

On the place and role of 'discourse' in the Functional Discourse Grammar model. The interface between language system and language use*

Francis Cornish

▶ To cite this version:

Francis Cornish. On the place and role of 'discourse' in the Functional Discourse Grammar model. The interface between language system and language use*. Language Sciences, 2023, 100. hal-04335538

HAL Id: hal-04335538

https://hal.science/hal-04335538

Submitted on 11 Dec 2023

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

On the place and role of 'discourse' in the *Functional Discourse Grammar* model. The interface between language system and language use*

Francis Cornish

Université de Toulouse-Jean Jaurès and CNRS CLLE, UMR 5263

Abstract

Mackenzie (2020) is a defense of the position adopted by the architects of the standard model of Functional Discourse Grammar (FDG): namely that the model cannot (and even could never) be considered a 'grammar of discourse'. The article examines the arguments given for rejecting the 'discourse' dimension from the FDG model, proposes an independent account of discourse, and suggests a means of dovetailing it within a model of the wider utterance context.

On the one hand, the author's arguments are in the main valid: for 'discourse', as characterized in section 3, is not a formal, clearly delineated object amenable to systematic treatment within a grammatical model of a given language. Yet on the other, it is arguable that even the presence of the term 'discourse' in the model's name is not *in fine* justified.

Notwithstanding, in order to include the 'discourse dimension' (section 3), it is argued that the Core FDG model could be integrated with a broader model of the utterance context involved. This would enable it to account more adequately, for example, for the ways in which indexical reference, the lexicon and adjectival modification operate in actual texts. In turn, it would influence certain of the other characterizations independently assigned within the Core model.

Keywords: contextualization; discourse; Functional Discourse Grammar; illocution; the lexicon; text.

1. Introduction

At the very outset of their 2008 book (p. 9), Hengeveld & Mackenzie state explicitly that FDG 'is in no sense a discourse-analytical model', despite the presence of the term 'Discourse' in the model's name. Mackenzie (2020) is a defence of this position. The purpose of this article is, after examining the arguments given for rejecting the 'discourse grammar' dimension from the FDG model, to ascertain the extent to which the term 'discourse' is justified in its name, to provide an independent characterization of this dimension, and finally to outline a possible model of the wider utterance context in which discourse might take its place. The broader issue raised by the discussion is quite simply the interface between grammar and usage, between the language system and its potential for use of the resources it provides the user in context.

*Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the following for their considerable help in the preparation of this article: Maj-Britt Mosegaard-Hansen, Christopher Butler, Daniel García Velasco and the three anonymous LSC referees. I am especially grateful to Christopher Butler for his very valuable contribution to the creation of Figure 1.

_

¹ To avoid the impression given by the model's English name, Mackenzie insists on its translation into languages such as Spanish and French as, respectively, Gramática Funcional-Discursivo (or Gramática Discursivo-Funcional) and Grammaire Fonctionnelle-Discursive, but not 'Gramática Funcional del Discurso' (cf. Mackenzie 2020: 76, n. 3) or 'Grammaire Fonctionnelle du Discours'. However, it remains the case that the English version of the name is potentially misleading in this respect. As with the recommended Spanish and French variants, a simple way of rectifying this would be to insert a hyphen between 'Functional' and 'Discourse'.

The structure of the article is as follows. Section 2 assesses Mackenzie's (2020) arguments, reflecting the standard FDG position laid down in Hengeveld & Mackenzie (2008), for rejecting the idea that FDG can or even could be characterized as a 'grammar of discourse'; it also discusses Mackenzie's (2014) application of certain parts of the standard model to analyzing an authentic interactive dialogue. Section 3 puts forward the present author's conception of the dimension 'discourse', contrasting it with Mackenzie's (2020). Section 4 evokes three areas (degrees of activation of referents in the flow of discourse, sense-selection and the role of the lexicon, and adjectival modification and context) where recourse to discourse factors is arguably necessary; while section 5 proposes various outline revisions to the model, particularly in regard to its possible dovetailing with a Context-driven model of the use of language and other resources for communication in context. This would make it possible to take the discourse dimension fully into account. Section 6 draws together the various strands of argument put forward in sections 2-5 and adumbrates certain conclusions.

2. Mackenzie's (2020) arguments for excluding the dimension 'discourse' from the purview of the FDG model

2.1 The standard model of FDG

Mackenzie does not deny the potential relevance of discourse factors for the formalization of grammatical phenomena within the FDG model. Indeed, he makes a good case for some of the ways in which they operate strategically in any instance of communication between humans. What he stresses throughout is that these are not hard and fast rules, unlike those operating in terms of the purely linguistic expressions which may realize a Discourse Act. They are merely 'tendencies', which are in principle defeasible (i.e. revisable). As in Hengeveld & Mackenzie (2008: 25), he supports the position adopted by Dik (1997b: 409) that the model of the clause in Functional Grammar, and of the Discourse Act in its successor, Functional Discourse Grammar, should be integrated with a wider model of verbal interaction. Such a model would in principle take full account of the discoursal and contextual aspects which Mackenzie is arguing should not form part of the core model of FDG. Section 5 outlines some suggestions in this regard.

FDG is a modular functional—typological theory of language structure. It has two major objectives: to put in place a typologically comprehensive model of grammar (including pragmatics, semantics – both to a restricted degree –, morphology, syntax, phonology – including prosody); and to characterize the potential expressions of any given language in terms of the Discourse Acts which they may express, in relation to the speaker's perspective, though in abstraction from any actual language use. That is, in forming and formulating a communicative intention, specifying it pragmatically, semantically, morpho-syntactically and phonologically. The four Components of the overall model (Grammatical, Conceptual, Contextual and Output) and the Levels of the Grammatical component which constitutes FDG as such (Interpersonal [pragmatic] (IL), Representational [semantic] (RL), Morphosyntactic (ML) and Phonological (PL)), as well as the choice of Discourse Act at the Interpersonal Level by a Speaker as the basic construct from which all else flows, are all simply tools that serve this basic function. Thus it is the first of the two objectives indicated above that is central, the second being instrumental to it.

The Contextual (henceforth Contx.Cpt) and the Conceptual (Conc.Cpt) components, operate, for the first, at each Level in the process of characterizing a particular expression, and for the second, at the initial stage of the formation of a particular expression in a given language – i.e. its particular characterization acts as input to the two Levels that constitute 'Formulation', namely the IL and the RL.

The Contx.Cpt is closely interconnected to the operation of each Level of the core grammatical module. Moreover, it is restricted to containing only contextual information that is deemed relevant linguistically, including information that is non-linguistic, but grammatically-relevant. This relates for example to certain aspects of the social relationships holding between the interlocutors that are connected with the context of utterance.² The role of this component is to provide a record of the preceding Discourse Acts represented in terms of their linguistic expression, as specified at each of the Levels recognized in the grammatical module. The restriction only to aspects of the context of a given utterance which systematically influence the form of an element means that those aspects of that context which are relevant as far as the interpretation, but not the form, of the incoming utterance is concerned do not find themselves represented within the component's records of previous utterances.

As for the Conc.Cpt, this is intended to contain representations of the (virtual) speaker's communicative intentions in realizing his/her Discourse Act, as well as relevant conceptual and world-knowledge information – but again, with the specific constraint that this information should fulfil a systematic role in the selection and specification of given language forms to express a particular Discourse Act. So the Conc.Cpt provides the starting point in the progressive formation of a language expression at each of the four core Levels.

In Mackenzie's words (2020: 76),

(...) a defining principle of FDG is that elements are specified in the analysis only if they have some consequences for the form in which a discourse act is expressed. Clearly, every A₁ [the FDG variable symbol for a Discourse Act] contains an illocution defining the type of speech act to be encoded (distinguished in morphosyntactic and/or phonological structure), and no A₁ lacks at least some communicated content.

Just prior to this, he states that 'the discourse act (symbolized as A_1) is the central concept of the interpersonal Level of analysis within FDG. The inner structure of A_1 contains four elements (...):

An indication of the type of Illocution (F_1) A variable identifying the Speaker $(P_1)_S$ A variable identifying the Addressee $(P_2)_A$ The Communicated Content (C_1) '

Let us look more closely at the four defining principles that are claimed to lie behind the Discourse Act in FDG, the construct upon which the machinery of the core grammar operates to terminate eventually in a language expression.

First, the 'indication of the type of illocution'. It is clear that a discourse act, in its usual sense, carries a type of illocution, which is what essentially characterizes it: a promise, a warning, an order, a request, and so on. However, this is not what is understood by 'Illocution' in an FDG derivation. See Hengeveld & Mackenzie (2008: 68-84) on the way in which this dimension is handled in FDG. What is of primary interest to the model is the

[.]

² As with the FDG conception of 'Illocution' (see below), the Speaker and Addressee are represented as variables whose presence is simply to allow them to be set for values realised by grammatical factors: the Addressee is marked either for the familiar variant ('T') or the polite, distal one ('V') in languages which recognize the 'T/V' distinction for coding addressees. Another value is that of the Speaker's sex, again where languages (such as French or Spanish) recognize such a distinction grammatically (e.g. French 'Je suis heureux (m.)' for a male speaker, vs. 'je suis heureuse (f.)' for a female one, for 'I am happy').

linguistic realization of a restricted set of illocutions, namely those relating to performative verbs, certain interjections, and 'abstract' illocutionary predicates in the shape of the grammatical moods (see (1) below for the latter). An abstract illocution is said to be an 'implicit performative' (p. 70), with the participants in the communication at issue normally remaining implicit too. Only those 'abstract illocutionary primitives' whose grammatical form is recognized by a given language are retained by the model. To this end, the six grammatical moods recognized for English are as follows.

