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Geography and involvement: a linguistic analysis of women's discourse

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Visto e prace

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ABSTRACT

This research project aims at assessing the level of involvement in speeches by women representative of different countries and institutions, either governments or organisations. Different variables will be taken into account to carry out the analysis, the geographical origin of speakers being the main one. The principal taxonomy here will be the division between developed and developing countries since this factor may have some influence on the way women use language for their vindications.

Also, the kind of institution they represent, government, inter-governmental organisation or non-governmental organisation, will be taken into consideration.

Data will be obtained from a corpus comprising a group of texts written and spoken by women in a specific scenario: the Fourth World Conference on Women Action for Equality, Development and Peace organised in Beijing (China) in September 1995. Since some authors have already identified the linguistic features that are used for the expression of involvement, we will analyse the corpus by using five of the features, included in Biber's Dimension 1, that determine how involved authors are regarding what they want to transmit.

Keywords: corpus linguistics; involvement; women and discourse analysis; developing countries; developed countries

Introduction

Discourse Analysis is a multidisciplinary approach used in different fields, from linguistics to sociology, communication studies or history, among others. According to Gee (1999):

> language has a magical property: when we speak or write, we design what we have to say to fit the situation in which we are communicating. But, at the same time, how we speak or write creates that very situation. It seems, then, that we fit our language to a situation that our language, in turn, helps to create in the first place. (p. 10).

Van Dijk (1997: 12) introduces the term Political Discourse and analyses it providing a slightly new perspective when he claims: "What exactly is 'political discourse'? The easiest, and not altogether misguided, answer is that political discourse is identified by its actors or authors, viz., politicians".

In this paper we aim at studying these authors and their level of involvement with the message conveyed by their words, trying to prove that the degree of engagement they show may be influenced by some geographical factors since these, in our classification, do not only imply different origins in terms of physical place, but also different social backgrounds. In order to do this, we will take a group of speeches given by women in a specific moment. Despite the fact that the speakers under study are all powerful women meeting together in the same place and at the same time, supporting the same ideas, we want to show how their language and discourse patterns may vary depending on the group they belong to according to our classification.

Language and gender is a topic that has received much attention in the last decades with works analysing the differences in linguistic styles (Lakoff 1975; Argamon 2003), language change and innovation (Labov 1974), gender and sexuality (Baker, 2008), and other aspects

of language use as employed by males and females. Other studies have concentrated on women exclusively as is the case of Speer (2005) or Moskovich and Monaco (2014), who analysed scientific texts written by women during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, paying special attention to various elements central to the linguistic expression of abstract thought.

Baker (2008: 4) explains that the terms *sex* and *gender* were often used inconsistently and interchangeable until the 1970s, but by the 1980s most feminist writers agreed to use *gender* to refer to socially-constructed traits, while *sex* refers exclusively to a person`s "born" biological status. Likewise, Baker (2008: 5) explains that whereas *sex* is a fairly concrete concept, *gender* is subject to change across societies and within individuals. Our intention here is to focus on women's linguistic strategies and how some differences in style between females from developing countries and those from developed countries can be perceived. With our attention focused on Baker's words about the changes of the term *gender* across societies, we consider that our variable <developed/developing countries> affects how these women transmit their messages. One of these differences that has a consequence on style is the involvement of speakers or authors of texts. Besnier (1994: 281) had already considered involvement as an analytical category, defending that it is not just the form of discourse which creates involvement, but also the interaction of linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects of communication. The analysis of large amounts of real texts provides more reliable results and this is why the use of corpora to carry out this kind of analysis expanded significantly from 1980 onwards thanks to the use of computers. Computers have allowed this boom due to their capacity to search for, sort, classify and calculate the linguistic data obtained.

In order to study the level of involvement in women's language as reflected in their style we have resorted to the linguistic features denoting such involvement included in Biber's Dimension 1 (1988). What we intend to do is to analyse language to confirm that the women in

our corpus communicate in a different way depending on their origin or the organisation they represent. We could think that, given their situation, women from developing countries are more "involved" than those from developed countries when talking about subjects affecting them directly. Similarly, under the assumption than representatives of non-governmental organisations are more concerned about the protection of the so-called disadvantaged and minority groups, they should also appear as more involved in comparison with the other two groups.

Our analysis of the features selected will try to prove whether this initial hypothesis is true or not. To this end, the present paper has been organised as follows: Section 1 introduces details about the environment where the speeches under analysis were given; at the same time it helps the reader to focus on both the historical moment when they took place and the economic, cultural and social circumstances of that moment. Next, the analysed materials (texts) are presented in Section 2 describing our corpus; and Section 3 focuses on the methodology used, providing examples about how the research was developed. Then, in Section 4 we present the interpretation of the data; to do that, we divide this part in sub-sections that analyse the five different linguistic features chosen to carry out our study. Finally, Section 5 offers some conclusions.

1. Background

To develop our research, we will take into consideration a group of speeches given by women and published after the Fourth World Conference on Women Action for Equality, Development and Peace taking place in Beijing (China) from 4th to 15th September 1995. All the women attending the Conference were representative of their respective countries, either from governments or organisations – both inter-governmental and not-governmental. They all met together at that moment to give voice to women all over the world and ensure the recognition of their rights as human beings.

In order to have a better understanding of the analysis proposed in this piece of research, there are several factors more or less related to the Conference itself that should be taken into account. In this respect, it is important to take into consideration that this Conference was held in China, a country with a censorial government justifying, even nowadays, the non-implementation of human rights as a necessary measure to preserve social stability. Likewise, we cannot forget the historical moment at which the Conference took place, 1995, only six years after the fall of the Berlin Wall, which brought about the German reunification, as well as a radical change in European policies. In the same year we also witnessed a new enlargement of the European Union, with the access of Austria, Finland and Sweden.

The world was changing. That very same year Internet was completely privatized in the United States and Mississippi became the last state to approve the abolition of slavery. Whereas the 50th Anniversary of the dropping of the atomic bomb was commemorated in Hiroshima, Nagasaki and Washington, French President Jacques Chirac announced the resumption of nuclear tests in French Polynesia, and Iraq admitted for the first time the existence of an offensive biological weapons program. All or some of these events could be in the minds of these women at the moment when they were speaking at the Conference.

The Beijing Conference was not the first of its kind. In fact, it was held after three previous Forums organised by United Nations as part of the policies and actions developed to promote gender equality. The First World Conference of the International Women's Year took place in Mexico City in 1975, followed by the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace held in Copenhagen in 1980. Then the World Conference to review and appraise the achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace was organised in Nairobi in 1985.

After the Conference in 1995, United Nations adopted the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, aimed at, among many other goals, acknowledging the voices of all women everywhere, ensuring the implementation of women's rights as part of all human rights. Five years after this Beijing Conference, there was a Review of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (called Beijing + 5) in the General Assembly held in New York from 5th to 9th June 2000; and, ten years later, another Review and Appraisal of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and the outcome of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly were developed during the 49th Session of the Commission on the Status of Women in March 2005.

The information about all the conferences, declarations, reviews, objectives and achievements is collected in the Webpage of UN Women (United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women), an organisation depending on United Nations and created in July 2010, which meant, as explained on the Webpage itself, a historical step in accelerating the Organisation's goals on gender equality and the empowerment of women. The main objective was to provide women with a powerful voice at the global, regional and local levels. This Web can be accessed at http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/daw/index.html

According to the Mission Statement developed in the Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women (1996), representatives from all over the world were present in that Forum to support

the common goal of gender equality around the world. All these representatives are, a priori, highly involved in the decision-making process as the adopted resolutions affect them directly. Governments, inter-governmental and non-governmental organisations are concerned with providing protection and developing new strategies to achieve equality.

The so-called disadvantaged is a general term including persons with physical or mental disabilities, people without economic resources or people oppressed for reasons related to politics, religion, race or gender. The term is often applied to third-world women with reduced rights, suffering from social exclusion, and with very limited opportunities to develop and improve their lives. For these reasons, women are the protagonists here and they are the ones who can put into practice new regulations and control the subsequent implementation of these rules. That is to say, they must get involved in these vindications.

Besnier (1994: 280) states that the relative focus on involvement on the part of interactors is the central difference between "oral" and "literature" behaviour, rather than speaking and writing. That is, writers are supposed to show less emotional commitment than speakers when communicating. This differentiation is very important for our analysis. Likewise, Besnier (1994: 297) explains the difference between involvement and detachment making a parallelism with the concepts of feelings and thinking. Feelings are subjective (that is the case of involvement) and imply an emotional commitment, whereas thinking is objective (like detachment). The authors of our texts – written, but presenting some characteristics of spoken texts – communicate more than ideas, they transmit feelings, they are involved as their message affect both the own author and the audience.

Chafe (1985) accurately explains that involvement can be reflected in communication in three different ways:

First, an individual may be primarily involved with his or her own concerns, and produce discourse primarily centred on him- or herself. Second, a speaker or writer may be concerned primarily with the needs of their interlocutors, or with the interpersonal dynamics of the interaction with their interlocutors. Third, involvement can focus on the discourse itself, as in the case of a storyteller and audience who become engrossed in a narrative (p. 116-117).

In the case of our texts, authors are involved in all these three ways. What they are talking about is closely related, first, to their own reality, secondly, to the reality of most people in the audience, and, thirdly, to the discourse itself.

As mentioned above, we will take the different linguistic features included in Biber`s Dimension 1 (1988: 102), that is, the one he calls "Involved versus Informational production", to prove our initial hypothesis that women from developing countries are more involved than women from developed ones when talking about subjects affecting them directly. According to Biber (1988: 13), texts can be analysed and compared along dimensions of linguistic variation. These linguistic dimensions are determined on the basis of a consistent co-occurrence pattern of different linguistic features. Each dimension contains a group of features identified by Biber, who defends that such features do not randomly co-occur in texts. These co-occurrences are interpreted in functional terms, that is to say, when certain linguistic features appear together in particular texts it is because they fulfil a particular (communicative) function. By the way in which the features tend to group in dimensions, texts can be characterized since such dimensions define continuums of variation rather than discrete poles. In a similar way, the aim of our analysis is not to affirm whether the message or the author of a speech is involved or detached, but to describe the text as more or less involved or detached in character.

Biber applied the multidimensional analysis (a series of multivariate statistical tests) to several corpora all along his career to see how texts grouped among dimensions and according to registers and genres. This kind of analysis can be conducted to study many different varieties of language and, according to Biber et al. (2007: 262), it was developed as a methodological approach to identify the salient linguistic co-occurrence patterns in a language, in both empirical and quantitative terms. The different studies gave a different number of dimensions depending on how features tended to co-occur, varying from five dimensions to eight, determined by the nature of the texts under analysis. The aim of these dimensions is to group texts in terms of linguistic characterization. McEnery and Hardie (2012: 106) summarise Biber's dimensions in only five, assigning them the following functional labels:

- Dimension 1: Involved versus Informational Production

- Dimension 2: Narrative versus Non-Narrative Concerns

- Dimension 3: Explicit versus Situation-Dependent Reference

- Dimension 4: Overt Expression of Persuasion

- Dimension 5: Abstract versus Non-Abstract Information

According to Biber (1988: 13), features do not randomly co-occur in texts; if some of them consistently occur, it seems reasonable to deduce that there is a functional influence encouraging their use. A linguistic dimension is defined on the basis of a co-occurrence pattern of the searched features. Some of these linguistic features can be associated in one way or another with an involved, non-informational focus, due to a primarily interactive or affective purpose.

Each dimension includes a group of linguistic features which typically occur in texts in a salient way. In our research we will analyse some of the features proposed for Dimension 1, "Involved versus Informational Production", to try to find out which group of texts (those by

women from developing countries or those by women from developed ones) are more or less involved or detached. Our analysis will also include the other variable we consider for our research, the institution each woman represents: government, inter-governmental organisation or non-governmental organisation, since this may have some effect on their conscious (or not) use of language. Therefore, we will take into consideration five features for the present analysis as well as five socio-external variables.

The features examined will be those called *private verbs, first and second person pronouns, causative subordination, Wh-questions* and *possibility modals*. Table 1 below sets out the items studied for each feature.

Table 1. Features included in the analysis

Private verbs*	*Anticipate, assume, believe, conclude, decide, demonstrate, determine, discover, doubt, estimate, fear, feel, find, forget, guess, hear, hope, imagine, imply, indicate, infer, know, learn, mean, notice, prove, realize, recognize, remember, reveal, see, show, suppose, think, understand*
First and second person pronouns	*I, me, my, mine, myself, we, us, our, ours, ourselves* *You, your, yours, yourself, yourselves*
Causative subordination	*Because, as, for, since*
Wh-questions	*How, what, when, where, which, who, why*
Possibility modals	*Can, could, may, might*

*Taken from Quirk et al (1985: 1181-2)

Before starting to analyse these features, in the following section we present the corpus we are going to use in our research.

2. Corpus Material

As already mentioned above, corpus linguistics is a relatively modern term defined by McEnery and Wilson (1996: 1) as the study of language based on examples extracted from real life language use. In fact, we can define a corpus as a representative collection of texts to be used for linguistic analysis. Another accurate definition of the term corpus applied to linguistics is provided by Sinclair (1991: 171) identifying corpus as a collection of naturally occurring language texts, chosen to characterize a state or a variety of language. That way, we will use our corpus to describe the practice of a particular group of women and what linguistic differences we can find to prove that they express themselves in a different way depending on their geographical origin and on the type of institution they belong to.

In the last decades, computers have besides gained importance in the development of corpus linguistics methodology making quantitative analysis much easier. The way in which corpora have been evolving is something that O'Keeffe and McCarthy (2010: 5) describe in their *Handbook of Corpus Linguistics* explaining that the first computer-generated concordances appeared in the late 1950s and considerable improvements came about in 1970s; but, it was the revolution in the world of technology in 1980s and 1990s what really allowed language corpora to emerge as we know them at present. There are many different kinds of corpora depending on several factors, namely: their size, the mode of the texts (oral or written), the nature of the data (general or more specific), the language or languages contained in the texts (monolingual, bilingual or multilingual) and the purpose of the research to be carried out, among some others. Our corpus has a fixed size containing complete written texts, not fragments. It can be considered a specific corpus as it does not include general texts, but texts written for a particular situation.

Biber (2007: 17) states that one of the central issues to get good results applying corpus-based research is to ensure that the corpus chosen for analysis represents the discourse domain being analysed. And that is what we are going to do. We base our study on the assumption

that all the texts included in our corpus represent a particular text category, in this case, political/social statements, which will make our results more easily interpretable and accurate.

