



## Article

# The Cultural Evolution of Languages: Historical and Comparative Linguistics

Tetiana Kuzmenko<sup>1</sup>, Olha Dekalo<sup>1</sup>, Iryna Ilchenko<sup>2</sup>, Oksana Slaba<sup>3</sup> and Liudmyla Rybachkivska<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Germanic and Romance Languages, Philological Faculty of Educational Technologies, Kyiv National Linguistic University, Kyiv, Ukraine. <sup>2</sup>Faculty of Philology, Zaporizhzhia National University, Zaporizhzhia, Ukraine. <sup>3</sup>Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Tourism, Business and Psychology, Kyiv National Linguistic University, Kyiv, Ukraine. <sup>4</sup>Department of English Language and Translation, Faculty of Oriental and Slavic Philology, Kyiv National Linguistic University, Kyiv, Ukraine.

Correspondence: [tanja.kuz08@gmail.com](mailto:tanja.kuz08@gmail.com)

## Abstract

*This article examines the evolution of modern languages through historical, cultural, and linguistic interactions, using Ukrainian and Polish as primary examples. The study conducts a diachronic analysis of English, Ukrainian, and Polish, comparing the construction of linguistic categories across different levels. Particular attention is given to the impact of language contact on lexical development. It explores how interactions between Polish and Ukrainian speakers have shaped their respective vocabularies and how historical factors influenced these changes. The research reveals that the historical trajectories of English, Polish, and Ukrainian varied significantly. Unlike English and Polish, the Ukrainian language was subjected to centuries of suppression under the Russian Empire, which implemented a policy of linguistic genocide aimed at erasing its identity and legitimacy. In contrast, Polish and English developed without such targeted state repression. The study finds that lexical composition has been most affected, primarily through borrowings. Ukrainianisms and Russisms appear as East Slavic elements within Polish, while Polish has exerted notable influence on Ukrainian and Belarusian. Currently, the rise of English as a global lingua franca has led to an influx of anglicisms into both Polish and Ukrainian. This trend is driven by digitalization, globalization, and access to global information networks, highlighting a contemporary phase in the evolution of these languages marked by English-language dominance and technological influence.*

**Keywords:** culture, diachrony, historical phonetics, language contacts, lexical borrowings, synchronicity

## Suggested citation:

Kuzmenko, T., Dekalo, olha, Ilchenko, I., Slaba, O., & Rybachkivska, L. (2025). The Cultural Evolution of Languages: Historical and Comparative Linguistics. *International Journal on Culture, History, and Religion*, 7(SI1), 256-272. <https://doi.org/10.63931/ijchr.v7iSI1.199>

**Publisher's Note:** IJCHR stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



**Copyright:** © 2025 by the authors. Submitted for open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

## Introduction

The issue of the historical existence of languages and evolutionary changes in languages, in particular in grammatical and syntactic structures, remains one of the most underdeveloped topics in modern linguistics and encourages a broader understanding of the specific features of the interaction of linguistic and socio-cultural processes not only in modern society but also in historical retrospect. In the study of cognate languages, a consistent comparison of the phenomena that took place in parallel plays an important role. Careful analysis helps to identify the causes of the processes, the conditions of their course, the timeframe, and the reflexes that have emerged in the languages under comparison.

As practice shows, reflexes of phenomena often affect not just one language level but the entire linguistic structure: phonetic transformations are reflected in grammar, and grammatical differences can lead to semantic differences (Piddubna, 2021). A seemingly insignificant historical change in one of the languages can ultimately lead to significant differences in a comparative analysis of the current linguistic state. All this allows us to study the deep connections of languages more thoroughly, to comprehend the patterns of their development, and, if necessary, to identify the ways of their further evolution, and to trace the evolution of grammatical variation and the formation of normative forms (Vakulenko, 2018). In addition, the knowledge of evolutionary patterns allows a philologist to see the finest fibres of the language fabric that connect one related linguistic structure to another.

For our comparative analysis, we have chosen two Slavic languages, Ukrainian and Polish, whose similarities are due to their common genesis, territorial demarcation of speakers and similar socio-historical conditions of language use, as well as English, which belongs to the ordinary Proto-Indo-European language family with Ukrainian and English, but represents a different group of languages – Germanic. The territorial contiguity of Ukrainian and Polish lands, trade, cultural exchange, and, most importantly, the socio-political conditions of both nations contributed to the penetration and borrowing of Polish words in the Ukrainian language and vice versa (Tsaralunga, 2012).

The historical conditions for developing the Polish and Ukrainian languages differed significantly. For example, for a significant period of its evolution, the Ukrainian language went through a policy of linguistic violence, which was pursued for centuries by the Russian Empire, denying the very existential value of the Ukrainian language, complete assimilation and dissolution of Ukrainians in the dominant Great Russian nation (Bilodid, 2019). In contrast, in its development in most historical periods, the Polish language was protected by state status and support and did not face strict total bans and decrees. The Polish language, which was going through an era of development at the time, had a huge impact on the Ukrainian language – on spelling, vocabulary, and phonetics (Horbach, 2020). Throughout its historical development, English has been an official language in several countries, so it has not faced laws banning it like Ukrainian.