(1) Declarative (DECL): 'the Speaker informs the Addressee of the Propositional Content evoked by the Communicated Content' (p. 71)

Interrogative (INTER): 'the Speaker requests the Addressee's response to the Propositional Content evoked by the Communicated Content' (p. 71)

Imperative (IMPER): 'The Speaker directs the Addressee to carry out the action evoked by the Communicated Content' (p. 71)

Optative (OPT): 'The Speaker indicates to the Addressee his/her wish that the positive situation evoked by the Communicative Context should come about' (p. 71)

Hortative (HORT): 'The Speaker encourages himself or an addressee together with himself to carry out the action evoked by the Communicative Context' (p. 72)

Mirative (MIR): 'The Speaker expresses his surprise about the Propositional Content evoked by the Communicated Content' (p. 72)

Revealingly, Hengeveld & Mackenzie (2008: 70) refer approvingly to 'Illocution' in their sense as '...often called sentence type'. However, as is well known, in general there is no one-to-one correlation between types of mood and types of illocution, as the authors also recognize (cf. 2008: 68).³ Also of course, illocutions may well be realized via expressions other than the grammatical moods, performative verbs or certain interjections, even via intonation alone. So the term 'illocution' is something of a misnomer here, it would seem.⁴ This also has implications for the characterization of speaker and addressee, as we shall see.

The contents of the six mood types specified in (1) are very general types of meaning value, as befits grammatical meanings, as here. As a result, it is surely rare that only these will be retained in context by an understander. Moreover, each mood type may give rise to a variety of other illocution types in context.⁵ Mey (2020: 86) characterizes such acts based on speaker's intentions, as in the classical definition of 'speech acts', as "egocentric' acts, originating in, and oriented toward a single speaker/hearer (in acts that are not just of speech) ...vs. pluricentric acts, involving several interactants.'

Now, a discourse act as generally understood is carried out by a speaker in relation to at least one addressee in some particular context in order to achieve a communicative goal, where, as in Mey's (2020: 86) characterization (cf. also Witek, 2015), the addressee in fact has a crucial pro-active role to play in its successful realization. Hansen & Terkourafi (2023) give as example the case of bets, where the nature of the addressee's uptake (see Sbisà 2009)

³ See Witek (2015) for a detailed discussion of how illocutions operate in interactive discourse.

See also the point made in this respect in §2.2.

⁵ See Eesa & Nayyef (2012) for a method of characterizing what they call 'primary' (i.e. indirect or implicit) illocutions within the standard FDG illocution frames, by involving both the Conc.Cpt and the Contx. Components within them for this very purpose. The Conc.Cpt is mobilized for characterizing the basic ("secondary") illocution derived from the mood of the clause at issue, while the Contx.Cpt is harnessed to specify the "primary", indirect illocution conventionally associated with it. However, given that no complementary model of the wider utterance context, such as that outlined in §5 below, is available to motivate the particular indirect illocution in question, it is not at all clear how the latter is to be derived.

has a major effect on the type of illocution at issue (either as a 'bet' if the latter commits to the speaker's proposal, or just as a prediction, if no overt uptake is forthcoming):

(2) A. I bet you £50 we'll have a general election before the end of the year. – B. You're on. (Hansen & Terkourafi 2023: 102, ex. (6))

Clearly, as a default, there will be a particular speaker and an addressee involved, in the context of the prototypical case of a spoken face-to-face interaction. However, although in FDG there are in principle variables for Speaker and Addressee made available at the IL, these are merely...variables. There is no actual speaker and no actual addressee to take part in the Discourse Act at issue (see also note 2).

This is surely important for a functionalist model such as FDG that takes the Discourse Act as its starting point. For if the crucial feature corresponding to a particular illocution, as this term is generally understood in linguistics, is taken into account as a key aspect of such an act, then according to the particular type of illocution selected, the relationship between speaker and addressee will change. An order, for example, places the speaker at an advantage with regard to the addressee, who, according to the degree of authority vested in the speaker, may have no choice but to carry out the action ordered. But in the case of a request, the roles are reversed, in the sense that it is the addressee who has the choice to grant or not grant what is being requested. In the case of a warning, the speaker has an advantage, yet tacitly eschews any responsibility for the addressee's ignoring it (Sbisà 2009: 45); and the addressee, also unlike with a canonical order, has a degree of leeway either to conform to the warning in question, or not (see (3) in §2.2 for illustration). With a promise, it is the addressee who clearly assumes the advantage, the speaker committing him/herself to the course of action or object promised.

However, none of these types of psycho-socially relevant relationships may be represented at the IL, since the actual illocution associated with a Discourse Act, which can effectively only be characterized when the full communicative context of a given utterance is made available, is not represented there. A further important feature needing to be potentially assigned to the speaker (or to a reported speaker in the case of an indirect speech occurrence) is the source of the point of view being expressed in any given utterance.⁶

Finally, within the Communicated Content, the potential sub-acts of Reference and Predication ('Ascription') are once again represented by variables (respectively R_1 and T_1).

Regarding the indexed symbol 'R₁' that occurs in Interpersonal representations in the model, this variable (like those used for Speaker and Addressee) in no way involves a representation of an actual referent: it is only present in IL schemas as a placeholder for a Subact of Reference, in order to allow a potential predicate expression (verb, adjective etc.) to ascribe a property to it, in accordance with the particular expression yielded at the Output stage in a derivation. The content of a still only 'virtual' referent at this level is fleshed out at the RL. This may be individual, set, generic or variable, as well as assuming a variety of ontological statuses: physical object, eventive (i.e. an action, an activity or a state) or conceptual, for example. Again, such entities may only be properly represented in a fully worked-out discourse representation which takes into account the kinds of textual, contextual as well as discourse features outlined in §§3-5 below.

Thus there is a fundamental ambivalence in the way the model is structured (cf. Butler 2013, Cornish 2013): it is said to parallel, but only in abstract, theoretical terms (from the perspective of the analyst, not of a speaker *per se*), the stages gone through by a speaker of a

⁶ Cf. Dancygier (2017) on viewpoint and its functioning in discourse.

language, as we have seen. Indeed, the architects of the model are at pains to stress that the model is **not** a model of the speaker *per se*, rather a device for accounting for the properties of language expressions (potentially within any natural language) within a functional-typological framework. So in effect, it is a model of grammar, not of language (cf. Butler 2013: 27), as can also be deduced from the very title of Hengeveld & Mackenzie (2008): Functional Discourse Grammar: A typologically-based theory of language structure. Thus the outputs of the core model are expression types, rather than tokens. Hence here is a tension between the dual concerns of characterizing the language system and the demands made on it by the use of its resources in actual communication in context. The terms and notions used by the model (the abstract and indirect modelling of the grammar as a function of the stages a Speaker is claimed to go through in forming a communicative intention, fleshing it out and subsequently expressing it, 'discourse', 'Discourse Act', 'illocution', the participants involved in a DA ('Speaker' and 'Addressee'), and the 'Subacts' of 'Reference' and 'Ascription' within the 'Communicated Content) all strongly suggest that we are dealing with the use of language in context; however, this is not at all the case, in fact: for the overriding purpose of the model, as already mentioned, is to characterize the range of language expressions potentially existing in every language of the world. It is here that the FDG model's basic ambivalence lies.

Now, on the one hand, it is certainly true that a model purporting to characterize the multifarious expressions in the languages of the world could never take into account in a systematic manner the whole, vast range of factors associated with the conceptualization of the meanings of those expressions and their contextualization, as Mackenzie rightly claims. But on the other, this is in a sense something of a 'straw man': for it is nonetheless true, more restrictively, that it is still the case that there is a much greater variety of ways in which types of context may impinge on the meaning and communicative function of these resources than those recognized by the model (cf. in particular, Butler 2013). And it is here that the model needs to take on board the influences that such ways have on the forms, conceived as resources for communication, made available for the participants in any communicative event. See section 5 below for some outline suggestions in this regard.

2.2. An application of the FDG model to instances of actual language use in context

Mackenzie (2014) analyses a series of recorded oral interactions drawn from Eggins & Slade (2005) between a young Australian man, Brad, and his parents, Fran and Dave. At the outset, he maintains that Fran's turn 2 in extract (2) (p. 260), i.e. 'Does he?' in response to Brad's previous utterance 'He plays the double bass', should arguably not be characterized as an Interrogative Illocution, since it counts as a 'backchannel, although formally interrogative' (p. 261). This characterization, via the use of the term 'Interrogative Illocution', is likely to be misleading for a reader unfamiliar with either FG or FDG. For it reflects these models' conception of illocution as being in one sense a property of the grammatical moods: see (1) in §2.1 above. The mood is certainly 'interrogative' in this instance, but the way the speaker intends it in relation to the preceding discourse has a different value (see the relevant discussion above in §2.1): requesting confirmation of what has just been said, rather than hearer-new information as such. This instance would seem to be analogous to what is going on in example (3):

(3) [Printed sticker on rear window of cars in UK] *Mind that child! He may be deaf*

.

⁷ See Levelt (1989) for an authoritative psycho-cognitive account of the speaker.

Here the initial clause *Mind that child!* is imperative in terms of grammatical mood, but its illocutionary import in context amounts to a warning rather than an 'order' etc. Hence, as already pointed out, it is misleading to seek to specify the 'illocution' chiefly in terms of given sentence types within a Discourse Act: after all, the principal linguistic correlate of this pragmatic value, which is all that the core FDG model is intended to capture, is the grammatical mood at issue: the actual 'illocution' with which it may be associated is only invokable when the utterance is associated with a relevant discourse context; and this of course will inevitably involve an interlocutor or an anticipated reader (in the case of the written message in (3)).

In conformity with FDG's founding principle, Mackenzie's interest in analysing these dialogic extracts lies in their purely formal aspects, such as priming, ellipses, repetitions and so on, which operate on the record of previous utterances made by the Contx.Cpt. The author insists throughout on the usefulness of FDG's Contx.Cpt in providing a record of the preceding co-text in dialogues such as these, in the sense that it enables the model to capture these kinds of features. But retaining only these formal features in a dialogue, and excluding any characterization of the upshot or point of such features in terms of the interaction at issue, is to cover only part of the process – though of course this latter concern is beyond the model's stated scope. See Haselow (2017) in particular for an in-depth analysis of how such formal features and many others actually serve users' motivations in engaging in spoken interactive dialogues in English.

