This paper was commissioned by the Education for All Global Monitoring Report as background information to assist in drafting the 2009 report. It has not been edited by the team. The views and opinions expressed in this paper are those of the author(s) and should not be attributed to the EFA Global Monitoring Report or to UNESCO. The papers can be cited with the following reference: “Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009, Overcoming Inequality: why governance matters” For further information, please contact efareport@unesco.org
Home language and education in the developing world

Commissioned study for EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009

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July 2008

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Abstract

In this report the relationship between the language spoken at home and educational attendance and attainment is studied for 26 developing countries from all regions of the developing world. For these 26 countries, we have constructed country profiles that show the percentages of the population belonging to the major linguistic groups and the variation in adult educational attainment and children’s educational attendance among the these groups. The profiles reveal for most of the countries substantial variation in educational attendance and attainment according to home language. This variation is present both for men and women and in urban and rural areas. To gain insight into the causes of the variation in attendance of children, two multivariate analyses are performed. The first analysis focuses on the variation within the countries. It shows that in most countries a substantial part of the variation in attendance among linguistic groups is due to variation in household wealth, parental education, gender, and urbanization of place of living of the members of the groups. In the second analysis we use multilevel models to study for 153 linguistic groups whether the variation in attendance of children is related to variation in the availability of mother-tongue based multilingual education, in concentration of the groups in rural areas, and in the country’s degree of linguistic fractionalization. Educational attendance is higher when there is mother-tongue instruction in the language spoken by the group and it is lower for groups concentrated in rural areas. The positive effects of mother-tongue instruction are stronger for groups concentrated in rural areas, thus highlighting its potential for improving the situation of groups in more difficult circumstances. Group size and linguistic fractionalization of the country have no effect on attendance and the effects of mother-tongue instruction are about equally strong for girls and boys.
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Part A. Home language and education

A1. Background and context

The Education for All Global Monitoring Report (GMR) annually assesses progress towards the achievement of the six EFA goals to which over 160 countries committed themselves at the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000. The GMR aims to inform and influence education and aid policies through an authoritative, evidence-based review of educational progress and a balanced analysis of critical challenges facing countries. The work presented in the GMR reflects a broad research exercise, drawing upon background papers prepared by researchers, experts and institutes from around the world. Six reports -- two general and four thematic -- have been published thus far: Is the World on Track? (2002); The Leap to Equality (2003/4); The Quality Imperative (2005); and Literacy for Life (2006); Strong Foundations: Early childhood care and education (2007) and Education for All by 2015: Will we make it? (2008). The theme of the planned 2009 Report is the impact of educational governance, finance and management on progress towards EFA. All reports can be consulted at www.efareport.unesco.org. In addition to reporting on overall progress towards the EFA goals, the 2009 report intends to:

• Examine the inter-play between education, poverty and other dimensions of human development
• Synthesise international research on the factors affecting inequalities in attendance and achievement
• Map information about key aspects of the governance, management and financing of education
• Critically examine actual reforms, policies and practices in the GMF of education
• Monitor aid flows and changes in government-donor relations

The current study fits within the second topic of the 2009 report. Discrepancies between the language which children speak at home (henceforth called home language) and the language used in the educational system (henceforth called language of instruction) are a major source of inequalities in attendance, attainment and achievement, both in the developed and the developing world. However, whereas other sources of inequalities in educational outcomes, like differences in parental education, occupation, family size, birth order, or immigrant status, have gained much attention in comparative research, many fewer comparative studies, and mostly in OECD countries, have studied how children’s language proficiencies in relation to a country’s official languages and the
language(s) of instruction affect educational outcomes (for exceptions, see OECD 2006; Hampden-Thompson and Johnston 2006).

This study examines the relationship between the language spoken at home and educational attendance and attainment in 26 developing countries, based on evidence compiled from recently collected nationally representative household surveys. We first briefly go into the position of UNESCO regarding linguistic issues as it emerges from UNESCO reports and papers. Then we present an overview of the research conducted so far in this area, with a focus on the available evidence for the existence of effects of home language on educational outcomes and the explanations given for these effects. After this literature review, we proceed to the empirical part of the report which presents country-specific and comparative analyses addressing the following key questions:

1. What is(are) the official language(s), the leading language(s) and the language(s) of instruction in primary and secondary education?
2. What is the relative size of the different linguistic groups within the countries and how does it differ among age groups (to indicate changes over time)?
3. To what extent do educational attainment levels of men and women aged 16-49 vary according to home language?
4. To what extent are there differences in attendance rates among primary and secondary school age children, according to their home languages?
5. To what extent are the differences in educational attendance among children from different home language groups due to variation in socio-economic status of the household, gender, and the degree of urbanization of the place in which they are living?
6. To what extent are differences among linguistic groups in educational attendance related to the degree to which the groups are concentrated in rural areas, the availability of mother-tongue based multilingual education, and the degree of linguistic fractionalization in the country?
7. Is the effect of mother-tongue based multilingual education stronger for linguistic groups concentrated in rural areas and for women?

A2. UNESCO’s position

Various UNESCO declarations and conventions stress the educational rights of persons belonging to minority groups, the importance of mother tongue, and the promotion of cultural diversity (Article 5 of the 1960 Convention against Discrimination in Education; Article 22 of the 1976 Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education; Article 9 of the 1978 Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice; Article 6 of the 2001 Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity).
These declarations are in line with international agreements, like the 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights which outlines the right of persons belonging to minorities to use their own language, and Article 28 of the 1989 ILO Convention on Indigenous and Tribal Peoples which states that, wherever practicable, children are to be taught to “read and write in their home language or in the language most commonly used by the group to which they belong (…) and that adequate measures should be taken to ensure that they have the opportunity to attain fluency in the national language or in one of the official languages of the country”. Besides, measures shall be taken to “preserve and promote the development and practice of the indigenous languages of the peoples concerned.”

In order to support these rights, UNESCO provides guidance on the implementation of bilingual and multilingual education policies for national policy-makers and planners, language of instruction policies, elaboration of teaching-learning materials in national languages, promoting cultural and linguistic diversity, and home language instruction in education. The basic guiding principles which have been common to all the documents, agreements and recommendations produced throughout the years of UNESCO’s mandate for action in this field can be divided into three basic principles (UNESCO, 2003):

1. UNESCO supports mother-tongue instruction as a means of improving educational quality by building upon the knowledge and experience of the learners and teachers.

2. UNESCO supports bilingual and/or multilingual education at all levels of education as a means of promoting both social and gender equality and as a key element of linguistically diverse societies.

3. UNESCO supports language as an essential component of inter-cultural education in order to encourage understanding between different population groups and ensure respect for fundamental rights.

Instruction in one’s home language is considered very important by UNESCO, because it fosters inclusion in education. According to UNESCO (2005), a linguistic mismatch between school and community may create problems in access to school services, especially with respect to girls’ education, and “not all speakers of these languages have sufficient knowledge of the languages used in education. Therefore, they are underprivileged in terms of educational access, retention and achievement. In some cases, speakers of local languages are marginalized and threatened by being completely excluded from education due to prevailing language policies” (p. 3).

The 2006 EFA Report “Literacy for Life” discussed the disadvantages in education experienced by indigenous groups. The Report stated that there are approximately 300-350 million indigenous people who speak about 4000 to 5000 languages and live in more than 70 countries. According to
the Report there is evidence pointing towards significant disparities between indigenous and non-indigenous populations. Limited access to formal education is a good example; the literacy rates among indigenous people are significantly lower than those of non-indigenous people. The Report also recommended the use of mother tongue in education, because initial education in the mother tongue is widely recognized to be positive for a child’s cognitive development. However, a majority of countries facing salient literacy challenges are linguistically diverse, and therefore decisions on language must balance besides pedagogical effectiveness and costs preferences also political and ethnic sensitivity, and learner preferences.

The 2008 Report “Education for All by 2015, Will we make it?”, highlighted the fact that effective teaching and improved learning outcomes are intimately intertwined with issues of language. In many countries more languages are spoken than are used as medium of instruction. Therefore, many students enter school facing a foreign medium of instruction or a language that differs from the one spoken at home. The 2008 Report noted that research has consistently shown that children acquire linguistic and cognitive skills more readily in their mother tongue and are then able to transfer these to a widely used, national and regional language. The report also showed that, while there is still a long way to go, much progress is being made and there is increasing acceptance of multilingualism and mother-tongue instruction in primary education.

A3. Theoretical overview

A3.1 Home language and education

It has long been acknowledged that educational outcomes may be negatively affected if there is a difference between the languages which children speak at home and the languages used in the educational system. Empirical studies for both developed and developing countries show that pupils who have another home language than the language of instruction experience higher drop out rates (Steinberg, 1984; Van Dyken, 1990; Benson, 2000; Mohanlal, 2001; Hovens, 2002; Klaus, 2003; Bamgbose, 2005; Benson, 2005a; Lewis, 2006), higher repetition rates (Patrinos, 1997; Benson, 2000; Hovens, 2002; Klaus, 2003; Bamgbose, 2005; Benson, 2005a; Lewis, 2006) and have lower levels of attainment and achievement in general (Rosenthal, 1983; Rong, 1992; Rumberger, 1998; Beckett, 2002; Bamgbose, 2005; Lewis, 2006; Hampden-Thomson, 2006).

Especially with respect to disadvantaged, vulnerable groups, a difference between the home language and the language of instruction has a negative influence on schooling attainment and achievement. Vulnerable pupils in this respect may be rural children, poorer children and girls (Hovens, 2002; Benson, 2005a; Lewis, 2006). Lewis and Lockheed (2006) showed that nearly three-quarters of the 60 million girls not in school belong to ethnic, religious, linguistic, racial or
other minorities. As girls often have less contact with the language of instruction of a country, they may be more disadvantaged when they enter school than boys (Lewis, 2006). Smits and Gündüz-Hosgör (2003) for instance found that in Turkey over half of the (mostly rural) girls who did not go to primary education had a mother who was not able to speak Turkish. According to Lewis and Lockheed (2006), linguistic diversity within a country does not necessarily lead to a failure to educate pupils – the Basques in Spain are, for instance, linguistically diverse but have high levels of education. It is according to them, diversity accompanied by derogation and discrimination that leads to exclusion. They conclude that linguistic and ethnic heterogeneity reduces the likelihood of primary school completion for pupils and increases the gender gap in attainment.

