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Youth in India: Situation and Needs 2006-2007, Rajasthan

International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS)

Population Council

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Youth in India: Situation and Needs 2006–2007

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This report is the result of a sub-national study undertaken by the International Institute for Population Sciences, Mumbai and the Population Council, New Delhi, as part of a project to collect information on key transitions experienced by youth in India, including those related to education, work force participation, sexual activity, marriage, health and civic participation; the magnitude and patterns of young people's sexual and reproductive practices before, within and outside of marriage as well as related knowledge, decision-making and attitudes. The project was implemented in six states of India, namely, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu.

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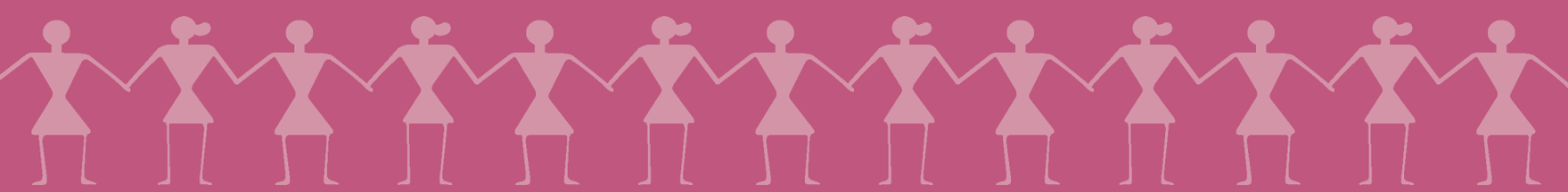

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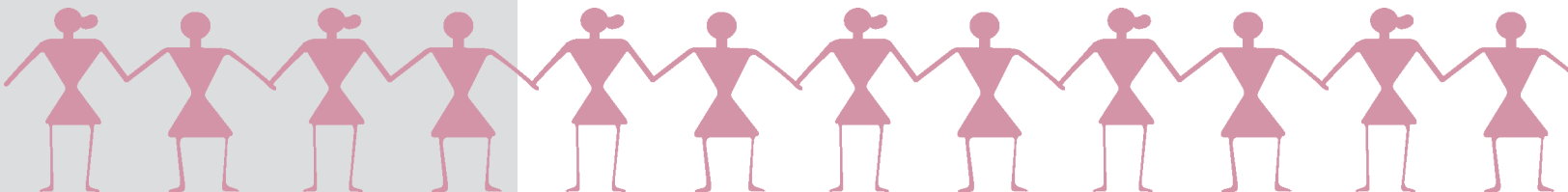

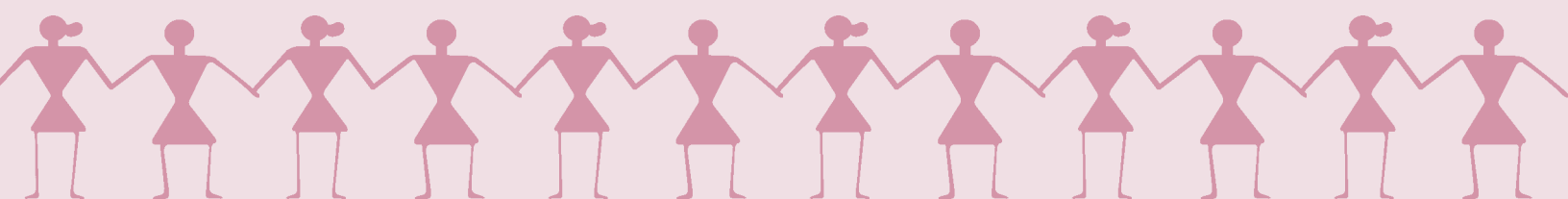

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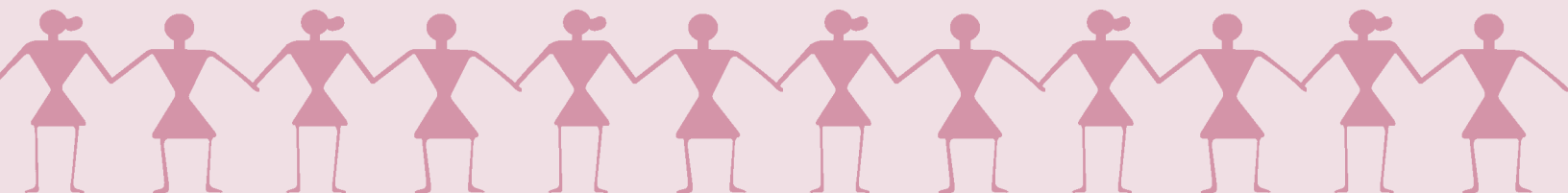

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Foreword

The Government of India is committed to addressing the multiple needs of young people. The Eleventh Five Year Plan, the National Youth Policy, the National Population Policy 2000 and the National Rural Health Mission have all advocated special programmatic attention to addressing this population. National AIDS Control Programme, Reproductive and Child Health Programme and notably the National Adolescent Reproductive and Sexual Health Strategy provide the framework for a range of sexual and reproductive health services to be provided to youth.

Effective implementation of policies and programmes, however, has been difficult because of the lack of evidence on young people's situation and needs. The project Youth in India: Situation and Needs is intended to provide this evidence. Research has been conducted in a total of six states of India—Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu. It provides a wealth of evidence on married and unmarried young women and young men from both rural and urban settings of each state. It covers almost every major dimension of youth life: education, work force participation, family life, sexual activity, marriage, health and civic participation. It provides state-level evidence on the magnitude and patterns of sexual and reproductive practices in and outside of marriage as well as related knowledge, decision-making and attitudes. Findings from the study provide important base-line indicators against which the long-term impact of programmes may be measured and will certainly go a long way in guiding policy, programmes and advocacy on youth issues.

This report focuses on findings from **Rajasthan** and is based on interviews with 10002 youth from all over the state. The report provides an enormous amount of information for the first time at the state level. The information will be useful to policy makers, programme implementers in government and non government sectors, rights activists and researchers alike who are committed to addressing the needs of Rajasthan's young generation. I appreciate the efforts put in by the International Institute for Population Sciences, Population Council and the technical advisory committee who guided the study.

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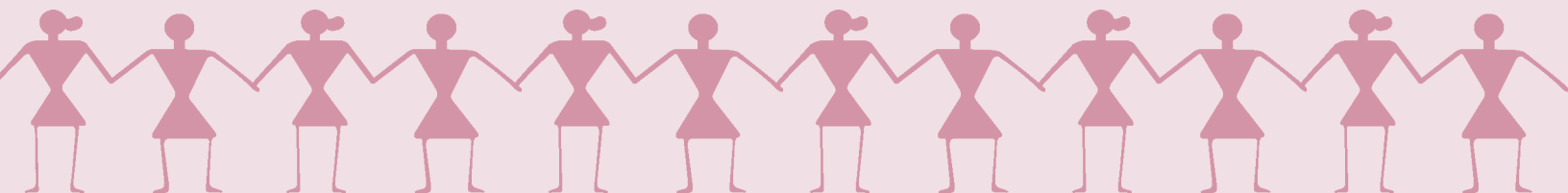

Acknowledgements

This report from the *Youth in India: Situation and Needs* study describes the transition to adulthood experienced by young men and women in Rajasthan. It covers multiple dimensions of their situation, ranging from education, work and marriage to sexual and reproductive health and behaviours. Evidence and recommendations contained in this report highlight, moreover, directions for programming and research that will enable youth in Rajasthan to make a successful transition to adulthood.

The *Youth in India: Situation and Needs* study has benefited immeasurably from the input of many. We are grateful to the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India, for granting permission to conduct this study, to the former Secretary, Shri Naresh Dayal, for his support throughout the project, and to the Secretary, Smt. K. Sujatha Rao, for her continuing support. We are also grateful to Shri G.C. Chaturvedi, former Mission Director, National Rural Health Mission, Shri P.K. Pradhan, Additional Secretary and Mission Director, National Rural Health Mission, Shrimati S. Jalaja, former Additional Secretary, Shri V. K. Malhotra, Additional Director General, Dr. Rattan Chand, Chief Director, and Shri Rajesh Bhatia, Joint Director, Statistics Division for their support and guidance. We would also like to acknowledge the significant contribution of Shrimati S. Jalaja as chair of our Project Advisory Committee; and Shri S.K. Das, Director General, Central Statistical Organisation and former Additional Director General, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare for support provided throughout the project.

We would also like to express our thanks to Shri G.K. Sandhu, Principal Secretary, Medical, Health and Family Welfare, Government of Rajasthan for facilitating the study in Rajasthan. We are thankful to the Director, State Institute of Health and Family Welfare (SIHFW), Jaipur for providing logistic support for our field staff training programme. The smooth functioning of fieldwork was due, in large part, to the support of the state health department, and we would like to acknowledge the contribution of all, including staff at the district headquarters level and primary health centre level.

The study received generous financial support from the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation and the David and Lucile Packard Foundation; we are grateful for their financial support as well as for useful comments and suggestions provided by Lester Coutinho, Don Lauro and Lana Dakan of the Packard Foundation, and Poonam Muttreja and Dipa Nag Chowdhury of the MacArthur Foundation over the course of the project.

We would like to acknowledge the contribution of the late P.N. Mari Bhat, Director, International Institute for Population Sciences, during 2005-07. His input in the design and implementation of the study and in ensuring the progress of this challenging project contributed immensely to the quality of the study.

We are grateful to our Project Advisory Committee members for their input, which ensured that our study did indeed address all the key issues that require policy and programme attention. We appreciate their contribution both during meetings of the committee and in various one-on-one discussions during the course of the project.

We acknowledge with gratitude the contribution of members of our Technical Advisory Committee. We were privileged that individuals with a wide range of expertise, from youth health and development to survey and qualitative approaches and ethics in research, agreed to serve as technical committee members. Our technical advisory group—Shalini Bharat, P.M. Kulkarni, Arvind Pandey, Pertti Pelto, T.K. Roy and Leela Visaria—supported

the project from conceptualisation to completion. Their guidance at all stages of the study was central in enabling us to confront methodological, ethical and analytical challenges that arose over the course of the study and is gratefully acknowledged. We would like to record our deep appreciation, moreover, to P.M. Kulkarni for giving us so generously of his time in working through problems encountered during the design and implementation phases.

Several specialist group meetings were held over the course of the project that focused on study design, instrument development, qualitative component development and analysis, tabulation planning and report review; several others who did not attend these meetings provided extensive comments on one or more of these issues. We are grateful to all these specialists—Dinesh Agarwal, Mallika Alexander, John Cleland, Nimesh Desai, Lalit Deshpande, Sudha Deshpande, Kamla Gupta, M.E. Khan, Sumati Kulkarni, Shiva Kumar, Cynthia Lloyd, S. Niranjan, Sulabha Parasuraman, Vikram Patel and Sunayana Walia—for their valuable contribution. John Cleland provided inputs at almost every phase of this study—design, instrument development and analysis—and his thought-provoking suggestions are gratefully acknowledged. In particular, we would like to acknowledge our external peer reviewers, T.K. Roy and Dinesh Agarwal, for their thoughtful and careful assessments of an earlier draft of this report.

Given that our study probed a number of highly sensitive matters, including young people's sexual and reproductive behaviours, it was an ethical imperative that those in need of information or services would be provided appropriate materials and referrals, respectively. We are grateful to those who provided services to our respondents in need and would like to acknowledge the TARSHI (New Delhi) whose materials (Neeli Kitab) were distributed to the young men and women during the survey.

The Office of the Registrar General, New Delhi and the State Census Office, Jaipur, generously provided the project with information and maps pertaining to the 2001 Census. Their role in enabling the study to implement its sample design is gratefully acknowledged.

We would like to express our appreciation and gratitude to the International Institute for Population Sciences and the Population Council and all their staff members who helped in small and big ways in making this report possible. T.K. Roy and the late P.N. Mari Bhat as Directors of the International Institute for Population Sciences, and G. Rama Rao and S. Lahiri as officiating Directors, oversaw the activities of the project from the Institute's perspective. Saroj Pachauri, Regional Director, South and East Asia Office, Population Council oversaw the project on behalf of the Population Council. Their insight and supervision are gratefully acknowledged.

A number of research officers, consultants and administrative staff members, both at the International Institute for Population Sciences, Mumbai, and at the Population Council, New Delhi, contributed to the smooth implementation of the study as well as the data management, analysis and report writing phases. We would like to thank those responsible for the administrative aspects of this project. At the International Institute for Population Sciences, we would like to acknowledge the Registrar, Accounts Officer, Computer Centre In-Charge and Library In-Charge; and Jeba Kumar, Pranita H. Dalvi, Usha D. Sonawane, Seema Jadhav and Avadesh Kumar who were responsible for the smooth functioning of the project. From the Population Council, we are grateful to Komal Saxena, M.A. Jose, Anil Paul and Ashutosh Mishra who ably managed the administrative, financial and IT aspects of the project. We are grateful to our Senior Research Officers, Research Officers and Assistant Research Officers for their excellent supervision of fieldwork and data management as well as for their support in analysing the data and preparing the tables for this report. Lucky Singh and Prashant Kumar Singh from the International Institute for Population Sciences, and Francis Zavier, Shilpi Rampal and Rajesh Kumar from the Population Council, did a painstaking job in ensuring the accuracy of data presented in the report and their contribution is gratefully acknowledged. Jyoti Moodbidri and Komal Saxena edited and ably managed the preparation of this report; we are grateful to them for their editorial contribution and meticulous attention to detail, which have made the report more readable and precise.

We would also like to acknowledge with thanks the contribution of our team of young and enthusiastic interviewers in eliciting information on difficult topics with sensitivity and skill. They were required to overcome discomfort when asking about intimate experiences and were required to record many disturbing experiences narrated by

youth, which they did professionally and empathetically. It was due to their skill and ability to engage with youth in non-judgmental ways that this study was so well received by youth in Rajasthan.

We would also like to record our appreciation of the support and kindness of the people in the villages and urban neighbourhoods in which we conducted our study, and specifically *panchayat* members and community leaders. While initially sceptical about the study, community members opened their homes to us and acknowledged the importance of this study for the health and development of future generations. Indeed, despite the sensitive issues covered, not a single study community refused our field teams entry. The trust and support of the people are gratefully acknowledged.

Finally, and most importantly, we would like to thank the young women and men from Rajasthan who welcomed us, generously gave of their time and shared so many intimate details of their lives with us. We hope that the evidence generated in this report will be useful in influencing the design and content of programmes intended to meet their multiple needs and enable them to make a safe transition to adulthood.

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Executive summary

The *Youth in India: Situation and Needs* study (referred to as the Youth Study), implemented by the International Institute for Population Sciences, Mumbai and the Population Council, New Delhi is the first-ever sub-nationally representative study conducted to identify key transitions experienced by married and unmarried youth in India. Young people (aged 10–24) constituted almost 315 million and represented 31% of the Indian population in 2001. Not only does this cohort represent India's future in the socio-economic and political realms, but its experiences will largely determine India's achievement of its goal of population stabilisation and the extent to which the nation will be able to harness its demographic dividend. While today's youth are healthier, more urbanised and better educated than earlier generations, social and economic vulnerabilities persist. In the course of the transition to adulthood, moreover, young people face significant risks related to sexual and reproductive health, and many lack the knowledge and power to make informed sexual and reproductive choices.

In recognition of the importance of investing in young people, several national policies and programmes formulated since 2000, including the National Population Policy 2000, the National Youth Policy 2003, the Tenth and Eleventh Five-Year Plans, the National Adolescent Reproductive and Sexual Health Strategy and the National Rural Health Mission, have underscored a commitment to addressing the multiple needs of this group in India. Effective implementation of both policies and programmes, however, has been handicapped by the lack of evidence on young people's situation and needs. Currently available evidence is limited, at best, and comes largely from small-scale and unrepresentative studies.

The Youth Study focused on married and unmarried young women and unmarried young men aged 15–24 and, because of the paucity of married young men in the younger ages, married men aged 15–29 in both rural and urban settings. The study collected information pertaining to key transitions experienced by youth, including those related to education, work participation, sexual activity, marriage, health and civic participation; the magnitude and patterns of young people's sexual and reproductive practices within and outside of marriage as well as related knowledge, decision-making and attitudes.

The Youth Study comprised three phases, and included both a survey and qualitative data gathering exercises prior to and after the survey. The study was conducted in a phased manner in six states of India: Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu.

This report focuses on findings from the survey conducted in Rajasthan. The survey was undertaken between March and November 2007. During the survey, 10,814 young people were contacted, of which a total of 10,002 married and unmarried young women and men were successfully interviewed.

Characteristics of the household population

A total of 31,064 households were selected for interview. Among these, interviews were successfully completed in 29,774 sample households, and 160,550 individuals, who were usual residents in these households, were enumerated. The age distribution was typical of a high fertility population, with a larger proportion of the population in the younger age groups than older age groups. Nevertheless, there has been a decrease in the proportion of the

population aged 0–4 years between 2001 and 2006, indicative of the recent declining trend in fertility in Rajasthan. With regard to the youth population, the distribution suggests that at the time of the survey, 13% of the population was aged 10–14 years, 10% was aged 15–19 years and 8% was aged 20–24 years. A total of 19% of the population was aged 15–24 years, about the same as that observed in the 2001 Census (18%). Overall, the sex ratio of the *de jure* population of the state was 951 females per 1,000 males. The child sex ratio of the surveyed population was 898 females per 1,000 males aged 0–6, slightly lower than that reported in the 2001 Census (909). While the child sex ratio in rural areas was just slightly lower than that observed in the 2001 Census (899 and 914, respectively), the urban child sex ratio observed in the Youth Study was almost exactly that observed in the 2001 Census (891 and 887, respectively).

The educational profile of the household population highlights low levels of educational attainment in the state: over two-fifths (41%) of the population aged 6 years and above had no formal education. Notably, as many as 56% of females compared to 27% of males, and as many as 46% of the rural population compared to 25% of the urban population had never been to school. Reaffirming the low levels of educational attainment in the state, findings also indicate that just 8% of the total population had received 12 or more years of education, including 12% and 5% of males and females.

Housing characteristics of the surveyed population underscore poor living conditions among the majority of the state's population. Overall, 27% of all households lived in *kachcha* houses (constructed from mud, thatch or other low-quality materials), 13% lived in semi-*pucca* houses (constructed using a mix of low- and high-quality materials) and 60% lived in *pucca* houses (constructed entirely from cement, masonry or other high-quality materials). Only 67% of households had electricity, including 95% of urban households and 58% of rural households. Over four in five households (83%) reported that their main source of drinking water was piped water, or water obtained from a hand-pump or a covered well. Access to a toilet facility of any kind was reported by about one-third (32%) of all households. Finally, the main source of cooking fuel was coal, charcoal, wood, crop residue or dung cakes, reported by 81% of all households; liquid petroleum gas was used, in contrast, by just 17% of all households.

The distribution of households by wealth quintiles shows a stark rural-urban divide: more than half (53%) of urban households were in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile; in contrast, only about one-tenth (11%) of rural households were in this quintile. Likewise, one-quarter of rural households were in the poorest (first) quintile of the index compared to only 3% of urban households.

Situation of youth

As mentioned earlier, a total of 10,002 youth were interviewed. Age profiles suggest that a larger proportion of young men were concentrated in the 15–19 year age group than in the 20–24 year age group (56% compared to 44%); women, in contrast were about equally divided (49% and 51% respectively in the age groups 15–19 and 20–24). Moreover, the unmarried were younger than the married. The distribution of youth by religion shows that 86–92% of youth were Hindu, 7–11% were Muslim and 2–3% belonged to other religions. Caste-wise distributions were generally similar among young men and women, with about half (49%) falling into other backward castes, 20–22% into scheduled castes, 10–12% into scheduled tribes and 17–21% into general castes. More than four in five young men and women (85–88%) reported that both parents were surviving. For those with just one parent surviving, this parent was more likely to be the mother (9–10%) than the father (2–3%). Finally, 1–2% reported that neither parent was alive.

Education

While youth in Rajasthan were better educated than the general population, schooling was far from universal among young people in the state. As many as one in ten young men and two in five young women had never attended school. Findings show, moreover, that young women in rural areas and married young women were particularly

disadvantaged; almost half of rural young women and more than half of married young women had never been to school.

Not only was school enrolment limited, but school completion rates were low among young people, particularly young women. For example, among young women, of those who had completed Class 1, only 92% had completed Class 4, and completion rates fell below 90% in Class 5. Among young men, in contrast, 98% had completed Class 4, and completion rates fell below 90% in Class 6. Declines in school completion became progressively steeper as the level of schooling increased. For example, there was a particularly steep decline between Classes 7 and 11 among both young men and women, suggesting that many of them discontinued their education at high school level; however, among young women, a steep decline also took place between Classes 5 and 6, perhaps coinciding with the onset of menarche or reflecting the absence of a nearby school in these classes. Indeed, just 38% of young men and 18% of young women in the state had completed high school. Gender disparities persisted in terms of schooling status of the unmarried at the time of interview: almost three in five unmarried young men compared to just two in five unmarried young women (and very few married) were pursuing their education.

Leading reasons for never attending school among young men and women were economic (for example, the respondent was required for work on the family farm/business or for outside wage earning work, or the family could not afford school-related expenses) and housework-related (the respondent was required for care of siblings or housework). Attitude and perception-related issues (for example, education was unnecessary or the respondent was not interested in schooling) were additional important reasons, particularly for young women, for never going to school.

Among those who had ever been to school, gender differences in reasons for school discontinuation became more apparent. Leading reasons for school discontinuation among young men, irrespective of the level at which schooling was discontinued, continued to be economic, and attitude and perception related. For young women, in contrast, leading issues included attitude or perception-related factors at all levels of schooling and housework responsibilities, particularly at early levels. School-related reasons (for example, academic failure, distance to school, poor school quality and infrastructure), and reasons relating to marriage became increasingly important reasons among those who discontinued their education at secondary or higher secondary levels. Of note, particularly, is that one in six and one in four young women who discontinued their education in Classes 7–9 and 10–11, respectively, reported doing so in order to marry.

For the most part, youth attended co-educational and government schools and colleges. A gender divide was, however, observed in the type of educational facility they attended. While young men, by and large, attended co-educational facilities at all levels of education, young women were less likely to attend a co-educational facility at higher levels of schooling. Moreover, while fewer young women than men continued their education to high school and beyond, those who did so were more likely to attend private schools, particularly in rural areas.

By and large, differences were observed in the availability of amenities at educational facilities attended by youth who were still in school and those who had discontinued their education at various levels. For example, youth who were still studying were somewhat more likely to report the availability of all four amenities—water, toilets, playgrounds and libraries—than were those who had discontinued their education. Schooling experiences were relatively similar among young men and women but differed somewhat among those who had discontinued schooling and those who were studying at the time of interview. While differences in regular attendance and perceptions about academic load were less consistent, youth who were continuing their education were considerably more likely to report private tuition, and to have passed the last examination for which they had appeared.

Work

Work profiles suggest that about three-fifths of young men and over one-half of young women had at some time engaged in paid or unpaid work. Indeed, almost all married young men and about half of unmarried young men had

done so, compared with two-thirds and two-fifths of married and unmarried young women, respectively. Likewise, more youth in rural than urban areas had ever worked. Young men were far less likely to have engaged in unpaid work on the family farm or business than in paid work (22% compared to 49%). Young women, in contrast, were more likely to have engaged in unpaid than in paid work (41% and 25%, respectively). Economic activity was often initiated at an early age: over one in five (22%) young men and almost two in five young women (36%) reported initiating work in childhood or early adolescence (by age 15). Data on work participation in the 12 months prior to interview indicate that the majority of young men (48% of unmarried and 93% of married) and a substantial proportion of young women (37% and 58%, respectively) had engaged in paid or unpaid work at some point in the 12 months preceding the survey. The majority of young men (90%) who worked in the year prior to interview had done so for the major part (at least six months) of the year. In contrast, among young women, just three-fifths had done so.

Findings also suggest that unemployment rates were low among youth: 6% among both young men and women. Unemployment was particularly high among the educated, young men and women who had completed Class 12 reported the highest rates of unemployment.

Youth were clearly interested in acquiring skills that would enable employment generation; almost half of young men and almost two-thirds of young women reported interest in vocational skills training. However, far fewer—just 12% of young men and 22% of young women—had attended at least one vocational training programme.

Media exposure

Findings suggest that large proportions of youth in Rajasthan were exposed to the media, typically television (90% of all young men and 66% of all young women), and, among youth with five or more years of education, newspapers, magazines or books (95% of young men and 77% of young women). Exposure to the internet, among those with five or more years of education, was reported by considerably fewer youth (8% of young men and 6% of young women). Gender differences were apparent, with young men typically more likely to be exposed to each medium than young women.

Findings also suggest that about one in five young men and one in twenty young women watched pornographic films, and just 10% of young men and 3% of young women accessed pornographic books and magazines. About half of those who had been exposed to pornographic materials reported that they accessed these materials sometimes or frequently. Finally, about three-fifths of young men and two-fifths of young women acknowledged the influence that media have on youth behaviours and between one-seventh and one-quarter, respectively, acknowledged its influence on their own behaviour.

Socialisation experiences and communication with parents

Findings suggest, in general, the gendered nature of socialisation of youth. For example, responses of both young men and women indicate that unequal gender norms regarding freedom of movement prevailed in most study households, with about three-fifths of young men acknowledging that they had more freedom to go out than their sisters or female cousins did, and two-thirds of young women agreeing that they had less freedom to go out than their brothers or male cousins. At the same time, more than two-thirds of young women reported that they were expected to do more housework than their brothers or male cousins, a perception not held by young men among whom just 27% perceived that they were expected to do less housework than their sisters or female cousins. Findings also suggest that parents controlled both young men's and women's social interactions, particularly those involving members of the opposite sex: for example, 65–80% of young men and 63–84% of young women reported expecting parental disapproval if they brought an opposite-sex friend home.

Findings regarding communication with parents on issues relevant to youth—such as school performance, friendships, being teased or bullied, physical maturation, romantic relationships and reproductive processes—reiterate those from

other studies, showing that such communication is far from universal. Indeed, sensitive topics—such as romantic relationships, reproduction and contraception, among all youth, and even adolescent body changes issues among young men—were rarely discussed with either parent.

That parent-child communication was restricted was also evident from responses to questions probing the most likely confidante on a range of topics from taking a job to boy-girl relationships. While parents were mentioned as leading confidantes on topics such as taking a job, they were rarely cited as leading confidantes on the more sensitive matter of boy-girl relationships. Moreover, while young women identified their mother as the most likely confidante on such matters as menstrual problems and experience of teasing, young men rarely identified a parent as a leading confidante on matters relating to nocturnal emission or *swapnadosh*.

Young people's family lives were marked by violence, both experienced and witnessed. About one in seven youth had observed their father beating their mother. Many respondents reported experiencing a beating by a parent during adolescence; over one-third of young men and one in eight young women reported such experiences.

Peer networks and interaction

Growing up was associated with close peer networks. Almost all youth reported having some same-sex friends. Young men and women had similar-sized networks of friends. Opposite-sex peer networks were less common but nonetheless reported by one in seven young men and one in ten young women. Interactions with same-sex friends tended to be restricted to activities such as chatting and engaging in sports, although young men did report engaging in activities such as going out on picnics or to films or studying. Indeed, findings suggest that youth derived an important measure of support from their peer networks on personal matters: friends were by far the leading confidante on boy-girl relationships for both young men and women, and on nocturnal emission for young men.

Agency and gender role attitudes

Findings clearly highlight young women's limited agency. For example, just one in four young women reported independent decision-making on all three issues explored in the survey, namely, decisions on choice of friends, spending money and purchase of clothes. Likewise, freedom of movement even within the village or neighbourhood was not universal among young women; only three quarters of young women had the freedom to visit locations within their own village or neighbourhood unescorted. Moreover, just one quarter of young women reported freedom to visit at least one place outside the village or neighbourhood unescorted, and one in five could visit a health facility unescorted. Access to and control over financial resources tended to be limited among young women; just two in five reported some savings and one in 10 owned a bank or post office savings account. Of those who owned an account, just two in five operated it themselves.

Within the sub-group of young women, findings indicate that the married were considerably more disadvantaged than the unmarried. By and large, compared to the unmarried, married young women were less likely to make decisions independently and have less freedom of movement; at the same time, they were more likely to hold unequal gender role attitudes.

Also notable from the findings is the striking gender divide in all the dimensions of young people's agency explored in the survey. Young women were far more disadvantaged than young men. For example, even the least educated young men and young men belonging to the poorest wealth quintile were more likely than the most educated women and those in the wealthiest quintile to report independent decision-making on all three issues explored in the survey. Likewise, although young women were more likely than young men to have money saved (38% and 23%, respectively), they were less likely than young men to own a bank or post office savings account (9% and 14%, respectively). Moreover, young women were much less likely than their male counterparts to operate these accounts themselves (40% versus 92% of those who had an account).

While young men were not as disadvantaged as young women, findings indicate that many young men were also not able to exercise agency in their everyday lives. For example, only 65% of young men reported independent decision-making on all three issues explored in the survey. Unmarried young men had considerable freedom of movement, yet about 20% were not permitted to visit a place of entertainment, attend a programme conducted outside their village or neighbourhood, or a health facility unescorted.

About two in five young men and women justified wife beating in at least one situation, relatively large proportions of youth espoused egalitarian gender role attitudes on other issues explored. Even so, it is notable that young men were consistently more likely than young women to report unequal gender role attitudes on these issues.

Awareness of sexual and reproductive health matters

Findings underscore young people's limited awareness of most sexual and reproductive matters, ranging from how pregnancy occurs to contraception, HIV and safe sex practices. For example, just one-third of young men and almost half of young women were aware that a woman can get pregnant at first sex, 86% of young men and 57% of young women had heard about HIV/AIDS, and 17% and 27%, respectively, of young men and women reported awareness of STIs other than HIV. While 4–6% of married youth were unaware of any contraceptive method, as many as 13% of all unmarried young women and 18% of those in rural areas were not aware of a single contraceptive method. Knowledge of legal issues related to marriage was, in comparison, more widespread; however, as many as 14% of young men and 34% of young women did not know that 18 years is the legal minimum age at marriage for females.

Even on topics about which young people were generally aware, findings show that in-depth understanding was limited. For example, while 92–93% of youth reported awareness of at least one contraceptive method, in-depth awareness of condoms and oral contraceptives, the methods most familiar to youth, was reported by 83% and 33% of young men and 39% and 42% of young women, respectively. Likewise, only 49% of young men and 20% of young women had comprehensive awareness of HIV. Findings of considerable gender difference in comprehensive awareness about contraception and HIV/AIDS raises concern about the vulnerability of young women.

Youth had few sources of information on sex and reproduction. Indeed, almost three-fifths of young women and one-third of young men reported that they had never received any information on sexual matters (prior to marriage among the married). Leading sources of information on sexual matters were friends and the media for both young men and women. In contrast, fewer than 5% of young men and women cited teachers and health care providers, respectively, as a source of information, and just 1% and 6%, respectively, cited a family member. Among the leading current sources of information on contraception among young people who were aware of at least one method were similarly, peers and the media, and, among young women, family members. Again, teachers and health care providers were relatively infrequently reported as such. Indeed, health care providers were cited as an important source of information on contraception by only one-tenth (11%) of both young men and women; they were far less likely to have provided information to the unmarried (4–8%) than the married (15–20%). Teachers were cited by even fewer (less than 5%). In short, health care providers, teachers and family members—often assumed to be more reliable sources of information than peers or the media—were infrequently and inconsistently cited as sources of information on sensitive topics such as sexual matters and contraception by young people.

Few youth had attended family life or sex education programmes either in or outside the school setting—just 1–2% of the married and 4–6% of the unmarried. Despite this, youth were overwhelmingly in favour of the provision of family life or sex education to young people; typically, young men preferred to receive this education from a teacher, while young women preferred to obtain it from a family member. Findings suggest, moreover, that youth who had undergone family life or sex education were indeed more knowledgeable about sexual and reproductive matters than those not exposed to this education.

Pre-marital romantic relations

Findings confirm that despite strict norms prohibiting pre-marital opposite-sex mixing, opportunities do exist for the formation of pre-marital romantic relations. Indeed, significant minorities of young men and women had received or made a "proposal" for a romantic relationship (13–19%), and noteworthy, if smaller, percentages reported that they had been involved in a romantic partnership (11% and 7% of young men and women, respectively). Typically, the first romantic partner was a student or colleague, or a neighbour or friend (reported by 38–49% of young men and 20–46% of young women) who reported a pre-marital partner. Patterns of pre-marital romantic relationships suggest that where partnerships occurred, they were initiated at an early age and were usually hidden from parents but not from peers. Relatively few youth who engaged in a pre-marital romantic partnership had expectations of a longer-term commitment; however, young women were considerably more likely than young men to have expected a romantic relationship to lead to marriage (58% and 28%, respectively). The experiences of the married suggest, moreover, a disconnect between intentions and reality: among married youth, while 29% and 65% of married young men and women, respectively, who reported a pre-marital romantic partner, had intended to marry their pre-marital partner, just 4% and 8%, respectively, had done so.

There was a clear progression in reported physical intimacy and sexual experience with romantic partners: while 89% of young men had held hands with a romantic partner, just 45% had engaged in sexual relations with their partner; among young women, while three-quarters had held hands with a romantic partner, just one in five (19%) had engaged in sexual relations with their partner. Gender differences in reporting pre-marital sex with a romantic partner were indeed wide. Partner communication and negotiation regarding safe sex were rare, and the vast majority of youth had engaged in unprotected sex. Almost one in eight young women who had engaged in sexual relations with a romantic partner reported that their opposite-sex romantic partner had forced them to engage in sex the first time.

Pre-marital sexual experiences in romantic and other relationships

In total, 15% of young men and 2% of young women reported the experience of pre-marital sex within romantic and/or other partnerships. Roughly similar proportions of young men and women—3% and 2%, respectively—had initiated first sex before age 18; however, youth in rural areas had initiated pre-marital sexual relations earlier than their urban counterparts. Moreover, initiation into pre-marital sexual activity increased as young people transitioned from early into late adolescence, and further as they transitioned into young adulthood.

While sex with a romantic partner characterised pre-marital experiences for many of the sexually experienced, findings suggest that young men, but not young women, also engaged in sex in other contexts; other partners reported by young men included, mainly, married women, but also sex workers, and casual partners. Many of the pre-marital sexual experiences reported by youth were risky, for example, 14% of young men and 28% of young women reporting pre-marital sex had engaged in sex with more than one partner. Moreover, consistent condom use was limited—only 6% of young men and 4% of young women reported condom use in all pre-marital encounters.

We acknowledge that youth, especially young women, may not report sexual experience in a survey situation. Hence, the Youth Study supplemented a series of direct questions with an opportunity to report sexual experience in an anonymous format. In total, among young men, direct questioning supplemented by self-reporting in an anonymous format provided considerably higher estimates of sexual experience than did face-to-face questioning alone or anonymous third-party reporting of peer behaviours. Among young women, however, both methods yielded somewhat similar estimates of pre-marital sexual experiences.

Transition to marriage and early married life

Findings indicate that although most young men preferred to marry after adolescence (96% preferred to marry at age 20 or older), significant minorities of young women expressed a preference to marry early, even before age 18,

indicating an adherence to norms favouring child marriage among young women in this setting. Reiterating the fact that early marriage continues to characterise the lives of many young women, findings show that among young women aged 20–24 years as many as one in four was married before age 15, three in five before age 18 and four in five before age 20. Even though early marriage was less prevalent among young men, one in 5 young men aged 20–24 years was married before age 18 and one in three before age 20.

Not only did marriage occur at young ages but it was also often arranged without the participation of young people themselves, particularly young women. Almost all youth reported arranged marriages. As many as one in five young men and half of young women reported that their parents did not seek their approval while determining their marriage partner. Hence, not surprisingly, reported pre-marital acquaintance was limited. Just one in ten youth reported that they had ever had a chance to meet and interact with their spouse-to-be alone prior to marriage. In fact, well over four in five married youth reported that they had met their spouse for the first time on the wedding day. Compounding the lack of pre-marital acquaintance was the lack of awareness of what to expect of married life, reported by two-thirds of young women and three-quarters of young men. Indeed, almost two out of every five young women in both rural and urban settings (and 4% of young men) reported that they had been scared about getting married.

Despite the existence of laws against the payment of dowry, this practice characterised the marriages of about four-fifths of young men (78%) and women (85%). Findings also show that families of urban youth were somewhat more likely than their rural counterparts to conform to traditional practices, such as the payment of dowry.

Reports of marital life suggest that spousal communication was far from universal and that marital life was marked by considerable violence. For example, couple communication on contraceptive use was reported by just three in five young women and two in five young men, clearly undermining married young people's ability to adopt protective actions. Physical violence and forced sex within marriage were reported by considerable proportions of youth; of note is the finding that considerably more young women reported the experience of sexual compared to physical violence. For example, about one-fifth of young women reported that they had ever faced violence perpetrated by their husband (18%) and a somewhat smaller percentage of young men (14%) reported perpetrating violence on their wife. Recent violence was reported by fewer: about one in ten young men and one in seven young women. Sexual violence, in contrast, was reported by many more youth. Indeed, one-third of young women reported that their first sexual experience within marriage had been forced. Overall, two in five young women reported ever being forced by their husband to have sex; in contrast, about one in six young men reported forcing their wife to engage in sex. Recent sexual violence was reported by more than one-quarter of young women and almost one in 10 young men.

While the Youth Study did not explore extra-marital sexual experiences in detail, the available data indicate that 3% of young men compared to hardly any young women reported an extra-marital sexual encounter.

Contraceptive practice and pregnancy experience

Contraceptive use at any time within marriage was limited, reported by 38% of young men and 24% of young women. Moreover, 32% of young men and 17% of young women reported current use of contraception. Reporting of methods currently used was fairly similar among young women and men. Contraceptive methods most likely to be used were oral contraceptives and condoms and, notwithstanding their young age, female sterilisation. Few young people practised contraception to delay the first birth—just 20% of young men and 8% of young women. Not surprisingly, pregnancy typically occurred within a year of marriage for half of young women and two-thirds of young men who reported that they or their wife had been pregnant at least once. Moreover, large proportions of youth—particularly young women—reported experiencing unintended pregnancy. For example, among young women who were not pregnant at the time of interview and young men whose wife was not pregnant at the time of interview, 24% and 8%, respectively, reported that the last pregnancy was mistimed or unwanted.

Circumstances of the first birth suggest that institutional delivery and skilled attendance at delivery were limited: only about two in five first births were delivered institutionally and just over three-fifths reported delivery by a skilled attendant.

Findings also show that son preference was evident. Almost one quarter of young men and one-third of young women preferred to have more sons than daughters. In contrast, just 1–3% preferred to have more daughters than sons.

Substance use

Findings show that substantial proportions of young men reported the consumption of tobacco and alcohol; more than one-quarter of young men reported tobacco consumption and almost one in ten reported alcohol consumption. As expected, few young women reported that they had consumed any of these substances. Finally, hardly any young men and not a single woman reported drug use.

Health seeking behaviour

Although youth is a generally healthy period of life, significant minorities reported experiencing general, mental, and sexual and reproductive health problems in the period preceding the interview. For example, 17% of young men and 29% of young women had experienced high fever, and 3% of young men and 16% of young women reported the experience of symptoms of genital infection. Just about one in twenty young women reported experiencing menstrual problems; at the same time, one-fifth of young men reported anxiety about nocturnal emission. Finally, responses indicative of mental health disorders were reported by almost twice as many women as men: 11% of young men and 21% of young women.

With regard to care seeking for general and sexual and reproductive health problems, young women were typically less likely than young men to seek care for these problems. Moreover, patterns varied by type of problem. While the large majority of those who had experienced high fever, for example, had sought care, many fewer had sought care for sexual and reproductive health problems. Of those who had sought treatment, large proportions of young men had sought advice or treatment from a government facility or provider, irrespective of the type of problem. Young women, on the other hand, were about as likely to opt for a public sector as a private sector provider. However, it is notable that almost one in ten young women who had sought care for symptoms of genital infection or menstrual problems had used home remedies or the services of traditional or untrained providers. In the case of anxiety about nocturnal emission, moreover, young men had rarely sought advice from a health care provider, preferring to do so from peers.

Findings suggest that youth were shy about seeking sexual and reproductive health services. For example, many youth, including the married, reported that they would indeed hesitate to approach a health care provider or a pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptive supplies.

Finally, small minorities (2–3%) reported that they had undergone an HIV test. Youth were, however, overwhelmingly in favour of pre-marital HIV testing.

Participation in civil society and political life

Findings highlight the limited participation of youth in civil society. Although a number of programmes are organised by the government or NGOs at the community level in which youth can participate, few youth (7–12%) reported familiarity with these programmes. Even fewer youth—4% of young men and 3% of young women—reported participating in such programmes. Considerably more young men (23%) and young women (13%) reported that they had participated in community-led activities, notably the celebration of festivals and national days. Finally, just 2% of young men and 3% of young women reported membership in organised groups.

Findings suggest that large proportions of youth did indeed vote, however voting behaviour was far from universal. Among those eligible, 80% of young men and 65% of young women had cast their vote in the most recent election for which they were eligible to vote. Also of note is the finding that while most youth perceived that one could vote freely and without fear and pressure, one in ten young men and women felt that one could not do so. Moreover, 62% of young men and 52% of young women reported disillusionment with the commitment of political parties to work for change at the community level.

Expressions of secular attitudes varied. Over 90% of young men and over 80% of young women reported that they would mix freely with individuals of different religions and castes. However, only 71% of young men and 55% of young women reported they would eat together with a person of a different caste or religion, 47% of young men and 35% of young women reported they would talk to a person who has had an inter-caste marriage and only 18% of young men and 30% of young women agreed that it was best to tolerate rather than punish someone who insulted their religion.

Considerable proportions of young men and women acknowledged that physical fights among young men and also among young women did occur in their village or urban neighbourhood; however, just 8% of young men and 2% of young women reported that they had been involved in a physical fight in the year preceding the interview.

The four leading problems facing youth expressed by both young men and women were unemployment, poverty, lack of amenities and lack of educational opportunities. However, young people's perceptions of these problems varied enormously by sex. Among young men, the majority reported difficulty in finding employment as the leading problem, followed by concerns about poverty more generally, lack of amenities or infrastructure and lack of educational opportunities. In contrast, the leading problem expressed by young women was lack of amenities and infrastructure, and to a lesser extent, difficulty in finding employment, poverty more generally, and lack of opportunities for education.

Recommendations for programmes

Findings presented in the sections above underscore the fact that youth face numerous challenges while making the transition to adulthood. These challenges call for programme interventions at the youth, family and service delivery levels. Key programme recommendations emerging from this study are highlighted below.

Strengthen efforts to achieve universal school enrolment and increase levels of school completion

Youth Study findings highlight that school enrolment was far from universal among young people in the state: indeed, one in ten young men and two in five young women had never been enrolled in school. School completion rates were also low, particularly among young women; just 38% of young men and 18% of young women had completed high school (Class 10). India's Youth Policy has articulated the need for universal school enrolment and the recently enacted Right to Education Bill has made education compulsory for all children. What is required now, particularly if the state is to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of ensuring universal primary school completion, are parallel programme actions to implement these commitments. While the achievement of universal school enrolment and primary school completion are key goals, the importance of high school education in enabling youth to make a successful transition to adulthood underscores the need, at the same time, for efforts to overcome barriers to high school completion. The stark gender divide and rural-urban divide observed in school enrolment and completion call, moreover, for efforts that target female children and children in rural areas.

A number of factors have been identified in the Youth Study that inhibit school enrolment and completion; leading among these were economic reasons; attitudes and perceptions of both parents and young people; and, among young women, housework responsibilities. Multiple activities are needed to address these barriers. Efforts must be made, for example, to address the economic pressures that dissuade parents from enrolling their children in school and from keeping them in school once enrolled. Conditional grants and targeted subsidies that encourage school

enrolment and completion among disadvantaged groups need to be considered. At the same time, activities directed at parents are needed that promote positive attitudes among them towards education and school completion, raise their aspirations for the education of their children and encourage greater parental involvement in their children's education.

School-related factors were also significant barriers to school continuation, particularly among young women. Activities must therefore address these barriers, notably, distance to school, poor infrastructure and quality of education, and academic failure. The state government has launched various schemes to address these barriers; however, it is important that the effectiveness of these schemes is evaluated and promising lessons are assimilated and scaled up.

There is also a need to incorporate livelihood skills building models within the school setting and provide opportunities for those in school to gain market-driven job skills that will raise young people's aspirations regarding their education and career. Moreover, investments in improving the quality of the schooling experience are needed that focus on providing better training and ensuring accountability for teachers. Finally, given the large proportions of youth reporting that schooling had been interrupted because they were required for work on the family farm or business or for housework, efforts are needed to adjust school timings, or to establish evening schools, to enable children to accommodate their work commitments without sacrificing their education.

Findings indicating transition to adult roles, particularly early marriage, as an important reason for school discontinuation among girls—notably among those who discontinued their education in Classes 7–9 as well as Classes 10–11—emphasise the fact that programme commitments outside the education sector are also critical to the achievement of universal school enrolment and completion. Specifically required are programmes that seek to critically examine norms and practices surrounding marriage and to eliminate the practice of early marriage. Explorations of subsidies and cash transfers that link school retention and delayed marriage among girls are needed. Moreover, findings suggest that married young women remain considerably disadvantaged in terms of school completion. Interventions are needed that give married young women a second chance to obtain a basic education.

Invest in promoting youth employment

Findings of the Youth Study that considerable proportions of youth had initiated work in childhood reiterate the recommendation highlighted above regarding the need to provide conditional grants and targeted subsidies to disadvantaged groups, which would encourage parents to opt for schooling over work for their children.

Youth are, however, poorly equipped for employment for which there is a market demand. Indeed, few youth had completed high school, even fewer had attended a vocational training programme and those who were engaged in economic activity were working largely in agricultural and unskilled non-agricultural activities.

The state must significantly strengthen investments in programmes that enable youth to make successful transitions to work roles. Enhancing employability would depend to a considerable extent on the improvements in educational attainment discussed above; it would also require greater investment in enabling youth to acquire vocational skills. Formal mechanisms must be developed that provide opportunities to youth to acquire skills for which there is an established demand, and that link eligible youth to market opportunities. These efforts need to promote self-employment and entrepreneurship through various livelihood schemes, for example, providing soft loans to youth to enable them to set up their own business enterprises. Also required are efforts to ensure that existing programmes aimed at job creation do indeed reach young people.

Promote youth agency and gender equitable norms among youth

Findings presented in this report highlight the limited agency of young women and the persistence of gender double standards among youth. Stark gender differences were evident; young women were particularly disadvantaged in terms of school enrolment and completion, and wage earning activities. While more young women than men had participated in vocational training programmes, most young women had undergone training in traditional skills, such

as tailoring and handicrafts. Socialisation was gendered and young men were less likely to contribute to housework than were young women and reported, compared to young women, far more mobility, decision-making authority in matters relating to their own lives and access to resources. And although young women were more likely to express equitable gender role attitudes than young men, about two in five young men and women alike expressed traditional attitudes concerning wife-beating. These findings call for multi-pronged interventions to promote gender equitable norms and practices that are directed at young women, young men, their families, communities, and the education, labour and health systems.

A priority is to promote life skills education programmes for young women, both unmarried and married, that will not only raise their awareness of new ideas and the world around them but also enable them to put information into practice, encourage them to question gender stereotypes, develop self-esteem and strengthen their skills in problem-solving, decision-making, communication and inter-personal relations and negotiation. Safe spaces should be identified in which young women can build social networks and find support among peers.

Interventions intended to build life skills must also be inclusive of young men. Indeed, findings that more young men than women expressed inegalitarian gender role attitudes, on the one hand, and that considerable numbers of young men were not able to exercise agency in their everyday lives, on the other, call for life skills programmes for them that promote new concepts of masculinity and femininity and at the same time, promote messages that build egalitarian relations between women and men.

Promoting gender equitable norms and practices requires an active engagement with the community. It is essential that programmes for youth work with key community members, such as, for example, parents, political and religious leaders, to critically examine prevailing gender norms and forces that perpetuate/condone gender unequal practices.

An increasing number of intervention models to build agency and promote egalitarian gender role attitudes among young people have been tested in India. Moreover, a number of NGOs, including Rajasthan-based and national NGOs, have implemented programmes to build livelihood skills among youth in the state. These models should be reviewed and replicated or scaled up as appropriate.

Provide opportunities for formal saving, especially for young women

Findings suggest that while considerable proportions of youth reported savings, relatively few owned a savings account. Young women were more likely than young men to report savings, somewhat less likely to own a savings account, and, among those who did own an account, far less likely than young men to operate the account independently. Programmes are needed that inculcate a savings orientation among both young men and young women, that offer savings products that are attractive and appropriate to the small and erratic savings patterns of young people and that enable young women in particular to overcome obstacles related to owning and controlling savings products.

Promote youth participation in civil society and political processes and reinforce secular attitudes

Findings suggest that for many youth, opportunities to engage in civic and political processes were limited and secular attitudes were not uniformly expressed. Programmes are needed—at the school, college and community levels, through national service programmes, sports and other non-formal mechanisms—that encourage civic participation, incorporate value building components and reinforce secular attitudes and values that espouse responsible citizenship.

Provide family life or sex education for those in school and out of school

Youth Study findings provide considerable evidence suggesting that family life or sex education is urgently needed for youth, both those in school and those who have discontinued their education. For example, findings demonstrate the

limited understanding of sexual and reproductive matters among young people, including the married. Misconceptions abound on most topics: sex and pregnancy, contraceptive methods including condoms, STIs and HIV/AIDS and the conditions under which abortion is legally available or restricted. Indeed, knowledge of STIs is far more limited than knowledge of HIV. In fact, even among youth who were aware of sexual and reproductive health matters, knowledge—for example, of contraception or HIV transmission—was typically superficial.

Notably, youth themselves have called for family life or sex education. Findings highlight that large proportions of youth recognised the need for information and education on these issues; while young men indicated a preference for receiving this education from teachers, health care providers or other experts, young women preferred a family member and, to a lesser extent, teachers. However, few young people had been exposed to family life or sex education; indeed, even those in school had not been exposed to such education, notwithstanding the *Jeevan Kaushal Shiksha* aimed at students in Classes 3–11 Indeed, substantial proportions of married young men and women reported entering marriage unaware of what marriage entailed. At the same time, substantial minorities of young men and few young women had engaged in sexual risk taking.

A number of state government programmes are ongoing that aim to impart sexual and reproductive health information to young people. What is needed is a strong commitment to ensuring that these programmes do indeed reach young people, both in school and out-of-school, both married and unmarried and both rural and urban. These programmes should be age-appropriate and provide information on sexual and reproductive matters including sexual and reproductive rights, pregnancy and the causes, transmission routes and prevention of infection. However, programmes should be designed not only to raise awareness among youth but also to enable young people to correctly understand and assess the risks they face and to adopt appropriate protective actions.

In addition, special attention needs to be paid to the training of trainers. Indeed, findings indicate that about one in three young women and two in five young men who had received formal family life or sex education reported feeling uncomfortable or embarrassed in the course of receiving this information, raising questions about the extent to which youth were indeed able to participate freely in discussions and clarify their doubts and at the same time, raising questions about the ability of trainers to connect with youth to whom they provided this education. Such findings clearly highlight the need to improve the quality of training imparted to trainers. It is important that teachers, health care providers and other experts undergo training that enables them to overcome their reluctance to communicate with youth on sensitive sexual and reproductive matters, that dispels their misconceptions on these matters, and that enhances their technical knowledge of these issues.

In view of the finding that the media are a major but not necessarily reliable source of information on sexual and reproductive matters for youth, efforts must be made to ensure that media content is accurate and comprehensive.

Ensure that the transition to sexual life is safe and wanted

While for the vast majority of young women sexual activity is initiated within the context of marriage, findings show that a sizeable proportion of young men and some young women had engaged in sex before marriage. As documented in this report, many youth had initiated sexual activity uninformed, which reiterates the need to provide family life or sex education to young people. Moreover, the finding that for many youth, pre-marital sexual experiences were unsafe or unwanted calls for programmes that focus on building sexual and reproductive health awareness among young people as well as developing their skills in negotiating safe sex and communicating with their partners. At the same time, programmes must make available appropriate family planning and infection prevention services for both married and unmarried young men and women in a manner acceptable to them. Findings suggesting widespread misconceptions about the condom call for bold and imaginatively designed communication programmes directed at youth that dispel misconceptions through messages that appeal to youth.

Intensify efforts to eliminate the practice of early marriage

Findings indicate an adherence, even among youth, to the traditional norms around child marriage, and the practice of early marriage not only among young women but also, to a lesser extent, among young men. These findings call for measures that go beyond information campaigns to address the underlying factors—social norms and economic constraints—driving early marriage and to better enforce existing laws prohibiting early marriage in the state.

There is a need for a multi-pronged approach to eliminate the practice of early marriage. Strategies are needed that mobilise communities to help parents resist pressures that foster the practice of early marriage. Moreover, strategies are needed that establish new norms and practices, that actively engage influential persons in the community, including religious and political leaders, as well as that initiate campaigns highlighting the adverse consequences of early marriage and how it is a violation of the rights of the child. Finally strategies for community mobilisation must involve youth themselves as well as their families.

Equally important is the need to ensure greater commitment on the part of law enforcement agencies to enforce existing laws on the minimum age at marriage and the registration of marriages, and to levy penalties on violators. Allowing anonymous reporting, making law enforcement agencies and others aware that the practice of early marriage is not a minor violation, and making the guidelines for penalties clear to enforcement agencies and the wider community are possible steps in this direction.

Efforts to delay marriage also require providing girls with viable alternatives to marriage. Advising families to send their daughters to school when schools are too far away, the classroom is hostile to girls or education is of poor quality will not succeed. Working with the education sector to make schooling for girls more accessible, and to make classrooms gender-sensitive and responsive to the needs of young girls and the concerns of their parents is important. At the same time, it is necessary to provide livelihoods training within and outside the educational system.

Findings that marriages were often arranged without the participation of young people themselves and that few young people had an opportunity to meet their spouse-to-be prior to the wedding day call for actions to apprise parents of the need to involve their children in marriage-related decisions and enable them to interact with their prospective spouse prior to the wedding day. Parents must also be made aware of the physical and mental health consequences of early marriage and the adverse experiences of many young women (and some young men) who were married early or who were unprepared for marriage.

Enable married young women to exercise greater control over their lives

Findings regarding the multiple vulnerabilities faced by married young women underscore the need for programmes that support young women, especially the newly-wed, acknowledging that their situation and needs may differ from those of married adults. Married young women are notably isolated, have little decision-making authority and have few sources of support. They have limited communication with their husband, and notable proportions have experienced physical and sexual violence perpetrated by their husband.

Efforts are needed that address these vulnerabilities. Programmes need to break down the social isolation of married young women, encourage couple communication, build negotiation and conflict management skills early in marriage and enable married young women to have greater control over resources. Intervention models exist in India that have attempted to address these needs; these models should be reviewed and up-scaled as appropriate so that married young women have an opportunity to exercise control over their lives.

Support newly-weds to postpone the first pregnancy and promote pregnancy-related care among those who become pregnant

Findings show that the social pressure to bear children as soon as possible following marriage persists. Contraceptives were rarely used to postpone the first pregnancy and although the desire to delay pregnancy was expressed by almost

one-quarter of young women (and few young men), many young women experienced their first pregnancy soon after marriage. It would appear that numerous forces work against delaying the first pregnancy—young people's lack of awareness of appropriate methods of contraception and access to supplies, their limited skills in countering social expectations and negotiating pregnancy postponement, overwhelming pressure from the family and community to bear children as soon as possible after marriage, and lack of attention from health care providers.

Programmes are needed that inform youth about their pregnancy postponement options and enable them to access appropriate contraception. At the same time, providers, including such outreach workers as ASHAs, must be trained and charged with the responsibility of reaching married young women and men—including those who have not yet experienced pregnancy—with information regarding contraception and other reproductive health matters as well as contraceptive supplies. The finding that married young women lack the freedom of movement to seek health care underscores the need for health workers to reach these women—particularly those newly married and first time pregnant—in their homes.

Findings also underscore the limited access to maternal health services even at the time of the first—and often the most risky—pregnancy. Indeed, many first births were delivered in the home setting or attended by unskilled persons. These findings highlight that reproductive and child health programmes in the state need to build a demand as well as improve the availability of such services among young people.

Create a supportive family environment

Findings highlight the limited interaction and social distance between parents and young people while growing up and the gendered nature of socialisation experiences. Efforts must be made to create a supportive environment for young people. While evidence on models that are effective in bridging the distance between parents and children or enabling parents to adopt gender-egalitarian socialisation practices is not currently available, findings presented in this report call for programmes that address parental inhibitions about discussing sexual matters with their children, encourage greater openness and interaction between parents and children, and enable the adoption of gender-egalitarian child-rearing practices.

Reorient service provision to address the unique needs of unmarried and married young women and men

Although the RCH Programme has advocated special services for youth, including the unmarried, these services had not reached youth in our survey. Indeed, it would appear that the programme has not adequately recognised the heterogeneity of youth and the special needs of married and unmarried young men and women. Few youth were aware of sources of sexual and reproductive health information or contraceptive supplies, and few, particularly young women, had sought care for symptoms of STI or gynaecological problems. Moreover, findings suggest that many youth, including the married, found it difficult to seek appropriate care for sexual and reproductive health problems.

These findings underscore the need to sensitise health care providers about the special needs, heterogeneity and vulnerability of unmarried and married young women and men, and to orient them to the need for developing appropriate strategies to reach these diverse groups, including young newly-weds. Programmes must be inclusive of unmarried as well as married young people and recognise their need and right to sexual and reproductive health and related information and services. Counselling and contraceptive services must be made available to young people in a non-threatening, non-judgmental and confidential environment. Indeed, these findings call for the implementation of strategies outlined under the National Rural Health Mission's RCH Programme.

The finding, moreover, that neither unmarried young men nor married and unmarried young women are permitted to visit a health centre unescorted suggests that few youth would be able to attend youth clinics at Community Health Centre or district hospital levels advocated in the Adolescent Reproductive and Health Strategy. Indeed, these findings call for services that are provided closer to home and that provide for confidentiality, such as, for example, separate

village health days that cater to the general as well as sexual and reproductive health needs of youth or involving outreach workers including ASHAs, to provide information and contraceptive supplies, as necessary, to youth.

Moreover, the finding that few youth had sought care for health problems suggests the need to explore the feasibility of implementing various financing strategies, for example, health insurance, competitive voucher schemes and community financing schemes, which will allow youth to have a wider choice of providers and enhance the possibility of obtaining quality care.

At the same time, mental health issues need to be addressed. Symptoms suggestive of mental health disorders were evident among sizeable proportions of youth. Efforts are needed to screen young people for mental health disorders when they avail of other primary health services, including, for example, sexual and reproductive health services, and to refer youth with such symptoms to appropriate health facilities and providers.

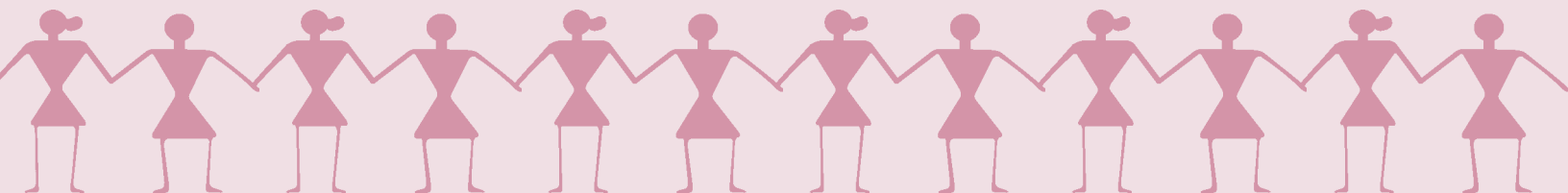
Directions for future research

Findings presented in this report provide a broad picture of youth in Rajasthan. At the same time, findings have raised a number of issues that require further investigation, particularly with regard to the determinants and consequences of youth behaviours and practices during the transition to adulthood. While the Youth Study is indeed a rich source of data that will enable investigators to fill many of the information gaps identified, there are several gaps in knowledge that will require additional research.

Youth Study findings highlight the need for further research in terms of formative research that explores in greater depth factors impeding successful transitions to adulthood, including enrolment in school and school completion, entry into the labour force, initiation of sexual activity, and marriage and parenthood. Research is also needed that explores the role of peers, socialisation practices, young people's access to information and services, and the ways in which these factors contribute to or impede young people's ability to make successful transitions. A general research recommendation is the urgent need for prospective or panel study designs that follow a cohort of adolescents at regular intervals up to age 24. Prospective study designs would enable researchers to take a life course approach, identify, with compelling data, the factors responsible for healthy transitions to adulthood and point to the ways in which the situation and experiences of youth in adolescence influence their life course at later ages.

Operations research is also needed. While a number of interventions have been initiated in Rajasthan intended to address the needs of youth—for example, addressing the needs of married girls, changing the norms of masculinity and femininity, encouraging education for girls, developing market-based vocational skills and providing family life and sex education—few of these have been rigorously evaluated. Urgently needed, therefore, are carefully designed and rigorously tested intervention models that not only pay attention to the content and delivery of the intervention but also measure effectiveness and acceptability—in short, that will enable a shift from the implementation of *promising* to *best* practices in addressing young people's needs. In order to inform the field, multiple inputs are required. Ultimately, research is needed that monitors the scaling up of successful interventions in terms of their impact on young people's lives.

In brief, the Youth Study has documented, for the first time, the multi-faceted situation of youth in Rajasthan. The study alerts us to the many challenges confronting youth and their ability to make a successful transition to adulthood. It emphasises the heterogeneity of youth, not only in terms of their situation but also with regard to their stated needs and preferred mechanisms to address these needs. Programmes must recognise the heterogeneity of young people and interventions and delivery mechanisms should be appropriately tailored to meet their needs. Evidence presented here provides not only a blue-print for the programming needs of youth in Rajasthan but also a base-line by which to measure the impact of programmes intended to address youth needs.



Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Rationale

The *Youth in India: Situation and Needs* study (referred to as the Youth Study) is the first-ever sub-nationally representative study conducted to identify key transitions experienced by married and unmarried youth in India. There is a strong rationale for the Youth Study. Young people (aged 10–24) constitute almost 315 million and represent 31% of the Indian population (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001a). These numbers are projected to increase and peak at around 358 million in 2011 before stabilising at around 336 million by 2026 (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2006). Not only does this cohort represent India's future in the socio-economic and political realms, but its experiences will largely determine India's achievement of its goal of population stabilisation articulated in the National Population Policy 2000 (MOHFW, 2000) and the extent to which the nation will be able to harness its demographic dividend. In addition, it is clear that the realisation of the Millennium Development Goals (UNDP, 2000) depends, to a considerable extent, upon the situation of young people. While today's youth are healthier, more urbanised and better educated than earlier generations, social vulnerabilities persist and transitions to adulthood are too frequently marked by early entry into the labour force, abrupt and premature exit from school, early marriage and strongly-held gender norms. In the course of the transition to adulthood, moreover, young people face significant risks related to sexual and reproductive health, and many lack the knowledge and power to make informed sexual and reproductive choices (for a review see Jejeebhoy and Sebastian, 2003).

In recognition of the importance of investing in young people, several national policies formulated since 2000 have underscored a commitment to addressing the multiple needs of this group in India. The National Population Policy 2000 recognised, for the first time, that adolescents constitute an under-served group with special sexual and reproductive health needs, and advocates special programme attention to addressing this population (MOHFW, 2000). The National Youth Policy 2003 focuses on the needs of those aged 13–35, but recognises adolescents (aged 13–19) as a special group requiring a different approach from that appropriate for young adults (aged 20–35), and promotes strategies to meet youth needs in areas including education, training and employment, health, recreation and sports, and good citizenship (Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports, 2003). Also notable is the commitment to address the needs of adolescents and young people articulated in the Tenth and Eleventh Five-Year Plans (Planning Commission, 2002; 2006). In addition, the National Adolescent Reproductive and Sexual Health Strategy provides the framework for the adolescent sexual and reproductive health services proposed in the Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) Programme II (MOHFW, 2006). The National Rural Health Mission (2005–12) has incorporated adolescent health services as part of its service guarantees in health sub-centres, primary health centres and schools (MOHFW, 2005).

Effective implementation of both policies and programmes, however, has been handicapped by the lack of evidence on young people's situation and needs. Currently available evidence is limited, at best, and comes largely from small-scale and unrepresentative studies. The most recent National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) obtained, for the first time, valuable data on unmarried young women and men (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a). Even so, the information that it provides on young people's various transitions remains limited and the small sample sizes obtained in most states preclude the possibility of in-depth analysis and of obtaining state-representative estimates of behaviours and practices among different sub-groups of young people.

1.2 Study objectives

The objectives of the Youth Study were to identify key transitions experienced by youth, including those pertaining to education, work force participation, sexual activity, marriage, health and civic participation; provide state-level evidence on the magnitude and patterns of young people's sexual and reproductive practices in and outside of marriage as well as related knowledge, decision-making and attitudes; and, finally, identify key factors underlying young people's sexual and reproductive health knowledge, attitudes and life choices. Findings from the study are expected to guide policy, programmes and advocacy on youth issues, enable programmes and policies to recognise the heterogeneity of youth in India, and provide important base-line indicators against which the long-term impact of programmes may be measured.

The Youth Study focused on married and unmarried young women and unmarried young men aged 15–24 and, because of the paucity of married young men in the younger ages, married men aged 15–29, in both rural and urban settings. The study was conducted in a phased manner in six states of India: Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu. This report focuses on findings from Rajasthan.

Funding for the Youth Study was provided by the David and Lucile Packard Foundation and the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation. The Youth Study was conducted jointly by the International Institute for Population Sciences, Mumbai (IIPS) and the Population Council, New Delhi. The design and implementation of this study were guided by the Project Advisory Committee, headed by the Secretary, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MOHFW), Government of India.

1.3 Rajasthan: Overview of demographic and socio-economic features

The state of Rajasthan, situated in the northwest of India, is India's largest state in terms of geographical area. It covers a total of 342,239 square kilometres and contains 33 districts (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001b). These districts are divided into seven divisions, namely Ajmer, Bharatpur, Bikaner, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Kota and Udaipur. Geographically, the state contains three distinct regions: a desert region (Western Rajasthan, comprising 60% of its land area and 34% of its population), a hilly region (Southern Rajasthan, containing 11% of its land area and 14% of its population) and the plains region, consisting of the remaining 29% of its land area and 52% of its population) (Government of Rajasthan, n.d.; Mathur, 2008).

Rajasthan, with a population of 56.5 million in 2001, ranks 8th in terms of total population among states in India (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001b). The state's population was projected to reach 64.5 million by 2008 (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2006). With 921 females per 1,000 males in 2001, the state registered a lower sex ratio than the national average (933) (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001b). Its population density was 165 persons per square kilometre in 2001, compared to 325 persons per square kilometre in India. A distribution of the population by religion indicates that 89% of the state's population was Hindu, 9% was Muslim and the remaining 3% belonged to other religions, including Buddhists, Christians, Jains and Sikhs (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001c). Scheduled tribes and scheduled castes constituted substantial proportions—13% and 17%, respectively—of the state's total population (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001b).

The state is characterised by a large rural population; just 23% of Rajasthan's population lives in urban areas (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001b). Both intra- and inter-state migration are high. Indeed, according to the 2001 Census, the state ranks third in terms of the number of inter-state migrants, and during the decade 1991–2001, 2.6 million persons migrated to states outside of Rajasthan (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001d).

Agriculture plays a vital role in the economic development of the state and is the largest contributor of the state domestic product as well as employment, particularly in rural areas. At the same time, the state has made

significant efforts in expanding its industrial and service sectors, providing incentives to attract investment in these sectors and enacting liberalisation measures. Rajasthan has rich mineral deposits and contributes about 22% of industrial mineral production in the country. In addition, tourism is a significant industry; the state received an estimated 273 lakh tourists, including 14 lakh foreign tourists in 2007 (Department of Finance and Planning, Government of Rajasthan, 2008).

The state, however, reports poor economic indicators. For example, Rajasthan's contribution to the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was about 4% in 2006–07 (Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, 2008). Its per capita income of Rs. 17,863 in 2005–06 was one of the lowest among states in India and well below the national average of Rs. 25,716 (Ministry of Finance, 2008). Rajasthan's Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) at current prices stood at Rs. 159,515 crore in 2007–08 (Department of Finance and Planning, Government of Rajasthan, 2008); at constant prices (1999–2000), the GSDP increased by 7.1 % between 2005–06 and 2006–07. Moreover, poverty levels remain high in the state. As of 2004–05, almost one-fifth of the state's population (22.1%) (based on Uniform Recall Period consumption distribution) was estimated to live below the poverty line, with significant differences between those residing in urban (32.9%) and rural (18.7%) areas (Planning Commission, 2007). Unemployment rates are low in rural areas of the state, but not so in urban areas, particularly among urban males. For example, in 2004–05, 1.5% and 3.1% of rural and urban males, respectively, were unemployed for a major part of the year, as measured by the usual principal status definition; the corresponding figures for females were 1.6% and 5.7%, respectively (NSSO, 2006).

Rajasthan lags behind the rest of India in terms of social indicators as well. For example, the state's overall literacy rate was 60% in 2001, ranking 29th of India's 34 states and union territories. While the male literacy rate, at 76%, was similar to the national average of 75%, the female literacy rate was considerably lower than that recorded at the national level, namely, 44% compared to 54% (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001b).

The state's performance in the health sector has also been poor. Life expectancy of males and females in the state is 1–2 years lower than the national average (62 years for both males and females in the state compared to 63 and 64 years respectively, nationally) (Office of the Registrar General, India, 2008a). The state's infant mortality rate of 65 is the sixth highest in the country. Fertility rates are also considerably higher in Rajasthan than in India on average; indeed, the total fertility rate in the state (3.2) is the sixth highest among states in India. The contraceptive prevalence rate is, correspondingly, lower than the national average (47% versus 56%); at the same time, the proportion of women reporting an unmet need for contraception in the state was similar to that reported for India as a whole (15% versus 13%) (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a).

1.4 Situation of youth in Rajasthan

Young people in Rajasthan aged 10–24 constitute a total of 17.5 million, and account for 31% of the state's population. The youth population, that is, those aged 15–24, numbered 10.2 million in 2001, accounting for about 18% of the state's population (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001a). The share of the youth population as a proportion of the total population of Rajasthan is projected to increase to 21% by 2011 and remain at 21% till 2016 before beginning to decline (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2006).

Lack of educational facilities for youth is a major concern acknowledged in many state documents (see, for example, Department of Finance and Planning, Government of Rajasthan, 2008; Department of Education, Government of Rajasthan, n.d.). Indeed, educational attainment levels among youth are considerably lower in the state than in India overall, and gender differences in enrolment substantially wider. Among young people (aged 10–24), only 88% of men and 61% of women were literate in 2001 (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001e). Data on gross enrolment ratios also highlight the state's poor performance in the educational field. The gross enrolment ratio in 2004–05 among children aged 6–11 years was 121% and among those aged 11–14, it was 71%, similar to those recorded at the national level; however, among 14–16 year-olds, the ratio was 44%, considerably lower than that

recorded for India as a whole (52%). The Gender Parity Index (GPI) at the elementary, secondary and higher secondary levels of education indicates limited access to educational opportunities for girls in the state; the GPI score ranged from 0.85 at the elementary level to 0.48 at the secondary and higher secondary level in 2004–05, considerably lower than the national average (Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2007).

Rajasthan has few employment opportunities for youth and, as elsewhere in the country, unemployment rates are slightly higher among young people than among the general population discussed above. For example, among the population aged 15–29, unemployment rates, as measured in terms of the usual principal status, were 3.6% and 7.3% among young men in rural and urban settings, respectively, during 2004–05; the corresponding rates among young women were 3.1% and 9.4%, respectively (NSSO, 2006).

Available evidence on the sexual and reproductive health profile of young people in Rajasthan highlights their vulnerability. Marriage continues to take place before the legal minimum age for both young women and men; as recently as 2005–06, 65% of women aged 20–24 were married by age 18 and 57% of men aged 25–29 were married by age 21. Moreover, about one in six 15–19 year-old girls (16%) have begun childbearing (IIPS and Macro International, 2008). At the same time, evidence from a small-scale study of marriage practices suggests that adolescent girls had a clear desire to marry after the age of 18; so too did many parents recognise the disadvantages of early marriage, although many of them reported a range of constraints that inhibited them from acting on this recognition (Santhya, Haberland and Singh, 2006).

While it is clear that sexual relations are initiated early and within the context of marriage for large proportions of young men and women in Rajasthan, behavioural surveillance surveys and small-scale studies report that sexual risk-taking before or within marriage is not unknown among young people in the state. For example, the recent National Behavioural Surveillance Survey reports that in Rajasthan, some 8% and 2% of young men and women, respectively, aged 15–24 had engaged in sexual intercourse with a non-regular partner in the 12 months preceding the survey (National Institute of Medical Statistics and NACO, 2008).

Despite the early onset of sexual relations within or before marriage among significant proportions of youth, available evidence suggests that in Rajasthan, young people's knowledge of sexual and reproductive health matters tends to be limited. For example, data from NFHS-3 indicate that only 33% of young men and even fewer (17%) young women in the state had comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS. However, 87% of young men and 55% of young women were aware of a source of condoms (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a). Similarly, sexual and reproductive health care seeking is limited among young people in Rajasthan. For example, a small-scale study of maternal care seeking among married adolescent girls in rural areas of the state concludes that adolescent mothers, and particularly those aged below 17, were considerably less likely to have obtained pregnancy-related care than adult women. For example, only 43% of young adolescent girls and 50% of older adolescent girls, compared to 63% of adult women experiencing their first or second delivery, had received the required three ante-natal check-ups. Likewise, just 31% and 38% of younger and older adolescents, respectively, had delivered in a health facility, compared to 55% of adult women. Finally, just 8–11% of adolescent mothers compared to 22% of adult women had received a check-up as part of routine postpartum care (Santhya, 2009).

1.5 Youth-related policy and programme environment in Rajasthan

The Rajasthan state government has articulated its commitment to promoting adolescent health in the state's Population Policy and its Reproductive and Child Health Programme-II as well as in its 1996 Policy for Women. Indeed, the Policy for Women calls for measures that ensure that girls get educational opportunities, health care attention and support services that allow them to develop into healthy and confident young women; it also calls for measures to implement the Child Marriage (Restraint) Act (Department of Women and Child Development, Government of Rajasthan 2006). The Population Policy 2000 articulates the need to address the sexual and reproductive health of adolescents and calls for programmes that encourage delayed marriage and childbearing and enforce laws on minimum age at marriage, that inform adolescents and young people about sexual and reproductive health matters

through both in-school and out-of-school mechanisms, that encourage the non-governmental sector to include programmes on responsible parenthood within their ongoing developmental activities, that call for the promotion of girls' education, that impart information through the electronic media, and particularly TV, and that enable tele-counselling services at the district level through non-governmental organisations. The Department of Education and the Department of Youth Affairs are prominently involved, along with the Department of Medical, Health and Family Welfare, in building awareness among young people and the population at large about these issues (Department of Medical, Health and Family Welfare, Government of Rajasthan, 1999).

The Programme Implementation Plan (PIP) of the Reproductive and Child Health Programme-II highlights the state's commitment to improving the situation of young people. The PIP identifies three thrust areas. For one, programmes have been introduced to impart information on sexual and reproductive health to young people. In coordination with the Department of Education, Rajasthan is the first state in the country to include life skills education (*Jeevan Kaushal Shiksha*) in the school curriculum for Classes 3–10, focusing, as appropriate, on health, hygiene and pregnancy-related health and gender issues. Recently, the programme has been extended to Class 11 as a compulsory subject and includes a more specific programme on sexuality education as well as HIV/AIDS; training of teachers and development and dissemination of text books have also been initiated (Department of Medical, Health and Family Welfare, Government of Rajasthan, n.d; Department of Medical, Health and Family Welfare, Government of Rajasthan, 2007). Second, there is a focus on out-of-school girls, particularly with regard to anaemia prevention. Finally, adolescent-friendly health services have been initiated in eight districts (Ajmer, Alwar, Bharatpur, Bhilwada, Chittorgarh, Kaurauli, Rajsamand and Udaipur); services are to be provided in all public health facilities in an incremental manner and related orientation and training of health functionaries, orientation of gatekeepers, and development and provision of information materials for adolescents have been initiated. Special attention is to be paid, moreover, to anaemia reduction and provision of socially marketed sanitary napkins among adolescent girls. Other activities relevant for adolescents include an intensive communication campaign to address the need to raise marriage age (Department of Medical, Health and Family Welfare, Government of Rajasthan, 2007).

A number of programmes have also been implemented by the Rajasthan state government to expand educational opportunities for young people, including the *Shiksha Karmi* Project, launched in the late 80s and the *Lok Jumbish* Project, launched in the early 90s. More recently, the *Sarva Shikhsa Abhiyan* was formally launched in 2001–02 to improve infrastructure, teacher skills and quality of education for children aged 6–14. Moreover, in order to meet the goal of universal enrolment and retention of children aged 6–14 in school, additional activities such as a child tracking system and mid-day meal programmes have been introduced. Textbooks are provided free of cost to all boys and girls studying in Classes 1 to 12 in government schools. A number of incentives have been provided, moreover, to encourage the education of girls. For example, a number of girls' schools have been established (Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya); bicycles have been provided to all girls in Class 10 travelling to distant schools, transport vouchers to those whose schools are more than 5 km away from their home; and scholarships to girls from families living below the poverty line (BPL families). In addition, technical and vocational education has been encouraged by promoting polytechnic colleges, several of which are specifically intended for young women (Department of Finance and Planning, Government of Rajasthan, 2008). Another notable initiative is the Rajasthan Education Initiative, launched in 1995, to ensure universal primary enrolment by 2010 and universal secondary enrolment by 2020; to achieve 100% school retention in primary schools by 2010 and increase levels of retention in secondary schools, with particular attention to girls in primary and secondary schools; to improve quality of learning, especially in Mathematics, Science and English; and to expand the curriculum to provide information and communication technology (ICT) skills to secondary school students (Department of Education, Government of Rajasthan n.d).

Schemes have been initiated, moreover, that support unemployed youth from BPL families or belonging to scheduled castes. For example, unemployment allowances are provided to youth for a period of two years or till employment is gained. In addition, the *Swablamban Yojana* provides subsidies to youth from scheduled caste families who take loans to establish their own enterprises and the *Pradhan Mantri Rozgar Yojana* provides loans as well as skills training to youth (Department of Finance and Planning, Government of Rajasthan, 2008).

Other schemes have also been implemented to counter discrimination against girls. For example, in the *Balika Sambal Yojana*, launched in 2007, the state government deposits an amount of Rs. 10,000 in the name of each girl born to a couple with 1–2 daughters and no sons, who have undergone sterilisation; this bond is released to the girl when she is 18. The *Balika Samriddhi Yojana* is more inclusive and provides financial assistance of Rs. 500 for up to two daughters born in BPL families (Department of Finance and Planning, Government of Rajasthan, 2008; Department of Planning, Government of Rajasthan, 2006). The *Kishori Shakti Yojana*, initiated under the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) scheme, is implemented in 165 blocks of Rajasthan; it is an extension of the Adolescent Girls' Scheme (AGS) and aims to improve the nutrition and health status of adolescent girls (aged 15–18); build awareness among them about health, hygiene, nutrition and family care; link them with life skills training opportunities; encourage those who have discontinued their education to return to school; and build social awareness among them to ensure that they become responsible members of society. The *Kishori Balika Yojana* is a modified version of the *Kishori Shakti Yojana* and has been introduced in 66 blocks of the state, among girls aged 11–14 and 15–18. Its focus is on school drop-outs and girls belonging to scheduled caste, scheduled tribe and other backward castes with the objective of promoting their health and development (Department of Planning, Government of Rajasthan, 2006).

In addition, a number of non-governmental organisations (NGOs), including Rajasthan-based and national NGOs, implement programmes intended to meet the needs of young people in the state. These programmes have focused on providing sexual and reproductive health-related information, counselling and services, including condoms, to young people; providing opportunities to build livelihood skills, and mobilising communities to support young people's access to information and services.

1.6 Study phases

The Youth Study comprised three phases and included both a survey and qualitative data gathering exercises.

1.6.1 Pre-survey qualitative phase

As the Youth Study was one of the first of its kind in India, precedents did not exist for youth terminologies, particularly in reference to sensitive issues (romantic relationships, sexual experience and so on), youth perceptions or youth willingness to share their experiences with study teams. In order to better understand these matters and to inform the design of the survey instrument, focus group discussions were conducted with married and unmarried young men and women, and key informant interviews conducted with teachers, health care providers, and community and youth leaders, in the first phase of the Youth Study. This phase also offered us an opportunity to explore community reactions to the kinds of issues raised by the survey.

In the course of this pre-survey qualitative phase, we also conducted in-depth interviews with parents of youth to collect parental perspectives on young people's situation and needs. At each site, eight categories of parents were selected (mothers and fathers of married and unmarried young men and women, respectively). The discussion focused on the life experiences of the child of interest.

The pre-survey qualitative phase was undertaken during July-August 2005 and covered at least one urban area and one rural area of six geographically diverse districts of the state. In total, 16 focus group discussions were conducted with young people; 34 key informant interviews were held with community leaders, health care providers, teachers and youth leaders; and 74 in-depth interviews were held with mothers and fathers.

1.6.2 Survey phase

Field work was undertaken between March and November 2007. A total of 10,002 married and unmarried young men and women were interviewed during this phase.

1.6.3 Post-survey qualitative phase

In order to better understand the sexual and reproductive experiences of youth and the factors inhibiting and facilitating safe transitions into these behaviours, in-depth interviews were conducted with consenting survey respondents who reported certain experiences in the course of the survey interview. These experiences included, notably, having an opposite-sex romantic partner; having sexual relations with an opposite-sex romantic partner; experiencing same-sex, forced or exchange sexual relations; and among young men, engaging in relations with sex workers or married women. Among the married, in addition, experiences included exercising choice in spouse selection and practising contraception to delay the first pregnancy.

At the conclusion of the survey interview, interviewers sought the consent of respondents for an in-depth interview. Those who consented were then approached by a trained investigator who conducted the interview in the form of an unstructured conversation. In-depth interviews, therefore, took place at around the same time as did the survey. A total of 65 in-depth interviews were completed, 29 among urban respondents and 36 among rural respondents.

Findings from the survey are presented in this report.[1]

1.7 Study instruments

1.7.1 Interview guidelines

For the pre-survey qualitative phase, three sets of guidelines were prepared for focus group discussions, key informant interviews and in-depth interviews, respectively. These guidelines were appropriately modified for each youth group (married and unmarried young men and women) and parent group (mothers and fathers of married and unmarried young men and women). As mentioned above, specific guidelines were not prepared for the post-survey in-depth interviews with youth reporting selected behaviours; instead, the interviewers were trained to steer the interview to focus on the experience of interest, and obtain information on the circumstances surrounding the experience and the respondent's own perceptions about the experience.

1.7.2 Questionnaires

A total of six questionnaires were developed for the study: a community questionnaire; a household questionnaire, administered in each selected household; and four individual questionnaires, one each for married young men, married young women, unmarried young men and unmarried young women.

The community questionnaire was administered in each village selected for the survey. This questionnaire collected information on different aspects of village life, including the village population, numbers engaged in agriculture, and the availability of various facilities and infrastructure in and around the village. In each village, team supervisors administered the questionnaire to one or more individuals who were well-informed about the village.

The household questionnaire listed all usual residents of the selected households and collected basic information on each listed household member, including his or her age, sex, marital status, relationship to the head of the household, education and current activity status. Information was also obtained on the religion and caste of the head of the household as well as on ownership of the residential structure and agricultural land, number of rooms in the residence, and such amenities available as type of toilet facility, main source of lighting, main type of cooking fuel and main source of drinking water. The survey also inquired about ownership of 17 consumer durables. Finally, information was sought on marriages of any usual resident of the household in the three years preceding the interview as well as the sex and age of the person at the time of marriage.

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[1] *Separate reports, drawn from in-depth interviews with parents and youth, respectively, will discuss parental perspectives on young people's experience of growing up and provide insights on the sexual and reproductive experiences of youth, as well as the factors inhibiting and facilitating safe transitions into these behaviours.*

The development of individual questionnaires was informed by other survey instruments, notably the World Health Organisation core questionnaire for youth surveys (Cleland, 2001) and a recent survey conducted in Pune district on the formation of partnerships among youth (Alexander et al., 2003). Other instruments consulted included surveys of youth conducted in India (Andrew, Patel and Ramakrishna, 2003; IIPS and Population Council, 2002; Sebastian, Grant and Mensch, 2003), Pakistan (Sathar et al., 2003), the Philippines (DRDF and UPPI, 2002), Vietnam (Mensch, Anh and Clark, 2000) and sub-Saharan Africa (Guttmacher Institute, 2004a; 2004b; 2004c). Finally, our survey instrument drew upon the questionnaire used in the NFHS-3 (IIPS and Macro International, 2007b).

The development of individual questionnaires was also informed by insights obtained in the pre-survey qualitative phase. Once the pre-survey qualitative phase was completed in all six states, the data generated were analysed to identify the kinds of issues that would be explored in the survey, ways of presenting sensitive issues, and terminologies to be used that would be comprehensible and acceptable to youth. The survey instrument was finalised after extensive pre-testing.

Individual questionnaires were employed to interview eligible youth who usually resided in the selected households. Currently married young men and women aged 15–29 and 15–24, respectively, as well as unmarried young men and women aged 15–24, were eligible for interview. Widowed and divorced individuals were excluded from the survey. Keeping in mind the sensitive nature of the questions, the questionnaire was divided into several sections and arranged in such a way that the most sensitive questions were administered towards the middle of the interview. This strategy of asking a series of non-sensitive questions in the early part of the interview served two purposes: it enabled the interviewer and respondent to build rapport before sensitive questions were posed; it also permitted the investigator to maintain privacy for sensitive questions, as interested bystanders would usually depart while questions in the early sections were posed.

The individual questionnaires collected information on the following topics:

Background characteristics: Questions were asked regarding the respondent's age, education and schooling, quality of school or college attended, work patterns including housework and paid employment, vocational training, short-term migration and characteristics of parents.

Additionally, a Life Event Calendar (LEC), adapted from that used in a nationally representative survey of adolescents and youth in Pakistan (Sathar et al., 2003), was administered to obtain information on education, work, living arrangements, marriage and family building (for married respondents), starting from the age of 12 years. This system of recording life events is considered one of the most effective approaches to minimise recall error.

Media exposure: Respondents were asked whether they were exposed to newspapers, television or the internet, and whether they watched pornographic films or read pornographic magazines. They were also asked about their views on the influence of films and television on their own life as well as young people's lives in general.

Puberty: In order to assess the age at which puberty was experienced, respondents were asked to report their age at key signs of maturation. Young women, therefore, were questioned about their first menstruation while young men were asked about the onset of voice changes and growth of pubic hair.

Parental interaction/relationship: Detailed questions were asked on the extent of parent-child communication on everyday activities as well as sexual and reproductive issues. Questions were also asked to assess the extent to which a respondent had witnessed parental violence or been the victim of violence perpetrated by a parent while the respondent was growing up.

Communication, mobility and decision-making: This section collected information on the person with whom youth were most likely to confide matters related to getting a job, growing up, boy-girl relationships and personal problems. Detailed questions were also asked on decision-making and, for all groups except married males, mobility.

Gender and self-efficacy: In order to evaluate the respondent's gender role attitudes and level of self-efficacy, questions were asked to probe opinions about a range of gender-related issues, such as, for example, the importance of boys' vis-à-vis girls' education, housework and freedom of movement.

Awareness of sexual and reproductive matters: This section probed young people's awareness about sexual relations, pregnancy, contraceptive methods, HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted infection (STI) as well as the legal minimum age at marriage and conditions under which abortion is legally permitted. It also probed young people's sources of information on sexual matters and contraception, the extent to which they had obtained formal sex or family life education, and their experiences and perceptions about this education.

Connectedness and friendship: Questions relating to connectedness and friendship explored respondents' friendship networks among those of the same sex and activities in which they participated with their friends. This was followed in a gradual fashion by questions on interaction with the opposite sex, whether or not the respondent had exchanged a "proposal" of romantic partnership with someone of the opposite sex and whether the respondent had ever met someone of the opposite sex secretly in a number of likely places.

Pre-marital romantic heterosexual relationships: This was a highly sensitive section, conducted only if complete privacy was assured. The section started by probing the pre-marital romantic and sexual experiences of up to five of the respondent's best friends. This technique, known as anonymous third-party reporting (developed by Rossier, 2003), was used to assess the extent to which youth were more likely to report the romantic and sexual relationships of their peers than of themselves. Respondents were then asked about their own experiences of pre-marital romantic partnership and, if reported, detailed questions were asked on the nature of such relationships with the first partner and the last or most recent partner (if more than one partner was reported). Questions were designed to gradually probe sensitive behaviours, for example, starting with whether the respondent had ever held hands with a romantic opposite-sex partner, and continuing with questions on hugging, kissing and finally having sex with the partner. We believe this gradual progression of questions was more culturally appropriate than a single question on pre-marital sex and provided insights into the range of behaviours youth experienced. If sex with a pre-marital romantic partner was reported, a host of questions followed that probed the consensuality of first sex with this partner, condom use, frequency of such relations and experience of pre-marital pregnancy. Questions were also asked about the characteristics of the romantic partner and parental awareness of and reactions to the romantic relationship.

Marriage process: Questions in this section covered marriage planning, dowry, the participation of the respondent in decision-making related to marriage and the respondent's feelings about his or her own marriage. This section was administered, suitably modified, to both married and unmarried respondents.

Married life: Married respondents were asked detailed questions on married life. These included the nature of marriage (love or arranged), acquaintance with spouse before marriage and age at cohabitation. Questions about the marital relationship were also covered, including spousal communication and joint decision-making, the nature of the first sexual experience with spouse, experience of forced sex within marriage, inter-spousal violence, pregnancy experiences and outcomes, and contraceptive practice.

Same-sex, paid and forced sexual experiences: This was the second highly sensitive section in which respondents were asked a series of questions on their personal experience of several types of sexual encounters; for example, paid or exchange sex, forced sex perpetrated on the respondent and casual sex. In the case of male respondents, additional questions were asked about sex with a same-sex partner, relations with sex workers and married women (other than their wife for married males) and whether they had ever perpetrated forced sex. All married respondents were also asked about their experiences of extra-marital sexual relations. Respondents who reported any of these experiences were probed for their age at first experience of such a sexual encounter and whether or not they had used condoms in their sexual encounters.

Attitudes: This section probed respondents' views on pre-marital physical intimacy and wife beating.

Health and health seeking: This section collected information on respondents' experience of common health problems, specifically high fever and injury, as well as symptoms of genital infections in the three months preceding the interview. In addition, respondents were asked whether they had sought treatment for these health issues and, if so, from what source. Respondents' mental health in the last one month was assessed using the 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) developed for use in field conditions (Goldberg, 1992).

Substance use and violence: A series of questions were asked about consumption of tobacco products, alcohol or drugs. In each case, questions were asked about the use and frequency of use of such substances by family members and by the respondents themselves. Additional questions sought respondents' assessments of the frequency with which young people in their neighbourhoods engaged in violence (fights or beatings) and their own participation in such violence.

Programmes and participation: The final section of the questionnaire collected information on programmes available to young people in the village or neighbourhood in which they resided, and the extent to which they participated in such programmes. In addition, rural respondents were asked about the role of *panchayats* in decisions affecting young people's lives. All respondents were asked about their participation in community activities, opinions about political processes, secular attitudes and participation in recent elections. Finally, respondents were asked to identify the most important problem facing youth in their village or neighbourhood.

Sealed envelope response: However carefully designed and culturally sensitive the survey questions may have been, the possibility that young people would deliberately withhold information about their sexual experiences in a face-to-face interview could not be discounted. Drawing from other research in the field, an anonymous reporting method was included in our survey to obtain responses to a single question: *Have you ever had sex with anyone [for the unmarried] /Did you ever have sex with anyone before marriage [for the married]?* Interviewers first explained the technique to respondents, noting in particular its confidential nature. The interviewer then gave each respondent a blank card and asked him or her to simply mark a "✓" or an "**X**" on the card to indicate that s/he had or had not experienced pre-marital sex. Once marked, the respondent placed the card inside an envelope provided by the interviewer; the envelope was sealed by the respondent and returned to the interviewer. Unique identification numbers linked the individual's questionnaire with his or her responses in the sealed envelope. Envelopes were opened only at the central office at the time of data entry.

Draft tools were extensively reviewed at meetings of the study's Technical Advisory Committee and then translated into four languages (Hindi, Marathi, Tamil and Telugu), extensively pre-tested and finalised after appropriate modification. Copies of all these instruments can be found in a separate volume.

1.8 Study design and sample size estimation for individual interviews

The Youth Survey was designed to provide estimates for the state as a whole, as well as for urban and rural areas for each of the four categories of respondents, namely married and unmarried young men and women, separately. The study was not designed to provide estimates at district or sub-district levels.

While arriving at sample size estimates, on the basis of the scarce available evidence, the following assumptions were made:

- 10% of unmarried young women would report the experience of pre-marital sexual relations;
- Among married men, 20% would report unsafe sexual relations (multiple partner sex or non-use of condoms, or experience of STI symptoms);
- The coefficient of variation was set at 10% (equivalent to fixing the absolute error at 20% of the true value and 95% confidence interval);
- The non-response rate for the individual interviews was assumed to be 25–30%;
- Design effect was assumed to be in the range of 1.5 to 2.

The chances of finding an unmarried young man were greater than the chances of finding a married young man in a given household, and conversely, the chances of finding a married young woman were greater than the chances of finding an unmarried young woman. As a result, in the case of the male sample, our strategy was to estimate the number of households required to obtain the target number of married young men aged 15–29, that is, the harder-to-reach group of males. Similarly, in the case of the female sample, the strategy was to identify the total number of households required based on the target number of unmarried young women aged 15–24, again, the harder-to-reach group of females.

Following from the assumptions described above, and in consultation with the study's Technical Advisory Committee, the required sample of each sub-group of youth was determined at 1,000 married young men, 1,250 unmarried young men, 1,250 married young women and 1,750 unmarried young women each for urban and rural areas, that is, a total sample size of 5,250 in each area.[2] However, our experience during Phase 1 of the survey suggested that because of the considerable mobility of youth, there was likely to be a shortfall in achieving these numbers. Hence, in Rajasthan, the urban sample size was revised to 1,200 married young men, 1,800 unmarried young men, 1,500 married young women and 2,100 unmarried young women, that is, a total sample size of 6,600 in urban areas. In Rajasthan, moreover, because the relative proportion of unmarried young men in rural areas was lower than that observed in other states, we were further required to inflate the sample of married young men in rural areas to 2,115 in order to obtain a minimum of 1,800 unmarried young men. Hence, the targeted sample size for rural Rajasthan was 2,115 married young men, 1,800 unmarried young men, 1,500 married young women and 2,100 unmarried young women, that is, a total sample size of 7,115. In order to achieve the above-mentioned number of individual interviews, an estimated 29,743 households required to be covered in Rajasthan.

We further determined that a total of 300 primary sampling units (PSUs)—villages in rural areas and Census Enumeration Blocks (CEBs) in urban areas—divided into 150 female PSUs and 150 male PSUs, would be visited in order to conduct interviews in the required number of households. Thus, the average number of household interviews to be conducted in each rural PSU was calculated to be 188 among female PSUs and 68 among male PSUs. Corresponding averages for each urban PSU were 94 and 47, respectively.

1.8.1 Sample selection strategy

The study treated rural and urban areas of each state as independent sampling domains and, therefore, drew sample areas independently for each of these two domains. In order to avoid potential risks associated with interviewing both women and men from the same PSU, we decided to conduct interviews in separate PSUs for female and male respondents, that is, interviews with young women in 150 PSUs and young men in the remaining 150 PSUs. These 150 PSUs were further divided equally into rural and urban areas, that is, 75 for rural respondents and 75 for urban respondents. Within each sampling domain, a systematic multi-stage sampling design was adopted. Sample selection procedures differed somewhat in rural and urban areas, as described below.

1.8.1.a Selection of households in rural areas

In rural areas, the 2001 Census list of villages served as the sampling frame for the selection of villages. This list was stratified using four variables, namely, region, village size, proportion of the population belonging to scheduled

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[2] *In estimating the number of households required, the study used the age-sex-marital status distributions observed in rural and urban areas, respectively, in the 2001 Census. The following formula was used to estimate sample size:*

$$\text{Coefficient of Variation } (cv) = \sqrt{\frac{q}{np}}$$

$$n = \frac{q}{cv^2 p}$$

In order to obtain the actual number of respondents, the above numbers were multiplied by the design effect and a factor 'K' (1 + the non-response rate).

castes and scheduled tribes, and female literacy. At the first level of stratification, the state of Rajasthan was stratified into four contiguous geographical regions, with districts (as defined in the 2001 Census) classified into these regions as follows:

Region I : Ganganagar, Hanumangarh, Bikaner, Churu, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer, Barmer, Jalor, Nagaur, Sirohi, Pali
Region II : Jhunjhunun, Alwar, Bharatpur, Dhaulpur, Karuali, Sawai Madhopur, Dausa, Jaipur, Sikar, Ajmer, Tonk, Bhilwara
Region III : Rajasmand, Udaipur, Dungarpur, Banswara
Region IV : Bundi, Chittaurgarh, Kota, Baran, Jhalawar

In each region, villages were further stratified by size and the percentage of the population belonging to scheduled castes or scheduled tribes. Table 1.1 gives detailed information on the stratification scheme in rural areas along with the population in each stratum. The last level of stratification was implicit for all strata, consisting of an ordering of villages within each stratum by level of female literacy, ordered alternatively in increasing and decreasing level of female literacy (obtained from the 2001 Census Village Directory).

Table 1.1: Sampling stratification scheme

Details of the stratification used for sampling, Rajasthan (rural), 2007

Stratum number	Stratification variables			Total population[1]
	Region	Village size (number of residential households)	Percent of SC/ST population	
1	1	≤170	≤22	1,876,270
2	1	≤170	>22	1,831,010
3	1	>170 & ≤320	≤24	1,837,596
4	1	>170 & ≤320	>24	1,832,423
5	1	>320 & ≤570	≤24	1,829,132
6	1	>320 & ≤570	>24	1,850,682
7	1	>570	≤23	1,802,933
8	1	>570	>23	1,932,764
9	2	≤100	NU	1,972,475
10	2	>100 & ≤195	≤23	1,932,646
11	2	>100 & ≤195	>23	2,018,233
12	2	>195 & 330	≤24	2,019,010
13	2	>195 & ≤330	>24	2,101,302
14	2	>330 & ≤590	≤23	1,918,899
15	2	>330 & ≤590	>23	1,989,523
16	2	>590	≤22	2,067,057
17	2	>590	>22	1,940,459
18	3	≤180	NU	1,752,206
19	3	>180	≤60	1,809,779
20	3	>180	>60	1,833,912
21	4	≤135	NU	1,605,442
22	4	>135	≤29	1,640,896
23	4	>135	>29	1,600,156
Total	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**	**42,994,805**

Note: The level of female literacy (2001 Census) was used for implicit stratification. Villages with less than 50 households in the 2001 Census were excluded from the sampling frame. NA: Not applicable. NU: Not used for stratification. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]2001Census population.

The sample in rural areas was selected in two stages. At the first stage of selection, villages were selected systematically from the stratified list arranged as described above, with selection probability proportional to size (PPS). The 150 PSUs thus selected were then ordered by district and *taluka* codes and numbered from 1 to 150. Odd-numbered PSUs were designated for interviews with young men and even-numbered PSUs for interviews with young women. In the case of male PSUs, selected PSUs containing fewer than 75 households were then linked to one or more adjoining villages so that the PSU had approximately 75 households. In the case of female PSUs, selected PSUs containing fewer than 200 households were linked to one or more adjoining villages so that the PSU had approximately 200 households. Those containing more than 300 and fewer than 601 households were segmented into two approximately equal parts, and one was chosen randomly for the survey. In the case of even larger villages, that is, those containing more than 600 households, segments of 150–200 households were made and numbered in a clockwise manner. Two segments were then selected using probability proportional to size.

The rural domain sampling fraction for a particular category, that is, the probability of selecting an eligible respondent of a particular category in rural Rajasthan (f^R), was computed as:

$$f^R = \frac{n^R}{N^R}$$

where

n^R = number of eligible respondents in a particular category to be interviewed (target number of interviews as described before), and
N^R = projected rural population of eligible respondents in the state as of April 1, 2006.

The probability of selecting a PSU from rural Rajasthan (f_1^R) was computed as:

$$f_1^R = \frac{a \times v_i}{\sum v_i}$$

where

a = number of PSUs selected from rural areas for the particular category,
v_i = population of the i^{th} PSU, and
$\sum v_i$ = total rural population of the state.

A complete mapping and household listing operation was carried out in each selected PSU (or in selected segments or linked villages as appropriate). This list of households provided the necessary frame for selecting households at the second stage. Mapping and listing were conducted by teams, each comprising one mapper and one lister. Households to be interviewed were selected with equal probability from the list using systematic sampling.

The probability of selecting a household from a selected rural PSU (f_2^R) was calculated as:

$$f_2^R = \frac{f^R}{f_1^R}$$

No replacement for selected households was allowed even if a selected household could not be contacted after several attempts.

All the sampling fractions (f^R, f_1^R, f_2^R) described above were computed separately for male and female PSUs on the basis of the target sample of married males and unmarried females, respectively.

Because we expected more unmarried than married males in our age groups, we needed to visit fewer households to obtain the required number of unmarried compared to married males. Likewise, because we expected more married

than unmarried females, we needed to visit fewer households to obtain the required number of married compared to unmarried females. Appropriate intervals were computed to operationalise each of these selection processes.

1.8.1.b Selection of households in urban areas

In selecting the urban sample, the 2001 Census list of wards (each consisting of several CEBs of 100–200 households) provided the sampling frame. For operational convenience, the Youth Study first determined male PSUs (equivalent to a CEB) and followed this with the selection of female PSUs (another CEB) in CEBs adjacent to male CEBs. As a result, half the total required number of PSUs was first selected.

In urban areas, the 2001 Census list of wards was first arranged by district, and within each district by level of female literacy. The sample was then selected in three stages. At the first stage of selection, 75 wards were selected systematically with probability proportional to size. At the second stage, within each selected ward, CEBs were arranged by their administrative number and one CEB (designated as a male PSU) was selected using probability proportional to size. For each selected male CEB, an adjacent CEB was chosen to represent the female PSU in the same ward.

The urban domain sampling fraction for a particular category, that is, the probability of selecting an eligible respondent of a particular category in urban Rajasthan (f^U), was computed as:

$$f^U = \frac{n^U}{N^U}$$

where

n^U = number of eligible respondents in a particular category to be interviewed in urban areas (target number of interviews as described before), and
N^U = projected urban population of eligible respondents in the state as of April 1, 2006.

The probability of selecting a ward (or section) from urban Rajasthan (f_1^U) was computed as:

$$f_1^U = \frac{a \times w_i}{\sum w_i}$$

where

a = number of wards selected from urban areas for the particular category,
w_i = population of i^{th} ward, and
$\sum w_i$ = total urban population of the state.

The probability of selecting a CEB from a selected ward (f_2^U) was computed as:

$$f_2^U = \frac{c_i}{\sum c_i}$$

where

c_i = population of i^{th} CEB from a selected ward, and
$\sum c_i$ = total population of the selected ward.

A complete mapping and household listing operation was carried out in each selected PSU and the resulting list provided the necessary frame for selecting households at the third stage. Households to be interviewed were selected with equal probability from the list using systematic sampling. In some CEBs the number of households listed

was smaller than the minimum expected number of households, and in such cases, a part of an adjacent CEB was listed.

The probability of selecting a household from a selected urban PSU (f_3^U) was calculated as:

$$f_3^U = \frac{f^U}{f_1^U \times f_2^U}$$

As in the case of rural areas, (a) no replacement of selected households was allowed under any circumstances; (b) all sampling fractions (f^U, f_1^U, f_2^U, f_3^U) were computed separately for male and female PSUs on the basis of the target sample of married males and unmarried females, respectively; and (c) appropriate intervals were computed to enable us to select fewer households for the interview of unmarried compared to married males and married compared to unmarried females.

1.8.2 Selection of individual respondents within selected households

In each PSU, households to be interviewed were selected by systematic sampling. The value of the interval (between one selected household and the next) was determined in advance to ensure a self-weighing design. As mentioned earlier, fewer households needed to be selected in order to obtain our sample of unmarried males and married females. Hence, further intervals were computed, using the target sample for unmarried males and married females.

Within each selected household, no more than one married and one unmarried respondent was interviewed, resulting in a maximum of two interviews from any household. In case more than one respondent from a single category was found in the household, one respondent was selected randomly using the Kish table.[3] No replacement of the respondent thus selected was allowed.

1.8.3 Sample weights

In Rajasthan, the sample was weighted at the level of the sampling domain, that is, urban and rural males and females, respectively, making for a total of four sampling domains. In order to consider differential non-response rates in different geographical areas, non-response rates were calculated in smaller sub-domains of 2–3 PSUs within each domain. If W_{Di} is the design weight for the i^{th} domain (i=1…4) and R_{Hij} is the response rate for households in the j^{th} sub-domain within the i^{th} domain, then the household weight for the j^{th} sub-domain within the i^{th} domain (W_{Hij}) was calculated as follows:

$$W_{Hij} = \frac{W_{Di}}{R_{Hij}}$$

where W_{Di} was calculated as the inverse of the probability of selecting an eligible married male in urban and rural male domains, respectively; and similarly, of selecting an eligible unmarried female in urban and rural female domains.

[3] *The probability of selection of individuals in rural areas is (f^R/K_i^R) and in urban areas (f^U/K_i^U), where K_i^R, and K_i^U denote the number of individuals of the specified category (married and unmarried males and females, respectively) in the i^{th} selected household in rural and urban areas, respectively.*

Weights were also calculated for eligible married males and unmarried females, denoted by W_{Eij} and calculated as follows:

$$W_{Eij} = \frac{W_{Di}}{R_{Hij} \times R_{Eij} \times K_{ij}}$$

where

R_{Eij} = response rate for married males or unmarried females in the j^{th} sub-domain within the i^{th} domain, and

K_{ij} = probability that a married male or an unmarried female is selected by the Kish table procedure in the j^{th} sub-domain within the i^{th} domain.