Notwithstanding, Mackenzie does pick up a number of important aspects of what is actually going on in these exchanges —i.e. what I would argue should come under the heading of 'discourse', in the present sense: see §3. Yet none of these can possibly be captured within the FDG model as currently constituted, since it only takes into account aspects that relate systematically to language structure and form. In connection with the extract in (10) (pp. 264-265) (reproduced below as (4)), he writes (p. 265) that 'The temporary failure to communicate does not undermine the process of mutual alignment and does not jeopardize the continuance of the conversation; rather the entire incident passes unnoticed and uncommented'.

```
298
                              When are you gonna do...all your odds 'n sods subjects?
             (4)
                   20 Dave
299
                   21 Brad
                              Whaddya mean 'odds 'n sods subjects'?
300
                   22 Dave
                              Well, y'know, you can't just do languages can you?
                              Whaddya talking about?
301
                   23 Brad
302
                   24 Dave
                              (i) If you're going to do an Arts degree
303
                              (ii) You got a lot of other garbage to do
304
                   25 Brad
                              (i) No
305
                              (ii) I
306
                              (iii) If I wanted to
307
                              (iv) I could do French, German and Russian...
308
309
310
                   31 Brad
                              (i) In an Arts degree
                              (ii) As long as you do...a few General Studies subjects
311
312
                   32 Dave
                              (i) That's what I mean
                              (ii) And when are you gonna do your General Studies? (Extract (10) from
313
                              Eggins & Slade 2005: 67-71 cited by Mackenzie 2014: 264-5)
314
315
```

But this does not in fact seem to characterize what is going on in this extract. Mackenzie mentioned earlier (p. 265) that both Brad and Dave are 'using egocentric processing', a feature which the author endorses elsewhere in the article: see his comment on p. 260 that 'egocentric processing is partner-adjusted processing'. However, see Dickinson & Givón (2000: 163) on the incorrectness of such a claim: 'The curious fiction that some forms of

human discourse are not hearer-oriented is just that: fiction.' For in reality, it is surely precisely 'egocentric processing' that is the source of the difficulties in understanding each other that is clearly evident here, as elsewhere in the transcript of the full recording given at the end of Mackenzie's article.

Dave's initial question in turn 20 in (4) refers indirectly to the ancillary or subsidiary University subjects which his son Brad will inevitably be taking in addition to his main degree one(s) as 'odds 'n sods subjects'. However, he does not take Brad's question about what he means by this expression as relating to what exactly is intended; but, still referring indirectly to the referent at issue dismissively as 'other garbage', rather as insisting that he (Brad) would not in fact be obliged to register for such subjects at all (hence Dave's turn 22). So the misunderstanding evident from Dave's initial question in fact gives rise to yet another misunderstanding from Brad's initial answer. It is not until Brad refers to the notions at issue in turn 31(ii) in saying 'As long as you do... a few General Studies subjects' that Dave realizes his son has hit on what it was he wanted to ask him about, and confirms this interpretation.

At a more general level, it would seem that Brad's parents have continual difficulties in fully understanding what their son is saying throughout the extracts given, for two basic reasons. First, Brad's often incoherent, inexplicit, fragmentary mode of expressing himself, and second, his parents' relative unfamiliarity with the University courses he mentions. So it is not at all unexpected that there would be so many communicative breakdowns throughout. For the record, these occur in extracts (7) (p. 263), (8) (p. 264) and (10) (pp. 264-5: ex. (4) above). Here, the communicative difficulty raised by Brad in turn 21 with regard to Dave's unclear question in turn 20 is not totally cleared up until Dave's turn 32 ('That's what I mean'), i.e. after fully 10 intervening turns. The complete transcript at the end of the article shows yet another such hitch, in turns 12-13 (p. 267). So all these **are** in fact 'jeopardizing the continuance of the conversation', and are not 'incident[s] pass[ing] unnoticed', even though they are indeed 'uncommented'.

See e.g. Jefferson (2017) for a large number of attested examples of communicative errors, disfluencies and hitches of different sorts in extracts from unplanned American English dialogic speech, and the ways in which the speakers and/or their interlocutors repaired them.

3. What exactly is 'discourse'?

3.1 Defining discourse

Mackenzie (2020: 76) gives the following characterization of the dimension 'discourse':

...discourse is seen as actional in nature, the result of one human being's expenditure of energy in an effort to communicate thoughts, feelings, requests, warnings, etc. to other human beings. This overall activity is divided into discourse acts: many are expressed as clauses, but they may just as well show up as a non-clausal succession of phrases, a single phrase, a single word or a combination of clauses.

The attribute 'actional' (or 'dynamic') in connection with 'discourse' is entirely accurate, as is the claim that discourse is the result of participants' efforts to communicate a variety of feelings and ideas to others. But this characterization omits the crucial factor of the contribution of the 'other human beings' (i.e. addressee(s)) in this activity. That is, discourse

is the result of a **co**-construction (see Haugh 2010), rather than simply involving a one-way transfer from speaker to addressee(s).⁸

Hence the definition clearly needs expanding and refining. In the present sense, discourse is the situated, ever-evolving, revisable interpretation of a particular communicative event, which is jointly constructed mentally by the discourse participants as the text and a relevant context are perceived and evoked, respectively. This interpretation will subsequently be converted into an overall mental representation, capable of being stored in long-term memory (see also Langacker's 2001: 180 comparable notion of 'consolidation', as well as Dickinson & Givón 2000: 159 and Dik 1997b: 213-214). See Cornish (2022) for further details of this conception. The characterizations given in Langacker (2001), as well as Van Dijk (2008), correspond closely to the present conception of discourse, as outlined above.

Discourse is created by the co-participants in a communicative event initially by contextualizing the incoming utterance, using a variety of contextual cues for this purpose: 10 not only the text of the utterances, conceived broadly to include prosody and paralinguistic as well as gestural signals in the spoken medium, and punctuation, underlines, italics, boldface as well as text layout in the written: see the second quotation from Van Dijk (2008: 116), given in note 9; but also features of the context of utterance, the occasion of the communicative event, the preceding co-text as well as the discourse already constructed, the domain of reference involved in the exchange, the ever-evolving relationship between the discourse partners, and so on. A short written informative newspaper text illustrates:

(5) Business groups brand UK's quarantine plan for arrivals 'isolationist'

(...) From 8 June, almost everyone arriving at ports and airports, including UK citizens, will be required to travel directly to an address they provide to the authorities, where they must then self-isolate for a fortnight. The French interior ministry expressed its 'regret' that it would not be exempt from the quarantine plan, after assurances this month that the country would be. (The Guardian On-Line, 22/05/20)

First of all, the year in which the date 8th June is relevant is of course the year of publication by this edition of *The Guardian On-Line*, namely 2020. Given the source of this extract, it will be understood that the 'ports and airports' referred to in line 1 are British ones. The restriction to 'almost everyone' in line 1 clearly implies that there will be certain exemptions from the new ruling, which is indeed the case, as a companion article in the same edition states. The phrase in apposition in line 1 'including UK citizens' is added since British citizens reading this short text may well feel prior to this point that the restriction in question would apply only to **non**-UK citizens; thus that they themselves would not be concerned by the new ruling. In fact, this phrase refers to members of the British armed forces, medical specialists and so on. The journalist has anticipated this possible misinterpretation, and hence has rectified it.

⁸ As Mey (2020: 92) expresses it, '...A <u>dis</u>-course deserving of its name is based on interaction (...). The prefix in 'discourse' is rather like the Latin 'dis-', when conveying a sense of 'to and fro', 'back and forth', of 'going over' a topic in various separate moves in order to shed light on the latter from many different angles.'

⁹ Van Dijk's conception of discourse is 'any form of language use manifested as (written) text or (spoken) talk-in-interaction, in a broad semiotic sense' (2008: 116). He goes on to write 'This includes visual structures, such as layout, letter type or pictures for writers of printed text, and gestures, facework and other semiotic signs for spoken interaction'.

¹⁶ See also Taylor (2012: 155) who argues that 'compositionality' of complex expressions occurs in understanding, not in terms of the 'stored meanings of the constituent words', but rather in terms of their 'contextualized readings'. This is also the case, Taylor claims, as far as the entailments and presuppositions derived from the expression are concerned.

The 'address they [i.e. travelers arriving at a UK port or airport on or after 8th June 2020] provide to the authorities' [in this case, certainly, the UK Immigration Office] will also be assumed necessarily to be somewhere within the UK. The pronoun *it* in line 4 would seem at first sight to refer back to 'the French Interior Ministry'. However, this interpretation would clearly result in an incoherent discourse segment, since this institution could not be understood as 'potentially travelling to the UK after 08/06/20'. It must be read as referring metonymically to France, in particular, the French citizens travelling to the UK whom the ministry concerned is designed to protect; and indeed, this interpretation is confirmed by the more explicit anadeictic¹¹ reference of the definite NP *the country* [i.e. 'France'] in line 5, also a metonymic reference.

The 'assurances' given prior to the announcement of the starting date for self-isolation by travelers will be assumed to have been made by the UK government. Furthermore, these may be inferred as having been given in May 2020: cf. the occurrence of the deictic NP *this month*, i.e. the month in which the edition containing the article appeared.

The title of the article ('Business groups brand UK's quarantine plan for arrivals "isolationist") will be interpreted as giving rise to what Relevance theorists term a 'higher-level explicature', relating to what the reader will understand had motivated the source of the claim in making it: namely, that an 'isolationalist' move corresponding to the government's quarantine plan would inevitably mean fewer business, tourist and other travelers to Britain, the majority being put off by this somewhat draconian decision at what is the highpoint of the holiday season; hence there would be fewer opportunities for 'business groups' to profit from their trade. Note also the difference in viewpoint associated with this title, in relation to the primary one expressed in the text proper: namely that of the UK government of the time.

It is clear from this analysis that texts, even carefully elaborated written ones, underdetermine the discourse that may be derived from them, together with the invocation of a relevant context. The many inferences drawn by the reader of (5) serve to 'fill in' the gaps (incomplete connections) left by the journalist. Such inferences are often drawn on the basis of the recipient's knowledge of the world and the culture and communicative conventions (in particular, genre-based ones) which the language used assumes. Contextualization also involves selecting for given lexemes the sense which fits most coherently with the prevailing context, where there are several possible ones, ¹² setting the value of modal auxiliaries, invoking the most likely illocution associated with the utterance, and of course resolving any indexical expressions.

