ADDITIONAL MEANINGS OF CAUSAL MARKERS IN POLYPREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

The paper deals with the semantics of causal markers in polypredicative constructions; it is based on an areally and genetically balanced sample of 100 languages (Africa – 14 languages, Eurasia – 8 languages, Southeast Asia & Oceania – 13 languages, Australia & New Guinea – 27 languages, North America – 18 languages; South America – 20 languages; where the number of languages taken from each family depends on its size). The research is based on typologically oriented grammars, language descriptions, corpus data and consultations with language experts.

It turns out that apart from their basic causal meaning, causal markers can express other additional meanings in the Reason clause, in the Result clause or in both of them. To my knowledge, a number of these parameters have never been mentioned in typological studies of polypredicative causal constructions. The most frequently mentioned additional meaning was evaluation, widely attested in European languages. Both positive and negative evaluation usually refers to the Reason clause and the Result clause at the same time, but in some cases, it can refer to only one of the clauses. The other parameters include: the degree of control of the Reason and Result; conformity or non-conformity of Result to the hearer’s expectations; the reality/objectivity of Reason; emphasis on the Motive vs. the Causer; greater or smaller temporal distance between the propositions; degree of causal relationship between the propositions; and critical attitude toward the causal relationship in polypredicative constructions. Causal markers can combine two additional meanings as well. The fact that most of the additional meanings were attested in languages of Eurasia and Southeast Asia & Oceania can be explained in two ways. First, the languages of these Macroareas are well-described, and, second, both Macroareas possess a larger number of causal markers, typical of written texts, sometimes having additional semantic features.

Key words: polypredicative constructions, semantics, reason, motive, consequence, evaluation, control, reality.

Introduction

Polypredicative causal constructions can be classified according to a number of morphological, syntactic, and semantic parameters, some of which have been analysed in (Martowicz, 2011, Diessel, Hetterle, 2011, Galán Rodríguez, 1995), and many other works. This study addresses some semantic parameters, partially mentioned in (Zaika, 2019: 21–23), relying on a reasonably representative language sample.

The focus is on polypredicative causal constructions, namely, direct causal constructions immediately denoting the relation of causation between two situations:

(1) [I’ve bought her a present]\textsc{result}, [because today is her birthday]\textsc{reason}.

Beyond the scope of this paper are inferential causal constructions, where the causal clause states the reason for asserting the proposition in the main clause (2), and illocutive causal constructions with “a relation between the propositional content of one clause in a polypredicative construction and illocutionary modality of the other” (Pekelis, 2015) (3).

1 The research is supported by the Russian Science Foundation (Grant № 18-18-00472 “Causal Constructions in World Languages: Semantics and Typology”). I would like to thank Emma Geniušienė, Maksim Fedotov, Ildar Ibragimov, Kazuhiro Kawachi, Viktor S. Khakovsky, Sergei Klimenko, Elena Kolpakchova, Svetlana Kramarova, Ramazan Mamedshahov, Daria Mischenko, Sofia Oskolskaya, and Viktor Stegniy for their help with sentential examples and their useful remarks. All errors that remain in the paper are my own.
(2)  [Liz left], [since her coat is not on the rack] = ‘<I suppose / know that> Liz left, because her coat is not on the rack’. (Charnavel, 2019)

(3)  Qu’est-ce qu’il vaut ce bouquin, parce que je voudrais l’acheter?
‘How much is the book, since I want to buy it’ = <I ask> how much the book is, since I want to buy it (Colson, 1993: 57)

The rest of the article addresses: the languages and sources of my sample (Section 1); the additional meanings (evaluation, control, speaker’s attitude, emphasis, temporal distance, etc.) of poly-predicative causal constructions (Section 2); and conclusions.

