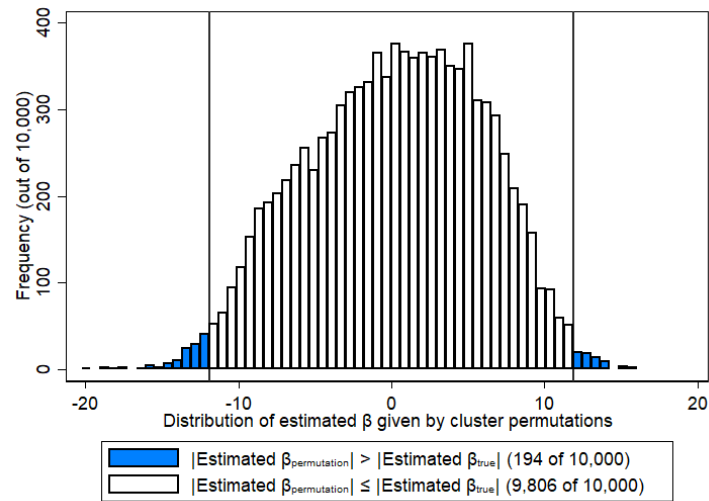


# ONLINE APPENDIX: not for print publication

## A Additional Tables and Figures

Figure A1: Permutation Tests

Panel A: Female Labor Force Participation



Panel B: Gender Difference in Labor Force Participation

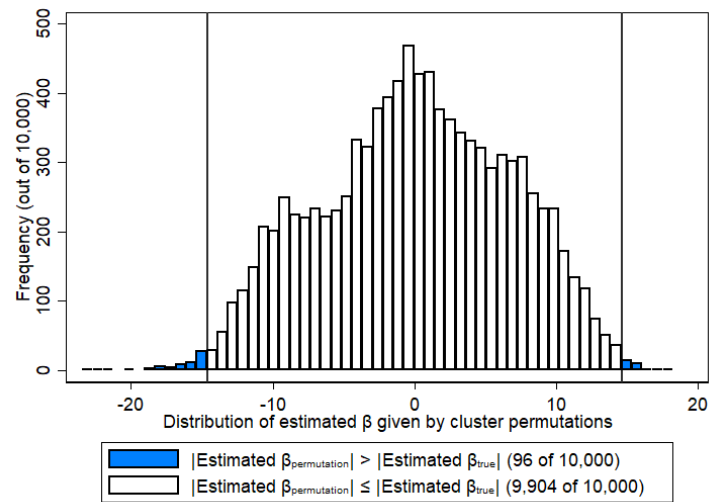


Table A1: Cross-Country Regressions of LFP Ratio

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	LFP <sub>ratio</sub>		
<i>Specification:</i>	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3)
Proportion speaking gender language	-0.16 (0.03) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.25 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.18 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]
Continent Fixed Effects	No	Yes	Yes
Country-Level Geography Controls	No	No	Yes
Observations	178	178	178
$R^2$	0.13	0.37	0.44

Robust standard errors are clustered by the most widely spoken language in all specifications; they are reported in parentheses. P-values are reported in square brackets. LFP<sub>ratio</sub> is the ratio of the percentage of women in the labor force, measured in 2011, to the percentage of men in the labor force. Geography controls are the percentage of land area in the tropics or subtropics, average yearly precipitation, average temperature, an indicator for being landlocked, and the Alesina *et al.* (2013) measure of suitability for the plough.

Table A2: Cross-Country Regressions of LFP — Including “Bad” Controls

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	LFP <sub>f</sub>	LFP <sub>f</sub> - LFP <sub>m</sub>
<i>Specification:</i>	OLS (1)	OLS (2)
Proportion speaking gender language	-6.66 (2.80) [ <i>p</i> < 0.001]	-10.42 (2.84) [ <i>p</i> < 0.001]
Continent Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes
Country-Level Geography Controls	Yes	Yes
Observations	176	176
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	0.57	0.68

Robust standard errors are clustered by the most widely spoken language in all specifications; they are reported in parentheses. P-values are reported in square brackets. LFP<sub>f</sub> is the percentage of women in the labor force, measured in 2011. LFP<sub>f</sub> - LFP<sub>m</sub> is the gender difference in labor force participation — i.e. the difference between female and male labor force participation, again measured in 2011. Geography controls are the percentage of land area in the tropics or subtropics, average yearly precipitation, average temperature, an indicator for being landlocked, and the Alesina *et al.* (2013) measure of suitability for the plough. Bad controls are log GDP per capita (in 2011), log population (in 2011), and the percentage Catholic, Protestant, other Christian, Muslim, and Hindu (taken from Alesina *et al.* 2013), and an indicator for former communist countries.

Table A3: Cross-Country Regressions of LFP — Dropping Major World Languages

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	LFP <sub>f</sub>			LFP <sub>f</sub> – LFP <sub>m</sub>		
	ARABIC	ENGLISH	SPANISH	ARABIC	ENGLISH	SPANISH
<i>Omitted Language:</i>						
<i>Specification:</i>	OLS	OLS	OLS	OLS	OLS	OLS
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Proportion speaking gender language	-6.18 (3.56) [0.085]	-12.33 (3.84) [0.002]	-10.10 (3.87) [0.010]	-9.09 (3.52) [0.011]	-15.31 (3.59) [ <i>p</i> < 0.001]	-11.31 (3.39) [0.001]
Continent Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country-Level Geography Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	159	167	160	159	167	160
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	0.21	0.34	0.37	0.31	0.49	0.51

Robust standard errors are clustered by the most widely spoken language in all specifications; they are reported in parentheses. P-values are reported in square brackets. LFP<sub>f</sub> is the percentage of women in the labor force, measured in 2011. LFP<sub>f</sub> – LFP<sub>m</sub> is the difference between male and female labor force participation in 2011. Geography controls are the percentage of land area in the tropics or subtropics, average yearly precipitation, average temperature, an indicator for being landlocked, and the Alesina *et al.* (2013) measure of suitability for the plough.

Table A4: Cross-Country Regressions of LFP — Weak vs. Strong Gender Categories

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	LFP <sub>f</sub>			LFP <sub>f</sub> - LFP <sub>m</sub>		
	<i>Specification:</i>	OLS	OLS	OLS	OLS	OLS
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Proportion speaking (any) gender language	-6.66 (2.54) [0.010]	-8.10 (3.63) [0.027]	-7.19 (3.91) [0.068]	4.29 (1.65) [0.010]	-5.59 (4.23) [0.189]	-5.77 (4.34) [0.185]
Proportion speaking dichotomous gender language	-10.58 (4.78) [0.029]	-11.62 (3.86) [0.003]	-6.57 (4.16) [0.116]	-23.44 (3.54) [ <i>p</i> < 0.001]	-16.13 (4.19) [ <i>p</i> < 0.001]	-12.35 (4.53) [0.007]
Continent Fixed Effects	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Country-Level Geography Controls	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Observations	178	178	178	178	178	178
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	0.19	0.27	0.33	0.30	0.46	0.50

Robust standard errors are clustered by the most widely spoken language in all specifications; they are reported in parentheses. P-values are reported in square brackets. LFP<sub>f</sub> is the percentage of women in the labor force, measured in 2011. LFP<sub>f</sub> - LFP<sub>m</sub> is the gender difference in labor force participation — i.e. the difference between female and male labor force participation, again measured in 2011. Geography controls are the percentage of land area in the tropics or subtropics, average yearly precipitation, average temperature, an indicator for being landlocked, and the Alesina *et al.* (2013) measure of suitability for the plough.

Table A5: OLS Regressions of African Women’s Labor Force Participation

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	IN LABOR FORCE		
<i>Specification:</i>	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3)
Native language is a gender language	-0.24 (0.05) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.20 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.18 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]
Country-Wave Fixed Effects	No	Yes	Yes
Individual Controls	No	No	Yes
Observations	13154	13154	13154
$R^2$	0.04	0.07	0.10

Robust standard errors clustered at the language level. The dependent variable is an indicator for being in the labor force (either working for a wage, self-employed, or actively seeking employment). Data is from Afrobarometer Rounds 2 through 5. The analysis includes data from Kenya, Niger, Nigeria, and Uganda; Niger was only added to the Afrobarometer in Round 5, while the other countries appear in all four rounds. Individual controls are age and age-squared and indicators for being identifying as Muslim, Catholic, Protestant, or another religion.

Table A6: OLS Regressions of Gender Differences in Labor Force Participation in Africa

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	IN LABOR FORCE		
<i>Specification:</i>	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3)
Female $\times$ gender language	-0.17 (0.05) [0.001]	-0.16 (0.05) [0.002]	-0.11 (0.05) [0.025]
Native language is a gender language	-0.08 (0.02) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.04 (0.02) [0.106]	-0.07 (0.03) [0.006]
Female	-0.08 (0.02) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.04 (0.02) [0.106]	-0.07 (0.03) [0.006]
Country-Wave Fixed Effects	No	Yes	Yes
Individual Controls	No	No	Yes
Observations	26328	26328	26328
$R^2$	0.04	0.07	0.12

Robust standard errors clustered at the language level. The dependent variable is an indicator for being in the labor force (either working for a wage, self-employed, or actively seeking employment). Data is from Afrobarometer Rounds 2 through 5. The analysis includes data from Kenya, Niger, Nigeria, and Uganda; Niger was only added to the Afrobarometer in Round 5, while the other countries appear in all four rounds. Individual controls are age and age-squared and indicators for being identifying as Muslim, Catholic, Protestant, or another religion, plus interactions between these controls and the female dummy.

Table A7: OLS Regressions of African Women's Educational Attainment

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	PRIMARY SCHOOL			SECONDARY SCHOOL		
<i>Specification:</i>	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3)	OLS (4)	OLS (5)	OLS (6)
Native language is a gender language	-0.31 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.30 (0.06) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.22 (0.05) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.19 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.23 (0.06) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.16 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]
Country-Wave Fixed Effects	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Individual Controls	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Observations	13142	13142	13142	13142	13142	13142
$R^2$	0.06	0.12	0.21	0.02	0.10	0.15

Robust standard errors clustered at the language level. The dependent variable is an indicator for being in the labor force (either working for a wage, self-employed, or actively seeking employment). Data is from Afrobarometer Rounds 2 through 5. The analysis includes data from Kenya, Niger, Nigeria, and Uganda; Niger was only added to the Afrobarometer in Round 5, while the other countries appear in all four rounds. Individual controls are age and age-squared and indicators for being identifying as Muslim, Catholic, Protestant, or another religion.



Table A8: OLS Regressions of Gender Differences in Educational Attainment in Africa

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	PRIMARY SCHOOL			SECONDARY SCHOOL		
<i>Specification:</i>	OLS	OLS	OLS	OLS	OLS	OLS
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Female × gender language	-0.12 (0.01) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.11 (0.01) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.11 (0.02) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.06 (0.01) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.06 (0.01) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.06 (0.02) [0.009]
Native language is a gender language	-0.19 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.17 (0.05) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.10 (0.04) [0.008]	-0.13 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.17 (0.05) []	-0.10 (0.03) [0.003]
Female	-0.19 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.17 (0.05) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.10 (0.04) [0.008]	-0.13 (0.04) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.17 (0.05) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.10 (0.03) [0.003]
Country-Wave Fixed Effects	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Individual Controls	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Observations	26294	26294	26294	26294	26294	26294
$R^2$	0.06	0.12	0.21	0.03	0.11	0.15

Robust standard errors clustered at the language level. The dependent variable is an indicator for being in the labor force (either working for a wage, self-employed, or actively seeking employment). Data is from Afrobarometer Rounds 2 through 5. The analysis includes data from Kenya, Niger, Nigeria, and Uganda; Niger was only added to the Afrobarometer in Round 5, while the other countries appear in all four rounds. Individual controls are age and age-squared and indicators for being identifying as Muslim, Catholic, Protestant, or another religion, plus interactions between these controls and the female dummy.

Table A9: OLS Regressions of Indian Women’s Labor Force Participation

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	IN LABOR FORCE	
<i>Specification:</i>	OLS (1)	OLS (2)
Native language is a gender language	-0.08 (0.07) [0.308]	-0.07 (0.07) [0.347]
Individual Controls	No	Yes
Observations	39895	39895
$R^2$	0.01	0.03

Robust standard errors clustered at the language level. The dependent variable is an indicator for being in the labor force (reporting one’s primary activity as agriculture, wage labor, self-employment, or salaried/professional work). Data is from India Human Development Survey-II (Desai, Dubey, and Vanneman 2015). Individual controls are age and age-squared and indicators for being identifying as Muslim, Christian, Sikh, or another religion.