The majority of these expansions correspond to what are termed 'explicatures' in Relevance Theory. An explicature in RT is a context-derived interpretation establishing the full proposition expressed by an utterance: e.g. by resolving ellipses and other indexical markers, carrying out disambiguations, invoking the unexpressed actors involved in the state of affairs at issue, situating the event evoked in both time and space, and so on. Once established, the explicatures can serve as premises for the drawing of implicatures: see

¹¹ An anadeictic reference involves a hybrid of deictic and anaphoric values, in various different proportions according to the particular use. It is used prototypically for indexical retrievals of referents which were previously topical and salient, but whose topicality has faded at the point of use, or which have only just been introduced into a discourse and are not yet topical and salient. Examples are *that child* in (3), a 'recognitional' anadeictic occurrence, *that* in Dave's turn 32(i) in (4), and *the country* in (5) (line 5).

¹² See Levelt (1989: Ch. 6) on the lemmas associated with given lexemes: a lemma comprises the semantic and syntactic properties of a given lexeme, minus its phonological ones. The choice of a given lemma by speaker/writer as well as addressee/reader is crucial in the construction of a discourse representation based on a text and a relevant context. In (3), for example, the transitive verb *mind* will be understood as meaning 'watch out for' or 'pay attention to', rather than 'look after' (as in the phrase *child-minding*), or 'be disturbed by', as in 'Would you mind if I smoked?'. This is yet another instance of an explicature (cf. Carston & Hall 2012: 60-62).

Carston & Hall (2012) for the distinction. The interpretation (i.e. the discourse) which the understander constructs is clearly constrained by the principle of coherence, as we have seen.

3.2 Discourse: structure-building aspects

Regarding discourse-internal structure, once the incoming utterance has been appropriately contextualized, the resulting construct will be converted into a discourse unit. What then needs to occur is its integration with the discourse already constructed upstream of the current utterance, i.e. the creation of a higher-level discourse unit. It is here that the principle of coherence comes into play, based on the nature of what is predicated of particular entities, the event structure involved, and other such factors (see §5 for further details). Discourse is conceived mentally and is hierarchically structured (cf. e.g. Parisi & Castelfranchi 1977), unlike text, which, at the initial stage of processing, is arguably purely linear, being the physical trace left by a speaker for the recipient to interpret the former's communicative intentions: see Cornish (2022) for this claim.

To illustrate, in (3), it is the first discourse unit, corresponding to the initial sentence, that constitutes the central unit, constituting a warning to motorists. The second discourse unit is a discursively dependent one, despite its main clause status as a unit of text. Witness the presence in subject position of a 3rd person pronoun, picking up the variable representation of one type of child pedestrian introduced by the first discourse unit. This representation is further narrowed to a type of deaf child, implied as being potentially incautious (as a function of his/her deafness) regarding the oncoming traffic. This unit will be integrated with the first in terms of the relation *Explanation*, overlain by *Justification*.

In (4), Dave's utterance in turn 22 will be integrated as a discourse unit with his previous question in turn 20, presupposing that his son Brad will inevitably have to take certain ancillary subjects ('odds 'n sods subjects') at his University. This integration will again occur in terms of an *Explanation* relation overlain with a *Justification* one — given Brad's evident indication in turn 21 that he cannot understand what his father meant by 'odds 'n sods subjects'. The discourse unit corresponding to turn 22 is thus the dependent one, that correlating with turn 20 being the central one.

Finally, in (5), the complex modifying PP introduced by *after* in the second sentence will be integrated discursively with the unit corresponding to the first clause of the second sentence in terms of a *Concession* relation. Here there is a mismatch between the textual and the discourse ordering: for the dependent discourse unit corresponding to the subsequently occurring PP will precede discursively the unit correlating with the prior textual constituent, i.e. the first clause of the second sentence of this short text: ALTHOUGH X, NONETHELESS Y, where X corresponds (informally) to 'The UK government gave the French government assurances in May 2020 that travelers entering the UK from France as from 08/06/20 would be exempt from the new restrictions on entry to the UK'; and Y to 'Travelers from France were in fact affected by the entry restrictions post-08/06/20'.

In terms of the broader structure of discourse, Mackenzie (2020: 79), for his part, briefly evokes Dik's (1997b: 424-5; 430-431) reporting in general terms the structure of two types of discourse: namely, the abstract structures of a job interview (see (12) in Dik 1997b: 424) and of an oral narrative (see (20), p. 431). The first type, Mackenzie dismisses as merely an administrative convenience in order to avoid the interview turning into a kind of 'stream-of-consciousness' series of digressions on the part of the interviewee, and nothing more than this. The second is criticized for being purely *ad hoc*, with no claim attached to it as ruling in permissible structures and excluding impermissible ones: i.e. it would have no pretention to being a formal model of discourse, analogous to a canonical grammar of a language.

Regarding the job interview structure cited by Dik (1997b) from Komter (1987, 1990), on p. 425 the former reports the latter as stating that the type of structure presented as (12) (p. 424) 'is a recurrent pattern in a great variety of job interviews', is therefore 'not simply an observer's artefact', and is 'continuously reflected in the actual behaviour of the participants'. So such structures would indeed seem to bear a degree of psychological reality for the subjects involved. Mackenzie's dismissal of such analyses as being theoretically unsubstantiated would seem in fact to have no force: after all, discourse is not a strictly rule-governed, formal phenomenon; rather, it is essentially a defeasible (i.e. revisable) process involving decisions based on defaults which may or may not turn out to be grounded. See also Parisi & Castelfranchi's (1977: 66) point that 'Much of the structure of discourse (...) remains implicit and cannot be directly observed'. This important property clearly rules out the possibility of discourse ever being characterized in terms of a 'grammar of discourse'.

Notwithstanding, at the end of his insightful chapter 18 on discourse (1997b: 441), Dik claims that 'FG should ultimately develop into (...) [a grammatical] model [that takes entire discourses rather than clauses into account as its input]'. But this highly ambitious project, rejected for FDG by the model's architects, as we have seen, can only be envisaged in terms of its being dovetailed with the clause-based (FG) or Discourse-Act-grounded (FDG) grammar model, but not incorporated **within** either of the latter, as Dik is implying for FG; rather, conceived as a separate, Context-driven model in complementarity with the core, pattern one. See §5 for an outline of some suggestions in this regard.

4. Areas where a discourse dimension is arguably needed

Three such areas are the relative degrees of activation of referents in the flow of discourse, sense selection and the role of the lexicon, and adjectival modification and context.

4.1 Relative degrees of referent activation

Regarding the first area, as an integral part of the construction of a developing discourse representation, there should be a device that assigns and re-assigns, as the discourse unfolds, particular saliency or activation levels to each of the referents evoked in the discourse. This requirement is covered, in large part, by the 'Update', 'Embark', 'Retrieve' and 'Differentiate' functions, in addition to the concept of 'Standpoint', posited by Connolly (2018: 12-13) as developments of the Conceptual component.

As for FDG's Contextual Component, see Hengeveld & Mackenzie (2014) on the way this is claimed to function. As each incoming clause is represented at the four core Grammatical Levels, these representations are copied within the Contextual Component in stacked form in terms of the order of occurrence of their exponent expressions. The claim is that this purely linear relationship, by having each individual referent's saliency level 'supplanted' by a more recently-introduced entity, models the latter's relative degree of saliency. However, by being retrieved anaphorically via an attenuated indexical expression, a given referent's previous saliency level is maintained.

Yet this purely quantitative, co-textual method, based solely on the order of mention of the referents involved, does not always accurately predict the actual cognitive centrality of referents at the point of retrieval. For this, it is necessary to take discourse considerations into account: see §3 and Cornish (2022: 99-101) for details. Examples (6)-(8) show that the FDG procedure would make unfounded or misleading predictions regarding the interpretations in context of the indexical expressions therein:

 (6) We've grown used to Cameron being the smartest person on screen, but there's a real danger here of him being outwitted by a Banksy-style street artist with whom he has past beef. This mysterious man with an aerosol can once dissed the magician in a very public way (...). (ex. (4), Cornish 2022: 96: Synopsis of an episode in the TV series 'Alibi', Radio Times 14-20.08.21, p. 101)

In (6), it is because the proximal demonstrative NP at the start of the second sentence specifically switches the discourse spotlight onto the second-mentioned referent that it receives local salience, and not simply because this entity is more recently mentioned *per se*. The local topic entity then is, temporarily, Cameron's rival, the street artist. It is this discourse-related factor that confers a provisionally higher saliency level onto the latter than to the former.

(7) A militant Palestinian splinter group, the Islamic Army, has demanded that Britain release a Muslim cleric in return for the freedom of BBC reporter Alan Johnston. He was kidnapped on March 12. (ex. (5), Cornish 2022: 96: Article 'Militants want cleric freed', Guardian Weekly, 18/05/07, p. 2))

 Here, a pronoun is used in line 3 to retrieve the second-mentioned of the two male humans evoked; and yet, for the reasons given in Cornish (2022: 96-7), the resulting discourse is infelicitous (i.e. locally incoherent). This is so since its intended referent is manifestly not yet salient at the point of the attempted retrieval, despite its having been second-mentioned: for the predication on Alan Johnston constitutes in discourse terms a background comment on the latter. It clearly does not continue the main line of the discourse, dealing with the Muslim cleric then held in custody in the UK. It is this factor which has made it unnatural to refer back to AJ via a pronoun, as opposed to using a definite NP.

Finally, in (8),

(8) Enver [father of artist Tracey Emin] went bankrupt and left when she was seven, and she squatted with her mother Pam and twin Paul in a staff cottage. 'Mum crept into the hotel to steal lead piping to sell so we could eat.' She disliked school and was not happy – a useful incubator for creativity... (ex. (7), Cornish 2022: 98. Interview with T. Emin, Radio Times 18-24/08/01, p. 32)

 the referent 'TE's mother' is second-mentioned in regard to 'Tracey Emin'; and yet the pronoun *she*, subject of the final sentence, could in no way be interpreted as referring back to the former of the two female referents. For the quotation in the second sentence by the subject of the interview, Tracey Emin, interrupts the main line of this expository discourse. Once the parenthetical is complete, it is 'closed down', in discourse terms, and the pronoun *she* in the unit-continuing sentence that follows can only refer back to TE. So again, TE's mother being second-mentioned here cannot be seen as *ipso facto* conferring relatively higher saliency to it than to the previously mentioned one.¹³

4.2 Sense selection and the role of the lexicon

As regards the question of sense-selection and the role of the lexicon, as suggested in §3 (see notes 10 and 12), for the purposes of discourse construction, the operation of Formulation in

¹³ See also the critical remarks in Cornish (2013: 91-3) on FDG's accounts of the operation of 'phoric' and 'deictic' uses of pronouns and demonstratives.