1. Languages and Sources

The research is based on two overlapping language samples. The first is a reasonably balanced sample of 100 languages where the geographical distribution follows the Genus-Macroarea sampling method (Miestamo et al., 2016: 256–260) with slight modifications based on (Oskolskaya et al., 2019) (while in the former, big linguistic families are underrepresented, the latter also takes family size into account). Basically, a proportional number of languages from each Macroarea (Africa – 14,2% = 14; Eurasia – 8,3% = 8; Southeast Asia & Oceania – 12,7% = 13, Australia & New Guinea – 26,9% = 27; North America – 17,7% = 18; South America – 20,3% = 20) were taken from the 521 genera mentioned in (WALS), with big families represented by more than one genus. The selection of the languages is mine. The existence of searchable grammars was crucial for the study, though other relevant sources (dictionaries, language descriptions, corpora, elicitation) were also used. The languages of the sample are listed below.

Africa (14 languages): Arabic³, Ganja, Lunda, Yoruba, Gban, Koyra Chiini, Hdi, Bagiro (Furu), Lumun, Gaahmg (Gaam), Sheko, Ngulak (Ik), Sandawe, Ts’ixa.

Eurasia (8 languages): Basque, Lithuanian, Pashayi, Tatar, Lezgian, Nenets, Korean, Japanese.

Southeast Asia & Oceania (13 languages): Chinese, Yao'an Lolo (Lolopo), Atong, Lha’alua (Saaroa), Ugele, Tuwali Ifugao, Tagalog, Ambel, Indonesians, Lao, White Hmong, Khmer, Ka-song.

Australia & New Guinea (27 languages): Oksapmin, Skou, Manambu, Siwai (Motuna), Wambaya, Kayardild, Worrora, Ngiyambaa, Bardi, Moskona, Abui, Enindhilyakwa, Goonyandi, Guragone (Gurr-Goni), Wardaman, Lavukaleve, Ambulas, Urama (Kiwaï), Daga, Umbu Ungu, Nankina, Fuyug, Mauwake, Konai, Ternate, Waris, Kamasau.

North America (18 languages): Crow, Ute, Nahuatl, Musqueam (Halkomelem), Choctaw, Nez Perce, Seneca, Arapaho, Aleut, Mixe, Tzeltal, Zoogocho Zapotec, Chinantec, Seri, Wappo, Yakhi (Euchee), Nuu-chah-nulth, Miskito.

South America (20 languages): Jarawara, Mapuche (Mapudungun), Guarani, Yauyos Quechua, Paya Kuna, Karajá, Apurinã, Paresi, Ye’kwana (Maquiritari), Matses, Ese Ejja, Wampis (Huambisa), Wanano (Guanano), Mosetén, Bora, Daw, Movima, Wari’, Mamaindê, Epena Pedee.

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² Basque, Lithuanian, Lezgian, and Tatar are included in both samples.
³ The languages, where some additional meanings in causal markers were attested (for a more full discussion see Section 3), are in bold. If a language is not in bold, this means that the relevant information concerning additional meanings in causal markers was not found in the sources consulted by the author, rather than that no additional meanings can be found in it.
My language sample by the macroareas
Google Maps was used to display geographic information

The second sample includes 44 major European languages listed below.

Indo-European (Slavic: Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Polish, Czech, Slovak, Bulgarian, Macedonian, Serbian, Slovene; Baltic: Latvian, Lithuanian; Germanic: Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Icelandic, German, Dutch, English; Romance: Portuguese, Spanish, Catalan, Occitan, French, Italian, Romanian; Italic: Latin; Celtic: Welsh, Irish, Breton; Albanese; Greek, Old Greek; Latin); Uralic (Finnish, Estonian, Moksha, Hungarian); Altaic (Turkish, Chuvash, Tatar); Kartvelian (Georgian); Nakh-Daghestanian (Lezgian); isolates (Basque).

2. Additional meanings of causal markers

2.1. Evaluation

In this section, different types of positive and negative evaluation in polypredicative causal constructions will be analysed, neutral evaluation naturally being the most common case. While positive or negative evaluation can logically refer to either only the Reason or the Result, in actual reality, it often refers to both clauses at the same time:

(4) Estas tarjetas, gracias a que aparecí, serán salvadas.
‘These cards, now, thanks to me showing up, will be saved’. [context]