The design weight described above was also used in the case of unmarried males and married females in each domain. Also, since the survey did not attempt to interview an unmarried male or a married female in all selected households, an additional interval needed to be incorporated in the weight calculation. Hence, weights for eligible unmarried males and married females, denoted by W_{Eij} were calculated using the following equation:

$$W_{Eij} = \frac{W_{Di}}{R_{Hij} \times R_{Eij} \times K_{ij}} \times I_i$$

where I_i is the interval at which selected households were assigned for the interview of a married female (in female PSUs) or an unmarried male (in male PSUs) in the i^{th} domain.

The weights were then normalised so that the total number of cases was unchanged after weighting. Hence, the normalised weights for households and eligible respondents were:

$$W'_{Hij} = \frac{\sum n_{ij}}{\sum W_{Hij} \times n_{ij}} \times W_{Hij}$$

$$W'_{Eij} = \frac{\sum n_{ij}}{\sum W_{Eij} \times n_{ij}} \times W_{Eij}$$

where n_{ij} refers to the number of completed interviews in the j^{th} sub-domain within the i^{th} domain.

In order to provide estimates for all young males or females (married and unmarried), multiplication factors were computed for married and unmarried males and females (four categories) in urban and rural areas, which, when multiplied with existing individual weights, provided the combined weights for the male and female samples, respectively. For example, the multiplication factor for the male sample (M^l_k) was computed as follows:

$$M^l_k = \frac{\frac{p^l_k}{p^l}}{\frac{s^l_k}{s^l}}$$

where

p^l_k = number of eligible male respondents of category k (married or unmarried) in the l^{th} area (urban or rural),

p^l = number of eligible male respondents in the l^{th} area (urban or rural),

s^l_k = number of completed interviews with male respondents from category k (married or unmarried) in the l^{th} area (urban or rural), and

s^l = number of completed interviews with male respondents in the l^{th} area (urban or rural).

Similar fractions were computed for the female sample.

1.9 Recruitment, training and fieldwork

Some 80 young men and women underwent interviewer training and over 20 underwent training for mapping and house-listing exercises. On the basis of performance, 58 youth were recruited as field investigators and 18 individuals were recruited for mapping and house-listing exercises.

Training of interviewers was conducted jointly by principal investigators from IIPS and the Population Council. House-listing staff underwent a four-day training, during which they were familiarised with house-listing procedures in both classroom and field situations. Training for field investigators for the main survey lasted three weeks. It included lectures and interactive sessions on a range of issues, such as the sexual and reproductive health situation of youth in India, an overview of gender issues, ethical issues in research, violence against women, and mental health, as well as detailed explanations of sex and contraception. Efforts were also made to enable trainees to overcome their inhibitions about discussing sexual and reproductive health matters. Trainees were provided opportunities to ask questions via an anonymous drop-box; questions were then answered in the course of training. Trainees were familiarised with each module of the questionnaire, complicated concepts and questions and their underlying rationale. Role-plays and mock interviews were conducted in reference to each module. Towards the end of the training programme, field practice sessions were organised in which trainees were taken to a village and an urban slum setting and asked to conduct interviews. The training team monitored each trainee's progress on a regular basis and selected as interviewers only those trainees who demonstrated a full understanding of the questionnaire as well as the ability to ask questions appropriately and record responses accurately.

Interviewers were divided into eight teams, four each to interview young men and women, respectively. Male interviewers interviewed young men and female interviewers interviewed young women. Each team comprised one field editor who was responsible for field editing, back-checks and quality control of interviews; and one supervisor, responsible for the overall management of fieldwork and team-related logistics as well as assisting in field editing and back-checking. Interviewer and supervisor/editor manuals were prepared, translated into Hindi and provided to each team member as appropriate. These manuals clarified the meaning and appropriate coding of every question in the questionnaire.

Research officers were deputed to oversee fieldwork, and ensure that correct survey procedures were followed and data quality maintained. Principal investigators from IIPS and the Population Council made monthly or bi-monthly visits to monitor and supervise data collection operations. Each team filled quality control sheets regularly, giving the team, research officers and coordinators a quick view of the quality of ongoing fieldwork. These control sheets were designed to provide information on response rates in each PSU covered, and track sensitive issue reporting and interviewer performance.

1.10 Ethical considerations

As this was the first such study in India in which sensitive sexual and reproductive experiences were sought in a survey situation, it was unclear how youth respondents and community members would react. At the same time, it was clear that if youth participated in the interview, its content was likely to prompt questions and problems for which support would be requested. A number of ethical issues arose which influenced the design and implementation of the Youth Study.

First, to address our concern that if interviews with young women and men were conducted in the same PSU, it could lead to teasing, harassment, harm to girls' reputations and even violence, we decided that the study would be undertaken in one set of PSUs for young men and in a completely different set for young women. Likewise, we also ensured that two unmarried brothers or sisters, two married brothers or sisters or two sisters- or brothers-in-law would not be interviewed from the same household in case such a practice caused conflict within the family. Hence, in each household, only one individual from any category was selected for interview. In case both a married and an unmarried individual were selected from a particular household, interviews were conducted separately but simultaneously.

Second, youth themselves contributed—albeit indirectly—to the development of the questionnaire. In the course of our pre-survey qualitative phase, youth and key informants informed our study teams of various youth behaviours; youth described the ways in which they referred to various sensitive behaviours and, in order to minimise discomfort during questioning, the scenarios and terminologies described by youth themselves were adapted for use in the most sensitive parts of our questionnaire.

Third, interviewers underwent extensive training in ethical issues. Emphasis was laid on explaining the content of the questionnaire, the respondent's right to refuse to participate or answer any question, and informed consent. At the same time, we trained interviewers on how to ask sensitive questions—regarding sexual experience, domestic violence and forced sex, in particular—in empathetic and non-judgemental ways, and emphasised the importance of offering to refer those in need to appropriate nearby organisations.

Fourth, before entering a PSU, teams were instructed to apprise community leaders of the study and seek their support for its implementation in the community. This step ensured that community support was forthcoming and enabled team members to build rapport within the community easily. We note that despite the sensitive nature of the questions, not a single PSU in Rajasthan refused permission to Youth Study teams on the grounds of study content.

Fifth, even though consent was sought from each individual to be interviewed, in the case of unmarried youth aged 15–17, consent was also sought from a parent or guardian.

Sixth, all questionnaires were anonymous and names were never recorded. In order to preserve the confidentiality of the respondent or the parent/guardian, signing the consent form was optional; however, the interviewer was required to sign that she or he had explained the content of the consent form to the respondent or parent. Consent forms were detached and stored separately from the questionnaires.

Seventh, every effort was made to maintain privacy in the course of the interview. Interviewers were permitted to skip to relatively non-sensitive sections in case the interview was observed by parents or other family members. If possible, particularly in the case of young men, interviews were held outside the home—often in a nearby field—in order to ensure privacy. Each team was trained to assign one interviewer to conduct parallel discussion sessions with bystanders, thereby providing privacy to the interview. This proved particularly useful in the case of interviews with young women. Finally, interviewers were instructed that if privacy could not be ensured, the interview must be terminated without asking sensitive questions. Due to these strategies, few interviews had to be terminated for want of privacy and in no case was a young respondent's privacy breached.

Eighth, the study team realised that this was perhaps one of the first opportunities many youth would have to discuss intimate matters and that respondents might request information on sexual and reproductive issues or seek counselling or treatment for a health problem. In each state, therefore, the team approached NGOs that conduct youth- or health-related activities at the district level and sought their consent for referring any youth in need to their organisation. Many NGOs agreed, and youth (and some adults) in need were later referred to these organisations, along with an indication that the individual had been part of the Youth Study. At the same time, research officers and team members themselves built rapport with public health authorities and referred to their facilities those who preferred to seek public services, again, along with the information that the individual had been part of the Youth Study.

Finally, many youth were in need of information on sexual and reproductive health matters. On occasion, interviewers themselves responded to their questions. In addition, easy-to-read booklets (for example, the *Neeli Kitab* prepared by TARSHI) were distributed to youth who requested them. In total, some 200 booklets were distributed.

1.11 Data processing

All completed questionnaires were sent to the project office at IIPS, Mumbai, for editing and data processing. Completed questionnaires were rechecked and further edited in the office for omissions and consistency. Responses to open-ended questions were scrutinised and common responses were provided codes. For entering the edited data, a special software package was developed using CSPro 3.0. Data were entered twice by different entry operators to minimise entry problems. The raw data were validated and cleaned to remove possible inconsistencies. The analysis of data was carried out using SPSS 14.0.

1.12 Interview outcomes

Table 1.2 provides the outcome of household interviews by type of PSU (male or female) and residence. In all, of the 31,064 households selected for interview, 3% could not be contacted because the house could not be located or was vacant, or because the entire household was absent over an extended period of time. In total, however, the response to the household questionnaire was high: 99% in both male PSUs and female PSUs. A total of 10,047 and 19,727 interviews were completed in urban and rural areas, respectively. Response rates in urban and rural areas were identical. We note that less than 1% of selected households in urban areas and none of the households in rural areas refused to be interviewed.

Table 1.3 presents similar findings with regard to interviews with eligible respondents. A total of 10,002 interviews were completed: 1,886 with married young men, 2,129 with unmarried young men, 2,603 with married young women and 3,384 with unmarried young women. Response rates for individual interviews were in the range of 89–95%; the response rate was lowest among married young women (89%) and highest among unmarried young men and women (94–95%). Response rates did not vary much by residence, but in all cases, they were marginally lower among those residing in rural areas. In general, response rates for unmarried respondents, both male and female, were somewhat better than those for married respondents. The main reason for non-response was that the respondent was not at home, ranging from 4–5% among unmarried respondents to 7–10% among married respondents. The somewhat higher level of non-response for married young men compared to other groups may be attributed to work-related temporary migration, and for married young women to their relatively frequent movement to their natal homes, particularly for delivery. We attribute the low refusal rates to the strategies described earlier to address ethical concerns, which, at the same time, enabled the development of considerable rapport and trust between study communities and our interview teams.

1.13 Structure of the report

This report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 provides a socio-demographic profile of the surveyed population and respondents, and the facilities available to the rural population. Chapters 3, 4 and 5 discuss young people's educational attainment patterns, economic and non-economic activity experiences and media exposure, respectively. Chapter 6 discusses growing up issues, including young people's relationships with parents and peers. Chapters 7 and 8 focus, respectively, on young people's autonomy and gender role attitudes, and awareness of sexual and reproductive health matters. Chapter 9 describes the formation of pre-marital romantic relationships and pre-marital sexual experience with romantic and non-romantic partners. Chapter 10 discusses the transition to marriage and experiences in early married life. Chapter 11 presents information on health and health seeking behaviours and substance use. Chapter 12 focuses on civic and political participation and related attitudes. A summary of each chapter (3–12) is provided at its conclusion. Finally, Chapter 13 offers recommendations for programmes and research.

Table 1.2: Results of household interviews

Percent distribution of surveyed households by results of interviews, according to residence (unweighted), Rajasthan, 2007

Results of interviews	All PSUs		Male PSUs		Female PSUs	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Combined						
a. Interview completed	95.8	29,774	96.6	8,512	95.6	21,262
b. No respondent or no competent respondent at home at the time of visit	0.3	105	0.2	14	0.4	91
c. Entire household absent for extended period of time	1.4	442	1.2	104	1.5	338
d. Refused	0.2	51	0.3	26	0.1	25
e. Dwelling vacant/destroyed/not found	1.5	457	1.4	124	1.5	333
f. Address not a dwelling	0.5	155	0.3	24	0.6	131
g. Other	0.3	80	0.1	11	0.3	69
Total households selected	**100.0**	**31,064**	**100.0**	**8,815**	**100.0**	**22,249**
Response rate (HRR)	99.2		99.4		99.2	
Urban						
a. Interview completed	95.6	10,047	95.8	3,301	95.5	6,746
b. No respondent or no competent respondent at home at the time of visit	0.4	37	0.1	4	0.5	33
c. Entire household absent for extended period of time	1.3	136	1.5	51	1.2	85
d. Refused	0.4	47	0.7	24	0.3	23
e. Dwelling vacant/destroyed/not found	1.6	167	1.5	50	1.7	117
f. Address not a dwelling	0.5	49	0.2	8	0.6	41
g. Other	0.3	28	0.2	6	0.3	22
Total households selected	**100.0**	**10,511**	**100.0**	**3,444**	**100.0**	**7,067**
Response rate (HRR)	98.9		99.0		98.9	
Rural						
a. Interview completed	96.0	19,727	97.0	5,211	95.6	14,516
b. No respondent or no competent respondent at home at the time of visit	0.3	68	0.2	10	0.4	58
c. Entire household absent for extended period of time	1.5	306	1.0	53	1.7	253
d. Refused	0.0	4	0.0	2	0.0	2
e. Dwelling vacant/destroyed/not found	1.4	290	1.4	74	1.4	216
f. Address not a dwelling	0.5	106	0.3	16	0.6	90
g. Other	0.3	52	0.1	5	0.3	47
Total households selected	**100.0**	**20,553**	**100.0**	**5,371**	**100.0**	**15,182**
Response rate (HRR)	99.4		99.7		99.3	

*Note: The household response rate (HRR) was calculated as: HRR= (a/a+b+d+g)*100. PSU: Primary sampling unit.*

Table 1.3: Results of eligible respondent interviews

Percent distribution of eligible respondents by results of interviews, according to residence (unweighted), Rajasthan, 2007

Results of interviews	Combined				Urban				Rural			
	Married		Unmarried		Married		Unmarried		Married		Unmarried	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Men (15–24)												
a. Interview completed	92.2	1,886	94.4	2,129	93.1	631	94.6	987	91.8	1,255	94.1	1,142
b. Interview partially completed	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.1	1
c. Respondent not at home	7.2	147	4.3	98	5.8	39	4.0	42	7.9	108	4.6	56
d. Respondent refused	0.2	5	0.1	3	0.3	2	0.3	3	0.2	3	0.0	0
e. Respondent's parent refused	0.1	3	0.2	4	0.3	2	0.4	4	0.1	1	0.0	0
f. Respondent incapacitated	0.2	4	0.9	21	0.6	4	0.7	7	0.0	0	1.2	14
g. No reason given	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Total selected	**100.0**	**2,045**	**100.0**	**2,256**	**100.0**	**678**	**100.0**	**1,043**	**100.0**	**1,367**	**100.0**	**1,213**
Response rate (IRR)	92.3		94.5		93.0		94.6		91.8		94.1	
Women (15–24)												
a. Interview completed	89.3	2,603	94.0	3,384	89.6	1,038	93.9	1,436	89.1	1,565	94.1	1,948
b. Interview partially completed	0.1	4	0.1	4	0.2	2	0.2	3	0.1	2	0.0	1
c. Respondent not at home	10.1	295	5.0	180	9.8	113	4.7	72	10.4	182	5.2	108
d. Respondent refused	0.3	8	0.1	4	0.2	2	0.1	1	0.3	6	0.1	3
e. Respondent's parent refused	0.1	3	0.4	13	0.2	2	0.5	8	0.1	1	0.2	5
f. Respondent incapacitated	0.0	0	0.4	13	0.0	0	0.5	8	0.0	0	0.2	5
g. No reason given	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	0.0	0	0.0	0
Total selected	**100.0**	**2,914**	**100.0**	**3,599**	**100.0**	**1,158**	**100.0**	**1,529**	**100.0**	**1,756**	**100.0**	**2,070**
Response rate (IRR)	89.4		94.0		89.5		93.9		89.1		94.3	

*Note: The individual response rate (IRR) was calculated as: IRR = (a/a+b+c+d+e+f+g)*100.*

In view of the heterogeneity of youth by sex, marital status and rural-urban residence, in each chapter, tables are presented that describe findings, separately, on the situation of married and unmarried young men and women residing in urban and rural areas, respectively. In order to provide information on all youth in Rajasthan, we provide findings for all young men and women aged 15–24 (that is, excluding married young men aged 25–29) to enable comparison.

All means, medians and percentages indicated in the tables have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. However, in order to show the total number of youth interviewed, unweighted numbers of respondents (Ns) are provided in each table. Because numbers are unweighted and percentages are weighted, we caution readers against deriving numbers based on the percentages provided in the tables.

Chapter 2

Profile of surveyed communities, households and youth

This chapter presents a summary of the community-level characteristics of the rural areas surveyed as well as household- and respondent-level profiles of the surveyed population. First, using data drawn from the community questionnaire, it describes the rural communities in which the survey was undertaken in terms of village size, agricultural land holding and access to facilities more generally available in urban settings. Thereafter, drawing on data from the household questionnaire, it profiles the surveyed households in terms of socio-demographic and housing characteristics, agricultural land holding and economic status. Comparisons are drawn throughout between the distribution of the population as recorded in the present survey and that reported by the 2001 Census (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001b) as well as the most recent NFHS (IIPS and Macro International, 2008). Finally, the chapter presents the socio-demographic characteristics of youth respondents and their parents drawn from individual questionnaires.

2.1 Profile of rural communities surveyed

This section provides a profile of the rural PSUs (150 selected villages and 28 link villages) in which the survey was conducted. It should be noted that as sampling of rural PSUs was conducted with the probability of selection proportional to size, the proportion of large villages in the Youth Study sample is likely to have been greater than the proportion of such villages in Rajasthan as a whole. However, because the selection of villages was made from a list of villages stratified by size, this effect of using the probability proportional to size sampling technique on village size distribution is likely to be small.

As indicated in Table 2.1, 28% of the villages surveyed were relatively small in size (less than 1,000 persons), another 46% were of medium size (1,000–4,999 persons) and the remaining 26% were large (5,000 or more persons). Almost half (48%) of all villages surveyed contained less than 500 hectares of agricultural land and three-fifths (62%) contained less than 1,000 hectares. Irrigated land was limited: for example, more than half of all agricultural land was irrigated in just 44% of the surveyed villages.

Table 2.2 presents data regarding access to a variety of facilities among the rural population surveyed. Findings show that the median distance to the nearest town was 14 kilometres from the village of residence. Three-fifths of the rural population (61%) reported having an all-weather road in their village. Access to such civic amenities as banks and post offices was limited; 55% of the rural population had a post office located in their village and one-quarter (24%) had a bank.

Primary schools were not available in all villages: only 87% of the rural population had access to a primary school in their village of residence. Middle, secondary and higher secondary schools were progressively less likely to be available; just 73%, 42% and 25% of the rural population resided in a village containing a middle school, a secondary school and a higher secondary school, respectively. The median distance to the nearest secondary school was 3 kilometres and to a higher secondary school, as much as 6 kilometres. Colleges and technical institutions were rarely available at the village level; just 1–2% of the population had such a facility within the village, and median distances to the nearest college and technical institution were 22 kilometres and 38 kilometres, respectively.

Table 2.1: Profile of surveyed villages

Percent distribution of surveyed villages and residents by village size and agricultural land holding, Rajasthan (rural), 2007

Village characteristics	Villages		Residents	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Current population (no. of persons)				
Less than 1,000	28.1	50	19.6	19,437
1,000–4,999	45.5	81	48.9	52,698
5,000–9,999	18.5	33	21.8	24,375
10,000 or more	7.9	14	9.6	11,005
Size of agricultural land (hectares)				
Less than 500	47.8	85	46.8	51,725
500–999	14.0	25	14.2	12,264
1,000–4,999	22.5	40	25.1	24,918
5,000 and more	6.2	11	7.0	8,391
Proportion of irrigated agricultural land owned				
Less than 25%	32.6	58	33.8	37,134
25–49%	18.5	33	17.0	22,629
50–74%	18.0	32	17.5	19,202
75% or more	26.4	47	29.1	25,645
Total	**100.0**	**178**	**100.0**	**107,515**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% or the total number due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

Likewise, access to health facilities was limited. Although an *anganwadi* in the village of residence was available to 95% of the population, just 56% had a sub-centre within the village. As in the case of education, higher-level facilities were less accessible: only 21% of the population resided in a village containing a primary health centre. Median distances to the nearest primary health centre and community health centre were as much as 6 and 15 kilometres, respectively, highlighting that access to government health facilities—even primary health centres—remains difficult in the rural areas of Rajasthan. Moreover, even private clinics and hospitals (including those practising Indian systems of medicine and homoeopathy) were relatively inaccessible; only 27% and 1% of rural residents had access to a private clinic and hospital, respectively, within the village, and median distances to the nearest private clinic and hospital were 6 and 19 kilometres, respectively.

The availability of civic organisations and entertainment facilities was also assessed. Findings again indicate limited access to such facilities. Just 14% of the population resided in villages having a club or *mandal*. While more than two in five lived in villages containing a community hall, few lived in villages with a cinema theatre (2%), drama theatre (1%) or video parlour (3%). Distances to the nearest such facilities were also considerable; for example, the nearest cinema theatre was an average of 22 kilometres from the village. Playgrounds and sports clubs were available in the village of residence to 40% and 4% of the population, respectively; the average distance to the nearest sports club was 26 kilometres.

Table 2.2: Proximity of study residents to selected facilities

Percentage of residents covered by the survey by distance from the nearest facility/service, Rajasthan (rural), 2007

Nearest facility/service	% of residents						Median distance to nearest facility/ service (km)
	Within village	<2 km	2–5 km	6–9 km	10–19 km	20 km or more	
Town	NA	0.0	15.3	13.3	39.4	29.3	14.0
District headquarters	NA	0.0	0.0	1.3	8.2	90.5	55.0
Railway station	3.0	0.0	7.3	7.8	27.4	54.6	20.0
Transport service to other places	30.1	2.5	17.6	10.6	20.6	18.6	5.0
All-weather road	61.4	7.3	19.8	3.7	5.7	2.1	NC
Post office	55.2	3.3	27.3	6.7	6.9	0.5	NC
Bank	24.0	2.4	25.0	19.6	21.4	7.6	5.0
Educational facilities							
Primary school	87.4	1.3	8.2	1.5	0.8	0.7	NC
Middle school	73.2	2.5	20.2	4.2	0.0	0.0	NC
Secondary school	41.6	0.9	31.6	15.7	9.1	1.2	3.0
Higher secondary school	25.0	1.9	19.8	19.5	27.7	6.2	6.0
College	2.9	0.0	4.8	8.5	27.6	56.2	22.0
Technical school/college	1.0	0.0	2.6	4.5	16.1	75.4	38.0
Ashram school	1.9	0.0	2.2	1.0	9.3	47.9	40.0
Madarsa	11.3	0.0	7.8	8.1	19.6	40.6	17.0
Any of the above	99.2	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	NC
Health facilities							
ICDS (*anganwadi*)	95.0	1.0	3.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	NC
Sub-centre	56.2	2.0	27.2	7.1	5.8	1.0	NC
Primary health centre	20.8	0.7	27.3	18.6	25.0	7.6	6.0
Community health centre	4.6	0.3	8.2	13.8	35.5	37.6	15.0
Government dispensary	6.4	0.7	11.0	12.4	22.7	37.9	15.0
Government hospital	2.9	0.0	6.8	4.2	16.7	68.4	36.0
Private clinic, including ISMH	27.2	1.3	17.4	13.1	25.4	15.1	6.0
Private hospital	1.2	0.0	7.2	7.2	35.1	49.3	19.0
Any of the above	96.0	1.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	NC
Club/*Mandal*	13.6	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Entertainment/sports facilities							
Community hall	43.5	0.4	22.4	7.2	15.7	8.5	3.0
Playground	39.5	1.7	13.8	8.3	18.6	18.1	4.0
Sports club	4.3	0.0	5.8	4.5	25.1	58.8	26.0
Video parlour	3.1	0.0	7.1	7.6	33.6	43.7	18.0
Cinema theatre	2.0	0.0	4.0	7.0	31.8	55.2	22.0
Drama theatre	0.8	0.0	3.9	3.6	17.2	65.8	40.0
Any of the above	57.8	2.1	17.0	6.1	10.7	6.2	NC

Note: ICDS: Integrated Child Development Services. ISMH: Indian systems of medicine and homoeopathy. NA: Not applicable. NC: Median cannot be calculated.

2.2 Profile of the household population: Age-sex distribution

Age and sex distributions play an important role in the study of demographic processes. Details of the age and sex distribution of the *de jure* population in the survey area are presented in Table 2.3. Corresponding distributions from the 2001 Census are provided to enable comparison.

The age distribution was typical of a high fertility population with a larger proportion of the population in the younger than older age groups. Nevertheless, there has been a decrease in the proportion of the population aged 0–4 years between 2001 and 2006, indicative of the recent declining trend in fertility in Rajasthan. This trend is observed in both urban and rural areas. Data from consecutive NFHS confirm that during the period between 1999 and 2005–06, the total fertility rate declined by 15%, from 3.8 to 3.2 (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a). Sample Registration System data also show a decline in the total fertility rate from 4.2 in 1999 to 3.4 in 2007 (Office of the Registrar General, India, 2002; 2008b).

With regard to the youth population, the distribution suggests that at the time of the survey, 13% of the population was aged 10–14 years, 10% was aged 15–19 years and 8% was aged 20–24 years. A total of 19% of the population was aged 15–24 years, about the same as that observed in the 2001 Census (18%) (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001a).

Table 2.3: Distribution of the surveyed population by age and sex

Percent distribution of the surveyed population by age and sex, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007 and population distribution as reported in the 2001 Census for Rajasthan

Age (years) (%)	Youth Study, 2007			Census, 2001		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Combined						
Below 1	1.9	2.0	1.7	2.2	2.2	2.1
1–4	8.8	8.9	8.7	10.6	10.7	10.6
5–9	12.9	13.4	12.5	14.3	14.4	14.1
10–14	13.3	13.8	12.7	12.8	13.1	12.5
15–19	10.3	10.4	10.3	9.7	10.2	9.2
20–24	8.4	8.1	8.7	8.4	8.4	8.4
25–29	7.1	7.0	7.2	7.4	7.2	7.6
30–34	6.9	6.2	7.7	6.8	6.5	7.0
35–39	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.1	6.1	6.1
40–44	5.3	5.6	5.0	4.9	5.0	4.7
45–49	4.4	4.3	4.4	4.0	4.0	4.0
50–54	3.4	3.6	3.2	3.1	3.3	3.0
55–59	2.7	2.5	3.0	2.4	2.2	2.6
60–64	2.9	2.7	3.1	2.4	2.3	2.5
65–69	2.0	1.8	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.9
70–74	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4
75 and above	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.4
Age not stated	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.5
Number	**160,550**	**82,840**	**77,709**	**56,507,188**	**29,420,011**	**27,087,177**
Median age (years)	21.0	20.0	22.0	20.1	19.6	20.7
Sex ratio, all ages[1]	951	NA	NA	921	NA	NA
Sex ratio, age 0–6 years[1]	898	NA	NA	909	NA	NA

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Table 2.3: (Cont'd)

Age (years) (%)	Youth Study, 2007			Census, 2001		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Urban						
Below 1	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
1–4	7.4	7.5	7.2	9.1	9.0	9.1
5–9	10.7	10.8	10.6	12.3	12.3	12.2
10–14	11.8	12.2	11.4	12.4	12.4	12.3
15–19	10.9	11.0	10.7	10.8	11.1	10.5
20–24	9.7	9.7	9.6	9.7	9.9	9.4
25–29	7.8	7.8	7.8	8.2	8.0	8.4
30–34	7.5	7.0	8.0	7.3	7.1	7.6
35–39	7.3	7.3	7.2	6.9	6.7	7.0
40–44	5.8	5.9	5.7	5.5	5.7	5.3
45–49	5.2	5.1	5.2	4.4	4.5	4.3
50–54	3.9	4.0	3.7	3.2	3.5	3.0
55–59	3.0	2.8	3.1	2.3	2.2	2.4
60–64	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.1	1.9	2.2
65–69	2.0	1.8	2.2	1.6	1.4	1.8
70–74	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.2
75 and above	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.3
Age not stated	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.4
Number	**53,035**	**27,573**	**25,461**	**13,214,375**	**6,993,371**	**6,221,004**
Median age (years)	23.0	23.0	24.0	21.9	21.7	22.2
Sex ratio, all ages[1]	932	NA	NA	890	NA	NA
Sex ratio, age 0–6 years[1]	891	NA	NA	887	NA	NA
Rural						
Below 1	2.0	2.2	1.8	2.4	2.4	2.3
1–4	9.2	9.3	9.1	11.1	11.2	11.1
5–9	13.6	14.1	13.0	14.9	15.1	14.7
10–14	13.7	14.3	13.1	13.0	13.3	12.6
15–19	10.2	10.3	10.1	9.4	9.9	8.9
20–24	8.1	7.7	8.5	8.0	7.9	8.1
25–29	6.9	6.7	7.0	7.2	7.0	7.4
30–34	6.8	6.0	7.6	6.6	6.3	6.9
35–39	6.6	6.6	6.6	5.9	5.9	5.9
40–44	5.2	5.5	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.6
45–49	4.1	4.0	4.2	3.9	3.9	3.9
50–54	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.1	3.3	2.9
55–59	2.7	2.4	2.9	2.4	2.2	2.6
60–64	2.9	2.7	3.1	2.5	2.4	2.6
65–69	2.0	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.6	2.0
70–74	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.5
75 and above	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.5
Age not stated	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.5
Number	**107,515**	**55,267**	**52,248**	**43,292,813**	**22,426,640**	**20,866,173**
Median age (years)	20.0	19.0	20.0	19.5	19.0	20.1
Sex ratio, all ages[1]	957	NA	NA	930	NA	NA
Sex ratio, age 0–6 years[1]	899	NA	NA	914	NA	NA

Note: All Ns are unweighted. NA: Not applicable. [1]Sex ratio is defined as the number of females per 1,000 males.

Overall, the sex ratio of the *de jure* population of the state was 951 females per 1,000 males, higher than that observed in the 2001 Census (921). While the rural sex ratio was higher than that observed in the 2001 Census (957 and 930, respectively), the urban sex ratio was considerably higher (932 and 890, respectively; Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001b). The child sex ratio of the surveyed population was 898 females per 1,000 males aged 0–6, slightly lower than that reported in the 2001 Census (909). While the child sex ratio in rural areas was slightly lower than that observed in the 2001 Census (899 and 914, respectively), the urban child sex ratio observed in the Youth Study was almost identical to that observed in the 2001 Census (891 and 887, respectively).

2.3 Profile of the household population: Marital status

Table 2.4 presents the marital status distribution of the surveyed population, classified by age, residence and sex. A comparison with the marital status distribution as obtained in the 2001 Census (data not shown in tabular form) suggests a similar distribution, except that proportions never married increased somewhat in the period 2001–06 (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001f). The currently married included both those who had married and cohabited with their spouse as well as those for whom cohabitation had not been initiated, that is, for whom *gauna* had not been performed.

Findings suggest wide gender differences in marriage age distributions, notably between the ages of 15 and 29: of those aged 15–19 years, 13% of males and 33% of females were currently married. This increased to 52% and 85%, respectively, for those aged 20–24 years, and further to 85% and 96%, respectively, for those aged 25–29 years. Patterns were similar for both rural and urban areas, but larger percentages of both males and females were married in each age group up to age 30 in rural versus urban areas.

Table 2.4 also provides estimates of the singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) calculated from the age-specific proportion of never-married individuals obtained in the household survey. As suggested above, the singulate mean age at marriage was considerably higher among the male population compared to the female: 21.9 and 18.5 years, respectively, indicating that women tended to marry men who were an average of 3.4 years older than themselves. Differences were also observed by rural-urban residence; the singulate mean age at marriage was about three years higher among urban males and females compared to their rural counterparts.

In order to assess age at marriage among those married more recently, the Youth Study household questionnaire asked specifically about marriages that had taken place in the three years prior to the interview, among the household's usual residents at that time. Table 2.5 shows that the median age at marriage for those who had married in the recent past was 20 years among males and 18 years among females. Rural-urban differences were evident; the median age at marriage was three years higher among urban than rural males and females, respectively. Findings also show that large proportions of both males and females had married before the legal minimum age at marriage, and that more males than females had married before the legal minimum age at marriage, as observed in the DLHS-3 (IIPS, 2009). Almost half of the females (46%) had married before they were aged 18, that is, the legal minimum age at marriage for females. Likewise, over half of all males (53%) had married before they were 21, the legal minimum age at marriage for males. It is also notable that some one-fifth (21%) of males had married even earlier, that is, before age 18. Rural-urban differences were notable: 52% of rural females compared to 19% of urban females had married before they were 18. Among males, 61% and 26% of respondents in rural and urban areas, respectively, had married before they reached 21.

2.4 Profile of the household population: Educational attainment

Table 2.6 shows the percent distribution of the surveyed population aged 6 years and above by educational level and median years of schooling according to sex, age and residence. Findings highlight low levels of educational attainment of the state's population. For example, over two-fifths (41%) of the population aged 6 years and above had no formal education. More females than males (56% versus 27%) fell into this group. Rural-urban differences were also wide: one quarter (25%) of the urban population compared to almost half (46%) of the rural population

Table 2.4: Marital status of the surveyed population

Percent distribution of the surveyed population aged 6 years and above by marital status and sex, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Age (years) (%)	Marital status					
	Male			Female		
	Never married	Currently married[1]	Separated/ divorced/ widowed	Never married	Currently married[1]	Separated/ divorced/ widowed
Combined						
6–9	98.9	0.9	0.0	98.0	1.8	0.0
10–14	96.7	3.3	0.1	95.0	4.9	0.1
15–19	87.1	12.7	0.1	66.8	32.8	0.4
20–24	47.2	52.1	0.7	14.1	84.7	1.1
25–29	14.0	84.5	1.4	1.9	96.0	2.1
30 and above	1.8	92.9	5.3	0.2	81.9	17.9
Total	**44.4**	**53.1**	**2.4**	**34.6**	**57.2**	**8.2**
SMAM[2] (years)		**21.9**			**18.5**	
Urban						
6–9	99.0	0.8	0.1	98.7	1.0	0.1
10–14	99.2	0.8	0.0	97.8	2.2	0.0
15–19	95.3	4.6	0.1	84.3	15.4	0.3
20–24	69.1	30.4	0.5	32.4	66.6	1.0
25–29	26.1	72.3	1.5	5.4	92.2	2.4
30 and above	1.9	94.1	4.0	0.5	82.7	16.8
Total	**45.7**	**52.3**	**2.0**	**36.2**	**55.7**	**8.1**
SMAM[2] (years)		**24.4**			**20.8**	
Rural						
6–9	98.9	0.9	0.0	97.9	2.0	0.0
10–14	96.1	3.9	0.1	94.3	5.5	0.1
15–19	84.6	15.2	0.1	61.6	37.9	0.5
20–24	39.3	59.9	0.8	8.3	90.5	1.2
25–29	9.9	88.7	1.4	0.7	97.2	2.0
30 and above	1.7	92.5	5.7	0.1	81.7	18.2
Total	**44.1**	**53.3**	**2.6**	**34.1**	**57.6**	**8.2**
SMAM[2] (years)		**21.1**			**17.8**	

Note: Row totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]Includes both those who are currently married and cohabiting as well as those who have not yet initiated cohabitation. [2]SMAM: Singulate mean age at marriage (for those whose first marriage occurred between the ages of 6 and 55 years).

Table 2.5: Age at marriage of usual residents of households

Age at marriage of usual residents of surveyed households who were married in the three years preceding the interview, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Age at marriage	Combined	Urban	Rural
Median age at marriage of usual residents married in the 3 years preceding the interview (years)			
Male	20.0	23.0	20.0
Female	18.0	20.0	17.0
Of those married in last 3 years, males married (%):			
Before age 18	20.5	6.0	24.7
Before age 21	53.2	26.1	61.0
Of those married in last 3 years, females married before age 18 (%)	45.7	19.4	52.3

had never been to school. Reaffirming the low levels of educational attainment in the state, findings also indicate that just 8% of the total population had received 12 or more years of education. Gender and rural-urban differences remained evident: 12% and 5% of males and females, respectively, and 20% and 5% of the urban and rural populations, respectively, had reached this level of education. The median years of schooling was 5 years for males, and as discussed earlier, over one-half of the females had never been to school. Rural-urban differences show that the number of completed years of schooling was, on average, five years higher in the urban compared to the rural population (7 years and 2 years, respectively).

2.5 Profile of the household population: Work participation

Table 2.7 presents the percentage of the surveyed population aged 6 years and above who had worked in the seven days prior to interview, according to sex and residence. While 42% of the total population was reported as working, a considerably larger percentage of males than females (58% and 25%, respectively) and a somewhat larger proportion of the rural than urban population (44% and 37%, respectively) were working. These disparities are attributable to the vast differences in work participation observed among rural and urban females (29% and 13%, respectively). In comparison, percentages of working males were similar in urban and rural areas (60% and 58%, respectively). A positive association between age and work was observed between the age groups of 10–14 and 25–29: the work participation rate increased from 5% of those aged 10–14, to 30% of those aged 15–19, 54% of those aged 20–24 and 68% of those aged 25–29. In comparison, a somewhat smaller proportion of the population aged 30 and above reported that they were working.

2.6 Socio-demographic characteristics of households and heads of households

Table 2.8 presents selected characteristics pertaining to households and their heads, according to residence, for all households as well as for those containing youth eligible for interview (that is, all young women aged 15–24 years, unmarried young men aged 15–24 years and married young men aged 15–29 years). Findings suggest that heads of households were overwhelmingly male and typically aged 35 years and above. Age differences suggest that heads of households that contained youth eligible for interview in the Youth Study were somewhat older than heads of all households: for example, the age of the head of the household was 45 years or more among 56% of households that contained eligible youth for interview compared to 48% of all households. Similarly, heads of urban households were somewhat older than heads of rural households: for example, the age of the head of the household was 45 years or more among 53% of urban households compared to 47% of rural households. Differences were similar even among households that contained youth eligible for interview.

Table 2.6: Educational attainment

Percent distribution of the surveyed population aged 6 years and above by educational level and median years of schooling, according to age, sex and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Age (years)	Completed years of schooling (%)				No. of persons	Median years of schooling
	None[1]	1–7	8–11	12 and above		
Combined						
Total						
6–9	38.0	61.8	0.0	0.0	16,122	1.0
10–14	13.0	74.8	12.1	0.0	20,629	5.0
15–19	19.2	26.1	45.6	9.1	16,933	8.0
20–24	31.6	19.8	26.9	21.5	14,190	7.0
25–29	41.3	18.3	24.0	16.2	11,739	5.0
30 and above	60.9	14.1	15.7	9.1	59,661	NC
Total	**41.4**	**31.4**	**18.6**	**8.4**	**139,277**	**3.0**
Male						
6–9	34.9	64.9	0.0	0.0	8,436	1.0
10–14	7.4	79.0	13.6	0.0	10,984	5.0
15–19	9.8	24.8	54.6	10.7	8,984	8.0
20–24	14.1	22.2	35.2	28.4	7,116	9.0
25–29	20.7	22.5	33.8	22.7	6,001	8.0
30 and above	41.6	19.4	24.3	14.3	30,126	5.0
Total	**27.2**	**35.7**	**25.1**	**11.8**	**71,647**	**5.0**
Female						
6–9	41.4	58.4	0.0	0.0	7,686	1.0
10–14	19.4	70.0	10.4	0.0	9,645	5.0
15–19	29.1	27.6	36.0	7.3	7,949	7.0
20–24	48.7	17.5	18.8	14.8	7,074	3.0
25–29	62.4	14.1	13.9	9.5	5,738	NC
30 and above	80.2	8.8	7.0	3.9	29,534	NC
Total	**56.2**	**27.0**	**11.9**	**4.8**	**67,629**	**NC**
Urban						
Total						
6–9	34.8	65.0	0.0	0.0	4,558	1.0
10–14	7.7	74.9	17.4	0.0	6,246	5.0
15–19	9.9	21.7	51.1	17.3	5,844	9.0
20–24	15.0	16.3	29.0	39.6	5,170	10.0
25–29	19.3	15.7	29.7	35.1	4,149	9.0
30 and above	34.8	16.0	25.1	23.6	21,166	7.0
Total	**24.7**	**29.2**	**25.7**	**20.2**	**47,133**	**7.0**
Male						
6–9	34.7	65.1	0.0	0.0	2,368	1.0
10–14	6.5	76.6	16.9	0.0	3,333	5.0
15–19	7.2	21.1	54.6	17.1	3,135	9.0
20–24	8.5	17.2	31.1	43.0	2,683	10.0
25–29	10.3	16.4	32.7	40.2	2,172	10.0
30 and above	17.7	17.5	31.5	32.6	10,748	9.0
Total	**14.9**	**30.5**	**29.4**	**24.9**	**24,439**	**8.0**

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Table 2.6: (Cont'd)

Age (years)	Completed years of schooling (%)				No. of persons	Median years of schooling
	None[1]	1–7	8–11	12 and above		
Urban						
Female						
6–9	34.9	64.9	0.0	0.0	2,190	1.0
10–14	9.0	72.8	18.0	0.1	2,913	5.0
15–19	12.8	22.4	47.2	17.6	2,709	9.0
20–24	22.0	15.3	26.7	35.8	2,487	9.0
25–29	29.1	15.0	26.3	29.4	1,977	8.0
30 and above	52.4	14.5	18.5	14.5	10,417	NC
Total	**35.1**	**27.8**	**21.7**	**15.3**	**22,693**	**5.0**
Rural						
Total						
6–9	38.7	61.1	0.0	0.0	11,564	1.0
10–14	14.3	74.8	10.8	0.0	14,383	5.0
15–19	22.0	27.5	44.0	6.5	11,089	8.0
20–24	37.3	21.0	26.2	15.4	9,020	5.0
25–29	48.4	19.2	22.1	10.1	7,590	3.0
30 and above	69.1	13.5	12.7	4.5	38,495	NC
Total	**46.3**	**32.0**	**16.5**	**4.9**	**92,144**	**2.0**
Male						
6–9	35.0	64.9	0.0	0.0	6,068	1.0
10–14	7.6	79.5	12.8	0.0	7,651	5.0
15–19	10.6	26.0	54.7	8.7	5,849	8.0
20–24	16.2	24.0	36.6	23.0	4,433	8.0
25–29	24.2	24.5	34.1	16.9	3,829	8.0
30 and above	49.2	20.0	22.0	8.4	19,378	2.0
Total	**30.9**	**37.2**	**23.8**	**7.9**	**47,208**	**5.0**
Female						
6–9	42.9	56.9	0.0	0.0	5,496	1.0
10–14	22.0	69.3	8.5	0.0	6,732	4.0
15–19	34.0	29.1	32.7	4.2	5,240	5.0
20–24	57.3	18.3	16.3	8.1	4,587	NC
25–29	72.8	13.8	10.0	3.2	3,761	NC
30 and above	88.8	7.1	3.4	0.6	19,117	NC
Total	**62.4**	**26.7**	**9.0**	**1.8**	**44,936**	**NC**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Row totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. NC: Median cannot be calculated as more than 50% had no formal education. [1]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

Distributions by religion suggest that 90% of household heads were Hindu, 7% were Muslim and the remaining 3% belonged to other religions. Distributions were similar among all households and those containing youth eligible for interview. Rural-urban differences were however, evident. The urban population consisted of a much smaller proportion of Hindus than did the rural population (79% and 93%, respectively); and conversely, a much larger proportion of Muslims (17% and 5%, respectively). As far as caste was concerned, the largest group belonged to other backward castes (47%), followed by scheduled castes and general castes (20% each) and scheduled tribes (12%); this distribution closely resembles that obtained in the NFHS-3 (other backward castes, 45%;

Table 2.7: Work participation

Percentage of the surveyed population aged 6 years and above by work participation, according to age, sex and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Age (years) (%)	Combined			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
6–9	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.5	0.6
10–14	5.1	5.6	4.6	3.4	4.4	2.3	5.6	5.9	5.2
15–19	29.5	39.7	18.6	21.2	33.8	7.3	32.0	41.5	21.9
20–24	54.4	79.2	30.2	42.1	70.0	12.2	58.6	82.6	35.9
25–29	67.8	95.7	39.2	57.1	93.8	17.5	71.3	96.3	46.0
30 and above	62.6	88.8	36.4	53.7	88.2	18.3	65.4	89.0	42.0
Total	**42.1**	**58.4**	**25.2**	**37.0**	**59.9**	**12.5**	**43.6**	**57.9**	**28.8**

Note: Work participation is defined as reported work activity in the seven days prior to interview.

general castes, 22%; scheduled castes, 19%; scheduled tribes, 14%). Rural-urban differences indicate that the rural population consisted of a larger proportion of households belonging to scheduled castes and tribes than did the urban population (22% and 14%, respectively, among the scheduled caste population; 15% and 3%, respectively, among the scheduled tribe population) and conversely, a smaller proportion of households belonging to general castes (15% and 38%, respectively).

Educational attainment levels suggest that over two-fifths of all heads of households had no schooling and another one-fifth had only 1–7 years of schooling. Just as educational distributions differed for the general population, here too, heads of households in urban areas were better educated than their rural counterparts. The vast majority of heads of households reported working in the last seven days (87%), with marginal rural-urban differences.

Table 2.8: Socio-demographic characteristics of households and heads of households

Percent distribution of all surveyed households and households containing youth eligible for interview by selected socio-demographic characteristics of heads of households, household size and type of family, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Socio-demographic characteristics (%)	Combined		Urban		Rural	
	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth
Sex of household head						
Male	92.2	93.9	91.8	91.7	92.3	94.5
Female	7.8	6.1	8.2	8.3	7.7	5.5
Current age of household head (years)						
Below 25	3.5	6.5	2.7	4.5	3.7	7.1
25–34	19.0	16.4	15.6	12.3	20.0	17.6
35–44	29.4	21.4	28.7	20.2	29.6	21.8
45–54	21.3	29.7	24.6	35.8	20.4	28.0
55 and above	26.8	25.9	28.4	27.3	26.3	25.5
Religion of household head						
Hindu	90.1	89.7	79.1	77.8	93.4	93.2
Muslim	7.3	8.0	17.0	19.3	4.5	4.6
Christian	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0
Other[1]	2.5	2.3	3.6	2.8	2.1	2.1

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Table 2.8 (Cont'd)

Socio-demographic characteristics (%)	Combined		Urban		Rural	
	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth
Caste/tribe of household head						
SC	20.4	20.7	14.2	14.8	22.2	22.4
ST	12.3	12.3	3.0	3.1	15.1	15.0
OBC	46.8	48.1	44.2	47.3	47.5	48.4
VJNT	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
General[2]	20.1	18.6	38.2	34.4	14.8	13.9
Schooling of household head (years)						
None[3]	45.0	42.6	22.5	23.5	51.6	48.3
1–7	20.3	21.9	19.0	21.2	20.7	22.1
8–10	21.0	22.1	27.3	28.3	19.1	20.3
11–12	5.2	5.5	9.4	8.8	4.0	4.5
Above 12	7.9	7.3	21.0	17.6	4.1	4.2
Current work status of household head[4]						
Working	86.8	87.5	83.4	84.5	87.8	88.4
Not working	13.1	12.4	16.5	15.5	12.1	11.6
Number of members in the household						
1	3.6	0.3	3.9	0.7	3.6	0.2
2	8.4	3.2	8.4	3.0	8.4	3.3
3	9.4	9.0	10.3	8.8	9.1	9.1
4	16.7	15.8	19.6	17.3	15.8	15.4
5	19.2	18.6	19.9	20.1	19.0	18.2
6	15.9	16.8	14.3	15.5	16.3	17.1
7 or more	26.7	36.3	23.6	34.7	27.7	36.7
Mean household size	5.4	6.2	5.3	6.2	5.4	6.3
Type of family						
Nuclear	59.5	45.2	59.9	48.6	59.3	44.2
Non-nuclear	40.5	54.8	40.1	51.4	40.7	55.8
Households with at least one literate member aged 18 and above	71.5	82.6	89.0	93.1	66.4	79.5
Number of households	**29,774**	**12,227**	**10,047**	**4,129**	**19,727**	**8,098**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. VJNT: Vimukta jati nomadic tribes. [1]Includes Buddhist/Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [2]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST, VJNT or OBC. [3]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling. [4]Defined as reported work activity in the seven days prior to interview.

Households contained an average of 5.4 members. This number was almost one member higher (6.2) among those containing youth eligible for interview. Rural-urban differences were negligible. As far as family type was concerned, about 60% of all households, irrespective of rural-urban residence, consisted of a nuclear family. However, among households containing youth eligible for interview, fewer (45%) were nuclear, with little rural-urban variation (44% in rural areas and 49% in urban areas).

Finally, 72% of all households contained at least one literate member aged 18 and above, a percentage that was somewhat higher (83%) in households containing youth eligible for interview. Rural-urban differences were wide: 89% and 66% of urban and rural households, respectively, of the total population surveyed contained at least one literate member aged 18 and above, as did 93% and 80%, respectively, of those containing youth eligible for interview.

2.7 Profile of the household population: Housing characteristics

Table 2.9 provides information on ownership of residence, quality of housing, access to basic amenities and indicators of crowding. Information was obtained from responses to the household questionnaire and, in the case of housing type, interviewer observations. Information is presented by rural-urban residence separately for all surveyed households and households containing youth eligible for interview. The characteristics of both types of households were basically similar.

The vast majority of households (94%), irrespective of whether or not they contained youth eligible for interview, owned the structure in which they resided. More rural than urban households, however, reported owning their residence (98% and 82%, respectively). Overall, interviewers observed that about one-quarter of all households (27%) lived in *kachcha* houses (constructed from mud, thatch or other low-quality materials), 13% lived in semi-*pucca* houses (constructed using a mix of low- and high-quality materials) and the large majority, 60% lived in *pucca* houses (constructed entirely from cement, masonry or other high-quality materials, somewhat higher than that obtained in the NFHS-3 (50%).

Half of all residential structures contained 2–3 rooms (50%) and almost one quarter (24%) contained just one room. However, considerable variation was observed by whether the household contained a youth eligible for interview and by rural-urban residence. For example, while one-third of all households containing youth eligible for interview reported that their homes contained 4 or more rooms, 27% of all households so reported. Likewise, 38% of urban households and 23% of rural households reported homes with 4 or more rooms. The mean number of persons per room was 2.5 for all households and 2.6 for those containing youth eligible for interview. Rural households contained somewhat more persons per room than did urban households (2.6 and 2.1, respectively).

Respondents were asked about their household's main source of lighting and drinking water. In addition, information was gathered on toilet facilities typically accessed and cooking fuel generally used. As Table 2.9 shows, two-thirds (67%) of the households had electricity. This compares with 66% for Rajasthan as a whole as assessed in NFHS-3 (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a); urban households were far more likely than rural households (95% versus 58%) to report the use of electricity. For the majority of households (83%), the main source of drinking water was either piped water, water obtained from a hand-pump or a covered well. While not entirely comparable, 82% of households in NFHS-3 had access to an improved source of drinking water, defined to include piped water, tube-well or borehole, protected well or spring, rainwater or bottled water (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a). These facilities were reported as self-owned for 38% of all households, and as public or shared facilities for the remaining 45%. Again, rural-urban differences were marked: while 98% of urban households had access to these safe sources of drinking water, about four-fifths (79%) of rural households reported as such.

Access to a toilet facility of any kind was reported by a few—just 32% of all households compared to 31% as assessed in NFHS-3 (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a). Large rural-urban differences were observed: 83% of rural households compared to 18% of urban households had no access to toilet facilities.

Finally, the main source of cooking fuel was coal, charcoal, wood, crop residue or dung cakes, reported by 81% of all households, 95% of rural households and 35% of urban households. This compares with 77% for Rajasthan as a whole as assessed in NFHS-3 (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a), Liquid petroleum gas was used, in contrast, by just 17% of all households, ranging from 4% in rural areas to 62% in urban areas.

Patterns of access to these facilities in households containing youth eligible for interview were largely similar to those observed for all households, described above.

Table 2.9: Housing characteristics

Percent distribution of all surveyed households and households containing youth eligible for interview by selected housing characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Housing characteristics (%)	Combined		Urban		Rural	
	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth
Ownership of residence						
Yes	94.0	95.0	81.9	84.4	97.6	98.1
No	5.9	4.9	18.1	15.6	2.3	1.7
Type of house						
Kachcha	27.1	23.8	4.6	3.5	33.7	29.8
Semi-*pucca*	12.6	12.6	5.3	5.2	14.7	14.8
Pucca	60.3	63.5	90.0	91.3	51.6	55.3
Number of rooms in the house[1]						
1	23.8	18.4	16.1	12.7	26.0	20.1
2–3	49.5	48.6	46.1	43.2	50.6	50.2
4–5	19.8	23.7	27.9	31.7	17.4	21.4
6 or more	6.8	9.2	9.9	12.4	5.9	8.2
Average number of persons per room						
Up to 2	67.4	65.4	78.7	76.4	64.0	62.1
3–4	21.1	24.0	14.5	16.9	23.1	26.0
5–6	8.3	7.3	5.3	4.6	9.2	8.1
More than 6	3.2	3.3	1.6	2.0	3.6	3.7
Mean number of persons per room	2.5	2.6	2.1	2.2	2.6	2.7
Source of lighting						
Electricity	66.6	70.8	95.0	96.3	58.3	63.3
Kerosene	33.1	28.9	4.9	3.6	41.4	36.4
Other lighting sources[2]	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2
Source of drinking water						
Own piped water/ hand-pump/covered well	37.8	39.9	77.4	79.1	26.1	28.3
Public piped water/ hand-pump/covered well	45.4	43.9	20.8	19.4	52.6	51.1
Own open well	2.9	3.0	0.2	0.1	3.7	3.9
Public open well	6.6	6.3	0.5	0.5	8.4	8.0
Surface water[3]	2.9	3.0	0.1	0.1	3.7	3.9
Other water sources[4]	4.4	3.9	1.0	0.8	5.4	4.8

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Table 2.9: (Cont'd)

Housing characteristics (%)	Combined		Urban		Rural	
	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth
Toilet facility						
Own flush toilet	24.1	25.5	65.1	66.3	12.0	13.4
Shared flush toilet	3.0	2.8	9.8	9.0	1.0	0.9
Own pit toilet	4.0	4.6	4.6	4.9	3.8	4.5
Shared pit toilet	0.8	0.8	2.1	1.9	0.4	0.5
No toilet facility	68.0	66.3	18.4	17.9	82.6	80.6
Main type of fuel used for cooking						
Liquid petroleum gas	17.1	16.9	61.5	60.7	4.1	3.9
Bio-gas	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.5	0.0	0.0
Kerosene	1.0	0.8	2.9	2.1	0.5	0.4
Wood/crop residue/ dung cakes/coal/charcoal	81.4	82.1	34.7	36.6	95.2	95.5
Other types of fuel[5]	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Number of households	**29,774**	**12,227**	**10,047**	**4,129**	**19,727**	**8,098**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]Excludes toilets/ bathrooms but includes kitchen. [2]Includes oil, gas, etc. [3]Includes water of a spring, river, stream, pond, lake or dam. [4]Includes rain water and tanker truck. [5]Includes electricity, straw, shrubs and grass.

2.8 Profile of the household population: Ownership of agricultural land

Table 2.10 presents information on ownership of agricultural land (irrigated and non-irrigated) by households in both rural and urban areas. Most households owned no land (37% and 35%, respectively, of all households and those that contained youth eligible for interview) or owned marginal holdings (22–23%). A larger proportion of urban than rural households were landless (81% versus 24%). Not only were most land holdings small in area, but they were also, by and large, not irrigated. Even in rural areas, only about two-fifths (38%) of all households had some irrigated land.

Table 2.10: Household ownership of agricultural land

Percent distribution of all surveyed households and households containing youth eligible for interview by ownership of agricultural land, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Land holding (%)	Combined		Urban		Rural	
	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth
Land holding (in acres)						
Landless	37.0	34.9	81.3	79.8	23.9	21.6
Marginal (≤2.50)	23.0	21.9	6.5	6.9	27.9	26.3
Small (2.51–5.00)	13.2	14.0	3.5	4.0	16.1	17.0
Medium (5.01–10.00)	12.1	13.0	3.2	3.8	14.7	15.7
Large (>10.00)	13.0	14.7	4.1	4.4	15.6	17.8
Own any irrigated land	31.8	35.1	9.7	10.1	38.3	42.4
Number of households	**29,774**	**12,227**	**10,047**	**4,129**	**19,727**	**8,098**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

2.9 Profile of the household population: Overall economic status

Household economic status was measured using a wealth index composed of household asset data on ownership of selected durable goods, including means of transportation, as well as data on access to a number of amenities. The wealth index was constructed by allocating the following scores to a household's reported assets or amenities:

Type of house: 2 for *pucca*; 1 for semi-*pucca*; 0 for *kachcha*
Agricultural land owned: 4 for more than 10 acres; 3 for 5.1–10.0 acres; 2 for 2.6–5.0 acres; 1 for less than 2.6 acres, or if the household owns some land but does not know how much; 0 for no land
Irrigated land owned: 1 for any irrigated land; 0 for no land
Access to toilet facility: 4 for own flush toilet; 2 for shared flush toilet or own pit toilet; 1 for shared pit toilet or other types of toilet; 0 for no toilet facility
Cooking fuel used: 2 for liquid petroleum gas, electricity or bio-gas; 1 for kerosene, wood, crop residue, dung cakes, coal or charcoal; 0 for other types of cooking fuel, for example, straw, shrubs or grass
Access to drinking water facility: 4 for own piped water, hand-pump or covered well; 3 for own open well; 2 for public or shared piped water, hand-pump or covered well; 1 for public or shared open well; 0 for other sources of drinking water, for example, surface water, tanker/truck or rainwater
Access to electricity: 3 for electricity; 0 for no electricity
Ownership of household assets: 4 for car or truck; 3 each for motorcycle or scooter, refrigerator, computer/laptop, telephone (landline or mobile), colour television; 2 each for bicycle, electric fan, radio or transistor, black and white television, sewing machine, water pump, animal-drawn cart; 1 for watch or clock; 0 for each of the above items that the household does not possess.

Index scores, so constructed, ranged from 0 to 54. Households were then ranked according to the index score. This ranked sample was divided into quintiles—i.e., five groups, each containing an equal number of households—with the first quintile representing households of the lowest (poorest) wealth status and the fifth quintile representing households with the highest (wealthiest) status. In the Youth Study, the wealth quintiles were developed at the state level on the basis of the weighted sample for the whole state.

Findings are presented in Table 2.11. As far as ownership of household assets was concerned, the items most likely to be owned were a watch or clock (84%), an electric fan (56%) and a bicycle (43%). Other items owned by one-fifth or more of all households included a radio (22%), a colour television set (22%), a telephone (33%), a motorcycle/scooter (22%) or a sewing machine (28%). Wide rural-urban differences were observed, with rural households far less likely than urban households to report ownership of most items. For example, while 93% of urban households owned an electric fan, just 45% of rural households did; and while 57% of urban households owned a colour television set, just 12% of rural households did. As many as one-tenth of all households (11%) and slightly fewer of those containing youth eligible for interview (7%) did not own a single item; again, this proportion was considerably higher among rural than urban households (in rural areas, 14% and 9% of all households and those containing youth eligible for interview, respectively, did not own a single item; compared to 1% of both groups in urban areas).

The distribution of households by wealth quintiles shows that half of the urban households were in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile; in contrast, only one-tenth (11%) of rural households were in this quintile. Likewise, one-quarter of rural households were in the poorest (first) quintile of the index compared to only 3% of urban households. In urban areas, the distribution of households by wealth quintiles was similar across all households and those that contained youth eligible for interview. In rural areas, however, households that contained youth eligible for interview were somewhat more likely to fall in the third to fifth quintiles, compared to all households surveyed (59% and 51%, respectively).

2.10 Profile of surveyed youth: Background characteristics

A total of 10,002 youth were interviewed. Table 2.12 presents the socio-demographic characteristics of surveyed youth. Age profiles suggest that a larger proportion of young men were concentrated in the 15–19 than in the

Table 2.11: Household assets and wealth status

Percentage of all surveyed households and households containing youth eligible for interview owning selected household assets and percent distribution of households by wealth quintile, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Housing characteristics (%)	Combined		Urban		Rural	
	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth	All households	Households with youth
Assets owned						
Watch/clock	84.2	89.5	96.7	98.0	80.5	87.0
Electric fan	56.2	61.5	93.1	95.2	45.3	51.6
Bicycle	43.2	50.7	58.3	65.4	38.7	46.3
Radio and/or transistor	21.8	25.7	32.3	34.5	18.7	23.1
Colour television	22.1	24.8	57.3	59.2	11.7	14.6
B/W television	15.2	18.9	21.4	24.4	13.4	17.3
Telephone (landline/mobile)	32.5	37.4	61.9	65.4	23.8	29.2
Refrigerator	14.7	16.1	44.2	45.4	6.0	7.5
Motorcycle/scooter	21.8	25.2	44.3	45.9	15.2	19.1
Sewing machine	27.8	33.1	54.6	59.8	19.9	25.2
Animal-drawn cart	5.9	7.2	0.9	1.1	7.4	9.0
Water pump	9.2	10.5	10.0	9.5	9.0	10.7
Personal computer/laptop	1.8	1.7	7.1	6.7	0.2	0.3
Car/truck	2.7	2.7	7.8	6.3	1.2	1.6
Tractor	4.2	5.1	1.0	0.9	5.1	6.3
Thresher	1.2	1.7	0.2	0.2	1.5	2.1
None of the above	11.3	6.9	1.4	0.7	14.2	8.7
Wealth quintile						
First	20.0	14.8	2.9	1.8	25.0	18.6
Second	20.0	18.5	5.1	3.8	24.4	22.8
Third	20.0	20.9	14.0	12.6	21.8	23.3
Fourth	20.0	22.6	28.0	29.0	17.6	20.7
Fifth	20.0	23.2	50.0	52.6	11.2	14.5
Number of households	**29,774**	**12,227**	**10,047**	**4,129**	**19,727**	**8,098**

Note: All Ns are unweighted.

20–24 age group (56% compared to 44%); women, in contrast, were about equally divided (49% and 51% respectively in the age groups 15–19 and 20–24). Moreover, the unmarried were clearly younger than the married; while 70% of married young women were aged 20–24, only 15% of unmarried women fell into these ages. Gender differences were also wide. Among married young women, almost one-third (30%) were between 15 and 19 years of age and 70% were aged 20–24; in contrast, few married young men were between the ages of 15 and 19 (11% of all respondents aged 15–29 and 20% of those aged 15–24). Among the unmarried, gender differences were narrower, but young women were still more likely to be concentrated in the 15–19 age group than young men (86% and 73%, respectively). Rural-urban differences were also apparent, with rural respondents, by and large, more likely to be in the younger age group than urban respondents; gender differences remained pronounced, however, in both rural and urban areas.

The distribution of youth by religion was fairly similar to that observed in the household population: 86–92% of youth were Hindu, 7–11% were Muslim and 2–3% belonged to other religions. Differences by marital status were narrow. Rural-urban differences were evident: youth in rural areas were more likely than their urban counterparts to be Hindu (96% versus 80% among young men, 90% versus 75% among young women) and conversely, less likely to be Muslim (3% versus 18% among young men; 7% versus 22% among young women).

Table 2.12: Background characteristics of surveyed youth

Percent distribution of surveyed youth by selected background characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics	Men (M)[4] 15–24		Women (W)[4] 15–24		Married men (MM)[4] 15–29		Married women (MW)[4] 15–24		Unmarried men (UM)[4] 15–24		Unmarried women (UW)[4] 15–24	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Combined												
Age (years)												
15–19	56.1	1,675	49.1	3,549	10.5	170	29.7	695	73.4	1,505	85.5	2,854
20–24	43.9	1,299	50.9	2,438	36.2	675	70.3	1,908	26.6	624	14.5	530
25–29	NA	NA	NA	NA	53.3	1,041	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Religion												
Hindu	91.5	2,650	86.0	4,992	93.2	1,710	88.0	2,190	90.5	1,880	83.8	2,802
Muslim	6.9	273	11.1	803	5.8	155	10.1	375	7.5	204	11.3	428
Christian	0.0	1	0.0	3	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.1	2
Other[1]	1.5	50	2.9	189	1.0	21	1.8	37	2.0	44	4.8	152
Caste												
SC	21.7	621	20.0	1,066	22.2	401	21.8	502	21.4	434	17.6	564
ST	12.3	309	9.5	509	16.0	263	10.5	243	10.1	180	8.5	266
OBC	48.6	1,411	49.2	2,911	49.3	930	51.4	1,383	47.3	973	44.8	1,528
General[2]	17.2	630	21.2	1,499	12.4	290	16.1	473	21.1	541	29.1	1,026
No caste/do not know	0.1	3	0.1	2	0.1	2	0.1	2	0.0	1	0.0	0
Educational level (years)												
None[3]	10.2	275	38.4	1,729	17.2	299	51.5	1,197	7.8	154	16.8	532
1–7	23.3	658	26.1	1,537	27.6	502	26.3	677	20.6	416	26.4	860
8–11	48.8	1,454	25.4	1,870	35.8	677	16.9	517	53.4	1,120	39.7	1,353
12 and above	17.7	587	10.1	851	19.4	408	5.3	212	18.1	439	17.1	639
Worked in last 12 months												
Yes	61.3	1,764	49.5	2,488	93.3	1,774	58.3	1,306	48.0	1,017	36.8	1,182
No	38.7	1,209	50.5	3,497	6.6	111	41.6	1,295	52.0	1,112	63.2	2,202
Wealth quintile												
First	10.6	255	15.5	708	13.3	212	18.9	377	9.9	164	11.1	331
Second	16.3	397	19.2	939	18.3	295	22.4	473	15.2	259	15.1	466
Third	20.1	528	20.1	1,175	22.8	390	20.7	538	18.2	338	19.7	637
Fourth	25.3	778	22.4	1,451	22.7	447	21.2	633	25.6	558	23.5	818
Fifth	27.7	1,016	22.8	1,714	23.0	542	16.7	582	31.1	810	30.7	1,132
Total	**100.0**	**2,974**	**100.0**	**5,987**	**100.0**	**1,886**	**100.0**	**2,603**	**100.0**	**2,129**	**100.0**	**3,384**
Urban												
Age (years)												
15–19	51.0	634	49.0	1,289	4.0	25	20.1	210	61.6	609	75.0	1,079
20–24	49.0	593	51.0	1,185	34.4	215	79.9	828	38.4	378	25.0	357
25–29	NA	NA	NA	NA	61.6	391	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Religion												
Hindu	79.6	980	74.8	1,851	78.7	499	73.1	760	80.6	798	76.3	1,091
Muslim	18.2	219	22.2	544	19.8	123	25.3	260	16.9	164	19.5	284
Christian	0.1	1	0.1	3	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	2
Other[1]	2.1	27	2.9	76	1.4	9	1.6	17	2.3	24	4.0	59
Caste												
SC	17.3	216	13.5	326	17.2	111	15.2	155	16.6	165	12.2	171
ST	2.8	35	3.8	96	2.3	15	3.7	40	2.8	28	3.9	56
OBC	44.8	540	50.9	1,242	52.6	328	56.8	588	41.3	403	45.4	654
General[2]	35.1	436	31.8	810	27.9	177	24.3	255	39.4	391	38.5	555
No caste/do not know	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0

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Table 2.12: (Cont'd)

Background characteristics	Men (M)[4] 15–24		Women (W)[4] 15–24		Married men (MM)[4] 15–29		Married women (MW)[4] 15–24		Unmarried men (UM)[4] 15–24		Unmarried women (UW)[4] 15–24	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Urban												
Educational level (years)												
None[3]	6.8	83	18.5	430	9.7	62	29.7	308	5.6	56	8.5	122
1–7	18.2	225	22.1	531	22.3	141	27.1	279	15.6	157	17.5	252
8–11	47.4	581	35.2	887	35.8	228	27.8	287	49.9	489	41.7	600
12 and above	27.5	338	24.3	626	32.1	200	15.4	164	28.8	285	32.3	462
Worked in last 12 months												
Yes	57.1	695	23.9	585	96.6	610	25.3	260	48.3	476	22.7	325
No	42.9	532	76.1	1,888	3.4	21	74.7	777	51.7	511	77.3	1,111
Wealth quintile												
First	1.2	15	2.0	49	1.7	12	3.3	34	0.8	8	1.1	15
Second	2.6	33	5.2	123	3.2	21	6.3	66	2.5	25	4.0	57
Third	8.8	107	15.6	383	11.2	72	18.7	199	7.8	76	12.8	184
Fourth	29.1	357	30.3	737	28.5	181	32.9	334	28.1	277	28.0	403
Fifth	58.3	715	46.9	1,182	55.3	345	38.8	405	60.8	601	54.1	777
Total	**100.0**	**1,227**	**100.0**	**2,474**	**100.0**	**631**	**100.0**	**1,038**	**100.0**	**987**	**100.0**	**1,436**
Rural												
Age (years)												
15–19	57.9	1,041	49.1	2,260	12.0	145	31.6	485	78.4	896	90.9	1,775
20–24	42.1	706	50.9	1,253	36.7	460	68.4	1,080	21.6	246	9.1	173
25–29	NA	NA	NA	NA	51.4	650	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Religion												
Hindu	95.7	1,670	90.0	3,141	96.5	1,211	90.9	1,430	94.7	1,082	87.7	1,711
Muslim	3.0	54	7.2	259	2.6	32	7.2	115	3.5	40	7.2	144
Christian	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Other[1]	1.3	23	2.9	113	0.9	12	1.9	20	1.8	20	5.1	93
Caste												
SC	23.2	405	22.3	740	23.4	290	23.2	347	23.4	269	20.3	393
ST	15.6	274	11.6	413	19.1	248	11.9	203	13.2	152	10.9	210
OBC	50.0	871	48.6	1,669	48.5	602	50.4	795	50.0	570	44.5	874
General[2]	11.0	194	17.4	689	8.8	113	14.5	218	13.3	150	24.3	471
No caste/do not know	0.2	3	0.1	2	0.1	2	0.1	2	0.1	1	0.0	0
Educational level (years)												
None[3]	11.3	192	45.5	1,299	18.9	237	55.9	889	8.7	98	21.0	410
1–7	25.0	433	27.5	1,006	28.8	361	26.1	398	22.8	259	30.9	608
8–11	49.3	873	21.9	983	35.8	449	14.8	230	54.9	631	38.7	753
12 and above	14.3	249	5.1	225	16.5	208	3.3	48	13.6	154	9.3	177
Worked in last 12 months												
Yes	62.7	1,069	58.6	1,903	92.6	1,164	64.8	1,046	47.8	541	43.9	857
No	37.2	677	41.4	1,609	7.4	90	35.2	518	52.2	601	56.1	1,091
Wealth quintile												
First	13.8	240	20.3	659	15.9	200	22.0	343	13.8	156	16.2	316
Second	21.0	364	24.1	816	21.8	274	25.6	407	20.7	234	20.8	409
Third	24.1	421	21.8	792	25.4	318	21.1	339	22.6	262	23.2	453
Fourth	24.1	421	19.6	714	21.3	266	18.9	299	24.5	281	21.1	415
Fifth	17.1	301	14.3	532	15.6	197	12.4	177	18.3	209	18.7	355
Total	**100.0**	**1,747**	**100.0**	**3,513**	**100.0**	**1,255**	**100.0**	**1,565**	**100.0**	**1,142**	**100.0**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes Buddhist/Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [2]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [3]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling. [4]These abbreviations have been used in subsequent tables in this report.

Caste-wise distributions were generally similar among young men and women, with about half (49%) falling into other backward castes, 20–22% into scheduled castes, 10–12% into scheduled tribes and 17–21% into general castes. Differences by marital status show that more unmarried than married youth belonged to general castes (21% versus 12% among young men; and 29% versus 16% among young women); other differences were mild. Rural-urban differences were also evident; urban youth were more likely than rural youth to belong to general castes (35% versus 11% among young men; and 32% versus 17% among young women) and conversely, less likely to belong to scheduled tribes (3% versus 16% among young men; and 4% versus 12% among young women) or scheduled castes (17% versus 23% among young men; and 14% versus 22% among young women).

Educational distributions suggest that youth were better educated than the population at large. Even so, levels of educational attainment were low. In total, 10% of young men and 38% of young women had no formal education (compared to 27% and 56%, respectively, of the general population described in Table 2.6) and just 18% and 10%, respectively, had 12 or more years of education (compared to 12% and 5%, respectively, of the general population). As seen above, gender differences were wide, with young women far more likely than young men to be concentrated among the uneducated or poorly educated. Differences were also evident by marital status and rural-urban residence. Among married youth, for example, as many as 17% of young men and 52% of young women had no formal education, and just 19% and 5%, respectively had attained 12 or more years of education. The unmarried were typically better educated than the married: 8% of young men and 17% of young women had no formal education, and 18% and 17%, respectively had 12 or more years of education. Urban youth were generally better educated than rural youth: for example, 7% of young men and 19% of young women in urban areas had no formal education compared to 11% and 46% of rural youth, respectively. Similarly, 28% and 24%, respectively, of urban young men and women had completed 12 or more years of education compared to 14% and 5% of rural youth, respectively.

Gender differences were evident with regard to work status: 61% of young men compared to 50% of young women had ever worked in paid or unpaid activities in the 12 months preceding the interview. Married youth were typically more likely to be engaged in work activities than the unmarried: while 93% of married young men had worked in the year preceding the interview, 48% of unmarried young men had done so, and among young women, correspondingly, 58% and 37%. Evidence also showed that rural youth, especially young women, were more likely to be engaged in work activities than were urban youth: while 63% and 57% of rural and urban young men, respectively, reported working in the year preceding the interview, 59% and 24%, respectively, of young women reported thus. These findings suggest, moreover, that gender differences were clearly wider in urban than in rural areas.

Household economic status distributions, as measured by wealth quintiles, were generally similar for young men and women. Young men were, however, somewhat less likely than young women to belong to households in the poorer quintiles, and somewhat more likely than young women to belong to households in the wealthier quintiles. For example, 11% of young men compared to 16% of young women fell into households in the poorest (first) quintile; conversely, 28% of young men compared to 23% of young women fell into households in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile. The married, especially young women, were generally more likely to be concentrated in households in the poorer quintiles than were the unmarried. For example, 13% and 19% of married young men and women fell into households in the poorest (first) quintile, compared to 10% and 11%, respectively, of the unmarried; conversely, 23% and 17% of married young men and women, respectively fell into households in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile, compared to 31% of both unmarried young men and women. Rural-urban differences were wide, with rural youth more likely than their urban counterparts to belong to households in the poorer quintiles; conversely, more urban than rural youth belonged to households in the wealthiest quintile.

2.11 Profile of surveyed youth: Parental characteristics

The Youth Study inquired about the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents' parents, including their survival status, education and occupation. Findings, presented in Table 2.13, suggest that among 85–88% of young men and women, both parents were surviving. Married youth were less likely than the unmarried to report that both parents were alive: 78–82% compared to 89–91% among the unmarried, clearly a function of the fact that married youth were typically older than unmarried youth. Rural-urban differences were negligible. For those with just one parent surviving, this parent was more likely to be the mother (9–10%) than the father (2–3%). Finally, 1–2% reported that neither parent was alive.

Table 2.13: Parental characteristics of surveyed youth

Percent distribution of surveyed youth by selected parental characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Parental characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Survival status						
Both parents dead	1.2	1.5	3.6	2.2	0.9	0.4
Only father alive	1.9	3.4	3.1	4.1	2.0	2.2
Only mother alive	9.2	10.0	15.3	12.0	7.8	6.3
Both parents alive	87.7	85.1	78.0	81.7	89.3	91.1
Educational attainment level						
Median years of schooling of father	5.0	5.0	NC	NC	5.0	8.0
Median years of schooling of mother	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Current/last occupational status of father						
Cultivator	47.5	36.7	56.4	44.5	42.9	25.8
Agricultural labourer	3.4	7.8	4.6	8.5	3.1	7.1
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	7.1	9.9	5.7	6.9	8.6	14.6
Business	6.9	7.1	4.4	4.5	8.5	10.8
Skilled manual/machinery	13.0	18.0	9.6	15.9	14.4	20.5
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	21.3	18.9	18.4	18.1	21.7	19.7
Other	0.2	0.9	0.3	0.8	0.3	0.9
Never worked	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4
Current/last occupational status of mother						
Cultivator	29.2	38.6	33.1	47.2	25.6	26.5
Agricultural labourer	2.0	6.9	2.5	7.7	1.7	6.3
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	1.1	1.4	0.6	0.6	1.2	2.7
Business	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.7
Skilled manual/machinery	1.4	5.1	1.0	3.8	1.7	6.8
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	7.3	7.0	7.6	6.8	6.9	7.3
Other	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Housewife/never worked	58.5	40.1	54.9	33.1	62.3	49.5
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Survival status						
Both parents dead	0.9	1.1	3.2	2.1	0.6	0.4
Only father alive	1.7	3.1	2.9	4.2	1.6	2.0
Only mother alive	9.8	8.6	17.5	11.2	8.3	6.2
Both parents alive	87.6	87.2	76.5	82.5	89.5	91.3
Educational attainment level						
Median years of schooling of father	8.0	8.0	5.0	8.0	8.2	10.0
Median years of schooling of mother	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	4.0
Current/last occupational status of father						
Cultivator	8.8	11.4	12.7	18.9	8.1	4.6
Agricultural labourer	0.8	2.6	1.7	3.0	0.6	2.3
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	16.5	17.1	14.1	13.8	17.4	20.2

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Table 2.13: (Cont'd)

Parental characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Business	18.0	15.6	16.4	11.2	19.8	19.6
Skilled manual/machinery	25.1	28.0	24.5	27.8	25.7	28.0
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	29.7	23.5	28.8	23.6	26.9	23.5
Other	0.5	1.3	0.6	1.2	0.6	1.5
Never worked	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.3
Current/last occupational status of mother						
Cultivator	3.5	11.0	5.7	17.8	2.8	5.0
Agricultural labourer	0.5	1.6	0.6	2.1	0.3	1.1
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	2.7	3.1	1.1	1.9	3.0	4.2
Business	0.9	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1
Skilled manual/machinery	3.0	10.3	2.6	9.1	3.1	11.4
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	7.0	7.3	6.9	8.2	6.1	6.5
Other	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.2	0.2
Housewife/never worked	82.3	65.4	82.5	59.5	83.6	70.7
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Survival status						
Both parents dead	1.4	1.6	3.7	2.2	1.0	0.4
Only father alive	1.9	3.5	3.2	4.0	2.1	2.3
Only mother alive	9.0	10.5	14.8	12.2	7.7	6.3
Both parents alive	87.7	84.4	78.3	81.5	89.3	91.0
Educational attainment level						
Median years of schooling of father	NC	NC	NC	NC	3.0	5.0
Median years of schooling of mother	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Current/last occupational status of father						
Cultivator	60.9	45.7	66.3	49.6	57.9	36.6
Agricultural labourer	4.3	9.6	5.2	9.6	4.2	9.5
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	3.9	7.4	3.8	5.6	4.8	11.7
Business	3.2	4.1	1.7	3.1	3.7	6.3
Skilled manual/machinery	8.8	14.5	6.3	13.6	9.5	16.7
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	18.4	17.3	16.0	17.0	19.4	17.8
Other	0.2	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.2	0.7
Never worked	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Current/last occupational status of mother						
Cultivator	38.1	48.4	39.3	53.0	35.3	37.5
Agricultural labourer	2.5	8.8	3.0	8.8	2.4	9.0
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.5	1.9
Business	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.6
Skilled manual/machinery	0.8	3.3	0.7	2.8	1.1	4.4
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	7.5	6.9	7.8	6.5	7.3	7.7
Other	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Housewife/never worked	50.3	31.1	48.7	27.9	53.1	38.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. NC: Not calculated, as more than 50% had no formal education.

Parents' educational attainment was considerably lower than that of youth respondents. For example, the median number of years of education completed by fathers of young men and women was 5 years. Fathers of unmarried respondents were generally better educated than fathers of married respondents; while fathers of the unmarried typically had 5–8 years of schooling, fathers of over half of the married had never been to school. Indeed, fathers of unmarried young women had an average of three more years of education than those of unmarried young men. Rural-urban differences were wide with regard to paternal education: more than half of rural fathers had never been to school, while urban fathers had completed an average of 8 years of schooling. Maternal education patterns were identical in rural and urban settings: over half of the mothers, irrespective of rural-urban residence, had never been to school. The only exception was mothers of unmarried young women in urban areas who typically had 4 years of education. Differences in educational attainment of fathers (and mothers in urban areas) by marital status of youth may be attributed to the fact that the better educated may be more likely than the poorly educated to delay the marriages of their children.

The Youth Study also inquired about the current or last main occupation of respondents' parents. Distributions of occupational status suggest that fathers of almost half (48%) of young men and two-fifths of young women (37%) were working on their own farms, compared to mothers of 29% and 39%, respectively, of young men and women. In contrast, far fewer were agricultural labourers: 2–3% and 7–8% of fathers and mothers of young men and women, respectively. Just 13–18% of fathers and hardly any (1–5%) mothers were engaged in skilled manual occupations, and about one-fifth (19–21%) of fathers and 7% of mothers were unskilled non-agricultural labourers. About one-tenth of fathers (7–10%) and 1% of mothers were in administrative, executive, managerial or clerical occupations, and 7% of fathers and less than 1% of mothers were doing their own business. Finally, mothers of 59% and 40% of young men and women, respectively, were housewives; just a handful of fathers (less than 1%) had never worked. Differences by marital status were evident: parents of married youth were considerably more likely to have been engaged in agricultural activities. Additionally, fathers of married young women were somewhat less likely to have been engaged in skilled manual or administrative, executive, managerial or clerical occupations, or their own business than were fathers of unmarried young women. Similarly, mothers of married youth were less likely than mothers of unmarried youth to be housewives. Rural-urban differences were also evident. While rural parents were largely cultivators and agricultural labourers, urban parents, especially fathers, were more likely to be concentrated in administrative, executive, managerial or clerical occupations, business, skilled manual occupations and unskilled non-agricultural activities, and in the case of mothers, in housework. The finding that considerably larger percentages of parents of married compared to unmarried young women in urban settings were in agricultural occupations may be attributed to in-migration into urban areas by married young women.

Chapter 3

Education

Young people in India are spending more of their adolescent years acquiring an education than ever before. Educational attainment levels have increased, the percentage that has never been to school has declined and gender differences in educational attainment levels have diminished (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2001g). This does not mean, however, that schooling is universal or that gender differences are no longer a concern. Attainment of primary school education is still far from universal, especially among girls; differences by caste, religion, region and poverty levels persist; and the quality of education varies widely among different sub-groups of youth. This chapter examines the schooling experiences of youth in terms of educational attainment, quality of schools and colleges attended, and socio-economic differences in the type and quality of education experienced.

3.1 Educational attainment

The Youth Study obtained information on whether the respondent had ever been to school and, if so, the number of years of schooling successfully completed. Current schooling status was also assessed, and a Life Event Calendar inquired about the schooling status of all respondents from the age of 12. Findings are presented in Table 3.1.

Findings highlight that schooling was far from universal among young people, particularly young women, in Rajasthan: 10% of young men and 38% of young women had never been to school. Differences by marital status were evident: 8% of unmarried young men compared to 17% of married young men had no formal education. The corresponding difference among young women was much wider: 17% of unmarried young women compared to 52% of married young women had never been to school. As expected, a larger percentage of rural than urban youth had never attended school; indeed, over half of married young women and over one-fifth of the unmarried in rural settings had never been to school.

Educational attainment levels also reconfirm differences by sex, marital status and rural-urban residence of young people. Young men, on average, had 4 more years of schooling than young women (9 versus 5). Among young men, the unmarried had 1 more year of schooling than the married (9 versus 8); in contrast among young women, while the unmarried had completed 8 years of schooling, the majority of the married had never been to school. Rural-urban differences suggest that urban young men typically had 1 more year of schooling than their rural counterparts (9 versus 8); the corresponding difference among young women was 5 years (8 versus 3). Similar differences were evident in terms of the proportion who had completed high school (Class 10). Young men were more than twice as likely as young women to have completed high school (38% versus 18%). Married youth were considerably less likely than the unmarried to have completed high school (32% and 42%, respectively, among young men; 10% and 31%, respectively, among young women). We note that disparities by marital status may be wider than what is reflected here because the unmarried were younger and more likely to be pursuing their education at the time of interview. Rural youth were considerably less likely than urban youth to have completed high school (34% and 50%, respectively, among young men; 11% and 39% respectively, among young women). Rural-urban differences were widest among unmarried young women; just 20% of unmarried young women in rural areas compared to 52% of their counterparts in urban areas had completed high school.

At the time of interview, 42% of young men compared to 18% of young women were in school or college. These gender differences were strongly influenced by marital status differences of youth. Indeed, gender differences narrowed

when the married and the unmarried were considered separately: 56% and 44% of unmarried young men and women were currently studying, compared to 8% and 3% of married young men and women, respectively. Rural-urban differences, moreover, were negligible among young men but wide among young women: while 31% of women in urban areas were in school at the time of interview, just 13% of rural women were, and differences were wide even among the unmarried (56% and 38%, respectively).

Table 3.1: Educational attainment and current educational status

Percent distribution of youth by years of schooling successfully completed, median years of schooling and percentage currently in school, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Schooling status (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Completed years of schooling						
None[1]	10.2	38.4	17.2	51.5	7.8	16.8
1–4	3.8	7.5	6.0	8.4	3.5	6.4
5–7	19.5	18.6	21.6	17.9	17.1	20.0
8–9	28.9	17.3	23.5	12.4	30.0	26.1
10–11	19.9	8.0	12.3	4.5	23.4	13.6
12 and above	17.7	10.1	19.4	5.3	18.1	17.1
Median years of schooling	9.0	5.0	8.0	NC	9.0	8.0
Currently in school/college	42.1	18.1	8.0	3.3	56.1	43.8
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Completed years of schooling						
None[1]	6.8	18.5	9.7	29.6	5.6	8.5
1–4	4.0	4.8	5.2	6.8	3.3	3.1
5–7	14.2	17.2	17.2	20.3	12.5	14.4
8–9	25.1	20.5	21.8	18.4	25.6	22.4
10–11	22.4	14.7	14.0	9.6	24.2	19.3
12 and above	27.5	24.3	32.1	15.4	28.8	32.3
Median years of schooling	9.0	8.0	9.0	6.0	10.0	10.0
Currently in school/college	46.0	31.4	4.6	4.7	55.3	55.5
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Completed years of schooling						
None[1]	11.3	45.5	18.9	55.9	8.7	21.0
1–4	3.8	8.5	6.2	8.7	3.6	8.1
5–7	21.3	19.0	22.6	17.4	19.2	22.8
8–9	30.2	16.2	23.9	11.2	31.9	28.0
10–11	19.1	5.7	11.9	3.5	23.1	10.7
12 and above	14.4	5.1	16.5	3.3	13.6	9.3
Median years of schooling	8.0	3.0	8.0	NC	9.0	7.0
Currently in school/college	40.7	13.3	8.8	3.0	56.5	37.8
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling. NC: Median cannot be calculated.

3.2 Differentials in educational attainment

Differentials in educational levels of young men and women, measured with respect to completed years of schooling, are presented in Tables 3.2 and 3.3, respectively. Findings suggest a positive association between age and years of education completed among young men, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence. In contrast, among young women, the association between age and years of education completed was mild and less consistent for all women and married women, but suggested a clear positive association among unmarried young women, irrespective of rural-urban residence. We acknowledge that part of this effect may be attributed to the fact that those in the younger ages were pursuing their education at the time of interview.

Differences by religion, shown in Tables 3.2 and 3.3, indicate that Muslims tended to be more disadvantaged than Hindus and that youth belonging to other religions were better educated than both Hindu and Muslim youth. For example, 27% of Muslim young men had completed at least 10 years of education, compared to 38% of Hindu young men and 67% of young men from other religions. Among young women, similarly, while 9% of Muslims had completed at least 10 years of education, 18% of Hindus and 58% of those from other religions had done so. Similar patterns were observed by and large among married and unmarried youth and those from urban and rural settings.

Table 3.2: Educational attainment of young men by selected background characteristics

Percent distribution of young men by educational level, according to selected background characteristics and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	M, 15–24				MM, 15–29				UM, 15–24			
	Completed years of schooling											
	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+
Combined												
Age (years)												
15–19	7.7	23.3	34.5	34.5	8.6	30.8	36.4	24.2	7.6	22.2	34.3	36.0
20–24	13.3	23.3	21.7	41.7	16.7	28.0	24.2	31.2	8.5	16.4	18.2	56.9
25–29	NA	NA	NA	NA	19.1	26.7	20.6	33.6	NA	NA	NA	NA
Religion												
Hindu	10.2	22.8	29.1	38.0	17.2	27.5	23.6	31.6	7.8	19.9	30.3	42.1
Muslim	12.0	33.0	28.2	26.8	18.3	31.2	20.2	30.3	9.4	32.5	29.4	28.8
Other[2]	2.2	8.7	21.7	67.4	*	*	*	*	(2.4)	(9.5)	(21.4)	(66.7)
Caste												
SC	14.5	33.2	25.5	26.8	20.5	33.6	23.8	22.1	13.0	31.0	25.5	30.5
ST	25.5	26.6	23.7	24.2	37.7	27.8	16.2	18.2	20.0	28.8	25.1	26.0
OBC	6.8	20.7	32.0	40.5	11.5	26.6	25.7	36.2	5.7	17.0	33.2	44.2
General[3]	3.3	15.5	28.0	53.2	6.9	20.3	23.7	49.1	1.8	14.2	29.8	54.2
Wealth quintile												
First	30.0	35.6	23.3	11.0	40.0	34.8	15.2	10.0	25.6	39.8	24.6	10.0
Second	17.8	33.7	29.2	19.2	29.0	40.0	19.7	11.3	13.6	30.9	31.2	24.4
Third	10.2	30.9	29.9	29.0	17.0	34.7	25.6	22.6	8.8	26.4	33.6	31.3
Fourth	5.6	20.5	32.9	40.9	8.9	22.7	31.3	37.1	4.2	18.2	32.8	44.8
Fifth	2.0	9.6	26.5	61.9	2.8	11.3	21.8	64.1	1.5	8.3	26.7	63.5
Total	**10.2**	**23.3**	**28.9**	**37.6**	**17.2**	**27.6**	**23.5**	**31.7**	**7.8**	**20.6**	**30.0**	**41.6**

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Table 3.2: (Cont'd)

Background characteristics (%)	M, 15–24				MM, 15–29				UM, 15–24			
	Completed years of schooling											
	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+
Urban												
Age (years)												
15–19	5.6	18.3	30.7	45.4	(7.1)	(28.6)	(28.6)	(35.7)	5.6	17.8	30.7	45.9
20–24	7.9	18.2	19.3	54.6	11.8	27.7	21.8	38.7	5.7	12.2	17.6	64.5
25–29	NA	NA	NA	NA	8.8	18.6	21.4	51.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
Religion												
Hindu	5.5	15.7	25.5	53.2	7.7	22.3	21.9	48.2	4.5	13.2	26.0	56.4
Muslim	13.5	31.2	24.8	30.5	17.4	24.6	21.7	36.2	12.8	29.4	25.7	32.1
Other[2]	(0.0)	(0.0)	(11.8)	(88.2)	*	*	*	*	(0.0)	(0.0)	(12.5)	(87.5)
Caste												
SC	14.2	31.3	22.4	32.1	16.9	30.5	25.4	27.1	14.0	30.8	21.5	33.6
ST	(13.0)	(21.7)	(30.4)	(34.8)	*	*	*	*	(5.6)	(22.2)	(27.8)	(44.4)
OBC	6.9	19.4	26.3	47.4	8.7	25.1	24.6	41.5	6.1	15.9	28.0	50.0
General[3]	2.6	10.0	24.4	63.1	5.2	11.3	13.4	70.1	2.0	8.7	24.6	64.7
Wealth quintile												
First	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Second	(10.5)	(36.8)	(36.8)	(15.8)	*	*	*	*	(18.8)	(37.5)	(31.3)	(12.5)
Third	20.3	42.0	21.7	15.9	28.2	46.2	20.5	5.1	20.0	38.0	22.0	20.0
Fourth	8.9	27.1	27.6	36.4	14.1	31.3	23.2	31.3	7.2	25.6	28.3	38.9
Fifth	2.4	8.8	24.3	64.4	2.1	11.5	20.8	65.6	2.1	6.9	24.9	66.2
Total	**6.8**	**18.2**	**25.1**	**49.9**	**9.7**	**22.3**	**21.8**	**46.1**	**5.6**	**15.6**	**25.7**	**53.1**
Rural												
Age (years)												
15–19	8.3	24.8	35.6	31.3	8.7	31.0	36.4	23.9	8.2	23.6	35.5	32.6
20–24	15.4	25.4	22.8	36.4	17.7	28.0	24.6	29.6	10.6	19.6	18.7	51.1
25–29	NA	NA	NA	NA	22.0	28.8	20.5	28.7	NA	NA	NA	NA
Religion												
Hindu	11.5	24.8	30.1	33.5	18.9	28.5	24.0	28.5	9.0	22.3	31.8	36.8
Muslim	7.4	36.8	35.3	20.6	(19.5)	(41.5)	(17.1)	(22.0)	(1.9)	(40.4)	(34.6)	(23.1)
Other[2]	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Caste												
SC	14.5	33.7	26.4	25.4	21.1	34.2	23.3	21.4	12.6	30.9	26.9	29.5
ST	26.4	26.9	23.2	23.5	38.1	27.9	15.6	18.4	21.3	29.4	24.9	24.4
OBC	6.8	21.1	33.8	38.3	12.2	26.9	26.1	34.8	5.5	17.5	34.9	42.1
General[3]	4.1	21.2	32.2	42.4	8.1	26.7	31.1	34.1	1.5	20.7	36.4	41.4
Wealth quintile												
First	29.2	35.4	24.0	11.4	39.2	35.1	15.5	10.2	25.2	39.3	25.2	10.2
Second	18.1	33.6	28.9	19.4	29.9	39.5	19.2	11.4	13.3	30.5	31.2	25.0
Third	8.9	29.4	30.9	30.9	15.9	33.8	26.1	24.3	7.1	24.6	35.3	32.9
Fourth	4.3	17.7	35.2	42.8	7.6	20.1	33.4	38.9	2.7	14.8	34.9	47.5
Fifth	1.6	10.5	29.1	58.9	3.3	11.2	22.4	63.1	0.7	10.3	29.3	59.7
Total	**11.3**	**25.0**	**30.2**	**33.4**	**18.9**	**28.8**	**23.9**	**28.4**	**8.7**	**22.8**	**31.9**	**36.6**

*Note: Row totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling. [2]Includes Christian, Buddhist, Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [3]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC.*

Caste differences were evident, with those belonging to general castes considerably more likely than others and those belonging to scheduled castes and tribes considerably less likely than others to have completed 10 or more years of schooling. Educational attainment levels of those belonging to other backward castes fell in between attainment levels of those from general castes and those from scheduled castes and tribes. These patterns were observed among both young men and young women, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence.

Finally, a positive association was observed between the economic status of young people's households, measured in wealth quintiles, and young people's educational attainment levels. For example, among young men, just 11% of those from households in the poorest (first) quintile had completed 10 or more years of schooling, compared to 62% of those from households in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile. Among young women too, the pattern was similar: just 1% of those from the poorest (first) quintile had completed 10 or more years of schooling compared to 52% of those from the wealthiest quintile (fifth). A particularly sharp increase was observed in percentages completing 10 or more years of schooling between the fourth and fifth quintiles, and this sharp increase was observed among both young men and women. Patterns were, by and large, similar for both the unmarried and the married, and those residing in rural and urban areas.

Table 3.3: Educational attainment of young women by selected background characteristics

Percent distribution of young women by educational level, according to selected background characteristics and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	W, 15–24				MW, 15–24				UW, 15–24			
	Completed years of schooling											
	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+
Combined												
Age (years)												
15–19	28.9	30.5	22.7	17.8	47.2	33.2	14.0	5.7	18.4	29.4	28.2	24.0
20–24	47.6	21.8	12.1	18.5	53.4	23.4	11.7	11.5	7.3	8.6	13.9	70.2
Religion												
Hindu	38.4	25.6	17.9	18.0	51.7	26.1	12.7	9.6	15.4	25.6	27.8	31.2
Muslim	45.9	32.1	13.4	8.6	56.2	28.7	10.2	4.9	32.5	37.4	17.1	13.0
Other[2]	9.8	17.9	14.5	57.8	(16.7)	(25.0)	(10.4)	(47.9)	4.9	14.1	17.2	63.8
Caste												
SC	49.4	31.1	13.2	6.3	60.4	28.0	9.2	2.5	25.9	38.6	21.9	13.6
ST	59.2	20.1	13.8	6.8	70.8	16.8	9.1	3.3	35.2	27.6	23.8	13.4
OBC	39.4	26.9	18.0	15.7	51.4	26.7	12.3	9.6	16.2	27.8	29.4	26.6
General[3]	16.2	22.2	21.4	40.2	26.8	29.2	19.1	24.9	6.8	16.5	24.3	52.4
Wealth quintile												
First	70.5	22.1	6.1	1.3	76.7	18.5	3.9	1.0	50.5	33.4	13.6	2.4
Second	58.8	28.1	10.7	2.4	69.6	22.5	7.0	0.9	29.9	43.4	20.5	6.3
Third	40.2	35.9	16.9	7.0	51.4	35.4	9.3	3.9	18.6	36.6	32.1	12.6
Fourth	26.6	29.8	24.8	18.8	37.5	32.2	18.8	11.4	9.2	26.1	34.5	30.2
Fifth	9.6	14.9	23.5	52.0	16.8	21.6	24.8	36.8	2.9	9.1	23.1	64.9
Total	**38.4**	**26.1**	**17.3**	**18.1**	**51.5**	**26.3**	**12.4**	**9.8**	**16.8**	**26.4**	**26.1**	**30.7**

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Table 3.3 (Cont'd)

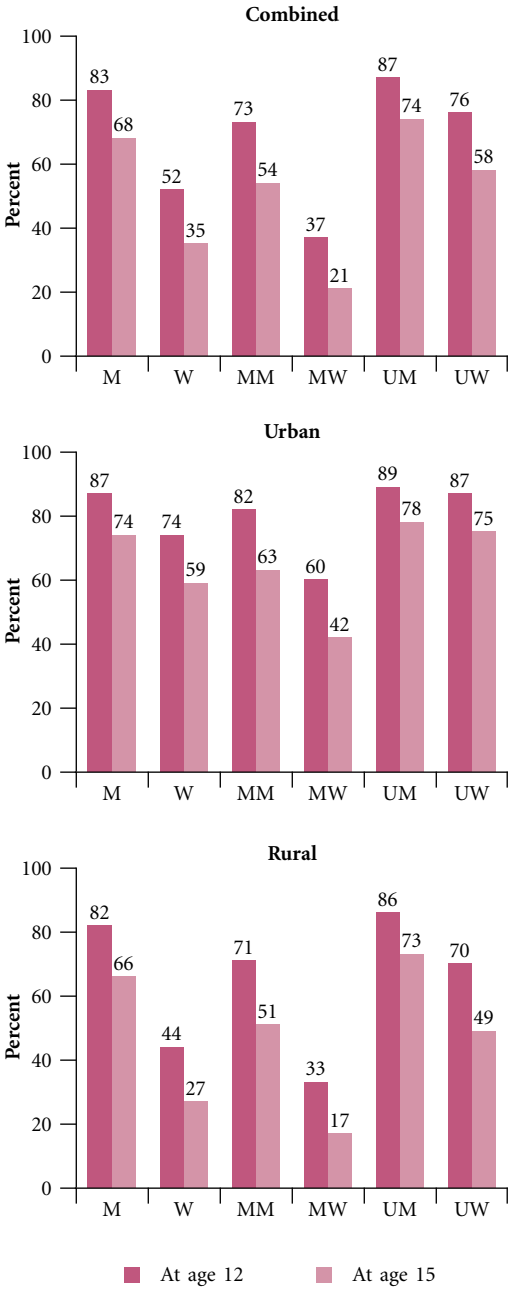
Background characteristics (%)	W, 15–24				MW, 15–24				UW, 15–24			
	Completed years of schooling											
	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+	None[1]	1–7	8–9	10+
Urban												
Age (years)												
15–19	13.4	24.4	25.1	37.1	29.4	36.5	18.8	15.3	9.7	21.5	26.6	42.2
20–24	23.4	19.8	16.1	40.8	29.9	24.6	18.2	27.3	4.6	5.6	9.9	79.9
Religion												
Hindu	15.2	18.7	21.5	44.6	27.2	24.0	19.2	29.5	4.9	14.0	23.4	57.6
Muslim	31.5	35.0	18.6	14.9	38.0	35.2	16.7	10.2	23.3	34.5	21.1	21.1
Other[2]	2.2	10.9	10.9	76.1	*	*	*	*	2.1	2.1	10.4	85.4
Caste												
SC	28.8	31.6	18.4	21.2	42.2	32.8	15.6	9.4	14.4	30.2	21.6	33.8
ST	23.3	30.0	23.3	23.3	(37.5)	(31.3)	(12.5)	(18.8)	10.9	28.3	32.6	28.3
OBC	22.9	24.7	22.3	30.2	33.3	27.2	17.7	21.8	11.4	21.8	27.2	39.6
General[3]	6.4	12.8	18.2	62.5	12.6	22.3	22.3	42.7	2.7	7.3	15.9	74.0
Wealth quintile												
First	(71.9)	(21.9)	(3.1)	(3.1)	(71.4)	(21.4)	(7.1)	(0.0)	*	*	*	*
Second	36.3	38.8	20.0	5.0	48.1	37.0	14.8	0.0	19.6	41.3	28.3	10.9
Third	35.5	37.6	16.3	10.6	47.5	35.0	10.0	7.5	20.0	40.7	24.1	15.2
Fourth	21.4	29.4	25.6	23.7	32.1	32.1	21.4	14.3	10.0	26.2	30.2	33.6
Fifth	6.8	10.2	19.4	63.6	12.7	17.5	21.7	48.2	2.9	5.7	18.0	73.4
Total	**18.5**	**22.0**	**20.5**	**39.0**	**29.7**	**27.1**	**18.5**	**24.8**	**8.5**	**17.5**	**22.4**	**51.6**
Rural												
Age (years)												
15–19	34.4	32.7	21.9	11.0	49.3	32.8	13.4	4.5	22.0	32.7	28.9	16.4
20–24	56.3	22.5	10.7	10.5	58.8	23.1	10.2	7.9	10.7	13.2	19.5	56.6
Religion												
Hindu	45.3	27.6	16.9	10.2	55.5	26.4	11.7	6.4	19.9	30.7	29.8	19.5
Muslim	61.8	29.0	7.6	1.6	69.2	23.7	5.8	1.3	45.0	41.3	11.9	1.9
Other[2]	12.1	21.0	15.3	51.6	*	*	*	*	6.1	19.3	19.3	55.3
Caste												
SC	53.8	31.0	12.1	3.1	62.9	27.2	8.3	1.6	29.4	41.0	22.1	7.5
ST	63.5	18.9	12.7	4.9	72.9	15.9	8.9	2.3	39.8	27.5	22.1	10.7
OBC	45.5	27.8	16.3	10.3	55.5	26.6	11.1	6.8	18.8	30.9	30.5	19.9
General[3]	22.5	28.4	23.4	25.7	31.4	31.4	18.1	19.0	9.9	24.0	31.0	35.0
Wealth quintile												
First	70.4	22.0	6.3	1.3	76.8	18.4	3.8	1.0	49.9	33.9	14.0	2.2
Second	60.5	27.3	10.0	2.2	70.7	21.8	6.7	0.9	30.9	43.6	19.7	5.8
Third	41.4	35.4	17.2	6.0	52.2	35.4	9.1	3.3	18.2	35.5	34.4	11.9
Fourth	29.6	30.1	24.2	16.1	39.4	32.1	18.0	10.5	8.7	26.0	37.4	27.9
Fifth	12.9	20.2	28.3	38.6	19.3	24.2	26.8	29.7	2.9	14.0	30.6	52.5
Total	**45.5**	**27.6**	**16.2**	**10.7**	**55.9**	**26.1**	**11.2**	**6.8**	**21.0**	**30.9**	**28.0**	**20.1**

*Note: Row totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling. [2]Includes Christian, Buddhist, Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [3]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC.*

3.3 School attendance

Figure 3.1 presents schooling status at ages 12 and 15, representing periods before and after puberty was attained for many. Findings reconfirm the limited school attendance among young people in Rajasthan: 83% and 52% of young men and women were in school at age 12 and far fewer—68% and 35%—at age 15. Married youth were far less likely than their counterparts to be in school at ages 12 or 15. Rural-urban differences were also evident: while rural young men were just slightly less likely than their urban counterparts to be in school at ages 12 and 15, rural young women were considerably less likely than their counterparts to be in school at these ages. Findings also underscore the considerable decline in rates of retention in school between ages 12 and 15 and suggest that percentage point declines are just marginally larger among rural than urban youth and among married compared to unmarried young men (but not women).

Figure 3.1: Percentage of youth who were in school at ages 12 and 15, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Figures 3.2a–3.2c show graphically the cumulative percentages of youth (all youth who had completed at least one year of schooling) who had completed each year of education from Class 2 to Class 17, using life table techniques. Findings show substantial declines in school completion from an early stage, particularly among young women. For example, among young women, only 92% had completed Class 4, and completion rates fell below 90% in Class 5. Among young men, in contrast, 98% had completed Class 4, and completion rates fell below 90% in Class 6. Considerable differences in school completion by marital status were evident, particularly among young men. For example, completion rates fell to around 80% (82%) as early as in Class 6 among married young men, compared to by Class 8 among their unmarried counterparts; among young women, completion rates fell to around 80% by Class 5 for the married and by Class 6 for the unmarried.

Declines in school completion became progressively steeper as the level of schooling increased (Figure 3.2a). Completion rates declined by 7 to 10 points per year between Classes 7 and 11 among young men. Young women experienced, in contrast, steep declines between Classes 5 and 6 (16 points) and between Classes 8 and 9 (14 points) followed by declines of 7 points per year between Classes 9 and 11. Findings suggest that many youth discontinued their education at high school level, but that, in addition, many young women discontinued at the primary level itself. Marital status differences were evident. Among married young men, completion rates fell by 11 points between Classes 5 and 6 and then by over 10 points per year between Classes 8 and 11; among the unmarried, a 10 point decline was first observed between Classes 15 and 16. Among young women, patterns were quite different. Among the married, steep declines were observed in completion rates between Classes 5 and 6 (23 points) and Classes 8 and 9 (18 points); among the unmarried, declines were much more moderate, that is, by 10 points. Among unmarried youth, yet another notable decline occurred between

Classes 15 and 16 (47% had completed Class 15 compared to 34% who had completed Class 16), confirming that a considerable proportion of unmarried youth who had completed the last year of college did not continue their education.

