

**ROLES OF PREDICTION AS A PARAMETER OF TEXT
ORGANISATION**

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Abstract

Frequently in written texts one block of information leads the reader to predict the occurrence of a second block of information in the same text. This phenomenon is known as prediction. In structural terms, prediction in written monologues is similar to the anticipation of information which occurs in adjacency pairs: as the reader/speaker meets a first pair-part, the expectation is set up that a coherent second pair-part will also occur in the text. A systematic predictive-predicted relation is thus established. In this paper, I discuss the organisation and function of two different types of prediction in written monologues. The data analysed are excerpts from the language of self-help counselling, a pervasive type of contemporary mass culture written discourse which has not received much attention in the area of text/discourse analysis. The analysis presented here is relevant for the description of written text structure, for reading pedagogy and applied linguistics.

Key-words: *prediction; text structure; text analysis; self-help counselling.*

Resumo

Freqüentemente, em textos escritos, um bloco de informação leva o leitor a prever a ocorrência de um segundo bloco de informação no mesmo texto. Este fenômeno é conhecido como predição. Em termos estruturais, a predição em monólogos escritos é semelhante à antecipação de informação que ocorre em pares adjacentes: quando o

leitor/falante encontra a primeira parte de um par, estabelece-se uma expectativa de que a segunda parte do par também ocorrerá no texto. Desta forma, uma relação sistemática se estabelece entre elementos preditivos e preditos. Neste trabalho, discuto a organização e a função de dois tipos de predição textual. Os dados analisados são excertos da linguagem de auto-aconselhamento, um tipo atual de discurso escrito de cultura de massa que não tem recebido muita atenção na área da análise do discurso. A análise apresentada é relevante para a descrição da estrutura de textos escritos, a pedagogia da leitura e a lingüística aplicada.

Palavras-chave: *predição; estrutura textual; análise de texto; auto-aconselhamento.*

1. Introduction

A great number of different descriptions exist today of different aspects of text structure and organisation (see, for instance, Mann and Thompson, 1992). The last twenty years of research in text analysis have made it clear that texts are not just groups of sentences strung together but organised units of communication textualised according to greater or lesser degrees of conventionality, depending on genre and purpose, among other parameters. Among the variety of patterns of textualisation occurring at both local and global levels of textual organisation we find *prediction*, also referred to as anticipation (Winter, 1977) and *prospection* (Sinclair, 1993). In the present paper I examine aspects of the role of prediction as typically implemented in a randomly chosen sample of a self-counselling book, namely *Calm down: how to cope with frustration and anger* by P. Hauck (1974/1993 8th impression. London: Sheldon Press). This type of text has

been chosen because of its representativeness as a sample of advice books, a type of contemporary mass culture written discourse widely read by the general public but largely ignored in discourse analysis.¹

2. Prediction

Prediction takes place when the writer signals or implies that s/he is committing her/himself to perform a subsequent discourse act of a certain kind. According to Tadros (1985:8), the first text analyst to investigate this aspect of language in depth, "prediction involves a commitment at one point in the text to the occurrence of another subsequent linguistic event." One of the sections in Hauck's book, for example, is headed by the following phrase: "Some harmful consequences of anger" (p. 23). In the context where it occurs, this nominal group constitutes a prediction because it leads readers to anticipate that the writer will next explicitly present a certain number of "consequences of anger." The absence of such lexical realisation (Winter, 1977, 1992), that is, the lack of textual specification of the inherent unspecificity of "consequences", would render the text incomplete and incoherent.

