many authors have commented on the code-switching in the *kharjas*, there has been no systematic study of the phenomenon to support their judgments. Jones (1988: 11) believes that “in many cases the switches from one language to the other and back again are not normal or convincing if judged by what has been learned in recent years about language switching”. Similarly, Monroe (1974: 31) classifies the *kharjas* as “an outlandish and deliberately unsophisticated patois”. Whinnom (1982: 15) even denies that code-switching exits in the *kharjas* and suggests that what we consider to be Romance might be loanwords in Andalusian Arabic. Sempere Martínez, on the other hand,

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2 Corriente (2009) translates *dīya ǧ + alšānsara ūqqa* as ‘summer solstice’.
takes exception to those judgments: “Es una incongruencia proponer una deficiencia gramatical en un texto que, por otra parte, constituye una elaborada composición lingüística. El lenguaje de las jarchas bilingües- y el de las monolingües también- no puede ser fortuito.” (Sempere Martínez 1998: 646). [It is an incongruence to propose a grammatical deficiency in a text that, on the other hand, constitutes an elaborate linguistic composition. The language of the bilingual kharjas- and also that of the monolingual ones- cannot be fortuitious. (translated by authors)]

Sempere Martínez shows how recent scholarship on code-switching can provide more convincing interpretations of some earlier readings by Solà-Solé and García Gómez.

The objective of the present study is to determine the frequency, types, directionality of the switch, lexical categories of the switched parts and structure of the examples of code-switches (CS) found in the kharjas. This information will help determine whether or not the code-switching observed in the kharjas is structurally different from what is found in the literature about code-switching. Such data should also provide more information about the type of bilingualism in Al-Andalus.

We will also see that the code-switching data sheds some light onto how Romance may have incorporated the Arabic definite article (al- and its allomorphs) in loanwords. We will analyze the behavior of the Arabic definite article in the kharjas data as well as in a corpus of Arabic loanwords extracted from the Diccionario de la Lengua Española (1995). We consider the study of the Arabic article to be especially important as the kharjas offer a way to examine directly the process of the integration (or not) of the Arabic article into loanwords. A long-standing misconception regarding Arabic loan nouns in Romance is that they systematically conserve al- in the first syllable. As Don Quixote explains to Sáncho how to identify Arabic loanwords, Cervantes echoes this commonly held belief: “… tanto por el al primero como por el i en que acaban, son conocidos por arábigos [.. as much as for the initial al as for the i in which they end, they are recognized as Arabic] (Cervantes, 731)”.

The kharjas are literary creations. We are not dealing with spontaneously produced, natural speech samples. However, owing to the high frequency of vocatives, short quotes and the themes of the kharjas, which are basically street talk in a much more informal register than the muwashshahaat, the language use in the kharjas most probably approximates that of the lower class of Al-Andalus. Most of the kharjas are anonymous, although we know the names of many of the poets who composed the muwashshahaat.
Several studies have argued for the role of code-switching as a mechanism for language contact and change (Thomason 2001; Myers-Scotton 2002; Backus 2005). In general, this investigation will show that code-switching in the kharjas bears witness to a high degree of bilingualism in Al-Andalus that led to intense language contact and, by consequence, lexical borrowing.

2. Methodology

Even though investigators such as Whinnom (1982) and Jones (1988) have commented on the arbitrary nature of the code-switches found in the kharjas, we propose a method here to determine whether or not those claims are founded. We characterized the directionality of the languages switched after considering the totality of the kharja. All kharjas cited herein correspond to Corriente’s (2008) designations for the Arabic series (A). In kharja A21 (see 2), the noun phrase alḥabibE is an example of Romance to Arabic intra-sentential code-switching. The phrase ya māmma, present throughout the corpus, contains a Romance to Arabic intra-sentential code-switch.

(2) ya mámma, mew alḥabibE fóy še en + e(d) non tornāde,

“Oh, Mother, my lover went away and he does not return,

GĀR KĒ FAREYO, ya MĀMMA? E(D) NIN BEYJĒLLO LESĀDE (A21)

Say, what should I do, Mother? And he doesn’t leave me even a little kiss.”

The sample consists of data obtained from the forty-three kharjas interpreted by Corriente (2008). Earlier readings are found in Corriente (1997, 2004). Code-switches were counted and were classified according to the direction of the switch (Arabic to Romance, or Romance to Arabic), the type of switch (inter-sentential, intra-sentential and word-internal) and the lexical category of the switched item, as well as the lexical categories of the elements both preceding and following the switched item.

Given that the determination of the parameters conditioning the code-switches forms the heart of this study, an additional illustration of the codification is presented in (3, 4, 5). This is kharja A3.