Table A10: OLS Regressions of Gender Differences in Labor Force Participation in India

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	IN LABOR FORCE	
	OLS (1)	OLS (2)
<i>Specification:</i>		
Female $\times$ gender language	-0.10 (0.07) [0.171]	-0.08 (0.07) [0.232]
Native language is a gender language	0.02 (0.01) [0.131]	0.01 (0.01) [0.266]
Female	-0.56 (0.05) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.48 (0.05) [ $p < 0.001$ ]
Individual Controls	No	Yes
Observations	75966	75966
$R^2$	0.40	0.46

Robust standard errors clustered at the language level. The dependent variable is an indicator for being in the labor force (reporting one's primary activity as agriculture, wage labor, self-employment, or salaried/professional work). Data is from India Human Development Survey-II (Desai, Dubey, and Vanneman 2015). Individual controls are age and age-squared and indicators for being identifying as Muslim, Christian, Sikh, or another religion.

Table A11: OLS Regressions of Indian Women's Educational Attainment

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	PRIMARY SCHOOL		SECONDARY SCHOOL	
	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3)	OLS (4)
<i>Specification:</i>				
Native language is a gender language	-0.14 (0.06) [0.033]	-0.13 (0.06) [0.043]	-0.03 (0.02) [0.103]	-0.02 (0.02) [0.158]
Individual Controls	No	Yes	No	Yes
Observations	39895	39895	39895	39895
$R^2$	0.02	0.08	0.00	0.02

Robust standard errors clustered at the language level. The dependent variable is an indicator for being in the labor force (reporting one's primary activity as agriculture, wage labor, self-employment, or salaried/professional work). Data is from India Human Development Survey-II (Desai, Dubey, and Van-neman 2015). Individual controls are age and age-squared and indicators for being identifying as Muslim, Christian, Sikh, or another religion, plus interactions between these controls and the female dummy.

Table A12: OLS Regressions of Gender Differences in Educational Attainment in India

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	PRIMARY SCHOOL		SECONDARY SCHOOL	
	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3)	OLS (4)
<i>Specification:</i>				
Female $\times$ gender language	-0.13 (0.03) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.12 (0.03) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.03 (0.01) [0.027]	-0.03 (0.01) [0.022]
Native language is a gender language	-0.01 (0.04) [0.767]	-0.01 (0.04) [0.842]	0.00 (0.01) [0.957]	0.01 (0.01) [0.640]
Female	-0.11 (0.02) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	0.27 (0.05) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	-0.05 (0.01) [ $p < 0.001$ ]	0.08 (0.03) [0.004]
Individual Controls	No	Yes	No	Yes
Observations	75966	75966	75966	75966
$R^2$	0.05	0.09	0.02	0.03

Robust standard errors clustered at the language level. The dependent variable is an indicator for being in the labor force (reporting one's primary activity as agriculture, wage labor, self-employment, or salaried/professional work). Data is from India Human Development Survey-II (Desai, Dubey, and Vanmanan 2015). Individual controls are age and age-squared and indicators for being identifying as Muslim, Christian, Sikh, or another religion, plus interactions between these controls and the female dummy.

## B Conceptual Framework: Further Analysis and Proofs

### B.1 Educational Attainment

There are three possible equilibria: the M-equilibrium (school is a masculine domain), the N-equilibrium (school is not a gendered domain), and the F-equilibrium (school is a feminine domain). Each equilibrium is associated with a cost structure. For example, because school is a masculine domain in the M-equilibrium, girls face a psychic cost when they choose to go to school (but boys do not). The M-equilibrium only exists if the proportion of girls (as a share of all students) that results from that cost structure is below  $\lambda$ .

If it exists, the N-equilibrium is identical to the case discussed above (in the absence of grammatical gender). Since school is not seen as a gendered domain, boys and girls attend whenever the net return is greater than zero — i.e. whenever  $\gamma_i \geq \gamma^N = \gamma^*$  (where  $\gamma^*$  is the solution to  $R_g(\gamma^*) = 0$ , as discussed in Section 3.1) or  $\beta_i \geq \beta^N = \beta^*$ . Hence, the proportion of students who are female is equal to

$$P_{girls}^N = \frac{1 - F_\gamma(\gamma^*)}{2 - F_\beta(\beta^*) - F_\gamma(\gamma^*)}. \quad (1)$$

The N-equilibrium exists if and only if  $\lambda \leq P_{girls}^N \leq 1 - \lambda$ . In the N-equilibrium, the proportion of children attending school is  $1 - [F_\beta(\beta^*) + F_\gamma(\gamma^*)]/2$ .

School is considered a masculine domain if the proportion of students who are female is below  $\lambda$ . In this case, girls will only attend school if  $R_g(\gamma_i) > \phi$ . Define  $\gamma^M$  as the solution to  $R_g(\gamma_i) - \phi = 0$ . Since the return to education is increasing in ability,  $\gamma^M > \gamma^N$ . Girls with  $\gamma_i \geq \gamma^M$  will attend school whether or not school is perceived as a masculine domain, but those with  $\gamma_i \in (\gamma^N, \gamma^M)$  will only attend school when it is perceived as a feminine or neutral domain. The fact that school is perceived as masculine does not impact the net return to education for boys, so boys will (still) attend school whenever  $\beta_i \geq \beta^M = \beta^*$ . Hence in the M-equilibrium, the proportion of students who are female is:

$$P_{girls}^M = \frac{1 - F_\gamma(\gamma^M)}{2 - F_\beta(\beta^*) - F_\gamma(\gamma^M)}. \quad (2)$$

The M-equilibrium exists if and only if  $P_{girls}^M \leq \lambda$ . The proportion of children who attend school in the M-equilibrium is  $1 - [F_\beta(\beta^*) + F_\gamma(\gamma^M)]/2$ . Since  $F_\gamma(\gamma^M) > F_\gamma(\gamma^*)$ , fewer children attend school in the M-equilibrium than in the N-equilibrium. The F-equilibrium — in which school is a feminine domain — is defined symmetrically.

It is apparent that  $P_{girls}^M \leq P_{girls}^N \leq P_{girls}^F$ . Hence, multiple equilibria are possible whenever  $P_{girls}^M \leq \lambda \leq P_{girls}^N$  or  $P_{girls}^N \leq 1 - \lambda \leq P_{girls}^F$ . To see that at least one equilibrium always exists, first note that the N-equilibrium always exists if  $\lambda \leq P_{girls}^N \leq 1 - \lambda$ . If the N-equilibrium does not exist because  $\lambda > P_{girls}^N$ , then  $\lambda$  must also be greater than  $P_{girls}^M$  — so the M-equilibrium exists. Similarly, if the N-equilibrium does not exist because  $P_{girls}^N > 1 - \lambda$ , then  $1 - \lambda$  must also be less than  $P_{girls}^F$  — so the F-equilibrium exists.

### B.2 Labor Force Participation and the Division of Household Tasks

There are nine candidate equilibria to consider. Home and work can each be either masculine, neutral (non-gendered), or feminine. Each candidate equilibrium is a pair  $HW$  where

$H \in \{M, N, F\}$  characterizes the “home” environment and  $W \in \{M, N, F\}$  characterizes the “work” environment. So, the NN equilibrium would be one in which neither home nor work is perceived as a gendered domain, whereas the FM equilibrium would be one in which the home environment is perceived as feminine and the work environment is perceived as masculine.

Figure B1: Candidate Equilibria When Domains Can Be Gendered

		Work		
		Feminine	Neutral	Masculine
Home	Feminine	FF	FN	FM
	Neutral	NF	NN	NM
	Masculine	MF	MN	MM

For each candidate equilibrium  $HW$ , we define  $P_{mom}^{HW}$ ,  $P_{dad}^{HW}$ , and  $P_{nanny}^{HW}$  as the proportion of households where (respectively) the mother, the father, or a nanny stays home with the children.  $P_{mom}^{HW} + P_{dad}^{HW} + P_{nanny}^{HW} = 1$ . We then define  $Q_{home}^{HW} = P_{mom}^{HW} + P_{nanny}^{HW}$  as the proportion of households where the person (at home) taking care of the children is female. In equilibrium, home is perceived as a masculine domain if  $Q_{home}^{HW} < \lambda$ , and home is perceived as a feminine domain if  $Q_{home}^{HW} > 1 - \lambda$ . We define

$$Q_{work}^{HW} = \frac{P_{dad}^{HW} + P_{nanny}^{HW}}{1 + P_{nanny}^{HW}}$$

as the proportion of the out-of-home workforce that is female (note that households that hire a nanny send both a man and a woman into the out-of-home labor force, while other households send either a man or a woman). Work is perceived as a masculine domain whenever  $Q_{work}^{HW} < \lambda$ ; it is perceived as a deminine domain whenever  $Q_{work}^{HW} > 1 - \lambda$ .

We begin by documenting a useful algebraic inequality that we will invoke repeatedly in our subsequent exposition. Trivial as it is, we label this inequality to avoid unnecessary repetition in our proofs and discussion.

**Inequality 1.** For any  $a \in (0, 1)$  and  $b > 0$ ,  $a < (a + b)/(1 + b)$ .

A direct consequence of Inequality 1 is that  $P_{dad}^{HW} < Q_{work}^{HW}$ : the proportion of households

where the father is responsible for childcare is lower than the proportion of women in the out-of-home workforce. This follows from the definition of  $Q_{work}^{HW}$  above.

In our first set of results, we show that three of the candidate equilibria — NM, MN, and MF — cannot exist. As the lemmas below demonstrate, this does not depend on the strength of the inclination to partition the world into masculine and feminine domains ( $\lambda$ ) or the magnitude of the cost of entering a domain dominated by the opposite sex ( $\phi$ ).

**Lemma 1.** *If home is masculine, then work must be feminine.*

*Proof.* Home is perceived as masculine if and only if  $Q_{home}^{HW} < \lambda$ . This places bounds on the feasible range of values of  $Q_{work}^{HW}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{home}^{HW} < \lambda &\Leftrightarrow P_{mom}^{HW} + P_{nanny}^{HW} < \lambda \\ &\Leftrightarrow 1 - P_{dad}^{HW} < \lambda \\ &\Leftrightarrow P_{dad}^{HW} > 1 - \lambda \\ &\Rightarrow Q_{work}^{HW} > 1 - \lambda \end{aligned}$$

with the last step following immediately from Inequality 1 and the definition of  $Q_{work}^{HW}$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 2.** *If work is masculine, then home must be feminine.*

*Proof.* Work is masculine if and only if  $Q_{work}^{HW} < \lambda$ . Inequality 1 tells us that  $Q_{work}^{HW} > P_{dad}^{HW}$ , so  $P_{dad}^{HW} < \lambda$  or, equivalently,  $1 - P_{dad}^{HW} = P_{mom}^{HW} + P_{nanny}^{HW} = Q_{home}^{HW} > 1 - \lambda$ .  $\square$

Lemma 1 and Lemma 2 prove that the MN, MM, and NM equilibria cannot exist. In our next piece of analysis, we will demonstrate that an equilibrium always exists and the multiple equilibria are possible. Before doing so, we introduce some additional notation. Partition the  $\gamma \times \beta$  space into 13 regions  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l$ , and  $m$ , as in Figure B2. For capital letters  $Z = A, B, C, \dots M$ , define  $Z$  as the integral of  $f_{\gamma,\beta}(\gamma, \beta)$  over the region  $z$ . So,

$$A = \int_{\beta=w_n-\frac{\phi}{2}}^{\beta=w_n+\phi} \int_{\gamma=0}^{\gamma=\beta-2\phi} f_{\beta,\gamma}(\beta, \gamma) + \int_{\beta=w_n+\phi}^{\beta=\beta^{max}} \int_{\gamma=0}^{\gamma=w_n-\phi} f_{\beta,\gamma}(\beta, \gamma) \quad (3)$$

is the integral of  $f_{\gamma,\beta}(\gamma, \beta)$  over the region  $a$ , and

$$B = \int_{\beta=w_n+\phi}^{\beta=\beta^{max}} \int_{\gamma=w_n-\phi}^{\gamma=w_n} f_{\beta,\gamma}(\beta, \gamma) \quad (4)$$

is the integral of  $f_{\gamma,\beta}(\gamma, \beta)$  over  $b$ .