Positive evaluation of Reason (often involving positive evaluation of Result) is attested in many European languages. It is attested in several languages of some groups of the Indo-European family, such as Slavic, Baltic, or Romance. In some Indo-European languages, such as Germanic, causal markers expressing positive evaluation are attested, though their use is often not as natural as in the above mentioned groups, cf. English thanks to the fact that and Swedish tack vare att. Some of the causal markers expressing positive evaluation of Reason are listed below:

4 The source of the data is mostly dictionaries; some data were communicated by my colleagues.
Russian: blagodarja tomu, chto, Ukrainian: zavdjakyy tomu shcho, Byelorussian: džakuyuchy tamu shto, Polish: dzięki temu, że, Czech: díky tomu že, Slovak: vďaka tomu, že; Lithuanian: dėka to, kad; Spanish: gracias a que, Occitan: mercè que, Dieu-mercè que, French: grâce à ce que, Italian: grazie a quello che.

Evaluative causal markers in European languages tend to derive from adpositions and inherit their evaluative meaning (cf. French grâce à + NP vs. grâce à ce que + clause).

While my grammar search suggests that the evaluative meaning of causal markers seems to be more typical of the Standard Average European (evaluative causal markers are attested in at least 18 languages out of the 44 languages of the European sample), it might not actually be the case, due to the fact that other languages may be underdescribed in this respect. In fact, positive evaluations are attested in other regions as well. Thus, a number of Chinese causal markers (duōkuī, kuīde, xìngkuī) can refer to positive reasons (Elena Kolpachkova, p. c.):

(5) Wǒ děi chéngrèn, wǒ yǒudiǎn gānjī tā le,
   1SG MOD admit 1SG some grateful 3M.SG PTCL
duōkuī tā zài Dézhōu māi-le zhī shāojī,
   CONJ 3M.SG PREP PN buy-PRFV CLSF fried_chicken

wǒ cài yóu-le zhòngyào xiànsuǒ
   1SG only have-PRFV important evidence

‘I have to admit that I am grateful to him up to a point: it is only due to the fact that he had bought the fried chicken in Dézhōu that I got the important evidence’.

Another example of a marker referring to a usually positively (but sometimes, negatively, in ironic contexts) evaluated Reason is Japanese okage de (< benefit DAT.LOC), which can be preceded by a clause or a genitive noun phrase (Kazuhiro Kawachi, p. c.).

Positive evaluation of Result as a tendency is attested in Daga (< Dagan, Trans – New Guinea, Papua New Guinea), cf. “[t]hen the Effect is desirable, the reason marker is more likely to occur” (Murane, 1974: 192) (6) and Tuwali Ifugao (< Austronesian, Philippines) (Hohulin, Hohulin, 2014), cf. (7):

(6) ma baigan bar-eta iwa Rupna dagin irine yaw-an
   here peace put-3S/F because Rupna smoke which/they/burnt see-3P/P
   ‘He will make peace here because they saw the smoke which the Rupna people burned’.
   (Murane, 1974: 192–193)

(7) Man-uke kana-k hidi ya adalon-da-n mumbaki nah
   reason say-me that TOP study-they-LK do_rituals DET.OBL
e-da pundongdongollan ya1 abu2
   go-they listen only1,2
   ‘The reason I say that is that they learn to recite the rituals and prayers by listening only.’

Negative evaluation of Reason implying negative evaluation of Result is found with the Indonesian causal marker akihabat (2) (Svetlana Kramarova, p. c.), the Russian iz-za togo, chto (9a-b) (Boguslavskaya, Levontina, 2004: 74), or the Japanese sei de (Mastrangelo et al., 2006: 261).

(8) Dia mangkat pada tahun 1292 akihabat istana di-serang army Mongol.
   he pass_away PREP year 1292 because palace PAS:3-attack army Mongol
   ‘He passed away in 1292, because the palace was attacked by the army of Mongols’.
(9a) *On postupi-l v institut iz-za' togo', chto'
he[NOM] enter-PST[M] in institute REAS\textsuperscript{1,2,3}
mnogo zanima-l-sya.
much study-PST[M]-REFL
‘He entered the institute, because he had studied a lot’.

