Regional dialect of modern Lviv: language-contact processes

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Abstract – The theoretical aspects of the multilinguizm are considered in the article, particularly the distinguishing of such sociolinguistic phenomena as code-switching, code-mixing and congruent lexicalization are examined. The history of formation and the modern state of Lviv regional dialect is analyzed.

Key words – language contacts, code-switching, code-mixing, congruent lexicalization, copula, quasi-article.

I. Introduction

The question about correlation of different processes, determined by language contacts are actively discussed in the linguistic literature. In particular, the study of code-switching starts to form an independent linguistic discipline, although the approaches and the terminology are still marked by some differences, including the bulk of the term code-switching itself. The common for different approaches is the comprehension of code-switching as to some extent conceptual sphere: code-switching in broader sense means the usage by bilinguals of some units in one speech act, which belong to different language systems (or codes, although the belonging of an element in real speech element to one or another code cannot be apparent) [7]. Among the most prominent researches on the issue of the code-switching are the works of C. Myers-Scotton [5], [6], P. Muysken [4], and P. Auer [1], [2].

II. Theoretical aspects of the research

The question of distinguishing the code-switching and other phenomena, caused by the language contact – first of all the language interference, – has no clear tracing in the sociolinguistic literature up till now and are often analyzed as different aspects of the same problem but the interference is analyzed from language-system view and the code-switching – first of all from the perspective of speaker/speakers. Among the problems, which evoked many discussions, are for example mass inclusion of words or constructions of one language into another language speech (the review of this question one can find for instance in [4, pp. 10-27]), and also the role of code-switching and other similar phenomena in the language changes, caused by the contact phenomena.

Different approaches variously postulate the balance of powers in the contact situation. So, in particular, C. Myers-Scotton contrasts matrix language to embedded language for the analysis of intrasentential code-switching. In other words, it is postulated, that in a situation of the code-switching one of the languages is basic which forms a grammatical scope, and the other only serves as material for insertions. Absolutely different understanding of the situation of the code-switching is found in the works of Muysken, who contrasts within the limits of code-switching of the utterances two absolutely different phenomena: insertion to material (lexical units or whole constituents) from one language into the structure of another language and alternation between the structures of different languages [4, p. 3].

It is also important to draw a line between the isolated elements introduction from another language at the code-switching from borrowings. C. Myers-Scotton marks that there is no reliable criterion for their distinction in specific bilingual texts [6]. P. Muysken sets off the spontaneous borrowing to other types of including [4, pp. 72-81].

A. Rusakov distinguishes the transition from one language to another within the limits of one discursive unity from the speech on one language including the elements of another language. The former phenomenon he names the code-switching, and the latter – the code-mixing. In his opinion, one can delimit these two phenomena by certain criteria, which have linguistic character (they can be shown out of texts), and represent the substantial features of language competence of the mixed-code speakers [7, p. 70].

Quite often in a situation of the "mixed" language it is difficult to determine whether one deep grammar or two grammars lie in its basis with the set rules of transition from one to other. A sentence appears as a frame (syntactic and semantic) to some extent in deeply interferential language on the base of one of the languages, in which it is possible to insert different lexical elements, moreover – in different grammatical registration. P. Muysken calls such situation the congruent lexicalization, considering it as one of the types of the code-mixing, along with the included alternation [4, pp. 122-153].

Close to congruent lexicalization is a concept of the mixed matrix language, offered by C. Myers-Scotton [5; 6]). Under this concept researcher means a language which was subjected by strong convergence from the side of embedded language. As a result a grammatical frame includes the elements of abstract structure of embedded language. The same including of words and morphemes from the embedded language is facilitated as they more easily pass the checking for congruence.

These concepts have much in common, but there are also substantial differences between them. According to P. Muysken not only the cases of assimilation of grammatical structures of two languages as a result of convergence can be accepted to the congruent lexicalization, but also the cases when "languages demonstrate the general grammatical structure of a sentence" [4, p. 122] as a result of other reasons (for instance, due to their close congeniality), despite the potentially different origin of the phenomenon. In his turn Myers-Scotton researches the mixed matrix language diachronically, as a result of convergence, not taking into

account that such state of affairs can ensue also as a result of another scenario.