Why would home language hamper educational outcomes? There are various explanations for low achievement and attainment of language-minority pupils. For psychological, sociological and educational reasons the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction is favored. Because educational systems often presuppose the possession of linguistic competence, there is a great deal of inefficiency in the ‘pedagogic transmission’ if, in fact, students do not understand what their teachers try to learn them (Akinnaso, 1993; Sullivan, 2001; Klaus, 2003; Lewis, 2006). Van Dyken (1990) argues that millions of African children find their first days at school bewildering as they not only have to adjust to the strange environment of school, but also to a teacher who does not speak their language. Benson (2002), furthermore, observed that when teachers and students are both speaking the same language, teachers can get a much better idea of what their students are learning (see also: Klaus, 2003). Bourdieu (1991) considers the ability to speak a country’s dominant language properly as a social resource that may be helpful in gaining access to the country’s desirable goods and positions. This linguistic capital may be transferred into other forms of capital like economic or social capital and thus help the “legitimate speakers of the legitimate language” on their path to societal success.

Children who speak a language at home that is different from that used in school often encounter discrimination and learning challenges (Lewis and Lockheed, 2006). According to Erickson (1987), differences in ways of speaking and listening between pupils and teachers can lead to systematic and recurrent miscommunications in the classroom. Steinberg et al. (1984) argue that the particular language spoken by non-English-speaking pupils in the United States may influence the way they are treated in educational institutions and their dropout rates.

Language and ethnicity are deeply intertwined. Ethnicity can be seen as a social construction that indicates identification with a particular group that is often a minority within a country. Members of ethnic groups share common cultural traits, such as their language. Language contributes to the social and psychological processes involved in the formation of ethnic identity.
A separate language helps to strengthen ethnic attachments and inter-ethnic group solidarity. The use of a local language may thus unify ethnic groups, but it may also isolate the members from the dominant language speaking part of the population and restrict them in their use of the society’s legitimate resources, including education.

Persons who are not able to speak a country’s dominant language often experience negative consequences. They have less access to written and spoken sources, cannot fulfill official jobs, are confined in their relationships to their own social group, and may depend on others for information that is important for them (Smits and Gündüz-Hosgör, 2003). Language and ethnicity may also be intertwined with conflicts, inequity and discrimination (Cornell and Hartmann, 1998; Lewis, 2006). In terms of educational attainment, people who do not speak the language of instruction have less opportunity to understand enrollment procedures, communicate with school officials, or comprehend what is being taught. When in school, the quality of education for these pupils is lower, because they do not understand what is being taught. This leads to inequalities of opportunity (Benson, 2005a). Lewis and Lockheed (2006), for instance, found indications that the cross-country correlation between ethno-linguistic fractionalization in developing countries and the learning achievements is negative. This result suggests that in countries with high linguistic diversity the educational system is not able to take this diversity in an adequate way into account.

A3.2 Mother-tongue instruction

To reduce the disadvantages experienced in school by children of a language background that differs from the language of instruction, mother-tongue based bilingual and multilingual education is broadly considered to be the best solution. In bilingual education, both the mother tongue and a regional or national language is used in education. In multilingual education, besides these two language also at least one international language is used (UNESCO, 2003).

Children who study in their mother tongue learn better and faster than children who study using second languages or non-mother tongues (see for instance: Akinnaso, 1993; Pong, 1993; Angrist, 1997; Malone, 2003; Woldemikael, 2003; Benson, 2005a, b; Baker, 2006; Lewis, 2006). Pupils who started in their mother tongues can read and write better, even in the second language (Lin, 1997; Okedara, 2000; Benson 2000; Brock-Utne, 2001; Benson, 2002; Hovens, 2002; Malone, 2003; Dutcher, 2004; Bamgbose, 2005; Baker, 2006). Benson (2000) describes how this process works: “Teaching beginning literacy in the child’s first languages helps him/her make the connection between meaningful speech and written language, rather than struggling to decode a language which she does not command. Mother-tongue instruction also offers important benefits such as the
development of strong self-concept and self-confidence and higher-level cognitive skills, all of which can later be applied to learning in another language”.

According to Benson (2000), pupils do not only benefit from use of the mother tongue in terms of cognitive skills and bilingualism, but also in terms of classroom participation and self-confidence. Benson (2002) argues that instruction in one’s home language increases self-esteem in at least two ways. First, teachers can get more immediate and comprehensible feedback about what students know and what they are learning, so they can make more realistic evaluations of their pupils’ performances. Second, children are allowed to express their full range of knowledge and experience in a language in which they are competent (see also: Klaus, 2003, Dutcher, 2004). In this respect, Brock-Utne (2006) observed in Tanzania that if one wants to develop pupils who think creatively and critically, while combining old and new knowledge, the learning going on in the classroom should be in the home language.

Another advantage of using home languages in schools is that it preserves minority languages and folk traditions (Yates, 1995; Lin, 1997; Brock-Utne, 2001; Benson, 2002; Woldemikael, 2003; Dutcher, 2004). In Eritrea, for instance, the government introduced a national educational policy based on the use of home languages as the medium of instruction in all public schools, in order to foster national unity, identity, and development while respecting cultural diversity (Woldemikael, 2003). In addition to this, it has been argued that mother-tongue instruction increases the active participation of parents in their child’s school related activities, thus raising the child’s esteem for the parents (Dutcher, 1995; Benson, 2002; Klaus, 2003; Malone, 2003; Dutcher, 2004; Benson, 2005a). If the parents can speak in their home language, they find meetings at school more useful, because they can understand the teachers and are no longer ashamed of using their own language (Benson, 2005b).

Especially with respect to disadvantaged group’s educational attainment, adopting a more appropriate language of instruction may make a positive difference (Benson, 2005a; Lewis, 2006). Hovens (2002) argues that instruction in a pupil’s home language seems to permit poorer children and girls to overcome their disadvantages and therefore improves the output of education systems. It appears that rural children get more of an advantage from instruction that starts in the home language (as in Niger) or in a widely spoken national language (as in Guinea-Bissau). Benson (2005b) finds that home language instruction is particularly beneficial for girls and leads to reduced exploitation by male teachers.

The choice of a language of instruction may be a political choice (Brock-Utne, 2001). Colonizers have often imposed dominant group languages in the countries controlled by them. Changing the language of instruction might redistribute power between the elite and the masses.
People’s home language is, therefore, often ignored and the real linguistic composition of a society might not be reflected in its school system. Whether this is always negative for the non-dominant groups remains however to be seen. According to Gupta (1997), the promotion of education in the home language might lead to a separation of ethnic groups in the education system. If members of underprivileged groups do not learn the dominant language well, their access to powers structures in society might decrease even further. In this way, inequality among ethnic groups might be increased by mother-tongue instruction.

However, as becomes clear from the literature overview above, there are strong indications that, at least for pedagogical reasons, mother-tongue instruction may decrease inequality, because it decreases miscommunication in the classroom and improves pupil’s self-esteem and motivation for learning (Erickson, 1987). In this respect, not only the language of instruction is important, but also the context of education. According the Mohanlal (2001), in order to increase a child’s motivation to learn, the contents of education should be in accordance with the context in which the pupils live.

In short, the discrepancy between a child’s home language and the language of instruction leads to lower levels of educational attendance, attainment and achievement. Although several nations have a great deal of experience in multilingual teaching, and there is a growing literature which documents linguistic experiments and innovation in school contexts (see for instance: Akinnaso, 1993; Benson, 2000), still most of the literature consists of case studies. Lewis and Lockheed (2006) argue that the evidence on educational attainment and performance among indigenous and non-indigenous populations relies for high-income OECD countries on a rich set of data, which however is largely lacking for developing countries. By presenting new figures derived from high-quality household-level surveys, the current study aims to fill in this data gap to a certain extent.

A4. Research strategy

To answer research questions 1 to 4 we have analyzed the information on home language available in representative survey data sets for 26 developing countries and constructed country profiles on the basis of the results. Each country profile contains:

1. Background information on the linguistic situation in the country, including information on the ‘official language’, the three major ‘leading languages in daily life’, the ‘language of instruction’ in primary and secondary education, information on the data source used for constructing the profile and the way language was measured in the data.

2. The percentages of the population aged 16 to 49 belonging to the different linguistic groups, for the group as a whole and for three age groups separately, to get an indication of the changes in size of the linguistic groups over time (Table 1).
Figures on educational attainment of males and females aged 16 to 49 belonging to the different linguistic groups (Table 2).

Figures on educational attendance of children of primary and secondary school age and children aged 7-11 and 12-16 with different home languages. This information is presented for all children in these age groups and for urban and rural areas separately (Table 3).

Unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios, indicating the differences in educational attendance according to home language for children of primary and secondary school age and children aged 7-11 and 12-16. The adjusted odds ratios are controlled for variation in household wealth, educational attainment, gender, parental absence and urbanization of place of living (Table 4).

The country profiles for the 26 countries are presented in Part C of this report. The key information from the country profiles is also summarized in Table B1 in Part B. This table gives an overview of all languages which according to our data are spoken in the study countries, together with the major findings regarding educational attainment and attendance of the members of the linguistic groups.

Most of the information presented in the country profiles is descriptive information that aims to show us how the situation with respect to home language and educational attendance and attainment is in the countries under study. However, this information does not give much insight into the underlying causes of the educational differences among the groups. In the theoretical part of this report, many arguments were given that help us understand why persons belonging to minority language group are less successful in the educational system. However the empirical evidence supporting these arguments consists mostly of case studies or studies that focus on the situation in developed countries. Broad cross-national comparative research of educational differences among linguistic groups in developing countries is largely lacking. We aim to make a step forward in this respect and have used our data to test the following five hypotheses that emerge from the theoretical overview section:

H1 The differences in educational outcomes among linguistic groups are (partly) due to socio-economic differences and/or differences in urbanization of the place of living among the groups.

H2 The educational outcomes of linguistic groups are worse for groups concentrated in rural areas.