(9b) On provali-l-sya na ehkzamen-ah iz-za' togo', chto'
he[NOM] fail-PST[M]-REFL on exam-LOC.PL REAS
malo zanima-l-sya.
little study-PST[M]-REFL
‘He failed the exam, because he had studied very little’. (Boguslavskaya, Levontina, 2004: 74)

According to (Boguslavskaya, Levontina, 2004: 74), (9a) is impossible, because the Russian causal marker under consideration implies that the consequence is unexpected and it is likely to be undesirable.

Taken all together, while neutral evaluation of the Reason and Result is naturally the most common case, positive and negative evaluation of both Reason and Result is attested in several languages of the sample, especially in Eurasia.

2.2. Control of Reason and Result

Control (the agent-like behaviour of the most prominent argument of the clause) is another typological parameter which can be applied either to the Reason clause or to the Result clause. Sometimes, the terms Reason and Result are only applied to causal constructions, where the Agent’s behavior in the main clause (Result) is conditioned by the situation in the subordinate clause (Reason) (2), otherwise the terms Cause and Effect are used:

(1') [I’ve bought her a present]\text{RESULT}, [because today is her birthday]\text{REASON}.

(10) [He fell]\text{EFFECT} [because the floor was wet]\text{CAUSE}.

In most languages from our sample, such constructions are coded in the same way, though rare exceptions occur; cf. examples from Paya Kuna (< Chibchan, South America) with a grammatical opposition between Reason-Result and Cause-Effect Constructions, cf. (11) and (12): in (11) the reason clause is marked by the nominalizing suffix -d/-t, followed by the marker ulgin. In (12) the effect clause is marked by ulal ‘the cause of’ preceded by the demonstrative a (Foster, 2011: 173).

(11) Jaime pe chogzha d ulgin nad.
‘Jaime left/went because of what you said’.

(12) Telefono iskus. A ulal keg an pebak chunma.
‘Telephono is out of order. That is why I can’t talk with you’.

Grammaticalized control of Reason is attested in Konai (< East Strickland, Trans–New Guinea). If no control is involved in the reason clause (13), the causal marker dege- is used, in other cases, ka-ha dege- is preferred (14) (Årsjö, 2016: 201):

(13) Sabi e kuilo hiye-do dege-moû, lizard 3S coldness big-INT do.FUT-PFV REASON
e aso difi ha tila 3S sun heat get.warm lie.down RESULT
‘The lizard, because it is very cold, is lying in the sun to get warm’.
Thus, while the degree of agentivity is quite important cross-linguistically in many respects, only two languages of our sample are sensitive to this typological parameter.

2.3. Meeting/not meeting the hearer's expectations

While both Reason and Result can be expected or unexpected in causal constructions, in our sample a difference in coding expected vs. unexpected situations is observed only for the Results.

In Mishar Tatar, causal clauses contradicting the presupposition of the question admit only one of the two basic causal strategies (while the clausal conjunction čenki is possible here, the perfect converb -gan-ga is not).

2.4. The reality and objectivity of Reason

While most causal markers refer to a real cause, a number of “false” causal markers are attested in languages. In some “false” causal constructions, the participant the reason to be false (cf. French sous (le) prétexte que, Breton digar, war zigarez, Russian pod predlogom togo, chto, Chinese yǐ wèi jièkǒu, jiègù, jiǎtuō ‘under the pretext that’). Such constructions are often less grammaticalised, more formal compared to other causal constructions, and derive from a word denoting pretext; they are often found in Europe, but can be attested in other areas as well, cf. Chinese⁵.

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⁵ Both the example and the gloss were provided by Elena Kolpachkova.
Having completed the task, Xiǎo Wáng left the company under the pretext that his wife had got ill'

A number of clausal connectors denoting fictitious reason are found in Arabic (biðariišatin ʔanna – Ramazan Mamedshahov, p. c.) and Indonesian (cf. the marker dengan dalih bahwa, grammaticalized from the preposition dengan ‘with, with the help of’, the noun dalih ‘pretext’, and the conjunction bahwa ‘that’ – Svetlana Kramarova, p. c.). In other “false” causal constructions, the participant believes the reason to be true, cf. Basque – delakoan (‘in the belief that’) (Rijk, 2008: 463). A similar meaning is attested in Turkish: a “kind of reason expressed by a diye clause is one which exists in the perception of the subject of the main verb” (Göksel, Kerslake, 2005: 400):

(17) zài wánchéng-le rènwù hòu, yī qīzi shēngbìng
PREP finish-PRFV task LOC INSTR wife fall_ill
wéijiēkǒu, Xiǎo Wáng likāi dānwèi le
as_a pretext PN leave company PTCL
‘Having completed the task, Xiǎo Wáng left the company under the pretext that his wife had got ill’.

