

THE SITUATION OF ADOLESCENTS IN JHARKHAND

FINDINGS FROM THE
DASRA STATE-WIDE SURVEY

10to19
DASRA ADOLESCENTS COLLABORATIVE



Empowering India's adolescents has long been one of the most significant of India's development challenges. Despite India being home to more adolescents than any other country, many of them face adverse social and economic challenges that complicate their transition from childhood to adulthood.

Dasra is catalyzing India's strategic philanthropy movement to transform a billion lives with dignity and equity since 1999. The 10to19: Dasra Adolescents Collaborative (DAC) is a high-impact platform that unites funders, technical experts, the government, and social organizations to reach 5 million adolescents, and move the needle on four outcomes key to adolescent empowerment: delaying age at marriage; delaying age of first pregnancy/birth; completing secondary education; and increasing agency.

DAC employs a two-pronged approach to directly reach adolescents through holistic and scalable programs implemented by Aangan Trust, Quest Alliance, Centre for Catalyzing Change and Child in Need Institute to achieve the four key outcomes at the state level in Jharkhand. Simultaneously, DAC is also building a national movement to make adolescents a priority by anchoring a Community of Practice, comprising of adolescent focused non-profits who collaborate on insights and data focused projects, exchange learnings, and work on collective advocacy interventions and solutions.

DAC is supported by Bank of America Merrill Lynch, Children's Investment Fund Foundation, the David & Lucile Packard Foundation, Kiawah Trust, Tata Trusts and USAID, among others.

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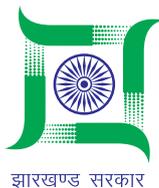
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Secretary



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Foreword

The Government of Jharkhand recognises that Jharkhand's future development depends, to a large extent, on the health, education, skill development and general wellbeing of the state's 3.8 million young males and 3.5 million young females. The state is committed to meeting the needs of this population and ensuring that they enter adulthood healthy, well educated, with relevant skills and aware of their rights and entitlements.

In recognizing the needs of its young people, the Jharkhand government delivers a number of policies and schemes established by both the central and state government to enhance the position of youth and adolescents. Policies include the National Youth Policy 2014, the National Health Policy 2017, the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act 2009, the National Policy on Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, and the Prevention of Child Marriage Act 2006. The state also implements key programmes, such as the Rashtriya Kishor Swasthya Karyakram (RKSK) in the area of health, the Samagra Shiksha Abhiyan in the area of education, the National Skill Development Mission and Tejaswini programs in the area of skilling and employability, and, the SAG programme, the Nehru Yuva Kendra Sangathan, and the community based activities of the RKSK in the areas of empowerment and building leadership. At the same time, the state has also invested considerably in conditional cash transfer schemes that provide bicycles to those entering secondary school, and to families whose children meet various health and education milestones.

Although the Government of Jharkhand has implemented all of these programmes, it has recognised the need to better understand the situation and needs of adolescents and youth, including very young adolescents aged 10-14, and to better understand, through evidence, the effect of these programmes, and how best to reach the young and have an impact on their lives. The work of the 10to19: Dasra Adolescents Collaborative and its implementing partner organizations in Jharkhand will help the state and district level governments to fill these gaps and collaboratively strengthen programs to improve outcomes for adolescents in the state.

The Dasra baseline survey provides the state much needed data and evidence on the situation and needs of the young. At the end of 5 years, once the Dasra programme has been implemented, another survey will be conducted, and changes in the situation of the young from the time of the baseline survey assessed. These exercises enable the Government of Jharkhand to track the situation of adolescents in the state, as well as to understand, with evidence, what works and what can be upscaled for maximum effect on the young people of the state.

The baseline survey was conducted throughout Jharkhand, and interviewed more than 15,000 boys and girls aged 10-21, including married girls. This report provides insight into every dimension of their life, namely, health, education, skilling and economic activity, child marriage and adolescent child-bearing, as well as on sexual and reproductive behaviours of the young before and within marriage. Information is also provided on adolescents' knowledge about health-promoting practices, and their knowledge about and access to various entitlements provided by the government for which they are eligible.

The report establishes the levels and patterns of each dimension of adolescent life, thereby enabling the government to identify which dimensions of adolescent life need urgent attention, and which sub-populations are most vulnerable. As such, findings will enable the government to consider more focused programming to address the needs of different groups of adolescents in the state. We look forward to receiving regular survey data that will allow the government to track, on a continuous basis, the needs of the young, and the impact of programmes on adolescent health and wellbeing. The findings of this report are important and provide a roadmap for investment in programmes for the young in the state. I am grateful to Dasra and its partners for taking on this enormous task and for its commitment to enhancing the health and wellbeing of adolescents in the state.

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There is no longer novelty in the declaration that the promise of India's full socio-economic potential rests on the shoulders of the nation's young people. Despite this understanding, adolescents in India continue to face steep roadblocks in making a successful transition to adulthood. In 2015, nearly 27% of young women aged 20-24 were child brides and, 54% of girls and 48% of boys aged 18-19 had yet to complete grade 10.

Dasra firmly believes that the course of India's developmental trajectory will be charted by a collective effort to improve these outcomes for the 253 million adolescents living in the country and ensure that they are healthy, safe, educated and empowered. It is this fundamental belief that motivated us to set up the 10to19: Dasra Adolescents Collaborative - an initiative that brings together non-profits, funders, technical organizations and the government to improve outcomes that are key to sustained adolescent empowerment. Since 2018, the Collaborative has employed a geography-specific approach to deliver an intensive and comprehensive program across the state of Jharkhand, to achieve 4 outcomes: delaying age of marriage, delaying age of first pregnancy/birth, completing secondary education and, increasing agency and self-efficacy among adolescents.

The state, like many others in India, exhibits high vulnerability of adolescents as seen in NFHS and U-DISE data: 38% of women aged 15-24 in Jharkhand were married before 18, as compared to the national average of 27%; and 22% of girls in Jharkhand did not transition from primary to secondary school as compared to 11% of girls nationally. The government of Jharkhand, eager to lead a change through effective policy and civil society partnerships, made it easy for the 10to19 Collaborative to choose this territory as the key focus to implement our first state-wide program.

However, our ambitions did not stop there. To put our experiment to test, validate its hypothesis and create evidence around the change we sought to create, we had to be meticulous in planning data collection and evaluation. The 'The Situation of Adolescents in Jharkhand: Findings from the DASRA State-wide Survey' seeks to assess the situation of adolescents in Jharkhand and is a first-of-its-kind survey of the State, based on over 15,900 adolescent interviews. The study deep dives into many aspects of an adolescent's life in Jharkhand, including areas of health, education, economic activity, agency, access to media, romantic and sexual relationships et al.

This study paints the picture of a reality to begin our groundwork on, through our four Implementing Partners – Aangan Trust, Centre for Catalyzing Change (C3), Child in Need institute (CINI) and, Quest Alliance. The findings of this report are a strong reinforcement of both the gravity of work yet to be done to equip adolescents to successfully enter adulthood, as well as the untapped promise of young people in the state. As these four interventions begin to take shape in the communities they serve, we will continue to measure the changes in the lives of adolescents. Through this process, we hope to build a robust body of evidence that will inform governments, civil society groups and other stakeholders of the urgent need to prioritize adolescent health and wellbeing.

Neera Nundy
Co-founder, Dasra



The power of this study is that it is centered around adolescent girls' voices. Too often, we try to solve for barriers without allowing communities to articulate their challenges and needs to us. The robust analysis provided by this study will enable us to focus our interventions on the gaps highlighted by adolescent girls, and to benchmark our progress along the way.

In fact, it already has: the baseline study found that 73 percent of boys and 63 percent of girls between the ages of 10-14 are involved in paid and unpaid work. The study's findings on child labour aligned with what Aangan was hearing anecdotally from the ground about barriers to continuity of schooling. Understanding this reality and the constraints faced by families in keeping adolescent girls in school allowed us to dig deeper and work with school principals across the district of Pakur to identify 800 out-of-school children, deliver remedial schooling sessions to them, and ultimately re-enroll 557 in full-time schooling. Our collaboration with the education system and local officials would not have been possible without compelling data from the ground.

A number of findings emerged from this research that were surprising, and could possibly be used to guide innovative interventions going forward as they are. For example, data about 91 percent of families using mobile phones challenges the widely held notion that the groups in remote districts have no access to technology. Instead it plants the idea of a mobile-based campaign for families of adolescent girls. This could be powerful given that other studies refer to a documented correlation between secondary school completion and a "champion" -- or a supportive adult. Another finding highlighted is that 67 percent of married girls missed attending school all year long. Again, this is interesting because it is both, specific and actionable at the ground level. Findings such as these are bound to help all organizations working in Jharkhand to integrate local realities into their approach to adolescent safety and agency in the future.

We look forward to continuing to use this data to guide our work, and collaborate with the other Dasra Adolescent Collaborative partners.

Suparna Gupta, Aangan Trust



The baseline findings presented in this report are being used by C3 as a point of reference, and also to narrow down key focus areas of the intervention. Some findings have made the prevalent challenges apparent.

The low interest amongst young people towards education, compounded by negative attitudes of parents towards girls' education, means that we need to look at ways of changing perceptions amongst the adolescents and the larger community towards education. Here, we especially need to focus on the young boys. While our thrust area is to enable girls to complete schooling, as per the baseline, there are many challenges to meet this goal.

Our programs, which have centred around working with the government need to expand in scope to include families so that change can begin with, and be supported by them. For our work on reproductive health to be more effective, we must extend the content and engagement beyond just the adolescent girls. We have to include mothers, elder sisters and sisters-in-law in the awareness program, so that the adolescent girls get constant support and mentoring, at the times they need it the most.

C3 recognizes that young people need support, mentoring and guidance. As we support government stakeholders to provide the right services, it is also important for us to build capacities of those within the immediate circle of the adolescents, to be sensitive and responsive towards the needs of the young people.

Dr. Aparajita Gogoi, Centre for Catalyzing Change



Adolescence, in every life, is a period of aspirations, challenges and exploring the unknown. The degree of proximity to various vulnerabilities among adolescents is varied, and hence a thorough understanding of the issues needs a scientific study. There is a constant need felt by different stakeholders, to have information on adolescents and their developmental need in Jharkhand, for designing a comprehensive intervention.

DASRA, prior to initiation of programme in the state of Jharkhand, undertook an intensive baseline survey among the adolescents to have a first-hand assessment of the ground situation. This helped CINI to develop programming at local levels aimed at establishing friendly and responsive communities to promote the best interests of adolescents in need, and to ensure children and adolescents achieve their full potential. Age specific cohort of 10-19 years of adolescents, faces different vulnerabilities with respect to region, geographic location, exposure and traditional customs. The outcome of this assessment will give directions to explore the possibilities to create a safety net around them which will help to promote their agency and self-efficacy. The study also helps to understand the benefits of different schemes implemented by the Government so far.

The results of the study is a reflection of the social construct in Jharkhand where the underlying reasons of local issues like unwanted pregnancies, elopement, malnutrition, uninformed migration etc. amongst the adolescents have been explored. The findings of the study have also helped justify CINI's approach to promote the rights based convergence framework as a strategic intervention for improving the lives of the adolescents living without proper knowledge of their overall developmental need as their rights are betrayed and domestic violence goes unnoticed in Jharkhand.

CINI is delighted to be part of this initiative and we are sure the findings of the study will inform relevant stakeholders, researchers and policy makers to redirect their attention and efforts towards achieving the developmental milestones of adolescents.

Dr. Indrani Bhattacharyya, Child in Need Institute



This Baseline Report is a major step taken towards evidence based programming for the adolescent sector. Over and above its contribution to inform the Collaborative; it presents learnings from designing, planning and executing a large scale evidence gathering initiative. Its reach and depth is an absolute need of the hour - given the scale and enormity of the challenges we're working to address in Jharkhand.

At Quest Alliance, we're excited to deliver on the vision of the Collaborative through this evidence based approach to programming. For us, the findings of the report are insightful also because they locate the challenges of achieving education and employability related outcomes within the larger context of adolescent health, agency and well-being. This will help us not only further our work under the Collaborative, but also strengthen our intervention strategies across our programs on enabling effective school to work transitions.

Aakash Sethi, Quest Alliance

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Our partner organizations - Aangan Trust, Centre for Catalyzing Change (C3), Child in Need Institute (CINI) and Quest Alliance - contributed valuable insights into the design of the study and study questionnaires, and provided support through the study and analysis; their contributions are gratefully acknowledged.

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Finally, we express our gratitude to the more than 15,000 adolescents of Jharkhand who welcomed us into their communities, and shared so many details of their life with us. We hope that the findings from this study provide valuable insights to inform the programs of our partner organizations and influence the design and content of programs that will meet the multiple needs of adolescents and support them in making a successful transition to adulthood.

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September, 2019



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The 10to19 Collaborative, initiated by Dasra, addresses the needs and rights of the young. Through partners – Aangan Trust, Centre for Catalysing Change (C3), Child in Need Institute (CINI) and Quest Alliance, Dasra is supporting the implementation of a multi-pronged three-year intervention programme for adolescents in various districts in the state of Jharkhand, namely Deogarh, Gumla, Lohardaga, Pakur, Saraikela Kharsawan and Simdega. These interventions are delivered at scale, either at district or sub-district levels, and their individual aims are one or more of the following: to ensure the achievement of at least a secondary school education (completion of Class 10); the exercise of agency in life choices; delays in marriage and childbearing, and the exercise of informed choice in marriage planning, and/or experience of a safe, informed and consensual entry into sexual life. In the shorter term, the aim is also to enhance adolescent awareness of entitlements and health promoting practices, to develop egalitarian gender role attitudes and reinforce attitudes about delaying marriage and childbearing, to keep adolescents in school and improve learning outcomes and to develop career aspirations and preparedness for livelihoods.

The 10to19 Collaborative is committed to deriving evidence-based lessons from these interventions, and in this endeavour, is conducting an evaluation that will measure the effect of these programmes on adolescent life and transition to adulthood. The evaluation entails a baseline assessment that describes the situation of adolescents in Jharkhand as a whole, that is, in intervention and non-intervention districts, prior to the implementation of these partner programmes, and a similar investigation at the conclusion of the programmes that will allow us to measure change in adolescents' situation that may have resulted from these interventions. This report presents findings from the baseline survey of the situation of boys and girls aged 10-21 in the state, focusing on each of the central domains of adolescents' lives.

Our survey was conducted in intervention sites, that is, the six districts in which the intervention is conducted, and a socio-demographically similar set of comparison sites drawn from the remaining 18 districts of the state, selected in such a way that together they are similar to intervention sites. The baseline survey was conducted during 2018 among girls and boys from age 10 up to age 21. Five groups of adolescents were interviewed: younger boys and girls aged 10-14, older unmarried boys and girls aged 15-21, and married girls aged 15-21 (since marriage before age 21 is rare among boys, we restricted the boys' sample to the unmarried). We have extended our operational definition of adolescents to include those aged 20-21, so as to allow for an exploration of effects, at endline, on all those eligible for participation in the interventions in the three years between the baseline and endline investigations, who may have aged out of adolescence (ages 10-19) by the time of the endline survey.

The survey was conducted in a total of 325 villages and urban wards. Interviews were successfully completed with 41,393 households. From these households, we interviewed a total of 15,963 boys and girls aged 10-21, more specifically, 3,473 boys aged 10-14, 3,150 unmarried boys aged 15-21, 4,104 girls aged 10-14, 3,237 unmarried girls aged 15-21 and 1,999 married girls aged 15-21.

FINDINGS

Despite the fact that it has some of the richest mineral deposits in the world, Jharkhand remains a poorly developed state. Our findings suggest that most adolescents in Jharkhand grow up in rural, poor and poorly educated households. Overall, 28 percent of households in which interviews were conducted were in urban areas, households typically contained 4.6 members. Religion and caste distributions suggest that the majority of households were Hindu (72%), and belonged to scheduled tribes or other backward castes (27% and 47%, respectively). Household heads were poorly educated: two in five (41%) had no education, and just 15 percent had completed 11 or more years of education. Living conditions and household economic

status were largely poor. Two in five (41%) households lived in kachcha structures (constructed with mud, thatch or other poor quality materials), three-quarters had electricity (76%), and access to piped water or a hand-pump for drinking water was reported by just four in five (78%). Other amenities were available to far fewer: only 38 % had their own toilet, while half (50%) had no facility at all, and just one-quarter (27%) reported LPG as their main type of cooking fuel. While almost all households (91%) owned a mobile phone, fewer owned such assets as an electric fan (64%), a television (41%), a scooter or motor cycle (34%) or a computer or laptop (5%).

EDUCATION

Attainment of educational milestones: Almost all adolescents in Jharkhand entered the schooling system, but, despite the introduction of the Right to Education Act, 2009 that has made primary education free and compulsory, many discontinued their education prematurely, had compromised learning outcomes, and did not access the entitlements to which they were eligible. Married girls were particularly disadvantaged, reconfirming the literature suggesting that girls who do not enter the schooling system or drop out prematurely are at greater risk than others of early marriage.

School enrolment was nearly universal among unmarried adolescents (96-99%) although, as mentioned above, many married adolescents (12%) had never been enrolled in school. Age and gender differences and differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were modest. While almost all younger adolescents continued to be in school at the time of the interview (93-94%), far fewer 15-21 year-old boys and unmarried girls were pursuing their education (63-64%).

Attainment of educational milestones was compromised. While 10-14 year olds should have completed at least Class 4, just 66-67 percent had done so. Likewise, among unmarried older adolescents just 84 percent of boys and girls had completed Class 8 and 42-43 percent had completed Class 10. Married girls fared far worse: just 65 percent and 38 percent had completed Class 8 and Class 10, respectively. Neither gender differences nor differences by residence in intervention and comparison areas were observed.

The reasons for non-enrolment among all adolescents and premature discontinuation (before completing Class 12) among older adolescents were wide-ranging – poverty-related and economic reasons, negative attitudes about schooling and its value, school related reasons, illness and family deaths, and, in the case of premature discontinuation, marriage and childbearing. The leading reason for non-enrolment among younger adolescents and older boys was attitudinal, with 94 percent of younger boys, 42 percent of younger girls and 32 percent of older boys so reporting. While many older girls also gave this reason (19-23%), the leading reason they offered was competing demands on their time for housework and caring for siblings (51% of unmarried girls, 27% of married girls). Among older adolescents who had discontinued their education prematurely, the profile was roughly similar; the majority cited poverty and competing demands on their time for household and wage work (41-47% among the unmarried, 30% among the married), own lack of interest in continuing education or negative parental attitudes (37% of boys, 28% of unmarried and married girls), and school-related reasons such as failure in their last examinations and limited physical accessibility to schools (15% of boys, 25% of unmarried girls, 12% of married girls). The leading reason among married girls – reported by one-third – was that they had got engaged, married or had begun childbearing.

Among adolescents who had never been to school, several boys but few girls reported that they would like to gain an education (57% versus 23% among younger adolescents, 32% versus 6-7% of older adolescents, including married girls). Among those who had discontinued their education, the proportions prepared to return to school were larger overall (40-68%). Age and sex differences were observed, with more younger than older boys prepared to return to school (68% versus 46%), more younger boys than younger girls (68% versus 62%), but more older unmarried girls than boys aged 15-21 (65% versus 46%), and few married girls (40%) reported expressing such a desire. Apart from younger girls, moreover, more of those in comparison than intervention areas wished to return to school (41-69% versus 36-55%). The leading reason for preferring not to enrol or re-enrol in school or college varied across groups: it was lack of interest or desire among younger boys (49%) and all three groups of girls (43-46%), and conflict with economic activity among older boys (40%). Several girls suggested that they were too shy or embarrassed, several older adolescents considered themselves too old, and several younger girls reported parental resistance. In general, response patterns were similar among those in intervention and comparison areas.

Regularity of attendance: School attendance was also compromised. Despite the fact that school was in session in the week prior to the interview (as reported by adolescents), just 60-65 percent of adolescents, excluding married girls, had attended school daily, and somewhat fewer of these groups – 55-63 percent – had attended the full school day, that is, they had not come to school late or left before the school day ended. Far fewer enrolled married girls reported regular attendance in school or college (29%). Differences between adolescents in comparison and intervention areas were stark among all groups but younger boys, with more of those in intervention areas reporting regular attendance than those in comparison areas (72% versus 59% among older boys, 64% versus 59% among younger girls, 71% versus 65% among older unmarried girls, and 57% versus 25% among married girls). Adolescents who had attended school or college irregularly in the week preceding the interview attributed their irregularity to several reasons: competing demands on adolescents' time, such as, work on the family farm or business (28% of older boys, 8-14% of others) or housework responsibilities (60% of married girls, 10-14% of boys, 15-24% of girls), attitudes, that is, that the adolescent did not feel like attending school (18-19% of younger adolescents versus 13-14% of older boys and unmarried girls, and 6% of married girls), and because of illness (22-23% of younger adolescents, 5-14% among older adolescents).

School facilities: The majority of adolescents who were in school or college at the time of the interview, regardless of age and sex, and among older girls, of marital status, were enrolled in a government educational facility (63-71% of boys and 71-81% of girls). More adolescents in intervention than comparison areas reported attendance in a government school (74-92% versus 62-79%). Almost all adolescents, irrespective of age, sex, and intervention project status, had access to drinking water (96-98%), and the large majority had access to playgrounds (89-92%), toilets in working condition (78-91%); large proportions of girls reported a separate toilet facility for girls (74-86%). Fewer reported the availability of a library in the school, more older boys and unmarried girls than younger adolescents (58% versus 41% of boys, 72% versus 56% of girls), more girls than boys (56% versus 41% of younger adolescents; 72% versus 58% of older adolescents) and by marital status, more unmarried than married girls (72% versus 58%) reported access to a library in their school. Access to all four amenities, namely, drinking water, playgrounds, toilets, and libraries was far from universal; they were available to 60 percent of unmarried girls aged 15-21, 43-46 percent of younger girls, older boys and married girls, and just 34 percent of younger boys, largely because more unmarried older girls than adolescents from any other group had access to libraries in their school or college (72% versus 41-58%).

Parental investment in children's education: Parental engagement in their children's education was mixed. Of adolescents who were in school or college at the time of the interview, almost all (92-96%, married girls were not asked this question) reported that their parents encouraged them to study, and many reported that they studied at home for more than one hour a day – more older than younger adolescents (75% versus 63% of boys; 82% versus 63% of unmarried girls) and more unmarried than married older girls (82% versus 63%). However, parental interaction with the school was reported by relatively few. Even so, younger adolescents were more likely than older adolescents to report that a parent had visited their school at least once in the six months preceding the interview (50% versus 25% of boys, 57% versus 41% of unmarried girls). More older girls than boys reported a parental visit to their school or college (41% versus 25% of older unmarried adolescents), and more unmarried than married girls¹ so reported (41% versus 26%).

About half the adolescents other than married older girls who were pursuing their education at the time of the interview reported that they had taken private tuition in the month prior to the interview (48-52%, 11% among married girls). Differences between those in intervention and comparison settings were evident, with those in intervention areas consistently less likely to have received coaching than those in comparison settings (31-43% versus 49-53%).

Aspirations: Among adolescents who were pursuing their education from a school or college at the time of the interview, educational aspirations were high. While one-fifth of younger adolescents (22%) could not articulate how much education they wanted, fewer than one-tenth of older adolescents (7-9%) were undecided. However, 30 percent of girls aged 10-14 and 39 percent of boys of that age aspired to a college or professional degree, as did 72 percent of boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21 and 78 percent of the few married girls pursuing an education at the time of the interview. Hardly any adolescents were content to have less than a secondary school education (0-5%). Differences between adolescents in intervention

¹For married girls, parents or adult from the marital family

and comparison areas were muted, but among younger adolescents, fewer of those in intervention than in comparison areas aspired for a college or professional education (40% versus 28% of boys; 30% versus 25% of girls).

Access to entitlements: Most adolescents who were pursuing their education from a government school or college at the time of the interview were aware of the entitlements to which they were eligible. For example, among those attending primary school (Classes 1-8) at the time of the interview, almost all (99-100%) were aware that students are entitled to receive free uniforms and free textbooks. Among those who were studying in, or had discontinued their education in Class 9 or a higher class, almost all were aware that secondary school students are eligible for scholarships or for bicycles (or money to purchase bicycles).

Many adolescents had received the entitlements to which they were eligible. For example, 84-93 percent of those studying in primary school had received the midday meal on the last day they had attended school, 91-99 percent had received free textbooks, and 93-96 percent of boys and girls aged 10-14 and girls aged 15-21, and 84 percent of boys aged 15-21 had received free uniforms or money to purchase uniforms. Among adolescents who were studying in secondary school or college or had discontinued their education after studying till at least Class 9, more younger adolescents than older adolescents had received a scholarship (58-61% versus 32-40%). Receipt of a bicycle or money to purchase one was reported by more younger adolescents than older boys (51% versus 34%), similar proportions of younger and older unmarried girls (38% and 59%, respectively), and considerably more married than unmarried older girls (59% versus 39%). Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were muted, and observed with regard to a few entitlements; for example, the access to a midday meal on the last day they had attended school was reported by older boys but fewer unmarried older girls in intervention than comparison areas. In the case of scholarships and bicycles, where differences were observed, these entitlements were more likely to have been received by adolescents in intervention than comparison areas.

The findings show that few adolescents attending a government primary school (Classes 1-8) were aware of the School Management Committee (14-23%), fewer knew a member of the committee (8-17%), and very few reported a visit from an SMC member to their home (0-9%). In contrast, large proportions were aware of the Bal Sansad expected to be formed in all schools (68-72% of boys of both age groups and girls aged 10-14, 92% of 15-21 year old girls), although few reported that they had participated in Bal Sansad activities (18-25%).

Learning outcomes: Learning outcomes were poor among adolescents. As far as literacy is concerned, just 47-50 percent of younger adolescents and 50-73 percent of older adolescents who had ever been to school were able to read a Class 2 story fluently in Hindi. Gender differences were negligible, but far more unmarried than married girls were able to do so (70% versus 50%). Numeracy levels were also poor and age, gender and marital status disparities were evident: more older boys and unmarried girls than younger boys and girls were able to solve a three-digit division problem (43-53% versus 31-43%), more boys than girls (43% versus 31% of younger adolescents, 53% versus 43% of older boys and unmarried girls), and more unmarried than married girls (43% versus 26%) were able to do so. General knowledge was also far from universal. Just 70-92 percent knew that Jharkhand was their state of residence, 37-70 percent knew that Delhi is the capital of India, and just 18-63 percent could identify at least one state neighbouring Jharkhand. Age and gender differences, and, among girls aged 15-21, differences by marital status, were evident on each of the three indicators, with older adolescents more likely than younger adolescents, boys more likely than girls, and unmarried girls more likely than married girls to display general knowledge. Practical numeracy was also compromised. The ability to count money, for example, was reported by just 73-86 percent of boys and 52-74 percent of girls, adding up a set of weights in kilograms was reported by just 19-42 percent of girls and 42-68 percent of boys, and ability to understand the concept of comparative shopping was reported by 49-60 percent of boys, compared to 30-51 percent of girls. Differences by age, and among older girls, by marital status, were also wide. In general, those in comparison areas displayed better learning outcomes than did their counterparts in intervention areas.

ECONOMIC ACTIVITY PROFILES

Economic activity profiles: Work profiles suggest that two-thirds of younger boys and nine in ten older boys (67% and 89% respectively) had at some time engaged in paid or unpaid work. Fewer girls had done so, half of younger girls (53%), two-thirds of unmarried older girls (65%) and three-quarters of married older girls (74%). In general, adolescents were far more likely to have engaged in unpaid than paid work. Data on work participation in the 12 months prior to the interview resembled lifetime economic activity for all groups of adolescents, aside from married girls among whom far fewer reported economic activity in the last 12 months than over the course of their life. Wage work, usually agricultural or unskilled non-agricultural work, was largely seasonal, and relatively few adolescents who had worked for wages had done so for long periods. Notably, among those adolescents who worked for remuneration in the year prior to interview, only a few had worked full time, that is, six months or more (6-13% of younger adolescents, 17-18% of older girls, and 36% of older boys). Occupational profiles among those working for wages in the 12 months preceding the interview show that agricultural labour and unskilled non-agricultural labour were the leading occupations among all adolescents, and, additionally, skilled labour among older adolescents. The findings also suggest that a substantial proportion of older adolescents, particularly boys were in search of paid employment at the time of the interview: 37 percent of boys and 15–17 percent of girls.

By and large, differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were largely modest; where differences were observed, it was those in intervention areas who were more likely to have worked over the course of their life as well as in the year preceding the intervention.

Livelihood skill building: Awareness of government programmes and schemes for skill building and employment generation was quite widespread among older adolescents. For example, 72-78 percent had heard about MGNREGA, 30-43 percent were aware of the Jharkhand Skills Development Mission, and 53-75 percent were aware of schemes that give loans for self-employment. In contrast, few were aware of employment exchanges or counselling centres (9-18%) or about the location of centres that offer training under the Jharkhand Skills Development Mission (11-16%). Despite considerable awareness, hardly any adolescents had benefited from any of these programmes and schemes (1-4% of rural adolescents had availed of the MGNREGA programme, 0-3% of all adolescents had received a loan for self-employment, and 1-4% had sought services from an employment exchange or counselling centre).

Overall, few adolescents aged 18-21 had ever attended a formal livelihood skill training programme: 12 percent of boys and 19-22 percent of girls. Even fewer (7-13%) had done so in the year preceding the interview. Gender differences in the kind of training received by adolescents who had attended a vocational training programme in the year preceding the interview were pronounced. Among boys, leading programmes attended were computer training (72%) and auto mechanics or electrical work (14%). Among girls, the leading programmes were, in contrast, tailoring and computer training, as well beauty parlour skills; however, the proportions exposed to each of these varied considerable. Far more married than unmarried girls opted for tailoring (80% versus 49%). Far fewer married than unmarried girls opted for computer training (5% versus 32%); and similar proportions of married girls and unmarried girls opted for beauty parlour skills training (5% of married girls, 9% of unmarried girls). A large proportion of adolescents who had attended a formal vocational training programme had attended the programme in a private institution (67% of boys and 57-61% of girls). Of those adolescents who had attended a skill training programme in the year preceding the interview, half of all boys, and 34-41 percent of girls had completed it. Of those who had completed such a programme in the year preceding the interview, just half of the boys (48%), one-third of unmarried girls (30%) and one-eighth of married girls (13%) had received a certificate upon the completion of the training, and although the large majority of those who had completed the training course reported that they were confident about their ability to use the skill acquired (81-93%), hardly any had obtained employment in the same trade after completing the course (13% of boys, 3% of unmarried girls, and not a single married girl), perhaps because the programmes that they attend are poorly aligned with market opportunities.

Demand for attending a livelihood skill training programme was widespread, with 82-88 percent of boys and unmarried girls, and 77 percent of married girls expressing interest in attending a course if it were offered. At the same time, several adolescents - far more girls than boys (43-44% of girls, 16% of boys) - reported that they had experienced an unmet need for acquiring livelihood skills, that is, they had wanted to attend

a course but could not do so. The leading reasons for their not being able to attend a course were demand-related, as cited by 89 percent of boys and 83 percent of girls with an unmet need. Notably, they reported such obstacles as being unable to afford the cost of attending the course (55% of boys, 27-33% of girls), lack of time (28% of boys, 29-34% of girls), and among girls, family members' objections (10-19% compared to 2% of boys). About one-quarter of girls (23-25%) also reported supply-side related obstacles, such as, the lack of training centres in the vicinity of their home and lack of awareness about training centres that offer the course.

While differences were largely modest and inconsistent, where these were observed, fewer of those in intervention than in comparison areas reported awareness of government programmes and schemes, and fewer had been exposed to a livelihood skilling programme.

Career aspirations: Adolescents reported a range of career aspirations, with wide age, gender, and among older girls, marital status differentials. Among boys, large proportions aspired to join the police or armed forces (24-25%), to become an engineer (10-15%), to become a doctor (4-11%) or to become a teacher (4-7%). Older boys also aspired to start a business (10%), and work in a bank, as an accountant or in administration (6%). Adolescent girls displayed a completely different set of aspirations, and it appears that there is a tempering of aspirations as the girls transition from early to later adolescence, and even more so, if married. Among both, those aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21, the majority aspired to become a teacher (24% and 20%, respectively). Other careers to which girls 10-14 aspired included becoming a doctor (17%), joining the police or armed forces (9%) and becoming an engineer (5%). While unmarried girls aged 15-21 opted for a career in the police or armed forces (10%), becoming a doctor (9%), working in a bank, as an accountant or in administration (8%), and becoming an ANM or nurse (7%). Married girls displayed a somewhat different profile. Most married girls who articulated what they would do in future indicated that they would be homemakers (15%); however, several others aspired to become a teacher (11%), a tailor (8%), or an ANM or nurse (5%). Many, however, had not thought about a career (25-28% of boys, 29-35% of younger girls and unmarried older unmarried and 52% of married girls).

Migration profiles: Data on migration experiences among older adolescents show that 14 percent of boys, 12 percent of unmarried girls and 92 percent of married girls were migrants, that is, they had moved to the village or area in which we had interviewed them from elsewhere. Boys migrated largely for education-related (38%), family migration-related (29%) and work-related (21%) reasons. Unmarried girls largely migrated with their family (57%) and for education (26%). Almost all migrant married girls reported marriage-related migration (97%).

Overall activity status: Overall, disturbing minorities of adolescents were not in school, had not worked for remuneration, and among older adolescents, had not attended a livelihood skill training programme in the year preceding the interview. While all adolescents aged 10-14 should be in school, we find that just 93-94 percent were enrolled in school; as many as eight percent of boys and 16 percent of girls had been engaged in wage work at some point in the year, and four percent were not engaged in education or remunerated work. Among older boys and unmarried girls, in contrast, 63-64 percent were pursuing an education, 34-44 percent were engaged in remunerated work, 7-13 percent had attended a livelihood skill training programme, and ten percent of boys, 17 percent of unmarried girls, and 65 percent of married girls were not engaged in education or employment or training.

ACCESS TO THE MEDIA

Traditional media: The findings suggest that large proportions of adolescents in Jharkhand were exposed to the media, and gender differences were apparent. Large proportions were exposed to television (91-93% of boys and 72-85% of girls) and films (94-98% of boys, 83-90% of girls, mostly on television). The radio was accessed by far fewer (21-28% of boys, 10-17% of girls). In contrast, gender differences were not observed in the case of access to print materials (newspapers, magazines, books) among those who had completed five or more years of education (56-62 percent of younger boys and girls, and 74-75 percent of boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21, and just 46% of married girls).

Mobile phone access: Mobile phone penetration was widespread, with more than 80 percent of younger adolescents and more than 90 percent of older adolescents either owning a phone or having access to a family member's phone. What was very clear, however, was the gender gap in mobile phone ownership; at each age, more boys than girls owned a phone (6% versus 1% of younger adolescents, 64% versus 18% of older boys and unmarried girls). Larger proportions of married than unmarried girls owned a phone (35% versus 18%). Of those owning a mobile phone, very few reported access to health-related information (3% of younger adolescents, 5-13% of older adolescents).

Internet and social media access: Internet and social media access among adolescents who had ever been enrolled in school was also limited, except among older boys (aged 15-21), among whom 71 percent and 64 percent respectively accessed the internet and social media, and 35-38 percent did so daily. Among the remaining four groups, access was far more limited (16-33% had accessed the internet, 10-28% had accessed social media). Among those who accessed the internet, many sought studies-related information (57-79%); fewer sought career- or employment-related information (18-56%), health-related information (9-49%) or scholarship-related information (4-15%). Gender differences were wide, with more girls than boys accessing information on all four issues from the internet.

Exposure to sexually explicit material: Many older boys and married girls also sought sexually explicit material from the media. For example, among those who had watched films, almost half of the boys and married girls had watched pornographic films (46-47%) compared to fewer unmarried girls (11%). Many had also sought sexually explicit material from the internet, and here too, gender and, among girls, marital status differences were evident (36% and 51% among unmarried girls and boys respectively; 70% among married girls).

Harassment through the media: Use of the media for teasing and harassment, while reported by few adolescents, was evident. Receiving harassing text messages or being harassed through a mobile phone was reported by 4-5 percent of older adolescents and 0-1 percent of younger ones; four percent of older boys reported using a mobile phone to tease or harass someone. Over the internet too, teasing, spreading rumours, and harassment were reported: seven percent of older boys acknowledged having engaged in such practices, and 2-3 percent of older girls reported being the victim of such practice.

PARENT-CHILD RELATIONS

The family life of adolescents is not supportive, many adolescents grow up witnessing or experiencing violence in the home, socialisation practices discriminate between boys and girls in many ways, and parent-child communication is limited and perhaps authoritarian for many. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were largely muted, but where observed, they reflected, closer parent-child relations and more gender egalitarian socialisation among boys and girls in comparison to intervention areas.

Family violence: Many adolescents with both parents alive at the time of the interview had ever witnessed incidents where their father had beaten their mother (19-37%) and done so in the year preceding the interview (5-16%). Relatively few adolescents reacted when witnessing violence. The last time they had witnessed such an incident, just few boys (23-30%) and somewhat more girls (34-53%) had intervened either verbally or physically to restrain their father or sought outside help to stop the violence.

Large proportions of adolescents had themselves experienced physical violence perpetrated by a parent at least once since they were 10 years old (42-65%), with more younger adolescents than older adolescents so reporting (63-65% versus 42-50%). Age differences were far wider in reports of the experience of physical violence perpetrated by parents in the year preceding the interview (45-51% of younger adolescents compared to 9-11% of older boys and unmarried older girls). Despite fairly narrow gender differences in reports of recent experience of violence, most adolescents with a similarly aged (three years older or younger) opposite-sex sibling agreed that boys were more at risk of parental violence than were girls.

Parent-child communication and closeness: Findings reconfirm what other studies have noted: parent-child communication on matters affecting adolescent life is limited, and patterns varied with regard to sex of

the parent, as well as between younger and older adolescents, and between boys and girls. With regard to general matters, such as studies and friends, findings suggest that overall, fewer adolescents had discussed each topic with their father than with their mother; more boys than girls had discussed each issue with their father, and more girls than boys had done so with their mother. More sensitive matters – physical maturation indicators such as menstruation for girls and nocturnal emission for boys – and reproductive processes were discussed by even fewer. For example, just 36 percent of younger girls and 71 percent of older girls had discussed menstruation with their mother, and just seven percent of boys of both ages had discussed nocturnal emission with their mother; far fewer girls and somewhat fewer boys had discussed these matters with their father. Indeed, more than nine in ten boys had not discussed physical changes during adolescence with either parent. Even worse, among older adolescents, just between one percent and five percent of boys and girls had discussed reproductive processes with either parent.

We also explored parent-child closeness by posing a vignette to respondents, in which we sought to better understand whether they would acquiesce to or express their disagreement with parental decisions for their life (in this case early marriage). Findings suggest that the recommendation that the protagonist in the vignette should express her views to her parents was far from universally cited (44-67%), with older adolescents more likely than younger adolescents (54-67% versus 44-54%), unmarried girls more likely than boys to so recommend (54-67% versus 44-54%), and unmarried girls more likely than married girls to so recommend (67% versus 56%). In contrast, many reported that the protagonist should acquiesce to her parents' wishes.

In some ways, parental engagement was observed to be positive. Many adolescents reported that their parents were aware about how they spend their free time, but gender differences were wide – far more girls than boys reported parental awareness (83-84% versus 53-69%). A majority of adolescents reported, moreover, that their parents encouraged them to study at home – more than nine in ten younger adolescents (91-93%), and about three in four older adolescents (73-76%). Moreover, large proportions of adolescents perceived that they could discuss career aspirations or what they wish to become in the future with their parents, and that parents would listen to their aspirations (67-75%).

Gendered socialisation: Adolescents reported that socialisation practices typically discriminated against girls. Among adolescents with siblings of the opposite sex who were up to three years younger or older than the respondent, for example, 21-24 percent of boys reported that their parents favoured them over their sister in terms of pocket money, and 24-32 percent of girls agreed that their brother was given more pocket money than they were. Likewise, 68-69 percent of boys agreed that their sister performed more housework than they did, and 62-63 percent of girls also indicated that they were made to do more housework than their brother. Both boys and girls agreed that the sister's freedom of movement was more restricted than that of the brother (62-77% of boys; 55-60% of girls). Finally, large proportions of older boys and girls agreed that the sister did or would face greater restrictions on seeking employment than did the brother.

Role models: Few adolescents reported that they had a role model (24-48%). Of those who reported a role model, the majority reported someone from their family: their mother or sister (0-1% of boys, 18-32% of girls); their father or brother (11-12% of boys and 9-14% of girls) and other relatives (50-52% of boys, 30-31% of girls). Among non-family role models, individuals in public life and positions of authority or prominent personalities, friends and teachers were the most often cited non-family role models. While teachers were the leading non-family member identified as a role model by girls (21-30%), people in public life and positions of authority or prominent personalities were the leading role models identified by boys (17-21%).

Parents as confidantes: The profile of leading confidantes with whom to discuss personal matters, such as bullying and teasing (younger adolescents), problems in private parts (all adolescents) and a boy-girl relationship or problems in married life (adolescents aged 13-21) differed by subject matter, as well as age, sex, and, among older girls, by marital status. The leading confidante for younger boys and girls to discuss such personal matters as experience of teasing or bullying and a problem in the private parts tended to be their mother (57-58% of boys, 76-88% of girls). Among older adolescents, gender differences were evident. Older boys identified several leading confidantes with whom to discuss a problem in the private parts, such as, for example, their mother or father (26-28%), a friend, including a romantic partner (22%), and a healthcare provider (15%); boy-girl matters were largely shared with a friend (75%). In contrast, unmarried

older girls overwhelmingly identified their mother as the leading confidante regarding problems in their private parts (80%), and friends as their leading confidante in boy-girl matters (48%). Married girls identified their husbands and mother as their leading confidants about problems in their private parts (67% and 21%, respectively), and marital problems (16% and 56%, respectively). Clearly, there was some evidence of a shift from family to friends as a leading confidante as adolescents transitioned from early to late adolescence.

AGENCY

The findings clearly highlight the limited agency of adolescents and considerable gender disparities in almost all dimensions of adolescents' agency. Adolescent girls were far more disadvantaged than adolescent boys in terms of decision making authority, with relatively few adolescents participating – either independently or jointly with parents and family – in decisions that applied to them: 29 percent of younger boys compared with 16 percent of younger girls, 31 percent of older boys compared with 11-18 percent of unmarried and married older girls.

Gender disparities were especially wide in the case of freedom of movement or mobility, with more boys than girls, irrespective of age, and residence in intervention and comparison areas reporting freedom to visit various places unescorted. For example, 35 percent and 91 percent of younger and older boys, respectively, had freedom to visit at least three of the four locations unescorted about which we probed, compared with 11 percent of younger girls, and 28-33 percent of older girls.

Access to and control over financial resources were far from universal among both boys and girls: 55 percent of younger boys and 76 percent of older boys reported some cash savings, compared to 63 percent of younger girls and 71-77 percent of older girls. Ownership of a bank or post office account, either in their sole name or jointly with someone else was reported by 61-75 percent of the five groups. While 64 percent of younger adolescents owned an account in their own name, and 70-74 percent of older boys and unmarried girls did so, far fewer married girls did so (59%). Among those owning an account, about as many older boys and unmarried girls operated the account themselves (82-84%); among younger adolescents however, more younger boys than girls did so (50% versus 39%), and fewer married than unmarried girls did so (75% versus 82%).

In general, moreover, large proportions of adolescents, regardless of age, sex, and, among older girls, marital status, reported a sense of self-efficacy about their ability to express their views to elders in their family, and to confront those with whom they disagree or who have wronged them; smaller proportions reported no discomfort in speaking before a mixed-sex group of peers. Notwithstanding this sense of self-efficacy when directed at themselves, when adolescents were asked to recommend actions that should be taken by protagonists of various vignettes intended to probe the extent to which they would provide recommendations reflecting self-efficacy, self-efficacy levels were somewhat muted. Many adolescents recommended that rather than deviate from traditional norms or the preference of their elders, they should acquiesce and obey, even if it contradicted their own preferences; while older adolescents were more likely than younger ones, and unmarried older girls more likely than married ones to recommend actions reflecting self-efficacy, gender patterns differed according to the vignette posed.

Agency related findings highlight on the whole, that girls have less agency than boys. Nevertheless, on several indicators, even including freedom of movement, many boys do face constraints in exercising agency in their lives. What is also very clear is that married girls are hugely disadvantaged. For example, not only was their freedom of movement more constrained than their unmarried counterparts, but they were also less likely to make decisions pertaining to their own lives, less likely to own a bank account, and less likely to display a sense of self-efficacy.

SUPPORT NETWORKS

Support networks – notably peer relationships – were reported by most adolescents. Indeed, 99 percent of boys and 92-99 percent of girls reported having at least one friend. While older boys had an average of almost five friends (4.8), younger boys and girls reported about four friends (3.9-4.2), and older girls about three friends (3.1-3.3). The majority of adolescents, except married older girls, met their friends at least once a week

(97-100% of boys; 84-98% of younger and older unmarried girls); the majority of married girls in contrast met their friends once in six months or even more rarely (64%), suggesting that married girls had little access to friends in their marital homes and interacted with friends only when at their natal homes. Most adolescents, irrespective of age, sex and, among older girls, of marital status, reported that they typically met their friends either in or around the school/college or at each other's home. Just 15-23 percent of girls compared with 68-79 percent of boys reported that they met their friends in recreational sites, such as a park, a maidan, a mall or a club.

Membership in such organised groups as Scheme for Adolescent Girls/SABLA/Kishori Shakti Yojana, Nehru Yuva Kendra Sangathan an Udaan Club, or a sports club was rare, reported by just 2-5 percent of adolescents. However, some 17 percent of married girls did however report membership in self-help groups.

ATTITUDES

Gender role attitudes: Gender role attitudes reveal some distinct patterns. For one, older adolescents were systematically more likely than their younger counterparts to reveal gender egalitarian attitudes. In contrast, gender patterns were not as consistent. For example, among younger adolescents, girls were far more likely to display egalitarian gender role attitudes on six of the seven attitudes probed, whereas, among older adolescents, more girls than boys displayed egalitarian gender role attitudes on three of five attitudes probed (girls should be allowed to decide when to marry, the male should not be the exclusive decision-maker on household spending, and it is acceptable for a women whose husband is earning well to work); more older boys than girls displayed egalitarian attitudes on two statements (childcare is not the exclusive responsibility of women, and it is acceptable for a girl to have male friends). Overall, findings from summary measures reflecting the percentage of adolescents displaying egalitarian attitudes on the four issues probed among all show that few adolescents adhered to egalitarian attitudes consistently, with older adolescents, girls, and among older girls, the unmarried, far more likely than their respective counterparts to display egalitarian attitudes. Younger boys, in particular, were the least likely to hold egalitarian attitudes on the four common items about which we probed (7% versus 22-46%), and unmarried girls aged 15-21 were far more likely than any other group to hold egalitarian attitudes (46% versus 7-28%). Unmarried older girls in comparison areas were more likely than their counterparts in intervention areas to display gender egalitarian attitudes,

Attitudes about the justifiability of violence against women: Attitudes about the justifiability of violence against women and girls in a variety of situations suggest that many adolescents may continue to believe that it is justifiable to beat a women or girl for what is perceived as a transgression. Overall, findings (while not entirely comparable since questions posed to older and younger adolescents were age-appropriate) suggest that older adolescents were more likely than their younger counterparts to reject the acceptability of violence against women and girls (48-56% versus 30-32%), and that while gender differences were muted for both older and younger adolescents (32% versus 30% among younger boys and girls; 52% versus 56% of older boys and unmarried girls), far more unmarried than married girls rejected the acceptability of violence against women and girls (56% versus 48%).

Prosocial attitudes: By and large, older adolescents reported prosocial or secular attitudes; 93-98 percent reported that they mixed freely with individuals of different castes, and 87-94 percent reported that they mixed freely with individuals of different religions. Far fewer would, however, eat with a person of different caste or religion (57-73%). While similar proportions of boys and unmarried girls would eat together with those from a different caste or religion (70-73%), fewer married girls would do so (57%). Overall, while 69-72 percent of unmarried adolescents would mix as well as eat with someone from a different caste or religion, just 56 percent of married girls so reported. Older girls, irrespective of marital status, in comparison areas were more likely than those in intervention areas to display prosocial attitudes on both mixing with those from other religions and eating together with those from other religions and castes.

AWARENESS OF REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH MATTERS

Overall, the findings emphasise how poorly informed adolescents are about matters of puberty and sexual and reproductive health.

Physical maturation: For example, just 17-18 percent of younger adolescents and 22-30 percent of older ones were aware that voice change happens only among boys, just 15 percent of boys and 58 percent of younger girls knew that menstruation happens only among girls, and just 42-53 percent of younger adolescents, and not all unmarried older ones (87-88%) knew that growth of pubic hair takes place among both boys and girls. Girls, moreover, continue to adhere to traditional taboos about do's and don'ts during menstruation, with, for example, just 11-25 percent rejecting the taboo about making pickles or papad during menstruation.

Pregnancy-related matters: Knowledge about pregnancy related matters among those aged 13-21 was also sparse. For example, just 57 percent of boys aged 13-14 and 43 percent of girls aged 13-14 knew that a woman cannot become pregnant after kissing or hugging; and just 8-11 percent of these adolescents knew that a woman can get pregnant the first time she has sexual relations. Among older boys and girls too, few knew that a woman can get pregnant at first sex (27-28% of the unmarried, 52% of married girls), and among older girls, just four percent of unmarried girls and 18 percent of their married counterparts knew that a woman is most likely to become pregnant if she engages in sexual relations halfway through her menstrual cycle.

With regard to matters related to the sex of the foetus, few adolescents knew that it is the male who is responsible for determining the sex of the foetus (10-13% of younger adolescents, 24-31% of older adolescents). Far more adolescents were aware of the availability of tests to determine the sex of the foetus – 35 percent of younger boys and 46% of younger girls, 71-81 percent of boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21 and 79 percent of married girls. Moreover, among older adolescents so aware, three in four unmarried adolescents and two in three married girls were aware that disclosure of the sex of the foetus violates the law.

Contraception: Almost all older adolescents had heard about at least one method of contraception (92-97%), and most boys (93%) and fewer girls (74-88%) had heard of at least one method that is both suitable for adolescents and relatively accessible, that is oral pills, emergency contraception, condoms and IUDs. Despite this, few had in-depth knowledge of even one of the four methods about which we probed: 61 percent of boys, 52 percent of married girls, and just 19 percent of unmarried girls. More specifically, more boys and girls had correct knowledge about condoms (that one male condom can be used just once) than had correct knowledge of any other method; even so, just 60 percent of boys, 45 percent of married girls and 14 percent of unmarried girls reported such awareness.

HIV/AIDS: Relatively small proportions of adolescents had heard about HIV/AIDS (7-10% of younger adolescents and 21-56% of older adolescents), and of those who had heard about HIV/AIDS, comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS was very limited. Just 1-2 percent of younger adolescents could identify all four commonly held misperceptions about which we probed, and just 3-5 percent of girls and 15 percent of boys knew about all four of these misperceptions and two methods of prevention (single partner relations and consistent condom use). Awareness of STIs, probed only among older adolescents, was even more limited than awareness of HIV/AIDS – just 17-19 percent of boys and unmarried girls, and 29 percent of married girls - had heard about STIs.

Child marriage laws: Awareness that there exists a law regarding the minimum age of marriage for boys and girls in India was reported by just half of younger girls, two-thirds of younger boys, 78-86 percent of older girls and almost all (92%) of older boys. Awareness that 18 and 21 are the legal minimum ages at marriage for females and males, respectively, was known by far fewer. While 47-51 percent of younger boys and girls knew that 18 is the correct minimum age at marriage for females, only 19-22 percent knew that 21 is the correct minimum age at marriage for males. Although awareness was greater among older adolescents, it was by no means universal – just 75-79 percent of older boys and girls, respectively, knew the correct legal minimum age at marriage for females, and only 35-46 percent knew the correct legal minimum age at marriage for males.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH MATTERS

Sources of information: Corresponding with adolescents' limited awareness of puberty and sexual and reproductive health matters is their limited access to sources of information. Indeed, one quarter of girls (24%) and two-fifths of boys (40%) aged 10-14 had no access to people or materials to inform them about physiological changes taking place during adolescence. Many of those aged 13-21 were, likewise, deprived of sources of information about how pregnancy occurs or about contraception and other sexual and reproductive health matters (58-59% of younger boys and girls; 16-20% of older boys and unmarried girls; 7% of married girls). Boys and younger adolescents were clearly more likely to be deprived than girls and older adolescents.

Leading sources of information on puberty for younger adolescents were family members, particularly parents (13% of boys and 53% of girls), followed by friends (32% of boys and 27% of girls) and influential adults in the community, particularly teachers (13% of boys and 17% of girls). Hardly any younger adolescents listed healthcare providers (less than 1%) or the mass media (2-5%) as their major sources of information. Leading sources of information – both on puberty among 10-14 year olds, and sexual and reproductive matters among 13-14 and 15-21 year olds – revealed a similar pattern. Family members were the leading sources of information among girls (53% for puberty related matters, 25-72% for sexual and reproductive health matters), and friends were the leading source among boys (32% for puberty related matters, 26-65% for sexual and reproductive health matters). Persons in positions of authority – largely health care providers and teachers – were cited as key sources of information among fewer adolescents (13-17% with regard to puberty related matters, 9-11% and 16-23% of 13-14 year olds and 15-21 year olds, respectively, with regard to sexual and reproductive health matters). The media were rarely cited as a source of information about puberty related matters among 10-14 year olds (2-5%) or about sexual and reproductive health matters among 13-14 year olds (3-6%) and married girls (10%), but about one-quarter of boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21 considered the media a leading source of information (23-24%).

Preferred sources of information: Leading preferred sources of information on sexual and reproductive health (among 13-21 year olds) differed considerably between younger and older adolescents, between boys and girls, and among older girls, between the unmarried and the married. Among boys, the leading preferred sources of information were friends (male) and persons in positions of authority, and in both instances, more older boys than younger boys expressed this preference (56% versus 35% and 47% versus 39%, respectively). More younger boys than older boys preferred teachers (19% versus 10%) and more older boys than younger boys preferred health care providers (35% versus 5%). The media were preferred by just eight percent of younger boys and one fifth of older boys. For girls, the leading preferred source of information was a family member, reported by 61-71 percent of all girls (mostly mother and sister for the unmarried, husband for the married). Friends and those in positions of authority were far less likely to be preferred (by 19-21 percent and 28-29 percent respectively of girls aged 13-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21). As in the case of boys, health care providers and teachers were preferred by younger girls (10% and 9% respectively), while older unmarried girls exhibited a greater preference for health care providers than teachers (20% and 4% respectively). Among married girls, adults in positions of authority (41%) and among these, health care providers in particular (30%) were the preferred leading source of information. The media, in contrast, were a preferred source of information to relatively few girls (4-11%). A comparison of preferred and actual sources of information (reported above) suggests that many adolescents are not receiving information from the individuals from whom they would like to receive information.

Access to sexuality education: Access to adolescence education or sexuality education among adolescents aged 13-21 was limited, especially among boys. Just 4-7 percent of boys and 14-26 percent of girls had ever attended family life or sex education programmes, generally conducted in their school or college. Content of sexuality education among those exposed was limited and, in particular, few had been taught about key issues such as nocturnal emission and pregnancy. Gender differences were vast. Far more girls had been taught about menstruation than boys who had been taught about nocturnal emission (92-98% versus 9-26%), and far more boys than girls had been taught about relations between boys and girls (81% versus 34% among 13-14 year olds, 62% versus 28-29% among 15-21 year olds). Gender differences were not

apparent with regard to exposure to education on pregnancy related matters (15-21% among younger boys and girls, 31-32% among older boys and unmarried girls) but married girls were far more likely to have been told about pregnancy than unmarried older girls (48% versus 32%). Unfortunately, a survey cannot probe in greater depth about what exactly was conveyed under these three topics, and hence the extent of adherence to the curriculum and the quality and comprehensiveness of what was taught cannot be assessed.

PRE-MARITAL ENTRY INTO SEXUAL LIFE

Pre-marital romantic and sexual relations, especially among girls, are sensitive issues, but the evidence thus far has shown that despite strict norms proscribing social mixing among boys and girls, young people do find ways of developing romantic relationships, and even engage in sexual relations. The module used to explore these issues was drawn from the Youth in India survey and the UDAYA survey, after pre-testing in the Jharkhand context. Questions on romantic and sexual relationships were posed only to adolescents aged 15-21; however, questions on non-contact sexual harassment and non-consensual sexual touch were also posed to those aged 10-14.

Romantic relationships: One-third of boys and married girls, and one-quarter of unmarried girls had been involved in a romantic partnership, and 11 percent of boys and just one percent of girls had more than one romantic partner. Physical intimacy within romantic relationships was widespread, and reported by far more boys than girls -- 77 percent of boys, 68 percent of married girls and 58 percent of unmarried girls had hugged their romantic partner, 68 percent, 60 percent and 42 percent respectively had kissed their romantic partner on the lips, and 35 percent, 31 percent and 18 percent, respectively, had engaged in sexual relations with their partner. Boys and girls in intervention areas were somewhat more likely than their counterparts in comparison areas to have engaged in sexual relations with a romantic partner.

Many adolescents who had engaged in sexual relations with a romantic partner had engaged in unprotected sex. For example, few boys and girls reported using a contraceptive method at first sex (16% of boys and married girls, 13% of unmarried girls) and just 8-9 percent had consistently used a contraceptive in all their sexual encounters (one if reported just once, with first and last romantic partner if applicable). More specifically, 13 percent of boys and 8-9 percent of girls had used a condom at first sex, suggesting that the majority of those who practised contraception in romantic relationships had used condoms. Overall, 13 percent of boys and 8-9 percent of girls had used a condom at first sex, and 4-6 percent of boys and girls had done so consistently. Traditional methods, second most likely to have been used, were reported by 2-6 percent of boys and girls.

To assess the extent of non-consensual sex within a romantic partnership, we asked boys whether they had ever pressured their girlfriend, through force, threats or blackmail, for example, to engage in sexual relations, and conversely asked girls whether they had ever been pressured into engaging in sexual relations with their boyfriend in these ways. Thirteen percent of boys admitted that they had pressured their first girlfriend to engage in sexual relations, and as many as 50-56 percent of unmarried and married girls reported that first sex was pressured (slightly more - 52-59% - reported the experience of non-consensual sex at any time during the relationship). Differences between adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were notable in some instances among girls, but not boys: those in comparison areas were typically more likely than their counterparts in intervention areas to have used a contraceptive, and unmarried girls in comparison areas were less likely than those in intervention areas to report non-consensual sex.

Non-consensual experiences: To all adolescents, irrespective of whether they had a romantic sexual partner or not, we probed non-consensual sexual experiences. We posed questions differently for younger and older adolescents, and girls and boys. Younger girls were probed only about non-contact harassment and younger boys and girls were probed about non-consensual sexual touch. As many as 13 percent of younger girls had ever experienced non-contact sexual harassment of a sexual nature, and two percent had experienced unwanted sexual touch. Among younger boys, two percent had ever perpetrated non-contact harassment of sexual nature on a girl, and one percent reported ever having perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl. We asked younger girls who had experienced non-contact sexual harassment, and younger boys and girls who had experienced non-consensual sexual touch or attempted forced sex, respectively, about whether they had sought help or had confided the incident in someone. Three in five younger girls (62%)

who had experienced non-contact sexual harassment and slightly fewer (54%) of those who had experienced non-consensual sexual touch or attempted forced sex had done so. In contrast, far fewer boys aged 10-14 who had experienced non-consensual sexual touch or attempted forced sex had done so (18%).

Older adolescents were probed about non-consensual sexual touch and attempted and forced sex. Five percent of older boys and 14 percent of unmarried and married older girls alike reported ever experiencing non-consensual sexual touch, including attempts to force sex on them. While hardly any boys reported the experience of forced sex, three percent of unmarried girls and five percent of married girls had ever experienced sex against their will, perpetrated by a romantic partner or someone else. In addition, three percent of older boys reported that they had ever touched a girl inappropriately and two percent reported that they had perpetrated forced sex on a girl, including on their girlfriend. Older adolescents who had experienced non-consensual sexual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex perpetrated by anyone aside from a romantic partner were asked whether they had sought help or confided in anyone about the incident. Among those who had experienced non-consensual sexual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex (among married girls, before marriage), 50-54 percent of girls and far fewer (23%) boys had done so.

Entry into sexual life in Jharkhand as a whole: On the whole, 18 percent of older boys, 16 percent of married girls, and nine percent of unmarried girls reported pre-marital sex. As expected, most reported relations with a romantic partner (12% of boys, 10% of married girls, 5% of unmarried girls). Other sexual experiences reported by boys included the perpetration of forced sex on a girl, and relations with a married woman or casual partner, respectively (1-2%). Other sexual experiences reported by girls included forced sex (3-5%), and among married girls, sex with their husband before marriage (7%). Pre-marital pregnancy was reported by two percent of boys, three percent of unmarried girls, and seven percent of married girls who had reported a premarital sexual relationship in the face-to-face interview.

TIMING OF MARRIAGE

Preferred timing of marriage: Many adolescents (63-65% of younger boys and girls, 42% of older boys and 32% of older girls) had not thought about the age at which they would like to marry. At the same time, less than one percent, irrespective of age and sex reported a desire to marry in childhood, but gender differences were apparent in percentages wishing to marry in adolescence (below age 20) with 1-3 percent of boys, compared to 13-15 percent of girls reporting such a preference.

Communication between parents and children about preferred marriage age was moderate, perhaps because communication is generally limited, as children are not expected to participate in such decisions, or because both parents and adolescents considered marriage related discussion premature. Most younger adolescents (90-95%) had no idea about when their parents wished for them to marry, as did large percentages – 82 and 54 – of older boys and unmarried girls, respectively. Although not representative of all adolescents as a result, the findings are illustrative. They suggest that six percent and 22 percent of older girls, respectively, reported that their parents wished to marry them in childhood (below age 18) or adolescence (below age 20) (compared to just 2% of older boys whose parents wished to marry them in adolescence). In general, differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were muted; however, fewer younger adolescents and older girls in intervention areas than those in comparison areas wished to marry at ages 20 or above.

Child marriage: Child marriage persists. Further analysis of NFHS4 data show that of those aged 15-21, 4.2 percent had married by age 15, and of those aged 18-21, 32.4 percent had done so. Our findings highlight similar levels of child marriage: four percent of girls aged 15-21 were married before the age of 15, and one-third (33%) of those aged 18-21 were married before the age of 18. Child marriage was more pronounced among those belonging to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward castes, than those from general castes. It was also more concentrated among the poorly educated, with evidence of an inverse relationship between years of schooling of the girl, her mother and her father and child marriage. Marriage age differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were negligible.

MARRIAGE-RELATED ARRANGEMENTS

Four in five married girls (82%) reported a parent- or family-arranged marriage, and 27 percent reported no say at all in the selection of her husband. Just 18 percent had selected their own husband. Of those who reported a parent- or family-arranged marriage, premarital acquaintance was limited. Just 37 percent of girls whose marriage was family-arranged had ever had a chance to meet their husband-to-be privately or talk on the phone to him privately prior to marriage, although 36 percent knew their husband “somewhat” and six percent knew him well before marriage. Just 58 percent of girls reported that they had met their husband for the first time on the wedding day. At the same time, seven percent of married girls had engaged in sexual relations before marriage with their husband, and among those reporting a love marriage, 35 percent so reported, with negligible differences between those in intervention and comparison areas.

Few (just 12%) reported that anyone had discussed postponing the first pregnancy with them before marriage.

Notwithstanding laws prohibiting dowry transactions, three-quarters of married girls reported that they had brought a dowry, and nine percent had received a bride-price. Just a few girls (12%) had ever tried to dissuade parents from paying a dowry or receiving a bride-price. Patterns were similar for those in intervention and comparison areas.

MARRIED LIFE

Spousal communication: As far as intra-family communication is concerned, three-quarters of girls reported that they had discussed household spending or money matters with their husband. Fewer had discussed the number of children to have (54%), and hardly a quarter (23%) had discussed using contraception to postpone the first pregnancy with their husband. At the same time, 16 percent reported that they had faced pressure from their in-laws to have a child immediately after marriage. Again, patterns were similar for girls in intervention and comparison areas.

Marital violence: Violence within marriage was reported by considerable proportions of girls who had begun cohabiting with their husband, and patterns were similar for those in intervention and comparison areas. Thirty percent of girls had experienced emotional violence ever in married life, that is, their husband had either verbally humiliated them in the presence of others or threatened to hurt or harm someone close to them. A similar proportion (31%) had experienced one or more forms of physical violence (slapping, beating, punching, kicking, burning, threatening/attacking with a knife or gun), and many more – 41 percent – acknowledged the experience of forced sex within marriage. Overall, 53 percent of married girls had experienced physical or sexual violence in the year preceding the interview (or since marriage if married less than one year). The large majority of girls who experienced physical violence perpetrated by their husband simply remained silent (68%), reiterating their limited agency. A few had shared the incident with family members (23%), shouted for help (9%) or retaliated verbally or physically against the husband (11%). Hardly any (2%) sought help from those in authority.

Contraception and unmet need: Even though few girls had discussed family planning with their husband, and several had faced pressure from in-laws about having a child as soon as possible after marriage, almost half (49%) of the girls desired to delay their first birth for two years after marriage. Yet, few were able to put these desires into practice - just 13 percent had practised contraception to postpone the first birth. Among those who had done so, methods most likely to be used were condoms (71%) and traditional methods (17% and 15% reported practising rhythm and withdrawal methods, respectively). Among those who were not able to put their desires into practice, leading reasons were objections to family planning (31%), particularly from their husband and other family members and limited awareness about methods or the source of supplies (22%). Although small proportions did cite problems accessing supplies and method related concerns (6-8%). Sizeable minorities reported that they had never thought about it (23%) or did not have regular sex with their husband (16%).