FDG (the output of the IL and RL representations) needs to be guided at the highest level by the lemmas of given lexemes. This of course implies that the lexicon should be represented at this level, as claimed notably by Butler (2013). In Connolly's (2018: 10-11) development of the Conceptual Component (cf. also Honselaar & Keizer 2009: 1228), it is recognized that "meaning" in FDG is a strictly linguistic phenomenon', rather than being a wholly conceptual one. So the specific sense configurations associated with given lexemes in every language ought to be able to imprint a variety of different perspectives upon the concepts which they point towards (cf. also Carston & Hall 2012: 61, as well as Maienborn 2021: 85-7). Hence the need for a lexicon recording the lemmas of the lexemes of a given language at this level. However, 'meaning definitions' as well as (semantic) selection restrictions are specifically excluded from the Core grammar FDG model (cf. Hengeveld & Mackenzie 2016: 1135).

 In this respect, by contrast, Honselaar & Keizer (2009) is one of the few FDG studies, to my knowledge, which recognize the need to distinguish amongst different senses of given lexemes (cf. also Cornish 2002). The authors analyze three Dutch lexemes, *bekend zijn* 'to be familiar, well known', *behandelen* 'to treat' and *trouwen* 'to marry'. Not only do they rightly distinguish between different, but related, senses of the three lexemes, and give each sense a distinct number in order to differentiate them; but also, they view these distinct senses as prior, each instigating the selection of an appropriate predication frame (PF) from within the Fund¹⁴ (p. 1228).

However, in their actual analyses (see the Tables included in the text, as well as the Appendix), the key information given on these different senses relates not so much to the sense qua sense at issue, but to the possible accompanying arguments and modifiers for each. It is clear that the authors' primary interest lies in how to set up the relevant PFs which these senses would select for eventual expression at the Morphosyntactic Level in an FDG derivation. The distinguishable senses of each lexeme retained are simply presented informally at the head of given PFs. No attempt is made, for example, to adopt Dik's (1978) 'Stepwise Lexical Decomposition' method, even though the authors allude to this approach. Obviously, this means that given lexical-semantic units within the definitions are not highlighted, or assigned a structure within the sense at issue. The fact remains, however, that standard FDG still maintains the priority in a derivation of the selection of a relevant PF, followed by the insertion of a given lexeme within it, rather than the reverse. Hence the particular sense of a lexeme selected in context cannot be invoked to motivate the selection of an appropriate PF, thereby justifying the choice semantically. See Norén & Linell (2007) on the more accurate notion of 'meaning potentials' associated with given lexemes, which are modulated, re-construed or re-shaped by users via interactions in context.

See also Cornish (2002) for a proposal to replace the classical Dikian FG predicate frame, the initial structure in an FG clause derivation, by a semantically perspicuous construct similar in some ways to the FDG predication frame (see (10)-(12) in §4.3 for examples of the latter). Such a construct decomposes the internal semantic structure of potential predicates in terms of a hierarchized series of predications formulated in terms of the formers' sub-eventual structures (causation, action, process and state). The semantic functions of the arguments of each component predication are determined via the aspectual nature of the latter; and the particular ontological status of each argument is specified as an integral part of this complex semantic structure (thereby avoiding the need to indicate the relevant selection restrictions as annotations on them). (9) illustrates:

¹⁴ A 'predication frame' in FDG is an abstract structure containing a nucleus and one or more dependents (arguments and/or modifiers). Particular lexemes are inserted at the RL in a derivation into the PF selected, subject to semantic compatibility. The construct 'Fund' is a kind of storehouse providing frames and templates into which lexemes, grammatical morphemes and so on are inserted during the derivation of an expression.

(9) $tear[Vt]: (e_1: [_{ACTION} cause (e_2: [_{EVENT[\alpha control]} act (x_1)]) (e_3*: [_{STATE} be_torn (x_2: <thin flexible material>)])]) (Item (16) in Cornish 2002: 266)^a$

^a The annotation ' α ' for the parameter 'control' on the 'Event' sub-structure is a variable for setting according to whether a given act of tearing is deliberate, accidental or neutral. The asterisk preceding the 'State' sub-eventual structure indicates that this component is profiled; hence, its arguments will correspond to the syntactic expressions selected at the clausal expression level.

These 'semantic predication frames' are able in principle to capture the dynamic construal of predicate-argument configurations, whereby certain semantic types of argument inserted result co-compositionally or via coercion in modifications of the predicator's Aktionsart (lexical-aspectual) status. Such modifications may also occur via the adjunction of Level 1 and even Level 2 satellites (adverbial modifiers). A third type of effect may be produced via the assignment or otherwise of the pragmatic function *Focus* to the syntactic exponent of a predicate, resulting in the singling out of a given part of the latter's semantic structure to act as a predicator.

All these dynamic effects on a predicator and the structures it projects assume a semantically transparent underlying predication structure on which to operate; yet in the standard FG model, as also in the FDG one, no such structure is available either via the FG predicate frame or the FDG predication frame. For in both cases, the predicate which is the basis both of predications and of terms is conceived as a function of the **lexical unit** to which it (in its core or basic sense) corresponds within the object language. Hence, there is no internal semantic structure available within a verbal predicate for the dynamic modifications mentioned above to operate upon.

Arguably, it is the strict separation of meaning definitions (lexical semantics) and predicate or predication frames (semantically-based syntax) within F(D)G, rendering impossible the perspicuous mapping between syntax and semantics, that lies behind the problems raised. See §4.3 for a similar issue confronting the FDG model, in relation to adjectival modification.

4.3 Adjectival modification and context

A final issue, specifically concerning the need for recourse to relevant context for certain types of adjectival modification, is raised through work on the lexicon by García Velasco (henceforth GV) (2022). The author claims that the FDG model's strict separation between linguistic (i.e. conventional) meaning and utterance meaning in context denies it the ability to capture certain semantic changes that may be effected by attributive adjectives in the head nouns they modify. He proposes that a weakening of the principle of compositionality in interrelating the senses of lexemes in complex expressions would be necessary (see also Norén & Linell 2007: 410, n. 27), in order to allow their contextual modulation as a prerequisite for the compositional creation of higher-level meanings: see also the points made in §3 above on the need for prior modulation via context of a lexeme's chosen conventional sense value.

Briefly, the author claims that so-called non-subsective¹⁵ adjectives (see GV 2022: 532-3), which Partee (2007) divides into 'privatives' (e.g. *former*, *fake*) and 'plain non-subsectives' (e.g. *alleged*, an adjective which signifies that the concept denoted by the modified noun may

¹⁵ A 'subsective' adjective, such as *skilful* in combinations such as *skilful surgeon*, denotes a subset of the extension of the head noun. That is, the meaning is 'a person who is skilful **as a** surgeon'. Hence the categorization of this class of adjectives as 'subsective'.

¹⁶ A 'privative' adjective is one which excludes the noun it modifies from the class the noun designates (e.g. a *former friend* is no longer a 'friend', etc.).

or may not hold of the individual the NP as a whole may refer to), alter the denotation of the noun they modify.

This means that, if, as FDG does for *alleged* (as in *an alleged murderer*) and similar adjectives, these are treated as interpersonal modifiers, then what is left at the RL in this case is a description of an individual 'x' as a 'murderer', which is incorrect: see the formalisms given at IL and RL in (9) in GV (2022: 532). After all, this subclass of adjectives clearly has an impact on the denotation of the noun at RL. However, given the strict independence of the IL and the RL in FDG (cf. Hengeveld & Mackenzie 2008: 128-9), an interpersonal modifier such as *alleged* cannot be represented at RL. The author rightly claims that the interpretation of the noun depends on the local context (or co-text), hence it is constructed dynamically.

There are two main issues regarding the necessary recourse to aspects of context raised here: first, the prior need for 'contextual modulation' of a lexeme's conventional sense before compositionality applies; and second, the appeal to relevant context for a proper characterization of privative, subsective and plain non-subsective adjectives. Degree or gradable adjectives should be included here, such as *tall, warm* etc., as does GV; for example, a *tall jockey* and a *tall basketball player* will not manifest the same degree of 'tallness', the standard for each type being a function of users' world knowledge.

Regarding the first issue, the author claims that the notion of 'internal dynamic implementation' of the expression formation process, in terms of the possible types of interrelation between the various Levels of the core FDG model, as well as the 'stepwise' construction of the meaning of a complex expression at RL, would be sufficient to handle it. However, this does not take into account the kinds of context-external factors that we saw operating in fleshing out the text in example (5), in particular (see §3 as a whole on this aspect).

As for the second, see the formalizations reproduced below that are claimed to account, respectively, for the effects of privative, subsective and 'plain non-subsective' adjectival modification on the head noun:

```
(10)^{b}(1x_{i}: [Ant e_{i}: [(f_{i}: neighbour_{N}(f_{i})(e_{i}))]: [(f_{i}: former_{A}(f_{i}))(e_{i})] (x_{i})) (GV 2022:
711
712
                  537, item (13))
                 (11) a. A tall boy (1x_i: [(f_i: boy_N (f_i)) (x_i)]: [(f_i: tall_A (f_i)) (x_i) (x_i)_{Standard}]) (GV 2022:
713
                  538, item (16))
714
715
                  (11) b. A skilful surgeon (1x_i: [(f_i: surgeon_N(f_i): [(f_i: skilful_A(f_i)) (f_k) (f_2)_{Standard}])](x_i))
                  (GV 2022: 539, item (19))
716
717
718
                  (12) (1x_i: [p_i: [(f_i: murderer_N(f_i))(p_i))]: [(f_i: alleged_A(f_i))(p_i)](x_i)) (GV 2022: 540,
719
                  item (24))
```

In all these representations at RL, the effects of the modifications at issue are not demonstrated in terms of the sense combinations involved (cf. §4.2 above); it is simply the bare lexemes involved which are represented here, the effects on the denotation of the head nouns being indicated indirectly as well as abstractly via technical symbols (co-indexed variables) and differential bracketing, familiar from purely syntactic representations. No explicit characterization within a lexical-semantic representation is made available to mark

b The symbols used in these representations are as follows. '1': 'single individual', 'x': 'individual object variable'; 'Ant': 'anterior'; 'e': 'event variable'; 'f': 'predicate variable'; 'p': 'proposition variable'. Subscript letters on lexemes indicate their part of speech category (here 'N' for 'noun', 'A' for 'adjective'). The initially placed predicate in a PF conventionally represents the head of the expression concerned.

the semantico-denotative effects involved. Moreover, the 'standards of comparison' in terms of the 'tallness' of a 'boy' in (11a), and of the 'skilfulness' of a 'surgeon' in (11b) are simply marked by a variable bearing the subscript 'standard', in terms of which the property assigned is to be determined. There is no indication at all as to how these standards are to be invoked in terms of users' knowledge of the world.