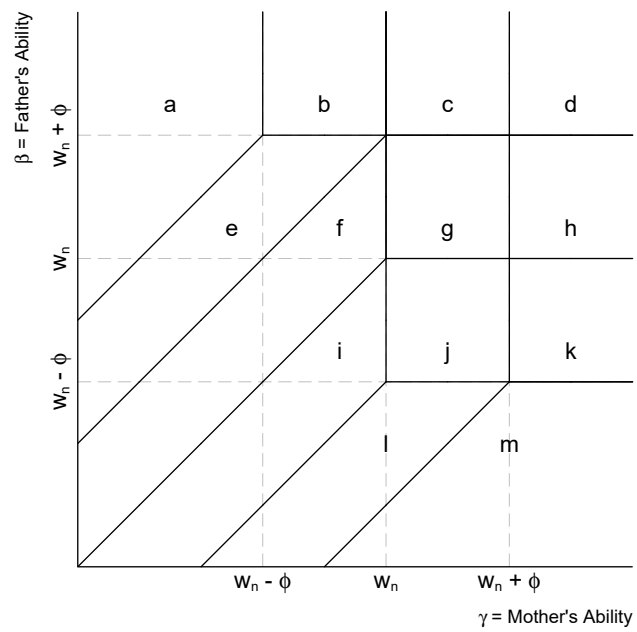
Note that for any  $f_{\gamma,\beta}(\gamma, \beta)$ ,

$$A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H + I + J + K + L + M = 1. \quad (5)$$

Moreover, for every candidate equilibrium  $HW$ , the proportion of households where a woman does the childcare,  $Q_{home}^{HW}$ , and the proportion of the workforce that is female,  $Q_{work}^{HW}$ , can be expressed in terms of  $A, B, C$ , etc. Before presenting our existence proof, we characterize  $P_{mom}^{HW}$ ,  $P_{dad}^{HW}$ ,  $P_{nanny}^{HW}$ ,  $Q_{home}^{HW}$ , and  $Q_{work}^{HW}$  for each of the six possible equilibria.

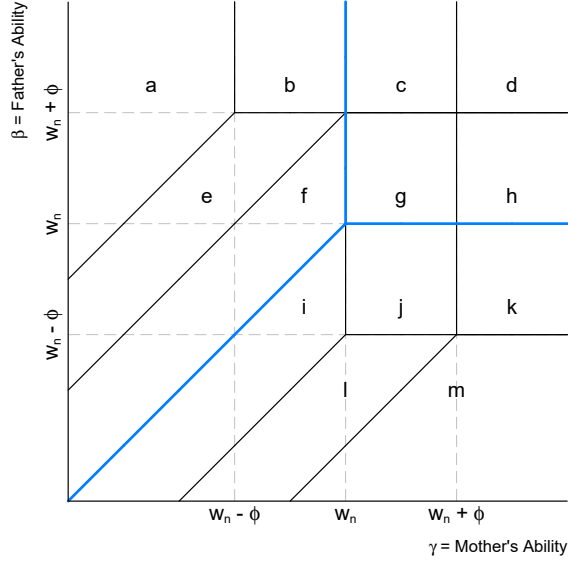


Figure B2: Labor Force Participation when Domains Are Not Gendered



## 1. The FF equilibrium: home is feminine and work is feminine

Figure B3: The FF Equilibrium



In this equilibrium, the payoffs are:  $\beta_i - \phi$  if mom stays home,  $\gamma_i - \phi$  if dad stays home,  $\beta_i + \gamma_i - \phi - w_n$  if the household hires a nanny. So, the household hires a nanny whenever  $\beta_i > w_n$  and  $\gamma_i > w_n$ . The mom stays at home whenever  $\beta_i > \gamma_i$  and  $\gamma_i < w_n$ . The dad stays at home whenever  $\beta_i < \gamma_i$  and  $\beta_i < w_n$ .<sup>1</sup> As shown in Figure B3:

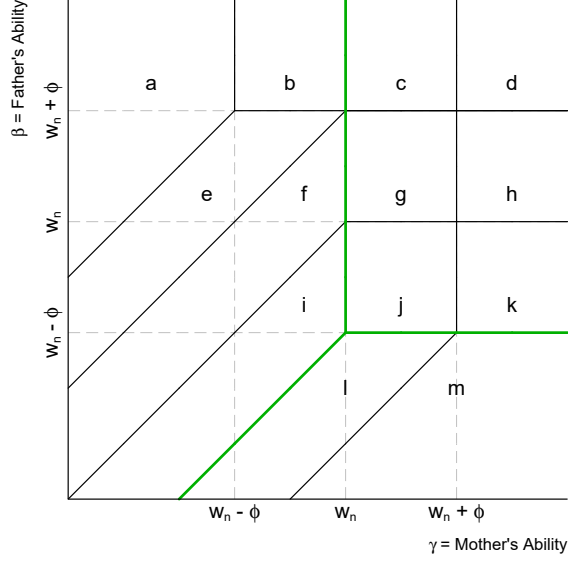
- $P_{mom}^{FF} = A + B + E + F$
- $P_{nanny}^{FF} = C + D + G + H$
- $P_{dad}^{FF} = I + J + K + L + M$
- $Q_{home}^{FF} = A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H$
- $Q_{work}^{FF} = \frac{C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H}$

The FF equilibrium exists if and only if  $Q_{home}^{FF} > 1 - \lambda$  and  $Q_{work}^{FF} > 1 - \lambda$ .

<sup>1</sup>Note that these are identical to the regions we observe in the “no gendered domains” equilibrium — it is just a question of where the implied proportions female end up relative to  $1 - \lambda$ .

## 2. The FN equilibrium: home is feminine and work is neutral

Figure B4: The FN Equilibrium



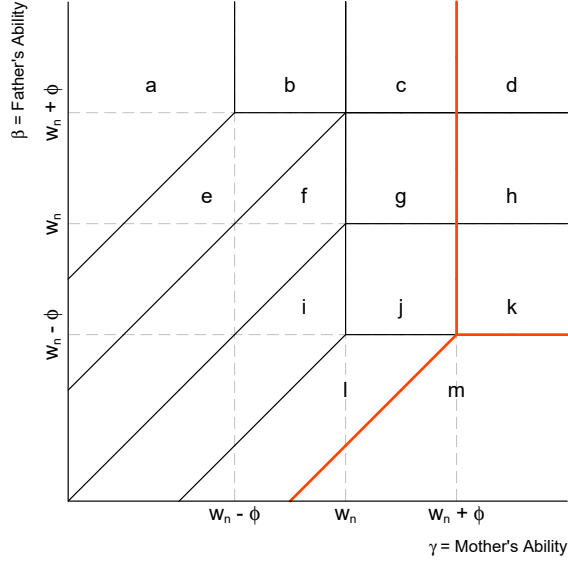
In this equilibrium, the payoffs are:  $\beta_i$  if mom stays home,  $\gamma_i - \phi$  if dad stays home,  $\beta_i + \gamma_i - w_n$  if the household hires a nanny. So, the household hires a nanny whenever  $\beta_i > w_n - \phi$  and  $\gamma_i > w_n$ . The mom stays at home whenever  $\beta_i > \gamma_i - \phi$  and  $\gamma_i < w_n$ . The dad stays at home whenever  $\beta_i < \gamma_i - \phi$  and  $\beta_i < w_n - \phi$ . As shown in Figure B4:

- $P_{mom}^{FN} = A + B + E + F + I$
- $P_{nanny}^{FN} = C + D + G + H + J + K$
- $P_{dad}^{FN} = L + M$
- $Q_{home}^{FN} = A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H + I + J + K$
- $Q_{work}^{FN} = \frac{C + D + G + H + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H + J + K}$

The FN equilibrium exists if and only if  $Q_{home}^{FN} > 1 - \lambda$  and  $\lambda < Q_{work}^{FN} > 1 - \lambda$ .

### 3. The FM equilibrium: home is feminine and work is masculine

Figure B5: The FM Equilibrium



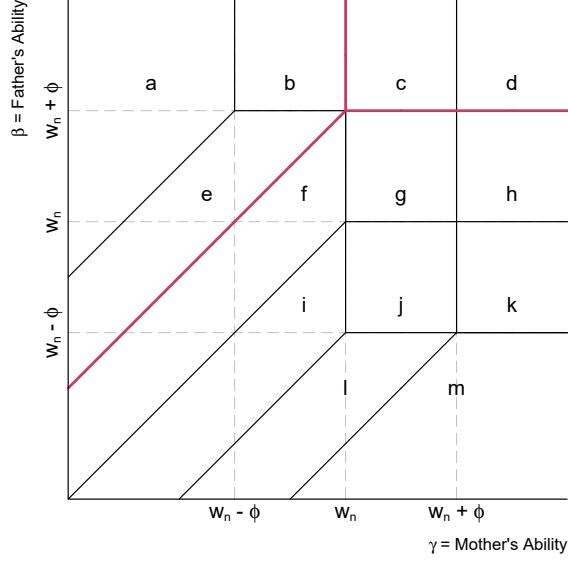
In this equilibrium, the payoffs are:  $\beta_i$  if mom stays home,  $\gamma_i - 2\phi$  if dad stays home,  $\beta_i + \gamma_i - \phi - w_n$  if the household hires a nanny. So, the household hires a nanny whenever  $\beta_i > w_n - \phi$  and  $\gamma_i > w_n + \phi$ . The mom stays at home whenever  $\beta_i > \gamma_i - 2\phi$  and  $\gamma_i < w_n + \phi$ . The dad stays at home whenever  $\beta_i < \gamma_i - 2\phi$  and  $\beta_i < w_n - \phi$ . As shown in Figure B5:

- $P_{mom}^{FM} = A + B + C + E + F + G + I + J + L$
- $P_{nanny}^{FM} = D + H + K$
- $P_{dad}^{FM} = M$
- $Q_{home}^{FM} = A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H + I + J + K + L = 1 - M$
- $Q_{work}^{FM} = \frac{D + H + K + M}{1 + D + H + K}$

The FM equilibrium exists if and only if  $Q_{home}^{FM} > 1 - \lambda$  and  $Q_{work}^{FM} < \lambda$ .

#### 4. The NF equilibrium: home is neutral and work is feminine

Figure B6: The NF Equilibrium



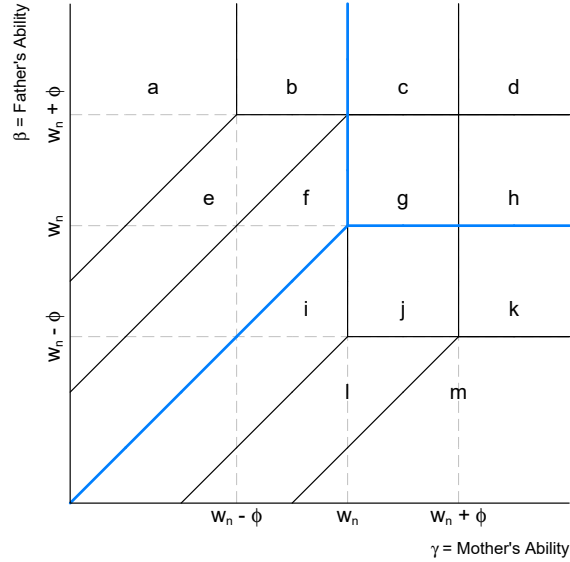
In this equilibrium, the payoffs are:  $\beta_i - \phi$  if mom stays home,  $\gamma_i$  if dad stays home,  $\beta_i + \gamma_i - \phi - w_n$  if the household hires a nanny. So, the household hires a nanny whenever  $\beta_i > w_n + \phi$  and  $\gamma_i > w_n$ . The mom stays at home whenever  $\beta_i > \gamma_i + \phi$  and  $\gamma_i < w_n$ . The dad stays at home whenever  $\beta_i < \gamma_i + \phi$  and  $\beta_i < w_n + \phi$ . As shown in Figure B6:

- $P_{mom}^{NF} = A + B + E$
- $P_{nanny}^{NF} = C + D$
- $P_{dad}^{NF} = F + G + H + I + J + K + L + M$
- $Q_{home}^{NF} = A + B + C + D + E$
- $Q_{work}^{NF} = \frac{C + D + F + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D}$

The NF equilibrium exists if and only if  $\lambda < Q_{home}^{NF} < 1 - \lambda$  and  $Q_{work}^{NF} > 1 - \lambda$ .

## 5. The NN equilibrium: home is neutral and work is neutral

Figure B7: The NN Equilibrium



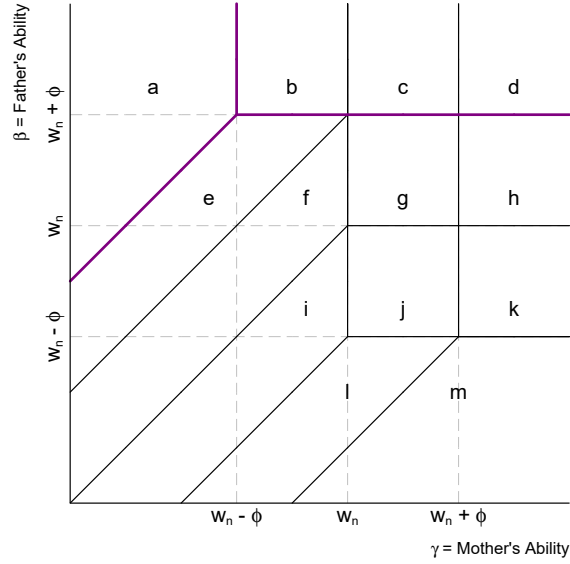
In this equilibrium, the payoffs are:  $\beta_i - \phi$  if mom stays home,  $\gamma_i - \phi$  if dad stays home,  $\beta_i + \gamma_i - \phi - w_n$  if the household hires a nanny. So, the household hires a nanny whenever  $\beta_i > w_n$  and  $\gamma_i > w_n$ . The mom stays at home whenever  $\beta_i > \gamma_i$  and  $\gamma_i < w_n$ . The dad stays at home whenever  $\beta_i < \gamma_i$  and  $\beta_i < w_n$ . As shown in Figure B7:

- $P_{mom}^{NN} = A + B + E + F$
- $P_{nanny}^{NN} = C + D + G + H$
- $P_{dad}^{NN} = I + J + K + L + M$
- $Q_{home}^{NN} = A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H$
- $Q_{work}^{NN} = \frac{C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H}$

The NN equilibrium exists if and only if  $\lambda < Q_{home}^{NN} < 1 - \lambda$  and  $\lambda < Q_{work}^{NN} < 1 - \lambda$ .