As regards the size of the corpus, O'Keefee and McCarthy (2010: 54) explain that the purpose to which the corpus is ultimately put is a critical factor in deciding its size. When the first corpora were created thanks to the new technologies, the idea was that the bigger the corpus, the better results would be obtained. However, Ma (1996: 16) claims that the classification of corpora based on their size should be replaced by one between corpora used for examining general language and those used for examining more specific areas of language use.

The size of our corpus was practically established beforehand by the source where the texts were stored. For this study we have collected and analysed a total of 136 texts (see Appendix 1), being all of them speeches given by women representing different official institutions at the Beijing Conference of 1995. As already mentioned, all these texts are stored in the Webpage of the Forum (http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/fwcwn.html). Apart from the information concerning this particular Conference, the Webpage also contains a total of 303 speeches divided into three different groups: statements by governments` representatives, statements by members of the United Nations or other inter-governmental organisations and, finally, statements by delegates of non-governmental organisations.

However, this piece of research has not studied all the statements published on this Webpage, but only those by women. Within these, a selection based on language criteria has been applied according to which only statements written and delivered in English were included. For these reasons we have disregarded 30 texts as speakers were men; and, since our corpus is a monolingual one, other 41 statements on the one hand, and 31, on the other, were not considered because they were written in French and Spanish, respectively. In the same way, the 16 speeches

that were not available in a scannable language (according to the information found in the Webpage) were not included either.

The remaining 136 texts that form our corpus are difficult to classify either as belonging to the written or the spoken modes of communication. Chafe (1981: 46) explains the difference between these two types of communication, characterising, on the one hand, written language as more integrated and detached and, on the other, oral language as more involved. In turn, Biber (1988: 57) explains, as regards Dimension 1, that conversation and academic prose are at opposite extremes, since conversation is characterized as highly interactive and academic prose as not interactive at all. But, along this dimension, professional letters, although written, are more similar to conversations than to academic prose and that is what happens with our texts: they resemble conversations, they aim at establishing a dialogue between the author (speaker) and the reader (audience). They display characteristics of prose but, at the same time, they present structures more often used in oral communication as it is the case of direct questions.

Statements in our corpus were composed and planned before being given and they were submitted to the Conference to be published on the mentioned Webpage (our source), not as recorded sounds but as written texts. In this sense, although they are speeches to be delivered and spoken, we might consider them more as written than as oral texts, but with many characteristics in common with oral texts since the authors appear to be more involved than detached with their own words, due mainly to the matter in fact.

Not all the texts have the same length (number of words). Only 24 texts are longer than 2,000 words, with most of them (76) presenting between 2,000 and 1,000 words. 36 texts have less than 1,000 words, with a total average of 1,456 words per text (Figure 1). From the 36 statements with less than 1,000 words only 6 belong to women representing governments and three to women representing inter-governmental organisations, meaning that 27 of these 36 shorter speeches were given by delegates of non-governmental organisations. On the other hand, we can observe that 17

out of the 24 with more than 2,000 words pertain to women from governments, more used to giving speeches and to talk in public than those representing the organisations, especially the non-governmental organisations.

The shortest text of all - with only 445 words - belongs to Betty Johnson, on behalf of the non-governmental organisation Older Women's Network, included in the group of developed countries. On the other hand, the longest speech, given by Narcisal Escaler, at that moment Deputy Director General of the non-governmental organisation International Organisation for Migration, belonging to the group of developed countries, includes 3,901 words.

We finally have a corpus composed of 136 samples, including 198,014 tokens (words) and 74,026 word types. The texts belong to women from countries all over the world, with different social, cultural, political and economic backgrounds. As we can see in Appendix 1, there are women representing governments from Europe (as Sweden, France or Malta), to Africa (as Morocco, Ethiopia or Lesotho) or Asia (China, Korea or Vietnam), and from North America (United States or Canada) to South America (Chile, Venezuela or Cuba). We also find texts by women representing very different types of organisations, from those more related to women's issues (Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, United Nations Development Fund for Women) to other with more general objectives, but also heavily involved in women's affairs (International Committee of the Red Cross, International Organisation for Migration).
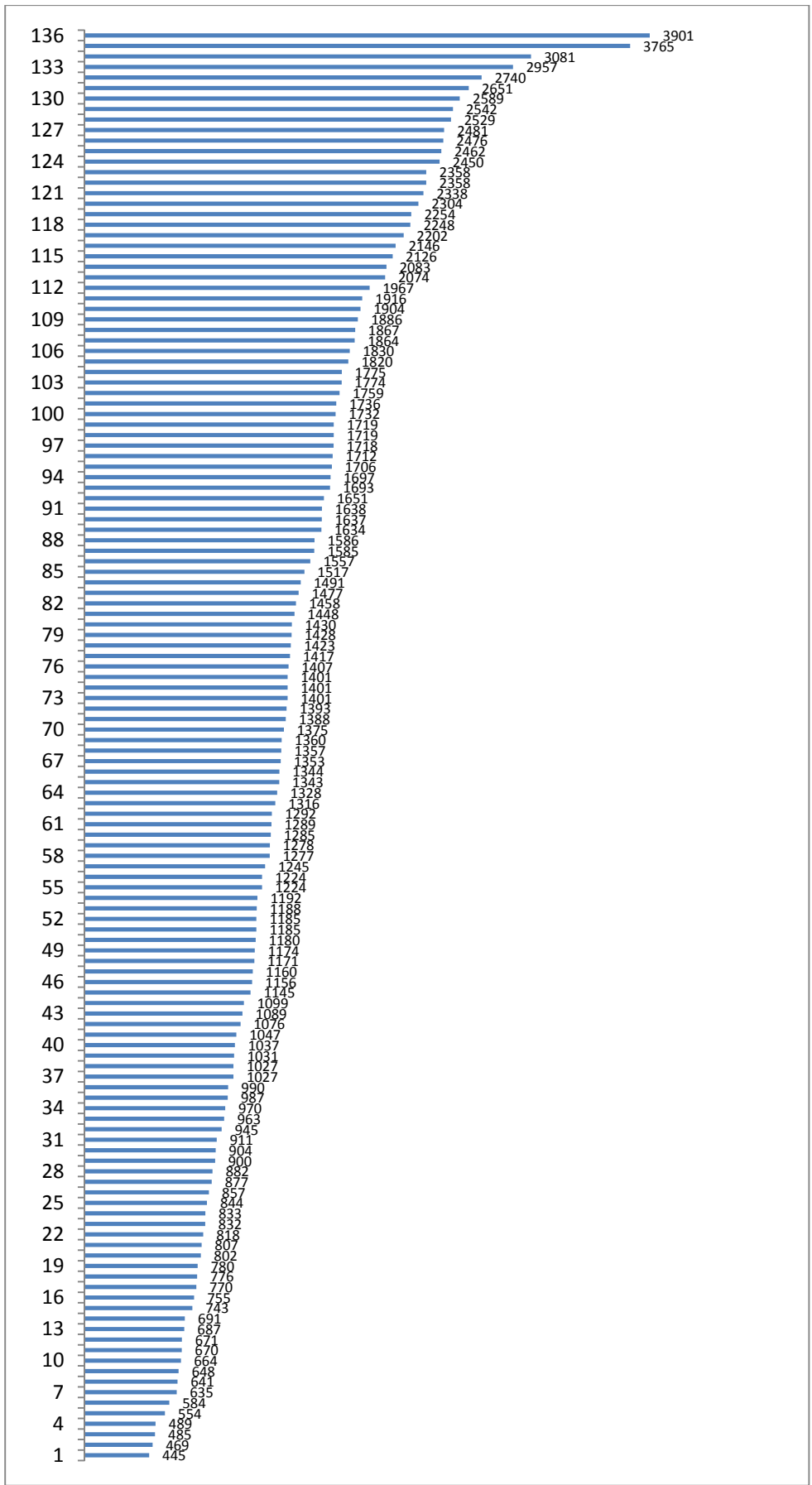
Figure 1. Number of words (tokens) per text

The speeches in the corpus thus created have been divided into two groups according to our interests for this research: those by women from developed countries and those by women from developing countries. To this taxonomy we must add the one already provided for each of the speakers as representing governments and inter-governmental or non-governmental organisations. Table 2 illustrates the distribution of tokens in the corpus whereas Table 3 shows how types occur:

Table 2. Distribution of words in the corpus

Total word tokens		
	Developed	Developing
Governments	56,125	74,331
Inter-governmental organisations	33,857	2,910
Non-governmental organisations	18,993	11,798
Total	108,975	89,039

Table 3. Distribution of types in the corpus

Total word types		
	Developed	Developing
Governments	20,011	27,972
Inter-governmental organisations	12,068	1,133
Non-governmental organisations	7,889	4,953
Total	39,968	34,058

The information for tokens in Table 2 indicates the number of words in the texts and it defines the size of the corpus, whereas the label "word types" (Table 3) refers to the number of different

word forms. These two measures are used in corpus linguistics to get the type/token ratio (TRR) and to compare corpora in terms of lexical variability and/or complexity[1].

Figure 1 displays a summary of the two tables below by providing a general view of the number of tokens both by the two geographical variables and the three institutional variables.
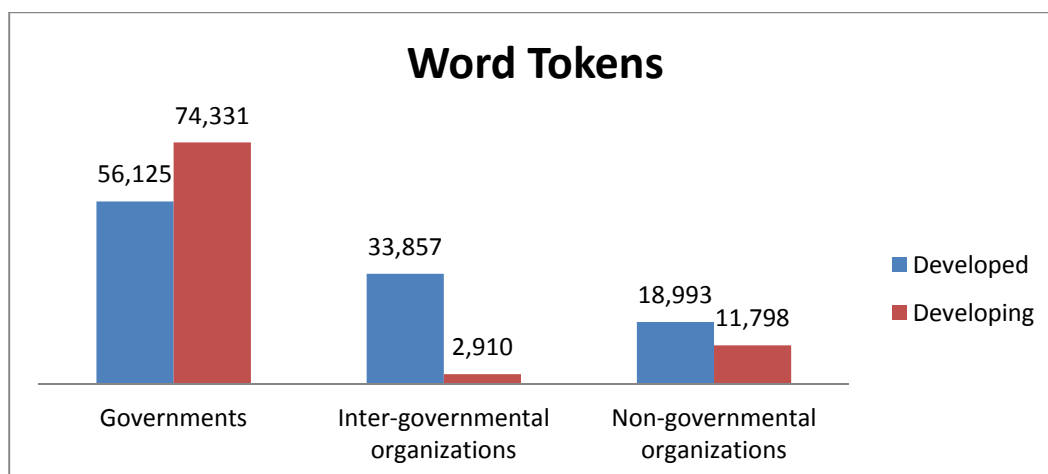
Figure 2. Difference of tokens in our corpus according to the variables

It is also worth mentioning at this point that whereas 108,975 words were produced by women from developed countries, only 89,039 were by women from developing countries. This is somehow paralleled by their use of types, since Table 3 shows that women from developed countries use more different types (39,968) than those from developing ones (34,058). However, this does not necessarily mean that women from developing countries have a poorer discourse from the point of view of the lexicon they use as we will see later in the analysis when we obtain the type/token ratio. We can also appreciate in Table 3 that the group using more different types are women representing governments from developing countries and the group using fewer are women representing inter-governmental organisations from developing countries.

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[1]To obtain this ratio the number of types is divided by the number of tokens. The closer to 1 is the result, the greater the complexity of the text. The closer to 0, the greater the repetition of word forms (types) and, hence, the simplicity of the discourse. In general texts, if the same words (that is, word types) are used over and over again, the text can be considered lexically poor.

3. Methodology

Several steps have been taken in order to carry out this study, all of them based on corpus linguistics methodology. In the first place, after disregarding some of the texts for the reasons exposed in the previous section and selecting the samples to be analysed, we saved each speech as an independent text file (.txt) and gave it a name according to our first classification, the one dividing speeches as from a developing or from a developed country, to facilitate the storage of files as well as the usage of extra-linguistic information. Details such as whether a country is considered developed or developing are not included in the Webpage of the Beijing Conference. Therefore, in order to assign the files to each of these two categories, the classification by the World Bank Atlas 2015 (http://data.worldbank.org/country) was followed.

Records of all extra-linguistic information regarding the files (that is to say, the speeches) were kept in a spreadsheet created with Excel 2007. Seven different fields (one per column) contain the following information about each text (Appendix 1):

- speaker`s home country / organisation

- file name

- organisation type

- speaker (statement by)

- class of country (developed or developing)

- number of words

- number of types

All the names given to the files present the same structure: the first element, DEVED or DEVING, refers to the sort of country. The second (GOV/INTERGOV/NGO) denotes the kind of organisation, that is government, inter-governmental organisation or non-governmental organisation. Finally, the third element in the name of text files refers to the country/acronym of the organisation plus file number. For example, the file containing the speech given by the

representative of the Australian government was named as DEVED-GOV-AUSTRALIA01, whereas the statement by the delegate of the NGO Committee for Asian Women was named as DEVING-NGO-CAW01. The rest of the information was saved in the spreadsheet we described above and which is illustrated in the following graph:

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1	COUNTRY / ORGANIZATION	FILE NAME	ORGANIZATION TYPE	STATEMENT BY	DEVELOPED / DEVELOPING	WORD TOKENS	WORD TYPES
2	International Organization for Migration	DEVED-INTERGOV-IOM01	Inter-governmental organiz	Narcisal Escaler	Developed	3901	1089
3	New Zealand	DEVED-GOV-NEWZEALAND01	Government	Jenny Shipley	Developed	3765	1034
4	Holy See	DEVED-GOV-HOLYSEE01	Government	Mary Ann Glendon	Developed	3081	923
5	Pakistan	DEVING-GOV-PAKISTAN01	Government	Benazir Bhutto	Developing	2957	953
6	Egypt	DEVING-GOV-EGYPT01	Government	Suzanne Mubarak	Developing	2740	923
7	Inter-American Development Bank	DEVED-INTERGOV-IDB01	Inter-governmental organiz	Nancy Birdsall	Developed	2651	758
8	Argentina	DEVING-GOV-ARGENTINA01	Government	Zelmira Regazzoli	Developing	2589	983
9	Croatia	DEVED-GOV-CROATIA01	Government	Katica Ivanisevic	Developed	2542	636
10	Cuba	DEVING-GOV-CUBA01	Government	Vilma Espin Guillois	Developing	2529	882
11	Tunisia	DEVING-GOV-TUNISIA01	Government	Naziha Zarrouk	Developing	2481	879
12	Vietnam	DEVING-GOV-VIETNAM02	Government	Truong My Hoa	Developing	2476	835
13	Nigeria	DEVING-GOV-NIGERIA01	Government	Maryam Sani Abacha	Developing	2462	830
14	Division for Economic Cooperation among I	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNCTAD01	Inter-governmental organiz	Chafika Meslem	Developed	2450	779
15	Philipines	DEVING-GOV-PHILIPINES01	Government	Leticia Ramos-Shahani	Developing	2358	799
16	Sudan	DEVING-GOV-SUDAN01	Government	Mariam Osman Sir El Kha	Developing	2358	835
17	Austria	DEVED-GOV-AUSTRIA01	Government	Helga Konrad	Developed	2338	742
18	Bangladesh	DEVING-GOV-BANGLADESH01	Government	Bismillahim Rahmanir Ra	Developing	2304	819
19	United Kingdom	DEVED-GOV-UNITEDKINGDOM01	Government	Chalker of Wallasey	Developed	2254	668
20	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNRWA01	Inter-governmental organiz	Lamis Alami	Developed	2248	794
21	United States	DEVED-GOV-USA01	Government	Hillary Clinton	Developed	2202	707
22	San Marino	DEVED-GOV-SANMARINO01	Government	Emma Rossi	Developed	2146	779
23	Committee on the Elimination of Discrimina	DEVED-INTERGOV-CEDAW01	Inter-governmental organiz	Ivanka Corti	Developed	2126	775

Figure 3. Sample of Excel including information of Appendix1

As a methodology, corpus linguistics involves both quantitative and qualitative processes. Among the former, we have resorted to type/token ratio and normalisation of figures. McEnery, Xiao, and Tono (2006: 56) explain that in corpus linguistics the term *frequency* refers to the arithmetic count of the number of tokens within a corpus that belong to each classification or type. Our text samples are different in number of tokens (see Figure 2 in Section 2 above), and this implies that direct comparison of results is not possible. For this reason, when comparing corpora of different sizes or samples inside the same corpus with different number of words, as happens in our research, it is necessary to use another quantitative method: to normalize the frequencies or raw numbers to a common base to get accurate results.