H3 The differences in educational outcomes among linguistic groups are larger in countries with a higher degree of ethno-linguistic fractionalization.

H4 The differences in educational outcomes among linguistic groups are smaller if there is mother-tongue based multilingual education in the language of the groups.
The positive effect of mother-tongue based multilingual education is stronger for groups in less favorable situations (groups in rural areas and women).

To test hypothesis H1, we analysed the differences between the unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios for educational attendance of children presented in the country profiles. To test the other hypotheses, we performed a multilevel regression analysis in which the variation in educational attendance of children belonging to 153 linguistic groups was related to variation in availability of mother-tongue instruction, concentration in rural areas and the country’s degree of linguistic fractionalization, while controlling for gender differences, size of the linguistic groups and the way in which language was measured (by home language or language of interview). Both analyses are performed only for the age groups of children (7-11 and 12-16) and not for the primary and secondary school age groups, because the former are better comparable among the countries (see section B1).

To keep the report readable for a broader audience, we have concentrated all technical information in Part B. There the interested reader will find detailed information on the micro-level datasets that are used, on the way the key variables were measured, on the selections that were made, and on the research methods that are applied. Here we proceed with the result section, in which we first go into the findings of the descriptive analyses (A5.1) and then present and discuss the results of the two multivariate analyses (A5.2 and A5.3).

### A5. Results

#### A5.1 Descriptive findings

In Table B1, the most important figures of the country profiles are summarized. This table shows that the profiles contain information on over 160 local languages and seven international languages (English, French, Portuguese, Arabic, Spanish, Russian and Afrikaans). Although this number is impressive, the languages for which information is available represent only a part, and for some countries only a small part, of all spoken languages. For the goal of this report, analyzing the importance of home language for educational attendance and attainment in developing countries, this is not problematic. The included linguistic groups represent the large majority of the population of the countries and are very diverse with regard to the major variables of interest (educational attendance and attainment, group size, urbanization of place of living, socio-economic status of the members). It should however be kept in mind that the results do not necessarily pertain to very small linguistic groups (representing less than one percent of the population).

Table B1 shows that most of the local languages are spoken in substantial numbers in only one country, but there are also some languages that cross borders (e.g. Aymara, Tigrigna and Fulfulde).
The number of languages that are large enough to be included in this study varies among the countries, between only a few (like in Armenia, Peru, and Zimbabwe) and over 15 (India, Philippines, Mozambique). Some countries have one dominant language spoken by the majority of the population and a number of smaller ones (Armenia, Turkey, the Latin American countries), while in other countries two or more languages that are spoken by a substantial percentage of the population (India, Philippines, most African countries).

Educational attainment and attendance levels vary considerably among the countries and within the countries among the linguistic groups. In the former Soviet republics Armenia, Kazakhstan and Kyrgyz Republic there are hardly any adults with no education. In these countries, the number of children of primary and secondary school age who are not enrolled was so low, that it was not possible to compute reliable attendance figures for them. In Burkina Faso and Mali, on the other hand, over 70 percent of the adults have no education at all and less than half of the children in primary and secondary school age were actually attending.

Within most of the the countries, clear differences among the linguistic groups in attainment of adults and attendance of children can be observed. Almost everywhere, speakers of international languages do much better than speakers of local languages. But also the local language speakers show substantial differences in most of the countries. Sometimes the differences are very large, as in Cameroon (where 8 percent of the Pidgin speakers has no education against 60 percent of the Fulfulde speakers), in Eritrea (where 24 percent of the Tigrigna speakers has no education against 71 percent of the Tigre speakers), or in Nigeria (where 65 percent of the Hausa speakers has no education against less than 10 percent of the Yoruba and Igbo speakers). In other countries the differences are smaller, like in Ethiopia or Kazakhstan (where the educational attainment of adults is about similar for the distinguished groups). However, in none of the countries there are no differences at all.

The first major conclusion of this report is thus that in almost all of the 26 developing countries substantial differences in educational attendance and attainment among linguistic groups exist, with small within-country differences being the exception rather than the rule.

A5.2 Odds ratios for non-attendance

The non-attendance percentages presented in Table 3 of the country profiles (and columns 7 and 8 of Table B1) show the absolute levels of non-attendance of the linguistic groups. The unadjusted odds ratios presented in Table 4 of the country profiles (and columns 9 and 10 of Table B1) basically contain the same information, but shown from a different angle. They indicate to what extent non-attendance among the members of a linguistic group is higher or lower than the average
non-attendance among all linguistic groups in the country. To answer question 5 and test hypothesis H1, we have estimated the odds ratios for each country two times, one time unadjusted and one time adjusted for gender differences and differences in socio-economic status characteristics and urbanization of place of living among the linguistic groups. To compute these odds ratios, logistic regression models were estimated (see Part B for details of the analyses). The change in the size of the odds ratios after adjustment indicates the degree to which the attendance differences within the country are due to differences in socio-economic status characteristics and urbanization among the groups.

Because odds ratios are multiplicative parameters, the average over all linguistic groups is one. Values above one indicate higher than average non-attendance rates and values below one lower than average non-attendance rates. For example, the figure of 1.44 for 7-11 year olds with Aja as home language in Benin indicates that non-attendance among Aja-speaking children in this age group is 1.44 times higher than the country average. The Fon in Benin, on the other hand, do much better, with an odds ratio of 0.64, indicating a non-attendance rate substantially below average. The parameters also allow for a comparison between linguistic groups within the countries. In Benin, the Aja have 1.44/0.64=2.25 times higher non-attendance rates than the Fon.

Because of the very large number of figures in Table B1, it is difficult to draw conclusion that go further than that there is much variation among linguistic groups and countries. We therefore have summarized the findings at the country level in Table A1 (information on the way in which the figures in this table were computed can be found in section B3). Columns 2 and 3 of this table show the unadjusted and adjusted average effects of home language on educational attendance of children aged 7-11 in the countries. Similar effects for children aged 12-16 are presented in the 6th and 7th column. In all but one (Bolivia) of the countries, we observe significant unadjusted effects of home language on educational attendance for the younger children and in all countries on attendance of the older children. These findings are in line with the conclusion of the preceding section that differences in educational attendance among children with different home languages are widely present in all regions of the developing world.

The adjusted figures in columns 3 and 7 show what remains of these differences after adjustment for gender differences and differences in socio-economic status characteristics and urbanization among the groups. As all adjusted coefficients for the older children and all but three (Ghana, Peru, Philippines) of the adjusted coefficients for the younger children still show significant effects, we are led to the conclusion that the socio-economic and other differences for which the coefficients are adjusted only account for part of the attendance differences among the linguistic groups. A similar conclusion can also be drawn on the basis of the Pseudo R² statistics,
which are in most cases between 15 and 30 percent, which is not trivial, but also not too impressive. Hence, socio-economic explanations are only part of the answer.

Table A1. Overall effects of home language on educational attendance (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios), percentage reduction of effect when controlling for background characteristics, model fit of multivariate model, and linguistic characteristics of 22 developing countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Unadjusted 7-11</th>
<th>Adjusted 7-11</th>
<th>% Reduction</th>
<th>Pseudo R² Adj</th>
<th>Unadjusted 12-16</th>
<th>Adjusted 12-16</th>
<th>% Reduction</th>
<th>Pseudo R² Adj</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>1.69*</td>
<td>1.27*</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>1.87*</td>
<td>1.47*</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.16*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>1.78*</td>
<td>1.59*</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
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<td>2.15*</td>
<td>1.29*</td>
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<td>2.31*</td>
<td>1.76*</td>
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<td>44</td>
<td>16.2</td>
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<td>1.24*</td>
<td>+</td>
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<td>1.77*</td>
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<td>1.39*</td>
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<td>+</td>
<td>23.5</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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<td>1.32*</td>
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<td>Togo</td>
<td>1.67*</td>
<td>1.25*</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>2.04*</td>
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<td>26.7</td>
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<td>Turkey</td>
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<td>1.49*</td>
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<td>1.31*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>1.26*</td>
<td>1.18*</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Home language effect significant at P<0.05  
+ Overall effect increased after controlling for family background factors

The figures presented in columns 4 and 8 of the table give an indication of the part of the attendance differences that is due to differences in the background characteristics. For both age groups the reduction is 25 percent or more in 13 of the 22 countries. So in the majority of countries the background characteristics play a role of importance. This result provides support for hypothesis H1. At the same time, there are for both age groups also six or seven countries for which the decrease was very small or in which the language effect even increased after adjustment. Such an increase is possible if a wealthy or urbanized group has relatively low participation rates compared to less urbanized or wealthy groups within the same countries. This is for example the case with the Nama-speakers (Damara and Nama) in Namibia, who in our data are over-represented in the fourth and fifth wealth-quintiles and in the urban areas but do not perform better with regard to educational participation than the other Namibian groups. The countries in which we observe an increase are
Bolivia, Ethiopia, Namibia, Nepal and Zambia for the younger children and Guatemala, Guinea, Namibia, Nepal and Peru for the older children. As these are countries from different regions of the developing world, no clear geographic pattern in their distribution seems to exist.

The findings presented in this section thus lead us to the conclusion that – in line with hypothesis H1 – differences in socio-economic status and urbanization of place of living among linguistic groups are often, but not always, responsible for a substantial part of the within-country differences in educational attendance of children belonging to the groups. At the same time we have to conclude that these factors generally account for less than half of the attendance differences and that after adjustment for them in almost all countries significant attendance differences among the linguistic groups remain. Hence socio-economic explanations give only part of the answer and other explanations for the attendance differences have to be sought, with discrepancies between the language spoken at home and the language of instruction being the major candidate. In the next section, the importance of this and some other factors will be analysed in detail.

A5.3 Multi-level analysis of differences among linguistic groups

To reduce the disadvantages experienced in school by children of a language background that differs from the language of instruction, mother-tongue based bilingual and multilingual education is broadly considered to be the best solution. In the theoretical overview section, appealing arguments in favor of this position are given, which are moreover supported by much empirical research. Most of the evidence is however based on case studies or studies focused on the situation in highly developed countries. Broad comparative research on the effects of mother-tongue instruction on educational attendance in developing countries is largely lacking.