(18) [Çocukları getir-ir-ler diye (bring-AOR-3PL SUB)] porselen ēşyayı ortadan kaldırmıştı.
‘[Thinking they would bring the children], she had put the china pieces away.’

A similar distinction in causal constructions can be based on the objectivity/subjectivity of the Reason. Thus, in Korean, -(e)se expresses objective and impersonal cause, while -nikka “expresses a speaker’s emphatic attitude” (Sohn, 1993: 88).

(19) pi-ka wa-se nuc-ess-eyo
rain-NOM come-SE late-PST-DEC
‘I was late, because it is raining’.

(20) pi-ka o-nikka nuc-ess-eyo
rain-NOM come-NIKKA late-PST-DEC
‘(You know/I believe) I was late, because it is raining’.

In Latin, quod, quia, quoniam ‘because’ and some other conjunctions introduce indicative dependent clauses where the speaker views the Reason as objective. If the causal relation reflects somebody else’s opinion/motive, the same conjunctions introduce subjunctive dependent clauses (Pennington, 2010: 172)6:

(21a) Amicus me-us discessit quod iratus
friend my-NOM.SG.M leave:PRF.IND.ACT.3SG because angry
erat
be:IPF.IND.ACT.3SG
‘My friend left, because he was angry’ [as claimed by the speaker/writer].

(21b) Amicus me-us discessit quod iratus
friend my-NOM.SG.M leave:PRF.IND.ACT.3SG because angry
esset
be:IPF.CONJ.ACT.3SG
‘My friend left, because [as he said] he was angry’ [the reason is given not by the speaker but by the friend himself].

6 I would like to thank Ildar Ibragimov for glossing the Latin examples.

Different markers for subjective (luhuz/lahana) vs. objective (kiligna) reasons are also attested in Lezgian (Haspelmath, 1993: 389–390).
As we can see, the only Macroarea where the reality and objectivity of Reason turns to be a relevant typological parameter is Eurasia, and we can find it in different parts of the Macroarea.

2.5. Emphasis on the Motive vs. the Causer

Different causal markers can be used depending on the emphasis on different constituents. Thus, in Dāw (< Nadahup, Brazil) “[t]he first causal construction ʃéʔ emphasizes the motive that causes the event, while xad emphasizes the provoker of the event” (Martins 2004: 466; 102):

(22) woh wjʔ tum ʃáməxuʔ bej wan bej dźw ʔʔw3 /
PN see two jaguars repete follow ITER Dāw AFET
Dāw jūt ʃeʔ
‘Woh saw two jaguars head for Dāw again, because Dāw killed [their companions]’.

(23) ʃáməxuʔ ʃs pūd jed/ ʔa dźw xad
jaguar die be.intensif INTSI this Dāw CONJ
‘A lot of jaguars died because of Dāw’.

While the causal construction in (22) may be analysed as a nominal one, the author provides some examples of polyredicative causal constructions as well:

(24) boh3 bax eʔ bi-gid dźw xad maj
fire appear -PAS by_itself Dāw CONJ not.be
‘The fire caught accidentally, it was not for Dāw’. (Martins, 2004: 102)

It is also worth noting that in a number of European languages some causal markers can combine with emphatic particles, while other cannot (cf. the discussion about Russian causal markers in (Pekelis, 2015) and French causal markers in (Colson, 1993: 60)), but using different markers to emphasize different constituents seems to be exceptional, as there is only one example in my general sample.