With regard to rural and urban patterns of school completion (Figures 3.2b and 3.2c), findings suggest that the rural disadvantage in terms of school completion was relatively mild for young men but substantial for young women. Among young men, hardly any rural-urban difference in completion rates was evident up to Class 7 (0–3 percentage points) but became progressively wider thereafter. For example, 86% of urban young men had completed Class 7 compared to 83% of rural young men; corresponding percentages for Class 10 were 66% and 56%. Among young women, in contrast, rural-urban differences were wide, even in Class 4. For example, among young women, 97% of urban and 89% of rural young women had completed Class 4. These differences widened considerably at higher levels of schooling; for example, 81% and 60% of urban and rural young women, respectively, had completed Class 7, and 56% and 30%, respectively, had completed Class 10.

3.4 Reasons for school non-attendance or discontinuation

The Youth Study inquired about reasons for never going to school from all those who so reported, and reasons for discontinuing school from all those who had not completed Class 12. Responses are provided in Table 3.4a for those who had never gone to school, and have been grouped into five categories: economic reasons (work on the family farm or business, wage earning work, family poverty, i.e., the family could not afford to keep the respondent in school); housework-related reasons (required for care of siblings or housework); attitude or perception-related reasons (unsafe to send children to school, education not considered necessary, respondent's lack of interest); school-related reasons (school located too far away, appropriate transport not available, poor school quality and infrastructure, poor quality of teaching); and health-related reasons (health problems of respondent, illness or death of a family member).

Figure 3.2a: Cumulative percentage of youth who had completed each year of education (Classes 1 to 17), Rajasthan (combined), 2007

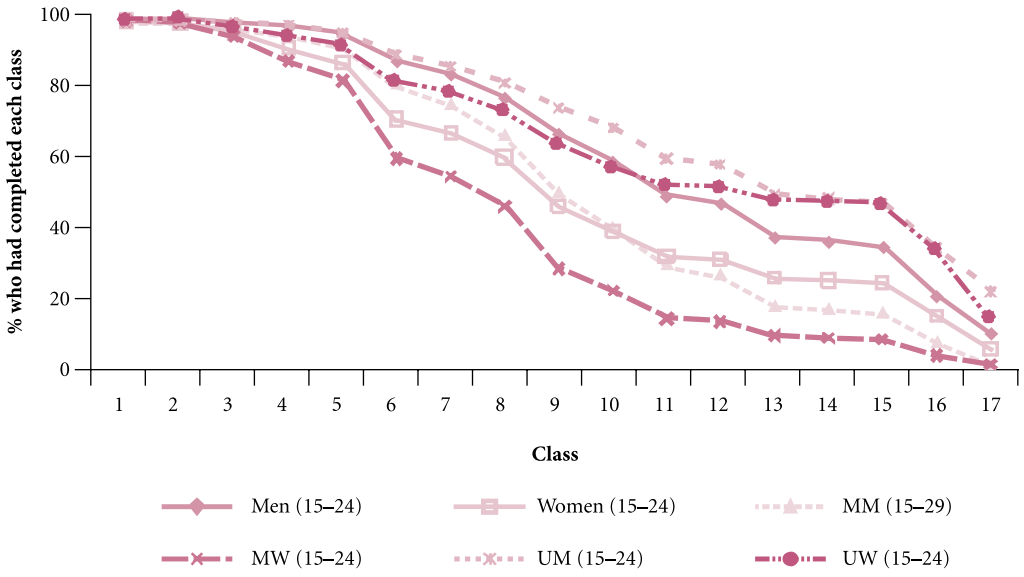


Figure 3.2b: Cumulative percentage of youth who had completed each year of education (Classes 1 to 17), Rajasthan (urban), 2007

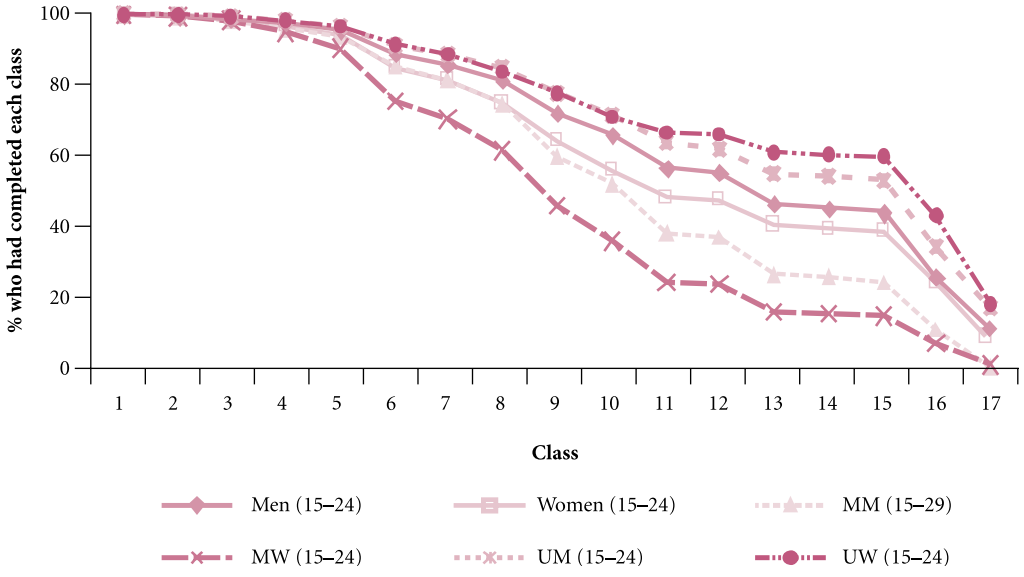
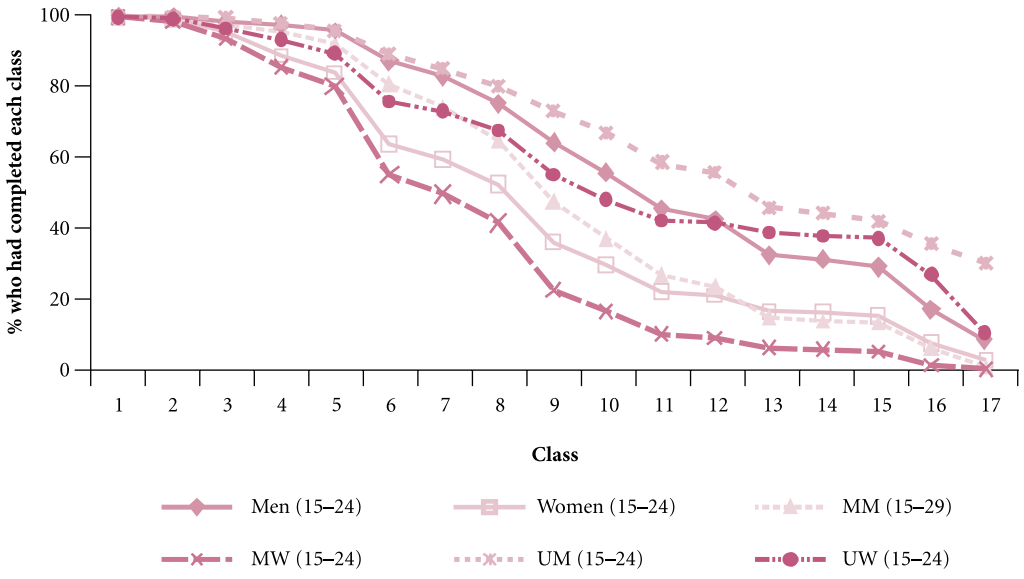


Figure 3.2c: Cumulative percentage of youth who had completed each year of education (Classes 1 to 17), Rajasthan (rural), 2007



Findings suggest that the key reason for never going to school was economic for young men. More than half of the young men (53%) cited an economic reason; specifically, one quarter of young men reported that their families could not afford to send them to school or that they were required to work on the family farm or business, and one in six reported being required for wage earning activities. In contrast, the key reason cited for never going to school by young women was housework responsibilities, cited by 51%. Nevertheless, economic reasons were mentioned by

Table 3.4a: Reasons for never attending school

Percentage of youth who never attended school by reasons for never attending school, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Reasons (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Economic reasons						
Required for work on farm/family business	23.9	29.6	27.6	31.4	25.9	22.1
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	17.0	2.4	13.0	2.2	21.1	3.4
Family could not afford it (cost too much)	25.2	16.1	26.0	15.5	28.3	18.9
At least one economic reason	**53.4**	**43.6**	**54.5**	**44.6**	**60.2**	**39.5**
Housework-related reasons	**31.1**	**50.5**	**33.7**	**51.7**	**30.1**	**45.5**
Parental or youth attitudes and perceptions						
Not safe to send girls/boys to school	0.0	9.2	0.0	9.3	0.0	7.8
Education not considered necessary	4.6	26.1	2.8	26.3	7.2	24.4
Respondent not interested in studies	16.7	14.7	15.8	14.1	15.1	17.0
At least one attitude-/perception-related reason	**21.0**	**44.7**	**18.0**	**44.3**	**22.3**	**44.8**
School-related reasons						
School too far away/transport not available	10.2	16.3	14.2	16.9	8.4	13.8
Poor quality of school facilities, teaching or education	0.3	4.3	0.6	4.2	0.0	5.0
At least one school-related reason	**11.1**	**20.2**	**14.9**	**20.6**	**9.0**	**18.2**
Health-related reasons	**6.6**	**5.9**	**6.2**	**5.2**	**7.2**	**9.9**
Number who never attended school	**274**	**1,726**	**298**	**1,197**	**154**	**529**
Urban						
Economic reasons						
Required for work on farm/family business	7.8	12.1	12.1	14.2	11.1	6.3
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	25.0	1.7	30.3	0.8	24.3	3.1
Family could not afford it (cost too much)	51.9	20.1	48.5	18.1	55.6	27.1
At least one economic reason	**67.3**	**31.5**	**72.7**	**30.7**	**69.4**	**34.4**
Housework-related reasons	**26.9**	**37.9**	**27.3**	**40.2**	**27.0**	**30.5**
Parental or youth attitudes and perceptions						
Not safe to send girls/boys to school	0.0	11.4	0.0	11.0	0.0	13.5
Education not considered necessary	5.8	29.7	6.1	29.9	8.1	28.1
Respondent not interested in studies	21.2	23.2	18.2	22.8	22.2	24.0
At least one attitude-/perception-related reason	**26.9**	**56.6**	**21.2**	**56.3**	**27.8**	**57.3**
School-related reasons						
School too far away/transport not available	5.8	11.8	6.1	12.6	2.7	9.4
Poor quality of school facilities, teaching or education	0.0	7.6	0.0	7.9	0.0	7.3
At least one school-related reason	**5.8**	**17.2**	**6.1**	**18.1**	**2.7**	**14.6**
Health-related reasons	**3.9**	**6.6**	**6.1**	**6.3**	**5.6**	**6.3**
Number who never attended school	**82**	**429**	**61**	**308**	**56**	**121**

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Table 3.4a (Cont'd)

Reasons (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Rural						
Economic reasons						
Required for work on farm/family business	27.3	32.1	29.3	33.2	30.0	25.3
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	15.4	2.4	11.0	2.3	20.0	3.4
Family could not afford it (cost too much)	19.8	15.5	23.4	15.3	20.2	17.3
At least one economic reason	**50.6**	**45.3**	**52.4**	**46.0**	**57.7**	**40.5**
Housework-related reasons	**32.0**	**52.3**	**34.5**	**52.9**	**30.8**	**48.5**
Parental or youth attitudes and perceptions						
Not safe to send girls/boys to school	0.0	8.8	0.0	9.2	0.0	6.6
Education not considered necessary	4.0	25.6	2.4	25.9	7.0	23.7
Respondent not interested in studies	15.8	13.5	15.2	13.2	13.1	15.6
At least one attitude-/perception-related reason	**20.1**	**42.9**	**17.3**	**43.0**	**20.8**	**42.2**
School-related reasons						
School too far away/transport not available	11.1	17.0	15.2	17.3	10.1	14.7
Poor quality of school facilities, teaching or education	0.4	3.9	0.7	3.8	0.0	4.5
At least one school-related reason	**12.3**	**20.6**	**16.2**	**20.8**	**11.5**	**19.0**
Health-related reasons	**7.1**	**5.8**	**6.6**	**5.1**	**7.7**	**10.4**
Number who never attended school	**192**	**1,297**	**237**	**889**	**98**	**408**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses.

substantial percentages of young women (44% reported at least one such reason) and housework responsibilities by substantial percentages of young men (31%). Attitude- or perception-related reasons for never attending school were also reported by large percentages of young women and considerably fewer young men (45% and 21%, respectively, reported at least one such reason): indeed, over one quarter of young women specifically stated that education was not considered necessary for girls (26%) compared to just one in twenty young men (5%), and safety concerns were expressed only by young women (9%). School-related reasons were also more likely to be mentioned by young women than men (20% and 11%, respectively, cited at least one such reason). Finally, 6–7% of youth cited a health-related reason (mainly illness or death of a family member) for never attending school.

Differences by marital status were typically narrow (no more than 5%) among both young men and women. Rural-urban differences were however apparent. Young men in urban settings were more likely than those in rural settings to report an economic reason (67% and 51%, respectively) and an attitude- or perception-related reason (27% versus 20%) and less likely to report a school-related reason (6% versus 12%) for never attending school. Among young women, those in urban areas were considerably less likely than their rural counterparts to cite an economic reason (32% versus 45%) and housework responsibilities (38% versus 52%) and much more likely to cite an attitude or perception related reason (57% versus 43%) for never attending school. Other differences were narrow.

Table 3.4b reports findings for youth who had discontinued their education before completing Class 12. In addition to the five sets of reasons included above, an additional category—early transition into adult roles—was included, containing such reasons as marriage and employment. Reasons are presented separately for those who discontinued schooling before completing middle school (Class 7), high school (Class 10) and higher secondary education (Class 12), respectively. As evident from Table 3.4b and Figures 3.3a and 3.3b, reasons varied considerably by level at which education was discontinued, as well as, by and large, by sex, marital status and rural-urban residence of the respondent.

Table 3.4b: Reasons for school discontinuation by level of education

Percentage of youth who had discontinued schooling before completing Class 12 by reasons, according to levels of discontinuation and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Reasons (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
	Combined						Urban						Rural					
Discontinued before completing Class 7																		
Economic reasons																		
Required for work on farm/family business	30.2	17.3	38.1	18.5	27.1	15.3	18.4	8.9	17.9	11.2	19.4	5.3	33.8	19.3	41.8	19.9	29.7	17.8
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	21.7	1.9	21.9	1.4	22.5	3.1	30.6	3.0	31.6	3.4	29.9	1.8	19.3	1.7	20.1	1.0	20.0	3.4
Family could not afford it (cost too much)	11.6	11.6	12.8	11.1	11.9	11.5	18.4	21.6	10.5	19.1	19.4	26.8	9.7	9.1	13.2	9.6	9.2	7.9
At least one economic reason	**54.0**	**28.7**	**61.1**	**29.0**	**52.5**	**27.8**	**56.1**	**29.2**	**50.0**	**28.1**	**59.1**	**31.9**	**53.3**	**28.5**	**62.9**	**29.2**	**50.3**	**27.0**
Housework-related reasons	**22.1**	**45.3**	**19.3**	**45.8**	**22.6**	**44.6**	**14.3**	**40.7**	**15.8**	**46.1**	**11.9**	**31.9**	**24.4**	**46.3**	**19.8**	**45.8**	**26.7**	**47.7**
Parental or youth attitudes and perceptions																		
Not safe to send girls/boys to school	0.0	5.8	0.0	6.0	0.0	5.0	0.0	8.4	0.0	9.0	0.0	7.1	0.0	5.1	0.0	5.4	0.0	4.5
Further education not considered necessary	5.3	20.3	4.0	20.5	7.3	19.7	5.1	21.1	3.5	21.3	6.1	20.4	5.4	20.1	4.1	20.3	7.2	19.5
Respondent not interested	50.0	20.9	43.5	19.2	54.2	24.4	55.1	25.4	50.9	20.2	56.7	34.8	48.3	19.7	42.3	19.0	53.3	21.7
At least one attitude-/perception-related reason	**52.6**	**41.6**	**46.4**	**40.1**	**57.5**	**44.3**	**59.2**	**47.5**	**52.6**	**43.8**	**61.2**	**54.0**	**50.6**	**40.2**	**45.3**	**39.5**	**56.2**	**41.9**
School-related reasons																		
School too far away/transport not available	4.0	14.2	5.1	15.7	2.7	11.7	1.0	8.0	0.0	11.2	1.5	1.8	4.8	15.9	6.0	16.5	3.6	13.8
Poor quality of school facilities, teaching or education/no female teacher	3.0	4.8	1.6	4.6	3.4	5.3	3.1	5.5	1.8	5.6	3.0	4.4	3.0	4.7	1.6	4.4	3.6	5.5
Failure	8.6	2.5	6.9	1.6	8.8	4.6	9.2	3.8	7.0	3.4	9.0	4.4	8.4	2.2	6.9	1.3	8.7	4.7
At least one school-related reason	**15.1**	**20.7**	**13.3**	**21.1**	**14.1**	**20.2**	**11.2**	**16.1**	**8.8**	**19.1**	**11.9**	**10.6**	**16.0**	**21.8**	**14.2**	**21.5**	**14.9**	**22.6**
Transition into adult roles																		
Got married/engaged	0.0	4.2	0.0	6.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.8	0.0	5.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.3	0.0	6.1	0.0	0.0
Got job	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	1.0	0.0	1.8	0.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.4
Completed education	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.4	1.5	0.3	0.0	1.3	1.8	0.0	0.0	1.8	1.2	0.2	0.0	0.2	2.1	0.0
At least one reason related to transition into adult roles	**1.2**	**4.8**	**0.3**	**6.3**	**1.9**	**0.9**	**1.0**	**4.7**	**1.8**	**5.6**	**1.5**	**1.8**	**1.2**	**4.8**	**0.0**	**6.5**	**2.1**	**0.4**
Health-related reasons	**10.2**	**12.3**	**10.9**	**11.8**	**11.1**	**13.7**	**11.2**	**11.8**	**10.5**	**10.1**	**9.0**	**15.0**	**10.2**	**12.4**	**11.0**	**12.1**	**11.8**	**13.4**
Number who discontinued before completing Class 7	**413**	**1,102**	**363**	**546**	**254**	**556**	**157**	**354**	**104**	**212**	**105**	**142**	**256**	**748**	**259**	**334**	**149**	**414**
Discontinued after completing Class 7 and before completing Class 10																		
Economic reasons																		
Required for work on farm/family business	32.6	5.2	36.8	4.9	30.0	6.6	20.0	2.6	16.0	2.9	20.8	2.3	36.3	6.5	41.3	5.5	34.3	8.7
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	23.1	0.4	20.5	0.0	26.7	1.1	35.6	1.0	36.6	0.0	37.9	2.3	19.6	0.2	17.2	0.0	21.6	0.6
Family could not afford it (cost too much)	9.0	8.7	6.4	5.8	11.7	13.6	10.4	11.5	9.7	5.8	10.5	19.7	8.6	7.2	5.7	5.5	12.3	10.6
At least one economic reason	**58.0**	**13.7**	**57.6**	**10.2**	**60.7**	**20.3**	**57.8**	**14.4**	**54.3**	**8.7**	**61.5**	**22.5**	**58.2**	**13.4**	**58.3**	**10.7**	**59.8**	**19.2**
Housework-related reasons	**15.4**	**23.5**	**14.1**	**23.8**	**16.7**	**23.3**	**10.4**	**23.3**	**11.7**	**26.0**	**9.4**	**19.1**	**16.8**	**23.7**	**14.6**	**23.0**	**20.5**	**25.3**
Parental or youth attitudes and perceptions																		
Not safe to send girls/boys to school	0.2	5.3	0.0	5.1	0.3	5.6	0.7	4.3	0.0	3.8	1.0	5.2	0.0	5.7	0.0	5.8	0.0	5.8
Further education not considered necessary	6.9	14.7	4.9	14.8	7.7	14.3	6.7	14.4	7.5	14.6	7.3	13.9	6.9	14.8	4.4	14.9	7.8	14.2
Respondent not interested	38.6	20.7	41.4	18.7	39.0	23.3	51.9	27.9	54.8	24.3	50.0	32.9	34.8	17.4	38.7	16.8	33.3	18.7
At least one attitude-/perception-related reason	**43.1**	**36.4**	**44.3**	**34.0**	**44.0**	**39.8**	**56.3**	**42.6**	**57.4**	**39.4**	**55.2**	**47.4**	**39.4**	**33.4**	**41.5**	**32.1**	**38.7**	**36.2**

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Table 3.4b: (Cont'd)

Reasons (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
	Combined						Urban						Rural					
Discontinued after completing Class 7 and before completing Class 10																		
School-related reasons																		
School too far away/transport not available	1.5	19.0	1.6	21.4	1.7	16.5	0.0	8.2	1.1	11.5	0.0	3.5	1.9	24.2	2.0	24.9	2.5	22.6
Poor quality of school facilities, teaching or education/no female teacher	0.5	4.2	0.2	3.6	1.0	5.8	0.7	3.3	0.0	2.9	1.0	3.5	0.6	4.8	0.2	3.9	1.5	6.7
Failure	23.9	19.2	23.2	15.0	22.3	26.2	19.3	23.0	21.5	19.2	18.8	28.9	25.3	17.4	23.5	13.9	24.5	24.9
At least one school-related reason	**25.9**	**40.2**	**24.7**	**38.6**	**25.3**	**44.4**	**19.9**	**33.4**	**21.5**	**31.7**	**18.8**	**35.8**	**27.8**	**43.4**	**25.4**	**40.9**	**28.4**	**48.5**
Transition into adult roles																		
Got married/engaged	1.1	15.2	1.8	23.3	0.0	0.4	0.7	12.8	1.1	21.4	0.0	0.6	1.5	16.3	1.8	23.9	0.0	0.3
Got job	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.3	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0
Completed education	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.7	1.1	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.5	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.1
At least one reason related to transition into adult roles	**1.5**	**16.0**	**2.2**	**24.0**	**0.3**	**1.5**	**1.5**	**13.4**	**2.1**	**21.4**	**1.0**	**1.2**	**1.5**	**17.2**	**2.4**	**24.7**	**0.0**	**1.7**
Health-related reasons	**7.9**	**13.0**	**9.3**	**13.3**	**6.7**	**11.9**	**6.6**	**16.1**	**9.7**	**16.5**	**5.2**	**15.6**	**8.4**	**11.5**	**9.3**	**12.3**	**7.4**	**10.1**
Number who discontinued after completing Class 7 and before completing Class 10	**570**	**1,007**	**542**	**477**	**301**	**530**	**212**	**471**	**171**	**253**	**146**	**218**	**358**	**536**	**371**	**224**	**155**	**312**
Discontinued after completing Class 10 and before completing Class 12																		
Economic reasons																		
Required for work on farm/family business	36.9	1.9	38.3	1.0	32.2	4.4	23.7	1.1	23.4	0.0	20.0	(2.6)	42.2	2.4	42.9	(1.5)	38.5	(5.6)
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	25.6	0.0	24.9	0.0	27.1	0.0	35.6	0.0	39.1	0.0	35.0	(0.0)	21.8	0.0	20.6	(0.0)	23.1	(0.0)
Family could not afford it (cost too much)	4.8	6.5	4.0	4.0	3.4	14.1	3.4	9.0	6.5	5.7	2.6	(15.8)	5.4	4.8	3.2	(1.5)	3.8	(13.0)
At least one economic reason	**62.6**	**8.4**	**63.2**	**5.0**	**59.3**	**18.5**	**56.7**	**10.1**	**59.6**	**5.7**	**55.0**	**(16.2)**	**64.9**	**7.2**	**64.5**	**(3.1)**	**61.5**	**(20.0)**
Housework-related reasons	**12.1**	**21.5**	**12.9**	**21.8**	**11.0**	**21.7**	**8.5**	**20.2**	**12.8**	**20.0**	**12.5**	**(18.9)**	**13.5**	**22.4**	**12.9**	**(21.5)**	**10.3**	**(24.1)**
Parental or youth attitudes and perceptions																		
Not safe to send girls/boys to school	0.0	7.5	0.0	7.9	0.0	7.6	0.0	6.7	0.0	8.3	0.0	(5.4)	0.0	8.0	0.0	(7.7)	0.0	(9.3)
Further education not considered necessary	12.6	21.5	9.5	21.8	12.7	20.7	20.3	22.5	17.4	20.0	20.0	(27.0)	9.5	20.8	7.1	(22.7)	9.0	(14.8)
Respondent not interested	30.6	16.4	30.8	14.9	33.1	17.6	49.2	23.6	45.7	25.7	50.0	(18.4)	23.0	11.2	26.5	(9.1)	24.4	(16.7)
At least one attitude-/perception-related reason	**40.1**	**41.9**	**38.3**	**40.6**	**43.2**	**43.5**	**61.0**	**48.3**	**56.5**	**50.0**	**61.5**	**(45.9)**	**31.8**	**36.8**	**33.1**	**(35.4)**	**34.6**	**(40.7)**
School-related reasons																		
School too far away/transport not available	2.4	18.2	1.0	18.8	3.4	18.7	0.0	10.1	0.0	11.4	0.0	(5.4)	3.4	24.0	1.3	(23.1)	5.1	(27.8)
Poor quality of school facilities, teaching or education/no female teacher	0.0	4.7	1.0	4.0	0.0	6.5	0.0	4.5	0.0	5.6	0.0	(2.7)	0.0	4.8	1.3	(3.1)	0.0	(9.3)
Failure	12.1	2.8	14.9	3.0	7.6	3.3	8.5	3.3	6.5	0.0	10.0	(7.9)	13.6	2.4	17.4	(3.1)	6.4	(0.0)
At least one school-related reason	**14.1**	**24.8**	**16.4**	**24.8**	**11.0**	**28.3**	**8.5**	**16.9**	**6.5**	**16.7**	**10.0**	**(16.2)**	**16.3**	**30.4**	**19.4**	**(28.8)**	**11.5**	**(37.0)**
Transition into adult roles																		
Got married/engaged	1.9	26.2	4.5	36.6	0.0	1.1	5.1	21.3	4.3	28.6	0.0	(2.6)	0.7	29.6	3.9	(40.0)	0.0	(0.0)
Got job	1.9	0.0	2.5	0.0	0.8	0.0	1.7	0.0	4.3	0.0	0.0	(0.0)	2.0	0.0	1.9	(0.0)	1.3	(0.0)
Completed education	1.0	1.9	0.5	1.0	1.7	5.4	1.7	3.4	2.1	2.8	2.5	(5.4)	0.7	0.8	0.0	(0.0)	2.5	(3.7)
At least one reason related to transition into adult roles	**4.8**	**28.0**	**7.0**	**36.6**	**2.6**	**5.5**	**8.5**	**24.7**	**10.9**	**31.4**	**2.5**	**(8.1)**	**3.4**	**31.2**	**5.8**	**(40.0)**	**3.8**	**(3.7)**
Health-related reasons	**5.8**	**10.7**	**5.0**	**8.9**	**8.5**	**15.2**	**3.4**	**11.2**	**2.2**	**11.1**	**5.0**	**(13.2)**	**6.8**	**10.4**	**5.8**	**(7.7)**	**10.3**	**(16.7)**
Number who discontinued after completing Class 10 and before completing Class 12	**205**	**222**	**210**	**129**	**120**	**93**	**91**	**132**	**83**	**85**	**60**	**47**	**114**	**90**	**127**	**44**	**60**	**46**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases.

Among those who had completed just 1–6 years of schooling, economic considerations and attitudes and perceptions dominated reasons for school discontinuation for young men (54% and 53% respectively); notably, half of young men reported lack of interest in studies as a reason for discontinuing schooling. Fewer cited health-related (10%), school-related (15%) and housework-related (22%) reasons. Among young women, in contrast, leading reasons were housework-related (45%) and attitude- or perception- related (42%), irrespective of marital status or place of residence; fewer reported economic (29%), school-related (21%) or health-related (12%) reasons. Notably, few young married women reported marriage as the reason for school discontinuation (6%).

Although the reasons for school discontinuation reported by married and unmarried youth and by rural and urban youth, who had completed just 1–6 years of schooling, were somewhat similar, some differences were notable. Among young men, the unmarried were more likely than the married to cite attitude- or perception-related reasons, particularly lack of interest in studies (54% versus 44%), and conversely, more married than unmarried young men were likely to report economic reasons (61% versus 53%). Likewise, young men in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to report attitude- or perception-related reasons (59% versus 51%), and more likely to cite economic reasons such as the family's inability to meet the cost of education (18% versus 10%) and the need for them to work for wages (31% versus 19%). In contrast, they were less likely to attribute school discontinuation to housework responsibilities (14% versus 24%) or labour responsibilities on the family farm or business (18% versus 34%). Among young women, those from urban settings were more likely than their rural counterparts to cite attitude- or perception-related reasons (48% versus 40%) and to cite reasons relating to the family's inability to meet the cost of education (22% versus 9%). Conversely, young women from rural areas were more likely than urban young women to report that they were withdrawn from school in order to work on the family farm or business (19% versus 9%) and for school-related reasons (22% versus 16%).

Gender differences in reasons for school discontinuation were similarly pronounced among those who had completed Classes 7–9. The leading reason for young men continued to be economic, reported by 58%. At the same time, attitude- or perception-related reasons were cited by 43% and school-related reason, particularly academic failure were cited by almost one quarter. Among young women, in contrast, the leading reasons were school-related (40%), with 19% citing distance to school and academic failure, respectively, as specific reasons for discontinuation. Other key reasons cited were attitude- or perception-related (36%) and housework responsibilities (24%). As many as 16% expressed transition into adult roles as a reason for having to leave school, and 15% specifically cited that they had discontinued school because they had got engaged or married. Marital status differences revealed somewhat different patterns among young men and women. Among young men, differences by marital status were narrow. Among young women, the unmarried were more likely than the married to report economic reasons and school-related reasons, particularly, academic failure (also see Figures 3.3a; 3.3b). However, transitions into adult roles were far more likely to be a reason for married women to discontinue schooling; 23% of married young women cited marriage or engagement as a reason for school discontinuation. Rural-urban differences were wider. Findings show that more urban than rural young men reported attitude or perception-related reasons, specifically, lack of interest in studies. While economic reasons were cited by almost equal percentages of urban and rural young men (58%), those in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to report that they were required for work for wages and more rural than urban young men reported that they were required for work on the family farm or business. In addition, more rural than urban young men reported school-related reasons and housework-related reasons. Among young women, also, more urban than rural young women reported attitude- or perception-related reasons and more rural than urban young women reported school-related reasons.

Among those who had discontinued their education after completing Classes 10 or 11, gender differences continued to be wide. Among young men, leading reasons for school discontinuation were economic and attitude- or perception-related (63% and 40%, respectively). Among young women, attitude- or perception-related reasons (42%), transition into adult roles (28%) and specifically marriage-related reasons, school-related reasons (25%) and housework responsibilities (22%) were most frequently cited reasons for school discontinuation. Differences by marital status were negligible among young men; however, among young women, the unmarried were more

Figure 3.3a: Percentage of married youth who had discontinued schooling by class when discontinued and reasons for discontinuation, Rajasthan 2007

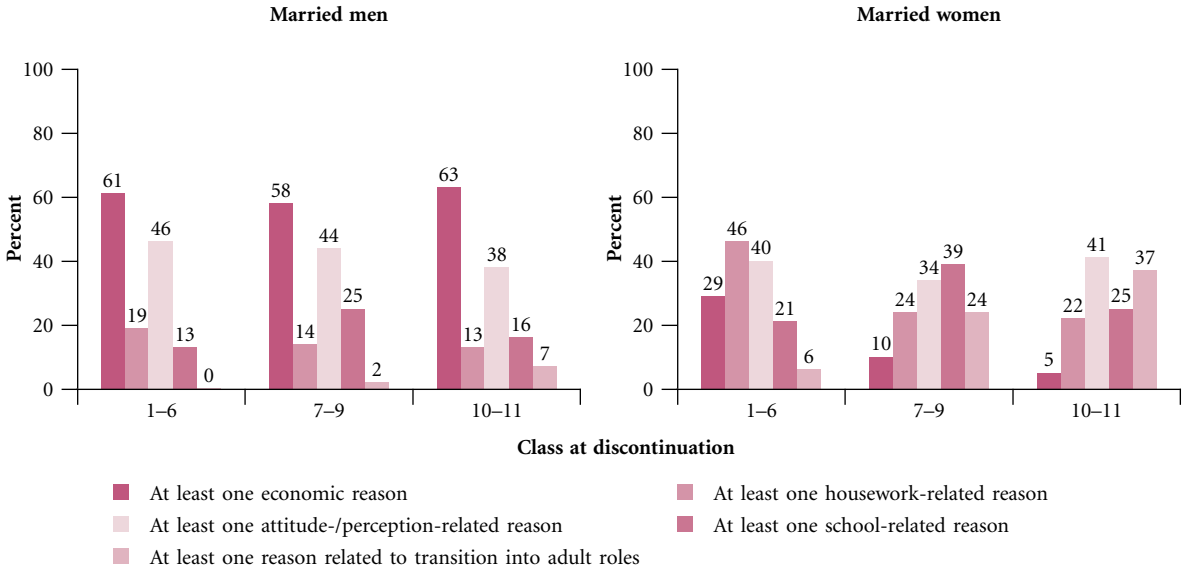
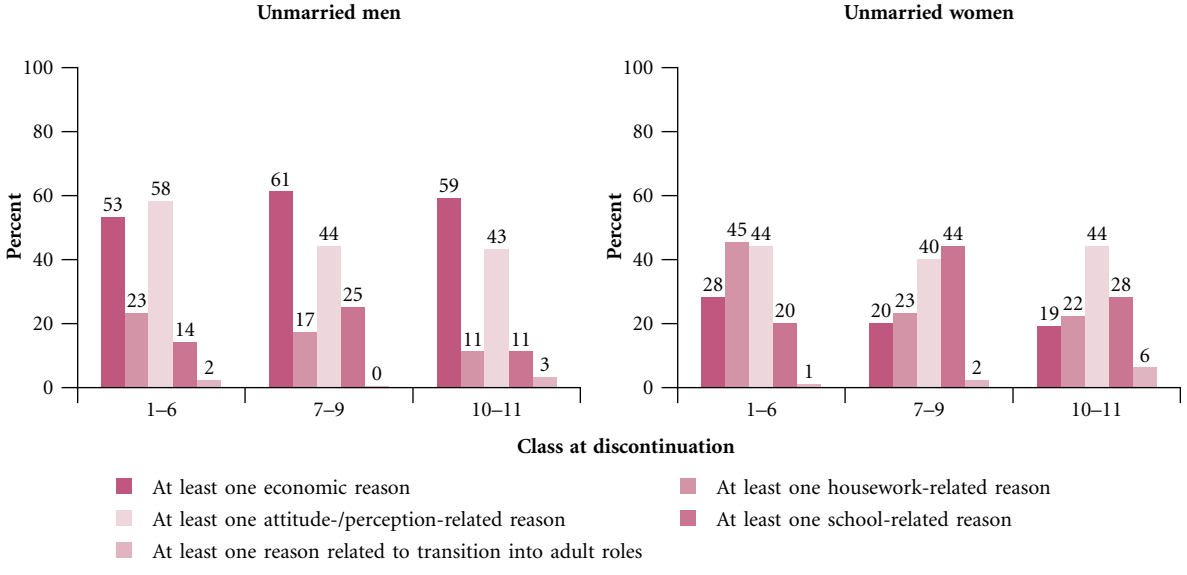


Figure 3.3b: Percentage of unmarried youth who had discontinued schooling by class when discontinued and reasons for discontinuation, Rajasthan, 2007



likely than the married to report economic and health-related reasons for discontinuation, while, as expected, the married were far more likely to cite transition into adult roles and specifically, marriage as a reason for leaving school (37% versus 6%). Rural-urban differences were substantial. For example, urban young men were more likely than rural young men to report attitude- or perception-related reasons but were less likely than their rural counterparts to cite economic or school-related reasons. Among young women too, those in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to report attitude- or perception-related reasons; they were less likely, conversely, to report school-related reasons and the transition to adult roles, specifically to marriage.

3.5 School/college type, quality and experiences

All respondents were asked about the kind of school or college they had last attended or were attending at the time of interview, and the facilities available in that school or college. Respondents were also asked about their experiences: whether they attended classes regularly, their attitudes towards education and their performance in that school or college. Tables 3.5 and 3.6 present findings on type and quality of educational institutions most recently attended, and schooling experiences, respectively. Findings are presented separately for those who were still in school or college at the time of interview and for those who had discontinued their education before completing Class 12 in order to explore the extent to which school/college quality and experiences differed between these two groups. As school quality and experiences are unlikely to be different for the married and unmarried, Tables 3.5 and 3.6 present information by sex and rural-urban residence of respondents only. In addition, because experiences may vary according to the level of education attained, findings are presented separately for primary or middle school, high school and higher secondary or college level.

3.5.1 School/college type and quality

As can be seen from Table 3.5, there was a significant gender divide in terms of type of educational facility that youth attended, irrespective of rural-urban residence or current schooling status. By and large, young men reported attending co-educational facilities at all levels of education; no less than four-fifths of young men reported as such. In contrast, young women were less likely to attend a co-educational facility; for example, among those who were currently attending a school or college, the percentage attending a co-educational facility dropped from 88% at primary or middle school level, to 67% at high school level, to 52% at higher secondary and higher levels. Rural youth were more likely than urban youth to have attended co-educational facilities.

The majority of youth at all levels attended government schools or colleges. Even so, some patterns are notable. For one, among those who were currently attending a school or college, youth were more likely to attend private educational facilities at higher secondary or higher levels than at any other level; 29% of young men and 41% of young women pursuing their education at the time of interview attended a private school at higher secondary or higher level compared to 23% of young women at primary or middle level, and 24–26% of young men and women at high school level. A similar pattern was observed among rural youth and among urban young women. Among urban young men, however, those at higher secondary or higher levels were less likely than those at high school level to attend a private facility. Second, at all levels, more rural than urban youth attended government schools or colleges; for example, among those who were currently studying at high school level, 84% of young men and 81% of young women in rural areas attended a government school, compared to 42% and 53% of young men and women, respectively, in urban areas. Third, among those who were currently studying at higher secondary or college level, a smaller percentage of young men than women, attended a private educational facility (29% versus 41%). Fourth, larger percentages of those who discontinued schooling than those who were currently studying attended government educational facilities at all levels of schooling and in both rural and urban settings.

School quality was assessed by questions on the availability of drinking water, toilets, playgrounds and library facilities. Findings from Table 3.5 show vast differences between those pursuing their education at the time of interview and those who had discontinued their education; differences were also observed by level of education attained and by type of amenity considered.

Among those pursuing their education at the time of interview, the overwhelming majority, irrespective of sex, rural-urban residence or level of education attained, had access to drinking water (94–100%) and to a lesser extent, toilets (88%–99%) and playgrounds (88%–94%). The availability of library facilities was reported by fewer youth and varied by sex, rural-urban residence and level of education attained. Young women were somewhat more likely than young men to report library facilities; for example, 82–91% of young women compared to 74–88% of young men currently attending high school, or higher secondary or college levels reported library facilities. Those at higher secondary or college levels were more likely than others to report a library (88–91% compared to 74–82% among those at high school level). Rural-urban differences were evident, with urban youth more likely than rural youth to report the availability of library facilities.

Table 3.5: Educational facilities availed

Percentage of youth who had ever attended school by type and characteristics of educational facility currently or last attended, according to current schooling status and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Facility characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24
	Combined						Urban						Rural					
	Primary/ middle school		High school		Higher secondary and above		Primary/ middle School		High school		Higher secondary and above		Primary/ middle school		High school		Higher secondary and above	
A. Currently continuing education																		
Type of facility																		
Co-educational	*	88.4	86.0	67.3	78.9	51.7	*	*	80.4	49.1	74.5	43.2	*	(87.9)	87.3	74.3	81.1	63.4
Private[1]	*	22.7	23.8	26.0	29.0	40.8	*	*	56.7	44.8	44.5	47.7	*	(18.2)	15.9	18.5	20.7	31.1
Fully government aided	*	77.3	76.0	73.0	70.3	56.5	*	*	42.3	53.4	54.3	49.0	*	(81.8)	84.1	80.8	79.1	67.4
Partially government aided	*	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.7	2.7	*	*	1.0	1.7	1.2	3.3	*	(0.0)	0.0	0.0	0.2	1.5
Available amenities																		
Drinking water	*	95.3	99.6	97.5	97.7	96.8	*	*	99.0	98.3	97.3	97.3	*	(93.9)	99.8	96.9	97.7	96.2
Toilet facility	*	88.6	93.5	94.3	96.9	96.5	*	*	99.0	97.4	96.9	97.6	*	(87.9)	92.2	92.8	96.7	94.7
Playground	*	88.6	88.3	90.7	92.0	94.0	*	*	87.8	87.9	90.6	94.0	*	(90.9)	88.5	91.4	92.5	93.6
Library	*	69.8	73.7	81.8	88.0	90.7	*	*	88.8	87.1	91.8	95.1	*	(67.6)	70.1	79.4	85.8	84.5
All of the above	*	62.8	67.8	76.9	84.8	88.4	*	*	78.6	81.9	87.1	92.4	*	(62.5)	65.0	74.9	83.5	83.3
Number currently in school/college	**24**	**61**	**491**	**603**	**793**	**958**	**6**	**18**	**158**	**200**	**406**	**627**	**18**	**43**	**333**	**403**	**387**	**331**
B. Discontinued education before completing Class 12																		
Type of facility																		
Co-educational	91.3	79.3	83.5	64.4	(80.0)	*	86.2	75.5	78.2	47.7	*	*	92.7	80.3	85.5	73.0	*	*
Private[1]	5.4	9.1	11.1	17.4	(9.7)	*	13.1	21.0	23.6	26.3	*	*	3.3	5.9	6.7	12.9	*	*
Fully government aided	93.9	90.0	88.6	82.1	(90.3)	*	86.2	77.7	76.4	73.0	*	*	96.0	93.5	92.9	86.7	*	*
Partially government aided	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.3	(0.0)	*	0.8	0.9	0.0	0.3	*	*	0.0	0.4	0.4	0.2	*	*
Available amenities																		
Drinking water	93.6	94.7	98.5	98.0	(100.0)	*	96.2	97.5	98.1	98.4	*	*	92.9	93.9	98.7	97.8	*	*
Toilet facility	65.2	78.7	84.8	94.6	(96.7)	*	76.9	89.7	93.6	95.4	*	*	62.1	75.6	81.9	94.1	*	*
Playground	67.9	73.6	86.0	91.2	(87.1)	*	66.9	81.3	86.0	89.1	*	*	68.1	71.4	86.0	92.1	*	*
Library	40.4	51.5	72.8	80.6	(90.3)	*	46.9	60.6	79.5	80.9	*	*	38.8	48.8	70.6	80.4	*	*
All of the above	35.3	45.4	63.8	77.4	(77.4)	*	43.4	58.9	71.3	78.7	*	*	33.1	41.5	61.2	76.8	*	*
Number who discontinued education before completing Class 12	**574**	**1,366**	**586**	**948**	**28**	**17**	**206**	**485**	**245**	**462**	**9**	**10**	**368**	**881**	**341**	**486**	**19**	**7**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. [1]While private, fully government aided and partially government aided were mutually exclusive options for school type, their combined total may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.*

Among youth who had discontinued their education, drinking water was available to almost all youth (94–100%), irrespective of sex, rural-urban residence or the level at which they had discontinued their education. Access to playgrounds varied by level at which education was limited, ranging from 68–74% among those who discontinued their education at the primary level to 86–91% among those who discontinued their education at high school or higher secondary levels; sex and rural-urban differences were narrow. In contrast, toilet and library facilities varied by sex, rural-urban residence and level at which education was discontinued; these amenities were more likely to be reported by young women than men, among those in urban than rural settings and among those who had discontinued their education at high school or higher secondary levels than those who had discontinued their education at lower levels.

Availability of all four amenities—drinking water, playgrounds, toilets and libraries—increased systematically with level of schooling attained for all youth, irrespective of whether or not they had discontinued their education. Among youth still in school, all four amenities were available to 68–77% of those in high school, and to 85–88% of those at higher levels. Among those who had discontinued their education, it increased from 35–45% at primary or middle school levels, to 64–77% at the high school level. Availability of all four amenities was, by and large, more likely to be reported by those who were studying at the time of interview than those who had discontinued their education, suggesting that their availability may have played a role in the continuation of schooling. Gender differences were apparent; for example at high school level, irrespective of current schooling status, somewhat larger percentages of young women than men reported the availability of all four amenities, most likely because the presence of these amenities was considered a prerequisite for girls to be enrolled in school. Finally, urban youth were more likely to report the availability of all four amenities than rural youth, irrespective, for the most part, of school continuation status, level of education attained or sex of the respondent.

3.5.2 School/college experiences

Table 3.6 presents young people's schooling experiences, namely, whether or not they attended class regularly, took private tuition, considered the academic workload to be heavy and had passed the last examination for which they had appeared. Among those pursuing their education, over 80% of youth, irrespective of sex, level of education attained or rural-urban residence reported that they attended classes regularly. Among them, it was young women at higher secondary or higher levels, and particularly those from rural areas, who were least likely to attend regularly, perhaps because of conflicting domestic responsibilities. Percentages of youth who had taken private tuition varied by level of school attended: just 9% of young women in primary or middle school reported that they had taken private tuition, compared with 21–30% of young men and 27–30% of young women at higher levels of education. In urban settings, young men were somewhat more likely than young women to report having attended coaching classes. In rural areas, while the gender differences were narrow at the higher secondary or college levels, somewhat more young women than men at high school level reported having attended coaching classes. Rural-urban differences suggest that urban youth were more likely than rural youth to have attended coaching classes. As far as perceptions about whether the academic workload was heavy too, differences were, by and large, negligible by sex, rural-urban residence and level of education attained. Finally, over 80% of young men and women, irrespective of level of education and place of residence, reported that they had passed the last school or college examinations for which they had appeared.

Among youth who had discontinued their education, those who had done so at primary or middle level were somewhat less likely than those who discontinued later to have attended school regularly (81–85% compared to over 90%). Percentages reporting private tuition increased with level at which schooling was discontinued: 1–4% among those who had discontinued at primary or middle school, compared to 11% and 20% among young men and women, respectively, who discontinued their education at high school level. About one-third of young men and one quarter of young women, irrespective of level of education and rural-urban residence perceived the academic workload to be heavy. Finally, percentages that passed the last examination for which they had appeared declined with level of education at which schooling was discontinued; 77% of young men and 86% of young women who discontinued at

Table 3.6: Schooling experiences

Percentage of youth who had completed primary/middle school, high school or higher secondary and above, respectively, by characteristics of school attendance and performance, according to current schooling status and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

School attendance and performance characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24
	Combined						Urban						Rural					
	Primary/ middle school		High school		Higher secondary and above		Primary/ middle School		High school		Higher secondary and above		Primary/ middle school		High school		Higher secondary and above	
A. Currently continuing education																		
Attended classes regularly	*	100.0	97.4	94.8	92.8	88.1	*	*	98.0	95.7	93.3	89.1	*	(100.0)	97.1	94.2	92.7	86.7
Private tuition taken	*	9.1	20.8	27.0	30.1	29.9	*	*	42.3	35.3	44.5	36.8	*	(12.1)	15.7	23.6	22.5	20.4
Perceived the academic workload to be heavy	*	20.5	26.9	22.1	20.4	19.3	*	*	22.4	20.0	19.7	20.1	*	(18.2)	27.9	22.7	20.7	18.2
Passed last examination for which appeared	*	93.0	87.7	83.3	98.1	98.1	*	*	85.7	83.5	96.9	98.4	*	(93.9)	88.3	83.5	98.8	97.7
Number currently in school/college	**24**	**61**	**491**	**603**	**793**	**958**	**6**	**18**	**158**	**200**	**406**	**627**	**18**	**43**	**333**	**403**	**387**	**331**
B. Discontinued education before completing Class 12																		
Attended classes regularly	80.6	85.0	90.7	93.7	(96.8)	*	79.2	91.3	89.2	93.8	*	*	81.0	83.2	91.3	93.6	*	*
Private tuition taken	1.6	4.2	11.4	20.0	(25.8)	*	0.8	7.8	14.7	22.7	*	*	2.1	3.1	10.0	18.5	*	*
Perceived the academic workload to be heavy	33.3	25.7	35.1	26.4	(13.3)	*	31.5	24.1	34.0	25.0	*	*	33.8	26.0	35.6	27.1	*	*
Passed last examination for which appeared	76.6	86.4	70.3	78.1	(54.8)	*	76.9	85.0	76.3	72.0	*	*	76.7	86.8	68.3	81.2	*	*
Number who discontinued education before completing Class 12	**574**	**1,366**	**586**	**948**	**28**	**17**	**206**	**485**	**245**	**462**	**9**	**10**	**368**	**881**	**341**	**486**	**19**	**7**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases.*

primary or middle levels passed the last examination for which they appeared, compared to moderately fewer—70% and 78%, respectively, who discontinued their education at high school level. Rural-urban differences were modest except that among those who discontinued their education at high school level, more urban than rural young men and more rural than urban young women had passed the last examination for which they had appeared.

Schooling experiences differed somewhat among those who had discontinued schooling and those who were studying at the time of interview. For example, though not consistently observed across different levels of schooling, regular attendance was somewhat more likely to be reported by those who were in school than those who had discontinued their education. Private tuition was consistently more likely to be reported by those pursuing their education than those who had discontinued it, irrespective of sex, level of education attained and rural-urban residence. By and large, moreover, those who had discontinued were more likely than others to perceive the academic load to be heavy (except among young men at higher secondary or college level) and were less likely to have passed the last examination for which they had appeared. It would appear that academic failure was an important factor precipitating school discontinuation.

3.6 Summary

While youth in Rajasthan were better educated than the general population, schooling was far from universal among young people in the state. As many as one in ten young men and two in five young women had never attended school. Findings show, moreover, that young women in rural areas and married young women were particularly disadvantaged; almost half of rural young women and more than half of married young women had never been to school.

Not only was school enrolment limited, but school completion rates were low among young people, particularly young women. For example, among young women, of those who had completed Class 1, only 92% had completed Class 4, and completion rates fell below 90% in Class 5. Among young men, in contrast, 98% had completed Class 4, and completion rates fell below 90% in Class 6. Declines in school completion became progressively steeper as the level of schooling increased. For example, there was a particularly steep decline between Classes 7 and 11 among both young men and women, suggesting that many of them discontinued their education at high school level; however, among young women, a steep decline also took place between Classes 5 and 6, perhaps coinciding with the onset of menarche or reflecting the absence of a nearby school in these classes. Indeed, just 38% of young men and 18% of young women in the state had completed high school. Gender disparities persisted in terms of schooling status of the unmarried at the time of interview: almost three in five unmarried young men compared to just two in five unmarried young women (and very few married) were still in school or college.

Leading reasons for never attending school among young men and women were economic (for example, the respondent was required for work on the family farm/business or for outside wage earning work, or the family could not afford school-related expenses) and housework-related (the respondent was required for care of siblings or housework). Attitude- or perception-related reasons (for example, education was unnecessary or the respondent was not interested in schooling) were additionally important issues, particularly for young women, for never going to school.

Among those who had ever been to school, gender differences in reasons for discontinuation became more apparent. Leading reasons for discontinuation among young men, irrespective of the level at which schooling was discontinued, continued to be economic, and attitude and perception-related. For young women, in contrast, leading issues included attitude or perception-related factors at all levels of schooling and housework responsibilities, particularly at early levels; school-related reasons (for example, academic failure, distance to school, poor school quality and infrastructure), and reasons relating to marriage became increasingly important among those who discontinued their education at secondary or higher secondary levels. Of note, particularly, is that one in six and one in four young women who discontinued their education in Classes 7–9 and 10–11, respectively, reported doing so in order to marry.

For the most part, youth attended coeducational and government schools and colleges. A gender divide was, however, observed in the type of educational facility they attended. While young men, by and large, attended co-educational facilities at all levels of education, young women were less likely to attend a co-educational facility at higher levels of schooling. Moreover, while fewer young women than men continued their education to high school and beyond, those who did so were more likely to attend private schools, particularly in rural areas.

By and large, differences were observed in the availability of amenities at educational facilities attended by youth who were still in school and those who had discontinued their education at various levels. For example, youth who were still studying were somewhat more likely to report the availability of all four amenities—water, toilets, playgrounds and libraries—than were those who had discontinued their education. Schooling experiences were relatively similar among young men and women but differed somewhat among those who had discontinued schooling and those who were studying at the time of interview. While differences in regular attendance and perceptions about academic load were less consistent, youth who were continuing their education were considerably more likely to report private tuition, and to have passed the last examination for which they had appeared.

Chapter 4

Economic and non-economic activity

The period between the ages of 15 and 29 marks, for many young people, entry into the labour market and economic independence, acquisition of professional and technical skills, and new living arrangements. Economic uncertainty, however, dominates the lives of many youth. According to International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimates, although youth (aged 15–24) comprise around 25% of the world's working-age population, they constitute around 44% of the unemployed (ILO, 2006). The unemployment rate among youth has also been identified as one of the key indicators for monitoring the progress towards achieving the UN Millennium Development Goals (UNDP, 2000). For many young people, this period also marks the discontinuation of education and increasing acceptance of domestic responsibilities. This chapter explores the economic activity of young people, their work-related mobility, their participation in non-economic activities (domestic work), and their vocational skill-building experiences and preferences.

4.1 Economic activity

During the survey, a number of questions were asked to assess the economic activity and occupational status of youth. Youth were asked whether they had ever worked, either for or without remuneration. They were also asked whether they had worked in the 12 months preceding the interview, whether they were seeking employment, the type of work in which they were engaged, and the number of months during which they had worked or sought work in the year preceding the interview.

Work profiles varied widely, as shown in Table 4.1. In total, three-fifths of young men and one-half of young women reported that they had been engaged in paid or unpaid work at some point in their lives. Young men were far less likely to have engaged in unpaid than in paid work (22% compared to 49%). Young women, in contrast, were more likely to have engaged in unpaid than in paid work (41% and 25%, respectively). Marital status differences indicate that the married were more likely than the unmarried to have engaged in paid or unpaid work. Almost all married young men compared to half of unmarried young men, and two-thirds of married young women compared to two-fifths of the unmarried, had ever worked. Rural-urban differences suggest, moreover, that more rural than urban youth had ever worked: differences were mild among young men (63% versus 58%) and considerable among young women (64% versus 30%). In addition, rural youth, particularly young women, were more likely than their urban counterparts to have engaged in unpaid work (26% versus 10% among young men and 52% versus 10% among young women).

Work was initiated in childhood or early adolescence, that is, before age 15, for many; 22% of young men and 36% of young women reported that they had initiated either paid or unpaid work before they were aged 15. More married than unmarried and more rural than urban youth had initiated economic activity from an early age, irrespective of sex.

Table 4.1 also presents the percentages of youth reporting that they had worked any time in the 12 months prior to interview. We note that the measure of work in the year prior to interview covers a wide range of experiences that go beyond what is typically considered an employment rate (for example, as per the usual principal status definition, employment is defined as those who worked for the major part of the year preceding the interview as

Table 4.1: Economic activity

Percentage of youth who ever worked and who worked in last 12 months, and percent distribution of youth by duration of work and main occupation in the last 12 months, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Economic activity (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Ever worked						
Paid work	49.0	25.3	79.3	27.2	36.7	22.2
Unpaid work	22.1	40.8	35.1	53.2	17.3	22.1
Either paid or unpaid work	61.9	54.9	94.1	65.7	48.5	38.3
Started working before age 15	21.7	36.0	30.1	44.8	18.2	22.9
Ever worked in last 12 months						
Paid work	48.4	21.1	78.5	21.5	36.3	20.8
Unpaid work	14.2	36.3	16.9	46.7	12.6	21.1
Either paid or unpaid work	61.3	49.5	93.3	58.3	48.0	36.8
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Duration of paid work in last 12 months						
Most of the year (6 months or more)	89.9	61.6	95.0	58.8	86.8	65.2
Part of the year (3–5 months)	6.8	19.9	3.6	20.5	8.7	19.0
Rarely (less than 3 months)	3.2	17.4	1.2	19.3	4.5	15.2
Main occupation (paid work)						
Cultivator	9.2	3.1	12.5	4.3	6.5	1.1
Agricultural labourer	5.0	36.4	5.2	44.0	5.6	25.6
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	4.3	8.8	7.4	5.4	4.4	13.7
Business	7.4	0.4	8.4	0.2	8.9	0.9
Skilled manual/machinery	27.8	24.5	26.4	19.1	27.1	31.3
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	45.1	26.0	39.0	26.7	45.9	26.2
Other	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.4	1.3	1.1
Number engaged in paid work in last 12 months	**1,444**	**1,211**	**1,539**	**522**	**810**	**689**
Urban						
Ever worked						
Paid work	54.5	21.7	95.1	22.7	45.3	20.8
Unpaid work	9.8	10.4	15.8	16.8	8.4	4.6
Either paid or unpaid work	57.9	29.8	96.8	36.0	48.9	24.3
Started working before age 15	14.5	12.5	19.3	17.1	13.0	8.3
Ever worked in last 12 months						
Paid work	53.8	18.0	95.1	16.6	44.5	19.3
Unpaid work	3.7	7.0	2.0	9.8	4.1	4.4
Either paid or unpaid work	57.1	23.9	96.6	25.3	48.3	22.7
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**

Cont'd on next page...

Table 4.1: (Cont'd)

Economic activity (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Duration of paid work in last 12 months						
Most of the year (6 months or more)	90.4	75.6	97.9	71.4	87.4	80.0
Part of the year (3–5 months)	6.7	15.5	1.5	20.0	8.7	11.8
Rarely (less than 3 months)	2.9	7.8	0.6	7.1	3.8	7.7
Main occupation (paid work)						
Cultivator	2.2	0.0	1.5	0.0	1.4	0.0
Agricultural labourer	1.0	5.7	0.9	8.5	0.7	4.1
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	7.9	22.3	12.7	14.1	7.0	28.6
Business	13.9	1.4	17.2	1.4	14.7	1.4
Skilled manual/machinery	32.0	50.9	31.1	50.7	31.1	50.5
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	41.6	16.6	34.4	22.5	43.0	12.3
Other	1.4	3.2	1.2	2.8	2.1	3.2
Number engaged in paid work in last 12 months	**654**	**446**	**600**	**170**	**440**	**276**
Rural						
Ever worked						
Paid work	47.1	26.6	75.7	28.1	33.0	22.9
Unpaid work	26.3	51.6	39.5	60.3	21.2	30.9
Either paid or unpaid work	63.3	63.8	93.4	71.5	48.3	45.4
Started working before age 15	24.2	44.3	32.6	50.3	20.5	30.3
Ever worked in last 12 months						
Paid work	46.6	22.2	74.8	22.4	32.7	21.6
Unpaid work	17.9	46.7	20.3	53.9	16.3	29.7
Either paid or unpaid work	62.7	58.6	92.6	64.8	47.8	43.9
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Duration of paid work in last 12 months						
Most of the year (6 months or more)	89.7	57.6	94.0	57.2	86.4	58.6
Part of the year (3–5 months)	6.8	21.0	4.3	20.7	8.8	22.1
Rarely (less than 3 months)	3.4	20.3	1.5	20.9	4.7	18.6
Main occupation (paid work)						
Cultivator	12.0	4.0	15.7	4.9	9.5	1.7
Agricultural labourer	6.6	45.3	6.5	49.2	8.4	35.4
Administrative/executive/managerial/clerical	2.9	4.9	5.9	4.1	2.9	6.8
Business	4.8	0.1	5.9	0.0	5.6	0.6
Skilled manual/machinery	26.2	16.9	25.1	14.5	24.7	22.6
Unskilled non-agricultural labourer	46.5	28.7	40.3	27.3	47.5	32.5
Other	0.6	0.1	0.6	0.0	0.8	0.2
Number engaged in paid work in last 12 months	**790**	**765**	**939**	**352**	**370**	**413**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

a fraction of those in the labour force, that is, those who worked or sought work for the major part of the year). Included in our measure of work are youth who worked for any length of time during the year as a proportion of all youth, irrespective of whether they had worked or sought work in the year preceding the interview.

Percentages of youth who worked in the last 12 months largely mirrored lifetime economic activity for young men. Among young women, this was true for the unmarried. Fewer married young women, however, reported economic activity in the last 12 months compared to lifetime economic activity, a finding that may be attributed to conflict with childbearing and childrearing activities, on the one hand, and the tendency of married young women to be secluded from outside work, on the other.

Findings also suggest that among young men who worked for remuneration in the year prior to interview, the majority (90%) worked for at least six months of the year. In contrast, young women worked for shorter periods; just three-fifths had worked for at least six months. Marital status differences were not wide. However, they suggest that more married than unmarried young men had worked for most of the year, and this pattern was evident both in urban and rural settings. In contrast, more unmarried than married young women had worked for most of the year; while this pattern was observed among those in urban areas, unmarried and married young women in rural areas were about equally likely to have worked for most of the year. Finally, rural-urban differences were not apparent among young men (90% in both settings were working for most of the year); larger proportions of young women in urban areas than their rural counterparts reported working for most of the year (76% compared to 58%).

Occupational distributions of those engaged in remunerated work in the 12 months preceding the interview did not differ widely among young men in rural and urban areas, but varied considerably among young women. Among young men in both settings, leading occupations were unskilled non-agricultural and skilled manual labour, together reported by 74% and 73% of urban and rural young men, respectively. Surprisingly, relatively few young men, even in rural areas, reported agricultural occupations (19%), probably attributed to the small land holdings reported earlier, and the fact that a considerable proportion of young men reported unpaid work on the family farm. Among young women, leading occupations in rural areas were agricultural, particularly agricultural labour (45%), unskilled non-agricultural labour (29%) and skilled manual labour (17%). In contrast, leading occupations in urban areas were skilled manual labour (51%) and administrative, executive, managerial and clerical occupations (22%) and unskilled non-agricultural labour (17%).

Differences by marital status were not wide among young men, irrespective of rural-urban residence, although the married were somewhat less likely than the unmarried to report working in unskilled non-agricultural labour (34% and 43%, respectively, in urban areas; 40% and 48%, respectively, in rural areas). Among young women, however, these differences were notable. In rural areas, the married were more likely than the unmarried to report that they worked as agricultural labourers (49% versus 35%) and less likely to have worked as skilled manual labourers (15% versus 23%); in urban areas, the married were less likely than the unmarried to have engaged in administrative, executive, managerial and clerical occupations (14% versus 29%) and more likely to have worked as unskilled non-agricultural labourers (23% versus 12%).

Among youth reporting unpaid work in the 12 months preceding the interview, findings suggest that a large majority were engaged in agricultural activities, that is, on the family farm (92% of young women and 83% of young men, not shown in tabular form). As expected, more rural than urban youth were engaged in such activities.

4.2 Unemployment

To measure unemployment rates among respondents, the Youth Study assessed (a) whether youth had worked in the 12 months preceding the interview and if so, the number of months worked; and (b) whether youth were seeking work and if so, the number of months during which they had been searching for work. Table 4.2 reports unemployment rates, defined as those seeking employment for the major part of the year preceding the interview as a fraction of those in the labour force. Labour force refers to those who were working or seeking work for the

major part of the year. It does not, therefore, include those exclusively studying, those who may have worked for a short period in the year preceding the interview, or those who had sought work for a short period in the year preceding the interview.

Measured in this way, the percentage of unemployed youth was small—6%—among both young men and young women, rates more or less identical to those observed by the National Sample Survey (NSS) (NSSO, 2006, that is 5% and 4% for youth aged 15–19 and 20–24, respectively, in rural areas; and 13% and 6%, respectively, in urban areas) among youth using the usual principal status definition. We note, however, that rates obtained in the Youth Study are not quite comparable to the NSS not only because questions were not identical, but also because of differences in the frequency with which information was obtained and corresponding differences in the recall period (quarterly in the NSS as compared to a 12-month recall period in the Youth Study) and differences in the household member eligible to provide information on youth unemployment (any household member in the NSS compared to the individual herself or himself in the Youth Study).

Table 4.2: Unemployment

Percentage of youth in the labour force who were unemployed, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Unemployment (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Unemployed	6.0	6.1	3.0	5.4	8.2	7.3
Number in labour force	**1,563**	**1,627**	**1,694**	**867**	**867**	**760**
Urban						
Unemployed	4.9	12.8	0.9	15.3	6.9	10.6
Number in labour force	**640**	**472**	**602**	**202**	**427**	**270**
Rural						
Unemployed	6.4	4.9	3.5	4.5	9.0	6.2
Number in labour force	**923**	**1,155**	**1,092**	**665**	**440**	**490**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. [1]Unemployment rate: Youth who were seeking work for the major part of the year preceding the interview as a proportion of those in the labour force (namely, those who were employed and/or seeking work for the major part of the year).

Findings suggest, moreover, that while gender differences were negligible for the overall and rural populations, variation did exist in urban areas; 13% of young women compared to 5% of young men reported unemployment. Differences by marital status indicate that unmarried young men were somewhat more likely than married young men to report unemployment (8% and 3%, respectively); these differences were evident in both rural and urban areas. Among young women, differences in unemployment were negligible; however, among urban women, the married were somewhat more likely than the unmarried to report unemployment (15% and 11%, respectively). Differences by rural-urban residence were observed only among young women (13% and 5% of young women in urban and rural areas, respectively, reported unemployment).

Table 4.3 describes socio-economic and demographic differentials in reported unemployment among young men and women. Unemployment rates appeared to be somewhat similar among younger (aged 15–19) and older (aged 20–24) men and women. Differences by religion were negligible but caste-wise differences suggest that unemployment rates were highest among those belonging to general castes. Differences by education were, in contrast, wide and consistent. Better educated youth were more likely to report unemployment than other categories of youth, suggesting the relative dearth of opportunities for the educated. Young men and women who had completed Class 12 reported the highest rates of unemployment (16% and 32%, respectively), a finding reiterated in other studies (Chandrasekhar, Ghosh and Roychowdhury, 2006; NSSO, 2006). Differences by household economic status, measured in wealth quintiles, were less consistent among young men; however, unemployment rates increased uniformly and sharply with economic status among young women.

Table 4.3: Unemployment by selected background characteristics

Percentage of youth in the labour force who were unemployed by selected background characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Age (years)						
15–19	8.3	4.4	5.8	2.8	9.1	5.6
20–24	4.9	7.4	3.6	6.5	7.3	14.8
25–29	NA	NA	2.3	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	5.8	6.2	2.9	5.6	8.3	7.7
Muslim	9.2	2.9	5.7	2.4	9.7	2.4
Caste						
SC	4.9	4.3	1.9	4.4	7.1	3.3
ST	3.2	3.4	2.3	3.8	5.1	1.9
OBC	6.8	6.3	4.0	5.7	8.9	8.3
General[1]	8.3	12.4	1.9	10.5	10.2	13.8
Educational level (years)						
None[2]	2.3	2.2	1.3	2.3	3.7	1.1
1–7	2.6	3.5	1.5	3.7	4.8	3.0
8–11	6.8	14.0	3.0	12.4	9.2	15.7
12 and above	16.2	31.7	7.5	46.3	20.4	21.5
Wealth quintile						
First	4.8	2.2	2.3	2.6	6.5	0.0
Second	3.4	5.5	2.6	5.6	5.3	4.2
Third	5.0	3.9	2.6	3.4	6.7	3.9
Fourth	8.9	9.6	3.6	8.6	13.4	12.8
Fifth	7.1	11.3	3.5	8.8	7.0	15.3
Total	**6.0**	**6.1**	**3.0**	**5.4**	**8.2**	**7.3**
Urban						
Age (years)						
15–19	8.8	9.8	*	(11.8)	9.3	10.0
20–24	3.4	14.5	1.8	16.2	4.7	11.8
25–29	NA	NA	0.5	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	4.9	15.4	0.8	16.7	6.7	13.4
Muslim	5.2	6.0	1.5	8.7	7.6	1.7
Caste						
SC	5.7	17.0	1.8	(20.0)	6.7	(10.3)
ST	*	*	*	*	*	*
OBC	4.7	9.4	1.2	10.0	6.9	8.0
Genearl[1]	5.0	18.1	1.0	(26.7)	6.3	14.1

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Table 4.3: (Cont'd)

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Educational level (years)						
None[2]	0.0	5.1	0.0	7.1	(0.0)	4.8
1–7	3.4	6.6	0.0	9.7	5.3	3.8
8–11	3.8	23.1	0.9	(35.7)	4.6	(10.3)
12 and above	11.2	20.7	1.9	(28.6)	14.5	17.3
Wealth quintile						
First	*	*	*	*	*	*
Second	*	(19.0)	*	*	*	*
Third	2.0	4.8	0.0	4.5	2.9	(5.7)
Fourth	6.6	13.3	1.1	16.7	9.4	8.5
Fifth	5.6	15.9	1.1	19.0	6.8	14.6
Total	**4.9**	**12.8**	**0.9**	**15.3**	**6.9**	**10.6**
Rural						
Age (years)						
15–19	8.4	3.4	6.3	2.3	8.8	4.5
20–24	5.4	6.0	4.0	5.5	8.9	(19.3)
25–29	NA	NA	2.8	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	6.1	4.9	3.4	4.8	8.9	5.9
Muslim	(18.2)	0.8	(13.2)	(0.0)	*	1.6
Caste						
SC	4.6	2.8	2.2	3.3	7.3	1.3
ST	3.3	3.2	2.4	3.2	4.3	2.1
OBC	7.5	5.7	4.8	5.3	9.9	8.4
General[1]	11.7	8.9	3.3	(6.6)	15.3	13.4
Educational level (years)						
None[2]	2.8	2.0	1.5	2.2	4.9	0.4
1–7	2.4	2.8	1.7	2.8	4.1	2.8
8–11	7.9	11.8	3.3	8.4	11.6	18.4
12 and above	19.4	46.0	10.9	*	(27.5)	(30.0)
Wealth quintile						
First	5.0	2.0	2.4	2.7	6.7	0.0
Second	3.5	4.8	2.7	5.0	5.7	3.8
Third	5.5	3.5	2.9	3.3	7.8	4.2
Fourth	10.1	8.5	4.8	6.6	16.5	16.7
Fifth	8.9	8.9	5.1	6.5	7.4	18.0
Total	**6.4**	**4.9**	**3.5**	**4.5**	**9.0**	**6.2**

*Note: ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [2]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

Patterns of unemployment observed for married and unmarried young men suggest that among the married, unemployment rates varied narrowly by categories of age, religion, caste and wealth quintile; a positive association was observed, however, between education and unemployment. Among the unmarried, distinct differences were observed by caste and education. Among young women, patterns observed for both the married and the unmarried were, by and large, similar to those observed for all young women described above. Even so, some exceptions were apparent among unmarried young women, among whom unemployment rates increased with age, and varied by religion, with more Hindu than Muslim young women reporting unemployment. Patterns by rural-urban residence were, by and large, similar to patterns observed for young men and women in general.

4.3 Work-related mobility

Among young men who had ever worked, one-sixth reported work-related mobility, as shown in Table 4.4. Fewer young women, in contrast, had lived away from home for work-related reasons (4%). Gender differences may be attributed to the finding observed earlier that men were more likely than women to be engaged in such activities as non-agricultural labour and skilled manual labour, which entail mobility; they may also be attributed to the greater restrictions placed on the independent movement of young women than men.

Differences by marital status indicate that married young men were slightly more likely to have experienced work-related mobility than unmarried men (20% versus 14%), perhaps a function of the fact that married men tended to be older and have more work experience than the unmarried. Rural-urban differences among them were not, however, apparent (15% and 17% of urban and rural young men, respectively). A large proportion of young men (38%) and women (35%) who reported work-related mobility had remained outside their home village or neighbourhood for three months or longer.

Table 4.4: Work-related mobility

Percentage of youth who had ever lived outside their home village/area for work, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Mobility characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Work-related mobility						
Ever stayed outside village/area for work	16.8	3.9	19.8	3.5	13.9	5.3
Number ever worked	**1,783**	**2,744**	**1,787**	**1,511**	**1,029**	**1,233**
Stayed outside village/area for 3 months or longer	37.6	35.2	39.2	31.6	43.4	42.2
Number ever stayed out of home village/area for work	**286**	**116**	**332**	**57**	**143**	**59**
Urban						
Work-related mobility						
Ever stayed outside village/area for work	15.2	3.6	15.4	3.9	14.7	4.0
Number ever worked	**704**	**715**	**612**	**368**	**483**	**347**
Stayed outside village/area for 3 months or longer	42.6	(52.9)	40.4	*	54.3	*
Number ever stayed out of home village/area for work	**105**	**25**	**93**	**13**	**70**	**12**
Rural						
Work-related mobility						
Ever stayed outside village/area for work	17.3	3.9	20.9	3.4	13.4	5.6
Number ever worked	**1,079**	**2,029**	**1,175**	**1,143**	**546**	**886**
Stayed outside village/area for 3 months or longer	36.0	32.4	39.0	(29.4)	37.5	(38.2)
Number ever stayed out of home village/area for work	**181**	**91**	**239**	**44**	**73**	**47**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases.*

4.4 Economic activity and schooling status

While the period of transition to adulthood is marked by discontinuation of schooling and entry into the labour market for many young people, some combine schooling and work and others are neither in school nor working. Data collected through the Life Event Calendar component of the Youth Study provided an opportunity to explore the pattern of these events (that is, studying, working, both studying and working, and neither studying nor working) in young people's lives from the age of 12, and these are presented in Figures 4.1a-c. We note that Figures 4.1a and 4.1b convey the situation both prior to and following marriage for married youth.

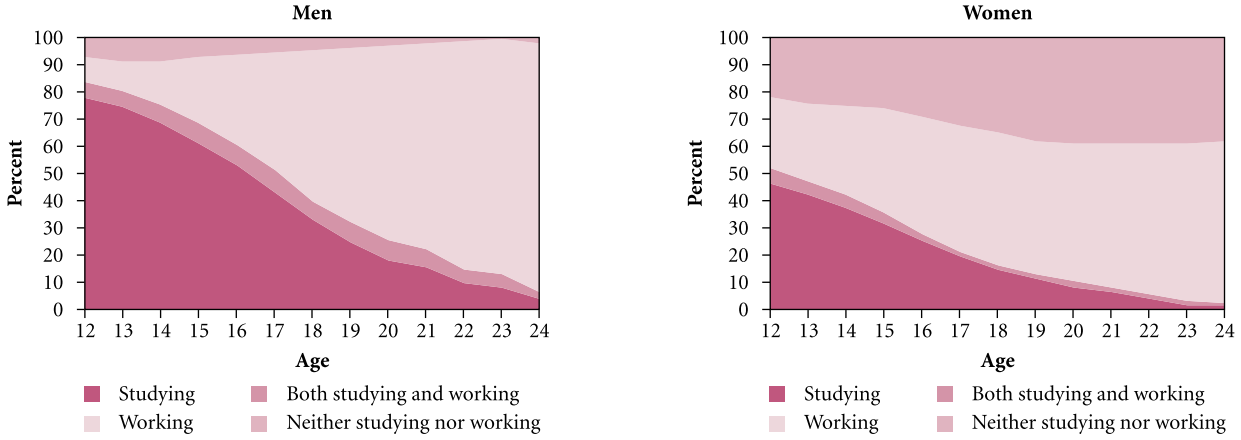
Patterns varied widely by sex and marital status of the respondent. A comparison of the two panels of Figure 4.1a shows, first, that the proportion of youth reporting school attendance declined steadily across all groups as young people transitioned out of childhood or early adolescence into late adolescence and young adulthood. For example, while 83% of young men and 52% of young women were in school (a small minority of these were also working) at age 12, the percentage who remained in school at age 15 fell to 68% for young men and 35% for young women. Second, very few young people (8% or fewer) reported having combined studying and working at any age. Third, exit from school was accompanied by a rise in work participation over the ages for both young men and women; however, the increase was steeper among young men than young women. Fourth, more youth were working than in school from an early age and the age at which more were working than in school was lower among young women (15 years) than among young men (17 years). Finally, significant proportions of young women but not young men were neither in school nor working from age 12 onwards. Among young men, small proportions (fewer than one in 10) were neither working nor in school at any age. Among young women, there was a steady increase by age. At age 12, 22% of young women were neither working nor in school; percentages increased to 26% at age 15 and 39% at age 20.

Figures 4.1b and 4.1c suggest that patterns differed between married and unmarried youth. For one, the married were less likely than the unmarried to be in school at each age. For example, 73% and 37% of married young men and women, respectively, and 87% and 76% of the unmarried, respectively, were in school (a small minority of these were also working) at age 12, and the percentages of those who remained in school fell thereafter. At age 20, for example, only 16% of married young men and 4% of married young women were pursuing their education compared to 39% and 59% of unmarried young men and women, respectively. Second, more married than unmarried young women were neither in school nor working from age 12 onward, with a reversal observed only at age 24; marital status differences were negligible among young men. Finally, the age from which more youth were working than in school was 16 years among married young men and 12 years among married young women; this crossover occurred at considerably older ages among the unmarried (18 and 23 years among young men and women, respectively).

4.5 Participation in non-economic activity

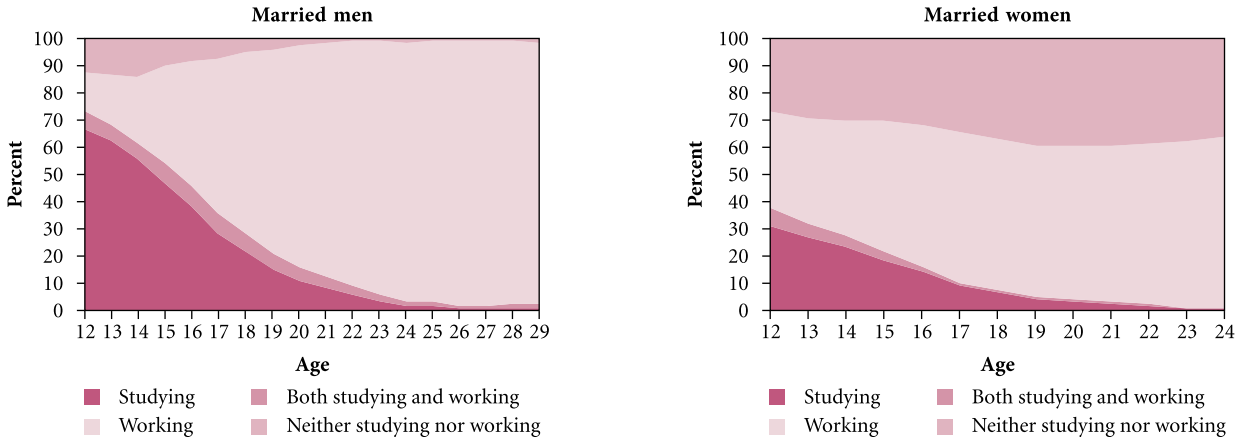
The Youth Study also inquired about the extent to which young men and women participated in domestic chores. All youth were asked whether and how frequently they were engaged in activities such as housework (cooking, cleaning, child/sibling care), shopping for groceries for the family and tasks such as collecting firewood or fetching water, and paying electricity or phone bills (as appropriate for urban and rural areas). Findings, reported in Table 4.5 and Figure 4.2, highlight the gendered nature of young people's participation in domestic chores. They show that the large majority of young women (93%) compared with just 5% of young men were often engaged in housework. It is notable, nonetheless, that more than half of young men reported "sometimes" participating in housework. In contrast, 90% of young men compared with 61% of young women reported sometimes or often shopping for groceries. Tasks such as collecting firewood or fetching water, and paying electricity or phone bills were performed by both young men and women. Larger proportions of young men than women reported participating in these tasks—86% and 68%, respectively—suggesting that young women were more likely than young men to be engaged in work inside the home, and less likely to be engaged in tasks that violated norms restricting their mobility outside the home.

Figure 4.1a: Economic activity and schooling status among youth aged 15–24, by age, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: For married youth, the figure conveys the situation prior to and following marriage.

Figure 4.1b: Economic activity and schooling status among married men aged 15–29 and married women aged 15–24, by age, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: For married youth, the figure conveys the situation prior to and following marriage.

Figure 4.1c: Economic activity and schooling status among unmarried men and women aged 15–24, by age, Rajasthan, 2007

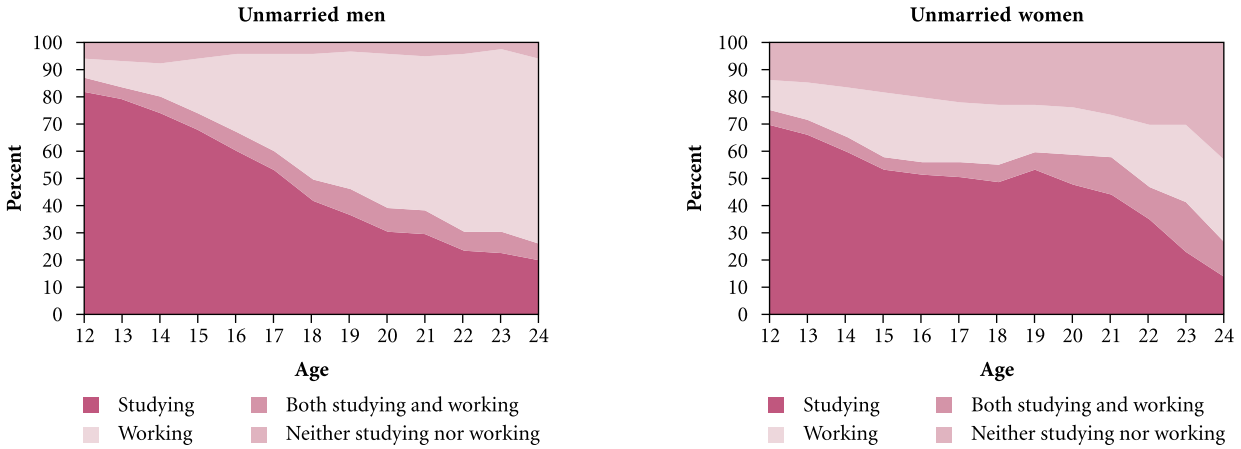


Table 4.5: Participation in household chores

Percent distribution of youth by extent of participation in various household chores, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Types of chores (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Housework[1]						
Never	40.9	0.6	34.0	0.2	43.8	1.1
Sometimes	53.7	6.9	60.2	2.1	50.8	15.1
Often	5.3	92.5	5.6	97.7	5.4	83.8
Shopping						
Never	9.8	39.1	4.7	40.3	11.6	36.9
Sometimes	70.1	46.5	64.1	43.5	71.2	51.4
Often	19.9	14.5	31.0	16.2	17.2	11.7
Other tasks[2]						
Never	13.6	32.1	7.1	24.5	15.7	41.6
Sometimes	64.9	22.6	62.5	21.4	65.3	25.1
Often	21.4	45.3	30.2	54.1	18.9	33.3
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Housework[1]						
Never	45.9	1.0	39.9	0.0	46.9	1.8
Sometimes	49.5	12.5	58.3	2.8	47.8	21.4
Often	4.5	86.4	1.7	97.2	5.3	76.8
Shopping						
Never	8.1	38.0	4.0	39.7	9.1	36.5
Sometimes	73.3	50.8	68.4	47.7	73.8	53.5
Often	18.6	11.3	27.6	12.6	17.2	10.1
Other tasks[2]						
Never	17.3	63.7	8.6	61.1	19.8	66.1
Sometimes	66.5	21.1	70.8	19.0	65.5	23.0
Often	16.1	15.2	20.6	19.9	14.7	10.9
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Housework[1]						
Never	39.1	0.4	32.7	0.2	42.4	0.8
Sometimes	55.1	4.9	60.6	2.0	52.2	11.9
Often	5.5	94.7	6.4	97.8	5.4	87.4
Shopping						
Never	10.4	39.5	4.8	40.5	12.6	37.1
Sometimes	69.0	44.9	63.2	42.7	70.1	50.4
Often	20.3	15.6	31.7	16.9	17.1	12.5
Other tasks[2]						
Never	12.2	20.8	6.8	17.3	14.0	29.1
Sometimes	64.3	23.1	60.6	21.8	65.2	26.2
Often	23.2	56.0	32.3	60.8	20.8	44.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]Includes cooking, cleaning, etc. [2]Respondents were given examples of other tasks such as collecting firewood, fetching water, grazing, paying bills, etc.

In terms of differences in household work participation by marital status, patterns varied by type of activity and sex of the respondent. For example, among young women, the unmarried were as likely as the married to engage in housework and shopping but less likely than the married to engage in other tasks; among young men, the unmarried were less likely than the married to engage in each of the three tasks. These patterns were evident in both urban and rural areas.

Frequency of participation in domestic activities varied. In every case, larger proportions of married than unmarried young women reported involvement in these tasks on a regular basis. Likewise, married young men were more likely than the unmarried to report shopping and engaging in such tasks as collecting firewood or fetching water, and paying electricity or phone bills on a regular basis.

Rural-urban differences were moderate for the most part among young men and women. The only notable difference was that young women in rural areas—upon whom much of the responsibility for collecting firewood and water rests—were far more likely than their urban counterparts to engage in this activity (79% versus 36%). Moreover, rural young women were more likely than urban young women to have engaged in housework and other tasks on a regular basis.

4.6 Participation in vocational training programmes

A number of vocational training opportunities are available to youth through government, non-government and private organisations. Our survey inquired whether respondents had attended any such programmes, and the kinds of programmes they would like to attend, if offered. Findings, presented in Table 4.6 and Figure 4.3, indicate that 12% of young men and 22% of young women had ever attended a vocational training programme. While marital status differences were negligible among young men, unmarried young women were more likely to have received training than their married counterparts. Similarly, urban youth were far more likely to have received training than their rural counterparts.

The kind of training received varied widely by sex of the respondent and rural-urban residence. Among young men, leading training programmes reported were computer skills (48%), auto mechanics or electrical work (20%), driving (12%), English language or secretarial skills (8%) and plumbing or masonry (6%). Key training received by young women was quite different: 70% reported training in tailoring, 36% in handicrafts, 13% in computer skills and 9% in beauty parlour activities. Wide differences were observed by marital status, with the married more likely to report training in more traditional activities, such as, for example, driving and plumbing or masonry among young men and tailoring among young women. In contrast, the unmarried were more likely than the married to report training in new technologies. For example, 56% of unmarried young men compared

Figure 4.2: Percentage of youth who participated in domestic chores, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

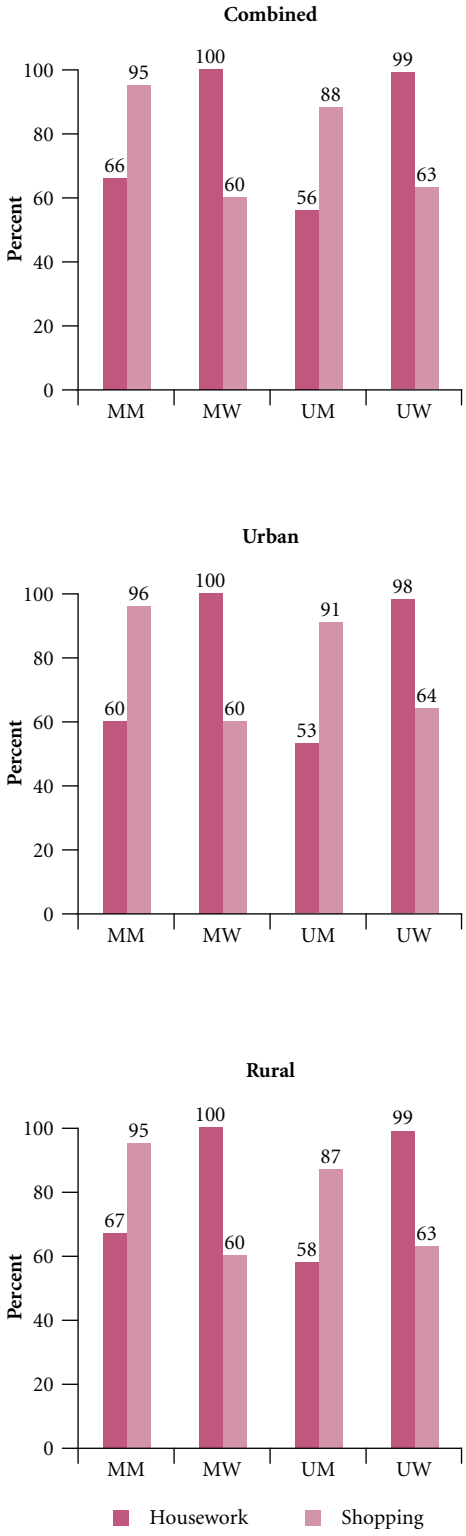


Table 4.6: Participation in vocational training programmes

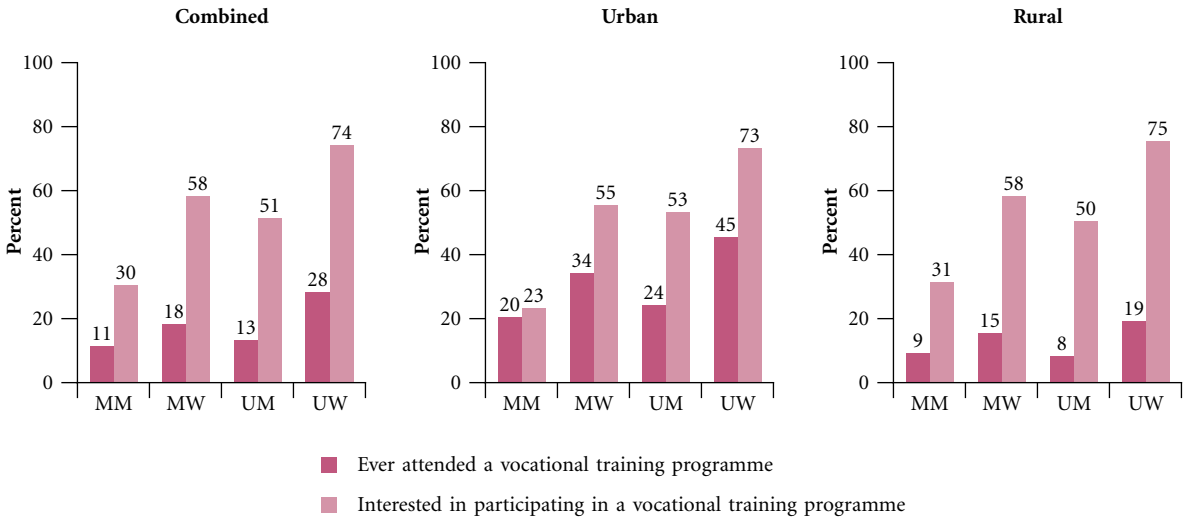
Percentage of youth who ever attended a vocational training programme and type of programme attended, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Programmes/courses attended (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Ever attended a vocational training programme	11.6	22.3	11.0	17.9	12.6	28.1
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Types of programmes/courses attended						
Tailoring	2.3	70.4	4.8	80.4	1.5	60.4
Auto mechanic/electrical work	19.8	0.1	19.3	0.0	17.1	0.0
Driving	11.7	0.2	22.6	0.0	9.3	0.4
Plumbing/masonry	6.0	0.1	11.1	0.2	4.5	0.0
Poultry/goat farm	0.9	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.0
Beauty parlour/salon	2.6	8.8	1.4	4.5	3.0	12.7
Nurse's aid	1.1	0.5	0.0	0.9	1.5	0.1
Computer training	48.3	13.2	30.8	3.2	56.0	22.6
English language/typing/shorthand	8.0	2.7	5.8	0.9	10.8	4.4
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	5.5	35.6	4.3	31.5	4.9	39.7
Number ever attended any vocational training	**416**	**1,608**	**238**	**582**	**325**	**1,026**
Urban						
Ever attended a vocational training programme	22.7	40.0	19.8	34.1	24.1	45.2
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Types of programmes/courses attended						
Tailoring	2.3	62.1	4.3	79.5	1.9	50.5
Auto mechanic/electrical work	21.1	0.2	22.1	0.0	20.1	0.0
Driving	6.3	0.5	11.8	0.0	5.2	0.8
Plumbing/masonry	2.9	0.2	5.8	0.7	2.6	0.0
Poultry/goat farm	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Beauty parlour/salon	2.3	14.0	4.4	8.9	1.9	17.4
Nurse's aid	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.2
Computer training	58.5	25.0	46.4	10.3	63.0	35.1
English language/typing/shorthand	10.9	5.6	7.2	2.7	12.4	7.8
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	5.7	39.4	4.4	32.9	5.2	43.6
Number ever attended any vocational training	**280**	**999**	**123**	**351**	**238**	**648**
Rural						
Ever attended a vocational training programme	7.7	16.1	9.0	14.7	7.7	19.4
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Types of programmes/courses attended						
Tailoring	2.3	77.6	5.0	80.8	0.9	72.1
Auto mechanic/electrical work	18.0	0.0	18.1	0.0	13.0	0.0
Driving	17.2	0.0	27.3	0.0	14.9	0.0
Plumbing/masonry	9.2	0.0	13.8	0.0	7.0	0.0
Poultry/goat farm	1.7	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.9	0.0
Beauty parlour/salon	2.9	4.1	0.0	2.5	4.4	7.1
Nurse's aid	2.3	0.6	0.0	0.9	3.5	0.0
Computer training	37.9	2.8	23.0	0.0	46.1	7.8
English language/typing/shorthand	4.7	0.1	5.8	0.0	7.8	0.5
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	5.2	32.3	4.3	30.7	4.4	35.1
Number ever attended any vocational training	**136**	**609**	**115**	**231**	**87**	**378**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses.

to 31% of married young men reported computer training; corresponding figures for young women were 23% and 3%, respectively. Unmarried young men were, in addition, more likely to report training in English language or secretarial skills (11% versus 6%) and unmarried young women in beauty parlour activities (13% versus 5%) and handicrafts (40% versus 32%) than their respective married counterparts. Finally, training received by rural and urban youth also differed, with urban youth considerably less likely than rural youth to report training in more traditional activities. For example, urban youth were far more likely than rural youth to report computer training, and training in English or secretarial skills. Young women in urban areas, moreover, were considerably more likely to report training in computer skills, handicrafts and beauty parlour skills than their rural counterparts. Conversely, urban youth were less likely than rural youth to report training in traditional activities: for example, driving among young men and tailoring among young women.

Figure 4.3: Percentage of youth who ever attended a vocational training programme and percentage who were interested in participating in such programmes, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Large proportions of youth—46% of young men and 63% of young women—reported interest in attending vocational training programmes, as shown in Table 4.7. Although more unmarried than married youth expressed interest in attending such vocational training, it is notable that 30% of married men and 58% of married women were interested in developing vocational skills. Rural-urban differences were negligible, except that more married men in rural areas than in urban areas expressed an interest to acquire vocational skills. Skills in which youth wished to be trained virtually mirrored the patterns revealed above. The majority of young women continued to wish to be trained in areas such as tailoring and handicrafts, although substantial proportions—particularly those in urban areas—reported a preference for computer training and training in beauty parlour activities. Young men's preferences, in contrast, were focused on computer training, auto mechanics or electrical work, English language or secretarial skills and driving.

Table 4.7: Willingness of youth to participate in vocational training programmes

Percentage of youth interested in participating in vocational training programmes and type of programme they were interested in participating in, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Programmes/courses (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Interested in participating in a vocational training programme	46.4	63.4	29.7	57.5	50.8	74.1
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Types of programmes in which youth wished to participate						
Tailoring	3.6	84.1	6.1	92.3	2.8	74.5
Auto mechanic/electric work	26.5	0.1	33.6	0.0	22.4	0.2
Driving	12.8	0.4	21.6	0.0	9.4	0.8
Plumbing/masonry	7.7	0.0	12.9	0.0	5.9	0.0
Poultry/goat farm	0.8	0.1	2.8	0.1	0.3	0.0
Beauty parlour/salon	0.1	9.3	0.0	5.4	0.2	13.9
Nurse's aid	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.4	1.2
Computer training	48.5	13.3	23.5	4.4	57.9	24.2
English language/typing/shorthand	16.2	5.0	8.2	2.0	19.1	8.7
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	2.6	28.7	3.8	27.6	2.1	30.2
Number interested in participating in a vocational training programme	**1,398**	**4,012**	**534**	**1,509**	**1,090**	**2,503**
Urban						
Interested in participating in a vocational training programme	47.7	64.5	22.7	55.3	52.7	72.8
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Types of programmes in which youth wished to participate						
Tailoring	1.4	65.8	2.5	84.0	1.5	53.3
Auto mechanic/electric work	23.6	0.3	32.9	0.0	22.3	0.5
Driving	9.2	0.9	16.5	0.0	7.7	1.4
Plumbing/masonry	3.0	0.1	10.1	0.0	2.1	0.1
Poultry/goat farm	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0
Beauty parlour/salon	0.3	16.7	0.0	13.1	0.3	19.2
Nurse's aid	0.3	1.0	1.3	0.4	0.3	1.3
Computer training	59.1	28.9	35.4	11.8	62.0	40.7
English language/typing/shorthand	21.7	9.3	8.9	3.0	23.7	13.6
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	3.5	28.4	8.9	28.4	2.4	28.4
Number interested in participating in a vocational training programme	**589**	**1,617**	**143**	**571**	**521**	**1,046**

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Table 4.7: (Cont'd)

Programmes/courses (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Rural						
Interested in participating in a vocational training programme	46.0	62.9	31.2	58.0	50.0	74.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Types of programmes in which youth wished to participate						
Tailoring	4.5	90.7	6.6	93.8	3.5	85.0
Auto mechanic/electric work	27.5	0.0	33.8	0.0	22.4	0.1
Driving	14.0	0.2	22.4	0.0	10.1	0.5
Plumbing/masonry	9.3	0.0	13.5	0.0	7.8	0.0
Poultry/goat farm	1.0	0.1	3.3	0.2	0.4	0.0
Beauty parlour/salon	0.1	6.5	0.0	4.0	0.1	11.3
Nurse's aid	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.4	1.1
Computer training	44.8	7.7	21.6	3.1	55.9	16.1
English language/typing/shorthand	14.3	3.4	8.1	1.8	17.1	6.3
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	2.3	28.7	2.9	27.4	2.0	31.1
Number interested in participating in a vocational training programme	**809**	**2,395**	**391**	**938**	**569**	**1,457**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses.

4.7 Summary

Work profiles suggest that about three-fifths of young men and over one-half of young women had at some time engaged in paid or unpaid work. Indeed, almost all married young men and about half of unmarried young men had done so, compared with two-thirds and two-fifths of married and unmarried young women, respectively. Likewise, more youth in rural than urban areas had ever worked: differences were mild among men (63% versus 58%) and considerable among young women (64% versus 30%). Young men were far less likely to have engaged in unpaid than in paid work (22% compared to 49%). Young women, in contrast, were more likely to have engaged in unpaid than in paid work (41% and 25%, respectively). Economic activity was often initiated at an early age: over one in five (22%) young men and almost two in five young women (36%) reported initiating work in childhood or early adolescence (by age 15).

Data on work participation in the 12 months prior to interview indicate that the majority of young men (48% of unmarried and 93% of married) and a substantial proportion of young women (37% and 58%, respectively) had engaged in paid or unpaid work at some point in the 12 months preceding the survey. The majority of young men (90%) who worked in the year prior to interview had done so for the major part (at least six months) of the year. In contrast, among young women, just three-fifths had done so.

Occupational profiles among those working for wages were fairly similar among young men in rural and urban areas, but differed considerably among young women. Among young men, leading occupations were unskilled non-agricultural and skilled manual labour, together reported by 74% and 73% of urban and rural young men, respectively. Among young women, leading occupations in rural areas were agricultural, particularly agricultural labour (45%),

unskilled non-agricultural labour (29%) and skilled manual labour (17%). In contrast, leading occupations in urban areas were skilled manual labour (51%), unskilled non-agricultural labour (17%) and administrative, executive, managerial and clerical occupations (22%).

Findings also suggest that unemployment rates were low among youth: 6% among both young men and women. Unemployment was particularly high among the educated, young men and women who had completed Class 12 reported the highest rates of unemployment.

Youth were clearly interested in acquiring skills that would enable employment generation; almost half of young men and almost two-thirds of young women reported interest in vocational skills training. However, far fewer—just 12% of young men and 22% of young women—had attended at least one vocational training programme.

Chapter 5

Media exposure and access to pornographic materials

Media may play an important role in shaping the attitudes and behaviours of youth. Youth gain access to new information through a variety of sources, including print and visual media and, increasingly, the internet. Many are also exposed to pornography through these channels. The Youth Study probed young people's exposure to various media sources, the extent of their exposure to pornographic materials by way of books/magazines, films and the internet, and their perceptions about the influence of television and films on youth behaviours.

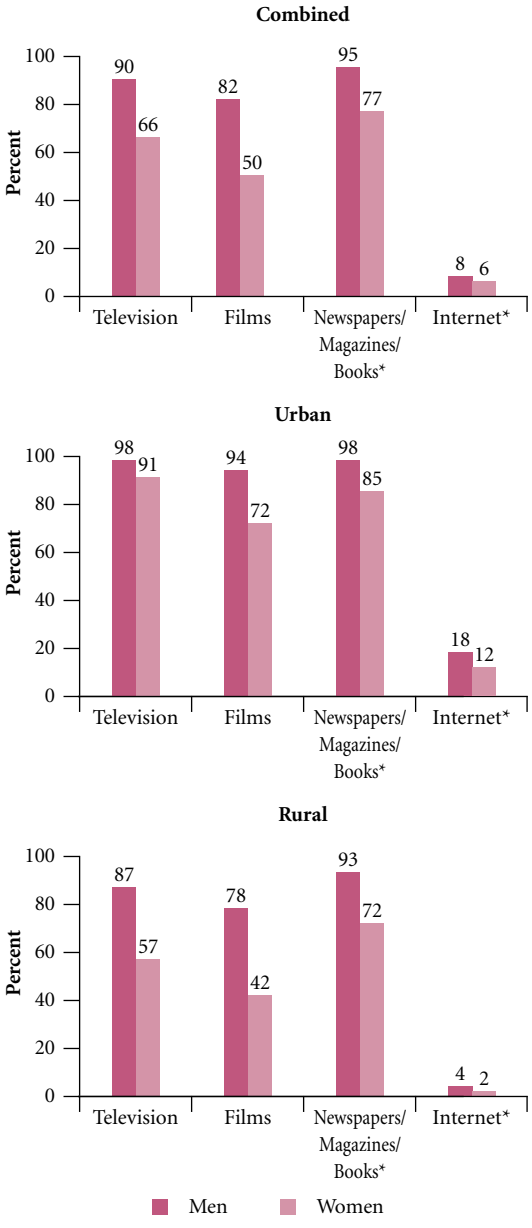
5.1 Mass media exposure

The survey asked a number of questions regarding youth exposure to mass media. These included whether and how frequently young people read newspapers, magazines or books, watched films or television programmes other than movies, and accessed the internet. Questions regarding exposure to print media and the internet were asked only to those who had attained at least five years of education, as this was considered a prerequisite for basic literacy and, thus, understanding of such materials. Youth were asked to rate the frequency of their exposure to each medium according to the categories "never," "sometimes" and "often". If any young person did not respond in this format but rather, in terms of days per week, three or more exposures per week were classified as "often" and less frequent exposure as "sometimes".

Findings are presented in Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1. They suggest that youth were exposed to a variety of media, but that typically, more young men than women reported media exposure. The largest proportion of youth was exposed to print materials (newspapers, magazines or books)—95% of young men and 77% of young women who had completed five or more years of education. Exposure to television was reported by almost as many—90% of all young men and 66% of all young women. Fewer youth—82% of young men and half of young women watched films either on CD/DVD or at a theatre or video parlour. Finally, only small proportions of youth with five or more years of education accessed the internet: 8% of young men and 6% of young women.

Marital status differences were, for the most part, mild among young men, except that the unmarried were somewhat more

Figure 5.1: Percentage of youth exposed to television, films, print media and the internet, Rajasthan, 2007



*Note: *Question asked only of respondents who had completed five or more years of education.*

Table 5.1: Mass media exposure

Percent distribution of youth exposed to various mass media by frequency of exposure, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Exposure indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Frequency of watching television						
Never	10.4	34.2	13.6	41.9	9.2	23.7
Sometimes	67.5	34.2	71.5	35.0	64.5	33.4
Often	22.0	31.5	14.8	23.1	26.2	42.8
Frequency of watching films						
Never	17.7	50.3	20.9	57.2	16.8	40.7
Sometimes	80.1	47.5	77.4	41.4	80.8	55.9
Often	2.2	2.1	1.6	1.3	2.3	3.4
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Frequency of reading newspapers/magazines/ books[1]						
Never	5.3	22.8	5.0	30.9	5.5	16.2
Sometimes	57.4	47.7	62.4	50.7	54.0	45.8
Often	37.2	28.9	32.6	17.7	40.4	37.5
Frequency of accessing the internet[1]						
Never	92.3	93.8	95.2	96.6	90.9	92.0
Sometimes	6.9	4.7	4.4	2.6	8.1	5.9
Often	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.1	0.8	1.5
Number with 5 or more years of education	**2,584**	**3,867**	**1,477**	**1,216**	**1,901**	**2,651**
Urban						
Frequency of watching television						
Never	1.7	8.6	2.6	11.7	1.3	5.7
Sometimes	52.0	29.4	62.1	33.3	48.6	26.0
Often	46.2	62.0	35.3	55.0	50.0	68.2
Frequency of watching films						
Never	5.6	27.7	4.6	32.3	5.3	23.6
Sometimes	90.4	68.6	92.0	65.3	90.5	71.5
Often	3.9	3.7	3.2	2.3	4.1	4.9
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Frequency of reading newspapers/magazines/ books[1]						
Never	1.6	14.3	1.7	22.0	1.4	9.4
Sometimes	41.0	41.1	43.6	48.0	39.3	36.5
Often	57.4	44.1	54.7	29.3	59.3	53.6
Frequency of accessing the internet[1]						
Never	82.2	87.6	89.9	94.5	80.1	83.4
Sometimes	15.7	9.6	8.8	4.8	17.5	12.6
Often	2.2	2.4	1.4	0.4	2.4	3.7
Number with 5 or more years of education	**1,095**	**1,931**	**536**	**661**	**899**	**1,270**

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Table 5.1: (Cont'd)

Exposure indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Rural						
Frequency of watching television						
Never	13.5	43.4	16.1	47.7	12.6	32.9
Sometimes	72.9	36.0	73.6	35.4	71.4	37.2
Often	13.6	20.7	10.2	16.8	16.0	30.0
Frequency of watching films						
Never	21.9	58.3	24.6	62.1	21.7	49.4
Sometimes	76.5	40.1	74.1	36.8	76.6	47.9
Often	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.7	2.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Frequency of reading newspapers/magazines/ books[1]						
Never	6.6	27.8	5.8	34.1	7.3	20.4
Sometimes	63.4	51.6	67.3	51.6	60.6	51.6
Often	29.9	19.9	26.8	13.6	31.9	27.4
Frequency of accessing the internet[1]						
Never	96.0	97.4	96.6	97.4	95.8	97.4
Sometimes	3.7	1.8	3.3	1.8	3.8	1.7
Often	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
Number with 5 or more years of education	**1,489**	**1,936**	**941**	**555**	**1,002**	**1,381**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]Question asked only of respondents who had completed five or more years of education.

likely than the married to report exposure to the internet; among young women, in contrast, the unmarried were consistently more likely to be exposed to each medium than the married. Rural-urban differences were also apparent, with urban youth—particularly young women—more likely than rural youth to be exposed to the media. Notably, some 12% of young women and 18% of young men in urban settings accessed the internet, compared to 2% and 4%, respectively, of rural youth.