The base we are going to use for normalization is one of 1,000 tokens. That is to say, we will apply a proportion system by which our findings will be calculated as if all our texts contained the same number of words (1,000) in order to allow direct comparison of results. Tables in this paper include both the number of hits found for each variable analysed (raw numbers), as well as the normalized frequency (nf).

To help to analyse texts included in our corpus we will employ the last updated version of the freeware corpus analysis toolkit AntConc (Anthony, 2014). This is a concordance programme useful to work with corpus data. This kind of programmes typically contain a utility that highlights and centres all the instances of a particular search term, displaying one example per line, with context to the left and right of each searched term. This utility is the basic concordance one, also known as keyword in context, and context may be fundamental to decide whether a particular token is what we are really looking for or not as we will see later on. Concordances also indicate the number of occurrences of a particular form and the file where each hit is found. Figure 4 below illustrates the result of a search for the form *<we>* using AntConc in our corpus:
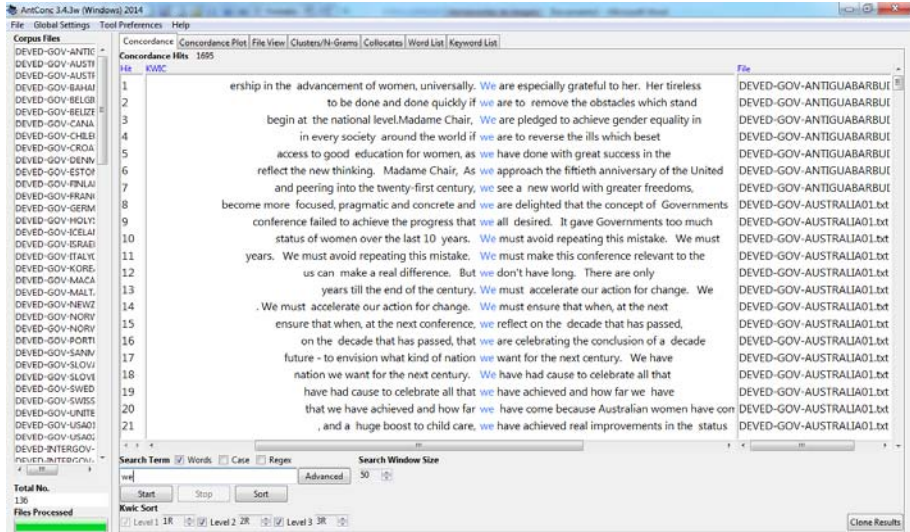

Figure 4. Sample of the result of a search in the programme AntConc

As we can see in Figure 4, the programme does not only find the searched term and provide information about the sentence where it appears, but it also includes the reference to the text file where the element is found.

For the present study, all occurrences recorded for each of the linguistic features under survey were saved to different spreadsheets and counted in order to achieve the most accurate characterization of the type of texts in our corpus. As already mentioned, our method is not only quantitative, but also qualitative. Although we have counted the occurrences of each of the items considered for the five selected features (Table 1) using the AntConc programme, we also had to read many of the texts to get accurate results. Figure 5 shows one of the searches, in this particular case, the one for the private verb *<learn>*.We indicate in red those occurrences of the type that cannot be counted as tokens of our interest since they do not correspond to verbal forms. It is the context that tells us whether the form in question corresponds to what we should take into account for our study or not.

1	half of humankind or - as we have	learned in China - "women hold up half of	DEVED-GOV-AUSTRIA01.txt	2	1
2	the family must play as the first	learning place for the dignity and equality of	DEVED-GOV-BELGIUM01.txt	4	1
3	where love and respect of others are	learnt, should enable each young person to be	DEVED-GOV-BELGIUM01.txt	4	2
4	open to others. Later, through the values	learnt in the family, the adult will be	DEVED-GOV-BELGIUM01.txt	4	3
5	is less encouraged than her brothers to	learn about and participate in the social, econom	DEVED-GOV-DENMARK01.txt	9	1
6	ensure that women all over the world	learn to know their rights and are put	DEVED-GOV-GERMANY01.txt	13	1
7	nitiatives like kohanga reo - the Maori language	learning initiative - and the women's refuge movem	DEVED-GOV-NEWZEALAND01.txt	21	1
8	20 per cent need to be genderized. We	learned a lesson at the Population Conference in	DEVED-GOV-NORWAY02.txt	23	1
9	mmunities, as mothers, wives, sisters, daughters,	learners, workers, citizens and leaders. It is a	DEVED-GOV-USA01.txt	31	1
10	lives of their families. What we are	learning around the world is that, if women	DEVED-GOV-USA01.txt	31	2
11	years, I have had the opportunity to	learn more about the challenges facing women in	DEVED-GOV-USA01.txt	31	3
12	International Monetary Fund who were dismayed to	learn that the Fund's Administration Department ha	DEVED-INTERGOV-IMF01.txt	38	1
13	riate, income-generating and practical skills; *	learning materials and methods relate to girls' ba	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNICEF01.txt	47	1
14	the grassroots demand for access to quality	learning. * Community leaders can demand more pro	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNICEF01.txt	47	2
15	rgency medical services. - introduction of home-	learning programme to compensate for school closur	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNRWA01.txt	49	1
16	have missed out on formal education can	learn to read and write in literacy courses	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNRWA01.txt	49	2
17	valued. The NGOs in our coalition are	learning through experience that when you advance	DEVED-NGO-ACVIA01.txt	53	1
18	, as well as NGOs, are continuing to	learn how to work together, we believe that	DEVED-NGO-ACVIA01.txt	53	2
19	and by giving them real opportunities to	learn to be part of' decision - making processes	DEVED-NGO-WAGG01.txt	69	1
20	of natural resources by the few, and	learning to live, with equity, within our share	DEVED-NGO-WFN01.txt	71	1
21	women and men. It is necessary to	learn afresh from the successes and mistakes of	DEVED-NGO-WFTU01.txt	72	1
22	, FOR THE RAPID DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION AND	LEARNING. THUS, COMMUNICATION BECOMES A POLITICAL	DEVING-GOV-BRAZIL01.txt	79	1
23	the international community. We are here to	learn from our sisters from world over of	DEVING-GOV-CAMBODIA01.txt	80	1
24	Chairperson, When two years ago I first	learned about the work of the Grameen Bank	DEVING-GOV-KYRGYZ01.txt	95	1
25	subjected to discrimination in the field of	learning. Girls and women outnumber the students i	DEVING-GOV-KYRGYZ01.txt	95	2
26	isolated. Today, we have great opportunity to	learn from each other derive strength from each	DEVING-GOV-NEPAL01.txt	102	1
27	neutrality. But my dear sisters, we have	learned that democracy alone is not enough. Freed	DEVING-GOV-PAKISTAN01.txt	104	1

DETERMINE / DISCOVER / DOUBT / ESTIMATE / FEAR / FEEL / FIND / FORGET / HEAR / HOPE / IMAGINE / IMPLY / INDICATE / KNOW / LEARN / MEAN / NOTICE

Figure 5. Sample of spreadsheet to count results

Some of the linguistic features for our study can be automatically retrieved but, as we can see in Figure 5, this is not possible in all our searches. For this reason, as regards Biber's features, our analysis is both quantitative and qualitative since we have used the already mentioned automatic method – the toolkit AntConc - to search for and count the occurrences, and also a manual method to check any ambiguous occurrences and get accurate results.

This sort of qualitative analysis is especially necessary with the first three features included in Table 1: *private verbs, first and second pronouns* and *causative subordination*. In these cases not all the hits found correspond to the linguistic features of our interest. For example, the form *us* can represent two different types. On the one hand, it may be a first person plural pronominal form and, on the other, it can also make reference to the US (United States). Naturally, the occurrences of the form *us* when standing for the type referring to the United States cannot be included in the scrutiny. Example (1) illustrates one of the occasions on which manual disambiguation made us exclude a particular token:

(1) Corporations in the First Wold countries like <US>, Britain and Japan are exploiting the poor (DEVING-NGO-CAW01)

Another example is the private verb *see.* Not all the tokens in this type correspond to the verbal form. In fact, in our corpus there are 16 *see* forms used as a noun referring to the *Holy See* as in (2).

(2) The views of the Holy <See> represent the aspirations of many people (DEVED-GOV-HOLYSEE01)

In order to identify these coincidences, a careful reading of the samples is required to know whether such terms have to be counted or not. This disambiguation or differentiation will also be necessary to determine if some of the identified verbal forms of our list of private verbs are functioning as verbs proper or as other grammatical categories. This is the case of the form *hope* appearing 124 times in our texts. Of those, 56 times it is functioning as a verb and should be considered for our analysis, but the rest of the tokens correspond to the noun. Hence, only these 56 hits were included in the analysis and not those similar to the instance in (3):

(3) We came to Beijing with great <hopes> (DEVING-GOV-NIGERIA01)

Likewise, it is important to point out that AntConc allows the use of wildcards (*). This means that in the case of the feature of *private verbs*, the same verb with different endings could be found by writing an * after the root as a search term. For example, to find out the tokens for the verb *assume*, if we search for *assum**, the programme provides the results for *assume*, *assumed, assumes* and *assuming*, which makes our search faster. However, we could not follow the same procedure for some other verbs. Obviously, this was not possible for irregular verbs. When searching for the verb *know*, we first had to look for *know**, and this gave us results not only for *know, knows*, *known* and *knowing*, but also for *knowledge* and *knowledgeable*, so we had to do a subsequent qualitative analysis to disregard the latter. Secondly, for this same verb, we had to search for the past tense form *knew*. Examples (4) and (5) below illustrate this issue.

(4) Rural women are <knowledgeable> and endowed with skills and talents (DEVING-NGO-NARWA01)

(5) By the year 2000 – 30% of women to have <knowledge> about their rights (DEVING-GOV-TANZANIA01)

Some searches gave us curious results. When looking for tokens for the verb *prove*, for instance, we used the wildcard *prov** to find all the possible forms of the verb: *prove, proves, proved* and *proving*, but the programme also found two *proverbs* (see example (6)) and one *proverbially*. Once more, we had to apply a manual method to delete these three occurrences.

(6) An Arab <proverb> says "Open your hearts and your eyes" (DEVED-GOV-BELGIUM01)

We can find examples as the one mentioned before in most of the other verbs and these examples reveal that the feature of *private verbs* was one of the one more frequently demanding the qualitative method, together with the feature of *causative subordination*, as we will see in the following paragraphs.

The technique of wildcards (*) was also very useful in our searches of first and second person pronouns. When we look for *our*,* we find results for *our*, *ours* and *ourselves*. On the contrary, we could not use the same strategy to look for occurrences with *you** as it included other words not related at all to our search as is the case of *young* or *youth*, illustrated in example (7):

(7) Though not independent, Namibian women and <youth> were a part of that historic gathering (DEVING-GOV-NAMIBIA01)

Therefore, we decided not to use the wildcard (*) for the search of *you*, but to use it for *your* to obtain results for *your, yourself* and *yourselves*.

As regards the search for the third feature, *causative subordination*, manual disambiguation was again the qualitative method applied in the four conjunctions (*because, as, for* and *since*) after generating the word list and importing the forms into the spreadsheet. When searching for *because*, we found 30 *because of* that were disregarded since they were instances of a phrasal preposition and not a causative conjunction. The toolkit AntConc produced a result of 1,536 occurrences of the word *as*, but only in 30 of them *as* was acting as a causative conjunction. Something similar happened with *since*. In only 40 out of 145 occurrences *since* introduced a causative subordination, the rest were prepositions or adverbs. These situations are exemplified in (8) to (10) below

(8) some women face additional barriers to equality <because of> their race, ethnicity, religion or sex (DEVED-GOV-CANADA01)

(9) They will ensure that <as> a nation, we continue the reform agenda (DEVED-GOV-AUSTRALIA01)

(10) Especially, <since> Uzbekistan proclaimed its independence (DEVING-GOV-UZBEKISTAN01)

It is worth mentioning that the search of the causative subordination *for* produced a surprising result: we found 2,573 concurrence hits and all of them were prepositions; that is, none of them operated as a conjunction and, consequently, were not included in the analysis at all.

As for the fourth feature, Wh-questions, we can highlight the following facts: we found 865 *which*, but they all were relative pronouns, so they were disregarded. We found 167 *where*, and only 12 of them were included in the analysis since the rest were relative pronouns as in (11).

(11)   particularly in Africa <where> women play an crucial role (DEVED-INTERGOV-

UNCTAD01)

As regards our search for *who*, AntConc gave a result of 362 occurrences, but only 3 could be

included in our analysis as 357 corresponded to relative pronouns and the remaining two

represented the acronym *World Health Organisation (WHO)* as in the two following extracts:

(12)   which has been recognised and recommended by <WHO> and reputable medical

journals (DEVING-NGO-FLC01)

(13)   According to the World Health Organisation <(WHO)>, the dramatic decline in

maternal mortality (DEVED-NGO-IRLF01).