5. Proposals for revisions to the FDG model in the light of sections 2-4

Let us now attempt to outline certain proposals for revisions of the model as it stands, as a result of the conclusions from sections 2-4.

What is clearly needed is a 'Context-driven' account to complement the 'pattern-oriented' one, as in the FDG model (cf. Butler 2013: 24). Such an account is provided by Haselow's (2017) in-depth study of spontaneous spoken English from both the speaker's and the recipient's points of view: see in particular his section 5.3 (pp. 219-229). Indeed, such a model is specifically invoked by Dik's (1997a: 4, point (iii)) that

(...) although in itself a theory of linguistic expressions is not the same as a theory of verbal interaction, it is natural to require that it be devised in such a way that it can most easily and realistically be incorporated into a wider pragmatic theory of verbal interaction. (...)

This is precisely the approach which needs to be adopted in order to take discourse into account, in the sense outlined in §3. Such an account must inevitably be rooted in a comprehensive model of the broader utterance context, both verbal and non-verbal, within which the language resources already characterized in the standard FDG grammar are embedded. Thus the output of this larger, more encompassing model would be actual utterance tokens as well as defeasible (i.e. revisable) discourse representations.

As a purely programmatic proposal for revisions of the model to take account of the characterization of discourse in §3, I propose that two of the external Components within the core model, the Conc.Cpt and the Contx.Cpt, be re-conceived, suitably augmented, as integral parts of this process model of the wider utterance context. For this to occur, the Conc.Cpt, like the Contx. one, will need to apply at each Level in the formation of a language expression, at least within the Context model line of derivation. For the purposes of the core FDG grammar model, the various Levels of that model could continue to draw from these components all and only the aspects of conceptualization and context which impact systematically upon the grammatical form of the expressions output, as is currently the case.

These two Components would now be enriched with the kinds of context- and use-relevant properties put forward by Butler (2013), Connolly (2018: 11), García Velasco (2022), Cornish (2013) and others. In particular, the augmented Conc.Cpt would include an encyclopedia, reflecting the general world knowledge exploited in language production and reception, and an ontology: see Butler (2012) for an FDG-compatible proposal regarding the latter. Both of these are in fact represented in Connolly's (2018) proposal for the incorporation of Construal within the existing Conc.Cpt. An appropriate lexicon should also be included alongside the set of lexemes in the Fund (cf. Figure 2 in Hengeveld & Mackenzie: 2008: 13), listing the lemmas of the lexemes that will eventually form part of a particular output expression (cf. Butler 2013: 38).

The Contx.Cpt would also need to contain the wherewithal to construct a mental discourse representation of the prior and current utterances in a text. This representation could be developed, for example, on the basis of Allen's (1995: Ch. 16) model of discourse construction, but expanding it into a more functionalist-oriented framework. As indicative instances, see the partially formalized representations of examples (5)-(7) in Cornish (2009:

585-9) and (6) in Cornish (2013: 90-91), as well as Connolly (2004) for an early attempt to represent discourse structure within FDG. See also Charolles (2020) for a range of discourse representations of extracts from a French newspaper – though here in terms of the text, not the discourse, *stricto sensu*, involved.

The range of heuristics needed in order to construct a discourse representation of a given text should include the following. First of all, determining *what is predicated of what* in each unit, and how these predications may be related in terms of one or another (or sometimes even two simultaneously) coherence relations. In (5), for example, the initial sentence predicates a future government ruling constraining the movements of most travelers to the UK, while the second one reports the reaction to this by the French Interior ministry, signaling *Contrast* — the isotopy here being marked by the definite anaphoric NP *the quarantine plan* in lines 4-5.

Second, the *tense* carried by the verb in the dependent unit in 'subordinating' coherence relations such as *Circumstance, Claim–Evidence, Elaboration, Occasion* or *Explanation* may be the past perfect, signaling a shift of event time to a state of affairs preceding the one evoked by the dominant proposition. The simple present tense together with the stative *Aktionsart* (lexical aspect: see below) of the main verb may favor a 'generalizing' reading of a text sentence, as may also the present perfect tense/aspect: see the use of the latter in two of the verbs of the initial topic sentence in (6), as well as in the initial, presentational sentence in (7). Both these texts contain a second, relatively background sentence in the preterit tense, marking a punctual event elaborating part of the broader situation introduced by the first. Past tenses may also have a modal use, signaling irrealis. The heuristic at issue here is the temporal and aspectual relations signaled as holding between the propositions and illocutions expressed by each unit in a text. See Gennari (2004) and Binnick (2009) on the discourse-pragmatic significance of tense.

Next, the *Aktionsart* of each of the two predicators – whether state, activity, or event (achievement or accomplishment) –, in conjunction with the aspectual, tense, mood and voice selections made for each clause, and in a wider context, the *event structure* of the two units involved as a whole (cf. Maienborn 2021), clearly play a role in the invocation of an appropriate coherence relation, and hence the potential integration of two discourse units. See Binnick (2009) on Aktionsart, as well as grammatical aspect and tense, and their respective contributions to local discourse structuring in terms of coherence relations.

A further relevant factor is the *Information Structure* (IS, i.e. message organization) of the textual units subject to integration – that is, whether one or other is a thetic ("all new") or categorical utterance; and if categorical, whether it manifests unmarked predicate focus (a topic–comment articulation) or marked argument (contrastive) focus. The combination of a thetic followed by a categorical utterance, as in (5) and (7), is a frequent one in discourse. The IS dimension is already marked in the core FDG model at the IL, and can be harnessed as such to a certain extent. However, as Butler & Gonzálvez-García (2014: 224) point out, the range of IS types recognized by the model is limited only to those which are relevant to determining grammatical forms and structures outputted by the model as a whole. The ongoing inference of subsuming local as well as superordinate discourse topics is essential for interpreting an incoming utterance in context.

Yet another heuristic involves establishing the connective (a conjunction or sentence adverbial) linking two units; or in its absence, selecting the one that it would be most appropriate to insert between the two units, in order to make the nature of their relation explicit. In (3), the connective *after all*, signaling an *Explanation* relation, could be inserted before the second sentence, with no change in interpretation as compared with the original

 $^{^{17}}$ E.g. if I were you, ... or the past perfect construction involving subject-auxiliary inversion as in Had she turned left instead of right at the junction, things would have turned out differently.

version of this text. In (4), there are already two discourse markers preceding Dave's second utterance in turn 22, namely *Well* and *y'know*. These take account of Brad's evident lack of understanding of Dave's initial question in turn 20. And in (5), the PP headed by the temporal preposition *after*, which simply indicates the purely temporal relation holding between the two events involved, could be replaced by *even though* or *although*. Such substitutions would make explicit the *Concession* relation holding between the two states of affairs at issue.

A final factor, whose invocation will enable the participants to draw particular inferences, is *knowledge of the world*: see e.g. Taylor (2003: Ch. 5) on the encyclopedic factors involved in specifying word meanings, in particular. In (3), the interpreter will invoke the stereotype of an incautious child stepping out from the pavement across the trajectory of an oncoming vehicle, with potentially catastrophic consequences — particularly if s/he is deaf, as the text indicates may be the case. In (5), the many 'explicature' connections noted all derive from readers' knowledge of the relevant government bodies in the UK as well as France, and their legal possibilities of action. Moreover, the 'higher-level explicature' corresponding to the contextualization of the article's title is based on the knowledge of commercial firms' typical operations and motivations.

These heuristics fall into two types, several partaking of both: *Aktionsart* has to do with unit-internal structure, while *Predication relations, Information Structure* and *Connectives* operate essentially to interrelate units. *Tense, Event structure* and *Knowledge of World*, however, may apply unit-internally but also unit-relationally.

The contextual cues needed to motivate such (probabilistic, hence defeasible) assignments would need to be recorded in the newly-adapted Contx.Cpt, on the basis of features of the ongoing text, and be specifically marked out as such. Hence the Contx.Cpt would now consist of two parallel parts: one part recording the representations of the preceding and current text, highlighting in particular the textual and discursive cues to contextualization as well as certain features of the situational context of utterance; and another housing the developing discourse representation that will have been evoked. There would need to be a constraining device included here, which would mark in particular those features of the preceding co-text which serve specifically to signal discourse structure: continuations, expansions, closures, digressions, new departures and so on. The Conc.Cpt and the Contx.Cpt would work in tandem and in parallel, the one recording and taking account of the information provided by the other.

This wider utterance context model can be seen as applying to the outputs of each level of representation already specified within the existing FDG model, and fleshing them out as a function of the values determined by setting the relevant contextual parameters made available at this level. The analogues of the standard FDG Contextual and Conceptual Components would characterize the global as well as local state of the discourse at the point where a new utterance enters the system. That is, they would specify the macro as well as more local topics at issue up to this point, together with the hierarchical relations obtaining between the discourse units already constructed. See §5.1 for the ways in which I would envisage the Context model being integrated with the Core pattern one, within FDG.

5.1 Integrating the Context-driven model with the Core FDG pattern one

As already indicated, it is envisaged that, apart from certain cases, ¹⁹ the Context-driven model would apply to the outputs of each Level of the Core grammar model (see Figure 1) by

¹⁸ See Allen's (1995) Figure 16.5, p. 509 and Box 16.1, p. 518 for sets of English cue phrases together with their typical functions in signaling discourse structure.

