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List of Abbreviations:

AWL	Academic Word List
BNC	The British National Corpus
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COCA	The Corpus of Contemporary American English
DDL	Data Driven Learning
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
ELT	English Language Teaching
EMP	English for Medical Purposes
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
Etc.	Et cetera
GSL	General Service List of English Words (West 1953)
MI	Mutual Information value
OED	Oxford English Dictionary
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics

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1. Introduction

From the late twentieth century onwards, genre analysis has developed into a thriving field of linguistics. Especially in the field of teaching English for Specific Purposes, the results and methods of genre analysis seem to provide a valuable source for research and teaching practice (Hyland 2006:246). Numerous genres have been analysed, covering academic (cp. Swales 1990, 2004; Bunton 2005) as well as professional text types (Bhatia 1993, Ferguson 2002, Biber *et al.* 2007). However, new genres keep appearing and existing genres keep evolving, which creates a need for further research that analyses emerging genres and “revisits periodically” (Swales 2004:31) developing ones. An example of a rather new genre is the abstract of bachelor papers written by Austrian midwives. As Gimenez says, we “still know little about writing practices in midwifery” (2010:197). Developments in the midwifery profession in general as well as in Austria specifically require midwives increasingly to produce certain genres, especially academic ones, and to adapt existing ones, e.g. the abstract, to their own needs. This need for genre proficiency is reflected in the requirement that midwifery students need to write an English abstract for their bachelor papers, which has been introduced by the reform of the Austrian midwifery education in 2006. Consequently, abstract writing has to be addressed in teaching midwifery students but due to the recentness and still evolving character of this new genre, hardly any information on its characteristics is available. The aim of this thesis therefore is to provide a genre analysis of 134 abstracts of bachelor papers by Austrian midwifery students and to evaluate if a genre-based approach to teaching could be beneficially implemented in ESP classes for students of midwifery in Austria.

In order to offer the necessary theoretical contextualisation, section 2 presents a conceptualisation of *genre* based on John Swales’ two major definitions, i.e. the one published in *Genre Analysis* (1990) and its revised version, which has been introduced in *Research Genres* (2004). Section 3 shortly outlines three major schools of genre analysis. Even though this division is mostly of historical relevance, it still provides valuable insights into various genre-analytical perspectives, which differ in the extent to which they stress the relevance of genre for teaching or the significance of a genre’s social context. This section further indicates current developments, i.e. multimodality, corpus linguistics and stressing text-external features. In section 4, the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is defined and its significance as well as classification into English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is outlined. Major concepts in ESP are addressed, namely needs analysis and the range of ESP teacher roles. Then section 5 presents recent

developments in Austrian midwifery (education), including the increasing request for evidence-based care, the need for discipline-specific research and international cooperation as well as changes in the education of midwives, as these aspects build the greater context for the genre under investigation. Section 6 provides information on the context of writing, the data under examination and the methods applied, i.e. move analysis (Swales 1990, Bhatia 1993) and corpus linguistics, before section 7 reports the results of the analysis. The results with regard to the average length of abstracts, move structure, lexical features and the use of epistemic adjectives and adverbs are presented. Section 8 explores the scope of genre knowledge, potential criticisms and chances of a genre-based teaching approach as well as several concrete genre-based notions and models for teaching (Swales 2004; Hüttner 2007; Mungra 2010). Finally, the potential of genre-based teaching for ESP courses in Austrian midwifery education is explored.

2. Conceptualising Genre

This section introduces the concept *genre*, as proposed by John Swales in *Genre Analysis* (1990) and adapted in *Research Genres* (2004). The most essential elements of his definition will be discussed in more detail, i.e. communicative purpose(s), discourse communities, prototypicality as well as aspects addressed in his 2004 conceptualisation, i.e. dynamic vs. stable nature of genres, genre relationships and the interaction of genre and society.

The concept of genre can be traced back to Aristotle's *Poetics*, in which he suggests a classification of literary products into prose, drama and poetry (Paltridge 1997:1). Since that time the concept genre has been used in various fields of research, including linguistic anthropology, sociology of language and folklore studies (Paltridge 1997: 1). In most cases, the notion of genre was used as a means of classification, offering a tool for establishing categories which allow ordering a great number of items, e.g. films, books, etc., in a systematic manner. The concept of genre has also been drawn on in linguistic research. Tarone *et al.* (1981) used the term 'genre' for the first time in a linguistic context, when they presented the results of their study on the use of the passive in journal articles within the field of astrophysics (Dudley-Evans 1994: 219; Swales 2004). A major point of discussion has been which characteristic should be the decisive one for defining a genre (Paltridge 1997: 29-36). One aspect which has been given primary significance for the identification of linguistic genres is communicative purpose, which has been established by John Swales' influential

definition of genre (Henry, Roseberry 2001; Bondi 2001), presented in his book *Genre Analysis* (1990):

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. The genre names inherited and produced by discourse communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communication, but typically need further validation. (Swales 1990: 58)

With this "working definition" (1990:45) Swales indicated some aspects of genre definition which have been of considerable significance since, namely seeing genres as “communicative events” (1990:58), as integral part of the communication between members of discourse communities and as being motivated and shaped by communicative purposes. An additional aspect addressed by this definition is the issue of prototypicality. The following paragraphs elaborate on these notions.

2.1 Genre as Communicative Events

One crucial aspect is the identification of genres as “a class of communicative events”. The notion of genre as an element of interaction mirrors an earlier definition of genre, namely genre “as social action” (Miller 1984:23), which highlights the influence other linguists, e.g. Miller, exerted on Swales’ work. This definition suggests that genre equals a linguistically conducted social action which is incited and shaped by the underlying communicative purposes of the participants of the respective communicative situation. This rather strong position was mitigated by Swales, when he reconsidered the identification of genre with social action in *Research Genres* (2004). There he suggests regarding genres as “*frames* for social action, not as social actions themselves” (2004:61). Following this change, genres are not identical with actions but frameworks informing and enabling action. Therefore, genre knowledge is merely a part of the expertise a writer/speaker needs to realise his or her purposes (2004:62). Nevertheless, genre remains an essential means for maximising the efficacy of one’s social actions conducted via language.

2.2 Genre and Discourse Communities

One aspect that is characteristic of genres is their "situatedness" (Berkenkotter, Huckin 1995:7) in a discourse community. A discourse community, according to Swales (1990: 24-27), is defined by six characteristics:

1. A discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.
2. A discourse community has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members.
3. A discourse community uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback.
4. A discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims.
5. In addition to owning genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific lexis.
6. A discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discorsal expertise.

These six criteria highlight the central position of language and language use in discourse communities. Another form of community linked by language use is a speech community, which could be defined as "[a] social group that shares knowledge of one linguistic code and knowledge also of its patterns of use" (Kramsch 1998:131). While membership in a speech community can be the result of circumstances like the family and culture, into which one is born, joining a discourse community requires a conscious decision, e.g. by deciding to enter a particular profession, and the acquisition of relevant knowledge and expertise. Becoming a member of a discourse community therefore seems to be, essentially, an aspect of secondary socialisation. Another distinguishing feature between speech and discourse communities is the primary purpose of language use between their members. In contrast to speech communities, discourse communities do not utilise their shared language competence mainly as a means for social interaction, but draw on linguistic resources in order to reach the shared goals of the community (Swales 1990:24). Another specific aspect of language use within discourse communities is that communicative action has to be realised on a regular basis for a group of people with shared contextual conditions to be a discourse community (Swales 1990:25). For that reason every discourse community offers specific media and platforms to facilitate communication between its members, such as journals, newsletters, etc. (Swales 1990:25). As interaction is geared towards achieving shared goals, communication in a discourse community is mostly content-based, allowing the exchange of "information and feedback" (Swales 1990:26). The language used is therefore more subject-related, giving rise to the development of specific lexis, including abbreviations and specific terminology (Swales 1990:26), and generic repertoires, which facilitate and accelerate communication on particular subjects. Discourse communities therefore develop and possess a range of typical genres

(1990:26), which feature characteristic lexical and grammatical patterning as well as structural conventions. Being able to create and process community-specific genres adequately is a crucial defining aspect of a member of the discourse community. If one wants to become a member, one therefore needs to gain the relevant knowledge and skills. The acquisition of sufficient genre knowledge may present itself as a considerable challenge, especially as many issues influencing genre realisation are tacit, e.g. underlying "ideas and belief about what constitutes knowledge" (Gimenez 2012:417). Therefore developing genre expertise might be a potential hurdle for novices and a criterion according to which discourse communities may regulate the size of membership (Swales 1990:26-27). As we have seen, this definition offers a number of characteristics that allow for a distinction between a discourse community and other communities. Still, the range of discourse communities is diverse, allowing for rather uncommon examples such as the Hong Kong stamp-collecting society (Swales 2004: 27), or major communities that are linked by academic and/or professional purposes (Johns 1997:54-56), such as the natural sciences. Johns (1997:51-52) summarises this concept of discourse community concisely, when she says: "In the term *discourse communities*, the focus is on texts and language, the genres and lexis that enable members throughout the world to maintain their goals, regulate their membership, and communicate efficiently with one another" [original emphasis].

2.3 Genre and Communicative Purpose(s)

Swales foregrounds communicative purpose as the most relevant distinguishing factor for genre identification (1990:46). The communicative purpose of a genre is the reason it is created in the first place and is the motivating force behind numerous choices taken in the productive process with regard to lexicon, grammar, structure or topic. It is by the analysis of the underlying communicative purpose that one may distinguish one genre from another (Bhatia 1993:13) or by which genre can be distinguished from register (Dudley-Evans 1994: 219). Still, defining the communicative purpose(s) of a genre is not a clear and straightforward procedure (Hüttner 2007: 26; Flowerdew, John 2013:139) because, for example, genres may serve to realise various purposes. Swales indicates the possibility of a genre pursuing "*sets of communicative purposes*" (Swales 1990:47). He illustrates this notion by presenting the genre of poems, where assigning one specific communicative purpose is mostly neither possible nor wanted. Therefore, Swales (1990) already acknowledges the 'fuzzy' nature of defining and assigning communicative purposes, which, for example,

becomes prevalent in situations, where there are multiple purposes for genre production. These aspects have also been indicated and criticised by other researchers who experienced the difficulty of grasping the communicative purpose of a genre conclusively in their genre-analytical work (e.g. Bhatia 2006; Hyland 2006; Hüttner 2007).

One main linguist outlining the complexity of assigning communicative purposes to genres is Bhatia (2006). He argues that defining one particular communicative purpose for a genre may be impossible, as genres mirror the complexity of reality and may serve to realise numerous purposes at the same time (2006: 80). The diversity of contextual variables influencing genre production presents a considerable demand for the genre analyst. To reach a grounded comprehension of a genre, profound knowledge of the discipline-specific conditions of genre production and reception is necessary (2006: 80). Bhatia (2006) therefore indicates as reasons for the observed difficulty of concretising a genre's communicative purpose the complexity of situations in which genres are used, a potential multiplicity of purposes and in some cases a lack of insight into discipline-related conditions influencing genre production (2006:80). In addition, Bhatia emphasises that besides pursuing shared communicative purposes of a group, an author's product may also serve to realise "private intentions" (2004:73).

Another aspect of genre, which renders the assignment of communicative purpose a complicated project, has been raised by Askehave and Swales (2001), namely that the analyst's observation of communicative purpose(s) informing a genre may change throughout the analytical process, e.g. if the analysis delivers unexpected results or if additional contextual information reveals new aspects of the genre under analysis. In their paper "Genre Identification and Communicative Purpose: A Problem and a Possible Solution" (2001), Askehave and Swales suggest beginning the analysis with a preliminary notion of communicative purpose, which then undergoes a process of "re-purposing" (2001: 207) throughout the investigation. The idea of 're-purposing' a genre acknowledges the potential multiplicity of communicative purposes and allows for redefining generic boundaries throughout the analytical process (2001: 207).

A noteworthy distinction is the one between the communicative purposes assigned by the discourse community and the "communicative functions"(Hüttner 2007:27) identified by the genre analyst. Communicative purposes and functions may vary considerably. Job application letters and sales letters may be interpreted as samples of one genre by the linguist, i.e. the promotional genre (Bhatia 1993:45-75), due to their communicative function of promoting something, e.g. a person or a product. The authors, however, might aim to fulfil different

communicative purposes by producing these letters, rendering the two types of letters two different genres (Hüttner 2007:27).

In spite of the outlined limitations, communicative purpose is still a major distinguishing factor for genres, as it provides the basis for the author's choices regarding structure, content or lexico-grammatical aspects and therefore also a major reason for the differences in form and content between genres. Its significance in comparison to other potential factors becomes apparent, if one tries to distinguish a genre from its parody (Swales 1990: 47); form and content may not be sufficiently differentiating to perceive a difference between a text and its parody, whereas communicative purpose could provide the required insight (Swales 1990:47).

2.4 The Prototypicality of Genres

Another aspect addressed by Swales' definition of 1990 is that samples of a genre may vary with regard to their level of prototypicality (1990:58). Prototypical samples are realisations which meet the expectations of discourse community members with regard to "form, structure and audience" (Swales 1990: 52) to a great degree. The notion of more or less prototypical examples within a genre allows for unclear boundaries and considerable overlaps between genres, probably reflecting to a greater degree the reality of genre usage.

In *Research Genres* Swales reconsiders his earlier definition in the light of a decade of discussion on various issues with regard to genre. Apart from depicting genre no longer as communicative event but rather as a frame for social action, a main reconsideration is that he no longer tries to capture the nature of genre in words but proposes conceptualising genre by means of metaphor (2004:61). The metaphors he suggests embrace not only the notions outlined above but address two additional aspects that have also been central in genre-analytical discussions following his book *Genre Analysis*: the degree of flexibility of genres and their relationships with each other.

2.5 Dynamic versus Fluid Nature of Genres

Genres are inherently stable and flexible. On the one hand, the genre as "recurrent, significant action" (Miller 1994: 67) is repetitive per definitionem, which leads to conventionalised patterns (Flowerdew, John 2013:141). Conventions are stable principles that guide the

creation and reception of genres, shape the expectations of the audience and constrain the choices of writers and speakers (Bhatia 2012: 243). Following the conventions of one's discourse community means to adhere to conventionalised patterns, e.g. in language use or structuring of texts. Producing samples of a genre, therefore, includes the reproduction of established patterns and thereby the demonstration of genre expertise, which characterises a community member. Texts are recognisable as belonging to the same genre partly due to recognisable formal features, patterns of language use and shared communicative purposes.

On the other hand, there is some degree of freedom available within generic conventions, especially for experts who have the authority to challenge established traditions. As Bazerman (2012:230) points out, genres are linked to the “system of activity” in which they occur and changes of these activities may lead to variations in the conventions of the genre itself. This dynamic aspect has been foregrounded by Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), when they argue that “[g]enres, therefore, are always sites of contention between stability and change. They are inherently dynamic, constantly (if gradually) changing over time in response to the sociocognitive needs of individual users” (1995:6). The dynamic character of genres results from their interaction with potentially changing contextual factors as well as from individual creativity. An “individualization” (Karlgrén 2010:35) of genres may gradually evolve by subtly varying specific features, which is a possibility open to the producers of a genre, especially to core members of a discourse community and in systems without rigid conventional criteria (Karlgrén 2010: 35). However, even though there is a dynamic aspect integral to the notion of genre, it is still “within rather than outside genre conventions” (Hyland 2012: 242) that changes take place.

2.6 Genre Relationships

Genres do not exist in isolation but are related to a multitude of other genres. Attempts to describe certain kinds of relationships between genres comprise, for example, Devitt's genre sets (Devitt 1991), Bhatia's genre systems and colonies (2004), Swales' genre networks (2004) and Hüttner's (2007) genre constituents.

Devitt (1991) indicates in her study on tax accounting that there are “genre sets” (1991: 340). 'Genre set' denotes the totality of genres “produced by a professional group within their daily routine” (1991: 340), e.g. all genres a tax accountant produces in order to manage his work effectively. While Devitt's genre set is restricted to the genres produced by one person within

a professional or institutional system, the notion of genre systems, introduced by Bazerman (1994), presents the full range of genres which are used in a communicative situation. This concept allows for an inclusion of various genres, even if some of these are restricted to particular participant positions. Giving presentations, for example, may be a genre open to both, lecturers and students. Writing exam prompts for an actual exam, however, is restricted to the lecturer's position and producing an answer essay to the prompt is the task of students. Swales (2004) introduces with "genre networks" a term to describe the "totality of genres available for a particular sector (such as the research world)" (2004:22) and with "genre chains" a concept acknowledging the chronological sequence in which some genres follow each other (2004: 18). As an example, one could say that the exam prompt has to precede the respective exam essay. Therefore, the exam prompt and the essay build a genre chain, which is again part of the genre system of assessment and the genre network of academic education.

Bhatia (2004:59) proposes a form of classification which allows depicting concepts of genre relations in a hierarchical way. He argues that genres combine to build genre colonies, i.e. "groupings of closely related genres serving broadly similar communicative purposes, but not necessarily all the communicative purposes in cases where they serve more than one. In addition they may not share a number of other features of context" (Bhatia 2004:59). For example, the genre colony of promotional genres may embrace the genres of book blurbs and job applications, sharing the purpose of promoting a product but differing in other purposes and contextual features, such as medium of communication, which then allow a further subdivision into sub-genres like advertisements on television or in magazines (2004:59). The notion of generic hierarchies can also be found in the division into genres and genre constituents (Hüttner 2007). Hüttner (2007) suggests that some of the so far analysed genres, such as introductions of research articles (Swales 1990, 2002), could be interpreted as examples of the genre constituent 'introduction' together with other introductory genre constituents, such as the introduction of a thesis or a textbook. This may be seen as a horizontal intertextual relationship, while the relationship between the genre constituent, e.g. introduction, to the genre it is part of, e.g. article, is situated on the vertical axis of genre hierarchy. As can be seen, relationships between genres are complex and can be classified in varying ways.

2.7 Genre and Society

A crucial question in genre theory is also the relationship between genre and society. Genre-analytical approaches tend to share the perspective that “discourse is socially constitutive rather than simply socially shaped” (Hyland 2004:3). On the one hand, genres are shaped by the social contexts from which they originate, but, on the other hand, they also contribute to the construction of society (Doherty-Farina 1991; Bazerman, Paradis 1991; Berkenkotter, Huckin 1995). This means that creating and reproducing, consuming and experiencing genres is not a process merely shaped by its social and cultural context but is itself of considerable significance for forming, reifying and challenging societal perspectives, structures and practices. Giddens’ Structuration theory (Giddens 1984) provides the theoretical background for this perspective. He argues that “the modes of [social] systems, grounded in the knowledgeable activities of situated actors who draw upon rules and resources in the diversity of action contexts, are produced and reproduced in interaction” (Giddens 1984:25). Within this framework, genres are resources and genre conventions rules which can be used by people within certain social situations to reproduce but also construct social relations.

In conclusion, the concept of genre underlying this thesis is based on a combination of the definitions provided by Swales’ in 1990 and 2004. Essential elements of this genre concept are that genres are shaped and distinguished by their respective communicative purposes and named, inherited and “possessed” (Swales 1990) by the discourse communities in which they are situated. Genre knowledge may be regarded as an ‘entry condition’ for a specific discourse community and genres are constitutive for discourse communities. The range of genre realisations includes more or less prototypical examples. Also, genres are at the same time conventionalised and stable to a certain degree and open for change and creative exploitation, mainly by expert users. Furthermore, genres do not exist in isolation but are part of genre systems, chains and sets, or are comprised of genre constituents. This complex concept of genre informs the genre analysis and its interpretation conducted in section 6 as well as the discussion of genre-based teaching in section 7.

3. Genre Analysis

Having introduced genre, this section moves on to outline the field of genre analysis, as it is in this tradition that the analysis in section 7 is conducted. This overview situates genre analysis in the tradition of discourse analysis, introduces three major genre-analytical approaches,

namely the Sydney School (e.g. Martin 1989), the New Rhetoric School (e.g. Miller 1984, Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995) and the ESP approach (e.g. Swales 1990, 2004; Bhatia 1993, 2004, 2008, 2012), and indicates influential developments, i.e. corpus linguistics, multimodality and the request for stronger emphasis on text-external features (Bhatia 2004).

3.1 Genre Analysis – Definition , Contextualisation and Aims

Genre analysis can be defined as "the study of situated linguistic behaviour in institutionalized academic or professional settings" (Bhatia 2012:241) and is mostly seen as being a part of discourse analysis (Hüttner 2007; Hyland 2004, 2012). Defining discourse analysis is a challenging task (Flowerdew, Lynne 2012), as the field of discourse analysis is diverse and covers a range of different perspectives and research interests (Bhatia 1993: 4). Bhatia (1993) defines discourse analysis as "a study of language use beyond the sentence boundaries". In addition to focusing on aspects of textualisation, e.g. a genre's move structure or typical lexical choices, he also addresses the social dimension of discourse analysis by indicating that the main aim of discourse analytical research is to increase our understanding of "the structure and function of language use to communicate meaning" (1993:3). The discourse analytical interest in the functional and social purposes of language is also an aspect emphasised by Kirkpatrick and McLellan's (2012) definition of discourse analysis, which says that it examines "the way language is used in a variety of sociocultural contexts" (654). The relevance of sociocultural context for discourse analysis is also addressed by Hyland, when he says "Discourse analysis is a collection of methods for studying language in action, looking at texts in relation to the social contexts in which they are used" (2012:414). The common denominator of the three given definitions is that discourse is interested in language usage and its interaction with sociocultural conditions. As genre analysis is interested in how linguistic means are used to achieve specific communicative purposes in recurrent situations and in the interaction of language and social variables within a specific context of communication, it can be interpreted as a part of discourse analysis.

Bhatia (1993:4) indicates that the diversity of discourse analytical research allows for a range of research interests and methods, which is also reflected by varying focuses within genre analysis. One aspect which may differ between discourse analytical approaches is the focus of research. While one approach may be more interested in the linguistic aspects of language use, such as genre analysts in the systemic linguistic framework, another one could stress the interaction between language and contextual variables, e.g. genre analyses in the tradition of Swales (Swales 1990; Bhatia 1993; Cross, Oppenheim 2006). Discourse analytical

approaches may also vary with regard to their degree of specificity. Whereas some discourse analysts are interested in rather general aspects of speech, such as features of conversational language use prevalent in a majority of different contexts, others are interested in investigating the variation of language use with regard to changing contexts (Bhatia 1993:4). The third distinguishing factor between different approaches within discourse analysis is the degree to which potential applications motivate research. A branch, where research is highly motivated by practical concerns is, for example, ESP teaching, while linguists researching in order to confirm, modify or challenge linguistic theories and concepts may see potential applications rather as a side-product of their analyses (Bhatia 1993:4). These three aspects, i.e. varying emphases on either linguistic or social variables, specificity of research subject as well as interest in practical outcomes, are also apt for indicating the differences between the three major genre-analytical schools, which will be discussed after a short overview on the development of genre analysis.

The beginning of genre analysis as a particular field of research has been related to Swales's seminal book *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research settings* (1990) (Basturkmen 2006: 52). Although aspects of genre analysis can already be found in earlier linguistic research, e.g. variety studies or sociolinguistics (Swales 1990: 13-20), genre analysis has considerably gained momentum from the 1990s onwards. Since then numerous genre-based analyses have been conducted into academic (cp. Swales 1990, 2004; Hyland 2004) as well as professional (Bhatia 1993; Biber *et al.* 2007) genres. One of the most influential contributions of *Genre Analysis* is the CARS (=Create a Research Space) model (1990: 141), which provides a framework for the structural analysis of a genre. Identifying and analysing a genre's structure has been shown to be a way to gain valuable knowledge about a genre.

Genre analysis, according to Hyland (2004:195-196), strives to reach the following aims:

Genre analysis seeks to:

- Identify how texts are structured in terms of functional stages or moves
- Identify the features that characterize texts and that help realize their communicative purposes
- Examine the understandings of those who write and read the genre
- Discover how the genre relates to users' activities
- Explain language choices in terms of social, cultural, and psychological contexts
- Provide insights for language teaching

This list highlights major objectives of genre analysis and is directly related to the understanding of genre outlined in section 2. Genre analyses of textual samples focus on structural and lexico-grammatical choices demonstrated by the texts and strive to provide

potential reasons for choosing one realisation over another. In addition, genre analysis is interested in the means by which communicative purpose(s) are achieved. In order to reach a valid explanation, it is crucial to gain knowledge of the participants' understanding, the activities in which the genre is embedded and numerous other contextual features, e.g. political, institutional or cultural conditions which may exert influence on genre production and reception. The results of this linguistic and contextual analysis may then offer a comprehensive understanding of a genre.