## 6. The MF equilibrium: home is masculine and work is feminine

Figure B8: The MF Equilibrium



In this equilibrium, the payoffs are:  $\beta_i - 2\phi$  if mom stays home,  $\gamma_i$  if dad stays home,  $\beta_i + \gamma_i - \phi - w_n$  if the household hires a nanny. So, the household hires a nanny whenever  $\beta_i > w_n + \phi$  and  $\gamma_i > w_n - \phi$ . The mom stays at home whenever  $\beta_i > \gamma_i + 2\phi$  and  $\gamma_i < w_n - \phi$ . The dad stays at home whenever  $\beta_i < \gamma_i + 2\phi$  and  $\beta_i < w_n + \phi$ . As shown in Figure B8:

- $P_{mom}^{MF} = A$
- $P_{nanny}^{MF} = B + C + D$
- $P_{dad}^{MF} = E + F + G + H + I + J + K + L + M$
- $Q_{home}^{MF} = A + B + C + D$
- $Q_{work}^{MF} = \frac{B + C + D + E + F + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + B + C + D}$

The MF equilibrium exists if and only if  $Q_{home}^{MF} < \lambda$  and  $Q_{work}^{MF} > 1 - \lambda$ .

**Proposition 1.** *An equilibrium exists.*

*Proof of Proposition 1.* We structure the proof as follows. First, we show that when  $A + B + C + D < \lambda$ , the MF equilibrium always exists. Second, we show that whenever  $A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H > 1 - \lambda$ , at least one equilibrium exists in which home is a feminine domain. Finally, we consider the intermediate case where  $A + B + C + D \geq \lambda$  but  $A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H \leq 1 - \lambda$ ; we show that either the NF or the NN equilibrium will always exist in this intermediate case.

1. CASE 1:  $A + B + C + D < \lambda$ .

First, note that  $Q_{home}^{MF} = A + B + C + D$ , so  $Q_{home}^{MF} < \lambda$  (i.e. home is masculine). Next, note that

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{home}^{MF} < \lambda &\Rightarrow 1 - Q_{home}^{MF} > 1 - \lambda \\ &\Rightarrow P_{dad}^{MF} > 1 - \lambda \\ &\Rightarrow Q_{work}^{MF} > 1 - \lambda \end{aligned}$$

by Inequality 1 and the definition of  $Q_{work}^{MF}$ . So,  $A + B + C + D < \lambda$  implies that  $Q_{home}^{MF} < \lambda$  and  $Q_{work}^{MF} > 1 - \lambda$ ; hence,  $A + B + C + D < \lambda$  implies that the MF equilibrium exists.

2. CASE 2:  $A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H > 1 - \lambda$ .

First, note that  $A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H > 1 - \lambda$  implies that  $Q_{home}^{FF} > 1 - \lambda$ ,  $Q_{home}^{FN} > 1 - \lambda$ , and  $Q_{home}^{FM} > 1 - \lambda$  (this follows directly from the definitions of  $Q_{home}^{FF}$ ,  $Q_{home}^{FN}$ , and  $Q_{home}^{FM}$  which are listed above). Next, note that if  $Q_{work}^{FM} < \lambda$ , then the FM equilibrium exists. If this condition doesn't hold,

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{work}^{FM} > \lambda &\Leftrightarrow \frac{M + (D + H + K)}{1 + (D + H + K)} > \lambda \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{M + (D + H + K) + (C + G + J)}{1 + (D + H + K) + (C + G + J)} > \lambda \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{L + M + (D + H + K) + (C + G + J)}{1 + (D + H + K) + (C + G + J)} > \lambda \end{aligned}$$

and this final fraction is equal to  $Q_{work}^{FN}$ . If  $Q_{work}^{FN}$  is also less than  $1 - \lambda$ , then the FN equilibrium exists. Finally, if  $Q_{work}^{FN} > \lambda$  (so the FN equilibrium does not exist), we know that the FF equilibrium must exist because:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{C + D + G + H + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H + J + K} > \lambda &\Rightarrow \frac{C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H + J + K} > \lambda \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H} > \lambda \end{aligned}$$

which guarantees that the FF equilibrium exists because the last fraction is equal to  $Q_{work}^{FF}$ . So, either the FF, the FN, or the FM equilibrium must exist whenever  $A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H > 1 - \lambda$ .



CASE 3:  $A + B + C + D \geq \lambda$  and  $A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H \leq 1 - \lambda$ .

First, note that  $A + B + C + D \geq \lambda$  guarantees that  $Q_{home}^{NF} \geq \lambda$  and  $Q_{home}^{NN} \geq \lambda$  (and the equalities are strict when all regions  $a, b, c$ , etc. are non-empty). So, the requirement that home is a neutral domain in the NF and NN equilibria is satisfied. If it is also the case that

$$\frac{C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H} \leq 1 - \lambda$$

then  $Q_{work}^{NN} \leq 1 - \lambda$  (by the definition of  $Q_{work}^{NN}$ ), so the NN equilibrium exists. However, if

$$\frac{C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H} > 1 - \lambda$$

then  $Q_{work}^{NF} > 1 - \lambda$  because

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M}{1 + C + D + G + H} > 1 - \lambda \\ \Rightarrow & \frac{(C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M) + F}{1 + C + D + G + H} > 1 - \lambda \\ \Rightarrow & \frac{(C + D + G + H + I + J + K + L + M) + F}{1 + C + D} > 1 - \lambda. \end{aligned}$$

So, when  $A + B + C + D \geq \lambda$  and  $A + B + C + D + E + F + G + H \leq 1 - \lambda$ , then either the NN equilibrium or the NF equilibrium must exist.  $\square$

## C Data Construction Appendix

### C.1 Using the *Ethnologue* to Define the Set of Living Languages

For every known language, the *Ethnologue* provides an estimate of the number of native speakers (if any) in every country. Data are drawn from a range of sources including national censuses and surveys compiled by linguists.

There are 7,457 languages in the *Ethnologue* database. We drop those that are extinct or have no native speakers, sign languages, and dying languages that had fewer than 100 native speakers when last assessed by *Ethnologue* researchers. This leaves 6,190 living, oral languages which together account for an estimated 6.50 billion native speakers.

### C.2 The World Atlas of Language Structures

One of the best known sources of systematic data on language structure is the World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS). We use the WALS (Corbett 2013a, Corbett 2013b, Corbett 2013c) to classify the gender structure of 525 *Ethnologue* languages. The WALS contains data on the grammatical gender structure on 257 languages. However, data from the WALS must be used with caution because the linguist who compiled the gender information, Greville Corbett, advocates the use of a somewhat non-standard definition of grammatical gender that includes systems of anaphoric pronominal agreement (Corbett 1991). This is problematic when one wishes to combine the WALS data with information from other sources that do not classify systems of pronominal agreement based on the gender of the referent as examples of grammatical gender. We address this by excluding WALS data on languages that are classified as “strictly semantic” (i.e. agreement class can always be inferred from the meaning of the noun) since Corbett considers pronominal agreement an example of such a system. Languages that are classified in the WALS as either lacking a grammatical gender system or having a system that is “semantic and formal” are unambiguous. We use WALS data on 188 languages; these languages map to 525 languages in the *Ethnologue*. In many cases, a single language in the WALS database (e.g. Arabic or Kanuri) will map to a macrolanguage or a higher point in the *Ethnologue* language tree (accounting for the disparity in the number of languages).

### C.3 George Abraham Grierson’s *Linguistic Survey of India*

A rich source of information about the languages of South Asia is George Abraham Grierson’s eleven-volume *Linguistic Survey of India* (Grierson 1903a, 1903b, 1904, 1905, 1907, 1908, 1909, 1916, 1919, 1921), which was compiled between 1891 and 1921. It covers more than 300 South Asian languages and dialects. We use Grierson’s data to classify 52 South Asian languages, and as a second source to confirm the grammatical structure of an additional 469 languages.

### C.4 George L. Campbell’s *Compendium of the World’s Languages*

We use data from George L. Campbell’s *Compendium of the World’s Languages* (Campbell 1991) to characterize the grammatical gender structure of 949 languages, and as a second source to confirm the grammatical structure of an additional 253 languages.

## C.5 First-Person Accounts

We are particularly grateful to Premila Chand, Sameer Chand, and Satish Chand for first-person accounts of the grammatical agreement structure in Fiji Hindi, and to A. K. Rakim and Dr. Kyaw Hla for their detailed descriptions of grammatical agreement in Rohingya.

## C.6 Additional Sources

Additional data on the grammatical gender structures of languages comes from academic articles and teaching materials focused on individual languages or language families. The complete list of sources used to classify languages is provided in the references section.

## C.7 Identifying Gender Languages

We classify languages as gender or non-gender in several different ways. First, some languages are explicitly identified as gender or non-gender languages in linguistic or pedagogical materials. For example, the UCLA Language Materials Project characterizes Serbian by stating: “Three grammatical genders (masculine, feminine, and neuter) and two numbers (singular and plural) are also distinguished” (UCLA Language Materials Project 2014). Some sources are equally explicit about the absence of grammatical gender. For example, *A Reference Grammar of Maithili* states: “Modern Maithili, however, has no grammatical gender. In other words, in modern Maithili distinctions of gender are determined solely by the sex of the animate noun” (Yadav 1996). In other cases, grammatical materials characterize the different noun classes present within a language (or the absence of a noun classification system), and provide examples of words that fall into each class.

For each language, we record specific quotes characterizing the gender structure. Whenever possible, we use two independent sources to confirm the structure of each language. We identify two independent sources characterizing the grammatical structure of 2,561 languages, or 58.9 percent of languages successfully classified.

To illustrate our classification process, we list the sources and relevant quotes for the 100 most widely spoken languages that are not included in the WALS database (below).

## C.8 Source Information for 100 Widely Spoken Languages

*Information on the sources used to classify the 100 most widely spoken languages that are not included in the WALS database.*

### Aceh

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** No grammatical gender, no marking for case or number (p.12).

**Source 2:** Corbett (2006)

**Reference 2:** In almost all the languages of the Austronesian family, [grammatical gender] is simply missing.

## Afrikaans

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The division into common and neuter nouns, retained in Dutch, has been lost in Afrikaans (p. 19).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** The Dutch distinction of common vs. neuter genders for nouns is lost in Afrikaans. A single definite article *die* is used for all nouns

## Akan

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 1:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

**Source 2:** Creissels, Dimmendaal, Frajzyngier, and König (2008)

**Reference 2:** Another type of gender system, in which the sex distinction plays no role, is encountered in all major branches of the Niger-Congo phylum... In addition to the irrelevance of the masculine vs. feminine distinction, Niger-Congo gender systems, usually referred to as noun-class systems, share the following characteristics... A few Niger-Congo languages (e.g. Ijo, the Ubangian language Zande, the Mande language Jo) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest at the level of the relation between the noun and its modifiers (pp. 115-117).

## Assamese

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Aikhenvald (2003)

**Reference 1:** In Indic and Iranian languages the masculine and feminine declensional paradigms merged. This resulted in a complete loss of gender oppositions in Assamese, Bengali, Nepali, Oriya, Persian, Beludzhi, and Ossete (p.379).

**Source 2:** Kilarski (2013)

**Reference 2:** Gender has been lost in several languages of the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European, e.g. Assamese and Bengali (Indo-Aryan) and Persian and Ossetic (Iranian).

## Bali

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** Corbett (2006)

**Quote:** In almost all the languages of the Austronesian family, [grammatical gender] is simply missing.

## Bamanankan

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 1:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

**Source 2:** Creissels, Dimmendaal, Frajzyngier, and König (2008)

**Reference 2:** Another type of gender system, in which the sex distinction plays no role, is encountered in all major branches of the Niger-Congo phylum... In addition to the irrelevance of the masculine vs. feminine distinction, Niger-Congo gender systems, usually referred to as noun-class systems, share the following characteristics... A few Niger-Congo languages (e.g. Ijo, the Ubangian language Zande, the Mande language Jo) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest at the level of the relation between the noun and its modifiers (pp. 115-117).