In the searches carried out for the last feature analysed, the one called *possibility modals*, the

only thing to highlight is that our search for *may* gave us four results for the word *May* meaning

the month and not the modal verb (example (14):

(14)   Eighty years ago, in <May> 1915, The International Congress of Women meeting

Obviously, these four cases were not counted as instances representing this feature either.

Once the importance of both quantitative and qualitative methods has been made clear, the

following section will focus on the analysis itself.

4. Analysis of data

As we have mentioned in previous sections, we will focus our analysis on five linguistic features included in what Biber (1988: 57) labels Dimension 1 and that revolves around the ways in which language may denote a higher or lower degree of involvement on the part of the speaker.

However, before starting with the interpretation of the results obtained for the analysis of these features, it is worth mentioning the type/token ratio of our corpus as we consider that this information helps us to identify the kind of texts to be analysed. The type/token ratio (TRR) is a quantitative method to calculate the lexical richness of texts. The general idea is that the more types a text contains, the richer it is from the point of view of vocabulary, especially so if these types do not contain many tokens, that is to say, if the same words are not repeated over and over again.

In our corpus this general idea that a high type/token ratio implies more lexical richness can be partially left out as all the texts deal with the same subject and this brings about that our speakers repeat some words once and again. In fact, the ratio in our corpus is 0,37, which is not an expected high ratio if we take into account that statements belong to women representing their respective countries or organisations, women with rather dissimilar geographical backgrounds, but all of them well trained and with experience. The reason for this, at first sight, low ratio might be, as we have explained, that all our women are focused in the same matter.

By using, once more, the toolkit AntConc to obtain the list of words contained in the texts and how often each of them is used, we find some results that could be useful in other sort of analysis. The word *women* appears in the sixth place as regards number of occurrences of all words in the texts (with 4,839 occurrences) This is really outstanding since corpus-based techniques generally disregard the first ten items in a word list as they do not correspond to forms with lexical content but to function words. The word *world* occupies the twenty-second place in the list, *conference* the twenty-seventh, *development* the twenty-ninth and *rights* the

thirtieth, with 980, 890, 832 and 803 occurrences, respectively. Other words such as *human*, *social, international* or *equality* are also among the fifty words most frequently used in the corpus. These examples prove that the token/type ratio in our corpus is affected by the topic in question during the Forum: the defence of women`s rights, the fight for equality in a globalized world.

Apparently, the application of the variable developed/developing, as regards lexical richness in a general context, would probably imply that the language of women from developing countries have a lower token/type ratio than the language of women from developing countries. Surprisingly, when calculating the ratio taking into consideration this variable, that is, separately for the speeches by women from developed countries and those by women from developing ones, there is no significant difference since the ratios are 0,36 and 0,37, respectively. In other words, women from developed countries present a slightly lower ratio than women from developing countries. The type/token ratio, considered as a useful index of lexical diversity in general contexts, is of little significance in our corpus. The number and variety of elements (words) implies lexical complexity, but, what is important in the texts under scrutiny is not the vocabulary diversity to show lexical richness, but that their ideas are conveyed with clarity.

A general overview of the data we are going to analyse is presented in Figure 6, showing the number of tokens for these 5 linguistic features in our corpus material. Of the five features selected, the one called *first and second person pronouns* is the most frequent one with 4,504 occurrences. This could be due to the nature of the texts as the women giving the speeches are trying to identify themselves (first person pronouns) and their audience (second person pronouns) as a central part of their message. Besnier (1994: 289) explains that the centrality of involvement leaves a strong imprint on the form of conversational discourse: this strategy makes that the information they convey involves all the people present in the Forum.

The other four features occur at very low levels of frequency if compared to *first and second person pronouns*. The lowest number of occurrences appears in *causative subordination* (136 tokens) and this might be because our corpus is formed by speeches to be spoken. The speakers try to make the message easy to understand, without a complex or long syntax requiring the use of this linguistic device.
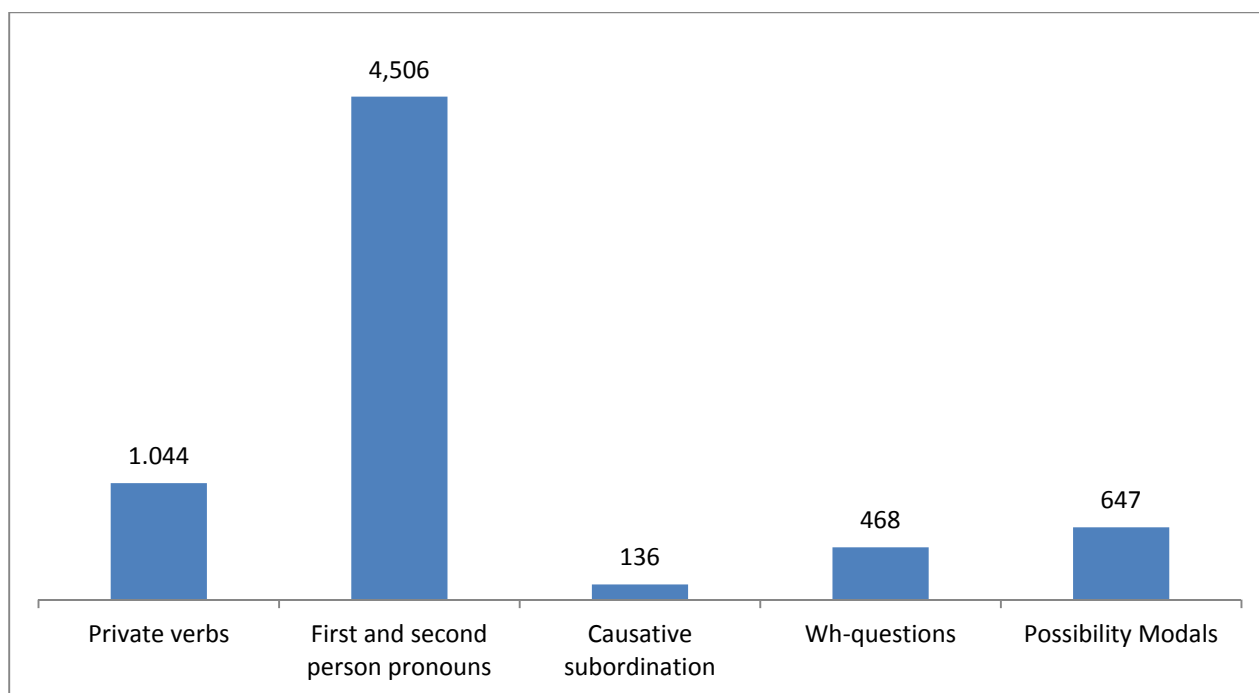
Figure 6. Number of tokens in the selected features of Dimension 1

Each of the features under survey will be commented individually in some depth in the following sub-sections in order to give a more detailed account of each of them.

4.1. Private verbs

The list of private verbs Biber includes in the different analyses he carried out is taken from Quirk et al (1985: 1181-2). According to these authors, verbs can be classified into a major and a minor category, and in the first one they distinguish between factual and suasive verbs. From a semantic point of view the verbs in the first of these two groups are associated with statements relating to facts and those in the second group with directives. In terms of their syntax, factual

verbs are those claimed to take *that*-clauses with an indicative verb, with the *that*-clause expressing factual or propositional information (Quirk et al. 1985: 1180). It is within this group of factual verbs that these authors propose a further sub-classification based on semantic characteristics between public and private verbs. In contrast to the so-called public verbs, private verbs introduce facts that are not observable since they express more personal opinions, intellectual states and intellectual acts.

This feature is useful for our analysis as we intend to prove the different level of involvement and, since private verbs express more individual viewpoints rather than objective ideas, they can provide us with clues to make differences between the groups of our classification, both for the type of country and the sort of organisation women belong to.

The list of private verbs provided by Quirk et al (1985: 1181-2) include the following ones: *anticipate, assume, believe, conclude, decide, demonstrate, determine, discover, doubt, estimate, fear, feel, find, forget, guess, hear, hope, imagine, imply, indicate, infer, know, learn, mean, notice, prove, realize, recognize, remember, reveal, see, show, suppose, think, understand*.

There are three verbs of this initial list that do not have any occurrence in our corpus at all: *anticipate, guess* and *infer*. As regards the form *fear*, 19 hits were found but all of them were nouns and, hence, they have not been included in the analysis either. Once these forms were disregarded, the total of private verb forms recorded in our corpus is 1,044 (see figure 6 above). The number of tokens found for each of the types, from the most frequently used one with 109 occurrences (*believe*) to the less often used ones with 2 occurrences each (*notice* and *doubt*), is reflected in Figure 7.
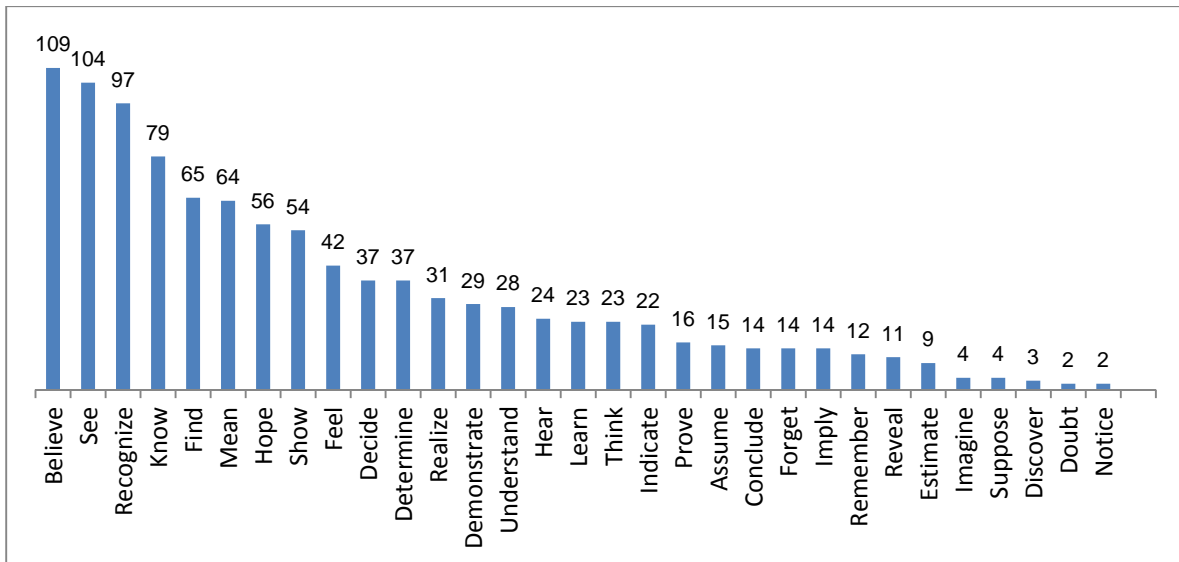
Figure 7. Number of tokens of each private verb

If we classify the tokens attending to the variable we set at the beginning of this essay and which divides countries in developed and developing, the results are the ones reflected in Table 4.

Table 4. Private verbs per sort of country

Sort of country	Private verbs (tokens)	Private verbs (nf*)
Developed countries	590	5.40
Developing countries	454	4.85

nf: normalized frequency (see Section 4: Methodology)

Both raw numbers and normalized frequencies are slightly higher in the group of women representing developed countries as we can see in Figure 8 including the normalized frequencies.

Our classification between *developing* and *developed* refers to the countries women come from, not to the women themselves. All of them, regardless of their geographical origin, can be considered "*developed*" women and for this reason the use they make of these private/intellectual verbs is quite similar. Therefore, the slight difference in frequency can be due to the women's background. Although they are all experienced and cosmopolitan women, those coming from

developing countries might be in some way constrained by their personal environment and, even in an international forum, they express themselves in a more cautious way.
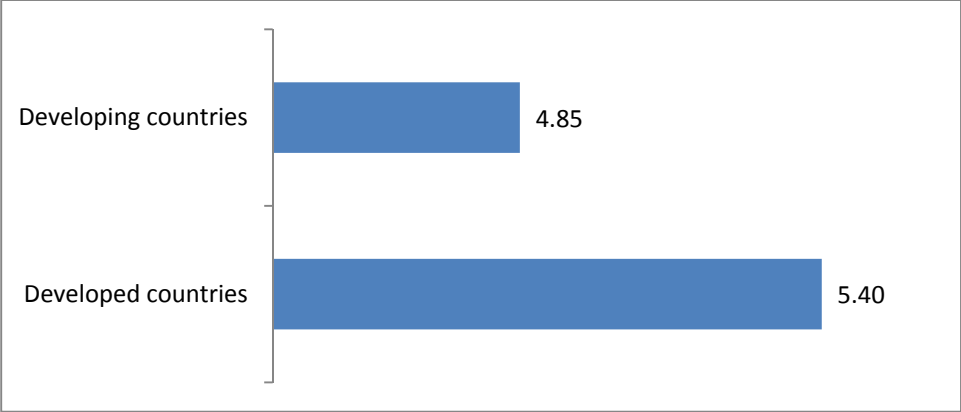
Figure 8. Normalized frequencies of the use of private verbs per sort of country

A further analysis of the use of private verbs by women attending to their social-political context implies the use of the second variable we established according to the sort of organisation women represent, either a government, an inter-governmental organisation or a non-governmental organisation. The use of private verbs taking these circumstances into account is shown in raw numbers in Table 5:

Table 5. Private verbs per sort of organisation

Sort of organisation	Private verbs (tokens)
Government	688
Inter-governmental organisation	185
Non-governmental organisation	171

The findings set out in table 5 imply that women representing the governments of their countries use these private verbs much more often (688 uses) than the rest, certainly far from them. Women representing organisations employ a very similar number of private verbs (185 in the

case of women from inter-governmental and 171 in the case of women from non-governmental organisations)