5.2 Exposure to pornographic materials

Youth were asked whether they were exposed to pornographic materials by way of films, books and magazines, and the internet (for those who accessed the internet). Table 5.2 reports that 19% of young men compared to 5% of young women had watched "blue" or pornographic films. Differences by marital status were evident: more married than unmarried youth were exposed to pornographic films (22% versus 17% among young men, and 7% versus 1% among young women). Differences by rural-urban residence suggest that more urban than rural youth had ever watched a pornographic film: 29% and 15% of urban and rural young men, respectively, and 8% and 4% of urban and rural young women, respectively.

Among youth who had ever watched a pornographic film, about half reported having viewed such films sometimes or frequently (see Table 5.2). Likewise, about half of both married and unmarried young men and married young women (there were too few unmarried young women who reported exposure to pornographic films to assess) reported having viewed such films sometimes or frequently. Differences by rural-urban residence were mild. For the most part, young men had watched films together with friends; the majority of young women had done so with their husband (85% of married women). A sizeable percentage of young women (15%) and hardly any young man reported that they had been pressured or forced, at least once, to do so.

Table 5.2: Exposure to pornographic materials

Percentage of youth exposed to different pornographic materials, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Exposure indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Ever watched a "blue"/pornographic film	18.8	5.0	22.3	7.0	17.3	0.7
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Frequency of watching "blue"/pornographic films						
Rarely	48.7	49.8	47.9	48.6	45.7	(87.0)
Sometimes	50.1	46.8	51.2	48.1	53.0	(13.0)
Often	0.9	3.0	0.9	3.3	0.8	(0.0)
Person accompanying when watching "blue"/ pornographic films						
Alone	8.6	5.7	4.3	4.9	11.1	(20.8)
Peer(s)	81.7	10.7	70.1	8.2	85.4	(66.7)
Spouse	NA	NA	19.7	85.3	NA	NA
Other(s)	2.5	1.7	5.9	1.6	3.2	(8.3)
Ever forced by anyone to watch "blue"/ pornographic films	1.6	15.4	0.7	15.4	2.7	(16.7)
Number who ever watched "blue"/ pornographic films	**616**	**272**	**465**	**246**	**415**	**26**
Ever read/looked at pornographic books/magazines	10.2	2.5	11.4	3.2	9.8	1.1
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Frequency of reading/looking at pornographic books/magazines						
Rarely	54.4	35.3	50.7	34.9	57.4	(40.0)
Sometimes	45.0	56.4	48.8	57.0	41.6	(50.0)
Often	0.3	1.3	0.5	1.2	0.5	(2.5)
Number who ever read/looked at pornographic books/magazines	**327**	**151**	**233**	**111**	**232**	**40**
Ever accessed pornographic materials on the internet	19.8	7.1	17.6	(6.9)	22.2	6.2
Number who ever accessed the internet	**252**	**275**	**85**	**44**	**216**	**231**
Urban						
Ever watched a "blue"/pornographic film	28.8	8.1	35.6	15.7	26.7	1.3
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Frequency of watching "blue"/pornographic films						
Rarely	49.6	46.1	50.0	43.3	48.5	*
Sometimes	48.7	50.0	49.2	53.7	49.7	*
Often	1.3	3.1	0.8	3.0	1.2	*
Person accompanying when watching "blue"/ pornographic films						
Alone	11.6	7.0	7.3	4.5	12.9	*
Peer(s)	79.9	9.4	59.7	4.5	84.7	*
Spouse	NA	NA	30.6	90.9	NA	NA
Other(s)	1.8	0.8	2.4	0.0	2.4	*
Ever forced by anyone to watch "blue"/ pornographic films	1.3	14.1	0.8	14.9	1.8	*
Number who ever watched "blue"/ pornographic films	**350**	**185**	**223**	**166**	**262**	**19**

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Table 5.2: (Cont'd)

Exposure indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Ever read/looked at pornographic books/magazines	14.7	3.7	17.2	6.3	14.8	1.3
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Frequency of reading/looking at pornographic books/magazines						
Rarely	56.5	29.5	56.7	29.6	57.9	*
Sometimes	41.7	63.9	41.7	66.7	40.0	*
Often	0.9	3.3	1.7	3.7	1.1	*
Number who ever read/looked at pornographic books/magazines	**179**	**87**	**107**	**66**	**145**	**21**
Ever accessed pornographic materials on the internet	20.3	8.3	20.0	(14.3)	20.7	6.1
Number who ever accessed the internet	**195**	**241**	**54**	**35**	**177**	**206**
Rural						
Ever watched a "blue"/pornographic film	15.4	3.9	19.3	5.3	13.3	0.4
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Frequency of watching "blue"/pornographic films						
Rarely	48.1	52.9	47.1	51.7	43.2	*
Sometimes	50.7	44.1	52.2	45.7	55.8	*
Often	0.9	2.9	0.7	2.6	0.5	*
Person accompanying when watching "blue"/ pornographic films						
Alone	6.7	4.7	3.4	5.2	9.5	*
Peer(s)	82.6	11.8	74.4	10.3	86.4	*
Spouse	NA	NA	14.8	82.8	NA	NA
Other(s)	2.9	2.4	7.4	1.7	3.5	*
Ever forced by anyone to watch "blue"/ pornographic films	1.7	17.0	0.7	16.4	3.5	*
Number who ever watched "blue"/ pornographic films	**266**	**87**	**242**	**80**	**153**	**7**
Ever read/looked at pornographic books/magazines	8.6	2.1	10.1	2.5	7.7	1.0
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Frequency of reading/looking at pornographic books/magazines						
Rarely	53.1	39.2	48.4	(37.3)	57.0	*
Sometimes	46.9	51.5	51.6	(52.5)	43.0	*
Often	0.0	0.0	0.0	(0.0)	0.0	*
Number who ever read/looked at pornographic books/magazines	**148**	**64**	**126**	**45**	**87**	**19**
Ever accessed pornographic materials on the internet	17.8	(2.7)	(15.8)	*	(25.5)	(3.4)
Number who ever accessed the internet	**57**	**34**	**31**	**9**	**39**	**25**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases.*

Exposure to pornographic books and magazines was reported by fewer youth (10% of young men and 3% of young women) with little variation by marital status and with urban youth mildly more likely than their rural counterparts to so report. Of those exposed to the internet, a substantial proportion of young men (20%) had accessed pornographic materials on the internet; this compared with 7% of young women. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were mild.

5.3 Youth perceptions about the influence of television and films on youth behaviours

The survey also questioned youth about their perceptions of the influence of television and films on youth behaviours. Specifically, they were asked whether they believed that television and films influenced the way in which their friends dressed, whether violence on television and in films could make youth aggressive and whether they had ever felt like having sex after watching certain films. Table 5.3 suggests that considerable proportions of youth, and more young men than women felt that television and films influenced their friends' or their own behaviours. For example, about three-fifths of young men and over two-fifths of young women believed that television and films influenced the way their friends dressed. Somewhat fewer youth reported that violence on television and in films could make youth aggressive (54% and 38% of young men and women, respectively), and that watching certain films had made them desire sex (26% of young men and 16% of young women).

Marital status differences in perceptions that television and films influenced the way youth dress and youth aggressiveness were negligible, except that more unmarried than married young women agreed that television and films influenced the way their friends dressed. However, more married than unmarried youth reported that watching certain films had made them desire sex. Differences by rural-urban residence indicate that more urban than rural youth felt that television and films influenced youth behaviours.

Table 5.3: Perceptions about the influence of television and films on youth behaviours

Percentage of youth reporting perceptions regarding the influence of television and films on youth behaviours, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Perceptions about the influence of television and films (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
TV/films influence the way friends dress	58.1	44.8	53.4	39.9	59.4	52.6
Violence on TV and in films can make youth aggressive	53.6	37.8	52.6	36.5	53.5	39.2
Certain films make respondent want to have sex	25.5	15.6	30.7	18.6	23.3	9.8
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
TV/films influence the way friends dress	64.1	54.3	57.6	50.4	65.3	58.1
Violence on TV and in films can make youth aggressive	61.5	45.3	64.4	43.8	61.2	46.5
Certain films make respondent want to have sex	30.0	16.1	37.9	22.2	28.1	10.4
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
TV/films influence the way friends dress	55.9	41.4	52.5	37.8	56.9	49.9
Violence on TV and in films can make youth aggressive	50.8	35.2	50.0	35.1	50.2	35.4
Certain films make respondent want to have sex	24.0	15.4	29.1	17.9	21.3	9.5
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted.

5.4 Summary

Findings suggest that large proportions of all youth in Rajasthan were exposed to the media, typically television (90% of all young men and 66% of all young women), and, among youth with five or more years of education, newspapers, magazines or books (95% of young men and 77% of young women). Exposure to the internet, among those with five or more years of education, was reported by considerably fewer youth (8% of young men and 6% of young women). Gender differences were apparent, with young men typically more likely to be exposed to each medium than young women.

Findings also suggest that about one in five young men and one in twenty young women watched pornographic films, and just 10% of young men and 3% of young women accessed pornographic books and magazines. About half of those who had been exposed to pornographic materials reported that they accessed these materials sometimes or frequently. Finally, about three-fifths of young men and two-fifths of young women acknowledged the influence that media have on youth behaviours and between one-seventh and one-quarter, respectively, acknowledged its influence on their own behaviour.

Chapter 6

Growing up

This chapter focuses on such experiences as puberty as well as youth interaction with parents and peers while growing up. Globally, studies have suggested a declining age at puberty for young men and women and stress that this, along with rising ages at marriage, provides a longer window in which young people can make same- and opposite-sex friends (National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2005). Several studies have highlighted the importance of close parental interaction for the healthy development of young people (Laird et al., 2003; Marta, 1997; Sroufe, 1991). Others note that young people's interaction with parents is particularly limited when it comes to discussion of sensitive issues, for example, girl-boy relations or sexual and reproductive matters (Alexander et al., 2006a; 2006b; Lambert and Wood, 2005; Mehra, Savithri and Coutinho, 2002). In addition, a few studies have shown that the peer group is, for many youth, a central source of both information and support, but at the same time, a source of misinformation and pressure to adopt risky behaviours (Bhuiya et al., 2003; Sachdev, 1998; Ul Haque and Faizunnisa, 2003).

The Youth Study included several questions relating to each of these issues. This chapter begins by describing the ages at which young people experienced signs of puberty. It then explores aspects of their family life and interaction with parents on various matters of importance to youth. It also addresses peer networks and interaction, specifically, the size of the same- and opposite-sex peer networks, and peer activities in which respondents participated. Finally, the chapter discusses young people's access to support networks for discussing personal matters.

6.1 Puberty

In order to examine ages at which puberty occurs among young men and women, the Youth Study included questions on age at menarche for young women and age at which voice change and growth of pubic hair were noticed for young men. Table 6.1a shows that mean age at menarche was 14 years for young women. Urban-rural differences were moderate—however, somewhat more urban than rural young women had experienced menarche by the time they were 13 (37% and 30%, respectively).

Voice change and appearance of pubic hair for young men occurred about one year later than did menarche for young women. Table 6.1b shows that the average age at which young men reported both these changes was 15 years with hardly any difference between rural and urban respondents.

6.2 Family life and interaction with parents

The Youth Study explored a variety of issues that capture the nature of family life and youth interaction with parents in particular. Married respondents were specifically asked to recall the period before marriage.

6.2.1 Socialisation experiences

Table 6.2 presents findings on the socialisation experiences of youth during their teenage years as compared with their siblings, or cousins of the opposite-sex if the respondent did not have an opposite-sex sibling. Wide gender differences were evident in relation to respondents' freedom to go out; for example, 58% of young men reported that they had more freedom to go out than their sisters or female cousins did; somewhat more—two-thirds—of

Table 6.1a: Age at puberty among young women

Percent distribution of young women aged 15–24 by age at puberty, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Puberty indicators (%)	Combined	Urban	Rural
Age at menarche (years)			
Below 12	0.6	1.0	0.5
12	5.4	7.0	4.8
13	25.8	28.5	24.8
14	33.0	33.8	32.8
15 and above	27.8	25.2	28.7
Not yet menstruated	1.6	0.8	1.9
Mean age at menarche (years)[1]	14.0	14.0	14.0
Number of respondents	**5,987**	**2,474**	**3,513**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]Excludes those who had not menstruated at the time of the interview.

Table 6.1b: Age at puberty among young men

Percent distribution of young men aged 15–24 by age at puberty, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Puberty indicators (%)	Combined	Urban	Rural
Age at which voice change noticed (years)			
Below 14	7.5	7.0	7.7
14	7.7	8.4	7.4
15	16.0	16.7	15.7
16	14.5	17.7	13.3
17 and above	10.5	13.5	9.5
No voice change yet	3.9	3.4	4.2
Did not notice/don't remember	39.8	33.4	42.1
Mean age at voice change (years)[1]	15.3	15.4	15.2
Age at which pubic hair noticed (years)			
Below 14	6.5	5.3	6.9
14	11.1	11.0	11.1
15	22.8	26.0	21.6
16	22.6	24.8	21.8
17 and above	11.9	12.1	11.8
No pubic hair yet	2.3	1.9	2.4
Did not notice/don't remember	22.9	18.7	24.3
Mean age at which pubic hair noticed[1]	15.3	15.4	15.3
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**1,227**	**1,747**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases. [1]Excludes those who had not noticed voice change/appearance of pubic hair at the time of the interview or did not remember age at the time of voice change/appearance of pubic hair.

young women agreed that they had less freedom to go out than their brothers or male cousins. In contrast, just 27% of young men reported that they were expected to do less housework than their sisters or female cousins, and more than two-thirds of young women agreed that they were expected to do more housework than their brothers or male cousins. In other words, while young men and women perceived their role in housework somewhat differently, it would appear that large proportions of households in Rajasthan (almost one-third by young women's assessment and three-fifths by young men's) did not discriminate between their sons and daughters in terms of expectations regarding housework.

Differences by marital status were muted among young men; among young women, in contrast, the married, particularly those in urban settings, were more likely than the unmarried to report gendered socialisation experiences (see also Figure 6.1). Rural-urban differences were more consistent, with more rural than urban youth reporting gendered socialisation experiences on both issues. Among young men, differences were mild: for example, 60% and 54% of young men in rural and urban areas, respectively, reported that they had more freedom to go out than their sisters or female cousins. Among young women, however, differences were wider: more rural than urban women reported gender unequal socialisation experiences regarding both matters: they had less freedom to go out (71% and 60%, respectively) and they were expected to do more housework (72% and 59%, respectively) than their brothers or male cousins. Such findings may be explained by the likelihood that rural respondents and those who married early belonged to families adhering more closely to traditional gender norms than the families of other young women.

Table 6.2: Socialisation experiences

Percent distribution of youth by degree of mobility and housework responsibilities relative to an opposite-sex sibling/cousin, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Socialisation experiences (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Respondent had less freedom (W)/more freedom (M) to roam/go out than opposite-sex sibling or cousin						
Yes	58.1	67.9	58.9	72.1	57.5	61.0
No	30.2	30.7	29.1	26.4	30.7	37.8
Respondent was expected to do more housework (W)/less housework (M) than opposite-sex sibling or cousin						
Yes	26.8	69.0	27.1	72.8	25.6	63.4
No	60.0	29.8	60.0	25.9	61.2	35.6
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Respondent had less freedom (W)/more freedom (M) to roam/go out than opposite-sex sibling or cousin						
Yes	54.0	60.0	56.3	69.2	53.9	51.8
No	34.5	38.5	33.3	29.8	34.7	46.4
Respondent was expected to do more housework (W)/less housework (M) than opposite-sex sibling or cousin						
Yes	24.1	59.4	23.6	66.1	23.9	53.2
No	63.3	39.5	65.5	32.7	63.4	45.6
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Respondent had less freedom (W)/more freedom (M) to roam/go out than opposite-sex sibling or cousin						
Yes	59.5	70.6	59.4	72.8	59.0	65.7
No	28.7	28.0	28.2	25.7	29.0	33.4
Respondent was expected to do more housework (W)/less housework (M) than opposite-sex sibling or cousin						
Yes	27.8	72.4	28.0	74.1	26.4	68.6
No	58.9	26.4	58.7	24.6	60.2	30.5
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to "unsure" responses. For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage.

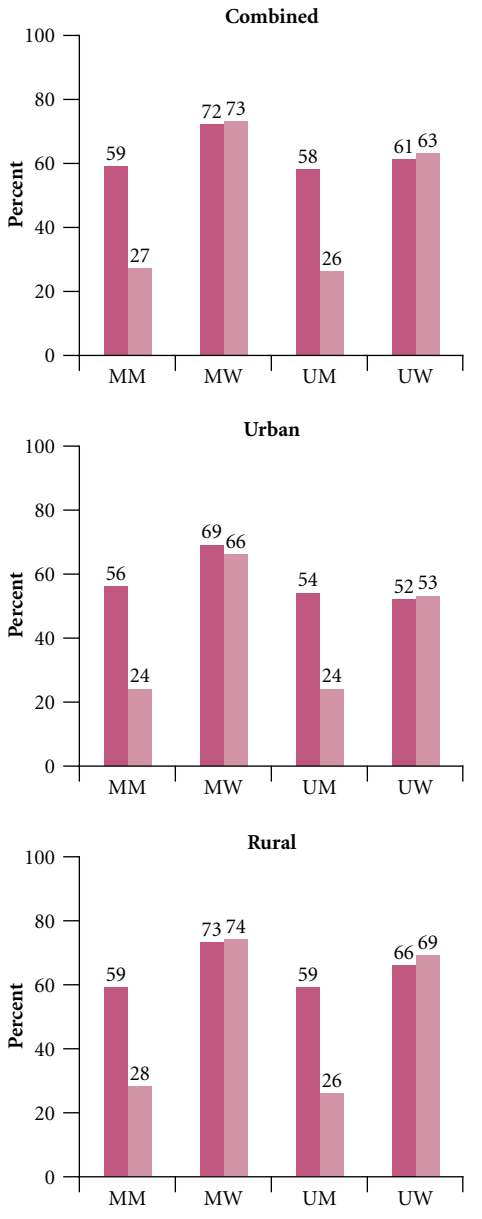
Parental attitudes towards youth friendships and social activities were probed by asking young men and women about whether their mother and father, respectively, would disapprove if they engaged in a series of activities, ranging from bringing a same-sex friend to their home to having a love marriage. Married youth were asked to respond according to their experience prior to marriage. Findings, presented in Table 6.3, suggest considerable variation in youth perceptions by activity. What is clearly noticeable is that parents were most likely to be perceived to disapprove of love marriages for their children, as reported by 88–89% of young men and 91–93% of young women. Also noticeable is that youth perceived parents to be far more likely to disapprove of activities conducted with members of the opposite-sex than those conducted with same-sex individuals (also see Figure 6.2). For example, just 9–11% of young men and 3–4% of young women reported that their mother or father would be angry if they brought same-sex friends home. In contrast, 65–80% of young men and 63–84% of young women expected their father and mother to disapprove of activities such as bringing an opposite-sex friend home, talking to a person of the opposite-sex who did not belong to the family, and going to a *mela* or film with an opposite-sex individual.

Also evident from Table 6.3 is that even though interactions with same-sex friends were less likely to meet with disapproval, as many as 29–31% of young men and 16–18% of young women expected parental disapproval if they went out with same-sex friends to a *mela* or film. It is notable that more young men than women perceived parental disapproval of such outings. In contrast, twice as many young women (52–57%) as young men (26–28%) expected parental disapproval if they joined a club or *mandal*. Finally, 21–24% of young women reported expecting disapproval from their father and mother, respectively, if they sought a job (this question was not asked to young men). By and large, differences in perceived reactions of fathers versus mothers were negligible.

Differences by marital status were negligible among young men. Among young women, however, the married were consistently more likely than the unmarried to perceive parental disapproval, and these differences were observed, for the most part, in both urban and rural settings and with respect to perceived reactions of both the father and mother. Rural-urban differences were wide among both young men and young women, with rural youth more likely than their urban counterparts to report perceived disapproval from both parents on every activity considered. These differences may be explained, once again, by the likelihood that rural respondents and those who married early belonged to families adhering more closely to traditional gender norms than the families of other young women.

Youth were also asked about the extent to which family life was characterised by quarrels and domestic violence between parents, and whether they had witnessed their father beating their mother or vice versa. Findings presented in Table 6.4 suggest that two-fifths of

Figure 6.1: Percentage of youth reporting gendered socialisation experiences relative to an opposite-sex sibling/cousin, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage.

Table 6.3: Perceptions of parental reactions to selected activities

Percentage of youth who perceived that their parents would disapprove of them engaging in selected activities, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Perceptions of parental reactions (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
	Father					
Combined						
Father would disapprove if respondent:						
Brought same-sex friends home	10.5	4.2	11.0	5.0	9.9	2.9
Brought opposite-sex friends home	79.2	83.7	79.7	86.9	78.6	79.7
Talked to a person of the opposite sex from outside the home	66.5	84.0	65.9	87.0	66.9	80.1
Went to a *mela*/film with same-sex friends	30.8	18.0	30.3	19.5	30.8	16.0
Went to a *mela*/film with opposite-sex friends	67.8	64.5	67.0	66.1	67.8	62.5
Joined a club or *mandal*	27.5	56.6	26.9	60.3	28.0	50.9
Had a love marriage	88.9	93.0	88.8	93.8	88.6	92.0
Found a job	NA	24.1	NA	27.3	NA	19.1
Number of respondents[1]	**2,668**	**5,403**	**1,525**	**2,245**	**1,943**	**3,158**
Urban						
Father would disapprove if respondent:						
Brought same-sex friends home	6.9	2.8	7.6	3.5	6.7	2.2
Brought opposite-sex friends home	71.1	74.2	73.6	78.9	71.0	70.3
Talked to a person of the opposite sex from outside the home	59.5	75.5	62.1	81.6	59.0	70.6
Went to a *mela*/film with same-sex friends	22.7	13.5	21.0	13.7	23.2	13.3
Went to a *mela*/film with opposite-sex friends	59.2	59.5	58.5	64.3	59.9	55.5
Joined a club or *mandal*	20.5	51.3	21.7	57.8	20.2	46.0
Had a love marriage	84.8	90.5	87.4	93.8	84.7	87.9
Found a job	NA	20.5	NA	23.8	NA	17.7
Number of respondents[1]	**1,098**	**2,241**	**501**	**900**	**899**	**1,341**
Rural						
Father would disapprove if respondent:						
Brought same-sex friends home	11.8	4.7	11.7	5.3	11.3	3.3
Brought opposite-sex friends home	81.9	87.2	81.0	88.5	81.9	84.5
Talked to a person of the opposite sex from outside the home	68.9	87.1	66.7	88.1	70.3	84.9
Went to a *mela*/film with same-sex friends	33.6	19.7	32.4	20.7	34.1	17.4
Went to a *mela*/film with opposite-sex friends	70.7	66.3	68.9	66.4	71.3	66.1
Joined a club or *mandal*	30.0	58.5	27.9	60.9	31.3	53.4
Had a love marriage	90.3	93.9	89.0	93.9	90.3	94.1
Found a job	NA	25.4	NA	28.0	NA	19.7
Number of respondents[1]	**1,570**	**3,162**	**1,024**	**1,345**	**1,044**	**1,817**

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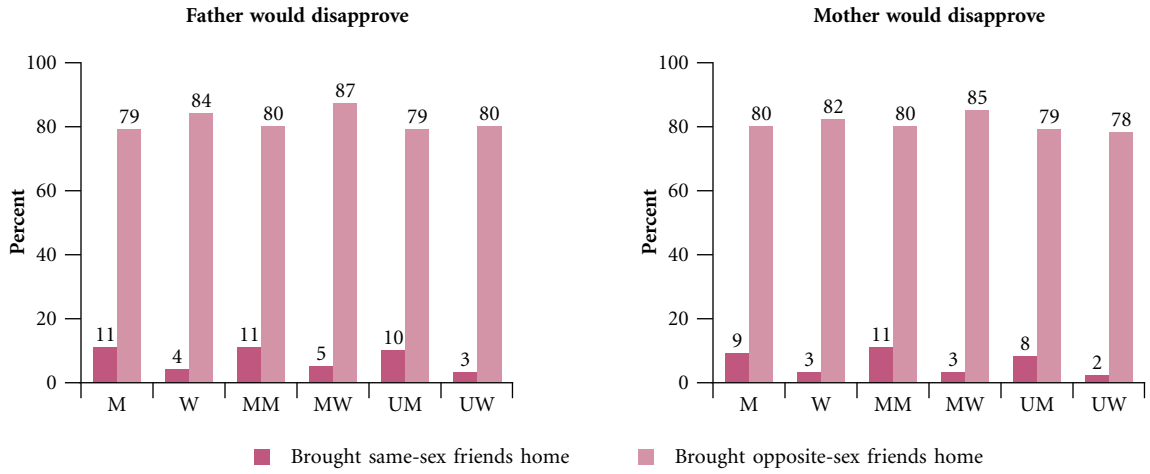
Table 6.3: (Cont'd)

Perceptions of parental reactions (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
	Mother					
Combined						
Mother would disapprove if respondent:						
Brought same-sex friends home	9.1	2.8	10.9	3.3	8.1	2.0
Brought opposite-sex friends home	79.8	81.6	80.4	84.6	78.9	77.5
Talked to a person of the opposite sex from outside the home	65.0	83.3	65.8	86.8	65.1	78.2
Went to a *mela*/film with same-sex friends	29.1	16.0	28.1	16.3	29.5	15.9
Went to a *mela*/film with opposite-sex friends	65.5	62.9	64.4	64.9	65.7	60.3
Joined a club or *mandal*	26.1	52.4	24.9	56.9	27.0	45.1
Had a love marriage	87.9	91.2	88.3	92.1	87.4	90.0
Found a job	NA	20.7	NA	24.0	NA	15.4
Number of respondents[1]	**2,886**	**5,735**	**1,762**	**2,437**	**2,072**	**3,298**
Urban						
Mother would disapprove if respondent:						
Brought same-sex friends home	5.3	2.0	7.3	3.0	5.3	1.2
Brought opposite-sex friends home	72.3	72.6	74.3	77.6	71.7	68.2
Talked to a person of the opposite sex from outside the home	58.8	74.1	61.5	80.5	57.9	68.5
Went to a *mela*/film with same-sex friends	24.8	12.2	20.4	12.2	25.0	12.2
Went to a *mela*/film with opposite-sex friends	59.8	56.9	57.5	60.1	60.2	54.1
Joined a club or *mandal*	19.9	46.5	19.2	53.6	20.4	40.5
Had a love marriage	84.2	88.5	87.8	92.0	83.4	85.4
Found a job	NA	16.1	NA	19.7	NA	13.0
Number of respondents[1]	**1,196**	**2,376**	**594**	**975**	**965**	**1,401**
Rural						
Mother would disapprove if respondent:						
Brought same-sex friends home	10.4	3.1	11.7	3.4	9.4	2.4
Brought opposite-sex friends home	82.5	84.8	81.8	86.0	82.0	82.1
Talked to a person of the opposite sex from outside the home	67.3	86.5	66.8	88.0	68.2	83.2
Went to a *mela*/film with same-sex friends	30.6	17.4	29.8	17.2	31.5	17.7
Went to a *mela*/film with opposite-sex friends	67.5	65.1	65.9	65.8	68.0	63.5
Joined a club or *mandal*	28.2	54.5	26.2	57.6	29.9	47.5
Had a love marriage	89.1	92.2	88.5	92.1	89.1	92.4
Found a job	NA	22.3	NA	24.8	NA	16.6
Number of respondents[1]	**1,690**	**3,359**	**1,168**	**1,462**	**1,107**	**1,897**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. NA: Not applicable. For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage. [1]Includes only those respondents reporting that their father or mother, respectively, was alive at the time of interview.

Figure 6.2: Percentage of youth reporting that their parents would disapprove if they brought same- and opposite-sex friends home, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage. Percentages were calculated only of those respondents reporting that their father or mother, respectively, was alive at the time of interview.

young men and three-fifths of young women with both parents living acknowledged that they had ever witnessed quarrels between their parents. Just 1% of young men and women reported that they had witnessed their mother beating their father. Considerably larger proportions—14% of young men and 15% of young women—reported ever witnessing their father beating their mother. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were narrow, but married respondents were slightly more likely than the unmarried and the rural slightly more likely than the urban to report witnessing their father beating their mother.

Youth were also asked whether one or both parents had ever beaten them since the age of 12. Findings, shown in Table 6.4, suggest that sizeable proportions of youth with at least one parent alive at the time of interview reported being beaten by a parent at any time since the age of 12. Gender differences were evident, with young men considerably more likely to have experienced beatings than young women (35% compared to 12%). Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were negligible.

6.2.2 Communication with parents

Information regarding communication with parents on issues relevant to youth—such as school performance, friendships, romantic relationships, being teased or bullied, physical maturation, reproductive processes and contraception—was elicited from all respondents reporting that their mother or father was alive at the time of interview. Findings, presented in Table 6.5 and Figures 6.3a–6.3b, reveal that communication on any topic was far from universal. In general, sensitive topics—such as romantic relationships, reproduction and contraception among all groups, and even adolescent body changes among young men—were rarely discussed with either parent.

Topics most likely to be discussed with fathers were schooling and friendships: while 28% of young men and 13% of young women had discussed friendships, many more had discussed schooling (64% and 38%, respectively). Other topics, such as being teased/bullied, adolescent body changes and romantic relationships were rarely discussed with fathers (fewer than 6%). Notably, none had discussed reproductive processes or contraception with their father.

Table 6.4: Experience of domestic violence

Percentage of youth reporting violence between parents and being beaten by parents, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Experiences of domestic violence (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Parents ever fought	42.9	59.1	44.9	61.5	41.6	55.3
Mother ever beat father	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.1	0.9	0.6
Father ever beat mother	13.9	15.4	15.5	18.0	12.4	11.8
Number with both parents alive	**2,613**	**5,222**	**1,466**	**2,137**	**1,903**	**3,085**
Respondent beaten by father and/or mother since age 12	35.3	11.9	34.0	12.9	35.9	10.5
Number with at least one parent alive	**2,941**	**5,917**	**1,821**	**2,546**	**2,112**	**3,371**
Urban						
Parents ever fought	41.4	57.4	43.6	60.6	40.7	54.7
Mother ever beat father	0.6	0.5	1.1	1.1	0.5	0.2
Father ever beat mother	10.5	10.5	10.5	13.4	9.2	8.0
Number with both parents alive	**1,077**	**2,170**	**483**	**858**	**883**	**1,312**
Respondent beaten by father and/or mother since age 12	35.3	9.3	37.0	10.3	34.3	8.4
Number with at least one parent alive	**1,217**	**2,447**	**612**	**1,017**	**981**	**1,430**
Rural						
Parents ever fought	43.4	59.7	45.2	61.7	42.0	55.6
Mother ever beat father	1.3	1.0	1.5	1.1	1.1	0.7
Father ever beat mother	15.1	17.2	16.6	18.9	13.7	13.8
Number with both parents alive	**1,536**	**3,052**	**983**	**1,279**	**1,020**	**1,773**
Respondent beaten by father and/or mother since age 12	35.3	12.9	33.4	13.4	36.6	11.6
Number with at least one parent alive	**1,724**	**3,470**	**1,209**	**1,529**	**1,131**	**1,941**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Domestic violence refers exclusively to physical violence.

As far as discussion with mothers was concerned, young women were considerably more likely than young men to have discussed six of the seven topics with their mother. Again, topics that both young men and women were most likely to have discussed with their mother were identical to those discussed with their father: schooling (49% and 39%, respectively) and friendships (28% and 37%, respectively). On such topics as adolescent body changes and being teased, far more young women than men reported discussion with their mother. For example, while 75% of young women had discussed adolescent body changes and 26% had discussed being bullied or teased with their mother, only 3% of young men had done so. Differences were negligible with regard to other more sensitive topics such as romantic relationships, reproduction or contraception, reported by fewer than 4% of both young men and women.

Findings suggest that communication with a parent on sensitive matters was more likely to be reported by young women than young men. Moreover, while young men were about as likely to discuss each issue with their mother as their father, with the exception of school performance, young women were far more likely to discuss almost all matters with their mother than with their father.

Table 6.5: Parental communication

Percentage of youth who discussed selected matters with parents, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Issues discussed (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
	Father						Mother					
Combined												
School performance	63.5	38.4	51.1	26.8	67.8	56.0	49.4	39.2	36.9	28.4	54.4	56.0
Friendships	28.4	13.4	21.3	8.5	31.0	20.6	27.5	37.3	20.6	30.9	29.2	47.1
Romantic relationships	1.3	0.4	0.7	0.2	1.4	0.6	1.1	3.8	0.9	2.8	1.1	5.2
Being teased/bullied	2.7	5.7	2.2	4.5	2.9	7.6	2.8	25.7	2.7	21.7	2.6	31.8
Adolescent body changes	4.9	0.7	4.0	0.6	5.0	0.9	3.4	74.9	3.0	72.0	3.2	78.7
Reproductive processes	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	2.6	0.0	3.0	0.0	1.9
Contraception	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	2.2	0.0	1.5
Number of respondents[1]	**2,668**	**5,403**	**1,525**	**2,245**	**1,943**	**3,158**	**2,886**	**5,735**	**1,762**	**2,437**	**2,072**	**3,298**
Urban												
School performance	77.7	55.9	67.8	43.1	80.3	66.7	64.9	57.7	50.2	46.0	69.4	67.8
Friendships	40.9	22.4	31.0	13.8	43.2	29.5	37.3	48.7	27.5	39.7	39.8	56.6
Romantic relationships	2.5	0.7	1.8	0.5	2.4	0.8	1.2	6.4	1.2	4.7	1.4	7.9
Being teased/bullied	2.9	7.0	2.2	5.4	3.3	8.4	2.8	32.9	2.7	27.4	3.0	37.6
Adolescent body changes	6.8	1.0	4.7	0.3	7.7	1.6	4.8	83.7	3.1	79.8	5.4	87.1
Reproductive processes	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	3.4	0.0	4.3	0.2	2.7
Contraception	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	2.6	0.0	3.2	0.2	2.2
Number of respondents[1]	**1,098**	**2,241**	**501**	**900**	**899**	**1,341**	**1,196**	**2,376**	**594**	**975**	**965**	**1,401**
Rural												
School performance	58.6	32.0	47.5	23.6	62.4	50.5	44.0	32.5	33.9	25.0	47.8	50.0
Friendships	24.0	10.2	19.2	7.5	25.8	16.0	24.1	33.2	19.0	29.2	24.7	42.2
Romantic relationships	0.8	0.2	0.5	0.2	1.0	0.4	1.0	2.8	0.8	2.4	1.0	3.8
Being teased/bullied	2.6	5.3	2.2	4.4	2.8	7.1	2.8	23.1	2.7	20.6	2.4	28.8
Adolescent body changes	4.2	0.6	3.8	0.6	3.8	0.6	2.9	71.7	2.9	70.5	2.1	74.5
Reproductive processes	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	0.0	2.7	0.0	1.4
Contraception	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.7	0.0	2.0	0.0	1.2
Number of respondents[1]	**1,570**	**3,162**	**1,024**	**1,345**	**1,044**	**1,817**	**1,690**	**3,359**	**1,168**	**1,462**	**1,107**	**1,897**

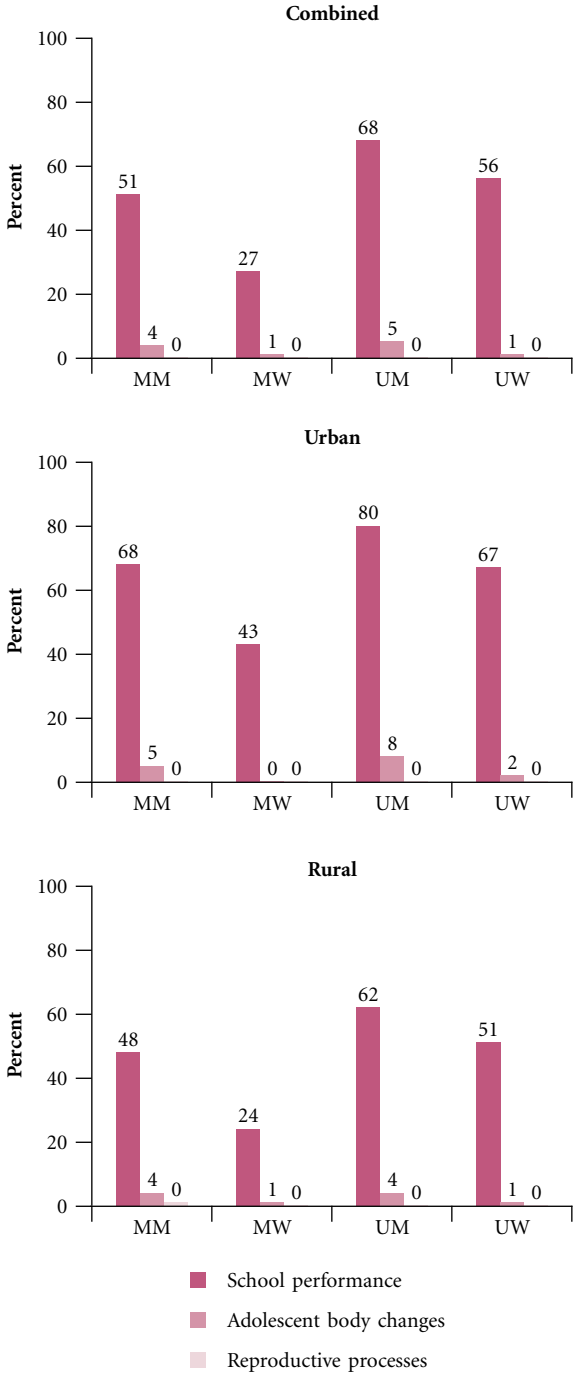
Note: All Ns are unweighted. For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage. [1]Includes only those respondents reporting that their father or mother, respectively, was alive at the time of interview.

Differences by marital status suggest that more unmarried than married youth reported parental communication. Differences by rural-urban residence suggest greater openness with a parent among urban compared to rural youth. However, this openness was largely restricted to non-sensitive topics—schooling and friendships. Additionally, unmarried and urban young women were more likely than their married and rural counterparts, respectively, to share such topics as being teased/bullied, romantic relationships and adolescent body changes with their mother.

6.3 Peer networks and interaction

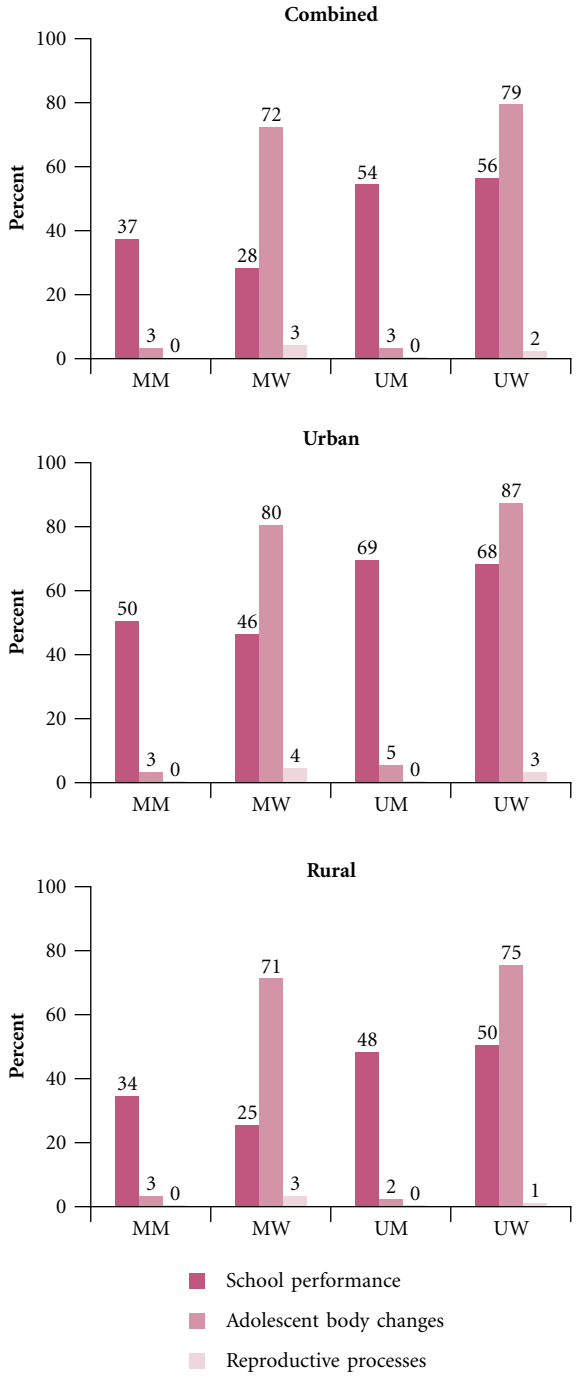
In order to assess the size of peer networks and the nature of peer interaction, the Youth Study asked young people about the number of same-sex friends they had, whether they had opposite-sex friends and the kinds of activities in which they engaged with their same- and opposite-sex friends. Married respondents were asked to recall the situation prior to marriage.

Figure 6.3a: Percentage of youth who discussed various matters with their fathers, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage. Percentages were calculated only of those respondents reporting that their father was alive at the time of the interview.

Figure 6.3b: Percentage of youth who discussed various matters with their mothers, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage. Percentages were calculated only of those respondents reporting that their mother was alive at the time of the interview.

Table 6.6 reports findings on the size of peer networks. Same-sex peer networks of young men and women were similar. Indeed, an average of two friends was reported by all young men and women, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence. Just 15–16% reported five or more same-sex friends, and there was little difference in percentages reporting five or more friends between rural and urban youth and married and unmarried youth.

Table 6.6: Size of peer networks

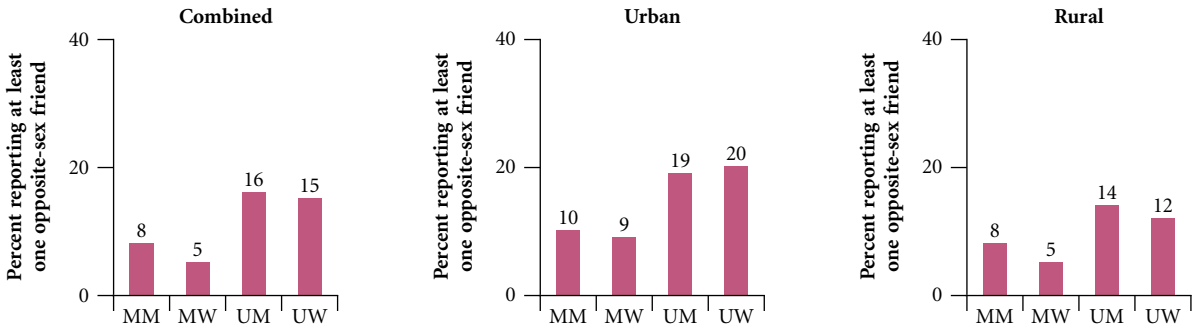
Percent distribution of youth by number of same- and opposite-sex friends, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Number of friends (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Number of same-sex friends						
None	3.0	5.0	5.1	5.9	2.2	3.3
1	16.7	22.1	18.2	21.2	16.2	23.8
2	36.3	30.9	36.7	32.0	35.9	28.9
3	18.6	15.0	18.0	14.8	18.9	15.5
4	10.1	11.3	8.6	11.5	10.7	11.2
5 or more	15.2	15.7	13.3	14.7	16.2	17.3
Median number of same-sex friends	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
At least one opposite-sex friend (%)	13.3	9.0	8.0	5.3	15.6	14.9
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Number of same-sex friends						
None	1.6	4.5	2.6	4.7	1.1	4.5
1	14.1	23.3	15.8	22.9	14.1	23.7
2	34.9	30.9	38.2	32.0	34.3	29.9
3	21.2	13.7	22.1	14.0	21.0	13.4
4	10.1	10.4	9.5	10.7	10.0	10.1
5 or more	18.2	17.2	11.8	15.7	19.6	18.5
Median number of same-sex friends	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	3.0	2.0
At least one opposite-sex friend (%)	17.2	14.8	9.5	8.6	19.3	20.3
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Number of same-sex friends						
None	3.5	5.2	5.7	6.2	2.6	2.8
1	17.7	21.7	18.8	20.9	17.0	23.8
2	36.8	30.9	36.5	31.9	36.6	28.4
3	17.8	15.4	17.1	14.9	18.1	16.6
4	10.1	11.7	8.4	11.6	10.9	11.8
5 or more	14.2	15.1	13.5	14.5	14.8	16.6
Median number of same-sex friends	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
At least one opposite-sex friend (%)	11.9	6.9	7.6	4.7	14.1	12.1
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage.

Opposite-sex peer networks were reported by smaller proportions of young people and gender differences were apparent. Young men were somewhat more likely than young women to report having at least one opposite-sex friend (13% compared to 9%, respectively). The unmarried were, likewise, more likely than the married to report an opposite-sex friend—16% and 8%, respectively, among young men, and 15% and 5%, respectively, among young women (also see Figure 6.4). Finally, rural young men and women were less likely than their urban counterparts to report an opposite-sex friend—12% and 17%, respectively, of young men, and 7% and 15%, respectively, among young women.

Figure 6.4: Percentage of youth reporting at least one opposite-sex friend, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage.

Table 6.7 reports the nature of interaction with same- and opposite-sex friends. Again, the married were asked to recall the situation prior to marriage. Respondents were asked if they went on picnics or to films with their peers, studied together, spent time chatting, engaged in sporting activities or drank and gambled with their friends.

As shown in Panel A of Table 6.7, the activity in which almost all young people were involved was chatting with their same-sex friends. Significant gender differences were evident in other forms of interaction. For example, over 80% of young men and 66% of young women reported participation in sports or outdoor games with their same-sex friends. Many more young men than women reported going on picnics or to films (62% and 25%, respectively) or studying (74% and 51%, respectively) with same-sex friends. Finally, few young men (8%) and hardly any young women (0.2%) reported drinking and gambling with their same-sex friends.

Among young men, the unmarried were more likely than the married to report studying (79% versus 60%) and engaging in sports (86% versus 66%) with same-sex friends. Conversely, the married were more likely than the unmarried to report drinking or gambling with same-sex friends (18% versus 5%). Among young women, the unmarried were more likely than the married to report going on picnics or to films (33% versus 19%) and studying (69% versus 39%) with friends, presumably a function of the higher levels of school attainment of the unmarried, on the one hand, and the relatively curtailed adolescent experience of the married, on the other. These patterns remained similar in both urban and rural settings. Rural-urban differences indicate that urban young men and women were far more likely than their rural counterparts to go on picnics or to films (80% versus 56% among young men; 38% versus 20% among young women) and, among young women, to study (72% versus 44%).

The range of activities in which youth were engaged with their opposite-sex peers was much narrower. As shown in Panel B of Table 6.7, the only activity in which almost as many youth were involved with opposite-sex friends as with same-sex friends was chatting and gossiping, mentioned by 93–95% of youth reporting opposite-sex friends. Differences by sex, marital status and rural-urban residence were, for the most part, narrow; the two activities in

Table 6.7: Interaction with same- and opposite-sex friends

Percentage of youth reporting interaction with same- and opposite-sex friends by types of activities, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Activities (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
A. Activities with same-sex friends						
Combined						
Going on picnics/to see films	62.1	24.9	62.2	19.2	61.0	33.2
Studying together	74.2	51.0	59.9	39.4	79.4	69.1
Spending time chatting/gossiping	99.1	99.5	99.4	99.6	99.1	99.3
Playing sports	82.3	65.5	66.3	66.8	85.8	63.2
Drinking or gambling	8.1	0.2	18.4	0.2	5.1	0.3
Number with at least one same-sex friend	**2,894**	**5,720**	**1,797**	**2,455**	**2,087**	**3,265**
Urban						
Going on picnics/to see films	80.4	38.2	83.2	30.1	80.2	45.6
Studying together	77.1	71.9	67.9	61.5	80.4	81.2
Spending time chatting/gossiping	99.1	99.3	99.1	99.5	99.1	99.2
Playing sports	82.9	65.2	67.9	66.8	85.8	63.8
Drinking or gambling	8.1	0.3	17.9	0.2	6.3	0.5
Number with at least one same-sex friend	**1,208**	**2,360**	**615**	**988**	**975**	**1,372**
Rural						
Going on picnics/to see films	55.6	20.1	57.2	17.1	52.6	27.1
Studying together	73.2	43.5	58.0	35.0	78.9	63.0
Spending time chatting/gossiping	99.1	99.5	99.4	99.6	99.2	99.4
Playing sports	82.1	65.6	65.9	66.8	85.9	62.9
Drinking or gambling	8.1	0.2	18.6	0.1	4.6	0.2
Number with at least one same-sex friend	**1,686**	**3,360**	**1,182**	**1,467**	**1,112**	**1,893**
B. Activities with opposite-sex friends						
Combined						
Going on picnics/to see films	41.6	29.3	37.3	25.2	43.9	31.0
Studying together	63.5	59.1	51.3	52.5	66.3	62.1
Spending time chatting/gossiping	94.5	92.7	94.0	92.8	94.9	92.3
Playing sports	22.9	23.3	25.3	22.5	21.8	23.5
Drinking or gambling	0.3	0.6	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.6
Number with at least one opposite-sex friend	**423**	**681**	**154**	**160**	**352**	**521**
Urban						
Going on picnics/to see films	54.9	38.1	60.6	30.6	54.0	40.9
Studying together	68.4	69.7	57.6	61.1	71.5	72.5
Spending time chatting/gossiping	95.5	94.8	93.9	94.6	96.0	94.8
Playing sports	22.6	25.5	17.6	21.6	24.2	26.7
Drinking or gambling	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9
Number with at least one opposite-sex friend	**211**	**379**	**59**	**88**	**189**	**291**
Rural						
Going on picnics/to see films	35.2	22.7	30.8	23.5	37.9	22.1
Studying together	61.0	51.3	49.6	49.5	63.5	53.1
Spending time chatting/gossiping	94.0	90.8	94.0	92.2	94.3	89.7
Playing sports	23.2	21.7	27.4	22.8	20.4	20.7
Drinking or gambling	0.4	0.3	2.6	0.0	0.0	0.4
Number with at least one opposite-sex friend	**212**	**302**	**95**	**72**	**163**	**230**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage.

which differences were observed were going out on picnics or to films and studying with opposite-sex friends: young men were more likely than young women to report having gone out on picnics or to films (42% versus 29%). Likewise, unmarried youth were more likely to have gone out on picnics or to films than the married (44% versus 37% among young men; 31% versus 25% among young women) and studied (66% versus 51% among young men; 62% versus 53% among young women) with opposite-sex friends. Similarly, urban youth were more likely to have engaged in these activities with opposite-sex friends than their rural counterparts (55% versus 35% among young men, and 38% versus 23% among young women reported going out on picnics or to films; 68% versus 61% among young men and 70% versus 51% among young women reported studying together).

6.4 Support networks

The Youth Study also asked respondents about the individual with whom they would most likely discuss a range of personal matters, namely, taking a job, menstrual problems (females) and nocturnal emission or *swapnadosh* (males), and boy-girl relationships. All those aged 20 and above were asked to think back to the time they were aged 15–18 while responding to these questions.

Findings, reported in Table 6.8a, indicate that the person with whom youth would most likely discuss personal matters varied considerably by sex of the respondent and type of topic. Young women tended to consider their mother as their leading confidante on two matters: those relating to taking a job (31%) and menstrual problems (67%); an equal percentage (31%) considered their father as their leading confidante on matters relating to taking a job but hardly on those relating to menstrual problems. Matters pertaining to boy-girl relationships, in contrast, were rarely confided in a parent, and most likely to be confided in peers (41%). Patterns among young men were different. They considered their father—but not their mother—as their leading confidante on the non-sensitive issue of taking a job (on which 12% cited their mother and 51% cited their father). Parents were rarely cited as key confidantes (0–1%) by young men on such issues as nocturnal emission or *swapnadosh*, and boy-girl relationships, for which most young men reported peers as their leading confidantes (55% and 74%, respectively). Differences by marital status were apparent on some matters for both young men and women Unmarried young men were more likely than their married counterparts to report a parent as a confidante on matters relating to taking a job, and less likely to report a friend as a confidante on both the remaining matters. Among young women, the unmarried were more likely than the married to report a parent as a confidante on all three matters, and a friend as a confidante on boy-girl relationship issues. Of note is that while considerable percentages of married young women reported their spouse as a leading confidante on all three matters—taking a job (22%), menstrual problems (18%) and boy-girl relationship issues (14%), less than 1% of married young men reported so, reflecting the fact that many more young women than men were married at ages 15–18, the ages about which these questions were posed. Patterns in rural and urban settings remained fairly similar, except that rural youth were somewhat less likely to consider a parent as a confidante on matters relating to taking a job and, in the case of young women, menstrual problems.

Notably, substantial proportions of young men reported that they would not confide in anyone on these topics, ranging from 8% in relation to taking a job to 26% in relation to boy-girl relationships and 38% in relation to anxiety about nocturnal emission. The percentages of young women who would not confide in anyone ranged from 7% in relation to menstrual problems to 16% in relation to taking a job and 26% in relation to boy-girl relationships. Marital status differences were negligible among young women, but unmarried young men were more likely than the married to report that they would not confide in anyone on issues related to nocturnal emission and boy-girl relationships. By and large, rural youth were more likely than urban youth to report that they would not confide in anyone on any of these topics.

The Youth Study also asked young women about the individual in whom they were most likely to confide if they were teased by a boy. Findings, reported in Table 6.8b, show that one-third reported that they would confide in their mothers compared to just 6% who reported that they would confide in their father. In addition, 14% and 12%, respectively, reported that they would confide in a sibling and a friend. Marital status differences were

Table 6.8a: Leading confidante on personal matters

Percent distribution of youth by person with whom they were most likely to discuss selected personal matters between ages 15 and 18, according to topic and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Leading confidante (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
	Taking a job						Menstrual problems (W)/anxiety about nocturnal emission or *swapnadosh* (M)						Boy-girl relationships					
Combined																		
Mother	12.2	31.1	11.7	27.1	12.3	37.8	0.1	66.6	0.1	56.8	0.1	83.6	0.0	7.5	0.0	5.5	0.0	10.8
Father	51.3	31.1	43.1	23.5	54.1	44.3	1.2	0.3	0.8	0.3	1.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3
Sibling	5.5	4.1	6.7	3.4	5.2	5.2	0.3	4.1	0.3	4.4	0.3	3.5	0.2	10.5	0.0	11.0	0.3	9.3
Friend	18.2	0.7	25.9	0.7	14.7	0.7	55.4	2.0	60.3	2.3	52.7	1.6	73.6	41.1	77.2	35.9	71.6	50.7
Spouse	NA	NA	0.3	22.4	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.2	18.2	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.1	13.6	NA	NA
HCP/locally influential person/teacher	1.6	0.2	2.1	0.3	1.5	0.1	4.6	0.1	5.4	0.2	4.6	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2
Other	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.6	0.6	8.2	0.6	9.6	0.7	5.9	0.2	5.5	0.4	6.1	0.2	4.3
None	8.3	15.8	7.3	19.8	9.6	9.2	37.6	7.1	32.4	8.4	40.6	5.1	25.8	26.4	22.1	27.7	27.8	24.4
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban																		
Mother	13.0	35.6	15.9	31.1	12.3	39.7	0.1	76.9	0.0	64.8	0.2	88.0	0.0	10.3	0.0	7.7	0.0	12.8
Father	55.8	37.0	47.8	28.5	57.9	44.7	1.0	0.3	0.9	0.2	1.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2
Sibling	6.2	5.5	7.8	5.1	5.5	5.9	0.3	4.6	0.0	5.6	0.3	3.7	0.4	11.8	0.0	12.9	0.5	10.8
Friend	15.5	0.7	21.9	0.7	14.0	0.7	56.1	1.3	59.9	1.9	53.4	0.8	78.4	43.2	81.1	37.1	76.6	48.8
Spouse	NA	NA	0.3	16.1	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.3	12.2	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.3	11.9	NA	NA
HCP/locally influential person/teacher	1.0	0.3	0.9	0.5	1.1	0.2	6.7	0.1	9.2	0.0	6.9	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.4
Other	2.6	2.5	1.7	2.6	2.8	2.5	0.6	6.5	0.6	8.7	0.6	4.6	0.3	4.8	0.6	5.1	0.2	4.5
None	5.8	10.7	3.7	15.4	6.4	6.4	34.9	4.6	29.2	6.6	37.2	2.7	20.8	23.7	17.8	24.8	22.8	22.7
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural																		
Mother	11.9	29.4	10.7	26.3	12.3	36.9	0.1	63.0	0.1	55.2	0.1	81.3	0.0	6.5	0.0	5.1	0.0	9.7
Father	49.8	28.9	42.1	22.5	52.4	44.1	1.3	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.9	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.4
Sibling	5.2	3.6	6.5	3.1	5.2	4.8	0.4	3.9	0.3	4.1	0.3	3.4	0.1	10.0	0.0	10.6	0.2	8.5
Friend	19.2	0.7	26.8	0.7	14.9	0.7	55.1	2.2	60.3	2.3	52.4	2.1	72.0	40.4	76.3	35.6	69.5	51.7
Spouse	NA	NA	0.3	23.6	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.2	19.3	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.1	14.0	NA	NA
HCP/locally influential person/teacher	1.8	0.2	2.4	0.3	1.7	0.2	3.9	0.1	4.5	0.2	3.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2
Other	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.0	2.6	2.7	0.5	8.8	0.6	9.7	0.7	6.6	0.2	5.7	0.4	6.3	0.3	4.3
None	9.2	17.6	8.0	20.6	10.9	10.6	38.5	8.0	33.1	8.8	42.1	6.2	27.5	27.4	23.1	28.3	30.0	25.2
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. Those aged 20 or above were asked to recall the period when they were aged 15–18 years. HCP: Health care provider. NA: Not applicable.

Table 6.8b: Leading confidante on matters relating to the experience of teasing among young women

Percent distribution of young women by person with whom they were most likely to discuss being teased by a boy between ages 15 and 18, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Leading confidante (%)	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24
	Combined			Urban			Rural		
Mother	32.0	26.2	42.1	37.2	30.9	42.9	30.1	25.3	41.7
Father	6.0	5.0	7.9	5.9	4.7	6.9	6.1	5.1	8.3
Sibling	14.0	12.9	15.6	18.7	18.0	19.2	12.4	11.9	13.7
Friend	12.0	10.1	15.4	12.9	10.5	15.1	11.6	10.0	15.5
Spouse	NA	15.9	NA	NA	11.9	NA	NA	16.6	NA
HCP/locally influential person/teacher	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Other person	4.6	4.2	5.2	4.3	4.0	4.6	4.6	4.3	5.5
None	20.9	25.3	13.5	15.1	19.7	11.1	23.0	26.4	14.7
Number of respondents	**5,987**	**2,603**	**3,384**	**2,474**	**1,038**	**1,436**	**3,513**	**1,565**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. Those aged 20 or above were asked to recall the period when they were aged 15–18 years. HCP: Health care provider. NA: Not applicable.

evident with the married considerably less likely than the unmarried to confide in their mother (26% versus 42%) or a friend (10% versus 15%) and 16% reporting that they would confide in their husband, a parent or a peer. Rural-urban differences were narrow for the most part; however, young women in urban settings were more likely than those in rural settings to report a parent as a confidante on matters relating to the experience of teasing. Again, a large proportion—21%—would not confide in anyone and this percentage was higher among the married than the unmarried (25% versus 14%) and the rural as compared to the urban (23% versus 15%).

6.5 Summary

Youth Study findings suggest, in general, the gendered socialisation of youth. For example, responses of both young men and women indicate that unequal gender norms regarding freedom of movement prevailed in most study households, with about three-fifths of young men acknowledging that they had more freedom to go out than their sisters or female cousins did, and two-thirds of young women agreeing that they had less freedom to go out than their brothers or male cousins. At the same time, more than two-thirds of young women reported that they were expected to do more housework than their brothers or male cousins, a perception not held by young men, among whom just 27% perceived that they were expected to do less housework than their sisters or female cousins. Findings also suggest that parents controlled both young men's and women's social interactions, particularly those involving members of the opposite sex: For example, 65–80% of young men and 63–84% of young women expected parental disapproval if they brought an opposite-sex friend home.

Findings regarding communication with parents on issues relevant to youth—such as school performance, friendships, being teased or bullied, physical maturation, romantic relationships and reproductive processes—reiterate those from other studies, showing that such communication is far from universal. Indeed, sensitive topics—such as romantic relationships, reproduction and contraception, among all youth, and even adolescent body change issues among young men—were rarely discussed with either parent.

That parent-child communication was restricted was also evident from responses to questions probing the most likely confidante on a range of topics from taking a job to boy-girl relationships. While parents were mentioned as leading confidantes on topics such as taking a job, they were rarely cited as leading confidantes on the more sensitive matter of boy-girl relationships. Moreover, while young women identified their mother as the most likely confidante on such matters as menstrual problems and experience of teasing, young men rarely identified a parent as a leading confidante on matters relating to nocturnal emission or *swapnadosh*.

Young people's family lives were marked by violence, both experienced and witnessed. About one in seven youth had observed their father beating their mother. Many respondents reported experiencing a beating by a parent during adolescence; over one-third of young men and one in eight young women reported such experiences.

In contrast, growing up was associated with close peer networks. Almost all youth reported having some same-sex friends. Young men and women had similar-sized networks of friends. Opposite-sex peer networks were less common but nonetheless reported by one in seven young men and one in ten young women. Interactions with same-sex friends tended to be restricted to activities such as chatting and engaging in sports, although young men did report engaging in activities such as going out on picnics or to films or studying. Indeed, findings suggest that youth derived an important measure of support from their peer networks on personal matters: friends were by far the leading confidante on boy-girl relationships for both young men and women, and on nocturnal emission for young men.

Chapter 7

Agency and gender role attitudes

Evidence on agency and gender role attitudes among youth, although sparse, suggests that in traditional settings such as India, young women and even some young men have limited agency in terms of decision-making on matters affecting their own lives, freedom of movement and access to resources. Gender role attitudes, similarly, tend to be traditional, assigning greater value to young men than young women (Alexander et al., 2006a; 2006b; Ram et al., 2006; Santhya, Jejeebhoy and Ghosh, 2008; Sebastian, Grant and Mensch, 2005). This chapter discusses Youth Study findings on agency and gender role attitudes.

7.1 Decision-making

In order to assess young people's involvement in decision-making, the Youth Study asked all respondents about their involvement in decisions related to three specific matters: choice of friends, spending one's own money and buying clothes for one's self. If youth reported that they were involved in decision-making on any issue, they were asked whether they made the decision entirely on their own or jointly with other family members.

Findings, presented in Table 7.1 and Figure 7.1, reveal that irrespective of sex, marital status and rural-urban residence, youth were overwhelmingly likely to choose their friends on their own, that is, 95% or more of any group reported that they decided on their own who their friends would be.

Fewer youth were involved in making decisions on spending their own money than on choice of friends, and this was particularly evident among young women. For example, while 77% of young men reported that they made independent decisions about spending money, only 35% of young women so reported. Indeed, as many as 33% of young women and far fewer (9%) young men (9%) reported that it was other family members who made such decisions without involving them. As shown in Figure 7.1, marital status differences varied by sex of respondent. Among young women, the unmarried were more likely than the married to make independent decisions about spending money (40% versus 32%); conversely, among young men, the married were more likely than the unmarried to do so (89% versus 73%). Rural-urban differences were negligible among young men, but urban young women were considerably more likely than those in rural areas to be involved in decisions related to spending their own money.

Slightly fewer youth were involved in making decisions about the purchase of clothes for themselves. Again, gender differences were wide; for example, while 72% of young men decided independently about purchasing clothes for themselves, only 31% of young women did so. Conversely, about one-eighth (13%) of young men compared to almost one-third (30%) of young women reported that they did not have any say in the matter and it was other family members who made this decision for them. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence resembled those observed above for decision-making on spending money. Married young men were far more likely than those who were unmarried to make independent decisions related to buying clothes (90% versus 65%); the reverse was true in the case of young women (38% of the unmarried and 27% of the married decided independently). Rural-urban differences were negligible among young men, but among young women, those in urban areas were considerably more likely than those in rural areas to be involved in such decisions.

Table 7.1: Decision-making

Percent distribution of youth by participation in decision-making on selected matters, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Participation in decision-making (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
A. Choice of friends						
Combined						
Respondent only	97.0	95.9	98.3	95.8	96.9	95.7
Jointly with others	1.2	2.6	0.6	2.8	1.3	2.5
Others only	1.8	1.6	1.2	1.5	1.8	1.8
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Respondent only	98.6	97.6	99.1	98.1	98.6	97.1
Jointly with others	0.8	1.5	0.3	1.2	0.8	1.8
Others only	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.6	1.1
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Respondent only	96.4	95.2	98.0	95.3	96.1	95.1
Jointly with others	1.3	3.0	0.7	3.1	1.5	2.8
Others only	2.2	1.8	1.3	1.6	2.4	2.1
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
B. Spending money						
Combined						
Respondent only	77.1	35.2	89.4	31.5	72.8	40.3
Jointly with others	14.3	31.9	7.4	34.4	16.8	28.1
Others only	8.6	32.9	3.2	34.1	10.4	31.6
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Respondent only	78.2	46.7	91.4	42.2	75.2	50.7
Jointly with others	15.6	26.2	7.8	28.1	17.5	24.5
Others only	6.2	27.1	0.9	29.7	7.3	24.7
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Respondent only	76.7	31.1	88.9	29.4	71.8	35.0
Jointly with others	13.9	34.0	7.3	35.7	16.5	29.9
Others only	9.4	34.9	3.7	34.9	11.8	35.1
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

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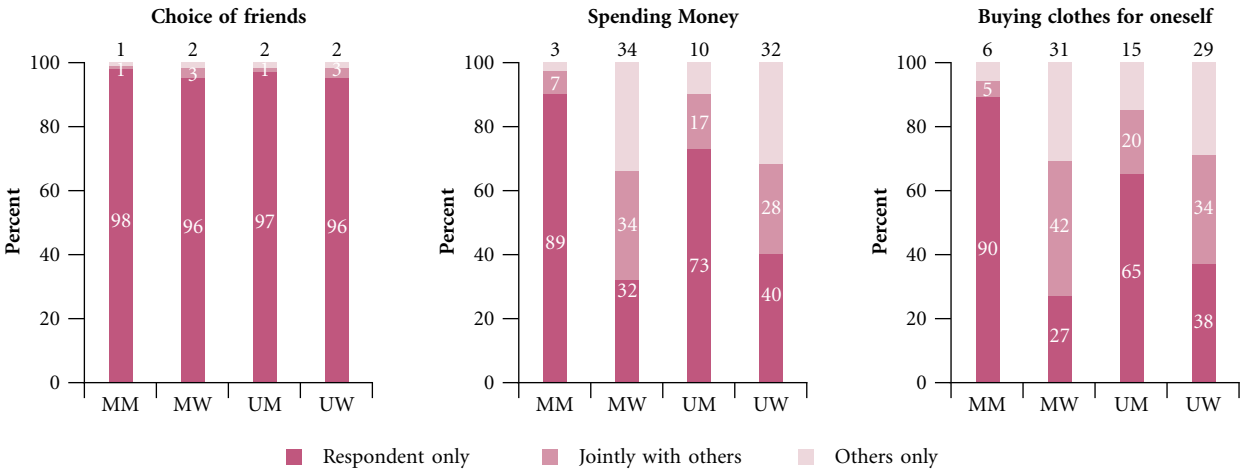
Table 7.1: (Cont'd)

Participation in decision-making (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
C. Buying clothes for oneself						
Combined						
Respondent only	71.6	31.1	89.5	26.6	64.9	37.6
Jointly with others	15.5	38.9	5.0	42.0	19.9	33.9
Others only	12.9	30.0	5.5	31.4	15.2	28.5
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Respondent only	75.8	43.9	92.5	39.1	72.3	48.2
Jointly with others	15.9	32.9	5.5	34.9	18.0	31.0
Others only	8.3	23.2	2.0	26.0	9.7	20.8
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Respondent only	70.2	26.5	88.9	24.1	61.7	32.2
Jointly with others	15.3	41.0	4.8	43.4	20.7	35.4
Others only	14.5	32.5	6.3	32.5	17.6	32.4
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

Figure 7.1: Percent distribution of youth by participation in decision-making on selected matters, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: Percentages may not equal 100.0 because of rounding.

In order to assess the extent to which youth had independent decision-making authority on all three matters, Table 7.2 presents the percentage of youth who reported that they independently made decisions on choice of friends, spending money and purchase of clothes for themselves. In total, 65% of young men compared to only 25% of young women reported independent decision-making on all three issues. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were similar to those observed above.

Table 7.2 also presents combined responses on independent decision-making by selected background characteristics. Findings reveal that independent decision-making on all three matters was indeed higher among older than younger respondents, irrespective of sex, marital status or rural-urban residence; differences were most pronounced among the unmarried. Differences by religion suggest that among young men, more Muslim youth reported decision-making authority than those belonging to any other religion, irrespective of sex, marital status or rural-urban residence. Among young women, in contrast, relatively few Muslim women reported independent decision-making and it was those from religions other than Hindu or Muslim who were most likely to report so, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence. Caste-wise differences were narrow among young men; however, young women belonging to general castes were more likely than others to report independent decision-making (35% versus 19–24%).

Table 7.2: Decision-making autonomy by selected background characteristics

Percentage of youth who independently made decisions on choice of friends, spending money and buying clothes for themselves by selected background characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Age (years)						
15–19	52.0	22.0	59.4	15.7	50.8	25.2
20–24	81.1	28.0	83.3	24.6	77.8	52.0
25–29	NA	NA	90.0	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	64.1	25.1	84.0	21.7	57.0	29.7
Muslim	73.7	21.0	89.0	20.8	70.6	20.3
Other[1]	63.0	39.9	*	(39.6)	(57.1)	38.7
Caste						
SC	63.9	19.4	86.0	18.1	54.4	20.5
ST	67.1	22.4	82.1	22.3	57.9	20.8
OBC	64.1	23.6	83.5	21.4	57.5	27.1
General[2]	65.8	34.9	88.0	27.9	62.6	39.8
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	62.7	17.2	84.2	18.0	53.0	11.8
1–7	62.1	19.4	81.9	20.8	51.8	16.3
8–11	61.0	31.3	84.3	29.5	55.1	32.0
12 and above	79.8	53.9	88.5	43.1	75.6	59.0
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	70.7	19.1	85.5	18.3	62.3	20.3
No	55.3	30.9	68.8	27.2	54.1	34.2
Wealth quintile						
First	60.7	15.8	81.6	17.1	51.7	11.5
Second	59.4	17.4	82.4	18.4	51.4	14.6
Third	63.4	20.0	82.6	18.9	54.8	21.8
Fourth	67.5	28.8	85.3	28.0	61.6	29.7
Fifth	68.1	38.5	88.7	28.3	62.3	46.8
Total	**64.8**	**25.1**	**84.4**	**22.0**	**58.0**	**29.1**
Urban						
Age (years)						
15–19	54.2	33.3	(57.1)	28.2	54.1	34.5
20–24	81.5	40.9	85.8	34.8	78.9	58.6
25–29	NA	NA	88.8	NA	NA	NA

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Table 7.2: (Cont'd)

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Religion						
Hindu	65.9	40.2	86.1	36.5	61.9	43.4
Muslim	76.4	24.4	89.9	23.4	73.1	25.6
Other[1]	(58.8)	55.3	*	*	(53.3)	57.4
Caste						
SC	65.2	32.4	88.3	32.3	58.1	32.6
ST	(72.7)	50.0	*	(50.0)	(72.2)	50.0
OBC	68.1	30.2	85.2	27.0	64.0	33.8
General[2]	67.6	49.0	88.7	47.1	64.7	50.0
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	75.5	22.1	87.9	26.0	75.7	10.4
1–7	68.1	23.5	88.5	27.6	61.0	18.0
8–11	60.2	37.7	87.2	36.1	55.5	38.7
12 and above	77.9	60.2	84.8	53.8	76.6	63.0
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	76.5	33.3	87.2	32.4	72.8	34.0
No	55.9	38.4	*	33.9	55.0	42.4
Wealth quintile						
First	*	(28.1)	*	(23.1)	*	*
Second	(75.0)	18.5	*	21.4	(68.8)	15.6
Third	58.8	25.0	76.9	26.3	56.0	23.4
Fourth	68.0	31.3	88.0	33.6	62.6	29.1
Fifth	68.5	47.4	87.5	39.8	64.9	52.3
Total	**67.6**	**37.2**	**86.8**	**33.5**	**63.6**	**40.5**
Rural						
Age (years)						
15–19	51.3	18.1	59.6	14.1	49.7	21.3
20–24	81.0	23.4	82.8	22.2	76.9	42.9
25–29	NA	NA	90.4	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	63.6	20.6	83.6	19.4	55.2	23.7
Muslim	69.1	17.3	(87.5)	18.6	(65.4)	13.6
Other[1]	*	34.4	*	*	*	31.0
Caste						
SC	63.6	16.5	85.5	16.5	53.3	16.9
ST	66.8	19.2	82.0	20.5	56.3	15.2
OBC	62.8	21.1	83.1	20.2	55.2	23.6
General[2]	63.7	25.7	87.5	21.6	59.9	31.6
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	60.1	16.5	83.8	17.1	46.9	12.1
1–7	60.5	18.2	80.6	19.5	49.1	15.9
8–11	61.3	27.7	83.7	27.0	54.9	28.3
12 and above	81.0	43.3	90.2	(32.4)	75.2	51.9
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	68.9	17.0	85.1	17.2	57.7	16.6
No	55.0	26.0	68.1	24.4	53.7	28.5
Wealth quintile						
First	60.5	15.4	81.1	16.9	51.7	10.5
Second	58.7	17.4	82.1	18.3	50.3	14.6
Third	63.9	18.7	83.1	17.6	54.3	21.2
Fourth	67.3	27.4	84.5	26.0	61.0	30.2
Fifth	67.4	28.1	89.6	21.2	58.6	38.8
Total	**63.8**	**20.8**	**83.9**	**19.7**	**55.6**	**23.3**

*Note: *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes Christian, Buddhist, Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [2]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [3]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

Independent decision-making increased consistently with level of education among young women but not young men, and this pattern was observed irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence. Among young women, for example, 54% of those with 12 or more years of schooling decided independently on all three issues, compared with just 17% of non-literate young women or those without any formal education. These differences persisted among the married and unmarried and were much wider in urban than in rural settings. Among young men, in contrast, differences between those with no formal education and those with 12 or more years of education were typically narrower; however, decision-making remained unchanged between those with no education and those with some education (less than Class 10). Interestingly, even the least educated young men were more likely than the most educated young women to report independent decision-making on all three matters.

Economic activity status was consistently associated with independent decision-making among both young men and young women, but in opposite directions. Among young men, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence, those who had worked in the last 12 months were more likely than others to make decisions independently. Among young women in contrast, those who had worked in the last 12 months were less likely than those who had not worked to report independent decision-making; this pattern was observed among both the married and the unmarried, and those residing in both urban and rural areas.

Associations between the economic status of households and independent decision-making differed among young men and women. For example, a positive association between the economic status of households and the independent decision-making authority of young women was observed; more young women belonging to the wealthiest (fifth) quintile made independent decisions about these selected matters than did those belonging to other quintiles. This pattern was observed irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence. Among young men, the differences were less consistent and much narrower. As in the case of education, even young men from households in the poorest (first) quintile were typically more likely to report independent decision-making than young women in the wealthiest quintile.

7.2 Freedom of movement

Freedom of movement was assessed only for all young women and unmarried young men because married young men generally have unrestricted mobility. Mobility was measured by a number of questions relating to whether the respondent was permitted to visit places within and outside the village (rural) or neighbourhood (urban) unescorted, only if accompanied by someone else, or was not permitted to visit the place at all. Places within the village or neighbourhood included a shop/market, the home of a friend/relative and a community programme. Places outside the village or neighbourhood included the home of a relative or friend, a movie theatre, video parlour or other place of entertainment, and a community programme. Finally, all respondents were asked if they could go to a health facility unescorted, if required. Table 7.3 and Figure 7.2 report findings relating to mobility.

Findings confirm that freedom of movement even within the village or neighbourhood was not universal, although the mobility of young women, both married and unmarried, was far more limited than that of young men. For example, findings suggest that 71% of young women—68% and 77% of the married and unmarried, respectively—could go unescorted to a shop or market within the village or neighbourhood compared with 99% of unmarried young men. Freedom to attend programmes within the village or neighbourhood was far more restricted among young women and moderately more restricted among young men. Only 44% of young women compared with 90% of unmarried young men were allowed to attend community programmes within the village or neighbourhood unescorted.

Freedom to visit places outside the village or neighbourhood unescorted was even more restricted than mobility within the village. Of the three sites, freedom to visit a place of entertainment or to attend a programme was more curtailed than freedom to visit a friend or relative residing outside the village or neighbourhood. Young women's mobility was particularly limited: for example, just 8–13% were permitted to visit a place of entertainment or to attend a programme conducted outside the village or neighbourhood unescorted. While 59% and 82% of young

women were allowed to visit a place of entertainment or attend a programme, respectively, if accompanied, one-third (33%) were not allowed to visit a place of entertainment outside the home village or neighbourhood under any circumstances. Young men's mobility was far less likely to be curtailed: findings show that four in five unmarried young men were allowed to visit a place of entertainment (79%) or to attend a programme conducted outside their village or neighbourhood (82%) unescorted, and about nine in ten were allowed to visit a friend or relative residing outside the village or neighbourhood unescorted.

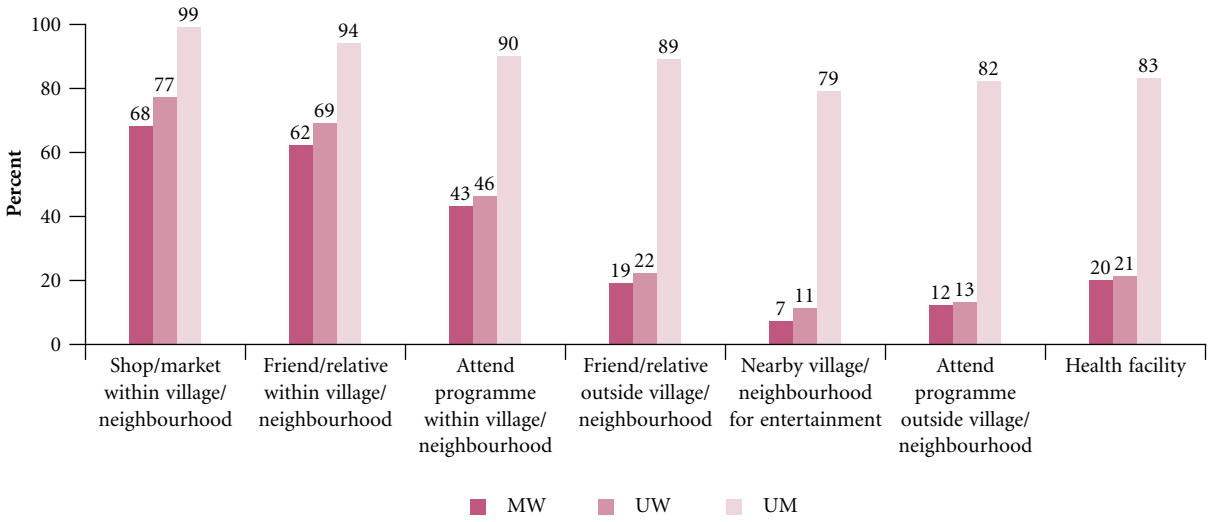
Table 7.3: Freedom of movement

Percent distribution of youth by extent of freedom to visit selected locations within or outside the village/neighbourhood, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Mobility indicators (%)	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24
	Combined				Urban				Rural			
Permitted to:												
Visit shop/market within village/ neighbourhood												
Alone	71.3	68.0	76.8	99.3	75.6	69.8	80.8	99.5	69.7	67.6	74.8	99.2
Only with someone else	26.5	29.2	22.1	0.7	22.7	27.4	18.4	0.5	27.9	29.5	24.0	0.8
Not allowed	2.2	2.7	1.2	0.0	1.7	2.8	0.8	0.0	2.3	2.8	1.3	0.0
Visit friend/relative within village/ neighbourhood												
Alone	65.0	62.4	69.3	94.2	68.7	63.3	73.5	95.3	63.7	62.3	67.2	93.8
Only with someone else	34.3	36.8	30.2	5.7	30.8	36.0	26.1	4.7	35.5	36.9	32.3	6.1
Not allowed	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.0	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.1
Attend programme within village/ neighbourhood												
Alone	44.3	42.8	46.2	89.7	50.3	46.0	54.1	90.9	42.2	42.2	42.1	89.1
Only with someone else	52.5	53.9	50.8	9.4	45.9	49.5	42.6	8.3	54.8	54.7	55.0	9.9
Not allowed	3.2	3.3	3.0	0.9	3.8	4.4	3.2	0.8	3.0	3.0	2.9	1.0
Visit friend/relative outside village/ neighbourhood												
Alone	20.2	18.5	22.3	88.7	27.8	22.9	32.3	91.3	17.5	17.6	17.3	87.6
Only with someone else	76.5	78.1	74.6	11.0	69.5	74.1	65.5	8.6	79.0	78.9	79.3	12.1
Not allowed	3.2	3.3	3.0	0.2	2.5	2.8	2.3	0.2	3.4	3.4	3.4	0.3
Visit nearby village/neighbourhood for entertainment												
Alone	8.4	6.8	10.5	78.8	13.0	9.4	16.2	83.8	6.7	6.3	7.7	76.7
Only with someone else	58.6	57.7	60.4	12.0	58.8	58.5	59.0	11.4	58.6	57.5	61.2	12.3
Not allowed	33.0	35.5	29.0	9.2	28.2	32.1	24.8	4.8	34.7	36.1	31.2	11.0
Attend programme outside village/ neighbourhood												
Alone	12.7	11.9	13.4	81.8	18.1	15.5	20.5	84.2	10.8	11.2	9.8	80.7
Only with someone else	81.6	82.7	80.5	16.5	75.7	77.3	74.2	14.5	83.7	83.7	83.7	17.4
Not allowed	5.7	5.4	6.1	1.6	6.2	7.3	5.3	1.1	5.5	5.1	6.5	1.9
Visit health facility												
Alone	20.8	19.8	21.2	83.0	29.7	27.3	32.0	87.2	17.6	18.4	15.7	81.3
Only with someone else	77.5	78.6	77.1	16.8	68.2	70.3	66.2	12.7	80.9	80.1	82.6	18.5
Not allowed	1.7	1.6	1.8	0.2	2.0	2.3	1.8	0.2	1.5	1.4	1.7	0.1
Number of respondents	**5,987**	**2,603**	**3,384**	**2,129**	**2,474**	**1,038**	**1,436**	**987**	**3,513**	**1,565**	**1,948**	**1,142**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. Questions regarding freedom of movement were not asked of married males, as their mobility is generally unrestricted.

Figure 7.2: Percentage of youth allowed to visit selected places within and outside the village/ neighbourhood unescorted, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: Questions regarding freedom of movement were not asked of married males, as their mobility is generally unrestricted.

With regard to freedom to visit a health facility unescorted, findings, presented in Table 7.3, reveal that just one-fifth of young women (21%), compared with 83% of unmarried young men, reported that they could do so.

Among young women, differences by marital status were evident with respect to freedom to visit locations within the village or neighbourhood; the unmarried were more likely than the married to report freedom to visit a shop or market, and friends or relatives within the village or neighbourhood. Marital status differences were, in contrast, negligible, with regard to freedom to visit other places within and outside the village or neighbourhood.

Rural-urban differentials were striking with respect to freedom of movement of young women; those in rural areas were consistently but modestly less likely than their urban counterparts to be permitted to visit any location within or outside their village or neighbourhood. Differences were more pronounced with regard to locations outside the village or neighbourhood, and health facilities. For example, while 64% of rural young women compared to 69% of their urban counterparts were permitted to make unescorted visits to a friend or relative within the village, only 18% of rural women and 28% of their urban counterparts were permitted to make such visits outside the village or neighbourhood. Rural-urban differentials were muted among young men, except that urban young men were more likely than their rural counterparts to be permitted to visit places of entertainment located outside the home village or neighbourhood and a health facility (84% and 77%, respectively).

Summary measures have been created from the range of questions relating to freedom to visit places unescorted within and outside the village or neighbourhood—namely, the percentage who were free to visit at least one place within the village or neighbourhood, on the one hand, and outside the village or neighbourhood, on the other—and a health facility. Table 7.4 presents percentages of youth reporting each of these summary measures of freedom of movement by selected socio-economic and demographic characteristics.

As shown in Table 7.4, 100% and 92% of unmarried young men had freedom to visit unescorted at least one place within and outside the village or neighbourhood, respectively, and 83% to visit a health facility. In comparison, only 77% and 23% of young women reported freedom to visit unescorted at least one place within and outside the village or neighbourhood, respectively, and 21% to visit a health facility. Differences by marital status were narrow,

Table 7.4: Freedom of movement by selected background characteristics

Percentage of youth who could visit various places unescorted by selected background characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24
	Within village/neighbourhood				Outside village/neighbourhood				Health facility			
Combined												
Age (years)												
15–19	75.7	69.8	79.3	99.4	18.9	14.4	21.2	90.1	15.0	11.3	16.6	78.4
20–24	77.2	75.7	89.2	99.8	27.7	24.8	50.6	98.2	26.4	23.4	48.0	96.1
Religion												
Hindu	77.5	74.7	82.2	99.5	24.2	22.4	26.3	92.1	21.2	20.3	21.6	82.7
Muslim	69.4	68.2	72.7	100.0	14.3	14.0	14.1	95.0	14.3	15.5	11.4	88.8
Other[1]	73.4	(68.8)	75.5	(100.0)	35.3	(29.2)	38.0	(92.9)	31.4	(20.8)	36.8	(78.6)
Caste												
SC	74.1	74.5	73.1	100.0	19.4	20.6	16.2	90.1	16.6	18.0	12.6	82.4
ST	80.0	79.5	81.3	98.1	27.0	29.6	20.1	88.4	20.1	23.0	13.1	80.0
OBC	75.7	73.3	81.1	99.5	21.6	20.2	24.0	92.7	19.7	19.4	19.3	83.2
Genearl[2]	78.6	71.5	84.7	99.8	29.8	22.9	34.9	95.3	27.6	22.0	31.3	85.1
Educational level (years)												
None[3]	73.8	74.7	69.9	100.0	20.1	21.7	11.8	92.2	18.0	19.5	8.8	89.8
1–7	71.8	70.3	74.7	99.1	17.1	19.0	13.5	89.5	13.4	15.1	9.7	77.7
8–11	79.4	74.1	83.5	99.5	23.0	19.5	25.0	91.4	20.2	20.5	19.5	80.5
12 and above	91.2	84.6	94.5	100.0	53.1	42.3	58.3	98.2	51.7	45.3	54.7	93.8
Worked in last 12 months												
Yes	78.3	78.2	78.5	99.9	22.9	23.7	19.9	95.1	20.4	21.1	17.4	89.7
No	74.7	67.9	82.1	99.2	23.9	19.0	28.6	89.7	21.1	18.1	23.3	76.9
Wealth quintile												
First	76.7	77.2	75.1	100.0	21.4	23.9	13.1	86.7	14.2	16.4	6.9	78.2
Second	76.5	76.7	76.2	98.8	20.4	22.1	15.0	88.9	19.4	21.6	13.3	81.2
Third	73.6	71.8	77.3	99.7	18.6	19.3	17.1	93.3	17.3	19.4	12.7	81.9
Fourth	73.4	69.1	80.7	99.8	21.0	18.5	24.8	94.9	18.6	18.3	18.8	85.8
Fifth	81.7	75.6	87.3	99.5	33.9	25.5	40.8	93.1	31.4	23.9	37.4	83.7
Total	**76.5**	**74.0**	**80.8**	**99.5**	**23.4**	**21.7**	**25.4**	**92.3**	**20.8**	**19.8**	**21.2**	**83.0**
Urban												
Age (years)												
15–19	78.9	72.1	80.6	99.5	28.1	23.5	29.1	90.9	23.8	22.1	24.3	81.2
20–24	79.0	74.3	92.3	100.0	34.2	26.9	55.4	99.6	35.4	28.7	54.9	96.7
Religion												
Hindu	82.7	77.3	87.4	99.6	34.5	29.7	38.8	94.0	32.5	29.4	35.2	87.2
Muslim	64.4	62.6	66.4	100.0	16.1	15.0	17.1	95.4	16.9	19.6	13.5	88.0
Other[1]	93.6	*	93.6	(100.0)	57.4	*	63.8	(87.5)	55.3	*	57.4	(75.0)
Caste												
SC	74.5	70.8	78.4	100.0	23.6	26.2	20.9	97.2	22.1	24.6	19.6	89.6
ST	85.0	(81.3)	87.0	(100.0)	38.3	(37.5)	39.1	(94.4)	26.7	(31.3)	22.2	(88.9)
OBC	74.4	70.5	78.8	99.6	24.8	21.8	28.2	92.4	25.2	24.7	25.7	88.6
Genearl[2]	87.4	81.7	90.5	99.6	43.8	35.6	48.6	94.8	40.7	34.6	44.1	84.5
Educational level (years)												
None[3]	65.5	67.7	59.4	100.0	16.2	18.3	9.4	100.0	20.7	24.4	9.3	97.2
1–7	70.7	71.6	69.5	100.0	19.1	23.3	13.0	93.1	19.1	24.3	11.5	90.1
8–11	80.6	73.9	84.7	99.4	28.6	24.4	31.0	91.8	23.7	22.7	24.3	81.8
12 and above	94.2	90.8	95.9	100.0	57.2	49.2	60.4	97.8	54.9	45.5	59.0	92.4
Worked in last 12 months												
Yes	75.5	74.1	76.8	100.0	28.8	27.8	30.1	99.0	28.8	26.9	30.1	95.8
No	80.1	74.0	85.5	99.4	31.9	25.7	37.3	89.7	30.1	27.3	32.4	79.2

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Table 7.4: (Cont'd)

Background characteristics (%)	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24	W 15–24	MW 15–24	UW 15–24	UM 15–24
	Within village/neighbourhood				Outside village/neighbourhood				Health facility			
Urban												
Wealth quintile												
First	(81.3)	(78.6)	*	*	(25.0)	(21.4)	*	*	(21.9)	(23.1)	*	*
Second	79.0	81.5	76.1	(100.0)	27.2	33.3	17.4	(100.0)	27.2	37.0	13.0	(93.8)
Third	73.5	72.5	75.3	100.0	20.0	20.0	19.9	98.0	22.5	26.3	17.2	95.9
Fourth	73.2	69.5	77.2	100.0	22.7	22.0	23.7	95.5	21.2	21.3	20.9	89.4
Fifth	84.4	76.5	89.3	99.5	41.0	31.9	46.8	92.8	38.3	31.3	42.9	84.6
Total	**79.0**	**73.8**	**83.5**	**99.7**	**31.2**	**26.2**	**35.6**	**94.2**	**29.7**	**27.3**	**32.0**	**87.2**
Rural												
Age (years)												
15–19	74.6	69.6	78.8	99.5	15.8	13.1	17.9	89.9	11.8	9.9	13.4	77.4
20–24	76.5	76.0	84.5	99.7	25.4	24.3	44.2	97.2	23.1	22.3	38.3	95.6
Religion												
Hindu	75.9	74.3	79.8	99.4	21.1	21.3	20.7	91.3	17.9	18.9	15.5	81.0
Muslim	75.1	72.4	81.5	(100.0)	12.3	13.5	9.9	(92.3)	11.6	12.8	8.6	(90.4)
Other[1]	65.9	*	67.8	*	27.0	*	27.0	*	22.4	*	28.4	*
Caste												
SC	74.0	75.0	71.5	100.0	18.6	20.0	14.7	88.0	15.4	17.3	10.5	80.2
ST	79.5	79.5	79.9	98.0	25.6	29.1	16.8	88.3	19.4	22.5	11.5	79.2
OBC	76.2	73.9	82.4	99.5	20.4	19.9	21.8	92.7	17.6	18.2	16.0	81.4
Genearl[2]	72.9	67.9	80.0	100.0	20.8	18.7	23.8	96.0	19.1	17.8	21.1	85.8
Educational level(years)												
None[3]	75.0	75.5	72.0	100.0	20.7	22.1	12.1	89.9	17.6	19.0	8.7	87.7
1–7	72.1	70.1	76.2	98.8	16.6	18.0	13.7	88.5	11.8	13.0	9.2	73.8
8–11	78.8	74.2	82.9	99.5	19.9	17.8	21.7	91.2	18.2	19.6	16.9	80.0
12 and above	85.7	(78.9)	91.4	100.0	46.0	(36.1)	54.5	98.5	46.0	(45.1)	47.1	95.0
Worked in last 12 months												
Yes	78.6	78.6	78.8	99.9	22.0	23.4	17.4	93.4	19.2	20.7	14.1	87.2
No	71.2	65.4	79.7	99.2	18.7	16.1	22.6	89.7	15.3	14.2	16.9	75.9
Wealth quintile												
First	76.6	77.2	74.7	100.0	21.3	24.0	12.4	86.4	14.0	16.3	6.6	77.7
Second	76.4	76.4	76.1	98.7	19.9	21.6	14.8	88.3	18.9	20.7	13.3	80.5
Third	73.7	71.7	77.9	99.7	18.2	19.1	16.3	92.6	16.0	18.3	11.3	80.1
Fourth	73.5	68.9	83.3	99.7	20.0	17.5	25.6	94.5	17.2	17.0	17.3	84.1
Fifth	78.5	74.7	84.3	99.6	25.6	21.6	32.1	93.4	23.4	19.7	29.3	82.8
Total	**75.6**	**74.0**	**79.3**	**99.5**	**20.6**	**20.8**	**20.3**	**91.5**	**17.6**	**18.4**	**15.7**	**81.3**

*Note: ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. Questions regarding freedom of movement were not asked of married males, as their mobility is generally unrestricted. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes Christian, Buddhist, Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [2]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [3]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

except that the unmarried were more likely than the married to report freedom of movement within the village or neighbourhood. Rural-urban differences were negligible among young men. Among young women, as observed above, those in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to report freedom of movement particularly with regard to visiting locations outside the village or neighbourhood and to a health facility.

Findings reveal that among unmarried young men, socio-demographic differentials were negligible in the case of mobility within the village. Differentials were narrow with regard to freedom to visit places outside the village and to visit a health centre unescorted, however, differences were observed by age and work status, with young men aged 20–24 and those who were working reporting somewhat more mobility than those aged 15–19 and non-working young men, respectively. These associations were observed among both rural and urban young men.

Among young women, in contrast, socio-demographic differentials were wide for each indicator of mobility. Young women's freedom to visit locations outside the village or neighbourhood and health facilities increased with age, but no such association was evident with regard to mobility within the village or neighbourhood. Differences by religion suggest that Muslim women were least likely to report freedom of movement, irrespective of the location. Caste-wise differences were less consistent, except that those belonging to general castes displayed greater freedom to visit a health facility than other youth. The association between education and mobility suggests that even though mobility did not increase steadily with years of schooling, those who had completed 12 or more years of schooling were consistently more likely than others to report freedom of movement, irrespective of the measure of mobility. Associations between wealth quintile and mobility were similar: mobility did not increase steadily with wealth quintiles but those in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile consistently reported more mobility than other youth on all three measures. Finally, irrespective of the measure of mobility, young women's mobility was unrelated to their work status.

Among young women, socio-demographic differentials in mobility were more pronounced among the unmarried than the married. For example, freedom to move within or outside the village and to visit a health facility increased systematically with education and economic status of the household among the unmarried; associations were less consistently observed among the married, but in all cases, those with 12 or more years of schooling reported more mobility than other married young women and those in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile reported more mobility than those in poorer quintiles. The fact that differences by education were wider among the unmarried suggests that marriage may have limited the positive association between education and mobility. Similar patterns of socio-demographic differentials were observed, by and large, among rural and urban respondents, as seen in Table 7.4.

7.3 Access to money

In order to understand access to financial resources among youth, information was obtained on whether they had any savings, whether they owned an account in a bank or a post office and if so, whether they operated the account themselves. Results are presented in Table 7.5.

Wide gender differences were observed. For example, young women were far more likely than young men to have reported savings (38% versus 23%). Differences by marital status were narrow among young women but wide among young men (41% and 18% of married and unmarried young men reported some savings). More urban than rural youth reported some savings, and the difference was pronounced among young men (34% versus 19% among young men, and 45% versus 36% among young women).

Findings on ownership of a bank/post office account reveal a different picture. Only a minority of youth reported owning a bank/post office account—14% of young men and 9% of young women. Gender differences were narrow for the overall population; however, differences were pronounced among the married. Married young men were far more likely than married young women to own an account (25% versus 7%). Differences by marital status suggest that married young men were more likely than unmarried young men to own an account (25% and 11%, respectively). Among young women, while marital status differences were negligible for the overall population, somewhat larger percentages of unmarried than married young women reported owning an account in urban settings (21% and 10%, respectively). Rural-urban differences were apparent as well, with urban residents considerably more likely than rural respondents to own a bank account (22% versus 11% among young men, and 16% versus 7% among young women).

With regard to operation of the account, gender differences were stark. Almost all young men who owned an account (92%) reported operating it themselves. In contrast, only two in five young women who owned an account did so (40%). Marital status differences suggest that the married were more likely than the unmarried to operate their account on their own. Rural-urban differences were, however, negligible for both young men and women; even so among the unmarried, urban youth were more likely than their rural counterparts to operate their account independently.

Table 7.5: Access to money

Percentage of youth who reported having any savings, owning an account in a bank or post office and operating the account themselves, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Savings indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Has savings of any amount	23.0	38.4	40.5	39.2	18.3	35.9
Ownership of a bank/post office account:						
In own (respondent's) name	12.5	7.0	24.3	4.7	10.2	10.6
Jointly with someone else	1.1	2.2	0.8	2.0	1.1	2.5
No account	86.4	90.8	74.9	93.5	88.8	86.9
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Operates bank/post office account themselves	92.2	40.2	97.7	47.1	89.9	33.7
Number with an account	**443**	**662**	**548**	**190**	**272**	**472**
Urban						
Has savings of any amount	33.8	44.9	61.8	44.6	30.3	45.3
Ownership of a bank/post office account:						
In own (respondent's) name	20.4	12.6	46.0	7.7	17.7	16.9
Jointly with someone else	1.2	3.1	0.9	2.3	1.3	3.7
No account	78.4	84.5	53.2	89.9	81.3	79.6
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Operates bank/post office account themselves	94.6	40.4	98.8	41.9	93.3	39.9
Number with an account	**258**	**398**	**293**	**105**	**182**	**293**
Rural						
Has savings of any amount	19.3	36.1	35.6	38.2	13.1	31.1
Ownership of a bank/post office account:						
In own (respondent's) name	9.7	5.0	19.4	4.0	7.0	7.4
Jointly with someone else	1.1	1.9	0.8	1.9	0.9	1.9
No account	89.2	93.1	79.8	94.2	92.1	90.6
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Operates bank/post office account themselves	90.5	40.0	97.4	48.4	86.4	27.1
Number with an account	**185**	**264**	**255**	**85**	**90**	**179**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

7.4 Gender role attitudes

In order to understand gender role attitudes, youth were asked seven questions reflecting attitudes, including the relative importance attached to educating boys versus girls, the role of husbands as main decision-makers with regard to spending money, girls' participation in decisions about their own marriages, a woman's need to take permission from her husband for any activity, the comparative performance of girls versus boys in studies, gender roles in domestic work, and whether girls who dress provocatively deserve to be teased. Findings, presented in Table 7.6, suggest a mixed scenario.

Questions that were most likely to elicit egalitarian attitudes from both young men and women included whether girls are usually as good as boys in studies and whether educating boys is more important than educating girls; 64–74% of young men and 77–80% of young women expressed egalitarian views on these matters. More than two-thirds of young women (70%), in addition—and fewer young men (55%)—expressed egalitarian views about whether girls should be allowed to decide about their own marriages; and over half of both young men and women expressed gender egalitarian attitudes on whether boys should do as much housework as girls (59% of young men and 53% of young women) and whether husbands should be the main decision-makers with regard to spending money (52% and 55%, respectively). Questions that were least likely to elicit egalitarian responses from youth included whether women should obtain their husbands' permission for most things (23% of young men and 30% of young women disagreed with the statement) and whether girls who dress provocatively deserve to be teased (34% of young men and 43% of young women disagreed with the statement). Variation in reporting of egalitarian attitudes by topic is highlighted in Figure 7.3.

Table 7.6: Gender role attitudes

Percent distribution of youth by attitudes towards gender roles, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Gender role attitudes (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Educating boys is more important than educating girls						
Yes	32.1	19.6	34.8	23.2	30.7	14.0
No	63.7	77.4	61.3	73.5	65.0	83.2
Husband alone/mainly should decide about spending money						
Yes	44.5	41.7	48.4	46.5	42.0	34.4
No	52.2	54.9	50.6	51.7	53.7	59.2
Girls should be allowed to decide about their own marriage						
Yes	54.7	70.4	51.0	66.3	56.1	76.6
No	41.8	24.2	45.8	27.7	40.4	18.8
A woman should obtain her husband's permission for most things						
Yes	74.6	67.0	77.6	72.1	72.5	58.9
No	23.2	29.7	21.4	26.0	24.5	35.2
Girls are usually as good as boys in studies						
Yes	74.2	79.8	71.6	75.9	74.9	86.0
No	18.7	9.5	20.3	10.7	18.5	7.7
Boys should do as much domestic work as girls						
Yes	58.6	53.0	59.3	48.3	58.8	60.8
No	39.2	43.7	38.8	48.2	38.8	36.4
Girls who dress provocatively deserve to be teased						
Yes	57.0	39.0	58.9	39.8	56.6	38.0
No	33.7	43.3	31.8	40.3	33.7	47.2
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**

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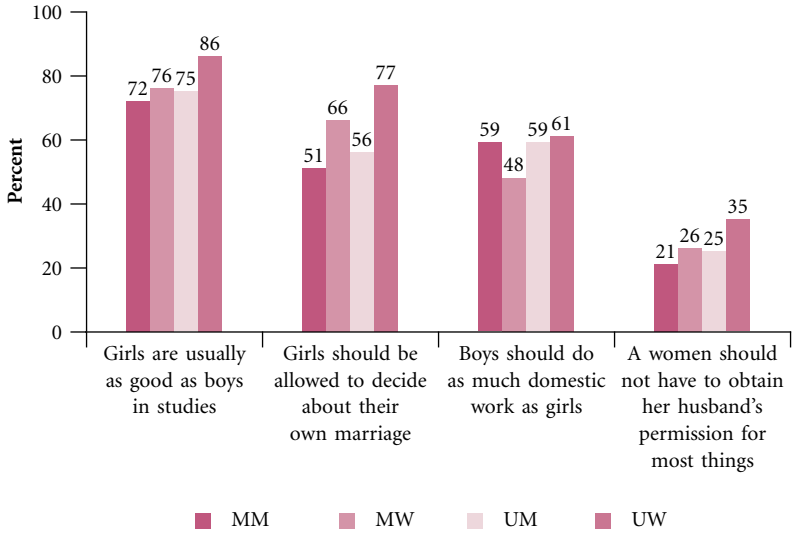
Table 7.6: (Cont'd)

Gender role attitudes (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Educating boys is more important than educating girls						
Yes	20.9	11.8	23.9	15.0	19.4	8.8
No	75.8	86.9	74.1	83.6	77.2	90.1
Husband alone/mainly should decide about spending money						
Yes	39.8	30.7	42.0	35.4	37.7	26.4
No	57.0	66.5	57.2	63.5	58.6	69.3
Girls should be allowed to decide about their own marriage						
Yes	61.2	80.8	55.7	77.8	63.8	83.5
No	36.2	15.7	43.4	18.0	33.3	13.6
A woman should obtain her husband's permission for most things						
Yes	70.8	57.6	73.9	65.3	69.7	50.8
No	27.3	38.9	25.2	33.5	28.1	43.8
Girls are usually as good as boys in studies						
Yes	73.5	88.0	74.7	85.5	74.6	90.4
No	21.1	6.8	19.3	7.7	20.5	6.0
Boys should do as much domestic work as girls						
Yes	55.7	61.2	57.8	55.2	56.1	66.7
No	42.8	36.4	41.1	42.5	42.3	31.0
Girls who dress provocatively deserve to be teased						
Yes	52.2	35.0	56.0	35.6	50.9	34.5
No	40.3	53.8	37.6	51.5	41.3	55.9
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Educating boys is more important than educating girls						
Yes	35.9	22.4	37.3	24.8	35.5	16.6
No	59.5	73.9	58.3	71.5	59.7	79.8
Husband alone/mainly should decide about spending money						
Yes	46.2	45.7	49.8	48.7	44.0	38.4
No	50.6	50.8	49.1	49.5	51.6	54.0
Girls should be allowed to decide about their own marriage						
Yes	52.4	66.7	49.9	64.0	52.9	73.0
No	43.8	27.2	46.4	29.6	43.5	21.4
A woman should obtain her husband's permission for most things						
Yes	75.9	70.3	78.5	73.5	73.6	63.0
No	21.8	26.4	20.5	24.5	22.9	30.8
Girls are usually as good as boys in studies						
Yes	74.5	76.9	70.9	74.0	75.0	83.9
No	17.8	10.5	20.5	11.3	17.6	8.5
Boys should do as much domestic work as girls						
Yes	59.6	50.1	59.7	46.9	59.9	57.7
No	37.9	46.3	38.2	49.3	37.3	39.1
Girls who dress provocatively deserve to be teased						
Yes	58.6	40.4	59.5	40.6	59.0	39.8
No	31.4	39.5	30.4	38.1	30.4	42.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases, "don't know" or "unsure" responses.