Besides anticipating what sort of information will follow in the text, prediction can also be perceived as fulfilling the metalinguistic function of 'directing' readers to create specific schemata (Meurer, 1991) within which to process the information directly related to the predictive structure. In

¹ Fairclough (1992) makes insightful comments (*passim*) about the recent spreading of the discourse of counselling into other discourse domains. Santrock, Monnett, and Campbell (1994) present a survey of clinical and counselling psychologists' ratings of self-help books in the United States. However, I have no knowledge of specific linguistic or discourse analysis studies of advice books as a genre.

other words, in addition to metadiscursively establishing the category that will follow in the text, prediction anticipates the content to be expected. This way predictive structures may help readers construct the scenario (Sanford and Garrod, 1981) within which the author intends them to interpret subsequent information in the text. Thus, to illustrate this point, in *Calm Down*, "Some *harmful consequences* of anger" not only anticipates a list of such consequences (the metadiscursively signalled category of information to follow), but also 'tells' readers to instantiate a pertinent schema (or scenario) such that they will interpret the predicted consequences within the general framework of *harmful consequences of anger*. And in the subsequent text, these are the consequences Hauck, the author of *Calm Down*, presents:

1. *Anger almost always increases your frustration* (p. 23)
2. *Getting angry prevents you from solving problems* (p. 24)
3. *You set a poor example of mental health* (p. 25)
4. *Anger can make you physically ill* (p. 27)
5. *Anger is the greatest single cause for divorce* (p.28)
6. *Anger is responsible for some of the most deprived of all human behaviour: child abuse* (p.29)

Extending the argument a bit, we might say that prediction serves textual, ideational, and interpersonal (Halliday, 1985/1994) functions. This means that it helps writers and readers to organise the text into sub-sections (the textual function). At the same time prediction represents the way the writer sees or classifies 'reality' (the ideational function) and signals to readers (interpersonal function) which schemata they need to activate within which to make sense of

the incoming text. In *Calm Down* the discussion following the prediction instantiated by "some harmful consequences of anger" continues through 7 pages. Throughout those pages the established prediction is fulfilled as readers go on processing each one of the specific sub-sections (as textually specified) under the general schema of "harmful consequences". Illustration of these points are provided in the next sections.

3. Predictive and predicted pairs

In dealing with prediction it is necessary to introduce the notion of *pair*. Similarly to the linguistic behaviour of *adjacency pairs* (Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson, 1974) in conversational structures - where a first pair member (e.g., *How are you?*) requires a second pair member (*Fine, thanks*) - *predictive members* set up the expectation that one or more *predicted members* will follow in the text. In other words, a first pair member sequentially implies the occurrence of a second pair member, the second pair member achieving relevance within the context of the first. The similarity with adjacency pairs, however, is only partial because the communication established in written prediction is one-sided, that is, even though the writer adjusts her/his message to the reader, s/he does all the "talk" herself/himself. The interaction between pair members can be represented by Figure 1.1 where **V** stands for predictive and **D** for predicted.

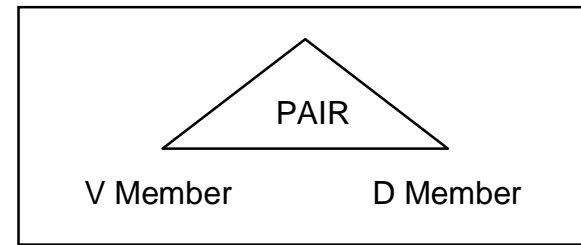


Figure 1.1: The structure of prediction (Tadros, 1985)

As suggested in Figure 1.1, the occurrence of a V member - together with the fulfilment of the prediction by the occurrence of a D member - establishes *an interaction within* the text itself. The interaction between the two textual elements fulfils the tacit agreement between the writer and the reader as brought forth by the presence of the V member. Thus, besides establishing interaction between reader and writer as a result of its interpersonal function, the phenomenon of prediction establishes interaction within the text itself as a consequence of its textual and ideational functions. Prediction, therefore, helps to form bonds between readers and writers, to organise texts, and to trigger specific mental schemata.