The study aims to analyze historical and linguistic trends and language changes in English, Ukrainian, and Polish examples. To achieve this goal, it sets the following practical tasks:

1. to describe historical changes in the development of the English, Ukrainian, and Polish languages;
2. to carry out a comparative analysis of evolutionary changes in English, Ukrainian, and Polish, highlighting standard and distinctive features;
3. to compare the peculiarities of the structure of the functioning of the language categories of the compared languages at different language levels;
4. to trace the language contacts of native speakers of English, Ukrainian, and Polish and their influence on changes in the lexical composition of the languages.

## **Literature review**

The issue of language contact between Ukrainian and Polish, the problems of their genesis and mutual influence have been studied by both Polish and Ukrainian scholars (Koval, 2022; Bilodid, 2019; Świdarska, 2022; Zawisza, 2019). In his work "Comparative Grammar of the Ukrainian and Polish Languages", Bilodid (2019) conducted a comparative analysis of the grammatical systems of these languages, in particular grammatical tenses, described complex syntactic structures, and the impact of historical changes in languages on the reorganization of the syntactic level of language systems. Karpenko (2022), in his article "A Comparative Study of the Grammar of the Ukrainian and Polish Languages", investigated the processes of influence of grammatical constructions on the process of interpretation and translation of sentences and conducted a comparative analysis of verb forms. Stepanova (2018) studied the phonetic features of Ukrainian and Polish. Yarmoliuk (2020) traced historical changes in the development of the Ukrainian language.

Zhukova (2021) analyzed lexical borrowings in Ukrainian and Polish, their types (linguistic transformations, linguistic calques), and the influence of historical factors and social and cultural processes on the borrowing process. Ponomarenko (2019) revealed lexical changes in Ukrainian and Polish over a synchronous cut of recent decades, which is especially valuable for our study. Górska (2020) compared the borrowing processes of German, English, and Slavic languages. Kachan (2020) studied the history and current trends in developing the Ukrainian language in the context of changes in European languages. Krekhno (2012) studied the lexical features of polonisms in Ukrainian, their conceptual load in the linguistic worldviews of both languages, and Barker (2023) in his work "The Role of Language Contact in the Evolution of Ukrainian and Polish Syntax and Semantics" investigated language contacts with other European languages, interlingual influences, and the degree of their impact on semantic and syntactic transformations of Ukrainian and Polish. Ślusarczyk (2021) studied cross-cultural influences on developing the Ukrainian and Polish languages.

Nowak (2021), Piddubna (2021), and Witkowski (1996-1997), in their article "Comparative analysis of the grammatical structures of Polish and Ukrainian", focused on word change, common grammatical categories of comparative languages, ways of expressing numerals, and verb forms. Kendall (2020) and Ślusarczyk (2021) revealed historical factors in the development of languages, including semantic changes in lexemes. Fisiak (2021), in his study "Comparative Linguistics of Slavic Languages: Ukrainian and Polish Perspectives", explores aspects of syntax, vocabulary, and phonetics in historical comparison. Smith (2022) studied such syntactic features of the languages as word order in a sentence, the functioning of grammatical categories in Polish and Ukrainian syntax

Seidlhofer (2004) studied the impact of globalization processes on changing grammatical structures in English and adapting grammar to new communication conditions. According to the scientist, "the globalization of English has led to the emergence of new syntactic structures influenced by the languages of non-native speakers" (Seidlhofer, 2004). Hogg (2000), in his article "The Evolution of English Syntax: A Comparative Approach", studied the evolution of syntactic structures in English in the diachronic development from Old English to Modern English. According to the scientist, changes in syntax are a direct reflection of socio-cultural transformations, and he also made a comparative characterization of English syntax with the syntax of other languages of the Proto-Indo-European family. According to the scholar, "over the centuries, English has shifted from a more inflected language to a predominantly analytical one, marked by the gradual loss of word endings and the emergence of fixed word order" (Hogg, 2000). Denison (1998) studied the category of negation in English, particularly the influence of double negation on modifying English grammatical structures.

Traugott and Trousdale (2013) studied the evolution of modal verbs in English, i.e., the process of grammaticalization, during which words with whole lexical meaning turned into linguistic categories and are now used to express the category of modality. Bauer (2005), in his work "The Development of Tense and Aspect in English: A Diachronic Perspective", investigated the historical development of the tense system in English and conditional syntactic constructions.

As we can see, these studies are based on individual levels of language, phonetic, lexical, grammatical, or syntactic, but works of a general theoretical nature are needed to see a holistic picture of language interactions at all levels. This determines the relevance of our article.