2.6. Temporal distance

The use of some causal markers can depend on greater/smaller temporal distance between the propositions. Thus, in Skou (< Western Skou, New Guinea) the reason marker te, unlike wakote, is used if “the time reference of the first clause significantly precedes that of the second clause” (Donohue, 2004: 497–498). Unfortunately, the author of the Skou grammar does not provide an example there the first marker is used, but this typological parameter deserves to be mentioned for the sake of completeness.

2.7. More or less strong causal relationship

The opposition between a direct and indirect reason implying more or less strong causal relationship is a well-known typological parameter with nominal causal constructions attested in some European languages (Boguslavskaya, Levontina, 2004: 83). The same opposition in polypredicative causal constructions is much less studied. Though I was not able to find any examples of this opposition in Europe, it is attested both in South and North America.
In Epena Pedee, clauses marked by -pa ‘cause’ “relate a stronger causal relationship to the main clause than do the other reason clauses” than clauses marked by -irã or pérã ‘because’ (Harms, 1994: 161–162). Though no minimal pairs can be found in the work, I will quote two examples here:

(25) bi čòma či ê ni-bi-pa bi čo-da-či
  belly big be^HON laugh DUR-be-cause belly burst-CMP-PST
  Because the one that was big-bellied laughed so much, his belly burst. (Harms, 1994: 168)

(26) iru čê-hî â-či k^áwa p^ana-da-p^é-dâa pérã
  he come-PST they-+ know be^PL-PST-PL because
  He came because they had known him. (Harms, 1994: 162)

The distinction between the causal markers /tih/ and hookóh in Arapaho (<Algic) seems to reflect a similar opposition: “[t]he distinction between the two [causal markers] is not entirely clear, although generally, /tih/ seems to be used when the connection between reason and resulting action is more immediate or prototypical, and especially more involuntary” (Cowell, Moss, 2008: 388).

Interestingly enough, the opposition between more or less strong causal relationship in poly-predicative causal construction does not imply the same opposition in nominal causal constructions and vice versa.

2.8. Critical attitude to the causal relationship

The use of some causal markers can imply critical attitude to the causal relationship between the propositions in the main and subordinate clauses, cf. an example from Tagalog (Sergey Klimenko, p. c.):

(27) Porket gusto-ka ni Cherry ay ganyan-ka-na!
  because wanted-2SG.NOM PRS.SG.ACT PN TOP like.MED-2SG.NOM-already
  ‘Just because Cherry likes you, you are like this now!’

A similar additional meaning is attested in the Indonesian causal marker mentang-mentang (Svetlana Kramarova, p. c.)

(28) Dia itu sombong sementang-mentang anak orang kaya.
  he that arrogant just_because child person wealthy
  ‘He behaved arrogantly, just because he was a son of wealthy people’.

A causal marker can combine two additional meanings implying critical attitude to the causal relationship and a negative Result, cf. the Indonesian marker gara-gara (Kramarova, p. c.):

(29) Sekeluarga di-larang terbang gara-gara anak
  all_the_family PAS:3-forbid fly just_because child
  tak pakai sepatu.
  NEG use shoes
  ‘All the family was not allowed to fly, just because the children were not wearing shoes’.

Quite interestingly, the only two languages of our sample where causal markers implying critical attitude to the causal relationship (Tagalog and Indonesian) belong to the same Macroarea (South-east Asia & Oceania). Though it can seem that we deal with an areal feature, the grammars of the

7 The complementary distribution depends on tense.
other languages of the Macroarea in question do not provide us with examples of this typological
distinction. On the other hand, it is possible that the grammars do not contain enough data on the
distribution of causal markers (the two above-mentioned examples were obtained from language ex-
perts).

Conclusions

A wide range of additional meanings can be attested in polypredicative causal constructions. While some of them refer to the Reason clause, others refer to the Result clause; some additional meanings can take the whole sentence in their scope. In addition to the meanings mentioned in (Zaika, 2019), new typological parameters, found in my present sample, include: the degree of control of the Reason and Result (3.2), emphasis on the Motive vs. the Causer (3.5), degree of causal relationship (3.7), and critical attitude to the causal relationship (3.8).