There are several areas where the Core grammar model would diverge from the requirements of the Context one. In particular, the absence in the former of any 'meaning definitions' (lexical-semantic specifications) or of

copying them for elaboration into the matching Level of the Context model. This means that the advantages attaching to the standard model of FDG, in the eyes of the model's architects, can be maintained essentially intact; the Context model would then in most cases operate upon copies of an already existing set of units at each of the relevant Levels. The first set of constructs provided via the operations at the Core Levels would represent the 'literal', somewhat idealised, outputs of each such representation, as utterance types (analogous to the concept of 'System sentences' proposed by Lyons 1977: 29-31); and those of the Context model would correspond to their in-context values in terms of discourse, as utterance tokens (broadly corresponding to Lyons's 1977: 30 'Text sentences').

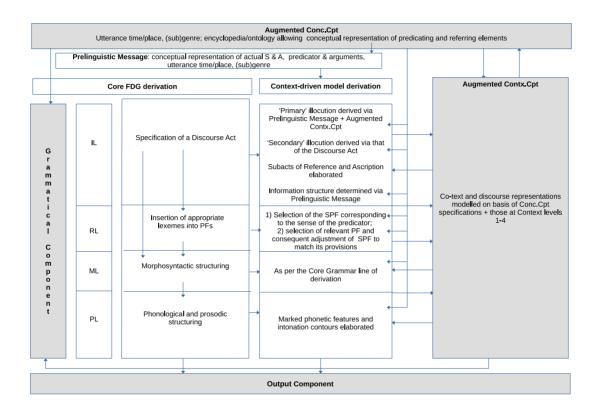


Figure 1: Proposed interfaces between the Core Grammar and Context-driven models for FDG

A common provision would be an initial characterization at the level of the Augmented Conc.Cpt. Here, Time and Place coordinates of the utterance to be represented would be specified. Values would be specified for the (sub-)genre of text at issue, as well as for its style and tone. This Component would also contain an Encyclopaedia and possibly also an Ontology, as already mentioned. Once all the values are set, a specific communicative intention (CI) would then be represented within a new construct, the 'Prelinguistic message' (for example "SPEAKER (S1) WANT ADDRESSEE (A1) LET S1 HAVE TEMPORARILY A1'S LAWN-MOWER"). This would also contain representations of an actual speaker/writer (for example, one associated with an attested utterance of some kind), as well as an intended addressee/reader. Once it is established, the Contx.Cpt would transfer to the Conc.Cpt a

semantic selection restrictions, and the priority in the selection of relevant predication frames in regard to the insertion of appropriate lexemes in the open positions available in the former. To allow these contradictory moves to co-exist, the two models would apply for the most part independently one from the other. After all, each comes with differing overall objectives.

synthesis of the text converted into discourse, prior to the incoming utterance. This would enable the Conc.Cpt to derive a discourse topic for the integration of the latter.

In Formulation, at Level 1 (the IL), the conceptual configuration corresponding to a particular message intended by the speaker in the Prelinguistic message construct would make available the predicator with its linguistically appropriate sense selected by the language being modelled (cf. Step 2 in Honselaar & Keizer 2009: 1227), together with its arguments (though not actual lexemes, whose selection and insertion would be the province of the RL-equivalent stage). In the case of the sample prelinguistic message given above, the sense configuration would be LET HAVE TEMPORARILY, for which the most relevant choice of lexeme at the RL-equivalent stage would be 'lend'.

Moreover, in the Core Grammar line of derivation, the 'secondary' or literal illocution corresponding to the clause's mood choice (see item (1) in §2.1), as in Eesa & Nayyef's (2012) account (see note 5 in §2.1), would be retained as such. However, the 'primary' (i.e. indirect) illocution corresponding to the utterance at issue, where it differs from the so-called 'secondary' (or 'literal') one, would be specified in the Context model derivation. This of course would be the case insofar as it is conventionally intended by speakers or writers and understood by addressees or readers (e.g. as in the well-worn examples *Can you pass the salt/open the window/turn down the volume?*: these are literally interrogatives, but conventionally understood as realizing requests). Where the connection is less conventional, the more elaborate representation of the Context of utterance within the Conc.Cpt would in principle make such inferences possible. The particular psycho-social relationship between speaker and addressee that flows from the type of 'primary' illocution invoked (see §2.1) would also be represented here.

As for the Subacts of Ascription and Reference, and the provisions made within the Communicated Content, these would be further specified in the Context model derivation. These constructs would similarly be developed as a function of the more elaborate characterization now available in the Conc.Cpt. The latter would also make it possible to mobilise additional relevant Information-Structure articulations, having relevance to discourse considerations over and above those carrying systematic implications for grammatical form, where needed.

A (particular sense of a) predicate capable of acting as predicator would already be available at the IL, rather than, as proposed notably by Honselaar & Keizer (2009), in terms of the RL in the Core grammar model: cf. the discussion in §4.2. A Lexicon would need to be available within the Fund, complementing the set of lexemes already present in the Core Grammar model. Lexemes corresponding to the selection of the predicator lemma and its arguments would then be represented at a first stage in the RL-equivalent, in terms of the predicator's semantic predication frame (SPF) (cf. §4.2); this could correspond broadly to the one presented as (9) in §4.2 for one sense of the verb *tear*: that is, the transitive variant, with its 'achievement' Aktionsart. The SPF would of course need to be expanded in order to accommodate any non-obligatory conceptual constituents represented at IL (e.g. modifying elements). Another possible sense of this verb would be the intransitive motion verb, which could be associated with the following possible SPF:

(9) a. tear [Vi]: (e₁: [$_{ACTION} cause$ (e₂: [$_{EVENT}$ act (x₁)]) (e₃: [$_{PROC} move_along$ (x₁: <autonomous_mobile physical object>): [$_{MANNER}$ (e₃): $very_fast$)])] (e₄: [$_{PATH}$ (x₂: <segment_of_physical_space>)])])

(9a) could be realized by an utterance such as *Phil tore down/along the beach/the drive/the high street*.

A further elaboration of the SPF selected at the first RL stage within the Context model would in principle be able to take account of the mutual semantic and denotational influences holding between lexemes in construction with each other, as illustrated in §4.3 with regard to adjectival modification. This would now be possible, since SPFs contain semantically perspicuous units.

The existing predication frame that would be available at RL in a standard FDG derivation would need to be retained, however, since it is indispensable for the complete characterization of an utterance type within the model. The method of selecting particular PFs for representing specific senses of predicates at RL illustrated in Honselaar & Keizer (2009), could be adapted to English (or to whatever other language happens to be being modelled).

The SPF associated with (a particular sense of) a predicator already selected prior to the selection of a relevant PF would clearly need to be adjusted in the Context-driven line of derivation, in order to fit its requirements. For example, in the case of the SPF given in (9a), the PATH involved would need to be represented as an obligatory directional PP.

As for the ML, no potential contribution appears to be applicable to the provisions of the Core model by the Context one at this stage. However, at the PL, account will need to be taken of certain phonetic processes such as assimilation, elision and lenition etc., particularly in the case of utterances relating to particular (sub-)genres or registers of speech, as well as of certain marked intonation and rhythmic patterns.

Finally, as noted in §4.1, the marking of the changing levels of cognitive activation of the referents evoked in successive utterances will need to be specified at the discourse level, once such a representation is available within the Augmented Contx.Cpt, fed by the Augmented Conc.Cpt as well as by Levels 1-4 of the Context model derivation. This would obviate the need for the existing Core Grammar version of the Contx.Cpt to copy the representations at the four Levels. As we saw in §4.1, the latter approach cannot adequately capture the evolving activations of referents in the flow of text. The discourse representation constructed as part of the Context model would more accurately account for these, and the textual representation would capture the relevant primings, repetitions and so on.

Clearly, the above are simply outline proposals. They will obviously need to be refined and made fully operational through future work.

6. Conclusions

We have seen in the above both that FDG's claim to be a Functional **Discourse** Grammar (my emphasis) and its broad conception of 'discourse', according to Mackenzie (2020), quoted in §3, are not in fact consonant with what this phenomenon actually involves: see sections 3-5 for the details. The model falls short of properly taking into account discourse properties and concepts, through the following characteristics of the framework: it is avowedly not a model of the speaker, as we have seen, and the notion of Discourse Act is but a pale reflection of any actual discourse act: for the various dimensions of a DA are simply represented in terms of variables at the IL for the Illocution, the Speaker and Addressee, as well as for the Sub-acts of predication and reference within the Communicated Content.

As a result, the outputs of the model are utterance types, not tokens; and finally, and most importantly, the contributions of conceptualization and context are severely restricted by the requirement that they be limited only to those that have systematic implications for grammatical form and structure.

Butler & Gonzálvez-García (2014) report on a detailed, systematic survey the authors carried out amongst 16 mostly functionalist models of language. The project was to map each model in terms of its relative position within what they call 'functional-cognitive space', as a function of their proponents' responses to some 59 statements. The aim was to assess how

closely (if at all) they regarded each one as corresponding to their own particular model. According to the responses given by the three FDG respondents, the authors placed this model at the extreme 'formal' pole of functionalist-oriented models within the space at issue. The model's proponents' responses to the two questions relating to 'discourse' were contradictory: significantly, a majority of the answers to (13a) were negative (a conclusion argued independently in the present study), but positive in the case of (13b) (cf. Butler & Gonzálvez-García 2014: 224):

- (13) a. This approach is designed to account for the structure and functioning of extended stretches of discourse/text, such as complete written texts, conversations, etc., as well as of the smaller units of which such texts are composed. (2014: 156, item 9a)
- (13) b. This approach is designed to account for phenomena which extend beyond the bounds of individual clauses and clause combinations. (2014: 156, item 9b)

The responses to (13b) would seem to be motivated by the presence of a potentially higher-level structure above the clause in FDG, namely 'Move' (the highest level which can be analyzed in purely grammatical terms, according to the model) at IL, and by what are termed 'episodes' at RL. Moreover, the authors (p. 372) cite the unanimously positive FDG responses to statement 44: 'Formal (syntactic) patterns have real theoretical status – they are not just epiphenomena which 'emerge' from discourse/use'.