## **Methodology**

The study of historical changes in languages is based on a combination of the following methods: the method of cognitive analysis (for studying the peculiarities of the linguistic worldviews of English, Polish and Ukrainian), the genetic method (for describing the origin of English, Ukrainian and Polish, common genetic roots of the languages); the method of comparative analysis (involving comparison of historical

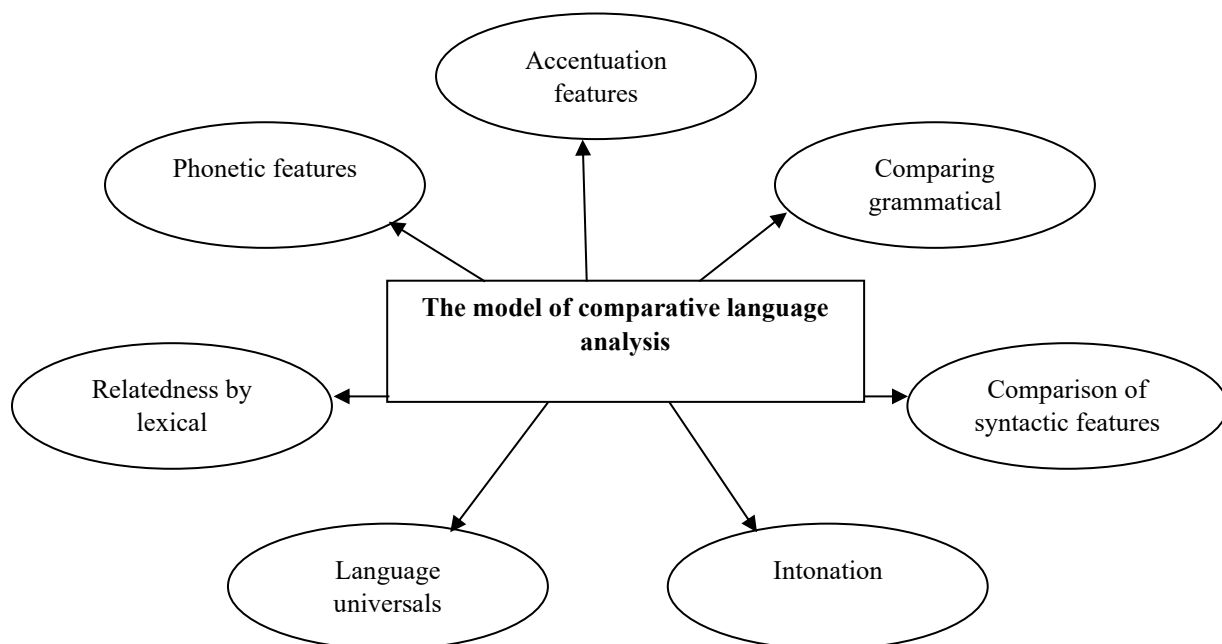
changes in the diachronic development of the compared languages), the method of analysis and synthesis (when reviewing scientific sources); the structural method (involving structuring historical changes in languages).

The article is generally theoretical and based on illustrative lexical material from three languages: English, Ukrainian, and Polish. The study's theoretical significance lies in the contrastive comparison of languages with common roots in the Proto-Indo-European proto-language, which today belong to different language groups or subgroups.

## Results

The Polish language consists of five main vernaculars: the dialects of Silesia, Lesser Poland, Masovia, Greater Poland, and Kashuba, which are supposedly a distant echo of the ancient dialects of Slavic tribes, as well as several local dialects with their vocabulary, phonetic and morphological features (Kendall, 2020). The Ukrainian language consists of three dialects – northern, southwestern, and northeastern – within which various dialects also function (Yarmoliuk, 2020).

A comparative analysis of related languages should include identifying standard and distinctive features at all significant levels of the language: phonetic, lexical, grammatical, and syntactic. The analysis of accentological features, sentence intonation, and the mutual influence of languages at the lexical level also deserves special research attention. Figure 1 presents a model of such a linguistic analysis.



*Figure 1. The model of comparative language analysis*

The so-called full voices characterized ancient Ukrainian dialects: instead of the South Slavic sound combinations ra-, la-, re-, le-, the language of our ancestors sounded like -oro-, -olo-, -ere-, -ele-. For example: sweet (in "Old Bulgarian" – sweet), polon (captivity), sereda (environment), morok (gloom). In Polish, this kind of full voicing has not occurred.

An analysis of the lexical composition of the languages, including lexical borrowings, shows that Poles and Ukrainians have had shared linguistic contacts with various languages, and most of these borrowings are identical. The reasons for lexical borrowings in both languages are identical: war and expansion, economic rivalry or cooperation, and mutual trade. By analyzing the borrowed vocabulary in Polish and Ukrainian, it is possible to trace the cultural ties between Poles and Ukrainians on the one hand and other European nations on the other.

The lexical structure of the English language cannot be called homogeneous either. In addition to native English vocabulary, there are foreign language borrowings. For example, Old English was influenced by the Viking language, and with the invasion of the Normans, the Old French dialect was introduced to Britain. Of course, the basis of the English language remained Germanic, but we also have many French, Latin, Celtic, and Scandinavian borrowings. If we analyze the common vocabulary in Slavic languages, in English, such vocabulary relates primarily to the kinship category, the oldest pre-Indo-European layer of vocabulary.

The most stable stratum of Polish and Ukrainian vocabulary is words of Proto-Slavic origin for both languages, West Slavic and Lechitic (for Polish) and East Slavic and Ukrainian proper (for Ukrainian). Many of these words have gone directly from Proto-Indo-European to Proto-Slavic. These are, for example, the words ojciec – father, mac – mother, brat – brother, siostra – sister, słońce – sun, ziemia – earth, wieczór – evening, zima – winter, głowa – head, oko – eye, wojna – war, dobry – good, zły – evil. These words sound almost identical in both languages due to their common genesis in Proto-Indo-European, i.e., this is the oldest standard layer of vocabulary that lays the foundation for the similarity of the linguistic worldview of both languages.