Two tendencies may be distinguished regarding to the Lviv speech – community of grammatical structure and the result of convergence, as speeches which have coexisted on territory of city are related (Ukrainian / Polish, Ukrainian / Russian), and also separate common structural properties appeared as a result of the protracted and intensive language contacts.

III. The history of Lviv regional dialect formation and its current state

We will consider in more details the features of the Lviv speech to define genesis and linguistic nature of this phenomenon.

Information: Lviv is a city in Western Ukraine, the capital of the historical region of Galicia, and the main city of present-day Lviv region with a population of over 800,000.

Since its foundation Lviv has been situated on boarder of different cultures and languages. In the times of its existence city belonged to different states (Galician-Volhynian principality, Rzecz Pospolita, Austro-Hungarian monarchy, Poland, Soviet Union, Ukraine), dominant national structure changed in accordance to it. Centuries-old tradition of coexistence of different nations developed skills of language and national tolerance.

Starting from 18th century the German language (which replaced the Latin as the state language in Austro-Hungarian monarchy) occurred in Lviv, but at the same time linguistic rights for all so-called "national" languages were tolerated, in the case of Lviv – Polish, Ukrainian (Ruthenian) and Jewish (Yiddish). Lviv was a part of Austrian (later Austro-Hungarian) monarchy from 1778 till 1918. The monarchy was marked by loyal attitude toward national minorities and their languages. The evidence of this was its linguistic policy directed on the providing of all regional languages status which functioned on the territory of the state. The language policy of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy can be considered in a greater degree directed on saving of status of languages, instead of to their corpus; in every case, the state pursued a complex linguistic policy. Legally it was confirmed by the set of documents (for example, order of Department of education and religions from July, 4 in 1860 about the use of regional languages along with the state one in a management, legal proceeding, etc.).

A relatively liberal constitution was operating in the state; accepted in 1867 it was even more softened by later additions. In § 19, in particular, was said: "All nationalities of the state which belong to different races are equal in rights: everyone has inviolable right to keep and cherish his nationality and language. The state acknowledges all languages, which are used in the monarchy, even rights on the studying at schools, on implementation of state functions and on the different acts of public life. In the lands which have a population of different nationalities, establishments of public education must be created so that, without acceptance of any forced measures, directed on the study of the second language,

everybody could obtain everything he needs for the education in the own language" (quotated by [8, pp. 18-19]). Consequently, each "national" language had the legislatively confirmed levels of right for the use in all spheres of private and public life, which, truth to tell, were not always followed in practice.

Besides the literary forms of the correspondent languages, dialectal forms were actively used in Lviv, in particular East-Galician dialects of Polish and Dnistrian dialect of Ukrainian.

From the beginning of 19th century the original form of common speech is formed in Lviv – "balak". It is a manner of speaking, formed on the base of Polish and dialects with the active use of Ukrainian phonetics and vocabulary, borrowings from German, Yiddish, Romanian and other languages, and also by the considerable use of a social argots – thieves, vagabonds etc. "Balak" was used by "batiars" – the residents of suburbs who usually were polonized Ukrainians. The active use of "balak" was observed till 30-th of 20th century, it was even fashionable to use "balak" during this time (but already a bit stylized) on the pages of humorous papers, in films and in broadcastings. The use of "balak" falls into decay since establishment of Soviet authorities in Western Ukraine.

Something like koine was used besides this speech. It was a "cultured" form of natural language, the basis of which was made by the Western Ukrainian variant of literary Ukrainian and also Polish, some German, Jewish and other elements (first of all in the syntax).