Contraceptive use at any time within marriage was limited, reported by just 22 percent of married girls, with 16 percent and eight percent respectively reporting modern and traditional method use. Again, the leading methods used were the condom (12%), and traditional methods (4-6% reported rhythm and withdrawal).

Fewer cohabiting non-pregnant girls – 17 percent – reported contraceptive practice at the time of the interview, and again, methods most likely to be used were condoms (8%) and traditional methods (rhythm/withdrawal, 3-5%).

More than four in five married girls (43%) had an unmet need for contraception - 34 percent for spacing and nine percent for limiting childbearing. Just 14 percent of all cohabiting girls were practising contraception at the time of the interview and were considered to have a met demand for contraception. While 57 percent of married girls had a demand for contraception, just one quarter of that demand was satisfied.

Childbearing experiences: Early childbearing is the norm, and patterns were similar among those in intervention and comparison areas. While hardly any (<1%) of the girls aged 15-21 had given birth before the age of 15, as many as 12 percent of girls aged 18-21 had given birth in childhood (below the age of 18), and almost two in five (39%) of those aged 20-21 had given birth in adolescence (below the age of 20). Overall, 56 percent of married girls already had one or more births, eight percent were pregnant for the first time at the time of the interview, and in all, almost two-thirds (64%) of married girls had already initiated childbearing, that is, they had at least one birth or were pregnant for the first time. Differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Pregnancy loss was considerable among those who had ever been pregnant, and patterns were similar among those in intervention and comparison areas. As many as 18 percent of married girls had experienced pregnancy loss: five percent had experienced a stillbirth, 13 percent reported miscarriage and two percent reported an induced abortion.

Pregnancy-related care: Pregnancy-related care surrounding the first birth was not universal. While virtually all married girls had received at least one antenatal check-up (99%), just two-thirds (64%) had received at least one check-up in the first trimester, and 62 percent had received the recommended minimum of four ante-natal check-ups. Although 87 percent of married girls had received iron and folic acid tablets, only nine percent had taken the full course of 100 tablets. Almost nine in ten girls (89%) had received two or more tetanus toxoid injections and almost all (97%) had received at least one.

The first birth typically took place in a health facility, with skilled attendance: 79 percent of girls reported that they had given birth in a health facility and 81 percent reported that their first delivery was attended to by a doctor, nurse or other skilled professional. Access to post-partum check-ups following their first delivery was reported by 75 percent of girls, but we note that among those delivering in a facility, just one quarter received a postpartum check-up after discharge from the facility.

Not all girls accessed the benefits to which they were entitled during pregnancy, delivery and the postpartum period. Access to pregnancy related entitlements, notably through the Janani Shishu Surakshya Karyakram (JSSK), the Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY), and the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) was limited. About two-thirds (68%) of those whose first delivery took place in any facility had received at least one entitlement offered under the Janani Shishu Surakshya Karyakram. Fewer -- 37 percent -- had received JSY cash benefits for their first delivery; this proportion increased to almost three in five (56%) of those whose first delivery had taken place in a public facility. Far more girls (79%) had received supplementary nutrition during pregnancy or the lactation period. While more girls from intervention than comparison areas had received JSY and JSSK entitlements, similar proportions of those in intervention and comparison areas reported receiving supplementary nutrition.

OTHER DIMENSIONS OF HEALTH

The survey also explored other dimensions of adolescent health, including symptoms of sexual and reproductive morbidity and mental ill-health, exposure to accidents and injuries, substance misuse and physical activity. Findings provide a mixed picture of health among adolescents in Jharkhand.

Symptoms of sexual and reproductive morbidity: With regard to the experience of symptoms of sexual and reproductive morbidity, those most likely to have experienced symptoms during the three months preceding the interview were boys aged 15-21 (31%), boys aged 10-14 (22%) and married girls (26%); younger girls and unmarried girls aged 15-21 were less likely to report symptoms (9-15%). Menstrual problems were reported

by few girls (6-10%) and encouraging findings suggest that this may be so because large proportions of girls use sanitary napkins – while 44-57 percent do so exclusively, another 27-33 percent do so intermittently, depending on the availability of supplies and resources. Differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were not observed, except that more older boys in intervention than comparison areas reported experiencing one or more symptoms of sexual and reproductive ill-health (36% versus 30%).

Symptoms of mental ill-health: Symptoms of mental ill-health were displayed by small proportions of adolescents, with 95-100 percent of the five groups of adolescents reporting no symptoms suggestive of mental ill-health. Nevertheless, symptoms of moderate to severe depressive disorders (a score of 10–27) were not entirely absent and gender differences emerged. Three percent of unmarried older girls, and five percent of married girls displayed these symptoms during the two weeks prior to the interview, as did 0.1-0.3 percent of boys and girls aged 10-14. In addition, while not a single younger boy aged 13-14 (those aged 10-12 were not asked this question) had seriously considered committing suicide in the year preceding the interview, a few adolescents in other groups had done so – one percent each of older boys and younger girls (13-14), three percent of unmarried older girls and six percent of married girls. Differences across intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Injuries and accidents: Disturbing proportions of adolescents had experienced an injury or accident in three months preceding the interview, and, as other studies have shown, more boys than girls had experienced injuries and accidents. For example, 39 percent of younger boys and 29 percent of older boys reported the experience of an injury or accident; in comparison, just 14 percent of younger girls, 12 percent of unmarried older girls, and five percent of married older girls so reported. More older boys in intervention than comparison areas reported experiencing an accident or injury in the three months preceding the interview (34% versus 28%); differences were negligible among other groups.

Substance misuse: Substance misuse was largely reported by older boys, among whom about one quarter reported the consumption of tobacco products (27%) and alcohol (23%). In contrast, use of these substances among other groups was reported by very few (1-4%). Consumption of drugs was reported by tiny proportions of adolescents, irrespective of age and sex (0-2%). Differences between those residing in intervention and comparison areas were generally negligible; however, more older boys in intervention than comparison areas reported experiencing consumption of tobacco products (34% versus 26%) and alcohol (30% versus 23%).

Physical activity: Jharkhand is a state well-known for the participation of youth in sports. However, our findings show that physical activity is near universal only among younger adolescents and older boys. Among these groups, 98 percent of younger boys, 94 percent of older boys, and 91 percent of younger girls engaged in sports, games or other physical activities. Even among younger adolescents, more boys than girls were engaged in physical activity, but among older adolescents, gender differences were stark, with far fewer unmarried girls than boys reporting physical activity (62% versus 94%). Among girls, age differences and among older girls, differences by marital status, were wide: while almost all younger girls (91%) were engaged in physical activity, percentages were far lower among unmarried girls (62%), and particularly so, among married girls (11%). Findings imply that girls are withdrawn from outdoor activities as they reach later adolescence, while boys face no such restrictions. They also suggest that among unmarried girls aged 15-21, more of those from comparison than intervention areas reported participating in physical activity.

AWARENESS OF HEALTH-RELATED ENTITLEMENTS

Awareness of government programmes intended to promote adolescent health varied. Knowledge about programmes such as the Rashtriya Kishore Swasthya Karyakram (RKSK) and Adolescent Friendly Health Clinics (AFHC) was very limited (0-7%). In contrast, other programmes, for example the weekly iron and folic acid scheme and the sanitary napkin distribution scheme were known by larger proportions. For example, 62-72 percent of girls knew of the sanitary napkin distribution scheme, 65-77 percent of adolescents from all five groups were aware of the weekly iron and folic acid scheme. As far as awareness of frontline workers is concerned, almost all were aware of anganwadi workers (95-99%). However, fewer were aware of the ASHA: 62 percent of younger boys, 76-80 percent of older boys and younger girls, and over ninety percent of older

girls (92-94%). Differences between adolescents from intervention and comparison areas were negligible with regard to awareness of all entitlements, the only exception being that more married girls in comparison than in intervention areas were aware of the Weekly Iron and Folic Supplement WIFS programme (71% versus 66%).

ACCESS TO HEALTH SERVICES

Access to services offered through the programmes mentioned above was limited. For example, acquaintance with a peer educator as proposed in RKSK and access to services offered by AFHCs were reported by fewer than one percent. Among rural respondents, hardly any (0-3%) had attended the Kishori Swasthya Diwas, and, aside from the married, among whom almost one third (31%) had attended the Village Health and Nutrition Day, most adolescents had not done so (1-3%). Although many girls were aware of the sanitary napkin distribution scheme, fewer girls who had begun menstruating reported that they had received sanitary napkins through their school or from a frontline worker in the year preceding the interview and many more younger girls (26%) than unmarried older girls (16%) had received sanitary napkins; very few married girls (6%) had done so, suggesting that distribution may have been through schools and not frontline workers.

Despite widespread awareness of frontline workers, interactions of adolescents with AWWs and ASHAs in the year preceding the interview were reported by fewer adolescents and varied widely by age and sex and marital status. More girls than boys at each age had obtained services from a frontline worker, and far more married girls than any other group (62% versus 7-14% of boys, 22-26% of younger girls and unmarried girls aged 15-21) had received any health-related information, counselling, referrals, supplies or services from AWWs or ASHAs during the year preceding the interview. School- or college-based services – namely, information or services from a doctor or nurse within the school or college premises in the year preceding the interview – were reported by about two in five younger adolescents (40-44%) and fewer older adolescents (14-26%).

Haemoglobin screening, height and weight monitoring, iron and folic acid supplementation and deworming services at school or at the anganwadi centre in the year preceding the interview were far from universal. Hardly any (3-5%) of the unmarried boys and girls and slightly more married girls (11%) had been screened for haemoglobin. Height and weight monitoring in the school or anganwadi centre in the year preceding the interview was limited: just 5-23 percent of adolescents reported weight monitoring, and 5-15 percent reported height monitoring. While 51-56 percent of younger adolescents received deworming services, just 14-27 percent of older adolescents had done so. Just 6-7 percent of boys and 20-25 percent of girls had received and consumed iron and folic acid supplementation. Overall, the findings hint that services were provided largely to primary school-going adolescents, and, at the community level, to those most likely to interact with frontline workers, that is, married girls.

Older adolescents who knew about at least one contraceptive method were asked whether they would be comfortable approaching a health care provider or a medical shop, chemist or pharmacy to obtain contraceptive supplies. Many reported that they would indeed feel shy to do so – roughly similar proportions of boys, unmarried and married girls (34-39%). However, fewer boys than girls reported discomfort about obtaining supplies from a medical shop, pharmacy or chemist (30% of boys and 42-43% of girls).

Differences between those from intervention and comparison areas were observed in a few instances. For example, more married girls from comparison than intervention areas reported that their weight (33% versus 27%) and height (20% versus 14%) had been taken at least once in the year preceding the interview, and that they had interacted with an AWW (55% versus 49%) or any frontline worker (63% versus 57%) in the year preceding the interview. Among those attending an educational facility at the time of the interview, more of those from comparison than intervention areas had interacted with a health care provider (41% versus 31% among younger boys, 27% versus 22% among older boys, and 46% versus 28% among younger girls). However, fewer boys from comparison than intervention areas had received deworming services (56% versus 62% of younger boys, 24% versus 29% of older boys).

RECOMMENDATIONS

This profile of the situation of adolescents in Jharkhand has suggested that many adolescents are not equipped with the resources and assets necessary to make a successful transition to adulthood, highlights wide inequities and calls for special attention to the socially and economically marginalised. We recommend a number of largely evidence-informed and need-based strategies intended to enhance the achievement of key markers of a successful transition to adulthood.

1. Ensuring the completion of a secondary school education for all with good learning outcomes

Findings suggesting premature school discontinuation, irregular school attendance and poor learning outcomes call for multipronged action to keep adolescents in school and improve learning outcomes at adolescent, system and parent levels.

- Conditional and unconditional cash transfer programmes linked to keeping adolescents in school have shown great promise in achieving school continuation and regular attendance. These have been implemented in some states of India, but effects have not yet been evaluated. The provision of bicycles for those making the transition from primary to secondary school has however shown promise, contributing to increasing age-appropriate enrolment in secondary schools among girls and delayed age at marriage.
- Supplementary coaching, and engaging informal teachers from the community, have been found in several pilots to effectively help students to overcome academic problems; this is especially useful for the many first-generation learners in Jharkhand. So too have initiatives that have adapted curricula to children's learning levels and have provided level-appropriate instead of grade-level learning materials and curricula (teaching at the right level). Attention must also be paid to giving adolescents who had discontinued their education prematurely a second chance at learning, through bridge courses and other supplementary coaching opportunities.
- Initiatives are needed that ensure that students do not lose interest in school and drop out for lack of interest; a more interactive mode of teaching, information and communication technology (ICT) based instruction, opportunities for incorporating career counselling, livelihood skills training, sports coaching and so on, may be effective ways of stimulating interest and retaining adolescents within the education system.

2. Supporting the school-to-work transition

India has invested hugely in skilling its population as clearly articulated in its National Policy on Skill Development and Entrepreneurship (Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, 2015). The National Skill Development Mission aims to skill or upgrade the skills of 150 million people, mostly youth, by 2022 (Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, n.d). Yet, making an age-appropriate transition to work eludes many adolescents in Jharkhand, and notwithstanding India's child labour laws that prohibit wage work among children under 14, child labour (wage work before age 14) persists.

- Strategies suggested earlier to encourage and support disadvantaged parents, through cash transfers and interpersonal interaction, to keep children in school should also focus on informing parents about the law and penalties for violation and convincing them of the benefits of school over wage work for their children.
- Programmes must ensure a sound school-to-work transition. The success of such a transition depends hugely on the success of the school system in ensuring secondary school completion with appropriate learning outcomes, as well as on the extent of support to older adolescents, especially girls, in acquiring a marketable livelihood skill and mentorship in accessing placement thereafter.
- Comprehensive skills training and support programmes are needed that not only provide a vocational skill but also familiarise adolescents with marketable career options and provide the 'softer' supportive activities that are found to lead to better outcomes, for example, life skills, preparing a CV, appearing for an interview, and presenting one's self. Those trained need support in identifying available apprenticeship or employment opportunities for which they are eligible, as well as post-training placement and mentoring, as observed in several successful programmes in LMIC (Kluve et al., 2016), including one for girls in India (Jensen, 2012).

Girls, in particular, are in need of support - in accessing training opportunities, in overcoming family-level barriers to working outside the home, and in availing of apprenticeship or employment opportunities. Gatekeepers must be approached. Strategies must be explored that convey to parents the economic value and earning potential of girls, and change perceptions about the acceptability of enabling girls to earn outside the home. At the same time, industry must be sensitised to generate apprenticeship opportunities and more girl-friendly working conditions that are welcoming of girls.

3. Building agency, egalitarian gender role attitudes, life skills and health promoting awareness among girls and boys

Findings have stressed the limited agency of girls (and some boys), the far from universal expression of gender egalitarian attitudes, the limited awareness of sexual and reproductive health, and the limited skills needed to exercise informed life choices. Such findings call for such globally recognised best practices as gender transformative life skills education for boys and girls in and out of school and comprehensive sexuality education for those in school.

- A number of programmes exist at state and national levels in India - for example, the Nehru Yuvak Kendra Sangathan (NYKS), the Scheme for Adolescent Girls (SAG) programme (previously known as the SABLA programme), the Adolescence Education Programme (UDAAN in Jharkhand) and the recently developed Ayushman Bharat curriculum. All of these intend to raise health promoting awareness, build egalitarian gender norms, develop agency and offer opportunities for incorporating wider curricula and reaching adolescents at scale. Lessons are available and must be incorporated from successful civil society programmes.
- Programme content must be wide-ranging – exposing adolescents to new ideas about the world around them, nurturing decision-making, communication and negotiation skills, developing new notions of masculinity and femininity and an abhorrence of violence, building confidence about exercising voice in demanding rights and entitlements, emphasising an understanding of human rights and raising awareness about health promoting practices.
- Information conveyed through these programmes must be bold and comprehensive. Content must, of course, be age-appropriate, but themes to be covered must include the physical and emotional changes taking place in adolescence, physical attraction, anxiety, stress, contraceptive options, safety and consent in sexual relations. Messaging must empower adolescents to ensure that entry into sexual life is informed, safe and wanted. The UDAAN programme in Jharkhand provides an opportunity for imparting age-appropriate exposure to information on sexual and reproductive health and rights from an early age.

4. Delaying marriage, and ensuring girls' engagement in marriage related decisions

Despite declines in child marriage, the practice persists. Much needs to be done to ensure that child marriage is eliminated, and that young people enter into marriage with free and full consent. Initiatives to delay marriage and ensure informed choice consent in marriage decision are needed.

- Gender transformative life skills education that enhances girls' (and boys') communication and negotiation skills, creates safe spaces and strong peer networks for girls, incorporate information about rights, including with regard to the Prevention of Child Marriage Act and dowry laws.
- Available platforms, such as the SAG, the peer led and the AFHC components of the RKSK, and the expansion of responsibilities of frontline workers to include the young, must support and empower girls to exercise their rights, and their voice in when and whom they marry. School level adolescence education programmes must convey these messages to both girls and boys.
- Alternatives to child marriage must be provided to girls. Support for continuing in school, provision of livelihood training and employment opportunities before marriage, discussed earlier, have been found to avert child marriage. For example, in Bihar, the provision of bicycles, not only resulted in keeping girls in school, but also, thereby, in delaying their marriage. Comprehensive skill building programmes have likewise found that such programmes succeed in empowering girls economically and have an effect on delaying marriage. Strategies to engage those in authority to enable girls to overcome access-related obstacles must be implemented.

- Girls (and boys) must have access to mechanisms through which those who are about to be married (or those whose sibling is about to be married) prematurely may seek the intervention of an authority figure, such as a teacher, a health care provider, or a panchayat member.

5. Ensuring that entry into sexual life, before or within marriage, is safe and wanted and unmet need for contraception is addressed

Many adolescents initiate sexual life before marriage, and unsafe and unwanted relations are often reported. Among the married, unmet need for contraception is frequently observed, especially with regard to the first pregnancy. These findings call for increased attention to contraception and HIV-related counselling and services in non-threatening ways, and the provision of contraceptive supplies for all, through the Rashtriya Kishor Swasthya Karyakram (RKSK) and other delivery mechanisms.

- The peer educator and group-based model advocated in the RKSK must also incorporate the provision of information, counselling and referrals for adolescents in need, and identify acceptable pathways through which supplies (condoms) can be accessed by the young, including the unmarried.
- Intensive training and mentoring of peer educators are needed in overcoming any discomfort in conveying information and providing these services to unmarried adolescents at community level.
- Married girls also face considerable system level constraints to accessing services. Many frontline workers do not therefore reach out to married girls with contraceptive counselling and supplies, assuming that they wish to become pregnant as early as possible, have no demand and have the agency to seek services if desired. These misperceptions need to be addressed, and strategies must be devised that recognise the decision making and mobility-related challenges that married girls face, and reach them with information and services, including ensuring a safe pregnancy and delivery.

6. Promoting no tolerance for gender-based violence

Adolescents are exposed to violence in many ways – many witness and experience parental violence while growing up, many unmarried adolescents who engage in sexual relations within romantic partnerships face non-consensual sex (experienced by girls, perpetrated by boys), and marital relations are characterised by physical and sexual violence for many

- Life skills education and comprehensive sexuality education curricula must stress the importance of equitable gender relations at the sibling, peer, romantic partner and marital partner levels. It must also convey to adolescents the unacceptability of the violence they may have witnessed at home, and the importance of peaceful conflict resolution.
- Promising programmes that may be replicated include those that changed attitudes of boys through a mix of gender transformative life skills education and sports coaching to reinforce ideas of fairness, peaceful conflict resolution, and rejection of attitudes justifying violence against women and girls. Additionally, safe spaces programmes for girls that enable them to build solidarity and support systems, and convey information about protecting themselves against violence and taking action in case they experience it have also show promise.

7. Meeting mental health needs

Mental health and substance misuse are growing health concerns of adolescents, and these have been recognised in the national adolescent health programme (RKSK) as well as the National Mental Health Policy.

- Global evidence shows that life-skills and resilience training have a positive effect on mental health; small studies in India have incorporated components on dealing with anxiety and conflict in the course of life skills education and used trained teachers and even volunteers in screening and providing counselling and referrals to adolescents in need.
- The RKSK focus on the provision of counsellors in Adolescent Friendly Health Clinics who conduct outreach at school and community levels, may be an effective way of incorporating such prevention messages, as well as identifying, counselling and referring those at risk.

8. Addressing the particular disadvantages experienced by married girls

Of all adolescent groups, married girls are the most disadvantaged and vulnerable -- have far worse learning outcomes, have less exposure to the internet or to social media, have less freedom of movement and are less likely to express self-efficacy or control money. Within marriage, husband-wife communication on sexual and reproductive matters is limited, many face violence perpetrated by their husband, several girls who had desired to delay their first pregnancy faced objections from their husband and family to use contraceptives, and many have an unmet need for contraception.

- Promising interventions for married girls include such approaches as couple counselling, reaching other family members, home visits by health care workers and capacity building of health workers to address the needs of married young women or encouraging couple communication on sensitive issues (contraception, for example), negotiation, and conflict management skills.
- The multifaceted vulnerabilities of married girls call for multi-pronged efforts that break their social isolation, expand their support networks, build their numeracy and literacy skills as well as their communication and negotiation skills, promote gender egalitarian attitudes, encourage access to livelihood training opportunities, enable them to make informed reproductive health choices, and inform them of their rights, including their options in case of marital violence. Where possible, husbands must also be reached with counselling, information, and peaceful conflict resolution skills.

9. Engaging parents and communities, and imparting new notions of parenting

Findings have suggested that parents -- both mothers and fathers -- and senior family members play an important role in impeding a successful transition from adolescence to adulthood. So too do the social norms governing community level behaviours. Far more attention must be paid to changing parental attitudes and socialisation practices; unfortunately, while the need is well-recognised, evidence of promising models, especially those conducted in India, is sparse.

- Parents must be sensitised to prioritise the education of their sons and daughters, to allow their daughters (and sons) to take advantage of available opportunities and exercise their rights, to adopt a less authoritarian parenting style, with more open parent-child communication, including about sensitive matters. Programmes must inform parents about, for example, the RTE, the Prevention of Child Marriage Act (PCMA) and other Acts, their various requirements and the penalties for violating these laws, sensitise them and other stakeholders about the importance of engaging their daughters and sons in marriage related decisions and obtaining meaningful consent from them. Socially and economically disadvantaged families, whose daughters are more likely than others to fail to attain education, employment or training, must receive special attention.
- Traditional gender unequal norms must be tackled. For example, many parents who are willing to delay the marriage of their daughters or permit their unmarried daughters greater autonomy in life choices fear negative community reactions, and refrain from doing so. Influential members of the community, including religious and political leaders, must be mobilised, and must convey their support for delayed marriage practices.
- Positive role models and deviants -- parents who have adopted new parenting practices without affecting the family reputation, whose daughter delayed her marriage without adverse repercussions, and girls who have achieved success in school or work -- must be identified and showcased as a way of allaying parental fears and encouraging behaviour change.
- At the same time, community-based leaders, teachers and frontline workers must be more proactive about identifying girls at risk of child marriage and taking steps to stop these marriages from taking place.
- Unfortunately, models that focus on changing parenting practices are rare, although many have identified the need for more research on parental influences, and programmes that explore parenting support interventions. New models must be implemented that include the insertion of parenting components in the curriculum and content of existing gender-specific platforms in which men and

women – including parents of children and adolescents – participate, for example, self-help groups of women, livelihood training activities in which men and women participate, and farmers’ forums saving and loan forums that may be frequented by men. School management committee activities, parent-teacher meetings and other school-based interactions may also provide an effective platform. Efforts may be made through meetings mandated to be held by elected representatives (PRI members).

10. Ensuring awareness and use of entitlements

Although many programmes exist, not all adolescents know of the benefits to which they are entitled, and far fewer have actually accessed these entitlements. Special efforts must be made, through targeted campaigns and in partnership with public sector structures, that improve adolescents’ access to these entitlements.

- Parents and adolescents must be informed about the health, livelihood skill building and school and college related entitlements for which adolescents are eligible and supported through cumbersome application procedures that may deter enrolment, encourage adolescents – especially boys and the unmarried -- and their gatekeepers to overcome obstacles in accessing entitlements and services.
- Programmes must be inclusive and must ensure that the poorest and those from socially disadvantaged communities are not left out.

11. Engaging and reorienting the wider system to address the needs of all adolescents

In view of findings that neither school-related nor health-related entitlements reach all adolescents for whom they are intended, and that violations of laws persist, a number of system level issues must be addressed.

- At education level, while it is not practical to have a secondary school in every village, it is important that efforts are made to ensure physical accessibility to schools, and the safety of adolescents, particularly girls. Frequent absenteeism of teachers, the absence of a female teacher, and poor quality teaching are deterrents that must be overcome; teacher training is needed that enables teachers to be more approachable to students, make classes more stimulating and adolescent friendly, and hold teachers accountable for the performance of their students. Teachers and SMC members must be made responsible for following up drop-outs and irregular students, and ensuring interpersonal communication with parents so as to keep parents informed about their children’s progress and advise parents and adolescents about future options for schooling and career that match the adolescent’s aspirations and skills. Efforts must be made to hold government accountable for improving school infrastructure as well as teacher quality.
- In the health area, it was only recently, since the introduction of the RKSK and the addition of “+A” to the RMNCH programme that the responsibilities of frontline workers were expanded to include the young. ASHAs are to serve as mentors to peer educators, and as the link between peer educators and the health system; they are also expected to provide information, counselling, supplies and referrals to boys and girls, irrespective of marital status. This expansion of responsibilities requires significant reorientation and sustained, supportive supervision of frontline workers, for which engagement between civil society organisations and government structures is essential. Reorientation is needed on several fronts: Technical knowledge about physical maturation, the rights of the young, the unique constraints faced by girls and also boys in obtaining information and exercising informed choice, and so on. Communication skills in conveying sensitive information in non-judgemental ways; overcoming their own inhibitions about communicating with boys, and providing information and counselling on sensitive topics to the unmarried. Recognising that girls and boys, the married and the unmarried have unique concerns and reaching each group may require somewhat different strategies. Frontline worker responsibilities must extend to providing information, supplies and referrals for adolescents, and linking adolescents with services to which they are entitled. For this, training and values clarification; appropriate job aids and supplies (sanitary pads and contraceptives, for example); and supportive supervision that mentors them to discharge this expanded role in an effective and non-judgemental way, are critical.

- The health system, from frontline workers to doctors and counsellors, must be sensitised, moreover, to recognise the particular constraints faced by married girls, and pay particular attention to their contraception, birth spacing and pregnancy-related needs. Married adolescents who have not yet experienced pregnancy must receive contraceptive information and supplies and be counselled about pregnancy and other reproductive health matters. Given girls' limited freedom of movement to seek healthcare, it is important, moreover, that health workers reach these girls—particularly those newly married and first time pregnant—in their homes. The potential for the engagement of civil society organisations in reaching and empowering married girls in these ways must be explored.
- Addressing child marriage requires the engagement of law enforcement authorities including local police, as well as teachers, frontline workers, locally elected representatives and others in positions of authority. They must be sensitised about the breadth and nuances of the law, the right to marry with free and full consent, and their duty to take action to prevent child marriage and prosecute those who violate the law, and how to approach and deter potential violators. At the same time, platforms for anonymous reporting of child marriages must be established and publicised.

12. Exploring the use of the media in informing adolescents and developing egalitarian gender role attitudes

- Many adolescents were exposed to the media, but exposure, especially to mobile phones and social media, was gendered. Efforts must be made to use the media to increase adolescents' understanding of the world around them, of health-promoting practices, and expose them to new notions of masculinity and femininity.
- Different approaches may be needed for each group. While television has a universal appeal among both boys and girls, it may remain the only medium through which to reach girls. In contrast, it is boys who access information transmitted through mobile phones, the internet and social media.
- Given the rapid pace of change, efforts are required to track the reach of existing and new media, devise programmes and messages that recognise gender discrepancies in access, reach boys and girls through media they are most likely to use, and evaluate the retention of these messages.

13. Expanding the evidence

While the evidence on the markers of a successful transition to adulthood has expanded in recent decades, gaps do remain that must be addressed. For example, research is needed to explore how best to ensure school completion with good learning outcomes and understand obstacles to accessing skilling and productive employment opportunities. In the health arena, far more attention must be paid to understanding mental health needs, alcohol and substance abuse patterns, and the continued experience and perpetration of violence. Research is needed to better understand trends in pre-marital sexual behaviour, abortion-seeking pathways and obstacles among unmarried girls, as well as menstrual hygiene and management practices and their consequences on adolescent reproductive health and adolescent life. Parental perspectives and the obstacles they face must be far better understood.

Much more evidence is needed that addresses what works via rigorous programme evaluation. To understand the complexities and challenges of adolescent programming, we need well-designed evaluations that use robust counterfactuals, as well as process documentation that tracks implementation challenges. Measurement issues also arise. It is very likely that programmes aiming to influence one outcome (for example schooling) will affect other dimensions of adolescent life as well (for example marriage and childbearing), and that effects of programmes focused on adolescence will show results many years in the future. However, programme evaluations have rarely made efforts to understand these multifaceted and/or longer-term programme effects. Finally, translating what works in successful NGO pilots into scaled-up public sector programmes remains one of the most significant challenges in evidence-informed programming for adolescents and projects need to pay attention to potential scalability from the time they are conceptualised, rather than at their conclusion, and must conclude with a roadmap of what is feasible and what is effective. Innovative pilots that are implemented with the engagement of government agencies are of course ideal, with potential for replicating promising lessons at scale. The Dasra 10to19 Collaborative's partners are well placed to make a contribution in this direction.





CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

According to India's 2011 census, 365 million people in the country – nearly a third (30.1%) of the population – are young people aged 10–24. 253 million are adolescents aged 10-19, and 232 million are youth aged 15-24 (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2015). Whether India achieves the Sustainable Development Goals, achieves its population stabilization objectives and realizes the advantage of its demographic dividend will depend on the nation's investment in its young people. And as noted in the Lancet Commission's report on Adolescent Health and Development, investments made in adolescent wellbeing today yield triple dividends – in terms of adolescent health and wellbeing today, the health and wellbeing of this cohort of adolescents in adulthood, and the health and wellbeing of the next generation as healthy and educated parents bear and rear healthy, educated and skilled children (Patton et al., 2016). Indeed, at least four of the SDGs (3, 4, 5, 8) address the need to address various dimensions of young people's life.

There are encouraging signs that reflect India's recognition of the vulnerabilities faced by young people and its commitment to promoting their development needs and protecting their rights. Numerous policies and programmes reflect this commitment, several of which have been relatively recently initiated. For example, these include the Rashtriya Kishor Swasthya Karyakram (RKSK) and the School Health programme to promote adolescents' health, education programme to ensure secondary school attendance, and the National Skill Development Mission to develop young people's skills and prepare them for productive employment.

Compared to earlier generations, the situation of young people in India today has undoubtedly improved. They are healthier and better educated than ever before, and gender disparities in child mortality, school enrolment and educational attainment have narrowed. Yet, secondary school completion remains far from universal, learning outcomes are limited, preparation for livelihoods eludes many, and too few girls make the transition from school to productive employment. Few adolescents make informed life choices and few hold egalitarian notions of masculinity and femininity. Young women are constrained from exercising agency, marriage and childbearing are initiated prematurely, and many young people's health, including sexual and reproductive health and mental health arenas, tend to be compromised. Questions remain, moreover, about whether the investments India has made are indeed informed by evidence and likely to be effective in empowering adolescents and enabling their successful transition into adulthood.

Although a number of programmes have been implemented in India that aim to address the health and development needs of the young and promote successful transitions from adolescence to adulthood, few have been soundly evaluated. Thus, while there is considerable evidence of promising practices, evidence on what works and what does not work, and what can be delivered at scale to promote a successful transition from adolescence to adulthood is limited in India.

In order to fill this gap, Dasra, a strategic philanthropy organisation based in Mumbai, and its partners, Aangan Trust, Centre for Catalysing Change (C3), Child in Need Institute (CINI) and Quest Alliance, are implementing a multi-pronged three-year intervention programme for adolescents in various districts of the state of Jharkhand, namely Deogarh, Gumla, Lohardaga, Pakur, Saraikela and Simdega. An external evaluation will assess the effectiveness and acceptability of the programme.

The intervention programme and its evaluation have been supported by a consortium of donors, including the Azim Premji Foundation, the Children's Investment Fund Foundation (CIFF), the David and Lucile Packard Foundation, the Kiawah Trust, the Tata Trusts, and USAID. The design of this study was guided by a Technical Advisory Committee, and by the Department of Health and Family Welfare, Government of Jharkhand. Instruments used in the survey were modelled upon those developed in the Population Council's UDAYA study (Santhya et al., 2017), modified based on extensive discussions with the implementing partners.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

The aim is to assess what works in a 3-year period, particularly to test and document the effects of four models implemented by partner organisations on enhancing adolescent awareness of entitlements and health promoting practices, changing attitudes relating to gender roles and developing more egalitarian gender role attitudes generally, enhancing agency, keeping adolescents in school and improving schooling outcomes, and developing career aspirations and preparedness for livelihoods. Longer term goals, also to be assessed recognising that such effects may not be significant over a three-year period. These include exercise of informed choice in marriage planning, higher education, employment as well as completion of secondary school, engagement in livelihood training and employment, delayed marriage and childbearing.

Specifically, study objectives are (a) to assess whether exposure to each intervention has succeeded in enhancing adolescents' situation in the specific domains of adolescent life on which the partner organisation has focused; and (b) to explore whether investment in programmes intended to address one domain of adolescent life (say in the area of education) can affect other domains (for example, agency, sexual and reproductive health, preparedness for careers). At baseline, the objectives are:

1. To assess key indicators of a successful transition to adulthood (agency, completion of secondary education, preparation for or engagement in skilled employment, delayed marriage and first pregnancy).
2. To assess the proximate factors influencing these outcomes, including, knowledge of health promoting practices and available entitlements, egalitarian gender role attitudes, ability to make informed choices in matters affecting adolescent life, aspirations for education and career, learning outcomes and access to livelihood skill building opportunities.
3. To shed light on potential for replication and upscaling of intervention programmes.

The evaluation uses a quasi-experimental study design, including surveys conducted prior to the initiation of the intervention and at its conclusion, in intervention sites and a matched set of comparison sites drawn from other districts of the state. The baseline survey, conducted during 2018, explored the situation of adolescent girls and boys up to age 21, both younger (10-14) and older (15-21), in terms of educational attainment, aspirations and learning outcomes, livelihood skills and employment patterns, parent-child relations and socialisation experiences, gender-role attitudes and agency, health promoting knowledge and gender role attitudes, entry into sexual life, and so on. Marriage patterns are also explored among married girls. This report describes the findings of the baseline survey, focusing on the situation of adolescents prior to their exposure to the intervention programmes. It furnishes important baseline indicators against which the longer-term impact of programmes can be measured.

1.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Drawing on the Population Council's framework for healthy adolescent transitions (Santhya et al., 2017), the framework underlying this study measures the quality of transitions to adulthood in terms of multiple dimensions of young people's lives. Markers of a successful transition to adulthood include: the completion of at least secondary school education, with appropriate learning outcomes; the acquisition of livelihood skills and preparation for skilled economic activity; informed, safe and consensual entry into sexual relations before or within marriage; delayed entry into marriage until at least the legal minimum age; entry into marriage with free and full consent about when and whom to marry; delayed parenthood at least until after adolescence, adoption of contraception to avoid unintended pregnancy, and safe entry into motherhood. Cutting across all of these, finally, is the exercise of agency in life choices and assumption of leadership skills.

Influencing the achievement of these outcomes and the nature of these transitions are a range of individual, family and community level proximate factors, and are conditioned by context.

At the individual level are a set of proximate factors that adolescents must satisfy or a range of assets (Bruce and Sebstad, 2004; Bruce, Temin, & Hallman, 2012; Santhya et al., 2017a; 2017b) that adolescents must acquire.

These include:

- The completion of age-appropriate classes, literacy and numeracy skills.
- The acquisition of livelihood skills, and/or remunerative employment.
- Knowledge about health-promoting behaviours including those relating to sexual and reproductive matters, about the world around them, about financial literacy and about their rights and entitlements;
- Decision-making authority, freedom of movement, self-efficacy and access to financial resources are key attributes of agency.
- Attitudes, notably, the extent to which adolescents adhere to gender egalitarian and secular norms.
- Health and health promoting practices, ranging from the appropriate use of contraception to physical activity, and the absence of symptoms of mental health, substance misuse, and physical violence.
- Peer networks and the presence of trusted confidantes.

At parent, family and community context, these include:

- Parental-child relations, and more specifically, gender equal socialisation practices, the extent to which parents control the life of their sons and daughters, the extent to which they provide a supportive environment to their children, the intimacy of their communication, and the extent to which the family is characterised by physical violence —both witnessed and experienced. The family's own economic status also plays a role.
- Exposure to the media and communication technologies, including social media and mobile phones.
- Access to the health system, including facilities and providers; to high-quality schools and colleges and employment opportunities, and finally, a safe and supportive community environment.

All of these effects are conditioned by the overall social structure and programme context prevailing in the state and country, such as, the strength of age and gender-hierarchical norms, the overall level of poverty and the availability and quality of programmes and schemes for the young.

1.3 JHARKHAND: THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CONTEXT AND SITUATION OF THE YOUNG

The state of Jharkhand was created in 2000 from the southern part of Bihar. It covers a total of 79,716 square kilometres, contains a large proportion of India's mineral resources, and is divided into 24 districts.

Jharkhand had a population of 33 million in 2011, comprises three percent of India's population and ranks 13th in terms of total population amongst the states of India (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2011a). With 948 females per 1,000 males in 2011, the state registered a slightly higher sex ratio than the national average (943 females per 1,000 males in 2011). Population density in the state was 414 persons per square kilometre in 2011 (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2011a). The distribution of the population by religion indicates that 68% of the state's population was Hindu, 15% was Muslim, four percent was Christian and 13 percent belonged to other religions (excluding Sikhs, Buddhists and Jains) (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2011a). Scheduled tribes (26%) and scheduled castes (12%) constitute substantial proportions of the state's total population (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2011a).

The state is characterised by a large rural population; just 22% of the state's population live in urban areas. The census also showed that a total of 10 million individuals who reported Jharkhand as their place of last residence but had moved out of the state and had migrated to other states (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2011b).

Despite the fact that it has some of the richest mineral deposits in the world, Jharkhand remains a poorly developed state. Indeed, 19 of Jharkhand's 24 districts are included in NITI Aayog's 101 aspirational districts, namely those lagging in the areas of health and nutrition, education, agriculture and water resources, financial inclusion and skill development, basic infrastructure (NITI Aayog, 2018). Its per capita income of Rs. 56,737 in 2014-2015 was one of the lowest among states in India and well below the national average of Rs. 86,454 (Press Information Bureau Government of India, Ministry of Statistics & Programme Implementation, 2017).

Moreover, poverty levels remain high in the state. As of 2011-2012, 37 percent of the state's population (based on MRP consumption) was estimated to live below the poverty line, with significant differences between those residing in urban (25%) and rural (41%) areas (Reserve Bank of India, 2015). Unemployment rates in 2011-2012 were slightly higher in Jharkhand than in India on the whole (2.1% versus 1.7% in rural areas, and 5.1% versus 3.4% in urban areas). Rural-urban differences were evident: 4.6% and 1.8% of urban and rural males, respectively, and 8.9 percent and 2.8 percent of urban and rural females, respectively, were unemployed for a major part of the year, as measured by the usual principal status definition (National Sample Survey Office (NSSO), 2014).

Aside from these disturbing economic indicators, education and health are also of concern in the state. For example, the overall literacy rate was 68 percent in 2011, compared to 74 percent for India as a whole. Gender disparities were wide: while 56 percent of females aged 7 years and higher were literate, 79 percent of males were literate. Jharkhand ranks 32nd of India's 35 states and union territories in terms of overall literacy, 30th with regard to male literacy rates, and 33rd with regard to the literacy rate of females (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2011).

Health related indicators are also disturbing. Overall, life expectancy in Jharkhand during 2010-2014 was over one year lower than for India on average: 66.6 years as opposed to 67.9 years. While life expectancy for males in Jharkhand resembled that recorded for India in general (66.2 versus 66.4), it was almost three years lower for females (66.9 versus 69.6) (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2018). The maternal mortality ratio in Jharkhand (together with Bihar) in 2014-16 was 165, compared to 130 in India on the whole (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India, 2015d). The state's infant mortality rate of 44 is the fifth highest in the country; although it declined considerably over the previous decade (69). Fertility rates are also considerably higher in Jharkhand than in India on average; indeed, the total fertility in the state (2.6) is the sixth highest of any state in India, although it fell considerably over the previous decade (3.3). The contraceptive prevalence rate is, correspondingly, much lower and a much larger proportion of women in Jharkhand report an unmet need for contraception than in India. Indeed, use of contraceptive methods is as low as 40% (and modern methods 37%), much lower than rates reported for India as a whole (CPR of 54% and mCPR of 48%). As many as one in six women (18%) reported an unmet need for contraception, compared to 13% for India as a whole (IIPS and ICF, 2017).

Available district-level indicators suggest considerable variation across districts selected for intervention (Table 1.1).

Young people aged 10-24 in Jharkhand constituted, in 2011 a total of 10.1 million, and accounted for 31% of the state's population. The adolescent population, that is, those aged 10-19 numbered 7.3 million in 2011, accounting for about 24 percent of the state's population (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 2015).

Educational attainment continues to be poorer in Jharkhand than in most other states. Among those aged 10-19, differences are negligible, with 91 percent of males and 85 percent of females reported as literate (compared with 92% and 88% for India on the whole). Gender differences emerge among youth (aged 15-24), with 87 percent of males and 71 percent of females reported as literate (compared with 90% and 82% for India on average (Office of the Registrar General of India and Census Commissioner, India and UNFPA, 2014). In 2015-16, no more than 40 percent of males aged 15-24 and 29 percent of females aged 15-24 had completed at least secondary school (10 or more years of education), compared to 47 percent and 36 percent, respectively, in India on average (IIPS and ICF, 2017).

Jharkhand has few employment opportunities for youth, and as elsewhere in the country, unemployment rates were much 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 principal usual status (adjusted), were 5.1 percent and 13.5 percent among young men in rural and urban settings, respectively, during 2011-12. The corresponding rates among young women were 9.5 percent and 24.4 percent, respectively, (National Sample Survey Organization, 2014).

Table 1.1 Selected socio-demographic indicators for Jharkhand state and intervention districts

STATE/DISTRICT	JHARKHAND	INTERVENTION DISTRICTS					
		LOHARDAGA	GUMLA	SIMDEGA	SARAIKELA	DEOGHAR	PAKUR
Partner organisation		C3		CINI		QUEST Alliance	Aangan Trust
Population in millions	32.99	0.46	1.03	0.6	1.07	1.5	0.9
No. blocks ¹	259	7	12	10	9	8	6
No. villages ¹	29,492	352	942	449	1,146	2,354	1,141
Population density (per sq.km) ¹	414	310	193	160	391	602	499
% rural ¹	76.0	87.6	93.7	92.8	75.7	82.7	92.5
% 10-14 ¹	12.4	14.2	13.4	12.1	11.5	12.3	12.7
% 15-19 ¹	9.7	10.7	9.9	9.6	9.5	8.9	8.5
% SC ¹	12.1	3.3	3.2	7.5	5.3	12.7	3.2
% ST ¹	26.2	56.9	68.9	70.9	35.2	12.1	42.1
% electricity ²	80.1	81.9	77.0	54.9	85.5	80.4	77.6
% female literacy ¹	56.2	57.7	46.6	50.6	47.6	42.4	32.6
% women with 10+ years of schooling ²	28.7	32.0	28.9	24.9	32.9	24.5	12.1
% women aged 20-24 married below 18 ²	38.0	28.5	24.0	14.7	33.2	52.7	41.1
% girls aged 15-19 begun childbearing ²	12.0	9.6	10.0	5.3	14.8	22.6	17.2
Institutional births ² (%)	61.9	71.8	69.3	49.2	64.5	58.0	49.4
% ALL women BMI <18.5 ²	31.5	34.9	27.5	30.4	34.8	38.0	37.8
% ALL women anaemic ²	65.2	66.7	69.6	78.2	78.8	55.9	71.1

Source: ¹Registrar General, PCA; ²IIPS and ICF, 2017

Available evidence on the sexual and reproductive health profile of young people in Jharkhand highlights their vulnerability. Although child marriage has declined considerably over the last decade, it continues to take place before the legal minimum age for both young women and men. As recently as 2015-16, 38 percent of women aged 20-24 were married by age 18 and 31 percent of men aged 25-29 were married by age 21, down from 63 percent and 47 percent, respectively, in 2005-06. Moreover, 12 percent of girls aged 15-19 had begun childbearing, as compared with more than twice that percentage (28%) a decade earlier (IIPS, 2017).

While sexual relations are initiated early and within the context of marriage for many young women and men in Jharkhand, state level evidence from Jharkhand suggests that pre-marital sexual relations among youth (15-24) ranged from 10 percent among young men to 2.3 percent among young women, similar (10% and 2% respectively) to those experienced overall in the sub-national Youth in India: Situation and Needs Study (IIPS and Population Council, 2010).

1.4 THE INTERVENTION IN BRIEF

The programme comprises the development and implementation of a number of interventions for adolescents in Jharkhand by Dasra's partners, drawing on their individual experiences as well as on the existing evidence base and the presence of various public sector programmes in the state. Interventions address various dimensions of adolescent life, with the long-term aim of enabling the young to complete at least a secondary school education with good learning outcomes, delay marriage and enter into sexual relations that are informed, consensual and safe, access livelihood skill training opportunities and remunerative employment, and have agency and the capacity to make informed life choices. More specifically, the programmes entail providing gender transformative life skills education to adolescent girls and boys, strengthen and make adolescent-friendly health services, engage parents and communities in facilitating successful transitions for girls and boys, and interacting with local, district and state governments to facilitate adolescents' access to entitlements. Each implementing partner will conduct interventions in selected blocks of one or two districts: Saraikela and Simdega (CINI), Lohardaga and Gumla (C3), Deogarh (Quest Alliance) and Pakur (Aangan Trust).

Each implementing partner has, in consultation with Government of Jharkhand representatives, selected districts and blocks in which their intervention will be conducted. Selected districts and blocks are shown in Table 1.2; in all, they comprise a total of 31 blocks in six districts:

Table 1.2 Distribution of districts and blocks to be covered by partner organisations

Implementing partner	Districts	Blocks
QUEST Alliance	Deogarh	Palajori, Madhupur, Sonaraithari, Devipur, Deoghar, (5)
Aangan Trust	Pakur	Pakur, Maheshpur and Littipara (3)
C3	Gumla	Basia, Bherno, Bishunpur, Chainpur, Dumri, Ghaghra, Gumla, Kamdara, Palkot, Paramvir Albert Ekka, Raidih, Sisai (12)
	Lohardaga	Bhandra, Kisko, Lohardaga, Senha, Kuru, Kairo, Peshrar (7)
CINI	Simdega	Koleibra and Thethaitangar (2)
	Saraikela	Gamharia and Nimdih (2)

Each programme will be implemented at scale in entire selected blocks of selected districts. Each programme will last (at least initially) about three years, and specific programme thrusts include:

- Aangan Trust: focus on building girls' agency and delay their marriage through community activities for girls as well as parents and other community influentials.
- Quest Alliance: focus on keeping adolescents in school, enriching the school experience, developing awareness about career options, building livelihood aspirations, preparation for livelihoods, and linking older adolescents to career opportunities.
- Child in Need Institute (CINI): focus on enhancing sexual and reproductive health, delaying marriage and first birth, promoting exercise of informed reproductive choice, working largely through RKSK platform.
- Centre for Catalyzing Change (C3): focus on enhancing sexual and reproductive working largely through RKSK platform.
- Centre for Catalyzing Change (C3): focus on enhancing sexual and reproductive health, delaying marriage and first birth, promoting exercise of informed reproductive choice, working through RKSK, AEP and Sabla platforms.

While each partner organisation will implement unique interventions, all propose a group-based gender transformative life skills component, and all propose to work through available government platforms and engage and build capacity of those in positions of authority within each community (frontline workers, teachers, PRI members, parents for example). Each implementing partner has, in conjunction with Government of Jharkhand representatives, purposively selected districts and blocks within these districts in which their programmes will be implemented. Aside from specific activities at selected block level, implementing

partners will also work with block and district authorities to engage on such issues as system strengthening, capacity building of health care professionals, teachers, PRI members and anganwadi workers for example, programme feedback and replication and upscaling potential.

Dasra's role is to provide technical support to implementing partners and consolidate the lessons learned in their interventions. Additionally, Dasra aims to develop a wider community of practice or network of adolescent serving organisations and individuals. Bringing together groups working across different domains of adolescent health and development, with the aim of identifying programming that will influence not just one but all key dimensions of a successful transition to adulthood.

1.5 STUDY DESIGN AND SAMPLE SIZE ESTIMATION

Dasra proposes to evaluate the effectiveness and acceptability of the interventions implemented by partner organisations in achieving one or more of these objectives. We used a quasi-experimental design to assess effects of programme participation on improving the above outcomes and their proximate determinants¹. Cross sectional surveys were conducted prior to the initiation of programme activities (baseline) and after their conclusion (endline) in intervention sites of the six purposively selected districts, as well as in comparison sites drawn from the remaining 18 districts of the state, selected in such a way that together they are similar to intervention villages. In view of the fact that implementing partners' activities will be conducted intensively at selected block level, and on a regular basis at district level as well, we opted not to draw our comparison site sample from the programme districts in order to avoid contamination.

Five groups of adolescents were interviewed: younger boys and girls aged 10-14, older unmarried boys and girls aged 15-21, and married girls aged 15-21 (since marriage before age 21 is rare among boys, we restricted the boys' sample to the unmarried). We have extended our operational definition of adolescents to include those aged 20-21, so as to allow for an exploration of effects, at endline, on all those eligible for participation in the interventions in the three years between the baseline and endline investigations, who may have aged out of adolescence (ages 10-19) by the time of the endline survey. This design enables us to assess not only whether changes have been experienced over the course of the intervention, but also whether the changes observed in the intervention arm were significantly different from the changes observed in similar settings from non-intervention districts (the comparison arm). We will thus be able to assess the extent to which the change in the intervention arm is attributable to the 10to19 Collaborative's interventions.

Because we intend to understand the significance of change in the overall situation of each group of adolescents (five) across all intervention sites (six districts together), as well as for the sites of each implementing partner separately (four partner sites), we required a sample large enough to enable assessments of change within each project site. Further, assuming a 10 percent improvement in gender role attitudes, a non-response rate of 10 percent, and a design effect of 1.86 (as in the NFHS-4 survey), we required a sample of 600 boys and 600 girls aged 10-14 years and a larger sample of 700 boys and 900 married and unmarried girls aged 15-21 years in each project area. We increased the sample of older adolescents, in order to permit more extensive sub-group analysis in these age groups (notably by marital status). Hence the total sample size for each partner's intervention area was set at 2,800 adolescents, and for the programme as a whole, at 11,200 adolescents from intervention area of Jharkhand state. We further determined that in order to obtain this sample, we would be required to conduct interviews in a total of 200 primary sampling units (PSUs) —villages in rural areas and census wards in urban areas— spread across the intervention area, roughly 50 PSUs per partner intervention area.

The remaining districts of Jharkhand served as the comparison arm. To conserve resources, we aimed for as small a control sample as possible that would allow robust estimates. The sample size was thus set at 4,000 adolescents in the age-group of 10-21 years, drawn from a total of 100 PSUs. While these selected PSUs were similar in key characteristics to the selected intervention PSUs on the whole, they were also selected so that a smaller group of PSUs (50) could serve as the control for each of the four intervention sites.

Selection of intervention and comparison PSUs was done after excluding small villages and small Census Enumeration Blocks (CEBs), that is, those containing 50 or fewer households, from the frame. Each PSU comprised one or several linked villages or CEBs with a total of 500 households.

¹ The design was discussed at Technical Advisory Group meetings, and finalized, along with site selection and sample size, by advisors Dr TK Roy and Dr Laxmikant Dwivedi

Stratification was achieved first by separating each block of the intervention arm and each district of control arm separately into rural and urban areas. In rural areas, the 2011 Census list of villages served as the sampling frame for the selection of villages. The design for the intervention arm was somewhat different from that of the control arm. First, the blocks of the intervention arm were stratified into four strata based on the number of implementing NGO partners.

For ethical reasons, we opted not to interview boys and girls from the same household and as such, we bifurcated PSUs into two halves and designated one half for interviewing girls and their households, and the other half for interviewing boys and their households. In the intervention arm, we aimed to interview 110 households in each PSU, and in the control arm, 80 households.

In order to create a sampling frame for the cross-sectional surveys, we undertook a complete mapping and household listing exercise in each selected PSU, and a list of roughly 500 households was generated. One half of these consecutively listed households was randomly designated for interviews with girls, and the other for interviews with boys. The number of household interviews to be conducted was fixed at 110 in each PSU in order to achieve our targeted sample of boys and girls. Households to be interviewed were selected with equal probability from the list using systematic sampling. The value of the interval (between one selected household and the next) was determined in advance to ensure a self-weighting design. No replacement for selected households was allowed even if a selected household could not be contacted after several attempts. Within each selected household, interviews were conducted with only one adolescent in any category (10-14, 15-21, and in the case of girls 15-21 unmarried girls and 15-21 married girls). This resulted in a maximum of three interviews from any household for girls – one girl aged 10-14, one unmarried girl aged 15-21 and one married girl aged 15-21 – and two in the case of boys – one aged 10-14 and one aged 15-21. In case more than one respondent from a single category was found in the household, one respondent was selected randomly as generated in the CAPI program. No replacement of the respondent thus selected was allowed.

1.6 STUDY INSTRUMENTS

Five questionnaires were used in the study, that drew extensively from those used in the Population Council's UDAYA study² (Santhya et al., 2017), modified with inputs from partner organisations. These questionnaires included a household questionnaire, administered in each selected household; and four individual questionnaires for each of the age groups—boys aged 10-14, boys aged 15-21, girls aged 10-14, and unmarried and married girls, respectively, aged 15-21.

The household questionnaire elicited lists of all usual residents of each household and each one's age, sex, marital status, relationship to the head of the household, and education. In addition, this questionnaire obtained information on the religion and caste of the head of the household, and other characteristics such as the ownership of the premises in which the household resided or any other property, agricultural land, or a list of 15 consumer durables. We also obtained information on the number of rooms the residence contained, and its access to a range of amenities, including the type of toilet facility, the main source of lighting, the main type of cooking fuel, and the main source of drinking water. We also probed whether any household members had obtained employment under the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) scheme in the year preceding the interview, whether members owned an Aadhar card, and whether anyone had taken a loan in the preceding five years and the reason for the loan.

The questionnaires used for the various categories of adolescents differed somewhat in order to be age appropriate; for example, sensitive questions, including those on sexual behaviour were not posed to young adolescents. The individual questionnaires collected information on the age and marital status (as appropriate) of respondents, and on the following topics:

Educational attainment: Interviewers recorded the education levels attained, as well as attendance, access to entitlements from school, and quality of school or college attended; as well as learning outcomes, namely basic numeracy, literacy and general knowledge.

² The UDAYA study report acknowledges that questionnaires were informed by survey instruments used for other studies: the Youth Study (IIPS and Population Council, 2010), a study of adolescents in Rajasthan (Jejeebhoy and Acharya, 2014), a study of younger and older adolescents in Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh (Santhya et al., 2013), tools used in NFHS-4 (IIPS, 2015a; 2015b), and those developed by ASER (Annual Status of Education Report) to assess basic literacy and numeracy skills (ASER Centre, 2019), tools used in the SEHER project by Sangath (Sangath, 2015), the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) to assess the mental health condition of adolescents (Kroenke, Spitzer, and Williams, 2001), and the Gender Equitable Men (GEM) scale (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008).

Work and livelihood skills: We included questions on adolescents' work patterns, including paid employment, awareness and utilisation of government schemes that provide support for self-employment and MGNREGA; vocational skills training, including awareness and utilisation of government schemes to impart vocational skills training; future aspirations, in general, and those related to schooling and vocational skills training, in particular; and migration experiences.

Media exposure: Included questions on exposure to newspapers, television, or the internet and whether they watched pornographic films or read pornographic magazines, as well, as on access to mobile phones, exposure to social media, and receipt of health information via mobile phones or social media.

Parent child relations: Included questions on the extent of parent-child communication on everyday activities as well as sexual and reproductive issues and their perceptions about parental closeness and socialisation experiences at home, whether adolescents confide in their parents, their perceptions about gendered socialisation practices at home, and encouragement for academic performance. Questions were also asked to assess the extent to which respondents had ever witnessed parental violence or had been the victim of violence perpetrated by a parent across a span beginning from the time the respondents were 10 years old, and whether their experience of violence was similar to that experienced by their sibling of the opposite sex.

Agency and gender role attitudes: Included detailed questions on decision-making and mobility, as well as their gender role attitudes such as, for example, the relative importance of educating boys and girls, and level of self-efficacy, that is, their ability to express their opinion to elders in the family and to confront someone who said or did something wrong to them, and their access to and control over financial resources, including a bank account. A number of vignettes were posed that elicited adolescents' perceptions about how they would react in various circumstances, for example, if the community leadership made a rule that girls must not play outdoors after 5 pm so as to prevent teasing from boys.

Awareness of sexual and reproductive matters: We probed adolescents' awareness about physiological changes taking place in adolescence, as well as adherence to traditional dos and don'ts during menstruation, knowledge about sexual relations, pregnancy, contraceptive methods, HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted infections (STIs), maternal and newborn care practices, and the legal minimum age of marriage. We also probed what preferred and actual sources of information on sexual matters were for adolescents, whether they had obtained formal sex education or family life education, and their knowledge about available programmes and services, such as, for example, the Rashtriya Kishor Swasthya Karyakram, and the availability of frontline workers—anganwaadi workers (AWWs) and accredited social health activists (ASHAs).

Connectedness and friendship: Questions relating to connectedness and friendship explored respondents' friendship networks, including the size of the network and the frequency of interaction with friends. It also probed adolescents' membership in various clubs and groups, including representation in community committees, such as the VLCPC, and their perceptions about personal safety in various situations.

Premarital romantic and sexual relationships: We explored whether respondents had experienced a premarital romantic relationship, and, if reported, whether they had experienced physical contact (touching, kissing) or sexual relations within these relationships, gradually going from less sensitive questions such as hugging and kissing to the most sensitive question relating to sexual intercourse. Those who reported relations were asked about the nature of these relationships, including with regard to contraception and non-consensual relations. Questions were posed only to those aged 15-21.

In addition, we probed various other types of sexual encounters: paid or exchange sex, forced sex perpetrated on the respondent, and casual sex. Among male respondents, we also probed relations with sex workers and married women and whether they had ever perpetrated forced sex. Married older girls were probed about their experiences of extramarital sexual relations, pre-marital sex with the man who then became their husband. For those experiencing these relationships, we also probed contraceptive practice in these encounters, and experience of premarital pregnancy.

Recognising that respondents may be inhibited about reporting pre-marital sex in a face-to-face interview, at the end of the interview, we included an anonymous (but linked) reporting method in our survey in which interviewers asked 15–21 year-olds to mark a '✓' or an 'X' on a card, whether they had ever had sexual relations (before marriage if married). Once marked³, the respondent placed the card in an envelope provided by the interviewer, sealed the envelope, and returned it to the interviewer. Unique

identification numbers linked the individual's questionnaire with his or her responses in the sealed envelope.

Marriage process and married life: We asked all adolescents about whether marriage planning had been initiated, and if so, their own participation in marriage related decisions. Married girls were asked about whether they had an arranged marriage, their acquaintance with their spouse before marriage, dowry and/or bride price paid, age at cohabitation, and contraception histories. Questions also covered spousal communication, marital violence, pregnancy experiences and outcomes, maternal and newborn care practices, and access to maternal health schemes.

Health and health-seeking: We obtained information on respondents' menstrual hygiene practices and their access to the sanitary napkin distribution scheme; their experience of symptoms suggestive of genital infections in the three months preceding the interview and related treatment-seeking; their experience of injuries in the three months prior to the interview; their engagement in physical activities in the month preceding the interview, and their experience of mental health symptoms in the two weeks preceding the interview as measured by the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9, Kroenke, Spitzer, and William, 2001). We also probed respondents' awareness of various health schemes supported by the government (VHND, AHD, AFHCs, WIFS) and the extent to which respondents had benefited from these schemes.

Substance use and violence: Included questions about adolescents' consumption of tobacco products, alcohol, or drugs and if consumed, the frequency of use of such substances. 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.

Community participation: Included questions about respondents' opinions about political processes, and the extent to which they held secular attitudes.

Partner organisations reviewed and modified draft tools, which were pre-tested, and finalised after appropriate modifications. We used the computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI) technique for data collection, with built-in quality checks.

1.7 CONDUCTING THE SURVEY

The management of the survey was conducted by Sigma Research and Consulting Pvt Ltd, with active participation of the external evaluator and Dasra staff members.

A total of 49 young men and women were recruited as field investigators and supervisors, under the overall field management of five coordinators. In addition, 29 young men were recruited for the household mapping and listing exercise, and were supervised by one coordinator.

Training of interviewers was conducted over two days for household listing and mapping investigators, and two weeks with the field investigators for the main survey. Trainees were familiarised with each section of the questionnaire, were given opportunities to conduct roleplays and mock interviews in the training hall, and field practice sessions in non-selected villages, with observation of trainers and coordinators.

The household mapping and listing exercise was conducted by 14 teams in the state, each comprising one mapper and one lister. Interviewers for the main interview were divided into six teams, each containing three male and five female investigators; male interviewers interviewed boys and female interviewers interviewed girls. One of these investigators was designated as the supervisor, and was responsible for field supervision, uploading data daily, and some quality control. Coordinators were responsible for overseeing fieldwork and data quality, typically they were assigned to two teams and were responsible for conducting back-checks, as well as mentoring of interviewers and quality control of interviews. Each team regularly filled monitoring sheets, which provided an overview of ongoing fieldwork, including response rates in each PSU covered, interviewer performance, and key indicators such as percentages who had completed secondary school or who reported pre-marital sex in order to compare these with findings from other studies in the state or in neighbouring states, as a means of data quality assessment.

³ This method has been used successfully in both the Youth in India survey (IIPS and Population Council, 2010) and in the UDAYA surveys (Santhya et al., 2017), and did indeed provide an opportunity for adolescents who did not report sexual relations in the face-to-face interview to do so in this format.

Interviews were conducted using the computer-assisted personal interview (CAPI) method; a special software package using CPro6.1, developed by the Population Council and modified for our purposes by Sigma Research and Consulting Pvt Ltd was used for data entry. Each evening, team supervisors uploaded all completed interviews onto a drop box that was managed by SIGMA. Data so obtained were validated and cleaned to remove possible inconsistencies. The analysis of data was carried out using Stata 15.1.

During fieldwork, evaluation programme supervisors made regular visits to monitor fieldwork and assess data quality.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The study protocol was approved by Sigma's Institutional Review Board. Several measures were taken to address potential ethical concerns. A major concern arose from the fact that some of our questions were extremely sensitive and lead to teasing of girls by boys. Also, of concern was that we were including younger adolescents (10-14) in the survey, a group that has only recently been included in surveys. At the same time, we recognised that addressing health and other needs that came up during interviews must be an ethical imperative, and gaining the rapport and consent of communities and parents was essential. We addressed these as follows:

- As mentioned earlier, boys and girls were interviewed in entirely different segments of each PSU such that there was no overlap, thereby reducing chances of harassment of or harm to girls; we also did not interview a brother and sister in the same household, nor even two individuals from the same category.
- As also mentioned earlier, we ensured that questions were age-appropriate, and did not pose sensitive questions about sexual and reproductive health to younger adolescents.
- Ethical issues, notably the importance of respondent consent, were emphasised in the course of interviewer training and consent forms emphasised the respondent's right to refuse to participate or answer any question; even though consent was taken from the respondent herself or himself, for those aged 10-17, we also obtained the consent of a parent or guardian.
- Interviewers were young and of the same sex as the respondent, and were trained to ask sensitive questions, particularly those relating to violence, sex and mental health, in a conversational and non-judgemental ways.
- Before initiating our survey in any PSU, we obtained the oral consent of the leadership of the PSU, for example, the Mukhiya or Panchayat member. Team supervisors contacted these individuals, explained the rationale and procedures to be adopted and sought permission and support for conducting the survey. These community leaders played an important role in legitimising the survey and allaying community fears, and as a result, not a single PSU refused permission because of the sensitive questions posed.
- Privacy was of paramount importance, especially when sensitive questions were posed. No names were ever recorded in the computer form in which data were collected. 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 a statement that she or he had explained the content of the consent form to the respondent or parent. Every effort was made to ensure that sensitive sections of each interview were conducted in complete privacy. Interviewers were permitted to shuffle the sections posed, and avoid sensitive questions if parents and other bystanders were present. Interviewers called upon a team member to conduct parallel discussion sessions with bystanders, so that we could assure privacy for the interview, and if all strategies failed, interviewers were instructed to terminate the interview without asking sensitive questions.
- As in previous surveys, we were aware that adolescents may have questions for the interviewer or may share problems with him/her, and recognised the importance of offering to refer those in need to appropriate sources of help, either nearby facilities and organisations or telephone helplines for counselling or treatment. We identified accessible public health facilities, various organisations and helplines, informed them about potential referrals arising from our survey, and obtained their consent for these referrals. Each respondent who expressed a need or whose responses suggested a need for services were provided information, along with a card on which we introduced the respondent to the appropriate service, and provided contact details.