(3) vēt en! wūč ya tenrad

“go away! What a face (nerve) he must have then” (A3)

Example 3 is a case of intra-sentential CS from Romance to Arabic. The switched item is the Arabic wūč, a noun meaning ‘face’ used here to indicate ‘daring’ or ‘nerve’. The preceding element is the Romance locative pronoun
EN, but since the switched item, wūč, is the direct object of the Romance verb TENRAD, the switch is considered to be intra-sentential.

(4) k indár xáles kered
   “he wants to alert the uncles” (A3)

Example 4 is another case of a Romance to Arabic intra-sentential CS. The switched item is the Arabic verb indár, followed by the Arabic xáles. Preceding the switch is the Romance conjunction k. This is considered Romance to Arabic since the phrase is embedded between the Romance elements, k and kered.

(5) xáles kered
      uncles he wants (A3)

Example 5 is a word-internal Arabic to Romance CS. Preceding the CS, is the Arabic noun xāl “uncle”. The CS element is the Romance plural morpheme -es, followed by the Romance verb kered.

The switched element, as well as the elements before and after it, were assigned to fourteen lexical categories: noun, pronoun, nominal morpheme, verb, verbal morpheme, adjective, adverb, determinant-article, determinant-demonstrative, determinant-possessive, preposition, conjunction, interjection, or no element. Data summaries and statistical analyses were performed with the Statistical Package for Social Science (S.P.S.S.). Pearson chi-square probabilities less than .050 are considered significant. In a separate analysis, 1290 loanwords from Arabic were isolated from the Diccionario de la lengua española (1995) and were classified according to the presence of the definite article al-, its assimilation, or its absence.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. The types of code-switches in the corpus

The total number of switches in the kharjas is 104, an average of 2.4 switches per kharja. Table 1 summarizes the frequencies and percentages of the two types of language shift possible, Romance to Arabic and vice versa. Table 1 also gives the frequencies of the three types of code-switching found in the kharjas: intra-sentential, inter-sentential and word-internal.

The number of code-switches found in this corpus of the kharjas is abundant: 104 cases present in 43 kharjas, which is high given that a typical kharja consists of two to four verses. Since Romance to Arabic shifts dominate
Intra-sentential switches were the most frequent type, observed at a frequency of 79%. Inter-sentential switches were found at a rate of 9%. The fact that the khārjas are not extended conversations explains the scarcity of this type. The intra and inter-sentential code-switches observed here are not categorically structurally different from what is found in the literature on code-switching.

Interestingly, a type of switch, which we considered word-internal, was observed in 12% of the total switches. An example was given in (5) and additional cases are shown in (6), where the code-switched element is underlined. These are word-internal code-switches from Romance to Arabic, where inflection/derivation was performed on Arabic bases; for example, the verbal root liqā with the Romance morpheme -R, and the noun and adjective bases ljumm and šaqr with Romance diminutive suffixes –ello/a.

Word-internal code-switching has been flagged as ungrammatical by some researchers (cf Poplack’s (1980) free morpheme constraint), who most likely would consider these to be nonce or spontaneous borrowings. Regardless of their names, it has been shown that in bilingual communities lexical insertions in the form of spontaneous borrowings are fairly common (Heath 1989; Owens 2002). These cases imply a high level of bilingualism as opposed to established loanwords that can be used by monolingual speakers (Poplack, Sankoff and Miller 1988: 52). Given that some of these examples consist of the same borrowed morpheme, such as the Romance diminutive –ello/a,

(73%) with respect to Arabic to Romance (27%) and khārjas A16 and A18 were entirely composed in Romance, the latter tends to be the base language in the Arabic-Romance khārjas.

### Table 1 Frequencies and types of language shift in the khārjas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>intra-sentential</th>
<th>word-internal</th>
<th>inter-sentential</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Romance &gt; Arabic</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic &gt; Romance</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(79%)
these switches indicate the level of access the authors and audience must have had to both languages in order to fully understand them.

This analysis provides evidence that the poets had competence in both languages. The high degree of code-switching suggests the existence of extended bilingualism since the poets would not compose or incorporate bilingual kharjās if their audience could not understand them. Given that the main part of the muwashshah was written in Classical Arabic, it is most likely that they were Arabic-dominant bilingual speakers, but the use of Romance, presumably their weaker language, suggests that the poets were advanced bilinguals. Code-switching at the end of a poem written in Classical Arabic between two vernacular systems, Andalusian Arabic and Romance, indicates that the contact was between these two and not between Classical Arabic and Romance, consistent with Mufwene’s contention that: “Overall, we learn that vernaculars compete with vernaculars and lingua francas with lingua francas” (Mufwene 2007: 84). Even if the author of a muwashshah used a kharja originally composed by a different poet, still, the high informality of the themes in the kharjās in a way reflects the linguistic behavior that must have been in use among the authors and audience of these poems. These are speakers who use Classical Arabic, a language that is only acquired through formal instruction, but who also use the two vernaculars that are available to them in their daily life and even code-switch between the two.