TABLE 1

LANGUAGE FORMATIONS, WHICH TRADITIONALLY EXISTED IN LVIV

Literary languages	Ukrainian literary language (Western Ukrainian variant) Polish German Yiddish Russian
Elements of a dialect	Dnistrian dialect of Ukrainian East-Galician dialects of Polish
Other formations	"balak" "koine"

The modern linguistic situation in Lviv corresponds to the linguistic situation of Western Ukraine in general. Majority of population here use Ukrainian, partly with a strong dialectal (Dnistrian) base – mostly those Lviv residents who comparatively recently moved from surrounding villages or their villages entered in the complement of Lviv after the changes of administrative division. From 40-50th of 20th century a noticeable part of the Russian-speaking population inhabits in Lviv – mainly servicemen and their families, as well as people who relocated from Russia, east regions of Ukraine and other territories according to the language and national policy of Soviet Union. Traditionally Polish people also live in Lviv, but lately their national and language feelings have tended to fade somehow. The parts of other language and ethnic groups of Lviv inhabitants (Jews, Armenians etc.) are less substantial. For the estimation of dynamics of language processes in Lviv see the tables 2, 3.

TABLE 2

THE COMPOSITION OF LVIV POPULATION ACCORDING
TO "THE CLOSEST LANGUAGE" (THE CENSUS OF 1931)[1]

pop	ulation (thousand)	% of the total number
total 312	.231	100,0
Ukrainian 24.	245	7,8
Ruthenian 10.	892	3,5
Polish 198	.212	63,5
Yiddish 75.	316	24,1
others 3.5	66	1,1

TABLE 3

MOTHER TONGUE OF THE RESIDENTS OF LVIV
(THE CENSUS OF 2001 P.)[2]

pop	ulation (thousand)	% of the total number
total 725	.2	100,0
Ukrainian 643	.9	88,8
Russian 70.	3	9,7
Yiddish	0.07	0,01
Polish 2.9		0,4
others 7,9		1,1

Due to migration an d p olitical p rocesses o f t he la st century, the proportion of indigenous population in Lviv (families l iving i n Lv iv at l east f rom 1938) i s cu rrently minimal. That is why the authentic Lviv speech ("koine") was saved only sporadically thus existing both in oral and in writing (these ar e p rimarily p ublicistic te xts a nd also amateur artistic works). "Balak" as a vernacular language formation is currently completely declined. In a speech of indigenous Lviv residents one can feel a notable influence of t he Pol ish l anguage, rarel y – G erman an d Y iddish (often in direct). An interf erence inf luence of R ussian as well a s ele ments of th e dial ectal s peech are s ometimes noticeable in the speech of new residents of the city.

Modern Lviv speech is interesting primarily because it enables to obs erve t he effects of la nguage con tact, although the actual cont act situation in pu re form has no longer b een e xisting for a long time. Direct co ntacts between Ukrainian and Polish stopped immediately after the S econd Worl d Wa r, al though t here are i ndirect contacts: possibility to watch Polish television and listen to Polish radio, family ties, tourism and business travel. In reality, t he situation o f t he U krainian-Polish d ialogue i n modern Lviv can be defi ned as dual-lingualism: Lvivites mostly understand Polish, but do not speak Polish.

The speakers of Lviv "koine" are m ostly older peo ple, but s ome features (s ometimes qu ite s ignificant) ca n be

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[1] A c olumn Rut henian s eems d oubtful in the data about th e m other tongue: any one o f tho se respondents u nlikely m eant t he Ru thenian language (as it is u nderstood by m odern r esearchers – s ee, e .g. [3]), obviously the question was about Ruthenian language, i.e. archaic name of Ukrainian, at least its western variant. The source of in formation is a brochure " Lviv i n nu mbers" (L viv, 193 8), a lso a ccessible on : http://www.mankurty.com/ogonovski1.html#1
[2] The source of information can be found on the page of State Statistics Committee of Uk raine: ht tp://www.ukrcensus.gov.ua/results/ gen eral/ nationality/

seen i n t he s peech o f young people (of ten us ed as a pastiche or token bel onging t o the social group o f "old" indigenous Lvivites). In the s peech of t he middle generation (35- 50 years old) f eatures o f the Lviv dialect are traced th e leas t. U sually, th e native s peakers of t he Lviv speech belong to "old" well-known Lv iv f amilies, they also gather ar ound th e nationally-patriotic organizations ("Union o f U krainian W omen", "Congress of the Ukrainian nationalists" etc.). The native speakers of this "koine" are united also by belonging to the Ukrainian Greek Catholic ch urch; o ften th ey ar e from o ld p riests' families. Yo ung p eople, w ho u se th e tr aditional Lviv manner of s peaking, as semble arou nd th e " Ukrainian Youth for Ch rist", "Obnova" (c hurch or rel igious societies) as well as various students' clubs and groups of nationally conscious y oung p eople. The stylized Lvi v manner of s peaking is u sed a s a m arker of belon ging to "traditional" Lv iv in t he te xts o f te levision a nd r adio advertisings, in the newspapers.