4. Categories of prediction

Prediction has been investigated in the language of economics, law, stylistics, and linguistics (Tadros, 1985, 1994) and six specific types - *enumeration, advance labelling, reporting, recapitulation, hypotheticality, and question* - have been shown to operate in texts within these areas of knowledge. In my own research, I have discovered a seventh

category, namely, *explicit contradiction*.² In this paper I look into the occurrence of two of these categories of prediction: enumeration and reporting. Examples will be taken from Hauck's *Calm Down*. As will be apparent throughout the paper, the writer himself "sets up predictions or constraints precisely because in fulfilling them he will arrive at the point he wishes to make" (Hunston, 1989:132). In this sense, then, prediction can be seen as the writer's strategy of 'setting things up' so that s/he can convey the meanings that s/he intends to.

4.1. Enumeration

a. In predictive enumeration the V member contains an enumerative element committing the author to provide a certain number of specific elements in the D member. One type of enumerative V member (there are other types, as we will see below) is linguistically realised by the sequence of a *numeral* and an *unspecific* item. The numeral can be exact (*nine, two*) or inexact (*some, several*), as also described by Tadros (1985). Unspecific items are lexical choices such as *myths, alternatives, consequences, ways*, which need to be made specific in the text in order to be made meaningful (Winter, 1992). These items serve a metalinguistic purpose in that they refer to other stretches of text - differently from specific, open-ended system vocabulary items such as *book, cat, and brother*, which refer to entities outside the text. Here is an example of predictive enumeration in *Calm Down*:

² The category of explicit contradiction (e.g. the answer is yes and no!, which predicts explanation) as well as the other types of prediction mentioned by Tadros are analysed in Meurer (forthcoming).

V member:

In fact, it [a study case previously mentioned in the text] destroys *nine myths* about anger, emotional disturbances, and psychotherapy (p.12, my emphasis).

Even though the *myths* have been identified as myths "about anger, emotional disturbances, and psychotherapy", they have not yet been lexically realised, i.e., the author has not specified in the text what these myths are. This is done in the adjacent D member which, in specifying the nine myths, fulfils the expectation established in the V member. This is the way Hauck's text is constructed:

D members:

Myth No. 1: *People always learn from their past experience* (p.12)

Myth No.2: *Old habits always require long periods of time to change* (p. 13)

Myth No. 3: *You cannot be undisturbed in a stressful environment* (p. 14)

Myth No. 4: *Everyone has a breaking point* (p. 15)

Myth No. 5: *Anger cannot be prevented, only suppressed* (p. 16)

Myth No. 6: *Fight fire with fire* (p. 17)

Myth No. 7: *Both partners must be seen in marital counselling* (p.18)

Myth No. 8: *The 'real reasons' behind a problem - the hidden causes from childhood - must be understood before personality changes can be made* (p. 19)

Myth No. 9: *Angry people are mentally ill and need treatment* (p.20)

It is interesting to note the lexical reiteration of *Myth*. It plays an argumentative role by emphasising the illegitimacy

of the notions discussed: they are portrayed as not rational, as "myths" to be redefined and reconceptualised by the readers. Regarding the textual function of the enumeration pair above, notice that in the subsequent nine pages of the book the author's discussion is distributed under the nine specific *Myth* headings listed above. Enumeration, therefore, constitutes a powerful strategy of information organisation and sequencing.

Here is a second example of predictive enumeration, this time restricted to a microlevel environment:

V member:

The way to handle accusations of any kind is to do what Dr. Albert Ellis does. He advises us to look at *two alternatives* when we are accused of something, (my emphasis).

D member:

The first is, 'Is it true?' and the second is, 'Is it false?' (p. 105).

In this case, as the "two alternatives" are still not specific enough - though 'specificness' varies from context to context - the author goes on and further elaborates on each one of them. The above examples of enumeration show that this type of prediction may organise text at quite different levels, ranging from local or microstructural pairs to global or macrostructural relations.