Figure 7.3: Percentage of youth who expressed egalitarian gender role attitudes on selected issues, Rajasthan, 2007



Young men were consistently more likely than young women to report unequal gender role attitudes in relation to most topics, although differences were not pronounced on several statements. For example, even though large proportions of youth believed that educating boys is no more important than educating girls, more young men than women (32% and 20%, respectively) expressed the traditional attitude that educating boys is more important. Similarly, 42% of young men compared to 24% of young women reported that girls should not be allowed to make marriage-related decisions. Patterns remained, by and large, the same in both urban and rural settings.

The responses of unmarried youth to almost all seven questions reflected more egalitarian attitudes than the married, but differences were narrower among young men than women. For example, with regard to the question whether women should obtain their husbands' permission for most things, 21% and 25% of married and unmarried young men expressed egalitarian attitudes; among women, corresponding percentages were 26% and 35%. Differences by rural-urban residence indicate that urban youth were more likely than their rural counterparts to express gender egalitarian attitudes in relation to almost all topics. The only exceptions were that young men in urban areas were about as likely as their counterparts in rural settings to agree that girls are usually as good as boys in studies (74% and 75%, respectively) and somewhat less likely to agree that boys should do as much domestic work as girls (56% and 60%, respectively).

7.5 Attitudes towards wife beating

Youth were asked a number of questions to gauge the extent to which beating one's wife was perceived to be an acceptable behaviour. Young people were asked whether they agreed that wife beating was a way of expressing love, and whether wife beating was justified in four situations, including refusal to have sex with the husband. Findings are presented in Table 7.7 and Figure 7.4. Although large proportions of youth (82% of young men and 88% of young women) disagreed that wife beating was a sign of love, it is notable that about 18% and 12% of young men and women, respectively, did conform to this view or were unsure about their attitude. Marital status differences were narrow among young women, but more married than unmarried young men disagreed with the statement (87% and 79%, respectively). Rural-urban differences were negligible.

Findings show, moreover, that considerable proportions of youth did justify wife beating. Of the four situations posed, young men, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence, were most likely to perceive that wife beating was justified if the husband suspected that his wife had been unfaithful (39%) and young women were most likely to justify wife beating if a wife went out without telling her husband (27%). Both young men and women were least likely to justify wife beating if a woman refused to have sexual relations with her husband (14% and 10%, respectively). About two in five youth believed that wife beating is justified in at least one of the four situations posed, and notable differences were observed by sex of respondent, marital status and rural-urban residence. For example, 44% of young men and 37% of young women believed that wife beating is justified in at least one situation, a pattern observed, for the most part, among both the married and unmarried and those in urban and rural settings. Differences by marital status and rural-urban setting suggest that the married were consistently more likely than the unmarried (49% versus 41% among young men; 41% versus 32% among young women) and those in rural areas consistently more likely than those in urban areas, particularly among young women (45% versus 40% among young men; 42% versus 25% among young women) to justify wife beating in at least one situation.

Table 7.7: Attitudes towards wife beating

Percent distribution of youth by attitudes towards wife beating in selected situations, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Attitudes towards wife beating (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Beating wife means husband loves her						
Agree	5.0	4.0	5.9	4.4	4.8	3.5
Disagree	81.6	88.4	87.2	88.1	79.1	88.4
Don't know/can't say	13.4	7.6	6.7	7.5	16.0	8.1
Beating wife is justified if:						
Husband suspects wife has been unfaithful						
Yes	39.2	19.5	45.0	21.9	36.2	16.0
No	51.4	77.2	50.6	75.9	52.0	78.3
Don't know/can't say	9.3	3.3	4.3	2.2	11.7	5.7
Wife goes out without telling husband						
Yes	25.7	27.1	29.5	29.5	23.5	23.7
No	63.9	69.9	65.6	68.6	63.5	71.1
Don't know/can't say	10.3	3.0	4.8	1.8	12.9	5.2
Wife disagrees with husband's opinion						
Yes	23.5	21.4	26.6	23.5	21.5	18.7
No	65.7	74.1	68.2	72.9	65.0	75.0
Don't know/can't say	10.6	4.4	5.1	3.6	13.4	6.2
Wife refuses to have sexual relations with husband						
Yes	14.2	10.2	17.2	11.6	12.3	8.4
No	73.5	81.7	77.4	83.0	72.2	78.4
Don't know/can't say	12.3	8.0	5.4	5.5	15.4	13.2
Believed that wife beating is justified in at least one of the above situations	**43.7**	**37.3**	**49.4**	**41.1**	**40.6**	**31.9**
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**

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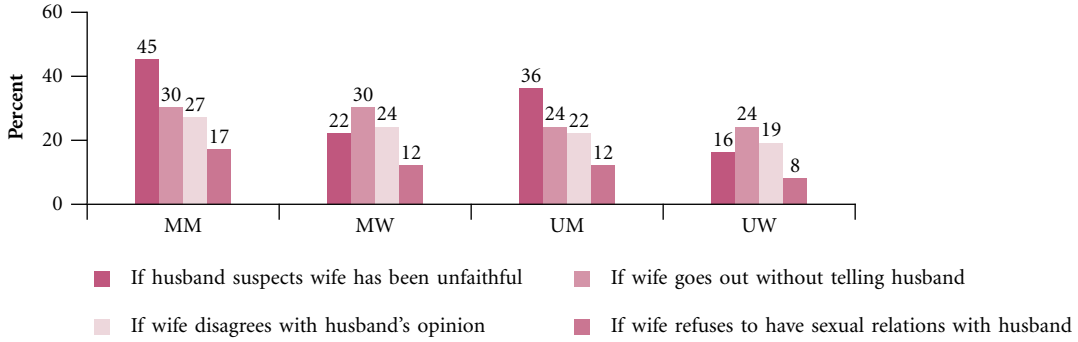
Table 7.7: (Cont'd)

Attitudes towards wife beating (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Beating wife means husband loves her						
Agree	5.7	2.6	4.9	3.0	6.1	2.3
Disagree	79.0	92.0	88.2	93.2	77.4	91.0
Don't know/can't say	15.1	5.4	6.6	3.7	16.4	6.7
Beating wife is justified if:						
Husband suspects wife has been unfaithful						
Yes	35.2	11.7	38.5	14.5	34.2	9.2
No	54.5	86.2	57.5	84.5	54.0	87.7
Don't know/can't say	10.2	2.1	4.0	0.9	11.7	3.2
Wife goes out without telling husband						
Yes	21.2	18.5	21.8	22.2	20.3	15.3
No	67.3	79.3	74.1	76.6	66.3	81.6
Don't know/can't say	11.4	2.1	4.0	1.2	13.3	3.1
Wife disagrees with husband's opinion						
Yes	18.2	13.2	20.4	15.2	16.7	11.4
No	69.3	83.9	74.7	82.7	68.6	85.1
Don't know/can't say	12.4	2.9	4.9	2.1	14.5	3.5
Wife refuses to have sexual relations with husband						
Yes	11.1	5.6	8.6	6.8	11.6	4.6
No	75.2	88.2	86.5	90.2	72.7	86.4
Don't know/can't say	13.6	6.2	4.9	3.0	15.6	9.0
Believed that wife beating is justified in at least one of the above situations	**39.7**	**25.2**	**44.3**	**29.5**	**38.0**	**21.2**
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Beating wife means husband loves her						
Agree	4.7	4.5	6.1	4.7	4.2	4.1
Disagree	82.5	87.1	87.0	87.1	79.8	87.0
Don't know/can't say	12.7	8.4	6.7	8.2	15.9	8.7
Beating wife is justified if:						
Husband suspects wife has been unfaithful						
Yes	40.5	22.2	46.4	23.4	37.0	19.5
No	50.4	74.0	49.1	74.2	51.2	73.5
Don't know/can't say	9.0	3.8	4.4	2.4	11.8	7.0
Wife goes out without telling husband						
Yes	27.2	30.1	31.3	31.0	24.9	28.0
No	62.7	66.6	63.7	67.0	62.2	65.7
Don't know/can't say	9.9	3.3	4.9	2.0	12.8	6.3
Wife disagrees with husband's opinion						
Yes	25.3	24.3	28.0	25.1	23.5	22.4
No	64.5	70.7	66.8	71.0	63.4	69.9
Don't know/can't say	10.0	5.0	5.2	3.9	13.0	7.6
Wife refuses to have sexual relations with husband						
Yes	15.2	11.8	19.2	12.5	12.6	10.3
No	72.8	79.4	75.2	81.6	72.0	74.4
Don't know/can't say	11.8	8.7	5.5	5.9	15.3	15.3
Believed that wife beating is justified in at least one of the above situations	**45.1**	**41.6**	**50.6**	**43.4**	**41.7**	**37.3**
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases.

Figure 7.4: Percentage of youth who believed wife beating is justified in selected situations, Rajasthan, 2007



7.6 Summary

Findings clearly highlight young women's limited agency. For example, just one in four young women reported independent decision-making on all three issues explored in the survey, namely, decisions on choice of friends, spending money and purchase of clothes. Likewise, freedom of movement even within the village or neighbourhood was not universal among young women; only three quarters of young women had the freedom to visit locations within their own village or neighbourhood unescorted. Moreover, just one quarter of young women reported freedom to visit at least one place outside the village or neighbourhood unescorted, and one in five could visit a health facility unescorted. Access to and control over financial resources tended to be limited among young women; just two in five reported some savings and one in 10 owned a bank or post office savings account. Of those who owned an account, just two in five operated it themselves.

Within the sub-group of young women, findings indicate that the married were considerably more disadvantaged than the unmarried. By and large, compared to the unmarried, married young women were less likely to make decisions independently and have less freedom of movement; at the same time, they were more likely to hold unequal gender role attitudes.

Also notable from the findings is the striking gender divide in all the dimensions of young people's agency explored in the survey. Young women were far more disadvantaged than young men. For example, even the least educated young men and young men belonging to the poorest wealth quintile were more likely than the most educated women and those in the wealthiest quintile to report independent decision-making on all three issues explored in the survey. Likewise, although young women were more likely than young men to have money saved (38% and 23%, respectively), and less likely than young men to own a bank or post office savings account (9% and 14%, respectively). Moreover, young women were much less likely than their male counterparts to operate these accounts themselves (40% versus 92% of those who had an account).

While young men were not as disadvantaged as young women, findings indicate that many young men were also not able to exercise agency in their everyday lives. For example, only 65% of young men reported independent decision-making on all three issues explored in the survey. Unmarried young men had considerable freedom of movement, yet about 20% were not permitted to visit a place of entertainment, attend a programme conducted outside their village or neighbourhood, or a health facility unescorted.

About two in five young men and women justified wife beating in at least one situation, relatively large proportions of youth espoused egalitarian gender role attitudes on other issues explored. Even so, it is notable that young men were consistently more likely than young women to report unequal gender role attitudes on these issues.

Chapter 8

Awareness of sexual and reproductive health matters

A considerable body of research, including the NFHS (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a), has highlighted relatively low levels of awareness regarding selected sexual and reproductive health issues in both the general and youth populations. The Youth Study sought to explore awareness of a wide range of issues relating to sex, pregnancy, contraception and STIs, including HIV/AIDS, as well as knowledge of laws governing age at marriage and abortion. Where possible, further questions were posed to assess the extent of in-depth awareness of these matters. Along with the results of these items, this chapter presents findings on communication about and sources of information for sexual and reproductive health matters, as well as youth perceptions and experiences of family life or sex education.

8.1 Awareness of sex and pregnancy, contraception, STIs and HIV

In this section, we present evidence of the extent to which young people were aware of or held misconceptions about various issues related to sex and pregnancy, contraception, STIs and HIV.

8.1.1 Sex and pregnancy

In order to assess young people's knowledge about sex and pregnancy, the Youth Study asked youth whether they agreed or disagreed with four statements: (a) a woman can get pregnant after kissing or hugging; (b) a woman is most likely to get pregnant if she has sex half-way between her periods; (c) a woman has to bleed at first intercourse; and (d) a woman can get pregnant at first sex. Given the prevalence of sex-selective abortions in the country (Bhat and Zavier, 2007; Dagar, 2007), we also asked whether youth were aware of any tests that could determine the sex of the foetus.

Findings, presented in Table 8.1, clearly suggest that awareness of sex- and pregnancy-related matters was limited. The one exception was knowledge that women cannot become pregnant after kissing or hugging; 94% of young men and 91% of young women were aware of this. Even so, it is notable that 8% of unmarried young men and as many as 18% of unmarried young women (and 2–5% married youth) were either unsure or believed it to be possible.

Awareness of other matters was reported by far smaller proportions of youth. About one-quarter of young men (24%) and two-fifths of young women (39%) were aware that women are most likely to become pregnant if they engage in sexual relations mid-cycle. More married than unmarried youth (37% and 19% of married and unmarried young men, respectively, and 51% and 18% of married and unmarried young women, respectively) reported correct knowledge of this issue (see Figure 8.1). Differences by rural-urban residence were marginal. Awareness that a woman can get pregnant at first sex was also limited, correctly reported by just 34% of young men and 47% of young women. More married than unmarried youth (47–58% compared to 27–28%) reported correctly that a woman can become pregnant at first sex. Rural-urban differences were narrow for young women, but among young men, those in urban areas were somewhat more likely than their rural counterparts to report correctly about this matter (41% versus 32%). Finally, awareness that a woman does not have to bleed at first intercourse was also reported by just one quarter of both young men and women. Marital status differences were notable, with more married than unmarried youth so reporting (29–33% compared to 17%–21%). Rural-urban differences suggest that more urban than rural youth were aware of this issue (33% versus 22% among young men; 28% versus 23% among young women).

Table 8.1: Awareness of sex- and pregnancy-related matters

Percent distribution of youth by awareness of sex- and pregnancy-related matters, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Awareness indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
A woman can get pregnant after kissing/hugging						
True	0.7	1.7	0.7	1.7	0.6	2.0
False	93.5	90.5	97.6	95.0	91.9	81.9
Don't know/not sure	5.8	7.8	1.7	3.3	7.6	16.2
A woman is most likely to get pregnant if she has sex half-way between her periods						
True	23.7	39.1	37.0	50.8	18.8	17.5
False	11.4	14.0	16.2	16.3	8.3	9.8
Don't know/not sure	64.9	46.8	46.8	32.8	72.9	72.6
A woman has to bleed at first intercourse						
True	34.4	38.2	51.1	50.1	27.2	16.9
False	24.6	24.7	32.7	28.7	20.9	16.6
Don't know/not sure	41.0	37.1	16.2	21.2	51.9	66.5
A woman can get pregnant at first sex						
True	34.0	46.9	47.1	57.8	27.6	26.6
False	21.0	24.8	28.7	28.6	17.4	18.4
Don't know/not sure	45.0	28.3	24.2	13.6	55.0	55.0
It is possible to do a medical test to know the sex of a foetus						
True	61.9	75.2	68.7	75.7	60.7	72.6
False	13.0	12.4	12.2	13.1	11.7	11.9
Don't know/not sure	25.0	12.4	18.9	11.2	27.5	15.5
Had correct knowledge of all of the above	**6.3**	**5.6**	**8.7**	**7.4**	**5.0**	**1.9**
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
A woman can get pregnant after kissing/hugging						
True	0.3	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.2	1.0
False	95.0	92.4	98.9	97.2	94.1	88.2
Don't know/not sure	4.8	6.8	0.9	2.3	5.8	10.9
A woman is most likely to get pregnant if she has sex half-way between her periods						
True	26.2	37.2	49.0	55.7	22.2	20.5
False	8.1	13.4	10.9	16.4	7.7	10.8
Don't know/not sure	65.6	49.3	40.1	27.9	70.2	68.7
A woman has to bleed at first intercourse						
True	25.2	31.9	42.2	48.4	20.6	17.2
False	32.7	28.1	48.0	34.6	28.8	22.3
Don't know/not sure	42.1	40.0	9.8	17.1	50.6	60.5
A woman can get pregnant at first sex						
True	40.7	46.7	61.0	65.3	35.6	29.9
False	18.9	19.9	21.5	23.7	17.7	16.6
Don't know/not sure	40.4	33.4	17.5	11.0	46.7	53.5
It is possible to do a medical test to know the sex of a foetus						
True	75.0	87.5	86.5	88.6	73.3	86.4
False	7.6	6.4	6.9	6.3	6.9	6.4
Don't know/not sure	17.3	6.1	6.6	4.9	19.8	7.2
Had correct knowledge of all of the above	**10.2**	**7.8**	**19.3**	**13.3**	**8.1**	**2.8**
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**

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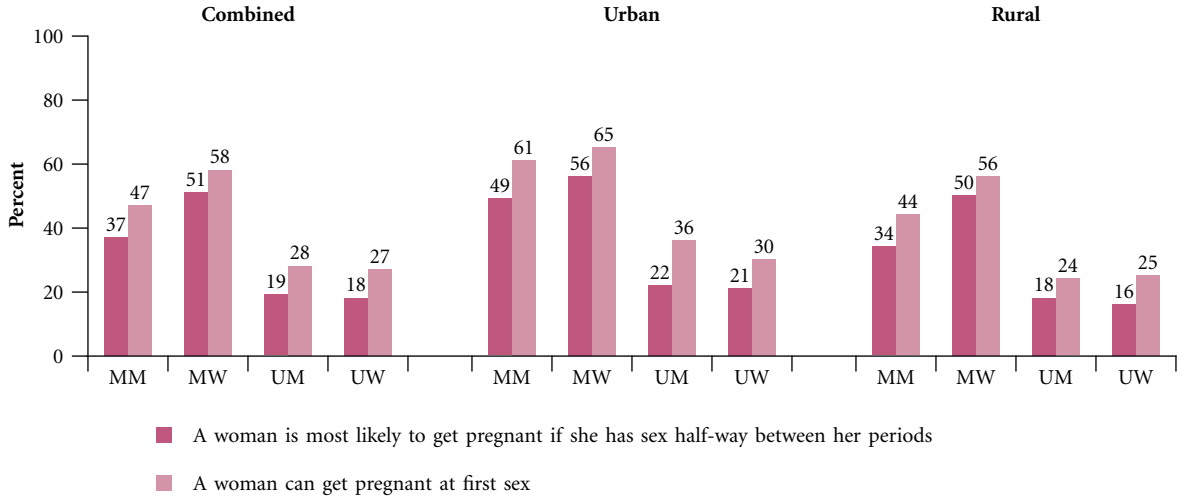
Table 8.1: (Cont'd)

Awareness indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Rural						
A woman can get pregnant after kissing/hugging						
True	0.8	2.0	0.8	1.9	0.7	2.5
False	93.0	89.8	97.3	94.5	90.9	78.6
Don't know/not sure	6.2	8.1	1.9	3.5	8.3	18.9
A woman is most likely to get pregnant if she has sex half-way between her periods						
True	22.8	39.8	34.3	49.8	17.5	16.0
False	12.6	14.2	17.4	16.3	8.6	9.4
Don't know/not sure	64.6	45.9	48.3	33.9	73.9	74.6
A woman has to bleed at first intercourse						
True	37.6	40.5	53.1	50.4	30.0	16.9
False	21.8	23.4	29.3	27.5	17.5	13.7
Don't know/not sure	40.6	36.1	17.7	22.0	52.5	69.5
A woman can get pregnant at first sex						
True	31.7	47.0	44.0	56.3	24.1	24.9
False	21.8	26.5	30.3	29.6	17.3	19.3
Don't know/not sure	46.5	26.5	25.7	14.1	58.6	55.8
It is possible to do a medical test to know the sex of a foetus						
True	57.4	70.9	64.7	73.2	55.3	65.5
False	14.8	14.5	13.4	14.4	13.8	14.8
Don't know/not sure	27.6	14.6	21.7	12.5	30.8	19.7
Had correct knowledge of all of the above	**4.9**	**4.8**	**6.3**	**6.2**	**3.7**	**1.5**
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases.

Figure 8.1: Percentage of youth reporting awareness of selected sex- and pregnancy-related matters, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



About three-fifths of young men (62%) and three-quarters of young women (75%) were aware of the availability of tests to determine the sex of the foetus. Differences by marital status were narrow; however, the married were more likely than the unmarried to report such awareness (69–76% versus 61–73%). Differences by rural-urban residence were pronounced, with considerably larger percentages of urban than rural youth reporting awareness of sex determination tests (75% and 88% of young men and women in urban areas, compared to 57% and 71%, respectively, in rural areas).

In order to examine overall knowledge regarding sex and pregnancy, a summary measure was computed that assessed the percentage of youth who were aware of all five matters, and is presented in Table 8.1. Findings show that just 6% of youth had correct knowledge of all five issues. The married were somewhat more likely than the unmarried (7–9% and 2–5%, respectively) and those in urban areas somewhat more likely than their rural counterparts (8–10% and 5%, respectively) to report correct awareness of all five issues. Indeed, the highest levels of awareness of the five matters combined were reported by married youth in urban settings, among whom 19% and 13% of young men and women, respectively, reported awareness of all issues. In contrast, the poorest levels of awareness were reported by unmarried young women in rural settings, among whom just 1.5% were correctly aware of all five matters.

8.1.2 Socio-demographic differentials in awareness of sex- and pregnancy-related matters

Differentials in awareness, measured with respect to the percentage aware of all five issues relating to sex and pregnancy discussed above, are presented in Table 8.2. Levels of awareness increased consistently with age, education and household economic status and this pattern was observed among the married and unmarried as well as those in rural and urban settings. Especially notable was the finding that far larger percentages of those with 12 or more years of education (20% and 12% among young men and women, respectively) than those with less education (0–5% and 4–6% among young men and women, respectively) reported awareness of all five issues. Differences in awareness by religion were narrow and patterns by marital status and rural-urban residence were inconsistent. However, youth belonging to general castes were consistently more likely to be aware of all five issues than those from other castes. Finally, youth who had not worked in the 12 months prior to the interview, particularly the married, were less likely to report awareness of all five issues than were working youth.

8.1.3 Awareness of contraceptive methods

The Youth Study explored young people's awareness of contraceptive methods in several ways. First, youth were asked to list all contraceptive methods about which they had heard; second, interviewers gave respondents a brief description of a variety of non-terminal contraceptive methods not mentioned spontaneously and inquired whether the respondent had heard of each; and third, further questioning probed for specific knowledge regarding the use of oral pills, emergency contraception, condoms, the intra-uterine device (IUD) and withdrawal. Table 8.3 presents percentages of youth reporting awareness—spontaneously or on prompting—of condoms, oral contraceptives, emergency contraception, the IUD and withdrawal; and those spontaneously reporting awareness of such methods as sterilisation, implants, vaginal methods, injectables, and herbal and other traditional methods. Also presented are percentages of respondents reporting correct specific knowledge of the five methods indicated above.

Panel A of Table 8.3 presents percentages of youth reporting awareness of contraceptive methods. Findings show that the vast majority of youth (93% of young men and 92% of young women) reported awareness (spontaneous or prompted) of at least one method of contraception and a similar range of youth were aware of at least one modern contraceptive method. Even so, it is notable that 13% of all unmarried young women and 18% of unmarried young women in rural areas were not aware of even one contraceptive method. The most widely known spacing methods were oral contraceptives (reported by 68% and 81% of young men and women, respectively) and condoms (93% and 74%, respectively). Fewer youth reported awareness of the IUD (32% of young men and 41% of young women), emergency contraception (8% and 7%, respectively) or implants, vaginal methods or injectables (1% and 5%, respectively). Terminal method awareness was not probed, hence, while female sterilisation was spontaneously reported by 45% of young men and 77% of young women, just 24% and 49% of young men and women, respectively,

Table 8.2: Awareness of sex- and pregnancy-related matters by selected background characteristics

Percentage of youth who had correct knowledge of all five sex- and pregnancy-related matters by selected background characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Age (years)						
15–19	2.9	2.3	4.5	4.0	2.6	1.3
20–24	10.6	8.7	9.8	8.8	11.5	5.7
25–29	NA	NA	8.8	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	6.2	5.5	8.4	7.2	4.8	1.9
Muslim	7.7	5.9	13.6	8.7	6.3	1.3
Other[1]	6.5	7.5	*	(12.2)	(7.0)	3.7
Caste						
SC	4.3	4.3	6.0	5.6	2.6	1.0
ST	4.0	3.9	3.0	5.1	4.6	0.7
OBC	6.5	5.5	9.8	7.2	4.8	1.7
General[2]	9.7	7.7	16.7	11.9	8.0	3.2
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	0.3	4.0	0.0	4.5	0.6	0.9
1–7	2.1	4.8	3.8	7.0	1.1	0.7
8–11	4.6	6.3	7.4	12.9	3.3	1.0
12 and above	19.5	11.7	25.7	19.7	16.1	7.3
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	6.0	5.0	8.3	6.2	4.2	1.0
No	6.7	6.2	14.4	9.0	5.8	2.5
Wealth quintile						
First	2.2	3.8	3.2	4.7	1.4	0.8
Second	2.0	3.1	4.3	3.9	1.5	0.6
Third	4.9	4.3	5.1	5.9	3.1	0.9
Fourth	6.6	7.0	10.7	10.7	5.0	1.0
Fifth	11.0	8.8	17.1	12.9	9.0	4.3
Total	**6.3**	**5.6**	**8.7**	**7.4**	**5.0**	**1.9**
Urban						
Age (years)						
15–19	3.8	2.5	(7.1)	5.9	3.5	1.5
20–24	16.9	13.0	19.3	15.2	15.4	6.7
25–29	NA	NA	20.0	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	10.4	8.2	20.1	14.1	8.3	3.0
Muslim	9.3	5.7	15.9	9.3	7.3	1.8
Other[1]	(11.8)	16.7	*	*	(6.7)	4.3
Caste						
SC	2.2	8.0	6.7	14.1	1.9	0.7
ST	(9.1)	6.7	*	(12.5)	(5.6)	2.2
OBC	11.9	7.5	19.0	11.9	9.1	2.7
General[2]	12.1	8.4	28.9	16.3	9.9	3.9

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Table 8.2: (Cont'd)

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	0.0	6.2	0.0	7.9	0.0	1.0
1–7	2.1	5.5	5.2	9.6	1.0	0.0
8–11	6.8	6.7	14.4	15.1	4.4	1.5
12 and above	24.4	12.6	40.2	26.2	20.1	6.8
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	10.4	8.0	19.0	13.0	7.1	2.3
No	9.9	7.9	*	13.5	9.1	2.9
Wealth quintile						
First	*	(6.3)	*	(7.1)	*	*
Second	(0.0)	3.7	*	3.7	(0.0)	2.2
Third	2.9	5.3	7.5	8.8	2.0	1.4
Fourth	7.1	6.5	13.1	12.1	6.1	0.9
Fifth	13.5	10.1	26.4	19.3	10.5	4.4
Total	**10.2**	**7.8**	**19.3**	**13.3**	**8.1**	**2.8**
Rural						
Age (years)						
15–19	2.6	2.3	4.3	3.6	2.3	1.2
20–24	8.0	7.2	7.8	7.3	8.4	4.4
25–29	NA	NA	5.7	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	5.0	4.7	6.3	6.1	3.6	1.4
Muslim	4.3	6.0	(9.8)	8.3	(5.8)	0.6
Other[1]	*	4.0	*	*	*	3.5
Caste						
SC	4.8	3.7	5.8	4.6	2.9	1.1
ST	3.7	3.5	2.7	4.7	4.1	0.4
OBC	4.8	4.8	7.5	6.1	3.4	1.3
General[2]	7.3	7.2	8.1	10.5	6.1	2.6
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	0.4	3.7	0.0	4.2	0.8	0.8
1–7	2.3	4.6	3.4	6.5	1.2	0.9
8–11	4.0	6.0	5.8	11.8	2.9	0.7
12 and above	16.2	10.3	19.3	(12.7)	12.4	8.6
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	4.6	4.6	5.8	5.7	2.9	0.6
No	5.3	5.1	12.4	7.2	4.4	2.1
Wealth quintile						
First	2.3	3.7	3.3	4.4	1.5	0.8
Second	2.1	3.0	4.2	3.8	1.6	0.4
Third	5.2	4.1	4.9	5.7	3.3	1.0
Fourth	6.3	7.3	10.1	10.2	4.7	1.1
Fifth	7.9	7.2	10.0	9.3	6.9	4.3
Total	**4.9**	**4.8**	**6.3**	**6.2**	**3.7**	**1.5**

*Note: ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes Christian, Buddhist, Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [2]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [3]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

spontaneously reported awareness of male sterilisation. Differences in awareness of any method and, specifically, any modern method, by sex and marital status of the respondent were narrow, but the married were typically better informed (for example, 94–96% and 87–92% of the married and unmarried, respectively were aware of any method). Rural-urban differences indicate that urban youth were somewhat more likely than their rural counterparts to report awareness of at least one method (98% versus 90–92%); the differences were the widest among unmarried young women (97% versus 82%).

Compared to awareness of modern methods, awareness of traditional methods was reported by far fewer youth—10% of young men and 23% of young women. Gender differences were muted among unmarried youth but pronounced among married youth: 35% of married young women compared to 19% of married young men reported awareness of traditional methods. We note that the surprisingly high levels of awareness of withdrawal reported by married women are corroborated by findings from the NFHS-3 (28% in NFHS-3 compared to 33% in the Youth Study); in contrast, it appears that awareness levels reported by married young men in the Youth Study are considerably lower than those reported by young men of similar ages in the NFHS-3 (11% and 41%, respectively). Differences by marital status indicate that married youth were more likely than the unmarried to report awareness of at least one traditional method (35% versus 3% of married and unmarried young women, respectively; 19% and 6% among young men, respectively). Rural-urban differences were narrow, except that married youth in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to report awareness of traditional methods.

Findings also show significant gender differences in terms of awareness of individual contraceptive methods; larger percentages of young women than men were aware of most methods (oral contraceptives, IUDs, female and male sterilisation, implants/vaginal methods/injectables and withdrawal). Young men, in contrast, were more likely than young women to be aware only of the condom. Differences by marital status were evident, with the married considerably more likely to report awareness of every method. Rural-urban differences show that urban youth were more likely than rural youth to be aware of most methods.

In order to assess the extent to which youth had correct specific knowledge of contraceptive methods, and had not just heard of various methods, the Youth Study inquired whether youth were aware of the frequency with which oral contraceptives must be consumed (daily or weekly); the number of sex acts for which one condom could be used (one); the number of hours following sex that emergency contraceptive pills could be consumed (72 hours); where the IUD is placed (uterus); and when a man practising withdrawal should pull out of a woman (prior to ejaculation). Panel B of Table 8.3 presents percentages of youth reporting correct specific knowledge of these five methods. Findings suggest that correct awareness of even one method was not universal and that while men and women were about as likely to be aware of at least one method of contraception, far more men than women—83% and 55%, respectively—reported correct specific knowledge of at least one of the five methods about which probing questions were asked.

Differentials in correct specific knowledge of contraceptive methods by sex, marital status and rural-urban residence were evident. More young women than men reported correct specific knowledge of female-oriented methods such as oral contraceptives (42% compared to 33%) and the IUD (14% compared to 10%); conversely, more young men than women reported correct specific knowledge of condoms (83% compared to 39%). Notably, more young women than men reported correct specific knowledge about withdrawal (15% compared to 4%). Few young men and women had correct specific knowledge of emergency contraception (2–3%). Differences by marital status suggest that the married were typically more likely than the unmarried to report correct specific knowledge of almost every method and differences were pronounced for both young men and young women (see also Figure 8.2). Likewise, urban respondents, both young men and young women, were more likely than their rural counterparts to report correct specific knowledge of every method.

Table 8.3: Awareness of contraceptive methods

Percentage of youth who reported awareness and correct specific knowledge of various contraceptive methods, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Awareness indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
A. Awareness						
Combined						
Any method	**93.4**	**91.7**	**96.0**	**94.0**	**92.3**	**86.6**
Any modern method	**93.4**	**91.7**	**96.0**	**93.9**	**92.3**	**86.6**
Oral pills	68.0	81.3	79.2	82.8	63.6	76.9
Emergency contraceptive pills	7.6	6.8	10.9	6.5	7.3	6.3
Condom	93.0	74.4	95.5	76.6	91.9	68.2
IUD	31.7	41.4	41.7	43.8	29.5	34.3
Female sterilisation	45.3	77.3	62.2	80.9	40.5	69.6
Male sterilisation	23.5	48.5	32.6	50.3	21.1	43.5
Implant/vaginal methods/injectables	1.3	5.4	2.4	6.0	1.0	3.7
Any traditional method	**10.0**	**23.4**	**19.4**	**34.5**	**6.4**	**2.7**
Withdrawal	6.0	22.0	11.4	32.9	4.1	1.9
Safe period	5.1	3.0	11.4	4.1	3.0	0.9
Traditional/herbal methods	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.0	0.1
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Any method	**97.7**	**97.6**	**99.4**	**98.6**	**97.2**	**96.6**
Any modern method	**97.7**	**97.6**	**99.4**	**98.6**	**97.2**	**96.6**
Oral pills	79.8	92.9	91.7	94.4	77.5	91.5
Emergency contraceptive pills	12.7	14.3	20.1	15.9	12.8	13.0
Condom	97.5	89.3	99.4	91.8	96.9	87.0
IUD	43.6	58.7	62.1	69.2	41.3	49.1
Female sterilisation	52.4	83.5	70.9	87.4	50.1	79.9
Male sterilisation	30.5	60.0	43.4	64.4	29.5	56.1
Implant/vaginal methods/injectables	1.8	9.5	5.2	12.2	1.6	7.0
Any traditional method	**12.8**	**21.7**	**29.9**	**41.7**	**9.8**	**3.7**
Withdrawal	7.4	20.6	16.4	40.7	5.8	2.5
Safe period	7.4	3.1	19.9	4.9	5.5	1.5
Traditional/herbal methods	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.1
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Any method	**91.9**	**89.6**	**95.3**	**93.0**	**90.3**	**81.5**
Any modern method	**91.9**	**89.6**	**95.3**	**93.0**	**90.3**	**81.5**
Oral pills	63.9	77.2	76.4	80.5	57.6	69.5
Emergency contraceptive pills	5.8	4.1	8.8	4.7	4.9	2.9
Condom	91.4	69.1	94.7	73.6	89.7	58.6
IUD	27.5	35.2	37.2	38.8	24.3	26.7
Female sterilisation	42.9	75.1	60.3	79.6	36.4	64.3
Male sterilisation	21.1	44.5	30.2	47.6	17.5	37.0
Implant/vaginal methods/injectables	1.2	3.9	1.8	4.7	0.7	2.0
Any traditional method	**8.9**	**24.0**	**17.0**	**33.1**	**5.0**	**2.3**
Withdrawal	5.6	22.5	10.3	31.4	3.4	1.5
Safe period	4.4	2.9	9.4	3.9	1.9	0.6
Traditional/herbal methods	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.7	0.1	0.2
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

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Table 8.3: (Cont'd)

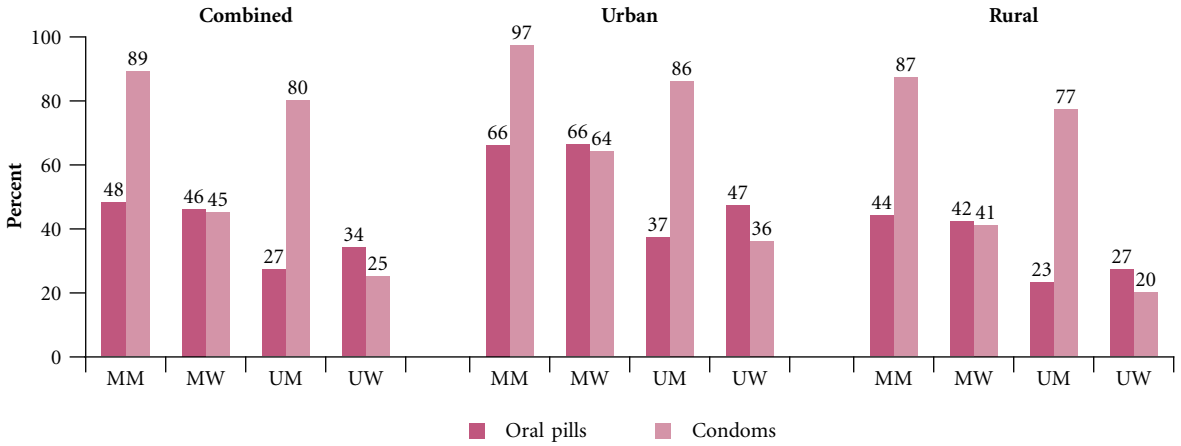
Awareness indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
B. Correct specific knowledge[1]						
Combined						
Any method	**83.1**	**55.0**	**89.7**	**61.2**	**80.2**	**41.5**
At least one modern method	**83.0**	**53.1**	**89.7**	**58.2**	**80.2**	**41.4**
Oral pills	32.6	42.2	48.1	45.8	27.1	33.5
Emergency contraceptive pills	2.4	3.3	2.9	3.0	2.3	3.1
Condoms	82.6	38.6	89.0	44.9	79.8	25.2
IUD	10.3	14.0	18.7	16.3	8.2	8.5
Any traditional method						
Withdrawal	4.3	14.6	8.9	21.9	2.6	0.9
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Any method	**88.6**	**67.7**	**97.4**	**79.6**	**86.7**	**57.0**
At least one modern method	**88.6**	**67.0**	**97.4**	**78.2**	**86.7**	**57.0**
Oral pills	42.2	56.0	65.8	66.4	37.3	46.6
Emergency contraceptive pills	4.7	8.3	6.9	9.1	5.0	7.5
Condoms	88.1	49.0	96.6	63.9	86.4	35.6
IUD	14.5	21.7	30.5	29.9	12.8	14.4
Any traditional method						
Withdrawal	5.0	13.8	13.5	27.8	3.3	1.2
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Any method	**81.1**	**50.5**	**87.9**	**57.6**	**77.5**	**33.7**
At least one modern method	**81.0**	**48.1**	**87.9**	**54.3**	**77.4**	**33.4**
Oral pills	29.3	37.3	44.1	41.7	22.7	26.9
Emergency contraceptive pills	1.6	1.5	2.0	1.8	1.2	0.9
Condoms	80.6	34.9	87.3	41.2	77.0	19.9
IUD	8.9	11.2	16.0	13.7	6.2	5.5
Any traditional method						
Withdrawal	4.0	14.8	7.9	20.8	2.3	0.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. [1]Correct specific knowledge was assessed for oral pills, emergency contraceptive pills, condoms, IUD and withdrawal. The following questions were asked (correct answers in brackets)—Oral pills: How often should a woman take pills? [Daily/Weekly]; Emergency contraceptive pills: How soon after sexual intercourse should these pills be taken? [72 hours]; Condoms: For how many acts of sexual intercourse can one condom be used? [One]; IUD: Where is the IUD placed? [Uterus]; Withdrawal: When should a man pull out of a woman during sexual intercourse? [Prior to ejaculation].

8.1.4 Condom-related perceptions

Among youth who reported awareness of condoms, the Youth Study probed perceptions regarding three specific aspects of this method, namely, whether condoms are a suitable method for preventing pregnancy, whether condoms can slip off a man and disappear inside a woman's body and whether condoms reduce sexual pleasure. Findings, presented in Table 8.4, show that 90% of young men and 64% of young women agreed that condoms are a suitable method for preventing pregnancy, but that awareness of other issues was reported by many fewer. Just 40% and 23% of young men and women were aware that condoms cannot disappear inside a woman's body and just 27–31% of youth felt that condoms do not reduce sexual pleasure. Notably, more than half of young men and two-thirds or more of young women reported that they were unsure about these two aspects.

Figure 8.2: Percentage of youth who reported correct specific knowledge of oral pills and condoms, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Marital status differences suggest that the married were better informed about condoms than were the unmarried. For example, 56% of married young men compared to 33% of unmarried young men were aware that condoms cannot disappear into a woman's body; the corresponding percentages among young women were 25% and 17%. Rural-urban differences were negligible for young men; however, young women in urban areas were somewhat more likely than rural women to report pro-condom perceptions, for example, that condoms do not slip off the man and disappear inside the woman's body (26% and 21%, respectively) and that condoms do not reduce sexual pleasure (31% and 26%, respectively). These differences were particularly notable among married young women (34% and 23%, respectively; 42% and 29%, respectively).

8.1.5 Awareness of contraception prior to marriage

Married youth were specifically asked whether they had been aware of contraception or had known from where to obtain contraceptives prior to their marriage. Findings, presented in Table 8.5, suggest that of those who were aware of at least one method of contraception at the time of interview, three-quarters of young men (74%) compared to one-quarter of young women (25%) had been aware of a contraceptive method before marriage. Likewise, urban youth had been considerably more aware than rural youth in this respect (87% and 71% of urban and rural young men, respectively; and 38% and 22% of urban and rural young women, respectively). Marginally fewer married youth knew, before marriage, about where contraceptives could be obtained—72% of young men and 20% of young women. Rural-urban differentials, noted above, persisted.

8.1.6 Awareness of medical abortion

Given that medical abortion, that is, the mifepristone-misoprostol regimen, has been legal since 2002, youth were asked if they were aware of "any pills" that a woman could take to terminate a pregnancy. As evident from Figure 8.3, 5–7% of youth reported that they were aware of such a method (since we did not probe further, some of these positive responses may not have specifically referred to the mifepristone-misoprostol combination, but rather to the variety of herbal and ayurvedic medications and other home remedies available). The vast majority—three-quarters of young men (75%) and three-fifths of young women (61%)—reported that they were unsure whether such a means of inducing abortion existed. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were muted; however, married youth in urban areas were somewhat more likely than both unmarried youth in urban areas and married youth in rural areas to report awareness of medical abortion (11–14%, compared to 5–6% of unmarried youth in urban areas and 7% of married youth in rural areas).

Table 8.4: Perceptions of selected issues related to condom use

Percent distribution of youth by their perceptions of condom use, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Perceptions (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Condoms are a suitable method for preventing pregnancy						
Agree	89.5	64.3	93.0	68.6	87.3	54.8
Disagree	0.8	5.9	1.3	6.7	0.9	4.6
Don't know/can't say	9.7	29.5	5.7	24.3	11.8	40.5
Condoms can slip off a man and disappear inside a woman's body						
Agree	2.4	5.2	3.8	6.9	2.0	1.6
Disagree	40.0	22.6	55.9	25.2	32.9	16.7
Don't know/can't say	57.5	71.8	40.3	67.5	65.0	81.6
Condoms reduce sexual pleasure						
Agree	15.4	6.4	24.7	8.4	9.8	2.2
Disagree	30.9	27.2	43.9	31.5	27.3	17.5
Don't know/can't say	53.7	66.1	31.4	59.7	62.8	80.2
Number aware of condoms	**2,790**	**4,525**	**1,815**	**2,139**	**1,981**	**2,386**
Urban						
Condoms are a suitable method for preventing pregnancy						
Agree	91.1	66.8	97.1	78.1	90.2	55.9
Disagree	0.4	4.3	0.6	4.8	0.2	3.8
Don't know/can't say	8.5	28.8	2.3	16.8	9.7	40.2
Condoms can slip off a man and disappear inside a woman's body						
Agree	2.4	5.6	5.2	10.2	1.6	1.2
Disagree	40.3	25.6	68.6	33.9	34.8	17.6
Don't know/can't say	57.2	68.7	26.2	55.6	63.4	81.1
Condoms reduce sexual pleasure						
Agree	15.1	6.4	26.3	11.5	11.4	1.7
Disagree	31.3	30.6	56.4	41.5	27.7	20.3
Don't know/can't say	53.4	62.8	17.3	46.8	60.7	77.9
Number aware of condoms	**1,196**	**2,205**	**627**	**956**	**957**	**1,249**
Rural						
Condoms are a suitable method for preventing pregnancy						
Agree	88.9	63.1	92.0	66.2	86.0	54.0
Disagree	0.9	6.6	1.4	7.1	1.2	5.1
Don't know/can't say	10.2	29.9	6.5	26.2	12.8	40.7
Condoms can slip off a man and disappear inside a woman's body						
Agree	2.4	5.1	3.5	6.1	2.2	1.9
Disagree	39.9	21.3	52.9	23.1	32.0	16.0
Don't know/can't say	57.7	73.3	43.6	70.4	65.8	82.0
Condoms reduce sexual pleasure						
Agree	15.6	6.4	24.3	7.7	9.1	2.7
Disagree	30.7	25.6	41.0	29.0	27.2	15.3
Don't know/can't say	53.7	67.6	34.8	62.8	63.7	81.9
Number aware of condoms	**1,594**	**2,320**	**1,188**	**1,183**	**1,024**	**1,137**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases.

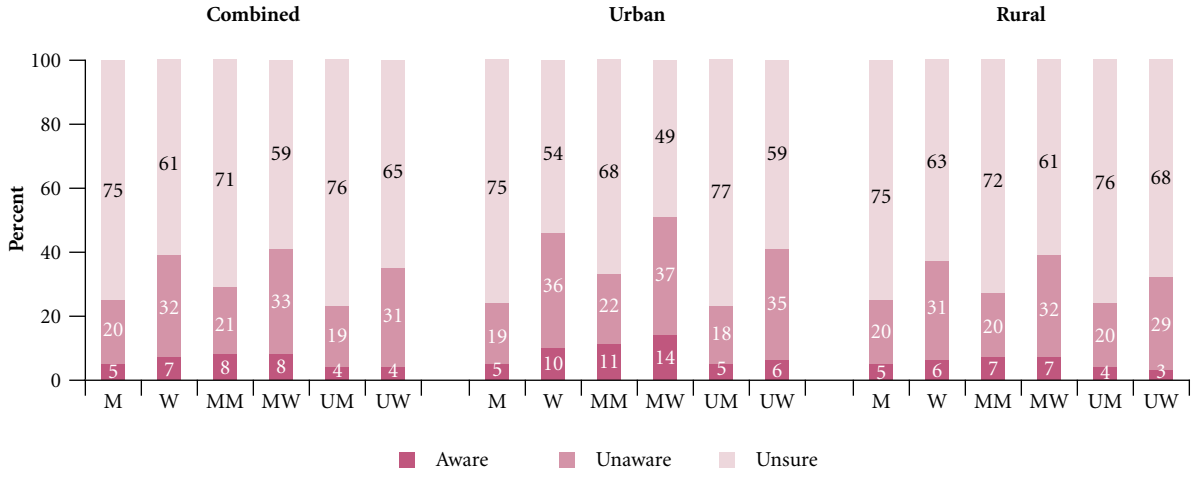
Table 8.5: Awareness of contraception prior to marriage

Percentage of married youth aware of any contraceptive method prior to marriage and percentage aware of a source of contraceptive supplies at that time, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Knowledge (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Aware of any contraceptive method before marriage	74.2	24.8	87.3	38.2	71.1	22.0
Aware of a contraceptive source before marriage	72.3	20.0	86.2	33.4	69.0	17.2
Number currently aware of at least one contraceptive method	**1,823**	**2,502**	**627**	**1,025**	**1,196**	**1,477**

Note: All Ns are unweighted.

Figure 8.3: Percent distribution of youth by awareness of medical abortion, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: Percentages may not equal 100.0 because of rounding.

8.1.7 Awareness of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and HIV/AIDS

The Youth Study inquired whether youth had ever heard of infections that were transmitted through sexual contact. Findings, presented in Table 8.6, suggest that awareness of STIs other than HIV/AIDS was limited. Indeed, just 17% of young men and 27% of young women reported awareness of STIs, mostly vaginal discharge. It is notable that more young women than men were aware of STIs. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were evident, with more married than unmarried youth and more urban than rural youth reporting awareness of STIs.

Among those who were aware of STIs other than HIV, the large majority (93% and 83% of young men and women, respectively) were aware of at least one symptom of infection. While differences by marital status were mild among young men, more married than unmarried young women could identify at least one symptom. Differences by rural-urban residence were negligible for young men but among young women, those residing in rural areas were somewhat more likely than their urban counterparts to be aware of at least one symptom of infection (85% versus 78%).

Table 8.6: Awareness of STIs and HIV/AIDS

Percent distribution of youth who had heard of and had specific knowledge about STIs and HIV/AIDS, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Awareness among young men (%)	M 15–24	MM 15–29	UM 15–24	M 15–24	MM 15–29	UM 15–24	M 15–24	MM 15–29	UM 15–24
	Combined			Urban			Rural		
Heard about STIs[1]	16.6	24.1	13.7	19.1	30.5	18.0	15.8	22.7	11.8
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**1,886**	**2,129**	**1,227**	**631**	**987**	**1,747**	**1,255**	**1,142**
Could identify at least one symptom of STIs	93.4	91.9	94.8	92.6	94.4	93.0	93.5	90.8	96.0
Number who had heard about STIs	**501**	**471**	**312**	**233**	**189**	**178**	**268**	**282**	**134**
Heard about HIV/AIDS	86.4	84.1	87.1	95.6	95.7	95.8	83.1	81.5	83.3
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**1,886**	**2,129**	**1,227**	**631**	**987**	**1,747**	**1,255**	**1,142**
Of respondents who had heard about HIV/AIDS, those reporting that:									
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by having a single sexual partner	86.3	87.1	86.1	87.6	91.6	87.9	85.8	85.9	85.2
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by consistent use of condoms	84.5	86.6	84.2	88.0	92.8	87.1	83.1	84.9	82.8
One cannot get HIV through mosquito bites	77.5	74.1	79.5	82.1	84.4	83.7	75.7	71.3	77.4
One cannot get HIV by sharing food with an HIV-positive person	85.1	81.3	86.8	89.1	91.3	89.2	83.5	78.6	85.6
One cannot get HIV by hugging an HIV-positive person	83.2	82.2	83.8	87.6	90.4	88.1	81.5	80.0	81.6
One cannot tell if a person is HIV-positive by just looking at him/her	87.2	87.3	87.4	91.9	93.7	92.0	85.3	85.5	85.2
Number who had heard about HIV/AIDS	**2,627**	**1,625**	**1,898**	**1,173**	**603**	**945**	**1,454**	**1,022**	**953**
Awareness among young women (%)	**W 15–24**	**MW 15–24**	**UW 15–24**	**W 15–24**	**MW 15–24**	**UW 15–24**	**W 15–24**	**MW 15–24**	**UW 15–24**
	Combined			Urban			Rural		
Heard about STIs[1]	27.0	30.2	20.6	30.1	34.0	26.6	25.9	29.4	17.5
Number of respondents	**5,987**	**2,603**	**3,384**	**2,474**	**1,038**	**1,436**	**3,513**	**1,565**	**1,948**
Could identify at least one symptom of STIs	82.7	86.6	73.0	77.8	84.1	70.7	84.8	87.3	74.8
Number who had heard about STIs	**1,564**	**838**	**726**	**741**	**358**	**383**	**823**	**480**	**343**
Heard about HIV/AIDS	57.1	47.8	70.7	83.6	77.6	88.9	47.6	41.9	61.4
Number of respondents	**5,987**	**2,603**	**3,384**	**2,474**	**1,038**	**1,436**	**3,513**	**1,565**	**1,948**
Of respondents who had heard about HIV/AIDS, those reporting that:									
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by having single sexual partner	79.4	81.3	76.5	81.6	83.1	80.3	78.1	80.8	73.7
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by consistent use of condoms	66.2	68.4	62.4	71.3	75.9	67.6	63.0	65.6	58.6
One cannot get HIV through mosquito bites	61.3	55.9	66.3	71.0	65.7	75.3	55.2	52.4	59.8
One cannot get HIV by sharing food with an HIV-positive person	74.8	70.0	79.2	84.9	82.3	86.8	68.6	65.5	73.6
One cannot get HIV by hugging an HIV-positive person	76.5	71.8	80.8	86.1	83.7	88.1	70.5	67.4	75.5
One cannot tell if a person is HIV-positive by just looking at him/her	86.4	84.9	88.1	88.6	87.7	89.3	85.1	83.9	87.2
Number who had heard about HIV/AIDS	**3,946**	**1,482**	**2,464**	**2,087**	**811**	**1,276**	**1,859**	**671**	**1,188**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. [1]*Other than HIV.*

Questions exploring young people's awareness of HIV/AIDS were adapted from those used in the NFHS (IIPS and Macro International, 2007b). Findings, presented in Table 8.6, show that 86% of young men, compared to 57% of young women, had heard of HIV/AIDS. While marital status differences were negligible among young men, considerably more unmarried than married young women reported awareness of HIV/AIDS (71% and 48%, respectively) and these differences were observed in both rural and urban areas. Urban respondents were considerably more likely than their rural counterparts to report awareness of HIV/AIDS, and the differences were much wider among young women (96% versus 83% among young men, and 84% versus 48% among young women).

Among those who reported awareness of HIV/AIDS, knowledge of specific aspects of the disease was by no means complete. For example, just 79–86% of youth who had heard of HIV/AIDS were aware that one can reduce the chances of getting HIV by being faithful to a single partner. Awareness that one can reduce the chances of contracting HIV by using a condom every time one has sex was reported by 85% of young men and 66% of young women. Differences by marital status were negligible among young men; however, somewhat more married than unmarried young women reported awareness of staying faithful to a single partner and consistent condom use as ways of reducing HIV transmission, and this difference persisted among women in both rural and urban settings. Rural-urban differences were typically narrow among young men (88% versus 83–86% reported awareness of these two matters) and young women (82% versus 78% and 71% versus 63% were aware of the protection accorded by avoiding multiple partner relations; and consistent condom use respectively).

Misconceptions were prevalent among considerable minorities of youth. Indeed, about one-quarter of young men and two-fifths of young women held the misconception that HIV could be transmitted through mosquito bites. Gender differences were apparent: more young men than young women rejected the four misconceptions posed. For example, among those aware of HIV/AIDS, 85% of young men compared to 75% of young women believed that one cannot acquire HIV by sharing food with an HIV infected person. Likewise, 83% and 77% of young men and women, respectively, perceived that one cannot get HIV by hugging an HIV-positive person; and as seen above, 78% and 61% of young men and women, respectively, rejected the misconception that HIV is transmitted through mosquito bites. Misconceptions about modes of transmission were more prevalent among married than unmarried youth. For example, only 74% of married young men compared to 80% of unmarried young men were aware that one cannot acquire HIV through mosquito bites; the corresponding percentages among young women were 56% and 66%, respectively. Rural-urban differences suggest that more urban than rural youth had rejected these misconceptions.

8.1.8 Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS

Comprehensive awareness was defined as knowledge of two ways of preventing HIV (specifically, condom use and single partner relations), rejection of common misconceptions about HIV transmission (namely, that HIV can be transmitted through mosquito bites, sharing food or hugging) and awareness that one cannot tell by looking at a person whether he or she has HIV. Findings are presented in Table 8.7 and suggest limited comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS and considerable variation by sex, marital status and rural-urban residence. For example, while 49% of young men reported comprehensive awareness, only 20% of young women did so. While marital status differences were negligible among young men, more unmarried than married young women reported comprehensive awareness (27% versus 15%). Wide rural-urban differences were observed: urban youth were far more likely to report comprehensive awareness than rural youth (62% and 38% of young men and women in urban settings, respectively, compared to 45% and 14%, respectively, in rural settings).

Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS was consistently greater among older, better educated and economically better off youth than others. For example, as shown in Figure 8.4a, just 8% of married young men with no formal education displayed comprehensive HIV/AIDS awareness compared to 86% of those with 12 or more years of education; similarly, among married young women, comprehensive HIV/AIDS awareness was reported by 4% and 67%, respectively. Likewise, Figure 8.4b shows that comprehensive awareness increased from 21% among unmarried young men in the poorest (first) wealth quintile to 67% among those in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile, and from 6% to 46%, respectively, among unmarried young women. Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS was also consistently

Table 8.7: Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS by selected background characteristics

Percentage of youth who had comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS by selected background characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Age (years)						
15–19	46.8	18.1	48.2	9.3	46.5	22.5
20–24	51.7	22.3	46.5	17.8	59.3	53.5
25–29	NA	NA	48.1	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	49.1	20.0	46.6	15.0	50.4	27.2
Muslim	45.0	18.0	59.6	17.4	41.9	16.9
Other[1]	60.9	36.4	*	(20.4)	(59.5)	46.0
Caste						
SC	42.7	14.7	44.6	11.6	41.4	19.7
ST	37.9	10.5	30.1	7.7	37.2	15.6
OBC	49.3	18.6	50.1	14.6	50.3	24.7
General[2]	64.4	33.9	65.7	27.3	63.8	38.2
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	6.5	3.6	7.7	3.7	6.0	1.8
1–7	25.4	11.7	30.2	12.3	21.9	9.6
8–11	57.7	37.3	58.7	39.1	58.0	34.8
12 and above	80.5	63.0	86.3	67.2	76.9	60.4
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	42.1	11.0	45.9	9.2	40.6	14.6
No	60.0	29.4	70.6	23.9	58.5	34.1
Wealth quintile						
First	22.0	5.7	19.1	5.7	21.4	5.6
Second	30.4	6.8	27.5	5.5	32.4	9.8
Third	44.4	14.3	45.3	10.9	42.1	19.7
Fourth	54.1	23.9	54.7	19.7	55.5	29.5
Fifth	68.9	43.2	74.8	39.1	67.4	45.8
Total	**49.0**	**20.3**	**47.5**	**15.3**	**49.9**	**27.0**
Urban						
Age (years)						
15–19	58.2	33.6	(50.0)	25.9	58.5	35.4
20–24	65.7	41.8	58.8	36.0	69.8	58.2
25–29	NA	NA	77.1	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	64.4	40.5	71.2	35.6	65.9	44.9
Muslim	47.5	25.6	63.8	28.0	45.4	22.4
Other[1]	(82.4)	57.4	*	*	(86.7)	58.3
Caste						
SC	54.8	32.4	71.7	29.2	51.9	36.7
ST	(60.9)	31.7	*	(25.0)	(66.7)	35.6
OBC	57.2	32.3	65.0	31.7	59.1	33.0
General[2]	71.2	49.5	79.4	44.2	71.4	52.5
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	17.3	9.3	27.3	11.0	16.7	5.2
1–7	32.6	20.3	46.2	23.3	30.0	17.0
8–11	66.5	45.5	76.8	49.6	65.8	43.2
12 and above	84.5	63.8	90.2	69.7	84.8	61.1

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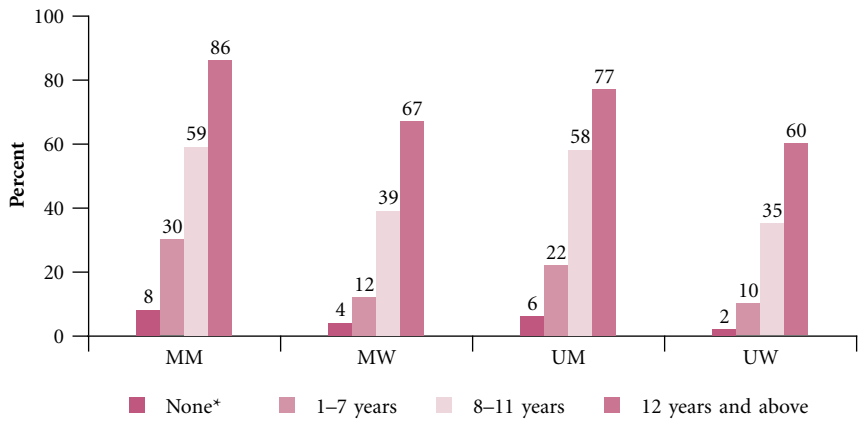
Table 8.7: (Cont'd)

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	54.1	27.5	69.0	22.2	53.7	33.2
No	72.2	41.0	*	38.2	71.3	43.4
Wealth quintile						
First	*	(12.5)	*	(15.4)	*	*
Second	(38.1)	14.8	*	14.8	(31.3)	15.2
Third	35.3	22.9	53.8	21.3	36.0	25.5
Fourth	52.0	31.0	60.6	26.4	53.3	35.6
Fifth	72.7	50.7	80.7	51.8	72.6	50.2
Total	**61.8**	**37.7**	**69.6**	**34.0**	**62.8**	**41.1**
Rural						
Age (years)						
15–19	43.4	12.7	48.1	7.3	42.5	17.1
20–24	46.2	15.4	43.8	13.6	51.1	46.6
25–29	NA	NA	40.1	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	44.7	13.9	42.0	11.7	44.7	19.4
Muslim	39.1	10.1	(52.5)	10.3	(34.6)	9.3
Other[1]	*	28.0	*	*	*	40.9
Caste						
SC	39.6	10.9	40.1	9.5	38.4	14.5
ST	36.4	8.0	29.6	6.6	34.5	11.9
OBC	46.9	13.5	46.4	10.9	47.2	20.4
General[2]	56.9	23.8	55.9	21.9	54.0	26.6
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	4.3	2.7	5.5	3.0	3.1	1.3
1–7	23.6	9.3	27.4	10.2	19.4	7.5
8–11	54.8	32.6	54.6	35.2	54.9	30.2
12 and above	77.9	61.6	84.6	(64.8)	70.1	58.9
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	38.3	8.5	40.4	8.2	35.0	9.7
No	55.1	21.8	69.0	18.0	52.9	27.6
Wealth quintile						
First	22.0	5.5	18.9	5.4	21.8	5.8
Second	30.0	6.2	27.2	5.2	32.5	9.2
Third	45.5	12.1	44.5	9.3	43.0	18.0
Fourth	55.0	19.9	53.0	17.5	56.6	25.4
Fifth	64.7	34.5	70.1	31.2	60.1	39.4
Total	**44.6**	**14.1**	**42.5**	**11.6**	**44.3**	**19.8**

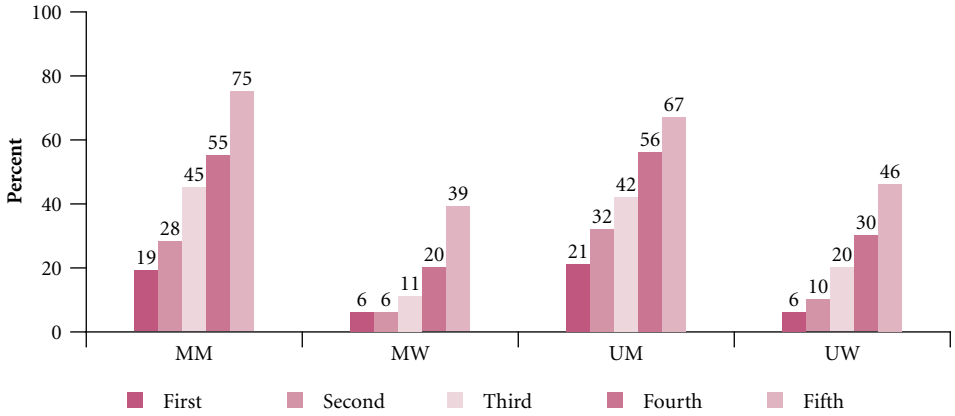
*Note: ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS includes: (1) identifying two major ways of preventing HIV (using condoms and limiting sex to one partner); (2) rejecting three common misconceptions about HIV transmission (that HIV can be transmitted through mosquito bites, sharing food with a person who has HIV and hugging someone who has HIV); and (3) knowing that a healthy looking person can be HIV-positive. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes Christian, Buddhist, Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [2]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [3]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

Figure 8.4a: Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS by educational level, Rajasthan, 2007



*Note: *Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

Figure 8.4b: Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS by wealth quintile, Rajasthan, 2007

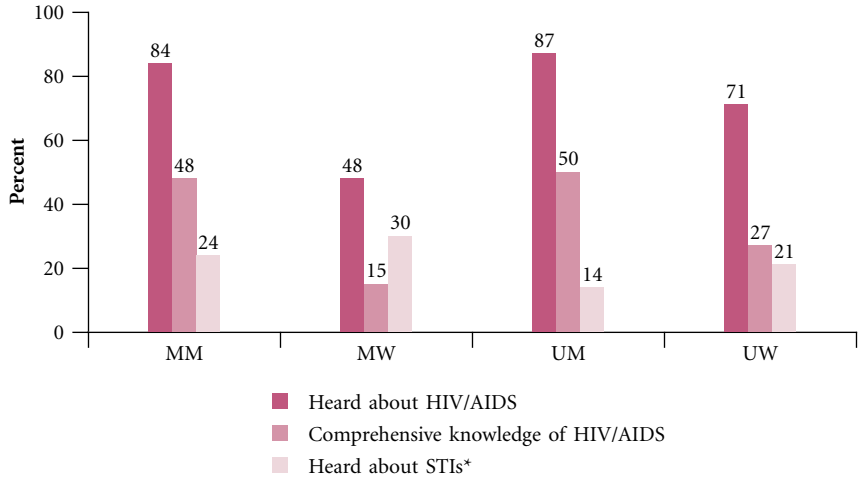


greater among non-working than working youth perhaps because many of those who were not working were in school or college and therefore more likely to be exposed to HIV-related information. Differentials by religion typically suggest that youth belonging to "other" religions were more likely than others to report comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS, irrespective of sex, marital status or rural-urban residence. Caste-wise differences indicate that comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS was more likely to be reported by youth belonging to general castes than those belonging to other castes and tribes.

Socio-demographic differences among married and unmarried youth, and rural and urban youth, more or less mirrored the pattern observed for the combined sample.

A comparison of awareness of HIV and other STIs, presented in Figure 8.5, shows that awareness of STIs other than HIV among youth was far more limited than awareness of HIV/AIDS. Indeed, more youth—excepting married women—reported comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS than awareness of STIs.

Figure 8.5: Percentage of youth by awareness of HIV/AIDS, comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS and awareness of STIs, Rajasthan, 2007



*Note: *Other than HIV.*

8.2 Knowledge of legal issues related to marriage and abortion

Lack of awareness of such issues as the legal minimum age at marriage and the fact that abortion services are legally available may pose barriers to health promoting behaviours. In this section, we present young people's awareness about the law on each of these issues.

8.2.1 Knowledge of the legal minimum age at marriage

The Youth Study collected information on whether youth were aware of the existence of laws relating to the legal minimum age at marriage for males and females in India and probed specific knowledge of these laws. Findings are presented in Table 8.8 and suggest that the majority of youth were aware of the existence of laws governing the minimum age at marriage for both males and females. Gender differences were, however, apparent; young men were more likely than young women to be aware of such laws, with 94% of young men compared to 80–81% of young women reporting that there is a legal minimum age at marriage for males and females. Differences by marital status suggest that the unmarried were better informed than the married—modestly among young men (96% versus 91% for both) and more distinctly among young women (86–87% versus 75–77%). Likewise, larger percentages of urban than rural youth—particularly young women—were aware of such laws.

The correct legal minimum age at marriage for females and especially males was however, far less likely to be known. Moreover, young women were less likely than young men to be aware of the correct legal minimum age at marriage. For example, 86% of young men compared to 66% of young women correctly reported that 18 years is the legal minimum age at marriage for females; somewhat fewer young men (78%) and young women (53%) correctly reported that 21 is the legal minimum age at marriage for males. Again, unmarried youth were more likely than married youth to report awareness of the correct legal minimum ages at marriage for males (81% versus 72% among unmarried and married young men, respectively; 68% and 44%, respectively, among young women) and females (87% versus 81% among unmarried and married young men, respectively; 77% and 58%, respectively, among young women). Rural-urban differences suggest that urban youth were better informed about the correct legal minimum age at marriage than were rural youth, but that differences were wider among young women than men.

Table 8.8: Knowledge of the legal minimum age at marriage

Percentage of youth who had correct knowledge of the legal minimum age at marriage in India, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Knowledge (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Aware that there is a legal age at marriage for:						
Males	94.1	79.7	91.3	75.3	95.8	86.2
Females	94.0	80.9	91.0	76.6	95.7	87.3
Aware of correct legal age at marriage for:						
Males	78.4	53.0	72.3	43.7	81.1	67.6
Females	85.5	65.6	81.0	58.4	87.0	76.8
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Aware that there is a legal age at marriage for:						
Males	97.7	91.4	97.4	88.3	98.0	94.0
Females	97.3	92.3	96.8	89.2	97.7	95.1
Aware of correct legal age at marriage for:						
Males	84.8	72.0	83.7	64.6	86.4	78.7
Females	89.9	82.2	90.5	76.6	90.5	87.2
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Aware that there is a legal age at marriage for:						
Males	92.9	75.5	90.0	72.7	94.9	82.2
Females	92.8	76.8	89.7	74.1	94.9	83.3
Aware of correct legal age at marriage for:						
Males	76.2	46.2	69.8	39.6	78.8	61.9
Females	84.0	59.7	78.9	54.8	85.6	71.5
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted.

8.2.2 Awareness of the conditions under which abortion is legal

The Youth Study posed a number of questions to gauge youth awareness of conditions under which abortion is legal, for example, if the woman is married, if the woman is unmarried, if the pregnancy exceeds 20 weeks and if the foetus is female but the couple wants a son. Findings are presented in Table 8.9.

Of the four conditions probed, the largest percentages of youth—57% of young men and 71% of young women—were aware that sex-selective abortion is illegal, presumably the result of widespread information campaigns against sex-selective abortion. A second condition about which large percentages of respondents were aware was that it is illegal to terminate a pregnancy that has gone beyond 20 weeks, reported by 37% of young men and 61% of young women. Many fewer youth were aware that a married woman is legally entitled to undergo an abortion (27–29%), and an equal percentage were aware that an unmarried woman is legally entitled to undergo abortion (26–28%). Clearly, as seen above, while young women were much more likely than young men to be aware that it is illegal to abort a pregnancy of more than 20 weeks of gestation and to undergo sex selective abortion, they were about as likely to be aware that abortion is legal for married and unmarried women, respectively.

Differences by marital status were generally narrow, with married youth slightly more aware of the legal status of abortion than their unmarried counterparts (see also Figure 8.6).While urban youth were, by and large, more likely to report awareness about the legal status of abortion than rural youth, differences were generally narrow. However, among young women, larger percentages of those residing in urban than rural areas were aware that sex-selective abortion and abortion of the foetus after 20 weeks gestation are not legally permitted.

As is evident from Table 8.9, few youth (5–6%) could correctly report the legality of all four conditions probed. Differences were mild by marital status and rural-urban residence.

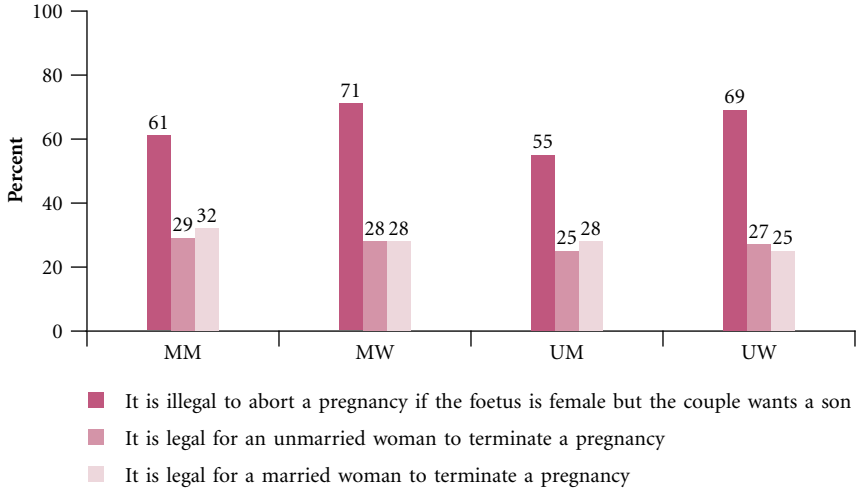
Table 8.9: Awareness of the conditions under which abortion is legal

Percentage of youth by knowledge of the conditions under which abortion is legal, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Knowledge (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Agree that it is legal for a married woman to terminate a pregnancy	29.0	26.8	31.8	28.0	27.9	24.6
Agree that it is legal for an unmarried woman to terminate a pregnancy	25.8	27.9	29.1	28.0	24.7	27.3
Agree that it is illegal to undergo abortion after 20 weeks of gestation	36.8	61.0	41.5	62.0	33.9	57.7
Disagree that it is legal to abort a pregnancy if the foetus is female but the couple wants a son	57.4	70.5	60.6	70.7	55.2	69.1
Had correct knowledge of all of the above	**5.5**	**5.0**	**7.2**	**5.0**	**4.8**	**4.9**
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Agree that it is legal for a married woman to terminate a pregnancy	30.7	26.9	34.5	28.6	29.5	25.6
Agree that it is legal for an unmarried woman to terminate a pregnancy	29.5	29.8	35.3	29.9	28.1	29.6
Agree that it is illegal to undergo abortion after 20 weeks of gestation	38.8	71.1	42.0	76.3	37.3	66.5
Disagree that it is legal to abort a pregnancy if the foetus is female but the couple wants a son	59.2	76.6	64.8	77.3	58.5	75.9
Had correct knowledge of all of the above	**5.3**	**6.1**	**8.6**	**6.1**	**4.7**	**6.0**
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Agree that it is legal for a married woman to terminate a pregnancy	28.4	26.8	31.2	27.9	27.2	24.2
Agree that it is legal for an unmarried woman to terminate a pregnancy	24.6	27.2	27.7	27.7	23.2	26.1
Agree that it is illegal to undergo abortion after 20 weeks of gestation	36.1	57.4	41.4	59.1	32.4	53.2
Disagree that it is legal to abort a pregnancy if the foetus is female but the couple wants a son	56.8	68.3	59.6	69.4	53.8	65.7
Had correct knowledge of all of the above	**5.6**	**4.6**	**6.9**	**4.7**	**4.8**	**4.4**
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted.

Figure 8.6: Percentage of youth who were aware of selected conditions under which abortion is legal, Rajasthan, 2007



8.3 Sources of information on sex and reproduction

The Youth Study questionnaire asked respondents about their sources of information on sexual matters and contraception. For the married, questions about sources of information on sexual matters referred to the situation prior to marriage; in contrast, questions relating to sources of information about contraception referred to the current situation, that is, around the time of interview.

8.3.1 Sources of information on sexual matters

Findings, presented in Table 8.10, suggest that young women had few sources of information on sex and reproduction. Indeed, almost three-fifths of young women reported that they had never received any information on sexual matters (prior to marriage among the married). While young men were far more likely to have been informed, one-third reported that they had never received information on sex or reproduction (prior to marriage among the married). Differences by marital status were negligible for both young men and women and differences by rural-urban residence were negligible for young women; however, more rural than urban young men had never received information about sexual matters (35% and 28%, respectively).

Leading sources of information on sex and reproduction were fairly similar among young men and women, but reported by far more young men than young women. Among young men, the main sources were friends and neighbours (48%) and the media (23%). Few young women, in contrast, cited specific sources of information (fewer than 10%): however, as in the case of young men, friends and neighbours (9%) and the media (7%) were most likely to be reported, followed by family members (6%). Notably, fewer than 5% of youth cited teachers and schools, health care providers, or youth or women's groups or NGO workers as a source of information on sex and reproduction. Differences by marital status were generally negligible: of note is the observation that more unmarried than married young women, especially those in urban areas cited the mass media as a source of information (12% and 5%, respectively, for all young women; 19% and 10%, respectively, among those in urban areas).

Patterns were, by and large, similar in urban and rural areas, with one notable difference; urban youth were more likely than rural youth to cite the media as the main source of information (32% versus 20% among young men, and 15% versus 5% among young women).

Table 8.10: Sources of information on sexual matters before marriage

Percentage of youth by sources of information on sexual matters before marriage, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Sources of information (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Never received information	33.1	58.0	33.6	59.2	31.6	56.0
A family member other than spouse	0.6	6.1	0.5	6.0	0.7	6.1
Spouse/partner	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.6	0.0	0.1
Friend/neighbour	47.5	9.3	51.1	9.4	46.5	9.1
Teacher/school	3.4	2.7	2.6	0.8	3.7	6.0
Health care provider	2.2	0.5	3.7	0.3	1.8	0.8
Mass media[1]	23.3	7.4	23.6	4.6	24.1	11.8
Youth/*mahila mandal*/NGO worker	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2
Poster/billboard	2.9	0.4	3.6	0.3	2.5	0.5
Don't remember	9.1	21.1	6.9	22.7	10.8	18.7
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Never received information	27.8	56.7	28.5	60.2	26.7	53.6
A family member other than spouse	0.5	8.1	0.0	8.0	0.6	8.2
Spouse/partner	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.1
Friend/neighbour	50.0	8.3	56.6	9.3	48.4	7.4
Teacher/school	4.7	5.3	4.6	1.2	4.5	8.9
Health care provider	2.2	0.5	2.9	0.2	2.2	0.7
Mass media[1]	32.3	14.5	35.0	10.1	33.2	18.6
Youth/*mahila mandal*/NGO worker	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3
Poster/billboard	3.9	0.7	4.0	0.2	3.8	1.1
Don't remember	7.5	16.8	4.0	17.8	8.7	15.8
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Never received information	35.0	58.5	34.8	59.0	33.7	57.2
A family member other than spouse	0.7	5.4	0.7	5.6	0.7	5.1
Spouse/partner	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.0	0.1
Friend/neighbour	46.6	9.6	49.9	9.4	45.7	10.0
Teacher/school	3.0	1.8	2.1	0.7	3.4	4.5
Health care provider	2.2	0.5	3.9	0.3	1.6	0.8
Mass media[1]	20.2	4.9	21.1	3.5	20.2	8.4
Youth/*mahila mandal*/NGO worker	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2
Poster/billboard	2.5	0.2	3.5	0.3	1.9	0.3
Don't remember	9.6	22.6	7.6	23.6	11.6	20.2
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses. For married respondents, questions referred to the period prior to marriage. [1]*Include newspapers, books/magazines, radio/television and the internet.*

8.3.2 Current sources of information on contraception

Table 8.11 describes current sources of information on contraception as reported by youth who were aware of at least one contraceptive method. Findings reiterate, as above, that friends and the media played an important role in conveying contraception-related information to young people.

Sources of information on contraception did, however, vary by sex of the respondent. Among young men, for example, key sources of information were the media (68%) and male friends (65%) and to a lesser extent, billboards (18%). Young women, in contrast, had a greater variety of sources of information on contraceptives than men. While the media remained a key information source (48%), such sources as family members other than the spouse (37%) and friends and neighbours (35%) were also commonly mentioned. Of interest also is the finding that among married young women, a leading source of information was their husband (42%); married young men, in contrast, rarely reported their wife as a source of information on contraception (5%). Health care providers and teachers were seldom reported to be a major source of information on contraception. Just 11% of both young men and women obtained their information from a health care provider and fewer than 5% of young men and women obtained this information from a teacher.

Differences by marital status were wide. Among young men, the unmarried were far less likely than the married to obtain contraceptive information from male friends and neighbours (61% versus 74%) and health care providers (8% versus 20%) but were more likely to obtain information from the media (74% versus 60%). Among young women, considerably larger proportions of the unmarried than the married obtained their information from the media (72% and 34%, respectively); at the same time, considerably smaller proportions of the unmarried than the married obtained their information from family members other than the husband (30% versus 40%) and female friends and neighbours (28% versus 39%); as noted earlier, over two-fifths (42%) of married young women reported that they obtained information on contraception from their husband. Other differences were mild.

Rural-urban differences suggest that young men in rural settings were considerably less likely than those in urban settings to obtain information from the media (62% and 85%, respectively), somewhat less likely to obtain information from posters and billboards (17% and 23%, respectively), and somewhat more likely to do so from friends (67% and 62%, respectively) and health care workers (12% and 8%, respectively). Among young women, rural-urban differences suggest that young women in rural settings were somewhat more likely than those in urban settings to rely on family members (38% versus 34%) and female friends (39% versus 24%), and much less likely to rely on the media (37% versus 77%) for information on contraception. Among the married, moreover, urban young women were more likely than their rural counterparts to cite their husband as a source of information about contraception (48% versus 41%).

It is evident that current leading sources of information on contraception among young people who were aware of at least one contraceptive method were largely similar to the sources of information on sexual matters reported by all youth (prior to marriage for the married) reported in the previous section. Among the leading sources of information on both contraception and sexual matters were peers and the media. In contrast, teachers and health care providers were not necessarily reported as such. Of note is the finding that health care providers reached only a small minority of young men and women, possibly a consequence of the lack of attention that the RCH Programme has paid, thus far, to young people. Likewise, teachers, charged with providing family life education to youth, were rarely cited as key sources of information, even among the unmarried. So too, family members, often considered a credible source of information, were almost never a source of information about sex or contraception to young men, and rarely a source of information on sexual matters to young women. In short, health care providers, teachers and family members—often assumed to be more reliable sources of information than peers and the media—were infrequently cited as sources of information on these sensitive topics by young people.

Table 8.11: Current sources of information on contraception

Percentage of youth reporting awareness of contraceptives by current sources of information, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Current sources of information (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Family member other than spouse	0.9	36.8	1.0	40.4	0.9	29.8
Spouse/partner	1.3	27.9	4.9	42.0	0.1	0.0
Female friend/neighbour	0.7	34.8	0.7	39.1	0.8	27.8
Male friend/neighbour	65.4	0.3	73.9	0.3	60.7	0.3
Teacher/school/college	4.4	2.7	3.0	1.0	4.6	6.0
Health care provider	10.5	10.7	19.9	14.5	7.5	3.5
Mass media[1]	68.2	48.1	59.9	34.3	73.9	71.5
Poster/billboard	18.3	3.3	18.1	1.9	19.4	5.6
Youth/*mahila mandal*/NGO worker	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1
Other sources	1.5	0.3	2.2	0.4	1.2	0.2
Number aware of contraceptives	**2,801**	**5,474**	**1,823**	**2,501**	**1,989**	**2,973**
Urban						
Family member other than spouse	1.1	33.8	1.4	44.3	1.1	24.1
Spouse/partner	1.5	23.0	9.0	47.9	0.2	0.1
Female friend/neighbour	0.5	24.2	0.3	29.6	0.5	19.2
Male friend/neighbour	61.5	0.2	76.0	0.2	57.4	0.2
Teacher/school/college	4.5	4.0	2.9	1.2	5.1	6.5
Health care provider	7.8	6.7	18.2	10.9	6.8	2.9
Mass media[1]	85.2	77.2	78.9	64.0	87.6	89.4
Poster/billboard	23.0	6.8	25.4	4.7	23.3	8.6
Youth/*mahila mandal*/NGO worker	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.3	0.1
Other sources	1.1	0.1	0.9	0.0	1.3	0.2
Number aware of contraceptives	**1,198**	**2,412**	**627**	**1,025**	**959**	**1,387**
Rural						
Family member other than spouse	0.8	37.9	1.0	39.6	0.7	33.3
Spouse/partner	1.3	29.8	3.8	40.8	0.0	0.0
Female friend/neighbour	0.9	38.9	0.8	41.1	1.0	33.0
Male friend/neighbour	66.9	0.3	73.4	0.3	62.2	0.3
Teacher/school/college	4.4	2.2	3.1	0.9	4.5	5.6
Health care provider	11.5	12.2	20.3	15.3	7.8	3.9
Mass media[1]	61.9	36.9	55.4	28.1	67.5	60.7
Poster/billboard	16.6	2.0	16.3	1.3	17.6	3.8
Youth/*mahila mandal*/NGO worker	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.2
Other sources	1.6	0.4	2.5	0.4	1.3	0.3
Number aware of contraceptives	**1,603**	**3,062**	**1,196**	**1,476**	**1,030**	**1,586**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to multiple responses. [1]Include newspapers, books/magazines, radio/television and the internet.

8.4 Perceptions and experience of family life or sex education

In the Youth Study, we asked respondents about their views on the importance of imparting family life or sex education to youth, the ideal age at which youth should receive information about sexual matters and the best person to provide that information. We also asked youth whether they had received formal family life or sex education and if so, the source of this education and their opinion about its quality.

Table 8.12 presents findings on young people's perceptions of family life or sex education. The majority of youth felt that it is important to impart family life or sex education to youth. Young women were more likely than young men to report so (81% compared to 66%). Differences by marital status were narrow; slightly larger proportions of unmarried youth than the married reported so (67% versus 64% among young men, and 83% versus 79% among young women). Urban youth were more likely than their rural counterparts to report this perception (71% versus 64% among young men, and 89% versus 78% among young women), irrespective of sex and marital status.

More than two-fifths of youth who perceived family life or sex education to be important for young people reported that such education should be provided to young people between 15 and 17 years of age. Young women were more likely than young men to believe that information on sexual matters should be provided from an earlier age, that is, before age 15 (28% of young women compared to 21% of young men), Conversely, fewer young women than young men (21% versus 27%) believed that this information should be provided to youth at age 18 or later. By and large, differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were narrow.

In terms of youth perceptions about the best person to impart education on sex or family life matters, young men and women revealed fairly different preferences. As shown in Table 8.12, among young men who perceived family life or sex education to be important, as many as three-fifths (57%) preferred teachers as the key source for such education; other preferred sources, mentioned by far fewer young men, were friends (15%), and health care providers and other experts (12%). In contrast, among young women, the most commonly cited preferred sources were parents (52%); as in the case of young men, other leading persons, mentioned by far fewer, included teachers (18%).

Differences by marital status were, by and large, modest, except that somewhat more unmarried than married youth considered teachers best equipped to provide family life or sex education (59% versus 51% among young men; 21% versus 15% among young women) and somewhat more married young men than the unmarried considered peers as the best person to provide such education (19% versus 13%). Rural-urban differences were negligible, except that somewhat more urban than rural young men reported that teachers were best equipped to provide family life or sex education (62% versus 55%), and slightly more rural than urban young men cited friends (17% and 12%, respectively) and health care providers (14% and 9%, respectively) reported so.

Few youth reported that they had received family life or sex education in school or through special programmes sponsored by the government or NGOs. As seen in Table 8.13, just 3% of young men and young women had received any formal family life or sex education. Marital status differences suggest that the unmarried were somewhat more likely than the married to have received such education (4–6% and 1–2%, respectively). Rural-urban differentials were not observed among young men; among young women, somewhat more of those in urban than rural areas had received family life or sex education (7% and 2%, respectively).

The large majority of youth who had received family life or sex education had done so in school or college (86% of both young men and young women). Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were muted.

Of those who reported receiving formal family life or sex education, the majority felt that it had answered many of their questions (66% of young men and 87% of young women) and that teachers or trainers had explained matters well (75% of young men and 87% of young women). Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence of respondents were negligible among young men. Among young women, more married than unmarried young women

Table 8.12: Perceptions about family life or sex education

Percentage of youth by perceptions about family life or sex education, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Perceptions (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Perceived family life/sex education to be important	65.9	80.7	63.7	78.5	67.3	83.4
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Perceived that family life/sex education should be provided at age (years):						
Below 12	6.4	7.2	6.0	7.8	7.1	6.3
12–14	14.7	20.4	14.2	19.7	15.7	21.5
15–17	48.8	43.8	44.1	44.2	50.7	43.0
18 or above	27.0	20.8	33.2	19.5	23.3	22.6
Don't know	3.2	7.8	2.4	8.7	3.1	6.6
Perceived that the best person to provide family life/sex education was:						
Parent	10.0	52.1	11.0	52.1	9.8	51.6
Sibling/sister-in-law	0.3	7.4	0.2	7.7	0.4	6.8
Spouse/partner	0.1	1.2	0.0	1.7	0.1	0.2
Teacher	56.9	17.6	51.0	15.4	58.9	21.3
Friend	15.3	8.3	18.7	8.5	13.4	8.1
Health care provider/expert	12.3	5.3	14.1	5.5	12.0	5.1
Youth club/*mandal*/NGO worker	0.5	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.3	0.1
Don't know	3.7	7.9	3.4	8.8	4.1	6.7
Number who perceived family life/sex education to be important	**1,989**	**4,976**	**1,222**	**2,119**	**1,455**	**2,857**
Urban						
Perceived family life/sex education to be important	70.9	89.0	71.0	86.7	72.5	91.2
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Perceived that family life/sex education should be provided at age (years):						
Below 12	6.0	6.6	4.8	7.3	6.5	6.1
12–14	17.3	20.7	16.1	19.9	17.5	21.3
15–17	48.1	42.8	46.0	42.0	48.9	43.5
18 or above	26.8	24.5	31.5	24.8	25.4	24.2
Don't know	1.8	5.4	1.6	5.9	1.7	4.9
Perceived that the best person to provide family life/sex education was:						
Parent	11.9	54.3	14.5	53.0	11.2	55.6
Sibling/sister-in-law	1.1	7.9	0.4	10.0	1.3	6.1
Spouse/partner	0.0	1.0	0.0	1.9	0.0	0.3
Teacher	62.0	18.9	51.4	15.7	63.8	21.5
Friend	11.9	7.4	16.5	7.8	10.8	7.1
Health care provider/expert	8.8	5.2	13.7	5.7	8.4	4.7
Youth club/*mandal*/NGO worker	0.7	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.9	0.0
Don't know	2.9	5.1	2.0	5.9	3.2	4.4
Number who perceived family life/sex education to be important	**871**	**2,207**	**446**	**898**	**715**	**1,309**

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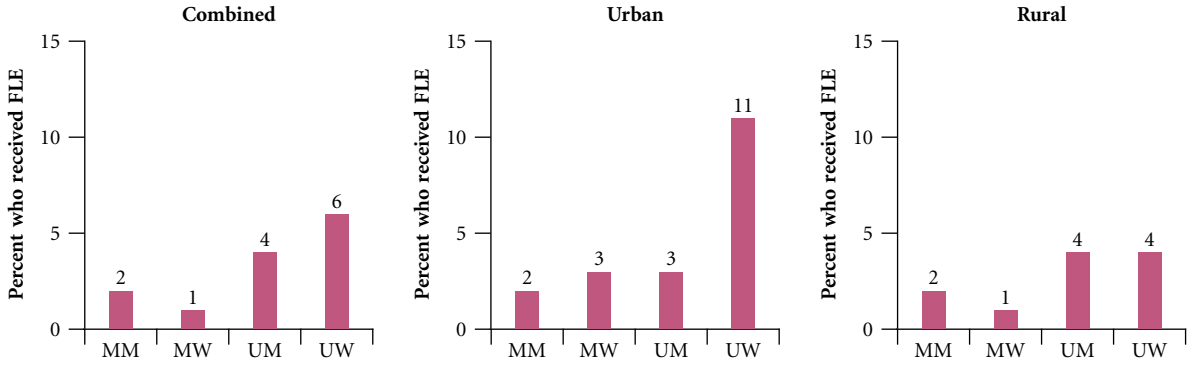
Table 8.12: (Cont'd)

Perceptions (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Rural						
Perceived family life/sex education to be important	64.1	77.7	62.1	76.9	65.0	79.5
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Perceived that family life/sex education should be provided at age (years):						
Below 12	6.5	7.5	6.3	7.9	7.5	6.5
12–14	13.7	20.2	13.7	19.6	14.9	21.6
15–17	49.0	44.1	43.6	44.7	51.5	42.8
18 or above	27.1	19.4	33.7	18.4	22.3	21.6
Don't know	3.7	8.8	2.7	9.3	3.7	7.6
Perceived that the best person to provide family life/sex education was:						
Parent	9.3	51.1	10.0	51.9	9.0	49.4
Sibling/sister-in-law	0.0	7.2	0.1	7.2	0.0	7.2
Spouse/partner	0.1	1.2	0.0	1.7	0.1	0.2
Teacher	55.1	17.1	50.8	15.4	56.6	21.1
Friend	16.6	8.7	19.2	8.7	14.7	8.7
Health care provider/expert	13.5	5.4	14.2	5.4	13.8	5.3
Youth club/*mandal*/NGO worker	0.4	0.1	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.1
Don't know	4.0	9.0	3.8	9.4	4.5	8.0
Number who perceived family life/sex education to be important	**1,118**	**2,769**	**776**	**1,221**	**740**	**1,548**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases.

Figure 8.7: Percentage of youth who received family life or sex education, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: FLE: Family life or sex education.

Table 8.13: Experiences of family life or sex education

Percentage of youth by experiences of family life or sex education, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

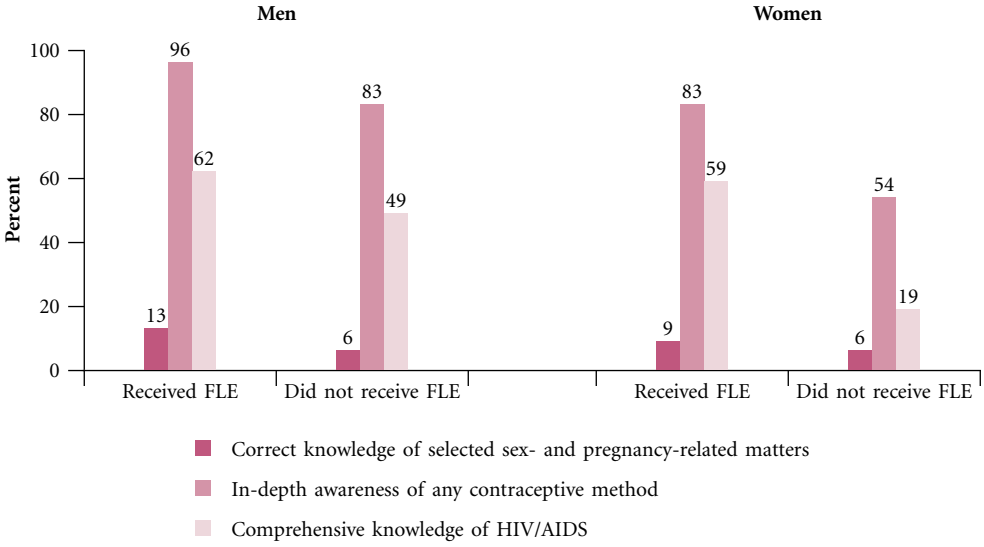
Experiences (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Received formal family life/sex education	3.2	3.2	1.9	1.2	3.7	6.4
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Source of family life/sex education						
NGO programme/camp	1.0	2.6	(2.7)	(6.3)	1.2	1.4
Government programme/camp	6.9	12.4	(5.6)	(18.8)	4.8	10.6
School/college	86.1	86.1	(91.7)	(81.3)	85.7	88.0
Opinion about family life/sex education received						
It answered many queries	65.7	86.5	(69.4)	(93.5)	66.7	85.6
Teacher/trainer explained well	74.5	86.6	(75.0)	(93.5)	77.1	86.1
Respondent felt embarrassed	43.6	29.5	(45.9)	(29.0)	42.9	29.8
Number who received family life/sex education	**100**	**278**	**37**	**44**	**81**	**234**
Urban						
Received formal family life/sex education	3.1	6.9	1.7	2.6	3.3	10.8
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Source of family life/sex education						
NGO programme/camp	(4.3)	0.9	*	(0.0)	(4.8)	0.8
Government programme/camp	(4.2)	10.0	*	(20.0)	(4.5)	7.9
School/college	(91.7)	88.2	*	(80.0)	(90.5)	90.5
Opinion about family life/sex education received						
It answered many queries	(66.7)	85.3	*	(90.0)	(68.2)	84.8
Teacher/trainer explained well	(75.0)	82.7	*	(90.0)	(72.7)	82.4
Respondent felt embarrassed	(37.5)	29.4	*	(30.0)	(33.3)	28.8
Number who received family life/sex education	**38**	**183**	**11**	**27**	**33**	**156**
Rural						
Received formal family life/sex education	3.2	1.9	2.0	1.0	3.8	4.1
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Source of family life/sex education						
NGO programme/camp	0.0	4.8	(3.2)	*	(0.0)	2.2
Government programme/camp	7.7	14.5	(6.7)	*	(6.3)	14.3
School/college	84.6	83.3	(90.0)	*	(84.1)	84.6
Opinion about family life/sex education received						
It answered many queries	66.7	89.2	(71.0)	*	(65.1)	84.8
Teacher/trainer explained well	75.6	92.8	(74.2)	*	(77.8)	91.2
Respondent felt embarrassed	44.9	30.1	(45.2)	*	(46.0)	31.9
Number who received family life/sex education	**62**	**95**	**26**	**17**	**48**	**78**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases.*

subscribed to these views (94% compared to 86%, respectively, on both issues) and more young women in rural than urban areas reported that trainers had explained matters well (93% compared to 83%). Despite the fact that youth gave a generally positive assessment of the education they had received, more than two in five young men (44%) and almost one in three young women (30%) reported feeling uncomfortable or embarrassed while receiving family life or sex education, raising questions about the extent to which they were indeed able to participate freely and clarify doubts. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were muted.

Figure 8.8 compares the extent to which those who had received family life or sex education differed in terms of correct knowledge of selected sexual and reproductive health matters with those who had not (see Sections 8.1.1, 8.1.3 and 8.1.8 for details of items considered in each summary measure). Findings suggest that youth who had received family life or sex education were more likely than those who had not to report in-depth awareness of contraception, comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS, and correct knowledge of sex- and pregnancy-related matters. This pattern was, by and large, evident among both rural and urban respondents (not shown in figure).

Figure 8.8: Percentage of youth reporting knowledge of selected reproductive and sexual health matters according to whether they had or had not received family life or sex education, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: FLE: Family life or sex education.

8.5 Summary

Findings presented in this chapter underscore young people's limited awareness of most sexual and reproductive matters, ranging from how pregnancy occurs to contraception, HIV and safe sex practices. For example, just one-third of young men and almost half of young women were aware that a woman can get pregnant at first sex, 86% of young men and 57% of young women had heard about HIV/AIDS, and 17% and 27%, respectively, of young men and women reported awareness of STIs other than HIV. While 4–6% of married youth were unaware of any contraceptive method, as many as 13% of all unmarried young women and 18% of those in rural areas were not aware of a single contraceptive method. Knowledge of legal issues related to marriage was, in comparison, more widespread; however, as many as 14% of young men and 34% of young women did not know that 18 years is the legal minimum age at marriage for females.

Even on topics about which young people were generally aware, findings show that in-depth understanding was limited. For example, while 92–93% of youth reported awareness of at least one contraceptive method, in-depth awareness of condoms and oral contraceptives, the methods most familiar to youth, was reported by 83% and 33% of young men and 39% and 42% of young women, respectively. Likewise, only 49% of young men and 20% of young women had comprehensive awareness of HIV. Findings of considerable gender difference in comprehensive awareness about contraception and HIV/AIDS raises concern about the vulnerability of young women.

Youth had few sources of information on sex and reproduction. Indeed, almost three-fifths of young women and one-third of young men reported that they had never received any information on sexual matters (prior to marriage among the married).

Leading sources of information on sexual matters were friends and the media for both young men and women. In contrast, fewer than 5% of young men and women cited teachers and health care providers, respectively, as a source of information, and just 1% and 6%, respectively, cited a family member. Among the leading current sources of information on contraception among young people who were aware of at least one method were similarly, peers and the media, and, among young women, family members. Again, teachers and health care providers were relatively infrequently reported as such. Indeed, health care providers were cited as an important source of information on contraception by only one-tenth (11%) of both young men and women; they were far less likely to have provided information to the unmarried (4–8%) than the married (15–20%). Teachers were cited by even fewer (less than 5%). In short, health care providers, teachers and family members—often assumed to be more reliable sources of information than peers or the media—were infrequently and inconsistently cited as sources of information on sensitive topics such as sexual matters and contraception by young people.

Few youth had attended family life or sex education programmes either in or outside the school setting—just 1–2% of the married and 4–6% of the unmarried. Despite this, youth were overwhelmingly in favour of the provision of family life or sex education to young people; typically, young men preferred to receive this education from a teacher, while young women preferred to obtain it from a family member. Findings suggest, moreover, that youth who had undergone family life or sex education were indeed more knowledgeable about sexual and reproductive matters than those not exposed to this education.

Chapter 9

Pre-marital romantic and sexual relationships

While evidence is sparse, several studies have noted that despite socio-cultural taboos, youth in India do find opportunities to mix and form romantic relationships, and to engage in pre-marital sex with a range of partners and in a variety of situations (Abraham, 2001; 2002; Abraham and Kumar, 1999; Alexander et al., 2006a; 2006b; Awasthi, Nichter and Pande, 2000). This chapter begins by describing the development of questions intended to capture these youth relationships. The chapter then explores young people's attitudes towards pre-marital physical intimacy and sex, and the extent and nature of their pre-marital romantic experiences, followed by a description of their pre-marital sexual experiences, including those within romantic partnerships and other situations. Finally, the chapter compares reports of pre-marital romantic and sexual experiences derived using three different methodological approaches, that is, face-to-face interviews, anonymous reporting of respondents' own experiences using a sealed envelope and anonymous third-party reporting of the experiences of respondents' friends.

9.1 Development of the questionnaire module on pre-marital romantic and sexual relationships

In view of the fact that social norms prohibiting pre-marital opposite-sex mixing may result in serious under-reporting of romantic and sexual relationships by youth, the Youth Study initiated the development of this module with a series of focus group discussions among married and unmarried young men and women. In the course of these focus group discussions, youth confirmed that romantic relationships were indeed formed, and mapped a range of places in which they met their romantic partners secretly. They also listed the vocabulary used by youth to describe their romantic relationships, including the commonly used term "to give a proposal" to describe the act of conveying romantic intentions to opposite-sex individuals.

Building on these insights, a romantic relationship was defined as one comprising a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship (worded culturally appropriately) in which an emotional, physical or sexual relationship was experienced; one in which a "proposal" had been made or received and accepted, or one in which the couple spent time together alone and secretly. Correspondingly, all respondents were asked questions on whether or not they had ever had a boy- or girl-friend; whether they had "proposed" to anyone of the opposite sex or someone of the opposite sex had "proposed" to them and the "proposal" was accepted, and whether they had spent time alone and secretly with an opposite-sex person. Youth who reported any of the above experiences were considered to have experienced a romantic relationship. We note that our definition of romantic relationships precluded the possibility of reporting same-sex romantic relationships.

All respondents who had reported a romantic partner were then probed regarding the nature of the relationship and the extent of physical contact experienced in the relationship. Questions probing respondents' experience with physical intimacy were posed on a continuum, starting with hand-holding and extending to sexual relations. Thus, the instrument sought to ask potentially sensitive or embarrassing questions in a gradual way, thereby also enabling the interviewer to build rapport with the respondent. Detailed questions concerning the nature of the relationship were asked with reference to the first romantic partner as well as the most recent, if more than one was reported.

Pre-survey focus group discussions also probed the nature of situations in which sex was experienced. Participants discussed an array of partners with whom youth engaged in sexual relations, including romantic and casual, heterosexual and homosexual, sex workers and older married women. Situations of forced and exchange sex were also discussed. Our survey, correspondingly, inquired about each of these different types of relationships after we had obtained detailed information on the nature of relationships with romantic partners.

Additionally, recognising the reluctance of youth to disclose sexual experiences in a survey situation, at the conclusion of the interview, all respondents were asked a single question: *["Have you ever had sex with anyone?" (for the unmarried)/"Did you ever have sex with anyone before marriage?" (for the married)]*, and asked to mark a blank card with a "✓" or a "**X**," place the card in an envelope, seal it and return it to the interviewer. Respondents were informed that the envelope would not be opened in the field, and that only the principal investigators would be able to link the information provided in the envelope with what was provided in the main body of the questionnaire.

We also recognised that despite significant rapport building and a well-developed sequence of questions eliciting sexual behaviours, young people may not have wished to disclose sexual activity in either of the above formats. Other researchers have observed that respondents may be more forthcoming about reporting sensitive behaviours among their peer networks than about themselves and that responses relating to the peer network correspond closely to their own experiences (Rossier, 2003). Hence the Youth Study incorporated anonymous third-party reporting questions, in which respondents reported the romantic and sexual experiences of up to five same-sex peers.

In addition, efforts were made to ensure that youth were comfortable revealing sensitive behaviours. Interviewers were young and trained to build rapport, discuss sensitive experiences in empathetic and matter-of-fact ways and generally make respondents feel comfortable about the topics to be discussed during the interview. As far as possible, interviews were held at times and places that assured the respondent maximum confidentiality. In cases in which family members attempted to participate in or overhear the interview, another interviewer was called upon to conduct an informal discussion or interview with other family members so as to ensure privacy for the respondent's interview. Nevertheless, we acknowledge that ensuring privacy may have been a problem, especially in low-income urban settings characterised by cramped housing conditions, or that some youth may not have felt entirely at ease despite the extensive efforts made to ensure confidentiality. While findings are indeed in line with those observed in other small-scale and less representative studies (see Jejeebhoy and Sebastian, 2004 for a review), we acknowledge that romantic and sexual experiences may have been under-reported in the survey, notably by young women, and suggest that percentages presented here may be interpreted as conservative estimates.

9.2 Attitudes toward pre-marital physical intimacy and sexual relations

The Youth Study included a number of questions to assess young people's attitudes regarding the acceptability of pre-marital physical intimacy and sexual activity. Findings, presented in Table 9.1, suggest that young people's attitudes towards pre-marital physical intimacy and sex were generally negative; that is, most disapproved of kissing a partner before marriage, and agreed that a young person's future—and particularly a girl's future—would be ruined if he or she had sex before marriage. Even so, notable proportions of young men and women considered pre-marital kissing and sexual activity acceptable, and among them, somewhat more young men than women so reported. For example, 19% of young men compared to 13% of young women felt that it is all right for an unmarried boy and girl to kiss each other; one-third of young men and somewhat fewer (30%) young women condoned pre-marital sexual activity among young men; and far fewer—14% of young men and 6% of young women—considered such behaviour acceptable among young women. It is notable that of the three situations, the largest proportions of young men and women disapproved of pre-marital sex among girls.