IV. Formulation of research tasks, collecting and analysis of material

To s tudy t he c haracteristics of Lv iv s peech we h ad a collecting o f li nguistic material. As we were i nterested not in the current state in pure form, but in those remains of specifically Lviv "koine", which can be observed in the speech of th e g roups ou tlined abov e, we s elected respondents appropriately: survey was conducted with 16 informants at t he a ge o f 23 – 8 0, w hose families liv e in Lviv at least from a period of World War II. Interviewing was carri ed ou t i n L viv i n 2005 – 2006. (a – hi gher education, b – secondary education).

TABLE 4

RESPONDENTS BY AGE, SEX AND EDUCATION

respondent	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	I
age	29 65	29		64 22	21 22	65		
sex	f m		m	m	f f f			
education	a a a			a b		b	b	b
respondent	J	K	L	M	N	O	T	X
age	80 38	55		75 25	35 55	36		
sex	f m		f	f f m			f m	
education	b	a b		a a a	a a			

The res pondents were s peaking (i n th e conv ersational mode) o r si mply were tel ling ab out th eir f amilies, customs and traditions. This enabled to get a small lingual corpus (12 108 word forms) on which we will trace some of th e s pecific f eatures o f L viv idio m. S tructure of sentences, their semantic-syntactic "frame" in most of the expressions ar e Uk rainian, with ad dition o f so me P olish elements, while u sed lexical ele ments are both Ukrainian and dialectal (Dn istrian dial ect), as well a s P olish a nd German.

In our opinion, copula in the present tense and the use of p ronouns i n th e function o f th e ar ticles d eserve t he attention as the interesting linguistic phenomena.

V. Copula in the present tense

Copula is not used in modern litera ry U krainian i n t he present te nse: th e v erb "*buty*" (' to be') ("*je*" (' is')) i s

simply omitted in the sentences, while forms of past and future tense ("*buv / bula*" ('was') and "*bude*" ('will be') respectively) are obligatory in the sentences, for example:

*я _ студент – я **був** студентом – я **буду** студентом*
***I am** a student – **I was** a student – **I'll be** a student*

Whereas in Polish copula in the present tense is an obligatory component. In the Dnistrian dialect of Ukrainian (which was the main basis for Lviv regional dialect) copula appears as an irregular component. In the speech of our respondents the presence / absence of copula depends on such factors: the age of respondent, his level of education, speech character (dialogue or monologue). So, in the speech of people at the age over 35 with higher education (except the middle generation, namely people who got higher education on Russian) copula is used regularly, while junior respondents are inclined to build expressions according to the norms of Ukrainian. Here are few examples of the sentences used with copula (and edited variants according to the norms of modern Ukrainian):

(1) (T) Zvyčajno, to **je** duže prykro.
/ *Zvyčajno, ce duže prykro.*
*Of course, it **is** very sad.*

(2) (T) Jak ja jij kažu: to ne **je** Lesja, to **je** tvoja cjocja Lesja.
/ *Jak ja jij kažu: ce ne Lesja, ce tvoja titka Lesja.*
*As I tell her: this **is** not Lesja, this **is** your aunt Lesja.*

(3) (O) Ce **je** Boh.
/ *Ce Boh.*
*This **is** God.*

In all cases a norm is not provided by copula.

It is hard to talk about frequency of copula in the absolute values, as in our corpus the majority of narrations were in the past tense. But practically always when the structure of a sentence allows the use of copula, it is used. The frequency of the usage of the verb "*je*" in corpus is high enough – in general there are 118 word usages.