Before I present examples of other types of enumerative prediction, it is important to clarify that a necessary feature for membership as V member of predictive enumeration (for all the types) is that the unspecific lexical item occurring as head of the V member must signal *new* information, i.e., information that cannot be retrieved from the

previously occurring co-text or that is not part of writers'/readers' shared knowledge. In other words, the specifics of the unspecific item (*consequences, steps, myth*) must be lexicalised prospectively, or cataphorically in the text. The following example will further clarify this point:

Depression is brought about by your thinking (a) you are a worthless person because you did something bad, or (b) you ought to feel sorry for yourself because you are frustrated, or (c) you should pity someone else. These are the *three ways* you can get depressed over your not getting your way. (*Calm Down*, 39-40)

In spite of the fact that "three ways" does fulfil the requirement of unspecificness, it does not signal new information to come. In this case, therefore, the enumerative sequence does *not* constitute an instance of predictive enumeration because its specifics have already been lexicalised retrospectively in the text.

b. A second type of predictive enumeration involves unspecific lexical items (*consequences, issues*) preceded/followed by the expression "the following", or followed by the expression "as follows". Here is an example:

V member:

Some of the more common *issues* with children and the logical *consequences* I have found work well are *the following*:

In the original text, this prediction is fulfilled by a rather rambling D member where the author presents a list of actual "issues with children" interspersed with "the logical consequences" he has found "work well":

D members:

Your child will not put off his desk lamp in the morning before going to school. Go in and dismantle the lamp, unplug it from the socket, and use the argument that you thought something must have been wrong with it since it wasn't put off. He'll know you don't mean that, but he will get the message that he'd better switch the light off or he'll have to assemble it in the evening.

The same can be done for a radio left blaring in a child's room. Take the batteries out of the radio and lay it on the bed. The consequence of not turning it off is having to put the batteries back in when he comes home tired and wants to relax. The child argues about doing the washing up. Tell him he doesn't need to eat at your table if it's very important to him not to wash up. You don't care much either way what he does. The choice is his. Either do the washing up and enjoy decent food or get out of that boring job but scrounge for his meals in the refrigerator.

The youngster will not put his seat belt on while the car is moving. Instead of shouting at him and possibly endangering both your lives, give him a choice again. The logical consequence of the belt's being unbuckled is that the car pulls off to the side of the road and stops. When the belt is buckled again, the car almost automatically and without a word from the driver merges into the traffic again. (pp. 110-111).

c. A third type of predictive enumeration is textualised by means of "a plural subject followed by a verb which

demands a complement followed by a colon" (Tadros, (1985:15). The following example was found in *Calm Down*:

V member (emphasised):

A third, but by no means last, set of emotional reactions you could have are the hateful ones: anger, fury, revenge, and spitefulness. Once again, however, the things you would say to yourself to produce these feelings are quite different from those you have to think to produce depression or fear. Briefly, *they are*:

D members:

(a) I must have my way and it is awful not to get everything I want, and (b) you are wicked for frustrating me and deserve to be punished. (p. 40)

d. In *Calm Down*, quite a number of instances of unspecific items occurring in a textual structure resembling type 2 above were preceded by *zero numeral*, i.e., no explicit numeral. This type of prediction is not reported in the language areas studied by Tadros (1985). Another example from *Calm Down*:

V member:

At other times parents can punish their children for *subconscious reasons*:

D member:

the baby represents the mother herself, and if the mother beats her baby she is symbolically beating herself for when she was a little girl and behaved badly. Or perhaps the baby represents her brother or sister of whom she was very jealous. By beating the child the brother or sister is being punished. (p. 29)

In this case, the author could have used the expression "the following" (as is the case with type 2 predictive enumeration above) right before "subconscious reasons". It seems, however, that the occurrence of "the following" would demand proof of a more precise state of knowledge on the part of the writer in relation to the "subconscious reasons" in the V member. This example thus suggests that the use of the expression "the following" preceding an unspecific item (such as "reasons" or "consequences") constrains the D member similarly to the constraints produced by the use of exact numerals. (This point is further discussed in the next paragraph). On the other hand, the use of zero numeral seems to be more closely related to the use of inexact numerals: it reduces the responsibility of the author to provide exact specification of the unspecific item in the V member. Thus, in the above example the writer needs to mention only *some* "subconscious reasons", not an exact number of them. At the same time, the use of zero numeral may help establish a more informal atmosphere: saying *"parents can punish their children for subconscious reasons"* seems closer to a conversational style than saying *"parents can punish their children for subconscious reasons, as follows"* or *"for the following subconscious reasons"*.