1.9 RESPONSE RATES

In all, 325 villages and urban wards were selected for interview. As seen below in Table 1.3, a total of 41,858 households were selected for interview, and from these, interviews were successfully completed with the head of the household or any other adult in 41,393 households. From these households, we interviewed a total of 15,963 boys and girls aged 10-21, and more specifically, 3,473 boys aged 10-14, 3,150 (unmarried) boys aged 15-21, 4,104 girls aged 10-14, 3,237 unmarried girls aged 15-21 and 1,999 married girls aged 15-21.

Table 1.3 provides response rates for household interviews by residence; the combined sample represents findings for both the intervention and control areas. A total of 41,858 households were selected for interview. Of these, 50 households could not be contacted because the house was vacant, or all of the household members were absent over an extended period of time or the house was not a dwelling (rows c, f, g). 199 or 0.5 percent of selected households refused to be interviewed, and in 224 or 0.5 percent of households, no competent respondent was available for interview at the time of the visit. A total of 41,393 interviews were successfully completed, giving a response rate of 99 percent.

Table 1.3 Results of household interviews

Result of interviews	Combined		Intervention		Comparison	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
a. Interview completed	98.9	41,393	98.8	29,547	99.0	11,846
b. Respondent or competent respondent not at home at the time of visit	0.5	224	0.5	156	0.57	68
c. All household members were absent for extended period of time	0.0	11	0.0	10	0.01	1
d. Postponed	0.0	2	0.0	1	0.01	1
e. Refused	0.5	199	0.5	155	0.37	44
f. Dwelling vacant/ destroyed not found	0.0	12	0.0	9	0.03	3
g. Not a dwelling	0.0	2	0.0	2	0.0	0
h. Other	0.0	15	0.1	15	0.0	0
Total households selected	100	41,858	100	29,895	100	11,963
Response rate (RR)¹	99.0		98.9		99.1	

¹(row a/ rows a+b+d+e+h)*100

Table 1.4 presents similar findings with regard to interviews with all eligible respondents, as well as those in intervention and comparison areas. In total, 15,963 interviews were completed: 3,473 with younger boys, 3,150 with older boys, 4,104 with younger girls, 3,237 with older unmarried girls, and 1,999 with older married girls. Response rates for individual interviews were in the range of 86-88 percent for boys and 88-92 percent for girls. The main reason for non-response was that the respondent was not at home (8% among younger girls and unmarried older girls, 12-14% among boys of both age groups and married older girls). Response rates in intervention and comparison areas were generally similar to the overall response rates. Among younger adolescents and unmarried older girls, differences were in the range of 1-2 percentage points, and for older boys and married girls, in the range of 3-4 percentage points.

Table 1.4 Results of eligible respondent interviews
Percent distribution of eligible respondents by results of interviews, intervention and control arms (unweighted), Jharkhand, 2018

Result of interviews	Boys (10-14)		Boys (15-21)		Girls (10-14)		Unmarried girls (15-21)		Married girls (15-21)	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Combined										
a. Interview completed	87.5	3,473	85.9	3,150	91.9	4,104	92.0	3,237	87.7	1,999
b. Respondent not at home	12.4	492	13.7	503	7.8	349	7.8	273	12.1	276
c. Postponed	0.0	1	0.1	2	0.2	7	0.1	4	0.1	2
d. Respondent refused	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.1	3	0.0	1
e. Parent refused	0.0	1	0.1	5	0.0	0	0.1	3	0.1	2
f. Partly completed	0.1	2	0.1	4	0.1	6	0.0	0	0.0	0
g. Respondent incapacitated	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Total selected		3,970		3,666		4,467		3,520		2,280
Response rate (RR)¹	87.5		85.9		91.9		92.0		87.7	
Intervention										
a. Interview completed	87.9	2,542	86.8	2,350	92.1	2,919	92.3	2,292	88.7	1,504
b. Respondent not at home	12.0	346	12.8	347	7.6	242	7.4	183	11.0	186
c. Postponed	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	5	0.1	2	0.1	2
d. Respondent refused	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.1	2	0.1	1
e. Parent refused	0.0	1	0.2	5	0.0	0	0.1	3	0.1	2
f. Partly completed	0.1	2	0.0	1	0.1	4	0.0	0	0.0	0
g. Respondent incapacitated	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Total selected		2,891		2,706		3,171		2,482		1,695
Response rate (RR)¹	87.9		86.8		92.1		92.3		88.7	

¹(row a/ rows a+b+c+d+e+f+g)*100

Result of interviews	Boys (10-14)		Boys (15-21)		Girls (10-14)		Unmarried girls (15-21)		Married girls (15-21)	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Comparison										
a. Interview completed	86.3	931	83.3	800	91.4	1,185	91.0	945	84.6	495
b. Respondent not at home	13.5	146	16.3	156	8.3	107	8.7	90	15.4	90
c. Postponed	0.1	1	0.1	1	0.2	2	0.2	2	0.0	0
d. Respondent refused	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.1	1	0.0	0
e. Parent refused	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
f. Partly completed	0.0	0	0.3	3	0.2	2	0.0	0	0.0	0
g. Respondent incapacitated	0.1	1	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Total selected		1,079		960		1,296		1,038		585
Response rate (RR)¹	86.3		83.3		91.4		91.0		84.6	

¹(row a/ rows a+b+c+d+e+f+g)*100

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

This report is divided into 12 chapters, including this introductory chapter. Chapter 2 provides a socio-demographic profile of the surveyed population and respondents. Chapters 3, 4, and 5 discuss educational attainment patterns, economic activity and livelihood training experiences, and media exposure of adolescents, respectively. Chapter 6 discusses growing-up issues, including adolescents' relationships with parents and peers, and their perceptions about political processes and mixing with individuals belonging to different religions and castes. Chapter 7 focuses on adolescents' agency, gender role attitudes and attitudes reflecting readiness to mix with those belonging to other religious and caste affiliations. Chapter 8 describes adolescents' awareness of sexual and reproductive health matters. Chapter 9 describes the extent of premarital romantic relationships and the experience of premarital sexual relations among adolescents. Chapter 10 discusses the transition to marriage and experiences in early married life. Chapter 11 presents other health related matters, and Chapter 12 summarises the main findings of the baseline survey.

This report provides a broad profile of adolescents across the state. It recognises that the life experience of boys and girls, younger (aged 10-14) and older (ages 15-21) adolescents, and among older girls, the unmarried and the married, may vary considerably; hence, all tables are presented separately for these five categories of adolescents. Furthermore, given that this report is intended not only to provide a profile of the situation of adolescents in Jharkhand, but also to serve as a baseline for the evaluation of Dasra's 10to19 Adolescent Collaborative, findings are also presented separately for those residing in intervention and comparison areas; note that while we describe differences within the report, all tables relating to the situation in intervention and comparison areas are shown in separate appendix tables.

As footnoted in each relevant table, all percentages, means and medians are weighted, using normalised weights for the total population; however, we show the unweighted number of respondents falling into each group. Hence, it is not advisable to derive numbers based on percentages. In this report, moreover, we did not conduct statistical tests of significance to indicate whether differences across various sub-groups were statistically significant. Rather, we followed the practice used in the UDAYA studies (Santhya et al., 2017a; 2017b) and show differences of five percentage points or more between any two categories (younger versus older, boys versus girls, unmarried older girls versus their unmarried counterparts). We did so because differences of this magnitude are likely to be statistically significant with sufficient power given the large sample size that was covered.

The report has been prepared for use by a wide range of readers, from programme implementers and policy makers to researchers and youth groups; for those who prefer to learn the key points of each chapter may refer to the summary section that highlights its key messages.





CHAPTER 2

A PROFILE OF BASELINE SURVEY HOUSEHOLDS AND ADOLESCENTS

As mentioned in Chapter 1, household interviews were conducted with the head or an adult resident of 41,393 households, and individual interviews were conducted with 15,963 eligible adolescent respondents residing in these households. This chapter provides a socio-demographic profile of these households and adolescents, for Jharkhand as a whole, as well as for the intervention districts and comparison districts.

2.1 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSEHOLDS

We administered the household questionnaire in a total of 41,393 households, that is, 29,547 from intervention districts and 11,846 from comparison districts. Table 2.1 presents selected socio-demographic characteristics of households and their heads. Almost three-quarters of the households were in rural areas of the state (73%), consistent with findings from the 2011 Census of India (76%) (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2011b). Heads of households were overwhelmingly male (86%), and more than three in four (78%) were aged 35 years or more.

Distributions by religion show that 72 percent of household heads were Hindu, 14 percent were Muslim, and 10 percent belonged to the Sarna religion. This distribution closely resembles that obtained in the 2011 census of the state (Hindu, 68%; Muslim, 14%; 13% “other” (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2011a). The caste-wise distribution of the heads of household shows that the majority belonged to other backward castes (47%) and scheduled tribes (27%), with 13 percent each belonging to general and scheduled castes.

Household heads were, on average, poorly educated. Two in five had no formal education (41%), and just 15 percent had more than 10 years of education. However, almost all households contained at least one adult male and/or one female member who was literate (89% and 88%, respectively).

Households contained an average of five members, with 28 percent reporting more than five members in their households.

Overall, findings show that households in intervention districts resembled those in comparison districts with notable differences emerging in two indicators, namely religion and caste or tribe affiliation. A larger proportion of household heads in intervention than comparison districts belonged to the Sarna religion (16% versus 9%), and correspondingly fewer were Hindu (56% versus 74%). Likewise, more household heads from intervention than comparison districts belonged to scheduled tribes (37% versus 25%). Finally, percentages of households residing in urban areas were considerably larger in comparison than intervention areas (28% versus 20%).

Table 2.1 Socio-demographic profile of surveyed households
Percent distribution of households by selected socio-demographic characteristics of heads of households, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Socio-demographic characteristics	Combined (percent)	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Sex of household head			
Male	85.9	87.5	85.7
Female	14.2	12.6	14.4
Age of household head (in years)			
Below 25	2.9	3.2	2.9
25-34	19.4	18.5	19.5
35-44	25.9	25.6	25.9
45-54	22.1	22.1	22.1
55 and above	29.6	30.7	29.5
Religion of household head			
Hindu	71.5	55.9	73.5
Muslim	14.2	18.4	13.7
Christian	3.9	9.9	3.2
Sarna	10.1	15.8	9.4
Other	0.3	0.1	0.3
Caste/tribe of household head¹			
SC	13.2	8.3	13.8
ST	26.7	37.1	25.4
OBC	47.3	43.9	47.8
General	12.8	10.7	13.1
Educational level of household head			
None ²	40.5	41.6	40.4
1 – 7	18.6	19.0	18.6
8 – 10	25.7	26.2	25.7
11 – 12	6.1	6.0	6.1
Above 12	9.1	7.2	9.3
Number of members in the household			
1	3.3	3.6	3.2
2	11.3	10.9	11.4
3	15.9	15.0	16.0
4	22.1	22.6	22.1
5	19.1	19.0	19.1
6	13.0	13.4	12.9
7 or more	15.4	15.4	15.4
Mean household size	4.6	4.6	4.6
Percentage of households with at least one literate member			
Household with at least one literate member age 18 and above	89.3	88.9	89.3
Household with at least one female literate member aged 18 and above	87.9	87.6	87.9

Socio-demographic characteristics	Combined (percent)	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Rural-urban residence			
Urban	27.5	20.3	28.4
Rural	72.5	79.7	71.6
Number of Households	41,393	11,846	29,547

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: Includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ²Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school.

Figure 2.1 Educational level of household head

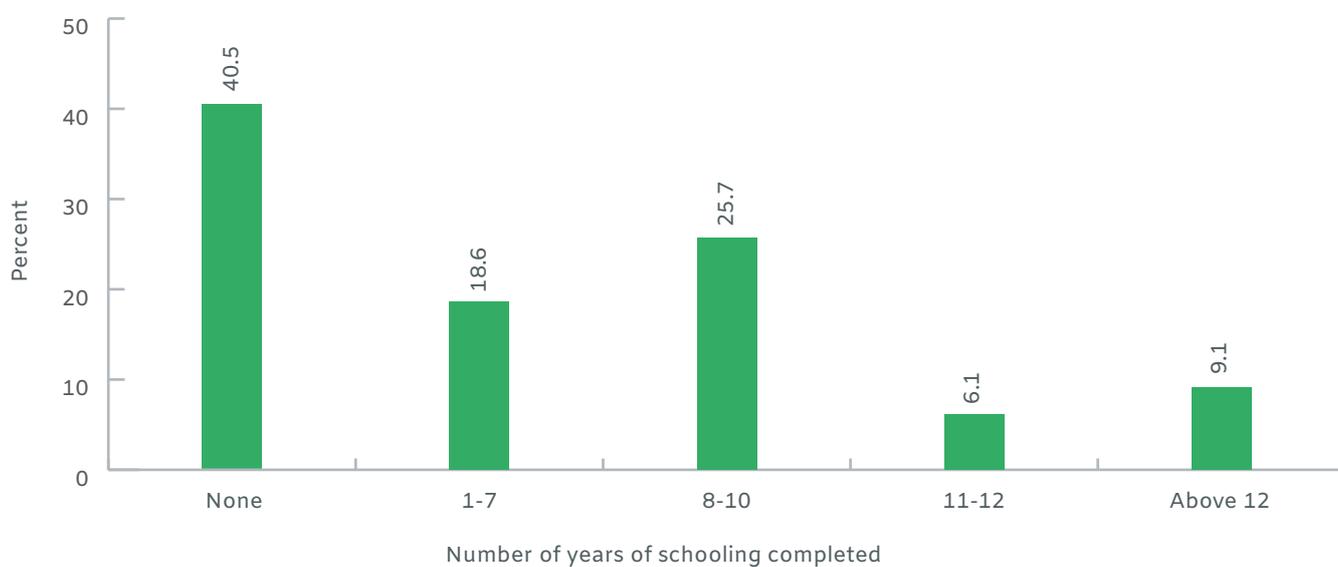


Figure 2.2 Rural-Urban Residence

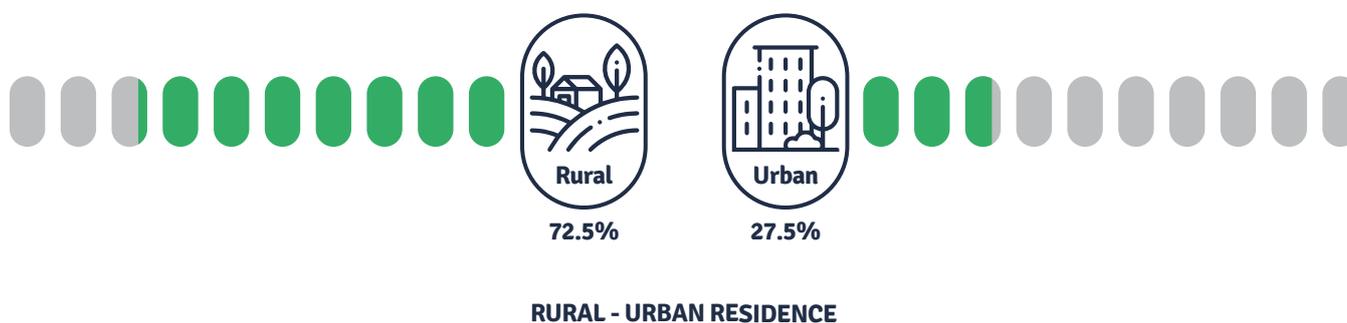


Table 2.2 provides a description of amenities in surveyed households. Almost all homes (99%) were owned by the household; interviewers reported that two in five of these homes (41%) were kachcha (constructed from mud, thatch, or other low-quality materials), 27 percent were semi-pucca (constructed by using a mix of low- and high-quality materials), and one third (32%) were pucca (constructed entirely from cement, masonry, or other high-quality materials). Almost three in five of these homes contained two to three rooms (57%), 29 percent contained four or more rooms, and 15 percent contained just one room. The average number of household members per room was thus two.

As far as household amenities are concerned, findings show that almost one quarter had no access to electricity and half did not have toilet facilities (Table 2.2). Indeed, just 76 percent reported electricity as their main source of lighting, compared to 80 percent reported in NFHS 4 (IIPS, 2017). With regard to the main source of drinking water, 78 percent reported access to piped water or a covered well, of their own or shared, for drinking water (identical (78%) to NFHS 4 (IIPS, 2017)). Notwithstanding the **Swacchh Bharat** programme, half (50%) of all households had no access at all to a toilet facility. Just 38 percent had their own flush toilet (compared to 26% as reported in NFHS 4 (IIPS, 2017)), six percent had access to a shared flush toilet and another six percent had their own or a shared pit toilet. The main type of fuel used for cooking was wood, coal, charcoal, crop residue, or cow dung cakes, used by 73 percent of households; one-quarter (27%) used liquid petroleum gas (LPG) as their cooking fuel (compared with 19 percent reported in NFHS 4 (IIPS, 2017)).

Households in intervention and comparison districts resembled each other with regard to most indicators in Table 2.2. Noteworthy differences were however observed in a few indicators, and these reflected the somewhat lower socioeconomic status of those in the intervention districts. For example, more households in intervention than comparison districts resided in a kachcha structure (51% versus 39%) and conversely fewer resided in a pucca structure (22% versus 34%). Likewise, fewer households in intervention than comparison districts reported such amenities as electricity (73% versus 77%), own piped water, hand-pump or covered well for drinking water (19% versus 29%), own flush toilet (33% versus 39%), and liquid petroleum gas for cooking (23% versus 28%).

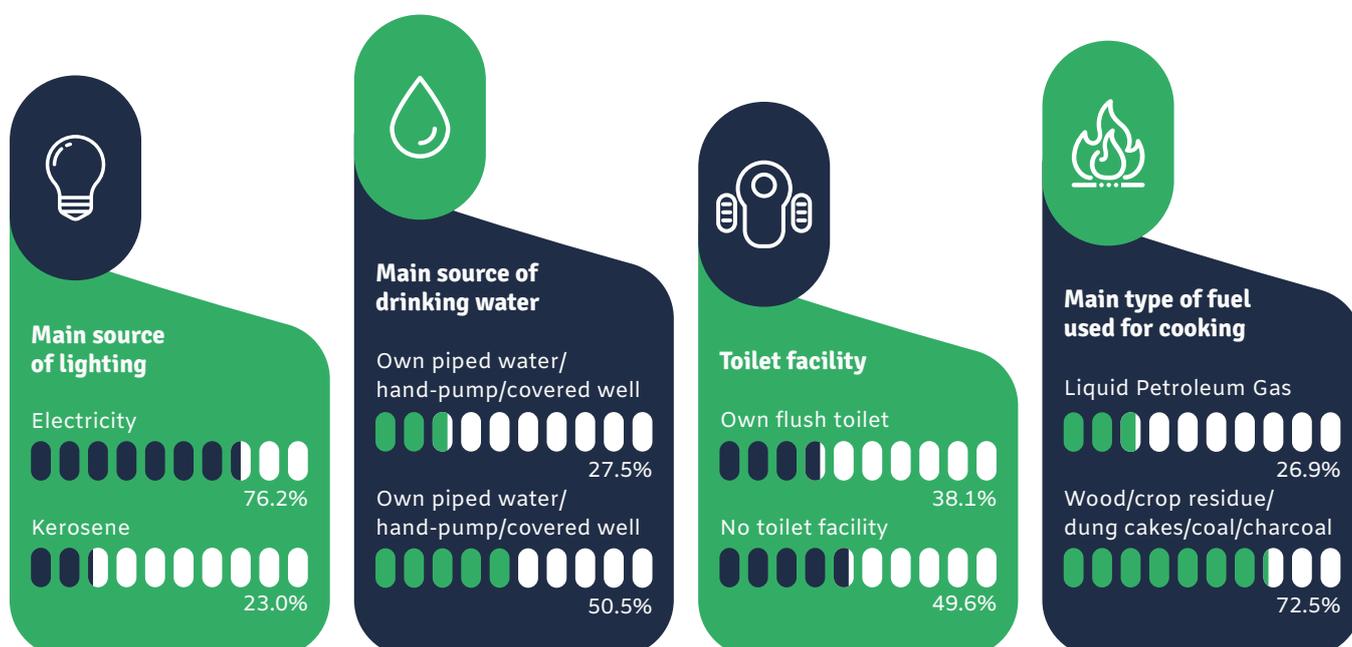
Table 2.2 Housing and household amenities
Percent distribution of surveyed household amenities and economic status, Jharkhand, 2018

Housing, household amenities, economic status	Combined (percent)	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Ownership of residence			
Yes	99.2	99.3	99.2
No	0.8	0.7	0.8
Type of house			
Kachcha	40.8	51.2	39.4
Semi-pucca	26.9	26.7	26.9
Pucca	32.4	22.2	33.7
Number of rooms in the house¹			
1	14.6	14.6	14.6
2-3	56.6	54.6	56.9
4-5	21.5	23.1	21.3
6 or more	7.3	7.7	7.3
Average number of persons per room			
up to 2	70.0	70.2	69.9
3-4	25.4	24.9	25.4
5-6	4.1	4.3	4.1
More than 6	0.6	0.7	0.6
Mean number of persons per room	1.95	1.94	1.95

Housing, household amenities, economic status	Combined (percent)	Intervention area (percent)	Comparison area (percent)
Main source of lighting			
Electricity	76.2	72.7	76.7
Kerosene	23.0	26.1	22.6
Other lighting sources	0.8	1.2	0.8
Main source of drinking water			
Own piped water/hand-pump/ covered well	27.5	18.7	28.6
Public piped water/hand-pump/ covered well	50.5	52.0	50.3
Own open well	5.9	5.8	5.9
Other water sources	16.1	23.5	15.2
Toilet facility			
Own flush toilet	38.1	33.2	38.9
Shared flush toilet	6.0	5.7	6.2
Own pit toilet	5.3	6.4	5.1
Shared pit toilet	0.8	0.9	0.8
No toilet facility	49.6	53.8	49.1
Main type of fuel used for cooking			
Liquid petroleum gas	26.9	22.8	27.5
Bio-gas	0.0	0.01	0.0
Kerosene	0.4	0.3	0.4
Wood/crop residue/dung cakes/coal/ charcoal	72.5	76.7	71.9
Other types of fuel	0.2	0.2	0.2
Number of Households	41,393	11,846	29,547

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. †Excludes toilets/bathrooms but includes kitchen.

Figure 2.3 Housing and Household Amenities



2.2 HOUSEHOLD ECONOMIC STATUS

To assess the household's economic status, we inquired about agricultural landholdings, and ownership of a range of assets (Table 2.3). As far as ownership of agricultural land is concerned, findings suggest that fewer than three-fifths of all households (57%) owned some land. Of those who owned any land, the large majority (81%) reported marginal holdings of 2.5 acres or less. We also obtained information on ownership of assets ranging from a telephone to a television and tractor. Findings, presented in Table 2.3, show that almost all households owned a telephone (91%), and many owned a bicycle (68%), a watch or clock (67%), an electric fan (63%), a television set (41%) and a motorcycle or scooter (34%). Just two percent of all households did not own any item from our list.

In order to obtain a summary measure of household economic status, we constructed a wealth index¹ as used the Population Council's UDAYA survey (Santhya et al., 2017). Index scores ranged from 0 to 57. Households were ranked according to these index scores, and divided into quintiles—that is, five groups, each containing an approximately equal number of households, ranging from the poorest (Quintile 1) households to the wealthiest (Quintile 5). Wealth quintiles were developed at the state level on the basis of the weighted sample for the whole state.

Ownership of an Aadhar card was universal. As many as 99 percent of respondents to the household questionnaire reported that at least one member of their households owned an Aadhar card. Finally, we also asked respondents from rural areas about whether they or anyone else in their household had obtained employment through the MGNREGA scheme in the year preceding the interview. Findings suggest that overall, 14 percent of the households surveyed had obtained MGNREGA employment, ranging from 23 percent in intervention districts to 13 percent in comparison districts.

Households in intervention and comparison districts resembled each other with regard to most indicators in Table 2.3. As far as ownership of assets is concerned, differences were generally narrow, however, fewer households in intervention than comparison districts owned a television set (36% versus 41%) and somewhat more owned a bicycle (76% versus 67%). Ownership of an Aadhar card was reported universally in both sites, but considerably more rural households in intervention than comparison areas had benefitted from employment through the MGNREGA scheme (23% versus 13%).

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: 5 for more than 10 acres; 4 for 5.1–10 acres; 3 for 2.6–5 acres; 2 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 irrigated 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, 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, sewing machine, thresher, water pump, animal-drawn cart; 1 for watch or clock; 0 for each of the above items that the household does not possess.

Table 2.3 Household economic status
Percent distribution of surveyed households by various indicators of economic status, Jharkhand, 2018

Household economic status indicators	Combined (percent)	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Landholding (in acres)¹			
Landless	42.8	40.6	43.0
Number of households	41,393	29,547	11,846
Marginal (≤ 2.50)	80.8	77.8	81.2
Small (2.51–5)	13.0	14.8	12.8
Medium (5.01–10)	4.7	5.2	4.6
Large (>10)	1.5	2.2	1.5
Households owning any land	16,779	11,971	4,808
Assets owned			
Electricity ²	89.3	87.3	89.5
Electric fan	63.4	58.2	64.0
Television	40.7	35.7	41.3
Sewing machine	15.0	11.2	15.4
Land-line/mobile telephone	90.8	90.3	90.8
Computer/Laptop	5.0	3.5	5.2
Refrigerator	15.1	11.55	15.60
Watch/clock	67.4	73.1	66.6
Bicycle	68.1	76.1	67.1
Motorcycle/Scooter	33.6	30.6	34.0
Animal drawn cart	2.1	0.8	2.3
Car/Truck	3.5	2.2	3.6
Water pump	10.3	9.3	10.4
Thresher	0.4	0.2	0.4
Tractor	0.6	0.7	0.6
None of the above	2.0	1.9	2.0
Wealth quintile			
First	23.6	22.8	23.7
Second	18.2	21.1	17.9
Third	15.8	18.8	15.4
Fourth	19.5	19.3	19.5
Fifth	22.9	18.0	23.6
Ownership of Aadhar card			
Ownership of Aadhar card by at least one household member	99.3	99.4	99.3
Number of households	41,393	29,547	11,846
Employment through MGNREGA scheme by at least one household member in the year preceding the interview	14.3	22.8	13.0
Number of rural households	32,319	23,584	8,736

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Column totals may not equal 100% because of 'do not know' responses. ²Percentages owning electricity may exceed percentages reporting that their main source of lighting is electricity (Table 2.2) as some households that had electricity did not report it as their main source of lighting because of erratic supply of electricity.

Figure 2.4 Ownership of Assets

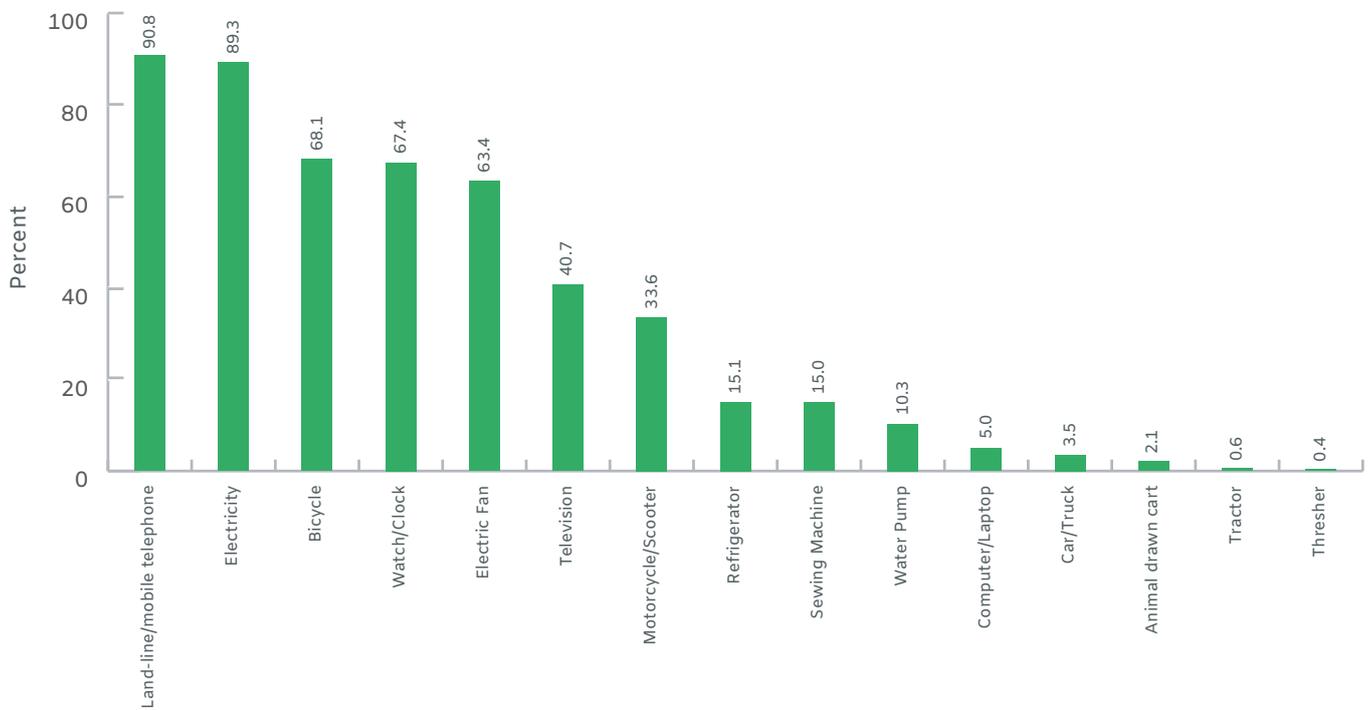


Figure 2.5 Ownership of Aadhar Card and employment through MGNREGA scheme



We also explored the extent of family indebtedness, by asking respondents to the household interview whether anyone in the household had taken a loan in the five years preceding the interview and the reason for the loan (Table 2.4). Findings suggest that one in five households, irrespective of intervention programme status, had taken a loan. Among those who had taken a loan, key reasons included investment in a family business (30%) or farm (20%). However, as many as 16 percent, 11 percent and 12 percent had taken loans to pay for repairs to their home, for a family marriage and for a family illness, respectively. Differences between those residing in intervention and comparison sites were negligible, although slightly more households from intervention than comparison sites had taken a loan for their farms (25% versus 19%), and conversely, slightly fewer households from intervention than comparison sites had taken a loan for investment in their family business (28% versus 31%).

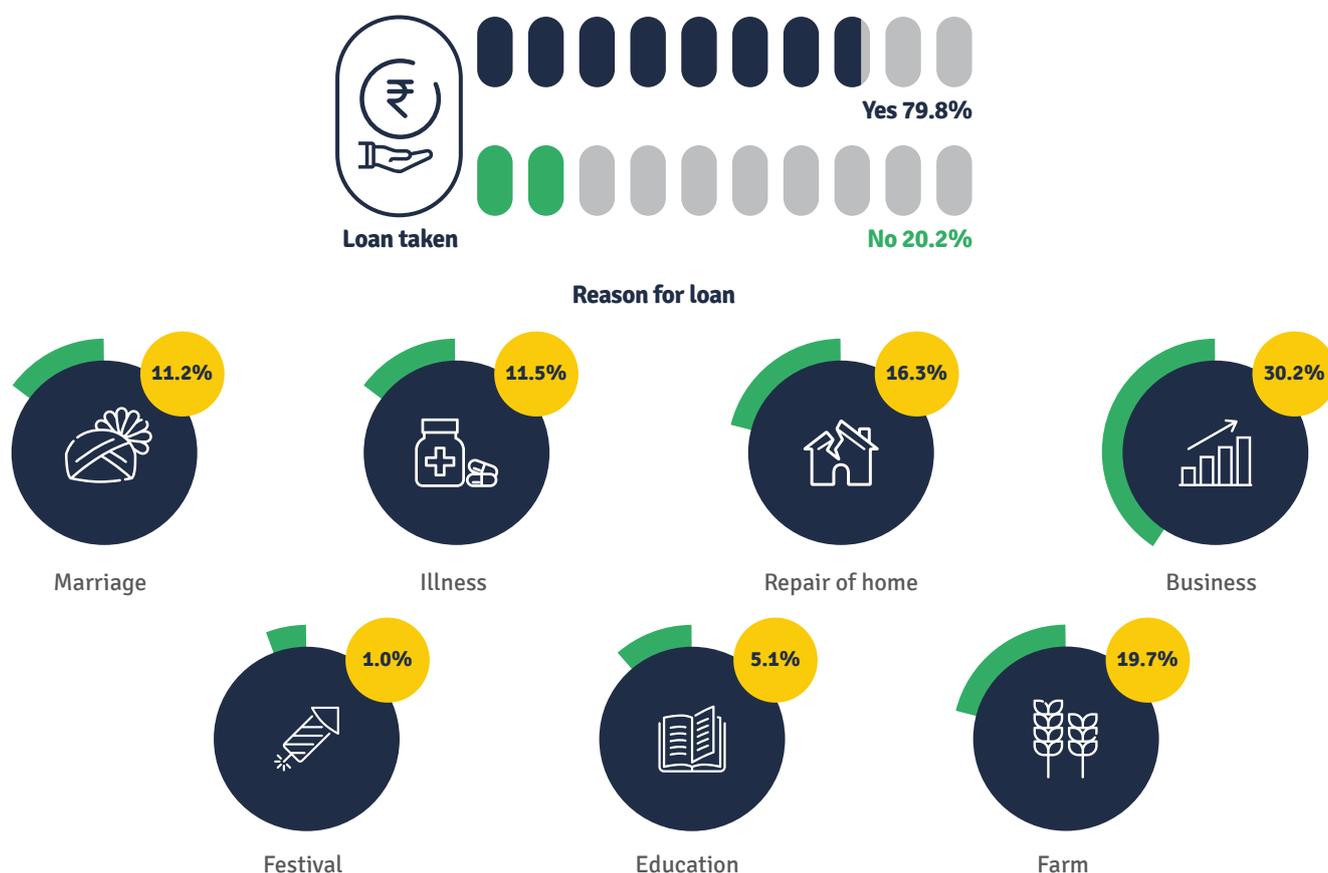
Table 2.4 Household indebtedness

Percentage of surveyed households that had taken a loan in the five years preceding the interview and the reason for the loan, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand 2018.

Indebtedness indicators	Combined (percent)	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Household indebtedness: loan taken in previous five years			
Yes	20.2	19.9	20.2
No	79.8	80.2	79.7
Total	41,393	29,547	11,846
Reason for loan			
Marriage	11.2	11.3	11.2
Illness	11.5	11.2	11.5
Repair of home	16.3	15.2	16.5
Business	30.2	27.7	30.5
Festival	1.0	0.9	1.0
Education	5.1	4.2	5.2
Farm	19.7	25.3	19.0
Others*	5.0	4.3	5.1
Number of households that had taken a loan	8,188	5,804	2,384

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. *Include family needs, farm related, money related Investment, purchase consumer goods, and no reason

Figure 2.6 Household Indebtedness



2.3 BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF SURVEYED ADOLESCENTS

We interviewed a total of 15,963 adolescents, whose socio-demographic characteristics are presented in Table 2.5. Age profiles are generally similar for boys and girls aged 10-14, and boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21, except that among those aged 15-21, more boys than girls were aged 20-21 (18% versus 12%), reflecting the fact that many girls, but not boys were married by age 20. Married girls are typically older than unmarried girls: far more married than unmarried girls aged 15-21 were aged 18-19 (39% versus 26%) or 20-21 (42% versus 12%), again reflecting the pervasiveness of early marriage in the state.

The distributions of adolescents by religion and caste/tribe status were fairly similar to those observed for the heads of households. For example, 70-74 percent were Hindu and 13–20 percent were Muslim, 49-54 percent belonged to other backward castes, 20-26 percent belonged to scheduled tribes, 12-16 percent belonged to scheduled castes, and 6-14 percent belonged to general castes.

Household economic status distributions, as measured by wealth quintiles, were generally similar for all five groups; of note is that somewhat more unmarried than married girls aged 15-21 came from families falling into the wealthiest quintile (27% versus 21%).

Table 2.5 Background characteristics of surveyed adolescents
Percent distribution of surveyed adolescents by selected background characteristics, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand 2018

Background Characteristics	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Combined (percent)					
Age					
10-12	61.1	NA	61.5	NA	NA
13-14	38.9	NA	38.5	NA	NA
15-17	NA	57.8	NA	62.7	19.1
18-19	NA	24.4	NA	25.8	39.3
20-21	NA	17.8	NA	11.5	41.7
Religion¹					
Hindu	73.0	73.6	71.4	69.5	69.7
Muslim	14.8	12.7	18.0	18.8	19.6
Christian	2.6	3.2	2.7	3.5	2.5
Sarna	9.4	10.3	7.7	7.9	8.3
Caste²					
SC	11.6	13.7	15.9	13.9	14.0
ST	23.7	25.7	19.8	20.0	25.6
OBC	51.2	48.9	53.0	52.7	54.1
General	13.5	11.7	11.3	13.4	6.3
Wealth quintile					
First	26.2	22.3	24.9	18.5	22.5
Second	20.2	16.8	21.7	22.6	21.9
Third	19.2	23.8	20.0	17.7	21.3
Fourth	12.4	11.8	12.7	14.7	13.7
Fifth	22.1	25.4	20.7	26.6	20.7

Background Characteristics	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	51.2	63.7	53.6	60.5	78.9
1 - 7	12.8	10.8	12.5	12.9	8.0
8 - 9	8.6	8.2	9.3	10.5	5.0
10 and above	11.6	12.0	11.9	12.6	4.0
Don't know	15.8	5.3	12.8	3.5	4.1
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	30.3	35.2	31.0	34.6	53.1
1 - 7	13.1	15.4	15.9	16.2	15.0
8 - 9	13.8	13.1	13.6	14.3	7.7
10 and above	21.4	25.6	20.9	27.2	15.0
Don't know	21.5	10.7	18.6	7.7	9.2
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	28.1	28.3	27.8	32.4	14.3
Rural	71.9	71.7	72.2	67.6	85.7
Number of respondents (N)	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Intervention (percent)					
Age					
10-12	63.4	NA	59.5	NA	NA
13-14	36.6	NA	40.5	NA	NA
15-17	NA	55.3	NA	62.9	21.4
18-19	NA	27.0	NA	23.8	37.4
20-21	NA	17.8	NA	13.3	41.2
Religion¹					
Hindu	57.8	60.7	53.1	52.3	59.1
Muslim	21.1	16.4	21.6	21.0	21.4
Christian	6.0	7.5	7.5	8.3	4.9
Sarna	14.9	15.2	17.9	18.4	14.7
Caste²					
SC	8.6	8.8	8.6	8.0	10.7
ST	32.5	32.4	34.9	35.4	31.6
OBC	48.9	48.4	47.4	45.2	50.3
General	10.0	10.4	9.1	11.5	7.4
Wealth quintile					
First	29.5	25.7	22.8	16.0	17.7
Second	19.6	17.7	29.3	27.7	26.0
Third	22.7	23.1	19.5	20.7	23.6
Fourth	11.4	12.6	11.2	14.6	16.2
Fifth	16.8	21.0	17.2	21.0	16.4
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	52.2	62.4	59.1	62.3	84.8
1 - 7	11.9	12.2	11.0	12.2	6.4
8 - 9	9.7	8.9	9.4	10.1	4.2

Background Characteristics	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
10 and above	9.0	10.0	9.3	11.2	2.5
Don't know	17.4	6.5	11.2	4.1	2.2
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	31.8	36.7	37.4	37.8	57.0
1 - 7	15.2	15.5	14.2	16.0	13.7
8 - 9	13.0	15.5	13.4	14.5	9.8
10 and above	18.3	21.3	18.1	24.0	13.3
Don't know	21.7	11.0	16.9	7.8	6.2
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	19.8	21.2	19.3	24.1	13.5
Rural	80.2	78.8	80.7	75.9	86.5
Number of respondents (N)	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Age					
10-12	60.8	NA	61.7	NA	NA
13-14	39.2	NA	38.3	NA	NA
15-17	NA	58.2	NA	62.7	18.7
18-19	NA	24.0	NA	26.1	39.6
20-21	NA	17.8	NA	11.3	41.7
Religion¹					
Hindu	75.2	75.6	73.8	71.7	71.3
Muslim	13.8	12.2	17.6	18.6	19.3
Christian	2.1	2.5	2.1	2.8	2.1
Sarna	8.6	9.6	6.3	6.6	7.3
Caste²					
SC	12.1	14.5	16.8	14.7	14.5
ST	22.4	24.7	17.8	18.0	24.7
OBC	51.6	49.0	53.7	53.7	54.6
General	13.9	11.9	11.6	13.6	6.1
Wealth quintile					
First	25.7	21.8	25.1	18.8	23.2
Second	20.3	16.6	20.7	22.0	21.2
Third	18.6	23.8	20.1	17.3	20.9
Fourth	12.5	11.7	12.9	14.7	13.4
Fifth	22.8	26.1	21.2	27.3	21.3
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	51.0	63.9	52.8	60.2	78.0
1 - 7	12.9	10.6	12.6	13.0	8.3
8 - 9	8.4	8.1	9.3	10.6	5.1
10 and above	12.0	12.3	12.2	12.8	4.3
Don't know	15.6	5.1	13.0	3.4	4.3

Background Characteristics	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	30.1	34.9	30.2	34.2	52.5
1 - 7	12.8	15.4	16.1	16.2	15.2
8 - 9	13.9	12.7	13.7	14.2	7.3
10 and above	21.8	26.2	21.2	27.7	15.3
Don't know	21.5	10.7	18.9	7.7	9.7
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	29.3	29.4	29.0	33.5	14.5
Rural	70.7	70.6	71.1	66.6	85.5
Number of respondents (N)	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ³Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

However, distributions of adolescents by the years of schooling that their mothers and fathers had successfully completed vary by age of the adolescent and, among older girls, by marital status. We note that many adolescents were unaware of the educational attainment levels of their parents (4-16% and 8-22% were unaware of their mother's and father's educational attainment levels, respectively). While the majority of adolescents reported that their mother had no formal education, percentages were considerably lower among younger adolescents than older (unmarried) adolescents (51-54% versus 61-64%), and much greater among married than unmarried girls aged 15-21 (79% versus 61%). Fathers were better educated than mothers. Now, three in ten younger adolescents (30-31%), and 35 percent of older boys and unmarried girls reported that their father had no formal schooling; more than half of the fathers of married girls had no formal education (53%). At the other extreme, completion of a secondary school education (Class 10) was rare among mothers, ranging from four percent of mothers of married girls to 12-13% of mothers of adolescents from the remaining four groups. More fathers had completed a secondary school education, ranging from 15 percent of fathers of married girls to 21-27 percent of fathers of adolescents in the remaining four groups.

Most adolescents resided in rural areas (68-86%). While age and gender differences in percentages of unmarried adolescents residing in rural areas were mild, far more married than unmarried girls aged 15-21 resided in rural areas (86% versus 68%), reflecting disparities in early marriage patterns in the two areas.

Differences (of five or more percent) between adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were evident on a few indicators (Table 2.5). For example, fewer adolescents from intervention than comparison areas were Hindu (52-61% versus 71-76%), more, conversely, were Muslim (16-22% versus 12-19%), and Sarna (15-18% versus 6-10%). Caste and tribe distributions also varied, with more adolescents in intervention than comparison areas belonging to scheduled tribe households (32-35% versus 18-25%) and fewer belonging to scheduled caste households (8-11% versus 12-17%). Finally, while similar proportions of married girls resided in rural and urban areas (86-87%), among the remaining four groups more adolescents in intervention than comparison areas resided in rural areas (76-81% versus 67-71%).

Adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were largely similar in terms of household economic status, and parental education. However, fewer adolescents in intervention than comparison areas belonged to households in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile (16-21% versus 21-27%) and conversely, slightly more belonged to households in the poorest (first) wealth quintile (16-30% versus 19-26%). By and large, differentials by parental educational attainment levels were modest; however, differentials were observed among girls aged 10-14 and married girls. In both groups, more of those in intervention than comparison areas reported that their mother and father had no formal education (59% versus 53% and 85% versus 78%, respectively with respect to maternal education; 37% versus 30% and 57% versus 53%, respectively, with respect to paternal education).





CHAPTER 3

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

One of the key markers of a successful transition to adulthood is the completion of at least a secondary school education with appropriate learning outcomes. Drawing on data from the baseline survey, this chapter examines educational attainment and school attendance among adolescents, the quality of the school or college most recently attended, their schooling experiences, their aspirations for further education, their awareness of and access to schooling entitlements, and their basic general knowledge, literacy and numeracy skills. Differences, if observed, of five percent or more in the responses of adolescents in each group on each of these indicators are indicated. Where appropriate, findings are shown separately for adolescents residing in intervention and comparison sites. Our findings suggest that adolescents in Jharkhand are far from achieving a successful transition in the area of education.

In this chapter, we present adolescents' reports on each of these issues for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

3.1. ENROLMENT AND CONTINUATION

Almost all adolescents had ever been enrolled in school and completed at least one year of education. Gender differences were narrow. School enrolment was 96-99 percent among boys aged 10-14, boys aged 15-21, girls aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21. It was far lower - 88 percent - among married older girls (Table 3.1).

But enrolment does not imply school continuation or age-appropriate completion of each year of schooling. Notwithstanding the Right to Education Act, 2009, that has made primary education (up to Class 8) free and compulsory, many adolescents did not achieve this milestone. While all adolescents aged 10-14 should have completed at least Class 4, just 66-67 percent of boys and girls in these ages had done so. Likewise, while the large majority of adolescents aged 15-21 should have completed at least Class 8, just 84 percent of boys and unmarried girls, and far fewer married girls - 65 percent -- had done so. A similar picture emerges with regard to the completion of Class 10; just 42-43 percent of boys and unmarried girls, and 38 percent of married girls had done so. The average number of years of education was 5-6 years among younger boys and girls, nine among boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21, and eight among married girls. In view of the fact that far more unmarried than married girls were in school or college at the time of the interview, it is likely that the disparity observed between the married and the unmarried may become even wider.

Almost all adolescents aged 10-14 were attending school at the time of the interview (93-94%). In comparison, far fewer boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21 (63-64%), and just seven percent of married girls aged 15-21 were enrolled in a school or college at the time of the interview. Again, it is notable that gender differences were mild, but that married girls were considerably more disadvantaged than unmarried girls. A negligible minority (0-2.5%) were pursuing their education through a distance learning programme.

Findings show, moreover, that differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were negligible (less than five %), with regard to years of schooling completed, average number of years of education completed, and current schooling status.

Table 3.1 Educational attainment and current educational status of boys and girls aged 10-21, Jharkhand
Percent distribution of adolescents by years of schooling successfully completed, median years of schooling, and percentage currently in school, Jharkhand, 2018

Schooling status	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Completed years of schooling					
None ¹	0.9	1.7	2.1	3.5	12.2
1-4	32.5	2.5	30.5	2.3	7.1
5-7	53.5	12.1	55.4	10.8	15.9
8-9	13.2	41.9	12.0	40.0	27.3
10-11	0.0	23.9	0.1	25.6	19.0
12 and above	0.0	17.9	0.0	17.8	18.6
Median years of schooling	5	9	6	9	8
Current schooling status					
Currently in school	93.5	63.6	93.1	62.8	6.6
Attending distance education programmes	0.2	1.0	0.0	2.5	2.5
Not currently in school	3.7	35.4	6.9	34.7	90.9
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

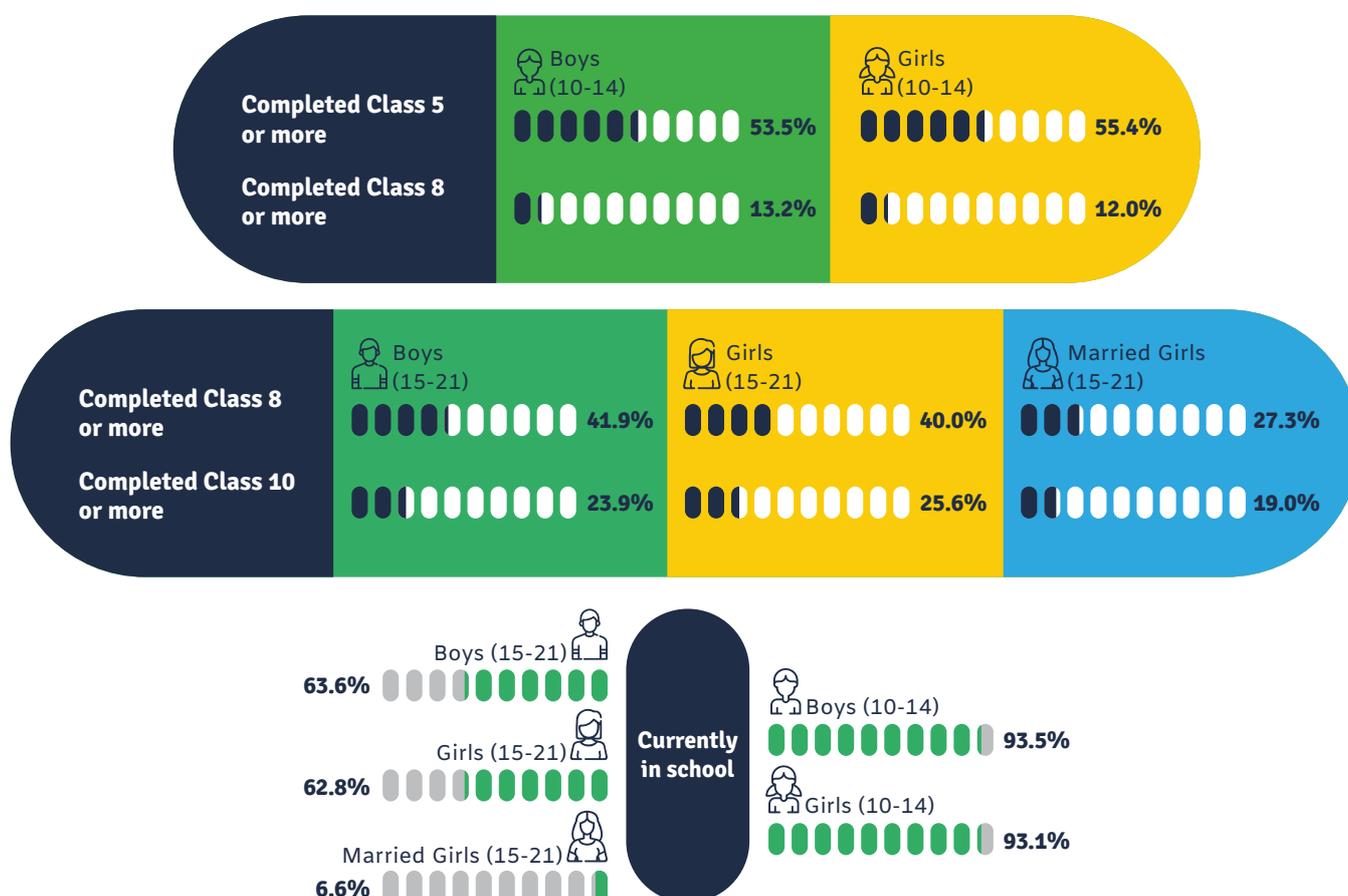
Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

3.2 BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Background characteristics of adolescents who completed specific milestones – those aged 10-14 who had completed Class 5 and those aged 15-21 who had completed Class 10 – are presented in Table 3.2. While all or most adolescents aged 10-14 should have completed at least Class 5, and while most adolescents aged 15-21 should have completed Class 10, findings hint of delayed achievement of these milestones. For example, just half of those aged 10-12 had completed Class 5, compared to almost all those aged 13-14 (51-54% and 90-91%, respectively). Among older adolescents, just 24-28 percent of adolescents aged 15-17, compared to 60-64 percent and 76-78 percent of those aged 18-19 and 20-21 had completed Class 10. Married girls were far less likely than their unmarried counterparts to have completed Class 10 at each age (15% versus 28% of those aged 15-17, 34% versus 64% of those aged 18-19; and 52% versus 78% of those aged 20-21).

Differences in the attainment of educational milestones by religion varied. Among younger adolescents, Muslim boys were most likely and those belonging to the Sarna religion were least likely (72% versus 61%) to have completed Class 5, while among girls of this age, Hindus and Muslims were about as likely as each other, and somewhat more likely than Christian girls and those belonging to the Sarna religion to have completed at least five years of schooling (66-69% versus 61%). Among those aged 15-21, more Hindu boys than Muslim boys, Christian boys and those from other religions had completed Class 10 (46% versus 25%, 27% and 40%, respectively), whereas among girls aged 15-21, more Muslims (49%) than Hindus (44%), Christians (40%) and those from belonging to the Sarna religion (28%) had completed Class 10. Fewer married girls belonging to each religion had completed Class 10, with more Hindu (38%), Muslim (41%) and Christian (39%) girls than those belonging to the Sarna religion (27%) having completed Class 10.

Figure 3.1 Educational attainment and current educational status



Caste differences were wide. Those belonging to general castes were the most likely to have completed schooling milestones (Class 5 for those aged 10-14 and Class 10 for those aged 15-21) in every group (74% among 10-14 year old boys and girls, 66-67% among boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21, 45% among married girls). Among girls aged 10-14 and married girls aged 15-21, achievement of educational milestones was similar among those from OBC and general caste households. Less likely to have achieved schooling milestones were adolescents from scheduled castes and particularly scheduled tribes and now, gender and marital status disparities were evident. For example, 64 percent of boys versus 56 percent of girls aged 10-14 from scheduled tribes had completed Class 5 (differences by scheduled caste are not observed); correspondingly, 30-34 percent of boys aged 15-21 from scheduled castes and tribes, versus 25-27 percent and 19-29 percent of unmarried and married girls, respectively, had done so.

Household economic status, as measured by wealth quintiles was positively associated with the achievement of schooling milestones. Among boys aged 10-14, 65 percent from households in the poorest (first) quintile had completed five or more years of schooling, compared with 72 percent of those from households in the wealthiest (fifth) quintile; among girls aged 10-14, corresponding percentages were 56 and 73. Differentials were wider among adolescents aged 15-21. Among boys, just 24 percent of those from the poorest quintile had completed Class 10, as compared to 62 percent of those from the wealthiest quintile. It increased, likewise, from 17 percent to 61 percent among unmarried girls aged 15-21, and from eight percent to 72 percent among married girls.

Differences in educational attainment by paid work status were negligible among younger adolescents and among older boys. However, among older girls, more of those who were not engaged in paid work at the time of the interview than those who were working had completed at least Class 10 (47% versus 38% among the unmarried, 43% versus 30% among the married).

Differences by parental education were mixed. Among girls aged 15-21, there was a clear positive association between both maternal and paternal educational attainment levels and girls' completion of Class 10. For example, among unmarried girls whose mother had no education, only 35 percent had completed at least Class 10 as compared to 69 percent of those whose mother had completed 10 or more years of schooling; the corresponding proportions among married older girls were 31 percent and 89 percent. Likewise, among unmarried older girls those whose father had no education, only 30 percent had completed at least Class 10 compared with 62 percent of those whose father had completed 10 or more years of schooling; the corresponding percentages among married older girls were 27 and 73. Among younger adolescents and older boys also, a generally similar pattern emerged.

Differentials by rural-urban residence were also observed and were particularly evident among older adolescents. Among those aged 10-14, while 65 percent of boys and girls in rural areas had completed Class 5, 70 percent of boys and 74 percent of girls in urban areas had done so. Among older adolescents, rural-urban differences were muted among married girls (36-38% had completed Class 10) but were wider among older unmarried adolescents: 35 and 38 percent of boys and unmarried girls, respectively, in rural areas had completed Class 10, compared with 58 and 55 percent, respectively, of those in urban areas.

Table 3.2 Educational attainment of adolescents by background characteristics
Percentage of younger adolescents who had completed five or more years of schooling and older adolescents who had completed 10 or more years of schooling, according to selected background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Background characteristics (percent)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married Girls (15-21)
Age					
10-12	51.3	NA	53.5	NA	NA
13-14	91.2	NA	90.2	NA	NA
15-17	NA	23.7	NA	28.3	(14.6)
18-19	NA	59.5	NA	63.7	33.6
20-21	NA	76.1	NA	77.5	51.6
Religion¹					
Hindu	66.4	45.7	68.7	43.8	37.7
Muslim	71.5	25.3	66.3	49.3	41.2
Christian	68.0	27.1	61.3	40.4	39.1
Sarna	60.9	39.5	60.9	27.5	27.3
Caste²					
SC	68.2	33.5	67.3	27.3	29.1
ST	64.2	30.2	56.2	25.0	18.6
OBC	65.8	44.5	70.6	48.7	47.3
General	73.5	65.8	73.5	67.2	44.8
Paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview					
No	66.2	41.9	66.9	46.7	42.7
Yes	70.2	41.7	69.9	38.3	30.3

Background characteristics (percent)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married Girls (15-21)
Wealth quintile					
First	65.2	23.9	56.3	16.8	(8.2)
Second	65.1	39.4	67.4	31.9	27.2
Third	64.3	34.1	71.4	45.0	35.9
Fourth	65.1	46.7	71.8	53.4	44.4
Fifth	72.3	61.9	73.2	60.9	72.2
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	68.7	34.2	68.0	35.1	31.0
1-7	62.4	46.9	66.7	46.4	64.3
8-9	73.3	70.9	80.5	63.1	72.2
10 and above	70.2	60.6	73.8	68.8	(88.9)
Don't know	56.9	(23.9)	(50.2)	(16.2)	(0.0)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	67.7	27.8	63.8	29.8	26.7
1-7	66.9	42.7	72.9	42.1	37.5
8-9	75.0	44.0	75.3	47.7	62.3
10 and above	70.5	62.3	74.5	62.2	72.9
Don't know	55.4	31.4	54.8	27.7	(19.4)
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	70.3	58.2	73.5	54.8	35.6
Rural	65.3	35.1	65.3	37.5	38.0

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. NA: Not applicable. ¹Other not shown. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; ³Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

3.3 REASONS FOR NEVER ENROLLING IN OR DISCONTINUING SCHOOLING PREMATURELY

A small number of adolescents had never been enrolled in school, and we probed the reason for this exclusion (Table 3.3). Respondents were asked to provide up to three reasons. We note that several reasons cited may be related to each other, for example, negative parental attitudes and perceptions about poor quality of school facilities and teaching. A number of obstacles were cited, and they were, for the most part, related to norms regarding the value of education, poverty and the demand for children's labour, and family illness or death. Very few boys aged 10-14 had never been to school, hence findings for this group and comparisons drawn must be interpreted cautiously.

A leading obstacle to enrolment was attitudinal (36-66%). For example, almost all younger boys (94%) compared to 42 percent of younger girls, and 32 percent of older boys compared to 19-23 percent of unmarried and married older girls reported that they themselves were "not interested" in going to school or had considered schooling unnecessary. Parental attitudes also presented a huge obstacle, for girls but not for boys. A large proportion of girls reported that it was their parents who did not consider education necessary for them (24% of younger girls, 17% of older unmarried girls and 31% of married girls); in comparison, just 1-4 percent of boys reported parental opposition.

A second set of reasons cited by all groups of adolescents were poverty-related or related to competing demands for children's labour (36-77%). For example, large proportions of both boys and girls of both ages reported that they were required to assist in housework, similar proportions of younger boys and girls (20-24%), but far more older girls than boys (51% and 27% of unmarried and married girls, compared to 14%

of boys). In contrast, few reported that they were needed to help on the family farm or business (under one percent of boys of both ages, and girls aged 10-14, 5-7% of older girls). While 19 percent of older boys reported that they had not been enrolled in school because they had to work for wages, few younger adolescents (2-3%) and older girls (5-8%) so reported. Many reported, finally, that the family could not afford to send them to school (28% of older boys, 7-13% of girls).

In contrast, far fewer reported school-related structural obstacles, few boys and 6-14 percent of girls, such as distance to school (0-3%), and difficult admission processes (0-2%). However, more girls than boys of each age cited the poor quality of schools, including the lack of female teachers, fears of corporal punishment and poor infrastructure and teaching (4-12% of girls, and no boys).

Several girls of all three groups and older boys (10-14%) reported that their own ill-health or a family illness or death had prevented them from being enrolled in school.

Table 3.3 Reasons for never enrolling in school
Percentage of adolescents who were never enrolled in school by reasons, Jharkhand, 2018

Reasons (percent)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Poverty-related and economic reasons					
Required for household work, care of siblings	(23.8)	13.6	19.6	51.3	27.4
Required for work on family farm/business	(0.3)	0.7	0.3	5.4	6.5
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	(1.9)	19.3	3.1	8.1	5.4
Family could not afford it (cost too much)	(1.1)	28.1	12.9	11.7	7.2
At least one poverty-related reason	(27.1)	61.7	35.9	76.5	46.5
Attitudes and perceptions of parents and adolescents					
Parents did not consider education important, or schools safe/parents preferred madarsa	(0.7)	4.1	24.1	17.0	31.5
Respondent not interested in studies, didn't consider education important/necessary	(94.3)	32.1	41.7	19.4	22.8
At least one attitude or perception-related reason	(95.4)	36.2	65.8	36.4	54.2
School-related reasons					
School too far away/transport not available	(0.0)	0.2	0.6	2.0	2.7
Poor quality of school facilities and teaching, including perpetration of corporal punishment, lack of female teachers	(0.0)	0.0	11.7	6.4	3.7
Admission related reasons	(0.4)	0.0	2.2	2.1	0.0
At least one school-related reason	(0.4)	0.2	14.4	10.5	6.4
Health-related reasons					
Respondent's illness or illness or death of a family member	(0.3)	13.6	10.9	10.2	14.2
Others/No reason/Don't know	(1.6)	0.3	4.8	12.4	1.7
Number who were never enrolled in school	38	79	85	118	253

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. Multiple responses (up to 3) were permitted. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases.

We also sought to understand, from adolescents aged 15-21 who had been enrolled but had discontinued their education before completing Class 12, reasons for premature school discontinuation. Findings, presented in Table 3.4, show a similar profile of obstacles to school continuation as we saw in the case of reasons for never having enrolled. Again, reasons could be clubbed under poverty-related demands for children's labour within and outside the home and lack of affordability, negative attitudes about the value of education in general and the value of education for girls in particular, family illness or death, and now, among married girls, marriage or pregnancy. School system related reasons were also cited but by fewer adolescents.

The three leading reasons cited by unmarried adolescents who had discontinued their education were poverty-related or economic, attitudes and perceptions of parents and adolescents, and school related reasons; a fourth reason, cited by many married girls, was their transition to marriage and motherhood. Gender differences, and among girls, differences by marital status, were pronounced.

Poverty-related or economic reasons were cited, for example, by more boys than girls (47% versus 30-41%) and by more unmarried than married girls (41% versus 30%). Many discontinued their education because they were required for household work, including tending household livestock and caring for younger siblings (12% of boys, compared to 17-20% of unmarried and married girls), and a few were required for work on the family farm or business (7% of boys versus 1-2% of unmarried and married girls). Some 17 percent of boys, compared to three percent of unmarried and married girls, had dropped out because they were required to perform wage work to support the households. Lack of affordability forced 9-10 percent of older boys and married girls to discontinue their education, increasing to as much as 18 percent among unmarried girls.

Frequently cited were negative attitudes about the value of education, and gender differences were wide, with more boys than girls reporting negative attitudes as a reason for school discontinuation (37% versus 28%). More specifically, boys were more likely than girls to cite lack of interest in studies or believed that education had no value (36% versus 12-14%), but less likely to cite negative parental attitudes about the value of education (1% versus 12-16%). Notably, safety issues were hardly ever cited (1-2% of girls, 0.2% of boys).

School related obstacles were cited slightly less frequently than poverty-related and attitudinal constraints. Nevertheless, 25 percent of unmarried girls compared to 15 percent of boys and 12 percent of married girls withdrew from school for school-related reasons. These included the fact that the secondary school was located too far away from home and transportation facilities were unavailable (cited by 10% of unmarried girls, and 5-7% of boys and married girls). Several boys and unmarried older girls had discontinued their education because they had failed in their examinations (8% and 12%, respectively, compared to 4% of married girls), and a small number had discontinued their education because they experienced trouble fulfilling admission requirements for the class into which they were to be admitted (0-1%). The poor quality of school infrastructure and teachers was rarely cited (1-3%).

Their own ill-health or the illness or death of a family member precipitated school discontinuation for nine percent of boys and 9-14 percent of unmarried and married girls.

Notably, one-third of married girls (33%) cited their marriage or pregnancy as the reason for discontinuation, highlighting the role of child marriage in depriving girls of an education.

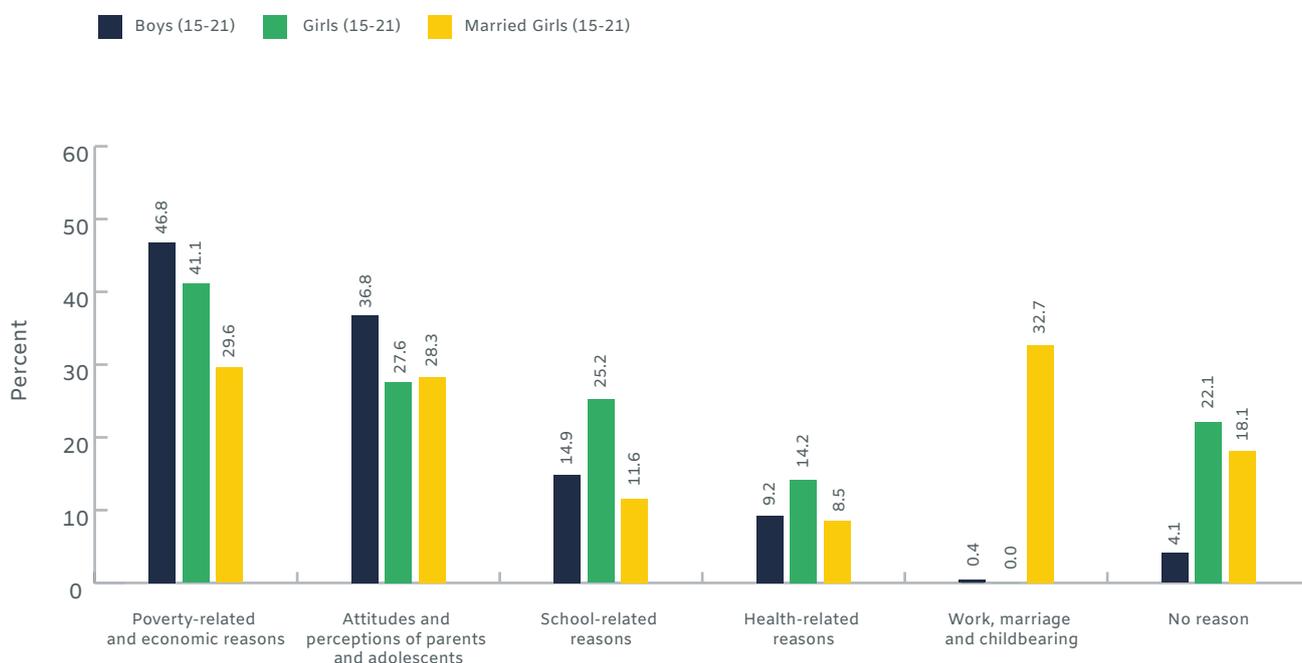
Finally, a large proportion of girls (18-22%) and few boys (4%) could not articulate a reason for premature school discontinuation, perhaps indicating that many girls were socialised from childhood with the expectation that they would discontinue their education prematurely.