3.2 The three Schools of Genre Analysis

During the 1980s and 1990s, three major approaches developed in the field of genre analysis: the Sydney School, the New Rhetoric School, and the ESP approach (Paltridge 1997:23). Since then new developments, e.g. Academic Literacies (Lea, Street 1998) or English as a Lingua Franca for Academic Purposes (Jenkins 2014), have commenced (Tribble 2015:443) and the boundaries between the three schools are no longer so clear-cut. However, outlining the shared and distinct aspects of these schools provides deeper insights into the development of genre analysis as an approach. In addition, their different emphases and perspectives are still relevant points of discussion and illustrate the range of perspectives, in relation to which contemporary genre analysts have to position themselves. While these approaches always have been very close to each other and have shared basic characteristics, such as the central importance of text analysis (Paltridge 1997:23) and their regard for the social context of a genre (Freedman 1994:191), there are also some aspects which distinguish the three approaches from each other (Freedman 1994:191), e.g. the political conditions and educational systems which have provided the background to the development of the respective approach, the underlying theoretical perspectives, or the extent of emphasis put on text or context (Hyland 2004:24). The underlying perspectives of a school influence the research conducted as well as the pedagogical implications forwarded by the respective approach (Hyland 2004:24). In the following overview, the main aspects that are characteristic for each school, including its development, main research focus and major representatives are described.

3.2.1 The Sydney School

The Sydney school is a genre-analytical approach which has developed in Australia and received its name due to the fact that most influential researchers of this approach have been

working at the Linguistics Department of the University of Sydney (Freedman, Medway 1994:9). Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) provides the relevant theoretical background for the genre analysts researching in this tradition (Paltridge 1997:24; Freedman 1994:191), as Halliday worked in Sydney from 1976 onwards (Halliday, Hasan 1989:iii). Not only Halliday's SFL, but also the political and educational situation in Australia incited and informed the development of this genre-analytical approach. As researchers in the early 1980s perceived the results of writing education, which was at that time mainly based on process writing approaches and narrative genres, as inadequate, they commenced working on an innovative approach to teaching: a genre-based pedagogy focusing on factual texts (Paltridge 1997:24). This development explains that the approach caters for a broad range of educational levels, embracing primary and secondary education as well as teaching writing in academic or professional contexts. Teaching genres is interpreted as an empowering activity, as it allows children and adults from various social and educational backgrounds to acquire genre competence and enables them to partake in the communicative interaction of society (Martin 1989:51-52). As a consequence, teaching of genre is, for the Sydney school, a way of shaping society (Freedman, Medway 1994:10). Another influence on the Sydney School's pedagogical perspective has been Vygotsky's emphasis on learning as a consequence of interaction rather than of a transfer of facts from one person to another (Hyland 2004:129-130).

Representatives of the Sydney School understand genre as one of the two levels, next to register, that determine language choices (Paltridge 1997:23). It describes what Halliday calls the 'context of culture' (Halliday, Hasan 1989:46-47) of a certain communicative event (Paltridge 1997:23). As language choices are considerably influenced by context, sufficient knowledge about a contextual situation allows for a prediction of language and genres that could be relevant and of realisations that might be adequate (Paltridge 1997:24). Genre may therefore be seen as a rather stable response to certain contexts. This stability allows for the teaching of knowledge related to genre construction (Freedman, Medway 1994:9). Gaining the required knowledge is one of the aims of genre analyses conducted by the Sydney School, which includes investigations of a genre's "*structure potential*" (Paltridge 1997:25) as well as the lexico-grammatical means furthering the respective communicative purpose. Following the genre concept of the Sydney School, one may find that a text can be comprised of various genres, such as narratives, recounts, arguments and expositions (Martin 1989). The identification of a genre results from "internal linguistic criteria" (Hyland 2004:28), giving rise to a strong linguistic focus of analysis, although the connection between genres and their social contexts is also seen as significant (Hyland 2004:25).

Major researchers in this tradition are, for example, Halliday, who is the founder of the Systemic Functional Linguistics paradigm, Paltridge (1997), Christie (1989) and Martin (1989) (Freedman 1994), whose definition of genre as “a staged, goal oriented social process” (Martin 1989:505) illustrates the SFL focus on structure, communicative purpose and social situatedness of genre.

3.2.2 The New Rhetoric School

The New Rhetoric School is located in North America and is greatly influenced by research in the field of composition studies and L1 writing education (Hyland 2004:35). Its broader theoretical background comprises postmodern social and literary theories, especially Bakhtin (Bakhtin; cp. Hyland 2004:35). The focus of the New Rhetoric approach, in contrast to the Sydney School, lies on the complex interaction between genre and social context. In the foreground of research in the New Rhetoric tradition is the dynamic nature of genres, i.e. the way they develop and undergo paradigm shifts (Freedman, Medway 1994:11).

Genre is conceptualised as “situated action”, which is a definition that was introduced by Carolyn Miller in her influential paper “Genre as Social Action” (1984). This central definition stresses the relevance of a genre’s social context for the New Rhetoric approach. Linguistic realisations are in so far interesting for researchers of this tradition, as their regularities may resemble recurrent social activities as well as the diversity of responses to such situations, which could highlight differences between various cultures, communities or institutions (Hyland 2004:36). It is an approach which analyses the text to gain a deeper understanding of its social context, while the two other approaches investigate contextual features for a better comprehension of the linguistic outcome (Flowerdew, John 2002: 91-92). The Sydney School is highly motivated by pedagogical concerns embracing all levels of education. Research of the New Rhetoric School, in contrast, focuses on expert writers, e.g. at university level, and holds a critical stance with regard to the possibility and consequences of genre teaching. The potential of genres to exclude some people from privileged discourses (Hyland 2004:40) and the resulting influence of genres to reify and reproduce power structures are a major concern of the New Rhetoric School (cp. section 8).

Major representatives of this approach are Bazerman (1994, 2012), Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), Miller (1984, 1994) and Freedman and Medway (1994) (Paltridge 1997:28).

3.2.3 The ESP Approach

Some overviews on genre-analytical approaches merely describe the two Schools outlined above (cp. Freedman 1994), while others (Bondi 2001: 136) present the ESP approach introduced by Swales (1990) and extended by Bhatia (1993) (Hüttner, Smit, Mehlmauer-Larcher 2009:101) as an equally important branch of genre analysis. This approach is outlined here in more detail, as it is the most significant for this thesis. The ESP approach provides most of the relevant theoretical background and is informed by concerns of ESP teaching, which is the pedagogical situation envisioned as potential context of application for the genre-analytical results gained by the analysis in section 6.

The genre-based approach to ESP research and teaching commenced with Swales' seminal book *Genre Analysis* (1990) (Basturkmen 2006:52). His definition of genre, acknowledging the considerable relevance of communicative purpose(s) and discourse community (see also section 2) and his framework for examining genre structure have been highly influential. His structural analysis of research article introductions provides an example for an investigation of a genre's obligatory and optional *moves* and *steps* (1990:141), i.e. "the discoursal or rhetorical unit[s] that perform[...] a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse" (Swales 2004:228).

Although the ESP approach has been influenced by theories of numerous linguistic and non-linguistic fields, including sociolinguistics, cultural anthropology (Swales 1990:18-19), social theory (e.g. Giddens' Structuration theory) (Basturkmen 2006:10) and theories of language teaching (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching, CLT), it is not based on a specific theory. In this regard, the ESP approach contrasts with the Sydney School, which is rooted in Systemic Functional Linguistics. It is "eclectic" (Hyland 2004:44), which also includes drawing on concepts of the other genre-analytical approaches, e.g. the concept of genre as social action by Miller (1984) (Paltridge 1997:28). Consequently, there are considerable overlaps with the other two approaches. On the one hand, ESP researchers focus on linguistic aspects of genres like the Sydney school but they also consider the interaction between genre and the social context, like the New Rhetoric approach (Hyland 2004:44).

For the ESP approach, genres are especially relevant due to their significance for a person's professional and/or academic competence (Hyland 2004:43). Its understanding of genre, as outlined above, includes the regulatory potential of genre knowledge, which can be used as a means to exclude others and to control membership of a discourse community. The aim of the

analyses conducted is therefore to gain knowledge of the respective genres in order to understand better which linguistic patterns are perceived as adequate by discourse communities for the realisation of their communicative purposes. Results of such analyses can inform the evaluation, improvement and development of ESP teaching material (Hyland 2006:246) and could augment the ability to prepare students appropriately for the required genre-related tasks of their professional or academic reality. The students most of this research is geared towards are therefore students of particular professions or in academia, which means that they are usually adults, who face specific language needs in order to be able to express their communicative purposes in ways accepted by the target community (Hyland 2004:49).

In comparison to the other two approaches, the ESP approach is highly accessible, since it does not require extensive theoretical expertise. Another advantage of the eclectic approach is that it allows for a broad range of methods and research interests, which could be especially beneficial for researchers and teachers dealing with a diversity of situations in professional and academic life.

The approach's major representatives are Swales (1990, 2004) and Bhatia (1993, 2006, 2012) but research in this tradition has been conducted by various linguists focussing on a variety of genres, including research articles (Maswana *et al.* 2015), Call for Papers (Mohammadi *et al.* 2013), business emails (Carrio-Pastor 2013) or book blurbs (Önder 2013). The latter study, which compares online book blurbs in English and Turkish, is an example of research conducted in the field of Contrastive Rhetoric and illustrates that Swales' model is also apt for comparative work, e.g. for contrasting move structures of a genre in different cultures.

3.3 Current Developments influencing Genre Analysis

Numerous developments in society, e.g. the spread of the internet, and in linguistics, e.g. corpus linguistics, have broadened the range of genres and the methodological possibilities for genre analysis. In addition, conducting genre-analytical research has led to insights regarding genre itself, leading to a request for a stronger focus on text-external features and for widening the scope of genre analysis beyond the confinements of the language classroom (Bhatia 2004). These developments shall be shortly addressed in the following paragraphs.

3.3.1 Multimodality

The concept of genre embraces considerably more than isolated texts or speeches. Textbooks, for example, do not present text as stand-alone products but provide pictures and headlines along with it, guiding the text's production by aspects of formatting or foregrounding (Bezemer, Jewitt 2010:191). In the realm of the internet, the range of additional features influencing the production and reception of genres is even broader. The resources for meaning production are not restricted to texts but feature various *modes*, i.e. an "organized set of semiotic resources for making meaning (with)" (Bezemer, Jewitt 2010:184). Considering multimodality in the analysis of a genre may not only be interesting but may be essential, especially in cases of web genres, such as online user profiles, in order to gain an in-depth understanding of a genre and the means it makes use of to realise particular communicative purposes. Since multimodality is hardly relevant for the genre under analysis, this new and complex approach can only be indicated but not adequately covered in this thesis.

3.3.2 Corpus Linguistics

One of the most influential developments in linguistics has been the growing potential and significance of corpus linguistics. Working with a corpus, i.e. "a large collection of language, usually held electronically, which can be used for the purposes of linguistic analysis" (Flowerdew, John 2013:160), allows for the investigation of large amounts of language. Corpus linguistics, then, can be defined as "the application of computational tools to the analysis of corpora, in order to reveal language patterns which systematically occur in them." (Flowerdew, John 2013: 160) The revelation of such regular patterns also gave rise to a new perspective on language. John Sinclair observes that language use seems to follow primarily, what he calls, the "idiom principle" (1991:110). Language users tend to combine pre-constructed units of language to express themselves and merely apply the "open choice principle" (1991:109), where language is constructed by choosing one word after another to fill the grammatical slots open to them (Sinclair 1991:109), if the 'idiom principle' does not suffice. Corpus linguistic methods have also shown that texts and genres may differ with regard to the use of collocations, i.e. "repeated co-occurrence[s] of certain words" (Kennedy 1998:108) and the respective frequency of words and grammatical structures.

The means of corpus linguistics enrich the methodological repertoire of genre analysis. They enable the genre analyst to examine the most frequent words, collocations and grammatical structures in the genre under analysis by compiling and examining a corpus consisting of

samples of a particular genre. Comparing these results with the results of analysing a ‘big’ corpus which is meant to represent general language use, e.g. the *British National Corpus (BNC)*, may reveal in how far and with regard to which features genres deviate from general language use. One of the greatest advantages of using corpus linguistics in genre analysis is that via corpus analysis one is able to provide quantitative evidence taken from attested language use. Nevertheless, also quantitative results have to be interpreted and evaluated, which means that there remains a subjective element in corpus linguistic research. Still, corpus analysis offers the most objective source of information about particular aspects of language use, e.g. frequency of terms or collocational behaviour, that is available to the linguist. As genre analysis has been criticised for a lack of objectivity, due to its reliance on the analyst’s interpretation, e.g. of a text’s move structure, corpus linguistic methodology may complement genre analysis and provide some quantitative and therefore more objective data for the genre-analytical research conducted (Flowerdew, Lynne 2008:13).

Corpus linguistic methods also face some limitations. One of the aspects that have to be taken into account is the degree of representativeness of the samples included in the corpus. Results may vary depending on whether an analyst uses either all of the available texts of a genre, the most prototypical ones or the best ones, raising also the question, whose verdict on the prototypicality or quality of a genre sample is decisive (cp. Hüttner 2007). Another relevant issue is the datedness of samples and corpora. Language constantly develops and interacts with changing contextual factors, which leads to the conclusion that a corpus can merely be representative for a specific time, rendering generalisations problematic. This point ties in with the question of the representativeness of reference corpora, i.e. corpora like *BNC*. While a constantly growing corpus may represent contemporary language use more comprehensively, a corpus which is carefully planned, including a maximum amount of words, and which is compiled according to a concise plan that ensures a balanced representation of language within the corpus, may be more successful in presenting the diversity of language use across different fields (cp. Hunston 2002:30). These decisions, therefore, directly influence the version of general language, which may be used as a point of comparison in genre analysis. Another major limitation of corpus analysis is that the results can only reveal what is realised by the texts included in the corpus. The results of corpus analysis therefore only allow generalisations for the corpus under analysis, not for a genre or for language use in general (Gavioli 2005:18).

In spite of these limitations, corpus linguistics increases the possibilities of genre analysis considerably, allowing for quantitative analyses of lexical and grammatical aspects with regard to certain genres or even genre elements, e.g. moves (Henry, Roseberry 2001). In addition, the analysis of specific corpora comprised of samples of a particular genre may be especially beneficial for the investigation of genres which are not produced frequently or genres which have not been realised for a long time (Hüttner, Smit, Mehlmauer-Larcher 2009:102).

3.3.3 Text-external Features

Although Swales's (1990) definition of genre already includes the social context by relating genre to discourse communities and communicative purposes, genre analyses have focused, to a great degree, on aspects of textual realisation. Bhatia, in his book *Analysing Genre* (1993), suggests a framework for examining new genres, which includes the steps "Placing the given genre-text in a situational context" (22), "Refining the situational/contextual analysis" (23), "Studying the institutional context" (24) and "Specialist information in genre analysis" (34). Text-external features therefore are already addressed in *Analysing Genre* (1993), but he explicitly stresses their significance in more recent publications (2004, 2008). Bhatia advocates for a stronger focus on text-external features in genre analysis, due to their decisive role for the success and efficacy of genres, which are located in specific professional discourses (2008:171). Bhatia also argues for widening the scope of genre analysis, which has mostly been concerned with genre analysis for language teaching contexts, to the 'real world', e.g. the context of business interaction, and to acknowledge the "complex, dynamic, versatile, and unpredictable" (Bhatia 2004:xiv) nature of genre. By shifting his focus more towards the socio-cultural and dynamic aspects of genre, Bhatia seems to move closer to the New Rhetoric School. This stronger emphasis on text-external features highlights the social situatedness of genres and the essential relevance of contextual information for a sound genre analysis. Section 7.1 of this thesis, for example, highlights the great significance of institutionally defined roles on the production of the genre, e.g. the intended audience and its influence on communicative purposes.

4. English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

The course which most likely addresses the topic of writing an English abstract for the bachelor paper in Austrian midwifery education and therefore may benefit from genre-

analytical results and methods the most is an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) class at one of the universities educating midwifery students. Therefore, the theoretical background of ESP should be provided by this section. To understand the situation of ESP teaching better, it is necessary to define ESP and clarify its increasing relevance for contemporary academic and professional life, which is linked to technological innovations and globalisation. Since ESP in midwifery education embraces vocational as well as academic target situations, the classification of ESP into English for Occupational (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) should be addressed. A diversity of purposes seems to be typical of ESP contexts and gives rise to a range of possible needs for the learner, which could be investigated by the means of a needs analysis, and for the teacher, which is reflected by a variety of teacher roles. Potential genre-analytical contributions to ‘needs analysis’ and the fulfilment of ‘teacher roles’ are therefore presented in more detail.

4.1 Definition, Significance and Development

ESP is part of the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) and its research is conducted within the tradition of Applied Linguistics (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:1). Adopting Strevens’s (1988) system of defining ESP but slightly changing some of his criteria (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:4), Dudley-Evans and St. John define ESP by indicating three essential and four optional aspects. According to this definition, ESP is characterised by the following “Absolute characteristics” (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:4):

- ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves;
- ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

These core characteristics allow for distinguishing ESP from general English, illustrate the tight relationship between specific language teaching and the respective discipline and foreground that ESP is essentially a pedagogically motivated endeavour. Dudley-Evans and St. John also provide four “variable characteristics” (1998:5), which may be valid for some ESP contexts but not for others:

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level;

- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

These variable characteristics highlight the broad range of ESP teaching situations, allowing for a variety in terms of course schedules and requirements. They illustrate the heterogeneity of students in ESP classes, who may vary considerably in terms of age, professional background and language proficiency.

The significance of ESP in contemporary teaching is tied to the increasing importance of English as a means for communication on an international level, especially since the second half of the twentieth century. Although it is not possible to provide the precise point in time when ESP commenced, it considerably gained momentum from the 1960s onwards (del Pilar 2000:21) and has developed into a distinct discipline, which combines aspects of English Language Teaching with Teaching Language for Specific Purposes concerns. After World War II, the USA became an increasingly influential global player due to war-related economic benefits and a well working educational system that was responsible for a considerable amount of scientific contributions originating in US universities (del Pilar 2000:21-22). In addition, the invention and spread of computers (del Pilar 2000:22), and, later, the internet, both originating in the USA as well as the considerable amount of English speaking people in the world (del Pilar 2000:22) have strengthened the relevance of English on a global level. Another crucial development has been the rise of English as a Lingua Franca, which is defined by Seidlhofer as "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (2011:7). ELF is a phenomenon observable in professional as well as academic contexts and therefore contributes to a rising need for ESP teaching. As a consequence, ESP has developed into a discipline with considerable impact and research activity and during its evolvement it has embraced and interacted with various traditions.

Some of the first studies in ESP were conducted from the perspective of register analysis, such as Barber's (1962) investigation of syntax and lexicon in Scientific English (partially reprinted in Swales 1988:3-14). About a decade later, register analysis, which has mainly focused on quantitative investigation of the grammatical and lexical characteristics of specific, often discipline-related, varieties of English, was complemented by a more qualitative approach, namely rhetorical and discourse analysis (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:22). Some discourse analysts, e.g. Lackstrom, Selinker and Trimble (1972), started providing possible explanations for the lexico-grammatical choices revealed by former quantitative research. Another aspect that came into focus is text structure on a supra-

sentential level, which led to research focussing, for example, on paragraphing and discursive features (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:22). In addition, general language teaching theories exerted considerable influence, shifting the focus from the text to the learner. Two major aspects that have been emphasised since then are the skills required for competent language use as well as the students' learning needs (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:24-25). The "skills and strategies approach" (del Pilar 2000:40) emphasises the significance of thought processes, underlying the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. This shifts the emphasis of teaching to addressing strategies beyond the surface level of a language, which enable a language user to interpret a text or an utterance correctly as well as to produce an effective sample of language (del Pilar 2000:40). Another shift of focus resulted from a stronger interest in learning needs. The emphasis in this approach lies on the conditions necessary for a learner to acquire the competence needed for the target situation, e.g. student motivation, methods supporting the acquisition process, or learner types (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:26). The outlined multitude of influences, which have informed the development and research activities of ESP, illustrates one of its essential aspects, namely its willingness to integrate relevant theoretical or methodological developments of other disciplines (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:1). As a consequence of this openness, there is no longer a single major approach in ESP but a diversity of coexisting approaches, which augments the possibilities available to the complex field of ESP.

4. 2 Classification

Another characteristic aspect of ESP is that there is a great diversity of contexts, in which ESP teaching could occur, ranging from preparing foreign students for lectures at an English university to training active businessmen to successfully negotiate with international partners. This diversity of purposes is reflected in terminology and classification. ESP can be subdivided into two major fields, i.e. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Dudley-Evans, St. John 2000:6).

EAP is devoted to language typical of academic discourse, such as language patterns to ensure cohesion or hedging as a choice of style enabling a writer to mitigate criticism (Hyland 1998:6). Teaching EAP can be defined as teaching English "that relates to a study purpose" (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:34). One possible focus is therefore language aspects that are

especially relevant for processing and producing research-related genres, such as journal articles, and related study skills (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:34).

English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), in contrast, is an umbrella term for English taught for “professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations” (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:7). The main purpose of EOP is teaching language for concrete job situations (del Pilar 2000:25). While EAP tended to be of much greater significance within ESP than EOP, this imbalanced situation began to change, due to a rise in international business and consequently an increasing demand for ESP courses focusing on English for Business Purposes (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:2). Still, EAP remains a growing field, not least due to “complex modular degrees and emergent ‘practice-based’ courses, such as nursing, management and social work” (Hyland 2012:413). The striving of 'practice-based' courses for a more academic level of education creates a need for teaching EAP to their students. That formerly non-academic professions are pursuing the aim to enter the field of academic discourse therefore increases the number and heterogeneity of ESP/EAP students, which poses new challenges for ESP teachers and researchers.

The distinction between EAP and EOP, however, can only be a rough indication of two major concepts within ESP, as models suggesting a clear dichotomy between EAP and EOP appears to be simplified and not apt for portraying reality (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:8). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:8) suggest seeing EAP and EOP rather as the two poles of a continuum, which allows overlaps as well as locating teaching situations somewhere in the middle of either academic or occupational English teaching. A variety of ways to classify ESP teaching situations mirrors diverse pedagogical contexts, where elements of both areas have to be combined and intertwined in order to allow students to successfully fulfil the tasks required by their future professional life. An ESP course may embrace instruction in writing journal articles in one lesson and tasks practising oral communication with a client in the next lesson. Even more intertwined might be teaching the discipline-specific production of academic genres, e.g. how to write abstracts featuring discipline-specific patterns. Situations like these gave rise to terminological distinctions such as English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) or English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:7) illustrating that even within EAP a distinction along the scale of specificity sometimes might be useful.

On the one hand, academic writing features some aspects that are prevalent in most samples of scholarly publications irrespective of the discipline, which is exemplified by manuals giving advice how to write in an ‘academic style’, e.g. “[i]n thoughtful academic writing, we more often state claims [mitigated by the use of hedges like *suggest*]” (Williams 1997:176). Generalisations, like in this example, suggest a common core of features that are characteristic of the academic register and can be taught across disciplines. This perspective informs the “wide-angled” (Basturkmen 2006:25) teaching approach, which aims at teaching core skills and strategies with regard to academic writing.