Compared to Ukrainian, Polish has a more significant number of words borrowed from neighbouring Germanic and Celtic languages. From the Proto-Germanic language came the words still present in most Slavic languages; in Polish and Ukrainian, these are words such as buk-beech and pułk-regiment. Later, the words chleb (bread) and kupić (to buy) were borrowed from Gothic.

Almost simultaneously with the eleventh century, there was an influx of Latin and ancient Greek vocabulary into Polish. As a result, both languages contain almost identical sounding vocabulary, mainly related to religious, educational, and scientific

fields, e.g. anioł – angel, szkoła – school, data – date, architekt – architect, dokument – document, forma – form, religia – religion. In later periods, Latin was mainly used for scientific terms and international vocabulary.

In the ancient period of both Ukrainian and Polish, there was a Czech linguistic influence, which resulted in the words hardy – proud, hańba – shame, jedyny – the only one (originally Polish jedziny), obywatel – commoner, and serce – heart. There is a significant layer of Germanic borrowings in literary Polish.

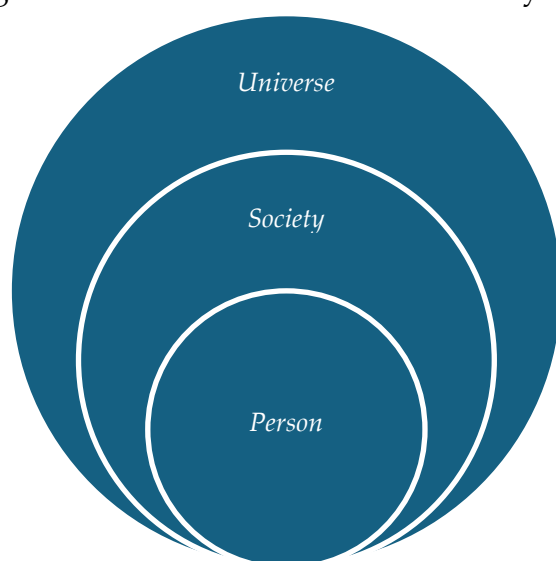
Compared to Ukrainian, the Polish language has been significantly influenced by German. German borrowings relate mainly to politics and economics, and most of these lexemes have penetrated Ukrainian through the mediation of Polish, for example, burmistrz – burgomaster (from German Bürgermeister), ratusz – town hall (from German Rathaus), rachować – count (from German rechnen), waga – scales (from German Waage). Some words did not make it into the Ukrainian literary language and remained at the level of dialects, for example, the Polish word handel – trade (German: Handel). Many Germanisms in Ukrainian and Polish are associated with military affairs (szturm – assault (German: Sturm), żołnierz – soldier (German: Soldat).

In the Middle Polish and New Polish periods of Polish language development, the number of words borrowed from German decreased, but the process of language interaction did not stop. While linguistic contact between Poland and Germany was inevitable, the interaction of the Polish language with Romance languages was utterly different, mainly due to the popularity of Italian culture in the 14th and 17th centuries and the development of commercial activity. Thus, musical terms and words of the artistic sphere in general (aria – aria, serenada – serenade, gracia – grace) penetrated the Polish and Ukrainian languages. In the eighteenth century, the so-called "expansion" of Gallicisms was observed among most European languages. In Ukrainian and Polish, these lexemes of foreign origin almost coincide, and most of them are related to the fashion sector (krawat – tie (French: cravate), perfumeria – perfume shop (French: parfumerie).

Rare Ukrainianisms and Russisms represent East Slavic borrowings in Polish. The Polish language has had a more significant influence on East Slavic languages, Ukrainian and Belarusian in particular. In the Middle Polish period, Ukrainian words such as duży (strong), czupryna (Ukrainian: sheveliura), and others penetrated Polish from Ukrainian dialects. It is also worth noting that while Polish acted as a mediator of Germanic language borrowings into Ukrainian, Ukrainian was a mediator of Turkic borrowings. The Turkisms chan – khan, dżuma – plague, kaftan – caftan, buława –

mace – came to Polish through Ukrainian. Among the Ukrainian words, the words *holubić* – to dove, *bałakać* – to talk, have penetrated the modern Polish language.

The percentage of polonism in Ukraine is much higher. According to Shevelov (1991), the first polonisms appeared in the Ukrainian language before the fifteenth century. His scientific conclusions are based on the lexical data of the Dictionary of the Old Ukrainian Language of the XIV-XV centuries. Polonisms relate to the administrative and state sphere (voivode, soil, gentry), administrative and legal (lawsuit, spokesman, complaint), economic (*kram*, *yatka*), and religious, in particular, Catholic (church, *klyashtor*). Among polonisms, we also encounter words denoting abstract concepts (sentence, superiority, righteousness, chastity), attributive relations (probable, blood, right), actions and processes (to live, to officiate). Some of these polonisms are used in the western part of Ukraine and are often perceived by other speakers as dialectisms or Galicianisms. Most polonisms in Ukrainian refer to three components of the linguistic universe: 1. Universe. 2. Society. 3. Persona (Figure 2).