## Bemba

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Bengali

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Kilarski (2013)

**Reference 1:** Gender has been lost in several languages of the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European, e.g. Assamese and Bengali (Indo-Aryan) and Persian and Ossetic (Iranian).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Bengali has lost the grammatical gender system of Indo-Aryan, and has replaced it with a natural taxonomy of animate versus non-animate (p. 229).

## Betawi

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** Aikhenvald (2003)

**Quote:** The reduction and loss of class/gender distinctions is a universal feature of the pidginization and creolization of languages (p. 388).

## Bhili

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** In NIA, three genders are preserved only in parts of the west: on the chart, in Gujarati, Marathi, and Konkani; also in dialects in their vicinity not on the chart (Bhili, Khandesi - not, however, in Halbi); finally, in the Bhadarwahi-Bhalesi-Khashali group of extreme northwestern West Pahari (p. 220).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1907)

**Reference 2:** The neuter gender is often used to denote feminine beings... All adjectives which do not end in U are uninflected. Those ending in U are inflected for gender, number, and partly for case (p. 12).

## Bhojpuri

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** To the east, [gender] begins to attenuate, already in the band of languages represented on the chart by Awadhi (the least attenuated), Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, and Chhattisgarhi, to which may be added Bagheli, Magahi, and Angika. There gender accord is typically restricted to female animales... optional or loose even then (e.g. in Chhattisgarhi), and greatly reduced in syntactic scope... Although Awadhi (and Western Bhojpuri, e.g. of Banaras) often show gender agreement similar to that of (Western) Hindi, in the southern extensions of Eastern Hindi, namely Bagheli and Chhattisgarhi, this is greatly attenuated, in the latter almost to the point of disappearance - completely so from the verb. The influence of Standard Hindi as the official language of this region is now a factor confusing the situation, and it may often be a question of the revival or even of the introduction of gender agreement rather than of its preservation (p. 221).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1903b)

**Reference 2:** In Standard Bhojpuri, adjectives do not change for gender (p. 50).

## Bugis

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The personal articles i-la (masc.) and i-we (fem.) are applied to proper nouns, names of boats, weapons, etc (p. 269).

**Source 2:** Corbett (2006)

**Reference 2:** In almost all the languages of the Austronesian family, [grammatical gender] is simply missing.

## Bulgarian

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Leafgren (2011)

**Reference 1:** Nouns in Bulgarian can be divided into three broad categories based on their grammatical gender: masculine, feminine or neuter. Grammatical gender is important because it determines formal agreement and correspondence features, at least in the singular, of adjectives, many pronouns and adjectival pronouns, and parts of compound verbal constructions which agree with the subject of the clause.

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** The Bulgarian noun is inflected for number and gender (masculine, feminine, and neuter) while the case inflection, contrary to other Slavic languages, has been lost. The adjective agrees with the noun it modifies in number and gender. There is a small number of adjectives of Turkish origin that show no inflection.

## Catalan

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Nouns in Catalan are masculine or feminine (p. 311).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** As in Spanish, nouns inflect for gender and number, pronouns inflect for gender, number, person, and case, and verbs agree with their subjects in both gender and number and inflect for tense and mood. Additionally, adjectives agree with the nouns they modify in gender and number.

## Cebuano

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** [Detailed description of nouns (p. 313-319) in Cebuano makes no mention of noun classes.]

**Source 2:** Corbett (2006)

**Reference 2:** In almost all the languages of the Austronesian family, [grammatical gender] is simply missing.

## Central Kurdish

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** Campbell (1991)

**Quote:** Gender is not distinguished grammatically (p. 926).

## Chhattisgarhi

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** To the east, [gender] begins to attenuate, already in the band of languages represented on the chart by Awadhi (the least attenuated), Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, and Chhattisgarhi, to which may be added Bagheli, Magahi, and Angika. There gender accord is typically restricted to female animales... optional or loose even then (e.g. in Chhattisgarhi), and greatly reduced in syntactic scope... Although Awadhi (and Western Bhojpuri, e.g. of Banaras) often show gender agreement similar to that of (Western) Hindi, in the southern extensions of Eastern Hindi, namely Bagheli and Chhattisgarhi, this is greatly attenuated, in the latter almost to the point of disappearance - completely so from the verb. The influence of Standard Hindi as the official language of this region is now a factor confusing the situation, and it may often be a question of the revival or even of the introduction of gender agreement rather than of its preservation (p. 221).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1904)

**Reference 2:** Tadbhava adjectives in A form the feminine in I... This rule is, however, very arbitrarily followed. Other adjectives do not change for gender (p. 28).

## Chittagonian

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Grierson (1903a)

**Reference 1:** Adjectives do not change for gender.

**Source 2:** Lewis, Simons, and Fennig, eds., (2016)

**Reference 2:** Chittagonian is a non-standard dialect of Bengali.

## Croatian

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Alexander (2006)

**Reference 1:** Every noun in [Bosnian, Serbian, or Croatian] belongs to one of three genders - masculine, feminine, or neuter.

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Three grammatical genders (masculine, feminine, and neuter) and two numbers (singular and plural) are also distinguished. Case, grammatical gender and number are represented by inflectional morphemes. Adjectives agree with their noun in grammatical gender, number and case. Main verbs and participles agree with the subject only in person, number and gender.



## Czech

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Danaher (2016)

**Reference 1:** Czech nouns are marked for grammatical gender. Czech has three grammatical genders: Masculine (M), Feminine (F), and Neuter (N). M and F partly overlap with the natural gender of human beings, but grammatical gender is a feature of all nouns (names of inanimate things, places, abstractions...), and it plays an important role in how Czech grammar works.

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Nouns which are feminine, masculine, and neuter are declined in six declensions. Adjectives agree with nouns in number, gender, and case. Number (singular and plural) is distinguished as is gender by inflectional endings on stems.

## Danish

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Danish has two genders: common and neuter (p.459).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Nouns in Danish belong to one of two classes, so-called common gender (en is the indefinite singular article) or neuter gender (et is the indefinite singular article).

## Deccan

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source:** Grierson (1905)

**Quote:** There are three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter. The neuter is used to denote animate beings, and also animate beings in the plural where both genders are included (p. 23). [This makes it sound like natural gender, but the subsequent page lists liquor and tongue as feminine nouns.]

## Dholuo

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Hurskainen (1999)

**Reference 1:** Eastern Nilotic languages have a fully developed gender system, while Western and Southern branches of Nilotic languages do not (p. 681).

**Source 2:** Dimmendaal (2000)

**Reference 2:** Eastern Nilotic languages distinguish between masculine and feminine gender (as well as neuter gender in the Teso-Turkana group within this branch of the Nilotic) as an obligatory inflectional category of the noun. Southern and Western Nilotic languages on the other hand have gender marking as a derivational category for certain nouns (in particular those referring to names of animals) as well as for personal names (p. 173).

## Dutch

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Nouns are divided into those of the common gender, with singular definite article in DE, and neuters with singular definite article HET (p. 480).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Dutch nouns are divided into two genders: common and neuter. Nouns of the common gender take the singular definite article de, while neuter nouns take het. Both genders take the plural definite article de, and the indefinite article een. The Dutch attributive adjective precedes the noun. When the adjective modifies a common gender noun, the adjective takes an ending E: een goede man a good man, but een goed boek a good book.

## Eastern Maninkakan

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 1:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

**Source 2:** Creissels, Dimmendaal, Frajzyngier, and König (2008)

**Reference 2:** Another type of gender system, in which the sex distinction plays no role, is encountered in all major branches of the Niger-Congo phylum... In addition to the irrelevance of the masculine vs. feminine distinction, Niger-Congo gender systems, usually referred to as noun-class systems, share the following characteristics... A few Niger-Congo languages (e.g. Ijo, the Ubangian language Zande, the Mande language Jo) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest at the level of the relation between the noun and its modifiers (pp. 115-117).

## English

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Aikhenvald (2003)

**Reference 1:** Some systems based on animacy and sex (and traditionally called gender systems) do not, in fact, satisfy the criteria set out here. English distinguishes three genders just in 3rd person pronouns, HE/SHE/IT. They involve the opposition: male/female/inanimate. There are a few conventionalized metaphorical extensions, e.g. ships are commonly referred to with the feminine pronoun... There is no gender agreement within a noun phrase or with a verb in a clause. Gender markers in English simply have an anaphoric function, as they also do in Japanese where masculine and feminine forms are distinguished only in 3rd person pronouns with a human referent... Strictly speaking, these are not noun classes (p. 21).

**Source 2:** Hellinger (2003)

**Reference 2:** English has no grammatical gender at all. While Old English had three gender classes, feminine, masculine, and neuter, the category of grammatical gender was lost by the end of the 14th century due to the decay of inflectional endings and the disintegration of declensional classes (cf. Strang 1970, Kastovsky 2000). And unlike German, which has a number of elements inside and outside the noun phrase (determiners, adjectives, pronouns) which vary according to the noun's grammatical gender, Modern English shows no such morphological agreement. English is no longer a (grammatical) gender language (p. 107).

## Flemish

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** De Vogelaer (2009)

**Reference 1:** The results of the 2006 questionnaire do not show a radical breakdown of the gender system: in all dialects the three genders are still used.

**Source 2:** Donaldson (2008)

**Reference 2:** Dutch nouns belong to one of two genders, common gender and neuter. The former is an amalgamation of what were formerly masculine and feminine... In the south of Holland and in Belgium the difference between masculine and feminine is still heeded in the use of pronouns (p. 34)... In Belgium the old distinction between masculine and feminine is still very much alive (p. 73)... Those speakers for whom certain non-personal nouns are still regarded as feminine may use ZE as an object pronoun instead of HEM (but never HAAR/D'R which can only be used with reference to people) (p. 76).

## Ganda

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but is concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Ghanaian Pidgin English

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** Aikhenvald (2003)

**Quote:** The reduction and loss of class/gender distinctions is a universal feature of the pidginization and creolization of languages. Indo-European-based creole languages do not have any gender distinctions (p. 388).

## Gikuyu

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but is concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Goan Konkani

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** In NIA, three genders are preserved only in parts of the west: on the chart, in Gujarati, Marathi, and Konkani; also in dialects in their vicinity not on the chart (Bhili, Khandesi - not, however, in Halbi); finally, in the Bhadarwahi-Bhalesi-Khashali group of extreme northwestern West Pahari (p. 220).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1905)

**Reference 2:** Gender is usually distinguished in the same way as in standard Marathi (p. 169).

## Gujarati

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** In NIA, three genders are preserved only in parts of the west: on the chart, in Gujarati, Marathi, and Konkani; also in dialects in their vicinity not on the chart (Bhili, Khandesi - not, however, in Halbi); finally, in the Bhadarwahi-Bhalesi-Khashali group of extreme northwestern West Pahari (p. 220).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Gujarati distinguishes masculine, feminine, and neuter genders (p. 658).

## Haitian Creole

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Muhleisen and Walicek (2010)

**Reference 1:** Creole languages are generally regarded as gender-less regardless of whether the lexifier utilizes it (e.g., Dutch, French, Portuguese) or not (English) (p. 17)... Grammatical gender is generally represented as absent in Caribbean Creole languages (p. 18).

**Source 2:** McWhorter (2005)

**Reference 2:** DeGraff's claim that Haitian has gender inflection is mistaken. DeGraff usefully points out that Haitian has feminine allomorphs for various suffixes denoting occupation, role, or quality such as... RADOTE/RADOTEZ... Yet this is not grammatical gender but natural gender (p. 24).

## Haryanvi

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source:** Grierson (1916)

**Quote:** Bangaru [Haryanvi] is the dialect of Western Hindi which is spoken in the eastern Punjab (p. 1).

## Hiligaynon

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** Corbett (2006)

**Quote:** In almost all the languages of the Austronesian family, [grammatical gender] is simply missing.

## Ilocano

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Aikhenvald (2003)

**Reference 1:** Ilocano does not have genders; the natural gender of humans may be distinguished lexically (p. 313).

**Source 2:** Corbett (2006)

**Reference 2:** In almost all the languages of the Austronesian family, [grammatical gender] is simply missing.

## Italian

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Proudfoot and Cardo (2005)

**Reference 1:** All Italian nouns have either a masculine or a feminine gender. Gender is purely a grammatical term. Nouns referring to human beings or animals sometimes have the same grammatical gender as their natural gender, but not always.

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Italian has two genders... The definite article is marked for gender and number: masc. IL/I; fem. LA/LE (pp. 778-779).