Table 3.4 Reasons for premature school discontinuation
Percentage of ever-enrolled adolescents aged 15-21 who had discontinued schooling before completing Class 12 by reasons, Jharkhand, 2018

Reasons (percent)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Poverty-related and economic reasons			
Required for household work, tending household livestock, care of siblings	12.3	19.6	16.5
Required for work on family farm/business	7.2	0.8	1.5
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	17.4	2.6	2.9
Family could not afford it (cost too much)	9.9	18.2	8.8
At least one of the above	46.8	41.1	29.6
Attitudes and perceptions of parents and adolescents			
Parents did not consider education important	0.5	12.0	15.6
Parents did not consider schools safe	0.2	1.6	0.6
Respondent not interested in studies, didn't consider education important/necessary	36.1	14.0	12.2
At least one of the above	36.8	27.6	28.3
School-related reasons			
School too far away/transport not available	4.5	9.6	7.4
Poor quality of school facilities and teaching, including perpetration of corporal punishment, lack of female teachers	1.8	2.5	0.5
Failed in examinations	7.5	11.9	3.6
Admission related reasons	1.1	1.3	0.2
At least one of the above	14.9	25.2	11.6
Health-related reasons			
Respondent's illness or illness or death of a family member	9.2	14.2	8.5
Work, marriage and childbearing			
Got job	0.4	0.0	0.0
Got married	NA	NA	32.4
Became pregnant	NA	NA	0.3
At least one of the above	0.4	0.0	32.7
No reason	4.1	22.1	18.1
Number who discontinued schooling (10-14)/ discontinued schooling before completing Class 12 (15-21)	1,120	1,142	1,574

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Figure 3.2 Reasons for premature school discontinuation



3.4 DESIRE TO ENROL OR RE-ENROL IN SCHOOL AMONG THOSE WHO HAD NEVER ENROLLED OR HAD DISCONTINUED THEIR EDUCATION PREMATURELY

In order to assess the desire of adolescents who had never been to school about their interest in getting enrolled in school, we asked these adolescents whether they would be prepared to be enrolled in school if the opportunity arose. We also asked those who had discontinued their education before completing Class 12, about their interest in returning to school if an opportunity arose. Findings, presented in Table 3.5, show that among those who had never been to school, several boys but few girls would like to gain an education: 57 percent of the few boys aged 10-14 who had never been to school, compared to 23 percent of girls of this age, and 32 percent of boys aged 15-21, compared to just 6-7 percent of girls of this age. Among those who had discontinued their education, proportions prepared to return to school were larger overall (40-68%), with differences emerging by age, sex and marital status. More younger boys than older boys were prepared to return to school (68% versus 46%), whereas differences between younger girls and unmarried older girls were muted (63-65%). Gender differences were also evident: while somewhat more younger boys than girls were prepared to return to school (68% versus 62%), far more unmarried girls aged 15-21 than boys of the same age were prepared to do so (65% versus 46%). Differences by marital status among older girls were also pronounced, with far more unmarried than married girls ready to return to school (65% versus 40%).

Differences by intervention project status were observed among adolescents who had discontinued their education, among whom, more of those in comparison areas than intervention areas in four of the five groups wished to return to school (69% versus 55% among 10-14-year-old boys; 47% versus 42% among 15-21-year-old boys; 66% versus 55% among unmarried girls aged 15-21, and 41% versus 36% among married girls aged 15-21).

Adolescents who had never enrolled in school and preferred not to become enrolled, and those who had discontinued their school and did not wish to re-enrol were asked the reason. Age and gender differences were evident. Among younger boys, the three leading reasons were that they were did not want to (49%), that there was no specific reason (24%) and that they were already working (15%); among older boys in contrast, the leading reason was that they were already working (40%), but also that they were uninterested in returning to school (28%), could not offer a specific reason (11%) and believed they were too old (11%). Among girls, more than two in five of all three groups (43-46%) reported they were not interested. In addition,

among younger girls, 14 percent could offer no reason and 12 percent reported they would be too shy to return to school. Among older married and unmarried girls, other reasons also included that they would be shy or embarrassed to return to school (18-23%), and that they were too old (8-15%).

Reasons provided by adolescents in intervention and comparison areas for not wanting to be enrolled in school varied. For example, among younger girls, more of those from intervention than comparison areas believed their parents would not allow them to return to school (16% versus 8%), and fewer reported that they were shy or embarrassed (4% versus 13%). More older boys in intervention than comparison areas reported they were already working and hence had no desire to become enrolled in school (49% versus 38%). Among older girls, fewer unmarried and married girls in intervention areas than comparison areas reported they were not interested (35-39% versus 44-46%), and more unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas believed they were too old (13% versus 7%).

3.5 SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN THE WEEK PRECEDING THE INTERVIEW

Current enrolment in school or college, as reported, earlier does not imply that students attended school or college regularly. In order to measure the extent to which adolescents enrolled in schools or colleges actually attended regularly, we asked about the number of days that respondents had attended school or college in the week preceding the interview. Because many adolescents come to school late or leave before the school day ends, we also asked those who had attended at least one day about whether they had spent the full day in school, that is, neither arrived late nor left early. We define regular attendance in two ways: as attendance in school on all of the six days (or five days if the school was in session only five days) in the week prior to the interview during which the school was in session; and attendance throughout the day on each of the six days in that week. We note that the survey took place for several adolescents over the summer vacation months in which case the adolescent reported that the school was not in session; in this case, he or she was asked to report attendance in the last week during which school was in session.

Table 3.5 Desire to enrol or re-enrol in school
Percentage of adolescents who had never enrolled in school or had discontinued their education who are prepared to enrol or re-enrol in school and reasons for lack of desire to do so, Jharkhand, 2018

Desire to enrol or re-enrol	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Desire to get enrolled or get re-enrolled					
Desire to get enrolled in school	(57.2)	32.2	22.7	6.5	6.0
Number who were never enrolled in school	38	79	85	118	253
Desire to return to school	67.7	45.9	62.4	64.5	39.8
Number who had discontinued their education before completing Class 12	216	998	263	1,012	1,417
Reasons for not wanting to get enrolled or re-enrolled					
Scared	2.2	0.0	6.9	3.3	0.1
Doesn't want to/ not interested	49.1	27.8	45.6	44.4	42.8
Parents won't allow	0.3	1.3	8.6	6.4	2.7
Too old	0.9	10.7	2.8	8.2	14.9
Shy or embarrassed	2.5	6.8	11.8	17.7	22.8
Already working	15.3	39.5	6.2	4.6	2.9
No reason/don't know	23.5	11.2	14.1	7.6	5.0
Other	6.3	2.7	4.1	7.8	8.8
Number never been to school or not completed Class 12 and do not wish to return to school	111	658	141	485	1,086

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases.

Findings, presented in Table 3.6, show considerable absenteeism. Many adolescents either had not attended one or more days of school or had not spent the entire school day in school. For example, just 60-65 percent of adolescents, excluding married girls, had attended school daily, and somewhat fewer of these groups - 55-63 percent - had attended the full school day. Differences by age were not evident among boys, but more older than younger girls had attended school regularly (65% versus 60%) and had attended the full school day on each of these days (63% versus 55%). Gender differences were also observed: more younger boys than girls reported daily attendance for the full school day (60% versus 55%), and more older unmarried girls than boys had attended school on all six days of the previous week (65% versus 60%). Marital status differences were pronounced. While unmarried older girls were the group most likely to report regular attendance (65%), married girls were least likely to so report – just 29 percent of married girls reported regular attendance in school or college.

At the other extreme, 16-22 percent of unmarried adolescents had missed a few days of school in the previous week, and 2-4 percent had not only missed several days but had also not remained in school throughout the day. While gender differences were not observed, more younger than older adolescents had missed several days of school (21-22% versus 16-17%). Finally, 6-8 percent of younger adolescents and 14-20 percent of older adolescents had missed the entire previous week of school. Gender differences were not evident among younger adolescents, but many more older boys than girls had missed the entire week of school (20% versus 14%). As many as 70 percent of married girls had missed the entire previous week, suggesting huge disparities in school attendance by marital status.

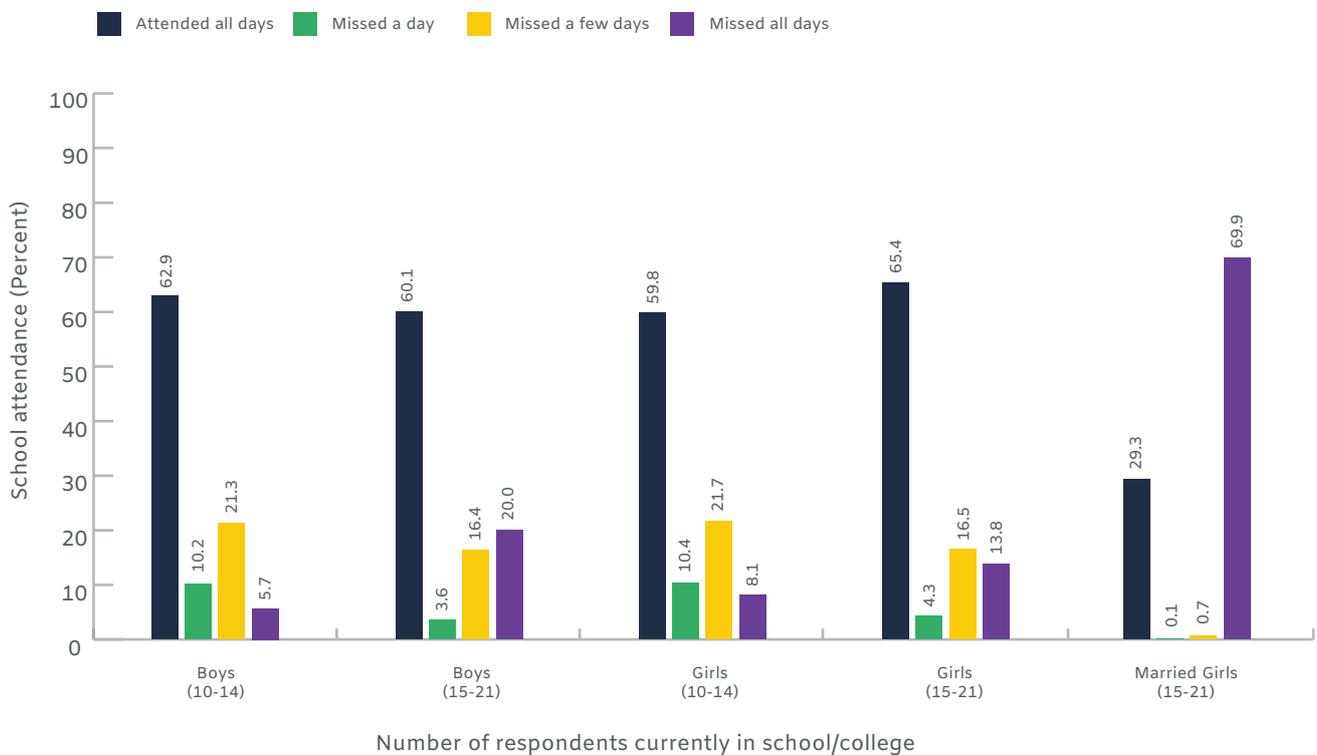
Differences between adolescents in comparison and intervention areas were stark among all but younger boys. For example, those in intervention areas were far more likely to report regular attendance than were those in comparison areas (72% versus 59% among older boys, 64% versus 59% among younger girls, 71% versus 65% among older unmarried girls, and 57% versus 25% among married girls). Percentages reporting regular daily attendance along with attendance during the full school day showed similar differences. Conversely, fewer older boys in intervention than comparison areas were irregular – 11 percent versus 17 percent had missed several days of school, and 13 percent versus 21 percent had missed the entire week. Likewise, fewer unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas had missed several days of school (12% versus 17%) and fewer married girls in intervention than comparison areas had missed the entire week (37% versus 75%).

Table 3.6 School attendance in the week preceding the interview
Percentage of adolescents who were attending school at the time of the interview by school attendance in the week prior to the interview¹ and percentage of adolescents who missed class in the week prior to the interview by reasons for absence, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of regularity of school attendance	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
School attendance in the week preceding the interview¹					
Attended all days	62.9	60.1	59.8	65.4	29.3
• Attended all days and regular	59.6	58.4	54.5	62.9	29.3
• Attended all days but irregular	3.4	1.7	5.2	2.5	0.0
Missed a day	10.2	3.6	10.4	4.3	0.1
• But attended full day	1.8	1.1	2.1	0.6	0.0
• Did not attend full day	8.3	2.5	8.3	3.7	0.1
Missed a few days	21.3	16.4	21.7	16.5	0.7
• But attended full day	18.4	14.0	17.4	12.1	0.7
• Did not attend full day	2.8	2.4	4.3	4.4	0.0
Missed all days	5.7	20.0	8.1	13.8	69.9
Number currently in school/college²	3,218	1,916	3,756	1,929	139

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Those who were interviewed during their school holidays and hence reported that school was not in session were asked to recall the week prior to the break. ²Excludes those who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of the interview.

Figure 3.3 School attendance in the week preceding the interview



Reasons for irregular school attendance are presented in Table 3.7. Leading reasons include demands on adolescents' time, such as, for work on the family farm or business or to perform housework responsibilities, attitudes, that is, the adolescent did not feel like attending school, and because of illness. Differences by age, and sometimes by sex and marital status, were stark. For example, illness was the leading cause of irregular attendance among younger adolescents (22-23%), but far less likely to be a reason among older adolescents (13-14% of boys and unmarried girls; 5% of married girls). Younger adolescents were also more likely than their older counterparts to express attitudinal reasons, namely that they had not felt like going to school (18-19% versus 13-14% of older boys and unmarried girls, and 6% of married girls). Large proportions of adolescents had missed school, moreover, because they were needed to work on the family farm or business: as many as 28 percent of older boys cited this reason, compared to far fewer from the remaining four groups (8-14%). Housework responsibilities were cited by 10-14 percent of boys, 15-24 percent of younger and older unmarried girls, and as many as 60 percent of married girls; more younger than older adolescents (14% versus 10% of boys; 24% versus 15% of younger and older unmarried girls), and more girls than boys (24% versus 14% of younger adolescents; 15% versus 10% of older adolescents). Several younger adolescents also cited family functions as a reason for irregular attendance (10% of boys and 15% of girls), a reason cited by far fewer older adolescents (1-7%). Many married girls (12%) also reported that they had not attended school or college because they were now married or because they were pregnant, and several older adolescents reported that private coaching times had conflicted with school hours (7-10% of older adolescents versus 1-2% of younger adolescents).

Differences between the responses of adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were observed inconsistently. For example, more older boys in intervention than comparison areas (16% versus 9%), reported irregular attendance because they were needed for household work (including tending household livestock) and more younger and older boys and younger girls in intervention than comparison areas cited family functions as a reason for their irregularity (16% versus 10%, 12% versus 2% and 19% versus 14%, respectively). In contrast, fewer older boys in intervention than comparison areas attributed their irregularity to lack of interest (8% versus 14%), poor quality of teaching (9% versus 19%), or clashes between the timing of their private coaching and school hours (4% versus 9%), and fewer younger girls in intervention than comparison areas attributed their irregularity to illness (18% versus 23%).

Table 3.7 Reasons for irregular school attendance
Percentage of adolescents who missed class in the week prior to the interview by reasons for absence, Jharkhand, 2018

Reasons for irregularity	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Lack of affordability and competing demands on adolescent's time					
Required for household work, tending livestock, care of siblings, children	13.6	9.9	23.8	14.7	59.6
Required for work on family farm/business	14.1	28.1	8.9	11.5	8.1
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0
Couldn't afford to pay school fees	0.5	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.0
Family function	10.4	2.8	14.8	6.9	1.1
Attitudes of adolescents					
Respondent did not feel like going	17.9	13.5	19.1	12.9	5.7
School-related reasons					
Punishment/harassment by teacher	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0
Poor quality of teaching/teacher absenteeism	5.4	17.9	4.1	11.1	1.1
Bullying by other students	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0
No transportation/ no one to escort respondent	1.9	5.3	2.2	11.6	0.2
No toilet	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Health-related reasons					
Respondent's illness	23.1	13.1	22.3	14.3	5.0
Illness or death of a family member	4.9	1.2	5.2	2.5	0.0
Monthly periods	NA	NA	0.4	0.5	0.0
Other reasons¹					
Bad weather	1.3	1.4	0.9	1.0	0.0
Taking private tuitions during school time	1.7	8.6	1.2	6.8	10.2
Marriage, pregnancy	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.6
Got late because school is far away	5.8	3.5	2.6	5.4	2.8
Did not have school uniform	1.6	0.4	1.3	0.1	0.0
Other	5.1	3.7	3.3	3.2	0.7
Number who were absent at least one day in the week prior to the interview	1,200	652	1,505	619	66

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. ¹Recoded from textual responses if respondent provided reasons not listed

We also asked those who had not attended regularly whether anyone had visited their home to inquire about their absenteeism. Very few adolescents responded affirmatively. Indeed, just five percent of younger boys and girls, 2-3 percent of older boys and unmarried girls, and just 0.4 percent of married girls confirmed that someone had visited them (not shown in table).

3.6 HOMEWORK TIME AND PARENTAL ENGAGEMENT IN ADOLESCENTS' SCHOOLING

We asked adolescents who were in school or college at the time of the interview about how much time they spent doing homework, and whether competing demands of the time of boys and especially girls precluded attention to studying at home. We also asked them about the number of times a parent visited their school in the six months preceding the interview (during which school was in session) and whether their parents encouraged them to study (Table 3.8).

Most adolescents reported that they spent more than one hour a day studying. More older adolescents than younger adolescents, more (unmarried) girls than boys, and more unmarried than married girls reported that they spent one or more hours per day studying at home. For example, 75 percent of older boys, compared to 63 percent of younger boys, and 82 percent of older unmarried girls compared to 63 percent of younger girls so reported. Gender differences were modest, but more older girls than boys reported studying for more than an hour daily (82% versus 75% of unmarried older girls and boys). More unmarried than married girls reported spending an hour or more on studies (82% versus 63%).

Findings were mixed with regard to parental engagement in adolescents' schooling. Many adolescents reported that their parents had never visited their school or college in the six months preceding the interview (when school or college was in session), but most adolescents reported that their parents encouraged them to study. As far as parental visits to adolescents' school are concerned, for example, younger adolescents were more likely than older adolescents to report that a parent had visited their school at least once in the six months preceding the interview (50% versus 25% of boys, 57% versus 41% of unmarried girls). More older girls than older boys and married girls reported a parental visit to their school or college (41% versus 25-26%, respectively). In contrast to these limited visits to their school, almost all adolescents reported that their parents encouraged them to study (92-96%, married girls were not asked this question).

Differentials between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were noted, but were not consistent over the five groups of adolescents. For example, among girls aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21, larger proportions of those in comparison than intervention areas reported studying for one hour or more daily (64% versus 57% and 83% versus 74% among younger and older groups, respectively), while differences for boys and married girls were modest. Parental visits to the adolescent's school or college were reported by more boys aged 15-21 in intervention than comparison areas (32% versus 25% had made at least one visit), but differences were modest for other groups.

Table 3.8 Homework time and parental engagement in adolescents' schooling
Percent distribution of adolescents who were enrolled in school or college at the time of the interview by time spent daily in homework, and parent's interaction with the education facility and parental encouragement of adolescents' education, Jharkhand, 2018

Schooling status	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Time spent daily in homework					
Less than half an hour/don't do	13.9	9.6	15.1	7.3	25.0
Between half an hour and one hour	23.7	15.3	21.7	10.4	12.6
One to two hours	36.5	25.1	34.0	30.6	36.0
More than 2 hours	26.0	50.1	29.3	51.6	26.5
Times a parent came to school in last 6 months					
0	50.1	74.7	42.7	58.8	74.4
1	17.2	10.3	17.4	14.8	14.2
2	15.7	10.0	22.6	14.4	3.4
3+	17.1	5.0	17.2	12.0	8.1
Parents encourage respondent to study					
Yes	95.4	91.7	94.6	96.2	NA
No	4.4	7.8	5.2	3.7	NA
Can't say	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.1	NA
Number of respondents currently in school	3,218	1,916	3,756	1,929	139

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

3.7 SCHOOL/COLLEGE TYPE, AND AMENITIES AVAILABLE

In order to assess school or college type and amenities available, we asked adolescents who were in school or college at the time of the interview whether they were enrolled in a government or private school or college (excluding those pursuing distance education), and likewise, asked those who had discontinued their education about the school or college they had last attended. We also inquired about whether the school or college had facilities such as drinking water, toilets in working order and separate toilets for girls, a playground or a library. Findings are presented in Table 3.9.

The majority of adolescents were enrolled in a government school or college; 63-73 percent of those aged 10-14, 71 percent of older boys and unmarried girls, and 81 percent of married girls aged 15-21. Enrolment in private schools or colleges ranged from 19 percent of married girls aged 15-21 to 37 percent of boys aged 10-14. Gender differences were evident for younger adolescents among whom more boys than girls were enrolled in private schools (37% versus 28%); no such differences were observed among older boys and unmarried girls (29% each), but married girls were far less likely than unmarried girls to be enrolled in a private school or college (19% versus 29%).

Findings also highlight that adolescents in intervention areas were more likely than those in comparison areas to have attended a government school than had those in intervention areas. Specifically, 74 percent and 80 percent of younger boys and girls in intervention areas, compared with 62 percent and 71 percent, respectively, of those in comparison areas were enrolled in a government school; the corresponding proportions among older boys were 79 percent and 70 percent, among unmarried girls were 80 percent and 70 percent each, respectively, and among married girls were 92 percent and 79 percent.

With regard to the availability of amenities in the school or college currently or most recently attended, almost all adolescents (96-98%) had access to drinking water. Most adolescents reported the availability of a playground: 82-83 percent of younger and older boys, and 89-92 percent of younger and older, including married, girls. Girls were more likely than boys to report access to toilets in working condition than boys (87% versus 80% among younger adolescents; 91 percent among unmarried older girls versus 78% among older boys). Unmarried girls were also more likely than their married counterparts to report access to toilets in working condition (91% versus 82%). More than four in five girls aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21 reported a separate toilet facility for girls in their schools/colleges (83-86%); fewer married girls so reported (74%). As far as library facilities are concerned, more older adolescents than younger adolescents, and more girls than boys reporting the availability of a library in their school or college. For example, 58 percent of older boys compared with 41 percent of younger boys reported library facilities, as did 72 percent of older girls compared with 56 percent of younger girls. Gender differences were also evident, with more girls than boys reporting access to library facilities (56% versus 41% among younger adolescents, and 72% versus 58% among older (unmarried) girls and boys. Notably, about as many married girls and boys aged 15-21 reported the availability of a library in their school or college (58% each).

Availability of all four amenities (drinking water, a playground, toilets, and a library) was far from universal, and wide differences by age, sex and marital status were observed. More older than younger unmarried adolescents went to schools or colleges in which all four facilities were available (43% versus 34% among younger adolescents, 60% versus 43% among older boys and unmarried girls). More girls than boys reported the availability of all four amenities (46% versus 34% of younger adolescents, 60% versus 43% of unmarried girls and boys aged 15-21). Finally, marital status differentials were evident among girls, with far fewer married than unmarried girls reporting attendance at a school or college in which all four facilities were available (46% versus 60%).

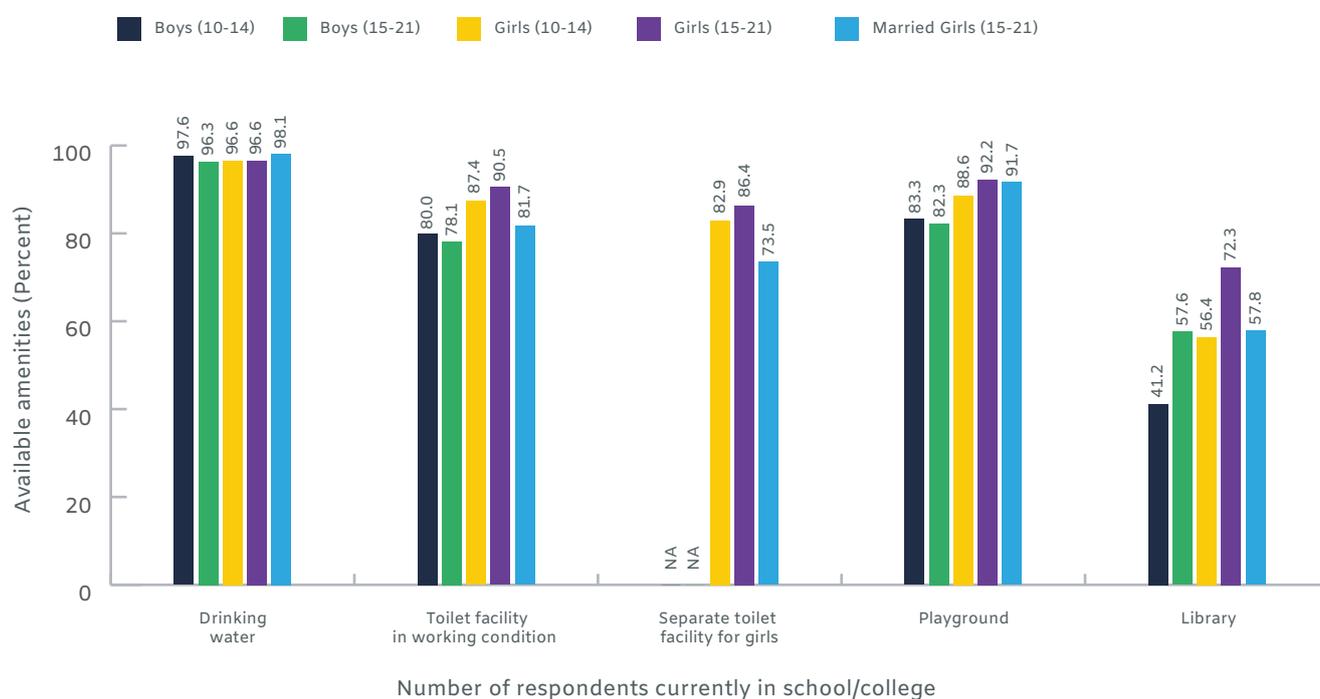
Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison sites were not observed, for the most part, in the availability of any of the four amenities. The only exceptions were among older boys and married girls. Among married girls, more of those in intervention areas than comparison areas report the availability of a separate toilet facility for girls (79% versus 73%); among both older boys and married girls, more of those from intervention than comparison areas reported the availability of all four facilities (47% versus 42% of older boys, 52% versus 45% of married girls).

Table 3.9 School/college type, amenities available in educational facilities
Percentage of adolescents currently enrolled in school or college by characteristics of educational facility in which they were enrolled at the time of the interview or at the time of discontinuing their education, Jharkhand, 2018

Facility characteristics	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Public or private school					
Government	63.3	71.4	72.5	71.0	80.6
Private	36.6	28.6	27.5	28.9	19.2
Don't know	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2
Available amenities					
Drinking water	97.6	96.3	96.6	96.6	98.1
Toilet facility in working condition	80.0	78.1	87.4	90.5	81.7
Separate toilet facility for girls	NA	NA	82.9	86.4	73.5
Playground	83.3	82.3	88.6	92.2	91.7
Library	41.2	57.6	56.4	72.3	57.8
All of the above	33.9	42.6	45.7	60.1	45.7
Number currently enrolled in school/college¹	3,434	3,036	4,019	3,071	1,713

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. ¹Excludes those who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of the interview.

Figure 3.4 Available amenities in educational facilities



3.8 PRIVATE COACHING

We asked all adolescents who were enrolled in school or college at the time of the interview about whether they had taken private coaching or tuition in the month preceding the interview. Findings, presented in Table 3.10, suggest that large proportions of adolescents – aside from married adolescents – had taken private tuition in the month prior to the interview, and proportions were similar among younger and older adolescents, and boys as well as girls. For example, 52 percent and 49 percent of boys aged 10-14 and 15-21, respectively, and 49 percent and 48 percent of girls aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21, respectively, had taken private tuition. In contrast, few married girls aged 15-21 had taken tuition (11%). Differences between those in intervention and comparison settings were evident, with those in intervention areas consistently less likely to have received coaching than those in comparison settings: 42 percent versus 53 percent among younger boys, 43 percent versus 49 percent among older boys, 36 percent versus 51 percent among younger girls, and 31 percent versus 50 percent among older unmarried girls. The pattern was narrower but reversed among married girls, with more girls from intervention than comparison areas reporting private coaching (17% versus 10%).

Table 3.10 Private tuition
Percentage of adolescents currently enrolled in a school/college¹ who had taken private tuition in the month prior to the interview, Jharkhand, 2018

Having private tuition	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Yes	51.8	48.7	48.9	47.6	11.1
No	48.2	51.4	51.1	52.5	88.9
Number of respondents	3,218	1,916	3,756	1,929	139

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Excludes those who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of the interview.

3.9 EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

We also inquired from adolescents who were pursuing their education from a school or college at the time of the interview about the level of education they wished to achieve. As presented in Table 3.11, aspirations were high. While one-fifth of younger adolescents (22%) and fewer than one-tenth of older adolescents (7-9%) could not articulate how much education they wanted, large proportions had clear educational aspirations, and many aspired to have a college education. Indeed, as many as 30 percent of girls aged 10-14 and 39 percent of boys of that age aspired to a college or professional degree, as did 72 percent of boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21 and 78 percent of the few married girls pursuing an education at the time of the interview. More older adolescents than younger adolescents aspired to a college or professional degree (72-78% versus 30-39%). Gender differences were also evident among younger adolescents, among whom more boys than girls aspired for a college education (39% versus 30%). Marital status differences were also observed, with more of the few married than unmarried girls aged 15-21 aspiring for a college education (78% versus 72%). Few aspired for just a secondary education (21-24% of younger adolescents, 4-5% of older ones), and relatively few aspired to complete a higher secondary school education (12-20%). Hardly any adolescents were content to have less than a secondary school education (0-5%).

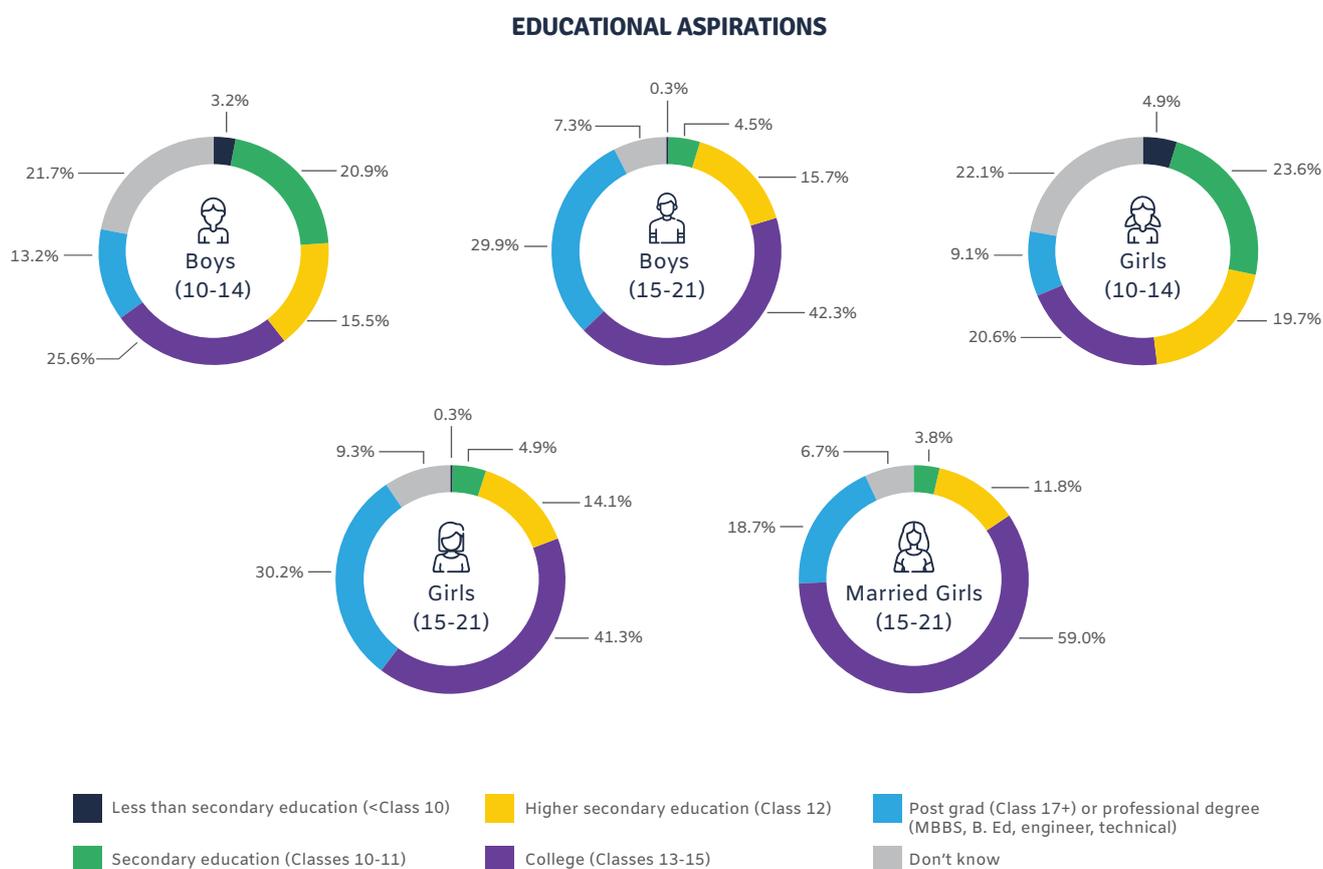
Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were muted, but observed among younger adolescents. Fewer younger boys and girls in intervention than comparison areas aspired for a college or professional education than did those in comparison areas (40% versus 28% of boys; 30% versus 25% of girls).

Table 3.11 Educational aspirations
Percentage of adolescents currently enrolled in school/college by level of education they aspire to achieve, Jharkhand, 2018

Level of education adolescents aspire to achieve	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Less than secondary education (<Class 10)	3.2	0.3	4.9	0.3	0.0
Secondary education (Classes 10-11)	20.9	4.5	23.6	4.9	3.8
Higher secondary education (Class 12)	15.5	15.7	19.7	14.1	11.8
College (Classes 13-15)	25.6	42.3	20.6	41.3	59.0
Post grad (Class 17+) or professional degree (MBBS, B.Ed, engineer, technical)	13.2	29.9	9.1	30.2	18.7
Don't know	21.7	7.3	22.1	9.3	6.7
Number pursuing their education in school or college¹	3,218	1,916	3,756	1,929	139

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹The table above excludes those who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of the interview.

Figure 3.5 Educational aspirations



3.10 AWARENESS AND UTILISATION OF ENTITLEMENTS FROM SCHOOL

Primary and secondary school going students attending government or government-aided schools can access a range of entitlements. Those attending primary school (Classes 1-8) are entitled to receive mid-day meals, textbooks and uniforms and those in secondary school (Classes 9-10) are entitled to receive scholarships and bicycles (or money to purchase bicycles). Table 3.12 presents findings on awareness of such entitlements as free uniforms and textbooks among those currently studying in a government or government-aided primary school, and of such entitlements as scholarships and bicycles among those who were studying in a government or government-aided secondary school or college (at least Class 9) or had discontinued their education after completing at least Class 9 (all of these respondents were or would have been eligible for entitlements).

Most adolescents were aware of the entitlements for which they were eligible. Awareness about entitlement to free uniforms or money to purchase uniforms, and free textbooks was reported by almost all (99-100%) of adolescents who were attending Classes 1-8 in a government school. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas in awareness of these two entitlements were negligible.

Among adolescents who were studying in, or had discontinued their education in Class 9 or a higher class, likewise, almost all were aware that secondary school students were eligible for scholarships or the bicycle scheme (97-100%). Differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were negligible across all groups.

Table 3.12 Awareness of entitlements from school
Percentage of eligible adolescents reporting awareness of selected entitlements from school, Jharkhand, 2018

Entitlements	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Free uniforms/ money to buy uniforms	99.4	100.0	99.6	100.0	-
Free textbooks	98.5	99.8	99.9	99.9	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	1,902	107	2,520	124	3
Scholarships	97.9	98.4	99.1	97.9	97.4
Free bicycle/money to buy bicycle	98.2	98.4	97.9	98.7	99.8
Number eligible to receive the entitlement²	304	1,657	362	1,706	739

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. ¹Number of adolescents enrolled in Classes 1-8 at the time of the interview or completed Classes 1-8 in the year preceding the interview in a government school. ²Number of adolescents completed Class 8 and currently in Class 9 or completed at least Class 9 irrespective of whether still studying in the years preceding the interview in a government school.

Table 3.13 describes the extent to which adolescents actually received the entitlements for which they were eligible. We restrict findings regarding receipt of such entitlements as free uniforms or money to buy uniforms, free textbooks and midday meals to those who were enrolled, at the time of the interview, in government-run primary schools (Classes 1-8). With regard to the midday meal, we asked eligible respondents whether they had received the midday meal on the last day they had attended school. Findings confirm that over nine in ten adolescents of all four groups had received free text books or money to purchase text books (91-99%). In addition, 93-96 percent of boys and girls aged 10-14 and girls aged 15-21 studying in primary school had received free uniforms or money to purchase uniforms and 91-93 percent of these adolescents had received the midday meal on the last day they had attended school. Somewhat fewer boys aged 15-21 had received each of these entitlements (84% each).

Adolescents who were studying in secondary school or college or had discontinued their education after studying in at least Class 9 were probed about whether they had received such entitlements for which they were eligible as scholarships and bicycles or money to purchase a bicycle. Table 3.12 shows that about three in five younger adolescents (58-61%), two-fifths of older girls (40%), and one-third of older boys (32%) had received a scholarship – more younger boys and girls than older ones (58-61% versus 32-40%), and among older adolescents, more girls than boys (40% versus 32%). Receipt of a bicycle or money to purchase one was reported by more younger than older boys (51% versus 34%) studying in at least Class 9, similar proportions of younger and older unmarried girls (38% and 39%, respectively), and considerably more married than unmarried older girls (59% versus 39%).

Differences between adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were observed with regard to a few entitlements. While receipt of uniforms and textbooks was similar across adolescents from both areas, the midday meal was more likely to have been accessed on the last day they had attended school by older boys in intervention areas (91% versus 83%) and older girls in comparison areas (94% versus 86% among girls). Scholarships were more likely to have been received by younger and older boys and unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas (66% versus 57%, 39% versus 31%, 46% versus 39%, respectively). Bicycles, too, had been received by more adolescents in intervention than comparison areas (43% versus 33% of older boys, 53% versus 35% of younger girls, 51% versus 37% of older girls). Differences were muted among younger boys and married girls

Figure 3.6 Awareness and reach of entitlements from school

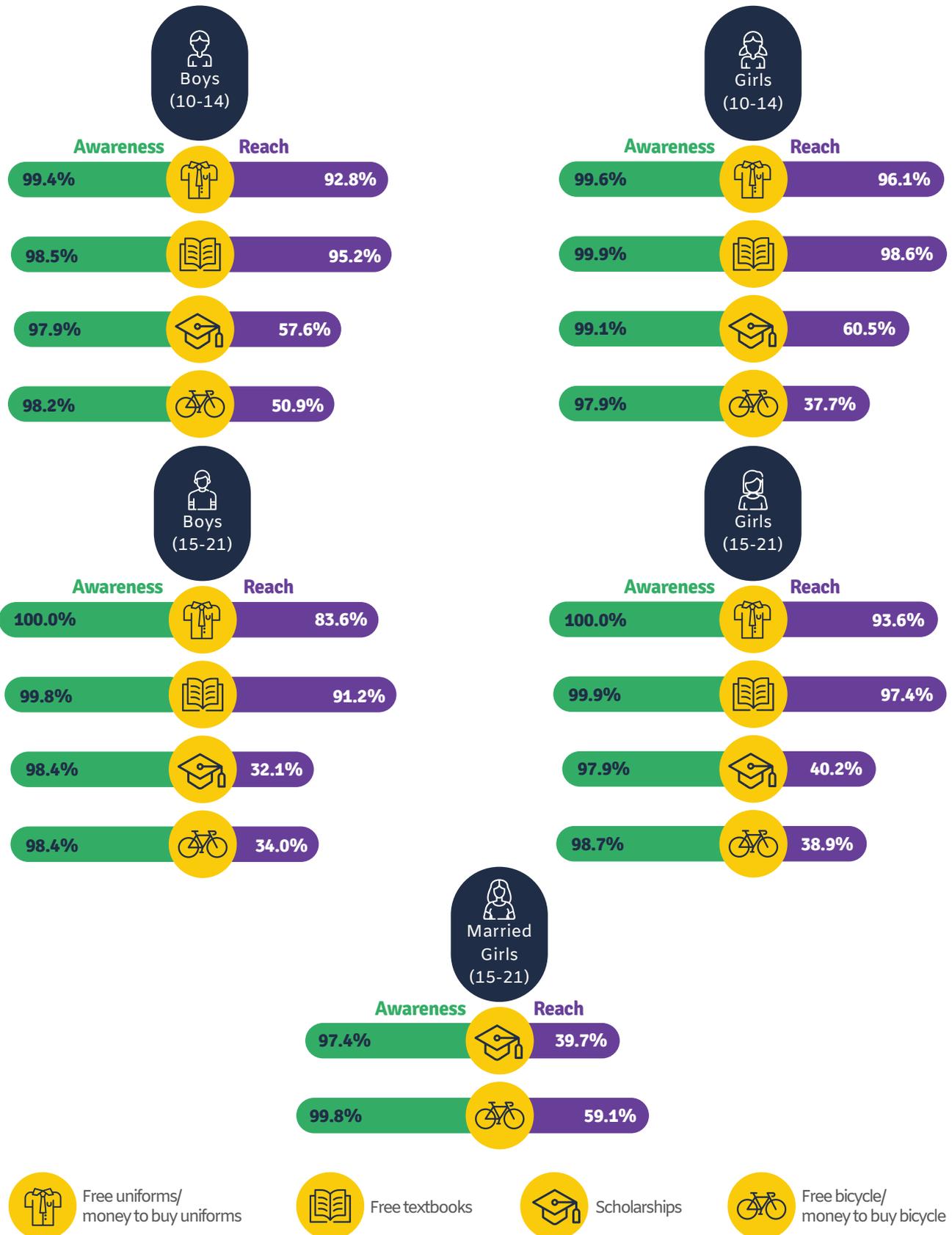


Table 3.13 Reach of entitlements from school
Percentage of eligible adolescents who received various schooling-related entitlements, Jharkhand, 2018

Entitlements	Boys	Boys	Girls	Girls	Married girls
	(10-14)	(15-21)	(10-14)	(15-21)	(15-21)
Free uniforms/ money to buy uniforms	92.8	83.6	96.1	93.6	-
Free textbooks	95.2	91.2	98.6	97.4	-
Midday meal on last day respondent attended school	91.5	83.7	90.5	92.7	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	1,902	107	2,520	124	3
Scholarships	57.6	32.1	60.5	40.2	39.7
Free bicycle/money to buy bicycle	50.9	34.0	37.7	38.9	59.1
Number eligible to receive the entitlement²	304	1,657	362	1,706	739

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases.¹Number of adolescents enrolled in Classes 1-8 at the time of the interview or completed Classes 1-8 in the year preceding the interview in a government school. ²Number of adolescents completed Class 8 and currently in Class 9 or completed at least Class 9 irrespective of whether still studying in the years preceding the interview in a government school.

We also probed the awareness of primary school going adolescents about the School Management Committee (SMC) and the Bal Sansad or children's parliament, their interaction with SMC members and their participation in Bal Sansad activities. School Management Committees are mandated to address the needs of government primary schools, and the Bal Sansad programme is implemented also at primary school level and intended to empower adolescents. Table 3.14 presents findings on the proportion of eligible adolescents who were aware of these facilities, who had contact with an SMC member and who had participated in Bal Sansad activities. We find that relatively few eligible adolescents had heard about SMCs (14-23% and even fewer knew someone who was a member of the SMC (8-17%) and hardly any (0-9%) reported that a SMC member had ever visited their home. Awareness of SMCs was more likely among older than younger adolescents (23% versus 14% for both boys and girls), while gender differences were negligible. While similar proportions of younger boys and girls were aware of someone who was a member of the SMC (8-9%), more older boys than girls were so aware (17% versus 10%). Likewise, while similar proportions of younger adolescents reported a visit from an SMC member (3%), more older boys than girls so reported (9% versus 0.4%).

As compared to the awareness of SMCs, far more eligible adolescents were aware of the Bal Sansad (68-92%). More older adolescents than younger adolescents reported awareness (72% versus 68% of boys; 92% versus 72% of girls), and among older adolescents, more eligible girls than boys knew about the Bal Sansad (92% versus 72%). Participation in Bal Sansad programmes was reported by far fewer (18-25%), more younger than older boys had participated in the Bal Sansad (25% versus 18%); age differences among girls were not observed (18-22%). Gender differences were mild.

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were largely mild, but some differences were observed. Fewer older boys from intervention than comparison areas were aware of SMCs (15% versus 24%), knew someone who was a member of an SMC (5% versus 19%), and had an SMC member visit their home (3% versus 10%). In contrast, more younger girls in intervention than comparison areas were aware of the SMC (18% versus 13%) and more older girls in intervention than comparison areas knew someone who was a member of a SMC (15% versus 9%). With regard to awareness of and participation in Bal Sansad activities, more older boys from intervention than comparison areas were aware of the Bal Sansad (81% versus 70%), and had participated in Bal Sansad activities (27% versus 16%). In contrast, among girls, the only notable difference was that fewer older girls from intervention than comparison areas reported awareness of the Bal Sansad (76% versus 94%).

Table 3.14 Awareness of School Management Committees (SMC) and Bal Sansad, and participation in and contact with these facilities

Percentage of adolescents attending primary school reporting awareness of School Management Committees and the Bal Sansad, and contact with the SMC and participation in the Bal Sansad programme, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness of and participation in SMC and Bal Sansad	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
SMC					
Heard about SMC	14.4	22.5	13.9	23	-
Knows someone who is a member	9.3	17.2	7.5	9.5	-
SMC member came home	2.5	9.0	3.4	0.4	-
Bal Sansad					
Aware of Bal Sansad	68.0	71.5	72.2	91.6	-
Participated in Bal Sansad	25.1	17.5	21.8	18.2	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	1,902	107	2,520	124	3

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. ¹Number of adolescents who were enrolled in Classes 1-8 at the time of the interview in a government school.

Figure 3.7a Awareness of and participation in or contact with SMC

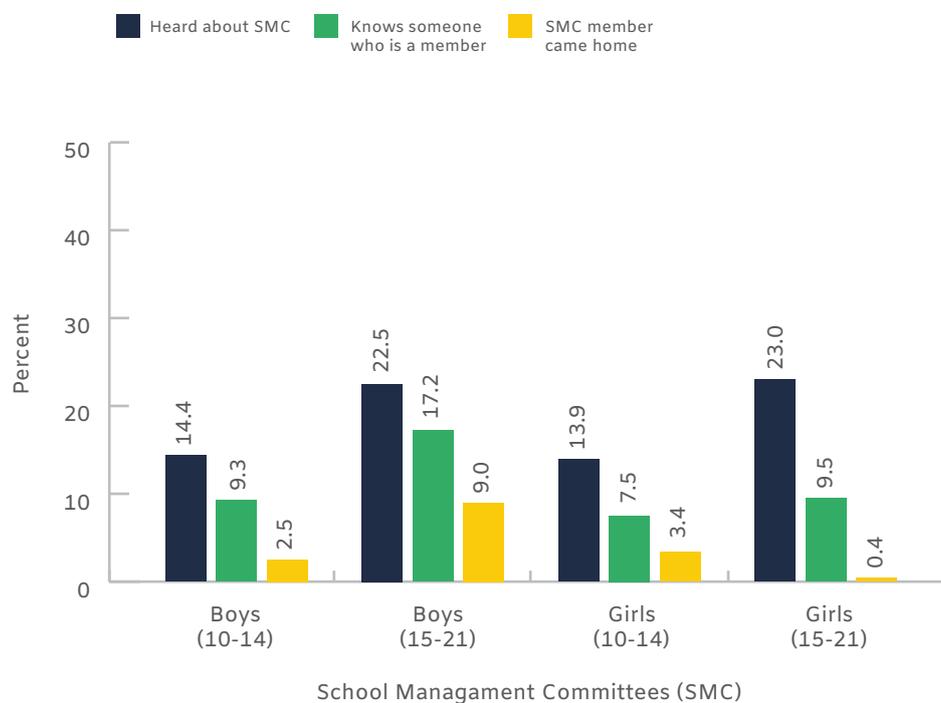
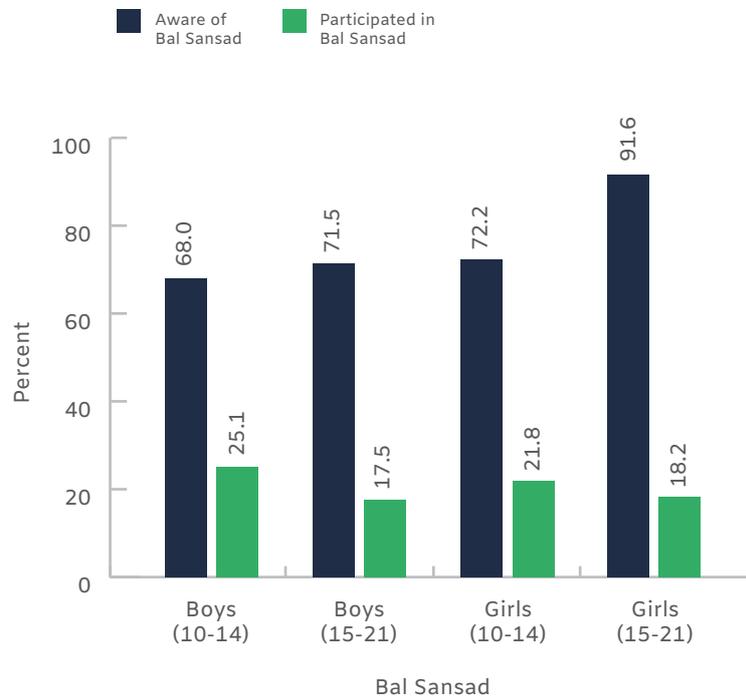


Figure 3.7b Awareness of and participation in Bal Sansad



3.11 GENERAL KNOWLEDGE, LITERACY, NUMERACY AND PRACTICAL NUMERACY SKILLS

In order to assess basic literacy and numeracy, general knowledge and practical day-to-day numeracy skills, we used tools developed and used by ASER (ASER Centre, 2019). Questions were posed only to those who had ever been enrolled in school. Findings are presented in Tables 3.15-3.17.

Literacy: Literacy was graded at five levels: ability to read a story (Class 2 level) in Hindi fluently without making more than three mistakes, a paragraph (Class 1 level) fluently without making more than three mistakes, ability to read just words but not a paragraph, ability to identify just letters but not words, and inability to identify even letters. All respondents were probed, and responses were grouped according to the highest level at which they performed. We define literacy as the ability to read a story fluently. Table 3.15 presents findings for those adolescents who had ever been to school.

Findings highlight that literacy outcomes were generally poor. Ability to read the short story prepared for Class 2 students was not universal in any group, with percentages able to do so ranging from just 47 to 73. Age, and among older girls, marital status differences were wide. Older boys and girls were far more likely to demonstrate literacy than their younger counterparts (73% versus 50% among boys, 70% among older unmarried girls aged 15-21 versus 47% among girls aged 10-14). Unmarried girls aged 15-21 were far more likely to demonstrate literacy than were married girls (70% versus 50%). Gender differences were not evident, however. At the other extreme, four percent of older adolescents, 6-7 percent of younger adolescents, four percent of older boys and unmarried girls, and 11 percent of married girls were not able to read even letters.

Differences in literacy by intervention programme status were observed among boys and married girls, among whom fewer of those in intervention than comparison areas demonstrated literacy skills. Differences of five or more percentage points were observed among boys aged 15-21 and married girls; while 68 percent of boys in intervention areas read the story fluently, 74 percent of those in comparison areas did so, and while 45 percent of married girls in intervention areas read the story fluently, 51 percent of those in comparison areas did so.

Numeracy: Numeracy was assessed, as in the case of literacy, at five levels: ability to complete a three-digit division sum, a two-digit subtraction sum with carry-over but not the division sum, identify two-digit numbers but not perform subtraction, identify just single but not double digit numbers, and not even identify single digit numbers. Again, all respondents were probed and responses were graded at the highest level at which he/she performed. We define numeracy as the ability to solve a three-digit division sum. Again, findings are presented only for adolescents who had ever been to school (Table 3.15).

Solving a 3-digit division sum proved difficult for all five groups, with percentages demonstrating numeracy ranging from 26-53. Age, gender and marital status differentials were evident (Table 3.15). For example, among boys, percentages ranged from 43 among those aged 10-14 to 53 among 15-21 year olds; for girls, from 31-43 among unmarried older girls). Gender differences were wide too: among 10-14 year olds, 43 percent of boys and just 31 percent of girls could correctly solve the division sums. Among older adolescents, 53 percent of boys and 43 percent of unmarried girls and just 26 percent of married girls had done so. At the other extreme, 0-3 percent of boys and girls could not even recognise a single digit, and percentages able to recognise only single digit numbers were as high as 20 percent among girls aged 10-14, and 17 percent among married girls.

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas in proportions correctly solving division sums were observed among all groups, and now, differences were wider than observed in the case of literacy. Those in intervention areas were less likely than those in comparison areas to demonstrate numeracy skills (33% versus 44% among boys aged 10-14, 26% versus 32% among girls aged 10-14, 48% versus 55% among boys aged 15-21, 35% versus 44% among unmarried girls aged 15-21, and 18% versus 27% among married girls).

Table 3.15 Literacy and numeracy levels
Percentage distribution of adolescents who were ever enrolled in school by levels of literacy and numeracy, Jharkhand, 2018

Literacy and numeracy levels	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Literacy levels					
Can read Class 2 text (story)	49.5	72.9	47.4	69.7	50.1
Can read Class 1 text (paragraph) but not story	17.3	9.2	15.7	11.4	12.5
Can read words but not para	9.9	5.3	9.8	5.2	9.5
Can read letters but not words	17.6	8.9	19.8	9.9	17.0
Cannot read even letters	5.7	3.8	7.3	3.8	11.0
Numeracy levels					
Can solve a division problem	42.8	53.4	31.1	42.8	25.8
Can solve a subtraction problem but not division	21.3	16.4	20.3	19.6	15.5
Can recognise double-digit numbers but not subtraction	27.0	26.4	26.0	27.5	38.8
Can recognise single-digit numbers but not double digit	8.1	3.2	20.0	8.9	17.1
Cannot recognise even single-digit numbers	0.9	0.3	2.5	1.2	2.8
Number ever enrolled	3,435	3,071	4,019	3,119	1,746

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

General knowledge: In order to assess general knowledge, respondents were asked three questions: the name of the capital of India, the state in which they resided, and any one neighbouring state (of five). Findings, presented in Table 3.16, show that knowledge was far from universal, with percentages ranging from 70-92 for knowledge that Jharkhand was their state of residence, to 37-70 for knowledge that Delhi is the capital of India, to 18-63 for knowledge of the name of at least one state neighbouring Jharkhand. Age and gender differences, and, among girls aged 15-21, differences by marital status, were evident on each of the three indicators. For example, more older adolescents than younger adolescents knew that Delhi is the capital of India (70% versus 54% of boys; 60% versus 44% of unmarried girls). Gender differences were also wide, with more boys than girls at each age aware that Delhi is the capital of the country (54% versus 44% of younger boys and girls, respectively; 70% versus 60% of older boys and unmarried girls, respectively). Married girls were far less likely than their unmarried counterparts to identify Delhi as the country's capital (37% versus 60%). A similar pattern was observed for knowledge of the state of residence, and ability to identify a neighbouring state.

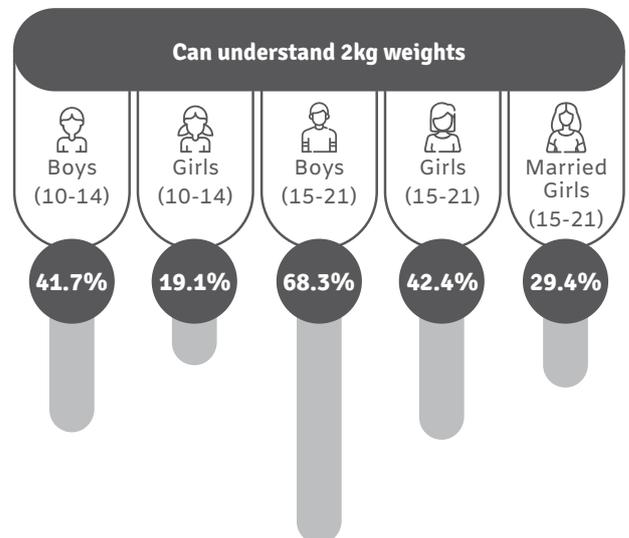
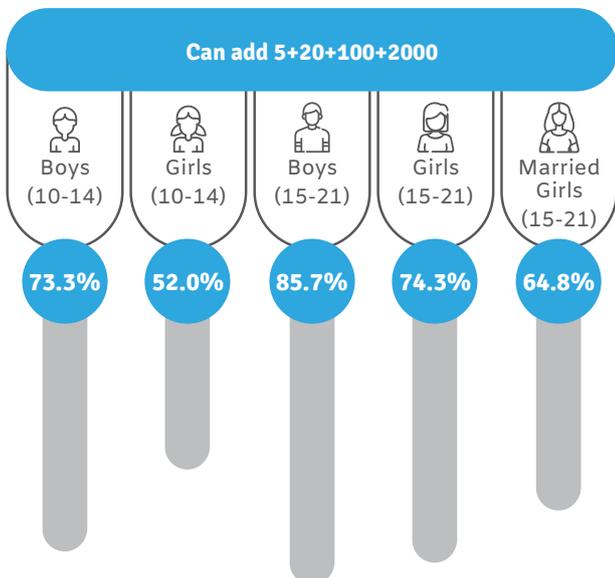
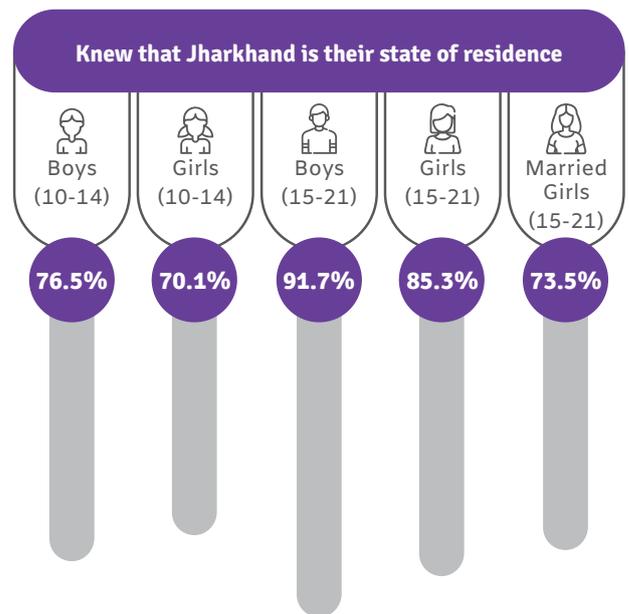
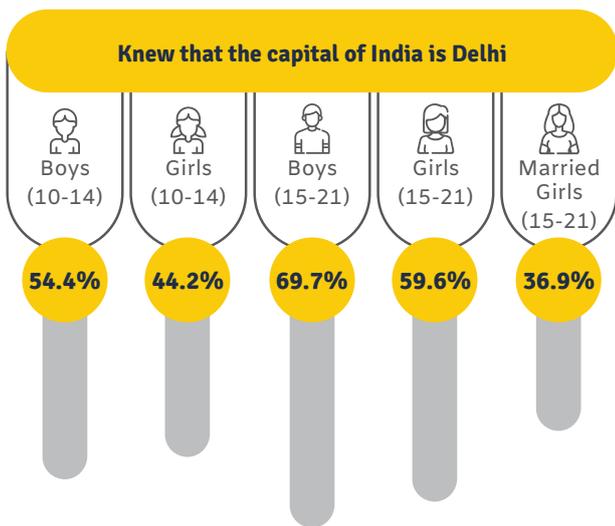
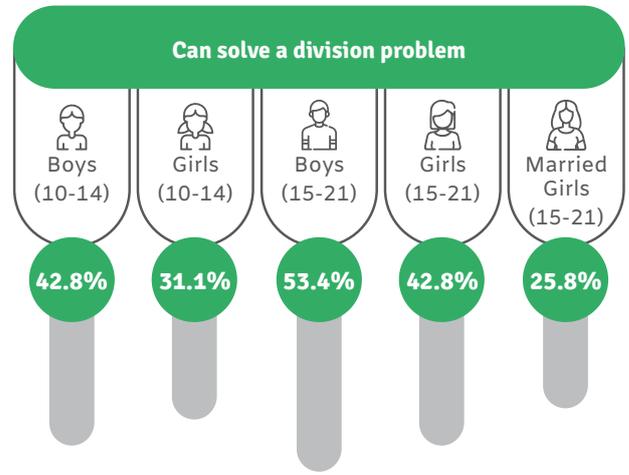
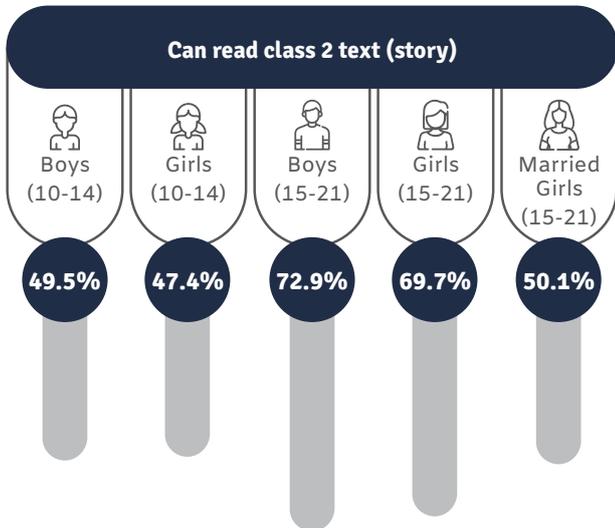
Differences in these indicators of general knowledge between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were observed inconsistently but highlighted below are instances in which differences of five or more percentage points were observed. More adolescents in comparison than intervention areas reported general knowledge. Among boys aged 10-14, differences were observed across all three indicators (77% versus 71% for knowledge that Jharkhand is their state of residence; 55% versus 50% for knowledge that Delhi is the capital of India; and 32% versus 24% for ability to identify at least one state neighbouring Jharkhand). Aside from boys aged 10-14, more girls in comparison than intervention areas were aware that Delhi is the nation's capital (45% versus 38% of 10-14 year olds; 60% versus 55% of older unmarried girls; 38% versus 31% of married girls), more older boys in comparison than intervention areas knew that Jharkhand is their state of residence (92% versus 87%), and more boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21 in comparison than intervention areas could identify a state neighbouring their own (32% versus 24% of younger boys; 64% versus 55% among older boys; 41% versus 33% among girls).

Table 3.16 General knowledge levels
Percentage distribution of adolescents who were ever enrolled in school by basic general knowledge levels, Jharkhand, 2018

General knowledge levels	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
What is the capital of India					
Delhi	54.4	69.7	44.2	59.6	36.9
Other	10.8	9.4	18.9	14.7	21.2
Don't know	34.9	20.9	36.9	25.8	41.9
What is state of residence					
Jharkhand	76.5	91.7	70.1	85.3	73.5
Other	8.5	3.1	11.3	8.0	8.8
Don't know	14.9	5.2	18.6	6.7	17.8
Knows at least one state neighbouring their own					
Mentions Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, Uttar Pradesh or West Bengal	31.4	63.0	17.6	39.7	22.1
Other	13.7	8.4	18.5	18.2	16.7
Don't know	54.9	28.7	63.9	42.2	61.1
Number ever enrolled	3,435	3,071	4,019	3,119	1,746

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 3.8 Learning outcomes



Practical numeracy: In addition, we asked three questions relating to practical day-to-day calculations: whether the respondent could add money (Rs. 5+ Rs. 20 + Rs. 100 + Rs. 2000), whether he or she could add up a set of weights in grams and kilograms (adding to two kilograms) displayed to the respondent, and whether the respondent could do comparison shopping (a list of books with prices as advertised in two shops was shown to the respondent (one offering all five books for a lump sum price and the other offering each book individually) and the respondent was asked to indicate from which shop he or she would prefer to purchase the books, and how much the purchase would cost. Findings are presented in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17 Practical numeracy levels
Percentage distribution of adolescents who were ever enrolled in school by ability to perform practical calculations, Jharkhand, 2018

General knowledge levels	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Can add 5+20+100+2000					
Right	73.3	85.7	52.0	74.3	64.8
Wrong	18.7	12.2	30.9	19.6	22.3
Don't know	8.0	2.1	17.2	6.1	12.9
Can understand weights					
2 k.g.	41.7	68.3	19.1	42.4	29.4
Answer only in grams	6.8	5.0	7.3	5.4	6.0
Other	39.6	22.6	43.1	37.1	44.3
Don't know	12.0	4.2	30.5	15.2	20.4
Can do comparison for shopping (Shop¹)					
Yes	49.3	60.3	38.7	51.2	30.1
No	50.7	39.7	61.4	48.8	69.9
Number ever enrolled	3,435	3,071	4,019	3,119	1,746

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹The respondent was given a card with pictures of 2 shops selling an identical set of books. Shop 1 sold each book separately, and Shop 2 showed a special "sale" rate for all five books together; Shop 1 was shown to charge less (Rs. 270) than Shop 2. The respondent was asked to indicate the shop from which he/she would prefer to make the purchase, and for those who indicated Shop 1, the amount they would have to pay."