On the other hand, Blue argues that, in addition to such "common core materials" (Blue 1988:95), ESP courses should also include discipline-specific language and genres. He stresses that teaching should centre on purposeful tasks, as the perceived relevance of such exercises increases the students' motivation (Blue 1988:95-96). In an ESP setting, purposeful tasks tend to be subject-related tasks, mirroring the requirements of professional life. Based on these arguments, Blue advocates a more specific approach to teaching academic writing in ESP contexts, e.g. writing a literature review rather on a discipline-specific topic than on a general subject. This “narrow-angled” (Basturkmen 2006:25) approach is supported by research on language variation between seemingly close academic disciplines. Gimenez’s (2010) research on academic writing in the fields of nursing, midwifery and social work, for example, illustrates that even related disciplines may vary considerably with regard to their writing conventions. He indicates that differences become apparent in the textual products as well as in the kinds of problems students experience in the process of acquiring the relevant skills. Gimenez then concludes that there is a “need for academic writing in higher education to become more discipline-specific and situated” (2010:208). This would cater for the needs of students, who have to be able to tackle discipline-related problems during the acquisition process and produce discipline-specific genres at the end of their ESP education. Whether a wide-angled or a narrow-angled approach is more effective and appropriate is still disputed (Basturkmen 2006:28) and may not present itself as a question that can be answered in a straightforward manner without taking the context of teaching into consideration.

4.3 Potential Contributions of Genre Analysis to Central ESP Concerns

ESP has always been motivated by practical concerns and has conducted research with the aim of improving and informing ESP teaching (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:1). A key

method for increasing the probability of teaching relevant content and skills efficiently in spite of a great variety of teaching contexts and target situations is a needs analysis, which may draw on text analyses and their results. Another consequence of diverse teaching situations is a variety of teacher roles, e.g. material provider, researcher, evaluator. The ability to choose from a range of methods and approaches, including genre analysis, facilitates performing needs analyses as well as fulfilling the various teacher roles.

4.3.1 Needs Analysis

The concept of needs analysis, which is also part of general language teaching theory, is an essential component of ESP (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:122). It is defined by Dudley-Evans and St. John as “the process of establishing the *what* and *how* of a course” [original emphasis] (1998:121). According to them, a needs analysis covers various aspects of the teaching situation and is the basis for planning, conducting and evaluating a course. There can be needs determined by the target situation (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998: 125), e.g. needs formulated by outsiders with expert knowledge of the relevant situation or needs related to the kind of genre students have to produce in the target situation. Another group of needs arises from the learning situation itself, e.g. the need to employ various learning strategies or to consider motivational factors (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:125). A third kind of needs results from the “present situation” (Dudley-Evans, St. Johns 1998:124), referring to the knowledge and skills the students already possess. Dudley-Evans & Johns (1998:125) therefore suggest gathering information about the target situations as well as the learners’ experiences, expectations, attitudes and English proficiency, their potential weaknesses and learning needs, and about the objectives and the context of the course. The relevance of genre analysis for needs analysis becomes, for example, apparent with regard to the target situation. Part of analysing the target situation is to gather “professional communication information about (A): Knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation – *linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis*” [original emphasis] (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:125). Genre analysis, e.g. by considering the discourse community (cp. section 2) or by identifying relevant text-external features (cp. section 3), therefore may contribute considerably to one of the main stages in a needs analysis. Consequently, genre-analytical methods and findings can inform planning, teaching and evaluating courses and could be of great value for ESP teachers facing a multiplicity of target situations with a great variety of relevant genres.

4.3.2 ESP Teacher Roles

Being an ESP teacher differs in some respects from teaching general English in primary or secondary education. One level on which this difference becomes apparent is the diversity of teacher roles open to and required from an ESP teacher. Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998:13-17) describe the following six roles of an “ESP practitioner” (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:13) as an integral part of teaching ESP:

- “Teacher”

ESP practitioners are teachers in so far as they guide the learning process, plan the schedule of the course and bring the necessary didactic expertise to professionally support students in fulfilling their tasks and to help them gain the required skills and knowledge. Still, in some respects the ESP teaching context differs from a typical school situation. Students may be adults with considerable professional expertise that, in many cases, will be broader than the teacher’s knowledge about the content matter. As a consequence, ESP teachers may face the necessity to react more flexibly to student input or involve them in the teaching process, rendering the teacher-student-relationship more cooperative and less hierarchical. (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:13-14) Genre analysis could increase the teacher’s discipline-specific expertise and provides additional teaching methods, which could allow students to interact with the respective genres more closely.

- “Course designer and materials provider”

Due to a broad range of teaching objectives and contexts, most ESP teachers are faced with the necessity to plan courses themselves according to the circumstances of teaching. They may also have to write their own teaching material or evaluate and adapt existing material in order to render it efficient for achieving the teaching objectives. (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:14-15) Genre analysis could be a valuable approach to enrich this aspect of ESP teaching, as the ESP practitioner can use its results as a source of information for material production (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:90). Furthermore, its methods provide a useful framework for teachers to analyse genres themselves, equipping him/her for situations in which there is only outdated, insufficient or no information at all on the relevant genres available (Hüttner, Smit, Mehlmauer-Larcher 2009:102).

- “Researcher”

As an ESP teacher needs to understand the target situation, including the genres relevant within it, teachers need to stay up-to-date with research carried out on discipline-specific and relevant genres (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:15). As indicated above, the researcher role enables a practitioner to better fulfil his roles as a teacher and material producer/evaluator. Research may also provide examples of concrete teaching ideas (cp. teaching concepts in section 7) and of possibly enriching combinations of linguistic approaches, e.g. genre analysis and corpus linguistics. Developments like these may then inform further teaching and render it more up-to-date. In addition, research conducted by ESP practitioners may also contribute to the knowledge base of genre analysis and therefore to gaining the necessary knowledge about specific genres or registers (Gavioli 2005:5).

- “Collaborator”

Collaboration with disciplinary professionals enables an ESP teacher to develop subject-specific tasks. There are various forms of collaboration, such as aligning the materials of ESP lessons with the content matter taught in subject courses or teaching a course together with a subject teacher. (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:16) The notion of cooperating with subject teachers is especially relevant for a more “narrow-angled” (Basturkmen 2006:25) teaching approach, as the purposefulness of particular tasks can be evaluated most reliably by a person with in-depth expertise on professional life and its typical processes. The cooperation with subject teachers might be of crucial significance in the teaching of genres due to their situatedness in the discourse community. However, the teaching of genres may also provide insights into the beliefs, concepts and central procedures of the discourse community, which support the teaching of subject classes.

- “Evaluator”

Evaluation processes, including the assessment of students and the evaluation of courses and materials, are a crucial part of teaching ESP. These evaluative processes feed into the devising and conducting of future courses and contribute to a continuous optimising of ESP teaching. (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:16-17) Evaluation is especially important if materials and course schedules are developed by the teacher him/herself or adapted considerably for the sake of the specific teaching objectives, since there may not be a multi-stage evaluative process informing material composition such as the editing, proof-reading and major feedback

processes. As indicated above, genre analysis could provide valuable information for evaluating the representativeness of teaching materials.

This variety of teacher roles illustrate that ESP teaching is a challenging task and requires professional knowledge of current research as well as expertise in conducting specific research projects relevant for the particular teaching situation oneself, if necessary. It is regarding this background that one recognises the significant value of genre analysis, particularly of the accessible frameworks by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993), as well as of small-scale corpus analysis for ESP teachers. The availability of software programmes and the comparatively low degree of required theoretical expertise allow the ESP teacher to be active as a researcher him/herself. In addition, the results from genre-analytical and/or corpus-based analyses can provide essential information on new, evolving, contemporary discipline-specific, etc. genres.

5. Midwifery Education in Austria

As this thesis examines a genre situated in the context of Austrian midwifery education, an overview on relevant developments in this field is essential and therefore provided by this section. There have been major changes with regard to the professional profile and position of Austrian midwives throughout the last decades, which inform midwifery education. These developments comprise the increasing need to provide evidence-based care, which requires academically literate (Johns 1997) midwives, the rising demand for discipline-specific research, and the tendency towards more international interaction between midwives with regard to research-related as well as political or social agendas. The following paragraphs elaborate on these developments and additionally provide more detailed information on the conditions of midwifery education in Austria, which has undergone considerable changes throughout the last three decades.

5.1 Developments in Midwifery

In 2014, 2100 midwives were registered in Austria (de.statista.com, 2.5.2016). Most Austrian midwives work in hospitals and many of them additionally work on a self-employed basis in extramural, i.e. out of hospital, settings, such as in ante- or postnatal care. Some midwives work exclusively outside the hospital setting, providing pre- and postnatal care and managing

homebirths. Irrespective of the actual place of work, evidence-based decision-making, the availability of relevant research findings and the efficient cooperation with other midwives or professions, on a national and an international level, have become essential for guaranteeing a high quality of work in the care for and counselling of women, their partners and their babies throughout pregnancy, birth and the first year after delivery.

5.1.1 Providing Evidence-based Care

Providing evidence-based care is a crucial requirement for midwives in industrialised countries (Steen, Roberts 2010:32-33). Jackson, Pitkin and Kingston define evidence-based care as an approach in which "data from randomized clinical trials and other scientific sources inform decisions made by clinicians caring for the health of individual patients. Attempts are made to evaluate the success of these decisions by monitoring patient health outcomes" (Jackson, Pitkin, Kingston 1998:vii).

Apart from the midwives' own interest in having a reliable basis for decision-making, three major groups require an evidence-based approach to midwifery work, namely clients, other disciplines and judges at court. Firstly clients expect midwives as professionals to offer evidence-based care (Zoege 2004: 18; Imlau 2009:69) and to base their recommendations on scientifically validated knowledge. This expectation allows parents-to-be to trust a midwife's decisions and explanations and to accept her as a professional authority.

Midwives also have to explain their decisions when interacting with other professions, such as gynaecologists or paediatrics. Interprofessional cooperation and competence is of considerable importance in medicine and especially in fast developing fields, such as perinatal care. Due to innovations like reproductive medicine and new means of diagnosis (König 2010: 90), e.g. prenatal diagnostics, the expertise required by professions working in perinatal care has been constantly expanding and changing and it is essential for efficient and optimal decision-making and care that all professionals share a common ground of knowledge and respect each other's professional expertise. In order to establish a professional position within the multi-professional context of a hospital, midwives need to be informed and equipped with state-of-the-art knowledge. Their arguments are mostly accepted as sound and valid, if they are based on research results. The ability to argue within the established framework of evidence and science empowers midwives to be recognised members of a medical counselling team.

Another development shaping processes in the field of health and medical practice are court verdicts in cases where medical professionals are accused of having caused adverse outcomes by their decision-making. These decisions are measured against state-of-the-art research evidence and official guidelines. In order to be equipped in case of a trial, midwives begin to request officially accepted recommendations and reliable evidence, which could provide arguments for decision-making that hold in court. If midwives want to ensure that their decision-making is ruled 'correct' by a judge, they need to be able to prove that their decisions were evidence-based.

A midwife in Austria therefore needs to provide evidence-based care in order to explain her decisions to clients, to establish professional respectability and allow for effective interaction with other professionals and, in the most extreme cases, to be able to argue her decisions at a court. Offering evidence-based care requires that a midwife is able to comprehend recent research publications in the field. As discipline-specific research in midwifery commenced in the Anglo-American area (Steen, Roberts 2013:4), a considerable amount of relevant and recent study results is published in English. Furthering the competence in understanding and producing research publications in English therefore seems to be an essential element in educating midwives for contemporary and future demands in their professional lives.

5.1.2 Need for Discipline-specific Research

In the UK and USA midwifery research commenced in the 1980s, initiating a considerable growth in publications of midwifery research (Steen, Roberts 2013:4). Since the end of the 20th century, more and more midwifery research has been conducted. In German speaking countries, however, the field of midwifery research has only started to develop, which is reflected by the founding of new institutions like the *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Hebammenwissenschaft* (German Society of Midwifery Science) by German midwives in 2008. The reason for these developments is that discipline-specific research offers advantages for the profession of midwives, such as providing evidence for midwifery expertise, forwarding research results which are of great relevance for midwifery work and an contributing to an increasing level of professionalism.

The first benefit of discipline-specific research is that it offers the evidence and concepts necessary to present midwifery expertise in a way that is accepted across disciplines. Midwives have always worked in extramural areas, which has shaped and informed their perspectives and allowed them to encounter the complexity of the processes related to having

a child. They developed their own expertise for a long time in situations outside of hospital settings and handed down the knowledge they gained from generation to generation. As a consequence of the medicalisation of pregnancy, child birth and the postnatal period, more and more women have given birth in a hospital (Rose, Schmied-Knittel 2011:75). In 2008, for example, the number of extramural births in Austria was only 1.4 % (Bundesministerium für Gesundheit 2010 [Ministry of Health], 8.5.2016). A core area of midwifery work, therefore, has been transferred to the hospital, which gave rise to the need of working in a context that has been shaped by centuries of medical practice and imbued by the prevalent perspectives of the medical profession. As hospital employees, midwives have been confronted with institutional rules and established hierarchies. If one is not willing to accept them undisputedly, it will be a bare necessity to argue one's decisions and (non-) interventions in a way acceptable for other professions. Especially since the advent of the evidence-based care paradigm, midwives have recognised the need to be able to present empirical evidence for the principles guiding their decision-making. It seems, however, that for some of the knowledge accepted as 'true' due to experience and tradition, hardly any evidence adhering to scientific principles has yet been available. Therefore, discipline-specific research has increasingly become an aim for the professional community, since it provides objective evidence and it allows for the operationalisation, evaluation and contextualisation of basic concepts of midwifery. The following quote illustrates that, besides creating new knowledge, proving the validity of what is supposed to be essential and already existing midwifery expertise by embedding it in relevant theoretical concepts has been a major motivation for research in midwifery:

"Wenn wir als Hebammen in Zukunft von allen gehört werden wollen, müssen wir mittels Theoriebildung unsere Arbeitsweise gegenüber anderen Menschen darstellen können sowie an der sozialen Konstruktion von Wissen mitwirken." (Oblasser 2010:27)

[If we, as midwives, want to be heard by everyone in the future, we will have to present the way we work to other people through the development of theories and we have to partake in the social construction of knowledge.] [translation: K.H.]

This quote illustrates that one of the primary motivations for discipline-specific research at the moment seems to be to adapt the way midwifery knowledge can be communicated and displayed to the principles of academia.

Another argument for discipline-specific research is that research in other professional fields, e.g. medicine, may not suffice to clarify questions relevant for midwifery work. Traditional medical concepts of health and disease have been informed by centuries of hospital experience, treatment of sick patients and observation of pathological and instrumental births,

which may encourage a conceptualisation of birth as a medical and risky condition. For centuries, midwives, in contrast, have provided care for all women having a baby, including mostly healthy women and many physiological deliveries and home births. In Austrian labour wards today the situation is similar, as midwives are the responsible profession for natural birth and obstetricians and paediatrics join the delivery in case of complications. These differences in experience are reflected by research perspectives and outcomes of the respective professions. Consequently, relying on research conducted by researchers of different professions will most likely neither reflect the experience and foci of midwifery work nor provide the evidence needed by midwives.

The epistemological viewpoint of a profession influences the focus and manner of research conducted. As midwifery expertise is linked to numerous areas, including medicine, psychology or sociology, midwifery researchers may need to draw on a broad and diverse range of epistemological perspectives, theoretical frameworks and terminologies to contextualise and operationalise their concepts. Midwifery expertise has been portrayed as a combination of knowledge, manual and communicative competences (Oblasser 2010: 27), which is informed by a philosophical (Baumgarten 2011:67) and holistic perspective. This complexity of midwifery work is also reflected by the fact that, even though most bachelor students of midwifery in German speaking countries graduate with a Bachelor of Science, some also receive the title ‘Bachelor of Arts’ for becoming a midwife, e.g. at the University of Applied Sciences in Ludwigshafen (Rockenschaub 2014 [2005]:35). The Viennese gynaecologist Rockenschaub even claims that defining midwifery as an art rather than a science resembles the complex expertise of midwives more accurately (Rockenschaub 2014 [2005]:35). Discipline-specific research could provide the opportunity to apply, further explore and discuss a broad range of approaches, theories and methods and to choose the one which is most apt for the specific research interest. While researching the impact of alcohol on a fetus, for example, might call for a medical and quantitative approach, an analysis of the mother’s motivation to drink alcohol may be conducted on the basis of qualitative interviews or may be evaluated in relation to a psychological or sociological framework.

A third benefit of discipline-specific research is its potential contribution to the professionalism of midwifery work (Zoege 2004:262). Discipline-specific research could help to sharpen the profile of midwifery, especially in contrast to other disciplines (Schäfers, zu Sayn-Wittgenstein 2008:66). It may contribute to a greater level of acceptance by other professions and further the right of midwives to partake in public health negotiations (Frick

2007:60). Discipline-specific research therefore may enable midwives to clarify their role, augment their acceptability as experts and consequently strengthen their position as a crucial part of a country's health system.

In addition, discipline-specific research may further the status and position of midwives as well as the continuous evaluation and improvement of professional practices on the basis of empirically validated findings.

Another, if not the most crucial, benefit of discipline-specific research, however, is its potential to enhance and improve the expertise and practices of midwives. On the basis of evidence and in the context of research, midwives can discuss fairly objectively about field-specific aspects. This may provide an opportunity to finding reliable answers to questions arising from everyday work. A culture of discussion based on evidence provides new ways for evaluating and improving one's work and for sound professional communication and feedback, which is a key factor in guaranteeing a high level of quality in the work of midwives. These discussions are not restricted to a particular country but may be conducted via international media, e.g. journals, and at conferences. Therefore, the ability to process and integrate international publications into one's own work is a potential means to continuously improve the quality of midwifery work on a national and an international level.

5.1.3 International Cooperation

Nurturing an international discourse community of midwives may be seen as a chance to strengthen the profession of midwives internationally. There are already international associations working in this direction, e.g. the European Midwives Association (EMA) or the International Confederation of Midwives (ICM), which are meeting regularly to further cooperation and work on international aims with regard to midwifery (www.internationalmidwives.org, www.europeanmidwives.com). As representatives from all over the world participate in EMA or ICM conferences, a great diversity of languages is represented there and English is used as a lingua franca to communicate with each other. In a globalised world, international exchange and coordination is of great importance for every profession in ensuring its position within society. In order to be able to fully participate in these meetings and/or profit from the publications issued by EMA, ICM or international journals (e.g. *Midwifery*), midwives need to be familiar with conventions of English publications in the field of midwifery and/or academia.

5.2 Educating Midwives in Austria

In general there are approximately 200 university places for midwifery education in Austria, provided by seven Universities of Applied Sciences (Rüb 2007:66), which are located in Wien (Vienna), Krems, Linz, Salzburg, Innsbruck, Graz and Klagenfurt. The Austrian midwifery education system has undergone considerable changes throughout the last few decades, striving for rendering midwifery an academic profession. The need for this development has been indicated in all German speaking countries, giving rise to the founding of bachelor and master programmes for midwifery in Germany (Lengler *et al.* 2011:3), Switzerland (Corti *et al.* 2009:73), and Austria. Cignacco (2008) argues that midwifery has to become a more academic discipline because midwives nowadays have to be able to provide evidence-based care in “*einem dynamischen und innovativen Gesundheitsumfeld*” [a dynamic and innovative health context] (Cignacco 2008:71) (cp. section 5.1).

Austrian midwifery education has gone through various stages. In 1971 the duration of midwifery education was extended from 1.5 to two years. In 1995 it was decided to render midwifery an academic profession, giving rise to a transformation of midwifery schools into “*Hebammenakademien*” [Midwifery Academies], educating midwives-to-be for a period of six semesters (König, Brumen 2012:126). Reforms incited by the Bologna Process led to another change in midwifery education, namely the decision in 2005 to henceforth locate midwifery education at Universities of Applied Sciences (König, Brumen 2012:127-128). Between 2006 (Graz, Salzburg, Krems) (Rüb 2007:66) and 2010 (Linz) (Oberndorfer 2013:40) the first bachelor courses commenced.

With regard to curricular frameworks, there are core criteria, which have to be fulfilled by all seven Universities for Applied Sciences. They are free to shift the emphases within these criteria, allowing each university to focus on a particular aspect (König, Brumen 2012:128): Salzburg, for example, stresses extramural activities. As a consequence, curricula vary between universities and there may be different courses with differing syllabuses and names. This variability in curriculum conception also becomes prevalent with regard to ESP. The extent of obligatory ESP courses ranges from four courses (Krems, Graz), over three (Wien) to one course in Linz and a focus on processing English research publications in Innsbruck in the third semester (Fachhochschule Innsbruck, Fachhochschule Krems, Fachhochschule Linz, Fachhochschule Wien, Fachhochschule Graz, 2. 5. 2016). The other two universities, Salzburg and Klagenfurt, do not feature English as an obligatory subject. In Klagenfurt,

students can choose English as an optional course. The choices offered are “Basic English” and “Academic Writing” (Fachhochschule Klagenfurt, Fachhochschule Salzburg 2.5.2016).

The constraints in teaching time and different foci may lead to rather restricted ESP teaching in Austrian midwifery education, even though the developments outlined above support the significance of ESP for midwives. Also Zoege (2004), in her evaluation of processes necessary for a more professional education of midwifery students, presents ESP as one of the courses that should be part of a reformed educational system (2004:194). It has to be considered that the bachelor study is offered to provide the basic education for midwives and to enable students to work as a midwife in Austria. Most midwives actively partaking in research most probably will attend one of the master courses as well, where more emphasis may be put on ESP/EAP. Still, in some of the universities ESP courses are part of the curriculum and the emphasis of other universities may shift as a consequence of developments which create a rising demand for communicating in English, such as international midwifery research gaining momentum. An additional benefit of ESP is that English may be the prime language of interaction with clients of different language backgrounds as well as for internships abroad, e.g. via the ERASMUS program (Oberndorfer, Grünbacher 2012:38).

In conclusion, even though there are considerable limitations for ESP teaching in Austrian midwifery education at the moment, such as time constraints and varying curricula constellations, developments like the call for a more academic nature of midwifery, more professionalism and the significance of English for international communication stress the potential benefit of English for the profession of midwifery and support therefore the argument to increase the extent of ESP teaching.

6. Genre Analysis

This section provides more detailed information about aspects, such as context of writing, data and methods, which are relevant for the analysis conducted in section 7. Firstly, contextual variables that influence the concrete writing situation of Austrian midwifery students are addressed (cp. “situational/ contextual analysis” (Bhatia 1993:23)). Secondly, the genre and corpus under analysis is described in more detail. Finally, the methods applied in section 7 are introduced.

6.1 Context of Writing

The broad context of midwifery education is outlined in section 5.2 and shall here be narrowed down to the immediate context of writing bachelor paper abstracts. After a presentation of the general institutional requirements, the genre's intended audience and communicative purposes are outlined. The presented information is based on articles in the *Österreichische Hebammenzeitung* [Magazine of Austrian Midwives], communication with contemporary students of midwifery, insider knowledge of the author who is an Austrian midwife herself, and observations of a pre-analysis survey of the corpus under analysis.

General Information

Midwifery students have to write two bachelor papers. While the first one tends to be a form of literature survey, the second one can include empirical data and research conducted by the students themselves. Both papers need to have an English abstract but may be written in German or English. Most of the students choose German, which supposedly indicates that the majority of authors felt more confident with writing in German. Most Austrian midwifery students have probably been German native speakers and only two of those papers which provide abstracts for the corpus are written in English.

Audience

As the bachelor papers are an essential part of assessment, most writers will see the professor who grades their text as the most important addressee. He/She is usually a member of the national discourse community they are attempting to enter and reads the abstract as part of the whole paper.

In addition, the papers are also published online on the homepage (Graz) or library page (Innsbruck) of the respective University of Applied Sciences and are therefore available to every internet user. The requirement to produce an English abstract may be interpreted as an intention to communicate the research results to a broader audience, including members of the international discourse community. In a majority of papers, the abstract is the only part written in English. This situation seems to be relevant for various expert research publications by non-native speakers of English as well (Swales 1990:179). The English abstract tends to be a major and sometimes the only genre which achieves the purpose of communicating one's research to the international academic discourse community. Therefore, the abstracts' intended audience may also include readers beyond institutional and national boundaries.

Communicative Purposes

As a consequence of variation in intended audience, there may be diverse communicative purposes of bachelor paper abstracts of Austrian midwives. On the one hand, these abstracts share with student genres the communicative purposes of displaying knowledge and “showing familiarity with the field” (Hüttner 2007:62). On the other hand, abstracts as texts addressed at a broader international audience might fulfil the communicative intention of “creating a research space” (Swales 1990:141), which is a typical purpose of research genres (Swales 1990:142). This ambivalent position of bachelor papers by midwifery students seems to give rise to the same question as Swales has formulated with regard to Ph.D. dissertations: “[I]s it more appropriate to view these communicative events (differentially) as final elements in a chain of examination genres, or to envision them as making new contributions to human knowledge and understanding?” (2004:99). This quote summarises two main communicative purposes informing the production of bachelor papers and consequently also of their abstracts.