## Japanese

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender; no articles (p. 808).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Japanese nouns and adjectives do not have the categories of gender or number.

## Javanese

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Kuntjara (2001)

**Reference 1:** Neither Javanese nor Indonesian have grammatical gender, not even pronominal gender distinctions like English he or she (p.202).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** No gender (p. 816).

## Kamba

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Kanauji

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** Two-gender systems: Braj M F (p. 220, in Figure 8.3).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1916)

**Reference 2:** Adjectives as in ordinary Hindi except that strong masculine forms end in O instead of A (p. 85).

## Kannada

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Krishnamurti (2001)

**Reference 1:** [Figure 8.4 on p. 137 shows that there are three singular classes (male humans, female humans, everything else) and two plural classes (humans, non-humans).]

**Source 2:** Andronov (2003)

**Reference 2:** The common rule is that nouns denoting males belong to the masculine gender, nouns denoting females belong to the feminine gender, and all other nouns... belong to the neuter gender (p. 106). [Table 5 on p. 106: shows noun class system is masc. humans/fem. humans/all other nouns in singular and human/non-human in plural.]

## Kazakh

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender (p. 65).

**Source 2:** Johanson (2013[2002])

**Reference 2:** Turkic has no classifiers of grammatical gender. Hence, gender does not play a role in grammatical agreement.

## Kinyarwanda

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Kituba

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** Aikhenvald (2003)

**Quote:** The reduction and loss of class/gender distinctions is a universal feature of the pidginization and creolization of languages (p. 388).

## Korean

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Quote:** Gender and number are not marked, and the language lacks articles, fusional morphology, relative pronouns, conjunctions and agglutination. Nouns are not inflected as such; rather, there is a class of postpositional particles or suffixes which may be used to mark 7 cases (nominative, genitive, accusative, dative, locative, instrumental, and comitative). Grammatical gender and number are not marked.

## Lambadi

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source:** Grierson (1908)

**Quote:** As regards gender, the rule of Western Hindi is generally followed, that there are only two genders, a masculine and a feminine. In one or two dialects of Western Hindi we have noted sporadic instances of the use of a neuter gender. In Rajasthani these occasional instances become more and more common as we go west and south till we find the neuter gender firmly established in Gujarati (p. 5)... Adjectives follow the genitive postpositions in their inflexions. Thus, ACHCHHO, good; fem., ACHCHHI; masc., ACHCHHA (p. 7).



## Lombard

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Lewis, Simons, and Fennig, eds., (2016)

**Reference 1:** Similar to French and Italian.

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** A dialectical division of Italy running roughly along the lines of the Northern Appennines has long been recognized. To the north of this line are Piedmontese, Lombardian, Venetian, etc.; to the south lie Tuscan, Umbrian, Neapolitan, Calabrese, and Sicilian... Most of the dialects are still very much alive... Italian has two genders and two numbers... The adjective agrees in gender and number with the noun (pp. 777-779).

## Luba-Kasai

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Madura

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Gender may be indicated by such words as MALE and FEMALE (p. 1035).

**Source 2:** Corbett (2006)

**Reference 2:** In almost all the languages of the Austronesian family, [grammatical gender] is simply missing.

## Magahi

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** To the east, [gender] begins to attenuate, already in the band of languages represented on the chart by Awadhi (the least attenuated), Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, and Chhattisgarhi, to which may be added Bagheli, Magahi, and Angika. There gender accord is typically restricted to female animales... optional or loose even then (e.g. in Chhattisgarhi), and greatly reduced in syntactic scope... Although Awadhi (and Western Bhojpuri, e.g. of Banaras) often show gender agreement similar to that of (Western) Hindi, in the southern extensions of Eastern Hindi, namely Bagheli and Chhattisgarhi, this is greatly attenuated, in the latter almost to the point of disappearance - completely so from the verb. The influence of Standard Hindi as the official language of this region is now a factor confusing the situation, and it may often be a question of the revival or even of the introduction of gender agreement rather than of its preservation (p. 221).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1903b)

**Reference 2:** Adjectives do not change for gender (p. 50).

## Maithili

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Yadav (1996)

**Reference 1:** Modern Maithili, however, has no grammatical gender. In other words, in modern Maithili, distinctions of gender are determined solely by the sex of the animate noun.

**Source 2:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 2:** To the east, [gender] begins to attenuate, already in the band of languages represented on the chart by Awadhi (the least attenuated), Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, and Chhattisgarhi, to which may be added Bagheli, Magahi, and Angika. There gender accord is typically restricted to female animales... optional or loose even then (e.g. in Chhattisgarhi), and greatly reduced in syntactic scope... Although Awadhi (and Western Bhojpuri, e.g. of Banaras) often show gender agreement similar to that of (Western) Hindi, in the southern extensions of Eastern Hindi, namely Bagheli and Chhattisgarhi, this is greatly attenuated, in the latter almost to the point of disappearance - completely so from the verb. The influence of Standard Hindi as the official language of this region is now a factor confusing the situation, and it may often be a question of the revival or even of the introduction of gender agreement rather than of its preservation (p. 221).

## Malayalam

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Andronov (2003)

**Reference 1:** The common rule is that nouns denoting males belong to the masculine gender, nouns denoting females belong to the feminine gender, and all other nouns... belong to the neuter gender (p. 106). [Table 5 on p. 106: shows that there are no longer grammatical gender agreement classes.]

**Source 2:** Krishnamurti (2001)

**Reference 2:** [Figure 8.4 on p. 137 shows that there are three singular classes (male humans, female humans, everything else) and two plural classes (humans, non-humans).]

## Malvi

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source:** Grierson (1908)

**Quote:** As regards gender, the rule of Western Hindi is generally followed, that there are only two genders, a masculine and a feminine. In one or two dialects of Western Hindi we have noted sporadic instances of the use of a neuter gender. In Rajasthani these occasional instances become more and more common as we go west and south till we find the neuter gender firmly established in Gujarati (p. 5)... Adjectives follow the genitive postpositions in their inflexions. Thus, ACHCHHO, good; fem., ACHCHHI; masc., ACHCHHA (p. 7).

## Marwari

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** Two-gender systems: Marwari M F (p. 220, in Figure 8.3).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1908)

**Reference 2:** As regards gender, the rule of Western Hindi is generally followed, that there are only two genders, a masculine and a feminine. In one or two dialects of Western Hindi we have noted sporadic instances of the use of a neuter gender. In Rajasthani these occasional instances become more and more common as we go west and south till we find the neuter gender firmly established in Gujarati (p. 5)... Adjectives follow the genitive postpositions in their inflexions. Thus, ACHCHHO, good; fem., ACHCHHI; masc., ACHCHHA (p. 7).

## Merwari

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** Two-gender systems: Marwari M F (p. 220, in Figure 8.3).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1908)

**Reference 2:** As regards gender, the rule of Western Hindi is generally followed, that there are only two genders, a masculine and a feminine. In one or two dialects of Western Hindi we have noted sporadic instances of the use of a neuter gender. In Rajasthani these occasional instances become more and more common as we go west and south till we find the neuter gender firmly established in Gujarati (p. 5)... Adjectives follow the genitive postpositions in their inflexions. Thus, ACHCHHO, good; fem., ACHCHHI; masc., ACHCHHA (p. 7).

## Mewari

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** Two-gender systems: Marwari M F (p. 220, in Figure 8.3).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1908)

**Reference 2:** As regards gender, the rule of Western Hindi is generally followed, that there are only two genders, a masculine and a feminine. In one or two dialects of Western Hindi we have noted sporadic instances of the use of a neuter gender. In Rajasthani these occasional instances become more and more common as we go west and south till we find the neuter gender firmly established in Gujarati (p. 5)... Adjectives follow the genitive postpositions in their inflexions. Thus, ACHCHHO, good; fem., ACHCHHI; masc., ACHCHHA (p. 7).

## Moore

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 1:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

**Source 2:** Creissels, Dimmendaal, Frajzyngier, and Konig (2008)

**Reference 2:** Another type of gender system, in which the sex distinction plays no role, is encountered in all major branches of the Niger-Congo phylum... In addition to the irrelevance of the masculine vs. feminine distinction, Niger-Congo gender systems, usually referred to as noun-class systems, share the following characteristics... A few Niger-Congo languages (e.g. Ijo, the Ubangian language Zande, the Mande language Jo) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest at the level of the relation between the noun and its modifiers (pp. 115-117).

## Napoletano-Calabrese

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Lewis, Simons, and Fennig, eds., (2016)

**Reference 1:** Similar to standard Italian.

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** A dialectical division of Italy running roughly along the lines of the Northern Appennines has long been recognized. To the north of this line are Piedmontese, Lombardian, Venetian, etc.; to the south lie Tuscan, Umbrian, Neapolitan, Calabrese, and Sicilian... Most of the dialects are still very much alive... Italian has two genders and two numbers... The adjective agrees in gender and number with the noun (pp. 777-779).

## Nepali

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Grierson (1916)

**Reference 1:** The distinction of gender is purely sexual. The so-called grammatical gender does not occur, and hence many nouns which are feminine in Hindi are masculine in [Nepali] (p. 22).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Gender plays little part in Nepali structure, though the markers of its historical presence could hardly be entirely absent from a new Indo-Aryan language. In nouns denoting human beings, O and A are masculine endings and I is feminine (p. 1213).

## North Azerbaijani

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender (p. 65).

**Source 2:** Johanson (2013[2002])

**Reference 2:** Turkic has no classifiers of grammatical gender. Hence, gender does not play a role in grammatical agreement.

## Northern Kurdish

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** Campbell (1991)

**Quote:** Gender is not distinguished grammatically (p. 926).

## Northern Sotho

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but is concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Norwegian

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Hellinger and Bußman (2003)

**Reference 1:** [Frisian, Icelandic, and Norwegian] have retained the Indo-European three gender system with masc, fem, and neuter (p. 143).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Nouns in Norwegian fall into one of three genders (masculine, feminine and neuter), however in most dialects (and especially bokmal) masculine and feminine have merged to COMMON. The dialect in Bergen on the West Coast has only 2 genders, no feminine forms. Nynorsk maintains the 3 gender system more rigidly.

## Odia

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Aikhenvald (2003)

**Reference 1:** In Indic and Iranian languages the masculine and feminine declensional paradigms merged. This resulted in a complete loss of gender oppositions in Assamese, Bengali, Nepali, Oriya, Persian, Beludzhi, and Ossete (p.379).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Natural gender is distinguished for animates, either lexically or by Sanskrit ending (p. 1281).

## Polish

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Feldstein (2001)

**Reference 1:** Each Polish noun has a specific gender, called masculine, neuter, or feminine. In order to use any given Polish noun, one must know its gender, as well as the behavior of its particular declensional subclass, in case it does not follow the basic type for that gender. Based on agreement with adjectives, nouns can readily be identified as masculine, neuter, or feminine in the singular.

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Polish has three genders, two numbers, and seven cases... As attribute, adjective normally precedes the noun, and is in concord for gender, number, and case (p. 1357).

## Portuguese

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Hutchinson and Lloyd (1996)

**Reference 1:** There are two genders: masculine and feminine.

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Nouns are masculine or feminine... Article: Definite: O (masc.), a (fem.)... Adjective: A basic opposition is [NULL] for masculine, -A for feminine, but many adjectives have identical forms for both genders (pp. 1369-1370).

## Rangpuri

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Wilde (2008)

**Reference 1:** Noun classes bear no semantic correlation with sex (p. 63).

**Source 2:** Toulmin (2006)

**Reference 2:** As in in the other e.Mg. lects (Oriya, Bangla, Assamiya, etc.), gender is not an inflectional category (p. 47).

## Romanian

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Cojocaru (2003)

**Reference 1:** Romanian, as any inflective language, is governed by nominal agreement: the forms of different modifiers (adjectives, pronominal adjectives, ordinal numerals) depend on the gender and number of the noun. Romanian is the only Romance language that preserved three genders from the Latin: masculine, feminine, and neuter.

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Three grammatical genders, masculine, feminine, and irregular (masculine in the singular and feminine in the plural) are distinguished.

## Rundi

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but is concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Santhali

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Gender is not distinguished, though natural gender may be lexically marked (p. 1454).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1904)

**Reference 2:** Nouns do not differ for gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding words denoting male, female, respectively... Nouns, on the other hand, can be divided into two classes, viz. those that denote animate being, and those that denote inanimate objects respectively (p. 23).

## Serbian

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Alexander (2006)

**Reference 1:** Every noun in [Bosnian, Serbian, or Croatian] belongs to one of three genders - masculine, feminine, or neuter.

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Three grammatical genders (masculine, feminine, and neuter) and two numbers (singular and plural) are also distinguished.