Differences by marital status of the respondent were negligible, although the unmarried were slightly more likely to report liberal attitudes. Rural-urban differences suggest that youth in urban areas consistently reported more liberal attitudes to pre-marital physical intimacy than those in rural areas. For example, 24% of urban young

Table 9.1: Attitudes toward pre-marital physical intimacy and sexual relations

Percent distribution of youth by attitudes towards pre-marital physical intimacy and sexual relations, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Attitudes (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Kissing before marriage is all right						
Agree	19.0	13.2	17.1	11.7	19.4	15.2
Disagree	71.0	83.8	73.8	85.6	69.8	81.0
A boy's future would be ruined if he has sex before marriage						
Agree	52.6	63.1	53.7	63.7	51.3	62.2
Disagree	33.9	29.8	33.7	30.2	34.7	28.8
A girl's future would be ruined if she has sex before marriage						
Agree	74.2	90.1	77.1	91.8	72.6	87.1
Disagree	13.6	5.6	11.7	4.5	14.7	7.2
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Kissing before marriage is all right						
Agree	24.4	17.5	21.0	15.0	24.5	19.8
Disagree	63.8	80.0	71.3	82.9	62.9	77.4
A boy's future would be ruined if he has sex before marriage						
Agree	45.5	61.3	50.6	62.1	45.0	60.7
Disagree	38.4	32.7	37.6	33.0	38.1	32.3
A girl's future would be ruined if she has sex before marriage						
Agree	69.8	88.6	75.3	91.3	68.3	86.2
Disagree	16.0	7.6	14.9	5.6	16.2	9.2
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Kissing before marriage is all right						
Agree	17.1	11.6	16.3	11.1	17.1	12.9
Disagree	73.6	85.2	74.4	86.2	72.8	82.8
A boy's future would be ruined if he has sex before marriage						
Agree	55.0	63.7	54.3	64.0	54.1	63.0
Disagree	32.3	28.8	32.8	29.6	33.2	26.9
A girl's future would be ruined if she has sex before marriage						
Agree	75.7	90.6	77.6	91.9	74.4	87.5
Disagree	12.8	4.9	11.0	4.3	14.1	6.2
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "can't say" responses.

men compared to 17% of rural young men expressed the view that it is all right for a boy and girl to kiss each other before marriage; corresponding proportions for young women were 18% and 12%, respectively. Likewise, larger percentages of urban than rural youth condoned pre-marital sexual activity among young men (38% versus 32% among young men, and 33% versus 29% among young women). Differences were milder with regard to the acceptability of pre-marital sexual activity among young women (16% versus 13% among young men, and 8% versus 5% among young women).

9.3 Pre-marital romantic relationships

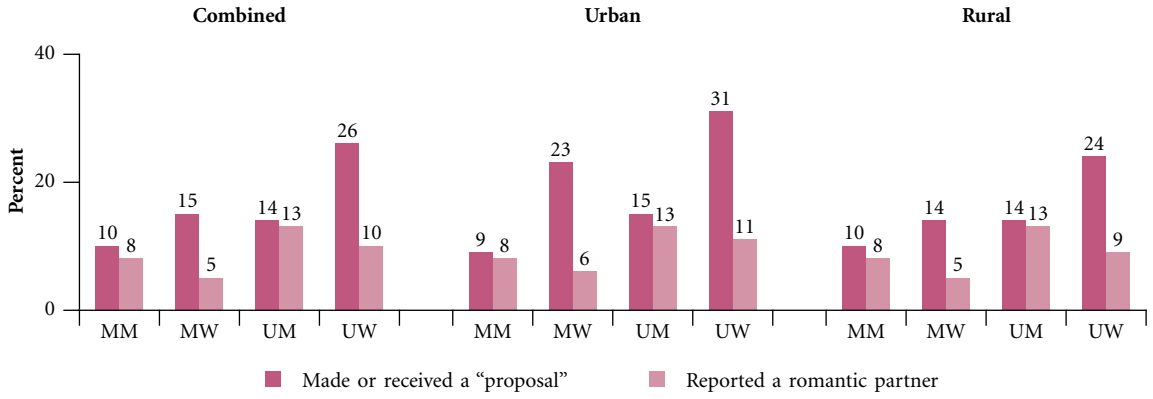
In this section, we present findings on the prevalence of pre-marital opposite-sex romantic relationships among youth and a profile of those who engaged in such relationships. The section also describes parent and peer awareness of pre-marital romantic relationships, youth intentions regarding marriage with their romantic partners and the extent of physical contact experienced in these relationships.

9.3.1 Prevalence of pre-marital romantic relationships

Despite the fact that youth tended to report relatively traditional attitudes, opportunities to form romantic relationships did exist for some of them, irrespective of rural-urban residence or sex. As shown in Table 9.2, several youth—13% of young men and 19% of young women—had either made a romantic "proposal" to an opposite-sex individual or had received such a "proposal". That more young women than men had made or received such a "proposal" may be attributed to the fact that male partners are typically older than female partners and, as a result, more young women than men in the lower age bounds of our sample would have been eligible, in practice, to have made or received a "proposal." Very few young women reported "proposing" to a man (less than 1%); among young men, however, almost as many reported making a "proposal" as receiving one (8% and 7%, respectively) (not shown in tabular form), suggesting the possibility that young men may have exaggerated the extent of their interaction with women, or young women may have concealed behaviour that may be considered socially unacceptable.

Patterns of experience in initiating pre-marital romantic relationships by marital status indicate that fewer married than unmarried youth, particularly young women, reported making or receiving a "proposal" (10% versus 14% among young men; 15% versus 26% among young women) (see also Figure 9.1), a difference attributable perhaps to the limited number of years young women had spent prior to marriage as an adolescent. Rural-urban differences were negligible among young men, but among young women, larger percentages of those in urban areas compared to their rural counterparts had made or received a "proposal" (27% versus 17%).

Figure 9.1: Percentage of youth who had made or received a "proposal" for romantic partnership formation and percentage who had an opposite-sex romantic partner, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



"Proposals" were often conveyed through an intermediary—a friend, relative or sibling. Indeed, 4% and 8% of young men and women, respectively, reported that the "proposal" was conveyed through a mediator. This corresponds to more than one-quarter of young men and more than two-fifths of young women who had ever made or received a "proposal". Differences by marital status were negligible, except that among those who had ever made or received a proposal, married young men in urban areas were more likely than their unmarried counterparts to report that such "proposals" had been conveyed through an intermediary (33% and 18%, respectively, not shown in tabular form). Rural-urban differences were typically wider, with considerably larger proportions of rural than urban youth having used an intermediary to make or receive a "proposal" (29% and 44% of young men and women in rural areas, compared to 21% and 38%, respectively, of those in urban areas).

Compared to those who had made or received "proposals," fewer youth, particularly young women, reported the acceptance of such a "proposal". One-tenth of young men (11%) and just 6% of young women reported that they had accepted a "proposal" or that their own "proposal" had been accepted. A somewhat equal percentage reported that they had met an opposite-sex individual secretly.

In total, in response to the direct or indirect questions, 11% of young men and 7% of young women acknowledged the experience of a romantic partnership. Few respondents reported more than a single romantic partner—just 2% of young men and 0.1% of young women. Differences by marital status were evident: the unmarried were more likely than the married to report a romantic partner (13% versus 8% among young men; 10% versus 5% among young women). Rural-urban differences were, in contrast, negligible.

Table 9.3 presents the percentage of youth reporting pre-marital romantic relationships by background characteristics. We note that such characteristics as work status and household economic status reflect the situation of youth at the time of interview, and not necessarily at the time when romantic relationships were formed. Age profiles indicate a weak positive association between age and the formation of romantic relationships among young men and a mildly inverse association among young women. Differences by marital status were evident. Among married young men and women, a weak inverse association was observed between age and the formation of romantic partnerships; a strong positive association was observed, in contrast, among the unmarried.

Differentials by religion were narrow and inconsistent. By and large, Hindu and Muslim youth were considerably less likely than those belonging to other religions to report a pre-marital romantic relationship, but this pattern was not consistently observed in either rural or urban settings. Caste-wise differences were negligible and inconsistent, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence. So too were differences by work status.

Findings also show a positive association between schooling and the formation of romantic relationships, perhaps a consequence of the greater opportunities for mobility and social mixing offered by schooling. For example, the percentage of young men who reported a romantic partner increased from 6% among those without formal schooling to 20% among those who had completed 12 or more years of schooling; among young women, corresponding percentages were 3% and 13%, respectively. This pattern was consistently observed, irrespective of sex, marital status and rural-urban residence.

Differentials by household economic status were milder; more so, among young women, but typically, those in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile were more likely than those in other quintiles to report a pre-marital romantic relationship, and this difference was evident among all groups, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence.

9.3.2 Characteristics of pre-marital romantic relationships

Selected characteristics of reported pre-marital romantic relationships are presented in Table 9.4; in cases in which more than one romantic partner was reported, only information relating to the respondent's first romantic relationship was included. Age at initiation of pre-marital romantic relationships was measured by the age at which youth first spent time alone with their partner.

Table 9.2: Pre-marital romantic relationships

Percentage of youth reporting a pre-marital romantic relationship by relationship characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
"Proposals" made/received and accepted						
Made or received a "proposal"	13.0	19.4	9.5	15.4	14.4	25.9
Made or received a "proposal" through a mediator	3.5	8.2	2.7	6.7	3.3	10.8
Accepted a "proposal"/"proposal" was accepted	10.6	6.3	7.1	4.8	12.4	8.7
Secret meetings with an opposite-sex individual						
Met secretly in any of five selected places[1]	10.2	5.7	7.1	4.4	11.6	7.9
Reported romantic relationships in one of the above or in direct question[2]						
Reported a romantic partner	11.0	6.7	7.5	5.0	12.6	9.5
Reported more than one romantic partner	2.2	0.1	1.6	0.1	2.4	0.2
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
"Proposals" made/received and accepted						
Made or received a "proposal"	14.3	27.0	8.9	22.9	15.2	30.6
Made or received a "proposal" through a mediator	3.0	10.3	2.9	8.4	2.8	12.1
Accepted a "proposal"/"proposal" was accepted	11.4	8.1	7.2	6.1	12.3	9.8
Secret meetings with an opposite-sex individual						
Met secretly in any of five selected places[1]	10.6	7.2	7.2	5.6	11.3	8.6
Reported romantic relationships in one of the above or in direct question[2]						
Reported a romantic partner	11.8	8.5	7.5	6.3	12.5	10.5
Reported more than one romantic partner	2.7	0.2	1.7	0.0	2.8	0.3
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
"Proposals" made/received and accepted						
Made or received a "proposal"	12.6	16.7	9.6	13.9	14.0	23.5
Made or received a "proposal" through a mediator	3.6	7.4	2.6	6.3	3.6	10.1
Accepted a "proposal"/"proposal" was accepted	10.4	5.6	7.1	4.5	12.5	8.2
Secret meetings with an opposite-sex individual						
Met secretly in any of five selected places[1]	10.1	5.2	7.1	4.2	11.8	7.7
Reported romantic relationships in one of the above or in direct question[2]						
Reported a romantic partner	10.7	6.0	7.5	4.8	12.7	8.9
Reported more than one romantic partner	2.0	0.1	1.6	0.1	2.3	0.2
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. [1]Behind or around a temple/mosque/church; around a school/college; at own or someone else's home in the absence of parents; in fields/grazing areas (rural) and restaurants (urban); or in a garden/park/maidan/market or haat. [2]Respondents were asked a direct question on whether or not they had ever had a boyfriend/girlfriend.

Table 9.3: Prevalence of pre-marital romantic relationships by selected background characteristics

Percentage of youth reporting a pre-marital romantic relationship by selected background characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Age (years)						
15–19	9.8	8.3	10.1	7.9	9.7	8.6
20–24	12.5	5.1	7.0	3.8	20.7	14.5
25–29	NA	NA	7.3	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	10.8	6.7	7.3	4.8	12.5	10.1
Muslim	10.1	5.9	8.3	6.4	10.6	5.2
Other[1]	23.9	8.1	*	(6.3)	(28.6)	8.0
Caste						
SC	9.9	6.7	7.2	4.4	11.2	11.8
ST	9.7	8.4	9.3	6.2	11.1	13.8
OBC	11.7	5.7	7.0	4.6	14.0	7.8
General[2]	11.2	8.2	7.7	6.7	11.8	9.3
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	5.6	3.0	5.2	2.4	4.8	6.5
1–7	8.0	7.8	5.0	7.6	10.0	8.5
8–11	10.1	8.4	8.1	7.3	10.5	9.4
12 or more	20.2	13.1	12.0	11.7	25.3	14.0
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	10.5	5.9	7.2	4.3	13.3	10.1
No	11.7	7.4	11.2	6.1	12.0	9.1
Wealth quintile						
First	6.6	5.2	8.4	4.3	5.7	8.0
Second	10.4	4.8	5.2	3.8	13.3	7.2
Third	7.3	6.2	6.3	5.0	8.3	8.7
Fourth	13.3	6.9	8.4	5.3	15.3	9.6
Fifth	13.6	9.4	9.2	7.4	14.8	11.5
Total	**11.0**	**6.7**	**7.5**	**5.0**	**12.6**	**9.5**
Urban						
Age (years)						
15–19	9.4	8.7	(14.3)	7.0	9.1	9.2
20–24	14.2	8.4	7.6	6.4	18.0	14.4
25–29	NA	NA	6.5	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	12.8	9.2	6.9	6.7	13.7	11.3
Muslim	7.1	5.5	8.7	4.6	6.5	6.3
Other[1]	(11.8)	14.9	*	*	(18.8)	16.7
Caste						
SC	15.6	8.9	10.0	6.2	15.1	11.6
ST	(17.4)	10.0	*	(6.3)	(21.1)	13.0
OBC	9.2	7.1	6.5	5.7	11.0	8.9
General[2]	12.5	10.6	7.2	8.7	12.7	12.0

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Table 9.3: (Cont'd)

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	7.5	3.1	5.9	1.6	11.1	6.3
1–7	8.5	7.0	6.5	6.1	8.9	8.0
8–11	9.3	8.5	6.4	7.5	9.1	9.2
12 or more	19.2	14.2	9.0	13.6	21.1	14.6
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	12.0	9.9	7.4	7.4	13.6	12.4
No	11.2	8.1	*	6.0	11.5	10.0
Wealth quintile						
First	*	(6.3)	*	(0.0)	*	*
Second	(15.0)	7.5	*	7.4	(18.8)	6.7
Third	7.2	7.3	5.1	6.3	6.1	8.2
Fourth	12.0	7.4	7.0	5.7	13.9	9.4
Fifth	12.2	9.9	7.8	7.2	12.3	11.8
Total	**11.8**	**8.5**	**7.5**	**6.3**	**12.5**	**10.5**
Rural						
Age (years)						
15–19	9.9	8.2	9.8	8.0	9.9	8.3
20–24	11.9	3.9	6.9	3.3	22.7	14.6
25–29	NA	NA	7.5	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	10.2	6.0	7.4	4.6	12.0	9.6
Muslim	17.6	6.3	(7.3)	7.1	(18.9)	4.3
Other[1]	*	4.8	*	*	*	4.3
Caste						
SC	8.7	6.3	6.7	4.2	10.0	11.6
ST	9.2	8.2	9.2	6.2	10.2	14.0
OBC	12.4	5.1	7.1	4.3	15.2	7.2
General[2]	9.8	6.6	8.1	6.0	10.6	7.3
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	5.5	3.0	5.2	2.5	3.1	6.6
1–7	7.9	8.1	4.7	7.7	10.3	8.5
8–11	10.3	8.4	8.3	7.2	11.0	9.6
12 or more	20.9	11.6	13.0	(9.9)	29.2	12.9
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	10.0	5.3	7.1	4.0	13.2	9.5
No	11.9	7.0	12.4	6.1	12.2	8.4
Wealth quintile						
First	6.8	5.1	8.2	4.4	5.8	7.7
Second	10.0	4.6	5.1	3.6	13.0	7.3
Third	7.2	5.9	6.2	4.8	8.6	8.8
Fourth	13.9	6.7	8.8	5.3	15.9	9.7
Fifth	15.1	8.7	10.0	7.4	18.2	11.0
Total	**10.7**	**6.0**	**7.5**	**4.8**	**12.7**	**8.9**

*Note: ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes Christian, Buddhist, Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [2]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [3]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

Findings indicate that relationships were initiated at a young age for considerably large proportions of youth who had experienced pre-marital romantic relationships. Indeed 29% of young men and 45% of young women reported that they had spent time alone with their first romantic partner at age 15 or below. Marital status differences were negligible for young men, but many more married than unmarried young women had initiated a romantic relationship at age 15 or below (53% versus 39%); we attribute this difference to the likelihood that early onset of a pre-marital relationship may have precipitated marriage among young women in this conservative setting. Youth in rural areas were more likely than those in urban areas to have initiated a pre-marital romantic relationship at age 15 or below (34% compared to 18% among young men, and 52% compared to 29% among young women). The median age- of respondents when they first spent time alone with their pre-marital romantic partner was one year older among young men than among young women (17 years and 16 years, respectively), identical among married and unmarried young men, but approximately one year older among unmarried compared to married young women (16 and 15 years, respectively). Rural-urban differences were apparent, with rural youth initiating their romantic relationship earlier than urban youth: one year earlier among young men (16 and 17, respectively) and two years earlier among young women (15 and 17, respectively). Information on the relative ages of reported partners suggests that male partners were, for the most part, older than female partners. For example, 56% of young men reported a female partner who was younger than they were, while 85% of young women reported a male partner who was older than they were. One in ten young men reported a female partner who was older than they were. Overwhelmingly, the partner was unmarried.

The first reported romantic partner was typically a fellow student or colleague (reported by 40% of young men and 20% of young women) or a neighbour or friend (reported by 38% of young men and 46% of young women) or an acquaintance from outside the village/neighbourhood (reported by 19% of young men and 18% of young women). In addition, 11% of young women compared to 3% of young men reported that their first pre-marital partner was a relative. This gender difference may be attributed to young women's relatively limited mobility and fewer opportunities for social mixing as compared to young men, described in Chapter 7.

This pattern was fairly consistent among both married and unmarried youth. Nonetheless, married young men were less likely than unmarried young men to report a fellow student or colleague (26% versus 44%) and more likely to report a neighbour or friend (43% versus 35%) and an acquaintance from outside the village/neighbourhood (24% versus 19%) as the first romantic partner. A similar pattern was evident among young women as well; married young women were less likely than unmarried young women to report a fellow student or colleague (12% versus 26%) but far more likely to report a neighbour or friend (54% versus 38%) as the first romantic partner. Rural-urban differences indicate that irrespective of sex or marital status, urban youth were more likely than rural youth to report a fellow student or colleague as the first romantic partner (47% versus 37% among young men; 28% and 15% among young women). They were, in contrast, less likely than rural youth to report an acquaintance from outside the village or neighbourhood as the first romantic partner (11% and 22% among young men; 14% and 19% among young women). Among young women, also notable was the observation that those in urban areas were less likely than their rural counterparts to report a neighbour or friend (37% and 50%, respectively) as their initial pre-marital partner; among young men, in contrast, differences were marginal (37% and 39%, respectively).

Respondents had typically been acquainted with their first romantic partner for one year or more before becoming romantically linked; this was consistently observed in all groups, irrespective of sex, marital status and rural-urban residence. Many—21% of young men and young women—reported that they had been acquainted with their partner since childhood, a finding not surprising given that a sizeable proportion of partners were either from the same neighbourhood or, among young women, relatives. Notably, 13% of young men and young women reported shorter duration acquaintances; that is, less than 12 months; while marital status differences were negligible for young men, more unmarried than married young women reported a short duration relationship (16% versus 9%). Rural-urban differences suggest that more young women from urban compared to rural areas reported shorter duration acquaintances (17% versus 12% among young men; 19% versus 11% among young women).

Table 9.4: Characteristics of pre-marital romantic relationships and partners

Percentage of youth reporting a pre-marital romantic relationship by age at initiation of relationship, partner's socio-economic and demographic characteristics, and nature and duration of prior acquaintance, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Characteristics (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Age when respondent first spent time alone with partner (years)						
15 or below	29.1	44.5	26.2	52.7	26.4	38.6
Median age when respondent first spent time alone with partner	17.0	16.0	17.0	15.0	17.0	16.0
Age of partner						
Younger than respondent	56.2	0.3	56.4	0.0	58.4	0.6
Same age as respondent	32.6	9.5	31.4	8.4	32.0	10.3
Older than respondent	9.7	85.2	10.7	87.8	8.6	82.4
Don't remember	1.5	5.0	1.4	3.8	1.1	6.6
Partner's marital status						
Unmarried	97.9	94.5	94.3	93.9	100.0	95.0
Married	2.1	5.3	5.7	6.1	0.0	4.7
Nature of prior acquaintance with first partner						
Relative	2.7	10.6	5.0	9.9	2.6	11.5
Fellow student/colleague	40.2	19.6	26.4	11.5	43.5	25.9
Neighbour/friend	38.1	45.7	42.9	54.2	35.3	38.0
Family friend	0.3	2.5	0.7	1.5	0.0	3.4
Person from outside village/neighbourhood	18.7	17.6	24.3	19.1	18.6	16.8
Other[2]	0.0	4.0	0.7	3.8	0.0	4.4
Duration of acquaintance						
Less than 1 month	5.2	5.3	4.3	4.6	5.6	5.6
1–11 months	8.0	7.8	10.8	4.6	8.2	10.6
12 months or more	65.7	66.2	60.4	64.1	64.3	67.5
Since childhood	21.1	20.8	24.5	26.7	21.9	16.3
Partner's religion						
Same as respondent	84.5	84.7	89.4	85.5	84.4	84.1
Different from respondent	15.2	14.5	10.6	13.7	15.2	15.3
Partner's caste						
Same as respondent	50.3	51.9	55.3	54.2	49.3	49.5
Different from respondent	49.4	46.1	44.7	45.0	50.4	48.0
Partner's socio-economic status						
Same as respondent	66.7	55.3	59.6	55.0	69.9	55.9
Better than respondent	21.5	35.8	24.1	34.4	19.7	36.6
Worse than respondent	9.1	6.5	14.9	9.2	7.4	4.1
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**333**	**458**	**140**	**137**	**268**	**321**

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Table 9.4: (Cont'd)

Characteristics (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Age when respondent first spent time alone with partner (years)						
15 or below	17.8	29.1	(15.4)	33.3	16.3	26.4
Median age when respondent first spent time alone with partner	17.0	17.0	(17.8)	16.8	18.0	17.0
Age of partner						
Younger than respondent	63.7	0.8	(53.8)	0.0	66.3	1.7
Same age as respondent	26.4	9.0	(30.8)	7.4	25.0	10.9
Older than respondent	8.8	88.0	(11.5)	92.6	7.5	84.9
Don't remember	1.1	2.3	(3.8)	0.0	1.3	2.5
Partner's marital status						
Unmarried	98.9	97.0	(96.2)	92.9	100.0	98.3
Married	1.1	3.0	(3.8)	7.1	0.0	1.7
Nature of prior acquaintance with first partner						
Relative	3.3	11.3	(7.7)	11.1	2.5	12.6
Fellow student/colleague	47.3	27.8	(34.6)	14.8	50.6	34.5
Neighbour/friend	37.4	36.8	(46.2)	44.4	34.6	32.8
Family friend	1.1	6.0	(3.8)	7.4	0.0	5.0
Person from outside village/neighbourhood	11.0	14.3	(7.7)	22.2	12.3	10.1
Other[2]	0.0	3.8	(0.0)	0.0	0.0	5.0
Duration of acquaintance						
Less than 1 month	3.4	7.5	(3.8)	7.1	3.8	8.3
1–11 months	13.5	11.2	(19.2)	10.7	13.8	10.8
12 months or more	73.0	67.9	(61.5)	57.1	72.5	73.3
Since childhood	10.1	13.4	(15.4)	25.0	10.0	7.5
Partner's religion						
Same as respondent	80.2	83.6	(88.5)	81.5	78.8	84.2
Different from respondent	18.7	16.4	(11.5)	18.5	20.0	15.8
Partner's caste						
Same as respondent	39.6	53.3	(42.3)	63.0	40.0	48.7
Different from respondent	59.3	43.0	(57.7)	37.0	58.8	47.9
Partner's socio-economic status						
Same as respondent	70.3	52.2	(59.3)	40.7	75.0	58.3
Better than respondent	20.9	40.3	(29.6)	48.1	17.5	37.5
Worse than respondent	3.3	6.0	(7.4)	11.1	1.3	2.5
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**144**	**215**	**46**	**65**	**124**	**150**

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Table 9.4: (Cont'd)

Characteristics (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Rural						
Age when respondent first spent time alone with partner (years)						
15 or below	33.5	52.3	28.4	57.1	30.5	45.8
Median age when respondent first spent time alone with partner	16.0	15.0	17.0	15.0	16.0	15.0
Age of partner						
Younger than respondent	53.3	0.0	57.4	0.0	55.0	0.0
Same age as respondent	35.0	9.4	31.3	8.7	34.4	10.0
Older than respondent	10.0	84.2	10.4	87.4	9.0	81.0
Don't remember	1.7	6.4	0.9	3.9	1.6	9.0
Partner's marital status						
Unmarried	97.5	93.2	93.0	94.2	100.0	93.0
Married	2.5	6.4	7.0	5.8	0.0	6.5
Nature of prior acquaintance with first partner						
Relative	2.5	10.2	4.3	9.6	2.7	11.1
Fellow student/colleague	37.2	15.4	25.2	10.6	40.4	21.1
Neighbour/friend	38.5	50.0	41.7	56.7	35.6	41.7
Family friend	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0
Person from outside village/neighbourhood	21.8	19.2	27.8	18.3	21.3	20.6
Other[2]	0.0	4.1	0.9	4.8	0.0	3.5
Duration of acquaintance						
Less than 1 month	5.9	4.1	4.4	3.8	6.4	4.0
1–11 months	5.9	6.4	8.8	2.9	5.3	10.9
12 months or more	63.0	65.0	60.5	66.3	61.2	63.7
Since childhood	25.2	24.4	26.3	26.9	27.1	21.4
Partner's religion						
Same as respondent	86.3	85.3	89.6	86.5	86.8	84.0
Different from respondent	13.8	13.6	10.4	12.5	13.2	15.0
Partner's caste						
Same as respondent	54.6	50.9	58.3	51.9	53.2	50.0
Different from respondent	45.4	47.5	41.7	47.1	46.8	48.0
Partner's socio-economic status						
Same as respondent	65.4	57.0	59.6	59.2	67.7	54.7
Better than respondent	21.7	33.2	22.8	31.1	20.6	35.8
Worse than respondent	11.3	6.8	16.7	7.8	10.1	5.0
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**189**	**243**	**94**	**72**	**144**	**171**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. [1]First romantic partner, if more than one romantic partner reported. [2]Includes employee, employer, teacher, other acquaintance and stranger.

The majority of youth reported that their partners came from religious and caste backgrounds similar to their own. Nevertheless, it is notable that considerable proportions of young people did engage in a romantic relationship with someone of a different religion and caste. For example, the first romantic partner for 15% of young men and women was someone from a different religion, while for considerably more (46–49%), it was someone from a different caste. Finally, the majority of youth—67% of young men and 55% of young women—reported a partner from the same socio-economic background as themselves. About one-third of young men (31%) and about two-fifths of young women (42%) reported that their partner was from a family that was either economically better- or worse-off than their own. Of note is the finding that 22% of young men and 36% of young women had a romantic partner from an economically better-off family.

Differentials by marital status were narrow. Unmarried young men were slightly more likely than the married to report a partner from a different religion (15% versus 11%) and caste (50% versus 45%); married young men, however, were more likely than their unmarried counterparts to report a partner from a different socio-economic background (39% versus 27%). Differences were muted among young women. Rural-urban differences were mild. However, among young men, more of those residing in urban than rural areas reported a partner from a different religion (19% versus 14%) and caste (59% versus 45%) while more rural than urban young men reported a partner from a different socio-economic background (33% versus 24%). Again, differences were muted among young women, except that fewer young women residing in urban than rural areas reported a partner from a different caste (43% versus 48%) and more urban than rural young women reported a partner from a different socio-economic background (46% versus 40%).

Table 9.5 presents youth responses to questions regarding places in which youth met their first romantic partner secretly, without adults present. The vast majority of youth who reported romantic relationships met secretly in places that offered them privacy or anonymity. Indeed, the largest proportion of youth reported that they met in each other's homes when other family members were absent (48% of young men and 39% of young women). Other places included parks and gardens (41% and 29% of young men and women, respectively), more among the urban than the rural; and fields or grazing areas (41% and 23% of young men and women, respectively), more among the rural than the urban. Interestingly, almost one-fifth of both young men and women reported meeting their first romantic partner around a temple, mosque or church. Finally, a few youth reported not meeting their romantic partner anywhere in secret (8% and 14% of young men and women, respectively). While levels varied, these patterns were observed among both married and unmarried young men and women.

9.3.3 Parental and peer awareness of romantic partnerships

Table 9.6 reports findings on peer and parental awareness of young people's romantic partnerships. More than four in five youth (83% and 88% of young men and women, respectively) reported that their peers were aware of their romantic relationships. A larger percentage of unmarried than married young men reported peer awareness of their romantic relationships (83% versus 76%); the reverse was observed among young women (93% and 83% of the married and unmarried, respectively). Likewise, larger percentages of urban than rural young men reported peer awareness of their romantic partnerships (91% compared to 80%); no such differences were observed among young women.

Relatively few youth, however, reported parental awareness of these partnerships. Young women were more likely than young men to report that parents were aware of their relationship (20% and 8%, respectively), and urban youth were more likely than their rural counterparts to report parental awareness (17% and 4% of young men, and 31% and 13% of young women, respectively). Marital status differences were negligible. Gender differences may be attributed to the likelihood that young women, who tend to be more strictly supervised, have fewer opportunities to hide a relationship from their parents than young men.

The reported reactions of those parents who became aware of their children's pre-marital romantic relationships are presented in Table 9.6. Given the small numbers, we provide findings for the rural and urban populations

Table 9.5: Meeting places with pre-marital romantic partners

Percentage of youth reporting a pre-marital romantic relationship by places where they met their partner secretly, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Meeting places (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Each other's home	48.2	38.8	61.0	42.7	44.2	35.3
Temple/mosque/church	18.7	17.0	18.4	19.1	18.2	14.7
Cinema/theatre	9.1	4.3	9.9	4.6	8.6	3.4
Park/garden	40.6	29.0	44.0	33.6	39.8	23.4
Restaurant/eating place	17.3	18.5	17.0	15.2	17.1	19.7
Jungle/riverside	6.1	5.5	12.9	8.4	5.2	3.1
Field/grazing area	40.8	23.3	53.2	29.8	36.8	19.1
Other places	0.3	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.4	1.3
Never met unaccompanied	7.6	13.8	5.7	12.2	8.6	14.7
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**333**	**458**	**140**	**137**	**268**	**321**
Urban						
Each other's home	44.0	32.8	(65.4)	48.1	40.0	24.4
Temple/mosque/church	22.0	16.4	(30.8)	17.9	21.0	15.8
Cinema/theatre	13.3	8.2	(23.1)	7.4	12.5	8.3
Park/garden	53.3	34.3	(65.4)	35.7	50.0	34.2
Restaurant/eating place	39.6	36.6	(50.0)	25.9	37.5	42.0
Jungle/riverside	2.2	1.5	(3.8)	3.7	2.5	0.8
Field/grazing area	4.4	4.5	(7.7)	11.1	4.9	1.7
Other places	1.1	1.5	(0.0)	0.0	1.3	1.7
Never met unaccompanied	11.1	14.9	(3.8)	11.1	12.5	16.7
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**144**	**215**	**46**	**65**	**124**	**150**
Rural						
Each other's home	49.6	41.9	60.0	41.7	46.3	42.0
Temple/mosque/church	17.5	17.3	15.7	19.4	17.5	14.0
Cinema/theatre	7.1	2.3	7.0	3.8	6.9	0.5
Park/garden	36.0	26.3	39.1	33.0	35.4	17.5
Restaurant/eating place	8.8	9.4	9.6	11.5	8.0	6.5
Jungle/riverside	7.5	7.5	15.7	9.6	6.3	4.5
Field/grazing area	54.6	32.8	63.5	35.0	50.8	30.0
Other places	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5
Never met unaccompanied	6.3	13.2	6.1	12.5	6.9	13.5
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**189**	**243**	**94**	**72**	**144**	**171**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases.
[1]First romantic partner, if more than one romantic partner reported.

Table 9.6: Peer and parental awareness of first pre-marital romantic relationship

Percentage of youth reporting a pre-marital romantic relationship by peer and parental awareness of the first romantic relationship and parents' reaction, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Awareness and reactions (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Friends aware of relationship	82.7	87.5	75.9	93.1	82.5	83.1
Parents aware of relationship	7.6	19.5	8.6	19.8	7.1	17.8
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**333**	**458**	**140**	**137**	**268**	**321**
Urban						
Friends aware of relationship	91.1	86.5	(84.6)	85.2	91.3	86.7
Parents aware of relationship	16.7	31.3	(16.0)	40.7	14.8	26.7
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**144**	**215**	**46**	**65**	**124**	**150**
Rural						
Friends aware of relationship	79.6	88.3	73.9	94.2	79.3	81.0
Parents aware of relationship	4.2	13.2	7.0	14.4	4.2	12.0
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**189**	**243**	**94**	**72**	**144**	**171**
Combined						
Parents' reaction						
Shouted at respondent	(36.0)	44.2	*	(56.0)	*	32.1
Beat respondent	(0.0)	15.4	*	(23.1)	*	7.0
Did not allow respondent to go out	(3.8)	11.7	*	(15.4)	*	7.1
Stopped respondent from meeting partner	(4.0)	10.3	*	(7.7)	*	12.5
Forced respondent to discontinue education	(0.0)	2.6	*	(3.8)	*	1.8
Reported to/shouted at partner's family	(4.0)	5.1	*	(4.0)	*	3.6
Arranged marriage with partner	(3.8)	25.6	*	(24.0)	*	25.0
Arranged marriage with someone else	(0.0)	10.4	*	(19.2)	*	3.5
No reaction/accepted the situation	(44.0)	24.4	*	(7.7)	*	42.1
Advised respondent, including not to let school/college performance suffer	(12.0)	14.1	*	(12.0)	*	15.8
Number whose parents were aware of relationship	**32**	**97**	**14**	**36**	**24**	**61**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses. Reporting of parents' reactions is presented for rural and urban combined due to small numbers. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. [1]First romantic partner, if more than one romantic partner reported.*

together; even so, numbers are extremely small among young men and findings must be interpreted with caution. Reported parental reactions varied for young men and women with larger proportions of young women than men reporting negative reactions. For example, among young men, it would appear that the foremost reactions were to accept the situation or shout at the young man. Among young women, however, 44% reported that their parents had shouted at them, and 10–15% (compared to hardly any young men), reported that their parents had beaten them, or forbidden them from going out or meeting their partner. For considerable percentages of young women, moreover, parents reacted by arranging their marriages, more often to the romantic partner (26%) than to someone else (10%), perhaps in order to protect the family's honour. A small percentage of young women (3%) were withdrawn from school. One quarter (24%) reported, however, that their parents had accepted the situation; this percentage was considerably greater (44%) among young men.

9.3.4 Marriage intentions in pre-marital romantic relationships

The questionnaire probed all respondents who reported a relationship about their intentions to marry their romantic partner. Findings are reported in Table 9.7 and suggest that fewer than one in three young men (28%) and almost three in five (58%) young women intended to marry either their first or most recent partner. Gender differences in intentions to marry the romantic partner have been observed in other studies as well (Alexander et al., 2006a; 2006b). Differences by marital status were not observed among young men but suggest that married young women were more likely than the unmarried to have reported this intention (65% versus 51%, respectively). Rural-urban differences suggest, however, that while young women in both settings were equally likely to report marriage intentions, among young men, those in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to so report (34% versus 26%).

Reality, in terms of outcomes of romantic relationships, was different from intention. For example, while 65% of married young women had intended to marry their pre-marital partner, just 8% reported having done so; among married young men 29% reported such an intention, yet only 4% reported doing so. The rural-urban differences observed for intentions persisted in outcomes as well: among married young women, 22% of the urban compared to 4% of the rural had married their pre-marital romantic partner. Corresponding differences were narrower among married young men (12% and 2%, respectively).

Table 9.7: Marriage intentions in pre-marital romantic relationships

Percentage of youth reporting a pre-marital romantic relationship by intention to marry partner, and outcome (among the married), according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Marriage intentions and outcomes (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Intended to marry pre-marital partner	28.2	58.4	29.1	64.9	28.3	51.3
Married pre-marital partner	NA	NA	3.5	7.6	NA	NA
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**333**	**458**	**140**	**137**	**268**	**321**
Urban						
Intended to marry pre-marital partner	34.4	59.0	(42.3)	67.9	35.0	54.2
Married pre-marital partner	NA	NA	(11.5)	22.2	NA	NA
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**144**	**215**	**46**	**65**	**124**	**150**
Rural						
Intended to marry pre-marital partner	25.8	57.9	26.1	64.4	25.5	49.8
Married pre-marital partner	NA	NA	1.7	3.8	NA	NA
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**189**	**243**	**94**	**72**	**144**	**171**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. [1]Data on marriage intentions were collected only with regard to the first and/or most recent partner. These data were not available for 26 young men and 3 young women who reported more than two romantic partners.

9.3.5 Pre-marital physical intimacy and sex with a romantic partner

Respondents who reported a pre-marital romantic relationship were asked whether they had engaged in a number of intimate behaviours with their romantic partner. These ranged from behaviours reflecting minimal physical intimacy (hand-holding, hugging) to those reflecting increased physical intimacy (kissing on the lips) and finally, engaging in sexual relations. Findings, presented in Table 9.8, refer to youth experiences of physical intimacy with their first and/or most recent romantic partner, if more than one.

While the large majority of youth had held hands with a romantic partner, consistently fewer reported progressively more intimate behaviours. Gender differences in reporting of such experiences widened considerably between reports of hand-holding and progressively more intimate forms of behaviour. For example, while 89% of young men compared to 75% of young women had held hands with a romantic partner, 71% and 47%, respectively, had kissed a romantic partner, and 45% and 19%, respectively, had experienced sex with a romantic partner. Gender differences were evident among married and unmarried as well as rural and urban youth.

Differences by marital status suggest that more married than unmarried youth reported each of these intimate behaviours (see also Figure 9.2). Rural-urban differences were less consistent. Among young men, those in rural settings were considerably more likely than their urban counterparts to report each behaviour; among young women, similar differences became apparent only for kissing and engaging in sex. For both young men and women, differences were widest in regard to engaging in sex. Indeed, 50% of young men in rural areas, compared to 31% of those in urban areas, and 25% and 8% of young women, respectively, reported pre-marital sex with a romantic partner, a finding that may be attributed to the greater opportunities for privacy in rural than in urban areas.

In short, findings confirm that pre-marital romantic relationships among youth almost always included some form of physical intimacy. Indeed, more than two-fifths of young men and one-fifth of young women who reported a pre-marital romantic relationship had experienced sex with a romantic partner.

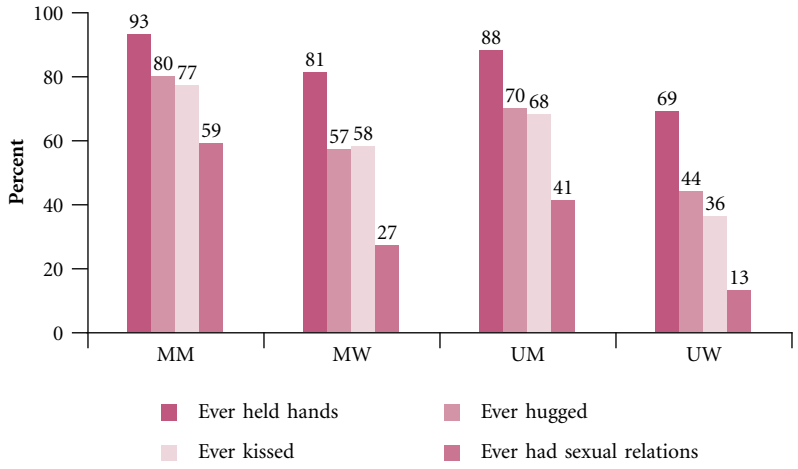
Table 9.8: Physical intimacy and sexual experiences in pre-marital romantic relationships

Percentage of youth reporting a pre-marital romantic relationship by experiences of physical intimacy and sex with their partner, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Physical intimacy (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Ever held hands	89.1	74.7	92.9	80.9	87.7	68.8
Ever hugged	72.1	50.3	80.1	57.3	69.5	43.8
Ever kissed	70.6	46.6	76.6	58.0	68.0	35.6
Ever had sexual relations	45.2	19.0	58.6	26.7	41.3	12.8
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**333**	**458**	**140**	**137**	**268**	**321**
Urban						
Ever held hands	84.4	76.1	(96.2)	81.5	81.5	73.3
Ever hugged	64.8	49.3	(80.0)	59.3	63.8	43.3
Ever kissed	64.8	41.8	(73.1)	59.3	62.5	33.3
Ever had sexual relations	31.1	7.5	(46.2)	7.4	31.3	7.5
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**144**	**215**	**46**	**65**	**124**	**150**
Rural						
Ever held hands	90.8	74.0	91.3	80.6	90.4	66.0
Ever hugged	74.9	50.8	80.9	55.8	72.3	44.0
Ever kissed	72.5	49.1	77.4	58.7	70.2	37.0
Ever had sexual relations	50.4	24.8	61.7	31.7	45.2	16.0
Number reporting a romantic relationship	**189**	**243**	**94**	**72**	**144**	**171**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. [1]Data on ever held hands, ever hugged and ever kissed pertain to the first or most recent partner, if more than one partner was reported. Data on pre-marital sexual relations pertain not only to the first or most recent partner, but also to other romantic partners, if more than two romantic partners were reported.

Figure 9.2: Percentage of youth reporting experiences of physical intimacy and sex with a pre-marital romantic partner, Rajasthan, 2007



9.3.6 Characteristics of sexual experiences within pre-marital romantic relationships

The Youth Study asked all respondents reporting pre-marital sex with a romantic partner about fears of pregnancy or infection at the time of first sex, condom and contraceptive decision-making and use at first and subsequent sexual encounters with a romantic sexual partner, and the consensual nature of first sex. Findings are presented in Table 9.9. Given the small numbers of respondents reporting pre-marital sexual experience, we provide combined rural-urban findings for married and unmarried young men on the one hand and for all women combined on the other.

Among those who reported sexual experiences within pre-marital romantic relationships, many more young women than men reported fear of pregnancy or infection at the time of first sex. For example, fear of pregnancy was reported by 66% of young women and 39% of young men; and fear of infection by 24% and 13%, respectively. Unmarried young men were as likely as married young men to report fear of pregnancy (39% and 40%, respectively), but were more likely to report fear of infection (16% and 9%, respectively).

Reported contraceptive use at first pre-marital sex with a romantic partner and consistent condom use in subsequent sexual encounters was limited. In total, just 27% of young men and 15% of young women reported using contraception at first sex, and 16% and 15%, respectively, reported that contraception was consistently practised in all sexual encounters with their romantic opposite-sex partner(s). While slightly more unmarried than married young men reported using contraception at first sex (28% compared to 24%), they were considerably more likely to report consistent contraceptive use (18% and 7%, respectively).

Condom use was limited. Just 24% percent of young men and 9% of young women had used a condom during their first sexual encounter with a romantic partner. Even so, it is clear that the majority of those who practised contraception at first sex used a condom (88% of young men and 64% of young women). While almost all unmarried young men who practised contraception at first sex used a condom (97%), fewer than three-quarters (71%) of married young men so reported. Somewhat fewer young men (14%) and as many young women (9%) reported that they had used condoms in all sexual encounters with their romantic partner(s). While all youth reporting condom use at first sex reported doing so to prevent pregnancy, somewhat fewer reported doing so to prevent infection.

Youth reports of decision-making regarding contraceptive use at first pre-marital sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner reveal that young women were relatively disadvantaged. For example, responses of both young men and

Table 9.9: Characteristics of sexual experiences within pre-marital romantic relationships

Percentage of youth reporting pre-marital sexual experiences with an opposite-sex romantic partner by selected characteristics of their first and subsequent sexual encounters with the partner, Rajasthan, 2007

Characteristics (%)[1]	M 15–24	MM 15–29	UM 15–24	W 15–24
Anxiety associated with first sex				
Afraid of getting pregnant at first sex	38.9	39.5	39.1	65.8
Afraid of getting infection at first sex	13.4	8.6	15.5	23.7
Contraceptive use				
Practised contraception at first sex	26.8	24.4	27.9	14.5
Practised contraception in all sexual encounters[2]	15.5	7.3	18.0	14.5
Condom use				
Used a condom at first sex to:	23.5	17.3	27.0	9.3
Avoid pregnancy	23.5	17.3	27.0	9.3
Avoid infection	20.8	14.6	25.5	7.9
Used condoms in all sexual encounters[2]	14.1	6.1	16.4	9.3
Decision to use contraception at first sex taken by:				
Respondent	14.1	12.3	13.5	6.6
Partner	1.3	1.2	1.8	6.6
Jointly	11.4	9.9	12.6	1.3
Consensuality of first sex				
Mutual consent	79.1	70.4	84.8	76.0
Male partner forced	12.8	12.3	8.0	17.3
Female partner forced	1.4	0.0	2.7	0.0
Male partner persuaded	4.1	11.1	1.8	6.7
Female partner persuaded	2.7	6.2	2.7	0.0
Number reporting pre-marital sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner	**139**	**78**	**104**	**67**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]In-depth probing of sexual experiences was restricted to respondents' first or most recent romantic partner. Therefore, if a respondent reported his/her first sexual experience as occurring with a romantic partner other than the first or the most recent, then age, consensuality and other characteristics at first sex were unknown. However, in Rajasthan no such case was found. [2]Data were missing for 10 young men and 1 young woman who reported sexual experiences with a romantic partner other than the first or most recent partner.

young women suggest that the decision to practise contraception at first sex typically did not involve the female partner, either as the sole or joint decision-maker. While 27% of young men and 15% of young women had practised contraception at first sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner, only about half—13% and 8% of young men and women, respectively—reported that the female partner had participated in the decision.

As far as consensuality of first sex is concerned, reports of young men and women converge. While the majority of young men and women—79% and 76%, respectively—reported that their first experience of pre-marital sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner was consensual, several youth reported that it occurred without consent for young women. One in six young women (17%) reported that their opposite-sex romantic partner had forced them to have sex the first time; almost as many (13%) young men admitted that they had forced their partner to do so. At the same time, fewer young men and women (4% and 7%, respectively) reported that the male partner had persuaded the female partner to engage in sex; not a single young woman and very few (1–3%) young men reported that the female partner had persuaded or forced the male partner to do so.

Differences by marital status suggest that fewer married than unmarried young men reported their first experience of pre-marital sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner to be consensual (70% versus 85%). Conversely, more married than unmarried young men reported that the male partner had persuaded the female partner to have sex (11% versus 2%).

9.4 Pre-marital sexual experiences within romantic and other relationships

Aside from the heterosexual romantic partnerships discussed in previous sections, the Youth Study also probed youth experiences of pre-marital sex with other partners, including casual partners and spouse before marriage, and in situations characterised by force and exchange of gifts or favours. In addition, male respondents were asked about their pre-marital sexual experience with same-sex partners, sex workers and married women.

In this and subsequent sections of this chapter, we present findings on the prevalence of pre-marital sexual experiences (irrespective of whether such experiences took place within romantic or other partnerships) among all youth in the sample.

9.4.1 Extent of pre-marital sexual experiences

Table 9.10 reports percentages of respondents reporting pre-marital sex in any of the situations described above. For 5% of young men and 1% of young women, pre-marital sex occurred in a romantic relationship with a person of the opposite sex. In addition, fewer than 1% reported the experience or perpetration of forced sex (0.1–0.2%), or sex in exchange for money or favours ((0.0–0.1%). Casual sex was reported by 1% of young men but not a single young woman. Also, just 0.2–0.5% of married young men and women reported sex with their spouse before marriage (including some who had sex with a romantic partner whom they later married).

Young men were also asked about their sexual experience with same-sex partners, sex workers and married women (excluding their own wife, if married). Small proportions of young men reported relations with same-sex partners (just 0.3%) and sex workers (1%). However, as many as 8% admitted that they had relations with a married woman.

Thus, in all, 14% of young men and 1% of young women reported pre-marital sexual relations in the course of face-to-face interviews.

Several youth, particularly young men, who had not disclosed their sexual experience in the face-to-face interview, did so in the anonymous sealed envelope format. Including these, in total, 15% of young men and 2% of young women reported any pre-marital sexual experience. The Youth Study findings fall in the lower range observed in a variety of small case studies (15–30% for males and fewer than 10% for females; Jejeebhoy and Sebastian, 2004), and the possibility that youth opted not to disclose sexual experience in various situations cannot be discounted, particularly in the case of reporting by young women, and in the reporting of forced, same-sex or sex worker relations.

Percentages reporting pre-marital sexual experience were similar among married and unmarried young women (2–3%); however, married young men were far more likely than the unmarried to report such experiences (19% versus 9%) (see also Figure 9.3). Rural-urban differences were evident among young men but not among young women. Rural young men—and notably the married—were considerably more likely than their urban counterparts to report having experienced pre-marital sex (17% versus 11% of all men; 20% versus 15% of the married).

Table 9.11 presents percentages of youth reporting pre-marital sexual experiences by selected socio-demographic characteristics. As indicated earlier, such background characteristics as work status and household economic status reflect the situation of youth at the time of interview, and not necessarily at the time when pre-marital sex was experienced. In view of the small number of respondents reporting such experiences, findings are presented for all married and unmarried young men and women; findings for rural and urban respondents are not separately provided. Associations are, for the most part, inconsistent among young men and for young women, uniformly negligible.

Table 9.10: Overall pre-marital sexual experiences

Percentage of youth reporting pre-marital sexual experiences with any partner and via different reporting methods, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Pre-marital sexual experiences and reporting methods (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Reported pre-marital sex with:						
Opposite-sex romantic partner	4.7	1.0	4.0	1.0	5.2	1.2
Same-sex partner	0.3	NA	0.1	NA	0.4	NA
Someone who forced respondent to have sex	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1
Girl whom respondent forced	0.1	NA	0.1	NA	0.1	NA
Someone in exchange for money/favour	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Sex worker	1.0	NA	1.3	NA	0.6	NA
Married woman[1]	7.9	NA	11.6	NA	0.8	NA
Casual partner	1.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	1.2	0.0
Spouse before marriage	NA	NA	0.5	0.2	NA	NA
Reported any pre-marital sex via:						
Face-to-face interview	13.5	1.2	16.6	1.2	6.8	1.3
Anonymous format (sealed envelope)	7.2	2.2	7.3	2.5	7.1	1.6
Face-to-face interview or anonymous format (sealed envelope)	15.4	2.4	18.6	2.7	8.7	1.9
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Reported pre-marital sex with:						
Opposite-sex romantic partner	3.6	0.6	3.4	0.5	3.9	0.8
Same-sex partner	0.1	NA	0.0	NA	0.2	NA
Someone who forced respondent to have sex	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Girl whom respondent forced	0.1	NA	0.0	NA	0.2	NA
Someone in exchange for money/favour	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sex worker	1.2	NA	1.4	NA	0.8	NA
Married woman[1]	3.9	NA	7.5	NA	0.8	NA
Casual partner	0.6	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.6	0.0
Spouse before marriage	NA	NA	0.6	0.2	NA	NA
Reported any pre-marital sex via:						
Face-to-face interview	8.7	0.6	11.8	0.5	5.5	0.8
Anonymous format (sealed envelope)	6.6	1.5	7.8	1.9	6.6	1.1
Face-to-face interview or anonymous format (sealed envelope)	11.2	1.7	14.7	1.9	8.3	1.3
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Reported pre-marital sex with:						
Opposite-sex romantic partner	5.1	1.2	4.1	1.1	5.7	1.4
Same-sex partner	0.3	NA	0.1	NA	0.5	NA
Someone who forced respondent to have sex	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2
Girl whom respondent forced	0.1	NA	0.1	NA	0.1	NA
Someone in exchange for money/favour	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Sex worker	0.9	NA	1.2	NA	0.5	NA
Married woman[1]	9.3	NA	12.5	NA	0.8	NA
Casual partner	1.1	0.0	0.7	0.0	1.4	0.0
Spouse before marriage	NA	NA	0.5	0.1	NA	NA
Reported any pre-marital sex via:						
Face-to-face interview	15.2	1.3	17.7	1.3	7.3	1.5
Anonymous format (sealed envelope)	7.4	2.4	7.2	2.6	7.3	1.9
Face-to-face interview or anonymous format (sealed envelope)	16.9	2.6	19.5	2.8	8.9	2.2
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. NA: Not applicable. [1]Sex with a married woman excludes sex with wife before marriage.

Figure 9.3: Percentage of youth reporting any pre-marital sexual experiences (in face-to-face interview or sealed envelope), according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

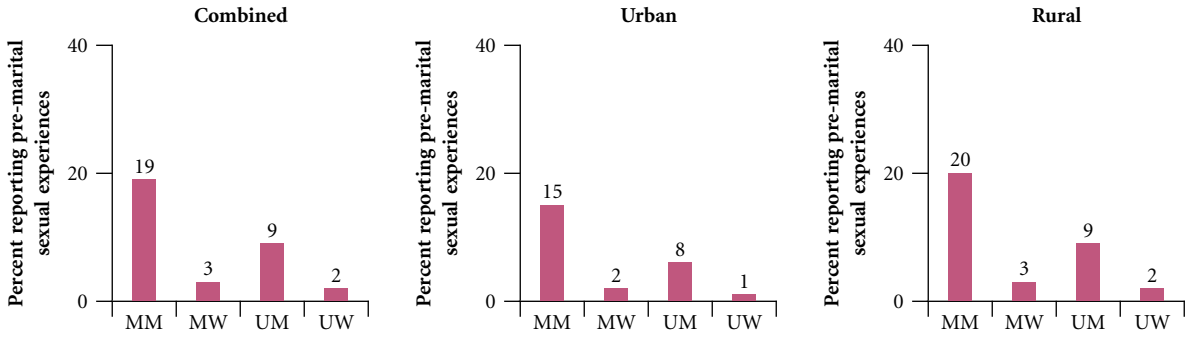


Table 9.11: Overall pre-marital sexual experiences by selected background characteristics

Percentage of youth reporting any pre-marital sexual experiences by selected background characteristics, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Age (years)						
15–19	13.5	2.9	61.6	4.5	6.1	1.9
20–24	17.9	1.9	19.4	1.9	15.7	2.0
25–29	NA	NA	9.5	NA	NA	NA
Religion						
Hindu	15.7	2.4	18.7	2.7	8.7	2.0
Muslim	13.4	2.4	19.3	3.0	8.1	1.3
Other[1]	8.7	1.7	*	(0.0)	(11.9)	1.9
Caste						
SC	14.8	1.8	18.1	1.4	7.0	2.7
ST	21.0	7.2	22.5	8.0	13.4	5.6
OBC	16.4	2.2	18.8	2.5	9.4	1.6
General[2]	9.9	1.2	13.7	1.7	6.5	0.8
Educational level (years)						
None[3]	17.0	2.2	16.7	2.2	5.4	2.8
1–7	15.0	3.7	16.0	3.9	8.0	3.3
8–11	14.8	1.6	21.4	2.5	7.8	1.1
12 and above	16.9	1.3	18.6	2.2	13.5	0.9
Worked in last 12 months						
Yes	17.2	2.7	15.9	2.8	10.6	2.6
No	12.7	2.0	57.1	2.5	6.9	1.5
Wealth quintile						
First	16.4	2.8	18.4	3.0	9.5	1.9
Second	19.2	2.7	21.1	2.4	9.0	3.5
Third	18.2	3.3	20.5	3.7	8.3	2.7
Fourth	15.7	1.7	18.3	1.8	10.1	1.3
Fifth	10.7	1.7	15.0	2.3	7.2	1.2
Total	**15.4**	**2.4**	**18.6**	**2.7**	**8.7**	**1.9**

*Note: ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted. NA: Not applicable. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes Christian, Buddhist, Neo-Buddhist, Sikh, Jain, Jewish, Parsi/Zoroastrian and no specified religion. [2]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [3]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

For example, age profiles suggest a positive association between age and pre-marital sexual experience among young men, with those aged 20–24 somewhat more likely than younger respondents to report sexual experience (18% versus 14%). Of note, however, is the inverse association between age and pre-marital sexual experience among married young men; those aged 15–19 were considerably more likely than those aged 20–24 or 25–29 to report pre-marital sexual experience (62% versus 19% and 10%, respectively). In contrast, considerably more unmarried young men aged 20–24 reported sexual experience than did those aged 15–19. Differentials by religion were negligible among married and unmarried young men, however, on the whole, Hindu men were more likely than others to have experienced premarital sex. Neither age- nor religion-wise differences were observed among young women. Caste-wise differences suggest that youth from scheduled tribes were consistently more likely than those from other castes to report pre-marital sex (21% versus 10–16% among young men, and 7% versus 1–2% among young women, respectively). These differences held true among both married and unmarried youth.

The association between reported pre-marital sexual experience and educational attainment was narrow; percentages reporting sexual experience ranged from 15% to 17% among young men and from 2% to 4% among young women. The association between wealth status and pre-marital sexual experience was also inconsistent; however, youth in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile were less likely than others to report pre-marital sex, irrespective, for the most part, of sex and marital status.

A mild positive relationship was observed with economic activity status among young men, while differences were negligible among young women. Young men who had worked in the last year were somewhat more likely than non-working young men to have experienced pre-marital sex (17% versus 13%), a finding that may be attributed to the greater mobility and relative freedom from parental supervision experienced by working youth as compared to non-working youth. However, while this association was observed among unmarried young men, among the married, working men were less likely than non-working men to report sexual experience.

9.4.2 Age at initiation of pre-marital sex

Table 9.12 presents cumulative percentages of youth who experienced first pre-marital sex at selected ages (among all youth in the sample) calculated using life table techniques, with censoring taking place at the time of marriage for married youth and at the time of the interview for unmarried youth. For youth who reported pre-marital sex only through the anonymous sealed envelope method, age at first pre-marital sex was imputed conservatively, using age at marriage (for the married) and current age (for the unmarried) as age at initiation of pre-marital sex.

Table 9.12: Age at initiation of pre-marital sex

Cumulative percentage of youth by age at first pre-marital sexual experience, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Age at first pre-marital sex (%)[1]	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24	M 15–24	W 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
First pre-marital sex occurred before age (years):						
15	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.5
18	3.0	2.3	0.9	0.8	3.8	3.0
20	9.4	4.4	5.4	2.1	11.1	5.8
21	13.1	4.9	8.2	2.5	15.3	6.4
25	28.5	7.9	23.0	4.0	31.5	14.6
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,227**	**2,474**	**1,747**	**3,513**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. [1]Calculated using life table techniques. Age at first pre-marital sex among those who reported pre-marital sex only through the anonymous sealed envelope method was imputed conservatively, using age at marriage (for the married) and current age (for the unmarried).

Several findings are notable. First, roughly similar proportions of young men and women—3% and 2%, respectively—had initiated first sex before age 18. Second, youth in rural areas were more likely to initiate pre-marital sexual relations earlier than their urban counterparts; for example, 3–4% of rural youth compared to 1% of urban youth had their sexual debut before age 18. Third, findings indicate notable increases in the initiation of pre-marital sexual activity as young people transitioned from early adolescence (before age 15) into late adolescence (before age 20) into young adulthood (before age 25). For example, while just 0.3% of young men and 0.4% of young women initiated pre-marital sexual activity before age 15, and 9% and 4%, respectively, experienced first pre-marital sex before age 20, many more—29% and 8%, respectively—had their first pre-marital sexual experience before age 25.

The age-specific increase in cumulative percentages of those who had initiated pre-marital sexual relations was steeper among rural than among urban youth. Among rural young men, for example, while just 0.3% had experienced first sex before age 15, 11% had experienced pre-marital sex before age 20, and 32% before age 25. The corresponding percentages among young men in urban areas were 0.2%, 5% and 23%, respectively. Although levels of pre-marital sex were lower among young women, the same pattern held true. Among rural young women, 0.5% had initiated sex before age 15 and this percentage increased to 6% and further to 15% before ages 20 and 25, respectively. Increases among young women in urban areas, in contrast, were relatively mild (from 0.1% before age 15 to 2% before age 20, and 4% before age 25).

9.4.3 Pre-marital sexual risk behaviours

Table 9.13 presents findings relating to sexual risk behaviours of those reporting pre-marital sexual experience, including multiple partner relations and inconsistent condom use. Findings confirm that where youth engaged in pre-marital sex, it was generally under unsafe conditions.

Sizeable proportions of sexually experienced youth had indeed engaged in sex with multiple partners before marriage; for example, 14% of young men reported two or more partners. While fewer young women reported pre-marital sex, a relatively large proportion of these young women (28%) reported multiple pre-marital partners. Among

Table 9.13: Pre-marital sexual risk behaviours

Percentage of sexually experienced youth who had pre-marital sex by number of partners and condom use, Rajasthan, 2007

Sexual behaviours (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Total number of pre-marital sexual partners						
1	86.5	72.5	91.1	(72.4)	74.3	(74.4)
2 or more	13.5	27.5	8.9	(27.6)	25.7	(25.6)
Consistent condom use with pre-marital sexual partners[1]	6.1	4.3	5.4	(0.0)	11.8	(11.6)
Number reporting pre-marital sex in face-to-face interview	**351**	**64**	**289**	**25**	**137**	**39**
Number of sexual partners in last 12 months						
None	NA	NA	NA	NA	16.0	(7.1)
1	NA	NA	NA	NA	69.4	(81.0)
2 or more	NA	NA	NA	NA	14.6	(11.9)
Condom used at last pre-marital sex	NA	NA	NA	NA	31.3	(21.4)
Number of unmarried respondents reporting pre-marital sex in face-to-face interview	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**	**137**	**39**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. [1]Questions on consistent condom use were asked only with regard to sexual relationships with first and/or most recent romantic partner, exchange sex partner, sex worker or married woman and excluded experiences with romantic partners other than first or most recent romantic partner, same-sex romantic partner, casual partner, spouse before marriage and experiences of forced sex.

young men, the unmarried were considerably more likely than the married to report multiple partner relationships (26% versus 9%); among young women, in contrast, the differences were muted. Unmarried youth were further probed about the number of partners with whom they had sex over the 12 months preceding the interview; 15% and 12% of sexually experienced unmarried young men and women, respectively, reported multiple sexual partners in the last year.

The Youth Study questionnaire probed consistent condom use only with regard to sex with the first and/or most recent romantic partner, in exchange sex encounters, with sex workers and with married women. Information on condom use was not obtained for pre-marital sexual experiences with romantic partners other than the first or most recent, same-sex romantic partners, casual sex partners, spouse before marriage or among those who reported the experience of forced sex. Although few youth reported these latter relationships, we acknowledge that our consistent condom use indicator may not be comprehensive.

Findings suggest that among youth who reported pre-marital sex in the face-to-face interview, consistent condom use was extremely limited; only 6% of young men and 4% of young women reported that they had always used a condom. Differences by marital status suggest that the unmarried were more likely than the married to report consistent condom use (12% versus 5% among young men; 12% versus none among young women). Condom use during the last pre-marital sexual encounter, assessed for unmarried respondents, suggests that only 31% of young men and 21% of young women reported condom use at last sex.

9.4.4 Non-consensual sexual experiences

The Youth Study questionnaire also probed the extent to which young people had experienced such non-consensual sexual experiences as verbal harassment of a sexual nature, non-consensual sexual touch or forced sex. In addition, young men were asked whether they had ever verbally harassed a girl or perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch or forced sex. Findings on non-consensual sexual experiences are presented in Table 9.14. For the married, these refer to the period before marriage. We acknowledge that forced sex is an extremely sensitive issue and hence, very likely to have been under-reported.

Verbal harassment was experienced by substantial minorities of young women (12%) and hardly any men (1%). Marital status differences suggest that unmarried young women were somewhat more likely than the married to have experienced verbal harassment (14% versus 10%); no differences by marital status were observed among young men. Rural-urban differences suggest, moreover, that young women in urban settings were somewhat more likely than their rural counterparts to have experienced verbal harassment (15% in urban areas compared to 11% in rural areas). No rural-urban differences were observed among young men.

Non-consensual sexual touch was measured by questions that probed whether the respondent had ever been a victim of unwanted hugging or kissing in a sexual way, whether someone had touched their private parts without consent or had forced them to touch the perpetrator's private parts, and finally, whether someone had attempted to have sex with the respondent against her/his will using physical force or threats. As shown in Table 9.14, few respondents—1–2%—admitted the experience of unwanted touch measured in these ways. Surprisingly, gender differences were not observed. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were negligible.

Questions on forced sex were posed in two ways: in relation to first sex with a romantic opposite- or same-sex partner, on the one hand, and with any non-romantic partner, on the other. Even measured in this way, forced sex was rarely reported, that is, by just 0.2% of both young men and women.

Young men's reports of perpetration of these acts, presented in Table 9.14, suggest however, that non-consensual sexual experiences may well have been under-reported, especially by young women. Indeed, as many as 16% of young men admitted that they had verbally harassed a girl. Moreover, 6% of young men admitted touching or brushing past a girl without her consent. Perpetration of verbal harassment was somewhat more likely to be reported by unmarried compared to married young men (17% versus 12%) while unwanted touch was about equally reported by both (5–6%). Again, while more urban than rural young men reported the perpetration of verbal harassment

Table 9.14: Pre-marital non-consensual sexual experiences

Percentage of youth reporting various pre-marital non-consensual sexual experiences, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Non-consensual sexual experiences (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Ever experienced						
Verbal harassment	1.1	11.8	0.7	10.2	1.1	14.4
Any non-consensual sexual touch[1]	0.9	1.8	0.4	1.4	1.1	2.4
Any forced sex	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1
Ever perpetrated the following:						
Verbally harassed anyone[2]	15.5	NA	12.1	NA	16.6	NA
Touched or brushed past a girl[2]	6.4	NA	5.4	NA	6.4	NA
Forced sex on a girl	0.1	NA	0.1	NA	0.1	NA
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Ever experienced						
Verbal harassment	0.9	14.7	0.6	11.4	1.1	17.6
Any non-consensual sexual touch[1]	0.8	2.0	0.6	1.2	0.9	2.6
Any forced sex	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ever perpetrated the following:						
Verbally harassed anyone[2]	20.4	NA	14.9	NA	21.8	NA
Touched or brushed past a girl[2]	7.0	NA	4.6	NA	7.6	NA
Forced sex on a girl	0.1	NA	0.0	NA	0.2	NA
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Ever experienced						
Verbal harassment	1.1	10.8	0.7	9.9	1.1	12.8
Any non-consensual sexual touch[1]	1.0	1.7	0.4	1.5	1.2	2.3
Any forced sex	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2
Ever perpetrated the following:						
Verbally harassed anyone[2]	13.9	NA	11.5	NA	14.4	NA
Touched or brushed past a girl[2]	6.3	NA	5.6	NA	6.0	NA
Forced sex on a girl	0.1	NA	0.1	NA	0.1	NA
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. NA: Not applicable. [1]Includes hugging in a sexual way, kissing in a sexual way, touching of private parts and attempted forced sex. [2]It is possible that married young men may have reported the occurrence of these events post-marriage since age at occurrence was not probed.

(20% versus 14%), perpetration of unwanted touch was about equally reported by both (6–7%). Finally, 0.1% of young men reported that they had forced sex on a girl.

9.5 Triangulation of data on pre-marital sexual experiences among young people

Acknowledging that young people may have been reluctant to disclose behaviours perceived as socially unacceptable such as pre-marital sex, the Youth Study included three approaches to elicit data on sexual behaviours. These were face-to-face interviews, anonymous reporting of respondents' own experiences via the sealed envelope and anonymous

third-party reporting of peer experiences. Anonymous third-party reporting of peer experiences is a useful method by which to assess sensitive behaviours that individuals may be reluctant to disclose about themselves; findings are intended to shed light on the behaviours of the peer network and not necessarily on those of the individual himself or herself (Rossier, 2003).

We note that in anonymous third-party reporting, respondents may have reported as peers, individuals whose ages fell outside our sample ages (15–24 and, in the case of married males, 15–29); therefore, in estimating pre-marital romantic and sexual experiences of young people using this reporting method, these individuals were excluded. In addition, we recognise that in anonymous third-party reporting, friends reported by one respondent may also be reported by others. In estimating pre-marital romantic and sexual experiences of young people using this reporting method, our analysis sought to minimise the chances that the experience of an individual belonging to more than one peer network would be included multiple times. Specifically, we inversely weighted the total sample of friends by the number of friends reported by each respondent. As a result, each respondent's network was given equal weight irrespective of its size.

Findings, presented in Table 9.15, compare the levels of pre-marital romantic and sexual experiences obtained through these different approaches. Specifically, three indicators are presented: (a) percent reporting a pre-marital romantic relationship, (b) percent reporting the experience of pre-marital sex with a romantic opposite-sex partner, and (c) percent reporting any pre-marital sexual experience. For indicators *a–b*, we compare two sets of estimates derived from the face-to-face interview: respondents' reports of their own experiences as well as third-party reporting of the experiences of their peers. For indicator *c*, we compare three sets of estimates: any pre-marital sex as reported in the face-to-face format; any pre-marital sex among peers as assessed through anonymous third-party reporting; and any pre-marital sex as reported in the face-to-face interview supplemented by reports of pre-marital sexual experience recorded in the anonymous format, using the sealed envelope.

Comparisons indicate differences in reporting level by sex of the respondent and type of behaviour under consideration. In terms of pre-marital romantic relationships, anonymous third-party reporting yielded higher rates than did face-to-face reporting for both young men and women (19% and 11%, respectively, among young men and 15% and 7%, respectively, among young women), irrespective of marital status or rural-urban residence. Differences in reporting through these two approaches were typically wider among the married than the unmarried and particularly wide among married and unmarried young men in urban settings (22% versus 8% among married young men; 22% and 13% among the unmarried).

As far as reporting of pre-marital sexual experience with a romantic partner is concerned, anonymous third-party reporting once again yielded higher rates than did face-to-face reporting, but differences were narrower (8% and 5%, respectively among young men; 3% and 1%, respectively, among young women). Similar patterns were observed among the married and unmarried as well as among those residing in rural and urban areas.

With regard to reporting of any pre-marital sexual experience, a different picture emerges. Among young women, anonymous third-party reporting of peer behaviours yielded rates that were slightly higher than those self-reported in response to questions posed face-to-face. This pattern was observed irrespective of marital status or rural-urban residence. In contrast, more young men reported pre-marital sex in the face-to-face interview than in the anonymous third-party reporting format (14% versus 9%) and the pattern varied by marital status and rural-urban residence. For example, while a similar pattern was observed among the married (17% versus 12%) and among rural young men (15% versus 9%), differences were muted among unmarried (7–8%), and urban (9%) young men.

At the same time, a comparison of any pre-marital sexual experience reported in face-to-face interviews and via the anonymous sealed envelope format suggests that several youth who had not admitted sexual experience in the face-to-face interview did so in the anonymous format: 2% of young men and 1% of young women. Indeed, 13% of young men and 50% of young women who reported pre-marital sex did so only in this more anonymous format (not shown in tabular form). It would appear, therefore, that self-reports of sexual experience, supplemented

Table 9.15: Levels of pre-marital romantic and sexual experiences by different reporting methods

Percentage of youth reporting pre-marital romantic relationships and percentage reporting sexual experiences within pre-marital romantic and other relationships by reporting method, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Reported a pre-marital opposite-sex romantic partner via:						
Face-to-face interview	11.0	6.7	7.5	5.0	12.6	9.5
Anonymous third-party reporting	19.0	14.7	17.9	13.9	19.6	15.7
Reported pre-marital sex with a romantic opposite-sex partner via:						
Face-to-face interview	4.7	1.0	4.0	1.0	5.2	1.2
Anonymous third-party reporting	7.9	2.8	9.6	3.1	7.4	2.5
Reported any pre-marital sexual experience via:						
Face-to-face interview	13.5	1.2	16.6	1.2	6.8	1.3
Anonymous third-party reporting	9.0	3.4	11.6	3.8	8.2	2.8
Face-to-face interview or anonymous reporting through sealed envelope	15.4	2.4	18.6	2.7	8.7	1.9
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Reported a pre-marital opposite-sex romantic partner via:						
Face-to-face interview	11.8	8.5	7.5	6.3	12.5	10.5
Anonymous third-party reporting	22.1	17.5	21.6	17.2	22.3	17.7
Reported pre-marital sex with a romantic opposite-sex partner via:						
Face-to-face interview	3.6	0.6	3.4	0.5	3.9	0.8
Anonymous third-party reporting	7.6	1.9	10.2	2.5	7.2	1.5
Reported any pre-marital sexual experience via:						
Face-to-face interview	8.7	0.6	11.8	0.5	5.5	0.8
Anonymous third-party reporting	8.8	2.4	12.2	3.0	8.2	1.8
Face-to-face interview or anonymous reporting through sealed envelope	11.2	1.7	14.7	1.9	8.3	1.3
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Reported a pre-marital opposite-sex romantic partner via:						
Face-to-face interview	10.7	6.0	7.5	4.8	12.7	8.9
Anonymous third-party reporting	17.9	13.7	17.0	13.3	18.5	14.6
Reported pre-marital sex with a romantic opposite-sex partner via:						
Face-to-face interview	5.1	1.2	4.1	1.1	5.7	1.4
Anonymous third-party reporting	7.9	3.2	9.4	3.2	7.4	3.0
Reported any pre-marital sexual experience via:						
Face-to-face interview	15.2	1.3	17.7	1.3	7.3	1.5
Anonymous third-party reporting	9.1	3.7	11.5	3.9	8.2	3.4
Face-to-face interview or anonymous reporting through sealed envelope	16.9	2.6	19.5	2.8	8.9	2.2
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Detailed information on friends' romantic and sexual experiences was collected for up to five of the respondent's closest same-sex friends.

by self-reported experience in an anonymous format, provide consistently higher estimates of pre-marital sex among young men than does anonymous third-party reporting of pre-marital sexual experience among peers: for example, while 9% of young men reported pre-marital sex among peers through anonymous third-party reporting, 15% acknowledged the experience through direct reporting, supplemented by reporting via the anonymous sealed envelope format. Among young women, however, the differences were mild—3% and 2%, respectively. Similar patterns were observed among the married and unmarried as well as among those residing in rural and urban areas.

9.6 Summary

Findings confirm that despite strict norms prohibiting pre-marital opposite-sex mixing, opportunities do exist for the formation of pre-marital romantic relationships. Indeed, significant minorities of young men and women had made or received a "proposal" for a romantic relationship (13–19%), and noteworthy, if smaller, percentages reported that they had been involved in a romantic partnership (11% and 7% of young men and women, respectively). Typically, the first romantic partner was a student or colleague, or a neighbour or friend (reported by 38–40% of young men and 20–46% of young women who reported a pre-marital romantic partner). Patterns of pre-marital romantic partnerships suggest that where partnerships occurred, they were initiated at an early age and were usually hidden from parents but not from peers. Relatively few youth who engaged in a pre-marital romantic partnership had expectations of a longer-term commitment; however, young women were considerably more likely than young men to have expected a romantic relationship to lead to marriage (58% and 28%, respectively).The experiences of the married suggest, moreover, a disconnect between intentions and reality: while 29% and 65% of married young men and women, respectively, who reported a pre-marital romantic partner, had intended to marry their pre-marital partner, just 4% and 8% , respectively, had done so.

There was a clear progression in reported physical intimacy and sexual experience with romantic partners: while 89% of young men had held hands with a romantic partner, just 45% had experienced sex with their partner; among young women, while three-quarters had held hands with a romantic partner, just one in five (19%) had engaged in sexual relations. Gender differences in reporting pre-marital sex with a romantic partner were indeed wide. Partner communication and negotiation regarding safe sex were rare, and the vast majority of youth had engaged in unprotected sex. Almost one in eight young women who had experienced sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner reported that their partner had forced them to have sex the first time.

In total, 15% of young men and 2% of young women reported the experience of pre-marital sex within romantic and/or other partnerships. Roughly similar proportions of young men and women—3% and 2%, respectively—had initiated first sex before age 18; however, youth in rural areas tended to initiate pre-marital sexual activity earlier than their urban counterparts. Moreover, initiation of pre-marital sexual activity increased as young people transitioned from early into late adolescence, and further into young adulthood.

While sex with a romantic partner characterised pre-marital experiences for many of the sexually experienced, findings suggest that young men, but not young women, also engaged in sex in other contexts; other partners reported by young men included, mainly, married women, but also sex workers, and casual partners. Many of the pre-marital sexual experiences reported by youth were risky, for example, 14% of young men and 28% of young women reporting pre-marital sex had experienced sex with more than one partner. Moreover, consistent condom use was limited—only 6% of young men and 4% of young women reported condom use in all pre-marital encounters.

We acknowledge that youth, especially young women, may not report their sexual experience in a survey situation. Hence, the Youth Study supplemented a series of direct questions with an opportunity to report sexual experience in an anonymous format. In total, among young men, direct questioning supplemented by self-reporting in an anonymous format provided considerably higher estimates of sexual experience than did face-to-face questioning alone or anonymous third-party reporting of peer behaviours. Among young women, however, both methods yielded somewhat similar estimates of pre-marital sexual experiences.

Chapter 10

Transition to marriage and early married life

As is well known, the transition to marriage occurs early in India, both for young men and young women. The recent NFHS (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a) shows, for example, that 47% of young women aged 20–24 had married before the age of 18, the minimum legal age at marriage for females; 32% of young men aged 25–29 had, likewise, married before they reached the age of 21, the legal minimum age at marriage for males. While marriage occurs early, marriage-related planning occurs even earlier, often as soon as a girl reaches menarche and, in many cases, even before she does so and without her participation. Moreover, while the consummation of marriage generally occurs following menarche, early married life tends to be isolating and frightening for many adolescent girls and young women. This chapter captures some of these experiences, including young people's preferences regarding the timing and type of marriage, marriage preparation and planning, and their participation in these processes, as well as their experiences in early married life, including fertility and contraceptive behaviour.

10.1 Young people's preferences regarding timing and type of marriage

The Youth Study sought to assess young people's preferences about the age at which to marry and, among the unmarried, their preferences for love or arranged marriages. It is possible, of course, that youth who were married in adolescence might have reported the age at which they married as the preferred age. Findings, presented in Table 10.1, show quite different preferences among young men and women. Most young men preferred to marry after age 18. In contrast, among young women, a large proportion—almost two in five (39%)—expressed a preference for marriage at age 18 or below. Moreover, substantial proportions of young women (45%) and just 4% of young men preferred to marry before age 20, that is, while still adolescent. A fairly large proportion of young men (27%) preferred to marry at age 25 or later, a preference articulated by 11% of young women as well.

Differentials by marital status and rural-urban residence of respondents were notable. Married women were considerably more likely than the unmarried to prefer marriage before age 18 (47% and 26%, respectively). Indeed, well over half of the married (53%), compared to one-third (32%) of the unmarried expressed a preference for marriage in adolescence (before age 20); differences were negligible among young men (6% and 2%, respectively). Conversely, more unmarried than married youth preferred to marry at age 25 or later (30% of the unmarried versus 24% of the married among young men, and 13% versus 9% among young women, respectively). A larger proportion of rural than urban young women expressed a preference to marry before age 20—51% of young women in rural areas compared to 27% in urban areas; differences were muted among young men (5% and 1%, respectively). Conversely, a smaller proportion of rural than urban youth expressed a preference to marry late; for example, 21% of rural young men compared to 41% of urban young men preferred to marry at age 25 or later, as did 9% and 15%, respectively, of young women.

Findings also show that the vast majority of unmarried youth preferred to have an arranged rather than a love marriage. For example, just 1% of young men and 4% of young women reported that they would prefer to have a love marriage. Rural-urban differences were muted.

Table 10.1: Preferences regarding timing and type of marriage

Percent distribution of youth reporting preferences regarding timing of marriage and percentage preferring a love marriage, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Preferred to marry at age:						
17 or below	0.6	10.3	1.2	14.6	0.2	3.2
18	2.0	28.4	4.0	32.2	1.0	22.7
19	0.9	6.1	1.1	6.2	0.6	6.3
20	14.3	22.7	17.6	23.0	11.2	22.5
21	18.6	6.6	14.9	4.5	17.6	10.1
22	18.4	6.4	19.3	4.8	18.5	8.8
23	5.9	2.9	5.6	1.1	6.5	5.6
24	12.6	2.8	11.9	1.2	13.9	5.1
25 or above	26.5	10.7	24.2	9.1	30.1	12.9
Preferred not to marry	0.2	3.1	0.2	3.2	0.4	2.8
Preferred a love marriage[1]	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.3	3.7
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Preferred to marry at age:						
17 or below	0.3	3.0	0.6	5.4	0.0	0.8
18	0.4	19.6	1.2	28.5	0.2	11.6
19	0.1	4.6	0.6	6.1	0.0	3.4
20	7.2	21.4	9.2	25.0	5.8	18.2
21	12.0	9.9	11.8	8.4	9.8	11.2
22	15.7	10.4	17.3	8.2	14.4	12.4
23	8.0	6.4	6.9	3.0	8.3	9.4
24	14.9	6.6	13.6	3.3	15.8	9.6
25 or above	41.1	15.1	38.7	9.1	45.4	20.4
Preferred not to marry	0.3	3.1	0.0	3.0	0.5	3.1
Preferred a love marriage[1]	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.4	4.2
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Preferred to marry at age:						
17 or below	0.8	12.9	1.3	16.5	0.3	4.4
18	2.6	31.6	4.6	32.9	1.5	28.3
19	1.1	6.7	1.2	6.2	0.8	7.7
20	16.7	23.2	19.5	22.6	13.6	24.7
21	21.0	5.4	15.6	3.7	20.9	9.5
22	19.4	5.0	19.7	4.1	20.3	7.0
23	5.2	1.6	5.3	0.7	5.8	3.7
24	11.8	1.4	11.6	0.8	13.1	2.9
25 or above	21.4	9.1	20.9	9.2	23.4	9.1
Preferred not to marry	0.2	3.1	0.3	3.3	0.3	2.7
Preferred a love marriage[1]	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.2	3.4
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. NA: Not applicable. [1]Excludes those who reported a preference not to marry.

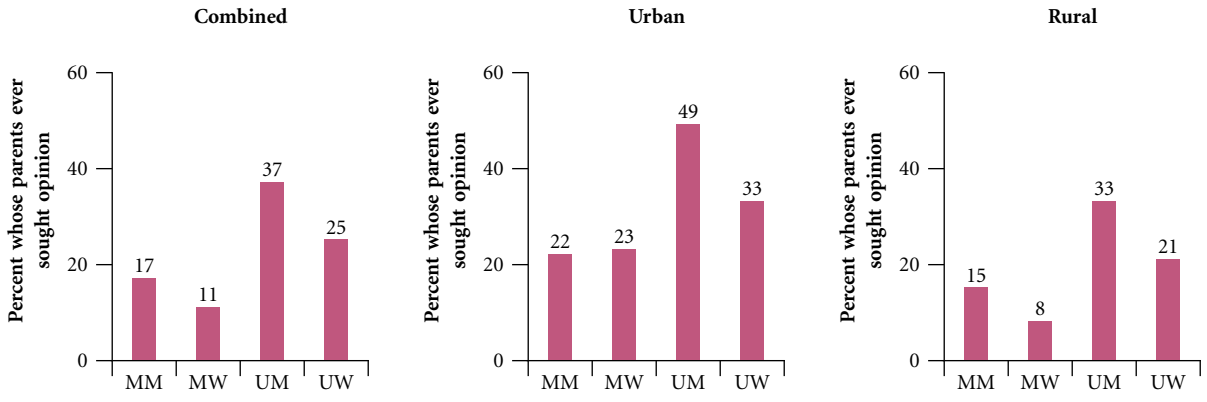
10.2 Marriage planning and extent of youth involvement

Several questions were put to both married and unmarried youth to understand the process of marriage planning as well as their involvement in it. While most questions were similar for the married and the unmarried, some were unique to one or the other group. For example, the Youth Study asked unmarried respondents whether their parents or family members had begun discussing plans for their marriage; and asked all married youth, and those unmarried youth for whom discussion had been initiated, about their age at that time and whether their parents had sought their opinion about the age at which they wished to marry.

Findings presented in Table 10.2 indicate that marriage-related discussions were initiated at young ages not only for young women but also for considerable proportions of young men. At the same time, findings reiterate vast gender differences in the age of young people when such discussions were initiated. Among those whose parents had ever initiated marriage-related discussions (almost all married youth, and 13% and 31% of unmarried young men and women, respectively), findings indicate that 43% of young women and 20% of young men reported that marriage-related discussions were initiated as early as 15 years or below. Marital status differences were insignificant for young men, but discussions were initiated earlier for married young women compared to the unmarried. For example, for 45% of married young women, compared to 34% of the unmarried, discussions were initiated at age 15 or earlier. Likewise, marriage-related discussions were initiated earlier for rural than urban youth. Discussions were initiated at age 15 or earlier among 23% compared to 11% of young men, in rural and urban areas, respectively; corresponding percentages among young women were 47% and 28%, respectively.

Among those whose parents had initiated marriage-related discussions, young people were rarely consulted on the timing of marriage. Although young men were more likely than young women to be consulted, gender differences were relatively narrow: 19% of young men compared to 13% of young women were consulted about the timing of their marriage. Wide disparities by marital status and rural-urban residence were observed (see Figure 10.1). For example, irrespective of sex of respondents, a much smaller proportion of married than unmarried youth were consulted about when they wished to marry (17% and 37%, respectively, among young men; and 11% and 25%, respectively, among young women), a finding that may be attributed to the relatively traditional family background of young people who were married early than those who were unmarried. Rural-urban differences suggest that the opinions of a somewhat larger proportion of youth in urban compared to rural areas were sought on the timing of marriage (29% versus 17% among young men; 25% versus 10% among young women).

Figure 10.1: Percentage of youth reporting that their parents had ever sought their opinion on timing of marriage, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Note: Includes respondents whose parents had initiated marriage-related discussion.

Table 10.2: Initiation of discussion on marriage and extent of youth involvement

Percent distribution of youth by age at initiation of marriage-related discussion, percentage whose opinion had been sought on timing of marriage and percentage who would find it difficult to tell parents if they did not like the match chosen, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Marriage discussion (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Parents ever initiated discussion on marriage	41.3	73.1	97.1	96.6	12.9	31.1
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3384**
Discussion on marriage initiated at age (years)						
13 or below	9.0	16.2	6.8	18.1	4.7	7.4
14–15	11.4	26.5	9.2	26.8	10.6	26.7
16–17	17.3	24.5	14.6	23.0	19.0	31.9
18 or above	46.3	16.8	53.2	13.3	60.9	31.7
Don't know	15.7	14.5	16.1	16.9	4.7	2.3
Parents ever sought respondent's opinion about when to get married	19.1	13.2	16.6	10.7	37.2	24.6
Number whose parents had initiated discussion on marriage	**1,088**	**3,539**	**1,836**	**2,501**	**264**	**1,038**
Would find/have found it difficult to tell parents if respondent did not like the match chosen	NA	62.1	NA	68.6	66.9	51.9
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3384**
Urban						
Parents ever initiated discussion on marriage	29.6	59.9	97.7	95.6	11.7	28.0
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Discussion on marriage initiated at age (years)						
13 or below	3.1	9.1	2.1	11.3	1.4	2.8
14–15	7.9	18.7	5.9	18.6	4.1	18.8
16–17	13.5	29.3	10.3	29.4	12.2	28.8
18 or above	65.9	35.0	70.1	30.9	79.7	47.6
Don't know	9.2	7.7	11.4	9.6	2.7	1.9
Parents ever sought respondent's opinion about when to get married	28.5	25.0	22.3	22.6	49.3	32.5
Number whose parents had initiated discussion on marriage	**347**	**1391**	**617**	**989**	**112**	**402**
Would find/have found it difficult to tell parents if respondent did not like the match chosen	NA	49.1	NA	60.0	61.8	39.3
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Parents ever initiated discussion on marriage	45.3	77.8	97.0	96.8	13.4	32.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Discussion on marriage initiated at age (years)						
13 or below	10.4	18.2	8.0	19.4	6.0	9.4
14–15	12.1	28.6	10.0	28.4	13.4	30.2
16–17	18.2	23.2	15.5	21.8	21.4	33.3
18 or above	41.9	11.8	49.2	9.9	53.7	24.8
Don't know	17.2	16.3	17.1	18.3	5.5	2.3
Parents ever sought respondent's opinion about when to get married	17.0	10.0	15.3	8.4	33.0	21.1
Number whose parents had initiated discussion on marriage	**741**	**2,148**	**1,219**	**1,512**	**152**	**636**
Would find/have found it difficult to tell parents if respondent did not like the match chosen	NA	66.7	NA	70.3	69.1	58.3
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases. NA: Not applicable.

The Youth Study also sought to assess the extent to which youth (other than married young men) perceived they could express or, among the married, could have expressed to their parents their preference not to marry the prospective spouse selected for them. Large proportions of youth perceived that it would be difficult to oppose their parents if they did not approve of the match chosen for them. Gender differences were narrow—however, somewhat more unmarried young men (67%) than young women in general (62%) reported difficulty in confronting their parents if they did not like the match chosen for them. Among young women, marital status differences were wide, with unmarried young women considerably less likely than their married counterparts to perceive difficulty in opposing their parents (52% and 69%, respectively). This difference may reflect the tendency for the married to report actual experiences and for many unmarried, whose families had not yet initiated discussion, to report perceptions. At the same time, it may reflect the likelihood that women who were married at younger ages may have come from more traditional backgrounds or suggest a trend towards greater self-determination among the unmarried than the married. Finally, and perhaps for reasons pertaining to the traditional nature of family life in rural areas, rural youth were more likely than their urban counterparts to report difficulty in confronting their parents on marriage-related issues (69% compared to 62% of unmarried young men; 67% compared to 49% of young women). In short, these findings confirm that large proportions of youth did not perceive that they would play a role in decision-making with regard to their own marriage.

10.3 Age at marriage and cohabitation

Youth Study findings underscore the early age at marriage among young women in Rajasthan (Table 10.3). Of those aged 20–24, as many as one in four (24%) young women was married before age 15, three in five (60%) before age 18 and four in five (80%) before age 20. In rural areas, as many as 69% and 88% of women aged 20–24 years were married before age 18 and 20, respectively; the corresponding percentages in urban areas were considerably lower—36% and 57%, respectively. Findings from the NFHS-3 also indicate that as many as 65% of 20–24 year-old women in Rajasthan were married before age 18 (IIPS and Macro International, 2008). Youth Study findings, moreover, suggest that even though there were indications of a decline in very early marriage (before age 15) among young women, sizeable numbers continued to marry before age 15: 24% of those aged 20–24, compared to 16% of those aged 15–19, were married before age 15.

Even though early marriage was less prevalent among young men, almost one in five (18%) young men aged 20–24 years was married before age 18 and one in three (36%) before age 20. In rural areas, these proportions were 22% and 43%, respectively.

The overwhelming majority of youth (99%) had been married just once (not shown in tabular form). The mean age at marriage among those who were married was 19.0 years among young men and 15.7 years among young women. As expected, rural youth married earlier than urban youth; the mean age at marriage among rural youth was 1.5–2 years earlier than that of urban youth (18.6 years versus 20.7 years, respectively, for young men and 15.4 years versus 17.1 years for young women). The mean age at cohabitation was 1.5 years greater than the mean age at marriage, highlighting the quite widespread practice of *gauna* in Rajasthan.

Indeed, almost one in ten married young men and women had not yet begun to cohabit (that is, the *gauna* ceremony had not been performed by the time of interview). Compared to youth who had already cohabited, those who had not yet cohabited tended to be much younger, less likely to belong to economically better-off households (i.e. households in 4–5th wealth quintiles) and more likely to be from rural areas (not shown in tabular form).

10.4 Marriage preparedness

Several questions were put to both married and unmarried youth who were engaged to be married to understand their preparedness for marriage. Questions ranged from whether the proposed spouse was chosen by the young person or by his/her parents; whether the young person's approval of the prospective spouse was sought, if chosen by the parents; and how much contact the young person and the prospective spouse had prior to marriage. About 3% and 15% of unmarried young men and women, respectively, reported that they were engaged to be married (not shown in tabular form).

Table 10.3: Age at marriage and cohabitation

Percentage of youth aged 15-24 who were married before selected ages, percentage never married and mean age at marriage and cohabitation among those married, according to current age and residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Current age (years) (%)	Percentage first married before age (years):			Percentage never married	Among those married:		Number of respondents
	15	18	20		Mean age at marriage (years)	Mean age at cohabitation (years)	
Combined							
Men							
15–19	5.7	NA	NA	86.6	14.8	16.6	1,675
20–24	5.2	17.8	35.5	40.5	18.5	19.8	1,299
15–24	5.4	NA	NA	66.4	19.0[1]	20.5[1]	2,974
Women							
15–19	16.4	NA	NA	61.6	14.7	16.3	3,549
20–24	23.6	59.9	80.0	10.7	16.1	17.3	2,438
15–24	20.1	NA	NA	35.7	15.7	17.1	5,987
Urban							
Men							
15–19	1.3	NA	NA	95.7	(15.1)	*	634
20–24	2.6	6.9	17.7	62.0	19.4	20.3	593
15–24	1.9	NA	NA	79.2	20.7[1]	21.6[1]	1,227
Women							
15–19	7.5	NA	NA	80.6	15.2	16.8	1,289
20–24	10.0	35.8	56.9	25.8	17.5	18.3	1,185
15–24	8.8	NA	NA	52.6	17.1	18.1	2,474
Rural							
Men							
15–19	7.0	NA	NA	83.9	14.8	16.6	1,041
20–24	6.2	22.2	42.7	31.8	18.3	19.7	706
15–24	6.7	NA	NA	62.0	18.6[1]	20.2[1]	1,747
Women							
15–19	19.6	NA	NA	54.8	14.7	16.2	2,260
20–24	28.5	68.5	88.3	5.3	15.8	17.1	1,253
15–24	24.1	NA	NA	29.6	15.4	16.8	3,513

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Mean not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable due to censoring. [1]Includes married men aged 25–29 years.*

Table 10.4 describes marriage-related preparedness among the married. Almost all respondents (99.5%), whether male or female, had married a partner chosen by their parents. While 77% of young men reported that their parents had sought their approval while selecting their marriage partner, only 52% of young women so reported. In fact, as many as one-fifth of young men (22%) and almost half of young women (47%) reported that their parents had not sought their approval at all. Urban youth were more likely than rural youth to report that their parents had sought their approval while determining their marriage partner, and conversely, rural youth were more likely than urban youth to report that parents had not sought their approval at all. Just 0.5% of young men and young women reported having chosen their marriage partner on their own and rural-urban differences were negligible. A similar pattern of spouse selection was evident among unmarried youth who were engaged to be married; both

young women and men reported that their spouse-to-be was chosen by their parents. Unmarried youth, however, were somewhat less likely than currently married youth to report that their parents had sought their approval while determining their marriage partner; almost three-fifths of young men (57% compared to 77% of the married) and about half of young women (45% compared to 52% of the married) who were engaged so reported (not shown in tabular form).

Table 10.4: Marriage preparedness

Percent distribution of married youth by type of marriage and selected indicators of their preparedness for marriage, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Marriage indicators (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Type of marriage						
Marriage fixed by respondent himself/herself (love marriage)	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.4	0.4	0.4
Marriage arranged by parents, with respondent's approval of choice of spouse	77.3	52.3	84.2	62.5	75.7	50.3
Marriage fixed by parents without respondent's approval	22.3	47.2	14.9	36.1	23.9	49.4
Ever had a chance to meet/talk with fiancé/fiancée alone	10.3	10.6	19.2	22.5	8.3	8.4
Acquaintance with spouse before marrige						
Met on wedding day	86.0	85.6	71.6	77.1	89.3	87.1
Knew somewhat before wedding day	11.7	11.0	25.9	16.6	8.5	9.9
Knew well before wedding day	2.2	3.0	2.6	6.3	2.1	2.4
Feelings about getting married*						
Excited/looked forward to it	60.9	18.6	71.6	23.1	58.6	17.7
Nothing special	30.9	22.7	24.4	23.4	32.4	22.6
Very scared	3.6	38.0	1.7	36.4	3.9	38.3
Anxious	3.0	10.5	1.1	9.8	3.4	10.6
Unhappy	0.7	1.7	0.3	2.3	0.8	1.5
Number of respondents	**1,886**	**2,603**	**631**	**1,038**	**1,255**	**1,565**
Did not know what to expect of married life	74.4	67.2	75.5	72.3	74.1	66.2
Agree that youth do not get accurate information about married life before marriage	74.6	65.8	76.5	72.8	74.0	64.4
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. *Analysis includes 204 married young women and 15 married young men who reported they were very young at the time of marriage and could not recall their feeling about getting married at the time of marriage, not shown seperately.*

Reported pre-marital acquaintance was limited, and highlights that even those who reported that they had approved their parents' choice of spouse had rarely had an opportunity to meet their prospective spouse prior to marriage. Indeed, just one in ten married youth reported that they had ever had a chance to meet and interact with their spouse-to-be alone prior to marriage. Rural-urban differences suggest that somewhat more urban than rural youth had met or talked with their fiancé/fiancée alone before marriage (19–23% versus 8%). Unmarried youth who were engaged to be married were more likely than married youth to have had opportunities to get to know their spouse-to-be; for example, 19% and 23% of young men and women who were engaged, respectively, reported that they had ever had a chance to meet and interact with their spouse-to-be alone, a finding that may be attributed to higher levels of educational attainment among the former (not shown in tabular form).

More than four in five married youth reported that they had met their spouse for the first time on the wedding day (86% of both young men and women). One in ten young men and women (11–12%) reported that they knew their spouse only a little before marriage (see Figure 10.2) and just 2–3% that they knew their spouse well prior to marriage. Moreover, urban youth were no more likely than their rural counterparts to report that they were well-acquainted with their spouse prior to the wedding day (3–6% versus 2%), however they were considerably more likely to report that they knew their spouse somewhat prior to marriage (26% and 17% of young men and women in urban areas compared to 9% and 10%, respectively, in rural areas). In short, findings underscore the extent to which youth, especially young women, were excluded from marriage-related decision-making and the extent to which youth were married to relative strangers.

Figure 10.2: Percent distribution of married youth by degree of acquaintance with future spouse before marriage, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Note: Percentages may not equal 100.0 because of rounding.

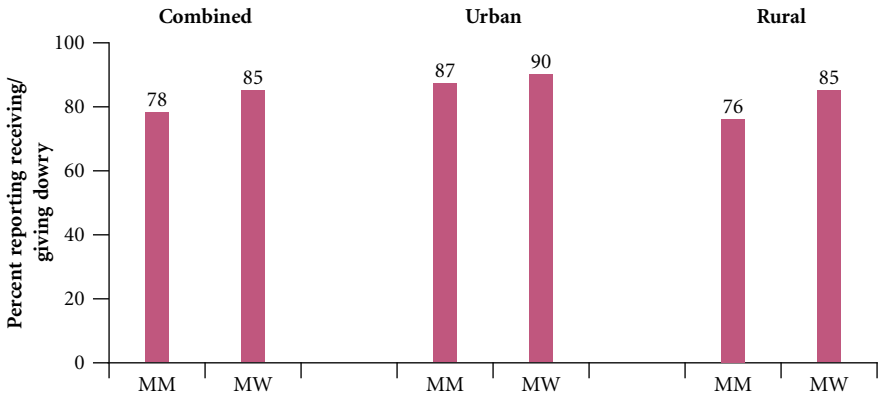
Compounding this lack of pre-marital acquaintance, large proportions of youth (74% of young men and 67% of young women) who had begun cohabiting with their spouses reported they were unaware at the time of their marriage of what to expect of married life. Rural-urban differences were negligible among men but among women, somewhat more urban than rural women reported such lack of awareness (72% versus 66%). Similar proportions—75% of young men and 66% of young women—reported that young people in general were poorly informed about married life prior to marriage, highlighting the need for family life or sex education and pre-marital counselling for young people. Again, more urban than rural young women so reported (73% versus 64%); the differences among young men were muted.

Commensurate with low levels of marriage preparedness, not all youth reported that they had looked forward to or had been excited about their marriage. Gender differences were pronounced: while 61% of young men said that they had been excited about their marriage, only 19% of young women so reported. Rural-urban differences were apparent: considerably more urban young men and somewhat more urban young women compared to their rural counterparts reported that they had been excited about their marriage. Large proportions of young women—as many as 38%—reported that they had been very scared about getting married, compared to just 4% of young men, levels that were observed in both rural and urban areas.

10.5 Payment of dowry

Despite the existence of laws against dowry, Figure 10.3 shows that 78% of young men reported receiving dowry and 85% of young women reported giving it. Rural-urban differences suggest that urban youth were somewhat more likely to report giving or taking dowry than were their rural counterparts (87–90% and 76–85%, respectively), highlighting that the practice of dowry remained as strong or even stronger among families of urban youth as among those of their rural counterparts.

Figure 10.3: Percentage of married youth who reported receiving or giving dowry, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



10.6 Early marital experiences: Spousal communication and interaction

Table 10.5 describes the extent of communication and interaction among young couples and confirms that communication even on everyday matters was far from universal (see also Figure 10.4). Between 82 and 89% of youth reported regularly discussing how to spend money and in-law issues with their spouse. On both these matters, differences in reported communication by sex of the respondent were negligible. Rural-urban differences were relatively narrow, although slightly more urban than rural youth regularly discussed these issues with their spouse.

Likewise, 76–82% of youth reported that they had communicated with their spouse on when and/or whether to have children or how many children to have. Gender differences were negligible, but, urban youth were more likely than rural youth to have communicated on these matters (85–87% versus 74–80%). In contrast, discussion was more limited on the topic of contraception and notably, fewer young men (42%) than women (57%) reported that they had ever discussed contraception with their spouse. Here again, rural-urban differences were evident; 56% of urban young men compared to 39% of rural young men reported such communication; corresponding percentages among young women were 64% and 55%, respectively. Gender differences, however, were narrower among urban than among rural youth, probably a consequence of their better contraceptive awareness (Chapter 8) and the greater likelihood of spousal interaction on birth timing and family size as observed above.

Spousal interaction was measured by questions regarding whether, in the six months preceding the interview, respondents had gone with their spouse to a movie, been on an outing or gone to their own (for young women) or wife's (for young men) natal home. These types of interaction were clearly far from universally reported. While most youth had visited their own/wife's natal home together with the spouse, even this was not universal: indeed, 13% of young men and 24% of young women reported that they had not visited their (for young women)/their wife's (for young men) natal place in the six months prior to the interview; rural-urban differentials were narrow.

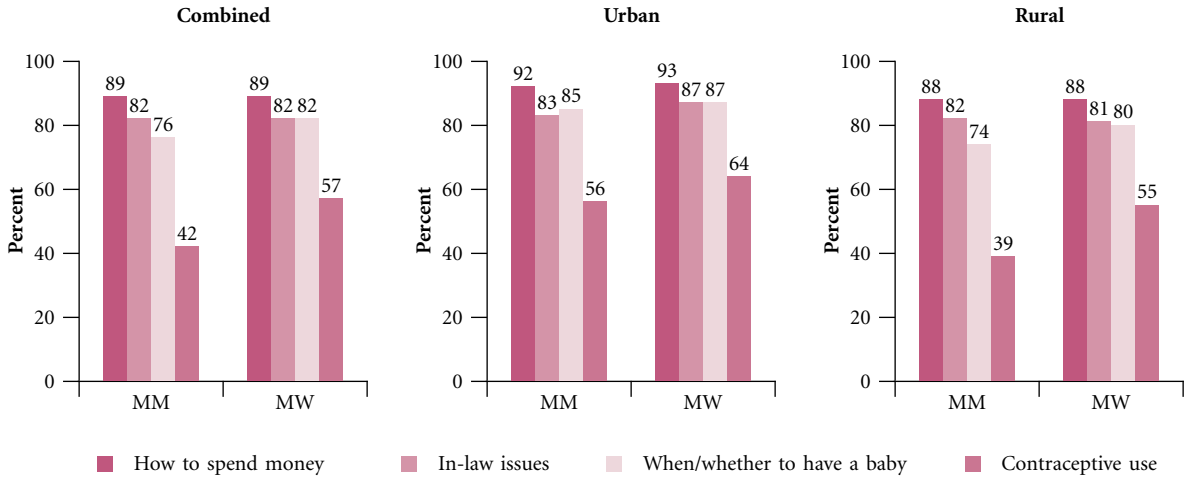
Table 10.5: Early marital experiences

Percentage of married youth by selected characteristics of the marital relationship, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Characteristics (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Usually communicates with spouse on:						
How to spend money	88.6	88.5	91.7	92.8	87.8	87.7
In-law issues	82.3	81.6	83.2	87.0	82.0	80.5
Ever communicated with spouse on:						
When/whether to have a baby	76.2	81.5	85.3	87.0	74.0	80.3
Number of children to have	78.7	80.0	86.2	86.0	76.9	78.8
Contraceptive use	42.0	56.6	56.0	64.1	38.7	55.0
Went with spouse to the following in last 6 months:						
Theatre/video parlour	10.7	9.0	32.1	18.8	5.5	7.0
Festival/*yatra*/*tamasha*/play/tour/picnic/restaurant	36.2	24.0	53.2	35.3	32.1	21.8
Woman's/wife's natal home	86.6	75.8	87.8	81.3	86.3	74.7
Assessment of married life						
Very happy	68.3	49.7	80.2	56.0	65.4	48.4
Reasonably happy	30.5	46.8	19.2	40.3	33.2	48.1
Unhappy	0.7	2.3	0.6	2.3	0.7	2.3
Very unhappy	0.5	0.9	0.0	1.5	0.7	0.8
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

Figure 10.4: Percentage of married youth who reported spousal communication on selected topics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



Other types of interaction were far more limited and gender differences were evident. For example, 36% of young men reported that they had been together with their wife on an outing (festival, picnic, etc.) compared to 24% of young women who reported that they had done so with their husband; these differences were evident among those in rural and urban settings as well. Even fewer—11% and 9% of young men and women, respectively—had visited places of entertainment; gender differences were mild for the overall and rural samples, but wide among urban youth (32% and 19%, respectively). Both types of interaction were, moreover, considerably more likely to be reported by urban than rural youth.

Youth were also asked to assess their relative contentment with married life. Almost all youth reported that they were very or reasonably happy (68% and 50%, respectively reported they were very happy and 31% and 47%, respectively, that they were reasonably happy).