This diploma thesis focuses on the lexical analysis of the texts. Therefore, the contextual analysis has to be limited, even though the genre’s situatedness in the discourse community is clearly significant. Several aspects, however, cannot be addressed within the scope of this thesis, e.g. the actual instructions students received as preparation for writing abstracts or the educational background of the students.

6.2 Data

The data under analysis are 134 abstracts which were written for bachelor papers by midwifery students in Austria. The following section provides general information on the genre ‘abstract’ as well as details on the corpus under analysis.

Abstract

One possible definition is that an abstract tends to be “a description or factual summary of the much longer report, and is meant to give the reader an exact and concise knowledge of the full article” (Bhatia 1993:78). This definition emphasises the informative purpose of an abstract. Nevertheless, it has been pointed out, especially with regard to research article abstracts, that abstracts may also have the function of persuading a reader to continue reading (Hyland 2004a:64). Huckin (2006:93) suggests four distinct uses of abstracts:

- Stand-alone *mini-texts*: giving readers a quick summary of a study’s topic, methodology, and findings [...]
- *Screening devices*: enabling the reader to decide whether to read the article as a whole

- *Previews*: for readers who do opt to read the article as a whole; [...] creating an interpretive frame that can guide reading [...]
- *Aids to indexing*: for professional indexers for large database services [original emphasis] (Huckin 2006:93)

In general, for most abstracts more than one of the outlined uses may be relevant. Part of the purpose an abstract fulfils may also reside with the reader, which becomes apparent in the fourth use suggested by Huckin (2006): only a professional indexer would read the abstract as an informative source for indexing.

Abstracts have been the focus of numerous research publications (e.g. Hyland 2000, 2004a, Swales & Feak 2010) but are still interesting objects of analysis due to their increasing significance in academic discourse (Bondi 2001:154). In terms of genre relationships, an abstract could be classified as a genre in its own right (cp. “stand-alone *mini-texts*” (Huckin 2006:93)) or as a genre constituent of a superordinate genre, e.g. a thesis or an article. The bachelor paper abstract could then be one part of a genre-constituent colony named ‘abstracts’ (Hüttner 2007:63). Depending on the superordinate genre, there may be different communicative purposes in the foreground.

Bachelor Paper Abstracts in Austrian Midwifery Education

Since midwifery education has only been provided at Universities of Applied Sciences for ten years, this genre is fairly new and not yet conventionalised to a high degree. On the one hand, the texts draw on conventions of abstracts as academic text types, taking structures and language characteristics of other fields as a starting point. This is reflected by the use of the title ‘abstract’ as well as the realisation of moves seen as typical of abstracts, e.g. Purpose or Methods (Huckin 2006:100). On the other hand, a genre needs to be adapted to the situation and needs of the discourse community, which leads to disciplinary variation in abstract writing (Hyland 2004:70). Austrian bachelor paper abstracts are mostly produced by authors who are not only novices in academic writing but also non-native speakers of English and therefore challenged by writing in a foreign language. These aspects influence the way abstracts are realised. The genre itself is also evolving and dynamic, posing additional challenges for the teachers of midwifery students, since they have to teach a genre that has not only been hardly fixed in its conventions or addressed in teaching materials but is also continuing to develop parallel to the teaching process.

The Corpus

The corpus under analysis comprises 134 abstracts from bachelor papers written by Austrian midwifery students at the Universities of Applied Sciences in Innsbruck (48 abstracts, handed

in from 2010 to 2013) and Graz (86 abstracts, handed in from 2010 to 2015). Unfortunately, abstracts from other universities were not available for this research project. This may limit the generalisability of the results as the observed conventions might be influenced by institutional aspects. The corpus consists of all samples available online in February 2016. No preselection according to quality or prototypicality was made. Some of the included samples may therefore not represent characteristic or qualitatively well produced instances of the genre. However, by this procedure the risk of problematic preselection is avoided, which could result from unclear procedures in choosing a person as ‘authority’ to judge the samples according to criteria of quality and prototypicality (Hüttner 2007:29).

The situatedness of the abstracts in an EFL context would have rendered a comparison with bachelor paper abstracts of midwifery students in English speaking countries in the tradition of Contrastive Rhetoric interesting. Unfortunately, the only abstracts of universities in English speaking countries that could be found online were abstracts from Master and PhD theses. There are considerable differences between the authors not only with regard to level of education, but also concerning language background, professional field and experience in academic writing. The writing contexts of those abstracts available therefore differ to such a great degree from the corpus of this thesis that their comparability would have been seriously questionable. Consequently, the plan to compare this corpus with abstracts of English-speaking countries could not be realised.

6.3 Methods

Two major approaches are employed to conduct the analysis: move analysis (Swales 1990, Bhatia 1993) and corpus linguistics. While move analysis provides a qualitative perspective and allows for an examination of structural aspects, corpus linguistics can add quantitative evidence and offers tools for a close analysis of lexical and grammatical features.

6.3.1 Move analysis

John Swales introduces in *Genre Analysis* (1990) an approach of analysing a genre's structure by identifying its 'moves'. A 'move' can be defined as a "discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse" (Swales 2004:228). Bhatia (1993:86-87) indicates that the distinguishing criterion of moves is their communicative purpose. The communicative intentions of all moves cooperate to realise the overarching communicative purpose of the genre. As there is no “one-to-one correlation between formal and functional aspects of language use” (Bhatia 1993:86), moves may be realised by various "strategies" (Bhatia 2006:85). A highly influential example of move

analysis has been Swales' CARS (Create a Research Space) model for article introductions (Swales 1990:141), in which he outlines the major 'moves' and the ways they are realised, which he calls "steps" (Swales 1990:141). The concepts of steps and strategies vary insofar that "the former indicate a clear sequence whereas the latter indicate choice" (Hüttner 2007:41). As an example, the move "Establishing a territory" in Swales CARS model could be realised by the following steps: "Step 1 Claiming centrality and/or Step 2 Making topic generalization(s) and/or Step 3 Reviewing items of previous research" (1990:141). While seeing them as steps includes adhering to the given sequence, interpreting them as strategies would allow, for example, for realising 'Reviewing items of previous research' before 'Claiming centrality'.

6.3.2 Corpus linguistic methods

Corpus linguistics is an increasingly complex and multi-faceted field of linguistics and cannot be addressed even fairly adequately within the scope of this thesis. Consequently, the following paragraphs indicate those concepts of corpus linguistics which are most essential for the conducted analysis.

Corpus software allows for quantitative calculations, such as the total number of words in a corpus. As the concept of word seems to be rather vague and difficult to operationalise, the more clearly defined concepts and terms of tokens and types have been introduced. While the number of tokens denotes the "total number of words in a corpus" (Cheng 2012:62), types "comprise all of the unique word types in a corpus, excluding repetition of the same word" (Cheng 2012:5). Corpus linguistic methods can yield the number of tokens and types in a corpus and, by comparison with reference corpora, indicate words that are considerably more or less frequent in one corpus than in another one.

The relevant reference corpora for this thesis are a version of the *General Service List of English Words (GSL)*, i.e. *GSL (1000/2000)*, the *British National Corpus (BNC)*, the *Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)* and the *Academic Word List (AWL)*. The *GSL* is a list of the approximately 2000 most frequent words of the English language, based on written texts, which was compiled by Michael West (1953). It has been criticised for being outdated (Coxhead 2013:120), but remains to be an important reference corpus, as it "is still reliable in its coverage figures over different corpora and has yet to be replaced" (Coxhead 2013:120). A new *GSL* has been introduced (Brezina, Gablasova 2013) but is not included in the corpus software used for this thesis. The version of the *GSL* coming with the *AntConc* programme is the version *GSL (1000/2000)*, which has been "[c]reated by Paul Nation and cleaned by Laurence Anthony" (Anthony 2016). Another compilation used as a standard

reference corpus (McEnery, Wilson 1996:24) for comparison is the 100 million word-corpus *BNC*, which was compiled from 1991 to 1995 and is supposed to represent contemporary use of British English (Kennedy 1998:50). For cases in which the *BNC*'s datedness renders it inapt as reference medium, the *Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)*, which is compiled of 250 million words from 1990-2015 (corpus.byu.edu, 30.5.2016), is used. The fourth relevant point of comparison is the *Academic Word List*, which was created by Coxhead (2000) and lists words which are frequent in academic texts but not part of the *GSL*. Its significance for the genre under analysis results from abstracts being a research genre.

An additional feature of *AntConc* is the provision of lists with a word's most frequent collocations, i.e. "repeated co-occurrence[s] of certain words" (Kennedy 1998:108). Statistical means provide the possibility to evaluate the significance of collocations. *AntConc* offers the mutual information value (MI). If the MI is ≥ 3 , the collocation is significant, which means that these words occur more often together than mere coincidence would explain (Cheng 2012:94-95). The higher the MI score, the stronger is the collocation (Cheng 2012:95).

Corpus software also enables the researcher to view concordances of search words, which is "a list of occurrences [...] of a word or a phrase in a corpus [...] with] the search word or phrase in the middle and 40-50 characters of context on both sides of it" (Gavioli 2005:11). Seeing the search word in context allows for closer analysis and interpretation and can reveal lexical and grammatical patterns characteristic of the search word. These methods are used to analyse major linguistic aspects of the abstracts under analysis.

In addition to analysing the whole corpus, the clarification of certain questions requires the investigation of a corpus that is compiled of samples of one particular move, e. g. a corpus of 'results' passages (cp. 'Concordancing *Results*' in section 7). Analyses of move corpora are therefore additionally conducted, if necessary.

Finally, it should be indicated that all examples used in the analysis are quoted verbatim, including language errors and idiosyncratic language use.

7. Genre-Analytical Results

This section features the core component of this thesis, which is the linguistic analysis of the corpus described in section 6. The analysis includes the investigation of move structure as well as particular lexico-grammatical aspects and the use of epistemic adjectives and adverbs.

7.1 Average Length of Abstracts

Two indicators were calculated with regard to the average length of the abstracts under analysis: the mean and the median. The mean is the number of words divided by the number of texts and equals 248.54 words. The shortest abstract consists of 26, the longest of 434 words, allowing for a considerable range of 408 words. As the mean might be influenced by extreme values (Oakes 1998:3), the median was also calculated. It is “the central score of the distribution, with half of the scores being above the median and half falling below” (Oakes 1998:2) and equals 256 words in the analysed corpus. A table with more detailed information about the word counts of the individual abstracts can be found in the Appendix.

7.2 Results from the Move Analysis

The following table presents the moves found in the abstracts, provides the major communicative purpose for each of them and indicates the percentage of abstracts comprising the respective move. A detailed analysis for each individual move is provided by a table in the Appendix.

Table 1: Moves, Communicative Purposes and Percentage of Abstracts Realising the Move

Move	Main communicative purpose	Percent of abstracts
Title	indicates the text type	56,72
Introduction	leads into the topic by providing information	77,61
Purpose	clarifies the objectives and aims of the paper	87,31
Summary	summarises the content and/ or structures of the paper	36,57
Methods	clarifies the methods applied in the paper	85,07
Results	offers details on the outcome of the analysis	84,33
Conclusions	outlines possible implications of the results for research and work	76,87

This table indicates the seven central moves with their most obvious communicative purpose. The percentage of realisation allows for a classification of moves. Following Hüttner's (2007) quantitative approach, these moves are classified based on their frequency, beginning with obligatory and core moves and continuing with the optional ones.

7.2.1 Obligatory and core moves

Hüttner (2007:130) suggests quantitative means as a major indicator for the centrality of a move for a genre. She introduces the categories of obligatory moves, i.e. moves that are realised in over 90 % of the analysed texts, core moves, which are present in 50-90 % of the texts and optional moves, which appear in less than 50 % of the examples investigated

(Hüttner 2007:130). The analysis of the corpus of abstracts conducted in this thesis features no move, which could be considered obligatory according to this criterion, as there is no move realised in more than 90 % of the texts.

The analysed abstracts feature six core moves, namely title (56,72 %), introduction (77,61 %), purpose (87,31 %), methods (85,07 %), results (84,33 %) and conclusions (76,87 %).

- Title and Structure

The move 'title' indicates the genre and is mainly realised by the word 'Abstract'. Other examples of this move are the words "Abstrakt" or "Summary". Its realisation seems to be closely related to structural aspects. The samples feature three main types of structure. Firstly, abstracts may be realised as a coherent text of one or more paragraphs without headings, which is the case in 39,56 % of the abstracts. The second type of structure describes abstracts that are produced as one paragraph which is subdivided by headings, such as "aim", "findings". With only 13,44 % of the texts using this type of structure, type 2 is the least frequent version. Thirdly, abstracts can be structured into numerous paragraphs, which are introduced by an informative heading, such as "Objectives, Results, Methods". This type is realised by 47 % of the investigated samples. The move 'title' is mainly found in abstracts of type 1 and 2 but hardly ever in abstracts of type 3. This may be due to formatting issues of type 3, as it adheres to rather rigid formal criteria with a clear subdivision of paragraphs and probably given headings, which may be deduced from the fact that most of the type 3-abstracts feature the same headings. Instead of the title 'abstract' the first subheading after the title of the paper is in most cases 'Objectives'. The title of the paper may not be so directly connected with the abstract and may even be separated from it by numerous pages dedicated to other genre constituents, if the abstract is not realised as a stand-alone text. Consequently, I decided not to count the paper title as a move of the genre 'abstract'. To illustrate the structural types, the following images are presented:

Abstract

In times like these where physical health is one of the most important facts of our life, also exercise in pregnancy is a part of it. Nevertheless there is a lot of evidence for the positive effects of moderate exercise, being active during pregnancy often leads to a lot of questions and insecurity. The following essay gives a review about exercise in pregnancy and shows a summary of studies. For the better understanding the physiological adaptation in pregnancy is described. The positive effects of sports in pregnancy can be shown in psychological wellbeing, the glucose metabolism and back pain. There are no significant effects on the fetus as results of studies show. The article also gives recommendations about certain types of sports like swimming, Nordic Walking and cycling. The contraindications and warning signals that can appear during physical activity are described. Within physiological pregnancies the advantages of physical activity outweigh the potential risks and should also be recommended to previously inactive pregnant women.

Figure 1: Structure Type 1

Abstract:

Background About 3-5% of fetuses remain in breech presentation at term. A diagnosed breech presentation indicates a planned cesarean section in most cases, due to the associated increased neonatal risk. The consequences of the elective cesarean section in breech deliveries are increased cesarean section rates, maternal long-term effects and the loss of obstetrical skills.

Aim The aim of this paper is to analyse the outcome of the planned vaginal breech delivery with regard to the neonatal and maternal outcome compared to the elective cesarean section. Additionally, the vaginal breech delivery in the all fours position will be described and a comparison with the supine position will be made. **Methods** The research method used in this paper was a systematic literature search. The databases MIDIRS, Medline, Cochrane Library, CINAHL and Pub Med were searched. Furthermore, relevant journals were searched. **Results** The analysis of the relevant literature shows an increased neonatal morbidity after birth in the group of planned vaginal breech deliveries, compared to the planned cesarean section. Neonatal long-term effects are not influenced by the planned mode of delivery. With regard to neonatal mortality there is no significant difference between both modes of delivery. With regard to maternal morbidity there is an increase in mean blood loss as well as an increased risk of blood loss >1500 mls in the group of planned cesarean section. **Conclusion** Vaginal breech delivery remains an acceptable option for breech delivery. The small neonatal risk can be minimised by responsible risk selection, high level of competence of caregivers and corresponding care during labour. The all fours position in vaginal breech deliveries presents an alternative to the supine position, due to its reduction of interventions during delivery.

Figure 2: Structure Type 2 [my emphasis, i.e. subheadings highlighted in grey]

Thesis title:

Oxytocin during labour
Effects on maternal and neonatal outcome

Objectives:

This paper should find out the current study situation and its findings about oxytocin during labour. Particular attention is paid to the effects of oxytocin on the duration of labour, the mode of delivery, the neonatal outcome and third stage of labour. Furthermore, the current dosage recommendations should be detected.

Methodology

To answer the research question a literature search in relevant databases (e.g. MIDIRS, PubMed, EMBASE) has been made. Five studies and two reviews with a current year of publication were found. These studies were analysed and mainly used to answer the research questions.

Results:

By the administration of oxytocin birth can be shortened statistically significant. The other data (mode of delivery, neonatal outcome and third stage of labour) do not vary statistically significant. Also for the dosage of oxytocin there are no available recommendations in the studies.

Conclusion:

Through studies could be statistically proven that birth can be significantly reduced by the use of oxytocin. No other clear benefits or harms were seen. Furthermore, the studies specify no dose recommendation. Further research is recommended to give evidence-based information about the intervention with oxytocin to the labouring woman.

Figure 3: Structure Type 3 [my emphasis, i.e. subheadings highlighted in grey]

As can be seen, only the examples of type 1 and 2 feature the title “Abstract”. Structure Type 1 is exemplified here by a sample which is realised as one coherent paragraph. Other samples of this type are structured into multiple paragraphs.

- Introduction

‘Leading into the topic’ appears to be the main communicative purpose of the move ‘introduction’. The author provides information and narrows down the focus within a few sentences to introduce the topic area and contextualise the paper and its research focus. An aspect of genre that seems to be especially relevant for the ‘introduction’ move is the possible multiplicity of communicative intentions. 91,35 % of the introductory moves provide information on the topic area which ranges from very general, e.g. assumptions on societal developments, to rather specific, e.g. statistical numbers or references. While the motivation

of leading into the topic is probably a relevant reason for offering general information, it may not be the only one. Since the paper is part of the students' assessment, this move also provides an opportunity to display one's knowledge and ability to recognise relevant contextual developments and aspects with regard to the topic addressed. The following quote exemplifies this strategy:

- (1) Obstetric lacerations are common and associated with short- and long-term morbidity, such as bleeding, dyspareunia and incontinence. Midwives take many different measures during childbirth, assuming that lacerations can be prevented.

With these sentences the author not only provides the theoretical background for her analysis but also displays her knowledge about the existence and consequences of lacerations as well as about their relevance for the work of a midwife. She therefore demonstrates insider knowledge and the ability to recognise interesting research questions within the field. This strategy of realising the 'introduction' move may therefore be linked to the author's role as a student, who attempts to display knowledge and qualify as a member of the discourse community.

28,85 % of 'introduction' moves adopt another strategy, either in addition to or instead of strategy 1, namely the strategy of 'creating a research space' (cp. Swales 1990). This realisation of the 'introduction' move caters for the writer's role of a researcher. In these 95 abstracts the authors use strategies like 'indicating a gap in research' or 'highlighting the significance of the research project for the work of midwives'. One author, for instance, writes:

- (2)[T]here is hardly literature about the midwives working in connection with blind, deaf and tetra-/paraplegic women. Their fears, needs and suggestions to the midwife remain undetected.

Indicating a lack of literature emphasises the contribution her paper offers to the current state of research on the topic of handicapped women in midwifery work. The coexistence of these two strategies highlights the ambivalence of the genre as a students' genre, on the one hand, and a research genre, on the other hand.

- Purpose

'Purpose' is with 87,31 % the most frequent move of the abstracts under analysis. The major communicative intention of this move is to clarify the paper's central objective. Nevertheless, some realisations present more than one aim, which includes lists of research questions or a number of hypotheses. Especially in cases of enumerations of goals or summarising

statements, the boundaries to other moves become blurred. An example for a sentence which combines aspects of the different moves is the following quote:

- (3) This thesis will critically examine the sense of applied measures that should help to decrease the risk of postpartum haemorrhage.

The reader may be tempted to perceive this as the major objective of the paper but due to the clarification of the central objective a few sentences later, i.e. to investigate the correlation between “the management of the third stage of labor and the maternal blood loss”, the above sentence appears to be intended as a more general statement, which could be used as part of an introductory or summarising move. This example illustrates that there are instances which appear to express the purpose of the paper but where closer analysis reveals that the respective passage actually realises a different move. As this difficulty in delineating and identifying moves was especially relevant for the move ‘purpose’, the above example is included here.

- Methods

The move 'methods' informs the reader about the methods applied in the analysis and for finding an answer to the research questions. It is realised in 85,07 % of the abstracts. Conducting a literature research is the most common method in the abstracts investigated, which includes using data bases, e.g. Pubmed, MIDIRS, Cochrane, and specific literature. Details, such as selection criteria of the studies included in the paper or exclusion criteria, enhance the reader's ability to evaluate the validity and quality of the results. In cases where empirical work builds the core of research, the move 'methods' additionally includes, for example, facts about the number of participants in a study or about the interviews conducted. That student writers are still on the way to becoming experts in academic research can be seen in various examples, where realisations tend to be rather general and short or employ fairly vague terms to indicate the sources used, e.g.

- (4) In order to answer these questions *selected databases* were used.

[added emphasis]

This example provides hardly any information for the reader. No concrete databases are named, nor are there any selection criteria presented. Realisations like these may exemplify a lack of full comprehension of the move's communicative purpose and/or an insufficient level of proficiency in representing one's methodological processes efficiently.

- Results

The move 'results' appears in 84,33 % of abstracts and is therefore a highly frequent move. Its significance for the genre is also mirrored by the fact that it tends to be one of the longest

moves. It communicates the findings of the researcher and therefore offers the evidence needed to answer the research questions. Sometimes 'results' moves are embedded in other moves, mainly in 'conclusions', and also appear under the respective subheadings. The same can be observed the other way around, namely the 'conclusions' move being embedded in the 'results' move. The presentation of results under the subheading 'conclusions' or vice versa may indicate a student's difficulty in clearly differentiating between the two moves.

- **Conclusions**

With 76,87 % the move 'conclusions' belongs to the core moves. The main purpose of this move is to draw together all of the results and derive at a position with regard to the research question that is based on the evidence provided by the conducted analysis. It may therefore feature a concise summary of the findings as well as their interpretation with regard to potential implications for professional decision-making, further research or socio-political agendas. A frequent strategy of conclusions is making recommendations, which arise from the results and their evaluation.

7.2.2 Optional moves

An optional move is present in less than 50 % of the texts under analysis (Hüttner 2007:130), which means that there is one optional move in the investigated abstracts, i.e. the move 'summary', which appears in 35,57 % of the texts. In this move authors provide meta-textual information, e.g. on the structure of the paper, the sequence of topics it deals with or its major components. This move therefore achieves the communicative purpose of providing orientation to the reader. It tends to increase the reader-friendliness of the paper by offering a preview on what to expect but also creates an occasion for the author to present more of the work he/she has done in addition to those addressed by the 'purpose' move.

7.2.3 Sequence of Moves

The sequence of moves mostly parallels the sequence in which the moves are presented in the table above. A prototypical example would feature, after the potential title, an 'introduction' move, followed by the 'purpose' and continuing with 'methods', 'results' and 'conclusions'. The most frequent position for the move 'summary' is between 'purpose' and 'results' but it can also be found, for example, before 'purpose' or after 'methods'.

An additional observation is that some moves tend to appear embedded within other elements. The following example illustrates the embedding of the move 'summary' within a longer stretch of 'methods':

- (5) Inclusion criteria included healthy newborns without congenital eye anomalies, from birth until day 28. Povidone iodine, erythromycin, colostrum and sterile normal saline were the included prophylactic agents. *A brief historical overview was given about silver nitrat.* Chlamydia trachomatis and Neisseria gonorrhoeae were included, staphylococcus aureus has been excluded

[added emphasis]

While the first and the last sentences provide information on inclusion and exclusion criteria for studies considered by the author of the paper, the sentence in italics indicates a particular component of the paper's content. A reason for inserting the remark at this position may be that the writer anticipates a certain reader response, since a member of the discourse community may recognise that silver nitrate is missing from the list, even though it was a major way to treat eye infections in newborns for most of the second half of the twentieth century. It may be able to conclude therefore that the positioning of the 'summary' move in the middle of the 'methods' move serves the communicative purpose of demonstrating to the reader that the writer is aware of the existence and relevance of silver nitrate in this context and addresses it in her paper separately from the other treatments due to its "historical" significance. This analysis illustrates that embedding is probably a very meaningful choice of the author that allows for an increase of efficacy with regard to achieving the main communicative purposes of the genre.