In this section, we use the information in the country-profiles on educational attendance of children for 153 linguistic groups in 23 countries to test four hypotheses (H2 to H5) on effects of characteristics of the linguistic groups and the context in which the members live on educational attendance of children belonging to the groups. We have constructed a dataset that contains, for each linguistic group, information on its size (as percentage of the country’s population), the percentage of its members living in rural areas, and an indicator for the presence of mother-tongue instruction in that language. This dataset is supplemented with information at the country level on the degree of linguistic fractionalization and whether or not the language of the interview was used to indicate mother tongue. To get an indication of the degree to which mother-tongue instruction is available for each of the 153 languages, a scale was constructed on the basis of an extensive review of the available literature and internet information. This scale has the following categories: (0) Not at all, (1) Some schools/experiments, (2) About half of schools, (3) Most schools, and (4) All...
schools. As the literature is often vague and sometimes contradictory and the availability of mother-
tongue instruction tends to change over time, the scale is not perfect. However, we feel confident
(and the results seem to confirm) that it gives a crude indication of the degree to which the members
of a language can get schooling in their mother tongue, which is good enough for use in a
multivariate analysis (for further details see sections B4 and B5).

Table A2. Coefficients of multilevel regression models with non-attendance percentages of
linguistic groups as dependend variable and selected characteristics of linguistic groups and
countries as independent variables for 153 linguistic groups in 23 countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age 7-11</th>
<th>Age 12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>se(B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>-4.80</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother-tongue instruction</td>
<td>-4.38**</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage in rural area</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction mother-tongue instruction with rural</td>
<td>-0.10**</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender is female</td>
<td>3.85**</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction mother-tongue instruction with gender</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of linguistic group</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic fractionalization</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language of interview</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using this dataset, we have performed multilevel regression analyses with the percentages of
children who are not in school as dependent variables and the characteristics of the linguistic groups
and their contexts as independent variables. The results, presented in Table A2, are largely similar
for both age groups. The effect of mother-tongue instruction is significantly negative at both levels,
which indicates that non-attendance of children with a certain home language is lower if mother-
tongue instruction for that language is available at more of the schools frequented by that linguistic
group. Hence, in line with hypothesis H4, mother-tongue instruction turns out to be favorable for
educational attendance of children in the countries studied.

The coefficients for mother-tongue instruction in Table A2 represent the average percentual
decline of non-attendance with each upward step on our scale. However, as the scale gives only a
crude indication of the availability of mother-tongue instruction and the effects on educational
attendance probably are not completely linear, we also have entered this variable in the form of
dummy variables. It turned out that the major difference is between the two lowest and the three
highest categories. If mother-tongue instruction is available at about half or more of the schools frequented by the members of a linguistic group, the percentage of children out of school in that group was about 10 percent lower compared to groups for which mother-tongue instruction is not or only at a restricted number of schools available.

Table A2 further shows that also the degree to which the members of a linguistic group are living in rural areas is important for educational attendance: Children belonging to linguistic groups that are more concentrated in rural areas have significantly higher levels of non-attendance. This result supports hypothesis H2. Besides the main effect of living in rural areas, also the interaction of this variable with the presence of mother-tongue instruction is significant: In rural areas the reduction of non-attendance due to mother-tongue instruction is stronger. Hence, in line with hypothesis H5, our results make clear that children living under the more difficult circumstances that are generally encountered in the rural areas of the developing world tend to benefit most of mother-tongue instruction.

Our findings with regard to the gender differences in educational attendance are not in line with hypothesis H5. Although clear gender differences in educational attendance are found, with girls having higher non-attendance rates than boys, the size of these differences is not related to the extent of mother-tongue instruction in their home languages. Hence, both boys and girls seem to profit about equally of mother-tongue instruction.

The degree of linguistic fractionalization of the country in which the linguistic group members live has no significant effect on educational attendance. Hypothesis 3 is thus not supported by our data. Also the control factors size of the linguistic group and whether the language of the interview was used to indicate home language are not significantly related to educational attendance.

In sum, our multilevel analysis of variation in educational non-attendance shows that in developing countries mother-tongue based multilingual education is important for educational attendance of children speaking local languages at home and that this effect is especially important for linguistic groups that are concentrated in rural areas of the countries.

A6. Conclusions
In this report, survey data on the use of home language and its consequences for educational attendance and attainment are brought together for over 160 languages spoken in 26 developing countries. For each country, a country profile is constructed with background information on the linguistic situation in the country, information on the languages spoken, and on the sizes of the linguistic groups that could be distinguished, and information on educational attainment of adults and educational attendance of children belonging to these groups. The country profiles reveal a
wealth of variation with respect to all characteristics of the countries and linguistic groups studied. With regard to the major outcome variables of this study, educational attendance and attainment, inequality among linguistic groups turned out to be pervasive. In almost all countries, some of the groups are better able to build up human capital and get their children into school than other groups.

The exact pattern of the differences varies among the countries. Sometimes there is one group that clearly performs better than all others, like the Spanish speakers in the Latin American countries studied or the Nepali speakers in Nepal. Sometimes there is one group which performs clearly less than the others, like the Fulfulde in Cameroon, the Hausa in Nigeria, or the Nyanja in Zambia. Sometimes the largest group performs best, as in Turkey, Eritrea and, Bolivia and sometimes a smaller group like in Cameroon, Guinea and Nigeria. Each country, in fact, shows a unique constellation of the factors that are central in this study: number of linguistic groups, sizes of the groups, educational attainment of adults and educational attendance of children.

The underlying processes within the countries that are responsible for the observed national patterns could not be addressed within this study. To understand them well, for each separate country an extensive study would be necessary, going much farther than this report. It is not our intention to present such an indepth study. We aim to sketch a broad overview of the situation with regard to home language and education in the developing world and to use the variation within and among countries to answer questions about the nature of the differences in educational performance among linguistic groups and the effectiveness of mother-tongue instruction in reducing them.

Regarding the nature of the differences among the linguistic groups, we hypothesized that they would be in part the result of differences in socio-economic characteristics and urbanization of place of living of the groups. This hypothesis was tested by estimating, for each country separately, the variation in educational attendance among children with different home languages, one time unadjusted and one time adjusted for variation in socio-economic and other background characteristics. The difference between the unadjusted and adjusted coefficients gives an indication of the proportion of the differences in educational attendance among the groups that is due to differences in the background characteristics. This proportion was in most cases less than 50 percent and in half of the cases less than 30 percent. This means that only part of the variation can be explained by differences in the background characteristics, and that thus a substantial part of the variation is caused by other factors, of which the difficulties experienced at school by children of minority language background is the most likely candidate.

If this would indeed be the case, we would expect to find fewer differences in educational attendance among linguistic groups, if the friction between home language and language of instruction would be solved by mother-tongue based multilingual education. To test this and other
hypotheses, we have estimated multilevel regression models in which the variation in educational attendance among 153 linguistic groups in 23 countries was explained on the basis of explanatory variables at the linguistic group level (percentage living in rural areas, size of the group, degree to which mother-tongue instruction is available for the group, gender) and at the country level (degree of linguistic fractionalization and a control factor for the way language was measured).

The multilevel analyses made clear that the presence of mother-tongue instruction indeed leads to a major reduction in non-participation of both younger (7-11) and older (12-16) children. If half or more of the schools frequented by the members of a linguistic group offer instruction in the language of that group, the percentage of children out of school is on average 10 percent lower than if only a restricted number or no schools would offer this instruction. The analyses further showed that children of linguistic groups that are more concentrated in rural areas experience greater attendance problems, and that these children profit even more from mother-tongue instruction than children belonging to more urbanized groups.

We also tested whether mother-tongue instruction would be especially helpful in reducing the disadvantages experienced by girls in the educational system, but found no support for this hypothesis. Both boys and girls were found to profit about equally of mother-tongue instruction. Of the other variables included in the analysis, none had significant effects. Hence neither size of the linguistic group, nor the country’s degree of linguistic fractionalization play a role of importance.

The finding that non-attendance rates of children differ much among the linguistic groups studied in this report and that these differences are substantially reduced if there is mother-tongue instruction in the language of a group, shows two important things that were already widely known from empirical studies and field work reports, but were not yet solidly founded in broad comparative research: (1) language problems are a non-negligible source of educational attendance problems of children in developing countries, and (2) mother-tongue instruction is a major instrument for overcoming these problems and increasing educational attendance, especially for groups in difficult circumstances.

In sum, this report presented figures on home language and education for 26 developing countries that reveal non-negligible differences in educational attendance and attainment among linguistic groups within almost all countries. The analyses of the differences indicated that in most countries they are in part but not completely due to differences in socio-economic status characteristics and urbanization among the groups. The analyses also showed that for reduction of these differences mother-tongue based multilingual education is a major instrument, which is especially important for linguistic groups living under the more difficult circumstances of the rural areas of the developing world.
### A7. Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>Home language</td>
<td>Language spoken in the home&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Note: some people have more than one home language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official language</td>
<td>Language adopted by a country for public administrative and institutional use, often including schools&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language of instruction</td>
<td>Language used for teaching and learning the school curriculum, also called medium of instruction&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local language</td>
<td>Language spoken in the immediate community&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Note: may refer to languages that are not yet fully developed in written form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading language</td>
<td>Language spoken by a substantial part of the population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother-tongue instruction</td>
<td>Using the learner’s mother tongue as the medium of instruction&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multilingual education</td>
<td>The use of two or more languages as medium of instruction. When two languages are used, the term bilingual education may be used. In 1999 in the General Conference Resolution 12, UNESCO adopted the term multilingual education to refer to the use of at least three languages, the mother tongue, a regional or national language and an international language in education&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Source: UNESCO (2007b)  
<sup>b</sup> Source: UNESCO (2003)
A8. References


Benson, C. (2005a), Girls, educational equity and mother tongue, Bangkok: UNESCO.


Hampden-Thompson, G. and J.S. Johnston (2006), Variation in the Relationship Between Nonschool Factors and Student Achievement on International Assessments, National Center for Education Statistics, NCES 2006-014


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UNESCO (2005), Mother tongue-based teaching and education for girls: advocacy brief, Bangkok: UNESCO.