Regarding the use of exact vs. inexact numerals, Tadros (1985) insightfully comments that the use of exact numerals creates more responsibility for the writer than the use of inexact numerals. She writes:

An exact numeral reflects the writer's state of knowledge - it is precise - and commits him to produce the number predicted, whereas an inexact numeral reduces the writer's responsibility, although he (sic) is still committed to enumeration. Any attempt

to withdraw from the commitment has to be signalled to the reader, and this unintentionally reinforces the commitment. A writer who says 'Barter has a number of serious drawbacks' and then adds 'For example, it makes exchange dependent on what is called "a double coincidence of wants"' has indicated to the reader that he is negotiating withdrawal from the commitment to enumerate, and instead is resorting to exemplification; but that in itself reinforces the fact that he is aware of his commitment to enumerate. By contrast, a writer who declares his precise state of knowledge by using an exact numeral will not withdraw from his responsibility. He will not say 'Barter has three serious drawbacks' and then add 'For instance, it makes exchange dependent on...' since he is committed to sharing his exact knowledge with the reader (p. 18).

In *Calm Down*, besides the example already given of the nine myths (and several other examples in the book), the point made by Tadros can be further illustrated by the *six steps* constituting "*the complete sequence of getting angry*" (pp. 38-48). The implication behind the use of this exact numeral, and which in this case is strengthened by the expression *the complete sequence*, is that the author possesses complete and reliable information about what constitutes this sequence. What the author will tell the reader in the D member of this predictive pair is given the status of "state of knowledge" about the sequence of processes involved in getting angry. Thus, the sense of preciseness built into the exact numeral contributes to the writer's authority and trustworthiness. This, in turn, foregrounds the interpersonal function of prediction. Textual, interpersonal, and ideational functions thus come together: the textual function specifies

the organisation of the information as subsumed under *six steps*, the ideational function specifies the actual meaning of each one of the steps, while the interpersonal function allows for the establishment of a reliable persona for the author.

I turn now to the *D member* of enumerative prediction. As already illustrated by the examples given above, the *D member* provides the specifics for the prediction established in the *V member*. In *Calm Down*, similarly to the patterns reported for the language of economics (Tadros, 1985), *D members of predictive enumeration* are signalled by means of the following features:

- i. Numbering (of different kinds):
 - a) see the enumeration of "*Myth*" in the example discussed previously
 - b) *one, two* (p. 27-28)
 - c) *1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6* (p. 23-29)
 - d) *step one, step two, step three, step four, step five, step six* (p. 38-48)
 - e) *the first, this next thought* (p. 123)
- ii. Layout, such as use of capitals. (In the examples that follow I am quoting the *V member* as well in order to provide a context for the *D members*):

(*V member*:

... you want to be aware of *several problems* you are likely to run into which could hamper your progress.)

D member (where each aspect listed contains a built-in problem):

DON'T GET DISCOURAGED (p. 118)

DISCIPLINE YOURSELF (p. 121)

YOU DON'T NEED TO MAKE MATTERS WORSE

(122)

ANGER AGAINST YOURSELF (p. 124)

SIMPLE BUT NOT EASY (p. 125)

iii. Listing:

(V member: There are *three reasons* why people act badly for which they cannot be blamed:)

(D member): *stupidity, ignorance, and disturbance* (p. 44)

iv. Grammatical parallelism (e.g.: subject + verb in the past tense):

(V member: She shouted at her family every day for *the most inconsequential matters*)

(D member):

the light was on in the cupboard; *the light was off* in the hall; *Johnny didn't make* his bed before leaving for school that morning; *June took* too long to come into the kitchen for her breakfast (p. 114)