Adolescents' ability to perform these everyday calculations was limited, and age, gender, and, among older girls, marital status differences remained evident. Older adolescents were more likely than their younger counterparts to be able to count money accurately (86% versus 73% among boys; 65-74% versus 52% among girls). Gender differences were marked: 73 percent of boys aged 10-14 could count money accurately, compared to far fewer girls of this age (52%); among older adolescents, percentages ranged from 86 among boys to 65-74 among girls. Marital status differences were also evident among older girls, with more unmarried than married girls able to count money (74% versus 65%).

Fewer adolescents were able to provide an answer (in kilograms) summing the various weights shown to them, and again age, gender and, among older girls, marital status differences were evident. Among younger adolescents, 42 percent of boys compared to just 19 percent of girls correctly reported that the sum of the weights was two kilograms. Among older boys and unmarried girls, 68 percent and 42 percent, respectively, answered correctly, and among married girls, even fewer did so (29%). A similar pattern was observed with regard to comparative shopping; 49 percent versus 39 percent of younger boys and girls, respectively, 60 percent versus 51 percent of older boys and unmarried girls, respectively, and 30 percent of married girls correctly identified the shop offering the set of books at a lower price and correctly stated the price of the purchase.

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were observed in a few instances, specifically among younger boys and unmarried older girls. Among both groups, more of those from comparison than intervention areas could count money (74% versus 69%; 75% versus 69%, respectively) and do comparative shopping (50% versus 40%; 52% versus 43%). In addition, more unmarried girls aged 15-21 from comparison than intervention areas could correctly calculate weights (43% versus 37%).





CHAPTER 4

ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, CAREER ASPIRATIONS, LIVELIHOOD SKILLS TRAINING, ACTIVITY STATUS AND MIGRATION

India has made many commitments to address the skilling needs of the country, as evident from the National Policy on Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, 2015, calling for quality skill building opportunities, particularly of its youth (Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, 2015). Notwithstanding these commitments, unemployment remains high, particularly among youth. The reluctance of the Government of India to release or endorse the National Sample Survey Office's (NSSO's) 2017-2018 findings, together with findings from other assessments (see, for example, Centre for Sustainable Development, Azim Premji University, 2019) highlight a spike in unemployment in 2017-18, with youth and young adults between the ages of 15 and 29 facing higher rates of unemployment than others, a finding corroborated also by earlier NSSO reports (National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), 2014). Indeed, reports suggest that youth aged 20-24 years are hugely over-represented among the unemployed (Centre for Sustainable Development, Azim Premji University, 2019).

The transition into economic activity takes place for many during adolescence, and for many, it is premature, seasonal and in unskilled occupations. In this chapter, we focus on economic activity profiles of adolescents in Jharkhand. In particular, this chapter explores their participation in economic activity and the kinds of occupations in which they were engaged, employment-seeking, and awareness of and access to facilities and programmes intended to support employment generation. The chapter also explores the career aspirations of adolescents, and among older adolescents, the extent to which livelihood skill building opportunities have been accessed, the extent to which an unmet need for livelihood skill building remains, and the array of skills in which adolescents seek training. It summarises adolescents' activity status – in school or college, remunerated employment or, in the case of older adolescents, attendance in a livelihood skill building programme in the year preceding the interview. Finally, we describe the migration experiences of adolescents, including their reasons for migration.

In this chapter, we present adolescents' reports on each of these issues for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

4.1. ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

In order to assess economic activity profiles, we asked respondents to report whether they had ever engaged in unpaid work on the family farm, tended to family livestock or in the family business, and whether they had done so in the 12 months preceding the interview. We also inquired about whether they had ever engaged in remunerated work, done so in the 12 months preceding the interview and if so, their main occupation, and whether that work was for the major part of the year. Findings are presented in Table 4.1 (and Appendix Table 4.1).

Lifetime economic activity: A large proportion of adolescents had been engaged in paid or unpaid work at some point in their lives, as seen in Table 4.1. Proportions ranged from 53 percent among girls aged 10-14 to

89 percent among boys aged 15-21. Unpaid work dominated, with far more adolescents in each group reporting engagement in unpaid than paid work. Age, gender, and among older girls, marital status disparities, were wide. Older adolescents were far more likely than were younger adolescents to have been engaged in any economic activity (65-89% versus 53-67%), unpaid work (54-83% versus 50-66%), and paid work (39-48% versus 12-19%). Boys were considerably more likely than girls at each age to have been engaged in any work (67-89% versus 53-74%), unpaid work (66-83% versus 50-67%), and, among older adolescents, paid work (48% versus 39-40%). Among younger adolescents, however, more girls than boys had been engaged in paid work (19% versus 12%). Marital status differences suggest that about as many married as unmarried girls had ever been engaged in paid work (39-41%), but more married than unmarried girls had been engaged in unpaid work (67% versus 54%) and any work (74% versus 65%).

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were observed across all groups. Overall, with the exception of older boys and married girls, more adolescents in intervention than comparison areas had performed either paid or unpaid work: 73 percent versus 67 percent of younger boys, 63 percent versus 51 percent of younger girls, and 74 percent versus 64 percent of older unmarried girls. Participation in unpaid work on the family farm or business revealed a similar pattern among these three groups. In contrast, more older boys and all three groups of girls from intervention than comparison areas had ever been engaged in wage work (53% versus 47% of older boys, 33-51% versus 17-38% among the three groups of girls).

Economic activity in the 12 months preceding the interview: Economic activity in the 12 months preceding the interview was reported by almost as many adolescents as those reporting lifetime economic activity among boys and unmarried girls (64-87% of boys, 49-61% of younger and older unmarried girls). Among married girls in contrast, far fewer reported working in the 12 months preceding the interview than over the course of their life. 53 percent (down from 67%) had engaged in unpaid work, and 26 percent (down from 41%) had engaged in paid work, perhaps because newlywed girls are engaged in housework responsibilities and childbearing, and may be restricted to the home. For the remaining four groups, similarities between lifetime and recent work profiles suggests that once they enter the workforce, most adolescents continue to perform paid or unpaid work.

Paid work was reported by 8-16 percent of younger adolescents and 26-44 percent of older adolescents, with wide gender and, among older girls, marital status differentials. Among younger adolescents, more girls than boys reported working for wages in the year preceding the interview (16% versus 8%), among older adolescents, fewer girls than boys so reported (26-34% versus 44%). Married girls were less likely than their unmarried counterparts to report wage work in the year preceding the interview (34% versus 26%).

Differences in economic activity in the 12 months preceding the interview (of five or more percent) between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were more likely to be observed among girls than boys. In all three groups of girls, those from intervention areas were more likely than their counterparts from comparison areas to report any paid or unpaid work (60-70% versus 47-59%), unpaid work (55-61% versus 45-53%) and paid work (29-45% versus 14-33%). In contrast, among younger boys, those in intervention areas were more likely than those in comparison areas to report either unpaid or paid work (70% versus 64%) and unpaid work (69% versus 62%), and among older boys, more of those in intervention than comparison areas reported unpaid work (85% versus 80%).

Wage work profiles: Adolescents who reported working in the year preceding the interview were probed about the number of months in the preceding year that they had worked in all, as well as their main occupation. Findings suggest that overall, wage work was seasonal, and relatively few adolescents who had worked for wages had done so for the major part of the year preceding the interview (6 months or more). As Table 4.1 shows, 13 percent and six percent of boys and girls aged 10-14, respectively, 17-18 percent of married and unmarried girls aged 15-21, and 36 percent of boys aged 15-21 had been engaged in wage work for six or more months. At the other extreme, 77-87 percent of younger boys and all girls, 64-71 percent of older girls, and 41 percent of older boys had worked for less than three months in the 12 months preceding the interview.

Wage work comprised agricultural or unskilled non-agricultural occupations for most adolescents. However, far more girls than boys reported agricultural labour (63-86% versus 12-27%). In contrast, far more boys than girls had been engaged in non-agricultural labour (58-60% of boys versus 7-12% of girls). Several older

adolescents, including married girls, also reported skilled labour activities (15-19% compared to 4-5% of younger adolescents).

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were observed in some instances. For example, occupation profiles suggest that fewer adolescents (excluding married girls, among whom no difference was observed) in comparison areas than in intervention areas were engaged in agricultural labour. Wage work for the major part of the preceding year was reported by similar proportions of older boys, and younger and older unmarried girls in intervention and comparison areas; however more younger boys in comparison than intervention areas (15% versus 5%) and fewer married girls in comparison than intervention areas (15% versus 26%) had worked for wages in the major part of the year preceding the interview. Differences were inconsistent with regard to engagement in unskilled non-agricultural work and skilled labour across the five groups.

Child labour: In India, wage work for those aged less than 14 is prohibited. Despite this, we find that child labour is prevalent in Jharkhand. Of those aged 10-13, 10 percent of boys and 17 percent of girls had ever worked for wages. Differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were mild among boys (13% versus 9% respectively) but substantial among girls (30% versus 15% respectively), with more of those in intervention than comparison areas reporting child labour.

Employment seeking: We asked all older adolescents whether they were seeking work at the time of the interview, that is, whether they had sent in applications, enquired about job opportunities with others, perused advertisements and so on. Findings show that as many as 37 percent of boys and 15-17 percent of girls reported that they had sought paid work in these ways; differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were negligible.

Table 4.1 Economic activity

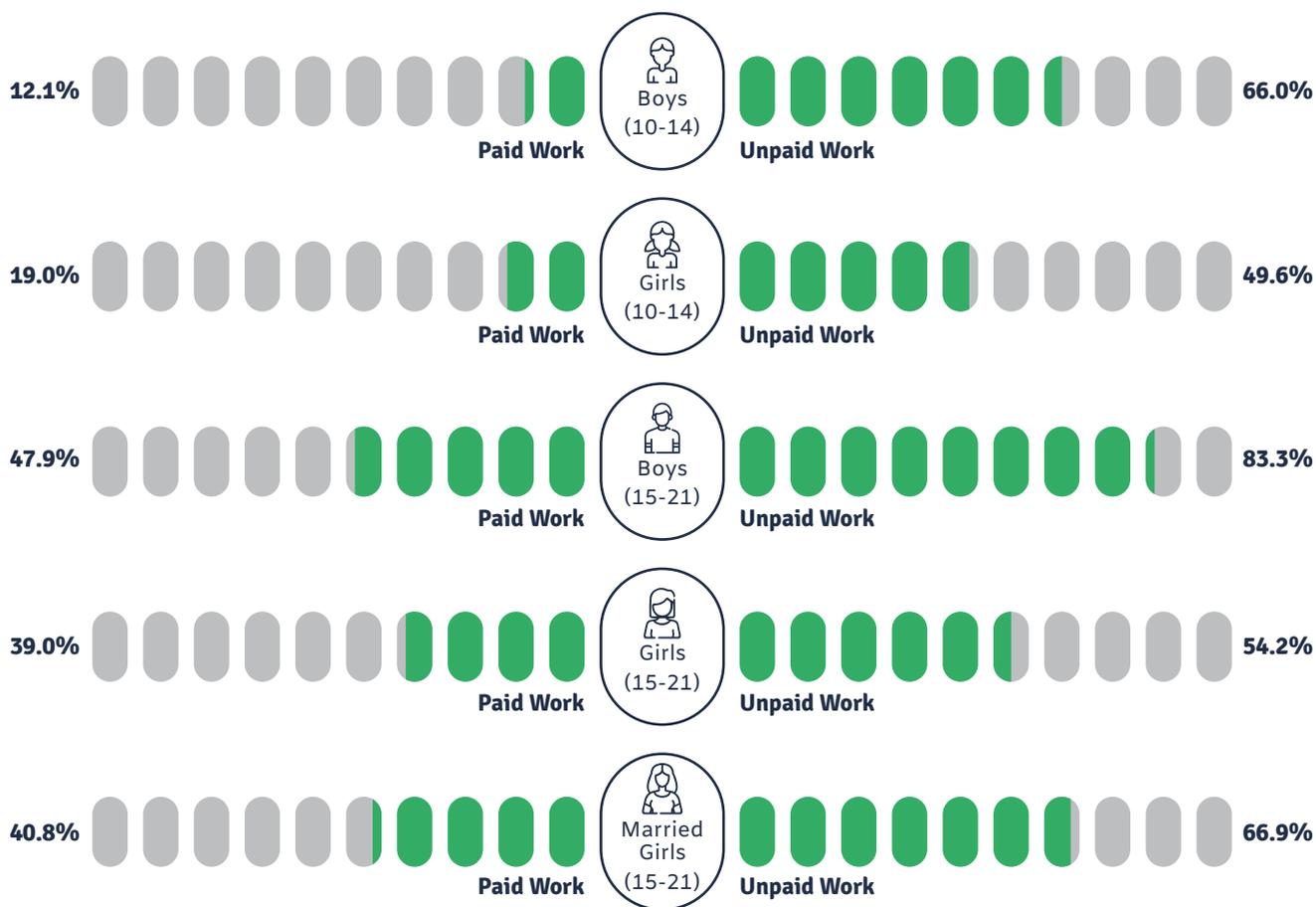
Percentage of adolescents who had ever worked and who had worked in the 12 months preceding the interview, and percent distribution of adolescents who had been engaged in paid work in the last 12 months by duration of work and main occupation, Jharkhand, 2018

Economic activity	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Ever worked					
Paid work	12.1	47.9	19.0	39.0	40.8
Unpaid work	66.0	83.3	49.6	54.2	66.9
Either paid or unpaid work	67.3	89.1	52.5	65.0	73.9
Ever worked in the 12 months preceding the interview					
Paid work	7.9	43.8	15.7	34.1	25.6
Unpaid work	62.8	80.5	46.6	50.8	53.3
Either paid or unpaid work	64.2	86.6	48.7	60.5	58.8
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Duration of paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview					
Most of the year (6 months or more)	13.2	36.0	5.8	17.9	17.2
Part of the year (3-5 months)	9.4	22.9	6.8	11.4	18.7
Rarely (less than 3 months)*	77.4	41.1	87.4	70.7	64.1
Main occupation (paid work)					
Agricultural labour	27.0	11.8	86.3	63.3	66.7
Unskilled non-agricultural labour	59.6	58.4	7.4	12.3	10.5
Administrative/managerial/clerical	7.3	6.5	1.2	4.0	1.1
Skilled labour	5.0	17.5	3.8	19.2	15.4

Economic activity	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Business	0.2	2.1	0.0	0.0	1.5
Others	0.9	2.4	0.1	0.3	4.4
Don't know/Missing	0.0	1.4	1.3	0.9	0.5
Number engaged in paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview	315	1,373	866	1,240	644
Child labour					
Started working for pay before age 14	9.5	NA	16.7	NA	NA
Number of adolescents aged 10-13	2,870		3,336		
Employment seeking					
Currently seeking paid work	NA	36.5	NA	16.9	14.7
Number of respondents		3,150		3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. *includes 46 cases reporting don't know.

Figure 4.1 Ever engaged in paid or unpaid economic activity



4.2 ENGAGEMENT IN PAID WORK BY BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

Table 4.2 shows disparities in engagement in paid work in the year preceding the interview across a range of background characteristics. Findings show that engagement in paid work increased with age among boys (from 5 % among those aged 10-12 to 66% among those aged 20-21); and among unmarried girls, (12% among those aged 10-12 to 39% among unmarried girls aged 20-21). Differences by religion were modest, except that Muslim girls were less likely than girls of any other religion to have worked for wages in the year preceding the interview (7-20% versus 14-70%). Christian girls and those belonging to the Sarna religion were generally more likely than those belonging to other religions to have worked (32-70% versus 7-32%); disparities among boys were more modest.

Caste-wise differences were wide and consistent. Adolescents belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes (among married girls, only scheduled tribes) were more likely to have been engaged in paid work in the year preceding the interview than those from other castes (12% versus 6% among younger boys; 55-68% versus 32-40% among older boys; 18-34% versus 4-10% among younger girls; 30-64% versus 25-27% among older unmarried girls; and among married girls, 45% among those from scheduled tribes versus 18-20% of others, including those from scheduled castes).

As expected, those currently attending school or college were far less likely to have worked for wages in the 12 months preceding the interview than were those who were not. In addition, there was a fairly consistent inverse association between the number of years of education that the respondent had completed and his/her engagement in wage work in the year preceding the interview. A similar inverse association was also observed between household economic status and engagement in paid work, as well as between the number of years of education completed by the respondent's mother and father and engagement in wage work.

Finally, with the exception of younger boys, rural residents were far more likely than their urban counterparts to have been engaged in paid work in the 12 months preceding the interview (47% versus 37% among older boys, 20% versus 2% among younger girls, 39% versus 25% among older unmarried girls, and 28% versus 12% among married girls).

4.3 AWARENESS AND UTILISATION OF GOVERNMENT PROGRAMMES AND SCHEMES FOR SKILL-BUILDING AND EMPLOYMENT GENERATION

A range of schemes and programmes exist that are intended to facilitate access to skill building and employment generation. For example, the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), provides 100 days of guaranteed work to eligible households, the Jharkhand Skill Development Mission is intended to link individuals with training opportunities for which they are eligible, government administered employment exchanges exist that are intended to link job seekers with available employment opportunities, and training facilities are generally available at the district level. Loan facilities are also available for those interested in self-employment. We probed awareness of these programmes and schemes, among those aged 15–21, and the extent to which those aged 18–21 had made use of these programmes and schemes. Findings are presented in Table 4.3.

Among those aged 15-21, large proportions had heard about the MGNREGA programme (72-78%), with married girls somewhat more likely than boys and unmarried girls to report awareness (78% versus 72-74%). Girls were far more likely than boys to have heard about the availability of loans to start a business (74-75% versus 53%). Unmarried girls were also more likely than both boys and married girls to know about the Jharkhand Skill Development Mission (43% versus 30-33%), but relatively few of any group knew about employment exchanges or employment counselling centres (9% of married girls, 17-18% of boys and unmarried girls) or the location of livelihood skills training centres that offered training under the Mission (11-16%). Differences in awareness of these programs and schemes between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were observed in some indicators. For example, fewer boys and unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas were aware of employment exchanges or employment counselling centres (11% versus 18-19%), fewer girls in intervention than comparison areas were aware of the Jharkhand Skill Development Mission (25% versus 34% among married girls; 35% versus 44% among unmarried girls), and fewer married girls in intervention than comparison areas were aware of the availability of loans to start a business (71% versus 76%) or knew the location of a livelihood skills training centre under the Jharkhand

Table 4.2 Engagement in paid work in the 12 months preceding the interview by selected background characteristics
Percentage of adolescents who were engaged in paid work in the 12 months preceding the interview by selected background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Background characteristics (percent)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Age					
10-12	4.5	NA	12.2	NA	NA
13-14	13.5	NA	21.3	NA	NA
15-17	NA	32.1	NA	31.3	28.7
18-19	NA	55.2	NA	38.5	22.1
20-21	NA	66.2	NA	38.8	27.3
Religion¹					
Hindu	6.6	42.4	13.6	31.9	25.6
Muslim	9.7	43.7	7.1	20.3	14.2
Christian	21.2	45.6	31.9	67.3	42.3
Sarna	11.7	52.7	44.6	70.2	50.7
Caste²					
SC	11.6	67.9	18.3	29.7	17.8
ST	12.2	54.8	33.8	63.8	45.2
OBC	5.6	31.5	10.3	25.4	19.6
General	5.5	39.5	3.8	26.8	20.2
Current schooling status³					
No	34.7	71.6	40.6	47.1	26.2
Yes	6.1	27.9	13.8	26.4	16.9
Completed years of schooling					
None ⁴	(64.0)	76.6	50.5	57.7	27.7
1-4	5.8	47.6	12.0	56.5	41.8
5-7	7.9	44.6	16.3	56.0	28.1
8-9	9.7	42.7	16.0	29.5	24.8
10-11	0.0	44.1	2.0	26.5	20.0
12 and above	0.0	41.8	0.0	34.5	22.9
Wealth quintile					
First	13.5	54.3	28.5	54.1	41.3
Second	6.4	55.5	20.1	45.2	28.4
Third	8.5	44.1	11.4	29.5	24.2
Fourth	7.9	44.0	13.4	25.7	17.4
Fifth	2.8	28.2	2.1	21.7	14.6
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ⁴	9.1	51.5	21.8	38.1	27.2
1-7	6.6	37.2	9.9	26.5	20.4
8-9	3.3	40.0	9.2	25.9	15.7
10 and above	7.0	19.5	2.5	25.6	11.4
Don't know	8.7	29.9	11.8	54.1	33.0

Background characteristics (percent)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ⁴	9.7	50.3	23.7	45.3	28.2
1-7	9.1	51.3	16.8	35.1	18.3
8-9	5.7	33.7	12.6	22.1	15.0
10 and above	6.3	33.4	8.4	26.4	30.0
Don't know	7.8	49.5	11.8	35.1	25.7
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	4.7	36.9	2.4	25.4	11.8
Rural	9.2	46.6	20.4	38.5	28.0

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ³Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school. ⁴Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

Skill Development Mission (10% versus 16%). In contrast, a larger proportion of unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas were aware of the MGNREGA programme (78% versus 71%).

Very few adolescents aged 18–21 had actually used these programmes and schemes. The MGNREGA scheme, for which only rural respondents are eligible, was availed by just four percent of rural boys and 1-2 percent of rural girls. The remaining two, for which all adolescents are eligible, namely, access to self-employment related loans, and services from an employment exchange or counselling centre, were used by just 0-3 percent of girls and 1-4 percent of boys, respectively. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed, with one exception: more rural boys and girls in intervention than comparison areas had received employment under the MGNREGA programme (13% versus 2% among boys; 7% versus 1% among unmarried girls; 5% versus 0% among married girls).

Table 4.3 Awareness and utilisation of government programmes and schemes for skill-building and employment generation
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 reporting awareness of government programmes for skill-building and employment generation, and percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 who had made use of these programmes and schemes, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness and use of programmes, schemes	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Awareness of programmes/schemes			
Heard about MGNREGA	74.3	71.9	77.8
Heard about schemes for loans for men/women	53.4	73.7	75.1
Heard about Jharkhand Skills Development Mission	30.4	42.8	32.7
Heard about employment exchanges or employment counselling centres	16.6	18.1	9.4
Knows any training centres that offer training under the Mission	10.8	15.3	15.6
Number of respondents (aged 15-21)	3,150	3,237	1,999
Use of programmes/schemes			
Received employment under MGNREGA	3.8	2.2	0.9
Number of rural respondents (aged 18-21)	1,056	839	1,348
Received loan to start or expand business	1.0	0.3	2.9
Sought services from employment exchanges or employment counselling centres	4.0	0.8	0.6
Number of respondents (aged 18-21)	1,403	1,208	1,596

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 4.2a Awareness of and employment under MGNREGA

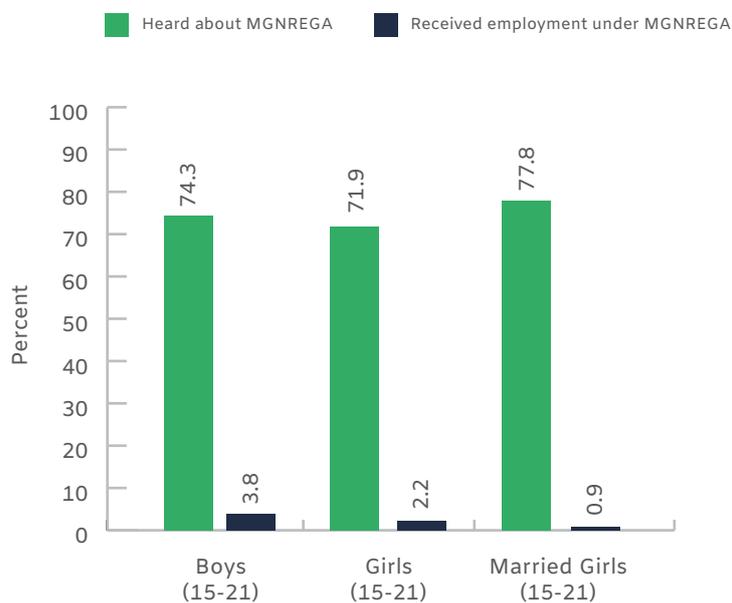
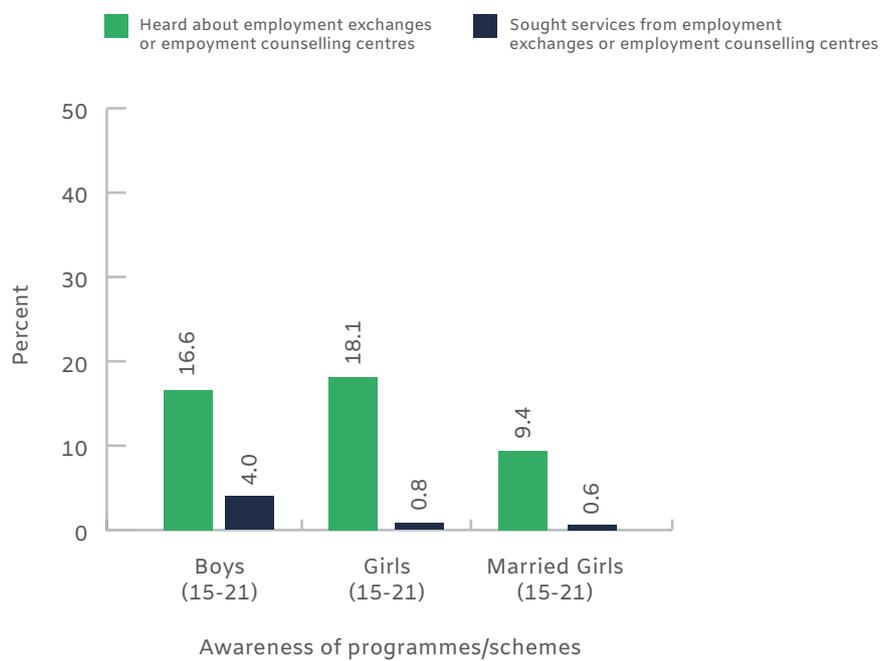


Figure 4.2b Awareness of and services sought from employment exchanges or employment counselling centres



4.4 CAREER ASPIRATIONS

Aside from exploring adolescents' work profiles at the time of the interview, we also probed their career aspirations, or the profession or economic activity they wished to pursue in adulthood. Findings are presented in Table 4.4.

Adolescents reported a range of career aspirations, with wide age, gender, and marital status differentials (among older girls). Leading career choices among younger and older boys were fairly similar. For example, among those aged 10-14, leading preferences were to join the police or armed forces (25%), or to become an engineer (15%), doctor (11%) or teacher (7%). Among boys aged 15-21 too, joining the police or armed forces was the leading preference (24%), followed by entering or starting a business (10%), becoming an engineer (10%), and working in a bank, as an accountant or in administration (6%).

Adolescent girls displayed a completely different set of aspirations. Among those aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21, the majority aspired to become a teacher (24% and 20%, respectively). Other careers to which girls aged 10-14 aspired included becoming a doctor (17%), joining the police or armed forces (9%) and becoming an engineer (5%), while unmarried girls aged 15-21 opted for a career in the police or armed forces (10%), becoming a doctor (9%), working in a bank, as an accountant or in administration (8%), and becoming an ANM or nurse (7%). Married girls displayed a somewhat different profile. Most married girls who articulated what they would do in future indicated that they would be homemakers (15%); however, several others aspired to become a teacher (11%), a tailor (8%), or an ANM or nurse (5%).

At the same time, many had not thought about a career. More than half of married girls (52%) reported that they did not know or had not thought about a career. In contrast, 25-28 percent of boys, and 29-35 percent of younger girls and older unmarried girls had not thought about a career.

Adolescents in intervention and comparison areas articulated a similar set of career aspirations.

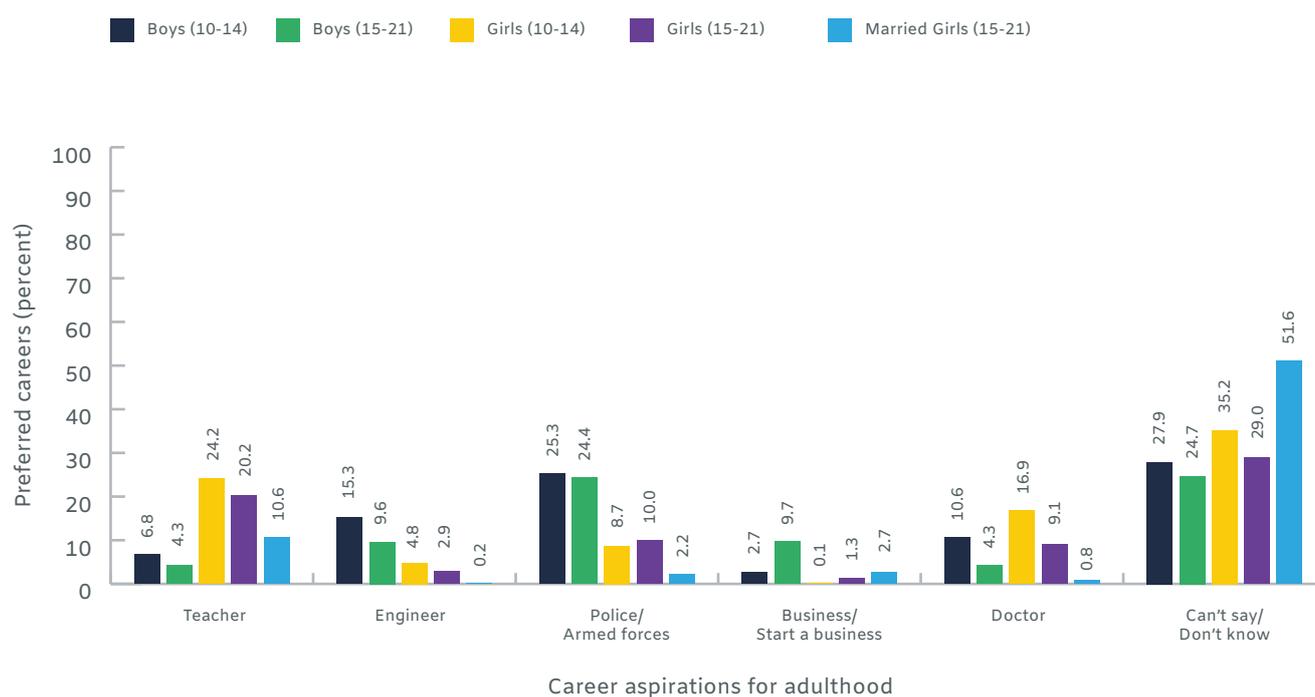
Table 4.4 Career aspirations for adulthood
Percentage of adolescents reporting the kinds of careers they would like to pursue in adulthood, Jharkhand, 2018

Preferred careers (percent)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Teacher	6.8	4.3	24.2	20.2	10.6
Engineer	15.3	9.6	4.8	2.9	0.2
Police/Armed Forces	25.3	24.4	8.7	10.0	2.2
Business/start a business	2.7	9.7	0.1	1.3	2.7
Doctor	10.6	4.3	16.9	9.1	0.8
Banking, administration, accountant	2.2	6.3	2.7	8.1	0.6
ANM/nurse	0.0	0.0	3.3	6.6	4.6
Tailor	0.2	0.6	0.7	3.7	7.7
Homemaker	0.0	0.0	0.3	3.4	15.1
Lawyer	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.9	0.3
Plumber	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Electrician	0.2	1.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Anganwadi worker/ASHA/Sahayika	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.5	2.7
Beautician	0.0	0.1	0.3	1.7	0.9
Sportsperson	3.2	2.0	0.3	0.1	0.0
Agricultural activities	0.4	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Airlines/hotel/chef (hospitality)	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.0

Preferred careers (percent)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Artiste (actor, artist, film work..)	1.0	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.0
Computer/applications	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.1	0.0
Construction/factory	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Driver/mechanic	1.5	3.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
Journalist/reporter, writer	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.0
Politics	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Railways/govt. job	0.6	3.6	0.1	0.6	0.0
Scientist/social work	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.0
Other	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0
Can't say/don't know	27.9	24.7	35.2	29.0	51.6
Total	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 4.3 Career aspirations for adulthood



4.5 PARTICIPATION IN AND PREFERENCES FOR LIVELIHOOD SKILL BUILDING PROGRAMMES

Our study inquired about whether respondents aged 15-21 had attended any livelihood skills training programme, and if so, the type of institution that conducted the programme they had attended, the skill in which they had sought training, and whether they had completed the course attended. We also asked whether adolescents had wished to attend a programme, but were unable to do and the reasons for not attending a programme. Finally, we sought their views about the kinds of programmes they would like to attend in the future, if offered.

Participation in livelihood skill training programmes: The extent of adolescents' exposure to livelihood skill building training programmes is provided in Table 4.5. Overall, few adolescents had ever attended a formal livelihood skill training programme – just 12 percent of boys and 19-22 percent of girls. In the year preceding the interview, just seven percent of boys, 13 percent of unmarried girls and six percent of married girls had done so. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were muted among boys, but among girls, more of those in comparison than intervention areas had been exposed to a skill building programme ever (20-22% versus 13-16%).

The kinds of programmes for which boys and girls had opted in the year preceding the interview differed considerably. The leading training programmes that boys had attended were computer training (72%), and auto mechanics or electrical work (14%). Among girls, the leading programmes were, in contrast, tailoring and computer training, as well beauty parlour skills; however, the proportions exposed to each of these varied considerably. Far more married than unmarried girls opted for tailoring (80% versus 49%). Far fewer married than unmarried girls opted for computer training (5% versus 32%); and similar proportions of married girls and unmarried girls opted for beauty parlour skills training (5% of married girls, 9% of unmarried girls). Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

The majority of adolescents who had attended a skills training programme in the year preceding the interview had been enrolled in a private institution – 67 percent of boys and 57–61 percent of girls. In contrast, just 31 percent of boys and 37-43 percent of girls had been enrolled in a government institution. Differences between girls in intervention and comparison areas were negligible. However, among boys, a somewhat larger proportion from the intervention than comparison areas had been enrolled in a government institution (39% versus 29%) and correspondingly, fewer in a private institution (59% versus 68%).

Of adolescents who had attended a livelihood skill training programme in the year preceding the interview, almost half of boys (47%), two-fifths of unmarried girls (41%) and one-third of married girls (34%) had completed the course. At the time of the interview, moreover, about one-third of boys (35%) and unmarried girls (32%) were pursuing the course, compared to just 18 percent of married girls.

While numbers are small, a few differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas may be drawn. Boys in intervention areas were somewhat less likely than their counterparts in comparison areas to have completed the course for which they were enrolled (41% versus 48%).

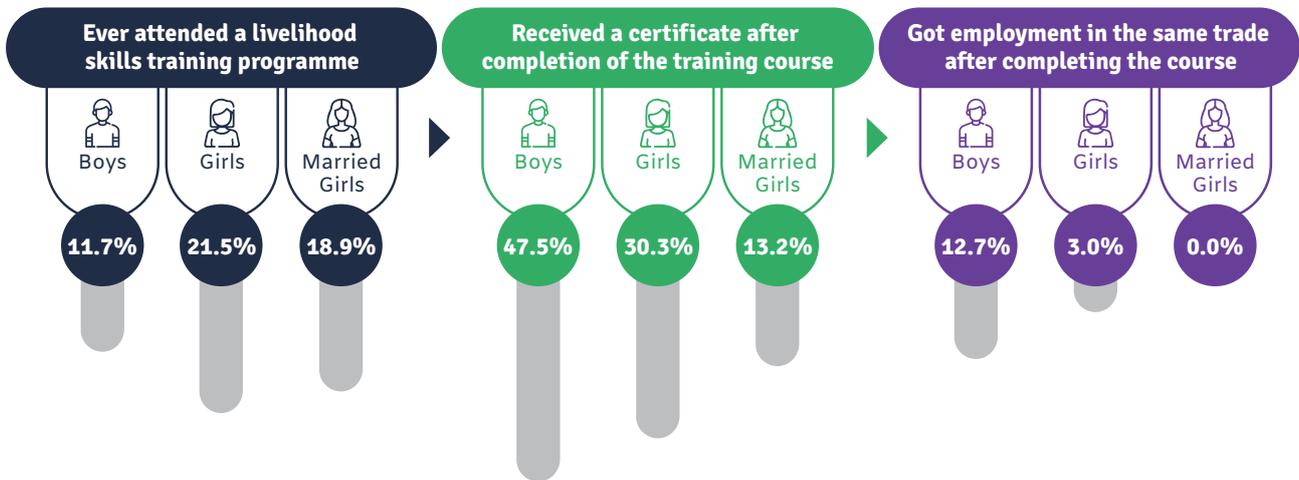
While few adolescents reported that they had completed the course in which they were enrolled in the year preceding the interview, post-training experiences, reported in Table 4.6 suggest that few had actually received a certificate; others reported that their course did not offer certificates (15% of boys, 35-36% of girls, not shown in table; still others were likely awaiting their certificates) at the time of the interview. Even so, the majority were confident about using the skill in which they were trained, few had actually obtained employment using that skill. Indeed, just about half (48%) of all boys who had completed the training programme, compared to far fewer girls – 30 percent of unmarried girls and 13 percent of married girls – had received a certificate. Moreover, while almost all adolescents – 81 percent of boys, 84 percent of unmarried girls, and 93 percent of married girls felt confident about using the skills they had been taught, just 13 percent of boys, three percent of unmarried girls, and not a single married girl had obtained employment using the skills for which they had been trained following the completion of the course.

Table 4.5 Participation in livelihood skills training programmes
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 who had ever attended a livelihood skills training programme and who had done so in the 12 months prior to the interview, by type of skills training programme attended, type of institution that offered the programme, and completion status of the course attended, Jharkhand, 2018

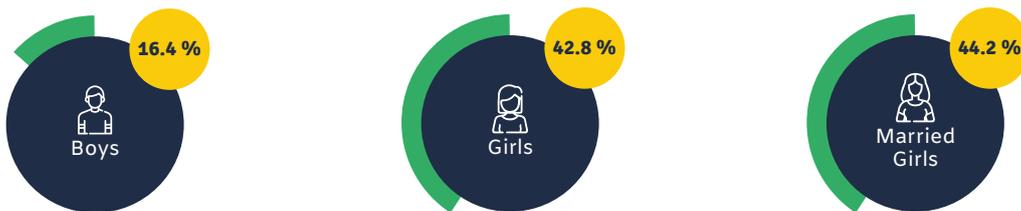
Programme attended	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Ever attended a livelihood skills training programme	11.7	21.5	18.9
Attended a livelihood skills training programme in the 12 months preceding the interview	6.6	13.4	6.4
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999
Types of programmes/courses attended			
Tailoring	0.4	49.4	80.0
Fashion designing	0.0	0.8	0.0
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	2.0	1.3	4.6
Masonry/plumbing	0.1	0.0	0.0
Auto mechanics/electric work	13.7	0.0	0.2
Typing/shorthand/English language	3.1	2.1	0.0
Computer training	71.7	32.2	5.2
Nurse's aid	0.1	1.5	0.0
Poultry/goat farm	0.0	0.0	0.0
Driving	0.7	0.0	0.0
Beauty parlour skills	0.0	8.6	5.3
Other	8.3	4.1	4.8
Type of institution that conducted the programme			
Government	30.5	36.8	43.1
Private	66.7	61.0	56.8
Non-governmental organisation	2.8	2.2	0.1
Completion status			
Completed the course/s attended	47.3	40.7	33.6
Attending the course at the time of interview	34.7	31.5	18.1
Number who attended a livelihood skills training programme in the 12 months preceding the interview	215	343	72

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers.

Figure 4.4 Livelihood skills training programmes (Ages 15-21)



Had wanted at some time to attend a training programme, but could not do so



Most Popular Livelihood Skills Training Programmes for Adolescents

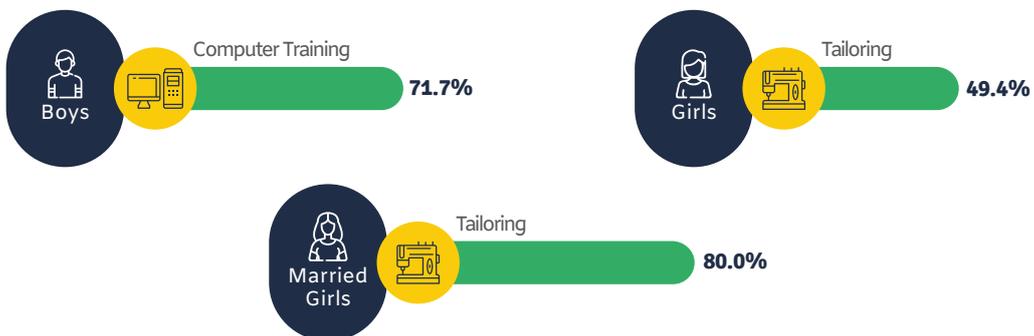


Table 4.6 Experience of exposure to livelihood skills training
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 who had completed a livelihood skills training programme in the year preceding the interview by their post-training experiences, Jharkhand, 2018

Post-training experiences	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Received a certificate after completion of the training course	47.5	30.3	(13.2)
Felt competent enough to use the skill acquired	81.4	83.8	(93.1)
Got employment in the same trade after completing the course	12.7	3.0	(0.0)
Number of respondents who had completed a livelihood skills training programme in the year preceding the interview	90	132	32

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers.

Unmet need for livelihood skill building opportunities: By asking adolescents – irrespective of whether or not they had attended a skill training programme – whether they had wished to attend a programme but had been unable to do so, we were able to probe their unmet need for livelihood skill building opportunities. As seen in Table 4.7, 16 percent of boys, and far more – 43-44 percent – of girls reported an unmet need for livelihood skill building opportunities.

Factors preventing adolescents from attending a programme were both supply- and demand-based, and differed considerably for boys and girls, and, to some extent, for married and unmarried girls. For example, while 13 percent of boys cited supply side obstacles such as the lack of a training facility in close proximity to their homes or lack of knowledge about a training centre, about one-quarter of girls reported facing similar obstacles (23-25%). Demand-side obstacles were reported by far more adolescents – 89 percent of boys and 83 percent of girls, irrespective of marital status. Specifically, among demand-side obstacles, both boys and girls reported lack of affordability – 55 percent of boys, 33 percent of unmarried girls and 27 percent of married girls. Many also reported time constraints, that their housework and other commitments precluded attendance, or that the timing of training programmes clashed with their school or college timings (28-34%). In addition, more girls than boys cited family objections (10-19% versus 2%), and among girls, more married than unmarried girls so reported (19% versus 10%). Finally, 4-5 percent of all three groups cited their own ill-health or the ill-health or death of a family member as an obstacle to accessing a skill building opportunity.

About as many adolescents from intervention and comparison areas reported an unmet need for livelihood training opportunities (14% versus 17% of boys; 40-43% versus 43-44% of girls). Among both those in intervention and comparison areas, leading reasons for not accessing a skill building programme were demand-based, and differences were narrow, except that fewer unmarried and married girls in intervention than comparison areas cited demand based obstacles (77-78% versus 84%), and more unmarried and married girls in intervention than comparison areas cited supply based obstacles (32% versus 24% and 30% versus 22%, respectively).

Demand for livelihood skill training: We measured the demand for livelihood skill training by asking adolescents if they would be interested in attending a programme if a programme of their choice became available in the future. As evident from Table 4.8, large proportions of adolescents – 82 percent of boys, 88 percent of unmarried girls, and 77 percent of married girls – expressed interest in doing so. Among girls, more unmarried than married girls expressed interest in receiving livelihood skills training (88% versus 77%). Differences in the proportions of adolescents expressing a demand for livelihood skill training between girls from intervention and comparison areas were negligible, but among boys, more of those from comparison than intervention areas expressed a demand for training (83% versus 77%).

Table 4.7 Unmet need for livelihood skill training
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 who wished to, but could not attend a livelihood skill training programme, and reasons for their inability, Jharkhand, 2018

Unmet need for livelihood skills training and reasons	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Unmet need for livelihood skills training			
Had wanted at some time to attend a training programme, but could not do so	16.4	42.8	44.2
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999
Reasons for unmet need			
Supply-side reasons	12.8	24.9	23.0
Did not know a training centre that offers the course	7.1	5.2	4.9
No training centre nearby	5.7	19.7	18.1
Demand-side reasons	88.9	83.3	83.2
Not sure about the employment potential	0.7	0.2	0.4
Did not know which course to enrol in	0.0	1.4	2.3
Could not afford the cost of attending the course	54.7	32.8	27.3
Objections from family	1.5	9.9	19.4
Clashed with studies/no time/needed for housework	28.4	34.2	29.3
Illness of family member or respondent	3.6	4.8	4.5
No reason	1.0	1.9	3.1
Number of respondents with an unmet need for livelihood skills training	412	1,278	822

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

The kinds of skills in which adolescents wished to be trained varied widely by sex, and overall, resembled the skills in which those who had already received training had learned. Gender disparities and among girls, disparities between the married and the unmarried were wide. The majority of boys sought training in three skills: use of computers (52%), auto mechanics and electrical work (22%) and driving (8%). While computer training (36%) was the leading skill that unmarried girls wished to learn, relatively few married girls expressed an interest in computer training (15%). In contrast, tailoring remained the leading skill in which married girls wished to be trained (62%); fewer unmarried girls expressed an interest in tailoring (33%). Other areas in which girls wished to be trained included beauty parlour skills (12-18%) and handicrafts, painting, embroidery and cooking skills (6-7%). Clearly, girls – and particularly married girls – opted for traditional skills that could be used at home or close to home, such as tailoring, beauty parlour activities, and arts and crafts. Differences in the proportion of adolescents in intervention and comparison areas who wished to be trained in specific skills were generally negligible. The only exceptions were that a smaller proportion of boys in intervention than comparison areas expressed interest in auto mechanics and electrical work (17% versus 23%), and more girls in intervention than comparison areas expressed interest in tailoring (42% versus 32% of unmarried girls; 70% versus 61% of married girls).

Table 4.8 Demand for livelihood skill training
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 reporting interest in attending a livelihood skill training programmes in the future by type of programme preferred, Jharkhand, 2018

Programme	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Interest in participating in a livelihood skill training programme if made available	82.4	88.0	76.9
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999
Type of programme preferred			
Tailoring	2.0	33.1	62.4
Fashion designing	0.2	1.1	0.3
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	2.1	5.5	7.3
Masonry/plumbing/carpentry	3.1	0.0	0.0
Auto mechanics/electric work	22.2	0.0	0.0
Typing/shorthand/English language	1.1	1.9	0.2
Computer training	52.4	35.5	15.1
Nurse's aid/nursing	0.1	1.9	1.9
Poultry/goat-rearing/farm work	0.8	0.0	0.0
Driving	7.8	0.5	0.0
Beauty parlour skills	0.1	17.9	11.9
Performing arts/sports	1.8	0.3	0.0
Others	6.5	2.3	1.0
Number interested in receiving livelihood skills training	2,434	2,835	1,528

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. *Multiple responses permitted; totals may exceed 100.

4.6 ACTIVITY STATUS: A SUMMARY

As seen in Chapters 3 and the previous sections of this chapter, adolescents in Jharkhand were engaged in a number of activities in the year preceding the interview, ranging from school or college, to employment and livelihood skills training. Many were also engaged in unpaid work on the family farm or business. Several combined schooling with wage work or livelihood skill training. Several, moreover, were neither in school or college nor engaged in remunerated work nor undergoing a training programme in the year preceding the interview. Table 4.9 summarises their activity status in the year preceding the interview.

While all adolescents aged 10-14 should be in school, we find that only 93-94 percent were in school, and as many as eight percent of boys and 16 percent of girls had been engaged in wage work at some point in the year. Among older boys and unmarried girls, in contrast, 63-64 percent were pursuing an education, 34-44 percent were engaged in remunerated work, and 7-13 percent had attended a livelihood skill training programme. Gender differences were pronounced, with more boys than girls engaged in remunerated work (44% versus 34%) and more girls than boys attending a livelihood skill training programme (13% versus 7%). The profile among married girls was quite different from that of unmarried girls and boys. Just seven percent were pursuing an education, six percent had attended a livelihood skill training programme and 26 percent were engaged in remunerated work.

Several adolescents had neither been in school nor engaged in remunerated work nor, among older adolescents, attended a livelihood skill training programme in the year preceding the interview. These adolescents were likely engaged in unpaid labour on the family farm or business or tending household livestock, or, among girls, engaged in housework and childrearing activities. For example, four percent of younger boys and girls alike were not engaged in education or remunerated work. Among older adolescents,

ten percent of boys and 17 percent of unmarried girls were not engaged in education nor employment nor training. Among married girls, percentages were far higher, with almost two in three married girls (65%) so reporting, highlighting the extreme vulnerability of this group.

Disparities between those in intervention and comparison areas were not observed with regard to schooling and livelihood training among all five groups, and among boys, with regard to wage work as well. Among girls, however, far more of those in intervention than comparison areas had been engaged in wage work (29% versus 14% among younger girls; 45% versus 33% among older unmarried girls; and 36% versus 24% among married girls). Disparities in percentages not in education, employment or training between those in intervention and comparison areas were negligible, except among married girls, among whom those in comparison areas were more likely than their counterparts in intervention areas to report that they were not in education, employment or training (66% versus 57%).

Table 4.9 Activity status in the 12 months preceding the interview
Percentage of adolescents who were in school, in wage work, attending livelihood skills training or not in education, employment or training in the 12 months preceding the interview, Jharkhand, 2018

Activity in the 12 months preceding the interview	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
In school	93.5	63.6	93.1	62.8	6.6
In wage work	7.9	43.8	15.7	34.1	25.6
In skill building training	-	6.6	-	13.4	6.4
Not in education, employment or training	4.2	10.2	4.1	16.7	64.7
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases.

4.7 MIGRATION EXPERIENCES

In order to understand the migration patterns of older adolescents, we asked those aged 15-21 whether they had always lived in the village or urban setting in which we interviewed them, and if migration was indicated, how long ago they had migrated, and the reasons for their migration.

Most unmarried adolescents but few married girls had resided since birth in the village or urban area in which they were interviewed. As shown in Table 4.10, 12-14 percent of boys and unmarried girls had migrated to their current place of residence. In contrast, as many as 92 percent of married girls had done so, and the majority of these girls reported that they had migrated to their current place of residence at the time of their marriage (88%). Unmarried boys and girls were almost equally distributed among those who had migrated 0-4 years and 5 or more years preceding the interview (4-8% and 6-8%, respectively).

Figure 4.5 Activity status in the 12 months preceding the interview (Ages 15-21)



Table 4.10 Migration status and reason for migration
Percent distribution of adolescents in ages 15–21 by duration of residence at the usual place of residence at the time of the interview and reason for migration among those who had migrated to their usual place of residence, Jharkhand, 2018

Duration of residence and reason for migration	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Duration of residence*			
Always/since birth	86.1	87.9	8.3
Since marriage	NA	NA	88.1
5 or more years	6.2	7.8	1.1
Less than 5 years	7.7	4.4	2.5
Migrated to the current usual place of residence	13.9	12.1	91.7
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999
Reasons for migration			
Marriage	NA	NA	97.0
Moved with family	29.4	56.7	0.7
Education related	37.5	25.6	0.0
Work related	21.1	1.3	0.6
Economic distress of the family	12.0	15.0	1.7
Other	0.1	1.4	0.0
Number of respondents who experienced migration	394	354	1,797

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. *0.3% of boys and 0.1% of unmarried girls who could not recall their duration of residence are assumed to have resided in the current residence since childhood.

Reasons for migration were different among boys and girls, and among the married and the unmarried. Almost all married girls (97%) indicated marriage-related migration. The majority of unmarried girls who had migrated had done so with their family, compared to far fewer boys (57% versus 29%). In contrast, more boys than girls had migrated for educational reasons (38% versus 26%) or work related reasons (21% versus 1%). Finally, 12-15 percent had done so because of economic hardship of the family.

Differences in the migration experiences of adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.





CHAPTER 5

MASS MEDIA AND SOCIAL MEDIA EXPOSURE

Recognising that young people are hugely exposed to and influenced by the media, we probed adolescents about their exposure to various print and electronic media, including traditional media as well as mobile phones, internet and social media. We also probed their experiences with these media, for example, where they watched films, whether they accessed pornographic or sexually explicit material, whether they obtained health-related and other information on their mobile phone or from the internet, and whether they had been harassed through these media or had used these media to harass someone.

In this chapter, we present adolescents' exposure to each of these media for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

5.1. MASS MEDIA EXPOSURE

Questions were posed on whether adolescents accessed such media as the television, the radio, films and print materials such as newspapers, books and magazines (for those with a Class 5 or higher education), and those who reported exposure were asked how frequently they did so (daily, at least once a week or more frequently, at least once a month or more frequently, rarely or less than once a month, and not at all).

Table 5.1 presents findings with regard to any exposure and very frequent (almost daily) exposure to these media, and confirm that television and films (typically on television) were the media most widely accessed by adolescents. While age differences were negligible, gender disparities are evident for most media, with more boys than girls typically reporting exposure to both television (91-93% of boys versus 72-85% of girls) and films (94-98% of boys versus 83-90% of girls). Far fewer adolescents reported listening to the radio, and here again, more older than younger adolescents (28% versus 21% of boys; 17% versus 12% of girls), and more boys than girls (21-28% versus 10-17%) reported so. In contrast to this pattern, gender differences were not observed in the case of access to print materials: of those who had completed five or more years of education, 56-62 percent of younger boys and girls, and 74-75 percent of boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21 reported reading newspapers, magazines and boys. Far fewer married girls aged 15-21 – even fewer than younger adolescents – reported exposure to the print media (46%).

Regular or almost daily exposure to these media are also presented in Table 5.1. Findings suggest that somewhat fewer boys than girls aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21 reported daily exposure to television (45-47% of boys versus 51-54% of girls), however, far fewer married girls reported daily exposure (38%). Boys were more likely than girls to report almost daily exposure to films (28-29% versus 17%) and very few adolescents, irrespective of age, sex and marital status, reported regular exposure to the radio (3-5%). Finally, regular exposure to the print media was more likely to be reported by boys than girls (14-24% versus 9-16%), and older than younger adolescents (24% versus 14% of boys, respectively, 16% versus 9% of unmarried girls and 5% of married girls).

We also sought to understand film viewership patterns among those who reported exposure to films, and probed adolescents about where they typically watched films (television, computer, mobile phone or theatre). Findings confirm that most adolescents watched films on television (82-86% of boys aged 10-14 and 15-21, 88-90% of girls aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21, and 73% of married girls aged 15-21). However, large proportions also watched films on their or their family's mobile phone. Now, more boys and girls aged 15-21 than 10-14 (73% versus 55%, 48% versus 40%, respectively) reported doing so, as did more boys than (unmarried) girls at each age. Notably, far more married than unmarried girls aged 15-21 watched films on their mobile phone (65% versus 48%). Few adolescents, in contrast, watched films on a computer (1-4%), or at a theatre (10% of boys aged 15-21 versus 1-4% of the remaining four groups).

To better understand the role that the media play in addressing adolescents' interest in sexual matters, we also asked adolescents aged 15-21 about their exposure to pornographic films. Almost half of boys (46%) as opposed to about one in ten unmarried girls (11%) aged 15-21 reported exposure to sexually explicit films, and among girls, far more married than unmarried girls so reported (47% versus 11%).

Differences by intervention programme status were observed in several instances, and in most of these, exposure was reported by more adolescents in comparison than intervention programme areas. Notable differences exceeding five percentage points were evident, for example, with regard to almost daily exposure to television in all groups except married girls, almost daily viewing of films among boys aged 10-14 (29% versus 19%) and unmarried girls aged 15-21 (18% versus 13%), exposure to the radio among boys of both ages and girls aged 15-21 (22% versus 13%; 28% versus 23% among younger and older boys, respectively; and 18% versus 12% among girls aged 15-21), exposure to the print media among younger adolescents (57% versus 48% among younger boys; 63% versus 57% among younger girls), almost daily exposure to the print media among older boys (25% versus 20%) and viewership of films on mobile phones among younger boys (55% versus 50%).

In contrast, a different pattern appears with regard to the reported medium through which films were viewed. More younger boys and girls aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21 from intervention than comparison areas reported that they viewed films on mobile phones (55% versus 50% among younger boys; 45% versus 39% among younger girls, 56% versus 47% among older girls). Older unmarried girls in intervention areas were correspondingly less likely than those in comparison areas to view films on television (82% versus 89%).

Viewership of sexually explicit films, finally, was reported by more older boys in intervention than comparison areas (52% versus 45%) but differences were negligible among girls.

Table 5.1 Mass media exposure
Percentage of adolescents who were exposed to mass media, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of exposure to the mass media	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Exposure to television					
Exposed	90.5	92.7	83.0	85.4	72.2
Watches almost everyday	46.5	44.8	51.1	53.5	37.7
Exposure to films					
Exposed	93.6	97.9	85.7	90.2	82.9
Watches almost everyday	27.6	29.3	16.9	17.2	17.3
Exposure to radio					
Exposed	21.1	27.5	12.0	17.4	9.7
Listens almost every day	3.4	5.0	2.5	4.5	2.5
Number of respondents	3,473	3150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Exposure to newspapers/magazines/books¹					
Exposed	55.6	74.5	62.0	74.2	46.2
Reads almost everyday	13.8	24.4	8.9	16.1	5.0
Number with 5 or more years of education	2,344	2,976	2,877	3,017	1,626

Indicators of exposure to the mass media	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Medium through which films are accessed					
Television	86.2	82.2	89.5	88	73.1
Computer	2.7	3.9	3.0	3.4	1.1
Mobile phone	54.8	73.3	39.8	47.5	64.5
Theatre	2.0	9.8	1.9	3.9	1.3
Exposure to pornographic films					
Has watched blue films	NA	45.7	NA	11.2	46.5
Number of respondents exposed to films	3,255	3,059	3,476	2,866	1,681

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. ¹Asked only to respondents who had completed five or more years of education

5.2 ACCESS TO MOBILE PHONES

The potential of mobile phones for delivering new information to the young is increasingly recognised. In order to understand adolescents' access to mobile phones, we asked respondents whether they owned a mobile phone and, if not, whether they had access to a family member's mobile phone. Those who reported owning or having access to a mobile phone were asked whether they had ever received health-related information through the phone; older boys were asked whether they had ever harassed someone using their mobile phone. Finally, all adolescents, irrespective of whether they had access to a mobile phone, were asked whether they had ever been the victim of harassment via a mobile phone.

Findings, presented in Table 5.2, show that overall, most adolescents owned or had access to a mobile phone, although age differences were evident (81-83% of younger adolescents; 94-97% of older adolescents). Patterns diverged considerably by age, sex and marital status. Older adolescents were more likely than younger adolescents to own a mobile phone (64% versus 6% of boys; 18-35% versus 1% of girls). In both age groups, boys were more likely than girls to own a mobile phone (6% versus 1% of younger boys and girls; 64% versus 18% among boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21, respectively). Among girls aged 15-21, married girls were more likely than unmarried girls to own a mobile phone (35% versus 18%). Many adolescents – 78-80 percent of younger adolescents, 33 percent of boys aged 15-21, 76 percent of unmarried girls aged 15-21, and 59 percent of married girls aged 15-21 reported that they did not own but could access a phone.

Findings also suggest that few adolescents who reported access to a mobile phone obtained health-related information through their phone, ranging from three percent of younger boys and girls, to five percent of married girls aged 15-21, to 10-13 percent of boys and unmarried girls aged 15-21. Of boys aged 15-21, four percent acknowledged using their phone to harass someone.

Being harassed via the mobile phone was also reported. Hardly any adolescents aged 10-14 (0-1%) reported that they had been harassed over a mobile phone, compared to 4-5 percent of all three groups of older adolescents.

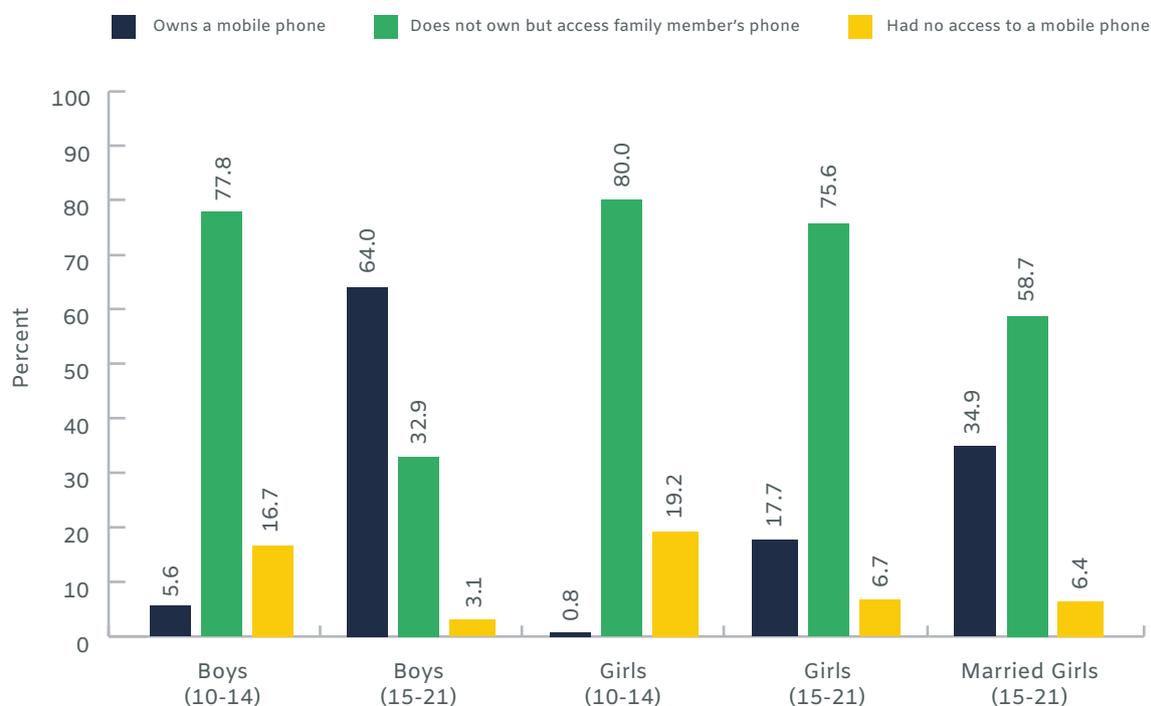
Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas with respect to access to a mobile phone and use of phones were not observed in any indicator. The only exception was that unmarried girls in intervention areas were more likely than their counterparts in comparison areas to own (22% versus 17%) a mobile phone.

Table 5.2 Access to mobile phones
Percentage of adolescents who had access to mobile phones, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of access to mobile phones	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Owns a mobile phone	5.6	64.0	0.8	17.7	34.9
Does not own but access family member's phone	77.8	32.9	80.0	75.6	58.7
Has no access to a mobile phone	16.7	3.1	19.2	6.7	6.4
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Use of mobile phone					
Received health related information on mobile phone	3.4	12.9	3.3	9.8	5.2
Used a mobile phone to harass someone	NA	3.6	NA	NA	NA
Number having access to mobile phone	2,804	2,996	3,352	3,019	1,906
Someone has used a cell phone or text messages to harass	0.4	5.4	1.0	5.1	3.7
Number of respondents	3,473	3,149	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Figure 5.1 Access to mobile phones



5.3 ACCESS TO AND USE OF INTERNET AND SOCIAL MEDIA

Access: All adolescents were asked whether they had ever accessed the internet or social media on a computer or mobile phone, including WhatsApp and Facebook, and, if accessed, the frequency of access. Table 5.3 presents findings relating to adolescents who had ever been enrolled in school. Adolescents, aside from older boys, had limited access to the internet, and wide disparities were observed by age, sex, and among older girls, marital status. Among older boys, 71 percent accessed the internet, and 38 percent did so almost daily. Among other groups, access was more limited, with just 29 percent and 16 percent of boys and girls aged 10-14, and 33 percent and 19 percent of unmarried and married girls aged 15-21 reporting any access to the internet, and just 3-13 percent of all these four groups reporting almost daily use. Again, older adolescents were more likely than younger ones, boys at each age were more likely than girls, and unmarried girls aged 15-21 were more likely than married girls to both have any access and almost daily access to the internet. Access to social media displayed a similar pattern. Among boys aged 15-21, 64 percent had used social media, and 35 percent did so on an almost daily basis. Among the remaining four groups, access was, as above, limited, with just 20 percent and 10 percent of boys and girls aged 10-14, and 28 percent and 18 percent of unmarried and married girls aged 15-21 reporting use of social media, and 3-12 percent reporting almost daily use. Findings clearly show that girls are far less likely than boys to have access to the internet and to social media, and that married girls are more disadvantaged even than unmarried girls.