As for younger respondents and some representatives of the middle generation, mentioned above, they are consistently using normative statements, too. Here are a few examples:

(4) (X) Ce prosto ljudyna vže _ oderžyma toju prystrastju.
*A man **is** just obsessed with the passion.*

(5) (D) I tam čornyci – no to _ rozkiš.
/ *Blueberries are there – well, thah **is** such delights.*

In general, one should note that normative literary expression are seen in traditional language environment as marked ones, and their transmitters – as "false" Lvivites (actually they are children of the families, where only one of parents belongs to native Lviv residents, and the second parent comes from other regions of Ukraine).

VI. The use of pronouns
in the function of the articles

The special attention should be paid to the use of demonstrative pronouns in the Lviv speech. So, in the literary Ukrainian language "*cej*" ('this') indicates the object, which is located nearer to the speaker, and "*toj*" ('that') – the distant object, while the pronouns of "*ten*" ('this') and "*tamty*" ('that') are used in Polish in similar functions. Thus as a result of interference in Lviv (as well as partly in many south-west dialects of Ukrainian) pronouns are used accordingly – "*toj*" (in the meaning of "*cej*") and "*tamtoj*" (in the meaning of "*toj*"). Here are a few examples:

(6) (T) …šo hovoryty vže za tamtyx vsix inšyx.
/ *… ščo hovoryty vže pro tyx vsix inšyx.*
…what to say about all the others.

(7) (T) Bula narada tamtoho tyžnja.
/ *Bula narada toho / mynuloho tyžnja.*
There was a meeting last week.

(8) (M) …ta mtoj zak inčyv politexniku, a to j postupyv v politexniku.
/ *… toj zakinčyv politexniku, a cej postupyv v politexniku.*
…that one graduated from the Polytechnic, and this one entered the Polytechnic.

The sequence of their use is approximately the same in such different from a norm kind, as well as copulas in the present tense. Though, there are cases of the mixing literary and local forms in the speech of one respondent, sometimes (mostly seldom) even within the limits of one expression.

Though observation on these pronouns in the texts of corpus (it concerns mainly their high-frequency) suggests the idea that these words have not only an indicatory function, especially if to take into consideration that most texts are narrations, and demonstrative pronouns in principle can not be used frequently there. Frequency of the use of demonstrative pronouns and consonant with them words is such: *toj* ('that' in the meaning of 'this') – 34, *ta* – 109, *to* – 397 (and also literary variant *te* – 5), *ti* ('these' in the meaning of 'those') – 47, and also 230 words used in the forms of indirect cases. For comparison – the amount of the use of literary correspondings in that corpus is the following: *cej* 'this' – 21, *cja* – 0, *ce* – 37, *ci* 'those' – 3.

Let us examine a few examples of the use of these words to figure out their function in the speech.

(9) (T) Babcja mala z didom hroši, šoby zaplatyty jij za **to** navčannja.
/ *Babusja z didom maly hroši, ščob zaplatyty jij za navčannja.*
Grandma with grandfather had money to pay for her study.

(10) (T) …kožen prynosyt' do L'vova **toj** pohanyj bahaž.
/ *… kožen prynosyt' do L'vova pohanyj bahaž.*
*…each brings to Lviv **a** bad luggage.*

(11) (T) My kolaja **to** (a) ro be mis'ka orhanizacija i rajonni orhanizaciji, tomu šo nas v **tij** (b) upravi l'vivs'koho viddilu Sojuzu ukrajinok je četvero čolovik, i my **tym** (c) vsim kerujem.
/ *[Svjato] Mykolaja robyt' mis'ka orhanizacija i rajonni orhanizaciji, tomu ščo nas v upravi l'vivs'koho viddilu Sojuzu ukrajinok četvero čolovik, i my cym vsim kerujemo.*

/ St. Nicholas day is arranged by the city organization and the district organizations, as we have in the Lviv council of the Union of Ukrainian Women 4 persons, and we manage all this.

(12) (K) I os' jakšo ja ljublju ljudynu, ni? – i ja jiji obrazyv, ni? – todi meni je žal' navit' **toho** (a) momentu, š čo ja v **tomu** (b) m omenti **cju** (c) ljudynu znevažyv, obrazyv.