PART B. TECHNICAL DETAILS

B1. Data

The micro-level data used for this report are all Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), which are nationally representative household surveys, sponsored by USAID, that have been held in the last decades in many developing countries. The aim of the DHS endeavor is to provide data for a wide range of monitoring and impact evaluation indicators in the areas of population, health, and nutrition (www.measuredhs.com). The DHS surveys consist of a household survey, in which basic information on all household members is collected (including educational information), and a women’s survey, in which extensive information is collected on a large number of topics related to (reproductive) health and fertility in oral interviews with all women aged 16-49 in the households.

Information on home language is not standardly asked in DHS surveys. However, besides a large number of standard questions, in most surveys also country-specific questions are asked among which there sometimes are questions on language spoken by the respondent or in the household. Of the surveys that lack such questions, a substantial number contains information on the language in which the interview was held that can be used as an alternative for directly asked language information. For the following 26 countries enough language information was available in recent (1997+) DHS surveys to include them in this study: Bolivia, Guatemala, Peru, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Mali, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe, India, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Philippines, Armenia, and Turkey. We thus have three countries in Latin America, 15 countries in Africa, six countries in Asia, one country in Europe, and one country partly in Europe and partly in Asia (Turkey). For 16 of the countries the data are for 2000 or later. The oldest data, 1997, are for Kyrgyz Republic.

For all countries, the data allow the construction of tables with information on adult educational attainment according to language and age group. However, for some of the countries -- Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Kenya, South Africa, Zimbabwe -- it was not possible to construct the tables on educational attendance of children or to do the multivariate analysis, because the data set contained too few children out of school to make a reliable analysis possible. For these countries only the first two or three tables are presented.

The number of local languages spoken in the countries that are studied ranges from a few to many hundreds. Although the number of persons for which information is available in the DHS surveys is rather large (ranging from 10,000 to over 100,000), many of the smaller linguistic groups are not well represented in the data and therefore cannot be studied in this report. In Table 1 of the
country profiles, an overview is given of all languages for which at least some information is
available in the data, together with the number of respondents speaking the language in our
database. Table 1 and 2 present information for the 16-49 age group. The upper limit was chosen at
49 because this was the upper age limit used in the DHS women’s surveys, from which part of the
information was derived.

Of the linguistic groups represented in Table 1, only the larger ones are included as a separate
category in Table 2, which shows the variation in educational attainment among linguistic groups.
To get meaningful figures in this table, we included only linguistic groups with at least 40 speakers
in the 16-49 age group. Also in Table 3, which shows non-attendance percentages for various
categories of children, only percentages are shown for cells that contain at least 40 children. For
Table 4, which shows unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios for being not enrolled in school, the size
criterion is slightly different. For logistic regression analysis, the technique with which these odds
ratios are computed, it is the number of cases in the smallest category of the dependent variable
which counts. Because this number of cases must be large enough to reliably estimate the
coefficients of the languages categories and the control factors (household wealth, education,
gender, and urbanization), we included only languages in this analysis for which the smallest
category of the dependent variable contained at least 50 children. Local languages that were too
small to be included as a separate category in Tables 2-4 are when possible brought together in the
category “other local languages”. Foreign languages for which too little information was available
are not included in these tables.

Our analysis of educational attendance of children is done separately for four groups of
children. To get an impression of the role of home language for attendance in primary and
secondary school, we divided the children for each country into age groups that represent the
official national age groups for primary (ISCED code 1) and secondary (ISCED code 2 and 3)
education for the year in which the survey was held. Because age was used to assign children to
those groups, it should be kept in mind that some of the children assigned to the secondary school
category might at the time of the survey still have been in primary education (because of starting
schooling late or repeating classes).

A disadvantage of using the official ISCED age categories for grouping the children is that the
normal ages for being in primary or secondary education differs much among countries. As a result,
the figures on effects of home language on attendance using the official age groups are not very
well comparable cross-nationally. We, therefore, also grouped the children on the basis of age
groups that are the same in all countries, namely 7-11 and 12-16. We choose the lower boundary for
this grouping to be age 7, and not at the usual primary starting age of 6, because the educational
attendance of children who go to school for the first time in survey data depends on the month in which the survey is held. As the new school year most often starts in September or October, children who go to school for the first time might be included as enrolled in surveys held in autumn but not in surveys held earlier in the year. The upper limit for the cross-national comparable figures was chosen at age 16, because the parental background information used in the multivariate analysis may not be available for older children (who may have left their parental families because of early marriage). It should be noted that because of these problems, the presented figures for the official national age groups may be somewhat less reliable than the ones for the cross-national comparable age groups.

B2. Measuring language

The available information on home language varies much among the surveys. A basic distinction is between surveys in which the information was asked in the household interview and surveys in which it was asked in the women’s interview. The first situation is preferable, because in that case the information is in principle available for all household members. In the second situation, the information is only available if there are women aged 16-49 in the household. This may influence the estimates in the country profile tables to a certain extent, because men and children living in households without women in this age range are not included in the analyses. If home language was derived from the women’s interview, we used the language information of the oldest woman related to the household head for which it was available. If the language information was derived from the household survey, and more than one language was spoken in the household, we used only the language of the respondent.

The language questions themselves also differed among the surveys. They ranged from respondent’s language (Eritrea, Ethiopia, India, Namibia, Philippines, Zambia), native language (Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Nigeria), childhood language (Bolivia), home language (Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, South Africa), mothers language (Guatemala), mother tongue (Turkey), language learned to speak (Mozambique), to ethnicity (Peru). Sometimes the language spoken by the respondent was not asked explicitly, but had to be derived from information on the language in which the interview was held (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Mali, Togo, Zimbabwe). The first situation seems preferable, because language of interview may underestimate the speaking of local languages at home to a certain extent. If one of the parents speaks a major language besides the local language, the interview can be held in the major language. This implies however also that if the interview was held in a local language, the household probably has no member who is able to speak one of the major language(s) fluently. In that case, the effects of home
language on schooling will probably be stronger. The information on the official language(s) and the leading languages in daily life presented in the country profiles are derived from UNESCO (2000, Table 6). If more than three leading languages are mentioned in the report, only the first three are presented. Information on language of instruction was derived from various sources referred to by the notes after the country name.

B3. Individual level multivariate analysis

To find out whether and to what extent the association between home language and educational attendance of children is due to differences in wealth, education or other characteristics of the family background, in Table 4 of the country profiles, unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios for the association between home language and educational attendance are presented. To estimate these odds ratios, we performed for each country separately a bivariate and a multivariate logistic regression analysis with the odds of being out of school of the children as dependent variable and dummy variables indicating the home language groups as independent variables. The odds ratios presented in Table 4 are defined as deviations of the average over all language categories. That means that they indicate to what extent non-attendance of children with a specific home language is higher or lower than average in the country.

In the multivariate models, parental education, household wealth, absence of the parents, gender and urbanization were included as control factors. These factors are known to be the major determinants of educational attendance (e.g. Huisman & Smits, forthcoming) and can also be expected to vary among the different home language groups. Besides these factors Parental education was measured as the highest educational level attained by one of the parents, divided into three categories: no education, primary education and more than primary education. If parental education was missing, the highest educational level attained by another adult member of the household was substituted. Household wealth was measured by an index constructed on the basis of household assets, possession of land, and housing characteristics, using a method developed by Filmer & Pritchett (1999). On the basis of this index, all households within a country were ranked according to their assets and subsequently divided into wealth index quintiles. The wealth variable used in the analysis has five categories (1) lowest 20%, (2) 20-40%, (3) 40-60%, (4) 60-80%, (5) upper 20%. It was included in the analysis in the form of four dummies with the lowest wealth quintile as reference group. Absence of the parents was measured by a dummy with value one when neither parent of the child was living in the household at the time of the interview (e.g. children living within the extended family, foster children, domestic workers). Urbanization was measured
by a dummy with value one if the household was living in a rural area, using the definition used in the Demographic and Health Surveys.

To get a crude indication of the proportion of the variance in educational attendance that is explained in the multivariate analyses, for each model the pseudo $R^2$ according to Nagelkerke (1991) is presented in Table 4. To get an overall indicator of the strength of the home language effect on attendance at the country level, we computed the geometric mean of the odds ratios for the languages. To make this computation possible, we first transformed the odds ratios with values below one into their reciprocals. The average effect sizes for the countries are presented in Table A1. This table also presents an indicator of the degree to which the average effect size decreases when the background factors are entered into the multivariate model, and hence to what extent the differences in educational attendance among children with different home languages in a country is due to differences in other family background characteristics among the linguistic groups.

**B4. Multilevel analysis**

To gain insight into the importance of characteristics of linguistic groups and of the contexts in which they live for educational non-attendance of children, we tested hypotheses on effects of mother-tongue instruction, concentration of the group in rural areas and national linguistic fractionalization on data for 153 linguistic groups using regression analysis. Separate analyses were performed for children aged 7-11 and children aged 12-16. Because the linguistic groups were clustered within countries and explanatory variables at two levels of aggregation were used (linguistic group level and country level), multilevel regression models were estimated (see Snijders & Bosker, 1999; Hox, 2002).

The dependent variable in these analyses, educational non-attendance, was measured by the percentages of children aged 7-11 and 12-16 who were reported to be not in school at the time of the interview. The percentages were computed separately for boys and girls, so that also gender differences could be studied. The direct effect of gender on educational attendance is not so relevant for this report, because the lower attendance rates of girls in developing countries is a well-established fact. However, testing for the presence of an interaction effect between the availability of mother-tongue instruction and gender may give us an idea of the importance of mother-tongue instruction for overcoming gender differences in education.

Independent variables at the linguistic group level were a constructed indicator of the availability of mother-tongue instruction, the percentage of the members of the linguistic group living in rural areas (according to the DHS definition of rural used in the surveys) and the size of the linguistic group in percentages of the population of the country. Independent variables at the
country level were the degree of linguistic fractionalization and a dummy indicating whether (1) or not (0) language of the interview was used to indicate home language in the country. The index of linguistic fractionalization was derived from Alesina et al. (2003), who made a detailed analysis of the number and size of linguistic, ethnic and religious groups within many countries and presented three fractionalization indices for about 190 countries: a linguistic, an ethnic, and a religious fractionalization index. In the analyses presented in section A5.3, the linguistic index was used. However, we also estimated the multilevel models with the ethnic fractionalization index. It turned out that in neither model the fractionalization variables were significant and that all other coefficients were almost exactly the same.