However, these very heterogeneous results are viewed differently when considering the normalized frequencies. This very slight difference in the use women make of private verbs can be appreciated in Figure 9. We can appreciate the usefulness of normalizing frequencies since the apparent big difference between women from governments and women from other organisations that raw numbers showed is here qualified. In fact, there is only a slight difference in the frequency of the use of private verbs according to the sort of organisation/institution and, curiously, it is not women representing their governments the ones who use this device more often.
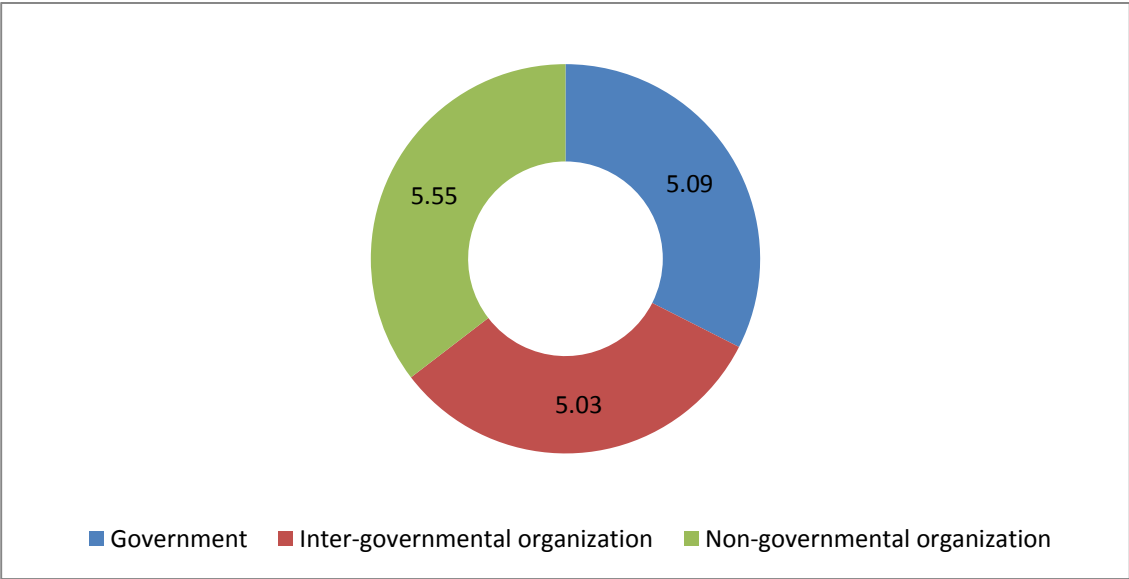
Figure 9. Normalized frequency of the private verbs per kind of organisation

The differences between women representing both governments and inter-governmental organisations are practically negligible, whereas we can observe that women representing non-governmental organisations are those using this kind of verbs more frequently. We think that this may be due to the fact that this group of women are more used to defending human rights. In

other words, compared to the other groups, their discourse is always more deeply focused on demanding.

4.2. First and second person pronouns

Biber (1988: 105) explains that the use of these pronouns refers directly to the addressor and the addressee; hence, they are very frequently used in interactive discourses as the ones we are dealing with here. Likewise, Biber (1988: 225) explains that first person pronouns are included in Dimension 1 as markers of ego-involvement, indicating an interpersonal focus, and he adds that second person pronouns also show a high degree of involvement with the addressee.

Before referring to the quantitative results for this second feature, it may be relevant to present a comparison between the speech given by Benazir Bhutto, from a developing country and the speech by Hilary Clinton, representing a developed country, and the use each of them makes of pronouns (Table 6) since the reading of the linguistic context in which they occur is most revealing.

Hillary Clinton uses the third person pronoun when she wants to give examples of the situations she is talking about. Conversely, Benazir Bhutto uses first person pronouns as she is the protagonist of the stories she is describing. According to this information and to our thesis statement, Bhutto should be more involved in her discourse than Clinton and, although this is just an example about how the author's involvement or detachment can be traced in a text, we will try to prove it with a detailed analysis of the data.

According to Hyland (2002: 1093), the use of the first person allows the authors to emphasize, and to seek agreement for, their own contributions. The use of the first person pronoun is a powerful means by which speakers, in this case, express their own identity. This confers them the authority they need to make their message believable, managing to attract the attention of the audience and making this audience trust their words.

Table 6. Comparison of Hilary Clinton's and Benazir Bhutto's speeches

HILLARY CLINTON	BENAZIR BHUTTO
Let **them** listen to the voices of women in **their** homes, neighbourhoods, and workplaces; **they** are watching their children succumb to malnutrition caused by poverty and economic deprivation; **they** are being denied the right to go to school by **their** own fathers and brothers; **they** are being forced into prostitution, and **they** are being barred from the ballot box and the bank lending office. Women in India and Bangladesh who are taking out small loans to buy milk cows, rickshaws, thread and other materials to create a livelihood for **themselves** and **their** families. '	**When I was growing up**, women in **my** extended family all covered **ourselves** with the Burqa, or veil from head to foot when **we** visited each others for weddings or funerals—the only two items for which **we** were allowed out. When **I** was growing up, no girl in **my** extended family was allowed to marry if a boy cousin was not available for fear of the property leaving the family. When **I** was growing up, women were not educated. **I** was the first girl in **my** family to go to university and to go abroad for **my** studies.

In Benazir Bhutto's words (Table 6) we find that the use of the pronoun *I* gives her words a sense of reality. The impact their words have got in their listeners is different since she is describing what she herself has experienced, whereas Clinton describes situations lived by some others. The use of first person is closely linked to subjectivity, but in this case this subjectivity means reality and, although Clinton also shows the real circumstances, her level of involvement seems to be lower since she has not been a direct witness of them.

As listed in Table 1, we will search for all forms of first and second person pronouns: *I, me, my, mine, myself, we, us, our, ours, ourselves, you, your, yourself, yourselves, yours.* Only one of these pronominal forms has not been found in any of the texts included in our corpus: *yourself*. Similarly, as we explained in the previous section, some occurrences for the form *us* have to be disregarded using the qualitative method as they make reference to US (United States). Finally, the number of first and second person pronoun forms found in our corpus is 4,506.

Figure 10 shows the number of tokens found for each of the pronominal forms.
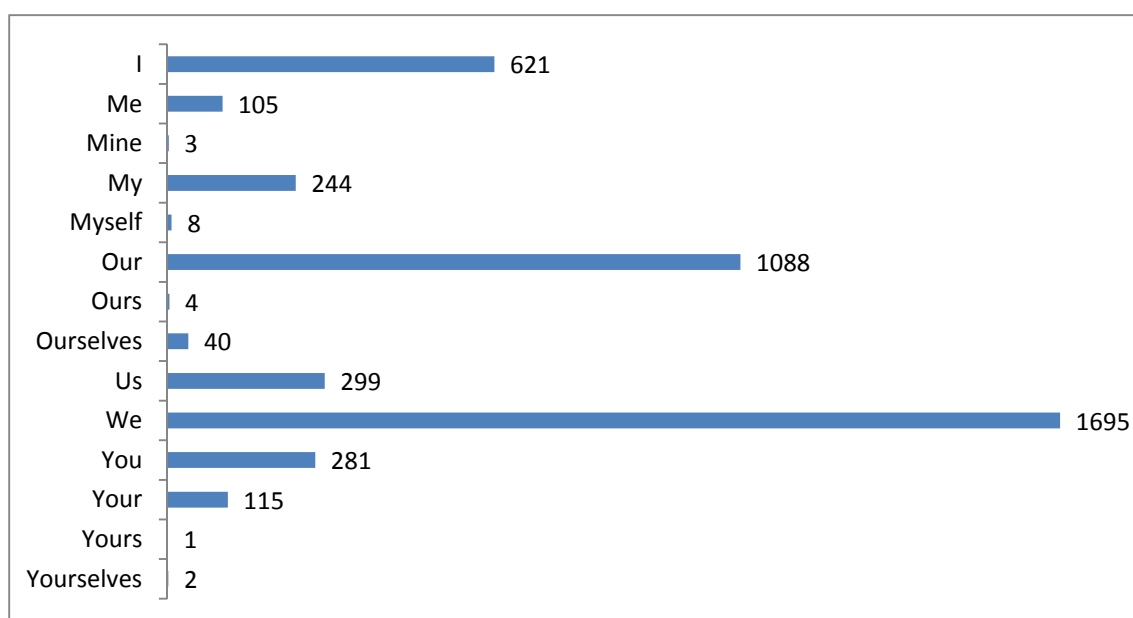
Figure 10. First and second person pronouns

As we can see clearly in Figure 10, *we* is the pronoun with the highest number of occurrences (1,695) in this group of first and second person pronouns, followed by *our* (1,088 hits). If we make a further comparison between the occurrences of the first person pronouns and the second person pronouns, we find that the first sub-group has a quite higher number of occurrences than the second latter.

Kuo (1999: 126) classifies first-person plural pronouns into two groups, with either inclusive or exclusive semantic reference. Most forms of *we* (and also *our*) found in our texts can be considered

as inclusive first-person plural pronoun since they include both the speaker/writer and the listener. The use of these inclusive forms invites the audience to feel part of the speech. Kuo (1999: 132) insists that when this form is used it is because the speaker assumes a shared knowledge and goals (and quite often, also beliefs) in the same discourse. All women have met together as they have a common purpose. A clear example of this inclusive *we* can be found in the following sentence taken from the statement given by Leticia Ramos-Shahani, representative of the Filipino government: "we, women, must first transform ourselves if we want to transform the world into a better world", where the pronoun *we* goes linked to the word *women* as having the same extra-linguistic reference in this case.

They do not want just to talk from a personal and subjective point of view. The first-person plural pronoun *we* appears 1,695 times, whereas the first-person singular pronoun appears 621 times. This reflects that although the speaker is part of the message, the protagonists are women in general.
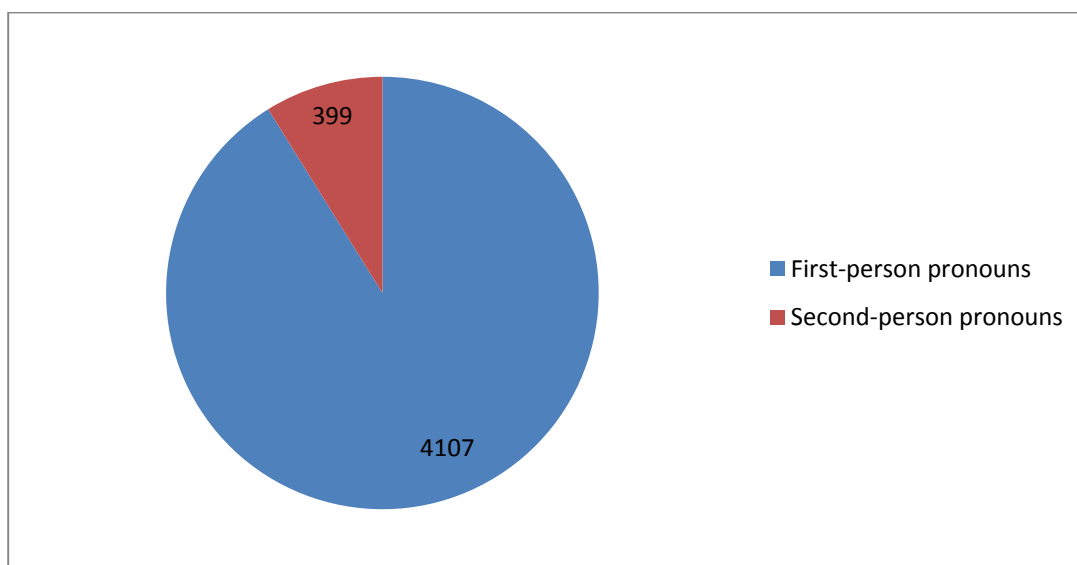

Figure 11. Occurrences of first-person pronouns and second-person pronouns

The toolkit AntConc allows us to make a different search that illustrates very clearly the significance of the use of these first person plural pronouns by women in our corpus. If we ask the programme to give us a wordlist indicating the times each word appears in the text, we find

that the pronoun *we* appears in the 11th position and the pronoun *our* in the 21st position among all the types used in all the samples. This gives us an idea of the importance of the term since, as already noted, the ten first positions in wordlists generated by concordances are generally occupied by function words such as determiners, prepositions. As Scott and Tribble (2006: 72) state, the items that are most likely to be found in a text are determiners and prepositions, sometimes representing even 57% of the text. In our corpus, as illustrated in figure 12, the first person pronoun *we* appears with more occurrences than the determiner *this* (13th position) or the preposition *on* (15th position), just to name one determiner and one preposition. But it also occupies a position higher than that of auxiliary verbs such as *are* (12th position) or *have* (17th position).

Figure 12. Sample of the result of a search in the programme AntConc

All this reflects the significance and the level of involvement of all these women, regardless their country or organisation. The pronoun *we* represents *women in the world* (in fact, also very

surprisingly we have already mentioned that the word *women* appears as the sixth word most frequently used in the corpus). It is truth that the use of first and second pronouns is more naturally common in conversations than in written texts, but as we have already explained in Section 2, the texts of our corpus have characteristics of both written and oral texts. They are in some way a kind of talk; speaker(s) and listener(s) are in contact, they all are present in the same scenario with a common target. Their discourses deal with their own lives and concerns.

To follow with our main analysis, next we present our findings regarding our first variable, developing and developed countries (Figure 13).
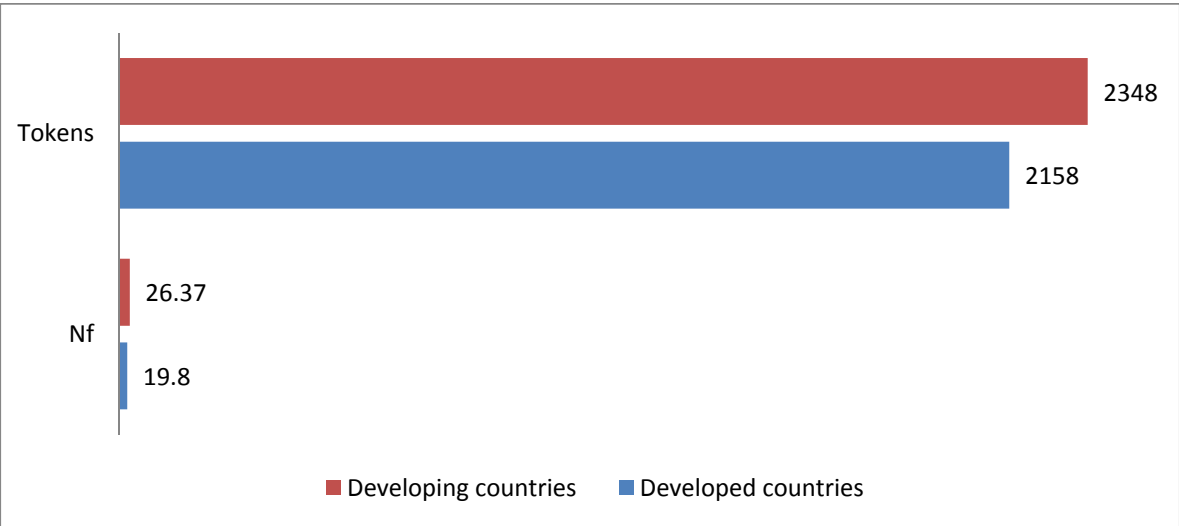
Figure 13. First and second person pronouns per sort of country (number of tokens and nf)

As indicated by both raw and normalized figures, in this case the difference between the two groups is more relevant than the one we found for private verbs, and the figures obtained for women from developing countries are higher than those representing women from developed countries.