At the end of most abstracts (92,54 %), a list of key words is provided, which indicates the search terms used in the database search for the bachelor paper. As there are titles like "Abstract and keywords" or "Abstract/Keywords" as well as papers in which abstract and keywords are numbered as separate chapters, I decided not to include the keywords as a move of the genre 'abstract'. Nevertheless, there seems to be a close connection between abstract and keywords, since the keywords offer additional information on the methods applied in the paper and appear in vicinity to most of the abstracts, either directly after the text or, less often, before it. In terms of genre relationships, this connection could be interpreted as two different genre constituents of the genre 'bachelor paper'.

7.3 Results from the Lexico-grammatical Analysis

This section presents the results of a corpus-based lexico-grammatical analysis, which was conducted with the software programmes *AntWordProfiler* (Anthony 2014) and *AntConc* (Anthony 2014). The analysis reveals how many of the 33,430 tokens and 3,677 types of the corpus are part of a common core of the English language and also which words are especially frequent in the corpus in general as well as in comparison with general language use. For these analyses the word lists *GSL 1000/2000* and *AWL* as well as the *BNC* and *COCA* are used as reference corpora. To see how the most frequent words are realised, concordances of the words with the highest frequency and/or keyness, i.e. degree of specificity (Cheng 2012:70), are analysed with regard to significant collocates and constructions. Finally, a focus is put on the use of epistemic adjectives and adverbs, as they appear to be important means for academic writing (Hyland 2004a).

7.3.1 High-frequency Words

In terms of frequency, two different aspects should be considered. Firstly, the percentage of highly frequent words appearing in the corpus under investigation is depicted, based on a comparison with the *GSL 1000/2000*. In a second step, the focus is shifted to the especially frequent words of the corpus under investigation, including function and content words.

The first step of analysis reveals the percentage of the corpus that is comprised of highly frequent vocabulary. For this purpose the *GSL (1000/2000)* is used as reference corpus. In the *AntWordProfiler* the *GSL* is divided into the *GSL 1* (comprising the first 1000 words of the *GSL 1000/2000*) and *2* (comprising the second thousand *GSL 1000/2000* words).

Table 2: General Service Vocabulary in the Corpus (identified by *AntWordProfiler*)

Wordlist	Tokens	Types	Families
GSL 1	22660 / 67,59 %	1283/ 34,38 %	667 / 25,28 %
GSL 2	2365 / 7,05 %	392 / 10,5 %	238 / 9,02 %

The results in the table above indicate that 74,64 % of the corpus consists of the 2000 most frequent tokens in English. This illustrates that the common core of English vocabulary is a crucial source for writing abstracts. That genre samples are nevertheless characterised by the use of more specific lexical items than common language is indicated by the difference between the 74,64 % of general service words in the corpus and the 80% common words in

more general texts (Nation 2001:15-16). Nevertheless, the results indicate that general vocabulary is highly significant for genre production.

Examples of general service words that can be found in the corpus comprise function and content words. Function words are defined as words “whose purpose is to contribute to the syntax rather than the meaning of a sentence” (*OED*) and comprise, according to Nation (2001:430-431), adverbial particles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, pronouns and numbers. The most frequent general service words found in the corpus are function words, namely *are*, *the*, *of*, *be*, *and*, *to*, *in*, *a* and *with*. The first content word, i.e. *woman*, appears at the tenth position in the frequency list of *GSL 1*. Other common content words in the corpus are, for example, *result*, *care*, *effect*, *study*, *search*, *literature*, *child* and *birth*.

Apart from the percentage of common words, another interesting question is which words are the most frequent ones within the corpus itself. Investigating this by an *AntConc* analysis yields the following results:

Table 3: Top 5 Frequent Words in the Corpus (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Corpus	BNC	Frequency
1	the	the	2575
2	of	of	1557
3	and	and	1180
4	to	to	841
5	in	a	818

As the table illustrates, the most frequent words in the corpus are *the*, *of*, *and*, *to* and *in* (for a list of the 50 most frequent words of the corpus, see Appendix). That they are all function words ties in with the observation that function words are highly significant for language use in general. About 40 % of the *BNC*, for example, consists of function words (Cheng 2012:67). The four most frequent words equal the first words on the frequency list of the *BNC*, which illustrates their central importance across genre boundaries.

Apart from determiners, prepositions or conjunctions, various forms of the word family ‘be’ are among the most frequent function words, which is demonstrated by the following table:

Table 4: Frequency of ‘be’ in the Corpus (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Wordform	Frequency in Corpus
7	is	530
9	are	315
12	be	265

18	was	200
26	were	142

This table shows that among the first 26 ranks on the frequency list, five forms of ‘be’ can be found, two of them among the top ten. This may be explainable by the various uses of ‘be’. Not only is it an important main verb, it is also a crucial auxiliary in passive constructions, e.g.

(6) [D]ifferent ways of delivery *are* discussed.

Passive constructions are a way of avoiding the use of personal pronouns and enable a writer to establish a seemingly more objective writing style. As this tends to be seen as characteristic of academic writing (Williams 1997:88), the usage of ‘be’ as auxiliary for the passive voice underlines the academic character of the genre.

In addition, the form ‘be’ itself tends to combine with modal verbs, such as *can*, *could*, *should*, *will*, *would* or *may*:

(7) The active management of labour **seems** to *be* reflected in the midwifery textbooks.

(8) Consultations and information materials **should** *be* available in different languages.

These quotes exemplify two usages of modal verbs, i.e. to weaken the claim of the author (6) (epistemic modality) and to offer recommendations (7) (deontic modality). The first one is a typical example of hedging, which allows a more cautious style of writing and is often seen as typical of academic texts (Williams 1997:176). The second example illustrates the use of *should be* in order to recommend a course of action, which is a typical strategy of the move ‘conclusions’ (section 6.4.2.1). An interesting aspect of the form *be* is also its use in nominal phrases, e.g. in the noun phrases *mother(s)-to-be*, *fathers-to-be* and *parents-to-be*, which occur once in the corpus as well as *father-to-be*, which is found twice. In the *BNC* these terms appear as well, with a frequency of three (*fathers-to-be*), six (*father-to-be*), seven (*mothers/parents-to-be*) and twelve times (*mother-to-be*) respectively.

There are also numerous content words among the most frequent words of the corpus, of which the ten most frequent ones are displayed in the following table:

Table 5: The 10 most frequent Content Words of the Corpus (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Corpus	Frequency in corpus
15	women	255
16	birth	241
20	results	164
21	pregnancy	157
22	midwives	155
23	care	154
27	research	137
30	literature	119
34	delivery	105
35	labour	104

The most frequent content words indicate two major fields relevant for the genre under analysis: midwifery and academia. Words like *women*, *birth*, *pregnancy*, *midwives*, *care*, *delivery* and *labour*, reflect the professional interest and discourse of midwives, while the terms *results*, *research* and *literature* are related to abstracts being a part of academic education and publication processes. As genres are adopted by discourse communities, it can be expected that a corpus compiled of samples taken from one particular community features a higher degree of specificity on the lexical level. That this is the case with regard to the analysed corpus becomes apparent, when one compares the most frequent content words of the analysed abstracts with the most frequent lexical expressions of the *BNC*, which include, for example, words like *people*, *know*, *see*, *years* or *made* (*BNC* list 1). Although most of the frequent content words in the corpus tend to be discipline-specific, some, i.e. *result*, *woman*, *care* and *deliver*, can also be found among the first 1000 words on the *GSL 1000/2000*.

7.3.2 Positive Keywords

Keywords “are either unique to, or are found more frequently in, a specialised corpus compared with a general reference corpus” (Cheng 2012:70). In order to determine the keywords, the corpus of abstracts was compared with the *BNC*. The twenty words with the highest degree of keyness are presented in the following table (for a list of the corpus’s 50 words with the highest positive/negative keyness see Appendix).

Table 6: The 20 Words of the Corpus with the Highest Keyness (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Word	Frequency		Rank	Word	Frequency
1	midwives	155		11	midwife	70
2	birth	241		12	delivery	105

3	pregnancy	157		13	databases	78
4	women	255		14	Cochrane	55
5	breastfeeding	83		15	abstract	85
6	midirs	59		16	midwifery	52
7	medline	56		17	labor	55
8	cinahl	51		18	care	154
9	results	164		19	maternal	60
10	literature	119		20	antenatal	46

This list presents those words that appear significantly more often in the corpus than in the *BNC*. They comprise central participants (*midwives, women, midwife, maternal*), processes (*birth, pregnancy, delivery, labor, breastfeeding, antenatal*), and concepts of midwifery work (*midwifery, care*) as well as terms indicating the research character of the analysed genre (*results, literature, abstract*). The other positions are taken by the names of databases relevant for midwifery-related questions (*midirs, medline, cinahl, cochrane*) or the word *databases* itself.

These twenty words also illustrate that the corpus's lexical range covers general terms, e.g. *women*, genre- and discipline-specific terms, e.g. *names of databases*, and words which may be known to the average reader but may be used in a more frequently or in a more specified way by an insider of the discourse community, e.g. *delivery*. For a closer investigation of these groups, I would like to adopt a classification model suggested by Hüttner (2007:156). She draws on the four categories introduced by Nation (2001:198-199) but merges the second and third category due to the fairly vague nature of the distinguishing criterion provided by Nation (2001:198-199), i.e. being "readily accessible" (Hüttner 2007:155). The three categories that Hüttner describes are

- technical: words specific to the discipline and fully understandable only within the discipline.
- semi-technical: words which are given different or more precise meanings within the discipline and words which are specific to the discipline by their frequency of use within it.
- non-technical: general language terms. (Hüttner 2007:156)

All three categories are relevant for the lexicon of the corpus. The first category comprises numerous terms of the obstetric and medical field. Many of them are of Latin origin, e.g. *lactation, nulli/multiparae, vaccine*, derived from Old Greek like *cardiotocography, idiopathical* or *haemorrhage* or combinations of these two languages such as *epidural, hexavalent*. The group of technical terms also include words and word groups which refer to extremely discipline-specific processes, e.g. *Valsalva-manoever*, and abbreviations such as *PPH (postpartum haemorrhage)* or *IVF (in-vitro-fertilisation)*. Another important field is academic vocabulary, which is illustrated by the positive keyness of words like *abstract*,

results, *databases*, *methodology* (rank 22 on the keyword list), *thesis* (rank 27) or *bachelor* (rank 28).

An example for the semi-technical group is the word family ‘deliver(y)’. In the *Oxford English Dictionary* the first four definitions for the verb *deliver* are to “provide[...], formally hand over [...], launch or aim, state in a formal manner” and only then the semantic field of obstetrics is addressed by the definitions “assist in the birth[...], give birth to” (*OED*). This indicates that the most common meanings of *deliver* are not related to the process of child birth. In the corpus, the verb *deliver* is used three times in a general sense as well and once with the meaning ‘giving birth’. The noun, *delivery*, in contrast, carries in all instances the meaning “the process of giving birth”, which is in the *OED* only the second entry, after “the action of delivering letters, parcels, or goods” (*OED* 2005). The restricted use of the word *delivery* in the analysed abstracts can be interpreted as an indicator of the genre’s situatedness within the discourse community of midwives and illustrates the relevance of specific vocabulary for the production of discipline-specific genres. The following quote exemplifies the use of *delivery* in the corpus:

- (9) Since the analysis showed a positive effect of pelvic floor muscle training during pregnancy on urinary incontinence and no negative effects on *delivery*, midwives are encouraged to recommend all pregnant women to exercise their pelvic floor regularly.

This passage exemplifies the use of *delivery* for denoting the process of giving birth. The term’s considerable significance is reflected by the frequency of its usage (105 appearances, rank on the frequency list: 34). The word *delivery* is further analysed in the Concordancing section below.

Another instance of a semi-technical term is *labour*. ‘Labour’ can, according to the *OED*, denote “work”, “workers” or “the Labour Party” as well as “the process of childbirth from the start of uterine contractions to delivery” (*OED* 2005). In the texts under analysis, all 55 appearances communicate the latter meaning.

The group of non-technical vocabulary has already been indicated in the analysis of common words and is therefore not elaborated upon at this stage.

7.3.3 Negative Keywords

There is also negative keyness, which means that words appear less frequently in the analysed corpus than could be expected due to their frequency in general corpora (Bondi 2001:139).

The following table indicates the ten words with the highest degree of negative keyness found in the corpus:

Table 6: The 10 Words of the Corpus with the Lowest Keyness (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Word	Frequency	Rank	Word	Frequency
1	you	2	6	we	8
2	I	31	7	she	10
3	he	13	8	her	13
4	his	7	9	it	179
5	had	13	10	said	3

The four words with the highest degree of negative keyness are personal pronouns, i.e. *you*, *I*, *he*, *his*. Avoiding personal pronouns decreases the personal voice in a text and therefore may be seen as a basic feature of academic writing (Williams 1997:88). In total eight of the ten words with the highest degree of negative keyness are personal pronouns, with *we*, *she*, *her*, *it* on ranks 6-9.

7.3.4 Concordancing Discipline-specific Keywords

This section offers a closer analysis of some keywords, namely *midwives*, *labor* and *birth/delivery* due to their frequency and relevance for the professional field and their high level of positive keyness. The complete lists of collocations yield for all of these numerous function words, e.g. determiners, articles, prepositions. As a complete discussion of all significant collocations would be too extensive for this thesis, the following analysis focuses on those collocations which seem to be especially interesting with regard to their usage in the discipline or in connection with grammatical constructions of the keyword.

- Concordancing *midwives*

The use of the words *midwives/midwife* is of great interest, as midwifery is the profession the text authors strive for and begin to identify with and their position at the margins of the discourse community may be a crucial factor for the way they use these words. Two of the most frequent collocates of *midwives* (for a full list see Appendix), are the verbs *can* and *should*, which are also significant collocates with a mutual information (MI) of 4,53 and 4,80

respectively. As the MI score is above 3, *can* and *should* occur more often together with *midwives* than mere coincidence would explain.

The use of ‘can’ is exemplified by the following quote:

(10) [M]idwives *can* create conditions which encourage steady progress.

The abilities of midwives and their potential influence on processes and situations serve as focus in example (10). This kind of collocation stresses the impact of midwives on certain problems and emphasises the role of the midwife with regard to the issue addressed in the paper. A strong focus on the importance of midwives may not only be rooted in the actual relevance of the profession in the context of the examined problem but may also mirror the motivation of students to exert influence and to strengthen the role of the midwife in a multi-disciplinary context. The collocation with *can* is ranked 10 in the list of most frequent collocates of *midwife*.

The collocation *midwives should* is used 12 times in introductory as well as concluding moves, as can be seen in the following examples:

(11) As a conclusion, *midwives should* be well-informed about sexual violence.

(12) The reason for writing this bachelor thesis is that *midwives should* get more knowledge about the course of disease.

Example (11) presents an instance of this collocation in the context of a conclusion, where *should* is used to give recommendations. The fact that midwives or educators in midwifery are the primary target group of this recommendation may also relate to them being, at least partially, the imagined audience. Another usage of *midwives should* is represented by example (12), which indicates a need of midwives, which is addressed in the respective paper. This underlines the significance of the paper’s contribution to the academic and professional knowledge base.

Other collocates of *midwives* are *work/working*. Although *work* is one of the most frequent and also a significant (MI:4,13) collocating content words, its significance has to be carefully evaluated, due to the fact that all four instances, as well as the two samples of *midwives working*, are found in the text of one author, who uses it in the following way

(13) [T]he physical handicap of the cross section palsy plays a major role with respect to the *midwives work*.

Consequently, the collocation *midwives work/working* may rather be interpreted as a characteristic of the author’s style than as a typical feature of the corpus under analysis.

The following table summarises the indicated collocates of *midwives*:

Table 8: Collocations of *Midwives* (identified by *AntConc*)

Word	Rank in Frequency List of Collocates	Frequency	MI score
can	6	14	4,53
should	7	12	4,80
work	15	4	4,13
working	27	2	6,43

Typical clusters with the words *midwives/midwife* are “*of the midwife*” (13 instances), e.g. *role/image/activity/relevance/satisfaction of the midwife/of midwives* (26 samples). Another characteristic cluster is *by a/the midwife* (8 times)/*by midwives* (11 times), in which more than half of the appearances are part of passive constructions and the rest post-modifies a noun phrase. Examples for these clusters are the following sentences:

- (14) Further the paper includes an analysis of the occupational image *of the midwife* in the Canadian health care system.
- (15) Additional care is provided *by midwives*.
- (16) The legal situation, a number of references and guidelines require correct antenatal care *by midwives*.

These constructions stress the central position of the midwife as an agent in many of the abstracts under analysis. In constructions with ‘by’, no group of human participants appears more often than midwives, who are in 22 instances the agents introduced by the preposition ‘by’. Additionally, the prepositional phrase *by a/the midwife/midwives* is in 10 out of 19 occurrences preceded by the word family ‘care’, e.g. “support and lovely care by midwives [sic]”. This correlation is corroborated by the cluster *midwifery care* which is used 14 times throughout the corpus. *Care* is a significant collocation of *midwifery* (rank 2 on the list of most frequent collocations; MI = 5,87), *midwives* (rank 16, MI=3,07) and *midwife* (rank 17, MI = 3,63). An example of this cluster is:

- (17) Pregnant women with eating disorders are in need of an individual and intensive *care by their midwives*.

These collocations and clusters illustrate the focus of the authors on the professional activities of midwives, who therefore draw on structures which allow them to position the midwife as agent, even in case of passive constructions and nominalisations required by academic conventions. The collocation *care* indicates the significance of providing care for the professional profile of midwives as presented by the authors of the respective texts.

- Concordancing *Labour/Labor*

The most frequent collocation of *labour/labor* is the preposition *of* (excluding the word itself which is always ranked first on the frequency list of collocations). The concordance shows that in 56 of 94 instances of this collocation, it is realised within the cluster *stage(s) of labour/labor*, e.g.:

(18) Does water birth have an effect on the duration of the different *stages of labor*?

An interesting observation results from investigating the concordance of the singular *stage of labor/labour*, as it reveals that all instances of this cluster are preceded by a numerical expression, namely *first*, *second* or *third*. This usage reflects the insider knowledge of writers, who draw on the concept of dividing the process of giving birth into three stages of labour. The following sentence provides an example:

(19) Particular attention is paid to the effects of oxytocin on the duration of labour, the mode of delivery, the neonatal outcome and *third stage of labour*.

This quote illustrates the technical use of *labour* in this context. Other clusters with *labour* are *duration of labour*, *induction of labour* and *accelerating labour*. *Induction* is also the most frequent collocation of *labor* (rank 1, MI=7,25), followed by ‘arrest’, which is part of the compound *labor arrest* (rank 2, MI=9,25). These collocations and clusters may indicate the relevance of temporal limitations with regard to the duration of giving birth for the professional duties of a midwife. The prevalence of words indicating interventions to increase the speed of labour, e.g. by inducing or accelerating it or by “counteract[ing] the possibility of labor arrest”, in combination with a lack of lexical expressions denoting actions of decreasing speed, may point towards a principle of attempting to reduce the duration of delivery. A closer investigation, taking into consideration the complete texts, indicates that the writers conduct research in order to critically evaluate this principle. A sentence illustrating this observation is the following:

(20) The aim of this paper is to compare *induction of labour* with expectant management in prolonged pregnancy.

This example illustrates that corpus-based evidence can indicate central topics but that defining the relevance and position of the topics within the discourse community needs qualitative analysis of the texts as well as insider knowledge. Another cluster, which appears 21 times, is *during labour*. It is used to indicate the temporal frame of an activity, like in “pain relief *during labor*”, or to define the participants of an action closer, e.g. “women *during labor*”. The frequent use of this cluster indicates the central role the period of being in labour holds in the texts of some authors.

- Concordancing *Birth*

As *birth* is ranked second on the list of the most frequent content word as well as on the list of positive keywords, its concordance should be investigated more closely. Due to the fact that *delivery* seems to denote the same or a similar concept in this context, the two terms are compared.

The most frequent collocates of *birth*, apart from function words, are *experience*, *weight*, *injuries*, and *positions*.

Table 9: Collocations of *Birth* (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Frequency	MI	word
1	21	5,86	experience
3	12	5,90	weight
4	12	6,90	injuries
7	7	6,12	positions

All of these collocates denote aspects of working in a labour ward and present indicators for evaluating the efficacy of an intervention, e.g. a woman's birth experience, a baby's birth weight, the extent of birth injuries, or a variable under analysis, i.e. birth positions.

An interesting aspect about the compound *birth experience* is that it tends to be premodified by an adjective (18 of 26 instances), namely by *positive*, *negative*, *traumatic* or *vaginal*. An example for this kind of structure is the following sentence:

- (21) Encouragement, appropriate information provision and a positive environment are important to empower pregnant women, to reduce fear and help them to have a *positive birth experience*.

These modifications illustrate that the manner of experience is an issue of interest for the writers and is communicated mainly by adjectival modification.

The compound *birth weight* is in seven out of ten occurrences part of the cluster *low birth weight*. That this cluster is a technical term becomes prevalent by an incidence in which a definition is added, i.e. "Children with a *low birth weight* (<2500g)". Another detectable cluster is the construction *child(ren) with a (low) birth weight*, which illustrates the use of birth weight as a means to classify newborns.

With regard to *birth injuries* the most common construction is *the treatment/prevention/reduction of birth injuries*. In combination with the observations outlined above this finding stresses the relevance of prepositional constructions for this genre.

The use of prepositional clauses instead of verbs allows a higher degree of nominalisation, which contributes to a more academic style (Williams 1997:81).

The most striking observation with regard to the collocation *birth position(s)* is that all instances show adjectival modification, mainly by the adjectives *upright* and *recumbent*, which are umbrella terms for various birth positions. Further analysis reveals a number of more specific terms, such as *kneeling*, *all fours position*, *supine position*, etc., which indicates the semantic load of the cluster and its differentiated meaning within the discourse community.

Analysing the most frequent clusters of *birth* also shows that it tends to be used in compound nouns like *home birth*, *water birth* or to be modified by adjectives, e.g. *still birth*, *premature birth* to denote a specific form of birth. However, the most frequent cluster is *giving birth* with a frequency of 10 occurrences, e.g.:

(22) The best position for delivery has been discussed controversially since the inception of scientific views of the mechanics of *giving birth*.

The above example provides an instance of describing the process of having a child with the words *giving birth*. As noted above, *to deliver* is another way of expressing this content. The following analysis of concordances of the word *delivery* should examine, whether the two terms are synonymously used in the corpus or if there are differences.

- Concordancing *Delivery*

The three most frequent significant collocates of *delivery* are *vaginal*, *room* and *during*.

Table 10: Collocations of *Delivery* (identified by *AntConc*)

rank (in frequency)	frequency	MI	collocate
5	14	7,26	vaginal
6	9	7,90	room
8	7	3,93	during

These words indicate three major groups of collocates, namely words specifying the kind of delivery, concepts that are defined more closely by the noun *delivery* and prepositions of time, which indicate the temporal position of a process or intervention in relation to the moment of delivery. The first group is represented, additionally, by adjectives like *preterm* (rank 11, MI = 7,51), *operative* (rank 13, MI=7,51), *spontaneous* (rank 19, MI=5,23) or nouns such as *breech* (rank 15, MI=5,92). An example for the second group is the word *position* (rank 12, MI=5,46). Another preposition of time is *after* (rank 16, MI= 4,03).

Comparing *birth* and *delivery* shows that an important feature of both terms seems to be the use in temporal prepositional phrases, as both are used repeatedly with *during* and *after*, as the following sentences exemplify:

(23) This is, for example, a disadvantage *during birth*.

(24) [I]ts adaptation *after delivery* is discussed.

These examples illustrate that the two terms apparently can be used interchangeably in connection with the temporal prepositions *during* and *after*.