3.2. Lexical category and type of code-switching

Table 2 summarizes the cross-tabulation of the lexical category by the type of the CS, as well as by the direction of the switch, that is, whether the code-switch proceeds from Romance to Arabic (R→A) or from Arabic to Romance (A→R). The cross-tabulations of Romance to Arabic switches, which constitute the majority of code-switches (76 cases), by the three types of CS yield a Pearson chi-square probability (p) = .002. The most frequently involved lexical categories were: 17 nouns; 11 cases of ya, the Arabic vocative particle; and 24 articles, indicating that most such CS occurred within a noun phrase. The cross tabulation of the code-switched lexical category and type of code-switch shows that these two variables have a non-random relationship: 83 % (p = .002) of the Romance to Arabic inter-sentential code-switches were initiated by the verb. Nouns and Arabic determinants, specifically definite articles, dominate the intra-sentential switches; 37 out of 59 Romance to Arabic intra-sentential CS (61 %) and 4 out of 9
word-internal CS (44 %) involve nouns. Because of the high frequency of nouns and definite articles involved in the code-switches analyzed here, we are able to observe how the Arabic article behaved in Arabic insertions into Romance discourse.

Table 3 summarizes the lexical categories of the words before, after and at each case of intra-sentential code-switching, although the latter is included in complete detail in table 2. For the Romance to Arabic code-switches, the cross-tabulations of both the lexical category of the preceding element with the type of code-switch as well as the part of speech of the following element with the type of code-switch showed a non-random relationship, as attested by the Pearson chi-square probabilities.

Therefore, this analysis shows that the CS syntax has a significant relationship with the lexical category of the switched parts, demonstrating an underlying pattern to the syntax, rather than a haphazard mixing of Romance and Arabic elements.
3.3. The Arabic definite article and double determinants

In order to relate the above findings about code-switching in the kharjas to the process of the introduction of the Arabic article into Romance loanwords, the structure of the noun phrases in the code-switching junctures are relevant, including allomorphs of the Arabic definite article. The main allomorph of the article is *al*-.. However, a total reverse coronal assimilation oftentimes modifies the consonant to that of the initial consonant of the noun, for example, *arraqib* ‘the watcher/guardian.’ In this case, the /l/ is assimilated to the following /r/ as it does with all coronal consonants in this context.

Before accounting for the behavior of the article in the majority of the noun phrases, we would like to report a less frequently observed usage in the kharjas, but one where Arabic and Romance grammar rules mix to allow two syntactical contexts where a double determinant is expressed, the definite article and either a demonstrative or possessive. Since this poetry was written by and for bilingual Arabic-Romance speakers, it is unlikely that the Arabic definite article would have been expressed for no syntactic motivation; bilinguals cannot ignore the article. Three Arabic nouns, prefaced by the Arabic article, were also preceded by a Romance possessive: *mue alhabib*, in A8 and A21 and *sew arraqib* in A28. While medieval Castilian syntax allowed definite articles
to precede possessive adjectives, such as “el mio fiel vassallo, la mi muger” (Penny 1991:126), just as some modern Romances still do, the possessive in the kharjas precedes the definite article. Nevertheless, because the Arabic definite article is agglutinated to the nouns, this possessive construction observed in the kharjas may be considered a calqued metathesis of Romance syntax. Likewise, the two Arabic nouns, again with the attached definite article and prefaced by a demonstrative: eṣṭ arraqīʕ “this rogue” and eṣṭ alḥarakī “this troublemaker”, both in A10, could be calques of the Arabic syntax. This construction requires the demonstrative adjectives to precede definite nouns in order to create phrases, rather than sentences such as eṣṭ raqtʕ “this is a rogue” and eṣṭ ḥaraki “this is a troublemaker”.