As stated in the first paragraphs of this sub-section, this feature of first and second person pronouns allows us to establish the level of involvement or detachment in a quite clear way. Women who talk about their own situation are more involved than those who relate other

people`s stories. They are almost describing their own lives, as a kind of autobiography; women from developed countries can show a total empathy with the situation as regards human rights – and specifically women's rights -, but it is not something they have experienced by themselves. This is a clear case of how language and social realities are inextricably linked and how the study of the former may give us clues about the latter.

The analysis corresponding to the second variable (type of organisation women belong to) and the distribution of pronoun forms (tokens) is illustrated in Figure 14.
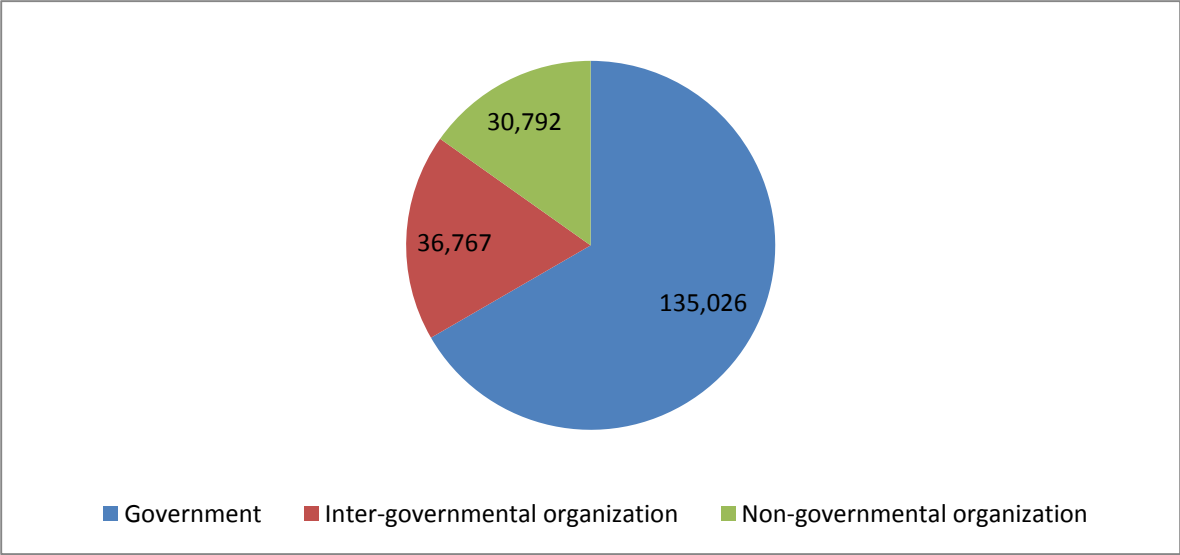
Figure 14. Number of occurrences of first and second pronouns per sort of organisation

These data are also reflected in Table 7, including the corresponding normalized frequencies.

Table 7. First and second person pronouns per sort of organisation

Sort of organisation	First and second person pronouns (tokens)	First and second person pronouns (nf)
Government	3,266	25.04
Inter-governmental organisation	524	14.25
Non-governmental organisation	716	23.25

The information concerning these three categories displayed in Figure 14 and Table 7 can be included in two sub-groups: on the one hand, governments and non-governmental organisations and, on the other hand, inter-governmental organisations. The first sub-group presents much the same results, very far from the figure obtained for the second sub-group. In our first feature, representatives of governments and inter-governmental organisations presented very similar figures, whereas for this second feature the results show that the women from governments might form a sub-group with those women representing non-governmental organisations.

If we compare the results of the first and second features, once more the representatives of non-governmental organisation are the most involved group (on this occasion very close to representatives of governments), and once more our argument seems to be valid. The representatives of non-governmental organisations are more engaged when it comes to solving problems and fighting against unfair circumstances.

4.3. Causative subordination

Causative subordinators are included by Biber (1988: 102) in his Dimension 1 as they can be considered as a marker of affect or stance. Speakers try to justify what they are saying and for this reason they use causative subordination, to make the listener understand better what they want to transmit. However, it is precisely this feature the one the women in our corpus use less frequently as shown in Figure 6 above.

To analyse this feature we searched for *because, for, as* and *since.* Biber (1988: 236) explains that *because* is the only subordinator to function unambiguously as a causative adverbial, whereas *for, as* and *since* can have a range of different functions, including, among them, the causative function. In this line, we found that all the occurrences of *for* have a temporal function; hence, we have not included them in the analysis. Therefore, the total 136 occurrences are distributed among *because, as* and *since* as shown in Figure 15.
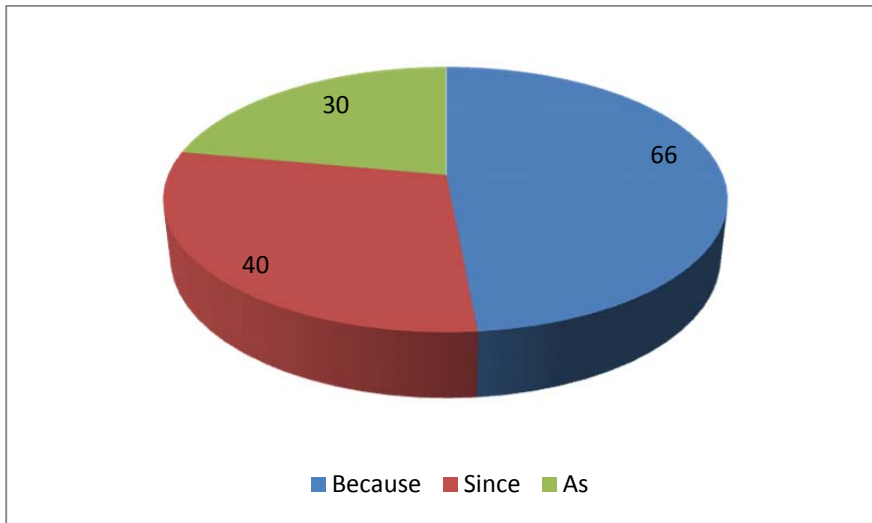
Figure 15. Number of occurrences of causative subordination

As we have done with the previous features, we divide these tokens according to our two variables. First, we consider if they are included in statements given by representatives of developed and developing countries (Table 8), and, next, if they belong to statements given by representatives of a government, an inter-governmental organisation or a non-governmental organisation (Table 9).

Table 8. Causative subordination per sort of country

Sort of country	Causative subordination (tokens)	Causative subordination (nf)
Developed countries	82	0.75
Developing countries	54	0.60

Our findings seem to prove that women from developed countries use more causative subordination, both as regards raw numbers and normalized frequencies. Quirk et al (1985: 1103), when explaining causative subordination, state that this construction expresses the perception of an inherent objective connection in the real world. That is, the use of causative sentences aims at giving an objective explanation to the expressed arguments.

If we take into account the results in Table 9 with this feature analysed depending on the sort of organisation, we can see that the highest figure (0.79) is for governmental representatives and the lowest figures are almost the same (0.46 and 0.48) for the other two groups. Women from governments use more causative subordinators than women from organisations, either inter-governmental or non-governmental. At this point we could ask if this happens because women from governments need to justify themselves more than women from organisation. Obviously, governments are more powerful than these organisations and in many cases the organisations themselves depend on governments' decisions. Governmental representatives have to give more explanations, explain why (causative) things are how they are and they cannot be changed, at least as fast as the other groups would like. They seem to be providing more information for several reasons: because they might have more answers, because they are more influential when it comes to making-decision about social matters, and it might also be because they want to justify themselves.

Table 9. Causative subordination per sort of organisation

Sort of organisation	Causative subordination (tokens)	Causative subordination (nf)
Government	104	0.79
Inter-governmental organisation	17	0.46
Non-governmental organisation	15	0.48

Therefore, we can conclude, according to the use of this feature, that women from developed countries and women from governments give more "explanations" to their arguments than those representing developing countries or organisations. Besides, subordination always implies a more complex grammatical structure and developing countries representatives are used to explaining facts in a more simple way since the audiences in their own countries are mostly women without training, who use a more simple language. These women, then, have probably developed a style that is similar to that of their audience to communicate more easily.

In the case of governments, the reason why they use more subordination might be because they aim at conquering their audiences. Unlike delegates of organisations, governmental representatives hold a political position, they are elected by their nations. As politicians, they make use of rhetorical devices, like subordination, to give explanations about what they do or they intend to do.

4.4. Wh-questions

Winter (1982: 137) states that Wh-questions provide a way to "talk about" the information; they do not require a simple yes/no answer but, contrariwise, they demand for a more complex one. Beaman (1984: 76) claims that questions, as well as Wh-clauses, fulfil interpersonal functions in discourse, accounting for a more frequent use in spoken but not written narratives. Despite the fact we are analysing written texts, we have already explained in previous sections that our texts also present characteristics typical of oral texts and, for this reason, we can include this feature in our analysis. For this survey we first found out how many Wh-question markers were recorded in the texts included in our corpus. Figure 16 shows the seven types encountered and the number of times they are repeated.
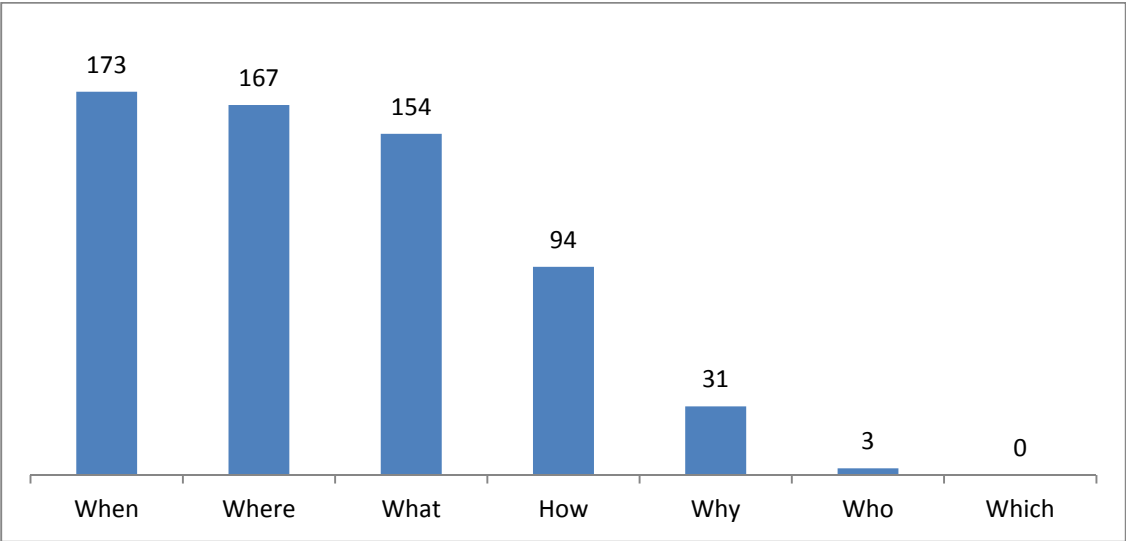
Figure 16. Number of Wh-questions

When analysing this feature, we cannot forget that our corpus is formed by speeches, hence, the analysis of Wh-questions should take into account, not only the context in which they take place, but also the interest of the participants. The speaker looks for a mutual understanding with the audience. At times the statement can be even considered a dialogue, almost a conversional interaction. The speaker searches for solutions and asks her listeners to provide their help (answers).

The most often used Wh-question is *when* and this somehow shows the interest that our women have when finding answers and, above all, solutions to urgent problems. The last two places in Figure 15 are occupied by *who* and *which,* respectively. In other words, the important question for them is to know *when* things are going to change, not *who* or *which* will cause or bring about that change. They do not care about the people or things triggering the evolution and improvements in women's rights, they want to know at which moment the equality between men and women is going to be achieved

If we attend to our first social variable, developed vs. developing countries, the results are as illustrated in Table 10:

Table 10. Wh-questions per sort of country

Sort of country	Causative subordination (tokens)	Causative subordination (nf)
Developed countries	368	3.37
Developing countries	254	2.85

Once more, as happened with causative subordination, the results show that women from developed countries use more Wh-questions, both in terms of raw numbers and normalized frequencies. It seems they can assume more risks, they are not afraid of raising questions and asking for answers. That could be due to the fact they are not used to having fear of speaking in

public and expressing their needs. On the other hand, women representing developing countries might try to talk in a similar way to those used by women in their countries; they want to be seen by their countrywomen as one of them. They alter their expression because they are in an international Forum talking to a globalised audience, and they do this so that the women they represent and, above all, fight for can feel part of their discourse.

If we observe the distribution of the elements in this feature according to the sort of organisation women represent, results are as follows:

Table 11. Wh-questions per sort of organisation

Sort of organisation	Causative subordination (tokens)	Causative subordination (nf)
Government	421	3.22
Inter-governmental organisation	102	2.77
Non-governmental organisation	99	3.21

According to their use of these linguistic resources, representatives of non-governmental organisations are in the group of those most involved in their discourse, once more with results very similar to those of representatives of governments. It seems as if, regardless their origins, the group of inter-governmental organisations are more objective (that is, they show more detachment) whereas the other two groups are more subjective (or involved).