Delivery, however, seems to be combined more frequently with words situated in a hospital context or words of a more technical character, e.g. *delivery room/unit*, *instrumental/ assisted vaginal delivery*, *spontaneous delivery*, while *birth* tends to be applied to extramural or less medicalised concepts as well, e.g. *home births*, *birth centres*, *orgasmic birth*, or in expressions that seem to be fixed clusters, e.g. *water birth*, *still birth*, *birth weight*, *physiological birth*, as these words do not combine with *delivery* in the corpus. However, some adjectives seem to be rather flexibly applied to both terms, e.g. *vaginal*, which modifies *delivery* in 15 cases and *birth* in five instances or *caesarean*, which is combined three times with *birth* and once with *delivery*. The latter adjective is mostly used as part of the technical term for this mode of delivery, i.e. *caesarean section* (frequency: 29 times). Its combination with *birth/delivery* is especially interesting because part of a technical phrase denoting a surgical intervention is taken and used as a premodifier for *birth/delivery*, which is a structure that is mostly applied to denote vaginal modes of delivery (cp. *spontaneous/instrumental birth*). A closer analysis of the instances of *caesarean birth/delivery* in their contexts reveals that one major motivation for the word choice may have been the need for variation of terminology, as exemplified by the following passage:

(25) The highest quality and most current research support VBAC [vaginal birth after caesarean section] as a safe choice for the majority of women with a history of previous **caesarean section**. With defined protocol, trial of labour after one previous *caesarean delivery* is safe and most often successful and reduces the rate of repeat **caesarean section**.

[added emphasis]

This example demonstrates the need of the author to find alternative terms for *caesarean section* in order to avoid repetitive writing. The following example appears to indicate a slightly different motivation:

(26) The empirical study uses qualitative interviews with 3 women with vaginal birth experience or an emergency *caesarean birth*.

The paper from which this example is taken aims to examine the influence of midwifery care on the birth experiences of women. A possible motivation for choosing the expressions *women with vaginal birth* and *caesarean birth* to denote the two groups under analysis may be a wish to put the emphasis on the comparability of the two groups. The parallel construction encourages the reader to recognise shared and varying variables relevant for the research project; while the adjective *vaginal/caesarean* indicates the dependent variable, the repetition of the term *birth* indicates that the two events are similar enough to be compared and suggests that both versions are different forms of one and the same event.

7.3.5 Concordancing Academic Keywords

According to a comparison with the *AWL*, ten of the first 25 most frequent positive keywords are examples of academic vocabulary. Three highly frequent words from the realm of academia, namely *result(s)* (184 instances), *research* (137 instances) and *database(s)* (90 instances) should be investigated more closely. The term *databases* comprises together with names of concrete databases, i.e. *midirs*, *medline*, *cinahl*, *Cochrane*, the most frequent instances (282) of academic words with positive keyness, followed by *result(s)*. While these two terms were chosen for their high frequency, the third term, i.e. *research*, was chosen because the incongruent usage of prepositions in the phrase *research on/in the internet* already became apparent during the first reading of the abstracts and seemed to be worth a more detailed analysis.

- Concordancing *Results*

Investigating frequent collocations of *results* reveals that this term is often preceded or directly followed by a verb form. Collocations giving rise to this observation are, for example, in the position directly in front of *results*, i.e. the L1 position, words like *(re)searched*, *summarized*, *rated*, and in the position immediately after the term, i.e. the R1 position, *were*, *show(ed)*, *found*, *suggest*. This tendency to collocate with verbs might indicate that mainly nominal forms of the word family *result* are used in the abstracts under investigation. A closer analysis shows that *results* is indeed mainly used as a noun in the corpus, which is also the case for the singular *result*. An exception is the cluster ‘*often results in a*’ that appears four times. In addition, 79 (out of 164) instances present the word *Results* with a capital letter due to its use as a subheading but only two of 20 occurrences of *Result*. This indicates that the

plural form not only seems to be more frequent in general but also as a subheading for the section presenting the research outcomes.

An examination of clusters with *results* indicates, for example, the relevance of evaluative lexical expressions for the modification of *results*, as clusters like *available/contradictory/distinct/important results* are among the most frequent multi-word units including *results*. This observation gives rise to the assumption that the term *results* is central in sections dedicated to evaluation. However, a comparison of the move corpora, which means that each corpus is compiled of the instances of one particular move, shows that occurrences of *results* are spread throughout all moves. The highest number of *results* is found in the move ‘results’, followed by the move ‘conclusions’. Nevertheless, there are also usages of this term in the move corpora of ‘purpose’, ‘methods’ and ‘introduction’. Another significant cluster is *The results show(,) that...*, which is realised 13 times. Other verbs found as part of this construction are *suggest* (4 times) and *reveal* (once). A sentence exemplifying this structure is the following one:

(27) *The results show that the activity of the sympathetic nerve decreases and the activity of the parasympathetic nerve increases during yoga therapy.*

The example illustrates an effective way of presenting the results of the research conducted, which is an essential part of writing an abstract. Sometimes fully or partially fixed phrases can be useful, especially for learners, to realise a move (for an analysis of formulaic language in student writing, cp. Hüttner 2007).

An overview on some of the indicated significant collocations of *results* (no differentiation between noun and verb) is given by the following table:

Table 11: Collocations of *Results* (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Frequency	MI	Collocate
6	8	3,11	show
8	6	3,11	were
12	4	5,67	available
18	3	4,40	searched

- **Concordancing *Research***

The list of frequent collocates shows a tendency of *research* to be part of compound nouns such as *research question(s)* or *literature research*. Another interesting group of collocations are the prepositions *in* and *on*. Although *in* has a mutual information value of merely 2,71 and is therefore not among the significant collocations, its use should be investigated in

comparison with the instances of *on*. Examples of the cluster *research in* offer combinations with the source of information (e.g. *research in databases, books*) or the area of investigation (e.g. *research in this topic, area*). The cluster *research on* is followed by the concrete focus of research (e.g. *male depression, PPD (post-partum depression)*), the expression *the topic* or *the internet*. Examples for these usages are:

- (28) Literature *research in* selected databases, books, journals and in the world wide web.
- (29) In addition an independent *research on* the internet was made.
- (30) Just recently Anne Maria Möller-Leimkühler has done *research on* the male depression [...].

The first example illustrates the use of *research in* to indicate the source of information. Sentence (29) provides an instance of *research on the internet*, which highlights the ambivalent usage of *in* and *on* with regard to internet research in the corpus. Similarly interchangeable seems the collocation of *research* and *in/on*, if it is followed by *this topic*, while in cases of a concrete research focus only the preposition *on* is used, which is illustrated in example (30). *BNC* samples, in comparison, essentially tend to use *research in* in combination with deictic expressions, e.g. *this area/topic/field*, constructions like *the area of* or place names, e. g. “research in the United States”, and *research on* (767 times) as well as *into* (820 times) for more concrete outlines of the research object, e.g.:

- (31) Although *research in* this area is limited, what there is indicates [...].
- (32) Much *research on* children’s explanations of scientific events has been carried out since the 1970s.
- (33) *Research into* the causes and treatment of delinquency was to be encouraged.

While these examples illustrate similar uses of *research in* and *research on* with regard to explicitness of topic, they also indicate a prepositional collocation not found in the corpus under analysis, i.e. *into*. In addition, *research in* was not combined with place names in the corpus which is a frequent combination in the *BNC*. This might be due to the limited scope of the research conducted by the students, which did not require them to restrict or evaluate their sources according to place of research. With regard to the collocations of *research in/on the internet* no instances could be found in the *BNC*. Taking into consideration that *internet* only appears 87 times in the *BNC* in general, one could assume that for search terms in relation with new technology the datedness of the *BNC* becomes relevant. To consult a more up-to-date corpus the *Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)*, which comprises texts up to the year 2015, was searched for the phrases *research on the internet/in the internet*. This analysis revealed that only instances of *research on the internet* could be found but no examples of *research in the internet*. To reduce the probability of this discrepancy being due

to a difference between British and American English, a *Google* search was conducted, which did not yield any hits for *research in the internet* but numerous instances of *research on the internet*. These results and taking into consideration that the British English collocational dictionary *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English* (2002) only gives the preposition *on* as collocation for *internet* further strengthens the hypothesis that the construction *research in the internet* is not a common native speaker expression.

Details of the three indicated collocations are represented in the following table:

Table 12: Collocations of *Research* (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Frequency	MI	Collocate
2	46	7,93	question
3	40	6,36	literature
11	16	3,89	on

Especially interesting clusters are *further research* (17 instances) and *more research* (8 instances), as they are spread throughout the corpus and therefore realised by numerous authors. Both clusters appear repeatedly in the construction *further/more research is needed/necessary/required*, indicating the insufficiency of the currently available evidence. Instead of the present tense form of ‘be’, some authors use the will-future in this context. A typical example of this cluster is offered by the following quote:

(34) *Further research is needed* to determine when artificial rupture of the membranes is indicated.

This sample illustrates a frequent way to continue after the cluster *further research is needed*, namely the use of a to-infinitive clause. Another option realised in some abstracts is to use a relative clause in order to further define the kind of research needed, e.g.:

(35) To evaluate distinct results, *further research is necessary* which includes only women exceeding their due date [...].

Example (35) demonstrates that the infinitive clause may also precede the cluster. The relative clause enables the writer to specify the need of research, indicating weaknesses of former studies and potential for future research projects.

- Concordancing *Databases*

Frequent collocates of *databases* are adjectives and participles, which define the respective databases more closely, e.g. *selected*, *relevant*, *medical*, *online*, *used*. They are mainly realised in the positions left of *databases*, with the exception of an appositional use of *used* in

“Databases used are MIDIRS, medline, [...]”. Another significant collocation is the form *were*, which was used as an auxiliary verb for the passive construction in eight cases, e.g.:

(36) Several *databases* *were* explored to find adequate literature.

The above sentence exemplifies a typical construction, i.e. *databases* as subject in a passive construction in simple past tense. No other tense could be found in combinations of *databases* with the passive construction. Frequent verbs in relation to *databases* come from the semantic field of searching, e.g. *search(ed)*, *research(ed)*, *browsed*, or of signalling choice, e.g. *select(ed)*, *use(d)*.

The following table summarises significant collocations of *databases*:

Table 13: Collocations of *Databases* (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Frequency	MI	Collocate
5	10	4,92	were
6	7	7,97	selected
7	7	6,42	relevant
8	7	6,06	medical
11	4	7,04	online

Analysing frequent clusters of *databases* reveals that this term is often realised as part of a prepositional phrase, which defines the means or field of literature research. A common construction is: “A literature search was performed/conducted/done *in* (selected/relevant/...) *databases*” or “*in the databases*” followed by a list of names denoting the used databases of the thesis, e.g.:

(37) A systematic literature research was performed *in the databases* MIDIRS, Medline, Cochrane, CINAHL and CCMed and in the catalogue of the Austrian Library Network.

This example is a typical construction of *databases* and illustrates the importance of the passive voice and prepositional constructions for writing on this subject within the genre under analysis. The phrase *research in/on databases*, however, neither appears in the *BNC*, nor in the *COCA*. This construction, therefore, may be an example of creative language by non-native speakers who attempt to express themselves clearly with the means they have available and may produce some non-native constructions as a result. Alternative formulations of the *COCA* embrace *research was conducted using databases*, *databases were searched* or *to obtain sources through online databases*.

7.3.6 Overview on the Results of Concordancing

The following table summarises the words that are investigated more closely in this section as well as some of their most important collocations and clusters:

Table 14: Overview on the Concordanced Words, Collocations and Clusters

Keyword	Significant collocates	Frequent clusters
midwife/midwives	can, should, work/working	of the midwife, (care) by a/the midwife/midwives
labor/labour	induction, arrest	stage(s) of labour, induction of labour, during labour
birth	experience, weight, injuries, position(s)	low birth weight, the x of birth injuries, recumbent/upright birth position(s)
delivery	vaginal, room, during	mode of delivery, assisted/instrumental vaginal delivery
results	(re)searched, summarized, rated,	contradictory/distinct/important results, the results show/suggest that...
databases	were, selected, relevant, medical, online	databases were searched, in (the) databases

7.3.7 Epistemic adjectives and adverbs

A central aspect of academic writing is the appropriate use of hedging, which is defined by Hyland (1998:1) as

linguistic means used to indicate either a) a lack of complete commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition, or b) a desire not to express that commitment categorically.

Hedging allows authors to mitigate their claims, modify their degree of certainty or commitment or to provide some space for discussion (Hyland 1998:6). It may signal that the researcher is aware of the preliminary validity and the limitations of his/her research. As hedging is an essential component of academic writing (Williams 1997:177), it most probably is linked to underlying principles of the academic discourse community, e.g. that all evidence is temporarily valid. Being able to realise hedging in an adequate manner may therefore be an indicator of group membership (Hyland 1998:6). There is a great variety of means that can be used for hedging, including modal verbs, admitting limitations and problematic aspects of the conducted research, choice of tense or epistemic adjectives, adverbs and nouns (Hyland 1998:102-155). In Hyland's study on research articles, the latter group "constitute[s] 53% of the major grammatical classes expressing hedging" (1998:130). This group of words therefore seems to be of considerable importance for hedging, which makes it the focus of the analysis

presented in the following paragraphs. As the most important noun in Hyland's analysis, i.e. *possibility*, does not appear in the corpus at all, the investigation focuses on epistemic adjectives and adverbs. However, it should be indicated that the field of hedging is considerably broader and cannot be addressed in detail within the scope of this thesis. Consequently, the analysis has to focus on one specific aspect of hedging, which is the use of particular epistemic adjectives and adverbs.

In order to evaluate the use of these words, the corpus is searched for expressions detected by Hyland (1998) in his investigation of research articles (table with detailed results, see Appendix). The following table provides an overview on the frequency of the respective epistemic words per 75,000 words in Hyland's study on research articles (RA) and in the corpus under analysis, as well as the total number of instances in the corpus (among 33,340 tokens):

Table 15: Frequencies of Epistemic Adjectives and Adverbs in Hyland (1998:130) and in the Corpus under Analysis;

Item	RA (Hyland)	Corpus (frequency/75,000)	Corpus: total number of instances	Item	RA (Hyland)	Corpus (frequency/75,000)	Corpus: total number of instances
about	30	11	5	presumably	11	2	1
(un)likely	23	16	7	quite	*	4	2
probable (ly)	27	11	5	usually	*	4	2
relatively	17	11	5	rarely	*	2	1
generally	16	11	5	occasionally	*	2	1
approximate (ly)	16	9	4	almost	*	11	5
consistent (with)	15	18	8	relatively	*	11	5
most	17	110	49	potentially	*	2	1
slightly	14	2	1				

*: no data given in Hyland (1998)

The results of the analysis show that from 26 frequent epistemic adjectives and adverbs (for the complete list of Hyland's epistemic adjectives, adverbs and nouns, see Appendix) 17 were also used in the texts of the corpus, namely: *about*, *(un)likely*, *probable/(ly)*, *relatively*,

generally, consistent, most, slightly, presumably, quite, usually, rarely, occasionally, almost, relatively, potentially. A significant finding is that *most* is used 49 times in the abstract corpus of 33 340 tokens, which equals the frequency of 110 per 75,000 words. In contrast, the frequency of *most* in the research articles Hyland studied is 17 per 75,000 words. This comparison highlights that the word *most* is used considerably more often in the corpus of abstracts than in Hyland's work on a genre of academic writing. In addition, it is also by far the most frequent epistemic adjective/adverb used in the corpus under analysis, with the next frequent word, i.e. *consistent*, appearing only eight times (18/75,000 words). Hyland (1998:131) remarks that the phrase *consistent with* tends to be used in contrast with *prove*, as in the following example:

- (38) Together these results are consistent with the possibility, although do not prove,[...] [original emphasis] (Hyland 1998:131)

This form of construction, however, cannot be found in the corpus of abstracts. There, *consistent* is mostly used as an adjective premodifying a noun, mainly the noun *result*, e.g.:

- (39) A *consistent* result could not be achieved.

In addition to constructing the word *consistent* differently, there is also no instance in which it is contrasted with *prove*.

Another result of the comparison is that ten words that were used in Hyland's corpus do not appear in the corpus of abstracts under analysis as hedging devices, i.e. *possible(ly)*, *apparent(ly)*, *essentially*, *partially*, *somewhat*, *possibility*, *normally*, *virtually*, *evidently*, *essentially*. The words *possible/possibly/possibility* do appear 66 times in the corpus. However, these instances are no examples of hedging as they do not exemplify the epistemic modality of *possible* by referring to abstract entities but they represent conditions of "the real world" (Hyland 1998:133).

7.4 Evaluation

7.4.1 Evaluation of Abstract Length and Structure Types

The conducted analysis shows that the average length of an abstract is approximately 250 words but that the length of single texts may vary considerably. The greatest deviations are observed in abstracts which are not published as stand-alone texts online but are retrievable only as chapters of the papers. This finding may indicate that, for example, conventions of a university homepage could influence and limit the accepted length of abstracts. In addition, such conventions could inform the choice of structure type. The analysis reveals that among

the three types of structures those exemplifying types 2 and 3, i.e. using subheadings, tend to show clearer boundaries between moves and to realise moves with less interweaving, e.g. embedding or previewing and revision of moves. They also realise the core moves to a greater extent. This observation ties in with the notion that “formulaic (or ‘structured’) abstracts [...] are generally more effective [than traditional abstracts]” (Huckin 2006:93) as they tend to offer more information and seem to be easier to search (Huckin 2006:93). In addition to rendering the abstract more reader-friendly, subheadings may also provide a clear structure and framework of required content to the students, which might be a valuable support for novice academic writers (Swales 1990:215).

7.4.2 Evaluation of the Move Analysis

One interesting observation of the move analysis is the absence of obligatory moves. A probable reason for this finding may be that the genre itself is an evolving one, having been produced for merely ten years. It can therefore be expected that midwifery students producing paper abstracts do not have an extended pool of sample texts for orientation and that the conventions of the genre are still developing and open for new influences. In addition, the corpus comprises not only the best and most successful or typical of samples but embraces all abstracts produced by the students of two universities throughout the years 2010–2015. Some of the abstracts may therefore prove to vary to a considerable degree from the characteristic structure of the genre but still influence the statistical data.

Results of the move analysis also highlight the genre’s dynamic nature. Factors like the type of structure, ambivalent writer roles and a multiplicity of communicative purposes may exert considerable influence on the frequency and realisations of moves. While criteria of formatting might decide on the existence of the move ‘title’, the range of writer roles and the related communicative purposes become apparent in the choice of strategies employed to realise, for example, the ‘introduction’ move.

Students are novice writers and the samples under analysis are probably the first and second instances of this genre that the authors produced. This is one explanation for the varying degree of expertise. While some authors may already be able to efficiently exploit the means of the genre, e.g. by purposeful use of embedding, others still seem to need more insights, e.g. into the differences between some moves, especially ‘results’ and ‘conclusions’. In addition, efficient abstract writing also includes understanding the complex conventions of academic research, which is probably not achievable to attain within a few months. As it is to be expected that students have not yet reached this level of expertise, rather ineffective

realisations, e.g. by using vague terms (cp. move analysis 'methods'), may be explainable. Another relevant influential factor is the level of language proficiency which may differ considerably between students. Some examples above illustrate language use that is incorrect with regard to native speaker norms, e.g. non-rule conforming use of determiners. An additional aspect could be a rather low level of experience in writing texts, which may lead to text production without the crucial stages of drawing on reference books and proof reading.

The difficulty of differentiating between 'purpose' and 'summary' moves can also be a problematic task for the analyst. Due to the fact that the relationship between form and function is not a straightforward one (Bhatia 1993:86), the clear identification and delineation of moves is challenging and sometimes there is no straightforward solution. This notion is a frequently experienced limitation of this approach (Hüttner, Smit, Mehlmauer-Larcher 2009:102). Nevertheless, even if the accuracy of move identification may be a point of discussion, the results gained by a move analysis are more information on a genre's structure than otherwise available and may provide a starting point for discussion and refinement.

7.4.3 Evaluation of the Lexico-grammatical Analysis

Firstly, the lexical analysis shows the significance of common vocabulary and function words for the creation of abstracts. This is a relevant finding if one considers that most of the authors are non-native speakers of English and may differ considerably in their language proficiency and educational backgrounds. A profound knowledge of the core lexicon of the English language and of the appropriate use of function words is therefore an elementary component of being able to produce an effective sample of the genre.

Another characteristic feature is that, even though common words comprise nearly half of the corpus' lexicon, there is a considerable number of field- and genre-specific vocabulary, including numerous technical and semi-technical words. Some central terms of these fields are indicated by the frequency and positive keyword lists, which could be used as a source of information for specific vocabulary materials. In the course of concordancing the most frequent words and the items with the highest degree of keyness, it became obvious that the manner of using central content words might reflect perspectives of the author. As students attempt to become members of the discourse community, it is essential for them to prove that they have understood the central principles and beliefs of the discourse community and to be able to express their ideas and arguments with the appropriate words and grammatical constructions. The choice and deliberate use of essential terms such as *midwives*, *labor* or

birth signals a high degree of expertise and identification with the discourse community's concepts and perspectives. It is therefore a core means to achieve the genre's potential to display insider knowledge.

Findings like the importance of passive constructions, the low frequency of personal pronouns or aspects of nominalisations, e.g. using mainly the nouns of a word family or prepositional constructions indicate the academic character of the genre.

Another aspect that is revealed by the analysis is that the authors of the abstracts use collocations that cannot be found in native speaker corpora, e.g. *research in databases*, and did not realise collocations frequent in *COCA*, e.g. *using databases*. As the core move 'methods' requires students to present their methods, providing students with a broad range of appropriate collocations and constructions to communicate information about the use of different sources seems to be a crucial component of teaching them abstract writing.

The analysis of epistemic adjectives and adverbs reveals some differences to the observations on an academic genre made by Hyland (1998), namely a considerably more frequent use of *most* as a hedging device and a more narrow range of words applied for hedging. Reasons for the observed variables in hedging could be that this kind of realisation is characteristic of the specific genre under investigation or that the authors preferred other ways of hedging to the use of epistemic expressions, e.g. modal verbs. Additional influences on the choice of hedges by the authors of the abstracts may also be their background as language learners and their status as novice writers of academic texts.

As indicated above, most of the student authors are probably German native speakers. As in German "arguably less hedging occurs" (Hüttner 2005: 193), one could interpret the smaller degree of hedging observed with regard to epistemic adjectives and adverbs as a possible influence of the students first language. However, even if one argues for this viewpoint, he/she has to consider that the degree of hedging in German texts also varies with regard to different German varieties. Austrian German, which is the variety most Austrian midwifery students speak as a first language, for example, tends to be more indirect (Muhr 2008; Warga 2008). Austrians use more subjunctive verb forms and modal verb interrogations in their mother tongue than Germans (Muhr 2008:230), which could contribute to a higher degree of hedging than contrastive studies between English and German might indicate.

Taking into consideration that the genre under analysis is a student genre, one should also acknowledge that "student writers will be less adept at textualizing their genres; thus, the

rhetoical proficiency, and in some cases also the linguistic accuracy, might be in need of improvement” (Hüttner 2007:63). In addition, Busch-Lauer (1995) shows by an analysis of abstracts in German medical journals that not only novice but also expert writers of a genre may produce linguistically inadequate texts in a foreign language. Consequently, the authors of the abstracts, being not only non-expert users of English but also novices in academic writing, may have used a more narrow range of epistemic adjectives and adverbs due to a lack of knowledge about this specific aspect of language use and genre construction.

8. Genre-based ESP Teaching

This section evaluates in how far the results and methods of genre analysis can inform and enrich ESP teaching in general and teaching abstract writing in Austrian midwifery education in particular. Firstly, this section illustrates the complexity of what it means to know a genre. Then it addresses the fertile combination of genre analysis and corpus linguistics from a pedagogical perspective, before it outlines points of criticism and chances of genre-based teaching. Thirdly, some concepts of genre-based teaching suggested by various researchers, i.e. Swales (1990), Hyland (2004b), Johns (1997), Hüttner (2007) and Mungra (2010), are introduced, before the final paragraphs propose potential applications of the genre-analytical results from section 7 as well as from genre-analytical methods to teaching abstract writing in Austrian midwifery education.

8.1. Genre-based Teaching

Genre-based teaching is a teaching approach which “promotes the teaching of genres generally encountered by students in the different disciplines and the overt teaching of the language patterns and social conventions of these genres” (Nueva 2016:386). The major aim of genre-based teaching is to allow students to develop the necessary genre knowledge for their area of study and/or work.