3.4. The code-switching junctures in the noun phrases

In the Romance to Arabic intra-sentential CS, of the 15 nouns that initiated the code-switch, none was preceded by a definite article, and since 13 of them were not preceded by any determinant, they are considered bare nouns. Of the 22 articles that initiated a code-switch, all 22 were followed by a noun and 10 of the articles were preceded by a preposition. This indicates that the Arabic nouns prefixed by the Arabic article were introduced into Romance discourse via a prepositional phrase at a higher frequency (10/ 22 or 45 %) than were nouns with no article (3/15 or 20 %). After all of the 11 intra-sentential code-switches initiated by the Arabic vocative ya, a noun followed, sometimes a Romance noun, such as qoratsone, matre, mamma, other times an Arabic noun, such as sidī, ḥabibi, saḥḥāra. No noun introduced after a code-switched ya was accompanied by the definite article; hence, they were bare. In all cases, the vocative phrase can be considered a parenthetical element to the discourse, but it was not counted as an inter-sentential CS.

Summing up the 3 types of Romance to Arabic code-switches involving nouns, of the 45 Arabic nouns (see table 4), 23 are bare nouns (51 %) and 22 nouns (49 %) have the Arabic definite article. Thirteen have the non-assimilated allomorph al- and 9, the assimilated one. Ten of the 22 nouns with definite articles were preceded by prepositions (45 %). Prepositional phrases are one of the main structures that introduce Arabic nouns with the articles into the kharjas. The bare nouns included 5 examples of the Arabic vocative ya followed by an Arabic noun and another 6 cases of a vocative without ya, for 11 vocatives (46 %). Vocative phrases tend to introduce bare nouns into the kharjas.
3.5. The Arabic article in Spanish

We also measured the number of Spanish nouns of Arabic origin that were adapted with and without the definite article. Using the electronic version of the *Diccionario de la lengua española* (1995) that allows searches by origin, all entries that were tagged as being of Arabic origin were classified according to the behavior of the Arabic article. The interesting result is that, using this method, half the entries that the Spanish Academy considers to be of Arabic origin do not in fact conserve the Arabic article. The other half is divided between words that keep the article intact (31 %) and those that present its assimilated form (19 %). These results bear a striking similarity to the behavior of the article in code-switched Arabic nouns in the *kharjas*. Table 5 summarizes the data gathered from the *Diccionario de la lengua española*.

Table 4 Arabic single noun code-switches in the *kharjas*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nouns that contain al-</th>
<th>nouns that contain the assimilated form</th>
<th>bare nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alšādiqa “the beloved”</td>
<td>aḍḍámmaš “the embraces”</td>
<td>sidi (2) “my lord”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alḥhabīb (2) “the lover”</td>
<td>aššámaš “the beauty marks”</td>
<td>abrahim “Abraham”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alḥharaki “the troublemaker”</td>
<td>arraqib (2)”the watchter”</td>
<td>abulqasim “Abdulqasim”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alfašākE “the stars”</td>
<td>aššuḥde “the honey”</td>
<td>abulhaʃayj “Abulhajaj”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alšānṣara “the most righteous one”</td>
<td>aššārti “the condition”</td>
<td>amiri “my prince”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>algidla “the shirt”</td>
<td>arraqfī “the rogue”</td>
<td>allahi “My God”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>allāzmaš “marks from biting”</td>
<td>annāḏmī “the necklace”</td>
<td>ammi “my mother”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alwaʃiḏ “the promises”</td>
<td>assamrELLO “the little dark one”</td>
<td>sahḥara “sorceress”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alḥujaj “the excuses”</td>
<td></td>
<td>ḥābb almuluk “cherry”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alfiqđE “the pearl necklace”</td>
<td></td>
<td>xatELLO (2) “little thief”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alḏulām “the boy”</td>
<td></td>
<td>ḥabib “lover”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>almudabbāj “the brocade jacket”</td>
<td></td>
<td>ḥabibi(2) “my lover”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 summarizes the data gathered from the *Diccionario de la lengua española*. |
3.6. Why the Arabic article is or is not incorporated in loanwords

Solà-Solé (1968) estimates the number of Arabic loanwords in Spanish to be between 850-1000; 60% contained a form of the article. Bramon (1987) analyzed 229 cases of Arabic loanwords present in both Spanish and Catalan; 70% contained a form of the article. In our study of the *Diccionario de la lengua española*, we have counted 1290 loanwords where 50% are expressed with the article and 50% without the article. Of the Arabic nouns involved in the Andalusian Romance to Arabic code-switches in the *kharjas*, 51% were bare nouns and 49% had the Arabic article.

In Arabic the definite article is agglutinated and is required for each element of the noun phrase. It is invariable across number and gender and undergoes a reverse assimilation before coronal consonants, which comprise 14 out of 28 sounds in Arabic. For example, the adapted loanwords in Spanish, *almohada* ‘pillow’ and *aceite* ‘oil’, contain the article in the non-assimilated and assimilated allomorphs, respectively.