Differences between adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were observed. For the most part, more older adolescents in comparison than intervention areas had access to the internet as well as to social media (except younger girls and married older girls). Likewise, more older boys in comparison than intervention areas reported almost daily use of the internet and social media; differences among other groups were muted.

Internet practices: Adolescents who had completed at least five years of school and had ever accessed the internet were also asked about whether they needed permission from a parent or other family member to access the internet, whether they had ever used the internet for scholarship, studies, career/employment or health related purposes. We also asked older adolescents whether they had accessed pornographic material off the internet, we asked girls whether someone had teased, harassed or spread rumours about them, and we asked older boys (only) whether they had ever harassed or spread rumours about someone else over the internet.

Many adolescents reported that they required permission from a parent or family member to access the internet, and gender differences were wide: more girls than boys (47% and 34%, respectively, among younger adolescents; 20% and 15% of unmarried and married girls versus 8% of boys) required permission from family members in order to access the internet.

Large proportions of internet users (57-79%) reported that they had accessed the internet for studies related reasons. Even so, differences were evident. more girls than boys had done so (70% versus 63% of younger adolescents, 79% versus 65% of older unmarried girls, and boys); married girls were less likely than any other group to so report (57%). Several adolescents, including younger ones, reported accessing the internet to explore career-related information or employment opportunities, and again, more girls than boys at each age so reported (35% versus 18% of younger girls and boys; 56% versus 45% of unmarried older girls and boys); more older than younger adolescents had done so (45% versus 18% of boys; 56% versus 35% of older boys and unmarried girls), and among older girls, married girls were far less likely than their unmarried counterparts to have done so (30% versus 56%). In addition, a small proportion accessed the internet in order to elicit information about or apply for scholarships (4-11% of younger adolescents and married girls, 15% of older boys and unmarried girls). Finally, with regard to health-related information, a similar pattern was observed, with more girls than boys at each age accessing the internet for health-related reasons (26% versus 9% of younger girls and boys; 49% versus 26% of older unmarried girls and boys), more older than younger adolescents doing so (26% versus 9% of boys; 49% versus 29% of girls) and more unmarried than married older girls doing so (49% versus 36%). In general, use patterns suggest that girls were more likely than boys, older adolescents more likely than younger adolescents, and among older girls, the unmarried more likely than the married to have accessed the internet for each of these reasons.

Table 5.3 Access to internet and social media

Percent distribution of adolescents who had ever enrolled in school by frequency of accessing the internet and social media, and percentage of adolescents with five or more years of education requiring permission to, and accessing various types of information from the internet, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of access to the internet	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Use and frequency of accessing the internet					
Any access	29.1	71.0	15.8	33.2	18.5
• Almost every day	6.3	38.4	3.0	12.5	7.3
• At least once a week	10.1	15.9	5.5	9.3	3.2
• Less frequently (once a month or less frequently)	12.7	16.7	7.3	11.4	8.0
Not at all/not heard of the internet	70.9	29.0	84.2	66.8	81.6
Use and frequency of accessing social media (whatsapp, facebook..)					
Any use	19.6	63.8	10.3	27.9	17.9
• Use social media almost every day	3.8	35.3	2.6	11.7	8.1
• At least once a week	7.2	15.9	3.7	8.2	3.5
• Less frequently (once a month or less frequently)	8.6	12.6	4.0	8.0	6.3
Not at all/not heard of social media	80.4	36.2	89.8	72.1	82.2
Number of respondents who had ever enrolled in school	3,435	3,071	4,019	3,119	1,746
Permission to access the internet					
Required permission to access the internet	33.5	7.5	46.5	20.4	15.0
Ever sought the following types of information:					
Studies related	63.3	65.1	70.1	78.6	56.6
Career/job related search	18.3	45.1	34.7	55.6	30.1
Scholarship related search	4.2	14.8	10.6	14.5	9.5
Accessed health information from the internet	8.7	26.2	29.4	49.0	35.6
Pornographic materials on internet	NA	51.1	NA	36.1	70.0
Someone used internet to bother, harass, spread mean words or pictures about respondent	NA	NA	NA	3.0	1.5
Respondent used internet to bother, harass, spread mean words or pictures	NA	7.3	NA	NA	NA
Number who had completed five or more years of schooling and had ever accessed the internet	683	1,974	450	871	314

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Figure 5.2a Access to internet and social media

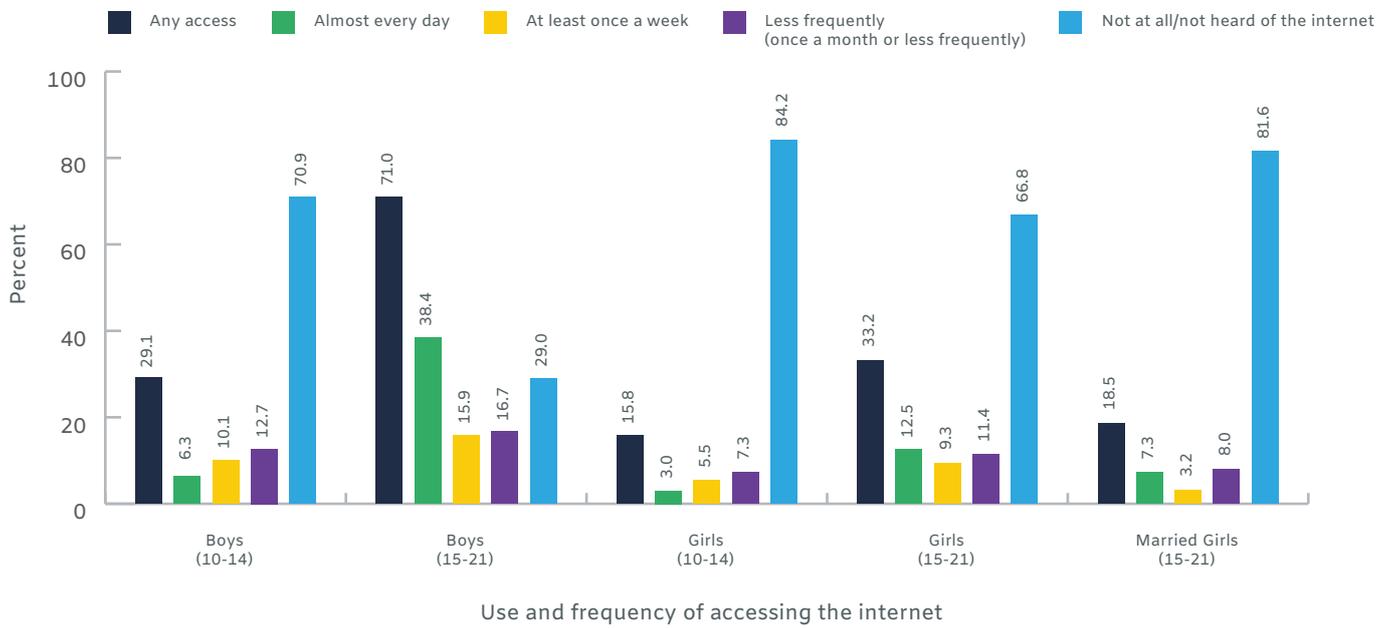
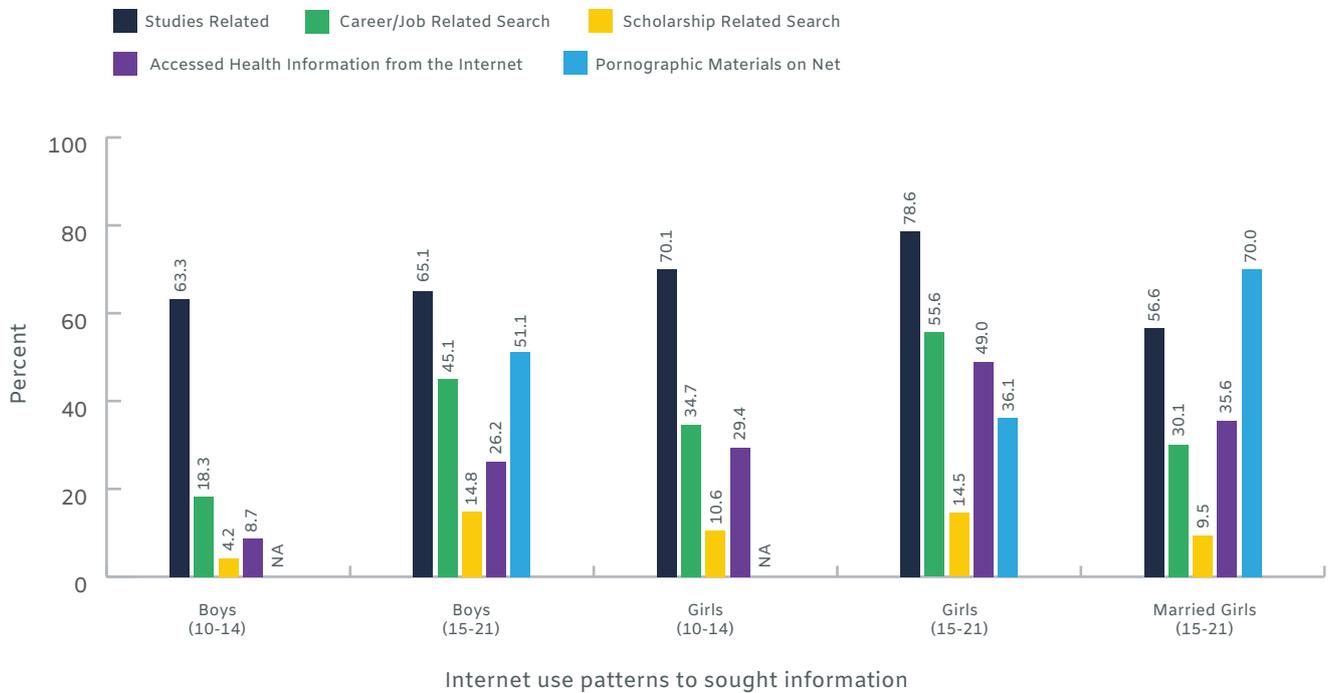


Figure 5.2b Indicators of uses of internet / social media



Among older adolescents, large proportions had accessed pornographic materials off the net, and while far more boys than unmarried girls had done so (51% versus 36%), the percentage who had done so was highest among married girls (70%). Our findings also show that use of the internet for harassment and spreading rumours was not unknown: seven % of older boys reported that they had harassed or spread rumours or pictures about someone over the internet, and 2-3 percent of older girls reported that they had been the victim of such harassment.

Differences between adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were observed on several indicators relating to use of the internet, but inconsistently across the five groups. More younger girls and married girls in comparison than intervention areas required family permission in order to use the internet. Differences in use of the internet for information on scholarships, career opportunities and health information were inconsistently observed, and where observed, more of those from comparison than intervention areas so reported. For example, more boys of both ages and younger girls in comparison than intervention areas reported accessing the internet for career related information. More younger boys and girls from comparison than intervention areas had accessed the internet for studies related information, and more girls from all three groups from comparison than intervention areas had sought health-related information off the internet. Older boys and unmarried girls in comparison areas were, in contrast, less likely than those in intervention areas to have accessed pornographic material on the internet.





CHAPTER 6

PARENT-CHILD RELATIONS

Parents play a key role in socialising their sons and daughters, and facilitating or obstructing a successful transition to adulthood. In India, however, parent-child relations are sometimes distant. Parent-child communication does not encompass issues which adolescents are concerned, adolescents are not necessarily engaged with parents in matters affecting their lives, many grow up witnessing parental violence, and socialisation patterns of sons and daughters remain far from egalitarian, perpetuating traditional norms of masculinity and femininity (see, for example, International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and Population Council, 2010; Jejeebhoy and Santhya, 2011). This chapter explores various facets of the parent-child relationship, including witnessing and experience of parental violence, socialization of sons and daughters and whether adolescents would be comfortable confronting parents, parent-child communication, whether adolescents perceive a parent as a role model, and whether parents play a role as one of their adolescents' leading confidantes in matters affecting their lives.

In this chapter, we present adolescents' reports on each of these issues for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

6.1 VIOLENCE WITHIN THE HOME

We asked all adolescents about the extent to which violence – both witnessed and experienced – characterised their family life. With regard to witnessing violence, we asked whether, since the time they were 10 year old, they had ever witnessed their father beating their mother, whether they had so witnessed in the 12 months preceding the interview, and how they had reacted to the violence the last time they had witnessed such an incident.

Findings presented in Table 6.1 suggest that many adolescents (19-37%) have grown up observing parental violence, but differences by age, sex and marital status are evident. Younger adolescents were more likely than their older counterparts to report witnessing parental violence (23% versus 19% among boys; 33% versus 28% among unmarried girls). Girls were more likely to have witnessed parental violence than boys (33% versus 23% of younger adolescents, 28% versus 19% among older unmarried girls and boys), and married girls were more likely than their unmarried counterparts to have so witnessed (37% versus 28%). Fewer had witnessed parental violence in the year preceding the interview, and differences were muted: 9-15 percent of younger adolescents, and considerably fewer, 5-8 percent of older unmarried adolescents had witnessed their father beating their mother in the recent past and 3 percent of married girls, who may not have co-resided with their parents in the year preceding the interview.

Adolescents' reaction to the last incident of parental violence they had witnessed were of two kinds: passive, that is, doing nothing, walking away or leaving the house among some, and active, that is, intervening, either verbally or through physical restraint on the other. As many as 70-77 percent of boys, compared to 47-67 percent of girls reported that they had responded passively, that is, they had done nothing, had walked away or had left the home. Gender differences were evident at each age: while 77 percent of boys aged 10-14 reported a passive reaction, 67 percent of girls of the same age so reported; while 70 percent of older boys reported a passive reaction, just 47-51 percent of older girls did so. Conversely, more girls than boys reported intervening to stop their father, either verbally or physically restraining him (34 percent versus 23 percent of younger adolescents: 50-53% versus 30 percent of older adolescents).

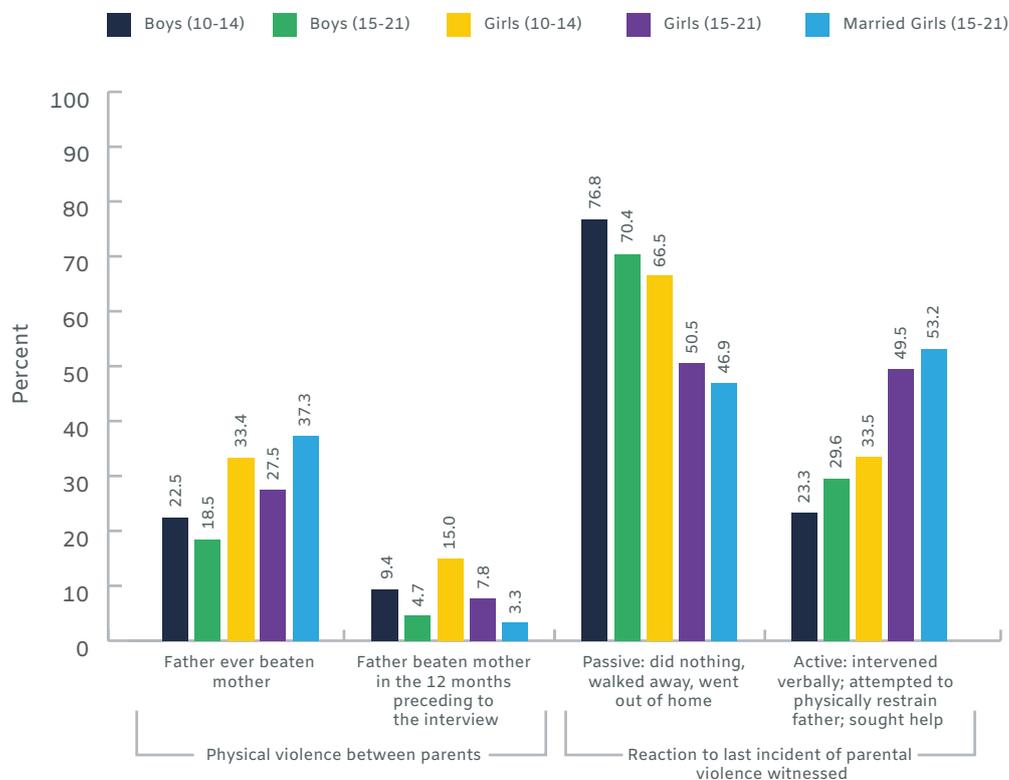
Differences between percentages of adolescents exposed to parental violence in intervention and comparison areas were by and large muted, although some exceptions were observed. For example, married girls in comparison areas were more likely than their counterparts in intervention areas to report that they had witnessed parental violence (38% versus 33%), and among older unmarried adolescents who had witnessed parental violence, more of those from comparison than intervention areas reported a passive reaction (72% versus 59% of boys; 52% versus 41% of girls); conversely, more of those from intervention than comparison areas reported that they had attempted to stop the violence.

Table 6.1 Witnessing parental violence
Percentage of adolescents reporting witnessing parental violence, Jharkhand, 2018

Exposure to parental violence	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Physical violence between parents					
Father ever beaten mother	22.5	18.5	33.4	27.5	37.3
Father beaten mother in the 12 months preceding to the interview	9.4	4.7	15.0	7.8	3.3
Number of respondents with both parents alive	3,335	2,946	4,001	3,126	1,933
Reaction to last incident of parental violence witnessed					
Passive: did nothing, walked away, went out of home	76.8	70.4	66.5	50.5	46.9
Active: intervened verbally; attempted to physically restrain father; sought help	23.3	29.6	33.5	49.5	53.2
Number of respondents who had witnessed parental violence, both parents alive	746	519	1,289	875	615

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 6.1 Witnessing parental violence



In order to gauge adolescents' experience of physical violence perpetrated by one or both parents, we asked whether, since they were aged 10, a parent had ever committed any form of violence on them, and we asked all but the married about whether such incidents had taken place in the year preceding the interview. We also asked those who had a sibling of the opposite sex of a roughly similar age (up to three years older or younger) whether they or their sibling of the opposite sex had experienced more violence perpetrated by a parent.

As evident from Table 6.2, large proportions of adolescents (42-65%) with at least one parent alive at the time of the interview had experienced physical violence perpetrated by a parent at some time since they were aged 10 years. Percentages varied considerably by age and sex. Younger adolescents were more likely than their older counterparts to report the experience of physical violence perpetrated by a parent (63-65% versus 42-50%). While similar proportions of younger boys and girls reported the experience of physical violence perpetrated by a parent (63-65%), far more older boys than girls had so experienced (50% versus 42-44%). Differences by marital status among older girls were negligible (42-44%).

During the year preceding the interview, physical violence perpetrated by a parent was reported by far more younger adolescents than older adolescents. 9-11 percent of older adolescents had experienced physical violence perpetrated by a parent, compared to 45-51 percent of younger adolescents. Gender differences were evident among younger adolescents, with more boys (51%) than girls (45%) experiencing violence; gender differences were not observed among older adolescents. Married adolescents were not asked this question as many may not have co-resided with their parents during this period.

Adolescents with a similarly aged (within three years) sibling of the opposite sex reported on whether their sibling was more likely to have experienced violence perpetrated by a parent than they were (this question was not asked to married girls). Findings suggest that both boys and girls agreed that boys were more at risk of parental violence than were girls. For example, just 3-8 percent of boys believed that their sister had experienced more violence perpetrated by a parent than they had, while 31 percent of younger girls and 19 percent of older girls believed that their brothers faced a greater risk of violence than they did. The majority however reported that neither they nor their opposite sex sibling had experienced physical violence perpetrated by a parent, and a few (1-4% of boys, 3-13% of girls) reported that both were exposed to as much violence as each other.

Patterns of experience of violence perpetrated by a parent were similar among adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas on all indicators probed.

Table 6.2 Experience of violence perpetrated by a parent
Percentage of adolescents reporting the experience of physical violence perpetrated by a parent, Jharkhand, 2018

Exposure to parental violence	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Experience of physical violence perpetrated by a parent					
Experienced physical violence any time since the age of 10	64.7	50.3	63.0	44.3	42.3
Experienced physical violence in the 12 months preceding the interview	51.1	11.1	45.3	8.5	NA
Number of respondents with at least one parent alive	3,446	3,112	4,070	3,203	1,974
Comparison with similarly aged opposite sex sibling in experience of violence perpetrated by a parent					
Sibling of opposite sex beaten more	8.4	3.1	30.6	19.2	NA
Sibling of opposite sex beaten less	26.8	10.8	16.7	6.6	NA
Beaten about as much as sibling of opposite sex	4.3	0.7	12.8	3.4	NA
Neither one beaten	60.6	85.4	39.9	70.8	NA
Number with at least one parent alive, and an opposite sex sibling aged up to three years greater or less than respondent	1,691	1,578	2,832	2,515	NA

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

6.2 PARENT-CHILD COMMUNICATION

We asked all adolescents, excluding the married, about the extent of their communication with their parents or guardians on various matters in the year preceding the interview. For example, to assess the extent of communication, we asked whether they had discussed various topics with one or both parents in the year preceding the interview. We asked whether they had discussed schooling matters (whether they should study, how much, events taking place at school and so on) or whether they had discussed their friends (who they were, incidents that may have taken place with friends and so on) with one or both parents (or guardians). We also asked about whether they had discussed more personal matters with one or both parents – for example, we asked younger adolescents whether they had discussed or would discuss being bullied with their parents, we probed both younger and older adolescents about whether they had discussed growing up matters (menstruation for girls, changing voices and facial hair growth for boys) with one or both parents, and we asked older adolescents whether they had discussed reproductive processes with one or both parents.

Findings, presented in Table 6.3, reveal that communication on all of these matters was limited, and patterns varied for younger and older adolescents, for boys and girls, as well as for discussion with the father and the mother. With regard to general matters, findings suggest that overall, fewer adolescents had discussed each topic with their father than with their mother, more boys than girls had discussed each issue with their father, and more girls than boys had done so with their mother. For example, discussion on studies with the father ranged from 50-59 percent of boys to 53-54 percent of girls; and discussion with the mother ranged from 56-65 percent among boys, to 69-77 percent among girls. A similar picture emerges with regard to discussion about friends. Among boys, 27-33 percent had discussed friends with their father, compared to many more -- 49-50 percent -- who had done so with their mother. Among girls too, while 19-25 percent of girls had discussed friends with their father, 72-84 percent had done so with their mother. Finally, while just 49-50 percent of boys had discussed friends with their mother, 72-84 percent of girls had done so. Notably, 12-15 percent of younger adolescents and 25-28 percent of older adolescents had not discussed schooling matters with either parent. Many more had never discussed their friends with either parent, and now gender and not age disparities were evident (41-43% of boys versus 24-27% of girls).

With regard to such sensitive topics as being teased or bullied, physical changes during adolescence, and reproductive processes, findings suggest very little communication between parents and adolescents. For example, we asked younger adolescents whether they had discussed being teased or bullied with their parents, and findings show that just 17 percent of younger boys and three percent of younger girls reported that they had discussed these matters with their father in the year preceding the interview; considerable more – 30 percent of boys and 24 percent of girls – had discussed such experiences with their mother.

Physical changes during adolescence such as voice change and facial hair growth among boys and menstruation among girls were rarely discussed with the father. For example, just 3-5 percent of boys and one percent of girls had discussed physical changes during adolescence with their father. Proportions of boys who discussed these issues with their mother remained small (7% each), but considerably more girls had discussed menstruation with their mother - 36 percent of younger girls and 71 percent of older girls. Finally, among older adolescents, who had been probed about discussion with parents about reproductive processes, one percent of boys and girls had discussed these matters with their father, and just one percent of boys and five percent of girls had done so with their mother. Large proportions had never growing up matters with either parent (91% of boys, 64% and 29% of younger and older girls). As many as 95-99 percent had never discussed reproductive processes with either parent.

Differences by project status were not observed with regard to discussion of any of the three sensitive topics probed. However, among several groups, those in comparison areas were more likely than those in intervention areas to report communication with a parent about studies and friends. For example, younger and older boys in comparison areas were more likely than their counterparts in intervention areas to have discussed studies with their mother (57–66% versus 49–60%) as well as their father (51–60% versus 45–52%). Younger boys in comparison areas were more likely than those in intervention areas to have discussed friends with their mother (51% versus 43%) and teasing and bullying with their mother (31% versus 22%) and father (18% versus 13%); older boys in comparison areas were more likely to have discussed friends with

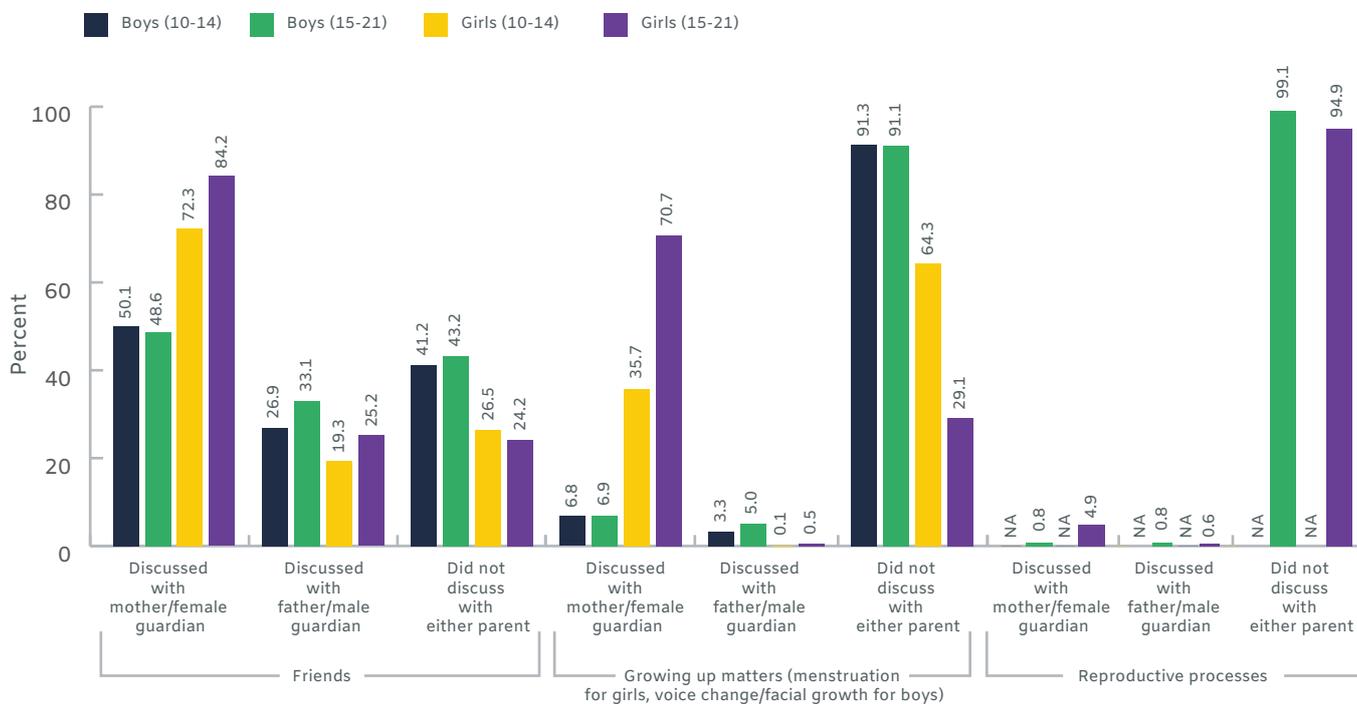
their mother than their counterparts in intervention areas (50% versus 39%). Differences among girls were observed only among older girls, among whom, more of those from comparison than intervention areas had discussed studies and friends with their mother (70% versus 64%, and 75% versus 70%, respectively). They were also more likely to have discussed their friends with their father (26% versus 21%).

Table 6.3 Parent-child communication
Percentage of adolescents who discussed various general and sensitive matters with their parents in the year preceding the interview, Jharkhand, 2018

Matters discussed	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)
Schooling (whether to study, how much to study, events in school, etc.)				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	64.9	55.6	77.2	69.2
Discussed with father/male guardian	58.9	50.4	54.4	52.7
Did not discuss with either parent	12.4	27.7	15.0	25.0
Friends				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	50.1	48.6	72.3	84.2
Discussed with father/male guardian	26.9	33.1	19.3	25.2
Did not discuss with either parent	41.2	43.2	26.5	24.2
Teasing/bullying				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	29.7	NA	23.6	NA
Discussed with father/male guardian	17.4	NA	3.4	NA
Did not discuss with either parent	60.5	NA	75.6	NA
Growing up matters (menstruation for girls, voice change/facial growth for boys)				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	6.8	6.9	35.7	70.7
Discussed with father/male guardian	3.3	5.0	0.1	0.5
Did not discuss with either parent	91.3	91.1	64.3	29.1
Reproductive processes				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	NA	0.8	NA	4.9
Discussed with father/male guardian	NA	0.8	NA	0.6
Did not discuss with either parent	NA	99.1	NA	94.9
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Figure 6.2 Parent-child communication



Note: NA: Not applicable.

6.3 PARENTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE LIVES OF THEIR SONS AND DAUGHTERS

We also inquired about parents' involvement in the lives of their sons and daughters. Specifically, we asked adolescents whether their parents were aware about how they spent their free time, whether their parents encouraged them to spend time at home studying, whether they felt they could share their personal concerns with their parents, and if so, whether their parents would listen to their concerns. Findings are presented in Table 6.4.

Many adolescents reported that their parents were aware about how they spend their free time, but gender differences, and among boys, differences by age, were apparent. Among boys, those aged 15-21 were far less likely to report parental awareness of how they spent their time than were those aged 10-14 (53% versus 69%), while among girls, older and younger girls were about as likely to report parental awareness (83-84%). Gender differences were wide for adolescents at each age with boys far less likely than girls to report parental awareness of how they spent their free time. Among younger adolescents, 69 percent of boys, compared to 83 percent of girls, reported parental awareness of their free time. Among older adolescents, corresponding percentages were 53 and 84.

The majority of adolescents reported that their parents encouraged them to study at home. Among younger adolescents, among whom most were enrolled in school, more than nine in ten boys and girls reported parental encouragement (91-93%). Among older adolescents, fewer reported parental encouragement for studies (73-76%).

Perceptions about their comfort levels about discussing personal matters such as career aspirations or what they want to be in the future with parents suggest that considerable proportions (71-78%) could speak to their parents about personal matters such as their career aspirations, and most believed that they could speak to their parents and their parents would listen to them (67-75%). Differences by age and sex were modest overall. For example, 74-78 percent of boys and slightly fewer –71-75 percent -- of girls believed they could discuss personal matters such as career aspirations with their parents; 71-75 percent of boys and 67-70 percent of girls believed that their parents would take their concerns seriously.

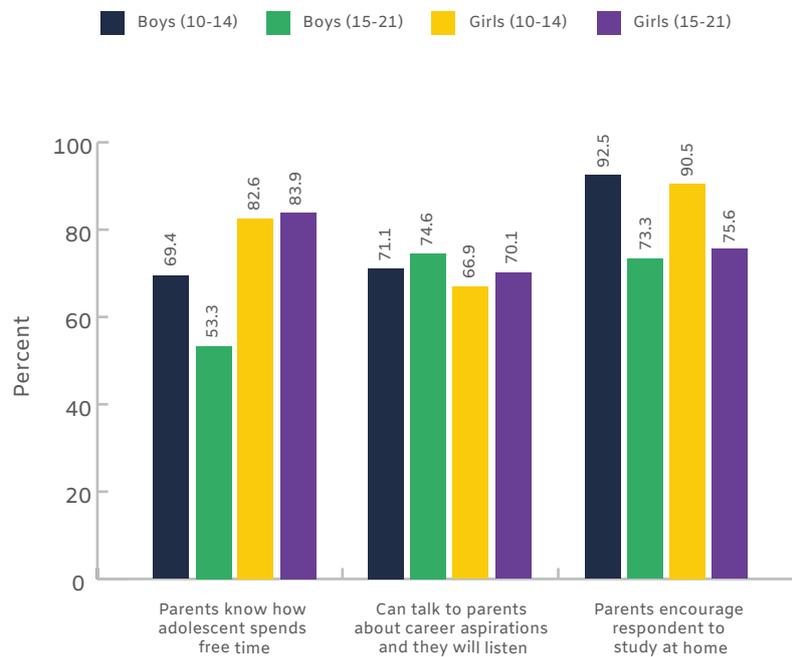
Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas in perceptions of parental involvement in their life were observed inconsistently. For example, more younger boys in comparison than intervention areas believed that their parents knew how they spent their free time (70% versus 63%), while the reverse was observed among older boys (53% versus 58% of those in comparison and intervention areas, respectively). More older girls in comparison than intervention areas believe they could talk to their parents about personal matters (76% versus 71%), and more younger girls in comparison than intervention areas believed that they could both talk to their parents about personal matters and that their parents would listen to their concerns (68% versus 63%). Finally, more older girls from comparison than intervention areas noted that their parents encouraged them to study at home (76% versus 71%).

Table 6.4 Parents’ involvement in the lives of their sons and daughters
Percentage of adolescents whose parents are aware of how free time is spent, who can talk to parents about personal matters, and who are encouraged to study at home, Jharkhand, 2018

Types of interaction	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)
Parents awareness of how adolescent spends free time				
Parents know how adolescent spends free time	69.4	53.3	82.6	83.9
Parents do not know how adolescent spends free time	26.7	28.9	13.7	12.7
Can't say	3.9	17.8	3.7	3.3
Adolescent can talk to parents about personal matters such as career aspirations or what they want to become in the future and parents will take them seriously				
Yes, can talk to parents about career aspirations	73.9	78.2	70.5	75.4
Yes, can talk to parents about career aspirations and they will listen	71.1	74.6	66.9	70.1
Encouragement to study at home				
Parents encourage respondent to study at home	92.5	73.3	90.5	75.6
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 6.3 Parents' involvement in the lives of their sons and daughters



6.4 GENDER DISPARITIES IN CHILDREARING PRACTICES

We sought to understand adolescents' perceptions about gender disparities in childrearing practices within the home, among adolescents who had a similarly aged sibling of the opposite sex co-residing with them (an opposite-sex sibling who was up to three years older or younger than the respondent). To do so, we asked four questions to all unmarried girls – whether they were given less pocket money than their brother, sent to a poorer quality school than their brother, made to do more housework than their brother, had less freedom of movement than their brother, and, for older girls, faced more restrictions than their brother in accessing a job. Boys were asked, correspondingly, whether they were given more pocket money than their sister, sent to a better-quality school than their sister, did less housework than their sister, had more freedom of movement than their sister, and, for older boys, faced fewer restrictions in accessing a job than their sister.

Findings presented in Table 6.5 confirm gender disparities in childrearing practices, and highlight that parents tended to favour their sons over their daughters. With regard to pocket money for example, 21–24 percent of boys agreed that they were given more pocket money than their sister. Correspondingly, 24–32 percent of girls acknowledged that they were given less pocket money than their brother. Discrimination in terms of quality of schools to which girls and boys were sent was mild: while 8–9 percent of boys acknowledged that they had been sent to a better-quality school than their sister, 12–14 percent of girls agreed that they had been sent to a poorer quality school than their brother. Housework responsibilities fell more on girls than their brothers, with 68–69 percent of younger and older boys agreeing that their sister spent more time in housework than they did, compared to somewhat fewer girls (62–63%) reporting that they spent more time in housework than did their brother. Both boys and girls recognised that girls were more limited in their movement, with 62 percent of younger boys and 77 percent of older boys acknowledging that they had more freedom of movement than their sisters, and somewhat fewer girls – 55 percent and 60 percent of younger and older girls, respectively – agreeing that their mobility was more restricted than that of their brother. Finally, 62 percent of older boys agreed that they had more freedom in terms of career-related options than did their sister; just 35 percent of girls agreed that they were given less freedom in finding work.

Differences in gender discriminatory practices by age were modest. However, younger boys were considerably less likely than older boys to acknowledge their sister's more limited freedom of movement (62% versus 77%), younger girls were more likely than older girls to acknowledge that their parents gave their brother more pocket money than they received (32% versus 24%), and were less likely to acknowledge that they had less freedom of movement than their brother than were older girls (55% versus 60%).

Gender differences were also evident. Among younger adolescents, more girls than boys recognised discrimination against girls in terms of pocket money (32% versus 21%) and quality of school attended (14% versus 8%) but girls were less likely than boys to acknowledge that they were made to spend more time in housework than their brother (63% versus 68%) or that they had less mobility than their brother (55% versus 62%). Among older adolescents, fewer girls than boys acknowledged that they were made to perform more housework than their brother (62% versus 69%), or perceived that they had less freedom of movement than their brother (60% versus 77%) or that girls' ability to access work was more restricted than that of their brothers (35% versus 62%).

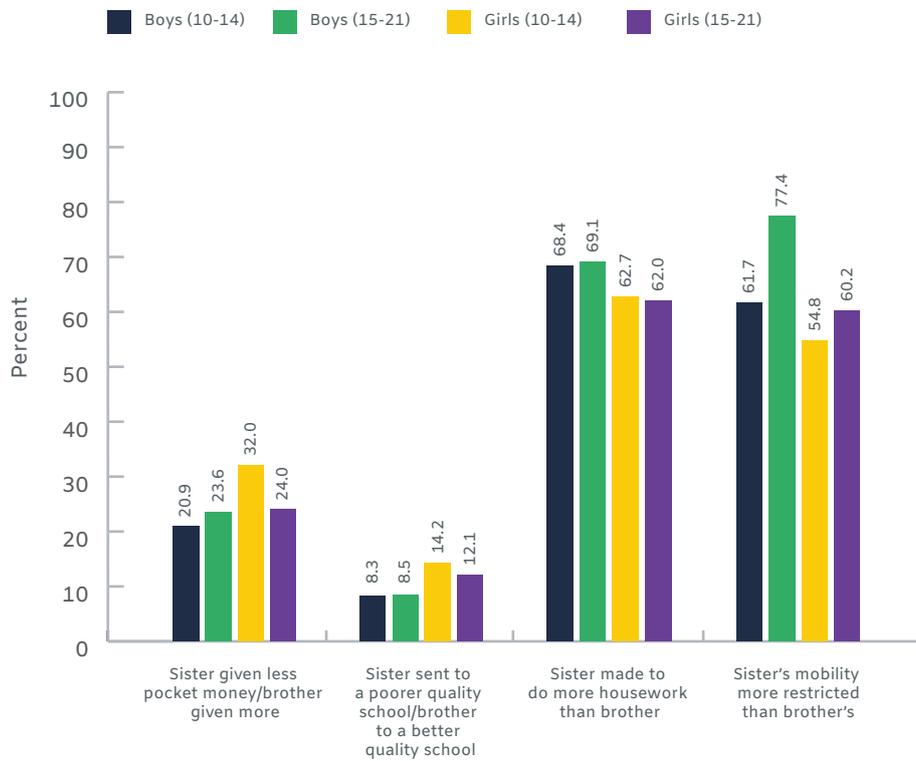
Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were evident on many indicators of gender disparities in childrearing practices. Where differences were apparent, for the most part, it was those in intervention areas who were more likely than those in comparison areas to acknowledge gender disparate socialisation experiences, notably with regard to pocket money (all except younger girls among whom differences were not observed), school quality, and, among older adolescents, restrictions on work. The only other notable difference was that older boys in intervention areas were more likely than those in comparison areas to acknowledge their more limited contribution to housework (74% versus 69%) than their sister and had more freedom of movement than she had (78% versus 73%).

Table 6.5 Gender disparities in childrearing practices
Percentage of unmarried adolescents residing with a similarly-aged sibling of the opposite sex (three or fewer years older or younger) reporting gender disparities in childrearing practices, Jharkhand, 2018

Child rearing practices	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)
Sister given less pocket money/brother given more	20.9	23.6	32.0	24.0
Sister sent to a poorer quality school/brother to a better quality school	8.3	8.5	14.2	12.1
Sister made to do more housework than brother	68.4	69.1	62.7	62.0
Sister's mobility more restricted than brother's	61.7	77.4	54.8	60.2
Sister's freedom to find work more restricted than brother's	NA	61.9	NA	35.2
Number of respondents residing with a similarly-aged opposite-sex sibling (three or fewer years older or younger)	1,313	884	1,627	1,233

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Figure 6.4 Gender disparities in childrearing practices



6.5 PARENTS AS LEADING ROLE MODELS

We asked adolescents whether they had a role model, that is someone they admired and aspired to be like, and those who reported that they had a role model were probed about who their role model was/role models were. Findings, presented in Table 6.6, show that relatively few adolescents had a role model: 36–40 percent of boys and 24–48 percent of girls. Differences by age were narrow among boys but more unmarried older girls than younger girls (48% versus 42%) reported a role model. Gender differences were apparent among both younger and older adolescents, with more girls than boys at each age reporting a role model (42% versus 36% among younger adolescents, 48% versus 40% among older boys and unmarried girls). Among older girls, moreover, considerably more unmarried than married older girls) reported a role model (48% versus 24%). Aside from older boys and married girls among whom differences were narrow, in the remaining three groups, more adolescents from comparison than intervention areas reported that they had a role model (37% versus 25% of younger boys; 43% versus 37% of younger girls, 49% versus 42% of older unmarried girls).

Among those who reported a role model, the majority reported that their role model was someone from their family. Small proportions of all five groups identified their father or brother as their role model (11-12% of boys, 6-14% of girls), and gender differences were narrow. Gender differences were notable in terms of percentages of adolescents who reported that their mother or sister were their role model. For example, while hardly any boys (0-1%) reported their mother or sister as their role model, far more girls (18-32%) did so. In contrast, many more boys than girls reported relatives other than their parents and siblings as their role model (50-52% versus 30-31%).

Fewer reported that a non-family member was their role model, and gender and age differences were pronounced. Overall, however, individuals in public life and positions of authority or prominent personalities,

friends and teachers were the most often cited non-family role models. Teachers were the leading non-family member identified as a role model by girls, irrespective of age and marital status (30% of younger girls, 21-22% of older girls). Also identified by girls were friends, mentioned by nine percent of younger girls, and 12-14 percent of older girls, and those in public life and positions of authority or prominent personalities, mentioned by 4-8 percent of younger and older girls. Boys identified a different set of non-family role models. The leading role models identified by both younger and older boys were people in public life and positions of authority or prominent personalities (17-21%). While 12 percent of older boys identified friends as their role models, very few younger boys did so (1%). Also identified by a considerable proportion of older and younger boys were teachers (9-11%).

Overall, role models identified by adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were similar. However, among married girls, a larger proportion of those from intervention than comparison areas reported other relatives as their role model (35% versus 30%) and a smaller proportion of those from intervention than comparison areas reported a teacher as their role model (11% versus 23%).

Table 6.6 Adolescents' role models
Percentage of adolescents having a role model, and among them, identifying their role models, Jharkhand, 2018

Person identified as role model	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Role model					
Adolescent has someone he/she considers a role model	35.9	39.7	41.9	47.8	24.4
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Person identified as role model					
Mother/sister	1.4	0.2	18.0	20.3	32.2
Father/brother	12.0	11.0	8.8	14.4	6.4
Other relatives	51.9	49.9	31.0	30.3	30.9
Friends and neighbours	1.3	12.2	8.6	11.9	14.0
Teachers	10.8	8.8	29.9	21.3	21.5
Health personnel	1.9	0.4	2.3	1.5	2.2
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers) or prominent personalities	21.1	17.4	6.0	7.7	3.7
Number of respondents who reported their having a role model	954	1,105	1,519	1,312	413

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable

6.6 PARENTS AS LEADING CONFIDANTES

Typically, in adolescence, the leading confidantes on private matters shift from parents and family to friends and non-family persons in authority. In order to assess adolescents' network of confidantes for personal matters, we asked adolescents about the individual with whom they would be most likely to discuss three personal matters. We asked younger adolescents (aged 10-14) about who they were most likely to confide an experience of being teased or bullied. All adolescents were asked about who they were most likely to confide in about problems in their private parts, and older unmarried adolescents (those aged 13-14 and 15-21) were asked about who they were most likely to confide in regarding a relationship with an opposite-sex friend or romantic partner, while married girls were asked who they would confide in regarding a problem in their married life.

Findings, presented in Table 6.7, highlight that the profile of confidantes differed by subject matter, as well as age, sex, and, among older girls, by marital status. For example, younger boys and girls identified their

mother as their leading confidante on both teasing or bullying and problems in private parts (57% and 58%, respectively for boys, 77% and 88%, respectively, for girls). Several younger boys, but very few younger girls, considered their father their leading confidante on these matters – 24 percent versus four percent with regard to teasing or bullying, and 31 percent versus one percent with regard to having a problem in the private parts. Others – such as a sibling, other relative, friend or authority figures – were mentioned by five percent or fewer younger adolescents as a leading confidante on these matters. A somewhat different profile emerged among 13-14 year olds when asked about their leading confidante about a relationship with an opposite-sex friend. Now, 51 percent of boys and 40 percent of girls aged 13-14 cited a friend as their leading confidante, and 16 percent and 28 percent, respectively, cited their mother as the leading confidante. Very few adolescents cited their father (6% of boys and 0.1% of girls). Seven percent of girls, but just one percent of boys cited their sister as the leading confidante.

Among older adolescents there is clearly a suggestion of a decline in reliance on parents, but even so the mother continues to be a leading confidante for many. Gender differences, and among girls, differences by marital status, are wide. With regard to problems in the private parts, for example, 28 percent of boys compared to 80 percent of unmarried girls and 21 percent of married girls considered their mother their leading confidante, 26 percent of boys and hardly any girls considered their father to be so. Many boys but few girls cited a friend (22% versus 2-5%), and a health care provider (15% versus 0-1%) as a leading confidante. The leading confidante for married girls was their husband, cited by two in three married girls (67%); in contrast, the leading confidante for unmarried girls continued to be their mother (cited by 80%).

The pattern is quite different with regard to the individual in whom the adolescent would be most likely to confide on matters pertaining to opposite-sex friends or romantic partners, and, in the case of married girls, a marital problem. Now, friends were described as the leading confidantes by both boys and unmarried girls aged 15–21, although far more boys than girls cited a friend (75% versus 48% of unmarried girls). Relatively few married girls cited a friend (8%). In contrast, few unmarried adolescents considered their mother to be as a leading confidante about boy-girl matters (8% of boys and 22% of girls); however, as many as 56 percent of married girls considered their mother to be their leading confidante for marital problems, followed by 16 percent who considered their husband himself as their leading confidante.

Overall, significant minorities of adolescents reported that they did not have a confidante for any of the matters probed. 3-5 percent of younger adolescents reported that they had no one in whom to confide about bullying and teasing, and a similar proportion from all five groups reported no one to confide in about problems in the private parts (2-4%). When it came to boy-girl matters or, among the married, problems in married life, proportions were much higher: 21–25 percent of younger boys and girls aged 13-14, and 9-15 percent of those aged 15-21.

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were negligible (less than five percent) on all indicators, with one exception – more younger boys in comparison than intervention areas cited their mother as their leading confidante on problems in private parts (59% versus 54%).

Table 6.7 Parents versus others as leading confidante on personal matters
Percent distribution of adolescents by individual in whom they are most likely to confide about personal matters, Jharkhand, 2018

Person identified as leading confidante	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Bullying					
Mother	57.1	NA	76.5	NA	NA
Father	24.4	NA	3.9	NA	NA
Brother	1.5	NA	0.7	NA	NA
Sister	0.4	NA	3.9	NA	NA
Other relatives	2.5	NA	2.5	NA	NA
Friends including romantic partner	3.0	NA	4.8	NA	NA

Person identified as leading confidante	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Health care provider	0.0	NA	0.0	NA	NA
Teacher	6.1	NA	4.4	NA	NA
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.2	NA	0.0	NA	NA
Nobody	4.9	NA	3.3	NA	NA
Number of respondents	3,473		4,104		
Problem in private parts					
Mother	58.2	27.6	88.2	79.8	20.8
Father	31.1	25.7	0.5	0.1	0.4
Brother	1.6	4.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sister	0.4	0.3	3.1	6.3	3.6
Other relatives	2.4	1.9	3.0	5.1	2.1
Friends including romantic partner	2.8	21.6	1.9	5.2	2.1
Health care provider	1.1	14.7	0.0	0.7	0.4
Teacher	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.7
Husband	NA	NA	NA	NA	67.4
Nobody	2.4	3.6	3.3	2.8	2.4
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Problem with opposite sex friend/romantic partner (unmarried)/in married life (married)	Boys (13–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (13–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Mother	16.3	8.0	28.1	22.4	56.2
Father	5.6	1.6	0.1	0.7	1.8
Brother	0.6	2.6	0.6	0.7	0.9
Sister	1.0	1.1	7.0	9.5	3.1
Other relatives	0.8	1.6	3.2	3.3	2.0
Friends including romantic partner	51.3	74.5	40.3	48.4	8.3
Health care provider	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.3
Teacher	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.7
Husband	NA	NA	NA	NA	15.7
Nobody	24.5	9.3	20.9	15	11.2
Number of respondents	1,289	3,150	1,631	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

6.7 REACTION TO PARENTAL PRESSURE

In order to gauge the nature of the relationship between parents and adolescents, we posed a vignette to respondents, and asked them to recommend what the protagonist in the story should do. The vignette went as follows: *Meenu is 16 years old and wants to become a doctor. Her parents have arranged her marriage but she doesn't want to marry so early. What should she do?* We requested respondents to indicate the key recommendation they would make to Meenu. Responses are provided in Table 6.8.

Clearly, despite adolescents' perceptions that they can discuss personal matters with their parents, the recommendation that Meenu should express her views to her parents was far from universally cited (by 44% of younger boys, 54% of younger girls and older boys, 56% of married girls, and 67% of older girls), and age, sex and marital status differences among older girls were pronounced. Older adolescents were more likely than their younger counterparts to recommend that Meenu confronts her parents (54% versus 44% of boys; 67% versus 54% of unmarried girls). At each age, more girls than boys recommended that Meenu should confront her parents (54% versus 44% among younger adolescents; 67% versus 54% among older boys and unmarried girls). Among older girls, the unmarried were clearly more likely than the married to recommend that Meenu express herself to her parents (67% versus 56%).

Table 6.8 Reaction to parental pressure: Responses on vignettes
Percentage of adolescents reporting on how they would advise a girl who was being compelled to enter into an underage marriage, Jharkhand, 2018

Reaction to parental pressure to marry in adolescence	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Obey parents' wishes and marry	19.2	22.3	19.4	20.0	29.5
Express her opinion to her parents/convince her parents	44.1	53.5	54.2	67.2	55.7
Seek help from ASHA/AWW	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.0
Seek help from teacher or police	6.7	10.7	5.9	7.4	3.9
Seek help from locally influential person	0.6	1.5	0.7	1.0	1.2
Seek help from peer educator	0.9	1.2	0.6	0.1	0.1
Seek help from friend	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.1	2.5
Other (elope, study after marriage etc.)	1.4	2.0	0.7	0.8	0.1
Don't know/can't say	25.5	7.2	16.8	2.5	7.0
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Many adolescents, in contrast, recommended that Meenu should obey her parents, and now age and gender differences were not observed. About one in five adolescents, excluding married girls so reported (19% of younger boys and girls, and 20-22% of older boys and unmarried girls). More married girls than any other group expressed this view (30%).

Several adolescents suggested that Meenu seek outside help in convincing her parents, notably teachers and law enforcement authorities (4-11%), and hardly any suggested others, such as frontline workers, individuals in positions of authority, friends and peer educators (2-4% in all).

Notably, large proportions of younger adolescents (26% of boys and 17% of girls) and fewer older adolescents (3-7%) did not give a response.

Differences in the responses of adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were not observed for the most part. However, among younger boys, more of those from comparison than intervention areas reported that Meenu should convey her objections to her parents (45% versus 38%) and conversely, fewer reported that they did not know what she should do (24% versus 38%).





CHAPTER 7

AGENCY, SUPPORT NETWORKS, ATTITUDES

Exercise of agency in life choices and the acquisition of leadership skills have been identified as key markers of a successful transition to adulthood. Numerous programmes have incorporated a strong focus on empowering adolescents, particularly girls, and changing traditional gender norms of masculinity and femininity toward espousing more equal roles for men and women. This chapter explores adolescents' agency or ability to make informed choices affecting their life, the extent to which they have a support network of peers with whom to interact and share ideas, the kinds of gender role attitudes they espouse, and the extent to which they express prosocial attitudes. Exercise of agency and the acquisition of leadership skills and egalitarian attitudes are important not only in enabling adolescents to attain the markers of a successful transition to adulthood in domains such as education, careers, marriage and childbearing; but also in enabling them to claim their rights and entitlements, and, in the longer term, contribute to nation-building. We have operationalised difficult concepts such as agency, freedom of movement, self-efficacy, gender role attitudes and prosocial attitudes, following measures employed in other studies, largely the UDAYA study (Santhya et al., 2016a; 2016b), but also the Youth in India: Situation and Needs 2006-07 study (IIPS and Population Council, 2010), the AAG study evaluation (UNFPA, 2018) and others.

In this chapter, we discuss adolescents' agency, as well as their access to peer and group support, and their attitudes, including their gender role attitudes and their prosocial attitudes, or a willingness to mix with those belonging to religions and castes different from their own.

In this chapter, we present adolescents' reports on each of these issues for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

7.1 AGENCY

We measured agency via a range of questions reflecting adolescents' decision-making authority about matters affecting their life, their freedom of movement or mobility, their access to and control over resources (Tables 7.1-7.5) and their sense of self-efficacy (Tables 7.6-7.7). Findings suggest that agency is limited, and as expected, hugely gendered in many instances. Married girls were particularly constrained on all four dimensions of agency about which we probed.

Decision-making

In order to measure decision-making authority, we asked respondents about their participation in decisions related to their life. We asked all adolescents who had ever gone to school about the decision-making process on how much education they should have, and asked all adolescents regarding decision-making on the timing of their marriage. For those aged 10-14, we asked, in addition, about decision-making about going to a friend's house, and, for those aged 15-21, we asked about decisions on major household purchases, and whether or not to engage in work. Those adolescents who reported that they were involved in decision-making on any issue were probed about whether they made or would make the decision entirely on their own or together with other family members. Summary measures were also created, in which we summed the percentage of adolescents who had participated in all decisions for which they were eligible.

Age, gender and marital status differences in participation in various decisions - either independently or together with parents and other family members - are apparent. In response to a question about who made or would make decisions on their education (whether or not to continue schooling, how much education they

would pursue), 62 percent of boys and 46 percent of girls aged 10-14 reported that they do or did participate in school related decisions. Among those aged 15-21, 83 percent of boys, 66 percent of unmarried girls and 49 percent of married girls so reported. Clearly, for many adolescents, and especially for 10-14 year old girls, schooling related decisions were made entirely by parents and other family members with no participation from the adolescent herself or himself. And while older adolescents were more likely to report decision-making authority, their decision-making authority was, overall, limited and gendered. Among older girls, marital status differences were wide, with married girls far less than their unmarried counterparts to report that they were consulted.

More younger adolescents participated in the decision about going to a friend's house, but gender differences were wide: while 81 percent of boys participated, and 53 percent made the decision on their own, far fewer girls participated in the decision (64%) or made the decision independently (28%).

Even fewer adolescents believed that they would participate or had participated in marriage related decisions: 34 percent of boys aged 10-14, and 51 percent of boys aged 15-21, compared to far fewer girls, namely, 23 percent of those aged 10-14, 37 percent of unmarried girls aged 15-21 and 28 percent of married girls aged 15-21. As above, older adolescents were more likely than younger ones, boys were more likely than girls, and among older girls, the unmarried were more likely than the married to report that they would participate or had participated in marriage related decisions.

Many older adolescents were excluded from decisions on household purchases. Just 40 percent of boys and fewer - 31 percent - of unmarried girls participated in these decisions. More married than unmarried girls participated in decisions on major household purchases (44% versus 31%), but notably, hardly any adolescents reported that they were able to take independent decisions on such purchases (1-3%). Finally, gender disparities, and among older girls, disparities by marital status, were also observed in adolescents' reports of participation in work related decisions: overall, 90 percent of boys, compared to 65 percent of unmarried girls and 59 percent of married girls reported that they made work related decisions independently or together with parents and family members. Also notable is that while 64 percent of boys reported that they had decided or would decide independently about whether to work or stay at home, far fewer girls so reported (15-21%). Conversely, far fewer boys than girls reported that they were not involved or would not be consulted in work related decisions (10% versus 35-41%).

Notably, married girls were particularly likely to be excluded from decisions affecting their life. In three of the four decisions, they were less likely than their unmarried counterparts to be consulted. And in both schooling- and marriage-related decisions about which we probed among both younger and older adolescents, fewer married girls than boys aged 10-14 reported participation (56% versus 62%; 28% versus 34%).

Summary measures were created that measure percentages of adolescents who participated in decisions on all matters about which they were probed, and differ for younger and older adolescents: three decisions (education, going to a friend's house and when to get married) for younger adolescents, and four decisions (education, when to get married, household purchases and whether to work) among older adolescents. While indicators are therefore not entirely comparable across age groups, findings show that relatively few adolescents had participated in all the decisions that applied to them. In each age group, gender differences were wide. For example, among younger adolescents, 29 percent of boys, compared to 16 percent of girls reported participation in all decisions applicable to them; among older adolescents, likewise, while 31 percent of boys reported participation in all decisions applicable to them, just 18 percent of unmarried girls, and even fewer married girls, just 11 percent, had done so.

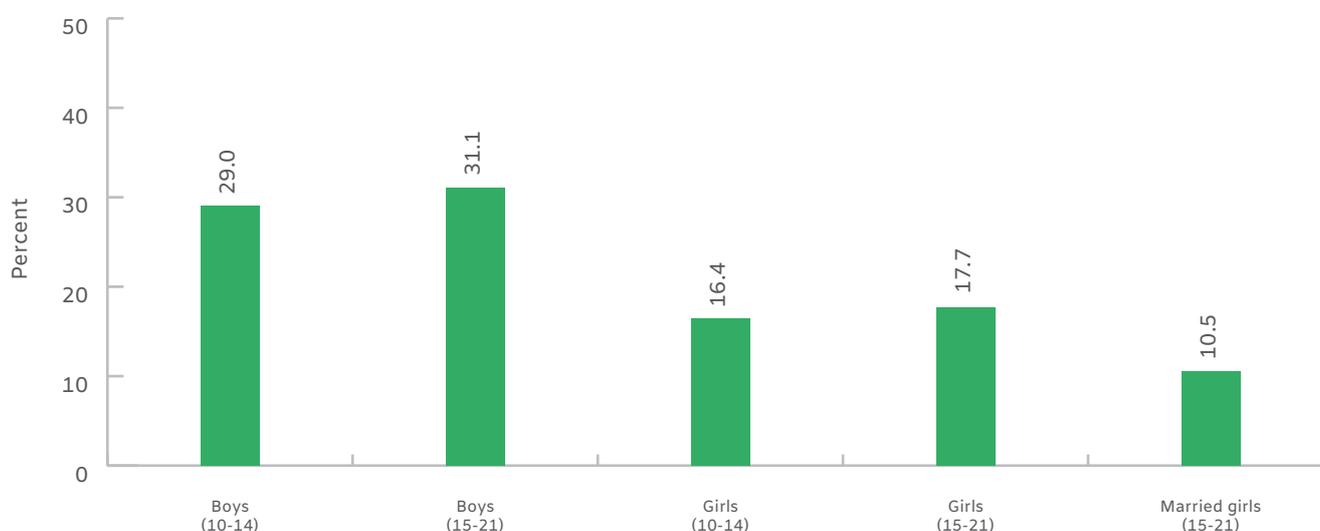
Differences by residence in intervention and comparison areas were, for the most part, narrow. However, some exceptions were observed –younger girls in intervention areas were somewhat more likely than those in comparison areas to report participation in the decision on going to a friend's house (70% versus 63%), and married girls in intervention areas were less likely than married girls in comparison areas to report participation in decisions on marriage timing (34% versus 27%). Overall, the summary measure suggested that more younger boys in intervention than comparison areas had participated in all the decisions about which we probed (34% versus 28%); differences were mild among older boys and girls.

Table 7.1 Decision-making
Percent distribution of adolescents by participation in decision-making on selected matters, Jharkhand, 2018

Participation in decision-making	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
How much schooling respondent should have					
Respondent only	25.2	55.4	13.2	25.4	28.9
Jointly with others	36.3	27.8	33.2	40.2	19.9
Others only*	37.8	15.1	52.7	33.0	46.5
Going to a friend's house					
Respondent only	52.7	NA	28.4	NA	NA
Jointly with others	27.9	NA	35.8	NA	NA
Others only	19.4	NA	35.8	NA	NA
Marriage timing					
Respondent only	3.9	12.4	2.9	4.6	11.4
Jointly with others	29.6	38.7	20.4	32.2	16.7
Others only	63.7	48.4	72.8	62.3	71.5
Don't know	2.8	0.5	3.9	0.9	0.4
Household purchases					
Respondent only	NA	2.6	NA	0.5	1.8
Jointly with others	NA	37.5	NA	30.2	41.8
Others only	NA	60.0	NA	69.3	56.5
Working or staying at home					
Respondent only	NA	64.1	NA	21.2	14.5
Jointly with others	NA	25.6	NA	43.5	44.9
Others only	NA	10.4	NA	35.3	40.6
Decision-making summary indicator: Participated in all decisions about which this age group was probed**	29.0	31.1	16.4	17.7	10.5
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,236	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. *We assumed that those who were never enrolled did not participate in the decision. **Decision-making summary measure differed for younger and older adolescents. The indicator refers to three indicators for younger adolescents (education, marriage, going to a friend's house) and four among older adolescents, (education, marriage, household purchases and whether to work or not).

Figure 7.1 Decision-making*



Note: *Decision-making summary measure differed for younger and older adolescents. The indicator refers to three indicators for younger adolescents (education, marriage, going to a friend's house) and four among older adolescents, (education, marriage, household purchases and whether to work or not).

Table 7.2 presents the two summary measures of decision-making authority by various background characteristics. Among all groups, decision-making authority increased with age, and among most groups, adolescents belonging to the Christian and Sarna religions were more likely than those from other groups to do so. Caste-wise differences suggest that among boys and married girls, those belonging to scheduled tribes were more likely than others to have decision-making authority (37-38% versus 22-31% among boys, 14% versus 6-11% among married girls), whereas among younger and older unmarried girls, those from general castes were more likely to have decision-making authority (22-25% versus 14-21%).

Younger girls and married girls pursuing their education at the time of the interview were more likely than their counterparts who were out-of-school to have decision-making authority (17% versus 6% among younger girls, 15% versus 10% among married girls, respectively), and older girls engaged in paid work in the 12 months preceding the interview were more likely than those not so engaged to report decision-making authority (25% versus 13% among the unmarried, and 16% versus 7% among the married). Among all groups of adolescents, a fairly systematic positive association was observed between the level of education attained and decision-making authority, and a similar positive association was observed for girls, but not boys, with regard to the level of education attained by the respondent's mother and father, respectively. Household wealth status was largely unrelated to decision-making authority among boys, except among older unmarried girls among whom it showed a fairly systematic increase. Finally, differences by rural-urban residence were not observed among boys or married girls, but among unmarried girls, those in urban areas were far more likely than their rural counterparts to have decision-making authority (25% versus 13% among younger girls, 25% versus 14% among older girls).

Table 7.2: Decision-making by selected background characteristics
Percentage of adolescents who participated in various decisions affecting their life* by selected background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Background characteristics	Participated in both decisions		Participated in all four decisions		
	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Age					
10-12	26.0	NA	13.0	NA	NA
13-14	33.7	NA	22.1	NA	NA
15-17	NA	25.5	NA	15.3	5.8
18-19	NA	35.0	NA	18.3	9.9
20-21	NA	43.7	NA	28.8	13.2
Religion¹					
Hindu	29.6	28.9	16.7	18.9	9.3
Muslim	15.8	24.2	8.4	9.1	7.4
Christian	36.8	44.7	20.3	25.8	21.7
Sarna	41.4	49.7	27.5	23.6	26.3
Caste²					
SC	28.0	30.9	14.8	14.3	6.0
ST	36.6	38.2	20.5	18.8	14.2
OBC	27.3	27.9	14.1	16.4	10.5
General	21.8	28.8	22.0	24.7	6.2
Completed years of schooling					
None ³	(0.0)	0.0	0.3	2.3	2.4
1–4	25.2	34.9	10.9	33.3	6.5
5–7	29.1	29.7	17.4	16.7	7.0
8–9	39.5	25.4	29.1	14.7	9.6
10–11	-	31.9	-	15.7	10.6
12 and above	-	46.4	-	28.9	21.7
Current schooling status⁴					
No	28.0	31.0	6.3	15.5	10.2
Yes	29.0	31.1	17.2	19.0	14.7
Paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview					
No	28.7	30.0	16.6	13.1	7.1
Yes	31.1	32.2	15.6	24.9	15.5
Wealth quintile					
First	31.4	34.6	11.3	9.6	7.3
Second	27.7	26.1	9.9	15.0	13.1
Third	29.1	31.9	16.5	13.4	9.3
Fourth	23.6	35.1	17.1	15.0	6.3
Fifth	30.1	28.9	28.8	28.9	14.7

Background characteristics	Participated in both decisions		Participated in all four decisions		
	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	28.5	31.5	11.6	13.3	9.4
1-7	29.9	27.1	21.1	15.7	17.6
8-9	20.8	35.3	23.4	25.5	13.9
10 and above	35.4	30.5	31.7	31.8	19.4
Don't Know	29.2	28.7	13.7	23.8	(4.3)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	29.7	29.7	10.7	13.8	10.0
1-7	30.4	36.3	19.4	11.1	10.0
8-9	28.9	23.2	19.2	15.7	12.0
10 and above	28.2	29.6	25.1	26.5	16.4
Don't Know	27.6	41.5	11.8	22.2	3.7
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	25.8	31.4	25.0	25.4	8.5
Rural	30.2	30.9	13.4	13.6	10.5

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: Includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ³Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school. ⁴Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling. *Decision-making summary measure differed for younger and older adolescents. Because the question on schooling related decisions excluded those never enrolled in school, the indicator refers to two indicators for younger adolescents (marriage, going to a friend's house) and among older adolescents, it is based on three indicators (marriage, household purchases and whether to work or not).