8.1.1 Genre Knowledge

Genre knowledge has been defined by Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995:ix) as “an individual’s repertoire of situationally appropriate responses to recurrent situations”. The broad range of aspects relevant for genre knowledge is reflected in various definitions, e.g. by Johns (1997) or Hyland (2004). One of the most comprehensive concepts of genre knowledge, which also embraces the notions indicated by Johns (1997) and Hyland (2004), has been outlined by

Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995). They argue that knowing a genre means being aware of a genre's "*Dynamism*", "*Situatedness*", "*Form and Content*", "*Duality of Structure*" and "*Community Ownership*" [original emphasis] (1995:4). These notions should be explained in more detail.

'Dynamism': As indicated in section 2, genres are stable in terms of their recurrent and conventionalised character but also flexible due to their openness for creative usage and change over time. Knowing a genre includes being aware of the temporal character of conventionalised patterns in genre creation and of the potential for individual or collective variation and genre development. As Johns (1997) points out, genre knowledge is "abstract and schematic, enhanced by repeated, contextualized experiences with texts" (1997:21), which means that the cognitive concept of a genre may develop in interaction with processing actual genre samples.

'Situatedness': As genres are "*frames for social action*" [original emphasis] (Swales 2004:61), knowledge about the social context of a genre and familiarity with the discourse community which uses and owns it are essential parts of genre knowledge. Learning a genre therefore "requir[es] immersion into the culture and a lengthy period of apprenticeship" (1995:13). This aspect is of specific interest for students' genre samples, which are produced in class in order to practice professional genres. In this situation two contexts become relevant, namely the professional context because it provides the usual conditions of genre usage as well as the educational situation in the classroom, whose procedures, for example, of assessment or of practising writing skills, exert influence as well.

'Form and Content': A competent user of a genre knows which topics and formal elements are appropriate and relevant for a specific genre. Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995:15) highlight the relation from topics addressed in a genre sample to the background knowledge needed for understanding the text. They indicate the importance of choosing the extent of details that should be provided by a genre by drawing on an example that clearly presupposes the knowledge of basic correlations. Presuming that the intended reader is aware of certain facts, correlations, theories, etc. directly influences the manner in which topics are introduced, presented and elaborated by a writer/speaker. To successfully produce and process genres therefore relies on the user's knowledge about the intended audience and the level of expertise that can be taken for granted. Choosing an adequate topic and an efficient way to present it is consequently a crucial part of genre knowledge. Another essential aspect of genre knowledge concerns formality, which includes knowing the way genres are structured as well as its

typical lexico-grammatical patterns and the appropriate register. It is by a competent usage of these linguistic means that writers/speakers can demonstrate that they possess the necessary genre competence to partake in the discourse of the community and therefore to fulfil an important criterion of membership.

‘Duality of Structure’: Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) adopt this term from Giddens’s Structuration theory (Giddens 1984) (Berkenkotter, Huckin 1995:18). It denotes the concept that structure and human action are not opposed and separate forces but are constantly interacting. While structure influences the way people act and speak or write, the actors’ actions again reproduce structural conditions (Giddens 1984:25). Being aware of the fact that producing a genre is not merely influenced by structural conditions, e.g. conventionalised patterns and participant positions, but also contributing and potentially changing elements of structure allows the producer of a genre a more critical stance and a heightened awareness of his/her own contribution to the process of constant reproduction and modification of social structures.

‘Community Ownership’: As stated by the definition in section 2, genres are possessed and named by discourse communities and genre knowledge may be used to regulate membership (Swales 1990:27). The community’s “assumptions, norms and values” (Berkenkotter, Huckin 1995:22) are an integral part of a genre, since they influence genre production and expectations in terms of style and content and contribute considerably to the acceptability of a text within a discourse community. Genres may also be linked to certain “roles” (Johns 1997:25), which restrict or augment the range of genres available for certain community members. The ability and power to produce and receive certain genres reflect a person’s position in the community’s hierarchical system. The numerous genres owned by a discourse community are related in various ways to each other (see section 2.6). Recognising a genre’s position within a community’s genre systems, networks, and chains is a crucial aspect of genre knowledge. To gain this kind of understanding, familiarity with the respective community, its procedures, ideals and methodologies is essential.

In conclusion, genre-based teaching cannot be reduced to presenting a static formula for genre production and making students reproduce this schema. In order to truly enhance students’ genre knowledge, teaching has to address the diversity of aspects essential for knowing a genre, including its aptitude for evolving and developing, its situatedness within social contexts and groups, the adequacy of topics and style, appropriate structural and lexico-

grammatical features, its interaction with societal structures as well as its position in the discourse community.

8.1.2 Corpus Linguistics

Corpus linguistics is an area highly relevant for genre-based teaching as its results may provide additional information about genres. The outcomes of corpus-based genre analysis could inform the production and evaluation of teaching materials and syllabi and its methods may be applied to a corpus of genre samples (Flowerdew, John 2013, Gavioli 2005). A corpus analysis of samples of one specific genre or even from one particular move within a genre, which has been done by Henry and Roseberry (2001), allows for discovering genre-specific patterns in the lexicon and/or grammar as well as recognising vocabulary that is especially relevant for the genre under analysis.

Corpus-based teaching itself has various advantages. A major corpus-based teaching approach is Data-Driven Learning (DDL), developed by Tim Johns (1991) (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:207). In DDL, students are requested to detect patterns in the usage of particular words by working with concordances (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:207). DDL therefore puts the student in the position of a researcher, a linguist analysing texts and detecting features prevalent in the corpus (Flowerdew 2013:174). This “cutting out [of] the middle-man” (Gavioli 2005:29) could increase the engagement of students in the course work and support learning, as active involvement may further the implementation of discovered patterns in the memory (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:208). Being a researcher could be perceived by students as “challenging and empowering” (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:208) and decrease the extent of prescriptivism in teaching (Gavioli 2005:32). Another potential benefit of DDL is that the reoccurrence of certain patterns throughout the language sample may lead students to recognise the idiomatic character of language, therefore broadening their linguistic horizon (Gavioli 2005:51). In addition, they can compare their usage of language with that of expert writers (Flowerdew, John 2013:174) and use the corpus as a source of additional information, e.g. to research words in authentic linguistic contexts (Gavioli 2005:113). Apart from detecting specific aspects of language use, a DDL approach to teaching could also augment the students’ ability to master “analytical reasoning, critical thinking, and problem-solving” (Cheng 2012:135). These competences are especially valuable for increasing their “academic literacy” (Johns, Ann 1997).

However, corpus-based teaching requires considerable resources in terms of time (for preparation of tasks and material, for the students to work) (Dudley-St.Evans, St. John

1998:208) and finances (hardware, software, teacher training) (Flowerdew, John 2013). In addition, students are confronted with new forms of data representation, methods and probably also a new perspective on language, i.e. the idiom principle (Sinclair 1991) (Gavioli 2005:37). Furthermore, the students' language proficiency is most likely considerably lower than that of a linguist (Gavioli 2005:31). These aspects combined indicate the need for a teacher, who provides guidance and ensures that the amount of data is not too much for the students to process (Gavioli 2005:30). Another point of criticism relates to the nature of a corpus as being not necessarily representative of 'real language' (Gavioli 2005:18) but merely representative of the samples comprising it. Widdowson indicates the need to "recontextualize" (Widdowson 2000:133) words and phrases that have been detected in a corpus in order to render them useful for teaching purposes. Even though concordances show the direct verbal surroundings of a word, the greater context, including discursive features of the whole text, formatting or medium of publication, is in some programmes not available for the analyst. If whole texts are retrievable from the corpus, one still has to consider that working with them would increase the time needed for conducting the DDL activity to a great extent and aspects of social, regional, etc. context are missing.

In conclusion, corpus linguistics is a promising source of information about a particular genre and could therefore considerably support the production and evaluation of relevant teaching materials. In addition, corpus-based methods can be a valuable means to enhance the range of teaching methods in genre-based teaching and to gain more insights into specific genres. It may familiarise students with methods to examine new genres themselves, which is of considerable significance in a society where technology, professions and academia are developing fast and partly in unforeseeable directions, giving rise to innovative genres (Hüttner, Smit, Mehlmauer-Larcher 2009:100). Nevertheless, it is time-consuming, requires the appropriate hardware and software and might prove to be very challenging for the students. Pedagogical projects combining elements of corpus linguistics and move analysis have already been conducted, e.g. with regard to teaching the genre of fund-raising letters (Biber, Connor, Upton 2007). The decision to which degree corpus-based teaching should be included in a course is therefore highly context-specific and has to be evaluated by the teacher in course planning and re-evaluated afterwards, to see if the invested effort correlates with student achievements.

8.1.3 Criticism and Chances of Genre-based Teaching

Genre-based teaching approaches have been criticized for various reasons. Some major criticisms, namely the risk of overgeneralisation, prescriptivism, reproduction of power structures and lack of necessity or possibility of explicitly teaching genre, should be addressed in this section. In addition, potential benefits of genre-based teaching are indicated.

- Overgeneralisation

A major concern with regard to genre-based teaching is the risk of overgeneralisation (Flowerdew, John 2013:149). Although most samples of a genre do feature the majority of characteristic patterns, saying that every sample therefore has to correspond to these principles seems to be simplifying. It would not acknowledge the dynamic nature of generic forms and the diversity and variety of genre realisations. Swales suggests to provide students with “simple structural models” (Swales 2004:251), which could act as a guideline that allows for a range of possible realisations. Reducing the explicitness of a genre description for teaching and offering instead only basic information and principles may encourage students to employ the options available within generic conventions more consciously and according to their individual communicative purposes.

- Prescriptivism

Genre descriptions focusing on formal features and basic information may enable students to produce recognisable samples of a genre. Teaching genre by means of lists and matrices students only have to copy in order to produce a genre, however, does not sufficiently acknowledge the inherently social character of genre and its relevance as a resource for the individual that is open to creative exploitation. Although gaining membership of a discourse community may be a primary goal for some students, the production of a genre merely because it is prescribed may lead to a neglect of underlying communicative purposes (Coe 1994:184). Still, genre theory is not essentially prescriptive (Hyland 2004b:19) and teaching it in a prescriptive manner may rather be an indication of “impoverished pedagogy” (Berkenkotter, Huckin 1995:160) than a consequence of some inherent flaw of genre-based teaching. In order to mitigate the risk of communicating an overgeneralised and prescriptivist attitude to genre in class, the students’ ability to evaluate genres critically should be furthered by increasing their awareness of the complexity and flexibility of genres as well as for their social situatedness (Swales 2004:251).

- Reproduction of Power Structures

Another worry about genre-based teaching is that explicitly conveying genre conventions could reproduce given power structures. Students would therefore be in the position to either subordinate to the prescribed conventions or to have no chance to rise in societal hierarchy. Giddens indicates the problematic aspect of this power concept, when he emphasises the interrelatedness of structure and individuals: "Structure is not 'external' to individuals; [...] Structure is not to be equated with constraint but is always both constraining and enabling" (Giddens 1984:25). On the one hand, individuals are confronted with given structures and routines and need to cohere to them to a certain extent. On the other hand, the actions of individuals inform the structures of society and can change them. In order to avoid forms of genre-based teaching which instruct students to reproduce existing structures in an unquestioned manner, teachers should communicate the enabling aspect of genres as well, e.g. by providing a range of different realisations of a genre. Hyland indicates that genre-based teaching is also an important part of genre criticism, since being familiar with a genre is the pre-condition for being able to express genre-related criticism or to exert influence on the position and realisation of certain genres (Hyland 2004b:14).

In addition, genre-based teaching could be empowering for the students (Hyland 2004b:14), as genre competence is significant for their professional careers and for acceptance by the respective discourse community (Swales 1990:27). Genre-based teaching therefore could support students to gain the knowledge necessary for participation in their target community (Miller 1984:39) and increase the possibilities they have in professional or academic life, e.g. contributing an adequate number of research publications because they are competent in producing the relevant genres (Mungra 2010:152).

- Lack of Necessity

Aviva Freedman argues that genres can just as well be acquired without explicit instruction and that they may be learned automatically through immersion in the context (Freedman 1994:196). Nevertheless, explicit genre teaching could increase genre competence more efficiently than other approaches. This argument is rejected by Freedman (1994:197) due to a lack of research. Since then, however, some studies have been undertaken which provide evidence supporting the efficacy of explicit genre teaching. Henry and Roseberry (1998), Cai, Luo Yi and Li (2010) or Nueva (2016), for example, find that student performances improve after genre-based teaching. However, as existing research on the topic still seems to be

insufficient and since some of the existing studies do have their limitations (Cheng 2006), these findings should be taken with a grain of salt. Further research is needed to allow a reliable conclusion on the conditions and extent of efficient genre-based teaching.

Apart from increasing the degree of efficiency, genre-based teaching may also offer more transparency with regard to the expectations on the side of the teacher, since it clarifies what kind of product students are expected to produce (Hyland 2004b:10). Due to the fact that genre-based teaching offers “coherent framework[s] for focusing on both language and contexts” (Hyland 2004b:10), it may also provide a guideline for students in order to systematically investigate, evaluate and produce genres as well as acknowledge the importance of language and social situatedness for genre. Therefore, even though explicit genre teaching may not be absolutely necessary, it could contribute to a more efficient, transparent and systematic way of teaching.

- Impossibility

Freedman (1994:197) argues that teaching requires concrete content which is not available and cannot be gathered reliably for genre-based teaching due to the constant development of genres. She adds that even if one could gather all information on a genre it would be too complex to teach (1994:198). Still, there might be alternatives to teaching either everything there is to say about a genre or nothing at all. Freedman addresses this argument by acknowledging that in some situations explicit teaching may be helpful, depending on a student’s developmental stage, studying competence and motivation (1994:204). She presents some aspects as indicators for the highly restricted character of situations in which genre-based teaching could be effective, such as the importance of authentic tasks, the use of relevant samples and maximal immersion into the context of genre usage. While these are valid points, those aspects would hardly be considered genuine for a genre-based approach to teaching. In conclusion, to render genre-based teaching effective equals to carefully plan, devise and evaluate teaching, taking into account relevant influential factors such as authenticity and adequacy of material, the competence levels of the students, contextual limitations, etc. While it may be a highly challenging task, which requires the teacher to take into account the diversity of variables of the teaching context, it would seem harsh to say that it is so difficult and complicated that one should rather not attempt teaching genre at all. In addition, genre-based teaching may also lead to a heightened awareness about the relevant genres on the part of the teacher (Hyland 2004b:15).

8.1.4 Concepts of Genre-based Teaching

Many authors have explored potential applications of genre-analytical results or methods to pedagogical contexts, e.g. Swales (1990), Hyland (2004b), Johns (1997), Hüttner (2007), Mungra (2010). Some of their central notions and concepts are outlined in this section.

Swales (1990) and Hyland (2004b) mainly focus on the potential influence of genre analysis on task and material construction. Swales (1990) indicates the central importance of genre analysis for constructing tasks, e.g. due to its consideration of social variables and discourse communities (1990:69). Hyland (2004b) suggests that teachers could collect genre samples and investigate them with regard to general patterns, moves and key features as well as gather information on the social context of the genre, including discipline-specific meanings of patterns, of hierarchies within the community or genre relationships (2004b:101-107). This information could then inform the production and evaluation of materials and course schedules.

Other concepts of genre-based teaching suggest using methods of genre analysis in class. Ann Johns (1997) focuses on the kind of genre analyses students could be encouraged to conduct in the context of a course. Similar to the DDL approach, students would become researchers themselves (Johns, Ann 1997:98), which would offer the same advantages as have been indicated with regard to DDL, e.g. higher motivation and more efficient learning. A central task could be text-based analysis, embracing a move and linguistic analysis of a sample of genre texts. Such analyses could focus, for example, on discipline-specific and/or academic expressions, or on aspects of rhetorical organisation (1997:95-97). Other tasks might focus on exploring text-external features, such as speaker and writer roles within a community, researching and developing strategies for genre processing and/or production or they could aim at increasing the students' familiarity with the discourse community and its values and norms, e.g. by interviews with expert members (Johns, Ann 1997:99).

Hüttner (2007) includes some of these aspects and stresses the potential of genre-based teaching for increasing students' awareness about genres and their communicative purposes and structural characteristics (2007:297). In addition, she proposes that students could not only analyse preselected samples of a genre but may also try to improve some less efficient exemplars. This could encourage students to employ or creatively react to generic conventions more consciously. The students' awareness of the fact that genres are essentially linguistic means to achieve communicative purposes could be raised by instructing the students to explicitly state their communicative aims before the production of their own samples (Hüttner

2007:299). Feedback on the written product could be provided by the teacher and/or by peers (Dudley-Evans, St. John 1998:118) and enables the student to develop his/her genre competence further. Moreover, some of the suggested tasks could be considerably facilitated and enriched by corpus work, e.g. the search for frequent vocabulary or grammatical patterns.

One concrete example of a genre-based teaching task was described by Mungra (2010). The task consisted of three different steps. The first task was that students had to investigate a number of abstracts, identifying crucial components of the genre with the help of a checklist (2010:156). As a next step, students had to examine one text in particular, analysing its move structure and focusing on characteristic patterns with regard to “academic register, syntax and semantics, reader writer interaction, lexico-grammatical choices and semantic meaning of the different sections” (Mungra 2010:157). Finally, students had to produce their own genre samples.

8.2 Application to Austrian Midwifery Education

In how far could genre analytical results or genre-based teaching be relevant for Austrian midwifery education? A limiting factor is the rather restricted temporal frame for ESP teaching which does not allow extensive genre teaching at the moment. ESP has to cover diverse situations of English language use, ranging from interviews with English speaking patients to processing research articles. In addition, writing abstracts may presently be addressed in the so far German courses for Scientific working. However, taking into consideration the importance of language conventions and genre-specific vocabulary, at least those features that are characteristic of English bachelor paper abstracts should be addressed explicitly in ESP courses. A genre-based teaching approach may enrich the teaching of abstract writing, as it requires the teacher to acknowledge the complexity of genre knowledge and to be aware of possible pitfalls, e.g. prescriptivist and reductive teaching.

There are two major notions of how genre-based teaching could be integrated into ESP teaching. Firstly, genre-analytical results may inform the creation and evaluation of teaching materials (Swales 1990, Hyland 2004b). Secondly, genre-analytical methods could be applied in class. In addition, results from genre analysis could inform evaluative processes with regard to the positions taught and the clarity of instruction.

8.2.1 Using Genre-analytical Results for Teaching Materials

As there are no teaching materials specifically geared towards midwifery students in EFL contexts, a teacher most likely is required to produce his/her own handouts and tasks, which could be based on the findings of genre analytical investigations, e.g. the one conducted in section 7. Especially in the case of evolving, new and little researched genres like the bachelor paper abstract of Austrian midwives, genre analysis may be the only source of information for ESP teachers who are facing the task of teaching this genre.

A designer of teaching materials might draw on genre-analytical results when deciding on the terminology that should be focused on in the ESP course. Frequency and keyword lists provide a range of core discipline-specific terminology. While other potential sources, e.g. obstetric dictionaries or nursing text books, are probably able to supply the most central medical and hospital-related terms, a genre analysis forwards also terminology addressing extramural aspects of midwifery work. The keyword list of the corpus under analysis features terms like *moxibustion* or *nappies*, which reflect the fact that many midwives tend to use a range of approaches to cater for the needs of their clients, which embrace not only medical interventions but also methods of, for example, Traditional Chinese Medicine, e.g. moxibustion. The word *nappies* indicates the relevance of non-medical counselling midwives provide, e.g. about different methods to change a baby. This kind of vocabulary could easily be overlooked, if a teacher restricts his/her search for terminology to medical sources.

In addition, the frequency and key word lists emphasise the great significance of academic terminology for producing an appropriate abstract. Even though there already are valuable lists of academic words (cp. *AWL*), the genre-analytical results provide some additional information. They offer, for example, an overview on the most significant databases in the field, which could inform the content of teaching. Furthermore, the results of a genre analysis may enable the teacher to make an informed decision on which terms he/she should select from the rather comprehensive lists of academic words. As the time constraints and the focus on discipline-specific terminology probably force the teacher to make a selection, this aspect of genre-based teaching may help him/her to use the available time in the most efficient manner.

Another benefit of genre analysis for the devising of teaching materials is the possibility to gain knowledge of frequent clusters and collocations. As knowing a word embraces the competence to use it with the correct collocations (Nation 2001:56), genre-analytical insights

into the collocational behaviour of core terms may be valuable information. Exercises, then, could require students to use new vocabulary in connection with the most significant collocates (see handout 1 in the Appendix). Analysing the most frequent clusters in which a word appears may also indicate essential grammatical structures that are necessary to competently use a word. The investigation of *databases*, for example, highlights the significance of passive constructions for its usage (cp. section 7). Tasks could be designed with a focus on these grammatical structures, e.g. passive constructions, which may then be practised with vocabulary that is known to frequently occur within such constructions, e.g. *databases*, *literature research* (see handout 2 in the Appendix).

Apart from lexico-grammatical characteristics, a genre analysis provides the material developer with information on the structure of the genre, e.g. by a move analysis. As some of the moves are core moves and essential for the efficiency of a genre realisation, teaching the basic structural units of a genre is crucial for enabling students to produce it. General materials on abstract writing may not be able to address some of the more specific characteristics featured by realisations rooted in a certain discipline, e.g. the relevance of both, ‘creating a research space’ and ‘demonstrating knowledge’ for the ‘introduction’ move (cp. section 7). The results of a genre analysis could therefore give rise to teaching materials which clarify the main moves of a genre (see handout 3 in the Appendix).

Even if adequate teaching materials exist, taking into consideration genre-analytical results in the process of evaluating them would increase their validity.

8.2.2 Using Genre-analytical Methods in Class

Students could become active as genre analysts themselves, which may provide an opportunity for intense engagement with the genre and its characteristics. They acquire tools that could enable them later in their professional career to acquaint themselves with new genres. Taking into consideration how fast the fields of midwifery and midwifery research are developing at the moment due to processes like globalisation, becoming more academic and professional and increasing discipline-specific research activity, this could be of considerable significance for midwives who are only at the beginning of their professional lives.

Models for genre-based teaching by Hüttner (2007) and Mungra (2010) suggest a range of steps which could be realised partially or as a sequence in the concrete context of teaching midwifery students (see handout 4 in the Appendix). They allow acknowledging the genre’s dynamic character, e.g. by providing a range of different samples, as well as for addressing

the genre's social context, for example, by encouraging reflection on the intended audience of the text. In addition, processes of peer feedback may create an opportunity to directly experience a variety of realisations and terms. This is one way to bring the flexible nature of genre to attention. Feedback rounds are also an opportunity for students to be confronted with terms which are relevant for midwifery research in general but perhaps not necessary for their own piece of work, e.g. if a person who conducts a literature search provides feedback on an abstract of an empirical analysis.

A further benefit of such a multi-stage model of genre analysis is that students can develop their writing proficiency. The systematic framework which embraces a focus on structure as well as on lexico-grammar and social aspects highlights the complexity of writing and indicates that writing is a process. This may be a helpful insight for the students also with regard to their thesis writing. The feedback that is provided by fellow students and/or the teacher stresses the importance of proof-reading and of numerous rounds of revision for optimizing a text. As the language proficiency and extent of formal education may vary considerably between midwifery students, for some of them planning and realising a text in general may already be a challenging task, not regarding the fact that an abstract might be an unfamiliar genre. Conducting a genre analysis oneself, therefore, might help them to recognise the various layers of written texts, ranging from structure and purposes to choice of vocabulary and grammatical conventions. However, taking into consideration the students' status as English learners and genre novices, it is of great significance to avoid posing too great a challenge, which might then demotivate students rather than encourage their engagement with the genre.

8.2.3 Potential Washback Effects on Teaching

The investigation of a genre may also indicate some interesting aspects about the content and way of teaching that may be the starting point for reflection and evaluation. One example of the analysis conducted in section 7 is the usage of terms denoting the acceleration of labour, which reflects a critical stance towards interventions with the goal of decreasing the time of birth. This insight may incite a reflection on whether this position is the stance of this particular author or rather a tacit norm or value of the discourse community. If the latter is the case, one could question, if this norm has been and should be taught to midwifery students explicitly or implicitly, and if a revision of teaching materials and practices is necessary.