4.5. Possibility Modals

Biber (1988: 241) classifies modals in three groups: possibility modals, those marking permission, possibility or ability; necessity modals, expressing obligation or necessity; and predictive modals, indicating volition or prediction. On their part, Quirk et al. (1985: 219) define modality as the manner in which the meaning of a clause is qualified so as to reflect the speaker's judgment of the likelihood of the proposition it expresses being true. We can interpret then that speakers are expressing their own opinion, that is, they are being

subjective. That is the reason why Biber includes possibility modal verbs as one of the features in his Dimension 1. Subjectivity always implies more engagement (involvement). The more possibility modals are found in a text, the more involved authors are with the text.
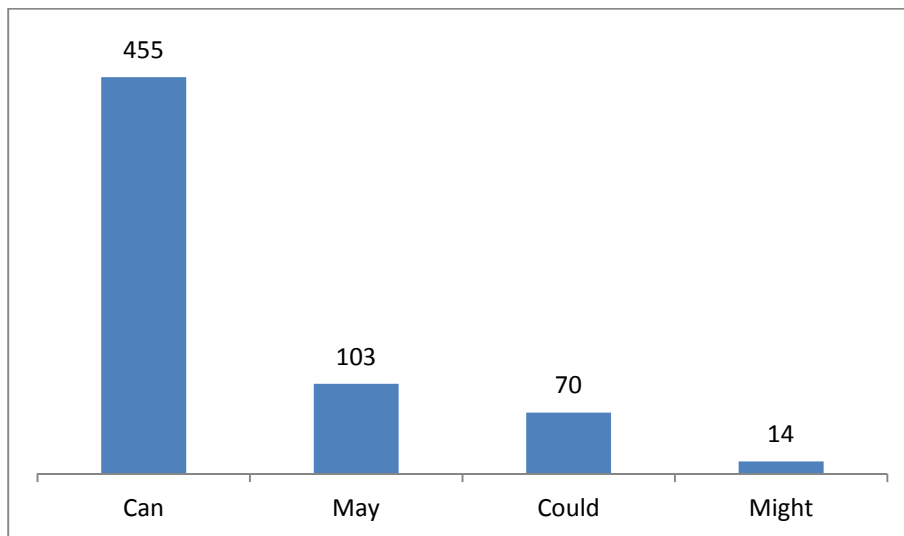
Figure 17. Possibility modals

Figure 17 shows the occurrences of possibility modals found in our corpus (total of 642), before providing the detailed results per sort of country (Table 12) and per sort of organisation (Table 13). These possibility modals are often called paired modals (*can-could* / *may-might*), being the second in the pair the past of the first form when reported speech is used. But the second modal of each couple has also got a meaning of its own, with the first ones indicating higher likelihood (*can/may*) and the last ones expressing lower likelihood (*could/might*).

The most frequent form in this feature is *can*, followed by *may*. The paired forms of these verbs occupy the third and fourth places, respectively. As explained in the previous paragraph, *can* is used to refer to something that is generally possible, expressing specific possibilities, whereas in the other extreme *might* shows the lowest level of confidence that something happens. The fact that the order in the number of occurrences of these four modal verbs goes from the most likely to the less probable might indicate that women express in their statements

their trust in what they are telling becomes true. They are engaged with their messages and they want to express their confidence in achieving an improvement

Table 12. Possibility modals per sort of country

Sort of country	Causative subordination (tokens)	Causative subordination (nf)
Developed countries	402	3.68
Developing countries	240	2.69

The results show again a higher figure for the use of modals by women from developed countries than by women from developing countries. The reason for this might be based on the fact that women from developed countries consider it more possible to achieve their target in question; in their world changes are possible. Conversely, in the case of women from developing countries, obstacles to be faced often seem to be insurmountable; the likelihood that things can be modified is considered as a distant objective, often out of their reach.

Table 13. Possibility modals per sort of organisation

Sort of organisation	Causative subordination (tokens)	Causative subordination (nf)
Government	411	3.15
Inter-governmental organisation	142	3.86
Non-governmental organisation	89	2.89

In the analysis of this last feature (*possibility modals*) we obtain a result as regards sort of organisation, different from the results obtained when we analyse the other four features. Our observation of raw numbers may be misleading since it seems that women representing governments are the ones who use this involvement feature more often. However, a look at normalized frequencies show that, for the first time, the speeches by women representing inter-governmental organisations contain the highest proportion (3.86 in nf), different from the results

obtained for the other two groups. In the other four of our five features (*private verbs, first and second person pronouns, causative subordination* and *Wh-questions*) the groups of governments and non-governmental organisations present higher normalized frequencies than the group of inter-governmental organisations. This might mean that the first and third group, governments and non-governmental organisations, respectively, have more things in common between them than with the second group, inter-governmental organisations.

4.6. General view of the analysis of the five features

After having analysed the five features and before presenting our final remarks, we would like to provide some general considerations about the results obtained.
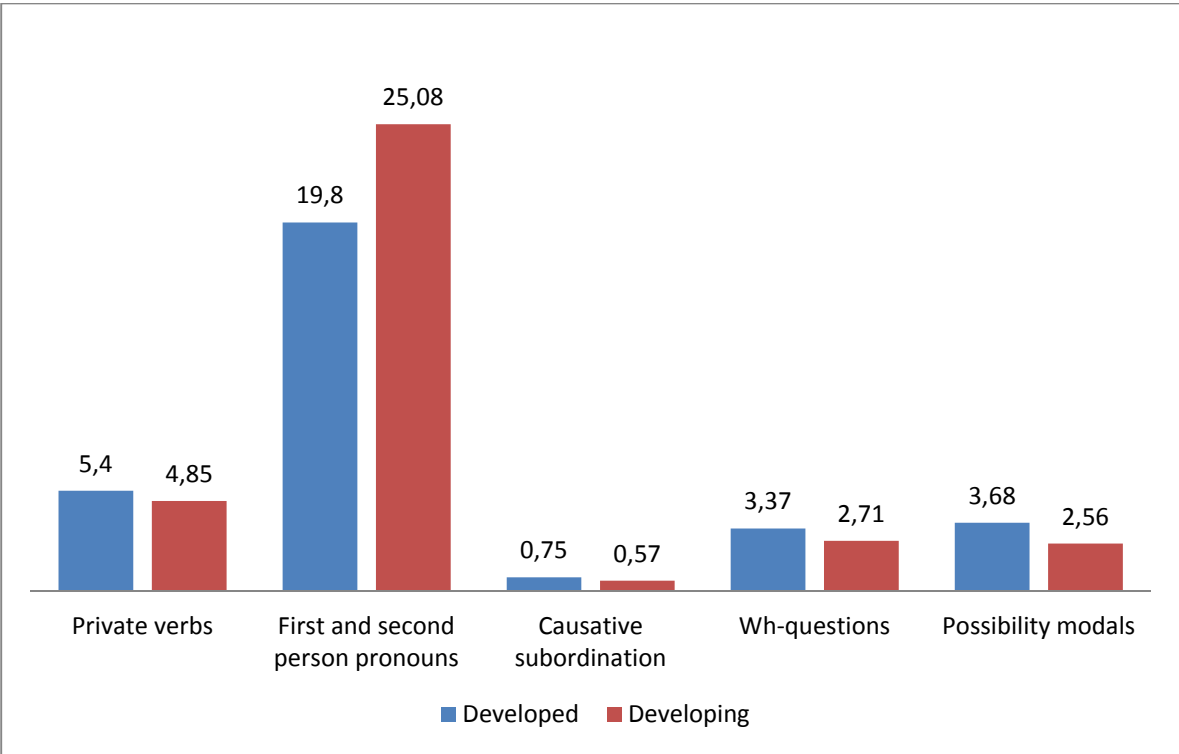
Figure 18. Results for all features per sort of country

Figure 18 gives us a general view of these results according to the sort of country. The analysis of the features related to Biber's Dimension 1, *Involved versus Informational production*, shows that first and second person pronouns is the feature most frequently used by women whose

speeches form our corpus and it is only in this feature that the figure obtained is higher in statements by women representing developing countries. That is something we expected since, as we had already mentioned in previous sections, all speeches are full of personal references, referring directly to the speakers themselves as well as to the addressees.

On the other hand, the feature less frequently used is causative subordination. Women in our corpus want to send a simple and direct message to their listeners and to the whole world. They do not overuse of subordination (causative in this specific case) as the information they transmit has to be organised in a way that everybody, or at least as many people as possible, can understand it.

The differences in the other features are not as relevant. Considering these results, we should bear in mind that all the texts included in the corpus have been created for a specific occasion and around an explicit topic, implying an important level of involvement by all the participants, regardless of their origin or organisation.

Figure 19 also provides a general view of the results according to our second variable for this study, that is, the sort of organisation women belong to.
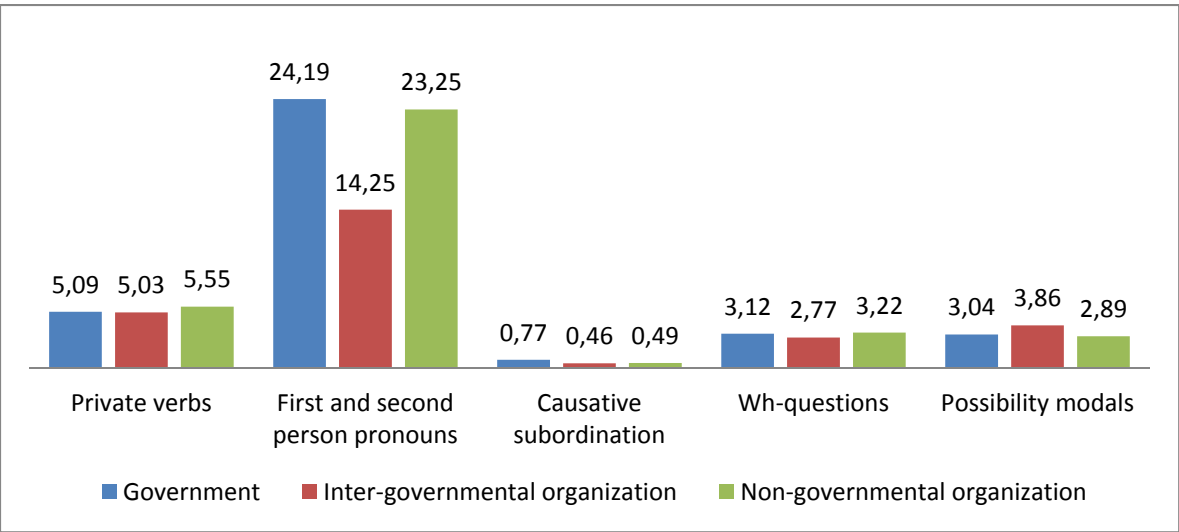
Figure 19. Results for all features per organisation

In sight of these results, figures for government and non-governmental organisations are higher in four of the features (5.09/5.55 versus 5.03 in the first feature; 24.19/23.25 versus 14.25 in the analysis of first and second person pronouns; 0.77/0.49 versus 0.46 in the case of causative subordination; and 3.12/3.22 versus 2.77 for the results of Wh-questions) than figures for inter-governmental organisations. On the contrary, in the last feature (*possibility modals*) the results are different (3.04/2.89 versus 3.86), with a higher score for inter-governmental organisations.

As implicit in their own names, inter-governmental organisations include among their partners several governments representing more than one country and they are established by means of a common treaty after a ratification process. Conversely, non-governmental organisation are mostly funded by foundations, private companies or even private persons; they do not depend on governments, either political or economically, and that gives them more freedom to express their opinions. On the other hand, governments belong to an individual country, they do not have to give explanations about their statements to colleagues from other countries and that also allows them to act in a more independent way.

5. Final remarks

The analysis of the five linguistic features related to the level of involvement versus informational production in our corpus reveals that first and second person pronouns are the most frequent feature used by our women, regardless of their origin or the institution they belong to. The fact that the feature of first and second person pronouns is the one most frequently found in our texts imply the general high level of involvement of all the women. Our findings denote that they are part of their discourse, the protagonists together with all the women present and all the women in the world.

As justified in the previous section, among the features analysed, we consider first and second person pronouns as the one more clearly linked to involvement and, attending to our classification, the group of women from developing countries present a higher level of involvement (25.08 versus 19.8), which confirms our initial thesis statement.

As regards the organism they represent, differences might be not that evident in this case; although it is truth that non-governmental representative show a high level of involvement in two of the five features (private verbs and Wh-questions), the same happens with representatives from governments (in the features of first and second person pronouns and causative subordination). Once more we have to insist on the fact that similarities between the groups are more than divergences and for this reason, attending to the organisation, their level of involvement is quite similar, especially between delegates from governments and non-governmental organisations.

The findings in our paper seem to prove that, although the way that authors express their ideas is the result of several factors, from genre issues to cultural environment, economic framework or social situation, the rhetorical patterns of speakers are mostly influenced by the personal identity and background. In this sense, it would be interesting to find out how these same features appear in men's speeches in a similar situation in order to establish a comparison based on genre. But that is perhaps matter for future research.

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APPENDIX 1: List of statements included in the corpus

COUNTRY / ORGANISATION	FILE NAME	ORGANISATION TYPE	STATEMENT BY	DEVELOPED / DEVELOPING	WORD TOKENS	WORD TYPES
African Women's Development and Communication Network	DEVING-NGO-AWDCN01	Non-governmental organization	Sarah Longwe	Developing	485	233
All India Women's Conference	DEVING-NGO-AIWC01	Non-governmental organization	Shobhana Ranade	Developing	469	245
American Council for Voluntary International Action	DEVED-NGO-ACVIA01	Non-governmental organization	Suzanne Kindervatter	Developed	1430	555
Antigua-Barbuda	DEVED-GOV-ANTIGUABARBUDA01	Government	Gwen Tongue	Developed	1185	482
Argentina	DEVING-GOV-ARGENTINA01	Government	Zelmira Regazzoli	Developing	2589	983
Australia	DEVED-GOV-AUSTRALIA01	Government	Carmen Lawrence	Developed	1719	594
Austria	DEVED-GOV-AUSTRIA01	Government	Helga Konrad	Developed	2338	742
Azerbaijan	DEVING-GOV-AZERBAIJAN01	Government	Fatma Abdullazade	Developing	1277	483
Bahamas	DEVED-GOV-BAHAMAS01	Government	Janet G. Bostwick	Developed	1517	611
Bangladesh	DEVING-GOV-BANGLADESH01	Government	Bismillahim Rahmanir Rahim	Developing	6874	1754
Belgium	DEVED-GOV-BELGIUM01	Government	Queen Fabiola	Developed	1719	639
Belize	DEVED-GOV-BELIZE01	Government	Faith Babb	Developed	1353	539
Bosnia and Herzegovina	DEVING-GOV-BOSNIA01	Government	Jasna Baksic-Muftic	Developing	1245	491
Brahma Kumaris World Spiritual University	DEVING-NGO-BKDU01	Non-governmental organization	Dada Janki	Developing	641	325
Brazil	DEVING-GOV-BRAZIL01	Government	Ruth Cardoso	Developing	1423	579
Cambodia	DEVING-GOV-CAMBODIA01	Government	Norodom Marie Ranariddh	Developing	1192	516
Canada	DEVED-GOV-CANADA01	Government	Sheila Finestone	Developed	1224	457