/ I os' jakščo ja ljublju ljudynu, tak? – i ja jiji obrazyv, tak? – todi meni žal' navit' toho momentu, ščo ja v c'omu momenti cju ljudynu znevažyv, obrazyv.

/ And if I love someone, right? – and I hurted him, right? – then I regret even the moment, that I hurted, insulted this man at the moment.

The pronoun "*to*" appeals to the previous information in the examples (9), (12b, c), and in (11c) the pronoun "*tym*" is used in appropriate form as demonstrative pronoun, all other examples of the use of these words seem to be excess. Especially it becomes noticeable at an attempt to translate the resulted suggestions into other languages, particularly Russian and German. Making the indicated translation of corpus for the needs of research, we noticed that demonstrative pronouns are used in such manner that there is a necessity to neglect them (in the Russian translation, as well as in translating into Ukrainian literary language), or to use the definite articles instead (as in the German translation). It should be noted that in the most cases, where the definite article is used in the German language (the colloquial language is meant, because there are a little bit different rules of the use of the definite articles in the literary language), in our corpus appear words "*toj*" and similar without demonstrative meaning, but with the meaning of specification. So, in the examples (10), (11b) some objects are named which were not mentioned in a previous talk, but which are meant as the specific objects, known to the interlocutors. This also applies to the examples (11a), where these words are used with the proper names – in the first case this is holiday (St. Nicholas day), in the second – it is the name of a man who was not mentioned in a previous talk and who is unknown for the most participants of the talk. An example (11a) is interesting also because the pronoun "*to*" is in postposition to a noun, but it is attached by the intonation to the previous word, and the inversion itself adds a colloquial ease for the expression. It is noteworthy that this is the only case in our corpus when the analyzed word is used postposition.

The use of demonstrative pronouns instead of definite articles is quite consistent and frequent phenomenon in Lviv regional dialect; and the use of indefinite pronouns instead of the indefinite articles can be seen only sporadically. In general indefinite pronouns (*jakyjs', jakas', jakes', jakis',* their phonetic variants – *kyjs'* etc.), and their homonyms are used not so often, as demonstrative pronouns with their homonyms: in total there are 52 cases of word usage for a corpus. Among them there is mostly the use of the indefinite pronoun in the direct meaning, and only some of them are used in the

function which is correlative with the function of the indefinite article.

(13) (T) Šob vony maly **kyjs'** kusok xliba, šob tut ne buly ni bandjuhamy, ni zlodijamy.

/ Ščob vony maly šmatok xliba, ščob tut ne buly ni bandjuhamy, ni zlodijamy.

/ That they had a piece of bread, that they were neither bandits nor thieves.

(14) (T) Nu to ž.. . starajemsja, vsyo-taky my **jakas'** (a) hromads'ka orhanizacija, i **jakis'** (b) vystupy, **jakes'** (c) šos'...

/ Nu ce ž... starajemosja, vse-taky my hromads'ka orhanizacija, i vystupy, ščos'...

*/ Well, it's... we do our best, we still are **a** public organization, so some performances, something else...*

(15) *(T) My maly svij stolyk, my povynni buly joho nakryty, i skatertynoju, fartušok maty, ti vsi tarilky, ce vse sobi postavyty, i sami tam sydily.*

/ We had our table, we had to lay it – and with the tablecloth, – to have the apron, to put all those plates and all the stuff for ourselves, and we sat there alone.

(16) (T) Kromi toho, my zavždy **jakis** reči zbyrajemo vse, šoby ti dity maly.

/ Krim toho, my zavždy reči zbyrajemo, ščob ti (?) dity maly.

/ In addition, we always pick things so that the kids had ...

(17) (J) Ja m aju taku t ovaryšku, n o, j iji čolovik **jakyjs'** zasluženyj dijač Ukrajiny.

/ Ja maju tovaryšku, nu, jiji čolovik – zasluženyj dijač Ukrajiny.

*/ I have a friend, well, her husband is **a** honoured worker of Ukraine.*

(18) (T) P islja t oho še s v ka fe j ix ve det'sja, t a t am **jakyjs'** (a) o bid, t am **jakis'** (b) g aljaretky, t am **jakis'** (c) taki tistka...