Predictive enumeration is extensively used in self-help books, as in expository and argumentative texts in general. At the interpersonal level, prediction serves as a persuasive mechanism. Persuasion is achieved in two ways. On the one hand, through exact enumeration the author implicitly suggests that s/he has precise knowledge of what s/he is talking about: there are, for instance, exactly *six steps in getting angry*; *nine myths about anger, emotional disturbances and psychotherapy*; *anger boils down to two irrational beliefs*, *three reasons why people act badly*, etc. On the other hand, by helping to establish the author's figure of authority, the use of exact enumeration helps to assure readers that they are to believe it is safe to trust the author

because (one is given the impression that) the author is conveying ideational content about which s/he has substantial knowledge.

As regards the textual function, enumeration subdivides the text into reasonably short sections, taking into account readers' attention span. This is very clear, for example, in the *nine myths*, which cover pages 12 through 22 in *Calm Down; some harmful consequences of anger*, discussed from page 23 through 30; and *the complete* (my emphasis) *sequence of getting angry*, pages 38 through 48. These textualisations suggest that the writer is doing his best to create clearly signalled sections and subsections in order to offer readers an easy path through the several stages of his argumentation.

4.2. Reporting

This category of prediction differs from enumeration in that the author detaches her/himself from the truth of what s/he reports in the V member (Tadros, 1985). In Sinclair's (1986) words, the author does not *aver* the truth of the propositions reported. As the name of the category implies, the author *reports* somebody else's statement or opinion in order to, in the D member, express what s/he thinks about what s/he has reported.³ Only in the D member the author comes back to *averral* (1986), i.e., takes responsibility for what is being said. In Winter's (1982, 1986, 1994) notion of *basic text structure*, a reporting pair would constitute what he calls a *hypothetical-real structure*. The reported structure (V

³ An interesting study on the evaluative function of reporting verbs in academic texts is carried out by Thompson and Yiyun (1991). Unfortunately there is no space to cover this issue regarding my data in the present paper.

member) is the *hypothetical* element in the sense that it does not tell us what the writer thinks regarding the truth or falsity of the reported propositions. It thus stands as a hypothesis, either to be confirmed or denied. The prediction set up in the V member then is that of evaluating somebody else's (reported) view(s) or assumption(s). While the writer withdraws from averring the information s/he conveys in the V member, s/he commits her/himself to make an evaluative statement in the D member about that information. That evaluation is what Winter terms the *real* element.

It should be emphasised that for a reporting structure to constitute a V member of a predictive pair it is necessary that the writer abstain, in that member, from explicitly evaluating what s/he is reporting. In this case, evaluation is the business of the D member. When evaluation occurs in the reporting structure itself, no necessary prediction is established that further evaluation will occur.

Reporting can be accomplished either by using direct speech, indirect speech, or expressions such as "according to". Here is an example from *Calm Down* with indirect speech, as realised by three reporting structures (*The reviewer had mentioned, He implied, a remark by a client who doubted*) followed by four that-clauses:

V member:

(I recently received a review of my book *Depression* from my publisher.) *The reviewer had mentioned that* I had oversimplified the matter of controlling depression. *He thereby implied that* I did not know what I was talking about and **that** I had missed the complexity of the subject.

A month before, I heard a *similar remark by a client* who was seeing me for depression *who also doubted **that*** I knew what I was talking about because it sounded oversimplified.

(p. 125 - my emphasis and bold form).

The writer clearly detaches himself from the truth of the content of the information reported. This is achieved by attributing the propositional content to the "reviewer" and to "a client" by means of the indirect speech structures emphasised in the example. The conventionally predicted evaluation occurs right afterwards, namely:

D member:

In time he learned that what I had to say about controlling depression really was quite simple, but that using that knowledge was another story entirely. The same is true for this material on anger. When I suggest that you always make yourself angry by thinking you have to have your way and that is all there is to this matter of anger, I also confess it sounds oversimplified. Yet that is basically all that anger is. (p. 125)

Here the author makes a concession to "the client" by partially agreeing with him that the issue does seem to have been made to look too simple. However, by the end of the quotation there is no doubt that the author has rejected the views reported in the V member. The D member is a rebuttal of the client's remarks, and by extension a rebuttal of the reviewer's criticism as well.