To measure the degree to which mother-tongue instruction is available for the about 150 languages included in this analysis, we have constructed a scale on the basis of an extensive review of the available information in the literature and at the internet. This scale has the following categories: (0) Not at all, (1) Some schools/experiments, (2) About half of schools, (3) Most schools, and (4) All schools. As the literature is often vague and sometimes contradictory and the availability of mother-tongue instruction tends to change over time, the scale is not perfect. However, we feel confident (and the results seem to confirm) that it gives a crude indication of the degree to which the members of a language can get schooling in their mother tongue, which is good enough for use in a multivariate analysis (that can handle measurement error). An overview of the sources that were used for constructing the scale is presented in section B5.

The number of linguistic groups included in the analyses was 153 for children aged 7-11 and 150 for children aged 12-16. All linguistic groups for which enough information on all variables was available were included, including the international languages. To test whether the results were influenced by the presence of international languages, we repeated the analyses without them. The results turned out to be substantially the same.
B5. Sources of information on mother-tongue instruction

**General sources (used for more countries)**


**Country-specific sources**

**Benin**


**Burkina Faso**

*Education Encyclopedia*. State University. Online available: http://education.stateuniversity.com


**Cameroon**

Eritrea

Eritrea: A gamut of languages and scripts. Online available: http://www.tilburguniversity.nl/faculties/humanities/mm/highlights/eri/


Steve Walter (personal communication, March 11, 2008)

Ethiopia


Ghana


Guatemala

Dutcher, N. *Promise and perils of mother tongue education*. Online available: www.sil.org/asia

Guinea

Kenya
East Africa Living Encyclopedia, Kenya Languages, African Studies Center. Online available: www.africa.upenn.edu


Mali

**Togo**

*L'équipe du Trésor de la langue française au Québec, L'aménagement linguistique dans le monde.*
Available online: www.tlfq.ulaval.ca/axl/afrique/togo.htm

Available online: [http://doc-aea.aide-et-action.org](http://doc-aea.aide-et-action.org)

**Zimbabwe**

Available online: [www.ibe.unesco.org](http://www.ibe.unesco.org)


Table B1. Characteristics of linguistic groups brought together from the country profiles in Part C.

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<th>Country</th>
<th>Language</th>
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<th>%</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>&gt; primary</th>
<th>Attainment Percentages</th>
<th>Non-attendance Percentages</th>
<th>Non-attendance odds ratios</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7-11</td>
<td>12-16</td>
<td>7-11</td>
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<td>Armenian</td>
<td>11892</td>
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<td>1.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
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<td>46.3</td>
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<td>0.0</td>
<td>42.0</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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Table B1 continued. Characteristics of linguistic groups brought together from the country profiles in Part C.

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<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
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<td>0.49</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Mam</td>
<td>422</td>
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</table>
PART C. COUNTRY PROFILES

C1. Country profiles

Country profile Armenia\(^{1,2}\)

Official languages: Armenian
Leading languages in daily life (max. 3): Armenian, Azerbaijani, Russian.
Language of instruction in primary: Armenian
Language of instruction in secondary: Armenian
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1999, women’s survey.
Language variable: native language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>98.7</td>
<td>98.5</td>
<td>98.5</td>
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<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>96</td>
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<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
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<td>1.0</td>
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</table>

Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Primary</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.4</td>
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</tr>
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<td>N</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>5523</td>
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</table>

Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
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<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenian</td>
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<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
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<td>1754</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1383</td>
<td>1091</td>
<td>2472</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

No analysis of language effects on educational attendance possible because too few children are out of school.
Country profile Benin

**Official languages:** French

**Leading languages in daily life (max. 3):** Fon, Yoruba, Aja.

**Language of instruction in primary:** French

**Language of instruction in secondary:** French

**Data source:** Demographic and Health Survey 2001, household survey.

**Language variable:** language of the interview.

**Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
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<td>44.4</td>
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<td>9.7</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>10.2</td>
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<td>5.3</td>
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**Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language**

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<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>23.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
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<td>19.6</td>
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<td>3.7</td>
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**Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
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<th>12-16</th>
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<td>48.9</td>
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<td>46.9</td>
<td>60.8</td>
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<td>59.7</td>
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<td>28.1</td>
<td>31.0</td>
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<td>46.0</td>
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</tr>
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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

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<th>Secondary</th>
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<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
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<td>0.81*</td>
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<td>0.76*</td>
<td>0.78*</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
<td>0.92</td>
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<td>Aja</td>
<td>1.45*</td>
<td>1.89*</td>
<td>1.44*</td>
<td>1.90*</td>
<td>1.31*</td>
<td>1.79*</td>
<td>1.33*</td>
<td>1.79*</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.51*</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.49*</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
<td>0.37*</td>
<td>0.79*</td>
<td>0.33*</td>
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<td>0.92</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.88</td>
<td>1.56*</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.72*</td>
</tr>
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<td>2.69*</td>
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<td>1.45*</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.50*</td>
<td>1.20</td>
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<td>0.30*</td>
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<td>0.75*</td>
<td>0.68*</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.76</td>
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</table>

Pseudo $R^2$: 8.8 10.3 8.9 10.4 23.6 26.7 25.9 30.0

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area  
* P < 0.05
Country profile Bolivia

Official languages: Spanish, Quechua, Aymara.
Leading languages in daily life (max. 3): Spanish, Quechua, Aymara.
Language of instruction in primary: Spanish
Language of instruction in secondary: Spanish
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2003, household survey.
Language variable: childhood language.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
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<td>4817</td>
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<td>35567</td>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Men None</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>&gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Women None</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>&gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>None None</th>
<th>Primary Primary &gt; primary Total Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>69.3</td>
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</tr>
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<td>63.6</td>
<td>20.5</td>
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<td>8.4</td>
<td>63.7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>32.8</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>68.4</td>
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<td>69.0</td>
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<td>47.2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>4.1</td>
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<td>52.6</td>
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</table>

Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Secondary Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>7-11 Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>12-16 Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quechua</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aymara</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guaraní</td>
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<td>17.5</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
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<td>9.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
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<td>18.5</td>
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<td>24.7</td>
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<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>10.1</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td>16.0</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Unadjusted Odds Ratio</th>
<th>Adjusted Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quechua</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>2.10*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aymara</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1.12*</td>
<td>0.79*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pseudo R^2</strong></td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area  

* P < 0.05
Country profile Burkina Faso

Official language: French
Leading languages in daily life (max. 3): Mòoré, Fulfulde, Jula.
Language of instruction in primary: French
Language of instruction in secondary: French
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2003, women’s survey.
Language variable: language of interview.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mòoré</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>12350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jula</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>3222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfulde</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>2551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>2049</td>
</tr>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>21032</td>
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</table>

Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>&gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>&gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>&gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mòoré</td>
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<td>87.4</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jula</td>
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<td>16.3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>79.6</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>6.8</td>
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<td>72.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fulfulde</td>
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<td>2.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>95.1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
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<td>94.1</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
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<td>95.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>91.1</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
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<td>18.8</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>14.2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>8.2</td>
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<td>76.0</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>2260</td>
<td>20992</td>
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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>56.5</td>
<td>87.3</td>
<td>82.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jula</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>62.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfulde</td>
<td>82.2</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>92.9</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>88.2</td>
<td>87.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
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<td>83.0</td>
<td>91.5</td>
<td>91.1</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>87.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>72.3</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>75.1</td>
<td>67.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>79.6</td>
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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>1.38*</td>
<td>1.32*</td>
<td>1.37*</td>
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<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jula</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.20*</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.16*</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1.27*</td>
<td>0.90</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
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<td>3.06*</td>
<td>2.93*</td>
<td>2.89*</td>
<td>1.43*</td>
<td>1.34*</td>
<td>1.46*</td>
<td>1.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>0.26*</td>
<td>0.20*</td>
<td>0.27*</td>
<td>0.22*</td>
<td>0.75*</td>
<td>0.56*</td>
<td>0.78*</td>
<td>0.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R²</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>28.2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile Cameroon

Official languages: French, English.
Leading languages in daily life: Fulfulde, Pidgin, Ewondo.
Languages of instruction in primary: French, English.
Languages of instruction in secondary: French, English.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2004, women’s survey.
Language variable: language of interview.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fulfulde</td>
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<td>27.8</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>4679</td>
</tr>
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<td>13.4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>2341</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.6</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
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</table>

Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>None</td>
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<td>&gt; primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfulde</td>
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<td>43.3</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pidgin</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>35.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewondo</td>
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<td>37.7</td>
<td>60.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>45.2</td>
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<td>French</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
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<td>3603</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfulde</td>
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<td>54.3</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pidgin</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>29.5</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>20.9</td>
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<td>4261</td>
<td>7633</td>
<td>3854</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Unadjusted Odds Ratio</th>
<th>Adjusted Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary  Secondary</td>
<td>7-11 12-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfulde</td>
<td>6.57* 2.71* 7.06* 3.51*</td>
<td>3.73* 1.83* 3.92* 2.33*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pidgin</td>
<td>0.50* 0.73* 0.52* 0.67*</td>
<td>0.49* 0.70* 0.53* 0.66*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>0.31* 0.51* 0.27* 0.43*</td>
<td>0.54* 0.78* 0.48* 0.66*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R²</td>
<td>37.5 15.0 36.3 21.2</td>
<td>43.8 23.6 42.7 29.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile Eritrea