Freedom of movement or mobility

We probed the extent of adolescents' freedom of movement or mobility by asking whether they were permitted to visit places within and outside the village or urban area unescorted. The places about which we probed comprised several located within their village or urban area, including a shop, market, or home of a relative or friend, and a programme (mela, sports event, meeting). They also included such locations outside their village or urban area as a shop, market, or home of a relative or friend, and a health centre. Findings, presented in Table 7.3, show wide disparities by age, gender, and, among older girls, marital status. As expected, freedom of movement also varied by location, with more adolescents reporting mobility within their village or urban area than outside it, and more adolescents reporting mobility to visit a familiar place (shop, market, or the home of a friend or relative) than a less familiar location (programme or event, health centre).

The most striking finding of Table 7.3 is the extent of gender disparities, and the limited freedom of movement of girls. Relatively few boys face restrictions on their mobility. Among boys aged 15-21, well over 90 percent had freedom to visit three of the four locations probed (92-99%); and over three in four (77%) had freedom to visit the fourth, that is, a health centre outside the village or urban areas. Among other groups, even younger boys had more mobility than older girls – for example, while 93 percent of younger boys had freedom to visit a shop, market or the home of a friend or relative within the village or urban area, just 87 percent of younger girls and unmarried older girls so reported, as did even fewer married girls (58% did so report). Freedom to attend a programme or event within the village or urban area unescorted was reported, likewise, by 67 percent of younger boys, compared to 35 percent of younger girls and married older girls, and 48 percent of unmarried girls aged 15-21. Disparities were wide also within regard to visiting a shop, market or home of a friend or relative outside the village or urban area - 40 percent of younger boys, compared to 14 percent of younger girls, 27 percent of married girls, and 38 percent of older unmarried girls.

Also striking is the consistent finding that the freedom of movement of married girls was more restricted than the mobility of unmarried older girls. Just 58 percent of married girls, for example, compared with 87 percent of their unmarried counterparts were allowed to visit a shop, market, or the home of a friend or relative within their village or urban area unescorted, just 35 percent, compared to 48 percent were

permitted to attend a programme or event within their village or urban area unescorted, and just 27 percent compared to 38 percent were allowed to visit a shop, market, or home of a friend or relative outside their village or urban area unescorted. The only exception is that similar proportions of married and unmarried girls were permitted to visit a health centre outside their village or urban area unescorted (25-27%).

As expected, moreover, age differences were evident, with more older than younger adolescents reporting freedom of movement to visit each of the four locations probed, with some exceptions – similar proportions of younger and older unmarried girls reported freedom to visit a shop, market, or home of a friend or relative within their village or urban area (87%), and similar proportions of younger girls and older married girls reported freedom to attend a programme or event within their village or urban area (35%).

A summary measure was created from the four questions relating to freedom to visit places unescorted within and outside their village or urban area; this indicator shows the percentage of adolescents who were free to visit unescorted at least three of the four places about which we probed. Table 7.3 shows that 35 percent of younger boys, compared to 91 percent of older boys had freedom to visit at least three locations unescorted. In comparison, only 11 percent of younger girls, 33 percent of unmarried older girls, and 28 percent of married older girls had such freedom. Age and gender disparities were wide, and what is notable is the extent to which girls' freedom of movement is curtailed: disparities are wide even among younger boys and girls (35% versus 11%), and become even more so among older ones (91% versus 28-33%).

Differences between those from comparison and intervention areas were negligible for the most part, including the summary measure. However, more younger boys and older unmarried girls from comparison areas than their respective counterparts from intervention areas were allowed to visit a shop, market, or friend's or relative's house outside their village or urban area unescorted their counterparts in intervention areas (41% versus 36% of younger boys; 39% versus 34% of unmarried older girls).

Table 7.3 Freedom of movement
Percentage of adolescents permitted to visit selected locations within or outside the village/ward, Jharkhand, 2018

Mobility indicators	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Permitted to visit various places alone/unescorted:					
Shop/market/ or a friend/relative within village/ward	92.7	99.3	86.9	86.6	58.0
Shop/market or a friend /relative outside village/ward	40.0	92.3	13.6	38.1	26.6
Attend programme (mela, sports event, adolescent group meeting) within village/ward	66.5	94.3	35.2	47.8	34.6
Health centre outside the village/ward	15.7	77.2	4.8	26.7	24.7
At least three of four places	35.3	91.3	10.7	32.5	27.8
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 7.4 presents differentials by selected background characteristics in the percentage of adolescents permitted to visit unescorted at least three of the four places about which we probed. Patterns were inconsistent across the five groups, aside from the finding that within each group, age was positively associated with freedom of movement (from 25% of boys aged 10-12 to 98% of boys aged 20-21, and from 9% of girls aged 10-12 to 54% of unmarried girls aged 20-21).

Among boys aged 10-14, notable differences included the following: more Muslim boys than those from other religions (42% versus 32-34%), more boys not in school than those in school (63% versus 33%), and more boys who had not worked in the 12 months preceding the interview than those who had worked (55% versus 33%) reported freedom of movement. The association between completed years of schooling

and freedom of movement was U-shaped, with larger proportions of those with no education (94%) and 8-9 years of education (57%) reporting freedom of movement, than those with 1-7 years of schooling (20-38%). An even but generally inverse association was observed with household wealth status, and parental educational attainment levels.

Among boys aged 15-21, differences were more muted. However, freedom of movement was reported by more of those from general castes than other castes (96% versus 89-92%), and more who had not worked compared to those who had worked for wages in the 12 months preceding the interview (94% versus 89%). By education, fewer boys with 1-7 years of education than others reported freedom of movement (78-83% versus 89-99%).

Among girls of both age groups too, differences were muted, with some notable exceptions. More girls aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21 belonging to general castes (15% and 48% respectively) reported freedom of movement than did those belong to other castes (10% and 23-32%, respectively), but among the married, more of those belonging to scheduled tribes than any other groups so reported (38% versus 14-28%). Among both married and unmarried girls, those pursuing their education at the time of the interview were more likely than others to report freedom of movement (39% versus 22%, 34% versus 27%, respectively), but differences were not evident among younger girls (9-11%). Associations of the number of years of schooling completed and household wealth status with freedom of movement were, by and large, positive, although increases were not uniform. What was fairly consistently observed among girls was a positive association between paternal and especially maternal educational attainment levels and freedom of movement. Finally, rural-urban disparities were prominent among younger boys and older girls; among younger boys, those in rural areas were more likely than those in urban areas to have freedom of movement (38% versus 29%), whereas among older girls the opposite was true – far fewer of those in rural than urban areas had freedom of movement (25-27% versus 44%).

Table 7.4: Freedom of movement by selected background characteristics
Percentage of adolescents who could visit at least three selected locations unescorted by selected background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Background characteristics	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Age					
10-12	25.4	NA	9.2	NA	NA
13-14	51.0	NA	13.1	NA	NA
15-17	NA	87.8	NA	27.3	19.8
18-19	NA	94.3	NA	35.1	22.4
20-21	NA	98.4	NA	53.6	36.2
Religion¹					
Hindu	34.2	91.1	11.0	36.1	31.3
Muslim	42.1	93.9	8.2	22.2	13.2
Christian	31.6	91.3	15.4	33.8	40.1
Sarna	33.7	89.8	11.2	25.1	30.2
Caste²					
SC	33.8	89.2	10.0	23.1	14.4
ST	37.5	89.9	10.0	31.2	37.8
OBC	34.8	91.5	10.1	31.6	27.6
General	34.2	96.0	15.1	47.8	21.4

Background characteristics	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Completed years of schooling					
None ³	(94.3)	99.1	11.0	21.1	22.2
1-4	20.3	77.5	7.1	1.6	40.8
5-7	38.1	83.1	10.8	19.5	21.8
8-9	56.7	89.4	18.8	23.7	24.9
10-11	-	94.9	-	36.3	24.2
12 and above	-	97.8	-	60.8	39.7
Current schooling status⁴					
No	63.2	90.5	8.5	22.0	27.4
Yes	33.3	91.8	10.8	38.7	34.0
Paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview					
Yes	32.5	89.2	11.0	31.9	21.5
No	55.4	93.6	9.3	33.3	37.0
Wealth quintile					
First	44.9	91.4	6.8	20.4	27.2
Second	27.9	92.7	6.4	19.7	28.0
Third	36.0	85.8	15.6	30.6	28.6
Fourth	34.9	94.2	11.0	37.4	23.2
Fifth	30.6	94.2	14.4	47.9	30.4
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	38.6	91.5	8.5	23.7	26.5
1-7	33.5	92.6	9.3	41.6	33.8
8-9	36.7	88.0	13.9	42.0	31.1
10 and above	27.7	92.3	20.7	56.8	40.2
Don't Know	30.4	89.4	10.5	22.3	24.6
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	36.9	91.4	8.5	22.0	29.3
1-7	37.0	94.5	9.3	30.9	33.4
8-9	39.2	90.0	13.4	36.8	21.3
10 and above	31.3	90.9	13.8	45.5	27.8
Don't Know	33.4	88.3	10.0	25.1	16.6
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	28.7	92.8	16.0	43.9	44.3
Rural	37.8	90.7	8.8	26.6	24.9

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: Includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ³Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school. ⁴Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

Access to and control over resources

We probed adolescents' access to financial resources through questions about whether they had any savings, whether they owned an account in a bank or a post office. We also measured their control over resources by asking those who owned an account whether they operated it themselves. Results, presented in Table 7.5, highlight that access to and control over resources were far from universal.

Overall, 55-77 percent of adolescents reported some cash savings that they had retained from money they had earned, were gifted or received as pocket money. Differences by age were evident, with older adolescents more likely than younger adolescents to have had some cash savings (71-77% versus 55-63%). Gender disparities were evident among younger adolescents, among whom girls were more likely than boys to report cash savings (63% versus 55%); disparities were not observed among older adolescents (76% of boys, 71-77% of girls). Among older girls, the unmarried were somewhat more likely than the married to report cash savings (77% versus 71%). Finally, we found no differences between adolescents in comparison and intervention areas in reports of cash savings.

Ownership of a bank or post office account, either independently or jointly with someone else was reported by 61-75 percent of the five groups. While about as many older boys who reported any cash savings also reported owning a bank or post office account (75-76%), and while about as many older unmarried girls reported cash savings as owning a bank account (77% and 73%, respectively) more younger boys and girls reported owning an account than having cash savings (69% versus 55%, and 73% versus 63%). Married girls, in contrast, were more likely to have cash savings than own a bank or post office account (71% and 61%, respectively).

Differences by age were clear, with more older than younger adolescents owning a bank or post office account independently (74% versus 64% among boys, 70% versus 64% among (unmarried) girls). Gender differences in percentages owning an account in their own name were muted (64% of younger adolescents, 70-74% of older boys and unmarried girls), although more younger girls than boys reported owning an account jointly (9% versus 4%). Differences by marital status among older girls were wide, with a larger proportion of unmarried than married girls reported independently owning an account (70% versus 59%). Finally, differences by residence in intervention or comparison areas were negligible, except that fewer younger girls in comparison than intervention areas owned an account in their own name (63% versus 69%).

With regard to operation of the account among those owning an account, age differences were evident, with older adolescents far more likely than younger ones to operate their own account (84% versus 50% among boys; 75-82% versus 39% among girls). Gender differences were observed among younger adolescents, with more boys than girls operating their accounts (50% versus 39%) but differences were not observed among older unmarried adolescents (84% of boys, 82% of girls). Married girls were somewhat less likely than unmarried girls aged 15-21 to operate their account (75% versus 82%). Differences by residence in intervention or comparison areas were observed among two groups only: younger boys and older unmarried girls in comparison areas were more likely than their counterparts in intervention areas to report that they operated their account on their own (51% versus 43% among younger boys; 83% versus 78% among unmarried older girls).

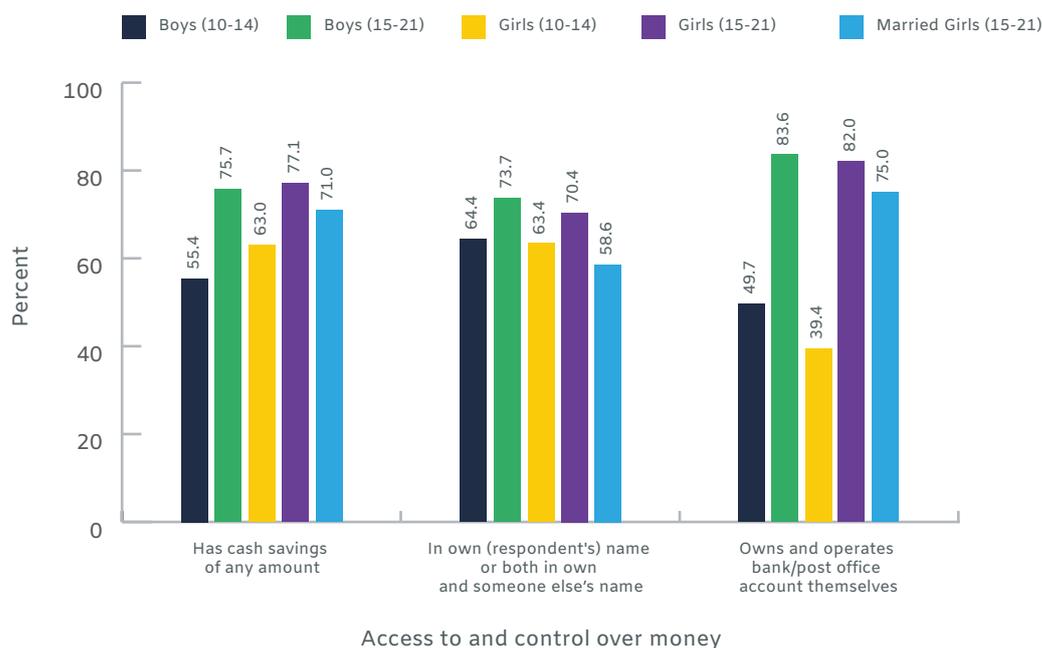
Table 7.5 Access to and control over resources

Percentage of adolescents who reported having any savings, owning an account in a bank or post office, and operating the account themselves, Jharkhand, 2018

Access to and control over money	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Has cash savings of any amount	55.4	75.7	63.0	77.1	71.0
Ownership of a bank/post office account					
In own (respondent's) name or both in own and someone else's name	64.4	73.7	63.4	70.4	58.6
Only jointly with someone else	4.1	1.2	9.1	2.8	2.3
No account	31.5	25.1	26.8	26.7	39.1
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Owns and operates bank/post office account themselves	49.7	83.6	39.4	82.0	75.0
Number of respondents owning an account	2,399	2,294	3,067	2,359	1,219

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 7.2 Access to and control over resources



Sense of self-efficacy

We assessed adolescents' sense of self-efficacy in two ways. First, we probed their perceptions about their own ability to express themselves – for example, we asked younger adolescents about their confidence about asking questions in class, and asked all adolescents whether they were comfortable speaking before a group of same-sex peers and a group of mixed-sex peers, whether they were able to express opinions to elders in their family, and whether they were able to confront a person who has wronged them (asked in different ways to younger and older groups). In a second set of questions, we posed a series of vignettes to adolescents and probed them about how they would react in each situation. Findings are presented in Tables 7.6 and 7.7, respectively.

With regard to confidence about asking questions in class (asked only to younger adolescents), 61 percent of boys and 53 percent of girls reported that they did so most of the time, and just 6-9 percent of boys and girls reported that they could never do so. We then asked adolescents whether they were able to express their opinions to elders in their family: just 30-33 percent of younger and older unmarried adolescents, and 22 percent of married girls reported that they could do so most of the time. We also asked all adolescents whether they would express their views to someone with whom they disagree (wording for 10-14 year olds) or confront someone who offends them (15-21 year olds), and findings suggest that just 26-27 percent of younger adolescents, 43-49 percent of older boys and unmarried girls, and 29 percent of married girls were confident that they could always express their reaction to someone with whom they disagree or by whom they are offended. With regard to speaking in front of a group of their peers, findings suggest that overall, 31-50 percent of adolescents reported that they had no problem speaking in front of a group of their peers, irrespective of whether they were same or opposite sex peers. More unmarried older adolescents than younger adolescents (44-50% versus 34-39%), more boys than girls (39-50% versus 31-44%), and among older girls, more of the unmarried than the married (44% versus 31%) were confident about speaking in front of groups of boys and girls. At the other extreme, 6-17 percent of adolescents reported that they did not have the confidence to speak in front of any group, irrespective of whether same-sex or mixed (Table 7.6).

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were muted for the most part. However, younger boys in comparison areas were more likely than those in intervention areas to report that they were confident about asking questions in class most of the time (63% versus 52%), and younger and older boys in comparison areas were more likely to report that they were always able to express disagreement to or confront a person who has offended them (26% versus 19% among younger boys, 50% versus 42% among older boys).

Overall, findings of Table 7.6 reiterate that although large proportions of adolescents express self-efficacy about conveying their opinions and speaking out in various forums, proportions acknowledging that they express self-efficacy always or most of the time rarely exceeded half of any group, highlighting their limited self-confidence.

Table 7.6 Sense of self-efficacy
Percentage of adolescents expressing a sense of self-efficacy under selected circumstances, Jharkhand, 2018

Self-efficacy	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Confident about asking questions to his/her teachers					
Never	5.6	NA	8.6	NA	NA
Sometimes	33.1	NA	38.9	NA	NA
Most of the time	61.3	NA	52.6	NA	NA
Number of respondents enrolled in school at the time of the interview	3,218	NA	3,756	NA	NA
Able to express own opinion to elders in the family					
Never	10.8	8.1	13.8	12.3	16.8
Sometimes	59.1	61.4	54.6	54.6	61.4
Most of the time	30.1	30.5	31.6	33.1	21.8
Able to confront a person who says or does something wrong to the respondent (15-21)/Able to convey disagreement to someone with whom respondent disagrees (10-14)					
Never	17.4	6.0	19.7	7.7	15.4
Sometimes	57.2	45.4	52.9	48.9	56.1
Always	25.5	48.7	27.4	43.4	28.5

Self-efficacy	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Confident about speaking in front of a group of peers					
No	13.6	6.0	14.4	8.3	16.5
Only in a same sex group	47.6	43.6	51.3	47.7	52.5
In groups of girls and/or boys	38.8	50.4	34.4	44.0	31.1
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Vignettes, described in Table 7.7, were read out to adolescents (one to those aged 10-14, four to those aged 15-21), and interviewers encouraged adolescents to indicate, in their own words, their main advice to the protagonist of each vignette. We then clubbed responses to reflect the range of recommendations adolescents made, from discussing with or confronting the individual(s) constraining the protagonist from making an informed choice, to seeking help from others to convince the individual(s) constraining the protagonist to change their views, to obeying the individual constraining the protagonist from making an informed choice, as shown in Table 7.7.

The first vignette, posed to younger and older adolescents, referred to unequal rules instituted by the local panchayat that would forbid girls from playing outdoors after a certain time because of teasing from boys. Responses were clubbed into those reflecting greater self-efficacy (confronting the panchayat and/or boys) and accepting the panchayat's orders. Very few adolescents recommended that girls directly approach the panchayat and articulate their grievances (8-20%). More older boys and unmarried girls than younger adolescents so recommended (14-20% of older adolescents versus 8-13% of younger adolescents), more girls than boys so argued (13% versus 8% of younger adolescents, 20% versus 14% of older boys and unmarried girls), as did more unmarried than married girls aged 15-21 (20% versus 13%). Boys, in contrast, were more likely than girls to recommend that girls confront boys about teasing and the consequences of their teasing (43-60% versus 1-2%). The large majority of girls (72-81%), irrespective of age and marital status, and far fewer boys (13-21%) recommended that girls should acquiesce to the Panchayat's decision. This pattern of gender differences highlights the substantial social constraints that limit girls' ability to claim their entitlements, and their limited self-efficacy in putting forth their perspectives to those who may have treated them unfairly.

The remaining three vignettes were posed only to older adolescents. The second of the four referred to a case in which a girl's parents refuse to allow her to marry a boy of her choice. Findings show that many adolescents recommended that the protagonist should confront her parents and put forth her own preferences (27-37%), and several suggested that she run away and marry the boy she has selected (16-29%). Relatively few recommended that she seeks help in convincing her parents (6-13%). More boys than girls (37% versus 27-32%) and among girls, more unmarried than married girls (32% versus 27%) recommended a direct conversation or confrontation with parents, the response that reflects the greatest self-efficacy. Relatively fewer adolescents (6-13%) recommended that she seeks help from influential outsiders to convince her parents. Again, responses demonstrate the far more limited self-efficacy of girls than boys. Conversely, reflecting boys' greater sense of self-efficacy, far fewer boys than girls recommended that they girl obey her parents and agree to marry someone else (10% versus 36-40%), with differences between married and unmarried girls modest.

The third vignette addressed the situation of a married girl whose husband and in-laws refuse to permit her to take up a job that she has been offered. Responses largely centred around confronting her husband and in-laws on the one hand, and obeying their wishes on the other. About three in five unmarried boys and girls (59-61%) and half of married girls (51%) recommended that the girl try to convince her family members directly, and about one-third of boys and unmarried girls (31-33%) and almost half (46%) of married girls argued that the girl obeys her family's wishes. Few recommended that she seeks outside help in convincing her family to permit her to work.

The final vignette focused on the situation of a married girl who is being pressured by her husband and in-laws, against her will, to have a child as soon as possible. Again, large proportions of boys and unmarried girls (61-65%) argued that the girl should approach her marital family members directly and convince them that she delays her first pregnancy; just half of married girls so recommended (51%). In contrast, one quarter of boys and unmarried girls (24-26%), compared to almost half (45%) of married girls, argued that the girl should obey her marital family members. Again, very few (1-3%) recommended that she seeks outside help.

Differences in responses on all four vignettes between those in intervention and comparison areas were not observed, except in one instance, in which somewhat more married girls in comparison than intervention areas perceived that the protagonist who faced opposition from her parents about marrying the boy of her choice should obey her parents (41% versus 36%).

Overall, in all four vignettes, proportions conveying responses reflecting a sense of self-efficacy were far from universal, although, in general, the sense of self-efficacy appears to have increased with age, and marriage appears to have constrained girls' sense of self-efficacy. Gender differences were apparent in responses on two vignettes, with far more girls than boys suggesting acquiescence and obedience to parents and elders (panchayat, selection of own husband); gender differences were not observed in the remaining two.

Table 7.7 Sense of self-efficacy as revealed in vignettes
Percentage of adolescents expressing a sense of self-efficacy as revealed under selected circumstances through vignettes, Jharkhand, 2018

Self-efficacy	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Keeping in mind the increasing cases of harassment of girls, the Panchayat has decided that the girls will not step out of the home after 5 pm. Lalita and her friends play in the evening, but with this decision they will not be able to do so. Lalita asks you what to do, what would you tell her?					
To discuss with Panchayat (tell them decision is wrong, that they should talk to boys, that they should stop the harassment)	8.0	13.8	12.9	20.4	13.1
To confront boys	42.8	60.0	0.8	1.9	1.2
To ignore the Panchayat's decision	0.0	0.4	2.9	4.6	2.2
To accept the Panchayat's decision	12.9	20.3	74.0	71.5	81.0
Don't know/other	36.3	5.5	9.4	1.5	2.5
Deena and Mahesh love each other very much and want to get married, but Deena's parents refuse to allow it. Deena is your friend and she comes to you to ask your advice. What would you tell her?					
To confront parents	NA	37.0	NA	32.3	26.7
To elope	NA	28.6	NA	16.0	19.3
To refuse to marry anyone else	NA	5.3	NA	2.3	2.6
To seek help from friends, peer educator, other	NA	12.5	NA	9.9	5.9
To obey parents	NA	9.7	NA	35.6	40.4
Don't know	NA	7.0	NA	3.8	5.0
Nutan has studied till class 12 and has got a job in a nearby office. Her husband and in-laws refuse to let her work. What should she do?					
To confront husband/in-laws	NA	58.5	NA	61.1	51.2
To seek help	NA	3.2	NA	4.1	2.1
To obey husband/in-laws	NA	32.9	NA	30.7	45.5
Don't know/other	NA	5.4	NA	4.0	1.3

Self-efficacy	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Meenu has recently got married. Her in-laws are very fond of her. However, they have been pressuring her to have a child as soon as possible. Meenu does not want a child at the moment. What should she do in this situation?					
To confront husband/in-laws	NA	60.9	NA	65.2	50.9
To seek help	NA	2.3	NA	2.5	1.2
To obey husband/in-laws	NA	26.1	NA	24.4	45.1
Don't know/other	NA	10.7	NA	8.0	2.9
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,236	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

7.2 SUPPORT NETWORKS AN INTERACTION

In general, adolescence marks a shift from parents and family members to peers and extra-familial individuals as role models on the one hand and leading confidantes and sources of support on the other. In the previous chapter, we found that although many adolescents continued to perceive a parent or family member as their role model, and leading confidante on several issues, peers and extra-familial individuals were also identified in several instances as a leading source of information and support. While peer pressure has been recognised, it is increasingly observed that peers are an important source of information and support, and for girls, a source of strength and empowerment. Participation in formal groups provides a similar sense of support and exposes adolescents, especially girls who may not have the freedom to interact with peers regularly, an opportunity to develop peer networks. In this section, we explore the breadth of adolescents' peer networks, and their awareness of and engagement in formal groups intended to inform and empower the young, for example, the SABLA scheme and the NYKS programme. Findings are presented in Tables 7.8 and 7.9.

Peer networks

Findings presented in Table 7.8 show that most adolescents had at least one friend (99% of boys, and 92-99% of girls) and many had five or more friends (40-43% of boys and 23-34% of girls). Age differences were observed among girls, with proportions reporting five or more friends falling from 34 percent among younger girls to 23-24 percent among older girls. The average number of friends reported by younger and older boys was 4.2 and 4.8, respectively; however, it ranged from 3.9 among younger girls to 3.1-3.3 among older girls, highlighting the wide gender disparity that pervades the social interaction and support system of adolescents, especially as they age. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were mild, but generally suggest that adolescents (aside from married girls) in intervention had more friends than did those in comparison areas.

Aside from married girls, the large majority of adolescents who had at least one friend met their friends frequently, that is, daily or at least once a week: 97-100 percent of younger and older boys and younger girls, and somewhat fewer older unmarried girls (84%), and far fewer married girls (19%). While gender differences were not observed among younger adolescents, far more older boys than unmarried girls reported meeting their friends frequently (97% versus 84%), and more unmarried than married girls so reported (84% versus 19%). Indeed, married girls met their friends once in six months (40%) or even more rarely (24%), presumably when they visit their natal homes, underscoring the lack of peer support among them in their marital homes. Finally, differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Wide age, gender and among older girls, marital status differences were evident in responses about the places in which adolescents typically meet their friends. Large proportions of adolescents, irrespective of age, sex or, among older girls, marital status, met their friends at each other's home (72-94%), even so, more older than younger boys (79% versus 72%) and more married than unmarried older girls (94% versus 84%) so reported. Many younger adolescents met their friends at or around the school (82-87%) compared to fewer older adolescents (49% of boys, 57% of unmarried girls and 7% of married girls). Gender differences

were also wide; many more boys than girls met their friends at recreation sites such as a playground, park, mall or adolescent group venues (68% versus 16% of younger adolescents, 79% versus 15-23% of older adolescents). Marital status differences were also evident, with more unmarried than married girls meeting their friends in recreation site (23% versus 15%). Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were observed inconsistently; for example, more younger boys in intervention than comparison areas reported meeting their peers at each other's home (77% versus 71%), fewer older boys and unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas reported meeting friends at or around the school or college (44% versus 50% and 52% versus 58%, respectively), and more younger girls in intervention than comparison areas reported meeting friends in recreation sites (22% versus 16%).

Overall, findings suggest that as girls age, friendship networks shrink, frequency of interactions diminish, and interaction is increasingly restricted to each other's homes. Marriage further shrinks older girls' peer networks, the frequency with which they interact with their peers, and the availability of places other than the home for such interaction.

Table 7.8 Friendship networks
Percent distribution of adolescents by number of friends, frequency of interaction with friends and location of these interactions, Jharkhand, 2018

Number of friends, frequency and location of meeting friends	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Size of peer networks: Number of friends					
0	0.9	0.8	1.0	3.2	8.1
1-2	30.7	24.8	36.9	43.1	39.7
3-4	28.0	31.5	28.6	30.0	29.2
5 or more	40.4	42.9	33.5	23.8	23.1
Mean number of friends	4.2	4.8	3.9	3.3	3.1
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Frequency of interaction with friends					
Never meet or meet once a year	0.2	0.2	0.8	2.6	24.1
Meet once in 6 months (6-11 months)	0.0	1.2	0.2	3.8	40.3
Meet once a month (1-5 months)	0.2	1.5	0.9	9.8	16.8
Meet daily or at least once a week	99.6	97.1	98.1	83.8	18.7
Location of interaction with friends (multiple response)					
At each other's home	71.8	78.6	82.7	84.2	93.8
At school or around the school	82.2	49.3	86.7	57.2	6.5
At work or around work area	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.0
At recreation sites (park, mall etc.)	67.5	78.6	16.3	22.8	15.3
At other sites	0.1	0.5	0.8	2.0	0.6
Number of respondents with at least one friend	3,441	3,097	4,065	3,143	1,790

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Figure 7.3a Size of peer networks and frequency of interaction with friends

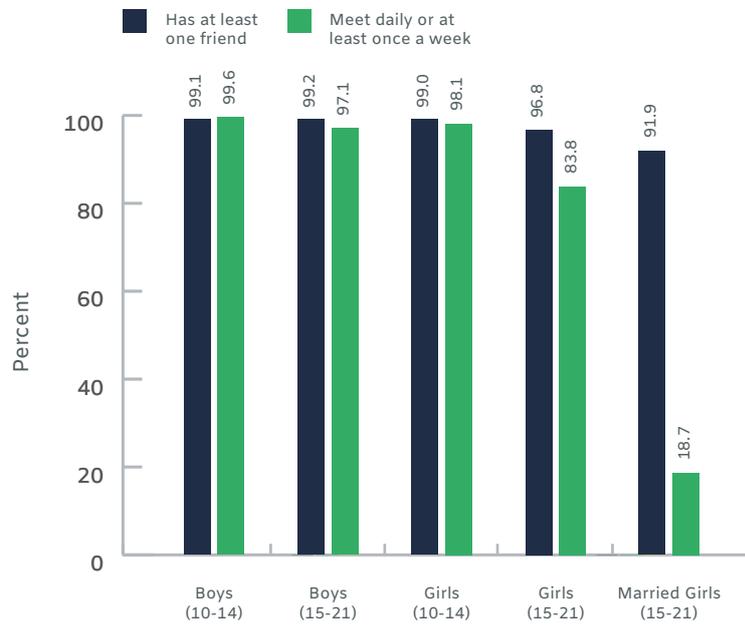
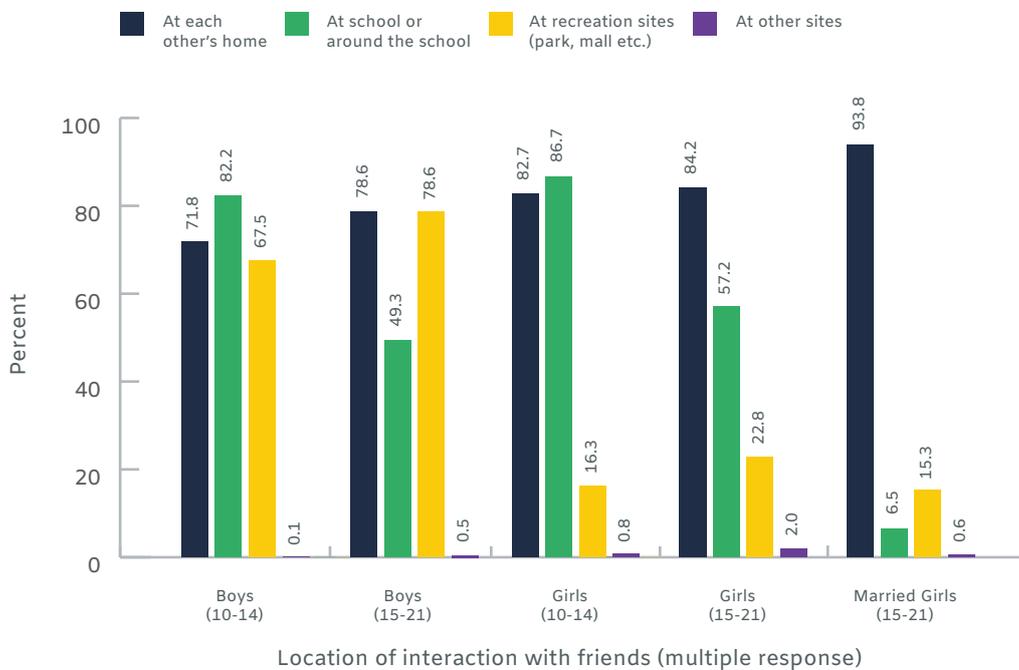


Figure 7.3b Location of interaction with friends



Awareness of and membership in formal groups

In this section, we present findings regarding adolescents' awareness of and membership in formal groups, including among girls, those formed as part of the SABLA/Kishori Shakti Yojana (KSY)/Scheme for Adolescent Girls (SAG), Self Help Groups (SHGs), and among boys and girls, membership in clubs formed under the Nehru Yuva Kendra Sangathan (NYKS), sports clubs, the Udaan club (meant for school going adolescents) and any other club. Findings are presented in Table 7.9.

Overall, small proportions of adolescents had heard about such groups as those formed under the SABLA/SAG/KSY programme or the NYKS; indeed, just seven percent of younger girls, and 19 percent of older girls had heard about SABLA/KSY/SAG. Knowledge about the NYKS programme was reported by more older than younger adolescents (23% versus 14% of boys, 7-11% versus 3% of girls), and by more boys than girls (15% versus 3% of younger adolescents, 24% versus 7-11% of older adolescents). Far more older girls were aware of self-help groups (86-88%).

Group membership was reported by very few adolescents. For example, just 1-2 percent of girls were members of SABLA/KSY/SAG groups, 0-1 percent of adolescents were members of NYKS clubs, as well as Udaan clubs, and 1-4 percent were members of a sports club. In contrast, among girls, 17 percent of married girls, and one percent of unmarried girls reported membership in an SHG. Excluding SHGs for which only older and married adolescents are eligible, just 2-5 percent of adolescents reported membership in any group.

Differences in awareness of programmes such as SABLA/KSY/SAG and NYKS between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were evident. For example, boys and older girls from comparison areas were more likely than their counterparts from intervention areas to have heard of the NYKS programme (15% versus 5% and 24% versus 17% of younger and older boys, respectively; 11% versus 6% and 8% versus 3% of unmarried and married older girls, respectively). Likewise, more older girls in comparison than intervention areas had heard about the SAG/SABLA/KSY programmes (20-21% versus 10-13%). In contrast, since few adolescents reported membership in the various groups about which we probed, differences in group membership between those in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Table 7.9 Awareness of available groups and group membership
Percentage of adolescents aware of and members of various groups, Jharkhand, 2018

Group awareness and membership	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
SAG/SABLA/KSY programme					
Heard about it	NA	NA	7.1	19.4	19.4
Is a member	NA	NA	1.2	2.0	1.9
NYKS					
Heard about it	13.7	23.0	3.3	10.5	7.2
Is a member	0.2	0.6	0.1	1.0	0.0
SHG					
Heard about it	NA	NA	NA	85.8	88.4
Is a member	NA	NA	NA	1.4	17.0
Udaan Club					
Is a member	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.2
Sports Club					
Is a member	2.2	4.3	0.7	1.3	0.5
Any club					
Is a member of at least one organization (SABLA, NYKS, sports, Udaan club)	2.5	5.3	2.2	5.2	2.6
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable

7.3 GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES AND ATTITUDES RELATING TO VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS

In order to understand attitudes about male-female relations, we posed two sets of questions to adolescents. The first set focused on gender role attitudes, and the second set on attitudes regarding the justifiability of violence against women and girls.

Gender role attitudes

To measure the first, we posed a total of eight questions, seven of these to younger adolescents and five of the eight to older adolescents. All adolescents were asked four questions: whether girls should be allowed to decide when they want to marry, whether a man alone should decide on how household income is spent, whether child care is exclusively a woman's responsibility, and whether a woman whose husband is working well should work. In addition, younger adolescents were asked whether it is more important to educate boys than girls, whether girls are as good in maths as boys, and whether boys should do as much housework as girls do. Older adolescents were asked one additional question, that is, whether they perceived that it is wrong for a girl to make friendships with boys. Findings, presented in Table 7.10, report percentages of adolescents providing gender egalitarian responses.

Of the three statements posed only to younger adolescents, the one that both boys and girls were most likely to report egalitarian attitudes was the one in which we asked whether it is more important to educate boys than girls; 72 percent of boys and 90 percent of girls disagreed with the statement, believing that it is as important to educate girls as boys. Fewer agreed that girls are as good as boys in mathematics (55% and 75% of boys and girls, respectively), and that boys should do as much domestic work as girls (44% and 51% of boys and girls, respectively). Of the remaining four statements posed to younger adolescents, a similar pattern emerged. While 61 percent of boys and 73 percent of girls believed that decisions on household spending should not be made exclusively by the husband/father, fewer offered egalitarian responses on whether childcare is entirely a woman's responsibility (57% and 50% of boys and girls, respectively), on whether a girl should be allowed to decide when she wants to marry (38% and 55% of boys and girls, respectively) and whether a woman whose husband is earning well should work (31% and 63% of boys and girls, respectively). What is notable is that on each statement, boys are far less likely than girls to express egalitarian attitudes.

Among older adolescents, more boys than girls expressed gender egalitarian responses on two statements: that childcare is not the sole responsibility of women (77% versus 51-70%) and that it is acceptable for girls to have male friends (90% versus 72-78%). On the remaining three items, far fewer boys than girls expressed egalitarian attitudes: that the husband should not exclusively decide about spending household money (77% versus 85-86%), that girls should be allowed to decide when they want to marry (62% versus 79-83%) and that it is acceptable for a woman whose husband is earning well, to work (40% versus 64-75%).

Among older girls, marital status disparities were observed on some but not all indicators. Similar proportions of married and unmarried girls believed that girls should be allowed to decide when they wish to marry (79-82%), and that men should not be the sole decision maker on household spending (85-86%). On the remaining three statements, unmarried girls were more likely to display egalitarian attitudes than married older girls. For example, more unmarried than married girls agreed that childcare is not the sole responsibility of women (70% versus 51%), that it is acceptable for a woman whose husband is earning well, to work (75% versus 64%) and that it is acceptable for girls to have male friends (78% versus 72%).

The profile of gender role attitudes of the young reveal some distinct patterns. For one, responses on the four statements posed to both younger and older adolescents reveal that older adolescents were systematically more likely than their younger counterparts to reveal gender egalitarian attitudes. In contrast, gender patterns were not as consistent among older adolescents. For example, among younger adolescents, girls were far more likely to display egalitarian gender role attitudes on six of the seven attitudes probed, whereas, among older adolescents, more girls than boys displayed egalitarian gender role attitudes on three of five attitudes probed (girls should be allowed to decide when to marry, the male should not be the exclusive decision-maker on household spending, and it is acceptable for a women whose husband is earning well to work); more older boys than girls displayed egalitarian attitudes on two statements (childcare is not the exclusive responsibility of women, and it is acceptable for a girl to have male friends).

Table 7.10 Gender role attitudes
Percentage of adolescents expressing egalitarian gender role attitudes, Jharkhand, 2018

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes: % adolescents agreeing or disagreeing with gender role statements					
Educating boys is more important than educating girls: DISAGREE	72.3	NA	90.4	NA	NA
Girls are as good as boys in maths: AGREE	54.9	NA	75.0	NA	NA
Boys should do as much domestic work as girls: AGREE	43.6	NA	50.6	NA	NA
Girls should be allowed to decide when they want to marry: AGREE	38.4	61.5	54.7	79.4	82.3
Father/husband alone/mainly should decide about spending household money: DISAGREE	61.4	76.5	73.4	85.6	84.7
Giving young children a bath and feeding them are only a woman's responsibility: DISAGREE	57.1	77.3	50.1	70.0	51.3
It is acceptable for a woman whose husband is earning well to work: AGREE	31.2	40.4	62.5	74.7	63.7
It is wrong for girls to have male friends: DISAGREE	NA	89.7	NA	77.6	72.3
Summary measures					
Egalitarian responses on four common statements posed	6.7	22.2	22.3	46.0	27.9
Egalitarian responses on all statements posed (7 to 10-14 year olds; 5 to 15-21 year olds)	3.2	21.7	13.6	41.2	25.1
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

In general, similar proportions of adolescents from intervention and comparison areas expressed egalitarian attitudes on each of the statements posed. There were however some modest differences – for example, among younger adolescents, more girls in comparison than intervention areas believed that educating girls is as important as educating boys (91% versus 86%), and fewer younger boys from comparison than intervention areas believed that boys should do as much domestic work as girls (43% versus 48%). Among older adolescents, differences were observed only among girls, and on just one indicator – the acceptability of a woman working if her husband is earning well; while more unmarried girls in comparison than intervention areas argued that it is acceptable (75% versus 70%), fewer married girls in comparison than intervention areas so believed (63% versus 68%).

Two summary measures were created: one measured the percentage of adolescents reporting egalitarian gender role attitudes on all of the four issues about which all adolescents, irrespective of age group, were probed; the second measured the percentage of 10-14 year olds reporting egalitarian gender role attitudes on all of the seven issues about which they were probed, and the percentage of 15-21 year olds reporting egalitarian gender role attitudes on all of the five issues about which they were probed. Findings, presented in Table 7.10, highlight that overall, few adolescents held egalitarian attitudes consistently. Even so, there were considerable differences in adherence to egalitarian gender role attitudes, with older adolescents, girls, and among older girls, the unmarried, far more likely than their respective counterparts to display egalitarian attitudes. Younger boys, in particular, were the least likely to hold egalitarian attitudes on the four common items about which we probed – seven percent, as opposed to 22 percent of both boys aged 15-21 and girls aged 10-14. Unmarried girls aged 15-21 were far more likely than any other group to hold egalitarian attitudes, that is, 46 percent, as compared with 22 percent of younger girls as well as boys of

their age, and 28 percent of married girls. A similar picture emerges when we consider the percentage holding egalitarian attitudes on all issues probed (as Table 7.10 shows, we posed 7 statements to younger adolescents and 5 to older ones).

Both summary measures were similar among adolescents in intervention and comparison areas, with one exception. Unmarried older girls in comparison areas were more likely than those in intervention areas to report egalitarian gender role attitudes on both the four issues posed to all adolescents (47% versus 42%) and on all issues posed to them (42% versus 37%).

Figure 7.4 Gender role attitudes

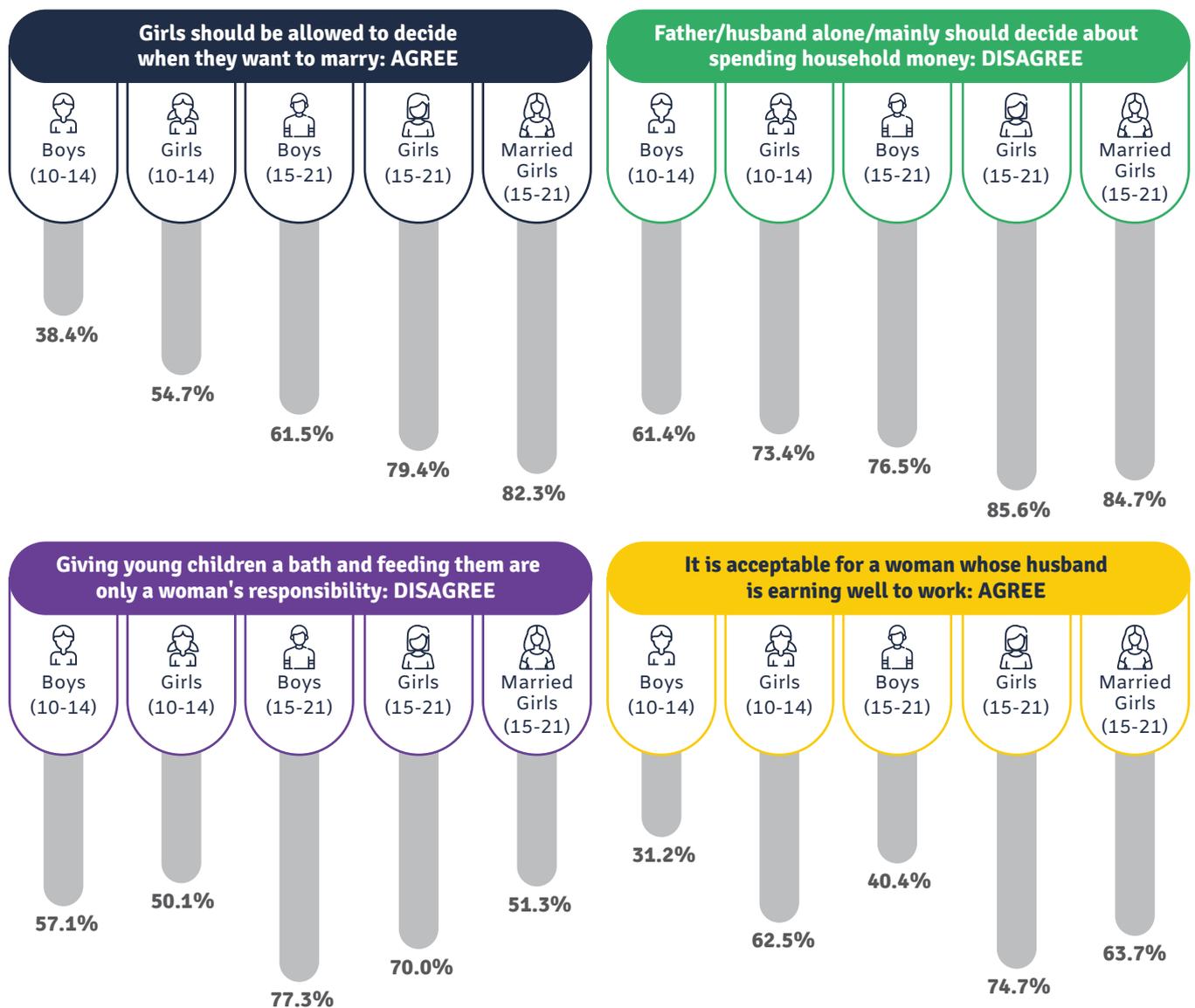


Table 7.11 presents the percentage of adolescents reporting egalitarian gender role attitudes on all of the four issues about which all, irrespective of age group, were probed. Findings generally show the egalitarian attitudes increased with age, household wealth status, and the educational attainment levels of both adolescents themselves, as well as their mother and father. Those pursuing their education were, moreover, more likely than those not doing so to express egalitarian attitudes. Caste-wise differences suggest that in general, those belonging to general castes, and among married girls, those belonging to other backward castes as well, were more likely to display gender egalitarian attitudes than those from other castes; other differences were negligible. Disparities by religion were less consistent: among boys more Christian boys than those belonging to other religions displayed egalitarian attitudes, whereas among younger and older unmarried girls, more Hindus than those belonging to other religions did so. Disparities by rural-urban residence were notable, with those in urban areas far more likely than those in rural areas to express egalitarian gender role attitudes (12% versus 5% among younger boys, 36% versus 18% among younger girls; 35% versus 17% among older boys, 65% versus 37% among older unmarried girls, and 35% versus 27% among married girls).

Table 7.11 Gender role attitudes by background characteristics
Percentage of adolescents expressing egalitarian gender role attitudes* by background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Age					
10-12	6.5	NA	15.5	NA	NA
13-14	7.1	NA	33.4	NA	NA
15-17	NA	17.7	NA	41.4	25.4
18-19	NA	24.8	NA	49.2	25.1
20-21	NA	33.4	NA	63.2	31.6
Religion¹					
Hindu	7.0	23.8	24.4	51.2	28.6
Muslim	5.6	11.0	15.6	34.9	25.7
Christian	13.2	32.5	19.1	45.5	17.1
Sarna	5.5	22.8	18.4	28.5	30.7
Caste²					
SC	4.2	20.4	18.6	43.2	20.0
ST	4.6	18.3	18.7	34.0	26.8
OBC	8.0	20.9	21.1	48.5	30.4
General	8.3	37.8	38.5	58.4	28.5
Completed years of schooling					
None ³	(21.8)	11.6	16.5	17.7	5.9
1-4	5.1	13.5	10.2	32.1	20.4
5-7	6.2	9.5	23.5	25.0	26.5
8-9	11.8	16.1	47.7	39.8	20.9
10-11	-	28.1	-	53.0	40.5
12 and above	-	39.8	-	70.2	43.8
Current schooling status⁴					
No	5.3	16.7	13.7	32.5	27.5
Yes	6.8	25.4	22.9	54.1	33.8

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview					
No	7.0	22.3	23.2	48.5	27.7
Yes	4.9	22.2	18.3	42.3	28.2
Wealth quintile					
First	3.0	10.9	12.4	26.7	13.6
Second	4.6	17.2	16.3	34.2	22.4
Third	9.3	24.2	20.6	42.1	26.5
Fourth	2.3	20.4	22.2	51.3	42.1
Fifth	13.0	33.0	41.6	66.0	39.2
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	4.4	16.5	14.1	35.9	25.4
1–7	10.8	22.7	22.8	59.2	34.6
8–9	9.2	35.5	38.5	57.8	46.9
10 and above	11.3	43.1	52.6	74.5	55.8
Don't Know	6.1	16.2	17.8	20.2	(12.0)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	4.6	16.4	12.2	30.7	24.2
1–7	7.2	19.4	24.9	45.2	36.9
8–9	9.3	21.0	25.3	56.1	36.7
10 and above	10.2	36.4	38.8	62.2	35.2
Don't Know	4.0	11.5	15.9	34.8	14.3
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	11.6	34.8	35.6	64.4	34.8
Rural	4.9	17.1	17.5	36.6	26.7

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. na: Not applicable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. *percentage of adolescents reporting egalitarian gender role attitudes on all of the four issues about which all, irrespective of age group, were probed. ¹Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: Includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ³Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school. ⁴Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

Attitudes about the justifiability of violence against women and girls

To assess attitudes about the justifiability of violence against women and girls, we posed a total of nine age-appropriate statements to adolescents (six were posed to all, two additional statements were posed to 10-14 year olds, and one additional one to 15-21 year olds) in which we asked adolescents whether a woman or girl deserves to experience violence if she deviates from patriarchal norms as reflected in each statement posed to them. Four statements probed the acceptability of violence against unmarried girls (a girl deserves to be beaten if she talks to a boy, if she stays out late, and, for younger adolescents only, if she disobeys her elders and if she doesn't perform household chores) and the remaining five about the acceptability of violence against married women. Table 7.12 presents percentages of adolescents who rejected violence in each situation. We also present summary measures reflecting the percentages of younger adolescents who rejected violence against women and girls in all eight situations posed to them, and the percentages of older adolescents who rejected violence in at least five of the six situations posed to them.

Findings suggest that although large proportions of adolescents did reject the acceptability of violence against women and girls in each circumstance, these percentages were far from universal. As in the case of the expression of egalitarian gender role attitudes, more older adolescents than younger adolescents believed that violence is unjustified in various circumstances.

Attitudes about the justifiability of violence against unmarried girls (top panel) suggest that overall, between half (47%) and four-fifths (83%) of adolescents rejected the practice in any of the four situations posed. Responses on two questions posed to both younger and older adolescents confirm that considerably more older than younger adolescents rejected violence against a girl who talks to a boy (73-83% versus 65-69%), and against a girl who stays out late (69-74% versus 58-61%). Gender differences were not as consistently observed, except that younger boys were more likely than younger girls to reject violence against girls who do not obey their elders (54% versus 47%), and among older girls, the unmarried were more likely than the married to reject violence against a girl who talks to a boy (82% versus 73%), and who stays out late (74% versus 69%).

Four statements posed to both age groups probed the attitudes about the acceptability of violence against a married woman (lower panel). Large proportions of adolescents rejected violence in two of these situations –if the woman doesn't cook well and if she gives birth only to girls. Even so, differences were observed, with older adolescents more likely than younger ones to report egalitarian attitudes. For example, while 98 percent of older adolescent boys and girls rejected violence against a woman who bears only daughters, 89-91 percent of younger adolescents expressed this view. In contrast, differences were evident by age and sex in percentages rejecting violence against a woman who does not cook properly – 74-86 percent of younger adolescents compared to 81-92 percent of older adolescents, and 86-92 percent of boys, compared to far fewer girls (74-84%) rejected violence in this situation. Marital status differences with regard to these two circumstances were not observed among older girls.

Fewer adolescents rejected violence against a woman who doesn't listen to her husband or neglects her family and children (58-74%), and here too, age differences were consistently observed, with more older adolescents than younger ones rejecting violence against a woman in both situations. Gender differences were not observed among older boys and unmarried girls, however, in both instances, more younger boys than younger girls rejected the acceptability of violence (66% versus 58% and 69% versus 60%, respectively). Marital status differences were evident among older girls, with fewer married than unmarried girls rejecting violence in both situations (65-67% versus 72-73%).

Finally, we asked older adolescents about the acceptability of violence against a woman who has an extra-marital affair. Now, just 27-30 percent of adolescents rejected violence, and neither gender differences, nor, among older girls, marital status differences were evident.

While not entirely comparable, our summary measures (bottom panel) imply that older adolescents (excluding the situation of extramarital relations) were far more likely than their younger counterparts to abhor violence (48-56% versus 30-32%), and among older girls, the unmarried were more likely to abhor violence than were the married (56% versus 48%).

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Table 7.12 Attitudes about the justifiability of violence against women and girls
Percentage of adolescents reporting attitudes rejecting violence against women and girls in various circumstances, Jharkhand, 2018

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Rejection of violence against unmarried girls in the following circumstances:					
A girl deserves to be beaten if she talks to a boy: DISAGREE	69.1	83.1	65.3	81.8	73.4
A girl deserves to be beaten if she stays out late: DISAGREE	61.2	72.4	58.1	73.5	69.3
A girl deserves to be beaten if she doesn't do household chores: DISAGREE	69.1	NA	65.3	NA	NA
A girl deserves to be beaten if she doesn't obey her elders: DISAGREE	53.6	NA	46.7	NA	NA

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Rejection of violence against married women in the following circumstances:					
A woman deserves to be beaten if she doesn't listen to her husband: DISAGREE	66.1	72.6	58.2	71.5	64.7
A woman deserves to be beaten if she neglects her family or children: DISAGREE	69.2	74.4	60.2	73.2	66.6
A woman deserves to be beaten if she doesn't cook well: DISAGREE	85.5	91.6	74.4	84.2	80.8
A woman deserves to be beaten if she gives birth only to girls: DISAGREE	88.6	97.9	91.1	97.8	98.2
A woman deserves to be beaten if she has an extra-marital affair: DISAGREE	NA	28.7	NA	30.1	27.1
Summary measures					
Rejects violence in all eight situations posed	32.4	NA	30.0	NA	NA
Rejects violence in six situations posed (excluding the acceptability of violence if the woman has extramarital relations)	NA	52.1	NA	55.9	48.3
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. na: Not applicable.

Using the summary measure described above, findings presented in Table 7.13 show substantial differences in adolescents' rejection of violence against women and girls by background characteristics. We note that questions posed to younger and older adolescents were not identical, and hence findings are not entirely comparable for younger and older adolescents.

The proportion who rejected violence increased with age among younger adolescents and older girls, but not older boys. Differences by religion and caste were observed among most groups, with Hindus and Christians (in the case of younger and older unmarried girls) more likely than those from other religions to reject violence, and those from general castes (along with younger boys belonging to OBCs) more likely to abhor violence than those from other castes. Aside from younger boys, moreover, those pursuing their education at the time of the interview and those who had not worked for wages in the 12 months preceding the interview were more likely than others to reject violence against women and girls. Notably, the abhorrence of violence against women and girls increased systematically by educational attainment levels in all five groups; it also increased, although not monotonically, by wealth quintile, and the level of educational attainment of mothers and fathers. Finally, in each group, those residing in urban areas were far more likely than those in rural areas to reject violence (39-42% versus 27-29% of young boys and girls, 64% versus 47% of older boys, 72% versus 48% of older unmarried girls, and 53% versus 47% of married girls).

Table 7.13 Rejection of the justifiability of violence against women and girls
Percentage of adolescents reporting attitudes rejecting violence against women and girls in all (10-14)/at least 6 of 7 (15-21) circumstances by background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Background characteristics	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Age					
10-12	29.6	NA	26.4	NA	NA
13-14	36.8	NA	35.7	NA	NA
15-17	NA	50.8	NA	51.3	39.5
18-19	NA	54.3	NA	62.0	51.6
20-21	NA	53.2	NA	66.4	49.5

Background characteristics	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Religion¹					
Hindu	35.1	55.8	32.8	58.4	50.7
Muslim	27.5	44.7	22.6	49.3	43.3
Christian	31.6	47.2	42.9	59.2	49.1
Sarna	21.4	37.4	19.2	46.9	38.9
Caste²					
SC	31.8	48.2	28.7	52.1	43.1
ST	25.6	42.5	23.6	48.2	42.0
OBC	35.5	55.2	29.1	56.0	51.1
General	34.1	64.8	46.9	72.1	61.3
Completed years of schooling					
None ³	(29.8)	24.7	12.7	32.2	28.9
1–4	29.0	32.7	21.7	53.1	41.9
5–7	34.1	43.4	32.3	40.0	41.8
8–9	34.1	47.8	43.4	49.0	45.7
10–11	-	56.9	-	59.4	58.9
12 and above	-	67.0	-	80.8	62.1
Current schooling status⁴					
No	31.0	41.1	22.0	44.9	47.4
Yes	32.5	58.4	30.5	62.4	61.9
Paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview					
No	31.8	56.9	30.8	57.6	50.6
Yes	37.0	46.9	26.2	53.2	45.0
Wealth quintile					
First	30.9	46.7	25.6	33.1	42.1
Second	27.8	42.7	23.4	48.5	45.3
Third	34.1	51.8	27.6	60.8	41.1
Fourth	28.9	53.1	26.3	59.4	55.6
Fifth	38.3	61.9	46.7	69.4	59.3
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	29.7	45.0	27.7	49.2	46.0
1–7	32.3	55.7	18.1	60.7	62.2
8–9	41.3	70.1	31.2	66.6	49.7
10 and above	53.5	71.5	56.8	74.0	78.8
Don't Know	19.8	51.0	28.5	47.6	(34.0)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)					
None ³	27.9	44.8	25.7	44.3	44.1
1–7	35.7	47.1	27.1	55.0	49.1
8–9	31.9	49.7	24.1	62.1	66.6
10 and above	45.7	67.1	44.0	68.2	56.7
Don't Know	22.4	49.7	28.3	50.0	40.9

Background characteristics	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Rural-urban residence					
Urban	42.0	64.1	38.9	71.8	53.4
Rural	28.7	47.2	26.8	47.6	47.4

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: Includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ³Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school. ⁴Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

7.4 EXPRESSION OF PROSOCIAL ATTITUDES

Prosocial attitudes, including, for example, a willingness to mix with those whose backgrounds are different from one's own, are a key leadership skill imparted to adolescents through schools and colleges, as well as through programmes such as those discussed earlier in this chapter. In order to understand the extent to which adolescents expressed secular attitudes, we asked those aged 15-21 whether they mixed freely with those from other castes and religions, and whether they would eat together with those belonging to different castes and religions. We also created a summary measure reflecting the percentage of adolescents who did not discriminate against those from other backgrounds in terms of both social mixing and sharing a meal. We note that expressing such prosocial attitudes may reflect, for many, a radical deviation from the attitudes held by parents and communities, and a demonstration of agency and ability to make one's own choices.

Table 7.14 Expression of prosocial or secular attitudes
Percentage of adolescents who would mix freely with individuals from other religions and castes, Jharkhand, 2018

Expression of secular attitudes	Boys (15–21)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Mix freely with those from different castes	97.9	95.2	92.7
Mix freely with those from different religions	93.9	93.0	87.2
Would eat together with those from different castes and religions	70.3	72.5	56.8
Mix with and would eat together with those from both different castes and different religions	69.3	72.0	56.2
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Findings presented in Table 7.14 suggest that the majority of adolescents aged 15-21 expressed secular attitudes with regard to mixing with those from different religions (87-94%) and castes (93-98%). Far fewer would eat together with someone from a different caste or religion (57-73%), and now disparities remain narrow among unmarried boys and girls (70-73%), but among girls, the unmarried were far more likely than married girls to hold prosocial attitudes with regard to eating together with someone from a different religion or caste (73% versus 57%). Our summary measure of percentages who expressed secular attitudes on all three indicators show a similar picture. While 69 percent of boys and 72 percent of unmarried girls both mixed with and would eat together with someone from a different caste or religion, just 56 percent of married girls would do so.

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed among boys on any indicator, and among girls, with regard to mixing with those belonging to a different religion or caste. However, among girls, more of those from comparison than intervention areas displayed prosocial attitudes about eating together with someone from a different religion or caste (73% versus 68% among the unmarried, 58% versus 51% among the married) and the combined indicator – mixing with and eating together with those from other religions and castes (73% versus 67% of the unmarried, 57% versus 50% of the married).





CHAPTER 8

AWARENESS OF SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH MATTERS

Many young people in India make the transition into sexual life and into marriage without being fully informed about sexual and reproductive health matters, including physiological changes taking place in adolescence, pregnancy and contraception (see, for example, Santhya et al., 2018a; 2018b; IIPS and Population Council, 2010; Santhya and Jejeebhoy, 2014). Evidence from Jharkhand in 2006 reiterates this lack of awareness, even among those aged 15-24 (IIPS and Population Council, 2009). This chapter discusses adolescents' awareness about a range of sexual and reproductive health matters, including those relating to puberty, pregnancy, the availability of prenatal sex determination tests, contraception, HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted infections (STIs), and the legal minimum age at marriage for boys and girls. It also explores the sources from which they obtained information about sexual and reproductive matters, and from which they wished to obtain information, and finally, explored their exposure to family life or sex education programmes.

In this chapter, we present adolescents' reports on each of these issues for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

8.1 PUBERTY

In order to understand adolescents' awareness about the physiological changes taking place during adolescence, we asked whether boys alone, girls alone or both boys and girls experience various physiological changes, such as increase in height and weight, growth of hair in private parts, broadening of hips, development of breasts, voice change, menstruation and nocturnal emission. Findings, presented in Table 8.1, report percentages of adolescents who were correctly aware about whether boys or girls or both experienced each of these changes. The table below highlights adolescents' limited awareness, even about puberty.

While the large majority were aware that increase in height and weight takes place among both boys and girls (89-96%), awareness of other matters was more limited. On these other matters, age disparities were consistently wide. For example, while 8-76 percent of younger boys (ages 10-14) were aware of the remaining six issues about which we probed, 24-95 percent of older boys (ages 15-21) were so aware; corresponding percentages among younger and older girls were 1-90 and 5-98, respectively. Gender differences were less consistently observed. Overall, girls were better informed than boys, about such physiological changes as menstruation (58% versus 15% among younger girls and boys, 98% versus 65% among older unmarried girls and boys). Younger girls were more likely than younger boys to report awareness about the development of breasts (90% versus 76%), broadening of hips (25% versus 14%), and pubic hair growth (53% versus 42%). Older (unmarried) girls were more likely than boys to know that voice change happens only among boys (30% versus 24%). The only exception was awareness about nocturnal emission, which was reported by more boys than girls at each age (8% versus 1% and 39% versus 5% among younger and older adolescents, respectively). Differences by marital status were also observed among older girls, with married girls more likely than unmarried girls to report awareness about several matters, including that growth of pubic hair takes place among both sexes (98% versus 88%), that broadening of hips takes place only among girls (46% versus 40%), and that nocturnal emission takes place among boys (18% versus 5%).

Adolescents across intervention and comparison areas displayed largely similar levels of awareness. Differences of five or more percentage points were observed in just a few cases (fewer younger boys in intervention than comparison areas were aware that voice change takes place only among boys (13% versus 18%), more older boys from intervention than comparison areas knew that menstruation takes place only among girls (71% versus 65%), and more older unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas knew that broadening of hips takes place only among girls (44% versus 39%).