*Figure 2. Components of the linguistic universe of polonisms in the Ukrainian language*

Since the second half of the 20th century, the influence of Anglicisms (Americanisms) on the Ukrainian and Polish languages has become significant due to technological progress and the consolidation of the status of English as the language of world science, technology, medicine, and business communications. The Polish and Ukrainian dictionaries include the thematic system of computer science (server – server, host – host, bajt – byte), economics (*biznes* – business, *diler* – dealer, *holding* – holding, *menedzer* – manager), sports (kickboxing), music (*didzej* – DJ, *stereo* – stereo, *rock* – rock). Most of these lexemes in Ukrainian and Polish form an active vocabulary of professionalism and have become the basis of youth slang. However, it is worth noting



that the use of English borrowings in many cases may be unreasonable and unjustified, as each language has a significant number of authentic equivalents. Anglicisms are justified only when the national language has no special word for the corresponding object or phenomenon.

At the phonetic level, Polish has preserved nasal vowels, an exception among Slavic languages, so Ukrainian does not have such sounds either. Polish is also distinguished by a stable accent, which, with few exceptions, falls on the penultimate syllable. In contrast, this accent is movable in Ukrainian, even within word forms, for example, *selo* – *sela*. Grammatical features of the Polish language include the presence of long and short forms of personal pronouns. At the same time, Ukrainian has only one form (however, two forms are possible in some Ukrainian dialects). In Polish, the reversibility of action is expressed by the particle *się*, which is always written separately and can stand before or after the verb; in Ukrainian, this function is performed by the postfix – *sia*, which merged with the word during historical changes. The personal pronoun as a subject in a Polish sentence is almost always omitted, while the verb *być* (*to be*) is almost always present, including in questions.

In contrast, in Ukrainian, this verb phrase is usually omitted. It is worth noting that both Polish and Ukrainian have vocative forms, which are typical for a minimal number of languages. One of the linguistic universals of the Polish language is the presence of masculine and non-masculine plural nouns. The intonation of Polish sentences is also unique. The phrasal accent most often falls on a sentence's last word or phrase. A comparative analysis of linguistic features at different language levels is presented in Table 1.

Unlike Ukrainian and Polish, English has a system of articles regulated by several grammatical rules. The definiteness or indefiniteness of the subject of speech in English is expressed through three articles – *a*, *an* (indefinite), and *the* (definite). English is not an inflected language, while Ukrainian and Polish are inflected languages, i.e., the relationship between words is expressed using seven cases, each of which has specific endings. In English, prepositions or word order in a sentence conveys the relationship between words. Gender does not play as important a grammatical role in English as in Ukrainian or Polish because, in Slavic languages, gender affects the declension of words.

Table 1. Comparative analysis of linguistic features and functioning of language categories in Ukrainian and Polish

<i>Ukrainian language</i>	<i>Polish language</i>
<i>Alphabet</i>	
Cyrillic alphabet, presence of diacritics that convey softness or hardness of sound, nasal tone	Latin
<i>The role of the personal pronoun</i>	
For the Ukrainian language, it is important to indicate personal pronouns in a sentence, but you can omit the person doing the work in one-part sentences.	The pronoun is almost always omitted.
<i>Predicative importance of the verb to be in a sentence</i>	
In the present tense, the verb <i>to be</i> is omitted in most cases	The verb <i>to be</i> is almost always present (e.g. <i>Co to jest?</i> )
<i>Expressing the reversal of an action</i>	
The reversibility of the action on the subject is expressed by the postfix ся (сь), which is written with the verb together	The reversibility of action is expressed by the particle się, which is always written separately and can come before or after the verb.
<i>Forms of personal pronouns</i>	
No division into short and long forms	There are long and short forms of personal pronouns ( <i>mnie – mi, tobie – ci</i> )
<i>Emphasis</i>	
Stress is not constant; it can change in word forms	The stress falls on the penultimate syllable (with rare exceptions, i.e. the stress is constant)
<i>Intoning sentences</i>	
Phrasal stress depends on the specific speech situation	The phrasal accent most often falls on the last word or phrase in a sentence
<i>Word reduction</i>	
Word abbreviations are extremely rare	Word abbreviations are a common linguistic phenomenon
<i>Declensions</i>	
7 cases (including the vocative form)	7 cases (also available in the vocative)
<i>Reid</i>	
Masculine, feminine, neuter, collective	Masculine, feminine, neuter, masculine, non-masculine (plural)

English has a much more developed verb tense system than Slavic languages. For example, English has a long tense, which Ukrainian and Polish do not have. The English tenses that express a completed or incomplete action in Ukrainian and Polish correspond to the categories of perfective and imperfective. English has 12 tenses, i.e., past, present, and future, in four aspects (projections). This allows speakers to determine the time of an action and its correlation with the time of speech much more accurately. In addition, English uses auxiliary words to formulate negation, whereas in Ukrainian and Polish, negation does not require auxiliary words.