Official languages: Tigrigna, Arabic, English.
Leading languages in daily life: Tigrigna, Afar, Arabic.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages.
Language of instruction in secondary: English
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2002, household survey.
Language variable: language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
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<td>Primary</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Primary</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th></th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th></th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th></th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
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<td>Rural</td>
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<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
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<td>40.8</td>
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<td>72.4</td>
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<td>69.5</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>68.0</td>
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<td>63.9</td>
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<td>46.9</td>
<td>71.9</td>
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<td>77.6</td>
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<td>67.9</td>
<td>76.9</td>
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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
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<th>12-16</th>
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<td>0.98</td>
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<td>1.32</td>
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<td>1.59*</td>
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<td>1.68*</td>
</tr>
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</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile Ethiopia

Official languages: Amharic
Leading languages in daily life: Amharic, Oromigna, Tigrigna.
Language of instruction in primary: Amharic
Languages of instruction in secondary: Amharic, English.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2005, household survey.
Language variable: language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
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<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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<td>56.1</td>
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<td>23.4</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>31.8</td>
<td>11.1</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>16.2</td>
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</table>

Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Secondary 12-16</th>
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<td>63.5</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
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<td>46.4</td>
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<td>54.5</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>50.7</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>51.6</td>
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<td>54.9</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>50.6</td>
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<td>76.8</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>73.5</td>
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<td>48.0</td>
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<td>67.2</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>47.1</td>
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<td>19.7</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>44.1</td>
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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
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<th>Adjusted Odds Ratio</th>
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</tr>
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<td>1.08 0.88* 1.09* 0.89*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.65* 0.76* 0.67* 0.72*</td>
<td>0.71* 0.88* 0.73* 0.83*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2.29* 1.33* 2.17* 1.33*</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Pseudo R² = 0.66 1.6 6.0 1.9 18.3 17.5 17.5 19.1

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area

* P < 0.05
Country profile Ghana¹,³,⁴

Official languages: English (de facto)
Leading languages in daily life: Akan, Êwé, Ga.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages.
Language of instruction in secondary: English.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2003, household survey.
Language variable: home language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
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<td>5.5</td>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Primary &gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Primary &gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<th>Primary &gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>18.9</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>13.4</td>
<td>37.3</td>
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</tr>
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<td>16.9</td>
<td>66.3</td>
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<td>70.6</td>
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<td>39.5</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>67.9</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>24.8</td>
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<td>673</td>
<td>3171</td>
<td>4667</td>
<td>1761</td>
<td>1042</td>
<td>2948</td>
<td>5751</td>
<td>2584</td>
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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Akan</td>
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<td>19.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Êwé</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dagbani</td>
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<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga</td>
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<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
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<td>Nzema</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>22.5</td>
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<td>Other native</td>
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<td>25.0</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1362</td>
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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>0.60*</td>
<td>0.56*</td>
<td>0.49*</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.81*</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.70*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Êwé</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
<td>0.61*</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.58*</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.71*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.67*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dagbani</td>
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<td>1.79*</td>
<td>1.49*</td>
<td>2.08*</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.36*</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.54*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.46*</td>
<td>1.68*</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.28*</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.38*</td>
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<td>Pseudo R²</td>
<td>3.9</td>
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<td>5.8</td>
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<td>11.6</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile Guatemala\textsuperscript{1,6}

Official languages: Spanish
Leading languages in daily life: Spanish, K’iche’, Kaqchikel.
Language of instruction in primary: Spanish.
Language of instruction in secondary: Spanish.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1999, household survey.
Language variable: language of the mother.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K’iche’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaqchikel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q’eqchi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanjobal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tz’utujil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poqomchi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td><strong>Language</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K’iche’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaqchikel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q’eqchi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanjobal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tz’utujil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poqomchi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K’iche’</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kaqchikel</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q’eqchi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanjobal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tz’utujil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poqomchi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
</tr>
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</table>
Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Unadjusted Odds Ratio</th>
<th>Adjusted Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K’iche’</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1.44*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaqchikel</td>
<td>1.58*</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q’eqchi’</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>0.59*</td>
<td>0.57*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R²</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area  
* P < 0.05
Country profile Guinea\textsuperscript{1,3,4}

Official language: French
Leading languages in daily life: Maninka, Pular, Susu.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages.
Languages of instruction in secondary: local languages.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1999, women’s survey.
Language variable: home language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>36.6</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>3879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>28.0</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>3255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susu</td>
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<td>22.6</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>2483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guerze</td>
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<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kissi</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>636</td>
</tr>
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<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>262</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>39</td>
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<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>11442</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

| Language | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total | None | Primary | > primary | Total |
|----------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-----------|-------|------|
| Pular    | 65.0 | 14.9    | 20.1      | 100   | 85.5 | 6.7     | 7.8       | 100   | 77.4 | 9.9     | 12.7      | 100   |
| Maninka  | 65.9 | 13.6    | 20.5      | 100   | 85.8 | 7.6     | 6.6       | 100   | 76.8 | 10.3    | 12.9      | 100   |
| Susu     | 44.0 | 20.6    | 35.4      | 100   | 66.6 | 17.3    | 16.1      | 100   | 56.5 | 18.8    | 24.7      | 100   |
| Guerze   | 43.2 | 25.1    | 31.6      | 100   | 83.7 | 10.5    | 5.7       | 100   | 64.4 | 17.5    | 18.1      | 100   |
| Kissi    | 42.9 | 32.4    | 24.7      | 100   | 76.8 | 16.5    | 6.8       | 100   | 61.2 | 23.8    | 15.0      | 100   |
| Toma     | 35.7 | 36.7    | 27.6      | 100   | 84.8 | 9.1     | 6.1       | 100   | 66.4 | 19.5    | 14.1      | 100   |
| Total    | 56.5 | 18.1    | 25.3      | 100   | 80.6 | 10.0    | 9.3       | 100   | 70.2 | 13.5    | 16.2      | 100   |
| N        | 2759 | 885     | 1235      | 4879  | 5176 | 645     | 597       | 6418  | 7935 | 1530    | 1832       | 11297 |

Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pular</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>82.7</td>
<td>76.2</td>
<td>58.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maninka</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susu</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guerze</td>
<td>83.1</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>94.7</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kissi</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toma</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>62.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>53.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>1719</td>
<td>4194</td>
<td>5913</td>
<td>1579</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
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<td>1.20*</td>
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<td>1.07</td>
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<td>1.03</td>
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<td>1.01</td>
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<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.37*</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.60*</td>
<td>0.60*</td>
<td>0.60*</td>
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<td>1.06</td>
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<td>0.37*</td>
<td>0.73*</td>
<td>0.26*</td>
<td>0.50*</td>
<td>0.24*</td>
<td>0.49*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
<td>2.78*</td>
<td>2.32*</td>
<td>2.95*</td>
<td>1.97*</td>
<td>2.64*</td>
<td>2.18*</td>
<td>2.77*</td>
<td>2.01*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pseudo R²</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
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<td>24.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area

* P < 0.05
Country profile India

Official languages: there are 19 official languages in India (see notes).
Leading languages in daily life: Hindi, Bengali, Telugu.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages, English and Hindi.
Languages of instruction in secondary: local languages, English and Hindi.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1999, women’s survey.
Language variable: home language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>1148</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05

Note
The official languages of India are: Assamese, Bengali, English (Associate), Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu.

Pseudo R² = 4.8 2.6 4.6 2.6 26.8 28.0 27.9 28.0

56
Country profile Kazakhstan\textsuperscript{1,6}

Official languages: Kazakh  
Leading languages in daily life: Kazakh, Russian, Uzbek.  
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages.  
Languages of instruction in secondary: local languages.  
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1999, women’s survey.  
Language variable: native language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

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No analysis of language effects on educational attendance possible because too few children are out of school.
Country profile Kenya

Official languages: English, Swahili.
Leading languages in daily life: Gikuyu, Luo, Luyia.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages and English.
Language of instruction in secondary: English
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2003, women's survey.
Language variable: home language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

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<tr>
<th>Language</th>
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<th>36-49</th>
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<th>N</th>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

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</table>

| N            | 988           | 5582  | 6568  | 592            | 3387  | 3980  | 684        | 3881  | 4564  | 614         | 3643  | 4254  |

No analysis of language effects on educational attendance possible because too few children are out of school.
Country profile Kyrgyz Republic\textsuperscript{1,10,11}

Official languages: Kirghiz
Leading languages in daily life: Kirghiz, Russian, Uzbek.
Languages of instruction in primary: Kirghiz and Russian.
Languages of instruction in secondary: Kirghiz and Russian.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1997, women’s survey.
Language variable: native language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
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<th>36-49</th>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
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<th>12-16</th>
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No analysis of language effects on educational attendance possible because too few children are out of school.

Note
The official age at which children are supposed to be in primary school in Kyrgyz Republic is 6 to 9. From the children in our database no children aged 6 were in school. ‘Primary’ in Table 3 therefore only includes children aged 7-9.
Country profile Mali\textsuperscript{1,3,4}

Official languages: French
Leading languages in daily life: Bamanankan, Soninke, Fulfulde.
Languages of instruction in primary: Bamanankan and French.
Language of instruction in secondary: French
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2001, women's survey.
Language variable: language of interview.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

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<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
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1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile Mozambique

Official languages: Portuguese
Leading languages in daily life: Makhuwa, Tsonga, Lomwe.
Language of instruction in primary: Portuguese
Language of instruction in secondary: Portuguese
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2003, women’s survey.
Language variable: language respondent learned to speak.

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| N | 1688 | 5983 | 1639 | 9310 | 4954 | 6011 | 995 | 11960 | 6642 | 11994 | 2634 | 21270 |
Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

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<th>Secondary Rural</th>
<th>Secondary Total</th>
<th>7-11 Urban</th>
<th>7-11 Rural</th>
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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

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<th>Adjusted Odds Ratio</th>
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Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area. * P < 0.05

Pseudo $R^2$: 9.9 6.0 11.3 6.0 23.3 17.8 25.6 18.5
Country profile Namibia\textsuperscript{1,3,4,6}

Official language: English
Leading languages in daily life: Afrikaans, Herero, English.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages and English.
Language of instruction in secondary: English
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2000, women’s survey.
Language variable: language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Language</th>
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<th>36-49</th>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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<td>53.1</td>
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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

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<td>Herero</td>
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<td>Lozi</td>
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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
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<th>Adjusted Odds Ratio</th>
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</thead>
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</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area   * P < 0.05
## Country profile Nepal

Official languages: Nepali
Leading languages in daily life: Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri.
Languages of instruction in primary: Nepali and English.
Languages of instruction in secondary: Nepali and English.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2006, household survey.
Language variable: native language of the respondent.

### Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

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### Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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<th>Primary</th>
<th>&gt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>100</td>
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### Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary 7-11 Urban</th>
<th>Primary 7-11 Rural</th>
<th>Secondary 7-11 Urban</th>
<th>Secondary 7-11 Rural</th>
<th>Primary 12-16 Urban</th>
<th>Primary 12-16 Rural</th>
<th>Secondary 12-16 Urban</th>
<th>Secondary 12-16 Rural</th>
<th>Total Urban</th>
<th>Total Rural</th>
<th>Total 7-11</th>
<th>Total 12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nepali</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
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<td>11.1</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maithili</td>
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<td>23.9</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>36.5</td>
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<td>22.8</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
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<td>12.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhojpuri</td>
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<td>25.0</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>45.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>18.0</td>
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<td>9.0</td>
<td>17.3</td>
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<td>21.5</td>
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<td>4745</td>
<td>995</td>
<td>6586</td>
<td>7580</td>
<td>733</td>
<td>5170</td>
<td>5904</td>
<td>710</td>
<td>4504</td>
<td>5213</td>
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</table>

### Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary 7-11</th>
<th>Primary 12-16</th>
<th>Secondary 7-11</th>
<th>Secondary 12-16</th>
<th>Unadjusted Odds Ratio</th>
<th>Adjusted Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nepali</td>
<td>0.28*</td>
<td>0.36*</td>
<td>0.25*</td>
<td>0.37*</td>
<td>0.27*</td>
<td>0.35*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maithili</td>
<td>2.13*</td>
<td>2.03*</td>
<td>2.35*</td>
<td>1.98*</td>
<td>2.16*</td>
<td>1.98*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhojpuri</td>
<td>2.12*</td>
<td>2.09*</td>
<td>2.36*</td>
<td>2.14*</td>
<td>2.26*</td>
<td>2.46*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.79*</td>
<td>0.65*</td>
<td>0.71*</td>
<td>0.63*</td>
<td>0.76*</td>
<td>0.59*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R²</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile Nigeria\textsuperscript{1,3,4}

Official languages: English (Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba co-official in some states)
Leading languages in daily life: English, Hausa, Igbo.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages.
Language of instruction in secondary: English.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2003, household survey.
Language variable: native language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hausa</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>3886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoruba</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>1689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igbo</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>1691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
<td>51.9</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>7480</td>
</tr>
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<td>English</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>195</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
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</table>

Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>&gt; primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hausa</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoruba</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>75.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igbo</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>67.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>59.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
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<td>28.4</td>
<td>68.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>1629</td>
<td>1556</td>
<td>3986</td>
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</table>

Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary 7-11</th>
<th>Secondary 7-11</th>
<th>Primary 12-16</th>
<th>Secondary 12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hausa</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>65.8</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoruba</td>
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<td>8.2</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igbo</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5946</td>
<td>1687</td>
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</table>

Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Unadjusted Odds Ratio</th>
<th>Adjusted Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary 7-11</td>
<td>Secondary 7-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hausa</td>
<td>2.13*</td>
<td>1.91*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
<td>0.47*</td>
<td>0.52*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R\textsuperscript{2}</td>
<td>15.0</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{1} Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area \textsuperscript{*} P < 0.05

69
**Country profile Peru**

Official languages: Spanish
Leading languages in daily life: Spanish, Quechua, Aymara.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages and Spanish.
Language of instruction in secondary: Spanish
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2000, women’s survey.
Language variable: ethnicity

### Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Quechua</td>
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<td>8.9</td>
<td>8.1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.3</td>
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<td>89.7</td>
<td>90.6</td>
<td>48364</td>
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<td>0.1</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quechua</td>
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<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
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<td>Aymara</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>33.7</td>
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<td>0.1</td>
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### Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
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<td>Rural</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quechua</td>
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<td>9.1</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aymara</td>
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<td>4.0</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>9.9</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
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<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
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<td>6.9</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>12.3</td>
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<td>7783</td>
<td>6081</td>
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### Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unadjusted</td>
<td>Odds Ratio</td>
<td>Adjusted</td>
<td>Odds Ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quechua</td>
<td>1.54*</td>
<td>1.19*</td>
<td>1.47*</td>
<td>1.19*</td>
<td>1.10*</td>
<td>0.72*</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0.72*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>0.65*</td>
<td>0.84*</td>
<td>0.68*</td>
<td>0.84*</td>
<td>0.91*</td>
<td>1.40*</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1.40*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R^2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile Philippines

Official languages: Tagalog, English.
Leading languages in daily life: Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilocano.
Languages of instruction in primary: Tagalog and English.
Languages of instruction in secondary: Tagalog and English.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2003, household survey.
Language variable: language of the respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>26.8</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>7579</td>
</tr>
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<td>7.2</td>
<td>2083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilocano</td>
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<td>7.4</td>
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<td>7.4</td>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

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1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile South Africa\(^{1,3,4,6}\)

Official languages: South Africa has 11 official languages (see notes).
Leading languages in daily life: Zulu, Xhosa, Afrikaans.
Languages of instruction in primary: local languages.
Languages of instruction in secondary: local languages.
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1998, women’s survey.
Language variable: home language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

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No analysis of language effects on educational attendance possible because too few children are out of school.

**Note**

Official languages are: Afrikaans, English, Ndebele, SePedi (Northern Sotho), SeSotho (Southern Sotho), Tswana, Swati, Venda, Tsonga, Xhosa, Zulu. 
Country profile Togo\(^1,3,4,6\)

Official languages: French
Leading languages in daily life: Êwé, Kabié, Tem.
Languages of instruction in primary: Êwé, Kabye and French.
Language of instruction in secondary: French
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1998, household survey.
Language variable: language of the interview.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

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1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area
* P < 0.05
Country profile Turkey\textsuperscript{1,12}

Official languages: Turkish
Leading languages in daily life: Turkish, Kurdish, Dimli.
Language of instruction in primary: Turkish
Language of instruction in secondary: Turkish
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1998, women’s survey.
Language variable: mother tongue

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group</th>
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<th>Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurdish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language</th>
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<tr>
<td>Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Kurdish</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kurdish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R\textsuperscript{2}</td>
</tr>
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</table>

\* P < 0.05
Country profile Zambia1,3,4,6

Official languages: English
Leading languages in daily life: Bemba, Tonga, Nyanja.
Language of instruction in primary: English
Language of instruction in secondary: English
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 2002, women’s survey.
Language variable: language of respondent.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
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<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
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<td>100.0</td>
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Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

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<th>Primary</th>
<th>&lt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Total None</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>&lt; primary</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>49.5</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>52.5</td>
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<td>47.1</td>
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<td>59.5</td>
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<td>63.3</td>
<td>19.5</td>
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<td>14.0</td>
<td>57.2</td>
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<td>40.4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
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<td>60.8</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>43.9</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>57.7</td>
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<td>7565</td>
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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary 7-11 Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Secondary 12-16 Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
<td>Bemba</td>
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<td>28.6</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>38.7</td>
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<td>40.9</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>40.7</td>
</tr>
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<td>Lozi</td>
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<td>34.2</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lunda</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>23.8</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luvaloe</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other native</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>46.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>45.9</td>
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<td>1398</td>
<td>2318</td>
<td>3717</td>
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Table 4. Not attending school by home language (unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>0.67*</td>
<td>0.87*</td>
<td>0.72*</td>
<td>1.18*</td>
<td>0.79*</td>
<td>1.23*</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonga</td>
<td>0.85*</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.78*</td>
<td>0.75*</td>
<td>0.80*</td>
<td>0.77*</td>
<td>0.72*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyanja</td>
<td>1.63*</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.65*</td>
<td>1.30*</td>
<td>1.40*</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.45*</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lozi</td>
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<td>1.49*</td>
<td>0.77*</td>
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<td>0.72*</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.66*</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.11</td>
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<td>1.12</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Adjusted for sex, household wealth, parental education, absence of parents, and living in a rural area       * P < 0.05
Country profile Zimbabwe\textsuperscript{1,3,4,6}

Official languages: English, Shona, Ndebele and some other native languages
Leading languages in daily life: Shona, Ndebele, English.
Languages of instruction in primary: Ndebele, Shona and English.
Language of instruction in secondary: English
Data source: Demographic and Health Survey 1999, household survey.
Language variable: language of the interview.

Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>82.1</td>
<td>79.0</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>9306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ndebele</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
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<td>1843</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 2. Educational attainment of men and women aged 16-49 by home language

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
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<td>64.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ndebele</td>
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</tr>
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<td>3662</td>
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Table 3. Percentage not attending of primary and secondary school aged children and age groups according to home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Primary Urban</th>
<th>Primary Rural</th>
<th>Primary Total</th>
<th>Secondary Urban</th>
<th>Secondary Rural</th>
<th>Secondary Total</th>
<th>7-11 Urban</th>
<th>7-11 Rural</th>
<th>7-11 Total</th>
<th>12-16 Urban</th>
<th>12-16 Rural</th>
<th>12-16 Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>28.9</td>
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<td>13.6</td>
<td>17.1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ndebele</td>
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<td>35.7</td>
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<td>5.4</td>
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<td>2.3</td>
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<td>3.8</td>
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<td>13.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>30.6</td>
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<td>3165</td>
<td>4291</td>
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<td>2978</td>
<td>3857</td>
<td>906</td>
<td>2984</td>
<td>3890</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

No analysis of language effects on educational attendance possible because too few children are out of school.
C2. Sources of information in country profiles


3. African community languages and their use in education (UNESCO);


7. First Language First: Community–based Literacy Programmes for Minority Language Contexts in Asia, UNESCO, 2005

8. UNESCO World Culture Report on Cultural Diversity

9. African Studies Center ([http://www.africa.upenn.edu/NEH/keducation.htm](http://www.africa.upenn.edu/NEH/keducation.htm))


Table 1. Home language of respondents aged 16-49 by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>16-25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-49</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>N</th>
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