/ Pislja toho šče s v kafe jix vedemo, to tam jakyjs' (?) obid, jakis' (?) žele, jakis' (?) taki tistečka...

*Then we invite them in a cafè, and there is **a** lunch, a kind of jellies, some kind of pastries...*

In the examples given above (13), (14a), (15), (16), (17) we may see that the examined words are used in the meaning of the quasi-article, while the meaning of the indefinite pronoun is more or less present in the other cases. An example (18) seems to be doubtful in this respect, for the way of the sentence structure does not allow to omit these words, but they do not have a single lexical load, except the distinction of category of definite / indefinite.

Let us consider the issue of the distinction of the definite and indefinite quasi-articles. Since in Ukrainian, as well as in close Slavonic (Polish and Russian) languages the articles, along with the category of definity / indefinity are absent, the natural question arises: where this category in Lviv regional dialect comes from. The analysis of our data shows that the regular use of the

quasi-article is observed only at those respondents (of the middle an d ol der g eneration) who co mmunicated with their grandparents, the representatives of "Austrian" Lviv, a lot in the childhood. That is why it is possible to assume that the remains of the category of definity / indefinity is taken act ually from t hat peri od, when Lviv regi onal dialect was being f ormed under th e inf luence of t he German la nguage. T his i s co nfirmed b y the written te xts of t hat peri od, bot h f iction and pu blicistics, where t he pronouns in the function of the articles are used regularly enough. B ut as this period is d istant in time en ough, t he criteria of di stinction of cat egory o f de finity / i ndefinity have been slightly shifted. So, i f i n the German language the in definite ar ticles ar e u sed with n ouns which ar e mentioned i n a te xt for t he first time, an d t he d efinite articles are u sed with th ose on es alread y mentioned, in Lviv regional dialect, on our observations, the criterion of distinction i s first o f all k nowing / unknowing to the speaker, an d al s o (option al) – s ignificance / insignificance. T his diff erence is well noticeable i n t he example (17): th e n oun "tovaryška" ('friend') (obj ect) is used with th e d efinite q uasi-article "*taka*", an d t he n oun "dijač" ('worker') (description is ad ditional, unknown to the speaker a nd un important i n t he co ntext of th e statement) is used with t he in definite q uasi-article "*jakyjs*'". While in some other examples we may observe the mixing, un distinction o f t hese categories and the us e of w ords " *toj*" a nd " *jakyjs*'" in iden tical s yntactic position. B ut th is p henomenon is q uite natural, as th e respondent T bel ongs t o t he middle g eneration, an d J – belongs to the older generation. T he category of definite/ indefinite practically is not presented in the speech of the representatives of junior generation.

Conclusions

The s pecial L viv region al dialect h as been created by the la nguage s ituation o f Lviv, which was formed i n t he atmosphere of clos e co ntact of related – to m ore or les s extent – lan guages. In Lv iv s peech, particu larly in t he speech of native res idents, t he certain g roup of co ntact-linguistic p rocesses is noticed; th is is mostly co des-switching o r, in th e ter minology o f P . Muysken, congruent lexicalization.

The s yntactic "frame" of s tatements i s mainly combined – Uk rainian i n co mbination with P olish an d (rarer) German elements, and the lex ical filling is formed by both the Ukrainian elements and the elements of other languages (Polish, R ussian, t o a sm all ex tent – Ger man

and Yiddish). The analyzed s yntactic phenomena (copula in th e p resent t ense an d th e use o f th e q uasi-articles for distinction of category of definite / indefinite) indicate the presence of activ e la nguage-contact proces ses i n t he history o f Lviv region al dialect f orming. As s uch phenomena are dis covered al most e xceptionally in t he speech o f res pondents o f o lder g eneration, t here are reasons to talk about their decline in the modern language.

In g eneral, t his t opic re quires further res earch, particularly e xtensive d ocumentation o f t he li nguistic phenomena (creation of large language corpus of modern Lviv), as well as theoretical studies in the d etermination of sociolinguistic status of the idiom.

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