## Shan

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Cushing (1871)

**Reference 1:** The masculine and feminine genders are distinguished - 1st, by common words, as father, mother, husband, wife, grandfather, grandmother, lord, lady. 2nd. By affixes [SYMBOL] and [SYMBOL] are used to distinguish gender of the human species, while [SYMBOL] and [SYMBOL] are used to distinguish that of the brutes, as... a cock, a hen (p. 14).

**Source 2:** Strecker (1987)

**Reference 2:** The Tai languages are uninflected (p. 754).



## Sicilian

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source:** Campbell (1991)

**Quote:** A dialectical division of Italy running roughly along the lines of the Northern Appennines has long been recognized. To the north of this line are Piedmontese, Lombardian, Venetian, etc.; to the south lie Tuscan, Umbrian, Neapolitan, Calabrese, and Sicilian... Most of the dialects are still very much alive... Italian has two genders and two numbers... The adjective agrees in gender and number with the noun (pp. 777-779).

## Sindhi

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Masculine and feminine nouns share all five vocalic endings, but -O and -U are typically masculine, -I and -E are typically feminine... As attribute, adjective precedes noun. Many adjectives are indeclinable, but those with vocalic endings are usually inflected for gender (p. 1500).

**Source 2:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 2:** Two-gender systems: Sindhi M F (p. 220, in Figure 8.3).

## Sinhala

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Masica (1991)

**Reference 1:** It is sometimes held that Sinhalese also preserves the three genders of OIA, but this is misleading. The system has been completely restructured into one based on natural gender (as in neighboring Dravidian), with the basic distinction between inanimates on the one hand (the so-called Neuter, whose membership therefore includes the inanimate Masculines and Feminines of OIA as well as most Neuters of OIA) and animates on the other hand, secondarily divided into Masculine and Feminine... Moreover, gender is primarily a declensional phenomenon in Sinhalese; syntactic agreement is very marginal, and confined to the literary language (pp. 220-221).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** The basic contrast is between animates and inanimates; animates are further sub-divided into masculine and feminine... Neuter, i.e. inanimate, nouns usually end in -YA, -VA, -A (p. 1505).

## Slovak

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Slovak has three genders (p. 1517).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Nouns which are feminine, masculine, and neuter are declined in six declensions, and adjectives agree in number, gender, and case. Number (singular and plural) is distinguished as is gender by inflectional endings on stems. The six case endings are nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, instrumental, and locative. Slovak also marks an animate/inanimate distinction for masculine nouns. The language has no definite article.

## Somali

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Somali has two grammatical genders, masculine and feminine (p. 1527).

**Source 2:** Appleyard (2011)

**Reference 2:** The typical Afroasiatic grammatical gender system comprising masculine and feminine runs throughout Cushitic morphosyntax (p. 44).

## South Azerbaijani

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender (p. 65).

**Source 2:** Johanson (2013[2002])

**Reference 2:** Turkic has no classifiers of grammatical gender. Hence, gender does not play a role in grammatical agreement.

## Southern Balochi

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Windfuhr (2009)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender in any dialect of Balochi (p. 651).

**Source 2:** Grierson (1921)

**Reference 2:** There is no distinction of grammatical gender in Balochi. Male and female are distinguished either by the use of different words - as in GURAND, a ram, GAD, a ewe - or by the addition of words such as NAR, male, or MADAG, female (p. 340).

## Southern Sotho

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but is concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Sukuma

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but is concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Sunda

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** [Detailed description of nouns (p. 1557) in Sundanese makes no mention of noun classes.]

**Source 2:** Corbett (2006)

**Reference 2:** In almost all the languages of the Austronesian family, [grammatical gender] is simply missing.

## Swedish

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There are two genders: common and neuter (p. 1569).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Nouns in Swedish are either common gender [sometimes called utrum] (approximately 75 percent of all nouns) or neuter.

## Sylheti

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source:** Grierson (1903a)

**Quote:** Adjectives do not change for gender.

## Tagalog

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Stolz (2013)

**Reference 1:** The class of nouns and adjectives that reflect gender distinctions is very small in Tagalog. It is difficult therefore to determine exactly to what extent grammatical gender is integrated into the grammatical system of Tagalog. What can be said with certainty is that Tagalog grammatical gender is marginal and contact induced (p. 100).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** No grammatical gender (p. 1587).

## Tajiki

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Aikhenvald (2003)

**Reference 1:** In Indic and Iranian languages the masculine and feminine declensional paradigms merged. This resulted in a complete loss of gender oppositions in Assamese, Bengali, Nepali, Oriya, Persian, Beludzhi, and Ossete (p.379).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Persian has no grammatical gender and no articles (p. 1342).

## Tamil

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Andronov (2003)

**Reference 1:** The common rule is that nouns denoting males belong to the masculine gender, nouns denoting females belong to the feminine gender, and all other nouns... belong to the neuter gender. Such an expanded system is attested in one case only... Harijan Tamil (p. 106).

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** Tamil divides nominals into two classes: rational/human as opposed to non-human (neuter). Within the rational class, a distinction is made between masculine and feminine (p. 1605).

## Tatar

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender (p. 65).

**Source 2:** Johanson (2013[2002])

**Reference 2:** Turkic has no classifiers of grammatical gender. Hence, gender does not play a role in grammatical agreement.

## Telugu

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Andronov (2003)

**Reference 1:** The common rule is that nouns denoting males belong to the masculine gender, nouns denoting females belong to the feminine gender, and all other nouns... belong to the neuter gender (p. 106). [Table 5 on p. 106: shows noun class system is male humans/female humans and all other nouns in singular and human/non-human in plural.]

**Source 2:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 2:** In the singular, the opposition is between masculine and non-masculine, the latter category including all nouns denoting females; in the plural, the dichotomy changes to rational versus non-rational, with females promoted to rational status. Grammatical gender is not formally marked, but it is made explicit, e.g. by concord of noun with verb (p. 1625).

## Tigrigna

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** Two genders, masculine and feminine, are found throughout the family (p. 1470).

**Source 2:** UCLA Language Materials Project (2014)

**Reference 2:** Tigrinya nouns are either masculine or feminine and are inflected for number. Gender is not marked on the noun, but on nominal dependents like articles and adjectives. Verbs agree with their subjects and objects in person, number, and gender.

## Tsonga

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Tswana

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but is concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Turkmen

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender (p. 65).

**Source 2:** Johanson (2013[2002])

**Reference 2:** Turkic has no classifiers of grammatical gender. Hence, gender does not play a role in grammatical agreement.

## Umbundu

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but is concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Uyghur

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender (p. 65).

**Source 2:** Johanson (2013[2002])

**Reference 2:** Turkic has no classifiers of grammatical gender. Hence, gender does not play a role in grammatical agreement.

## Varhadi-Nagpuri

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with more than two noun classes

**Source:** Grierson (1905)

**Quote:** The Marathi of Berar is usually spoken of as Varhadi or Berari, and Nagpuri is the traditional name of the dialect spoken in the Central Provinces... essentially identical with the form of Marathi spoken in Berar and the Central Provinces (pp. 217-219).

## Venetian

**Classification:** Grammatical gender with only two classes (masculine, feminine)

**Source:** Campbell (1991)

**Quote:** A dialectical division of Italy running roughly along the lines of the Northern Apennines has long been recognized. To the north of this line are Piedmontese, Lombardian, Venetian, etc.; to the south lie Tuscan, Umbrian, Neapolitan, Calabrese, and Sicilian... Most of the dialects are still very much alive... Italian has two genders and two numbers... The adjective agrees in gender and number with the noun (pp. 777-779).

## Wolof

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** There is no grammatical gender (p. 1766).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## Xhosa

**Classification:** No grammatical gender

**Source 1:** Campbell (1991)

**Reference 1:** The class system has nothing to do with gender; nor is it, at least in origin, connected with an animate/inanimate dichotomy (p. 196).

**Source 2:** Creissels (2000)

**Reference 2:** A few Niger-Congo languages (Ijo, Zande) are reported to have a masculine vs. feminine distinction, but it concerns only pronominal gender and does not manifest itself at the level of the relation between the noun and the modifiers (p. 242).

## References

- ADAMS, B. (1990): “Name Nouns in Wolaitta,” in *Omoti Language Studies*, ed. by R. J. Hayward, pp. 406–412. School of Oriental and African Studies, London, UK.
- AIKHENVALD, A. Y. (2003): *Classifiers: A Typology of Noun Categorization Devices*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- ALEXANDER, R. (2006): *Bosnian, Croatian, Serbian, a Grammar: With Sociolinguistic Commentary*. University of Wisconsin Press.
- ANDRONOV, M. S. (2003): *A Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages*. Harrassowitz Verlag, Wiesbaden, Germany.
- APPLEYARD, D. L. (2011): “Semitic-Cushitic/Omoti Relations,” in *The Semitic Languages: An International Handbook*, ed. by S. Weninger, pp. 38–53. De Gruyter Mouton, London, UK.
- BEAMES, J. (1875): *Comparative Grammar of the Modern Aryan Languages of India: to wit, Hindi, Punjabi, Sindhi, Gujarati, Marathi, Oriya, and Bangali: Vol. II. The Noun and Pronoun*. Trubner and Company, London, U.K.
- BISANG, W. (2015): “Modern Khmer,” in *The Handbook of Austroasiatic Languages, Volume 1*, ed. by M. Jenny, and P. Sidwell, pp. 677–718. Kininklijke Brill, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- BLACKINGS, M., AND N. FABB (2003): *A Grammar of Ma'di*. Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin, Germany.
- BORISE, L. (2015): “The Role of Finnic Substratum in The Loss of The Neuter Gender in The Baltic Languages,” Harvard Working Papers in Linguistics, Online version: <https://scholar.harvard.edu/borise/publications/role-finnic-substratum-loss-neuter-gender-baltic-languages> [accessed 21 February 2018].
- BOS, K. J., AND P. SIDWELL (2015): “Kui Ntua,” in *The Handbook of Austroasiatic Languages, Volume 1*, ed. by M. Jenny, and P. Sidwell, pp. 837–880. Kininklijke Brill, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- BUSSMAN, H., AND M. HELLINGER (2003): “Engendering Female Visibility in German,” in *Gender Across Languages: The Linguistic Representation of Women and Men, Volume 3*, ed. by M. Hellinger, and H. Bußman, pp. 141–174. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- CAMPBELL, G. L. (1991): *Compendium of the World’s Languages*. Routledge, London, UK.
- COJOCARU, D. (2003): “Romanian Grammar,” Center for Slavic, Eurasian, and East European Studies, Duke University, <http://slaviccenters.duke.edu/projects/grammars> [accessed 4 June 2016].
- CORBETT, G. G. (1991): *Gender*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- (2006): “Grammatical Gender,” in *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*, ed. by K. Brown, pp. 749–756. Elsevier, Oxford, UK.
- (2013a): “Number of Genders,” in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. by M. S. Dryer, and M. Haspelmath. Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Leipzig, Germany.
- (2013b): “Sex-based and Non-sex-based Gender Systems,” in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. by M. S. Dryer, and M. Haspelmath. Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Leipzig, Germany.



- (2013c): “Systems of Gender Assignment,” in *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*, ed. by M. S. Dryer, and M. Haspelmath. Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Leipzig, Germany.
- CORREIA, A. J. G. (2011): “Describing Makasae: A Trans-New Guinea Language of East Timor,” Ph.D. thesis, University of Western Sydney.
- CRAZZOLARA, J. P. (1960): *A Study of the Logbara (Ma'di) Language*. Oxford University Press, London, UK.
- CREISSELS, D. (2000): “Typology,” in *African Languages: An Introduction*, ed. by B. Heine, and D. Nurse, pp. 231–258. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- CREISSELS, D., G. J. DIMMENDAAL, Z. FRAJZYNGIER, AND C. KONIG (2008): “Africa as a morphosyntactic area,” in *A Linguistic Geography of Africa*, ed. by B. Heine, and D. Nurse, pp. 86–150. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- CUSHING, R. J. N. (1871): *Grammar of the Shan Language*. American Mission Press.
- DANAHER, D. S. (2016): “Grammatical Gender and Grammatical Stems,” University of Wisconsin, Madison, <http://cokdybysme.net/pdfs/genderstems.pdf> [accessed 4 June 2016].
- DE VOGELAER, G. (2009): “Changing pronominal gender in Dutch,” in *Language Variation—European Perspectives II: Selected Papers from the 4th International Conference on Language Variation in Europe, Nicosia, June 2007*. John Benjamins Publishing, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- DIMMENDAAL, G. J. (2000): “Morphology,” in *African Languages: An Introduction*, ed. by B. Heine, and D. Nurse, pp. 161–193. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- DONALDSON, B. (2008): *A Comprehensive Dutch Grammar*. Routledge, Abingdon, UK.
- EDGAR, J. (1989): *A Masalit Grammar with Notes on Other Languages of Darfur and Wadai*. Dietrich Reimer Verlag, Berlin, Germany.
- ENFIELD, N. J. (2004): “Nominal Classification in Lao: A Sketch,” *Sprachtypologie und Universalienforschung*, 57(2/3), 117–143.
- ÉVA, H. (1990): “Grammatical Relations in Gamo: A Pilot Sketch,” in *Omoti Language Studies*, ed. by R. J. Hayward, pp. 356–405. School of Oriental and African Studies, London, UK.
- FELDSTEIN, R. F. (2001): “A Concise Polish Grammar,” Center for Slavic, Eurasian, and East European Studies, Duke University, <http://slaviccenters.duke.edu/projects/grammars> [accessed 4 June 2016].
- GREENBERG, M. L. (2006): “A Short Reference Grammar of Standard Slovene,” Center for Slavic, Eurasian, and East European Studies, Duke University, <http://slaviccenters.duke.edu/projects/grammars> [accessed 4 June 2016].
- GRIERSON, G. A. (1903a): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume V, Indo-Aryan Family Eastern Group, Part I, Specimens of the Bengali and Assamese Languages*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lasi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- (1903b): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume V, Indo-Aryan Family Eastern Group, Part II, Specimens of the Bihari and Oriya Languages*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lasi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].