At the syntactic level of the language, we observe considerable similarities between the syntactic systems of Polish and Ukrainian, along with some differences. Along with the same syntactic constructions, there can be specific (only for one language) constructions and models. Most of these differences are due to the peculiarity and uniqueness of morphological forms that make up the predicative base of a sentence. However, the most significant differences in the comparison between Ukrainian and Polish are not in the formal but in the functional sphere. Often, the specificity of a language is determined by the different meanings of formal constructions. This peculiarity is often based on unequal lexical content, differences in the degree of prevalence, and the stylistic use of outwardly identical models. The syntactic order of words in Polish and English is not constant because the relationship between predicate, subject, and object in a sentence is expressed using case endings, so we often observe inversion in literary and journalistic discourse. In English, the syntactic order of words in a sentence is stable and determinative when determining the subject and object of action.

In general, the most similar features of Ukrainian and Polish syntax are related to such syntactic features as the composition of the nominal compound clause, one-part, including impersonal sentences, the construction of indefinite-personal sentences, and the possibility of constructing infinitive sentences with or without modal verbs. Let us look at some of these features in more detail.

In both Ukrainian and Polish, it is possible to construct one-part clauses with a predicate only, i.e., in both languages, it is possible to construct personal (definite-personal, indefinite-personal, and generalized-personal) and impersonal clauses. However, one-part clauses are more typical for the colloquial style of Ukrainian, while definite-personal clauses dominate in Polish syntax (*Nauczyli mnie mnóstwa mądrości – I was taught many clever things; Na plewy starego wróbla nie złowisz – You cannot catch an old sparrow with a crumb*). Both comparative languages have impersonal forms of -no, -to, e.g., *Posłano mnie do nich – I was sent for them*. In Polish, we often see impersonal constructions with the special particle *się* (*Chorego się pyta, zdrowemu się daje – They ask the sick, they give the healthy*).

In Polish, the agreed definition can be placed before and after the word is determined. In Ukrainian, it is more typical to place the agreed definition before the word being defined, although inversion is allowed for the artistic style. In Polish, words that give specific, qualifying definitions of the subject and distinguish this subject from other similar ones based on this feature are placed after the defined word. Such definitions are primarily relative adjectives, sometimes ordinal numerals (język polski 'Polish language', Uniwersytet Warszawski 'Warsaw University'). However, in

both Polish and Ukrainian, qualitative adjectives can also follow the predicate word if they also serve as a predicative (*Ojciec przyszedł zmęczony*. 'Father came in tired') or if they are particularly emphasized (*To przecież człowiek dobry, ale słaby* – He is a good person, but weak). In both comparative languages, adjectives and participles are also placed after the evaluated word, which has expansion words (e.g. *człowiek zdolny do wszystkiego* – a person is capable of anything).

In both languages, it is possible to construct infinitive sentences. Modal words can be attached to the infinitive: in Ukrainian – *treba, potribno, varto, mozna*, similar in Polish – *trzeba, potrzeba, można* (*Czy można wejść* – You can enter). Several impersonal predicative compounds with the infinitive can nowadays be used without the verb link is (*jest*) (*Trudno (jest) powiedzieć*. – It is time to go home).

In some traditional combinations, the qualifying determiner comes before the word being conditioned (*Polskie Radio* – Polish Radio). In Polish, unlike in Ukrainian, the location of the qualifier – before or after the word being defined – may be due to semantic differences (e.g. *aktor komiczny* – comic actor (as a role), *komiczny aktor* – funny actor). In the Ukrainian language, if two adjectival nouns are syntactically linked to a noun, the preposition is a qualitative adjective (also a pronoun or numeral), and the postposition is a relative adjective (e.g. *druga wojna światowa* – World War II, *rzadkie spotkania rodzinne* – rare family meetings).

The development of culture significantly influences the evolution of language. Language provides one of the basic functions of society – communication – through which society develops and cultivates its own culture. This influence is two-way. On the other hand, the development of culture leads to the development of the lexical composition of language and the enrichment of the lexicon. In addition, language is a means of communication and an important element of cultural identity. The development of culture is related to the creation of new contexts in which new terms, idioms, and stylistic features are used, and the lexical meaning is often expanded. The beliefs of the people, rituals, holidays, and festivals significantly influence the philosophy of language (Layugan, 2024).

The sphere of culture that has the greatest influence on the Ukrainian and Polish languages is national and foreign literature. Works of art enrich vocabulary and introduce new linguistic constructions and stylistic devices. In addition, writers often resort to occasionalisms – authorial neologisms, i.e., they are the creators of individual new words. For example, thanks to the work of Olena Pchilka, the Ukrainian language has the word "мистецтво" (art), and Lesya Ukrainka is the author of the lexeme "непокірність" (rebelliousness), which has become a symbol of the struggle for women's rights and national freedom. This lexeme has entered the active

vocabulary of the language and is no longer perceived as a neologism. Oksana Zabuzhko, a representative of the contemporary literary process in Ukraine, introduced the word "postcolonialism," which reflected the new socio-cultural realities of Ukraine's cultural and mental space. Authorial neologisms also enrich the Polish language. In the poetry of W. Szymborska, the word "niedostępność" appeared, reflecting the complexity of human experiences and philosophical reflections. And Stanisław Lem (Polish science fiction writer) is considered the author of the now-popular term "futurologia." The term has become widespread in scientific and cultural spheres.