10.7 Nature of marital sexual experiences

In several previous studies, significant minorities of young women reported the experience of forced sex within marriage, including at initiation (see, for example, Santhya and Jejeebhoy, 2006; Santhya et al., 2007). The Youth Study explored the extent to which early marital sexual experiences were enjoyable or forced. Findings, presented in Table 10.6, suggest that while virtually all young men reported enjoying their first marital sexual experience, far fewer young women so reported: 99% compared to 65%, with little rural-urban variation. A comparison of responses to questions regarding whether the spouse had enjoyed the first sexual experience suggests that a similar proportion of young men and women reported that their wife (men) or they (women) had had enjoyed the first sexual experience (67% and 65%, respectively). As far as men's experiences were concerned, there was a disconnect, with just 63% of young women perceiving that their husband had enjoyed the experience (far less than that reported by men themselves; 99%).

For many young women, the first marital sexual experience was painful or non-consensual; many fewer young men, however, perceived that the first experience was painful or non-consensual for their wife. For example, while over four-fifths of young women (86%) reported that the experience had been painful, just under half (47%) of young men reported that the experience had been painful for their wife.

Table 10.6: Sexual experiences within marriage

Percentage of married youth by nature of first and lifetime sexual experiences with spouse, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Experiences (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Nature of first sexual experience with spouse						
Respondent enjoyed it	98.6	64.5	99.1	67.3	98.6	64.0
Spouse enjoyed it	67.3	62.5	60.6	65.3	68.9	62.0
Wife cried	27.8	67.2	23.8	64.3	28.8	67.8
Painful for wife	47.0	85.7	43.3	84.3	47.8	86.0
Wife unwilling and husband forced her	13.5	32.8	9.5	29.3	14.5	33.5
Husband ever forced wife to have sex	17.2	39.8	11.6	34.2	18.5	41.0
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**
Husband forced wife to have sex in last 12 months	6.6	27.6	5.8	22.3	6.7	28.6
Number who had cohabited for at least 12 months	**1,533**	**2,181**	**533**	**879**	**1,000**	**1,302**

Note: All Ns are unweighted.

Forced sex at initiation was reported by one-third of young women (33%); those in rural areas were somewhat more likely than their urban counterparts to so report (34% and 29%, respectively). In contrast, only 14% of young men reported that they had forced their wife to have sex the first time, with somewhat more rural than urban young men reporting so (15% versus 10%). Over the course of their marital lives, somewhat more young people acknowledged the experience (young women) or perpetration (young men) of forced sex within marriage: 40% of young women and 17% of young men, respectively. Rural young men were more likely than urban young men to report having perpetrated forced sex within marriage (19% versus 12%). Correspondingly, rural young women were more likely than urban young women to report having experienced forced sex within marriage (41% and 34%, respectively). Recent experience/perpetration of such an incident, that is, in the 12 months preceding the interview, was reported by 7% of young men and 28% of young women who had cohabited for at least one year; More rural than urban young women so reported (29% versus 22%).

10.8 Experience of domestic violence within marriage

The Youth Study explored the extent of domestic violence or verbal abuse perpetrated by young men on their wife and in less detail, by women on their husband. Table 10.7 shows that 3% or fewer young people reported that they (women)/their wife (men) had either verbally humiliated their husband/him in the presence of others or perpetrated violence on him in any way. No differences were observed by respondents' sex or place of residence.

Small proportions of young men were reported to have verbally humiliated their wife in the presence of others (reported by 1% and 5% of young men and women, respectively). In contrast, considerably larger proportions reported the experience (women) or perpetration (men) of some form of physical violence. In total, 14% of young men reported that they had ever perpetrated violence against their wife, compared to 18% of young women who reported having experienced violence perpetrated by their husband. Rural-urban differences were muted among young men, but somewhat more rural than urban young women reported the experience of violence (20% versus 12%) (see also Figure 10.5).

Of all forms of physical violence, slapping was most commonly reported, perpetrated or experienced by almost all those who had perpetrated or experienced any form of violence reported above (13% and 18% of young men and women, respectively). Twisting the wife's arm or pulling her hair was also reported (3–7%). Just one percent of young men and 4–5% of young women also reported that they had been pushed, shaken or had something thrown at them, punched, kicked, dragged or beaten. Other forms of violence were rarely reported (0.1–0.5%). Also notable is the finding that 5% of young men reported perpetrating more than one form of violence on their wife and 9% of young women reported experiencing more than one form of violence perpetrated by their husband.

Figure 10.5: Percentage of married young women reporting experience of physical violence perpetrated by their husband and percentage of married young men reporting perpetration of physical violence against their wife, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

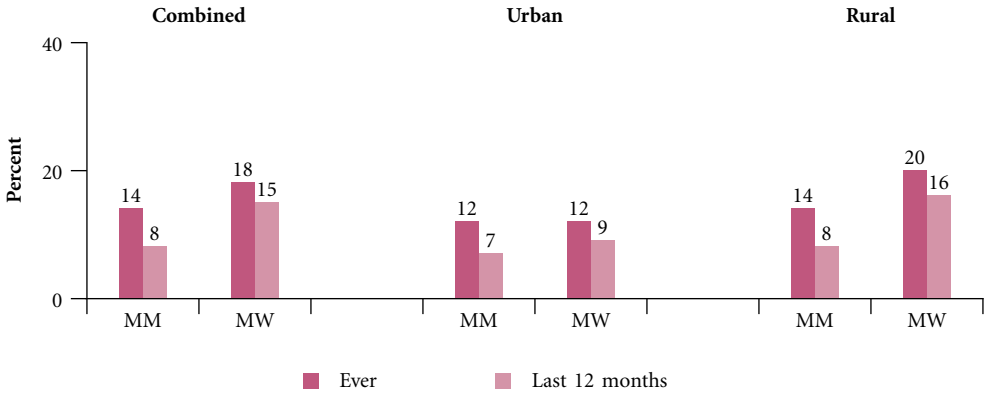


Table 10.7: Domestic violence within marriage

Percentage of married youth reporting experience of verbal abuse or physical violence within marriage by type of violence, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Types of violence (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
A. Verbal abuse or physical violence perpetrated by wife						
Wife verbally abused husband in the presence of others	0.5	3.0	0.6	3.0	0.4	3.0
Wife ever perpetrated any physical violence on husband	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.4
Wife perpetrated any physical violence on husband in last 12 months	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**
B. Verbal abuse or physical violence perpetrated by husband						
Husband verbally abused wife in the presence of others	0.7	5.3	0.6	4.5	0.7	5.5
Physical violence ever perpetrated by husband						
Slapped wife	13.1	18.3	11.6	11.7	13.5	19.6
Twisted wife's arm or pulled her hair	3.2	7.2	1.8	4.0	3.6	7.9
Pushed/shook or threw something at wife	0.9	5.2	0.6	3.2	1.0	5.6
Punched wife	1.0	3.8	0.6	2.5	1.1	4.1
Kicked, dragged or beat wife	1.1	3.6	0.0	2.0	1.4	3.9
Choked or burnt wife on purpose	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.5
Threatened or attacked wife with knife/gun	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3
Perpetrated/experienced at least one of the above forms of violence	13.5	18.4	11.6	11.8	13.9	19.7
Perpetrated/experienced more than one of the above forms of violence	4.4	8.9	2.1	5.5	5.0	9.6
Experience of violence perpetrated by husband in last 12 months						
Slapped wife						
Never	92.4	85.9	92.7	91.5	92.2	84.8
Sometimes	7.3	11.9	7.0	7.7	7.4	12.8
Often	0.1	1.9	0.0	0.7	0.1	2.1
Twisted wife's arm or pulled her hair						
Never	98.3	93.7	99.1	96.5	98.2	93.2
Sometimes	1.5	5.1	0.9	3.0	1.7	5.5
Often	0.1	1.1	0.0	0.5	0.1	1.2
Pushed/shook or threw something at wife						
Never	99.7	95.4	99.4	97.5	99.8	95.0
Sometimes	0.2	3.5	0.3	2.0	0.2	3.8
Often	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	1.1
Punched wife						
Never	99.5	96.6	99.4	98.0	99.5	96.3
Sometimes	0.5	2.5	0.6	1.7	0.4	2.7
Often	0.1	0.8	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.9

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Table 10.7: (Cont'd)

Types of violence (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
B. Verbal abuse or physical violence perpetrated by husband						
Kicked, dragged or beat wife						
Never	99.6	96.9	100.0	98.5	99.6	96.5
Sometimes	0.4	2.0	0.0	1.0	0.4	2.2
Often	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.5	0.0	1.0
Choked or burnt wife on purpose						
Never	100.0	99.4	100.0	99.5	100.0	99.3
Sometimes	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.3
Often	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2
Threatened or attacked wife with knife/gun						
Never	99.9	99.6	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.6
Sometimes	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Often	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Perpetrated/experienced at least one of the above forms of violence in last 12 months	8.0	14.7	7.3	8.8	8.1	15.9
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**
Experienced violence in first 12 months of marriage	5.9	7.4	6.5	5.0	5.8	7.9
Number who had cohabited for at least 12 months	**1,533**	**2,181**	**533**	**879**	**1,000**	**1,302**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

Perpetration or experience of any form of physical violence within marriage in the 12 months preceding the interview was reported by 8% and 15% of young men and women, respectively. As earlier, during the 12–month period too, slapping was most commonly reported; 7% of young men reported slapping their wife and 14% of young women reported being slapped by their husband.

Findings on the duration between marriage and the first occurrence of physical violence (among those who had cohabited for at least one year) indicate that 6–7% of youth reported perpetration or experience of physical violence within a year of marriage, with negligible rural-urban variation. Clearly, this implies that for more than one in three youth who had ever perpetrated (men) or experienced (women) violence, this violence had been initiated within a year after marriage.

10.9 Extent of extra-marital sexual relations

The Youth Study did not probe as extensively into extra-marital sexual experiences as it did about pre-marital sex, discussed in Chapter 9. A single direct question was asked to all married youth about whether they had experienced sexual relations with someone other than their spouse following marriage. In addition, youth reporting same-sex, exchange, forced or sex worker sex were probed about the timing of the first such encounter; for very few, it occurred following marriage. Given the lack of extensive probing, we caution readers that percentages of youth reporting extra-marital sexual experience, indicated in Table 10.8, may be particularly under-reported.

Hardly any young women (0.3%) reported an extra-marital sexual encounter. In contrast, 3% of young men—2% of urban young men and 4% of rural young men—reported an extra-marital sexual encounter. Among young men, 2% reported extra-marital sex in the one year (or months since marriage for those married for less than one year) preceding the interview.

Table 10.8: Extent of extra-marital sexual experiences

Percentage of married youth by extent of extra-marital sexual experiences, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Experiences (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Had sex with someone other than spouse after marriage	3.4	0.3	2.4	0.0	3.6	0.4
Reported at least one extra-marital sexual partner in last 12 months	2.2	0.4	2.1	0.0	2.3	0.5
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**

Note: All Ns are unweighted.

10.10 Contraceptive practice within marriage: Lifetime, current and prior to first pregnancy

The practise of contraception at any time during marital life was limited, reported by 38% of young men and 24% of young women (see Table 10.9 and Figure 10.6). Urban youth were considerably more likely than rural youth to report the use of contraceptives (50% versus 35% among urban and rural young men, respectively; and 35% versus 22% among young women). More or less similar proportions of youth reported the use of modern contraceptive methods (37% and 23% of young men and women, respectively), with similar rural-urban differences. Methods most likely to have ever been used by both young men and young women were condoms (27% and 13%, respectively); the regularity of condom use was not probed, however, and therefore, this finding should be interpreted with caution.

Other leading methods practised by youth included female sterilisation, despite the young age of female respondents (9% and 7%, respectively) and oral pills (6% and 5%, respectively). While more rural than urban youth reported female sterilisation (7–10% and 3–5%, respectively), larger percentages of urban than rural youth reported having used condoms (24–44% and 11–23%, respectively) and, to a lesser extent, oral pills (8–9% and 4–6%, respectively). The use of traditional contraceptive methods was rarely reported by both young women and men (2%), irrespective of place of residence.

Relatively fewer youth reported practising contraception at the time of interview: 32% of young men and 17% of young women. Rural-urban differences indicate that urban youth were more likely than their rural counterparts to report current contraceptive use (41% and 25% among young men and women, respectively, in urban areas; 29% and 15%, respectively, in rural areas). Reporting of methods currently used was fairly similar among young women and men. Condoms, female sterilisation and oral pills continued to be the leading methods used (by 20%, 9% and 4%, respectively, among young men; 7%, 7% and 2%, respectively, among young women). Differences by residence were narrow in the case of oral pill use; however more rural than urban youth reported female sterilisation (7–10% versus 3–5%) and more urban than rural youth reported condom use (14–33% versus 5–17%).

The duration between marriage and first use of contraception was also explored. Gender differences and rural-urban differences were wide; 19% of young men compared to 7% of young women reported that they had initiated contraceptive use in the first six months of marriage. Likewise, urban youth were considerably more likely than rural youth to have initiated contraceptive use in the first six months of marriage (28% versus 11% among young men, and 17% versus 6% among young women). About 5–6% of youth had initiated contraceptive use between six months and three years following marriage. Indeed, of those who reported ever having practised contraception, one-half of young men and more than one-quarter of young women had initiated contraceptive use within the first six months of marriage (not shown in tabular form).

Consistent with this profile, 20% of young men and 8% of young women reported practising contraception to delay the first pregnancy. Again, the method most likely to have been used was condoms (17% of young men and

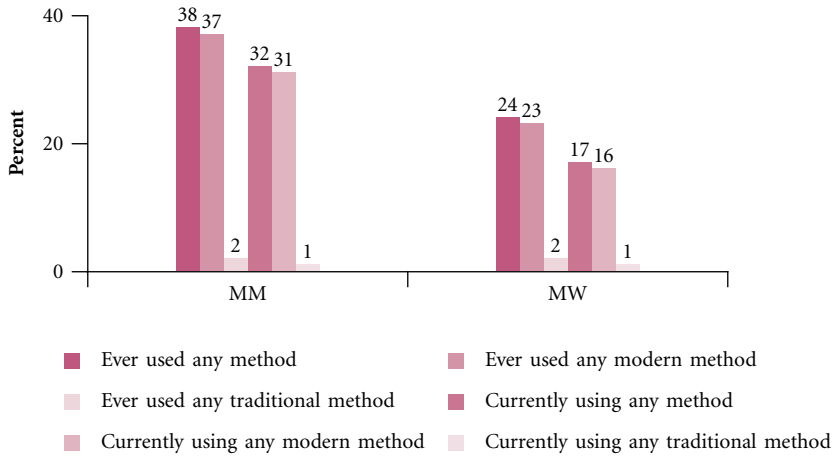
Table 10.9: Contraceptive use within marriage

Percentage of married youth by ever and current contraceptive use, percent distribution by duration between marriage and initiation of contraceptive use and percentage who used different contraceptive methods to delay first pregnancy, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Contraceptive use (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Ever use of contraception						
Any method	**38.1**	**24.2**	**50.0**	**35.4**	**35.2**	**21.9**
Any modern method	**36.9**	**23.3**	**49.5**	**33.9**	**33.7**	**21.1**
Female sterilisation	8.8	6.7	4.6	3.0	9.7	7.4
Male sterilisation	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Oral pills	6.4	4.9	8.3	8.5	6.0	4.1
IUD	0.2	0.6	0.0	1.0	0.3	0.5
Condom	27.3	13.3	43.7	23.8	23.4	11.2
Other[1]	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.1
Any traditional method[2]	**2.3**	**1.9**	**1.8**	**2.7**	**2.4**	**1.7**
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**
Current use of contraception						
Any method	**31.7**	**16.9**	**40.7**	**24.5**	**29.4**	**15.4**
Any modern method	**30.8**	**15.9**	**40.4**	**22.5**	**28.5**	**14.5**
Female sterilisation	8.8	6.7	4.6	3.0	9.7	7.4
Male sterilisation	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Oral pills	3.8	1.8	3.7	4.2	3.8	1.3
IUD	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.7	0.1	0.3
Condom	19.8	6.9	33.0	14.3	16.7	5.3
Other[1]	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.0	0.0
Any traditional method[2]	**1.4**	**1.3**	**1.2**	**2.2**	**1.4**	**1.2**
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**
Duration between marriage and first use of contraception						
Duration						
Less than 6 months	19.3	6.7	27.5	11.4	17.2	5.7
6–11 months	0.7	0.8	0.3	1.5	0.7	0.7
12 months to 3 years	5.6	4.3	12.8	10.7	3.8	3.0
More than 3 years	6.1	7.5	5.2	7.0	6.2	7.6
Don't know/don't remember	6.2	4.8	3.7	4.7	6.7	4.8
Never used contraception	61.9	75.6	50.2	64.4	64.8	77.8
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**
Ever use of contraception to delay first pregnancy						
Any method	**19.8**	**7.9**	**27.2**	**13.5**	**18.0**	**6.7**
Any modern method	**18.9**	**6.6**	**27.2**	**12.2**	**16.9**	**5.6**
Oral pills	2.8	1.0	4.0	1.7	2.5	0.8
IUD	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Condom	17.3	5.8	25.7	10.5	15.3	4.8
Other[1]	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Any traditional method[2]	**1.4**	**0.9**	**0.9**	**1.2**	**1.5**	**0.8**
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases. [1]Includes female condoms, injectables, implants, diaphragm and foam/jelly. [2]Includes periodic abstinence/rhythm and withdrawal.

Figure 10.6: Percentage of married youth reporting lifetime and current use of contraceptive methods within marriage, Rajasthan, 2007



6% of young women). The wide gender differences in the reported use of contraception to delay the first pregnancy may be explained by the considerably larger percentage of young men than women reporting condom use, that is, a male-controlled method about which young women may not have been as ready to report. Larger percentages of urban than rural youth reported the practise of contraception to delay the first pregnancy (27% versus 18% among young men, and 14% versus 7% among young women).

10.11 Reproductive history

This section addresses young people's reproductive history, namely, the first pregnancy and its outcome, children ever born and surviving, experience of pregnancy loss and the wantedness of recent pregnancies. As reported in Table 10.10, 80% of young women and 76% of young men reported that they or their wife, respectively, had experienced at least one pregnancy. Rural-urban differences were negligible.

10.11.1 First pregnancy experiences

Of those who reported that they (young women) or their wife (young men) had ever been pregnant, significant minorities reported a current first pregnancy (7% of young women and 6% of young men, respectively). Among those who reported at least one pregnancy, the first pregnancy had occurred within a year of marriage in the case of two-thirds of young men (65%) and of half of young women (47%). Rural-urban differences suggest that the first pregnancy had occurred within a year of marriage for a larger proportion of urban than rural youth (60–71% versus 45–64%). The median duration between marriage and the first pregnancy was 6 months among young men and 12 months among young women, with rural youth reporting a somewhat longer median duration than their urban counterparts (7 versus 5 months among young men; 13 versus 11 months among young women).

Pregnancy outcomes were reported by all young men whose wife had completed their first pregnancy and all young women who had completed their first pregnancy. The vast majority reported a live birth in every group, irrespective of sex or rural-urban residence. Among other outcomes, less than 1% had aborted their first pregnancy; for 1–2% the pregnancy had ended in a stillbirth and for 3–8% in a miscarriage. Young women were slightly less likely to report a live first birth than young men (90% and 96%, respectively) and more likely to report a miscarriage (8% compared to 3%), suggesting perhaps that young men were not aware of or did not recall early pregnancy loss experienced by their wife. Rural-urban differences were mild, but young women in urban areas were somewhat more likely than their rural counterparts to have experienced a miscarriage (11% and 8%, respectively).

Table 10.10: First pregnancy experience

Percent distribution of married youth by duration from cohabitation to first pregnancy, outcome of first pregnancy, place of first delivery and type of attendance at first delivery, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

First pregnancy experience (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Ever been pregnant	76.3	80.2	75.5	81.0	76.4	80.0
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**
Currently pregnant for the first time	5.7	6.9	7.7	9.8	5.2	6.2
Duration from cohabitation to first pregnancy (months)						
Up to 3	13.2	7.9	18.1	11.4	12.0	7.2
3–6	31.7	17.2	35.1	23.1	30.8	15.9
7–12	20.5	22.2	17.3	25.0	21.2	21.6
13–24	15.7	25.9	14.9	23.1	15.8	26.4
More than 24	8.4	17.7	7.3	12.0	8.7	18.9
Do not know/can't remember	10.6	9.1	7.3	5.2	11.3	9.9
Median duration	6.0	12.0	5.0	11.0	7.0	13.0
Number who had ever been pregnant	**1,306**	**1,917**	**449**	**786**	**857**	**1,131**
Outcome of first pregnancy						
Live birth	95.6	89.7	96.9	87.0	95.3	90.3
Still birth	1.4	1.5	0.4	1.7	1.6	1.4
Induced abortion	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.5
Miscarriage	2.9	8.2	2.6	11.0	2.9	7.7
Number who completed first pregnancy	**1,227**	**1,775**	**414**	**710**	**813**	**1,065**
Place of first delivery						
Respondent's parental home	42.3	22.2	27.9	17.0	45.6	23.2
Spouse's parental home	18.6	32.8	9.0	17.8	20.8	35.6
Health institution	39.1	44.7	63.1	64.9	33.5	40.8
In transit	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.4
Type of attendance at first delivery[1]						
Doctor/ANM/Nurse/LHV	49.2	54.3	71.7	79.5	43.9	49.5
Midwife (trained)	11.5	4.4	5.8	3.9	12.8	4.4
Other health personnel	1.9	2.7	0.9	1.2	2.1	3.0
Dai/traditional birth attendant	18.7	23.1	11.7	10.1	20.4	25.6
Friend/relative	15.7	14.1	9.4	4.7	17.0	15.9
Other person[2]	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.4
None	2.3	0.6	0.4	0.0	2.8	0.6
Number whose first pregnancy outcome was a live or still birth	**1,192**	**1,607**	**403**	**630**	**789**	**977**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. ANM: Auxiliary nurse midwife; LHV: Lady health visitor. [1]If the respondent reported that the delivery had occurred in a health institution, then it was assumed that a Doctor/ANM/Nurse/LHV had attended the birth. [2]If the delivery was reported in transit, attendance at delivery was categorised as "other person".

Institutional delivery was limited for the first—and most risky—delivery. Indeed, just 39–45% of young men and women reported that the first delivery had taken place in a health care facility. Rural-urban differences were pronounced: 63% of young men and 65% of young women in urban areas, compared to just 34% of young men and 41% of young women in rural areas, reported an institutional delivery.

Skilled attendance at first delivery was also limited; reported by just over three-fifths of youth. Rural-urban differences were pronounced; 78–85% of urban youth compared to 57–59% of rural youth reported skilled attendance at delivery. The fact that skilled attendance at birth exceeded institutional delivery may reflect the practice of home deliveries conducted by auxiliary nurse midwives (ANMs) and lady health visitors (LHVs), on the one hand, and the possibility that untrained providers—called registered medical practitioners (RMPs)—may have been misperceived as doctors, on the other (as observed in other settings, see for example, Barnes, 2007).

10.11.2 Children ever born and surviving

Findings, revealed in Table 10.11, show that youth reported that their wife (young men)/they (young women) had experienced an average of about 1.4–1.5 pregnancies and 1.2–1.3 live births. More than one-quarter (28%–29%) reported no live births. Rural-urban differences were negligible (30–31% in urban areas, 28–29% in rural areas).

Table 10.11: Reproductive history

Mean number of pregnancies experienced, percent distribution by children ever born and children surviving, and mean number of child deaths, stillbirths, miscarriages and abortions among married youth, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Pregnancy outcomes (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Mean number of lifetime pregnancies	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5
Number of children ever born						
0	29.1	28.3	30.3	30.6	28.8	27.8
1	27.5	30.0	33.6	36.1	26.0	28.8
2	24.4	26.0	23.5	22.6	24.6	26.7
3	13.3	12.8	8.9	9.5	14.4	13.5
4 or more	5.7	2.9	3.7	1.3	6.3	3.2
Mean number of children ever born	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.2
Number of children surviving						
0	29.9	30.2	30.6	32.0	29.6	29.9
1	27.7	31.6	33.3	36.8	26.3	30.5
2	25.3	26.3	24.5	24.0	25.5	26.8
3	12.5	10.2	8.3	6.5	13.5	11.0
4 or more	4.7	1.7	3.4	0.8	5.1	1.9
Mean number of children surviving	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.1
Mean number of sons surviving	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.6
Mean number of daughters surviving	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Mean number of children dead	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Reported one or more still births	1.8	2.1	0.3	2.2	2.1	2.1
Reported one or more miscarriages	2.8	10.7	2.4	13.0	2.9	10.2
Reported one or more induced abortions	0.2	1.3	0.3	1.3	0.1	1.3
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

Few youth reported an infant or child death. The distribution of respondents by number of surviving children resembles that of children ever born, reported above. Youth typically reported about as many daughters as sons.

Somewhat more youth reported pregnancy loss. For example, stillbirths were reported by about 2% of youth, and disparities by sex and residence were negligible. The situation was different in the case of miscarriage; 3% of young men and 11% of young women reported at least one miscarriage. Gender differences in reports of miscarriage persisted in both urban and rural settings, reflecting perhaps the relatively limited communication between spouses on reproductive health matters. Finally, induced abortion was reported by hardly any young men (0.2%) and 1% of young women, with negligible rural-urban differences.

Table 10.12 reports mean numbers of children ever born and surviving by respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. As expected, age was positively associated with both fertility indicators. Religion- and caste-specific differences were narrow. The number of years of schooling completed was inversely associated with both fertility

Table 10.12: Children ever born and surviving by selected background characteristics

Mean number of children ever born and children surviving among married youth by selected background characteristics, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics (mean number)	MM 15–29		MW 15–24		MM 15–29		MW 15–24		MM 15–29		MW 15–24	
	Combined				Urban				Rural			
	CEB	CS	CEB	CS	CEB	CS	CEB	CS	CEB	CS	CEB	CS
Age (years)												
15–19	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	*	*	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5
20–24	0.8	0.8	1.6	1.5	0.7	0.7	1.3	1.2	0.8	0.8	1.7	1.5
25–29	1.9	1.8	NA	NA	1.5	1.5	NA	NA	2.0	1.9	NA	NA
Religion												
Hindu	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3
Muslim	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1	(1.6)	1.6)	1.3	1.2
Caste												
SC	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
ST	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.4	*	*	(1.3)	(1.2)	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.4
OBC	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2
General[1]	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.1
Educational level (years)												
None[2]	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.4
1–7	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.1
8–11	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.4	1.0	1.0
12 and above	1.0	1.0	0.7	07	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.6	1.1	1.1	(0.8)	(0.7)
Worked in last 12 months												
Yes	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
No	0.7	0.7	1.2	1.1	*	*	1.1	1.0	(0.8)	(0.8)	1.2	1.2
Wealth quintile												
First	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	*	*	(1.4)	(1.3)	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4
Second	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.3	*	*	1.3	1.2	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.3
Third	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.2
Fourth	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1
Fifth	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.1
Total	**1.4**	**1.4**	**1.3**	**1.2**	**1.2**	**1.2**	**1.2**	**1.1**	**1.4**	**1.4**	**1.4**	**1.3**

*Note: ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Mean not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. CEB: Children ever born. CS: Children surviving. NA: Not applicable. OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [2]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.*

indicators; so too was household economic status, but the association was milder than in the case of education. Findings also show that young men and women who had worked in the year preceding the interview reported more children ever born and surviving than those who had not worked. Patterns remained relatively similar in both urban and rural settings.

10.11.3 Wantedness of recent pregnancies

All youth who reported that their wife (young men) or they (young women) had one or more pregnancies were asked about the wantedness of their last pregnancy or current pregnancy (for those currently pregnant). Findings, presented in Table 10.13, suggest high levels of unplanned pregnancy among young women and moderate levels in the case of young men. For example, among young men whose wife was not pregnant and young women who were not pregnant at the time of interview, 8% of young men and 24% of young women reported that the last pregnancy was mistimed or unwanted. Rural-urban differences were narrow, but somewhat more women in urban than rural areas reported a mistimed or unwanted pregnancy (28% versus 23%). A similar pattern emerged with regard to the wantedness of the current pregnancy among those pregnant at the time of interview or whose wife was pregnant at the time of interview: of those young men who reported that their wife was pregnant at the time of interview, 7% reported that the pregnancy was either unwanted or wanted at a later time. In contrast, 22% of young women who were pregnant at the time of interview so reported. Again, while rural-urban differences were negligible among young men (8% and 6% in rural and urban areas, respectively), young women in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to report a mistimed or unmated pregnancy (27% and 20%, respectively).

Table 10.13: Wantedness of most recent pregnancy

Percent distribution of married youth by wantedness of most recent pregnancy in the three years preceding the interview, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Status (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Wantedness status of *last* pregnancy[1]						
Planned	91.4	75.9	92.6	70.9	91.0	77.0
Mistimed	6.7	19.0	6.6	23.3	6.7	18.1
Unwanted	1.2	4.7	0.0	5.1	1.4	4.6
Number who had experienced at least one pregnancy	**1,227**	**1,775**	**414**	**710**	**813**	**1,065**
Wantedness status of *current* pregnancy						
Planned	91.7	78.1	91.4	71.9	91.8	79.7
Mistimed	3.3	19.2	5.7	23.4	2.7	18.0
Unwanted	3.9	2.5	0.0	3.1	4.8	2.4
Number currently pregnant	**181**	**365**	**63**	**152**	**118**	**213**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]Excludes respondents/ respondents' wives currently pregnant for the first time or never been pregnant.

10.12 Ideal family size

The Youth Study also obtained information on the number of children that married youth considered ideal, and among these the number of sons and daughters considered ideal. As several youth reported that they were unconcerned about the sex of children, a third response "children of either sex" was also recorded.

As seen in Table 10.14, young men and young women typically considered 2.3 children ideal, irrespective of rural-urban residence. However, somewhat larger percentages of young women than young men (29% versus 23%) and considerably larger percentages of rural than urban youth (24–31% versus 20%) reported three or more children as ideal.

Table 10.14: Ideal family size

Percent distribution of married youth by their reported ideal number of children and mean ideal number of children, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Ideal family size (%)	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24
	Combined		Urban		Rural	
Ideal number of children:						
1	1.8	5.5	2.1	7.5	1.8	5.1
2	62.9	60.9	68.5	71.3	61.5	58.8
3 or more	23.3	29.3	19.6	19.8	24.2	31.2
Other[1]	12.0	4.2	9.8	1.5	12.5	4.7
Mean ideal number of children[2]	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.3
Number who had begun cohabiting	**1,712**	**2,381**	**594**	**972**	**1,118**	**1,409**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. [1]Includes "it's up to God," "difficult to say," etc. [2]Includes only respondents who gave numeric responses.

Tables 10.15a and 10.15b present the ideal number of sons and daughters reported by married young men and women by selected socio-demographic characteristics. Although an overwhelming majority of young men and women expressed a desire for at least one son (81–87%), and somewhat less for at least one daughter (75–77%), son preference was evident. Both young men and women revealed a preference for 1.1–1.2 sons and 0.8 daughters. The preference for sons was somewhat milder in urban than in rural areas. We assessed son preference also in terms of the percentages of young men and women desiring more sons than daughters and measured in this way, the extent of son preference was even more evident. A considerable percentage of youth expressed a preference for more sons than daughters and gender differences were wide—23% of young men and 33% of young women. Son preference was more common among rural than urban youth; 25% and 36%, respectively, of young men and women in rural areas expressed a preference for more sons than daughters, compared to 15% and 22%, respectively, in urban areas. In contrast, no more than a handful of youth (1–3%) reported wanting more daughters than sons.

Son preference was evident among young people, irrespective of the socio-demographic characteristics under consideration. However, it was more common among older than younger groups; for example, among young men, 25% of those aged 25–29, compared to 18–19% of younger men expressed a preference for more sons than daughters; among young women, likewise, 35% of those aged 20–24, compared to 28% of those aged 15–19 expressed this preference. Differences by religion were relatively narrow. Caste-wise differences consistently suggest that those in general castes were less likely than others to prefer more sons than daughters (15% compared to 23–26% among young men; 25% compared to 33–39% among young women). Differences by educational attainment levels were, likewise, consistently observed: while 29% and 40% of uneducated young men and women, respectively, reported a preference for more sons than daughters, corresponding percentages fell to 17% and 14%, respectively, among those with 12 or more years of education. Economically active youth, likewise, were considerably more likely than others to express this preference: 23% compared to 15% among young men and 37% and 28%, respectively, among young women. An inverse association was also observed with regard to household economic status among young women (a decline from 44% among women in the poorest (first) quintile to 22% among those in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile. In the case of young men, the pattern was less consistently inverse, however, fewer young men in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile expressed a preference for sons than did those in the poorest two quintiles (15% and 25–33%, respectively).

Table 10.15a: Married young men's preferences for sons and daughters by selected background characteristics

Mean ideal number of sons, daughters and children of either sex and some indicators of sex preference by selected background characteristics of married young men, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics	Mean ideal number of:			Indicators of sex preference			
				Percent who wanted:			
	Sons	Daughters	Children of either sex	More sons than daughters	More daughters than sons	At least one son	At least one daughter
Residence							
Urban	0.9	0.8	0.6	14.5	2.7	72.6	68.6
Rural	1.1	0.8	0.4	24.6	1.1	82.7	76.1
Age (years)							
15–19	1.0	0.8	0.4	19.2	0.0	84.6	74.7
20–24	1.0	0.8	0.4	18.4	0.7	80.7	73.4
25–29	1.1	0.8	0.5	25.4	2.0	80.5	75.4
Religion							
Hindu	1.1	0.8	0.4	22.8	1.4	80.9	74.7
Muslim	1.2	0.9	0.5	19.5	1.1	79.3	74.7
Caste							
SC	1.1	0.8	0.4	25.7	0.0	82.0	76.1
ST	1.1	0.9	0.4	23.2	2.2	84.4	81.7
OBC	1.1	0.8	0.4	23.0	1.6	81.7	73.6
General[1]	0.9	0.8	0.6	15.0	2.0	71.6	69.7
Educational level (years)							
None[2]	1.2	0.9	0.5	28.8	1.8	82.7	79.6
1–7	1.2	0.8	0.4	28.1	1.5	85.2	77.9
8–11	1.0	0.8	0.5	19.3	1.1	80.1	74.2
12 and above	0.9	0.7	0.5	17.0	1.2	74.8	67.9
Worked in last 12 months							
Yes	1.1	0.8	0.5	22.9	1.5	80.6	74.7
No	0.9	0.7	0.4	14.8	0.0	82.3	72.1
Wealth quintile							
First	1.2	0.9	0.4	25.0	0.5	83.4	78.1
Second	1.3	0.9	0.4	32.8	1.6	86.2	82.6
Third	1.1	0.8	0.4	24.4	2.2	83.8	76.6
Fourth	1.0	0.8	0.5	20.6	1.7	79.1	72.2
Fifth	0.9	0.7	0.5	15.1	0.8	74.7	68.4
Total	**1.1**	**0.8**	**0.4**	**22.6**	**1.4**	**80.8**	**74.7**

Note: OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [2]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

Table 10.15b: Married young women's preferences for sons and daughters by selected background characteristics

Mean ideal number of sons, daughters and children of either sex and some indicators of sex preference by selected background characteristics of married young women, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Background characteristics	Mean ideal number of:			Indicators of sex preference			
				Percent who wanted:			
	Sons	Daughters	Children of either sex	More sons than daughters	More daughters than sons	At least one son	At least one daughter
Residence							
Urban	1.0	0.8	0.4	22.3	3.0	80.3	72.7
Rural	1.2	0.8	0.3	35.7	3.1	88.0	78.2
Age (years)							
15–19	1.1	0.8	0.3	27.5	1.4	84.6	77.8
20–24	1.2	0.8	0.3	35.0	3.6	87.3	77.1
Religion							
Hindu	1.2	0.8	0.3	32.9	3.1	86.6	77.1
Muslim	1.4	0.9	0.3	36.9	2.2	88.4	83.1
Caste							
SC	1.3	0.9	0.3	38.9	4.3	88.7	77.8
ST	1.4	0.9	0.1	38.9	1.3	93.3	84.2
OBC	1.2	0.8	0.3	32.6	3.1	85.3	75.2
General[1]	1.1	0.8	0.3	25.1	2.8	84.0	78.1
Educational level (years)							
None[2]	1.3	0.9	0.3	40.1	3.6	89.3	80.6
1–7	1.2	0.8	0.2	34.9	2.1	90.4	78.1
8–11	0.9	0.7	0.4	17.2	3.1	79.0	71.8
12 and above	0.7	0.6	0.4	14.2	3.0	70.7	60.4
Worked in last 12 months							
Yes	1.3	0.8	0.3	37.1	2.9	88.1	78.7
No	1.1	0.8	0.3	28.2	3.2	84.6	75.4
Wealth quintile							
First	1.4	0.9	0.3	43.8	3.8	87.4	78.6
Second	1.3	0.8	0.3	38.9	1.5	89.0	77.3
Third	1.2	0.9	0.3	33.0	4.6	88.2	81.0
Fourth	1.1	0.8	0.3	28.7	3.3	85.5	77.5
Fifth	1.0	0.8	0.3	21.9	2.4	82.6	71.5
Total	**1.2**	**0.8**	**0.3**	**33.3**	**3.1**	**86.6**	**77.3**

Note: OBC: Other backward caste. SC: Scheduled caste. ST: Scheduled tribe. [1]Includes all those not belonging to SC, ST or OBC. [2]Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

10.13 Summary

Findings indicate that although most young men preferred to marry after adolescence (96% preferred to marry at age 20 or older), significant minorities of young women expressed a preference to marry early, even before age 18, indicating an adherence to norms favouring child marriage among young women in this setting. Reiterating the fact that early marriage continues to characterise the lives of many young women, findings show that among

young women aged 20–24 years as many as one in four was married before age 15, three in five before age 18 and four in five before age 20. Even though early marriage was less prevalent among young men, one in 5 young men aged 20–24 years was married before age 18 and one in three before age 20.

Not only did marriage occur at young ages but it was also often arranged without the participation of young people themselves, particularly young women. Almost all youth reported arranged marriages. As many as one in five young men and half of young women reported that their parents did not seek their approval while determining their marriage partner. Hence, not surprisingly, reported pre-marital acquaintance was limited. Just one in ten youth reported that they had ever had a chance to meet and interact with their spouse-to-be alone prior to marriage. In fact, well over four in five married youth reported that they had met their spouse for the first time on the wedding day. Compounding the lack of pre-marital acquaintance was the lack of awareness of what to expect of married life, reported by two-thirds of young women and three-quarters of young men. Indeed, almost two out of every five young women in both rural and urban settings (and 4% of young men) reported that they had been scared about getting married.

Despite the existence of laws against the payment of dowry, this practice characterised the marriages of about four-fifths of young men (78%) and women (85%). Findings also show that families of urban youth were somewhat more likely than their rural counterparts to conform to traditional practices, such as the payment of dowry.

Reports of marital life suggest that spousal communication was far from universal and that marital life was marked by considerable violence. For example, couple communication on contraceptive use was reported by just three in five young women and two in five young men, clearly undermining married young people's ability to adopt protective actions. Physical violence and forced sex within marriage were reported by considerable proportions of youth; of note is the finding that considerably more young women reported the experience of sexual compared to physical violence. For example, about one-fifth of young women reported that they had ever faced violence perpetrated by their husband (18%) and a somewhat smaller percentage of young men (14%) reported perpetrating violence on their wife. Recent violence was reported by fewer: about one in ten young men and one in seven young women. Sexual violence, in contrast, was reported by many more youth. Indeed, one-third of young women reported that their first sexual experience within marriage had been forced. Overall, two in five young women reported ever being forced by their husband to have sex; in contrast, about one in six young men reported forcing their wife to engage in sex. Recent sexual violence was reported by more than one-quarter of young women and almost one in 10 young men.

While the Youth Study did not explore extra-marital sexual experiences in detail, the available data indicate that 3% of young men compared to hardly any young women reported an extra-marital sexual encounter.

Contraceptive use at any time within marriage was limited, reported by 38% of young men and 24% of young women. Moreover, 32% of young men and 17% of young women reported current use of contraception. Reporting of methods currently used was fairly similar among young women and men. Contraceptive methods most likely to be used were oral contraceptives and condoms and, notwithstanding their young age, female sterilisation. Few young people practised contraception to delay the first birth—just 20% of young men and 8% of young women. Not surprisingly, pregnancy typically occurred within a year of marriage for half of young women and two-thirds of young men who reported that they or their wife, respectively, had been pregnant at least once. Moreover, large proportions of youth—particularly young women—reported experiencing unintended pregnancy. For example, among young women who were not pregnant at the time of interview and young men whose wife was not pregnant at the time of interview, 24% and 8%, respectively, reported that the last pregnancy was mistimed or unwanted.

Circumstances of the first birth suggest that institutional delivery and skilled attendance at delivery were limited: only about two in five first births were delivered institutionally and just over three-fifths reported delivery by a skilled attendant.

Findings also show that son preference was evident. Almost one quarter of young men and one-third of young women preferred to have more sons than daughters. In contrast, just 1–3% preferred to have more daughters than sons.

Chapter 11

Health and health seeking behaviour

This chapter focuses on young people's patterns of substance use, health status and treatment seeking for health problems experienced. The Youth Study probed alcohol, drug and tobacco use as well as, among those who reported substance use, consumption characteristics, including recent use and extent of use. The Study also included questions relating to the experience of problems in the areas of general, sexual and reproductive health and mental health. It also explored young people's care seeking practices for general and sexual and reproductive health problems as well as their attitudes towards pre-marital HIV testing for boys and girls and the extent to which they had undergone an HIV test. Where numbers are small, we present combined findings for rural and urban respondents.

11.1 Substance use

Research has shown that substance use can directly compromise young people's health. For example, evidence suggests that the use of alcohol and drugs among youth is associated with physical fights, risky sexual activity, depression and suicide as well as irregular school or work attendance and other negative outcomes (DiClemente, 1992; Ellickson, Saner and McGuigan, 1997; Gruber et al., 1996; Lowry et al., 1994; Mohan, Sankara Sarma and Thankappan, 2005; Singh and Saini, 2007).

Youth Study findings on the extent of substance use among young people themselves suggest that hardly any young men and not a single woman reported drug use (including, for example, *ganja, charas*, brown sugar, cocaine and *bhang*). However, a substantial proportion of young men and a small minority of young women reported consumption of tobacco, and small proportions of young men and negligible proportions of young women reported alcohol consumption (Table 11.1). As far as tobacco consumption is concerned, 29% of young men and 5% of young women had ever consumed tobacco products. Most of those young men and women who had ever consumed tobacco products reported that they had done so once a week or more frequently in the month prior to interview. Married young men were more than twice as likely as the unmarried to report ever use of tobacco products (52% and 21%, respectively) and recent tobacco use (49% and 19%, respectively). This difference may be attributed to the fact that, by and large, tobacco use is observed to increase with age (IIPS and Macro International, 2007a), and married men in our sample were considerably older than the unmarried. At the same time, rural young men were somewhat more likely than the urban to report ever use of tobacco products (30% and 24%, respectively) and recent tobacco use (28% and 23%, respectively). Rural-urban differences were evident among married young men, but muted among all others.

Hardly any young women and fewer youth reported alcohol consumption. For example, fewer than one in ten young men reported ever consuming (8%) or recently consuming (3%) alcohol. As in the case of tobacco use, married young men were far more likely to have ever consumed alcohol than the unmarried (19% and 6%, respectively). Recent alcohol use—once a week or more frequently in the month prior to interview—was reported by many fewer: 9% and 2% of married and unmarried young men, respectively. Unlike in the case of tobacco consumption, however, rural-urban differences were negligible among both the married and the unmarried with regard to percentages of those reporting ever and recently having consumed alcohol. The large majority of young men who had ever consumed alcohol reported that they usually did so with peers (91% and 92% of the married and unmarried, respectively). Findings, moreover, suggest that almost one-third of young men who had ever consumed alcohol (31% and 29% of married and unmarried men) had sometimes or often become drunk (not shown in tabular form).

Table 11.1: Substance use

Percentage of youth reporting lifetime and recent substance use, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Substance use (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Ever consumed						
Tobacco and its products	28.8	4.7	52.2	6.0	21.3	2.5
Alcohol	8.4	0.1	19.1	0.0	5.5	0.2
Drugs[1]	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0
Consumed once a week or more frequently in last month						
Tobacco and its products	26.4	4.0	49.0	5.1	19.3	2.2
Alcohol	3.2	0.0	9.0	0.0	2.1	0.0
Drugs[1]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Ever consumed						
Tobacco and its products	24.3	3.4	44.0	5.4	20.0	1.6
Alcohol	8.0	0.2	17.0	0.2	6.4	0.2
Drugs[1]	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.0
Consumed once a week or more frequently in last month						
Tobacco and its products	22.6	3.1	41.7	4.9	18.4	1.5
Alcohol	3.4	0.0	7.8	0.0	3.1	0.0
Drugs[1]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Ever consumed						
Tobacco and its products	30.4	5.2	54.1	6.1	21.8	3.0
Alcohol	8.5	0.0	19.6	0.0	5.1	0.1
Drugs[1]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Consumed once a week or more frequently in last month						
Tobacco and its products	27.6	4.4	50.7	5.1	19.6	2.6
Alcohol	3.2	0.0	9.2	0.0	1.7	0.0
Drugs[1]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. [1]Includes ganja, charas, brown sugar, cocaine, bhang, etc.

11.2 General and sexual and reproductive health problems

General health problems about which youth were questioned included high fever and injury. Sexual and reproductive health problems included symptoms of genital infection (burning during urination, genital ulcers, genital itching, swelling in the groin, and genital discharge, for example), anxiety about nocturnal emission or *swapnadosh* (for young men) and menstrual problems (for young women). Findings related to recent experiences of various general health problems, and sexual and reproductive health problems are presented in Table 11.2.

11.2.1 General health problems

Findings show that 17% of young men and 29% of young women had experienced high fever in the three months preceding the interview. We note the fact that the survey period covered the peak infection months, that is, the summer and monsoon months, which may to some extent explain the prevalence of high fever among the youth surveyed. Differences by marital status and place of residence were negligible among young men, and mild among young women.

Injuries were experienced by a minority of respondents in the three months preceding the interview, specifically, 7% of young men and 2% of young women. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were narrow.

11.2.2 Sexual and reproductive health problems

Table 11.2 presents young people's reported experiences of symptoms of genital infection in the three months preceding the interview. We note that these findings are based on self-reports and not on clinical examination or laboratory testing and therefore, must be interpreted with caution. Young women were more likely than young men to report symptoms of genital infection (16% versus 3%). While married and unmarried young men were equally likely to have experienced symptoms of genital infection, married young women were considerably more likely than the unmarried to report as such (21% versus 6%). Rural-urban differences were negligible among young men; in comparison, young women in rural settings were somewhat more likely than their urban counterparts to have experienced these symptoms (17% versus 12%).

Table 11.2: Self-reported health problems

Percentage of youth reporting recent experiences of selected general and sexual and reproductive health problems, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

General/sexual and reproductive health problems experienced (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
High fever in last 3 months	16.6	28.5	15.9	30.3	16.7	25.6
Injury in last 3 months	7.4	1.9	6.3	1.9	8.0	2.0
Symptoms of genital infection in last 3 months[1]	3.1	15.5	3.0	20.8	2.6	6.0
Anxiety about *swapnadosh*/nocturnal emission in last 12 months	17.8	NA	6.8	NA	22.2	NA
Menstrual problems in last 3 months	NA	6.0	NA	6.5	NA	4.9
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
High fever in last 3 months	15.4	25.0	12.1	26.7	16.3	23.4
Injury in last 3 months	6.7	1.6	6.6	1.4	6.9	1.8
Symptoms of genital infection in last 3 months[1]	2.1	12.2	2.6	18.0	1.7	7.1
Anxiety about *swapnadosh*/nocturnal emission in last 12 months	19.3	NA	4.3	NA	22.5	NA
Menstrual problems in last 3 months	NA	6.2	NA	6.6	NA	5.8
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
High fever in last 3 months	17.0	29.7	16.8	30.9	16.9	26.8
Injury in last 3 months	7.6	2.0	6.2	2.0	8.5	2.1
Symptoms of genital infection in last 3 months[1]	3.5	16.6	3.1	21.3	3.0	5.5
Anxiety about *swapnadosh*/nocturnal emission in last 12 months	17.3	NA	7.3	NA	22.0	NA
Menstrual problems in last 3 months	NA	5.9	NA	6.5	NA	4.5
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. NA: Not applicable. [1]Includes genital ulcers, genital itching, swelling in the groin, discharge, burning during urination, etc.

Previous research has documented the extent to which semen loss is associated with anxiety regarding masculine weakness and ill-health in South Asian cultures (Bhatia and Choudhary, 1998; Bhatia and Malik, 1991; Bhende, 1995; Collumbien et al., 2004; Khan et al., 2006; Pelto, 1999; Verma et al., 2003). Youth Study findings suggest that 18% of young men had indeed experienced anxiety about *swapnadosh* or nocturnal emission in the 12 months preceding the interview. Vast differences were, however, observed by marital status: 7% of married men compared to 22% of unmarried young men reported anxiety about nocturnal emission. Differences by rural-urban residence were muted.

With regard to young women's experience of other reproductive health problems in the three months preceding the interview, findings suggest that 6% of young women experienced menstrual problems, with no variation by marital status or rural-urban residence.

11.3 Mental health disorders

The mental health status of young people was assessed based on their responses to the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) (Goldberg, 1992; Patel and Andrew, 2001). This questionnaire, designed to identify the presence of possible mental health disorders, is based on 12 questions that assess the extent to which a respondent experienced, for example, happiness, depression, anxiety and sleep disturbance in the one month preceding the interview. Threshold scores of 2, 3, 4 or more have been variously used to identify the possible presence of common mental health disorders (Bashir et al., 1996; Donath, 2001; Jacob, Bhugra and Mann, 1997). Table 11.3 presents responses on each item of the GHQ-12, and a summary measure indicating the percentage who gave three or more responses suggestive of mental health disorders.

Gender disparities in response patterns were evident. Young women reported responses suggestive of mental health disorders on several more items than young men. Responses most likely to suggest mental health disorders reported by one-tenth or more young men included feeling constantly under strain (18%), feeling unhappy and depressed (14%), and losing sleep over worry (13%). In contrast, among young women, more symptoms were reported. Responses most likely to suggest mental health disorders among young women included feeling incapable of making decisions (23%), feeling that they were not playing a useful role (19%), feeling that they could not overcome their difficulties (16%), losing sleep over worry, feeling constantly under strain and feeling unable to face up to their problems (15% each), and feeling unhappy and depressed (12%).

Differences by marital status were typically narrow; even so, married young men were more likely than unmarried young men to report feeling unhappy and depressed (18% versus 13%) and married young women were somewhat more likely than their unmarried counterparts to report losing sleep over worry (17% versus 11%), feeling constantly under strain (18% versus 11%), and feeling unhappy and depressed (14% versus 9%).

Rural-urban differences were narrow among young men. Even so, some differences were notable among married young men, among whom, those in rural areas were more likely than their urban counterparts to report such symptoms as losing sleep over worry (17% versus 12%), and feeling unhappy and depressed (19% versus 13%). Among young women, the responses of rural women were more likely than those of their urban counterparts to suggest mental health disorders. For example, rural young women were more likely than the urban to report feeling that they were not playing a useful role (20% versus 15%), that they were incapable of making decisions (25% versus 16%), that they could not overcome their difficulties (18% versus 13%) and that they were unable to face up to their problems (16% versus 11%). Differences were particularly wide among the unmarried: for example, while 24–25% of unmarried young women in rural areas reported that they felt they were not playing a useful role and were incapable of making decisions, just 15% of their counterparts in urban areas so reported.

Overall, 11% of young men and 21% of young women reported three or more of the 12 symptoms/behaviours probed in the GHQ-12, indicative of mental health disorders. Marital status differences were negligible among young

Table 11.3: Reported symptoms or behaviours suggestive of mental health disorders

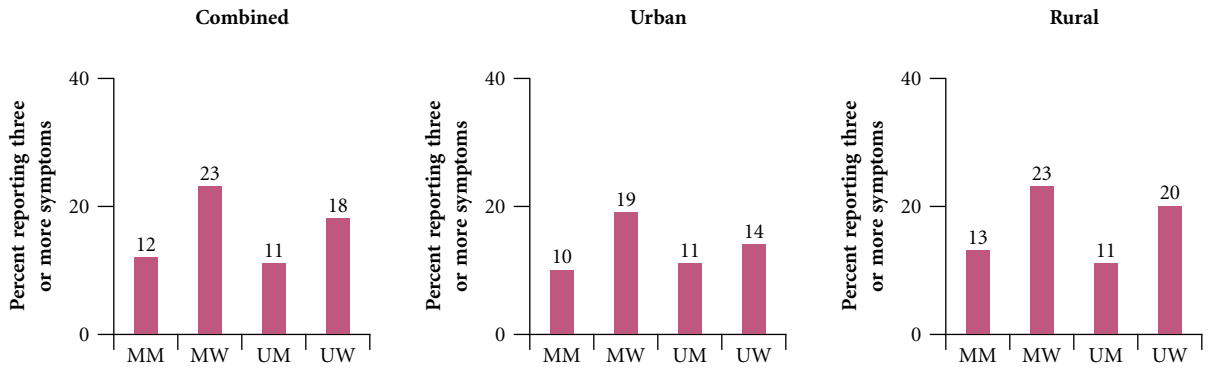
Percentage of youth reporting symptoms or behaviours suggestive of mental health disorders experienced in the month preceding the interview, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Symptoms/behaviours (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Unable to concentrate on whatever he/she was doing	2.5	7.2	3.0	7.6	2.2	6.5
Lost much sleep over worry	13.1	15.0	16.3	17.4	12.9	10.7
Felt that he/she was not playing a useful role	6.4	18.5	4.9	17.4	7.6	21.0
Felt incapable of making decisions	5.9	22.5	5.7	23.5	6.4	21.6
Felt constantly under strain	18.1	15.1	21.7	17.6	18.0	10.5
Felt that he/she could not overcome his/her difficulties	4.4	16.2	3.6	16.7	5.0	16.0
Unable to enjoy normal day-to-day activities	4.4	6.7	4.8	8.0	4.7	4.3
Unable to face up to his/her problems	3.1	14.6	3.0	15.8	3.2	12.8
Been feeling unhappy and depressed	14.1	12.0	17.6	13.8	13.0	8.7
Been losing confidence in himself/herself	4.5	8.4	4.7	9.0	4.3	7.2
Been thinking of himself/herself as a worthless person	2.2	7.6	2.4	8.3	2.1	6.2
Not feeling reasonably happy, all things considered	4.1	5.7	4.4	6.8	4.2	3.8
Three or more symptoms/behaviours	**10.9**	**20.9**	**12.1**	**22.7**	**11.2**	**18.1**
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Unable to concentrate on whatever he/she was doing	3.1	6.3	2.9	7.5	2.7	5.3
Lost much sleep over worry	11.0	13.6	12.0	16.6	11.2	10.9
Felt that he/she was not playing a useful role	8.0	15.0	3.4	14.5	8.9	15.4
Felt incapable of making decisions	5.6	16.4	3.2	17.6	6.1	15.3
Felt constantly under strain	17.2	14.2	19.0	17.8	16.6	11.1
Felt that he/she could not overcome his/her difficulties	4.0	12.7	2.0	14.1	4.5	11.6
Unable to enjoy normal day-to-day activities	3.7	6.1	3.2	8.4	3.6	4.1
Unable to face up to his/her problems	3.1	10.8	2.0	12.4	3.4	9.5
Been feeling unhappy and depressed	13.5	12.1	13.2	14.5	13.3	10.0
Been losing confidence in himself/herself	3.2	8.6	2.0	9.8	3.3	7.5
Been thinking of himself/herself as a worthless person	1.7	6.8	0.9	7.7	1.9	5.9
Not feeling reasonably happy, all things considered	4.9	4.7	4.9	6.8	4.8	2.8
Three or more symptoms/behaviours	**10.7**	**16.5**	**9.5**	**19.4**	**10.8**	**13.8**
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Unable to concentrate on whatever he/she was doing	2.4	7.5	3.0	7.6	1.9	7.2
Lost much sleep over worry	13.8	15.5	17.4	17.6	13.6	10.7
Felt that he/she was not playing a useful role	5.9	19.8	5.3	18.0	7.0	23.9
Felt incapable of making decisions	6.1	24.7	6.3	24.7	6.6	24.7
Felt constantly under strain	18.4	15.4	22.3	17.6	18.7	10.1
Felt that he/she could not overcome his/her difficulties	4.5	17.5	4.0	17.1	5.2	18.2
Unable to enjoy normal day-to-day activities	4.6	6.9	5.1	7.9	5.1	4.4
Unable to face up to his/her problems	3.1	15.9	3.3	16.5	3.1	14.4
Been feeling unhappy and depressed	14.4	12.0	18.6	13.6	12.9	8.1
Been losing confidence in himself/herself	4.9	8.3	5.3	8.9	4.8	6.9
Been thinking of himself/herself as a worthless person	2.4	7.9	2.7	8.5	2.2	6.4
Not feeling reasonably happy, all things considered	3.8	6.0	4.3	6.8	3.9	4.3
Three or more symptoms/behaviours	**11.0**	**22.5**	**12.7**	**23.3**	**11.3**	**20.4**
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted.

men (11–12%); among young women, somewhat more married than unmarried young women reported three or more symptoms suggestive of mental health disorders (23% versus 18%) (See Figure 11.1). Rural-urban differences were also negligible among young men (11%) but among young women, those in rural areas were more likely than their urban counterparts to display scores indicative of mental disorders (23% and 17%, respectively).

Figure 11.1: Percentage of youth reporting symptoms/behaviours suggestive of mental health disorders in the month preceding the interview, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



11.4 Care and advice seeking

Young people who reported physical or sexual and reproductive health problems were probed about whether they had sought care or advice for the problem and the source of such care or advice. Findings are presented in Table 11.4 and suggest that care and advice seeking differed by the kind of problem experienced as well as, in several instances, sex and marital status of the respondent.

11.4.1 General health problems

According to findings presented in Table 11.4, the vast majority of young people who experienced high fever had sought treatment. Gender differences were wide, with almost all young men and fewer young women having sought treatment (98% versus 88%). Differences by marital status were negligible. The type of facility or provider from whom treatment was sought also differed by sex of the respondent. About two-thirds of young men sought treatment from a government health care facility or provider (65%); in contrast, just 44% of young women did so. Conversely, one-third (31%) of young men and almost half of young women (48%) had reportedly consulted private sector providers, reflecting the pattern of health care seeking in India more generally. Just a small minority, 4% and 8% of young men and women, respectively, had sought treatment from traditional health care providers or relied on home remedies. Differences by marital status were negligible.

Fewer youth, especially young women, had sought care for their reported injuries (89% of young men and 48% of young women). Larger percentages of unmarried than married young women had got their injuries treated (59% versus 42%); no such difference was observed among young men. About two-thirds of young men and about half of all women who had sought treatment had opted for government facilities (68% and 48% of young men and women, respectively); one-quarter and two-fifths, respectively had sought treatment from private facilities. We note that respondents may not always have been able to discern whether the private sector provider from whom they had sought care had been trained and was licensed to provide such care.

Table 11.4: Care and advice seeking for reported health problems

Percentage of youth who experienced selected health problems by reported care and advice seeking and place of treatment, Rajasthan, 2007

Care and advice seeking (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Sought treatment for high fever	98.0	88.1	97.7	86.7	98.6	90.9
Number reporting high fever	**484**	**1,628**	**284**	**776**	**352**	**852**
Place treatment sought for high fever[1]						
Government facility/doctor	65.1	43.9	67.0	42.9	65.6	46.3
Private facility/doctor	30.6	47.9	29.9	48.5	30.7	45.6
Other[2]	4.1	7.7	2.7	8.0	3.7	7.7
Number who sought treatment for high fever	**476**	**1,457**	**279**	**679**	**347**	**778**
Sought treatment for injury	88.8	48.3	90.8	(42.0)	87.2	58.8
Number reporting injury	**217**	**114**	**119**	**47**	**165**	**67**
Place treatment sought for injury[1]						
Government facility/doctor	67.8	48.3	70.6	*	69.7	(51.2)
Private facility/doctor	24.8	41.4	27.5	*	21.7	(39.0)
Other[2]	5.9	6.9	0.9	*	7.2	(7.3)
Number who sought treatment for injury	**196**	**60**	**111**	**19**	**147**	**41**
Sought treatment for symptoms of genital infection[3]	79.8	36.0	76.8	37.0	87.5	26.6
Number reporting symptoms of genital infection	**85**	**725**	**54**	**518**	**52**	**207**
Place treatment sought for symptoms of genital infection[1, 3, 4]						
Government facility/doctor	55.4	45.7	(62.8)	46.3	(52.1)	44.4
Private facility/doctor	43.2	45.6	(33.3)	46.0	(45.8)	40.0
Other[2]	4.0	9.9	(2.4)	9.5	(6.1)	14.8
Number who sought treatment for symptoms of genital infection	**68**	**268**	**43**	**212**	**44**	**56**
Sought advice on *swapnadosh*/nocturnal emission	49.0	NA	56.3	NA	46.8	NA
Number reporting anxiety over *swapnadosh*/nocturnal emission	**547**	**NA**	**119**	**NA**	**473**	**NA**
Person from whom advice was sought on *swapnadosh*/ nocturnal emission						
Friend	87.4	NA	69.9	NA	89.2	NA
Parent	0.8	NA	0.0	NA	0.9	NA
Relative	1.5	NA	2.7	NA	1.4	NA
Traditional healer	0.0	NA	4.1	NA	0.0	NA
Medical professional	10.3	NA	23.3	NA	8.6	NA
Number who sought advice for *swapnadosh*/nocturnal emission	**268**	**NA**	**66**	**NA**	**224**	**NA**
Sought treatment for menstrual problems	NA	37.4	NA	35.3	NA	41.0
Number reporting menstrual problems	**NA**	**337**	**NA**	**167**	**NA**	**170**
Place treatment sought for menstrual problems[1]						
Government facility/doctor	NA	35.8	NA	38.3	NA	30.9
Private facility/doctor	NA	54.5	NA	53.3	NA	55.9
Other[2]	NA	9.7	NA	8.3	NA	13.2
Number who sought treatment for menstrual problems	**NA**	**136**	**NA**	**64**	**NA**	**72**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. [1]Refers to the last time the respondent sought treatment. [2]Includes registered medical practitioner, unregistered medical practitioner, vaid/traditional healer and home remedies. [3]Includes genital ulcers, genital itching, swelling in the groin, genital discharge, burning during urination, etc. [4]Multiple responses were given.*

11.4.2 Sexual and reproductive health problems

Responses regarding treatment seeking for sexual and reproductive health problems depict a somewhat different picture than that for general health ailments. In general, fewer young people had sought care for these problems than for general health problems. As in the case of general health problems, however, the majority of young men who had sought care had done so from a private sector provider; young women were equally divided between private and public sector providers.

Of those young men who had experienced symptoms of genital infection, 80% had sought care. The married were less likely than the unmarried to have sought treatment for these symptoms (77% versus 88%). Of those who had sought care, over half had received it from a government health facility or provider (55%), over two-fifths from a private sector provider (43%), and only few had relied on traditional health care providers or home remedies (4%). The married were more likely than the unmarried to have sought treatment from public sector providers (63% versus 52%) and conversely less likely to have been treated by private sector providers (33% versus 46%).

Young men who experienced anxiety about *swapnadosh* or nocturnal emission were asked if they had sought advice. Half of young men (49%) had done so; more married than unmarried young men so reported (56% versus 47%). The most common source was friends, from whom 87% of young men reported seeking advice. In contrast, a minority had sought advice from a medical professional (10%). While the unmarried were more likely than the married to have sought advice from friends (89% versus 70%), the married were much more likely to have consulted a medical professional (23% versus 9%). Finally, few sought advice from a traditional health care provider generally known to "treat" such symptoms (not a single unmarried man and 4% of married men).

Seeking treatment for sexual and reproductive health problems was more limited among young women than young men. Indeed, fewer than two in five young women who had experienced menstrual problems or symptoms of genital infection had sought care for their symptoms (37% and 36%, respectively). That even fewer young women had sought care for symptoms of sexual and reproductive health problems than for general health problems clearly highlights the fact that problems perceived to be associated with sex or sexual health matters were likely to remain untreated for many. The married were more likely than the unmarried to have sought treatment for symptoms of genital infection (37% versus 27%) but somewhat less likely to have done so for menstrual problems (35% versus 41%).

Among young women, the facility from which or the provider from whom care was sought differed by symptom. Those seeking care for symptoms of genital infection were about as likely to opt for a public sector as a private sector provider (46% each). Those seeking care for menstrual problems in contrast, were considerably more likely to seek treatment from a private sector than a public sector provider (55% and 36%, respectively). As many as 10% had relied on traditional health care providers or home remedies for both of these problems. Larger percentages of unmarried than married young women had relied on traditional health care providers or home remedies for both problems (13–15% versus 8–10%).

11.5 Hesitation to access contraceptive supplies

In order to capture the extent to which young people perceived that they could approach health care professionals for sexual and reproductive health services, the Youth Study posed two questions relating to accessing contraceptives, namely, whether the respondent would feel shy to approach a health care provider and a pharmacist, respectively, for contraceptives. Findings are presented in Table 11.5 and confirm that large proportions of young people would indeed feel shy to approach a health care provider or pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptive supplies. Young women were more likely than young men to report discomfort in approaching a health care provider (58% versus 42%) and a pharmacy (61% versus 37%). While differences by marital status were muted among young women, unmarried young men were considerably more likely to express discomfort than their married counterparts (49% versus 22%; 43% versus 19%).

Rural-urban differences suggest that those in rural areas were more likely than their urban counterparts to feel hesitation in these circumstances. For example, 45% of young men in rural areas compared to 34% of those in urban areas reported discomfort in approaching a health care provider, and 39% and 30%, respectively, in approaching a pharmacy or medical shop for contraceptives. Likewise, large proportions of young women in rural and urban areas reported discomfort in approaching a health care provider (62% and 46%, respectively) and a pharmacy (65% and 49%, respectively) for contraceptives. Findings confirm that many youth would indeed find it difficult to seek appropriate services for their sexual and reproductive health problems.

Table 11.5: Hesitation to access contraceptive supplies

Percentage of youth reporting hesitation to access contraceptive supplies from a health care provider or medical shop, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Would feel shy to approach an HCP for contraceptives	41.9	57.9	22.1	59.2	48.5	57.3
Would feel shy to approach a pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptives	36.9	60.9	18.5	62.4	43.3	59.7
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Would feel shy to approach an HCP for contraceptives	33.6	46.2	7.5	47.0	39.1	45.4
Would feel shy to approach a pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptives	30.2	49.3	6.9	50.2	35.0	48.2
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Would feel shy to approach an HCP for contraceptives	44.8	62.1	25.4	61.6	52.6	63.3
Would feel shy to approach a pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptives	39.2	65.0	21.1	64.8	46.8	65.6
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. HCP: Health care provider.

11.6 Attitudes towards pre-marital HIV testing and extent of HIV testing

Youth who were aware of HIV/AIDS were asked whether they approved of pre-marital HIV testing for boys and girls, and whether they had ever undergone an HIV test. Findings, presented in Table 11.6, suggest that three-quarters of young men and four-fifths of young women (74% and 79%, respectively) agreed that boys and girls should be tested for HIV before marriage. While differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were muted among young men, somewhat larger percentages of unmarried than married young women, and urban than rural young women, expressed favourable attitudes towards HIV testing. However, despite such positive attitudes, only a small minority of youth had ever undergone an HIV test: 2% of young men and 3% of young women. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were, for the most part, negligible; slightly more married than unmarried young women reported having undergone an HIV test, most likely conducted in the course of antenatal check-ups (4% and 1% respectively among all women, as well as among rural and urban women, respectively).

Table 11.6: Attitudes towards pre-marital HIV testing and extent of HIV testing

Percent distribution of youth aware of HIV/AIDS who believe that boys/girls should be tested for HIV before marriage and percentage who have ever had an HIV test, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Attitudes/experiences (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Boys should be tested for HIV before marriage						
Yes	74.3	79.0	73.3	75.8	75.0	82.3
No	20.3	11.9	20.8	13.8	20.0	10.1
Girls should be tested for HIV before marriage						
Yes	74.3	77.2	73.6	73.7	74.8	80.8
No	20.2	13.3	20.5	15.5	20.1	11.2
Youth who underwent an HIV test	1.7	2.5	1.8	3.7	1.3	1.0
Number aware of HIV/AIDS	**2,627**	**3,946**	**1,625**	**1,482**	**1,898**	**2,464**
Urban						
Boys should be tested for HIV before marriage						
Yes	77.2	83.3	76.0	83.1	77.7	83.5
No	18.5	8.8	19.5	9.7	18.4	8.2
Girls should be tested for HIV before marriage						
Yes	77.2	81.9	76.6	82.2	78.1	82.1
No	18.4	9.8	18.9	10.0	17.9	9.5
Youth who underwent an HIV test	1.9	2.5	2.7	4.2	1.8	1.3
Number aware of HIV/AIDS	**1,173**	**2,087**	**603**	**811**	**945**	**1,276**
Rural						
Boys should be tested for HIV before marriage						
Yes	73.1	76.3	72.6	73.3	73.6	81.3
No	21.1	13.8	21.1	15.2	20.8	11.6
Girls should be tested for HIV before marriage						
Yes	73.1	74.2	72.8	70.6	73.2	80.0
No	21.0	15.5	20.9	17.5	21.1	12.5
Youth who underwent an HIV test	1.6	2.5	1.5	3.6	1.1	0.8
Number aware of HIV/AIDS	**1,454**	**1,859**	**1,022**	**671**	**953**	**1,188**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

11.7 Summary

Findings show that substantial proportions of young men reported the consumption of tobacco and alcohol; more than one-quarter of young men reported tobacco consumption and almost one in ten reported alcohol consumption. As expected, few young women reported that they had consumed any of these substances. Finally, hardly any young men and not a single young woman reported drug use.

Although youth is a generally healthy period of life, significant minorities reported experiencing general, mental, and sexual and reproductive health problems in the period preceding the interview. For example, 17% of young men and 29% of young women had experienced high fever, and 3% of young men and 16% of young women reported

the experience of symptoms of genital infection. Just about one in twenty young women reported experiencing menstrual problems; at the same time, one-fifth of young men reported anxiety about nocturnal emission. Finally, responses indicative of mental health disorders were reported by almost twice as many women as men: 11% of young men and 21% of young women.

With regard to care seeking for general and sexual and reproductive health problems, young women were typically less likely than young men to seek care for these problems. Moreover, patterns varied by type of problem. While the large majority of those who had experienced high fever, for example, had sought care, many fewer had sought care for sexual and reproductive health problems. Of those who had sought treatment, large proportions of young men had sought advice or treatment from a government facility or provider, irrespective of the type of problem. Young women, on the other hand, were about as likely to opt for a public sector as a private sector provider. However, it is notable that almost one in ten young women who had sought care for symptoms of genital infection or menstrual problems had used home remedies or the services of traditional or untrained providers. In the case of anxiety about nocturnal emission, moreover, young men had rarely sought advice from a health care provider, preferring to do so from peers.

Findings suggest that youth were shy about seeking sexual and reproductive health services. For example, many youth, including the married, reported that they would indeed hesitate to approach a health care provider or a pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptive supplies.

Finally, small minorities (2–3%) reported that they had undergone an HIV test. Youth were, however, overwhelmingly in favour of pre-marital HIV testing.

Chapter 12

Participation in civil society and political life

The National Youth Policy 2003 has underscored the role of India's youth in political decision-making, and argued for greater representation of youth in appropriate bodies and more extensive youth participation in the design and implementation of programmes (Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports, 2003). Indeed, there is a recognition that today's youth, who have better access to skills and information than those of earlier generations, can play an important role in influencing political processes and the socio-economic development of the country.

This chapter presents a profile of youth involvement in government- and NGO-sponsored programmes, community activities and political processes. It also explores young people's behaviours and attitudes towards individuals of different religions and caste groups, violence within their community and their own participation in such violence, and their perceptions about the most important problem facing youth in India.

12.1 Awareness of and participation in government- and NGO-sponsored programmes

Youth were asked whether they were aware of programmes in which youth could participate that had taken place in their village or urban neighbourhood in the three years preceding the interview. They were also asked whether they had participated in these programmes and whether these programmes had been organised by government agencies or NGOs. Findings are presented in Table 12.1.

Awareness of programmes that addressed youth needs was limited; just 7% of young men and 12% of young women reported awareness of one or more programmes that addressed youth needs organised in the three years prior to interview (see also Figure 12.1). Differences by marital status were negligible among young men, but among young women, the unmarried were considerably more likely than the married to be aware of one or more programmes (19% versus 8%) and this difference was observed in both rural and urban areas. Rural-urban differences were, in contrast, negligible for both young men and women. Differences were generally narrow by focus of programmes conducted, however, young women were somewhat more likely than young men (8% versus 4%), and unmarried young women were considerably more likely than married young women (12% versus 6%), to report awareness of health promotion programmes.

While four-fifths of youth who were familiar with such programmes reported that these were organised by government agencies, few were aware of programmes organised by the NGO sector. Considerably more young men than women (22% versus 9%) reported awareness of NGO-sponsored programmes. Marital status differences were negligible for both young men and women. Rural-urban differences were modest among young women but wide among young men. Young men in urban areas were less likely than their rural counterparts to be aware of government organised programmes (72% versus 83%) and more likely to be aware of NGO-sponsored programmes (34% versus 18%). We note, however, that 12% of young women were unaware of whether programmes were implemented by government or non-government organisations.

Table 12.1: Awareness of and participation in government-and NGO-sponsored programmes

Percentage of youth reporting awareness of and participation in government- and NGO-sponsored programmes conducted in the village/neighbourhood in the three years preceding the interview, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Awareness of and participation in programmes (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Aware of programme(s) held	7.3	11.8	8.1	8.1	7.0	18.5
Focus of programmes held						
Health promotion	3.5	8.2	3.6	5.8	3.5	12.3
Awareness/leadership/vocational/life skills	3.6	2.6	4.3	1.0	3.1	5.3
Employment[1]	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.6
Self-help group	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.5
Literacy	1.1	4.0	1.2	2.7	1.0	6.7
Sports and recreation	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.0	0.6	0.6
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Organising agency						
Government	80.0	80.2	80.4	80.5	77.9	80.2
NGO	22.3	8.8	23.5	8.1	24.2	9.1
Don't know	2.3	11.9	1.3	11.9	2.0	12.0
Number aware of any programme(s)	**212**	**827**	**145**	**205**	**146**	**622**
Participated in programme(s) held	3.8	3.0	4.6	1.7	3.5	5.4
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Participation in specific programmes						
Health promotion	41.2	42.5	44.7	(53.3)	42.1	36.5
Awareness/leadership/vocational/life skills	35.4	28.5	40.7	(15.9)	35.5	33.1
Employment[1]	5.3	1.1	5.8	(0.0)	4.0	1.6
Self-help group	0.0	3.4	5.8	(9.1)	0.0	0.0
Literacy	8.8	26.8	11.6	(22.7)	6.7	29.8
Sports and recreation	12.4	3.9	5.8	(0.0)	14.5	6.0
Number who participated in any programme(s)	**110**	**222**	**77**	**46**	**76**	**176**
Urban						
Aware of programme(s) held	7.2	13.9	6.3	8.7	7.2	18.6
Focus of programmes held						
Health promotion	3.2	10.5	3.2	7.0	3.0	13.6
Awareness/leadership/vocational/life skills	4.5	4.5	4.3	1.6	4.5	6.9
Employment[1]	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.6	1.1
Self-help group	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.3
Literacy	0.5	3.4	0.0	1.9	0.6	4.8
Sports and recreation	0.9	0.3	0.9	0.2	0.9	0.4
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Organising agency						
Government	71.9	77.5	(72.7)	75.7	67.4	78.3
NGO	33.9	11.9	(27.3)	8.1	39.1	13.7
Don't know	1.8	11.9	(4.5)	16.2	2.2	9.9

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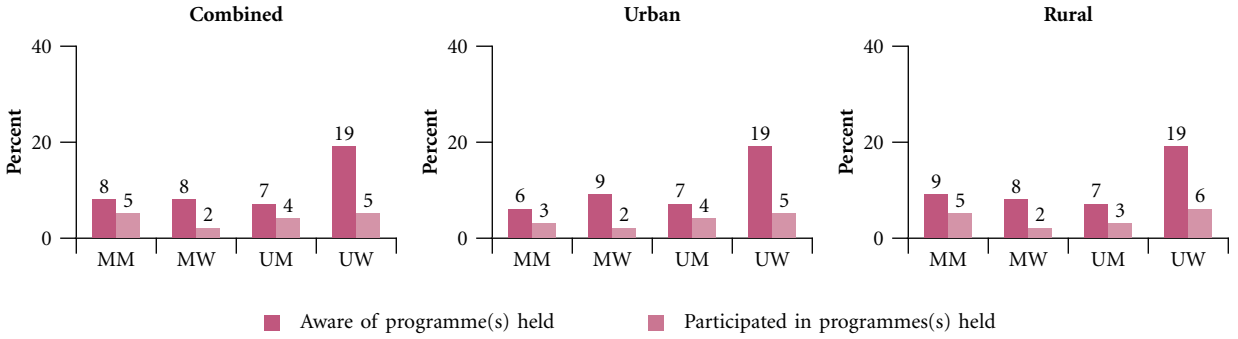
Table 12.1: (Cont'd)

Awareness of and participation in programmes (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Urban						
Number aware of any programme(s)	**85**	**351**	**39**	**85**	**67**	**266**
Participated in programme(s) held	3.9	3.2	2.6	1.9	4.1	4.5
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Participation in specific programmes						
Health promotion	(40.0)	34.0	*	*	(30.8)	34.0
Awareness/leadership/vocational/life skills	(43.3)	52.0	*	*	(46.2)	52.9
Employment[1]	(6.7)	4.0	*	*	(7.7)	3.9
Self-help group	(0.0)	2.0	*	*	(0.0)	0.0
Literacy	(3.3)	18.0	*	*	(4.0)	17.6
Sports and recreation	(13.3)	4.0	*	*	(15.4)	3.9
Number who participated in any programme(s)	**46**	**82**	**15**	**18**	**38**	**64**
Rural						
Aware of programme(s) held	7.3	11.1	8.5	8.0	6.9	18.5
Focus of programmes held						
Health promotion	3.6	7.4	3.6	5.6	3.8	11.7
Awareness/leadership/vocational/life skills	3.3	1.9	4.4	0.8	2.5	4.5
Employment[1]	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4
Self-help group	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.6
Literacy	1.3	4.3	1.5	2.8	1.1	7.7
Sports and recreation	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Organising agency						
Government	82.9	81.4	81.5	81.5	82.5	81.4
NGO	18.3	7.4	22.3	8.1	17.5	6.7
Don't know	2.4	11.9	0.8	10.5	1.9	13.0
Number aware of any programme(s)	**127**	**476**	**106**	**120**	**79**	**356**
Participated in programme(s) held	3.7	2.9	5.0	1.7	3.4	5.8
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Participation in specific programmes						
Health promotion	41.7	45.7	41.6	(56.8)	(46.9)	37.4
Awareness/leadership/vocational/life skills	32.5	18.6	41.6	(8.3)	(28.6)	26.0
Employment[1]	4.8	0.8	5.2	(0.0)	(2.0)	0.8
Self-help group	0.0	3.9	6.5	(10.8)	(0.0)	0.0
Literacy	9.6	30.2	13.0	(24.3)	(8.0)	35.1
Sports and recreation	12.0	3.9	5.2	(0.0)	(12.2)	6.9
Number who participated in any programme(s)	**64**	**140**	**62**	**28**	**38**	**112**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses. [1]Includes Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS), Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY), National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), Pradhan Mantri Rozgar Yojana (PMRY), Training for Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM) etc.*

Figure 12.1: Percentage of youth reporting awareness of and participation in government- and NGO-sponsored programmes in the three years preceding the interview, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007



A small minority of youth reported participation in a programme in the preceding three years—4% of young men and 3% of young women. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were negligible. Of those who reported participation in any programme, the largest percentage, irrespective of sex or residence, had participated in health promotion activities (41% of young men and 43% of young women). Other activities reported included participation in programmes focused on leadership and life skills (35% of young men and 29% of young women). A considerable proportion of young women and relatively few young men had participated in literacy programmes as well (27% and 9%, respectively); conversely, a considerable proportion of young men and fewer young women had participated in sports and recreation programmes (12% and 4%, respectively). Participation in self-help groups was rare among both young men and women.

Patterns differed somewhat between the married and the unmarried. Among young men, the unmarried were more likely than the married to have participated in programmes on sports and recreation (15% versus 6%) and less likely to have participated in those on leadership and life skills (36% versus 41%), literacy (7% versus 12%) and self-help groups (0% versus 6%). Among young women, the unmarried were more likely than the married to have participated in programmes that focus on leadership and life skills (33% versus 16%), literacy (30% versus 23%) and sports and recreation (6% versus 0%). Conversely, they were less likely to have participated in health promotion programmes (37% versus 53%) and self-help groups (0% versus 9%).

Rural-urban differences were evident. Among young men, those in urban areas were more likely than those in rural areas to report participation in leadership and life skills development programmes (43% versus 33%) and less likely to report participation in literacy programmes (3% versus 10%). Among young women, rural-urban differences were more apparent. Rural young women were, for example, more likely than urban women to report participation in health promotion programmes (46% versus 34%) and literacy programmes (30% versus 18%). They were considerably less likely, however, than their urban counterparts to have participated in leadership and life skills programmes (19% versus 52%). Notably, just 1–4% of young women in both rural and urban areas had participated in employment or self-help programmes.

12.2 Participation in community- or *panchayat*-sponsored programmes

In many villages and urban neighbourhoods, community-led activities include, for example, cleanliness drives, health promotion activities, and the celebration of festivals and national days. As part of the Youth Study, youth were asked whether they had participated in any community-led activities organised by the *panchayat*/community leaders in the 12 months prior to interview. Findings, reported in Table 12.2, suggest that youth participation in

such activities was limited and that young women were far less likely than young men to have participated in these activities. Almost one-quarter of young men compared to 13% of young women reported having participated in a community-led programme in the last year. Participation was more likely to be reported by unmarried than married youth (26% versus 14% among young men, and 24% versus 7% among young women). Rural-urban differences were negligible among young men (22–24%) and young women (12–16%).

Findings suggest that the activity in which the largest percentage of youth participated was the celebration of national days (92% of young men and 82% of young women), followed, among young women, by the celebration of festivals (48% of young women compared to just 4% of young men). Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence were negligible.

Table 12.2: Participation in community-led programmes

Percentage of youth who attended community-led programmes in the village/urban neighbourhood and types of programmes attended in the 12 months preceding the interview, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Participation in community-led programmes (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Attended any programme(s) organised	23.3	13.0	14.0	7.2	26.3	23.6
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Specific programmes attended						
Cleanliness/sanitation	5.1	5.0	3.4	2.1	5.4	6.6
Health promotion	4.1	4.2	8.3	3.2	3.8	4.8
Festival celebration	4.0	47.6	6.1	48.1	3.2	47.2
National day celebration	92.2	82.2	90.9	78.6	92.5	84.0
Number who attended above programmes	**688**	**993**	**253**	**192**	**547**	**801**
Urban						
Attended any programme(s) organised	22.1	15.9	10.9	6.3	24.4	24.4
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Specific programmes attended						
Cleanliness/sanitation	4.1	6.8	5.3	3.7	3.9	7.2
Health promotion	5.8	4.4	7.9	7.4	6.4	3.9
Festival celebration	3.5	48.8	5.3	51.9	3.2	48.2
National day celebration	93.5	83.5	92.1	77.8	92.9	84.9
Number who attended above programmes	**269**	**416**	**69**	**65**	**237**	**351**
Rural						
Attended any programme(s) organised	23.7	12.0	14.8	7.4	27.2	23.1
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Specific programmes attended						
Cleanliness/sanitation	5.5	4.2	3.1	1.3	5.7	6.4
Health promotion	3.6	4.1	8.4	2.5	3.0	5.0
Festival celebration	4.1	47.1	6.6	47.5	3.2	46.5
National day celebration	91.9	81.5	90.7	78.8	92.3	83.6
Number who attended above programmes	**419**	**577**	**184**	**127**	**310**	**450**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may exceed 100% due to multiple responses.

12.3 Membership in organised groups

Youth were asked whether they belonged to any organised group, ranging from self-help groups to youth groups to sports and social clubs. Findings, reported in Table 12.3, suggest that relatively small proportions of youth were members of any group (2–3%). Marital status differences and rural-urban differences were negligible. Indeed, one percent or fewer youth were members of any specific type of group, including youth groups and, in the case of young women, a *mahila mandal*.

Table 12.3: Membership in organised groups

Percentage of youth reporting membership in organised groups, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Membership in organised groups (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Member of an organised group	**2.1**	**2.8**	**1.9**	**1.9**	**2.1**	**4.2**
Self-help group	0.1	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.5
Mahila mandal	NA	0.5	NA	0.5	NA	0.4
Social or sports club	0.9	1.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	2.8
Youth group/*yuva/tarun/kishor/kishori mandal*	1.1	0.5	1.1	0.3	0.9	0.8
Other	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Became member of an organised group[1]						
Before marriage	NA	NA	(55.6)	46.9	NA	NA
After marriage	NA	NA	(44.4)	44.9	NA	NA
Number reporting membership in an organised group	**NA**	**NA**	**35**	**57**	**NA**	**NA**
Urban						
Member of an organised group	**2.5**	**4.5**	**1.7**	**2.3**	**2.3**	**6.4**
Self-help group	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3
Mahila mandal	NA	0.5	NA	0.2	NA	0.8
Social or sports club	1.0	3.2	0.3	1.6	1.2	4.6
Youth group/*yuva/tarun/kishor/kishori mandal*	1.2	0.8	1.1	0.2	0.9	1.2
Other	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Became member of an organised group[1]						
Before marriage	NA	NA	*	(70.0)	NA	NA
After marriage	NA	NA	*	(20.0)	NA	NA
Number reporting membership in an organised group	**NA**	**NA**	**10**	**27**	**NA**	**NA**
Rural						
Member of an organised group	**2.0**	**2.2**	**2.0**	**1.8**	**1.9**	**3.1**
Self-help group	0.0	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.6
Mahila mandal	NA	0.4	NA	0.5	NA	0.3
Social or sports club	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.8	2.0
Youth group/*yuva/tarun/kishor/kishori mandal*	1.1	0.4	1.0	0.3	0.9	0.6
Other	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**
Became member of an organised group[1]						
Before marriage	NA	NA	(54.8)	(41.0)	NA	NA
After marriage	NA	NA	(45.2)	(51.3)	NA	NA
Number reporting membership in an organised group	**NA**	**NA**	**25**	**30**	**NA**	**NA**

*Note: All Ns are unweighted. ( ) Based on 25–49 unweighted cases. *Percentage not shown, based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. [1]Column total may not equal 100% due to missing cases.*

Among married youth who reported group membership, 56% of young men had become members prior to marriage, compared to 47% of young women. Numbers were too small to enable an assessment of rural-urban differences.

12.4 Perceptions about action taken by *panchayats* in addressing defiance of social norms

In the course of pre-survey qualitative investigations, researchers noted that in several rural areas, village *panchayats* took action in various situations in which youth did not adhere to social norms. Hence, youth in rural areas were asked whether they believed that the *panchayat* in their village had ever taken action if someone was reported to have teased a girl or woman, if parents refused to permit their sons or daughters to marry someone of their choice, if youth were found to have engaged in pre- or extra-marital sex or if an unmarried girl became pregnant. Responses are reported in Table 12.4.

Relatively small proportions of youth perceived that their village *panchayat* would intervene in case of defiance of social norms in all of the situations probed. Typically, more young women than men perceived that *panchayats* would indeed take action. For example, 14% of young men, compared to 24% of young women believed that the *panchayat* would punish those accused of teasing a girl or woman. Fewer (6% and 11% of young men and women, respectively) perceived that the *panchayat* would fine unmarried youth who had engaged in pre- or extra-marital sex. They were even less likely to report that the local *panchayat* would arrange the marriage of youth whose parents refused to permit them to marry someone of their choice (2–8%). A similar percentage of youth reported that the *panchayat* had ever forced a boy to marry a girl whom he made pregnant (1–8%). Differences by marital status were narrow.

Table 12.4: Perceptions about actions taken by the *panchayat* in case of defiance of social norms

Percent distribution of youth by perceptions about actions taken by the *panchayat* in case of defiance of social norms in selected situations, Rajasthan (rural), 2007

Perceptions (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
***Panchayat* would punish anyone who teases a girl/woman**						
Yes	14.2	23.7	15.9	22.4	12.4	26.6
No	76.0	60.2	75.7	61.2	77.2	58.0
Can't say	9.8	16.1	8.3	16.5	10.4	15.4
***Panchayat* would fine a boy/girl who had engaged in pre-/extra-marital sexual relations**						
Yes	5.8	11.2	6.4	9.8	4.6	14.4
No	83.5	61.6	84.7	62.3	83.9	60.1
Can't say	10.7	27.2	9.0	27.9	11.5	25.5
***Panchayat* would arrange the marriages of youth if parents refused to let them marry**						
Yes	2.1	8.1	2.5	7.9	1.9	8.6
No	88.1	67.5	88.5	67.0	87.7	68.6
Can't say	9.9	24.5	9.0	25.1	10.4	22.8
***Panchayat* had ever forced a boy to marry a girl who he had made pregnant**						
Yes	1.0	8.2	1.1	7.4	1.0	10.0
No	88.2	63.6	89.5	63.8	87.2	62.9
Can't say	10.8	28.2	9.4	28.7	11.8	27.1
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases. Questions were asked only of respondents in rural areas.

12.5 Voting behaviour and perceptions of political matters

Table 12.5 presents the percentage of eligible youth—that is, those at least 20 years of age at the time of interview who would have been eligible to vote prior to the interview—who had voted in the last election. Findings suggest that while considerable proportions did indeed vote, voting behaviour was far from universal and varied considerably by sex and marital status (see also Figure 12.2). Larger proportions of eligible young men (80%) than women (65%), and larger proportions of married than unmarried youth (91% versus 74% among young men; 66% versus 53% among young women) reported that they had voted in the last election. As shown in Figure 12.2, rural-urban differences were negligible among young men; among young women, those in rural areas were somewhat more likely than those in urban areas to have voted in the last election. While a similar pattern was apparent among married young women, a reverse pattern was evident among unmarried young women.

Table 12.5 also reports youth perceptions about political processes, notably the extent of disillusionment with the ability of any political party to achieve change at the community level and the extent to which respondents believed that people could vote freely and without fear, pressure or influence.

Considerable proportions of youth reported disillusionment with the political process. Gender differences were, however, apparent. Larger proportions of young men than women (62% and 52%, respectively) agreed that there would be no improvement in their village/neighbourhood irrespective of the political party governing the state. Differences by marital status and rural-urban residence in young people's perceptions about political parties' commitment to work for change at the community level were negligible. At the same time, most young people—86% and 81% of young men and women, respectively—felt that one could vote freely and without fear or pressure. Even so, it is notable that 10–11% of young men and women felt that one could not vote freely. Differences by marital status in young people's perceptions about elections were muted. Rural-urban differences were negligible among young men, but among young women, those in urban areas were somewhat more likely than those in rural areas to report that one could vote freely and without fear or pressure (85% versus 80%).

12.6 Expression of secular attitudes

In order to gauge attitudes regarding social interaction with individuals of different castes and religions, the Youth Study inquired whether youth mixed freely with those of other castes and religions, whether they would eat together with a person from a different caste or religion, whether they would talk to someone who had an inter-caste marriage and whether they considered it acceptable to punish someone who insulted their religion. Findings, presented in Table 12.6, suggest that expressions of secular attitudes varied considerably by issue, sex of the respondent and rural-urban residence.

Figure 12.2: Percentage of youth aged 20 or above who voted in the last election, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

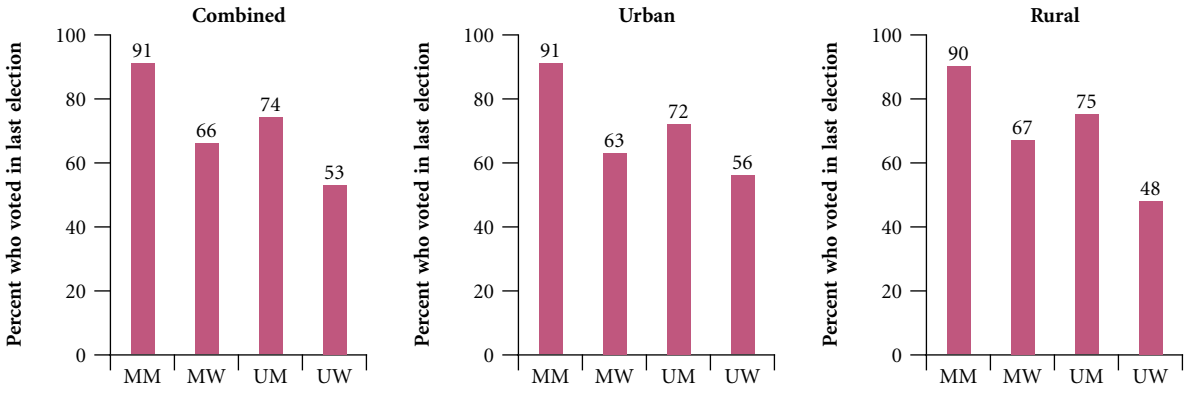


Table 12.5: Voting behaviour of eligible youth and perceptions about political matters

Percentage of youth aged 20 or above who voted in the last election and percent distribution of all youth by their perceptions about political matters, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Indicators (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Voted in last election	79.8	64.7	90.6	66.2	73.7	52.7
Number aged 20 or above	**1,299**	**2,438**	**1,716**	**1,908**	**624**	**530**
Perceptions about political matters						
Irrespective of the political party governing the state, there would be no improvement in the village/neighbourhood						
Agree	61.8	52.0	64.6	52.4	60.5	51.0
Disagree	28.2	39.1	28.0	39.1	28.1	38.9
Can't say	9.9	8.9	7.4	8.4	11.3	10.1
One can vote freely, without fear, pressure or influence						
Agree	85.5	81.1	87.0	81.4	85.7	80.0
Disagree	9.9	11.3	10.6	11.4	8.7	11.4
Can't say	4.5	7.5	2.4	7.1	5.4	8.5
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Voted in last election	77.6	60.9	91.0	62.6	72.2	56.1
Number aged 20 or above	**593**	**1,185**	**606**	**828**	**378**	**357**
Perceptions about political matters						
Irrespective of the political party governing the state, there would be no improvement in the village/neighbourhood						
Agree	60.9	53.8	62.9	56.7	60.9	51.4
Disagree	29.8	39.7	31.3	36.8	29.1	42.2
Can't say	9.2	6.5	5.7	6.6	9.8	6.4
One can vote freely, without fear, pressure or influence						
Agree	86.6	85.4	90.3	85.0	86.3	85.8
Disagree	8.0	9.7	7.7	10.1	8.0	9.4
Can't say	5.3	4.8	2.0	4.9	5.6	4.8
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Voted in last election	80.7	66.0	90.4	67.0	74.8	48.1
Number aged 20 or above	**706**	**1,253**	**1,110**	**1,080**	**246**	**173**
Perceptions about political matters						
Irrespective of the political party governing the state, there would be no improvement in the village neighbourhood						
Agree	62.2	51.3	65.0	51.6	60.4	50.8
Disagree	27.6	38.9	27.2	39.6	27.7	37.2
Can't say	10.2	9.8	7.7	8.8	11.9	12.0
One can vote freely, without fear, pressure or influence						
Agree	85.1	79.6	86.2	80.7	85.4	77.0
Disagree	10.6	11.9	11.3	11.7	9.1	12.5
Can't say	4.2	8.4	2.5	7.6	5.3	10.5
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases.

Table 12.6: Expression of secular attitudes

Percent distribution of youth by reported behaviours and attitudes towards interaction with people of different castes and religions, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Behaviours/attitudes (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Mixes freely with people of other castes						
Yes	95.1	85.7	94.3	84.2	95.9	87.7
No	4.8	14.2	5.6	15.7	4.1	12.3
Mixes freely with people of other religions						
Yes	94.2	80.2	93.5	77.7	94.5	83.8
No	5.7	19.7	6.3	22.1	5.4	16.0
Would eat together with a person of another caste/religion						
Yes	71.0	55.0	66.6	49.6	72.8	62.7
No	26.3	44.6	30.3	50.1	24.7	36.5
Would talk to a person who has had an inter-caste marriage						
Yes	47.2	35.0	46.8	36.5	46.7	33.0
No	46.1	63.5	47.1	62.2	46.7	65.1
Believes it is acceptable to punish someone who shows disrespect to respondent's religion						
Yes	72.7	64.1	72.7	63.6	72.5	65.3
No	18.0	30.0	19.0	30.4	17.9	28.8
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Mixes freely with people of other castes						
Yes	97.2	90.6	96.6	88.1	97.7	92.7
No	2.7	9.4	3.2	11.9	2.3	7.1
Mixes freely with people of other religions						
Yes	95.0	86.7	95.4	83.4	95.6	89.7
No	4.8	13.1	4.3	16.6	4.2	10.0
Would eat together with a person of another caste/religion						
Yes	78.1	69.7	78.4	61.9	78.6	76.8
No	18.2	29.8	18.4	37.6	17.8	22.7
Would talk to a person who had an inter-caste marriage						
Yes	45.7	30.8	48.7	33.2	46.3	28.6
No	47.2	67.5	45.8	64.7	46.9	70.0
Believes it is acceptable to punish someone who shows disrespect to respondent's religion						
Yes	72.8	62.7	72.1	61.7	73.0	63.7
No	18.0	31.7	18.7	32.5	18.4	31.1
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**

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Table 12.6: (Cont'd)

Behaviours/attitudes (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Rural						
Mixes freely with people of other castes						
Yes	94.5	83.9	93.8	83.5	95.1	85.1
No	5.5	16.0	6.1	16.4	4.9	14.9
Mixes freely with people of other religions						
Yes	93.8	77.8	93.0	76.6	94.0	80.8
No	6.0	22.0	6.7	23.3	5.9	19.0
Would eat together with a person of another caste/religion						
Yes	68.5	49.7	63.9	47.2	70.2	55.6
No	29.1	49.8	33.0	52.5	27.7	43.5
Would talk to a person who had an inter-caste marriage						
Yes	47.7	36.6	46.3	37.1	46.9	35.2
No	45.7	62.0	47.4	61.7	46.6	62.7
Believes it is acceptable to punish someone who shows disrespect to respondent's religion						
Yes	72.6	64.6	72.9	64.0	72.4	66.2
No	18.1	29.3	19.1	30.0	17.7	27.7
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

In response to specific issues, both young men and young women were most likely to report that they mixed freely with individuals of different castes (95% and 86%, respectively) and religions (94% and 80%, respectively). Despite this relatively secular profile, many fewer reported that they would eat together with a person from a different caste or religion (71% of young men and 55% of young women) or talk to someone who had an inter-caste marriage (47% and 35%, respectively). In contrast, just 18% of young men and 30% of young women felt that it was not acceptable to punish someone who showed disrespect to their religion. On all issues assessed, except on the issue of tolerance in situations characterised by religious disharmony, young men were more likely than young women to report secular attitudes.

Marital status differences in the nature of behaviours and attitudes towards individuals of different castes and religions were apparent. The unmarried were more likely than the married, for the most part, to reveal secular attitudes, particularly on the issue of eating together with a person of a different caste or religion (73% compared to 67%, respectively, among young men; 63% compared to 50%, respectively, among young women). Differences by rural-urban residence were also marked. Rural youth, particularly young women, expressed considerably less secular attitudes than did their urban counterparts. Indeed, rural young women were far less likely than their urban counterparts to report secular attitudes on such issues as mixing freely with individuals of different castes and religions; both young men and women in rural areas were considerably less likely than their urban counterparts to report that they would eat with those of other castes and religions (78% versus 69% among young men; 70% versus 50% among young women). Other differences were mild.

12.7 Physical fights in the village or urban neighbourhood

All respondents were asked whether physical fights—more specifically, youth beating, slapping or pulling the hair of others—were common among young men and women, respectively, in their village or neighbourhood. Findings,

presented in Table 12.7, suggest that physical fights were reported to be more common among young men than young women. Indeed, 71% of young men and 60% of young women reported that young men engaged in physical fights sometimes or often. In contrast, 55% of young men and 45% of young women reported the same for young women. Marital status differences were negligible among young men; however, among young women, the married were somewhat more likely than the unmarried to report occasional or frequent physical fighting among young men (61% versus 57%) and young women (47% versus 42%). While rural-urban differences were negligible in terms of young men's reports of physical fighting among young men and women, respectively, rural young women were more likely than their urban counterparts to report occasional or frequent physical fighting among both young men (62% versus 54%) and young women (46% versus 41%).

Youth were also asked a direct question about their own involvement in physical fights with anyone within the village or urban neighbourhood in the 12 months preceding the interview. The question did not probe further and hence we acknowledge that responses may include fights among family members and others. Few youth reported involvement in physical fights: 8% of young men and 2% of young women. Marital status differences and rural-urban differences were negligible.

Table 12.7: Physical fights in village/neighbourhood

Percent distribution of youth reporting perceptions of youth involvement in physical fights in their village/neighbourhood and percentage of youth themselves involved in physical fights in the last 12 months, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Perceptions/experiences of physical fights (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Respondents' perceptions of the extent to which:						
Young men in the area engaged in physical fights						
Never	29.1	40.4	30.0	38.5	29.0	43.1
Sometimes	70.1	53.7	69.1	55.7	70.3	50.9
Often	0.7	5.8	0.8	5.7	0.7	6.0
Young women in the area engaged in physical fights						
Never	44.8	55.0	46.3	53.0	44.0	58.2
Sometimes	54.6	42.9	52.9	44.9	55.5	39.7
Often	0.4	2.0	0.5	1.9	0.5	2.0
Respondents themselves involved in physical fights in last 12 months	**7.6**	**1.7**	**8.0**	**1.8**	**7.6**	**1.6**
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Respondents' perception of the extent to which:						
Young men in the area engaged in physical fights						
Never	27.3	46.0	27.0	43.6	27.9	48.1
Sometimes	72.0	47.3	72.1	49.6	71.3	45.3
Often	0.8	6.7	0.9	6.8	0.8	6.7
Young women in the area engaged in physical fights						
Never	46.7	59.0	45.0	54.7	47.0	62.7
Sometimes	53.0	38.9	54.7	42.8	52.7	35.6
Often	0.3	2.1	0.3	2.6	0.3	1.8
Respondents themselves involved in physical fights in last 12 months	**8.5**	**1.5**	**6.6**	**1.4**	**8.8**	**1.6**
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**

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Table 12.7: (Cont'd)

Perceptions/experiences of physical fights (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Rural						
Respondents' perception of the extent to which:						
Young men in the area engaged in physical fights						
Never	29.7	38.4	30.6	37.5	29.4	40.5
Sometimes	69.5	56.0	68.3	57.0	69.8	53.8
Often	0.7	5.5	0.9	5.5	0.7	5.7
Young women in the area engaged in physical fights						
Never	44.1	53.6	46.6	52.7	42.7	55.9
Sometimes	55.2	44.3	52.5	45.3	56.7	41.9
Often	0.5	1.9	0.6	1.8	0.5	2.2
Respondents themselves involved in physical fights in last 12 months	**7.3**	**1.8**	**8.3**	**1.9**	**7.1**	**1.6**
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases or "don't know" responses.

12.8 Perceptions of the leading problems facing youth

Finally, youth were asked to give their opinion on the most important problem facing youth in their village or urban neighbourhood. Findings presented in Table 12.8 clearly suggest that unemployment, poverty more generally, lack of amenities and lack of educational opportunities were described as leading problems by both young men and women, irrespective of marital status and rural-urban residence. Percentages reporting each of these problems varied enormously, however, by sex. The majority of young men, irrespective of marital status or rural-urban residence, reported difficulty in finding employment as the single most pressing problem (58%), followed by poverty more generally (16%), concerns about lack of amenities or infrastructure, i.e., water and sanitation, roads and electricity (12%), and lack of educational opportunities (5%). Together, these four issues were expressed by 91% of young men. Young women, in contrast, focused largely on lack of amenities and infrastructure (30%) and, to a lesser extent, difficulties in finding employment (18%), poverty more generally (17%), and lack of opportunities for education (14%). These four issues were together reported by almost four-fifths of young women.

Differences by marital status were, for the most part, narrow. While about equal proportions of the married and unmarried reported unemployment as a leading problem, the married were more likely than the unmarried to report poverty (19% versus 13–15%) and lack of amenities or infrastructure (15% versus 11% among young men; 36% versus 21% among young women). In contrast, the unmarried—and particularly unmarried young women—were considerably more likely than their married counterparts to report lack of educational opportunities (6% versus 3% among young men; 19% versus 10% among young women) as leading problems facing youth.

Rural-urban differences were also apparent. Urban youth were more likely than rural youth to mention that difficulty in finding employment was a leading problem facing youth (68% versus 55% among young men, and 25% versus 15% among young women). Conversely, rural youth were more likely than urban youth to feel that poverty and lack of amenities/infrastructure were leading problems facing youth: 18% of both young men and young women in rural areas, compared to 9% and 15%, respectively, in urban areas reported poverty, and 15% and 37%, respectively in rural areas, compared to 5% and 13%, respectively, in urban areas reported lack of amenities/infrastructure. Young women in urban areas were more likely than those in rural areas to cite lack of safety for girls as a leading problem (8% versus 3%).