Reporting is used in its direct speech form with reasonable frequency in the narratives in *Calm Down*. Reported direct speech enables the author to simulate 'real' conversations between himself and the characters. Besides, it

enables the author to control the course of the simulated conversations. Once he reports what a character is supposed to have said, the stage is set for evaluation, either positive or negative, of the character's view point. This constitutes a powerful strategy of information presentation and viewpoint manipulation because the writer can manipulate the character's 'utterance' to his own ends. Take the excerpt below, culled from one of the narratives in *Calm Down*. In the first stretch of direct speech, the author *reports* what Bill, the main character of this narrative, supposedly said to him as a counsellor. At this point Bill tells the author how he (Bill) now perceives he could have acted in relation to his brother:

... By not making a big thing of his accusations I simply couldn't have reacted too emotionally in any way at all, could I? In other words, it would have been no different from his saying hello to me. If I make a big thing out of that, then I run the risk of being disturbed. If not, then I'm going to be undisturbed. Right?

And the author responds, positively evaluating the character's statements:

'Right. '

(*Calm Down*, p. 59-60)

On the other hand, earlier in the same narrative, we watch the author evaluate negatively a stretch of direct speech by the same character:

'But it is not right,' Bill insisted. 'I've been fair with Henry in every request he's ever made to me. But when he made this demand I felt he was taking me for a ride.'

'No, that's not why you're angry, Bill,' I [*the author*] stated. 'Nothing you've said so far sounds neurotic or unreasonable, and to become angry you've got to say angry things to yourself.'

In this way, strategically, Hauck makes use of text structures (reporting) to move step by step towards the point he wants to make: the way the character is reported to verbalise his feelings and the way the author evaluates the character's verbalisations reinforce the author's view. It is in this sense that the author manipulates the character's utterances to his own end. Activating different voices of different characters, Hauck gives leeway to polyphony (Bakhtin, 1986). The overall effect is the emphasis on a *leitmotif* occurring throughout the book, in this case that we become angry by saying angry things to ourselves, and that if we change the way we think about specific events we can change our emotion.

5. Final remarks

To convey meaning and to signal relationships between different groups of sentences, writers can choose from a variety of different parameters of textualisation (Meurer and Motta-Roth, *forthcoming*). Among such parameters are *basic clause relations* and *basic text structures* (Winter, 1977, 1986), *metalanguage* (Winter, 1992, Crismore, 1989), *retrospection* (Francis, 1986, 1994), and *prediction* (Winter, 1977, Tadros, 1985, 1994). In the present paper, I have focused on *enumeration* and *reporting* as two major structures used in written text to mark and fulfil information prediction or prospection.

A stretch of text within a text, such as a predictive pair within the text I have analysed here, can be seen as "an artefact within another artefact" (Sinclair, 1987). Each pair has its own structure and function, and each pair allows for the partitioning and structuring of stretches of information within the book. Such textualisation strategies are crucial in developing the several ideational components throughout a text, in foregrounding the interpersonal function of the text, and in making text processing manageable.

Genre analysts and critical discourse analysts (for instance, Swales 1990, Fairclough 1993, Santos 1996, Meurer 1997, Heberle 1997, etc.) have given increasing emphasis to the investigation of rhetorical and contextual features of specific text genres. It is obviously important that reading and writing pedagogy take subtle genre nuances into consideration. Note, for example, the general requirement in academic writing for specific rather than non-specific enumeration, e.g. *three criteria account for the selection of...* instead of *some criteria...* There is a need to further investigate such generic differences and to develop instruments to integrate them into reading and writing pedagogy and genre awareness. This sort of investigation is important for text analysts, applied linguists, and teachers of reading and writing.

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