The evolution of language is also significantly influenced by such cultural spheres as theater, music, and cinema. Films and TV series help young people perceive language as alive and relevant, while various cultural events (festivals, exhibitions, and concerts) create opportunities for using Ukrainian and Polish in different contexts, which contributes to their development. Culture plays a particularly important role in preserving dialects and regional variants of both Ukrainian and Polish. Folklore traditions, which are being actively revived in contemporary art, help to preserve unique linguistic features that are important for cultural heritage.

## Discussions

The issues of periodization of the Ukrainian and Polish languages and the appropriateness of some lexical borrowings are still controversial in our topic. The issue of the dominant influence of the Russian language on the Ukrainian language remains one of the controversial issues. We do not agree with Kowalska's (2020) position that "the Ukrainian language was significantly influenced by Russian in the context of vocabulary and syntax, especially during the period of Soviet rule" because the Ukrainian language had already formed a stable terminology system of scientific style and syntactic structure at that time. However, we agree with the scholar's opinion that the Polish language was less affected by this influence. We also support Kendall's (2020) position that, compared to Polish grammar, Ukrainian grammar retains a more significant number of case forms and has a much more developed system of verb forms, which somewhat complicates translation between these languages.

The similarity of lexical composition is also controversial, which has long been a trend, and most scholars consider Belarusian to be the most closely related, followed by Russian and Polish. However, this theory was ideologically driven, so in our opinion, the theory of Professor Tyshchenko, who, based on mathematical analysis, proved that Ukrainian has 84% affinity with Belarusian, 70% with Polish, 68% with Slovak, and Russian (62%), is in fourth place.

Another problematic issue is the influence of the English language on the lexical composition of the Ukrainian and Polish languages. On the one hand, we often face situations where Ukrainians or Polish lack words to denote new facts of reality, mainly related to technological progress. Hence, such borrowings are inevitable and justified. On the other hand, the dominant influence of English leads to a particular "linguistic expansion", which results in the loss of linguistic identity. Notably, the Polish language has created its national terminological subsystem in sports and medicine, which manifests a strong national mentality and an expression of linguistic identity. This is one of the most effective ways to counteract the modern process of anglicization of languages, mainly of scientific terminology.

The analysis showed that languages are not isolated systems, but living structures that actively respond to cultural impulses. Historical linguistics allows us to trace these changes over time, while comparative linguistics explains the mechanisms of convergence and divergence. Understanding the cultural evolution of languages is key to interpreting linguistic and general cultural dynamics in societies.

## **Conclusions**

By analyzing the lexical composition of the Ukrainian and Polish languages, as well as the history of lexical borrowings in these languages, one can trace close linguistic contacts of Poles and Ukrainians with Eastern and Western Slavs, Germans, even Iranian and Turkic peoples, and the interpenetration of the lexical composition of languages through common history. The analysis of the lexical composition of the languages, including lexical borrowings, has shown that Poles and Ukrainians have had shared linguistic contacts with various languages, and most of these borrowings are identical, as are the reasons for lexical borrowings (war and expansion, economic rivalry or cooperation, mutual trade). At the current stage of development, the lexical composition of both languages is undergoing a process of English influence due to the large number of anglicisms, due to the digitalization of native speakers and access to global information resources, as well as globalization changes in the world.

Historical circumstances, social transformations, and ideological changes most often determine the cultural evolution of languages. For example, the lexical composition of the Ukrainian language developed under the influence of the colonial policies of the Russian and Austro-Hungarian empires, which led to the emergence of variability in lexical, phonetic, and morphological features. The Polish language, in turn, developed in conditions of strong Western European cultural integration, particularly under the influence of Latin, German, and French. The English language demonstrates the most intense culturally determined changes, reflecting both Britain's colonial past and its contemporary technocratic culture.

Regarding grammatical structure, English and Slavic languages, including Ukrainian and Polish, belong to different languages. English is an analytical language, where word changes are minimal and auxiliary and modal verbs are used to represent different tenses and modalities, and the relationship between words is expressed through stable syntactic constructions and prepositions. Polish and Ukrainian are synthetic languages where relations between words are expressed through word forms. They are inflectional languages with a developed case system; both Slavic languages have a vocative form. The syntax of Slavic languages is not stable, unlike English, and does not affect the determination of objectivity or subjectivity in a sentence.

## Funding

This research received no external funding.