- (1904): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume VI, Indo-Aryan Family Mediate Group, Specimens of the Eastern Hindi Language*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lsi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- (1905): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume VII, Indo-Aryan Family Southern Group, Specimens of the Marathi Language*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lsi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- (1907): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume IX, Indo-Aryan Family Central Group, Part III, The Bhil Languages*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lsi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- (1908): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume IX, Indo-Aryan Family Central Group, Part II, Specimens of Rajastani and Gujarati*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lsi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- (1909): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume III, Tibeto-Burman Family, Part I, General Introduction, Specimens of the Tibetan Dialects, the Himalayan Dialects, and the North Assam Group*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lsi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- (1916): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume IX, Indo-Aryan Family Central Group, Part I, Specimens of Western Hindi and Panjabi*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lsi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- (1919): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume VIII, Indo-Aryan Family Northwestern Group, Part II, Specimens of the Dardic or Pisacha Languages*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lsi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- (1921): *Linguistic Survey of India: Volume X, Specimens of Languages of the Eranian Family*. Superintendent Government Printing, Calcutta, India, <http://dsal.uchicago.edu/books/lsi/index.html> [accessed 13 July 2016].
- GUNASEKARA, A. M. (1999): *A Comprehensive Grammar of the Sinhalese Language*. Asian Educational Services.
- HAYWARD, R. J. (1990a): “Notes on the Aari Language,” in *Omoti Language Studies*, ed. by R. J. Hayward, pp. 425–493. School of Oriental and African Studies, London, UK.
- (1990b): “Notes on the Zayse Language,” in *Omoti Language Studies*, ed. by R. J. Hayward, pp. 210–355. School of Oriental and African Studies, London, UK.
- HELLINGER, M. (2003): “English,” in *Gender Across Languages: The Linguistic Representation of Women and Men, Volume*, ed. by M. Hellinger, and H. Bußman, pp. 105–114. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- HELLINGER, M., AND H. BUSSMAN (2003): “The Linguistic Representation of Women and Men,” in *Gender Across Languages: The Linguistic Representation of Women and Men, Volume 3*, ed. by M. Hellinger, and H. Bußman, pp. 1–26. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- HLA, K. (2018): personal communication.
- HOLLIS, A. C. (1905): *The Masai: Their Language and Folklore*. Oxford at the Clarendon Press, London, UK.
- HULL, G., AND ANCE ECCLES (2001): *Tetum Reference Grammar*. Sebastiao Aparicio da Silva Project, in conjunction with Instituto Nacional de Linguistica, Universidade Nacional Timor Lorosa’e, Winston Hills, Australia.

- HURSKAINEN, A. (1999): “Noun classification in African languages,” in *Gender in Grammar and Cognition*, ed. by B. Unterbeck, and M. Rissanen, pp. 665–688. Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin, Germany.
- HUTCHINSON, A. P., AND J. LLOYD (1996): *Portuguese: An Essential Grammar*. Routledge, New York, NY.
- IBRAHIM, M. H. (1973): *Grammatical Gender: Its Origin and Development*. The Hague, Netherlands, Mouton.
- JOHANSON, L. (2013[2002]): *Structural Factors in Turkic Language Contacts*. Routledge, Abingdon, UK.
- JOSEPH, B., A. COSTANZO, AND J. SLOCUM (2014): “Albanian Online Lesson 1: Tosk,” University of Texas at Austin College of Liberal Arts Linguistics Research Center, <http://www.utexas.edu/cola/centers/lrc/eieol/albo1-1-X.html> [accessed 4 June 2016].
- KARATSAREAS, P. (2009): “The loss of grammatical gender in Cappadocian Greek,” *Transactions of the Philological Society*, 107(2), 196–230.
- (2014): “On the diachrony of gender in Asia Minor Greek: the development of semantic agreement in Pontic,” *Language Sciences*, 43(2), 77–101.
- KILARSKI, M. (2013): *Nominal Classification: A History of Its Study from the Classical Period to the Present*. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- KONIUSZANIEC, G., AND H. BLASZKOWSKA (2003): “Language and Gender in Polish,” in *Gender Across Languages: The Linguistic Representation of Women and Men, Volume 3*, ed. by M. Hellinger, and H. Bußman, pp. 259–286. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- KRISHNAMURTI, B. (2001): *Comparative Dravidian Linguistics*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- KUNTJARA, E. (2001): “Gender in Javanese Indonesian,” in *Gender Across Languages: The Linguistic Representation of Women and Men, Volume 1*, ed. by M. Hellinger, and H. Bussman. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- LAMBERTI, M., AND R. SOTTILE (1997): *The Wolaytta Language*. Rudiger Koppe Verlag Koln, Cologne, Germany.
- LEAFGREN, J. (2011): “A Concise Bulgarian Grammar,” Center for Slavic, Eurasian, and East European Studies, Duke University, <http://slaviccenters.duke.edu/projects/grammars> [accessed 4 June 2016].
- LEWIS, M. P., G. F. SIMONS, AND C. D. FENNIG, EDS., (2016): “Ethnologue: Languages of the World, nineteenth edition.” Dallas, Texas: SIL International, Online version: <http://www.ethnologue.com> [accessed 4 June 2016].
- MACDOUGALL, B. G., AND K. DE ABREW (2014): “Sinhala Basic Course: Module 3 Sinhala Structures,” Foreign Service Institute, Department of State, [www.fsi-language-courses.net/.../Sinhala/Basic/.../FSI%20-%20Sinhala%...](http://www.fsi-language-courses.net/.../Sinhala/Basic/.../FSI%20-%20Sinhala%...) [accessed 4 June 2016].
- MASICA, C. P. (1991): *The Indo-Aryan Languages*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- MCKENZIE, I. (1999–2017): “The linguistics of Spanish.” Online version: <http://www.staff.ncl.ac.uk/i.e.mackenzie/index.html> [accessed 6 January 2018].
- MCWHORTER, J. H. (2005): *Defining Creole*. Oxford University Press.

- MEYER-BAHLBURG, H. (1972): *Studien der orphologie und Syntax des Musgu*. Helmut Buske Verlag, Hamburg, Germany.
- MOAG, R. F. (1977): *Fiji Hindi: A Basic Course and Reference Grammar*. Australian National University Press, in collaboration with Extension Services, University of the South Pacific, Suva, Fiji.
- MUHLEISEN, S., AND D. E. WALICEK (2010): “Language and Gender in the Caribbean: An Overview,” *Sargasso: Explorations of Language, Gender, and Sexuality*, 2008–2009(I), 15–30.
- NAGARAJA, K. (2015): “Standard Khasi,” in *The Handbook of Austroasiatic Languages, Volume 1*, ed. by M. Jenny, and P. Sidwell, pp. 1145–1185. Kininklijke Brill, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- NAWATA, T. (1984): *Mazandarani*. Institute for the Study of Languages and Cultures of Asia and Africa, Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, Tokyo, Japan.
- OBATA, K. (2003): *A Grammar of Bilua: A Papuan Language of the Solomon Islands*. Pacific Linguistics, Canberra, Australia.
- PROUDFOOT, A., AND F. CARDO (2005): *Italian Grammar: A Practical Guide, Second Edition*. Routledge, London, UK.
- RAKIM, A. K. (2018): personal communication.
- RASTORGUEVA, V. S., A. A. KERIMOVA, A. K. MAMEDZADE, L. A. PIREIKO, AND D. I. EDELMAN (2012): *The Gilaki Language*, no. 19 in Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis. Studia Iranica Upsaliensia. Superintendent Government Printing, Uppsala, Sweden, English translation, editing, and expanded content by Ronald M. Lockwood.
- RING, H. (2015): “Pnar,” in *The Handbook of Austroasiatic Languages, Volume 1*, ed. by M. Jenny, and P. Sidwell, pp. 1186–1228. Kininklijke Brill, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- ROSATO, M. (1980): “Didinga Grammar and Dictionary,” Edited by Stefano Santandrea.
- ROTTLAND, F. (1990): “A Sketch of Shinasha Morphology,” in *Omoti Language Studies*, ed. by R. J. Hayward, pp. 185–209. School of Oriental and African Studies, London, UK.
- SCHULZE, W. (2000): *Northern Talysh*. Lincom Europa, Muenchen, Germany.
- SOUAG, L. (2010): “Grammatical Contact in the Sahara,” Ph.D. thesis, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London.
- STOLZ, T. (2013): “Survival in a niche: on gender copy in Chamorro,” in *Morphologies in Contact*, ed. by M. Vanhove, T. Stolz, A. Urdze, and H. Otsuka. Walter de Gruyter, Berlin, Germany.
- STRECKER, D. (1987): “Tai Languages,” in *The World’s Major Languages*, ed. by B. Comrie. Oxford University Press, New York, USA.
- SVANTESSON, J.-O. (1983): *Kammu Phonology and Morphology*. CWK Gleerup, Malmo, Sweden.
- SVANTESSON, J.-O., AND A. HOLMER (2015): “Kammu,” in *The Handbook of Austroasiatic Languages, Volume 2*, ed. by M. Jenny, and P. Sidwell, pp. 957–1002. Kininklijke Brill, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- TOEBOSCH, A. (2011): “Plautdietsch Gender: Between Dutch and German,” in *Studies on German-Language Islands*, ed. by M. T. Putnam, pp. 67–110. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- TOULMIN, M. W. (2006): “Linguistic History in a Dialect Continuum: The Kamta, Rajbanshi, and Northern Deshi Bangla subgroup of Indo-Aryan,” Ph.D. thesis, Australian National University, <https://openresearch-repository.anu.edu.au/handle/1885/45743> [accessed 15 January 2018].

- TOURNEUX, H. (1978): *Le Mulwi Ou Vulum de Mogroum (Tchad)*. Selaf, Paris, France.
- TRUSSEL, S. (1979): “Kiribati: Grammar Handbook,” Peace Corps Language Handbook Series, [http://www.trussel.com/f\\\_kir.htm](http://www.trussel.com/f\_kir.htm) [accessed 4 June 2016].
- TUCKER, A. N. (1967): *The Eastern Sudanic Languages*. International African institute, London, UK.
- UCLA LANGUAGE MATERIALS PROJECT (2014): “Teaching Resources for Less Commonly Taught Languages,” <http://www.lmp.ucla.edu/> [accessed 4 June 2016].
- VEKENS, R. F. A. (1928): *La Langue des Makere, des Medje et des Mangbetu*. Editions Dominicaines Veritas, Ghent.
- WALTERS, J. K. (2016): *A Grammar of Dazaga*. Koninklijke Brill, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- WEI, J., AND J. A. EDMONDSON (2008): “Sui,” in *The Tai-Kadai Languages*, ed. by A. V. Diller, J. A. Edmondson, and Y. Luo, pp. 585–595. Routledge, Abingdon, UK.
- WILDE, C. P. (2008): “A Sketch of the Phonology and Grammar of Rajbanshi,” Ph.D. thesis, University of Helsinki.
- WILLIAMS-VAN KLINKEN, C., J. HAJEK, AND R. NORDLINGER (2002): *Tetun Dili: A Grammar of an East Timorese Language*. Pacific Languages, Canberra, Australia.
- WINDFUHR, G. (2009): *The Iranian Languages*. Routledge, Abingdon, UK.
- YADAV, R. (1996): *A Reference Grammar of Maithili*. Walter de Gruyter, Cambridge, UK.
- ZOGRAPH, G. A. (1982): *Languages of South Asia*, vol. Volume 3 of *Languages of Asia and Africa*. Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., London, UK, Translated by G. L. Campbell.