Mackenzie's (2020) broadly accurate arguments against conceiving the standard FDG model as a 'grammar of discourse' seem in a sense beside the point in relation to the objections raised by a number of critics to its current organization — notably by Butler, Connolly, García Velasco and Cornish. On the one hand, it seems indeed clear that a 'grammar of discourse' would be an impossible objective to achieve. As Mackenzie argues, not only are the contributions to a characterization of communication in context made by the various factors connected with discourse not 'rule-bound' or systematic, but have, rather, the character of differing probabilities of occurrence, tendencies etc.; but also, they are too wideranging and disparate to be amenable to formalization within a grammar model.

However, this is not in fact what is intended by critics of the standard model of FDG. The issues raised have to do, rather, with the fact that the existing devices purporting to account for the diverse expressions made available for use by participants in communication do not take sufficient account of the contextual factors that impinge on their potential uses, meanings and discourse functionality: see §4 for three areas in which this is arguably the case. Such factors would go some way to justifying the presence in the model's name of the term 'discourse'. These claims, however, invariably come up against the same basic objection from the model's architects: that since the factors at issue do not have systematic implications for the grammatical forms of the expressions concerned, then they have no place in the model. Nonetheless, the suggested model of the wider utterance context adumbrated in §5 could in principle, when fully worked out and implemented, provide a plausible solution to this situation.

On the other hand, it is ironic to observe that, when we look closely at the central feature of the model, namely the Discourse Act as it is envisaged by FDG, the model's defining principles are only obliquely, if at all, even, relevant to what an actual discourse act involves in context: see the comments on the quotations from Mackenzie (2020) in §2.1. This in fact actually reinforces, ironically, Mackenzie's arguments against FDG's potentially being a model or grammar of 'discourse'. It argues, rather, in favor of the removal of the term 'discourse' from the model's name altogether. Instead, a perhaps more appropriate name might be 'Functional-Structural Grammar' (FSG) (cf. Butler & Gonzálvez-García's 2014: 202

1048 characterization as a 'Structural-functional' model); or even better, no doubt, 'Functional-1049 Typological Grammar' (FTG).²⁰ Thus Mackenzie's general argument would in the end come

1050 full circle.

1051 1052

References

10531054

1055

1063

1064

1065 1066

1069

1070

1071 1072

1075

1076

- Allen, J. (1995). *Natural Language Understanding* (2nd edition). Redwood City Ca.: Benjamin/Cummings Pub. Co.
- Binnick, R.J. (2009). Tense and aspect. In F. Brisard, J.O. Östman & J. Verschueren (eds.), *Grammar, Meaning and Pragmatics*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 268-288.
- Butler, C.S. (2012). An ontological approach to the representational lexicon in Functional Discourse Grammar. *Language Sciences* 34: 619-634.
- Butler, C.S. (2013). A reappraisal of the functional enterprise, with particular reference to Functional Discourse Grammar. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses* 67: 13-42.
 - Butler, C.S & Gonzálvez-García, F. (2014). *Exploring Functional-Cognitive Space*. Amsterdam /Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
 - Carston, R. & Hall, A. (2012). Implicature and explicature. In H-J. Schmid (ed.), *Cognitive Pragmatics*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 47-84. doi.org/10.1515/9783110214215
- 1067 Charolles, M. (2020). Discourse topics and digressive markers. *Journal of Pragmatics* 161: 57-77.
 - Connolly, J. H. (2004). The question of discourse representation in Functional Discourse Grammar. In J. L. Mackenzie & M. de Los Angeles Gómez-González (eds.), *A New Architecture for Functional Grammar*. Berlin and New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 89-116.
- 1073 Connolly, J.H. (2018). Construal and the Conceptual component of Functional Discourse 1074 Grammar. *WP-FDG-91*:1-33.
 - Cornish, F. (2002). 'Downstream' effects on the predicate in Functional Grammar clause derivations. *Journal of Linguistics* 38(2): 247-278.
- 1077 Cornish, F. (2009). Inter-sentential anaphora and coherence relations in discourse: A perfect match. *Language Sciences* 31(5): 572-592.
- 1079 Cornish, F. (2013). On the dual nature of the *Functional Discourse Grammar* model: Context, 1080 the language system/language use distinction, and indexical reference in discourse. 1081 *Language Sciences* 38: 83-98.
- 1082 Cornish, F. (2022). Text, discourse, context: A meta-trilogy for discourse analysis. *Journal of Pragmatics* 199: 91-104.
- Dancygier, B. (2017). Viewpoint phenomena in constructions and discourse. *Glossa* 2(1): 37. 1085 1–22, DOI: https://doi.org/10.5334/gjgl.253
- Dickinson, C. & Givón, T. (2000). The effect of the interlocutor on episodic recall: An experimental study. In M. Barlow & S. Kemmer (eds.), *Usage-Based Models of Language*. Center for the Study of Language and Information: CSLI Publications, 151-1089
- 1090 Dik, S.C. (1978). Stepwise Lexical Decomposition. Lisse: De Ridder.
- Dik, S.C. (1997a) (ed. K. Hengeveld). *The Theory of Functional Grammar*, Part 1: *The structure of the clause*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Dik, S.C. (1997b) (ed. K. Hengeveld). *The Theory of Functional Grammar*, Part 2: *Complex and derived constructions*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

²⁰ These suggestions for changes to the model's name relate only to FDG as it currently stands. If and when a Context model for discourse is fully worked out and applied, then of course the qualification 'discourse' should be retained.

- Eesa, M.T. & Nayyef, K. J. (2012). Illocution in Functional Discourse Grammar. *Journal of Al-Qadisiya in Arts and Educational Sciences* 11 (3-4): 3-14.
- 1097 Eggins, S. & Slade, D. (2005). *Analysing Casual Conversation*. London: Equinox (cited in Mackenzie 2014).
- 1099 García Velasco, D. (2022). Modification and context. *Open Linguistics* 8(1): 524-544.
 1100 https://doi.org/10.1515/opli-2022-0206
- Gennari, S.P. (2004). Temporal references and temporal relations in sentence comprehension. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition* 30 (4): 877-1103
- Hansen, M-B.M. & Terkourafi, M. (2023). We need to talk about Hearer's Meaning! *Journal* of *Pragmatics* 208: 99-114.
- Haselow, A. (2017). *Spontaneous Spoken English. An integrated approach to the emergent* grammar of speech. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Haugh, M. (2010). Co-constructing what is said in interaction. In E. Németh T & K. Bibok (eds.), *The role of Data at the Semantics-Pragmatics Interface*. Berlin/New York: De Gruyter Mouton, 349-380.
- Hengeveld, K. & Mackenzie, J.L. (2008). Functional Discourse Grammar. A typologically-based theory of language structure. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hengeveld, K. & Mackenzie, J.L. (2014). Grammar and context in *Functional Discourse*Grammar. Pragmatics 24(2): 203-227.
- Hengeveld, K. & Mackenzie, J.L. (2016). Reflections on the lexicon in Functional discourse Grammar. *Linguistics* 54(5): 1135-1161.
- Honselaar, W. & Keizer, E. (2009). Lexicon and frames in FDG: A treatment of Dutch bekend zijn 'to be familiar, well known', behandelen 'to treat' and trouwen 'to marry'.

 Lingua 119: 1212-1241.
- Jefferson, G. (eds. P. Drew & J. Bergmann) (2017). Repairing the Broken Surface of Talk.
 Managing problems in speaking, hearing and understanding conversation. Oxford:
 Oxford University Press.
- Komter, M. (1987). Conflict and cooperation in job interviews: a study of talk, tasks and ideas. [Ph.D dissertation, University of Amsterdam] (cited in Dik 1997b).
- 1125 Komter, M. (1990). The discourse structure of job interviews. In H. Pinkster & I. Genee (eds.), *Unity in Diversity: Papers presented to Simon C. Dik on his 50th birthday*. 1127 Dordrecht: Foris, 165-181 (cited in Dik 1997b).
- Langacker, R.W. (2001). Discourse in Cognitive Grammar. Cognitive Linguistics 12(2): 143 188.
- Levelt, W.J.M. (1989). Speaking. From intention to articulation. Cambridge Mass./London:
 MIT Press.
- Lyons, J. (1977) Semantics Vol. 1. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mackenzie, J.L. (2014). The Contextual component in a dialogic FDG. *Pragmatics* 24(2): 249-273.
- Mackenzie, J.L. (2020). Why Functional Discourse Grammar is not, and could not be, a discourse grammar. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses* 80: 73-87.
- Maienborn, C. (2021). Events and states. In R. Truswell (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Event Structure*. Oxford: Oxford University Press (p/b edition), 50-89.
- Mey, J.L. (2020). Indirectness and co-construction. A discourse-pragmatic view. In Z. Livnat, P. Shukrun-Nagar & G. Hirsch (eds.), *The Discourse of Indirectness*.
- 1141 Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 85-96.
- Norén, K. & Linell, P. (2007). Meaning potentials and the interaction between texts and contexts: An empirical substantiation. *Pragmatics* 17(3): 387-416.

- Parisi, D. & Castelfranchi, C. (1977). The discourse as a hierarchy of goals. *Signs of Change* 1145 1(2): 31-67.
- Partee, B. (2007). Compositionality and coercion in semantics: The dynamics of adjective meaning. In G. Bouma, I. Krämer & J. Zwarts (eds.), *Cognitive Foundations of Interpretation*. Amsterdam: Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences, 145-161. (cited in García Velasco 2022)
- Sbisà, M. (2009). Uptake and conventionality in illocution. *Lodz Papers in Pragmatics* 5(1): 33-52. DOI 10.2478/v10016-009-0003-0
- 1152 Taylor, J.R. (2003). *Linguistic Categorization*, 3rd edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Taylor, J.R. (2012). Contextual salience, domains, and active zones. In H.-J. Schmid (ed.), Cognitive Pragmatics. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 151-174.
- 1155 Van Dijk, T.A. (2008). *Discourse and Context. A sociocognitive approach*. Cambridge: 1156 Cambridge University Press.
- Witek, M. (2015). An interactional account of illocutionary practice. *Language Sciences* 47 Part A: 43-55.