## Conflicts of Interests

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## References

- [1] Barker, J. (2023). The role of language contact in the evolution of Ukrainian and Polish syntax and semantics. *Journal of Slavic Language Development*, 40(4), 112-128.
- [2] Bauer, L. (2005). The development of tense and aspect in English: A diachronic perspective. *English Language and Linguistics*, 9(1), 35-54. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1360674304001329>
- [3] Bilodid, Y. (2019). *Comparative grammar of Ukrainian and Polish languages*. Kyiv: Naukova Dumka.
- [4] Denison, D. (1998). The syntax of English negation: A historical perspective. *Journal of Historical Syntax*, 10(1), 18-30. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0959269500002457>
- [5] Fisiak, J. (2021). *Comparative Linguistics of Slavic Languages: Ukrainian and Polish Perspectives*. Warsaw: University of Warsaw Press.
- [6] Górska, M. (2020). Lexical borrowing in Ukrainian and Polish: A comparative study. *East European Linguistics Review*, 21(1), 45-60.
- [7] Hogg, R. M. (2000). The evolution of English syntax: A comparative approach. *Journal of Linguistics*, 36(1), 65-84. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022226700002541>
- [8] Horbach, A. (2020). Language contacts between Ukrainian and Polish in the context of socio-cultural development. *Linguistics*, 3(56), 15-22.
- [9] Kachan, O. (2020). History and Modernity of the Ukrainian Language in the Context of European Language Changes. *Ukrainian Language*, 45(1), 110-127.

- [10] Karpenko, M. (2018). Syntactic parallels and differences in Ukrainian and Polish. *Philological Studies*, 22(4), 134-142.
- [11] Kendall, T. (2020). The influence of historical events on the development of Polish and Ukrainian vocabulary. *Journal of Slavic Linguistics*, 25(3), 263-279.
- [12] Koval, I. (2022). A comparative study of the grammar of Ukrainian and Polish. *Language Studies*, 19(3), 50-65.
- [13] Krekhno, T. I. (2012). Motivation of borrowings and peculiarities of functioning of polonisms in the modern Ukrainian language (on the material of the modern Ukrainian-language television space). *Bulletin of Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University*, 61, 190-193.
- [14] Layugan, M. (2024). Indigenous Religious Beliefs, Rituals, and Practices as Expressions of Culture. *International Journal on Culture, History, and Religion*, 2(1), 8–20. <https://doi.org/10.63931/ijchr.v2i1.47>
- [15] Nowak, J. (2021). Comparative analysis of the grammatical structures of Polish and Ukrainian. *Polish-Ukrainian Linguistics Studies*, 29(1), 1-14.
- [16] Piddubna, V. V. (2021). Lexical polonisms in the Ukrainian language: chronological and semantic aspects. *Materials of the First International Slavic Conference dedicated to the memory of Saints Cyril and Methodius, Kharkiv, 11 May, 2021* (pp. 154-159). Kharkiv National Pedagogical University named after H. S. Skovoroda, Kharkiv: HIFT. <http://dspace.hnpu.edu.ua/handle/123456789/6061>.
- [17] Ponomarenko, L. (2019). Lexical changes in Ukrainian and Polish in the last decade. *Journal of the Ukrainian Language*, 18(2), 123-136.
- [18] Rebryk, I. (2023). Polish language in Ukraine: Development trends and interlingual interactions. *Language Bulletin*, 30(3), 205-218.
- [19] Seidlhofer, B. (2004). The role of English grammar in the globalisation of language. *World Englishes*, 23(2), 190-202. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.2004.00339.x>
- [20] Shevelov, G. Y. (1991). On Lexical Polosms in Literary Ukrainian. In: Shevelov G. Y. *In and around Kiev* (pp. 226-242). Heidelberg: Carl Winter. Universitätsverlag.
- [21] Ślusarczyk, P. (2021). Cross-cultural linguistic influences in Polish and Ukrainian. *Journal of Slavic Languages and Cultures*, 19(4), 88-103.
- [22] Smith, E. (2022). Syntactic parallels and divergences between Ukrainian and Polish. *Slavic Linguistic Studies*, 38(2), 215-231.
- [23] Stepanova, T. (2018). Phonetic features of Ukrainian and Polish: a comparative analysis. *Phonology and Phonetics*, 15(1), 48-56.



- [24] Świdarska, A. (2022). Comparative lexical studies in Polish and Ukrainian languages. *East European Linguistics Review*, 25(2), 77-92.
- [25] Traugott, E. C., & Trousdale, G. (2013). Grammaticalisation in English: The evolution of modal verbs. *Language Science*, 38(3), 104-118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2013.06.008>
- [26] Tsaralunga, I. (2012). Polish language borrowings in the Old Ukrainian texts of the Vyzhiv Chronicle. *Problems of Slavic Studies*, 61, 225- 230.
- [27] Vakulenko, S. (2018). General trends in the normalisation of the Ukrainian language (1920-2015). In: S. Vakulenko, K. Karunyk (Eds.) *The Ukrainian language: normalisation, un- normalisation, re-normalisation (1920-2015)* (pp. 7-258). Kharkiv: Kharkiv Historical and Philological Society.
- [28] Witkowski, W. (1996-1997). Polonizmy w języku staroukraińskim. *Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska*, 14/15, 133-146.
- [29] Yarmoliuk, N. (2020). Historical aspects of the development of the Ukrainian language: comparison with the Polish experience. *Ukrainian Linguistic Journal*, 21(4), 112-126.
- [30] Zawisza, D. (2019). Polish-Ukrainian language relations: A historical and comparative perspective. *Linguistic Revue*, 11(5), 54-69.
- [31] Zhukova, L. (2021). Lexical borrowings in Ukrainian and Polish: a comparative analysis. *Lexicology: Theory and Practice*, 34(2), 80-95.