COUNTRY / ORGANISATION	FILE NAME	ORGANISATION TYPE	STATEMENT BY	DEVELOPED / DEVELOPING	WORD TOKENS	WORD TYPES
Centre for International Cooperation	DEVING-NGO-CIC01	Non-governmental organization	Pauline E. Tangiora	Developing	802	371
Centre for Women's Global Leadership	DEVED-NGO-CWGL01	Non-governmental organization	Alda Facio	Developed	1328	522
Chile	DEVED-GOV-CHILE01	Government	Josefina Bilbao	Developed	2083	762
China	DEVING-GOV-CHINA01	Government	Peng Peiyun	Developing	1477	516
Comisión de la Mujer del Parlamento Latinoamericano	DEVING-INTERGOV-CMPL01	Inter-governmental organization	Haydee Milanes de Lay	Developing	1736	669
Commission on Global Governance	DEVED-NGO-CGG01	Non-governmental organization	Wangari Maathai	Developed	857	383
Committee for Asian Women	DEVING-NGO-CAW01	Non-governmental organization	Shum Yum Sham	Developing	1820	604
Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women	DEVED-INTERGOV-CEDAW01	Inter-governmental organization	Ivanka Corti	Developed	2126	775
Croatia	DEVED-GOV-CROATIA01	Government	Katica Ivanisevic	Developed	2542	636
Cuba	DEVING-GOV-CUBA01	Government	Vilma Espin Guillois	Developing	2529	882
Denmark	DEVED-GOV-DENMARK01	Government	Karen Jespersen	Developed	1185	452
Disabled People's International	DEVED-NGO-DPI01	Non-governmental organization	Maria Rantho	Developed	904	307
Division for Economic Cooperation among Developing Countries and Special Programmes	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNCTAD01	Inter-governmental organization	Chafika Meslem	Developed	2450	779
Ecuador	DEVING-GOV-ECUADOR01	Government	Josefina Vallalobos de Duran Ballen	Developing	1160	491
Egypt	DEVING-GOV-EGYPT01	Government	Suzanne Mubarak	Developing	2740	923
Eritrea	DEVING-GOV-ERITREA01	Government	Askulu Menkeiros	Developing	1027	475
Estonia	DEVED-GOV-ESTONIA01	Government	Siiri Oviir	Developed	1637	598

COUNTRY / ORGANISATION	FILE NAME	ORGANISATION TYPE	STATEMENT BY	DEVELOPED / DEVELOPING	WORD TOKENS	WORD TYPES
Ethiopia	DEVING-GOV-ETHIOPIA01	Government	Tadellech Hailemichael	Developing	987	415
European Union	DEVED-INTERGOV-UE01	Inter-governmental organization	Cristina Alberdi	Developed	1867	623
Family Life Counselling	DEVING-NGO-FLC01	Non-governmental organization	Margaret Ogola	Developing	807	386
Fiji	DEVING-GOV-FIJI01	Government	Seruwaia Houng-Tiy	Developing	2074	738
Finland	DEVED-GOV-FINLAND01	Government	Tarja Halonen	Developed	1047	429
France	DEVED-GOV-FRANCE01	Government	Colette Codiaccioni	Developed	1706	601
Gambia	DEVING-GOV-GAMBIA01	Government	Tuti Faal-Jammeh	Developing	833	368
Germany	DEVED-GOV-GERMANY01	Government	Claudia Nolte	Developed	990	419
Global Network of Women in Politics	DEVED-NGO-GNWP01	Non-governmental organization	Remedios Rikken	Developed	664	278
Grassroots Organizations Operating Together in Sisterhood	DEVING-NGO-GROOTS01	Non-governmental organization	Nandini Azad	Developing	1316	606
Guyana	DEVING-GOV-GUYANA01	Government	Indra Chandarpal	Developing	1357	511
Holy See	DEVED-GOV-HOLYSEE01	Government	Mary Ann Glendon	Developed	3081	923
Iceland	DEVED-GOV-ICELAND01	Government	Vigdis Finnbogadottir	Developed	1586	623
Indonesia	DEVING-GOV-INDONESIA01	Government	Mien Sugandhi	Developing	832	352
Inter-American Development Bank	DEVED-INTERGOV-IDB01	Inter-governmental organization	Nancy Birdsall	Developed	2651	758
International Atomic Energy Agency	DEVED-INTERGOV-IAEA01	Inter-governmental organization	Joyce Amenta	Developed	1697	635
International Coalition on Women and Credit	DEVED-NGO-ICWC01	Non-governmental organization	Ms. Barry	Developed	877	319
International Committee of the Red Cross	DEVED-INTERGOV-ICRC01	Inter-governmental organization	Renée Guisan	Developed	780	356

COUNTRY / ORGANISATION	FILE NAME	ORGANISATION TYPE	STATEMENT BY	DEVELOPED / DEVELOPING	WORD TOKENS	WORD TYPES
International Cooperative Alliance	DEVED-NGO-ICA01	Non-governmental organization	Raija Itkonen	Developed	755	329
International Federation of Agricultural Producers	DEVED-NGO-IFAP01	Non-governmental organization	Randi Braathe	Developed	648	305
International Federation of University Women	DEVED-NGO-IFUW01	Non-governmental organization	Elizabeth Poskitt	Developed	584	248
International Gay and Lesbian Human Rights Commission	DEVED-NGO-IGL01	Non-governmental organization	Palesa Ditsie	Developed	670	293
International Human Rights Law Group	DEVED-NGO-IHRLG01	Non-governmental organization	Hina Jilani	Developed	671	297
International Labour Office	DEVED-INTERGOV-ILO01	Inter-governmental organization	Mary Chinere-Hese	Developed	1585	614
International Maritime Organization	DEVED-INTERGOV-IMO01	Inter-governmental organization	Monica N. Mbanefo	Developed	1099	410
International Monetary Fund	DEVED-INTERGOV-IMF01	Inter-governmental organization	K. Burke Dillon	Developed	1289	541
International Organization for Migration	DEVED-INTERGOV-IOM01	Inter-governmental organization	Narcisal Escaler	Developed	3901	1089
International Planned Parenthood Federation	DEVED-NGO-IPPF01	Non-governmental organization	Ingar Brueggeman	Developed	687	320
International Right to Life Federation	DEVED-NGO-IRLF01	Non-governmental organization	Jeanne Head	Developed	963	407
Iran	DEVING-GOV-IRAN01	Government	Shahla Habibi	Developing	1292	517
Israel	DEVED-GOV-ISRAEL01	Government	Ora Namir	Developed	1027	444
Italy	DEVED-GOV-ITALY01	Government	Susana Agnelly	Developed	1401	579
Jamaica	DEVING-GOV-JAMAICA01	Government	Portia Simpson	Developing	1076	462
Jordan	DEVING-GOV-JORDANIA01	Government	Princess Basma Bint Talal	Developing	1393	590
Kenya	DEVING-GOV-KENYA01	Government	Nyiva Kitili Mwendwa	Developing	1864	657

COUNTRY / ORGANISATION	FILE NAME	ORGANISATION TYPE	STATEMENT BY	DEVELOPED / DEVELOPING	WORD TOKENS	WORD TYPES
Korea	DEVED-GOV-KOREA01	Government	Sohn Myoung Soon	Developed	1491	570
Kyrgyz Republic	DEVING-GOV-KYRGYZ01	Government	Roza Otunbayeva	Developing	1428	610
Latin American and Caribbean NGO Forum	DEVING-NGO-LACNF01	Non-governmental organization	Virginia Vargas	Developing	1156	429
Lesotho	DEVING-GOV-LESOTHO01	Government	Maneo Mokhele	Developing	1693	625
Liberia	DEVING-GOV-LIBERIA01	Government	Amelia A. Ward	Developing	1732	672
Macao	DEVED-GOV-MACAO01	Government	Ana Pérez	Developed	945	410
Malawi	DEVING-GOV-MALAWI01	Government	Edda Chitalo	Developing	1344	515
Malta	DEVED-GOV-MALTA01	Government	Giovanna Debono	Developed	1651	670
Mauritius	DEVING-GOV-MAURITIUS01	Government	Sheilabai Bappoo	Developing	1089	468
Mozambique	DEVING-GOV-MOZAMBIQUE01	Government	Alcinda De Abreu	Developing	1417	532
Namibia	DEVING-GOV-NAMIBIA01	Government	Netumbo Nandi-Ndaitwah	Developing	1188	456
National Council of Negro Women	DEVING-NGO-NCBW01	Non-governmental organization	Dorothy Height	Developing	1224	484
National Organisation of Arab-American Women	DEVED-NGO-NOAAW01	Non-governmental organization	Souad M. Al-Sabah	Developed	900	355
Nepal	DEVING-GOV-NEPAL01	Government	Sahana Pradhan	Developing	1759	711
Network of African Rural Women Associations	DEVING-NGO-NARWA01	Non-governmental organization	Bisi Ogunleye	Developing	911	362
Network Women and Development Europe	DEVED-NGO-NWDE01	Non-governmental organization	Helen O'Connell	Developed	691	330
New Zealand	DEVED-GOV-NEWZEALAND01	Government	Jenny Shipley	Developed	3765	1034
NGO Forum	DEVING-NGO-NGOF01	Non-governmental organization	Khunying Supatra Masdit	Developing	770	313
Nigeria	DEVING-GOV-NIGERIA01	Government	Maryam Sani Abacha	Developing	2462	830

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Nordic Council	DEVED-INTERGOV-NC01	Inter-governmental organization	Berit Brorby Larsen	Developed	970	423
Norway	DEVED-GOV-NORWAY01	Government	Grete Berget	Developed	1634	600
Norway	DEVED-GOV-NORWAY02	Government	Gro Harlem Brundtland	Developed	1718	648
Office of Human Resources Management of the United Nations Secretariat	DEVED-INTERGOV-OHRM01	Inter-governmental organization	Angela King	Developed	1967	655
Older Women's Network	DEVED-NGO-OWN01	Non-governmental organization	Betty Johnson	Developed	445	209
Organization of African Unity	DEVING-INTERGOV-OAU01	Inter-governmental organization	Victoria Oku	Developing	1174	464
Organization of American States	DEVED-INTERGOV-OAS01	Inter-governmental organization	Dilma Quezada Martínez	Developed	1775	650
Pakistan	DEVING-GOV-PAKISTAN01	Government	Benazir Bhutto	Developing	2957	953
Pakistan	DEVING-GOV-PAKISTAN02	Government	Shahnaz Wazir Ali	Developing	1401	564
Panama	DEVING-GOV-PANAMA01	Government	Dora Boyd de Pérez Balladares	Developing	1145	473
Peru	DEVING-GOV-PERU01	Government	Martha Chavez Cossio de Ocampo	Developing	1278	514
Philippines	DEVING-GOV-PHILIPINES01	Government	Leticia Ramos-Shahani	Developing	2358	799
Portugal	DEVED-GOV-PORTUGAL01	Government	Manuela Ferreira Leite	Developed	1171	469
San Marino	DEVED-GOV-SANMARINO01	Government	Emma Rossi	Developed	2146	779
Slovak Republic	DEVED-GOV-SLOVAK01	Government	Olga Keltosova	Developed	1638	560
Slovenia	DEVED-GOV-SLOVENIA01	Government	Vera Kozmik	Developed	1830	685
Somali Women's Trust	DEVING-NGO-SWT01	Non-governmental organization	Shamis Hussein	Developing	554	258

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South-Asian Association for Regional Cooperation	DEVING-NGO-SAARC01	Non-governmental organization	Smt. Basavarajeswari	Developing	844	337
Sri Lanka	DEVING-GOV-SRILANKA01	Government	Srimani Athulathmudali	Developing	1904	700
Sudan	DEVING-GOV-SUDAN01	Government	Mariam Osman Sir El Khatim	Developing	2358	835
Surinam	DEVING-GOV-SURINAM01	Government	Lissbeth Venetiaan-Vanenburg	Developing	1448	516
Sweden	DEVED-GOV-SWEDEN01	Government	Mona Sahlin	Developed	1343	499
Swiss Confederation	DEVED-GOV-SWISSCONFEDERATION01	Government	Ruth Reifuss	Developed	1285	519
Tanzania	DEVING-GOV-TANZANIA01	Government	Zakia Hamdani Meghji	Developing	1557	553
Tonga	DEVING-GOV-TONGA01	Government	Halaevalu Mata'aho	Developing	1401	535
Tunisia	DEVING-GOV-TUNISIA01	Government	Naziha Zarrouk	Developing	2481	879
Turkey	DEVING-GOV-TURKEY01	Government	Aysel Baikal	Developing	1886	663
Uganda	DEVING-GOV-UGANDA01	Government	Speciosa Wandira Kazibwe	Developing	1388	539
Unicef	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNICEF01	Inter-governmental organization	Carol Bellamy	Developed	1458	557
United Kingdom	DEVED-GOV-UNITEDKINGDOM01	Government	Chalker of Wallasey	Developed	2254	668
United Nations Development Fund for Women	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNIFEM01	Inter-governmental organization	Noeleen Heyzer	Developed	1031	436
United Nations Environment Programme	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNEP01	Inter-governmental organization	Elizabeth Dowdeswell	Developed	1916	756
United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNRWA01	Inter-governmental organization	Lamis Alami	Developed	2248	794
United Nations Volunteers	DEVED-INTERGOV-UNV01	Inter-governmental organization	Brenda Gael McSweeney	Developed	635	298

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United States	DEVED-GOV-USA01	Government	Hillary Clinton	Developed	2202	707
United States	DEVED-GOV-USA02	Government	Madeleine Allbright	Developed	1712	663
Uzbekistan	DEVING-GOV-UZBEKISTAN01	Government	Dilbar Gulamova	Developing	1360	496
Venezuela	DEVING-GOV-VENEZUELA01	Government	María Bello de Guzmán	Developing	1407	580
Vietnam	DEVING-GOV-VIETNAM01	Government	Nguyen Thi Binh	Developing	743	351
Vietnam	DEVING-GOV-VIETNAM02	Government	Truong My Hoa	Developing	2476	835
Women and Fisheries Network	DEVED-NGO-WFN01	Non-governmental organization	Gracie Fong	Developed	818	395
Women's Environment & Development Organisation	DEVED-NGO-WEDO01	Non-governmental organization	Bella Abzug	Developed	1180	493
Women's International League for Peace and Freedom	DEVED-NGO-WILPF01	Non-governmental organization	Edith Ballantine	Developed	776	345
World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts	DEVED-NGO-WAGG01	Non-governmental organization	Carolyn Watt	Developed	489	194
World Federation of Trade Unions	DEVED-NGO-WFTU01	Non-governmental organization	Bulu Rox Choudbury	Developed	1774	634
World Federation of United Nations Associations	DEVED-NGO-WFUNA01	Non-governmental organization	Hikka Pietela	Developed	882	371
World Food Programme	DEVED-INTERGOV-WFP01	Inter-governmental organization	Catherine Bertini	Developed	1037	402