Most of the additional meanings are attested in languages of Eurasia and Southeast Asia &
oceania. Two explanations can be proposed for this result. The first is that the languages of these
Macroareas are well-described, and I often could get more evidence by consulting respective lin-
guists. Another explanation is that these languages may show a larger number of causal markers,
typical of written texts, which sometimes have additional semantic features. Although a considerable
number of additional meanings in polypredicative constructions were found in my sample, their list
is hardly complete, and other additional meanings may be identified both in well-described languages
(using their grammars), and in insufficiently described languages (via elicitation).

Abbreviations

1 – 1 person; 2 – 2 person; 3 – 3 person; ACC – accusative; ACT – active voice (in Latin), actor pronoun (in Tagalog); AFET –
affected; AOR – aorist; CAUSE – cause; CLSF – classifier; CMP – completed; CONJ – conjunctive (in Latin), conjunction (in
Dâw); DAT – dative; DEC – declarative; DET – demonstrative determiner; DUR – durative; FUT – future; GEN – genitive; IND –
indicative; INSTR – instrumental; IRR – irrealis; IPF – IPFV – imperfective; INT – intensifier; INTSI – intensifier I; ITER – iterative;
HON – honorific; LK – linker; LOC – locative; M – masculine; MED – medial; MOD – modal; NEG – negation; NFUT – non-future;
NOM – nominative; OBL – oblique; PAS:3 – impersonal passive; PFV, PFCT, PRFV – perceptive; PL – plural; PN – personal
name; PREP – preposition; PRF – perfect; PRS – present; PST – past; PTCL – particle; REAS – reason; REFL – reflexive; S,
SG – singular; SUB – subordinator; ST – derived stem; TOP – topic.

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В статье рассматриваются семантические параметры типологического варьирования полипредикативных причинных конструкций. Результаты исследования основаны на двух выборках: ареально и генетически сбалансированной выборке из 100 языков (Африка – 14 языков, Евразия – 8, Юго-Восточная Азия и Океания – 13, Австралия и Новая Гвинея – 27, Северная Америка – 18, Южная Америка – 20; из более крупных семей отбиралось большее количество языков) и выборке из 44 языков Европы. В качестве материала используются типологически ориентированные грамматики и языковые описания, корпусные данные, консультации со специалистами по конкретным языкам.

В результате исследования было обнаружено значительное количество типологических параметров, связанных с семантикой, характеризующих либо причинную клаузу, либо клаузу следствия, либо всю полипредикативную причинную конструкцию в целом, часть из которых, насколько нам известно, ранее не упоминалась в теоретических работах по причинным конструкциям. Чаще всего в языковых описаниях упоминался оценочный компонент значения, особенно характерный для языков Евразии. Положительная и отрицательная коннотация, как правило, характеризуют причину и следствие одновременно, однако в некоторых случаях могут относиться лишь к одной из соответствующих клауз. Кроме того, были обнаружены такие параметры, как степень контроля в главной или зависимой клаузе, соответствие или несоответствие ожиданиям слушателя пропозиции, соответствующей причине или результату, реальность / нереальность и субъективное или объективное восприятие причины, акцент на мотиве или каузаторе действия,

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ДОПОЛНИТЕЛЬНЫЕ ЗНАЧЕНИЯ ПРИЧИННЫХ ПОКАЗАТЕЛЕЙ В ПОЛИПРЕДИКАТИВНЫХ КОНСТРУКЦИЯХ

Материал поступил в редакцию 10 февраля 2020 г.
временное расстояние между пропозициями главной и зависимой клаузы, более или менее сильная каузирующая связь между этими пропозициями и критическое отношение к причинной связи в полипредикативной конструкции. Некоторые причинные конструкции входят в более чем одну из упомянутых выше оппозиций. Тот факт, что в Евразии и Юго-Восточной Азии и Океании семантически обусловленная вариативность в причинных конструкциях фиксировалась нами чаще, чем в других макроареалах, может быть связан как с меньшей описанностью языков других ареалов и доступностью источников, так и тем, что для языков с письменной традицией характерно большее количество маркеров причинных отношений.

Ключевые слова: полипредикативные конструкции, семантика, причина, мотив, следствие, оценка, контроль, реальность.

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