Table 12.8: Perceptions about the leading problem facing youth

Percent distribution of youth by their perceptions of the leading problem facing youth, according to residence, Rajasthan, 2007

Leading problem (%)	M 15–24	W 15–24	MM 15–29	MW 15–24	UM 15–24	UW 15–24
Combined						
Finding a job/unemployment	58.3	17.5	57.5	17.1	59.3	17.3
Poverty	15.7	17.2	18.8	18.7	13.3	14.5
Lack of amenities/infrastructure (water/toilets/ roads/electricity)	12.0	30.2	14.7	36.4	10.9	21.2
Health-/health service-related concerns	0.3	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.3	1.1
Security of girls/law and order	1.0	4.1	0.8	2.8	1.3	5.8
Finding a good spouse/dowry	0.2	2.7	0.2	2.4	0.3	3.1
Lack of educational opportunities	5.2	13.5	2.7	10.4	6.3	19.4
Lack of career counselling/vocational training	1.5	3.2	0.9	2.4	1.8	4.2
Alcohol/drug abuse	0.9	0.2	1.0	0.2	0.8	0.1
Lack of sex education	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.7
Other[1]	2.1	1.5	1.2	1.1	2.6	2.0
Don't know/can't say	2.6	8.5	1.6	7.1	2.9	10.7
Number of respondents	**2,974**	**5,987**	**1,886**	**2,603**	**2,129**	**3,384**
Urban						
Finding a job/unemployment	67.5	25.4	67.0	26.0	67.1	24.7
Poverty	9.2	15.2	11.7	18.3	7.6	12.4
Lack of amenities/infrastructure (water/toilets/ roads/electricity)	4.4	12.6	8.3	16.6	3.7	8.8
Health-/health service-related concerns	0.5	1.4	1.4	0.9	0.3	1.8
Security of girls/law and order	3.0	8.0	3.7	6.1	3.3	9.6
Finding a good spouse/dowry	0.4	4.5	0.6	4.0	0.5	5.1
Lack of educational opportunities	3.9	12.5	1.4	10.1	4.5	14.7
Lack of career counselling/vocational training	3.6	5.3	1.7	4.7	4.1	5.9
Alcohol/drug abuse	1.2	0.1	0.6	0.2	1.4	0.2
Lack of sex education	0.4	1.5	0.6	0.9	0.3	1.8
Other[1]	3.6	2.6	2.3	2.3	4.2	3.0
Don't know/can't say	2.5	11.0	0.6	9.8	3.0	12.1
Number of respondents	**1,227**	**2,474**	**631**	**1,038**	**987**	**1,436**
Rural						
Finding a job/unemployment	55.1	14.8	55.3	15.3	55.9	13.6
Poverty	18.1	17.9	20.4	18.8	15.8	15.6
Lack of amenities/infrastructure (water/toilets/ roads/electricity)	14.7	36.5	16.1	40.2	14.1	27.4
Health-/health service-related concerns	0.2	0.8	0.4	0.9	0.3	0.7
Security of girls/law and order	0.4	2.7	0.1	2.2	0.5	3.8
Finding a good spouse/dowry	0.2	2.1	0.1	2.1	0.2	2.1
Lack of educational opportunities	5.7	13.9	3.0	10.5	7.1	21.8
Lack of career counselling/vocational training	0.7	2.4	0.7	2.0	0.9	3.3
Alcohol/drug abuse	0.8	0.2	1.0	0.2	0.5	0.1
Lack of sex education	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.2
Other[1]	1.5	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.8	1.5
Don't know/can't say	2.7	7.6	1.8	6.6	2.9	9.9
Number of respondents	**1,747**	**3,513**	**1,255**	**1,565**	**1,142**	**1,948**

Note: All Ns are unweighted. Column totals may not equal 100% due to missing cases. [1]Includes lack of recreational/sports facilities, lack of political participation, gambling, corruption, child marriage, lack of loan services, limited freedom for girls, social conflicts, generation gap, parents not allowing love marriage, caste differences, etc.

12.9 Summary

Findings highlight the limited participation of youth in civil society. Although a number of programmes are organised by the government or NGOs at the community level in which youth can participate, few youth (7–12%) reported familiarity with these programmes. Even fewer youth—4% of young men and 3% of young women—reported participating in such programmes. Considerably more young men (23%) and young women (13%) reported that they had participated in community-led activities, notably the celebration of festivals and national days. Finally, just 2% of young men and 3% of young women reported membership in organised groups.

Findings suggest that large proportions of youth did indeed vote, however voting behaviour was far from universal. Among those eligible, 80% of young men and 65% of young women had cast their vote in the most recent election for which they were eligible to vote. Also of note is the finding that while most youth perceived that one could vote freely and without fear and pressure, one in ten young men and women felt that one could not do so. Moreover, 62% of young men and 52% of young women reported disillusionment with the commitment of political parties to work for change at the community level.

Expressions of secular attitudes varied. Over 90% of young men and over 80% of young women reported that they would mix freely with individuals of different religions and castes. However, only 71% of young men and 55% of young women reported they would eat together with a person of a different caste or religion, 47% of young men and 35% of young women reported they would talk to a person who has had an inter-caste marriage and only 18% of young men and 30% of young women agreed that it was best to tolerate rather than punish someone who insulted their religion.

Considerable proportions of young men and women acknowledged that physical fights among young men and also among young women did occur in their village or urban neighbourhood; however, just 8% of young men and 2% of young women reported that they had been involved in a physical fight in the year preceding the interview.

The four leading problems facing youth expressed by both young men and women were unemployment, poverty, lack of amenities and lack of educational opportunities. However, young people's perceptions of these problems varied enormously by sex. Among young men, the majority reported difficulty in finding employment as the leading problem, followed by concerns about poverty more generally, lack of amenities or infrastructure and lack of educational opportunities. In contrast, the leading problem expressed by young women was lack of amenities and infrastructure, and to a lesser extent, difficulty in finding employment, poverty more generally, and lack of opportunities for education.

Chapter 13

Looking forward

Findings of the Youth Study presented in earlier chapters highlight the situation of young men and women in Rajasthan. They underscore the fact that youth are a heterogeneous group with correspondingly diverse needs, and identify numerous challenges youth face in making the transition to adulthood. Findings suggest several key programme areas for action as well as directions for future research, which are highlighted in this chapter.

13.1 Recommendations for programmes

Findings suggest a number of key programme areas for interventions at the youth, family and service delivery levels.

Strengthen efforts to achieve universal school enrolment and increase levels of school completion

Youth Study findings highlight that school enrolment was far from universal among young people in the state: indeed, one in ten young men and two in five young women had never been enrolled in school. School completion rates were also low, particularly among young women; just 38% of young men and 18% of young women had completed high school (Class 10). India's Youth Policy has articulated the need for universal school enrolment and the recently enacted Right to Education Bill has made education compulsory for all children. What is required now, particularly if the state is to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of ensuring universal primary school completion, are parallel programme actions to implement these commitments. While the achievement of universal school enrolment and primary school completion are key goals, the importance of high school education in enabling youth to make a successful transition to adulthood underscores the need, at the same time, for efforts to overcome barriers to high school completion. The stark gender divide and rural-urban divide observed in school enrolment and completion call, moreover, for efforts that target female children and children in rural areas.

A number of factors have been identified in the Youth Study that inhibit school enrolment and completion; leading among these were economic reasons; attitudes and perceptions of both parents and young people; and, among young women, housework responsibilities. Multiple activities are needed to address these barriers. Efforts must be made, for example, to address the economic pressures that dissuade parents from enrolling their children in school and from keeping them in school once enrolled. Conditional grants and targeted subsidies that encourage school enrolment and completion among disadvantaged groups need to be considered. At the same time, activities directed at parents are needed that promote positive attitudes among them towards education and school completion, raise their aspirations for the education of their children and encourage greater parental involvement in their children's education.

School-related factors were also significant barriers to school continuation, particularly among young women. Activities must therefore address these barriers, notably, distance to school, poor infrastructure and quality of education, and academic failure. The state government has launched various schemes to address these barriers; however, it is important that the effectiveness of these schemes is evaluated and promising lessons are assimilated and scaled up.

There is also a need to incorporate livelihood skills building models within the school setting and provide opportunities for those in school to gain market-driven job skills that will raise young people's aspirations regarding their education

and career. Moreover, investments in improving the quality of the schooling experience are needed that focus on providing better training and ensuring accountability for teachers. Finally, given the large proportions of youth reporting that schooling had been interrupted because they were required for work on the family farm or business or for housework, efforts are needed to adjust school timings, or to establish evening schools, to enable children to accommodate their work commitments without sacrificing their education.

Findings indicating transition to adult roles, particularly early marriage, as an important reason for school discontinuation among girls—notably among those who discontinued their education in Classes 7–9 as well as Classes 10–11—emphasise the fact that programme commitments outside the education sector are also critical to the achievement of universal school enrolment and completion. Specifically required are programmes that seek to critically examine norms and practices surrounding marriage and to eliminate the practice of early marriage. Explorations of subsidies and cash transfers that link school retention and delayed marriage among girls are needed. Moreover, findings suggest that married young women remain considerably disadvantaged in terms of school completion. Interventions are needed that give married young women a second chance to obtain a basic education.

Invest in promoting youth employment

Findings of the Youth Study that considerable proportions of youth had initiated work in childhood reiterate the recommendation highlighted above regarding the need to provide conditional grants and targeted subsidies to disadvantaged groups, which would encourage parents to opt for schooling over work for their children.

Youth are, however, poorly equipped for employment for which there is a market demand. Indeed, few youth had completed high school, even fewer had attended a vocational training programme and those who were engaged in economic activity were working largely in agricultural and unskilled non-agricultural activities.

The state must significantly strengthen investments in programmes that enable youth to make successful transitions to work roles. Enhancing employability would depend to a considerable extent on the improvements in educational attainment discussed above; it would also require greater investment in enabling youth to acquire vocational skills. Formal mechanisms must be developed that provide opportunities to youth to acquire skills for which there is an established demand, and that link eligible youth to market opportunities. These efforts need to promote self-employment and entrepreneurship through various livelihood schemes, for example, providing soft loans to youth to enable them to set up their own business enterprises. Also required are efforts to ensure that existing programmes aimed at job creation do indeed reach young people.

Promote youth agency and gender equitable norms among youth

Findings presented in this report highlight the limited agency of young women and the persistence of gender double standards among youth. Stark gender differences were evident; young women were particularly disadvantaged in terms of school enrolment and completion, and wage earning activities. While more young women than men had participated in vocational training programmes, most young women had undergone training in traditional skills, such as tailoring and handicrafts. Socialisation was gendered and young men were less likely to contribute to housework than were young women and reported, compared to young women, far more mobility, decision-making authority in matters relating to their own lives, and access to resources. And although young women were more likely to express equitable gender role attitudes than young men, about two in five young men and women alike expressed traditional attitudes concerning wife-beating. These findings call for multi-pronged interventions to promote gender equitable norms and practices that are directed at young women, young men, their families, communities, and the education, labour and health systems.

A priority is to promote life skills education programmes for young women, both unmarried and married, that will not only raise their awareness of new ideas and the world around them but also enable them to put information into practice, encourage them to question gender stereotypes, develop self-esteem and strengthen their skills in

problem-solving, decision-making, communication and inter-personal relations and negotiation. Safe spaces should be identified in which young women can build social networks and find support among peers.

Interventions intended to build life skills must also be inclusive of young men. Indeed, findings that more young men than women expressed inegalitarian gender role attitudes, on the one hand, and that considerable numbers of young men were not able to exercise agency in their everyday lives, on the other, call for life skills programmes for them that promote new concepts of masculinity and femininity and at the same time, promote messages that build egalitarian relations between women and men.

Promoting gender equitable norms and practices requires an active engagement with the community. It is essential that programmes for youth work with key community members, such as, for example, parents, political and religious leaders, to critically examine prevailing gender norms and forces that perpetuate gender unequal practices.

An increasing number of intervention models to build agency and promote egalitarian gender role attitudes among young people have been tested in India. Moreover, a number of NGOs, including Rajasthan-based and national NGOs, have implemented programmes to build livelihood skills among youth in the state. These models should be reviewed and replicated or scaled up as appropriate.

Provide opportunities for formal saving, especially for young women

Findings suggest that while considerable proportions of youth reported savings, relatively few owned a savings account. Young women were more likely than young men to report savings, somewhat less likely to own a savings account, and, among those who did own an account, far less likely than young men to operate the account independently. Programmes are needed that inculcate a savings orientation among both young men and young women, that offer savings products that are attractive and appropriate to the small and erratic savings patterns of young people and that enable young women, in particular, to overcome obstacles related to owning and controlling savings products.

Promote youth participation in civil society and political processes and reinforce secular attitudes

Findings suggest that for many youth, opportunities to engage in civic and political processes were limited and secular attitudes were not uniformly expressed. Programmes are needed—at the school, college and community levels, through national service programmes, sports and other non-formal mechanisms—that encourage civic participation, incorporate value building components, and reinforce secular attitudes and values that espouse responsible citizenship.

Provide family life or sex education for those in school and out of school

Youth Study findings provide considerable evidence suggesting that family life or sex education is urgently needed for youth, both those in school and those who have discontinued their education. For example, findings demonstrate the limited understanding of sexual and reproductive matters among young people, including the married. Misconceptions abound on most topics: sex and pregnancy, contraceptive methods including condoms, STIs and HIV/AIDS and the conditions under which abortion is legally available or restricted. Indeed, knowledge of STIs is far more limited than knowledge of HIV. In fact, even among youth who were aware of sexual and reproductive health matters, knowledge—for example, of contraception or HIV transmission—was typically superficial.

Notably, youth themselves have called for family life or sex education. Findings highlight that large proportions of youth recognised the need for information and education on these issues indicated a preference for receiving this education from teachers, health care providers or other professionals, young women a family member and, to a lesser extent, teachers. However, few young people had been exposed to family life or sex education; indeed, even those in school had not been exposed to such education, notwithstanding the *Jeevan Kaushal Shiksha* aimed at students in Classes 3–11 Indeed, substantial proportions of married young men and women reported entering

marriage unaware of what marriage entailed. At the same time, substantial minorities of young men and few young women had engaged in sexual risk taking.

A number of state government programmes are ongoing that aim to impart sexual and reproductive health information to young people. What is needed is a strong commitment to ensuring that these programmes do indeed reach young people, both in school and out-of-school, both married and unmarried and both rural and urban. These programmes should be age-appropriate and provide information on sexual and reproductive matters including sexual and reproductive rights, pregnancy, and the causes, transmission routes and prevention of infection. However, programmes should be designed not only to raise awareness among youth but also to enable young people to correctly understand and assess the risks they face and to adopt appropriate protective actions.

In addition, special attention needs to be paid to the training of trainers. Indeed, findings indicate that about one in three young women and two in five young men who had received formal family life or sex education reported feeling uncomfortable or embarrassed in the course of receiving this information, raising questions about the extent to which youth were indeed able to participate freely in discussions and clarify their doubts and at the same time, raising questions about the ability of trainers to connect with youth to whom they provided this education. Such findings clearly highlight the need to improve the quality of training imparted to trainers. It is important that teachers, health care providers and other experts undergo training that enables them to overcome their reluctance to communicate with youth on sensitive sexual and reproductive matters, that dispels their misconceptions on these matters, and that enhances their technical knowledge of these issues.

In view of the finding that the media are a major source of information on sexual and reproductive matters for youth, efforts must be made to ensure that media content is accurate and comprehensive and messages are conveyed to youth in ways that are appealing to them.

Ensure that the transition to sexual life is safe and wanted

While for the vast majority of young women sexual activity is initiated within the context of marriage, findings show that a sizeable proportion of young men and some young women had engaged in sex before marriage. As documented in this report, many youth had initiated sexual activity uninformed, which reiterates the need to provide family life or sex education to young people. Moreover, the finding that for many youth, pre-marital sexual experiences were unsafe or unwanted calls for programmes that focus on building sexual and reproductive health awareness among young people as well as developing their skills in negotiating safe sex and communicating with their partners. At the same time, programmes must make available appropriate family planning and infection prevention services for both married and unmarried young men and women in a manner acceptable to them. Findings suggesting widespread misconceptions about the condom call for bold and imaginatively designed communication programmes directed at youth that dispel misconceptions through messages that appeal to youth.

Intensify efforts to eliminate the practice of early marriage

Findings indicate an adherence, even among youth, to the traditional norms around child marriage, and the practice of early marriage not only among young women but also, to a lesser extent, among young men. These findings call for measures that go beyond information campaigns to address the underlying factors—social norms and economic constraints—driving early marriage and to better enforce existing laws prohibiting early marriage in the state.

There is a need for a multi-pronged approach to eliminate the practice of early marriage. Strategies are needed that mobilise communities to help parents resist pressures that foster the practice of early marriage. Moreover, strategies are needed that establish new norms and practices, that actively engage influential persons in the community, including religious and political leaders, as well as that initiate campaigns highlighting the adverse consequences of early marriage and how it is a violation of the rights of the child. Finally, strategies for community mobilisation must involve youth themselves as well as their families.

Equally important is the need to ensure greater commitment on the part of law enforcement agencies to enforce existing laws on the minimum age at marriage and the registration of marriages, and to levy penalties on violators. Allowing anonymous reporting, making law enforcement agencies and others aware that the practice of early marriage is not a minor violation, and making the guidelines for penalties clear to enforcement agencies and the wider community are possible steps in this direction.

Efforts to delay marriage also require providing girls with viable alternatives to marriage. Advising families to send their daughters to school when schools are too far away, the classroom is hostile to girls or education is of poor quality will not succeed. Working with the education sector to make schooling for girls more accessible, and to make classrooms gender-sensitive and responsive to the needs of young girls and the concerns of their parents is important. At the same time, it is necessary to provide livelihoods training within and outside the educational system.

Findings that marriages were often arranged without the participation of young people themselves and that few young people had an opportunity to meet their spouse-to-be prior to the wedding day call for actions to apprise parents of the need to involve their children in marriage-related decisions and enable them to interact with their prospective spouse prior to the wedding day. Parents must also be made aware of the physical and mental health consequences of early marriage and the adverse experiences of many young women (and some young men) who were married early or who were unprepared for marriage.

Enable married young women to exercise greater control over their lives

Findings regarding the multiple vulnerabilities faced by married young women underscore the need for programmes that support young women, especially the newly-wed, acknowledging that their situation and needs may differ from those of married adults. Married young women are notably isolated, have little decision-making authority and have few sources of support. They have limited communication with their husband, and notable proportions have experienced physical and sexual violence perpetrated by their husband.

Efforts are needed that address these vulnerabilities. Programmes need to break down the social isolation of married young women, encourage couple communication, build negotiation and conflict management skills early in marriage and enable married young women to have greater control over resources. Intervention models exist in India that have attempted to address these needs; these models should be reviewed and up-scaled as appropriate so that married young women have an opportunity to exercise control over their lives.

Support newly-weds to postpone the first pregnancy and promote pregnancy-related care among those who become pregnant

Findings show that the social pressure to bear children as soon as possible following marriage persists. Contraceptives were rarely used to postpone the first pregnancy and although the desire to delay pregnancy was expressed by almost one-quarter of young women (and few young men), many young women experienced their first pregnancy soon after marriage. It would appear that numerous forces work against delaying the first pregnancy—young people's lack of awareness of appropriate methods of contraception and access to supplies, their limited skills in countering social expectations and negotiating pregnancy postponement, overwhelming pressure from the family and community to bear children as soon as possible after marriage, and lack of attention from health care providers.

Programmes are needed that inform youth about their pregnancy postponement options and enable them to access appropriate contraception. At the same time, providers, including such outreach workers as ASHAs, must be trained and charged with the responsibility of reaching married young women and men—including those who have not yet experienced pregnancy—with information regarding contraception and other reproductive health matters as well as contraceptive supplies. The finding that married young women lack the freedom of movement to seek health care underscores the need for health workers to reach these women—particularly those newly married and first time pregnant—in their homes.

Findings also underscore the limited access to maternal health services even at the time of the first—and often the most risky—pregnancy. Indeed, many first births were delivered in the home setting or attended by unskilled persons. These findings highlight the need for reproductive and child health programmes in the state to build a demand as well as improve the availability of such services among young people.

Create a supportive family environment

Findings highlight the limited interaction and social distance between parents and young people while growing up and the gendered nature of socialisation experiences. Efforts must be made to create a supportive environment for young people. While evidence on models that are effective in bridging the distance between parents and children or enabling parents to adopt gender-egalitarian socialisation practices is not currently available, findings presented in this report call for programmes that address parental inhibitions about discussing sexual matters with their children, encourage greater openness and interaction between parents and children, and enable the adoption of gender-egalitarian child-rearing practices.

Reorient service provision to address the unique needs of unmarried and married young women and men

Although the RCH Programme has advocated special services for youth, including the unmarried, these services had not reached youth in our survey. Indeed, it would appear that the programme has not adequately recognised the heterogeneity of youth and the special needs of married and unmarried young men and women. Few youth were aware of sources of sexual and reproductive health information or contraceptive supplies, and few, particularly young women, had sought care for symptoms of STI or gynaecological problems. Moreover, findings suggest that many youth, including the married, found it difficult to seek appropriate care for sexual and reproductive health problems.

These findings underscore the need to sensitise health care providers about the special needs, heterogeneity and vulnerability of unmarried and married young women and men, and to orient them to the need for developing appropriate strategies to reach these diverse groups, including young newly-weds. Programmes must be inclusive of unmarried as well as married young people and recognise their need and right to sexual and reproductive health and related information and services. Counselling and contraceptive services must be made available to young people in a non-threatening, non-judgmental and confidential environment. Indeed, these findings call for the implementation of strategies outlined under the National Rural Health Mission's RCH Programme.

The finding, moreover, that neither unmarried young men nor married and unmarried young women are permitted to visit a health centre unescorted suggests that few youth would be able to attend youth clinics at Community Health Centre or district hospital levels advocated in the Adolescent Reproductive and Health Strategy. Indeed, these findings call for services that are provided closer to home and that provide for confidentiality, such as, for example, separate village health days that cater to the general as well as sexual and reproductive health needs of youth or involving outreach workers, including ASHAs, to provide information and contraceptive supplies, as necessary, to youth.

Moreover, the finding that few youth had sought care for health problems suggests the need to explore the feasibility of implementing various financing strategies, for example, health insurance, competitive voucher schemes and community financing schemes, which will allow youth to have a wider choice of providers and enhance the possibility of obtaining quality care.

At the same time, mental health issues need to be addressed. Symptoms suggestive of mental health disorders were evident among sizeable proportions of youth. Efforts are needed to screen young people for mental health disorders when they avail of other primary health services, including, for example, sexual and reproductive health services, and to refer youth with such symptoms to appropriate health facilities and providers.

13.2 Directions for future research

Findings presented in this report provide a broad picture of youth in Rajasthan. At the same time, however, findings have raised a number of issues that require further investigation, particularly with regard to the determinants and consequences of youth behaviours and practices during their transition to adulthood. While the Youth Study is indeed a rich source of data that will enable investigators to fill many of the information gaps identified, there are several gaps in knowledge that will require additional research.

A general research recommendation is the urgent need for prospective or panel study designs that follow a cohort of adolescents at regular intervals up to age 24. Thus far, research has relied on cross-sectional data. While these data are valuable in describing the levels and trends in key markers of transitions to adulthood, they rarely capture the ways in which the situation and experiences of youth in adolescence influence their life course at later ages. Moreover, drawing causal inferences from cross-sectional surveys has several limitations.

Non-enrolment and early school discontinuation

While evidence presented in this report sheds light on the reasons for non-enrolment in school and school discontinuation, further research is needed that profiles youth at risk of never attending school or discontinuing before completing primary education. Research is also needed to identify the obstacles faced by families in retaining their children in school, and the strategies that parents and other gatekeepers suggest to mitigate these barriers. Moreover, even though large proportions of young women reported early transition to marriage as a significant factor for school discontinuation, research is needed that explores whether it is early marriage that curtails schooling for young women or whether it is such reasons as poverty and school-related factors, including access and quality, that lead to school discontinuation and thereby perpetuate early marriage. As suggested in the section on recommendations for programmes, a variety of interventions need to be implemented that address school quality issues; enhance parental involvement in their children's education; provide the out-of-school, and especially married young women, a second chance to continue their education; and provide conditional grants and targeted subsidies to disadvantaged groups. These interventions need to be systematically documented. In addition, operations research is required that evaluates the effectiveness and feasibility of these programmes.

Transitions to work

Several questions related to young people's transition to work remain unanswered. Large numbers of youth in Rajasthan make early transitions to work, yet, relatively little is known about the kind of work they undertake, the time they spend on work and the extent to which their activities mark a significant labour contribution to their household. Further research is needed that explores these issues among those reporting early transition to work.

With regard to vocational skills building, research needs to explore the kind of vocational training programmes that are available to youth, and the extent to which these are accessible in reality. Research is also required to examine the factors underlying the finding that few young people received vocational training even though large proportions were in favour of receiving such training, and that despite the availability of a range of vocational skills training programmes, many young women continued to opt for training in traditional skills. Research must also assess the extent to which these programmes reflect market needs, on the one hand, and youth preferences, on the other, and the extent to which vocational training enables youth—especially the relatively poorly educated—to secure employment in the field in which they have been trained. Finally, there is a need for operations research that will test models intended to enable youth to acquire skills for which there is an established demand and link eligible youth to market opportunities.

Socialisation experiences, interaction with parents

Youth Study findings show that socialisation was highly gendered and parent-child interaction was limited, particularly on more sensitive matters such as sexual and reproductive health. Despite this, little is known regarding the factors that inhibit young people from confiding in their parents on sensitive matters, or the ways in which limited interaction and hierarchical socialisation patterns influence young people's lives, for example, their sexual behaviours, their aspirations for the future or their ability to exercise informed choice in their lives. Similarly, there is a dearth of research on parents' perspectives of the socialisation of sons and daughters, the extent to which parents justify different socialisation practices for sons and daughters, the extent to which and the ways in which parents communicate sensitive matters to their adolescent children, and the factors inhibiting parents from adopting gender-egalitarian socialisation practices and communicating with their adolescent children on sexual and reproductive matters. As mentioned earlier, there is a need to design and test interventions intended to involve parents more meaningfully in young people's transitions to adulthood in terms of educational attainment, work, marriage and entry into sexual relations.

Sexual risk behaviours

Research is needed that explores the correlates of behaviours that undermine healthy development among young people, for example, sexual risk behaviours and substance use, and the linkages between them. At the same time, it would be useful to identify the characteristics of youth who make the transition in a safe and healthy way, for example, practise consistent condom use and seek appropriate care.

The Youth Study has raised serious methodological concerns that need to be addressed. For example, despite the fact that the Study did employ such methods as gradual sequencing of questions to include progressively more sensitive questions (with regard to romantic and sexual relationships), anonymous third-party reporting and anonymous sealed envelope reporting, as in many studies, pre-marital sexual experience was far less likely to be reported by young women than young men. Moreover, sex worker, exchange, forced and same-sex relationships were rarely reported. Such findings emphasise the need to continue the search for appropriate methodologies to measure sensitive behaviours among youth; computer-assisted survey interviews are one such option. Indeed, methodological studies that compare estimates derived using different approaches could provide an insight into efforts to refine measures of reporting sensitive behaviours among youth.

Early marriage and childbearing

Research is needed that explores the extent to which early marriage compromises young people's lives. For example, does early marriage impede young women's ability to exercise agency in the marital home? How prepared for marriage are those who marry early and how does preparedness or lack thereof influence married life?

Many youth reported that they had not used a contraceptive to delay the first pregnancy and consequently, they or their wife had experienced pregnancy soon after marriage. Further research is needed that sheds light on the factors that undermine young people's ability to delay the first pregnancy.

Several promising interventions have been implemented that are intended to address the social isolation experienced by married young women and/or their reproductive health needs, including delaying pregnancy or making pregnancy safe. Few of these interventions have been rigorously evaluated and there is a need for research that assesses the feasibility and possibility of scaling up such interventions.

Partner violence

Youth Study findings have documented domestic and sexual violence perpetrated by young men on their wife, as well as forced sex experienced in romantic and non-romantic situations by a small number of young women prior to marriage. Findings call for research that explores the factors underlying these experiences of physical violence and forced sex, documents their health and social consequences for young women and men and their children, and tests interventions that enable youth to prevent such incidents on the one hand, and enable young women to overcome obstacles to seeking prompt and appropriate care, on the other.

Family life or sex education

Findings suggest that few youth had in-depth knowledge about sexual and reproductive matters, posing an obstacle to their ability to make informed choices. Research is needed that explores the extent to which young people's awareness of sexual and reproductive matters and sexual and reproductive rights varies according to the sources from which they derive their knowledge. Equally important are studies that examine the sexual and reproductive knowledge and technical competence of those from whom information is sought—including, for example, teachers, health care providers and parents—to communicate sensitive matters to young people.

There has been reticence in several states of the country to impart school-based family life or sex education to youth on the assumption—disproved in some settings—that such education will encourage youth to engage in risky sexual behaviours. Research is needed that explores the extent to which exposure to school-based family life or sex education does indeed enable youth to make informed decisions and adopt safe behaviours in the area of sexual and reproductive health. Research is also needed that explores whether the transition to married life is safer and healthier among those—particularly young women—who are exposed to such education than those who are not.

Agency and gender role attitudes

While findings confirm the limited agency of youth, particularly young women, and inegalitarian gender role attitudes held by youth, particularly young men, several gaps remain in our understanding of the ways in which these affect young people's transitions to adulthood. Further research is needed, for example, that identifies the factors underlying the expression of unequal and equal gender role attitudes, and that explores the ways in which unequal gender role attitudes and limited agency compromise sexual and reproductive health among young men and women.

Methodological issues also arise. There is a need to refine measures of agency as applicable to young men and women. The Youth Study has obtained data on multiple dimensions of agency among young men and women, the married and the unmarried, and those from rural and urban areas. These data lend themselves to methodological exercises that measure agency among youth, assess the extent to which key components of agency may differ across different categories of youth and explore whether a single summary measure of agency can be developed among youth.

Access to and control over resources

Findings that few youth, irrespective of sex, owned a savings account, and among those who did own an account, young women were far less likely than young men to operate the account independently, call for efforts to map savings and credit options available to youth. At the same time, research is needed that assesses the financial literacy skills of youth, their savings and spending patterns, barriers faced in accessing existing financial products, and ways in which these barriers can be overcome.

Mental health disorders

Findings suggest that many young people, particularly young women, had experienced symptoms suggestive of mental health disorders. Research is needed that explores young people's mental health profiles in depth; that assesses the

linkages between sexual and reproductive health on the one hand, and mental health on the other; and that explores the reasons for gender differentials in reporting mental health disorders.

Health-seeking for sexual and reproductive health symptoms

Findings suggesting that health care seeking, particularly for sexual and reproductive matters, was limited, highlight the need for research that explores the factors inhibiting youth from seeking care. Youth Study data will enable, as a start, exploration of the factors distinguishing those who sought care from those who did not, in terms of both socio-economic factors as well as parental/family-level and peer interaction levels and youth inhibitions about seeking services relating to sexual matters. Other topics requiring research attention include in-depth explorations of ways articulated by youth to overcome barriers to care seeking and the perspectives of providers with regard to the barriers they face in providing services to youth and ways to overcome these barriers.

In brief, the Youth Study has documented, for the first time, the multi-faceted situation of youth in Rajasthan. The study alerts us to the many challenges confronting youth and their ability to make a successful transition to adulthood. It emphasises the heterogeneity of youth, not only in terms of their situation but also with regard to their stated needs and preferred mechanisms to address these needs. Programmes must recognise the heterogeneity of young people, and interventions and delivery mechanisms should be appropriately tailored to meet their special needs. Evidence presented in this report provides not only a blue-print for the programming needs of youth in Rajasthan but also a base-line by which to measure the impact of programmes intended to address youth needs.

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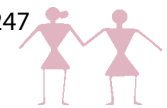

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Appendix B

Estimates of sampling errors

As in the case of any sample survey, estimates from the Youth Study in Rajasthan, as presented in Chapters 1–12, are affected by two major sources of errors: non-sampling and sampling errors. Non-sampling errors are generally the result of procedural mistakes made during data collection and data processing, such as, the inability to locate and interview the correct household or individual, failure to conform to standard survey procedures laid out by the central office, misunderstanding of questions on the part of either the interviewer or the respondent, and data entry errors. At the same time, because of the inclusion of numerous sensitive issues, the Youth Study faced the risk of other non-sampling errors as well, such as, the deliberate skipping of sensitive questions by the interviewer or refusal to answer sensitive questions by the respondent. In order to minimise non-sampling errors, a number of precautions were taken during the implementation of the study, which are described in detail in Chapter 1. However, we acknowledge that despite these efforts, non-sampling errors are impossible to avoid; they are, moreover, extremely difficult to evaluate statistically.

Sampling errors, on the other hand, can be evaluated statistically. These errors, as the name suggests, result from the choice of the particular sample selected. The sample of respondents selected in the Youth Study is only one of many possible samples that could have been selected from the population of Rajasthan, using the same design and expected sample size. Each of these samples would have yielded results that differed somewhat from the results of the sample selected. The sampling error is a measure of variability among all possible samples. Although the degree of variability may not be known exactly, it can be estimated from the survey results using standard statistical procedures.

A sampling error, usually measured in terms of the *standard error* for a particular statistic (mean, percentage, ratio, etc.), is the square root of the variance of that statistic. The standard error can be used to calculate confidence intervals within which the true value for the population can reasonably be assumed to fall. For example, for any given statistic calculated from the survey, the value of that statistic will fall within a range of plus or minus two times the standard error of that statistic in 95% of all possible samples of identical size and design.

If the sample of respondents had been selected as a simple random sample, it would have been possible to use straightforward formulae for calculating the variance of the statistic and consequently, sampling errors. However, the Youth Study sample is the result of a multi-stage stratified design, and consequently, it was necessary to use more complex formulae. The variance estimators that were used can be found in Cochran (1977) and Wolter (1985). The computer software used to calculate sampling errors for the Youth Study was programmed in STATA SE 8.2. This procedure uses the Taylor linearisation method for variance estimation for survey estimates that are means, proportions or ratios.

The Taylor linearisation method treats any percentage or average as a ratio estimate. Let $r = y/x$ be our sample estimate of the population ratio (mean or percentage) denoted by $R = Y/X$, where y represents the total sample value for variable Y, and x represents the total number of sample cases in the group or sub-group

under consideration. Using first order Taylor expansion, it can be shown that the approximate variance of distribution of r (square root of which is the standard error) is as below:

$$Var(r) = \frac{1-f}{x^2} \sum_{h=1}^{L} \left[\frac{n_h}{n_h - 1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n_h} z_{hi}^2 - \frac{z_h^2}{n_h} \right) \right]$$

in which $z_{hi} = y_{hi} - rx_{hi}$ and $z_h = y_h - rx_h$

where h represents the sampling stratum which varies from 1 to L,
n_h is the number of PSUs selected in the h^{th} stratum,
y_{hi} is the sum of the weighted values of variable Y in the i^{th} PSU in the h^{th} stratum,
x_{hi} is the sum of the weighted number of cases in the i^{th} PSU in the h^{th} stratum,
f is the overall sampling fraction, which is so small that it is ignored.

In addition to the standard error, the design effect (DEFT) for each estimate was also computed, which is defined as the ratio between the standard error using the given sample design and the standard error that would result if a simple random sample had been used (Kish, 1995) represented by the following simple formula:

$$DEFT = \sqrt{\frac{Var(r)}{Var_{srswr}(r_{srs})}}$$

where Var(r) is a design-based estimate of variance for the parameter r,
$Var_{srswr}(r_{srs})$ is an estimate of the variance for an estimator rsrs that would be obtained from a similar hypothetical survey conducted using simple random sampling (srs) with replacement (wr).

A DEFT value of 1.0 indicates that the sample design is as efficient as a simple random sample, while a value greater than 1.0 indicates the increase in the sampling error due to the use of a more complex and less statistically efficient design. Relative standard error (SE/R) and 95% confidence limits for each estimate were also computed.

Sampling errors for the Youth Study were calculated for selected variables and results are presented in this appendix for each sex and marital status sub-group of respondents for the state as a whole, and for those in urban and rural areas, respectively. For each variable, the type of statistic (mean, proportion or ratio) and the base population are given in Table B.1. Table B.2 presents the value of the statistic (R), its standard error (SE), the number of unweighted (N) and weighted (WN) cases, the design effect (DEFT), the relative standard error (SE/R) and the 95% confidence limits, for each variable.

Table B.1: List of selected variables for sampling errors, Rajasthan, 2007

Variables	Estimates	Base Population
Sex ratio (females per 1,000 males)	Ratio	*De jure* household population, all ages
Sex ratio (females per 1,000 males)	Ratio	*De jure* household population, aged 0–6
Currently married, including married but not yet cohabiting	Proportion	*De jure* household population, aged 20–24
No education	Proportion	*De jure* household population, aged 6 or above
No education	Proportion	Young men and women
Completed 12 or more years of education	Proportion	Young men and women
Ever worked in last 12 months	Proportion	Young men and women
Unemployed	Proportion	Young men and women in labour force
Discussed friendships with father	Proportion	Young men and women whose father was alive at the time of interview
Discussed friendships with mother	Proportion	Young men and women whose mother was alive at the time of interview
Independently makes decisions on choice of friends, spending money and buying clothes for oneself	Proportion	Young men and women
Can visit places outside village or neighbourhood unescorted	Proportion	Young men and women
Has savings of any amount	Proportion	Young men and women
Justified wife beating in at least one situation	Proportion	Young men and women
Awareness of sex- and pregnancy-related matters	Proportion	Young men and women
Correct specific knowledge of at least one contraceptive method	Proportion	Young men and women
Correct specific knowledge of condoms	Proportion	Young men and women
Ever heard of HIV/AIDS	Proportion	Young men and women
Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS	Proportion	Young men and women
Ever heard of STIs other than HIV	Proportion	Young men and women
Correct knowledge of the conditions under which abortion is legal	Proportion	Young men and women
Ever received family life or sex education	Proportion	Young men and women
Ever had an opposite-sex romantic partner	Proportion	Young men and women
Ever had sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner	Proportion	Young men and women
Ever had pre-marital sex	Proportion	Young men and women
Used condom consistently in pre-marital relations	Proportion	Young men and women who reported pre-marital sex in face-to-face interview
Ever communicated with spouse on contraception	Proportion	Married young men and women who had begun cohabiting
Husband ever forced wife to have sex	Proportion	Married young men and women who had begun cohabiting
Husband ever perpetrated physical violence on wife	Proportion	Married young men and women who had begun cohabiting
Husband ever perpetrated physical violence on wife in last 12 months	Proportion	Married young men and women who had begun cohabiting
Currently using any modern contraceptive method	Proportion	Married young men and women who had begun cohabiting
First delivery in a health institution	Proportion	Married young men and women whose first pregnancy outcome was a live or still birth

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Table B.1: (Cont'd)

Variables	Estimates	Base Population
Mean number of children ever born	Mean	Married young men and women who had begun cohabiting
Mean number of children surviving	Mean	Married young men and women who had begun cohabiting
Mean ideal number of children	Mean	Married young men and women who had begun cohabiting and gave a numeric response
Experienced 3 or more symptoms or behaviours suggestive of mental health disorders in the month preceding the interview	Proportion	Young men and women
Ever consumed alcohol	Proportion	Young men and women
Participated in a government-/NGO-sponsored programme in the 3 years preceding the interview	Proportion	Young men and women
Voted in last election	Proportion	Young men and women, aged 20 or above

Table B.2: Sampling errors, Rajasthan, 2007

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Sex ratio (females per 1,000 males, *de jure* household population, all ages)								
Combined	0.9513	0.0055	82,840	82,383	1.5855	0.0057	0.9406	0.9621
Urban	0.9323	0.0072	27,573	18,454	1.2441	0.0078	0.9180	0.9465
Rural	0.9568	0.0067	55,267	63,930	1.5826	0.0070	0.9436	0.9701
Sex ratio (females per 1,000 males, *de jure* household population, aged 0–6)								
Combined	0.8977	0.0135	13,274	13,465	1.2118	0.0150	0.8712	0.9242
Urban	0.8914	0.0246	3,726	2,504	1.1603	0.0276	0.8429	0.9399
Rural	0.8992	0.0156	9,548	10,960	1.1710	0.0173	0.8685	0.9298
Currently married, including married but not yet cohabiting (*de jure* household population, aged 20–24)								
Combined								
Male	0.5206	0.0110	7,116	6,692	1.8547	0.0211	0.4990	0.5423
Female	0.8475	0.0074	7,074	6,852	1.7363	0.0088	0.8329	0.8621
Urban								
Male	0.3036	0.0153	2,683	1,784	1.7231	0.0504	0.2735	0.3337
Female	0.6659	0.0179	2,487	1,659	1.8928	0.0269	0.6306	0.7011
Rural								
Male	0.5995	0.0136	4,433	4,908	1.8447	0.0226	0.5728	0.6263
Female	0.9055	0.0078	4,587	5,193	1.8005	0.0086	0.8902	0.9208
No education (*de jure* household population, aged 6 or above)								
Combined								
Male	0.2717	0.0071	71,647	71,061	4.2695	0.0261	0.2578	0.2857
Female	0.5623	0.0076	67,629	68,167	3.9774	0.0135	0.5474	0.5773
Urban								
Male	0.1485	0.0099	24,439	16,353	4.3589	0.0668	0.1290	0.1680
Female	0.3512	0.0148	22,693	15,336	4.6553	0.0420	0.3222	0.3802
Rural								
Male	0.3086	0.0088	47,208	54,708	4.1169	0.0284	0.2913	0.3258
Female	0.6236	0.0088	44,936	52,831	3.8439	0.0141	0.6063	0.6409

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
No education (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.1016	0.0107	2,974	3,010	1.9305	0.1053	0.0805	0.1226
W (15–24)	0.3844	0.0186	5,987	5,987	2.9519	0.0483	0.3478	0.4209
MM (15–29)	0.1716	0.0170	1,886	1,886	1.9626	0.0993	0.1380	0.2051
MW (15–24)	0.5153	0.0194	2,603	2,603	1.9805	0.0377	0.4771	0.5535
UM (15–24)	0.0780	0.0094	2,129	2,129	1.6208	0.1208	0.0595	0.0966
UW (15–24)	0.1680	0.0156	3,384	3,384	2.4221	0.0927	0.1373	0.1986
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.0680	0.0128	1,227	774	1.7844	0.1887	0.0427	0.0932
W (15–24)	0.1849	0.0222	2,474	1,569	2.8456	0.1201	0.1412	0.2287
MM (15–29)	0.0967	0.0165	631	348	1.4019	0.1707	0.0642	0.1292
MW (15–24)	0.2965	0.0286	1,038	428	2.0163	0.0965	0.2402	0.3528
UM (15–24)	0.0568	0.0127	987	640	1.7208	0.2234	0.0318	0.0817
UW (15–24)	0.0846	0.0178	1,436	1,142	2.4192	0.2100	0.0496	0.1196
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.1132	0.0137	1,747	2,237	1.8089	0.1212	0.0862	0.1402
W (15–24)	0.4552	0.0219	3,513	4,418	2.6074	0.0481	0.4121	0.4984
MM (15–29)	0.1885	0.0205	1,255	1,538	1.8517	0.1085	0.1482	0.2288
MW (15–24)	0.5583	0.0215	1,565	2,176	1.7092	0.0384	0.5161	0.6006
UM (15–24)	0.0872	0.0124	1,142	1,489	1.4823	0.1420	0.0628	0.1115
UW (15–24)	0.2104	0.0214	1,948	2,242	2.3202	0.1019	0.1682	0.2526
Completed 12 or more years of education (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.1774	0.0122	2,974	3,010	1.7462	0.0690	0.1533	0.2014
W (15–24)	0.1010	0.0095	5,987	5,987	2.4322	0.0938	0.0824	0.1197
MM (15–29)	0.1942	0.0160	1,886	1,886	1.7537	0.0823	0.1628	0.2257
MW (15–24)	0.0526	0.0068	2,603	2,603	1.5525	0.1292	0.0392	0.0659
UM (15–24)	0.1814	0.0128	2,129	2,129	1.5329	0.0706	0.1561	0.2066
UW (15–24)	0.1707	0.0139	3,384	3,384	2.1461	0.0813	0.1434	0.1981
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.2755	0.0210	1,227	774	1.6434	0.0761	0.2342	0.3167
W (15–24)	0.2429	0.0230	2,474	1,569	2.6631	0.0946	0.1976	0.2881
MM (15–29)	0.3211	0.0284	631	348	1.5284	0.0885	0.2652	0.3771
MW (15–24)	0.1539	0.0200	1,038	427	1.7885	0.1302	0.1145	0.1934
UM (15–24)	0.2877	0.0223	987	640	1.5496	0.0776	0.2437	0.3317
UW (15–24)	0.3228	0.0257	1,436	1,142	2.0835	0.0797	0.2722	0.3734
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.1434	0.0145	1,747	2,237	1.7231	0.1008	0.1150	0.1719
W (15–24)	0.0506	0.0079	3,513	4,418	2.1236	0.1552	0.0352	0.0661
MM (15–29)	0.1655	0.0183	1,255	1,538	1.7394	0.1103	0.1295	0.2014
MW (15–24)	0.0327	0.0068	1,565	2,176	1.5108	0.2079	0.0193	0.0460
UM (15–24)	0.1356	0.0151	1,142	1,489	1.4856	0.1110	0.1060	0.1653
UW (15–24)	0.0933	0.0126	1,948	2,242	1.9066	0.1347	0.0686	0.1181

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Ever worked in last 12 months (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.6127	0.0166	2,974	3,010	1.8536	0.0270	0.5801	0.6453
W (15–24)	0.4949	0.0231	5,987	5,987	3.5692	0.0466	0.4495	0.5403
MM (15–29)	0.9329	0.0079	1,886	1,886	1.3710	0.0085	0.9173	0.9484
MW (15–24)	0.5826	0.0267	2,603	2,603	2.7643	0.0459	0.5300	0.6352
UM (15–24)	0.4795	0.0189	2,129	2,129	1.7449	0.0394	0.4423	0.5167
UW (15–24)	0.3677	0.0196	3,384	3,384	2.3597	0.0532	0.3292	0.4062
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.5714	0.0241	1,227	774	1.7018	0.0421	0.5241	0.6188
W (15–24)	0.2390	0.0210	2,474	1,569	2.4492	0.0879	0.1976	0.2804
MM (15–29)	0.9658	0.0071	631	348	0.9848	0.0074	0.9517	0.9798
MW (15–24)	0.2525	0.0274	1,038	427	2.0292	0.1084	0.1986	0.3064
UM (15–24)	0.4825	0.0262	987	640	1.6474	0.0543	0.4309	0.5341
UW (15–24)	0.2269	0.0217	1,436	1,142	1.9658	0.0958	0.1841	0.2697
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.6270	0.0208	1,747	2,236	1.7933	0.0331	0.5862	0.6679
W (15–24)	0.5858	0.0277	3,513	4,418	3.3376	0.0474	0.5312	0.6404
MM (15–29)	0.9254	0.0095	1,255	1,538	1.2751	0.0102	0.9068	0.9440
MW (15–24)	0.6475	0.0296	1,565	2,176	2.4529	0.0458	0.5891	0.7058
UM (15–24)	0.4782	0.0245	1,142	1,489	1.6588	0.0513	0.4299	0.5265
UW (15–24)	0.4394	0.0264	1,948	2,242	2.3447	0.0600	0.3874	0.4913
Unemployed (young men and women in labour force)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.0605	0.0074	1,563	1,623	1.2349	0.1231	0.0458	0.0752
W (15–24)	0.0611	0.0090	1,627	1,930	1.5178	0.1475	0.0434	0.0789
MM (15–29)	0.0301	0.0055	1,694	1,667	1.3287	0.1832	0.0193	0.0410
MW (15–24)	0.0546	0.0102	867	991	1.3200	0.1866	0.0345	0.0747
UM (15–24)	0.0821	0.0118	867	855	1.2644	0.1437	0.0589	0.1053
UW (15–24)	0.0732	0.0120	760	783	1.2647	0.1633	0.0497	0.0968
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.0493	0.0080	640	408	0.9342	0.1622	0.0336	0.0651
W (15–24)	0.1273	0.0173	472	303	1.1281	0.1361	0.0932	0.1614
MM (15–29)	0.0089	0.0039	602	332	1.0073	0.4327	0.0013	0.0165
MW (15–24)	0.1512	0.0267	202	85	1.0577	0.1767	0.0986	0.2038
UM (15–24)	0.0672	0.0117	427	277	0.9606	0.1734	0.0442	0.0901
UW (15–24)	0.1047	0.0227	270	215	1.2176	0.2171	0.0599	0.1494
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.0643	0.0096	923	1,215	1.1853	0.1490	0.0454	0.0831
W (15–24)	0.0488	0.0098	1,155	1,626	1.5520	0.2017	0.0294	0.0682
MM (15–29)	0.0354	0.0068	1,092	1,335	1.2081	0.1909	0.0221	0.0487
MW (15–24)	0.0456	0.0106	665	906	1.3106	0.2328	0.0247	0.0665
UM (15–24)	0.0893	0.0165	440	579	1.2139	0.1851	0.0567	0.1218
UW (15–24)	0.0613	0.0140	490	568	1.2905	0.2284	0.0337	0.0889

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Discussed friendships with father (young men and women whose father was alive at the time of interview)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.2836	0.0149	2,668	2,697	1.7044	0.0525	0.2543	0.3128
W (15–24)	0.1343	0.0083	5,403	5,297	1.7986	0.0621	0.1179	0.1508
MM (15–29)	0.2131	0.0163	1,525	1,530	1.5545	0.0765	0.1810	0.2452
MW (15–24)	0.0853	0.0082	2,245	2,233	1.3913	0.0962	0.0691	0.1014
UM (15–24)	0.3098	0.0160	1,943	1,943	1.5227	0.0516	0.2784	0.3413
UW (15–24)	0.2059	0.0104	3,158	3,158	1.4463	0.0506	0.1854	0.2264
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.4092	0.0219	1,098	692	1.4721	0.0534	0.3662	0.4522
W (15–24)	0.2239	0.0167	2,241	1,416	1.9001	0.0747	0.1910	0.2569
MM (15–29)	0.3096	0.0265	501	276	1.2801	0.0855	0.2575	0.3617
MW (15–24)	0.1379	0.0149	900	371	1.2960	0.1081	0.1086	0.1673
UM (15–24)	0.4315	0.0232	899	583	1.4042	0.0538	0.3858	0.4772
UW (15–24)	0.2958	0.0193	1,341	1,066	1.5488	0.0653	0.2578	0.3338
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.2402	0.0176	1,570	2,005	1.6321	0.0733	0.2056	0.2749
W (15–24)	0.1016	0.0088	3,162	3,881	1.6366	0.0865	0.0843	0.1189
MM (15–29)	0.1919	0.0189	1,024	1,253	1.5345	0.0985	0.1547	0.2291
MW (15–24)	0.0748	0.0093	1,345	1,862	1.2904	0.1238	0.0565	0.0930
UM (15–24)	0.2577	0.0192	1,044	1,360	1.4185	0.0746	0.2198	0.2955
UW (15–24)	0.1601	0.0105	1,817	2,092	1.2217	0.0657	0.1394	0.1808
Discussed friendships with mother (young men and women whose mother was alive at the time of interview)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.2747	0.0155	2,886	2,917	1.8614	0.0563	0.2443	0.3052
W (15–24)	0.3727	0.0159	5,735	5,693	2.4915	0.0427	0.3414	0.4041
MM (15–29)	0.2057	0.0173	1,762	1,759	1.7992	0.0842	0.1716	0.2398
MW (15–24)	0.3093	0.0193	2,437	2,441	2.0628	0.0625	0.2713	0.3473
UM (15–24)	0.2923	0.0164	2,072	2,068	1.6377	0.0560	0.2600	0.3245
UW (15–24)	0.4706	0.0162	3,298	3,297	1.8581	0.0343	0.4388	0.5024
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.3720	0.0232	1,196	754	1.6583	0.0623	0.3264	0.4177
W (15–24)	0.4869	0.0236	2,376	1,504	2.2965	0.0484	0.4405	0.5332
MM (15–29)	0.2762	0.0275	594	328	1.4965	0.0995	0.2221	0.3303
MW (15–24)	0.3958	0.0265	975	401	1.6890	0.0669	0.3437	0.4479
UM (15–24)	0.3971	0.0247	965	626	1.5643	0.0621	0.3486	0.4457
UW (15–24)	0.5656	0.0245	1,401	1,114	1.8468	0.0433	0.5175	0.6138
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.2408	0.0188	1,690	2,163	1.8046	0.0780	0.2038	0.2778
W (15–24)	0.3318	0.0192	3,359	4,190	2.3676	0.0580	0.2939	0.3697
MM (15–29)	0.1896	0.0203	1,168	1,432	1.7716	0.1072	0.1496	0.2296
MW (15–24)	0.2923	0.0223	1,462	2,040	1.8748	0.0763	0.2484	0.3362
UM (15–24)	0.2467	0.0199	1,107	1,443	1.5346	0.0806	0.2076	0.2859
UW (15–24)	0.4221	0.0201	1,897	2,184	1.7736	0.0477	0.3825	0.4617

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Independently makes decisions about choice of friends, spending money and buying clothes for oneself (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.6477	0.0141	2,974	3,010	1.6120	0.0218	0.6198	0.6755
W (15–24)	0.2506	0.0141	5,987	5,987	2.5155	0.0562	0.2229	0.2784
MM (15–29)	0.8443	0.0128	1,886	1,886	1.5347	0.0152	0.8190	0.8695
MW (15–24)	0.2196	0.0160	2,603	2,603	1.9766	0.0731	0.1880	0.2512
UM (15–24)	0.5799	0.0170	2,129	2,129	1.5866	0.0293	0.5465	0.6133
UW (15–24)	0.2909	0.0152	3,384	3,384	1.9488	0.0523	0.2610	0.3209
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.6761	0.0201	1,227	774	1.5050	0.0298	0.6365	0.7157
W (15–24)	0.3717	0.0238	2,474	1,569	2.4448	0.0639	0.3249	0.4185
MM (15–29)	0.8674	0.0168	631	348	1.2441	0.0194	0.8343	0.9005
MW (15–24)	0.3346	0.0262	1,038	427	1.7850	0.0782	0.2831	0.3861
UM (15–24)	0.6355	0.0225	987	640	1.4706	0.0355	0.5911	0.6799
UW (15–24)	0.4051	0.0262	1,436	1,142	2.0225	0.0647	0.3535	0.4567
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.6378	0.0177	1,747	2,237	1.5398	0.0278	0.6029	0.6727
W (15–24)	0.2076	0.0160	3,513	4,418	2.3353	0.0770	0.1761	0.2391
MM (15–29)	0.8390	0.0152	1,255	1,538	1.4638	0.0181	0.8091	0.8690
MW (15–24)	0.1970	0.0180	1,565	2,176	1.7924	0.0915	0.1615	0.2325
UM (15–24)	0.5560	0.0223	1,142	1,489	1.5193	0.0402	0.5120	0.6000
UW (15–24)	0.2328	0.0173	1,948	2,242	1.8080	0.0744	0.1987	0.2669
Can visit any place outside village or neighbourhood unescorted (young men and women)								
Combined								
W (15–24)	0.2341	0.0104	5,987	5,987	1.8913	0.0442	0.2137	0.2545
MW (15–24)	0.2170	0.0111	2,603	2,603	1.3793	0.0514	0.1951	0.2389
UM (15–24)	0.9230	0.0086	2,129	2,129	1.4896	0.0093	0.9060	0.9399
UW (15–24)	0.2545	0.0139	3,384	3,384	1.8540	0.0546	0.2271	0.2818
Urban								
W (15–24)	0.3117	0.0196	2,474	1,569	2.1011	0.0628	0.2731	0.3502
MW (15–24)	0.2624	0.0180	1,038	427	1.3164	0.0685	0.2270	0.2978
UM (15–24)	0.9421	0.0111	987	640	1.4923	0.0118	0.9203	0.9640
UW (15–24)	0.3560	0.0259	1,436	1,142	2.0459	0.0726	0.3051	0.4069
Rural								
W (15–24)	0.2065	0.0118	3,513	4,418	1.7221	0.0570	0.1834	0.2297
MW (15–24)	0.2081	0.0128	1,565	2,176	1.2488	0.0616	0.1828	0.2333
UM (15–24)	0.9148	0.0113	1,142	1,489	1.3643	0.0123	0.8925	0.9370
UW (15–24)	0.2028	0.0148	1,948	2,242	1.6230	0.0729	0.1737	0.2319

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Has savings of any amount (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.2305	0.0126	2,974	3,010	1.6262	0.0545	0.2058	0.2553
W (15–24)	0.3842	0.0146	5,987	5,987	2.3273	0.0381	0.3554	0.4130
MM (15–29)	0.4048	0.0191	1,886	1,886	1.6882	0.0472	0.3672	0.4423
MW (15–24)	0.3925	0.0171	2,603	2,603	1.7835	0.0435	0.3588	0.4261
UM (15–24)	0.1825	0.0131	2,129	2,129	1.5603	0.0716	0.1568	0.2082
UW (15–24)	0.3589	0.0175	3,384	3,384	2.1189	0.0487	0.3245	0.3933
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.3380	0.0163	1,227	774	1.2080	0.0483	0.3059	0.3701
W (15–24)	0.4494	0.0190	2,474	1,569	1.8974	0.0422	0.4120	0.4867
MM (15–29)	0.6178	0.0298	631	348	1.5396	0.0482	0.5591	0.6764
MW (15–24)	0.4458	0.0211	1,038	427	1.3659	0.0473	0.4043	0.4873
UM (15–24)	0.3029	0.0169	987	640	1.1517	0.0556	0.2698	0.3361
UW (15–24)	0.4526	0.0250	1,436	1,142	1.9008	0.0552	0.4034	0.5018
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.1933	0.0152	1,747	2,237	1.6091	0.0787	0.1634	0.2233
W (15–24)	0.3610	0.0186	3,513	4,418	2.2937	0.0515	0.3244	0.3976
MM (15–29)	0.3565	0.0217	1,255	1,538	1.6053	0.0609	0.3138	0.3993
MW (15–24)	0.3820	0.0200	1,565	2,176	1.6317	0.0525	0.3425	0.4214
UM (15–24)	0.1307	0.0152	1,142	1,489	1.5212	0.1161	0.1008	0.1606
UW (15–24)	0.3112	0.0223	1,948	2,242	2.1237	0.0716	0.2673	0.3551
Justified wife beating in at least one situation (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.4367	0.0188	2,974	3,010	2.0636	0.0430	0.3997	0.4736
W (15–24)	0.3727	0.0151	5,987	5,987	2.4125	0.0405	0.3430	0.4024
MM (15–29)	0.4942	0.0221	1,886	1,886	1.9154	0.0446	0.4508	0.5376
MW (15–24)	0.4109	0.0168	2,603	2,603	1.7415	0.0409	0.3778	0.4439
UM (15–24)	0.4056	0.0178	2,129	2,129	1.6696	0.0438	0.3706	0.4406
UW (15–24)	0.3190	0.0165	3,384	3,384	2.0573	0.0517	0.2865	0.3514
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.3963	0.0278	1,227	774	1.9885	0.0701	0.3416	0.4510
W (15–24)	0.2516	0.0185	2,474	1,569	2.1173	0.0734	0.2152	0.2879
MM (15–29)	0.4415	0.0345	631	348	1.7448	0.0782	0.3735	0.5094
MW (15–24)	0.2952	0.0224	1,038	427	1.5846	0.0760	0.2510	0.3393
UM (15–24)	0.3797	0.0272	987	640	1.7618	0.0717	0.3261	0.4333
UW (15–24)	0.2123	0.0177	1,436	1,142	1.6413	0.0834	0.1775	0.2472
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.4506	0.0232	1,747	2,237	1.9505	0.0515	0.4049	0.4963
W (15–24)	0.4157	0.0188	3,513	4,418	2.2555	0.0451	0.3788	0.4526
MM (15–29)	0.5062	0.0257	1,255	1,538	1.8238	0.0509	0.4555	0.5569
MW (15–24)	0.4336	0.0194	1,565	2,176	1.5509	0.0448	0.3953	0.4719
UM (15–24)	0.4168	0.0224	1,142	1,489	1.5381	0.0539	0.3726	0.4610
UW (15–24)	0.3732	0.0223	1,948	2,242	2.0342	0.0597	0.3293	0.4171

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Awareness of sex- and pregnancy-related matters (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.0627	0.0064	2,974	3,010	1.4475	0.1026	0.0501	0.0754
W (15–24)	0.0560	0.0042	5,987	5,987	1.4018	0.0744	0.0478	0.0642
MM (15–29)	0.0870	0.0088	1,886	1,886	1.3540	0.1010	0.0697	0.1043
MW (15–24)	0.0738	0.0064	2,603	2,603	1.2525	0.0870	0.0612	0.0865
UM (15–24)	0.0500	0.0062	2,129	2,129	1.3035	0.1232	0.0378	0.0621
UW (15–24)	0.0193	0.0029	3,384	3,384	1.2102	0.1484	0.0137	0.0249
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.1025	0.0130	1,227	774	1.4977	0.1266	0.0770	0.1280
W (15–24)	0.0785	0.0069	2,474	1,569	1.2671	0.0873	0.0650	0.0920
MM (15–29)	0.1932	0.0216	631	348	1.3729	0.1118	0.1506	0.2357
MW (15–24)	0.1342	0.0132	1,038	428	1.2480	0.0985	0.1082	0.1602
UM (15–24)	0.0810	0.0123	987	640	1.4150	0.1518	0.0568	0.1052
UW (15–24)	0.0284	0.0059	1,436	1,142	1.3362	0.2063	0.0169	0.0399
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.0490	0.0071	1,747	2,236	1.3725	0.1447	0.0350	0.0629
W (15–24)	0.0480	0.0049	3,513	4,418	1.3700	0.1030	0.0382	0.0577
MM (15–29)	0.0630	0.0087	1,255	1,538	1.2722	0.1385	0.0458	0.0802
MW (15–24)	0.0620	0.0070	1,565	2,176	1.1430	0.1124	0.0483	0.0757
UM (15–24)	0.0366	0.0069	1,142	1,489	1.2361	0.1877	0.0231	0.0501
UW (15–24)	0.0146	0.0031	1,948	2,242	1.1215	0.2085	0.0086	0.0207
Correct specific knowledge of at least one contraceptive method (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.8306	0.0125	2,974	3,010	1.8236	0.0151	0.8059	0.8553
W (15–24)	0.5501	0.0142	5,987	5,987	2.2155	0.0259	0.5221	0.5782
MM (15–29)	0.8965	0.0134	1,886	1,886	1.9090	0.0149	0.8701	0.9229
MW (15–24)	0.6121	0.0189	2,603	2,603	1.9831	0.0310	0.5748	0.6494
UM (15–24)	0.8024	0.0143	2,129	2,129	1.6550	0.0178	0.7743	0.8305
UW (15–24)	0.4154	0.0160	3,384	3,384	1.8864	0.0385	0.3840	0.4469
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.8869	0.0130	1,227	774	1.4407	0.0147	0.8612	0.9125
W (15–24)	0.6770	0.0158	2,474	1,569	1.6822	0.0234	0.6459	0.7082
MM (15–29)	0.9742	0.0073	631	348	1.1518	0.0075	0.9598	0.9885
MW (15–24)	0.7962	0.0183	1,038	427	1.4601	0.0229	0.7602	0.8321
UM (15–24)	0.8669	0.0162	987	640	1.4965	0.0187	0.8350	0.8987
UW (15–24)	0.5699	0.0223	1,436	1,142	1.7067	0.0391	0.5260	0.6138
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.8111	0.0164	1,747	2,237	1.7507	0.0202	0.7788	0.8434
W (15–24)	0.5050	0.0175	3,513	4,418	2.0776	0.0347	0.4705	0.5396
MM (15–29)	0.8789	0.0163	1,255	1,538	1.7715	0.0186	0.8468	0.9111
MW (15–24)	0.5759	0.0215	1,565	2,176	1.7233	0.0374	0.5335	0.6183
UM (15–24)	0.7747	0.0194	1,142	1,489	1.5648	0.0250	0.7366	0.8128
UW (15–24)	0.3368	0.0191	1,948	2,242	1.7824	0.0567	0.2992	0.3744

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Correct specific knowledge of condoms (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.8257	0.0126	2,974	3,010	1.8142	0.0153	0.8009	0.8506
W (15–24)	0.3858	0.0131	5,987	5,987	2.0888	0.0341	0.3600	0.4117
MM (15–29)	0.8897	0.0137	1,886	1,886	1.8996	0.0154	0.8628	0.9167
MW (15–24)	0.4493	0.0190	2,603	2,603	1.9453	0.0422	0.4119	0.4866
UM (15–24)	0.7985	0.0143	2,129	2,129	1.6395	0.0179	0.7705	0.8266
UW (15–24)	0.2519	0.0117	3,384	3,384	1.5655	0.0464	0.2289	0.2749
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.8811	0.0137	1,227	774	1.4828	0.0156	0.8541	0.9081
W (15–24)	0.4898	0.0163	2,474	1,569	1.6228	0.0333	0.4576	0.5219
MM (15–29)	0.9663	0.0076	631	348	1.0586	0.0079	0.9513	0.9813
MW (15–24)	0.6390	0.0240	1,038	427	1.6092	0.0376	0.5917	0.6862
UM (15–24)	0.8639	0.0167	987	640	1.5274	0.0193	0.8311	0.8968
UW (15–24)	0.3556	0.0199	1,436	1,142	1.5758	0.0560	0.3164	0.3948
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.8065	0.0164	1,747	2,237	1.7379	0.0204	0.7742	0.8389
W (15–24)	0.3489	0.0162	3,513	4,418	2.0183	0.0465	0.3169	0.3809
MM (15–29)	0.8724	0.0167	1,255	1,538	1.7691	0.0191	0.8396	0.9052
MW (15–24)	0.4120	0.0215	1,565	2,176	1.7239	0.0521	0.3697	0.4542
UM (15–24)	0.7704	0.0192	1,142	1,489	1.5442	0.0250	0.7325	0.8082
UW (15–24)	0.1992	0.0130	1,948	2,242	1.4363	0.0653	0.1736	0.2247
Ever heard of HIV/AIDS (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.8636	0.0140	2,974	3,010	2.2185	0.0162	0.8361	0.8911
W (15–24)	0.5706	0.0196	5,987	5,987	3.0634	0.0343	0.5320	0.6092
MM (15–29)	0.8407	0.0210	1,886	1,886	2.4914	0.0250	0.7994	0.8820
MW (15–24)	0.4775	0.0199	2,603	2,603	2.0333	0.0417	0.4383	0.5167
UM (15–24)	0.8711	0.0135	2,129	2,129	1.8530	0.0155	0.8446	0.8976
UW (15–24)	0.7065	0.0197	3,384	3,384	2.5149	0.0279	0.6677	0.7452
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.9564	0.0081	1,227	774	1.3835	0.0084	0.9405	0.9723
W (15–24)	0.8356	0.0185	2,474	1,569	2.4756	0.0221	0.7992	0.8719
MM (15–29)	0.9563	0.0110	631	348	1.3554	0.0115	0.9345	0.9780
MW (15–24)	0.7764	0.0249	1,038	427	1.9229	0.0320	0.7274	0.8254
UM (15–24)	0.9579	0.0089	987	640	1.3910	0.0093	0.9403	0.9754
UW (15–24)	0.8888	0.0155	1,436	1,142	1.8620	0.0174	0.8584	0.9192
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.8315	0.0184	1,747	2,237	2.0507	0.0221	0.7954	0.8677
W (15–24)	0.4765	0.0226	3,513	4,418	2.6851	0.0475	0.4319	0.5211
MM (15–29)	0.8145	0.0255	1,255	1,538	2.3243	0.0313	0.7643	0.8648
MW (15–24)	0.4187	0.0215	1,565	2,176	1.7197	0.0512	0.3765	0.4610
UM (15–24)	0.8338	0.0185	1,142	1,489	1.6808	0.0222	0.7973	0.8702
UW (15–24)	0.6137	0.0268	1,948	2,242	2.4281	0.0437	0.5609	0.6664

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.4900	0.0168	2,974	3,010	1.8315	0.0343	0.4569	0.5230
W (15–24)	0.2026	0.0130	5,987	5,987	2.4962	0.0640	0.1771	0.2281
MM (15–29)	0.4750	0.0216	1,886	1,886	1.8764	0.0454	0.4325	0.5175
MW (15–24)	0.1531	0.0128	2,603	2,603	1.8193	0.0839	0.1279	0.1784
UM (15–24)	0.4991	0.0172	2,129	2,129	1.5875	0.0345	0.4652	0.5330
UW (15–24)	0.2697	0.0156	3,384	3,384	2.0383	0.0577	0.2390	0.3003
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.6182	0.0254	1,227	774	1.8328	0.0411	0.5681	0.6682
W (15–24)	0.3775	0.0227	2,474	1,569	2.3258	0.0601	0.3328	0.4221
MM (15–29)	0.6969	0.0298	631	348	1.6276	0.0428	0.6382	0.7556
MW (15–24)	0.3403	0.0246	1,038	427	1.6741	0.0724	0.2918	0.3888
UM (15–24)	0.6285	0.0253	987	640	1.6422	0.0402	0.5787	0.6782
UW (15–24)	0.4109	0.0261	1,436	1,142	2.0104	0.0635	0.3595	0.4623
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.4456	0.0204	1,747	2,237	1.7127	0.0457	0.4055	0.4857
W (15–24)	0.1405	0.0136	3,513	4,418	2.3120	0.0965	0.1138	0.1672
MM (15–29)	0.4248	0.0247	1,255	1,538	1.7707	0.0582	0.3761	0.4734
MW (15–24)	0.1164	0.0137	1,565	2,176	1.6857	0.1174	0.0895	0.1433
UM (15–24)	0.4435	0.0210	1,142	1,489	1.4312	0.0475	0.4020	0.4849
UW (15–24)	0.1978	0.0173	1,948	2,242	1.9155	0.0874	0.1637	0.2318
Ever heard of STIs other than HIV (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.1665	0.0092	2,974	3,010	1.3430	0.0551	0.1484	0.1846
W (15–24)	0.2699	0.0139	5,987	5,987	2.4173	0.0514	0.2426	0.2972
MM (15–29)	0.2413	0.0133	1,886	1,886	1.3490	0.0551	0.2152	0.2675
MW (15–24)	0.3015	0.0171	2,603	2,603	1.8966	0.0566	0.2679	0.3351
UM (15–24)	0.1367	0.0088	2,129	2,129	1.1830	0.0644	0.1194	0.1541
UW (15–24)	0.2059	0.0136	3,384	3,384	1.9529	0.0659	0.1792	0.2326
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.1912	0.0127	1,227	774	1.1333	0.0666	0.1661	0.2162
W (15–24)	0.3012	0.0157	2,474	1,569	1.7009	0.0521	0.2703	0.3321
MM (15–29)	0.3046	0.0238	631	348	1.2997	0.0782	0.2577	0.3516
MW (15–24)	0.3401	0.0196	1,038	427	1.3347	0.0577	0.3014	0.3787
UM (15–24)	0.1793	0.0121	987	640	0.9886	0.0674	0.1555	0.2031
UW (15–24)	0.2662	0.0174	1,436	1,142	1.4943	0.0655	0.2319	0.3005
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.1580	0.0115	1,747	2,237	1.3209	0.0730	0.1353	0.1807
W (15–24)	0.2588	0.0180	3,513	4,418	2.4312	0.0694	0.2234	0.2941
MM (15–29)	0.2270	0.0154	1,255	1,538	1.3042	0.0680	0.1966	0.2574
MW (15–24)	0.2940	0.0201	1,565	2,176	1.7413	0.0682	0.2545	0.3335
UM (15–24)	0.1184	0.0113	1,142	1,489	1.1853	0.0957	0.0961	0.1408
UW (15–24)	0.1752	0.0180	1,948	2,242	2.0919	0.1029	0.1397	0.2107

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Correct knowledge of the conditions under which abortion is legal (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.0552	0.0061	2,974	3,010	1.4513	0.1101	0.0433	0.0672
W (15–24)	0.0501	0.0048	5,987	5,987	1.7043	0.0960	0.0406	0.0595
MM (15–29)	0.0717	0.0093	1,886	1,886	1.5678	0.1299	0.0533	0.0900
MW (15–24)	0.0496	0.0063	2,603	2,603	1.4703	0.1262	0.0372	0.0619
UM (15–24)	0.0482	0.0067	2,129	2,129	1.4445	0.1392	0.0350	0.0614
UW (15–24)	0.0494	0.0050	3,384	3,384	1.3426	0.1012	0.0396	0.0593
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.0534	0.0087	1,227	774	1.3519	0.1625	0.0363	0.0705
W (15–24)	0.0607	0.0071	2,474	1,569	1.4759	0.1168	0.0467	0.0746
MM (15–29)	0.0851	0.0160	631	348	1.4358	0.1875	0.0537	0.1165
MW (15–24)	0.0610	0.0097	1,038	427	1.3016	0.1585	0.0420	0.0801
UM (15–24)	0.0471	0.0090	987	640	1.3321	0.1907	0.0294	0.0648
UW (15–24)	0.0603	0.0089	1,436	1,142	1.4222	0.1482	0.0427	0.0779
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.0559	0.0076	1,747	2,237	1.3848	0.1363	0.0409	0.0708
W (15–24)	0.0463	0.0060	3,513	4,418	1.6960	0.1299	0.0345	0.0581
MM (15–29)	0.0687	0.0108	1,255	1,538	1.5193	0.1580	0.0473	0.0900
MW (15–24)	0.0473	0.0073	1,565	2,176	1.3506	0.1533	0.0330	0.0616
UM (15–24)	0.0486	0.0088	1,142	1,489	1.3776	0.1804	0.0314	0.0659
UW (15–24)	0.0439	0.0061	1,948	2,242	1.3076	0.1383	0.0319	0.0558
Ever received family life or sex education (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.0318	0.0052	2,974	3,010	1.6056	0.1626	0.0216	0.0419
W (15–24)	0.0320	0.0032	5,987	5,987	1.4099	0.1002	0.0257	0.0383
MM (15–29)	0.0190	0.0043	1,886	1,886	1.3783	0.2283	0.0104	0.0275
MW (15–24)	0.0122	0.0023	2,603	2,603	1.0807	0.1903	0.0077	0.0168
UM (15–24)	0.0366	0.0059	2,129	2,129	1.4580	0.1622	0.0249	0.0483
UW (15–24)	0.0635	0.0060	3,384	3,384	1.4218	0.0939	0.0517	0.0752
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.0307	0.0063	1,227	774	1.2820	0.2059	0.0182	0.0431
W (15–24)	0.0689	0.0075	2,474	1,569	1.4799	0.1094	0.0540	0.0837
MM (15–29)	0.0168	0.0052	631	348	1.0210	0.3110	0.0065	0.0271
MW (15–24)	0.0253	0.0054	1,038	427	1.0972	0.2113	0.0148	0.0359
UM (15–24)	0.0333	0.0071	987	640	1.2363	0.2123	0.0194	0.0472
UW (15–24)	0.1080	0.0110	1,436	1,142	1.3480	0.1023	0.0863	0.1297
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.0321	0.0066	1,747	2,237	1.5628	0.2053	0.0191	0.0451
W (15–24)	0.0189	0.0030	3,513	4,418	1.3224	0.1608	0.0129	0.0249
MM (15–29)	0.0195	0.0052	1,255	1,538	1.3271	0.2661	0.0093	0.0296
MW (15–24)	0.0097	0.0026	1,565	2,176	1.0347	0.2649	0.0046	0.0147
UM (15–24)	0.0380	0.0079	1,142	1,489	1.3978	0.2081	0.0224	0.0536
UW (15–24)	0.0408	0.0064	1,948	2,242	1.4177	0.1558	0.0283	0.0533

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Ever had an opposite-sex romantic partner (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.1097	0.0092	2,974	3,010	1.6087	0.0841	0.0915	0.1278
W (15–24)	0.0667	0.0056	5,987	5,987	1.7480	0.0845	0.0556	0.0778
MM (15–29)	0.0746	0.0087	1,886	1,886	1.4375	0.1166	0.0575	0.0917
MW (15–24)	0.0504	0.0059	2,603	2,603	1.3729	0.1169	0.0388	0.0620
UM (15–24)	0.1263	0.0115	2,129	2,129	1.5946	0.0909	0.1037	0.1489
UW (15–24)	0.0946	0.0076	3,384	3,384	1.5122	0.0804	0.0796	0.1096
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.1170	0.0130	1,227	774	1.4177	0.1112	0.0914	0.1427
W (15–24)	0.0855	0.0098	2,474	1,569	1.7500	0.1151	0.0661	0.1048
MM (15–29)	0.0738	0.0113	631	348	1.0816	0.1526	0.0517	0.0960
MW (15–24)	0.0637	0.0095	1,038	427	1.2567	0.1496	0.0449	0.0824
UM (15–24)	0.1255	0.0147	987	640	1.3915	0.1170	0.0966	0.1544
UW (15–24)	0.1051	0.0126	1,436	1,142	1.5529	0.1196	0.0803	0.1298
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.1071	0.0116	1,747	2,237	1.5655	0.1082	0.0843	0.1299
W (15–24)	0.0600	0.0067	3,513	4,418	1.6689	0.1114	0.0469	0.0732
MM (15–29)	0.0748	0.0104	1,255	1,538	1.3946	0.1385	0.0544	0.0952
MW (15–24)	0.0477	0.0067	1,565	2,176	1.2517	0.1413	0.0345	0.0610
UM (15–24)	0.1266	0.0152	1,142	1,489	1.5393	0.1197	0.0968	0.1565
UW (15–24)	0.0892	0.0096	1,948	2,242	1.4782	0.1070	0.0704	0.1080
Ever had sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.0470	0.0061	2,974	3,010	1.5595	0.1289	0.0350	0.0589
W (15–24)	0.0102	0.0018	5,987	5,987	1.3500	0.1719	0.0068	0.0137
MM (15–29)	0.0395	0.0061	1,886	1,886	1.3657	0.1551	0.0274	0.0516
MW (15–24)	0.0095	0.0024	2,603	2,603	1.2610	0.2526	0.0048	0.0142
UM (15–24)	0.0519	0.0081	2,129	2,129	1.6943	0.1570	0.0359	0.0680
UW (15–24)	0.0122	0.0023	3,384	3,384	1.2144	0.1881	0.0077	0.0167
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.0367	0.0065	1,227	774	1.2148	0.1779	0.0238	0.0495
W (15–24)	0.0060	0.0019	2,474	1,569	1.2053	0.3119	0.0023	0.0097
MM (15–29)	0.0340	0.0071	631	348	0.9889	0.2100	0.0199	0.0481
MW (15–24)	0.0039	0.0019	1,038	427	0.9933	0.4924	0.0001	0.0077
UM (15–24)	0.0393	0.0074	987	640	1.1967	0.1883	0.0247	0.0539
UW (15–24)	0.0079	0.0030	1,436	1,142	1.2871	0.3812	0.0020	0.0138
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.0505	0.0078	1,747	2,237	1.4814	0.1537	0.0352	0.0658
W (15–24)	0.0117	0.0023	3,513	4,418	1.2574	0.1950	0.0072	0.0162
MM (15–29)	0.0408	0.0073	1,255	1,538	1.3117	0.1797	0.0263	0.0552
MW (15–24)	0.0106	0.0028	1,565	2,176	1.0998	0.2689	0.0050	0.0162
UM (15–24)	0.0573	0.0111	1,142	1,489	1.6140	0.1938	0.0355	0.0792
UW (15–24)	0.0144	0.0031	1,948	2,242	1.1388	0.2139	0.0083	0.0204

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Ever had pre-marital sex (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.1546	0.0119	2,974	3,010	1.8002	0.0772	0.1311	0.1781
W (15–24)	0.0241	0.0037	5,987	5,987	1.8863	0.1551	0.0168	0.0315
MM (15–29)	0.1857	0.0141	1,886	1,886	1.5705	0.0758	0.1580	0.2133
MW (15–24)	0.0269	0.0050	2,603	2,603	1.5825	0.1868	0.0170	0.0367
UM (15–24)	0.0868	0.0104	2,129	2,129	1.7095	0.1202	0.0663	0.1074
UW (15–24)	0.0201	0.0033	3,384	3,384	1.3517	0.1624	0.0137	0.0265
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.1118	0.0111	1,227	774	1.2352	0.0994	0.0899	0.1337
W (15–24)	0.0168	0.0040	2,474	1,569	1.5282	0.2350	0.0090	0.0246
MM (15–29)	0.1458	0.0168	631	348	1.1936	0.1151	0.1128	0.1789
MW (15–24)	0.0197	0.0063	1,038	427	1.4528	0.3186	0.0073	0.0320
UM (15–24)	0.0821	0.0098	987	640	1.1251	0.1198	0.0628	0.1015
UW (15–24)	0.0143	0.0035	1,436	1,142	1.1269	0.2473	0.0073	0.0212
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.1694	0.0154	1,747	2,237	1.7144	0.0908	0.1391	0.1997
W (15–24)	0.0267	0.0049	3,513	4,418	1.7937	0.1827	0.0171	0.0363
MM (15–29)	0.1947	0.0167	1,255	1,538	1.4902	0.0856	0.1619	0.2275
MW (15–24)	0.0283	0.0059	1,565	2,176	1.4040	0.2082	0.0167	0.0398
UM (15–24)	0.0889	0.0143	1,142	1,489	1.6962	0.1608	0.0607	0.1170
UW (15–24)	0.0230	0.0045	1,948	2,242	1.3375	0.1975	0.0141	0.0320
Used condoms consistently in pre-marital relations (young men and women who reported pre-marital sex in face-to-face interview)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.0617	0.0113	351	407	0.8813	0.1838	0.0392	0.0841
W (15–24)	0.0374	0.0191	69	69	0.8292	0.5104	0.0000	0.0751
MM (15–29)	0.0537	0.0132	289	313	0.9945	0.2461	0.0275	0.0798
UM (15–24)	0.1206	0.0254	137	144	0.9113	0.2110	0.0703	0.1710
Ever communicated with spouse on contraception (married young men and women who had begun cohabiting)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	0.4197	0.0181	1,712	1,690	1.5159	0.0431	0.3840	0.4553
MW (15–24)	0.5666	0.0159	2,381	2,363	1.5623	0.0280	0.5353	0.5978
Urban								
MM (15–29)	0.5582	0.0295	594	327	1.4445	0.0528	0.5002	0.6162
MW (15–24)	0.6415	0.0202	972	401	1.3126	0.0315	0.6018	0.6813
Rural								
MM (15–29)	0.3864	0.0208	1,118	1,363	1.4282	0.0539	0.3454	0.4274
MW (15–24)	0.5513	0.0186	1,409	1,962	1.4011	0.0337	0.5147	0.5879

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Husband ever forced wife to have sex (married young men and women who had begun cohabiting)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	0.1718	0.0172	1,712	1,690	1.8841	0.1000	0.1380	0.2056
MW (15–24)	0.3979	0.0138	2,381	2,363	1.3776	0.0347	0.3707	0.4252
Urban								
MM (15–29)	0.1170	0.0213	594	327	1.6107	0.1817	0.0751	0.1588
MW (15–24)	0.3412	0.0167	972	401	1.0947	0.0488	0.3084	0.3740
Rural								
MM (15–29)	0.1850	0.0205	1,118	1,363	1.7654	0.1109	0.1446	0.2253
MW (15–24)	0.4095	0.0160	1,409	1,962	1.2232	0.0391	0.3780	0.4411
Husband ever perpetrated physical violence on wife (married young men and women who had begun cohabiting)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	0.1346	0.0126	1,712	1,690	1.5276	0.0936	0.1098	0.1595
MW (15–24)	0.1839	0.0158	2,381	2,363	1.9900	0.0859	0.1528	0.2151
Urban								
MM (15–29)	0.1166	0.0162	594	327	1.2273	0.1387	0.0847	0.1484
MW (15–24)	0.1182	0.0127	972	401	1.2286	0.1077	0.0931	0.1432
Rural								
MM (15–29)	0.1390	0.0151	1,118	1,363	1.4616	0.1088	0.1092	0.1688
MW (15–24)	0.1974	0.0188	1,409	1,962	1.7724	0.0953	0.1604	0.2344
Husband ever perpetrated physical violence on wife in last 12 months (married young men and women who had begun cohabiting)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	0.0796	0.0097	1,712	1,690	1.4882	0.1223	0.0604	0.0988
MW (15–24)	0.1468	0.0127	2,381	2,363	1.7548	0.0867	0.1217	0.1718
Urban								
MM (15–29)	0.0729	0.0131	594	327	1.2245	0.1794	0.0471	0.0986
MW (15–24)	0.0886	0.0106	972	401	1.1631	0.1197	0.0677	0.1095
Rural								
MM (15–29)	0.0812	0.0117	1,118	1,363	1.4269	0.1436	0.0583	0.1042
MW (15–24)	0.1587	0.0151	1,409	1,962	1.5501	0.0951	0.1289	0.1884
Currently using any modern contraceptive method (married young men and women who had begun cohabiting)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	0.3085	0.0173	1,712	1,690	1.5537	0.0562	0.2743	0.3426
MW (15–24)	0.1587	0.0115	2,381	2,363	1.5323	0.0723	0.1361	0.1813
Urban								
MM (15–29)	0.4038	0.0225	594	327	1.1177	0.0558	0.3594	0.4481
MW (15–24)	0.2257	0.0160	972	401	1.1918	0.0708	0.1943	0.2572
Rural								
MM (15–29)	0.2856	0.0206	1,118	1,363	1.5211	0.0720	0.2451	0.3261
MW (15–24)	0.1451	0.0135	1,409	1,962	1.4369	0.0930	0.1185	0.1716

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
First delivery in a health institution (married young men and women whose first pregnancy outcome was a live or still birth)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	0.3906	0.0250	1,192	1,180	1.7664	0.0639	0.3414	0.4397
MW (15–24)	0.4464	0.0231	1,607	1,611	1.8615	0.0517	0.4009	0.4918
Urban								
MM (15–29)	0.6305	0.0323	403	222	1.3410	0.0512	0.5669	0.6940
MW (15–24)	0.6471	0.0308	630	259	1.6145	0.0475	0.5866	0.7077
Rural								
MM (15–29)	0.3348	0.0288	789	958	1.7127	0.0860	0.2782	0.3915
MW (15–24)	0.4078	0.0263	977	1,352	1.6738	0.0645	0.3560	0.4596
Mean number of children ever born (married young men and women who had begun cohabiting)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	1.2567	0.0410	1,886	1,886	1.4398	0.0326	1.1760	1.3373
MW (15–24)	1.2043	0.0322	2,603	2,603	1.4479	0.0268	1.1409	1.2677
Urban								
MM (15–29)	1.1505	0.0498	631	348	1.1323	0.0433	1.0525	1.2485
MW (15–24)	1.0798	0.0370	1,038	427	1.1712	0.0343	1.0069	1.1526
Rural								
MM (15–29)	1.2807	0.0490	1,255	1,538	1.3740	0.0382	1.1843	1.3771
MW (15–24)	1.2288	0.0376	1,565	2,176	1.2868	0.0306	1.1548	1.3028
Mean number of children surviving (married young men and women who had begun cohabiting)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	1.2124	0.0402	1,886	1,886	1.4607	0.0331	1.1333	1.2916
MW (15–24)	1.1067	0.0277	2,603	2,603	1.3325	0.0250	1.0523	1.1612
Urban								
MM (15–29)	1.1317	0.0497	631	348	1.1536	0.0439	1.0338	1.2296
MW (15–24)	1.0097	0.0353	1,038	427	1.1949	0.0349	0.9403	1.0791
Rural								
MM (15–29)	1.2307	0.0480	1,255	1,538	1.3964	0.0390	1.1362	1.3253
MW (15–24)	1.1258	0.0322	1,565	2,176	1.1809	0.0286	1.0624	1.1892
Mean ideal number of children (married young men and women who had begun cohabiting and gave a numeric response)								
Combined								
MM (15–29)	2.3194	0.0260	1,509	1,488	1.5081	0.0112	2.2683	2.3706
MW (15–24)	2.3006	0.0306	2,298	2,261	2.2051	0.0133	2.2403	2.3609
Urban								
MM (15–29)	2.2530	0.0344	535	296	1.2989	0.0153	2.1853	2.3208
MW (15–24)	2.1584	0.0314	958	394	1.6083	0.0145	2.0967	2.2202
Rural								
MM (15–29)	2.3359	0.0312	974	1,192	1.4296	0.0134	2.2744	2.3974
MW (15–24)	2.3306	0.0361	1,340	1,867	1.9607	0.0155	2.2595	2.4018

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Experienced 3 or more symptoms or behaviours suggestive of mental health disorders in the month preceding the interview (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.1091	0.0084	2,974	3,010	1.4603	0.0765	0.0927	0.1256
W (15–24)	0.2089	0.0094	5,987	5,987	1.7828	0.0448	0.1904	0.2273
MM (15–29)	0.1211	0.0101	1,886	1,886	1.3413	0.0832	0.1013	0.1409
MW (15–24)	0.2270	0.0126	2,603	2,603	1.5303	0.0554	0.2022	0.2517
UM (15–24)	0.1118	0.0091	2,129	2,129	1.3367	0.0817	0.0938	0.1298
UW (15–24)	0.1815	0.0098	3,384	3,384	1.4808	0.0541	0.1622	0.2008
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.1076	0.0117	1,227	774	1.3174	0.1084	0.0846	0.1305
W (15–24)	0.1648	0.0096	2,474	1,569	1.2931	0.0585	0.1458	0.1838
MM (15–29)	0.0957	0.0125	631	348	1.0644	0.1304	0.0711	0.1202
MW (15–24)	0.1947	0.0126	1,038	427	1.0235	0.0646	0.1699	0.2195
UM (15–24)	0.1076	0.0127	987	640	1.2839	0.1178	0.0826	0.1325
UW (15–24)	0.1379	0.0110	1,436	1,142	1.2063	0.0796	0.1163	0.1595
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.1097	0.0105	1,747	2,237	1.4025	0.0956	0.0890	0.1304
W (15–24)	0.2245	0.0121	3,513	4,418	1.7136	0.0537	0.2008	0.2483
MM (15–29)	0.1269	0.0120	1,255	1,538	1.2749	0.0945	0.1033	0.1504
MW (15–24)	0.2333	0.0148	1,565	2,176	1.3878	0.0636	0.2041	0.2625
UM (15–24)	0.1136	0.0119	1,142	1,489	1.2623	0.1044	0.0902	0.1369
UW (15–24)	0.2037	0.0134	1,948	2,242	1.4670	0.0657	0.1774	0.2301
Ever consumed alcohol (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.0840	0.0083	2,974	3,010	1.6300	0.0987	0.0677	0.1003
W (15–24)	0.0009	0.0003	5,987	5,987	0.8739	0.3838	0.0002	0.0015
MM (15–29)	0.1909	0.0145	1,886	1,886	1.5971	0.0757	0.1624	0.2194
MW (15–24)	0.0003	0.0002	2,603	2,603	0.6630	0.7089	0.0000	0.0008
UM (15–24)	0.0549	0.0072	2,129	2,129	1.4516	0.1305	0.0408	0.0690
UW (15–24)	0.0017	0.0008	3,384	3,384	1.0807	0.4522	0.0002	0.0032
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.0797	0.0111	1,227	774	1.4307	0.1388	0.0579	0.1015
W (15–24)	0.0021	0.0010	2,474	1,569	1.1385	0.5036	0.0000	0.0041
MM (15–29)	0.1699	0.0181	631	348	1.2107	0.1066	0.1343	0.2056
MW (15–24)	0.0020	0.0014	1,038	427	1.0271	0.7044	0.0000	0.0049
UM (15–24)	0.0635	0.0103	987	640	1.3195	0.1613	0.0434	0.0837
UW (15–24)	0.0021	0.0015	1,436	1,142	1.2516	0.7242	0.0000	0.0050
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.0855	0.0105	1,747	2,237	1.5673	0.1227	0.0648	0.1061
W (15–24)	0.0004	0.0003	3,513	4,418	0.7147	0.5745	0.0000	0.0009
MM (15–29)	0.1956	0.0172	1,255	1,538	1.5358	0.0879	0.1618	0.2295
MW (15–24)	0.0000	0.0000	1,565	2,176	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
UM (15–24)	0.0512	0.0092	1,142	1,489	1.4136	0.1801	0.0331	0.0694
UW (15–24)	0.0015	0.0009	1,948	2,242	0.9807	0.5761	0.0000	0.0032

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Table B.2: (Cont'd)

Variable/ respondent category	Value (R)	Standard error (SE)	Number of cases		Design effect (DEFT)	Relative standard error (SE/R)	95% Confidence limits	
			Unweighted (N)	Weighted (WN)			Lower	Upper
Participated in a government- /NGO- sponsored programme in the 3 years preceding the interview (young men and women)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.0377	0.0063	2,974	3,010	1.7977	0.1666	0.0253	0.0500
W (15–24)	0.0299	0.0032	5,987	5,987	1.4681	0.1081	0.0235	0.0363
MM (15–29)	0.0454	0.0095	1,886	1,886	1.9785	0.2089	0.0267	0.0641
MW (15–24)	0.0171	0.0031	2,603	2,603	1.2229	0.1819	0.0110	0.0232
UM (15–24)	0.0355	0.0060	2,129	2,129	1.4966	0.1692	0.0236	0.0473
UW (15–24)	0.0537	0.0057	3,384	3,384	1.4721	0.1063	0.0424	0.0649
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.0392	0.0102	1,227	774	1.8421	0.2604	0.0191	0.0593
W (15–24)	0.0319	0.0044	2,474	1,569	1.2344	0.1368	0.0233	0.0404
MM (15–29)	0.0247	0.0080	631	348	1.2964	0.3245	0.0089	0.0405
MW (15–24)	0.0178	0.0046	1,038	427	1.1286	0.2602	0.0087	0.0269
UM (15–24)	0.0404	0.0102	987	640	1.6203	0.2514	0.0204	0.0604
UW (15–24)	0.0445	0.0062	1,436	1,142	1.1311	0.1384	0.0324	0.0566
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.0372	0.0077	1,747	2,237	1.6953	0.2066	0.0220	0.0523
W (15–24)	0.0292	0.0041	3,513	4,418	1.4408	0.1402	0.0211	0.0373
MM (15–29)	0.0501	0.0115	1,255	1,538	1.8593	0.2286	0.0275	0.0726
MW (15–24)	0.0169	0.0036	1,565	2,176	1.1041	0.2127	0.0098	0.0240
UM (15–24)	0.0333	0.0074	1,142	1,489	1.3883	0.2214	0.0188	0.0478
UW (15–24)	0.0583	0.0079	1,948	2,242	1.4956	0.1362	0.0427	0.0740
Voted in last election (young men and women, aged 20 and above)								
Combined								
M (15–24)	0.7978	0.0134	1,299	1,320	1.2008	0.0168	0.7714	0.8241
W (15–24)	0.6464	0.0130	2,438	3,047	1.3398	0.0201	0.6209	0.6720
MM (15–29)	0.9054	0.0084	1,716	1,688	1.1952	0.0093	0.8888	0.9220
MW (15–24)	0.6615	0.0138	1,908	1,830	1.2717	0.0208	0.6343	0.6886
UM (15–24)	0.7356	0.0221	624	567	1.2489	0.0300	0.6922	0.7791
UW (15–24)	0.5286	0.0284	530	490	1.3090	0.0537	0.4727	0.5846
Urban								
M (15–24)	0.7754	0.0239	593	379	1.3938	0.0308	0.7283	0.8224
W (15–24)	0.6089	0.0218	1,185	800	1.5350	0.0358	0.5661	0.6518
MM (15–29)	0.9121	0.0121	606	334	1.0551	0.0133	0.8882	0.9360
MW (15–24)	0.6247	0.0241	828	342	1.4335	0.0386	0.5772	0.6723
UM (15–24)	0.7215	0.0308	378	246	1.3346	0.0427	0.6609	0.7822
UW (15–24)	0.5633	0.0317	357	285	1.2057	0.0563	0.5009	0.6257
Rural								
M (15–24)	0.8068	0.0161	706	941	1.0807	0.0199	0.7752	0.8384
W (15–24)	0.6598	0.0156	1,253	2,247	1.1666	0.0237	0.6290	0.6905
MM (15–29)	0.9038	0.0101	1,110	1,354	1.1386	0.0112	0.8839	0.9236
MW (15–24)	0.6699	0.0159	1,080	1,489	1.1126	0.0238	0.6385	0.7013
UM (15–24)	0.7464	0.0309	246	321	1.1111	0.0414	0.6856	0.8072
UW (15–24)	0.4805	0.0531	173	205	1.3926	0.1104	0.3761	0.5850

Note: M: Men, W: Women, MM: Married men, MW: Married women, UM: Unmarried men, UW: Unmarried women.

Appendix C

Data quality tables

Table C.1: Household age distribution

Single-year age distribution of the *de jure* household population by sex (weighted), Rajasthan, 2007

Age (year)	Women		Men	
	Unweighted Number	Percent	Unweighted Number	Percent
0	1,378	1.7	1,662	2.0
1	1,379	1.8	1,508	1.8
2	1,713	2.2	1,928	2.4
3	1,849	2.4	1,993	2.4
4	1,781	2.3	1,856	2.3
5	1,980	2.6	2,246	2.8
6	1,880	2.4	2,081	2.6
7	1,925	2.5	2,017	2.5
8	2,321	3.0	2,650	3.3
9	1,560	2.0	1,688	2.1
10	2,429	3.3	2,850	3.6
11	1,483	1.8	1,615	2.1
12	2,394	3.1	2,700	3.5
13	1,924	2.5	2,062	2.7
14	1,415	2.0	1,757	2.0
15	1,975	2.6	2,067	2.3
16	1,759	2.3	1,954	2.4
17	1,303	1.6	1,570	1.8
18	2,035	2.6	2,390	2.8
19	877	1.1	1,003	1.1
20	2,199	2.8	2,191	2.6
21	864	1.0	1,063	1.2
22	1,726	2.2	1,788	2.0
23	1,175	1.4	1,069	1.2
24	1,110	1.3	1,005	1.1
25	1,386	2.0	2,201	2.5
26	1,065	1.3	923	1.2
27	1,005	1.2	913	1.1
28	1,756	2.1	1,451	1.7
29	526	0.6	513	0.6
30	2,770	3.6	2,184	2.1
31	349	0.4	430	0.6
32	1,542	2.1	1,502	1.8
33	647	0.8	693	1.0
34	534	0.7	575	0.8
35	2,239	2.9	2,942	3.5
36	768	1.0	787	1.0
37	519	0.6	470	0.6
38	1,326	1.8	1,031	1.3
39	292	0.4	251	0.3
40	2,266	2.9	2,879	3.6
41	194	0.2	225	0.3
42	907	1.1	898	1.1
43	325	0.4	291	0.3
44	213	0.2	240	0.3
45	1,864	2.4	2,187	2.6
46	349	0.4	302	0.3
47	299	0.4	298	0.3
48	828	1.1	681	0.8
49	170	0.2	163	0.2
50	1,703	2.1	1,939	2.4
51	110	0.1	170	0.2
52	455	0.6	515	0.6
53	173	0.2	184	0.2
54	153	0.2	188	0.2
55	1,428	1.9	1,327	1.6
56	213	0.3	219	0.3
57	158	0.2	141	0.1
58	372	0.5	336	0.4
59	77	0.1	68	0.1
60	1,711	2.3	1,684	2.1
61	68	0.1	71	0.1
62	337	0.4	269	0.3
63	115	0.1	92	0.1
64	88	0.1	89	0.1
65	1,185	1.6	1,047	1.3
66	101	0.1	111	0.1
67	85	0.1	87	0.1
68	211	0.3	174	0.2
69	39	0.0	41	0.0
70+	2,351	3.0	2,345	2.9
Total	**77,709**	**100.0**	**82,840**	**100.0**

Note: The de jure population includes usual residents of the household.

Table C.2: Single-year age distribution of eligible, selected and interviewed young men

Number and percentage of eligible, selected and interviewed young men and percentage of selected young men who were interviewed by single-year age (unweighted), Rajasthan, 2007

Age (years)	Eligible		Selected for interview		Interviewed		% selected respondents interviewed
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
MM (15–29)							
15	25	1.0	19	0.9	18	1.0	94.7
16	35	1.5	27	1.3	25	1.3	92.6
17	38	1.6	28	1.4	28	1.5	100.0
18	83	3.4	65	3.2	58	3.1	89.2
19	56	2.3	44	2.2	41	2.2	93.2
20	198	8.2	158	7.7	140	7.4	88.6
21	122	5.1	96	4.7	91	4.8	94.8
22	220	9.1	179	8.8	166	8.8	92.7
23	154	6.4	131	6.4	126	6.7	96.2
24	195	8.1	160	7.8	152	8.1	95.0
25	359	14.9	317	15.5	287	15.2	90.5
26	253	10.5	220	10.8	200	10.6	90.9
27	204	8.5	184	9.0	175	9.3	95.1
28	300	12.5	268	13.1	242	12.8	90.3
29	166	6.9	149	7.3	137	7.3	91.9
Total	**2,408**	**100.0**	**2,045**	**100.0**	**1,886**	**100.0**	**92.2**
UM (15–24)							
15	396	13.5	324	14.4	307	14.4	94.8
16	502	17.1	412	18.3	392	18.4	95.1
17	395	13.5	315	14.0	302	14.2	95.9
18	489	16.7	368	16.3	346	16.3	94.0
19	211	7.2	166	7.4	158	7.4	95.2
20	338	11.5	237	10.5	223	10.5	94.1
21	198	6.8	151	6.7	143	6.7	94.7
22	189	6.5	133	5.9	122	5.7	91.7
23	120	4.1	85	3.8	78	3.7	91.8
24	90	3.1	65	2.9	58	2.7	89.2
Total	**2,928**	**100.0**	**2,256**	**100.0**	**2,129**	**100.0**	**94.4**

Note: The difference between the number of respondents eligible for interview and the number who were selected for interview is due to the sampling design adopted in the Youth Study. Please refer to Chapter 1 for details.

Table C.3: Single-year age distribution of eligible, selected and interviewed young women

Number and percentages of eligible, selected and interviewed female respondents and percentage of selected respondents who were interviewed by single-year age (unweighted), Rajasthan, 2007

Age (years)	Eligible		Selected for interview		Interviewed		% selected respondents interviewed
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
MW(15–24)							
15	240	3.8	79	2.7	76	2.9	96.2
16	265	4.2	95	3.3	80	3.1	84.2
17	302	4.8	118	4.0	104	4.0	88.1
18	761	12.1	284	9.7	244	9.4	85.9
19	408	6.5	199	6.8	191	7.3	96.0
20	1,188	19.0	481	16.5	402	15.4	83.6
21	521	8.3	298	10.2	272	10.4	91.3
22	1,020	16.3	463	15.9	400	15.4	86.4
23	786	12.5	423	14.5	388	14.9	91.7
24	773	12.3	474	16.3	446	17.1	94.1
Total	**6,264**	**100.0**	**2,914**	**100.0**	**2,603**	**100.0**	**89.3**
UW (15–24)							
15	1,148	26.1	1,004	27.9	938	27.7	93.4
16	892	20.2	758	21.1	722	21.3	95.3
17	678	15.4	577	16.0	551	16.3	95.5
18	621	14.1	468	13.0	429	12.7	91.7
19	290	6.6	219	6.1	214	6.3	97.7
20	294	6.7	212	5.9	193	5.7	91.0
21	171	3.9	131	3.6	125	3.7	95.4
22	157	3.6	124	3.4	114	3.4	91.9
23	102	2.3	69	1.9	63	1.9	91.3
24	53	1.2	37	1.0	35	1.0	94.6
Total	**4,406**	**100.0**	**3,599**	**100.0**	**3,384**	**100.0**	**94.0**

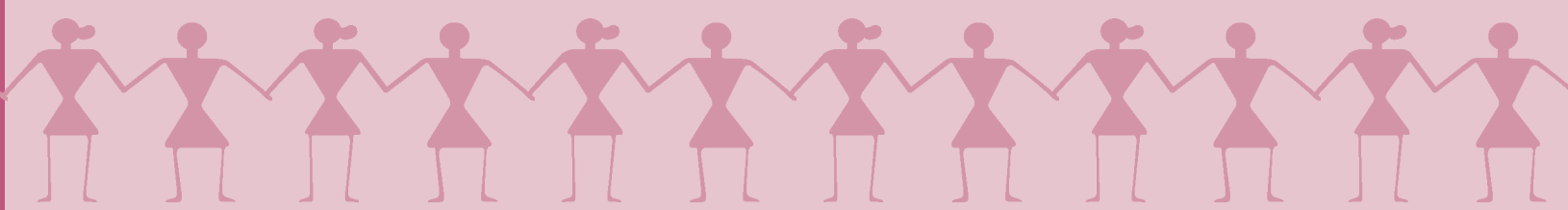
Note: The difference between the number of respondents eligible for interview and the number who were selected for interview is due to the sampling design adopted in the Youth Study. Please refer to Chapter 1 for details.

Table C.4: Completeness of reporting

Percentage of observations with missing information or reported to be unknown to the respondent for selected date measures (weighted), Rajasthan, 2007

Measures	MM (15–29)		MW (15–24)		UM (15–24)		UW (15–24)	
	% with don't know/ missing information	Unweighted number	% with don't know/ missing information	Unweighted number	% with don't know/ missing information	Unweighted number	% with don't know/ missing information	Unweighted number
Birth date of respondent								
Month only	8.3	1,886	0.8	2,603	5.3	2,129	1.0	3, 384
Year only	0.3	1,886	7.8	2,603	0.2	2,129	7.4	3,384
Both month and year	31.9	1,886	72.9	2,603	16.4	2,129	33.9	3,384
Age when respondent first started any unpaid work (years)	0.0	598	4.5	1,165	0.3	321	3.9	678
Age when respondent first started any paid work (years)	0.5	1,551	1.8	666	0.4	821	1.2	735
Age when respondent first noticed voice change (years)	42.4	1,886	NA	NA	38.4	2,129	NA	NA
Age when respondent first noticed appearance of pubic hair (years)	25.1	1,886	NA	NA	22.2	2,129	NA	NA
Age at menarche (years)	NA	NA	8.2	2,603	NA	NA	1.7	3,384
Age when respondent first spent time alone with romantic partner (years)	0.0	140	0.0	137	0.7	268	0.0	321
Age when respondent first had sex with pre-marital romantic partner (years)	0.0	72	0.0	29	0.0	100	2.4	38
Date of marriage of married respondent								
Month only	8.0	1,886	3.0	2,603	NA	NA	NA	NA
Year only	1.0	1,886	18.6	2,603	NA	NA	NA	NA
Both month and year	26.1	1,886	33.5	2,603	NA	NA	NA	NA
Age when respondent first started cohabiting with wife/husband (years)	0.0	1,886	0.0	2,603	NA	NA	NA	NA

Note: NA: Not applicable.



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