There are several theories that attempt to explain why the definite article is retained in the Arabic loanwords. Steiger as cited by Solà-Solé (1968: 280) invokes communicative reasons for the presence of the article: “[…] se debe su presencia o su ausencia a las exigencias del pensamiento o de la comunicación. […]its presence or absence is to due to the demands of thought or of communication…” Solà-Solé (1968: 280) further expounds on the presentative function of the article: “El artículo árabe al- desempeña no solo una función determinativa y, a veces de resultas de su propio origen, demostrativa, sino además, y por encima de todo, una función que podríamos llamar PRESENTATIVA o ENFÁTICA [The Arabic article *al-* carries out not only a determinative function, and, at times as a result of its very origin, demonstrative, but also, and above all, a function that we could call PRESENTATIVE or EMPHATIC”]. Steiger (1932) and Elcock (1960) believe that a Berber substrate influence is responsible for the predominance of the article in Andalusian Arabic. Corriente (1999: 61), referring to the Arabic spoken by speakers of Berber, says: “…cuando

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>number of loanwords</th>
<th>loanwords with al-</th>
<th>loanwords with the assimilated form</th>
<th>loanwords without the article</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1290</td>
<td>400 (31 %)</td>
<td>242 (19 %)</td>
<td>648 (50 %)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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pasaron a Alandalús, difundirían entre los nativos un tipo de árabe criollizado o pidginizado, con un uso abusivo del artículo...[...when they passed to Al-Andalus, a type of creolized or pidgeonized Arabic with an abusive use of the article would diffuse among the natives...]. Yet, Noll (1996) cites bilingualism and prestige as the main factors for the maintenance of the article.

Based on the code-switching data found in the *kharjas*, we would like to suggest a new mechanism that explains both why and why not the Arabic definite article is incorporated in the loanwords. Many Arabic loanwords were introduced into Romance by code-switching. If the syntactic structure allows for the frequent expression of the article, it stands more chances to be incorporated in the loanword. While we do not insist that prepositional phrases are the only structures capable of carrying along an article, in this corpus, they were frequent vehicles for delivering nouns with articles. Bare nouns tended to be introduced in vocative phrases. Hence, Arabic loanwords are accompanied by the definite article in those syntactic contexts were it is appropriate to express the definite article. The nature of the article did not lead to its borrowing directly. The syntactic context in which it was more frequently expressed may, hence, contribute to explain its retention.

This code-switching mechanism has the ability to explain the existence of doublets, that is, two words that come from the same etymon, one with the article incorporated and the other without. As we see in table 4, a noun like ḥabīb/ al-ḥabīb appears both with and without the article, as a function of the syntactic context in which it is found.

### 3.7 The kharjas: literary creations or language of the street?

A final word is warranted regarding the fact that the *kharjas* are literary creations and not spontaneous speech samples. The *muwashshahaat* could only be composed after the poet had spent years learning Classical Arabic. Although the *kharja* is also a literary creation, the fact that it has Romance elements breaks with the strict codes of an Arabic formal register. The high frequency of vocative phrases that we have noted is yet more evidence that the poets were trying to imitate natural speech, as are the topics of the ‘conversations’ in the *kharjas*, such as the curses of the jilted young women pining for their absent lovers or calling upon their mothers for advice. It seems that the *kharjas* were intended to reflect at least the practices of the street, if not the very language.
4 Conclusion

The analysis of code-switching junctures in the *kharjas* shows that these are related to the lexical category of the switched part, demonstrating that their syntactic structure is not randomly constructed. The dominance of intra-sentential code-switches, the existence of word-internal code-switches and the use of Romance, in an otherwise highly formal poem composed in Classical Arabic, show that the poets were Arabic-dominant advanced bilinguals. In order to understand these works, extended bilingualism must have characterized at least the audience of the *kharjas*, if not a good part of the society of Al-Andalus.

Since many of the code-switches occur in noun phrases, the *kharjas* give us a context to observe how the article is incorporated (or not) in Arabic loanwords. Indeed, code-switching is most likely to have played a role in bringing Arabic loanwords into Romance and the possibility of retaining the article where allowed by the syntactic structure. As we have shown, code-switching from Romance to Arabic shows usage of the article according to Arabic rules. We can see from this study that Arabic-dominant speakers, such as the poets who composed the *muwashshahāt* and *kharjas* and their audiences, played a role in introducing Arabic items into Romance that could be subsequently picked up by Romance-dominant speakers. Borrowing into Romance was not a process that concerned Romance-dominant Mozarabs only but it also must have involved bilingual Arabic speakers who were agents of linguistic influence in both directions.

References