Another potential washback effect, based on the genre analysis of section 7, could result from the two strategies discovered in the ‘introduction’ move. This finding could pose the question, whether there really are two intended audiences and in how far both of them should be addressed. If there is only one group relevant in the eyes of the teachers, the results from the analysis may indicate a lack of clarity among the students and consequently probably in the manner of teaching. This insight could then improve future teaching.

In conclusion, genre analysis can be a major source of information and methods for ESP classes in Austrian midwifery education with regard to teaching bachelor paper abstracts. Even though there are limitations, e.g. time constraints, and potential risks, e.g. prescriptivism, genre-analytical results can offer essential data for material production and evaluation and genre analytical procedures could increase the methodological diversity of ESP teaching in this context. In addition, findings of a genre analysis can provide valuable insights for processes of reflecting and evaluating current teaching practices.

9. Conclusion

This thesis provides a genre analysis of 134 bachelor paper abstracts of Austrian midwifery students, offering insights into basic characteristics of this genre, e.g. its rather concise length of about 250 words, its variety of structural types and the major core moves. In addition, the analysis illustrates the significance of both common and specific vocabulary for this genre and its adherence to principles of academic writing, such as nominalisation, frequent passive constructions and the use of epistemic adjectives and adverbs for hedging. It should be taken into consideration, however, that the analysis could merely include the samples produced in two of seven Austrian Universities of Applied Sciences and is limited by the scope of a diploma thesis. Further research including abstracts of all universities would present a more representative view on this genre and might come to different conclusions. In addition, numerous influential aspects could not be taken into account sufficiently, such as the language and educational backgrounds of the students, the actual teaching that informed the writing processes or perspectives from students and (mentor) teachers on the respective abstracts or process of abstract writing. Nevertheless, this thesis manages to indicate some main characteristics found in the abstracts, which may be an apt starting point for ESP teachers in this area and may be one of few sources for discipline-specific information (cp. Gimenez 2010).

As section 7 shows, genre-based approaches to teaching do have potential benefits for ESP teaching and are also applicable in the context of Austrian midwifery education. The results of the genre analysis conducted by this thesis could inform materials production and evaluation by providing essential or additional information on the genre. If the temporal and curricular conditions of the ESP courses provide enough leeway, genre-based methods could be applied by students and they could learn a new perspective and methodology to deal with genres, which may be an enabling tool also for later stages of their career.

In general, genres, as efficient means of communication in recurrent situations, may be an essential means for the (Austrian) midwifery community to participate in academic discourse on an international level and consequently actively contribute to reconstructing professional beliefs and practices in the context of a dynamic and ever changing health care sector. The bachelor paper abstract, as a component of qualifying as a member of the discourse community and as a first research contribution made by the respective midwife-to-be, is therefore not only a genre on the threshold between being a student and a midwife but also a genre representing the position of Austrian midwifery at the beginning of a more professional and internationally relevant understanding of itself.

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11. Appendix

Number of words per abstract:

1	137	21	338	41	209	61	329	81	173	101	374	121	283
2	172	22	262	42	266	62	271	82	262	102	293	122	316
3	256	23	312	43	295	63	290	83	256	103	243	123	328
4	198	24	110	44	170	64	266	84	265	104	220	124	244
5	307	25	290	45	189	65	231	85	228	105	262	125	221
6	159	26	191	46	209	66	225	86	195	106	326	126	125
7	117	27	224	47	244	67	252	87	202	107	199	127	242
8	197	28	293	48	185	68	221	88	269	108	287	128	260
9	163	29	233	49	295	69	259	89	280	109	237	129	291
10	319	30	231	50	334	70	208	90	343	110	360	130	321
11	176	31	226	51	279	71	260	91	303	111	317	131	275
12	248	32	167	52	260	72	26	92	322	112	213	132	251
13	315	33	152	53	274	73	288	93	227	113	345	133	247
14	319	34	222	54	281	74	205	94	277	114	306	134	227
15	220	35	136	55	434	75	402	95	193	115	332		
16	212	36	92	56	345	76	398	96	174	116	268		
17	58	37	67	57	302	77	344	97	182	117	223		
18	274	38	307	58	304	78	264	98	140	118	263		
19	293	39	216	59	201	79	237	99	248	119	312		
20	303	40	290	60	212	80	240	100	189	120	260		

Move Analysis:

No	T	I	P	S	M	R	C	St.1/2/3
1	x	½						1
2	x	1		x		x	x	1
3	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
4	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
5	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
6	x	1			x	x	x	1
7	x	½		x				1
8	x	½	x					1
9	x	½	x	x				1
10	x	½	x	x				1
11	x	1	x		x			1
12	x	½						1
13	x		x		x	x	x	2
14	x	1	x	x			x	1
15	x	1		x				1
16	x			x				1
17	x	1						1
18	x	1	x	x	x	x	x	3
19	x	1	x	x	x			1
20	x	1						1
21	x	1	x		x	x	x	1

22	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
23	x	1						1
24	x			x			x	1
25	x		x	x	x	x		1
26	x	1	x	x	x	x	x	3
27	x	1	x	x		x	x	3
28	x		x		x	x	x	2
29	x		x	x	x	x	x	1
30	x	½			x	x	x	3
31	x	2	x		x		x	1
32	x	1	x	x	x	x	x	3
33	x	1	x	x	x			1
34	x	1		x	x	x		1
35	x	1	x		x			1
36	x	1	x	x				1
37	x		x		x	x		1
38	x	1	x	x	x	x	x	1
39	x	1				x	x	1
40	x		x	x	x	x		1
41	x	2	x	x	x	x	x	3
42	x	1		x	x		x	1
43	x	1	x		x	x	x	3
44	x	1		x	x	x		1
45	x	2			x	x	x	3
46	x	½	x		x	x	x	2
47	x	1	x	x				1
48	x	1	x			x		1
49	x	1	x		x	x	x	2
50	x	2	x		x	x	x	2
51		1	x		x	x	x	3
52		1	x		x	x	x	3
53		1	x	x	x	x	x	3
54		1	x		x	x	x	3
55		1	x		x	x	x	3
56		1	x		x	x	x	3
57	x	1	x	x	x	x	x	2
58	x	1	x		x	x	x	2
59			x		x	x	x	3
60			x		x	x	x	3
61		1	x		x	x	x	3
62		½	x		x	x	x	3
63		½	x		x	x	x	3
64		1	x	x	x	x	x	3
65			x		x	x	x	3
66			x		x	x	x	3
67			x	x	x	x	x	3
68			x		x	x	x	3
69			x		x	x	x	3
70			x	x	x	x	x	3

71		1	x	x	x	x		3
72		$\frac{1}{2}$	x		x	x	x	3
73		1	x	x	x	x	x	3
74		1	x		x	x	x	3
75	x	$\frac{1}{2}$	x	x	x	x	x	2
76	x	$\frac{1}{2}$	x	x	x	x	x	2
77	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
78			x	x	x	x	x	3
79		1	x	x		x	x	3
80		1	x		x	x	x	3
81		1	x	x	x	x	x	3
82		1	x		x	x		3
83			x		x	x	x	3
84			x		x	x	x	3
85	x	$\frac{1}{2}$	x		x	x	x	1
86	x	$\frac{1}{2}$	x		x	x	x	1
87		$\frac{1}{2}$	x		x	x	x	3
88		1	x		x	x	x	3
89	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
90	x	1	x		x	x	x	2
91		1	x	x	x	x	x	3
92		1	x		x	x	x	3
93			x		x	x	x	3
94		1	x		x	x	x	3
95			x	x	x	x		3
96			x		x	x	x	3
97			x		x	x	x	3
98			x		x	x	x	3
99		1	x		x	x	x	3
100		2	x	x	x	x	x	3
101		$\frac{1}{2}$	x		x	x	x	3
102		1	x		x	x	x	3
103	x	1	x		x	x		2
104	x	1	x		x	x		2
105	x	$\frac{1}{2}$	x		x	x		2
106		$\frac{1}{2}$	x		x	x	x	3
107	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
108	x	1	x		x	x		1
109		1	x		x	x	x	3
110	x	2	x		x	x	x	1
111		1	x		x	x	x	3
112			x		x	x	x	3
113		1	x	x	x	x	x	3
114			x		x	x	x	3
115	x	1	x	x	x	x		2
116	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
117			x	x	x	x	x	3
118	x	1	x		x	x	x	2
119	x	1	x		x	x	x	2

120	x	1	x	x	x	x	x	2
121	x	½	x		x	x	x	2
122		1	x		x	x	x	3
123		1	x		x	x	x	3
124	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
125		2	x	x	x	x	x	1
126	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
127	x	1	x		x	x	x	1
128			x		x	x	x	3
129			x	x	x	x	x	3
130	x		x	x	x	x	x	1
131		1	x		x	x	x	3
132	x	2	x	x	x	x	x	1
133	x	2	x	x	x	x	x	1
134	x	½	x	x	x	x	x	1
Sum	78	104	117	49	114	113	103	
%	56,72	77,61	87,31	36,57	85,07	84,33	76,87	

T=Title, I=Introduction, S=Summary, P=Purpose, M=Methods, R=Results, C=Conclusions, St.1/2/3: Structure 1 (no subheadings), 2 (1 paragraph, subheadings), 3 (numerous paragraphs+subheadings); Introduction: 1 (display of knowledge), 2 (creating a research space)

List of the 50 most frequent words in the Corpus (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Freq	Word	Rank	Freq	Word	Rank	Freq	Word
1	2575	the	18	200	was	35	104	labour
2	1557	of	19	179	it	36	103	studies
3	1180	and	20	164	results	37	95	or
4	841	to	21	157	pregnancy	38	93	should
5	818	in	22	155	midwives	39	89	from
6	664	a	23	154	care	40	88	more
7	530	is	24	149	an	41	88	s
8	368	for	25	146	during	42	88	well
9	315	are	26	142	were	43	86	about
10	302	this	27	137	research	44	85	abstract
11	289	as	28	132	not	45	85	also
12	265	be	29	131	can	46	85	has
13	265	with	30	119	literature	47	85	which
14	264	on	31	119	there	48	83	breastfeeding
15	255	women	32	116	by	49	82	child
16	241	birth	33	113	have	50	80	their
17	218	that	34	105	delivery			

List of the 50 words with the highest degree of positive keyness (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Freq	Word	Rank	Freq	Word	Rank	Freq	Word
1	155	midwives	18	154	care	35	24	fh
2	241	birth	19	60	maternal	36	54	pregnant
3	157	pregnancy	20	46	antenatal	37	26	perineal
4	255	women	21	137	research	38	71	pain
5	83	breastfeeding	22	57	methodology	39		objectives
6	59	midirs	23	103	studies	40	88	osnabrück
7	56	medline	24	30	postpartum	41	88	risk
8	51	cinahl	25	45	fetal	42	88	labour
9	164	results	26	77	conclusion	43	86	neonatal
10	119	literature	27	56	thesis	44	85	cesarean
11	70	midwife	28	46	bachelor	45	85	effects
12	105	delivery	29	37	caesarean	46	85	physiological
13	78	databases	30	26	joanneum	47	85	systematic
14	55	Cochrane	31	146	during	48	83	ccmed
15	85	abstract	32	78	search	49	82	vaginal
16	52	midwifery	33	78	library	50	80	s
17	55	labor	34	32	internet			

List of the 50 words with the highest degree of negative keyness (identified by *AntConc*)

Rank	Freq	Word	Rank	Freq	Word	Rank	Freq	Word
1	2	you	18	17	would	35	10	new
2	31	I	19	4	now	36	200	was
3	13	he	20	23	will	37	5	did
4	7	his	21	8	then	38	2	off
5	13	had	22	4	just	39	2	say
6	8	we	23	3	see	40	1	yes
7	10	she	24	2	back	41	5	those
8	13	her	25	8	over	42	38	what
9	179	it	26	22	when	43	29	who
10	3	said	27	1	us	44	6	think
11	65	at	28	3	our	45	20	two
12	52	but	29	3	right	46	22	them
13	47	they	30	3	down	47	3	here
14	218	that	31	7	know	48	7	much
15	16	so	32	24	up	49	13	people
16	1	me	33	4	don	50	25	do
17	2	your	34	3	got			

List of the 30 most frequent collocations of *midwives*:

Rank	Freq	Word	Rank	Freq	Word	Rank	Freq	Word
1	140	midwives	11	8	are	21	3	is

2	28	of	12	7	that	22	3	especially
3	21	and	13	6	for	23	3	could
4	17	Midwives	14	5	have	24	3	as
5	15	the	15	4	work	25	3	Abstract
6	14	can	16	4	Osnabrück	26	2	young
7	12	should	17	4	care	27	2	working
8	11	by	18	4	between	28	2	where
9	8	to	19	3	The	29	2	what
10	8	in	20	3	organization	30	2	too

Epistemic adjectives, adverbs and nouns

Item	RA (Hyland)	corpus (general)	absolute frequency
about	30	11	5
(un)likely	23	16	7
possible (ly)	30	-	-
apparent (ly)	21	-	-
probable (ly)	27	11	5
essentially	18	-	-
relatively	17	11	5
generally	16	11	5
approximate (ly)	16	9	4
consistent (with)	15	18	8
partially	15	-	-
most	17	110	49
slightly	14	2	1
presumably	11	2	1
somewhat	9	-	-
possibility	7	-	-
quite	*	4	2
usually	*	4	2
normally	*	-	-
rarely	*	2	1
occasionally	*	2	1
virtually	*	-	-
almost	*	11	5
relatively	*	11	5
evidently	*	-	-
essentially	*	-	-
potentially	*	2	1

Note: Frequency with regard to RA (research articles) and corpus general= frequency/75,000 words (Hyland 1998:130-139); *: no data given in Hyland (1998)

Handout 1: Specific vocabulary

1) Match the following terms with the relevant definitions, adjectives or constructions:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| ○ Low birth weight | stages of |
| ○ Instrumental delivery | birth weight <2500 g |
| ○ labor | forceps, vacuum extraction (VE) |
| ○ birth experience | all-fours, kneeling, squatting |
| ○ upright birth position | positive, negative, traumatic, empowering |
| ○ recommendation | supine, lateral, semi-recumbent |
| ○ recumbent delivery position | Midwives should consider... |
| ○ maternal lacerations | treatment/prevention of.... |

Find example sentences for at least three of the terms.

2) Assign the following process to the stages of labour:

dilation of the cervix	Valsalva manoeuvre	placenta delivery	epidural anaesthesia
treatment of lacerations	breastfeeding	postpartum haemorrhage	forceps delivery

First stage of labour: _____

Second stage of labour: _____

Third stage of labour: _____

3. Fill in the following words:

birth	birth	cardiotocography	deliveries	epidural	birth experience	from
	haemorrhage	labour	maternal	midwifery care	midwives	neonatal
Valsalva	research	women				pregnancy

a) _____ care for _____ and their babies during _____, _____ and the first year after _____.
The aim of this paper is to examine the influence of _____ manoeuvre on a woman's _____.

b) Studies (XY, 2003; DC, 2013) have shown that various factors, e.g. continuous _____, high numbers of _____ anaesthesia, and forced _____, increase the rate of interventions. As a result _____ these interventions, the incidence of post partum _____ (PPH) is twice as high as in _____ without intervention.

c) Conclusion: 1-to-1 midwifery care seems to be able to improve _____ and _____ outcomes. However, further _____ has to be conducted.

Handout 2: Grammatical constructions

When research was conducted...

1) **Passive constructions:** Try to build a passive sentence with the terms given on the left hand side:

-literature research –undertake - in the following databases – MIDIRS, Cochrane, Cinahl

-Susan – 30 interviews – conduct

-systematically - databases – searched

-internet – to gain information – by using

-conduct – literature research – postpartum depression

-studies – select - criteria

THINK ABOUT !

- Why and where could the passive voice be the most suitable choice?
- Would you prefer the active voice for some of the sentences above? Why (not)?

2) Find the fitting preposition:

a) mode _____ delivery

b) in the period _____ 1990 _____ 2000

c) women _____ delivery (intrapartum period)

d) women _____ birth (postpartum period)

3) Discuss the use of the following modal verbs with your neighbour. What is the function of this modal verb in the sentence? Is this relevant for an abstract and if yes – why?

a) The following study *should* try to explain the symptoms of HELLP disease.

b) Consultations and information materials *should* be available in different languages.

c) Epidural analgesia during labour *may* lead to a rise in temperature.

d) Sleeping disorders *might* lead to serious consequences.

Handout 3: Structure of Abstracts

Abstract:

The main purpose of an abstract is to summarise the content of the paper/thesis/etc. it introduces but you may also use it as a means to stress the importance of your research or to clarify what you know about the topic. The form of the abstract is an effective way to tell the reader:

- what the area and the topic of the paper is (**introduction**)
- what the aim of the paper is/aims of the paper are (**purpose**)
- which methods you applied to reach this aim (**methods**)
- what you found out by applying these methods (**results**)
- what consequences can be drawn on the basis of these results (**conclusion**)

This is the main structure found in many abstracts. Some authors also like to indicate the structure of the paper or contents of the paper that are not covered by the purpose, some do not need all of these steps or use a different sequence. It is important that you know what you want to tell the reader and to write this in a comprehensible way.

For writing an abstract you will also need research-related vocabulary. Try to think of words and phrases to express the following contents [added: possible teacher suggestions based on the genre analysis]:

-indicating the aim(s) of a paper:

[the aim/purpose/objective of this paper is..., the research questions are..., tries to prove or discard the following hypothesis...]

-outlining the methods used:

[selected/relevant/online databases were searched, research in the following databases: MIDIRS, Cochrane, cinahl,...; Literature research was conducted...]

-presenting research results:

[significant/controversial/consistent results, results show/prove/suggest,...]

-drawing conclusions:

[midwives should..., xy should be implemented, further/more research is necessary/needed/required]

Discuss with your neighbour the following variations in terms of certainty and how the researcher presents his/her position:

Exactly 95 % - approximately 95 % - about 95 % - most of the women – slightly below 100 %
- fairly frequent – essentially everyone – the majority – it is likely/probable

Handout 4: Lesson plan (partially based on the suggestions of Hüttner (2007) and Mungra (2010)):

Unit	Activity	Objective	Material	Notes
1	1a) students identify the moves provided by a checklist in a number of selected texts (Mungra 2010) (with or without indicated move boundaries) 1b) students analyse several selected texts (Hüttner 2007) and produce a list of moves	Students become familiar with the move structure of texts.	-texts: either bland, or with indications of move boundaries -for a): list of moves and definitions	b) might be challenging for students without move analysis experience
	2) Students try to improve the move structure of a less efficient sample (Hüttner 2007)	Students reflect on aspects of efficiency with regard to move structure.	Sample to improve	possibly in team/partner work discuss changes and potential reasons for and benefits of, e.g. embedding, varying sequence, creative solutions
2	a) Students identify frequent terms and phrases in the text/moves; and/or b) Students look for keywords and identify their constructions and collocates.	Students recognise frequent terms and their usage.	Sample texts b) list of keywords	could be done in groupwork with each group analyzing 1 move and presenting the results afterwards to the class;
3	Producing an abstract in individual work: -pre-work: identifying one's audience and communicative purposes (Hüttner 2007) -word limit: about 200-300 words	Students practice the production of a sample of the genre.	bachelor thesis (proposal), if not yet available a research article	if there is no bachelor thesis (concept) available as basis, a research article might be used (even though it is a slightly different genre it seems to be the best pragmatic solution due to its shortness)
4	Feedback on abstracts: -peer feedback -teacher feedback	Students receive feedback on their abstract and can improve their text based on these remarks.	produced abstracts	there can be several rounds of feedback (peers – improvement – teacher – improvement)
In lesson 1 and 3 students can be active as analysts.				

Abstract

Genre analysis is a branch of linguistics which can augment genre knowledge and facilitate its teaching. The aim of this thesis is to provide a genre analysis of the rather new genre of bachelor paper abstracts written by Austrian midwifery students and to explore in how far genre-based teaching could be integrated in ESP courses at institutions for midwifery education in Austria. The methodological approaches for the analysis of the 134 abstracts embrace move structure analysis (Swales 1990, Bhatia 1993) and investigations by corpus linguistic computer programs (*AntConc*, *AntWordProfiler*). Results from the structural analysis reveal a range of core units, i.e. title, introduction, purpose, methods, results, conclusions, and the optional unit 'summary' as well as three main structure types. The lexicogrammatical analysis indicates the central significance of common vocabulary as well as discipline-specific terminology from the fields of midwifery and academic writing. Investigating some concordances of essential words, like *midwives*, *labour* or *research*, indicates discipline-specific emphases, uses and frequent grammatical constructions, e.g. passive constructions. The examination of epistemic adjectives and adverbs as hedging devices shows the academic character of the genre and reveals some differences in frequency and range of vocabulary in comparison with an analysis of research articles (Hyland 1998). The second research question is addressed by discussing the nature of genre knowledge, potential criticism of genre-based teaching presented in the literature (e.g. Freedman 1994) and by exploring the applicability of suggested genre-based teaching concepts. Furthermore, potential contributions of genre-analytical findings and methods to teaching ESP in the context of Austrian midwifery education are investigated. In conclusion, the analysis offers some insights into characteristics of this evolving genre, which highlight its position as an academic and professionally situated genre, and which shares communicative purposes with student and academic genres. The final discussion indicates potential benefits of genre-based teaching for ESP courses in Austrian midwifery education, even if one takes limitations, e.g. in terms of time and curriculum, into consideration.

Zusammenfassung

Genre Analyse als linguistische Theorie und Methode bietet vielerlei Möglichkeiten das Wissen um Genres zu mehren und das Vermitteln von Genrekompetenz zu erleichtern. Vor dem Hintergrund dieser Tradition untersucht die vorliegende Diplomarbeit das noch recht junge Genre des Bachelor Paper Abstracts von Arbeiten österreichischer HebammenstudentInnen. Neben der Erstellung einer Genre Analyse ist die Diskussion von Möglichkeiten der Implementierung genre-basierter Informationen und Methoden in den Fachenglisch-Unterricht ein wichtiges Ziel dieser Arbeit. Die zur Analyse verwendeten Methoden umfassen eine Form der strukturellen Analyse (Swales 1990; Bhatia 1993), sowie eine lexiko-grammatikalische Untersuchung mittels korpuslinguistischer Software (*AntConc*, *AntWordProfiler*). Die pädagogische Anwendbarkeit genre-analytischer Ergebnisse, Methoden und Unterrichtskonzepte werden anhand wesentlicher Standpunkte der Literatur diskutiert. Die Ergebnisse der strukturellen Analyse zeigen, dass einige rhetorische Einheiten wesentlich zu sein scheinen, nämlich Titel, Einleitung, Ziel, Methoden, Ergebnisse, Konklusion, und eine weitere fakultativ ist, i.e. Zusammenfassung. Zusätzlich ergibt die Analyse drei mögliche Muster den Abstract zu strukturieren. Die lexiko-grammatikalische Untersuchung zeigt die wesentliche Bedeutung von allgemeinem, wie auch fach-spezifischem Vokabular aus den Bereichen Hebammerei und Wissenschaft. Eine Analyse zentraler Begriffe, wie *midwives* 'Hebammen', *labour* 'Wehen' und *research* 'Forschung', in ihrem unmittelbaren verbalen Kontext verweist auf disziplin-spezifische Verwendungsarten, Schwerpunkte und typische grammatikalische Konstruktionen, beispielsweise Formulierungen im Passiv. Ein Fokus auf adjektivische und adverbiale Heckenausdrücke zeigt den akademischen Charakter des Genres und findet Unterschiede in Bezug auf Häufigkeit und Bandbreite der gewählten Termini im Vergleich mit einer Analyse von Forschungsartikeln (Hyland 1998). Bezüglich der zweiten Forschungsfrage wird die Komplexität von Genrekompetenz und den potentiellen Konsequenzen von genre-basiertem Unterricht deutlich. In der Literatur präsentierte Konzepte genre-basierten Unterrichtens erweisen sich als durchaus denkbar für die Umsetzung im Kontext des Fachenglischunterrichts an österreichischen Hebammen-Fachhochschulen. Zusammenfassend lässt sich sagen, dass die Analyse des Genres dessen Position zwischen Profession und Wissenschaft, sowie zwischen Studenten- und Forschungstext zeigt. Trotz zu beachtender potentieller Risiken und ungünstiger Voraussetzungen, können Vorteile des genre-basierten Unterrichts für den Fachenglischunterricht erkannt werden.