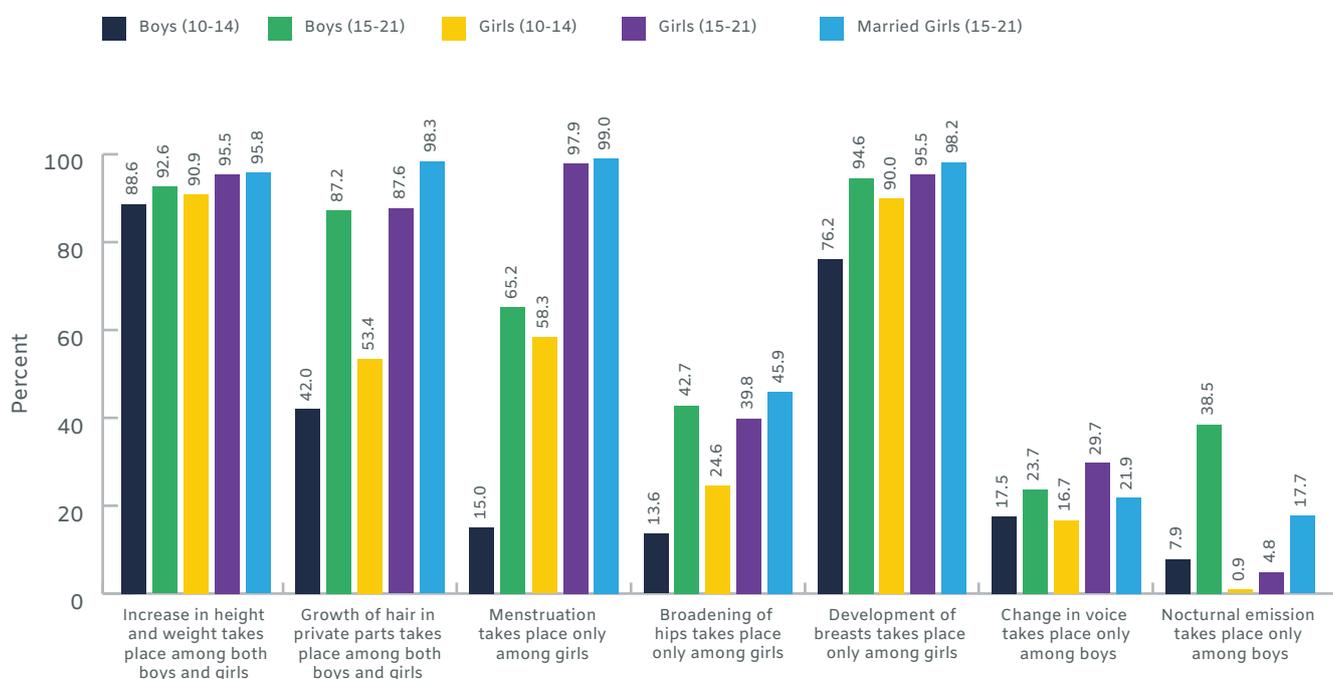
Table 8.1 Awareness about puberty-related matters

Percentage of adolescents reporting awareness about whether boys, girls or both boys and girls experience selected physiological changes, Jharkhand, 2018

Correct responses to questions on whether only boys, only girls or both boys and girls	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Responses to questions on whether only boys, only girls or both boys and girls experience various physiological changes					
Increase in height and weight takes place among both boys and girls	88.6	92.6	90.9	95.5	95.8
Growth of hair in private parts takes place among both boys and girls	42.0	87.2	53.4	87.6	98.3
Menstruation takes place only among girls	15.0	65.2	58.3	97.9	99.0
Broadening of hips takes place only among girls	13.6	42.7	24.6	39.8	45.9
Development of breasts takes place only among girls	76.2	94.6	90.0	95.5	98.2
Change in voice takes place only among boys	17.5	23.7	16.7	29.7	21.9
Nocturnal emission takes place only among boys	7.9	38.5	0.9	4.8	17.7
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 8.1 Awareness about puberty-related matters



We also asked girls about the acceptability of performing various traditionally taboo activities during menstruation in order to better understand the extent to which they rejected these traditional perceptions. Findings, presented in Table 8.2, suggest that relatively few girls rejected these traditional taboos. In general, unmarried girls aged 15-21 were more likely to reject each taboo than were younger girls and married girls (13-70% versus 5-35% and 6-58%, respectively). The taboo most likely to be rejected was the isolation of women and girls during menstruation; even so, it was rejected by just 35 percent of younger girls, 58 percent

of married girls and 70 percent of unmarried girls. Least likely to be rejected, in contrast, was the taboo on visiting places of worship, rejected by only 5-13 percent of girls. Differences between girls in intervention and comparison areas were mild, and observed in only one instance: fewer older girls in intervention areas than those in comparison areas agreed that it is acceptable for girls to play during menstruation (46% versus 52% among the unmarried and 38% versus 46% among the married).

Table 8.2 Perceptions about acceptable behaviour during menstruation
Percentage of adolescent girls reporting that it is acceptable for women and girls to perform various taboo activities during menstruation, Jharkhand, 2018

Responses to questions on whether girls can perform various taboo activities during menstruation	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Rejection of traditional taboos on activities during menstruation			
During menstruation, it is acceptable for a woman/girl to visit a temple/mosque	4.5	12.5	5.5
During menstruation, women/girls do not need to stay away from others	34.5	69.9	58.3
During menstruation, it is acceptable for girls to play	21.8	51.1	44.7
During menstruation, it is acceptable for a woman/girl to make pickles or papad	10.9	25.0	21.0
Number of respondents	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

8.2 AWARENESS OF SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE MATTERS

The survey explored adolescents' awareness of various sexual and reproductive health matters, including those related to puberty, pregnancy, contraception, HIV/AIDS and STIs. Questions were age-appropriate, and in several instances, questions were omitted for all younger adolescents or those aged 10-12.

Becoming pregnant

In all, we asked three questions to those aged 13-21 to explore adolescents' knowledge about becoming pregnant. We asked both younger adolescents aged 13-14 and older girls and boys about whether a woman can become pregnant the first time she engages in sexual relations, asked only those aged 13-14 whether a woman can become pregnant after kissing or hugging, and asked only older girls about their understanding about when in her menstrual cycle, a woman is most likely to become pregnant. Findings are presented in Table 8.3.

Knowledge that a woman can become pregnant at first sex was far from universal even among married girls; just 8-11 percent of younger boys and girls, 27-28 percent of older boys and unmarried girls, and just half (52%) of married girls reported awareness. Among adolescents aged 13-14, just under three in five boys (57%) and two in five girls (43%) were aware that a woman cannot become pregnant after kissing or hugging. Finally, among girls aged 15-21, just four percent of the unmarried and 18 percent of the married knew that a woman is most likely to become pregnant if she engages in sexual relations midway through her menstrual cycle. These findings highlight that many girls enter marriage or pre-marital sexual relations unaware of the risk of unintended pregnancy that they face.

Differences in awareness between adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were evident. Among both boys and girls aged 13-14, more of those from intervention than comparison areas knew that a woman cannot become pregnant after kissing or hugging (62% versus 56% and 48% versus 42% respectively). In contrast, among married girls, those in intervention areas were less well informed than those in comparison areas: fewer of them knew that a woman can become pregnant at first sex (46% versus 53%) and that chances of become pregnant are greatest midway through a woman's menstrual cycle (13% versus 19%).

Table 8.3 Awareness about becoming pregnant
Percentage of adolescents aged 13-21 who were aware about pregnancy-related matters, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness indicators	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
A woman can get pregnant after kissing/hugging					
No	56.9	NA	42.9	NA	NA
A woman can get pregnant at first sex					
Yes	7.7	28.3	11.4	27.0	51.9
A woman is most likely to get pregnant if she has sex half-way between her periods					
Yes	NA	NA	NA	4.4	18.4
Number of respondents	1,289	3,150	1,631	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Awareness of matters related to the sex of the foetus

The survey explored the extent of adolescents' awareness about whether the male or female is responsible for the sex of the foetus. In addition, we asked whether they were aware of tests that can determine the sex of the foetus. Older adolescents who were aware of such tests were probed about whether disclosure of the sex of the foetus is illegal.

Findings, presented in Table 8.4, reiterate adolescents' poor understanding of matters related to the sex of the foetus. With regard to awareness that it is the male partner that determines the sex of the foetus, disparities by age were evident with older adolescents more likely than younger ones to be aware (28-31% versus 10-13%). Gender differences, and among older girls, differences by marital status, were not observed on this indicator, nor were differences by residence in intervention and comparison areas.

Considerably more adolescents were aware of the availability of tests to determine the sex of the foetus (35-81%). As expected, more older adolescents than younger adolescents, and now, more girls than boys at each age reported awareness: 46 percent versus 35 percent of younger adolescents, and 79-81 percent versus 71 percent of older adolescents. Differences by marital status among older girls were not observed. With regard to differences between adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas, fewer older boys and unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas knew that tests exist whereby the sex of the foetus may be determined (66% versus 72%, and 75% versus 81%, respectively).

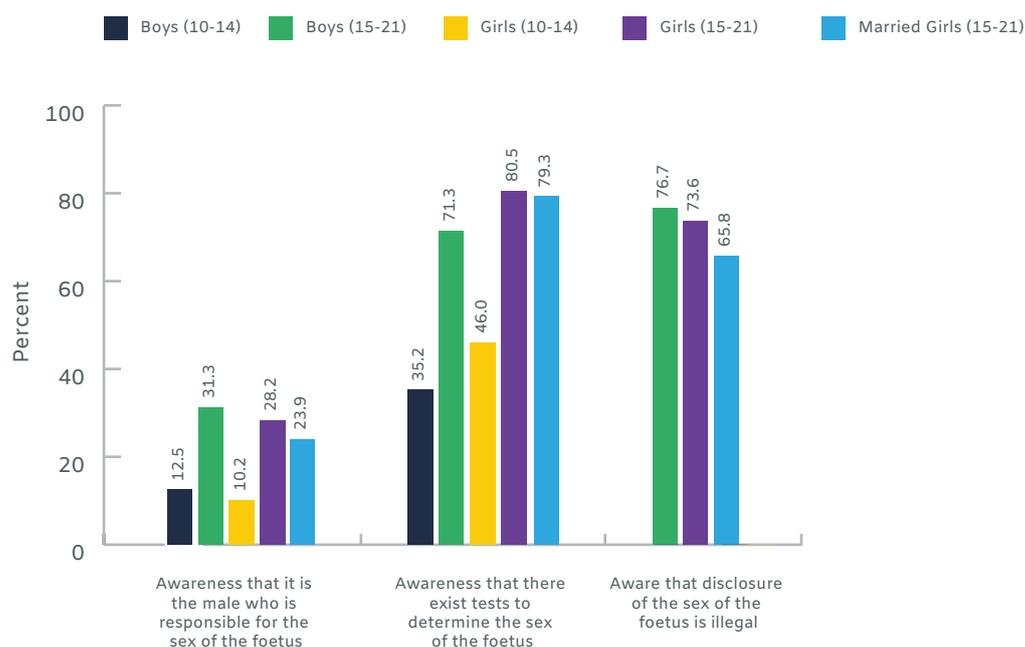
Many adolescents aged 15-21 who were aware about the availability of pre-natal sex determination tests were aware that disclosure of the sex of the foetus is illegal: 74-77 percent of boys and unmarried girls, and fewer – 66 percent – of married girls. In the case of boys and unmarried girls, moreover, fewer of those from intervention than comparison areas were aware of the illegality of disclosure of the sex of the foetus (69% versus 77% of boys, 68% versus 74% of unmarried girls).

Table 8.4 Awareness of matters relating to the sex of the foetus
Percentage of adolescents aware that males are responsible for the sex of the foetus, that prenatal sex determination tests are available, and that disclosure of the sex of the foetus is illegal, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness of matters relating to the sex of the foetus	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Awareness that it is the male who is responsible for the sex of the foetus	12.5	31.3	10.2	28.2	23.9
Awareness that there exist tests to determine the sex of the foetus	35.2	71.3	46.0	80.5	79.3
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Aware that disclosure of the sex of the foetus is illegal	NA	76.7	NA	73.6	65.8
Number of respondents aware that tests to determine the sex of the foetus exist	NA	2,114	NA	2,449	1,531

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Figure 8.2 Awareness of matters relating to the sex of the foetus



Awareness of contraceptive methods

In order to assess the awareness of adolescents aged 15-21 about contraceptive methods, we probed them specifically about their awareness of various contraceptive methods that are suitable for and relatively easily accessible to adolescents, namely, oral pills, emergency contraceptive pills, condoms, and IUCDs. We also probed, among those aware of each of these methods, about the extent of their more “in-depth” awareness, that is, their awareness of one specific aspect related to the use of each of these methods, such as, for example, how often oral contraceptives must be consumed (daily or weekly), within how much time following unprotected sex emergency contraception must be taken (72 hours), how many times one (male) condom can be used (one), and where, in the body, the IUCD is placed (uterus). We also asked them whether they knew of any other method, and recorded their spontaneous responses accordingly.

Findings, presented in Table 8.5, show that most older adolescents were aware of at least one modern or traditional method of contraception (92-97%), and similar proportions of boys (93%) and considerably

fewer girls (74% of the unmarried and 88% of the married) were aware of at least one of the four methods we considered especially appropriate for them. Specifically, 91 percent of boys, 50 percent of unmarried girls and 74 percent of married girls had heard about condoms. Fewer boys (52%), and considerably more girls (66-78%) had heard about oral pills. The remaining two methods about which we probed were known to far fewer adolescents. Just 22 percent of boys and 14 percent of both groups of girls were aware about emergency contraceptive pills, and just 14 percent of boys, 24 percent of unmarried girls and 46 percent of married girls were aware of IUCDs. Among methods mentioned spontaneously by adolescents, in addition, many – 49 percent of boys, 75 percent of unmarried girls and 87 percent of married girls reported awareness of female sterilisation, a method inappropriate for this age group. In addition, some 14-24 percent spontaneously reported awareness of other modern methods such as male sterilisation, injectables, female condoms, vaginal tablets and implants).

More in-depth knowledge of the four methods considered appropriate for adolescents was considerably poorer. Table 8.5 presents the percentage of adolescents who had both heard of a specific method and correctly responded to our questions about its use. Findings show that in-depth knowledge of even one modern method of contraception was, overall, limited, and ranged from a high of 61 percent among boys to 52 percent among married girls, and just 19 percent among unmarried girls. More married girls reported specific knowledge of oral contraceptives than boys and unmarried girls (15% of married girls versus 6% of boys and unmarried girls), but far more boys than girls reported specific knowledge of condoms (60% versus 14% and 45% of unmarried and married girls, respectively). Very few adolescents had correct in-depth knowledge about the remaining two methods, that is, emergency contraceptives (2-3%) and the IUCD (2-8%), with more married than unmarried girls reporting such awareness (8% versus 2%).

Differences in percentages of adolescents aged 15-21 from comparison and intervention areas were fairly narrow for the most part. With regard to percentages who had ever heard of various methods, the only exceptions were that fewer boys from intervention than comparison areas knew about emergency contraception (18% versus 23%) and spontaneously reported awareness of female sterilisation (43% versus 50%). Among unmarried girls, fewer girls from intervention than comparison areas had heard about emergency contraception (10% versus 15%) but more had heard about female sterilisation (84% versus 74%). With regard to percentages who had both heard of and had correct in-depth knowledge of the four methods probed, differences between those residing in intervention and comparison areas were consistently negligible.

Table 8.5 Awareness of selected contraceptive methods
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 who reported awareness and specific knowledge of selected contraceptive methods, Jharkhand, 2018

Contraceptive methods	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
	Any awareness Has heard about selected contraceptives			In-depth awareness Knows specific use of selected methods		
Oral pills	51.6	66.3	78.4	6.0	5.7	15.3
Emergency contraception	22.2	14.0	14.4	3.4	2.1	1.5
Condoms	91.3	50.4	73.5	60.2	14.0	45.2
IUCD	13.9	23.7	45.9	5.2	2.4	8.3
Any of the above	93.2	74.1	88.0	60.9	18.5	51.8
Female sterilisation*	49.2	75.4	87.2	NA	NA	NA
Traditional methods (withdrawal, safe period)*	2.6	1.4	7.5	NA	NA	NA
Other methods (female condom, male sterilisation, implant, vaginal tablets, injections)*	14.2	16.3	24.0	NA	NA	NA
Any method	94.4	91.9	97.4	NA	NA	NA
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999	3,150	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. na: Not applicable. *spontaneous responses: in response to question "what other methods have you heard about?"

Figure 8.3 Awareness and specific knowledge of selected contraceptive methods (Ages 15-21)



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

In order to assess adolescents' awareness of infections such as HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs), we employed the questions previously used in the UDAYA studies (Santhya et al., 2016; 2016a) and the Youth in India study (IIPS and Population Council, 2010), both of which drew on the questions posed in the National Family Health Survey. The questions we posed were age appropriate. Both younger and older adolescents were asked about various misconceptions, such as whether HIV can be transmitted through mosquito bites, by sharing food, and by kissing or hugging a person, and whether one can tell by looking at a person whether he or she has HIV. Only older adolescents were asked two additional questions relating to prevention, namely whether having a single sexual partner and whether consistent condom use prevented HIV. We also created an indicator measuring comprehensive HIV awareness, that is, the proportions of younger adolescents who correctly rejected the four misconceptions posed, and the proportion of older adolescents who correctly responded to questions on misconceptions as well as on prevention. In addition to these questions on awareness of HIV/AIDS, we asked older adolescents whether they were aware of infections that are transmitted through sexual contacts.

Findings are presented in Table 8.6 and show that relatively few adolescents had even heard about HIV/AIDS. Age differences were pronounced: just 7-10 percent of younger adolescents, compared to 21-56 percent of older adolescents had heard about HIV/AIDS. Gender disparities were not observed among younger adolescents, but among older adolescents, far more boys than girls were aware of HIV/AIDS (56% versus 21-34%). Marital status differences were also observed among older girls, with far more unmarried than married girls (34% versus 21%) reporting awareness of HIV/AIDS. Differences between those from comparison and those from intervention areas were wide among older adolescents, with more of those in comparison than intervention areas reporting awareness of HIV/AIDS (57% versus 46% among older boys, 35% versus 26% among unmarried girls; 22% versus 14% among married girls).

Among those who had heard about HIV/AIDS, 43-81 percent of younger boys and fewer - 38-74 percent - of younger girls correctly rejected the four misconceptions about which they were probed. Among older adolescents, somewhat more - 56-89 percent of boys, 36-90 percent of unmarried girls and 42-79 percent of married girls - had rejected the four misconceptions. Where differences were noted, more boys than girls, and more unmarried than married girls reported awareness of misconceptions. The misconception that most adolescents rejected was that one could tell if a person is HIV-positive by looking at him/her (74%-90%). Among others, for example, 67 percent of younger and older boys, and 42-60 percent of all three groups of girls were aware that HIV cannot be transmitted through mosquito bites; 43 percent of younger boys and 56 percent of older boys, compared to 38 percent of younger girls and 51-53 percent of older ones knew that one cannot acquire HIV by sharing food with a person with HIV; and 54 percent of younger boys and 71 percent of older boys, compared to 51 percent of younger girls and 64-67 percent of older girls knew that one cannot get HIV by hugging an HIV-positive person. Overall, older adolescents were consistently better informed than their younger counterparts. Gender differences, and among older girls, marital status differences, were not as consistent; even so, where observed, misconceptions were more likely to have been rejected by boys than girls, and by unmarried than married girls.

Among older adolescents, more boys than girls were correctly aware about the two modes of prevention. For example, while 79 percent of boys were aware about single partner relations, just 53-73 percent of girls knew this. Likewise, while 78 percent of boys were aware about the role of consistent condom use in reducing chances of acquiring HIV, just 36-53 percent of girls so reported. Married girls were more likely than the unmarried to know about the effects of single partner relations (73% versus 53%), and consistent condom use (53% versus 36%).

Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS was reported by very few adolescents - just 1-2 percent of younger adolescents correctly rejected all four misconceptions, while 3-5 percent of older girls, and 15 percent of older boys both rejected common misconceptions and were correctly aware of modes of prevention.

Differences by residence in comparison or intervention areas were inconsistent. With regard to misconceptions, by and large, where differences were observed, more boys from comparison than intervention areas correctly rejected misconceptions (2 of 4 misconceptions each). Among girls, in contrast, where differences were observed, for the most part, misconceptions were more likely to have been rejected by those from intervention than comparison areas (in 2, 3 and all 4 instances among younger girls, and unmarried and

married older girls, respectively). With regard to modes of prevention, awareness levels were similar among boys in intervention and comparison areas (77-81% and 77-79%, respectively) but among girls, more of those from intervention than comparison areas were aware of the protective role of condoms (41% versus 35% among the unmarried; 59% versus 52% among the married), while awareness of the role of single partner sexual relations was reported by more unmarried girls (58% versus 52%) but fewer married girls (67% versus 73%) in intervention than comparison areas. Overall, differences by residence in comparison in comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS were not observed among any group of adolescents.

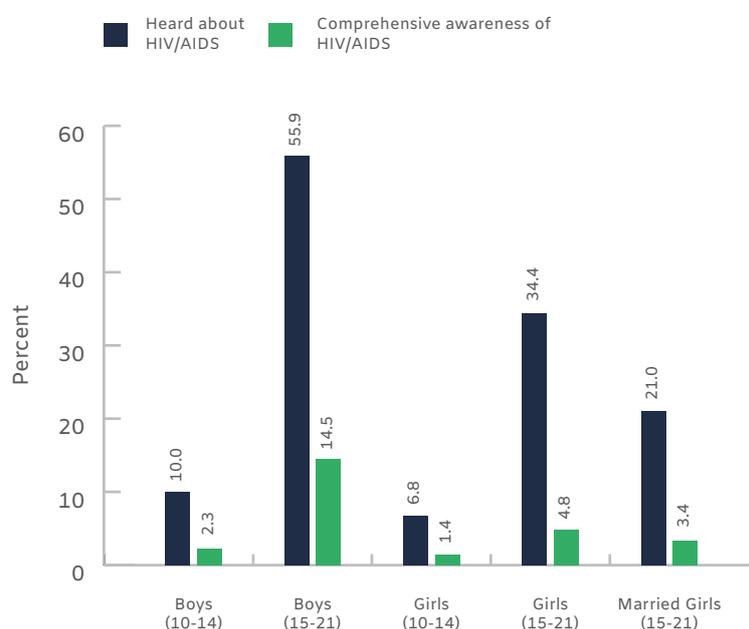
Awareness of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) was reported by even fewer older adolescents than those reporting awareness about HIV/AIDS (17-29%). Now, more married girls than both boys and unmarried girls had heard about STIs (29% versus 17-19%). Differences by residence in intervention and comparison areas were not observed among boys and unmarried girls, but among married girls, more of those from comparison than intervention areas had heard of STIs (29% versus 24%).

Table 8.6 Awareness of HIV/AIDS and STIs other than HIV
Percentage of adolescents who had heard of and had comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS, and percentage of adolescents who had heard about STIs, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness indicators	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Heard about HIV/AIDS	10.0	55.9	6.8	34.4	21.0
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention, common misperceptions					
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by having a single sexual partner	NA	79.2	NA	52.9	72.8
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by consistent use of condoms	NA	77.8	NA	35.9	52.9
One cannot get HIV through mosquito bites	66.7	67.2	46.2	60.4	41.7
One cannot get HIV by sharing food with an HIV-positive person	42.6	55.8	38.3	52.6	51.0
One cannot get HIV by hugging an HIV-positive person	54.0	71.1	51.3	64.3	66.6
One cannot tell if a person is HIV-positive by just looking at him/her	81.1	88.5	73.7	90.2	78.8
Number who had heard about HIV/AIDS	270	1,521	211	865	315
Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS ¹	2.3	14.5	1.4	4.8	3.4
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Heard about STIs other than HIV	NA	17.4	NA	19.2	28.6
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. ¹Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS includes percentages aware of all issues about which they were probed (4 for 10-14 year olds; 6 for 15-21 year olds; those unaware of HIV/AIDS were coded as lacking comprehensive awareness.

Figure 8.4 Awareness of HIV/AIDS and STIs



Awareness about the legal minimum age at marriage

India has witnessed a huge decline in child marriage in the period 2005-06 to 2015-16, a decline also observed in Jharkhand, where it declined from 63 percent to 38 percent (IIPS, 2017). In this section, we explore the extent to adolescents' awareness about whether there is a law on the minimum age at marriage for males and females, and their awareness of the minimum age at marriage advocated in these laws for males and females. Table 8.7 presents the percentages of adolescents who knew that such a law exists, and the percentage who knew what the correct legal minimum age at marriage for males and females is 21 and 18.

Despite the huge decline in child marriage in the state, not all adolescents knew that a law exists. Differences by age, sex and among older girls, marital status, were evident. Younger adolescents were less likely than older adolescents to report that there is a legal minimum age of marriage for males and females in India (66% versus 92% among boys and 50% versus 78-86% among girls). More boys than girls reported awareness of a law (66% versus 50% among younger adolescents and 92% versus 78-86% among older adolescents). Notably, more unmarried than married girls were aware of the existence of a law (86% versus 78%). Differences by residence in comparison and intervention areas were observed among three groups only, and among these, more of those from comparison than intervention areas reported awareness of the law (67% versus 61% of younger boys; 86% versus 81% of unmarried older girls and 79% versus 73% among married girls).

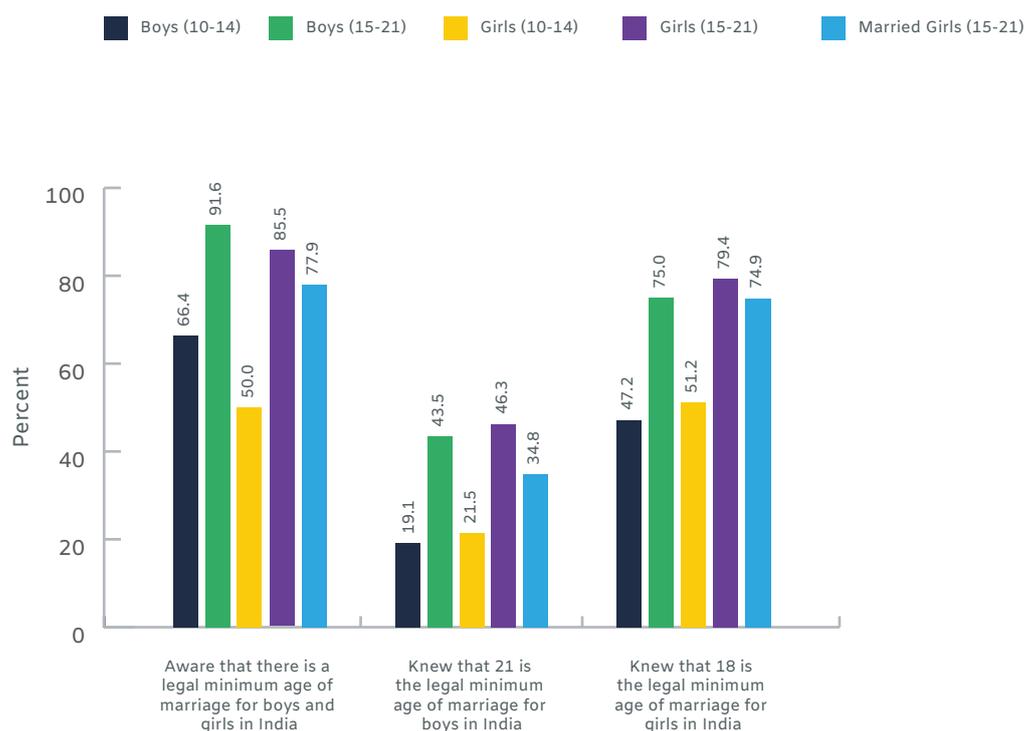
Fewer adolescents could correctly state the legal minimum age at marriage, and in all groups, and awareness of the legal minimum age at marriage for females was reported by far more adolescents than awareness of the legal minimum age at marriage for males (47-79% versus 19-46%). Age differences were wide, with younger adolescents less likely than older adolescents to know the legal minimum age at marriage for males (19-22% versus 44-46%) and females (47-51% versus 75-79%). Gender differences were narrow, but among older girls, more unmarried than married girls were correctly aware of the legal minimum age at marriage for males (46% versus 35%). Differences between those from comparison and those from intervention areas were not observed for the most part; the only exception was that fewer older boys from intervention than comparison areas knew about the legal minimum age at marriage for males (38% versus 44%).

Table 8.7 Awareness about the legal minimum age at marriage
Percentage of adolescents who knew the legal minimum age at marriage for males and females in India, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness indicators	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Aware that there is a legal minimum age of marriage for boys and girls in India	66.4	91.6	50.0	85.5	77.9
Knew that 21 is the legal minimum age of marriage for boys in India	19.1	43.5	21.5	46.3	34.8
Knew that 18 is the legal minimum age of marriage for girls in India	47.2	75.0	51.2	79.4	74.9
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 8.5 Awareness about the legal minimum age at marriage



8.3 SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE MATTERS

The survey probed adolescents about their sources of information about the various matters discussed in the earlier sections. We asked all 10-14 year olds about their sources of information about physiological changes taking place in adolescence and asked all those aged 13-14 and 15-21 about their sources of information about such matters as becoming pregnant, practising contraception, and protection from infection. Tables 8.8 and 8.9 present their responses.

Sources of information about physiological changes taking place during adolescence

We asked adolescents aged 10-14 about up to three main sources through which they learned about physiological changes taking place during adolescence, described as “how a girl’s or boy’s body changes during puberty.” Responses are presented in Table 8.8. Findings presented in Table 8.8 show that considerable proportions of younger boys and girls - and far more boys (40%) than girls (24%) had never received any information about physiological changes that accompany puberty. Leading sources identified by adolescents were family members among girls and friends among boys. For example, 53 percent of girls, compared to 13 percent of boys reported that a family member had informed them about puberty; family members most likely to be identified by girls were a parent (28%), sister and other female family members (11-12%). In contrast, 32 percent of boys, compared to 27 percent of girls cited friends (almost entirely their same-sex friends) as their leading source of information. Fewer adolescents reported that they had received information on puberty from adults holding positions of authority (13-17%), mostly teachers (13-14%). Hardly any adolescents (2-5%) considered the media as their major source of information. Differences by residence in intervention and comparison areas were generally marginal. However, differences of five or more percentage points were observed on some indicators. Among boys, for example, more of those from intervention than comparison areas had received this information from a peer (42% versus 31%), and conversely fewer reported that they had not received this information from any source (34% versus 41%). Among girls, fewer of those from intervention than comparison areas had received this information from their parents (24% versus 29%), although overall, similar proportions had been informed about these matters by a family member (53-54%).

Table 8.8 Sources of information about physiological changes taking place in adolescence
Percentage of adolescents aged 10-14 by sources of information about physiological changes taking place during adolescence, Jharkhand, 2018

Sources of information	Boys (10-14)	Girls (10-14)
Parents	10.0	28.1
Siblings	1.4	11.0
Spouse/partner	0.2	0.1
Siblings-in-law	0.0	1.7
Other female family members	0.3	12.2
Other male family members	1.4	0.2
Any family member	13.3	53.2
Female friends/neighbours	0.1	26.9
Male friends/neighbours	32.0	0.1
Any friend	32.0	27.0
Teachers /school	13.1	14.3
Healthcare providers	0.1	0.7
Youth/mahila mandal /NGO	0.1	0.1
AWW/ASHA/Sahiya	0.0	0.6
AEP/UDAAN	0.0	0.8
Any person in a position of authority in the community¹	13.2	16.5
Newspapers/books /magazines	2.0	4.1
Radio/ TV/internet	0.3	1.3
Posters/billboards	0.0	0.0
Any media	2.3	5.4
Never received	40.1	23.6
Does not remember/cannot say	4.7	1.7
Number of respondents	3,473	4,104

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Not a single respondent indicated Sakhi/Saheli or RKSK peer educator.

Sources of information about pregnancy, contraception, infection

Adolescents aged 13-14 and 15-21 were asked to report up to three main sources of information about how pregnancy happens, how it can be prevented and other sexual and reproductive health issues. Findings are presented in Table 8.9 and highlight that many adolescents had not received this information at all. Three in five adolescents aged 13-14 (58-59%) so reported, as did 16-20 percent of older boys and unmarried girls, and seven percent of married girls.

Leading sources of information on sexual and reproductive matters differed between younger and older adolescents, between boys and girls, and, among older girls, between the unmarried and the married. For example, hardly any boys had obtained information from a family member (3% of both groups), whereas far more girls had done so: one-quarter of younger girls (25%), almost half of older unmarried girls (48%) and almost three-quarters of married girls (72%). Among girls, clearly, information is provided to older rather than younger girls, and perhaps to girls about-to-be-married than others.

Percentages citing their friends as their leading source of information about sexual and reproductive matters increased hugely with age, and was, at each age, cited by more boys than girls. For example, among younger adolescents, 26 percent of boys, compared to 17 percent of girls obtained information from their friends. By far the leading source of information for older boys was their friends: 65 percent of them cited their friends, as compared to 33-38 percent of older girls.

The media were also important sources of information, again more likely to be reported by older adolescents compared to younger adolescents. While 23-24 percent of older boys and unmarried girls sourced information from the media, just 3-6 percent of younger girls did so. Among older girls, moreover, far more unmarried than married girls indicated the media as a key source of information (23% versus 10%).

Several adolescents also cited adults in positions of authority in their communities as key sources of information about sexual and reproductive health matters. In this case, differences were evident by age, sex and among older girls, marital status. Older adolescents were more likely than younger ones to report these adults as important sources of information (16-23% versus 9-11%), and while gender differences were not evident among younger adolescents, among older adolescents, more boys than unmarried girls had received information from this source (21% versus 16%), and among older girls, more of the married than the unmarried had done so (23% versus 16%).

In summary, sources of information differed widely over the five groups of adolescents. The leading source of information for all three groups of girls, and married girls in particular, was the family. Boys, in contrast, relied largely on their peers, and older boys also reported access to the media and to adults in positions of authority in their community. Large proportions of younger boys and girls were denied information on these matters, although even among older unmarried adolescents, between one in five and one in six reported no sources of information. We note that the content of information – particularly those obtained from family members, peers and the media – may not always have been reliable or comprehensive.

Differences by residence in comparison and intervention areas were generally negligible. Some exceptions were however noted among boys and older unmarried girls. Younger boys in intervention areas were more likely than those from comparison areas to report peers as a source of information (32% versus 26%), while older boys in intervention areas were more likely than their counterparts in comparison areas to report friends as a source of information (69% versus 64%), but less likely than those in comparison areas to report people in positions of authority (17% versus 22%) or the media (16% versus 25%) as a leading source of information. As in the case of boys, more older unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas reported access information from the media (23% versus 18%).

Table 8.9 Sources of information about sexual and reproductive matters
Percentage of adolescents by sources of information about sexual and reproductive matters, Jharkhand, 2018

Sources of information	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Father/mother	0.5	0.2	9.9	9.3	7.2
Brother/sister	0.2	0.3	5.4	6.9	3.0
Husband/partner	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.0	12.7
Brother-in-law/Sister in law	1.2	0.1	1.7	12.5	15.3
Other female family members	0.0	0.2	7.4	18.5	33.3
Other male family members	0.8	1.5	0.2	0.2	0.8
Any family member	3.2	2.5	24.7	47.5	72.3
Female friends/neighbours	0.0	0.5	16.7	37.5	32.6
Male friends/neighbours	26.4	64.1	0.0	0.3	0.3
Any friend	26.4	64.6	16.7	37.8	32.9
Teachers /school	9.9	15.1	6.5	11.3	4.0
Healthcare providers	1.5	5.2	2.2	2.4	10.7
Youth/mahila mandal /NGO	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
AWW/ASHA/Sahiya	0.0	0.8	0.2	2.0	7.9
Any person in a position of authority in the community ¹	11.4	21.1	9.0	15.7	22.7
Newspapers/books /magazines	2.2	10.4	3.2	10.2	5.3
Radio/ TV/internet	0.5	11.7	3.0	12.2	3.7
Posters/billboards	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.3	0.8
Any media	2.7	24.3	6.2	22.8	9.8
Never received	58.8	16.3	58.4	20.2	6.5
Does not remember /cannot say	2.8	0.6	2.0	0.2	0.1
Number of respondents	1,289	3,150	1,631	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Not a single respondent indicated Sakhi/Saheli, RKSK peer educator, or AEP/UDAAN.

Preferred sources of information about sexual and reproductive matters

We also asked adolescents aged 13-14 and 15-21 about the sources from which they would like to obtain information about sexual and reproductive health matters. Findings are presented in Table 8.10.

The leading preferred source of information differed considerably between younger and older adolescents, between boys and girls, and among older girls, between the unmarried and the married. Among boys, the leading preferred sources of information were friends (male) and persons in positions of authority, and in both instances, more older boys than younger boys expressed this preference (56% versus 35% and 47% versus 39%, respectively). The authority figure most likely to be preferred was a health care provider, preferred by 20 percent of younger boys, and 35 percent of older ones. In addition, younger boys preferred to be informed about these matters by a teacher (19%); far fewer older adolescents (10%) so reported. The media were preferred just eight percent of younger boys and one fifth of older boys. Notably, 21 percent of younger boys and eight percent of older boys did not wish to receive information from any source.

Among girls, the picture was quite different. The leading preferred source of information was a family member, reported by 61-71 percent of all girls; while the mother and sister were leading preferred source for younger girls (35% and 12%, respectively), unmarried older girls cited the mother (22%) but also their sister (10%), sister-in-law (15%) and other female family members (12%). Married girls were most likely to cite their husband (25%), sister-in-law (14%) and other females in the family (23%). Friends and those in positions of authority were far less likely to be preferred. Among the unmarried, similar proportions cited these two groups – 19-21 percent of younger girls and 28-29 percent of older girls. As in the case of boys, health care providers and teachers were preferred by younger girls (10% and 9%, respectively), while older unmarried girls exhibited a greater preference for health care providers than teachers (20% and 4%, respectively). Among married girls, adults in positions of authority (41%) and among these, health care providers in particular (30%) were a leading preferred source of information, cited by far more than those citing a friend (17%). The media, in contrast, were a preferred source of information to relatively few girls (4-11%). Finally, just 1-12 percent of girls reported that they did not wish to obtain this information from any source.

A comparison of preferred (reported in Table 8.10) and actual sources of information (reported in Table 8.9) suggests that many adolescents are not receiving information from the sources from which they would like to receive information. Several notable disparities emerge. For one, 63 percent and 61 percent of girls aged 13-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21 wished to obtain this information from a family member, yet, as we saw in the previous table, just 25 percent and 48 percent, respectively, did so. Indeed, the single most preferred source of information for these girls was their mother (35% and 22%, respectively), yet just 9-10 percent had done so (Table 8.9). Among married girls, while the mother was no longer a preferred source of information, one-quarter (25%) wished for their husband to provide this information, just 13 percent reported that their husband had done so (Table 8.9).

Second, far more adolescents from each group wished to obtain sexual and reproductive health information from a person in a position of authority (Table 8.10) than had actually obtained such information from this source (Table 8.9): 39 percent versus 11 percent of younger boys, 47 percent versus 21 percent of older boys, 19 percent versus nine percent of younger girls, 28 percent versus 16 percent of older unmarried girls, and 41 percent versus 23 percent of married girls. More specifically, many adolescents wished to obtain information from a health care provider, but few had succeeded in doing so (20% versus 2% of younger boys, 35% versus 5% of older boys, 10% versus 2% of younger girls, 20% versus 2% of older unmarried girls, and 30% versus 11% of married girls).

Third, an interesting pattern was observed with regard to friends as a source of and a preferred source of information. Among younger adolescents, more wished to obtain information from a friend than actually succeeded in doing so. For example, while 35 percent of younger boys and 21 percent of younger girls wished to obtain information from a friend (Table 8.10), only 26 percent and 17 percent had actually so received (Table 8.9). The reverse was true among older adolescents – more had received this information from a friend than had wished to do so. For example, while 56 percent of older boys wished to get this information from friends, 65 percent had done so. And while just 29 percent of unmarried girls and 17 percent of married girls wished to get this information from their friends (Table 8.10), 38 percent and 33 percent, respectively, reported that their friends had delivered this information to them (Table 8.9).

Table 8.10 Sources from which adolescents would like to learn about sexual and reproductive matters
Percentage of adolescents aged 13-21 by preferred sources of information about sexual and reproductive matters,
Jharkhand, 2018

Preferred sources of information	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Father/mother	4.4	0.9	35.1	22.4	7.0
Brother/sister	0.7	0.6	11.8	10.3	1.8
Husband/partner	2.2	1.6	0.1	0.9	25.0
Brother-in-law/Sister-in-law	1.2	0.7	6.9	14.8	14.3
Other female family members	0.1	0.4	8.3	12.3	22.8
Other male family members	1.3	2.3	0.4	0.1	0.1
Any family member	9.8	6.4	62.6	60.9	70.9
Female friends/neighbours	0.5	1.1	21.2	28.6	17.0
Male friends/neighbours	34.2	54.9	0.0	0.4	0.0
Any friend	34.7	56.0	21.2	29.0	17.0
Teachers /school	18.5	9.8	8.6	4.4	0.5
Healthcare providers	20.3	34.7	10.0	20.2	30.1
Youth/mahila mandal /NGO	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0
AWW/ASHA/Sahiya	0.2	2.0	0.6	3.5	10.8
Sakhi/saheli/sabla	NA	NA	0.0	0.0	0.0
Any person in a position of authority in the community¹	39.0	46.5	19.2	28.2	41.4
Newspapers/books /magazines	5.6	5.6	4.9	5.1	2.3
Radio/ TV/internet	2.4	13.8	2.6	6.3	1.9
Posters/billboards	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.1
Any media	8.1	20.0	7.5	11.4	4.3
No desire to receive information	21.2	7.8	12.2	7.1	1.3
Does not remember/cannot say	9.5	7.8	4.6	2.1	0.5
Number of respondents	1,289	3,150	1,631	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Not a single respondent indicated the RKSK peer educator, or AEP/UDAAN.

Adolescence education, sexuality education

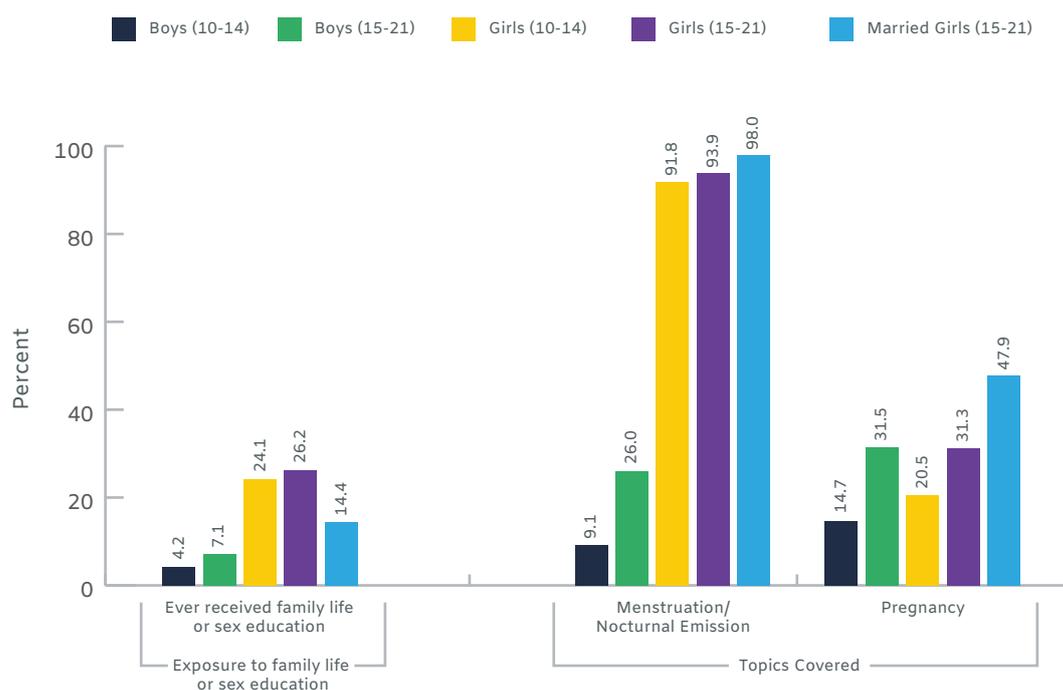
A large number of schools, government programmes such as SABLA and NYKS, and NGOs provide family life or sexuality education, often under larger adolescence education programmes or life skills programmes. The RKSK programme's community-based programme, delivered by peer educators, also provides sexual and reproductive health information to adolescents. In Jharkhand, almost all government schools implement the UDAAN programme, in connection with the NGO C3 India, for those attending Classes 9 and (till recently) 11. We probed adolescents about their access to such programmes, and more specifically, programmes that "seek to provide adolescents with information related to life skills, changes in their bodies while growing up, pregnancy, etc." Those exposed to such programmes, were asked about whether they had been exposed to a programme within their school or college, or at a camp or programme organised by the government or an NGO, and the age at which they had been exposed to this education. They were also asked more specifically about whether education had covered such topics as menstruation (girls), nocturnal emission (boys), pregnancy, and relationships between boys and girls. Table 8.11 reports findings.

Table 8.11 Participation in adolescence education or sexuality education programmes
Percentage of adolescents aged 13-21 by exposure to adolescence education or sexuality programmes, and percentages of these adolescents reporting various experiences, Jharkhand, 2018

Exposure indicators	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Ever received family life or sex education					
Yes	4.2	7.1	24.1	26.2	14.4
Number of respondents	1,289	3,150	1,631	3,237	1,999
Source of family life or sex education					
NGO programme/camp	(1.0)	5.8	0.3	0.3	0.0
Government programme/camp	(0.0)	3.6	0.1	1.5	0.2
School/college	(98.8)	90.5	98.9	98.1	99.7
Other	(0.1)	0.2	0.8	0.0	0.1
Age at first exposure					
Median age	(12)	15	13	14	14
Topics covered					
Menstruation /nocturnal emission	(9.1)	26.0	91.8	93.9	98.0
Pregnancy	(14.7)	31.5	20.5	31.3	47.9
Relationship between boys and girls	(81.3)	62.0	33.7	28.3	29.4
Respondents ever exposed	32	142	376	838	294

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. na: Not applicable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases.

Figure 8.6 Exposure to family life or sex education



Access to adolescence or sexuality education was limited, especially among boys. Just 4-7 percent of boys and 14-26 percent of girls had been exposed to adolescence or sexuality education through their school or college, or in programmes and camps. While age differences were muted, far more girls than boys at each age had been exposed to sexuality education (24% versus 4% among 13-14 year olds, 26% versus 7% of 15-21 boys and unmarried girls). Marital status differences were pronounced too, with more unmarried younger and older girls than married girls so reporting (24-26% versus 14%). Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Almost all adolescents who had ever received sexuality education had done so in school or college (91-100%). Age at which adolescents were exposed to sexuality education varied. Median ages at which adolescents were first exposed ranged from 12-13 among younger adolescents to 14-15 among older adolescents. Content of sexuality education among those exposed was limited, and in particular, few had been taught about key issues such as nocturnal emission and pregnancy. Notable disparities by age, sex and among older girls, marital status were evident across some topics. Among boys, more younger boys than older boys reported that they had been taught about relations between boys and girls (81% versus 62%) whereas more older boys than younger boys had learned about nocturnal emission (26% versus 9%) and pregnancy (32% versus 15%). Among girls, in contrast, almost all had learned about menstruation (92-98%), more younger girls than older girls had learned about relations between boys and girls (34% versus 28-29%) and far more older girls than younger girls had learned about pregnancy (31-48% versus 21%). Gender differences were vast. Far more girls had been taught about menstruation than boys who had been taught about nocturnal emission (92-98% versus 9-26%), and far more boys than girls had been taught about relations between boys and girls (81% versus 34%, 62% versus 28-29%). Finally, more younger girls than boys had been taught about pregnancy (21% versus 15%), while similar proportions of older boys and unmarried girls so reported (31-32%). Considerably more married girls than unmarried girls had received information on pregnancy (48% versus 31%). Unfortunately, the survey did not probe in greater depth about what exactly was conveyed under these three topics, and hence the extent of adherence to the curriculum and quality and comprehensiveness of what was taught cannot be assessed.

Differences between those residing in intervention and comparison areas were largely negligible, but observed on a few indicators. Among older boys, fewer of those from intervention than comparison areas had received sexuality education from school or college (73% versus 92%). More boys from intervention areas than comparison areas had been taught about nocturnal emission (32% versus 25%), but fewer had been taught about relations between boys and girls (57% versus 62%). Likewise, more older girls in intervention than comparison areas had been taught about relations between boys and girls (36-44% versus 26-28%), but fewer married girls had been taught about pregnancy-related matters (23% versus 52%).





CHAPTER 9

ROMANTIC AND SEXUAL RELATIONSHIPS

Several studies over the course of the 2000s have confirmed that romantic opposite-sex relationships and sexual relations, respectively, are experienced by unmarried adolescents (aged 15-19) and youth (aged 15-24). The Youth in India: Situation and Needs 2006–07, the first sub-national study of youth (conducted in Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu) found that 18 percent of unmarried boys and nine percent of both married and unmarried girls aged 15-24 had experienced a premarital romantic relationship and 12 percent of boys and 3-4 percent of married and unmarried girls had experienced premarital sex (IIPS and Population Council, 2010). In Jharkhand, findings showed that 21 percent of unmarried boys, 16 percent of unmarried girls and 13 percent of married girls aged 15-24 had experienced a romantic relationship and 12 percent of boys and seven percent of both married and unmarried girls had experienced premarital sex (IIPS and Population Council, 2009). Two state-representative surveys in Rajasthan (2012) and Jharkhand (UDAYA 2015-16) suggest that there has been an increase over time (2007-2012 in Rajasthan, 2007-2018 in Jharkhand) in the percentage of boys and girls who had experienced romantic and sexual relationships (Jejeebhoy and Acharya, 2014; Santhya et al., 2017).

Our survey in Jharkhand followed the same methodology as was used in the recent UDAYA surveys (Santhya et al., 2018a; 2018b), and the Youth in India: Situation and Needs 2006–07 study (IIPS and Population Council, 2010) to explore romantic and sexual experiences of adolescents aged 15-21, both in romantic and other contexts.

This chapter presents our findings. In this chapter, we present adolescents' romantic and sexual relationships for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

9.1 A WORD ABOUT THE QUESTIONS POSED

Questions about romantic and sexual relations are extremely sensitive, and in a conservative setting such as India, where even mixing between boys and girls may elicit backlash and affect the family honour, we recognised that adolescents may be reluctant to reveal these personal details of their life. We therefore took several steps to make them comfortable about doing so. The module used in the Youth in India survey had been developed after extensive testing for wording, sequencing and so on, and we opted to use this module in our survey as well. Interviewers were young and of the same sex as the respondent; much time was spent, during training, to ensure that interviewers were skilled in building rapport with their respondent, in discussing sensitive matters in a friendly and non-judgemental way; this module was administered in absolute privacy, and if this could not be guaranteed, the interviewer was free to call upon a team member to hold an informal discussion with bystanders so as to ensure privacy for the respondent's interview.

The interview proceeded as follows. Adolescents were first asked (using terms easily understood among the young) whether or not they had ever had a boyfriend or girlfriend (married girls were probed about the period preceding marriage). All those who had reported a romantic partner were probed further about the extent of physical contact experienced in the relationship, on a continuum milder questions about hugging, followed by a question on kissing and finally, a question on sexual relations. Although all three questions were posed to all adolescents, the continuum allowed for progressively more sensitive questions to be posed later than others, giving the interviewer more opportunity to build rapport with the respondent. If the respondent confirmed one or more sexual partners within a romantic context, he or she was probed, with regard to the first partner and to a lesser extent, the last, the age at which the relationship was initiated, whether contraception had been used in the first sexual encounter, and/or thereafter, and if so, which method was used and how consistently it was used. We also probed about whether sexual initiation and subsequent encounters were consensual.

Aside from sexual relations with a romantic partner, the interview also probed sexual relations with other partners and in other situations. Both boys and girls were probed about whether they had engaged in sex in exchange for gifts, favours, good marks or employment, and whether they had engaged in casual sex. Married girls were also probed about whether they had engaged in pre-marital sex with their husband. Boys were asked, in addition, about their experience of sexual relations with sex workers and older married girls or women. Both boys and girls were probed about whether they had ever experienced forced sex (that is, through physical force, threats or blackmail), and if so, we probed their age at the time of the incident, whether the incident had taken place in the year preceding the interview, and whether a condom had been used. Boys were also asked about their perpetration of forced sex.

Despite our best efforts, we recognised that some adolescents would not disclose sexual relations in a face-to-face interview, hence, at the end of the interview, all respondents were asked to report in an anonymous format about whether they had ever engaged in sexual relations (unmarried), or sexual relations prior to marriage (married), a methodology employed in other studies of adolescents and youth as well (IIPS and Population Council, 2010; Santhya et al., 2017). Each respondent was given a card and was asked to tick or cross a box to denote whether or not they had ever had premarital sex. Interviewers demonstrated to all what was to be done (where to make a mark and what mark to make etc.) but gave the adolescent privacy to complete the task. Once done, they placed the card in an envelope, sealed it and returned it to the interviewer. Its contents remained anonymous, as the envelope was opened only by supervisory staff in the project office. The respondent was assured that only project office staff would be able to link their responses with other information provided in the questionnaire. The addition of this information allowed us to adjust for possible denial of a relationship in the course of the face-to-face interview.

Even so, we acknowledge that our efforts may not have been sufficient to convince all adolescents to overcome their reluctance about revealing sensitive matters. It is possible thus, that romantic and sexual experiences reported here, notably among girls, may have been under-reported, and we advise readers to interpret the percentages presented as conservative estimates.

9.2 ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

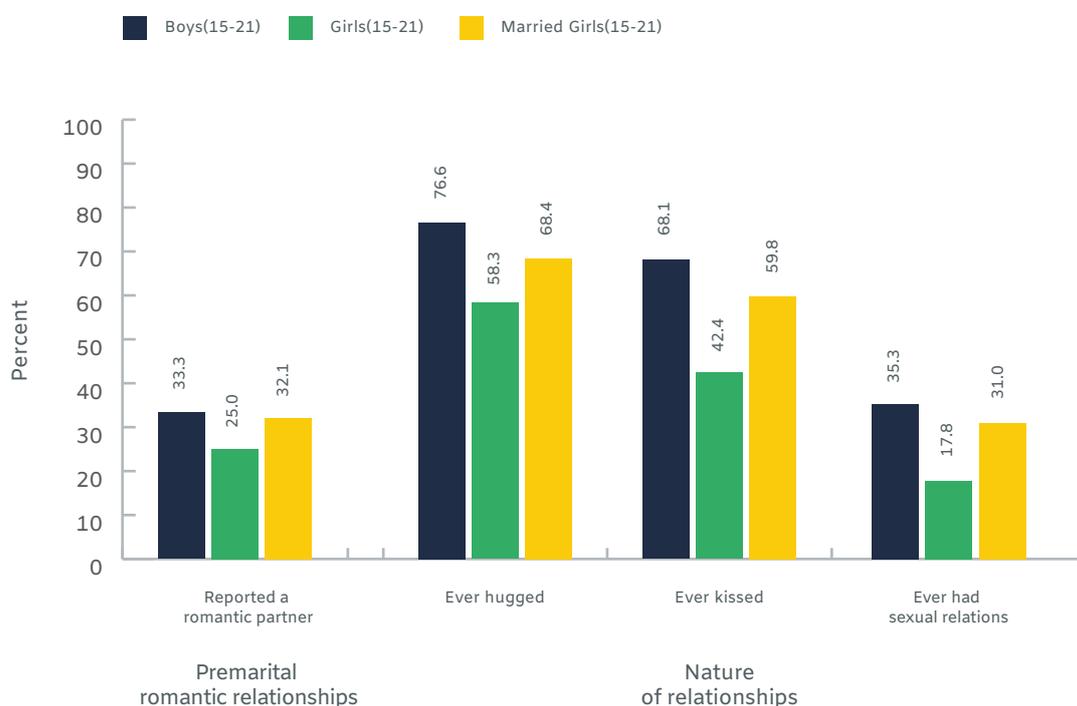
In this section, we focus on adolescents' opposite-sex romantic relationships, and explore its prevalence and nature, as discussed above. Table 9.1 shows that despite the conservative context in which many in Jharkhand grow up, and although social mixing between unmarried boys and girls is restricted for many, boys and girls do get opportunities to form romantic partnerships. One in three boys (33%) and married girls (32%) and one-quarter (25%) of unmarried girls reported that they had experienced a romantic relationship. Moreover, eleven percent of all boys and one percent of all girls reported more than one romantic partner. Percentages reporting romantic relationships were similar among those residing in intervention and comparison areas.

Table 9.1 Premarital romantic relationships of older adolescents
Percentage of adolescents in ages 15-21 reporting a premarital romantic relationship, Jharkhand, 2018

Premarital romantic relationships	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Reported a romantic partner	33.3	25.0	32.1
Reported more than one romantic partner	10.5	1.2	1.2
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 9.1 Premarital romantic relationships of older adolescents



Extent of physical intimacy within a romantic relationship

We then asked adolescents who reported a romantic relationship about whether they had engaged in various intimate behaviours with their romantic partner. The experiences about which we probed encompassed less sensitive behaviours such as hugging, as well as more sensitive behaviours, namely kissing on the lips and, finally, engaging in sexual relations. As evident from Table 9.2, the majority of boys and girls had hugged their romantic partner (77% of boys, 68% of married girls, and 58% of unmarried girls). Fewer reported kissing their romantic partner on the lips (68% of boys, 60% of married girls, and 42% of unmarried girls). Finally, 35 percent of boys, and almost as many – 31 percent – of married girls, compared to fewer unmarried girls (18%) reported the experience of sexual relations with a romantic partner. Clearly, boys were considerably more likely than both married and unmarried girls to acknowledge each behaviour (77% versus 58-68% reported hugging, 68% versus 42-60% reported kissing on the lips, and 35% versus 18-31% reported engaging in sex with their opposite-sex romantic partner). Among girls, the married were consistently more likely than the unmarried to so report (68% versus 58%, 60% versus 42%, and 31% versus 18%, respectively), perhaps reflecting a greater tendency among the unmarried to acknowledge sexual activity.

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were consistently observed in the case of sexual experience with a romantic partner. More boys and girls in intervention than comparison areas reported sexual relations with their romantic partner – 50 percent versus 33 percent among boys, 26 percent versus 17 percent among unmarried girls, and 36 percent versus 30 percent among married girls. In addition, more unmarried girls in intervention than comparison areas reported having kissed their boyfriend on the lips (47% versus 42%).

Table 9.2 Extent of physical intimacy within a romantic relationship
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 who reported a premarital romantic relationship by experiences of physical intimacy and sex with their romantic partner, Jharkhand, 2018

Nature of relationships	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Ever hugged	76.6	58.3	68.4
Ever kissed	68.1	42.4	59.8
Ever had sexual relations	35.3	17.8	31.0
Number of respondents	1,083	842	670

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Extent of safe and consensual sexual experiences within a romantic partnership

Adolescents who reported the experience of sexual relations with a romantic partner were probed about the nature of this relationship. Questions relating to their age at first sex with the romantic partner, their contraceptive practices, and the extent to which sexual relations were consensual provide an indication of the extent to which pre-marital sexual relations with a romantic partner were safe and wanted. Specifically, we asked adolescents aged 15-21 who had reported pre-marital sex with a romantic partner about their age at the time of sexual initiation with their (first) partner. We also asked the circumstances at first sex, namely whether contraception, and specifically condoms, had been used, and whether sex had been characterised by physical force, threats of abandonment, blackmail and so on. And we asked similar questions on contraception and non-consensual sex in relation to subsequent sexual encounters with their romantic partner. Although we have opted to show findings for adolescents in intervention and comparison areas separately, we note that the number of adolescents who had experienced pre-marital sex with a romantic partner was small among girls in the comparison area, and therefore, comparisons are difficult to draw. Findings are presented in Table 9.3.

The average age of first sex with a romantic partner was 16 years among boys and girls irrespective of their marital status.

Contraceptive use within romantic relationships was reported by very few adolescents who had engaged in premarital sex with a romantic partner. Just 16 percent of boys and 13-16 percent of girls had used a contraceptive method at first sex. Moreover, consistent contraceptive use was rare, with just 8-9 percent of boys and girls reporting that they had practised some form of contraception in all their sexual encounters with their first (and last if more than one was reported) romantic sexual partner (note that adolescents who reported a single sexual encounter and had used a contraceptive method were considered to have used that method consistently). Notably, gender differences, and among girls, differences by marital status, were narrow.

Methods most likely to have been used by adolescents in their sexual encounters with a romantic partner were overwhelmingly the condom, and to a lesser extent, traditional methods. Condom use at the time of first sex with a romantic partner was however reported by just 13 percent of boys and 8-9 percent of girls. Consistent condom use in all sexual encounters with the first (and last if more than one was reported) romantic sexual partner was very limited –reported by just six percent of boys, and 4-6 percent of girls. Traditional methods were reported by far fewer. Two percent of boys, and 4-6 percent of girls reported having used withdrawal or the rhythm method at the time of their first romantic sexual encounter, and slightly fewer reported that they had used these methods in all of their sexual encounters.

In order to ascertain non-consensual sexual experiences within a romantic relationship, we asked girls whether they had been pressured in any way - using physical force, threats of abandonment, blackmail or any other form of pressure - to engage in sex the first time, and at any other time during their romantic relationship. Correspondingly, we asked boys whether they had pressured their girlfriend in any way to engage in pre-marital sex on the first and subsequent occasions when they had engaged in sexual relations.

Findings show that 13 percent of boys reported that they had pressured their girlfriend to engage in sex the very first time they had sexual relations, and 18 percent reported that they had done so at least once over the course of their relationship. In contrast, far more girls reported being forced or coerced to engage in premarital sex with their boyfriend – 56 percent of unmarried girls and 50 percent of married girls reported that they had been pressured the first time, and 59 percent and 52 percent, respectively, reported that they had been pressured into engaging in sexual relations at any time during their relationship with their first (or last boyfriend if more than one was reported).

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed among boys, and were observed in some instances among girls. For one, married girls in intervention areas were less likely than those in comparison areas to have practised contraception at first sex or during any sexual encounter with their first, and/or, if applicable, last boyfriend (18% versus 8%, 9% versus 4%, respectively), as well as less likely to have used a condom at first or any sexual encounter (9% versus 4%, 9% versus 1%, respectively). Second, unmarried girls in comparison areas were also less likely to have used a condom at first sex (9% versus 4%). Finally, differences with regard to the experience of non-consensual sex with a romantic partner were only observed among unmarried girls, among whom 62 percent of those in intervention areas compared to 55 percent of those in comparison areas reported such an experience.

Table 9.3 Nature of sexual experiences of adolescents within premarital romantic relationships
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 who had engaged in premarital sexual relations with a romantic partner reporting age at entry into premarital sexual life, contraceptive use, an non-consensual sexual relations with an opposite-sex romantic partner, Jharkhand, 2018

Characteristics	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Entry into pre-marital sexual relations			
Age at first sex (Mean)	16.2	16.2	15.6
Contraception			
Use of any contraceptive method			
Contraception at first sex	15.6	12.9	16.1
Consistent contraceptive use: in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner ¹	8.0	9.4	8.5
Condom use			
Used a condom at first sex	13.2	8.2	8.5
Consistent condom use: in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner ¹ to change	6.3	6.0	4.1
Traditional method use			
Used withdrawal or rhythm at first sex	2.4	4.4	5.9
Used withdrawal or rhythm in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner	1.5	3.2	5.7
Non-Consensual sex			
Boy pressured/threatened/forced girl/ girl was pressured/threatened/forced by boy at first sex	12.9	56.3	49.9
Boy pressured/threatened/forced girl/ girl was pressured/threatened/forced by boy in any sexual encounter	17.5	58.8	51.9
Number reporting premarital sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner	510	185	224

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

9.3 NON-CONSENSUAL SEXUAL EXPERIENCES

The survey also probed the extent to which adolescents had ever experienced non-contact verbal or other forms of harassment of a sexual nature, such as teasing, whistling, staring, stalking, passing comments, making lewd and threatening gestures and so on, non-consensual sexual touch including attempted sex, or forced sex (before marriage in the case of married girls). Questions posed were age and sex-appropriate. In addition, those who had reported any non-consensual sexual experience were asked whether they had sought help or confided about the incident to anyone.

We asked younger girls whether they had ever experienced non-contact verbal or other forms of harassment of a sexual nature, for example, dirty comments or gestures made by a boy/man, threatening stares and so on. Younger girls and boys were asked, in addition, about non-consensual sexual touch, that is, we asked whether they had been touched in a “bad” way or had been touched on their private parts when they did not want to be.

Older adolescents were asked about non-consensual sexual touch, as well as attempted and forced sexual relations. The wording of the question on non-consensual sexual touch was more explicit among older than younger adolescents. We asked older adolescents whether any boy/man had ever forcibly hugged or kissed them, or had touched them on their private parts, including brushing past them, pinching their private parts, or had forced them to touch his private parts; and whether any boy/man (other than a romantic partner) had ever attempted to force sex on them. We also asked older adolescents whether they had ever been forced to have sexual relations against their will, through physical force as well as threats, blackmail or false promises.

Questions on perpetration of any form of non-consensual sex were posed to both younger and older boys. We asked both younger and older boys whether they had ever perpetrated non-contact sexual harassment on a girl, (that is, made comments or threatening gestures at girls, or teased them when they were walking to school or to a shop). We also asked them whether they had ever perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl/woman; unlike in the question for younger boys, we asked specifically whether they had ever forcibly hugged or kissed a girl/woman or touched her private parts, whether they had deliberately brushed past her, pinched her private parts, or forced her to touch his private parts. Older boys were also asked about the perpetration of forced sex; as mentioned earlier, we asked those who had sex with a girlfriend whether they had forced her, through physical force or threats, blackmail and false promises, to engage in sex the first time and in subsequent sexual encounters, and asked all boys whether they had ever attempted to force a girl to engage in sexual relations, or had actually had sex with a girl/woman other than their romantic partner/s through physical force, threats, blackmail or false promises.

Non-consensual experiences reported by adolescents 10-14

Findings, presented in Table 9.4, show that non-contact forms of harassment of a sexual nature (described above), was experienced by 13 percent of younger girls, while the experience of non-consensual sexual touch was reported by 2-3 percent of boys and girls. There was little variation in these indicators between those in intervention and comparison areas. In addition, two percent of boys aged 10-14 reported that they had perpetrated non-contact forms of sexual harassment, and one percent had ever touched a girl inappropriately. Differences between boys in intervention and comparison areas were negligible on these indicators.

Among girls who had experienced non-contact sexual harassment, just three in five (62%) had sought help or shared the incident with anyone, with more of those from comparison than intervention areas seeking help (63% versus 58%). Of those who had experienced non-consensual sexual touch, just 18 percent of boys and 54 percent of girls had sought help. Findings suggest that girls were more able to seek help when they experienced non-contact forms of sexual harassment than when they had experienced unwanted touch, and, among those who had experienced unwanted touch, far more girls than boys sought help.

Table 9.4 Non-contact sexual harassment and non-consensual sexual touch among younger adolescents
Percentage of adolescents aged 10–14 reporting experience (girls) and perpetration (boys) of non-contact sexual harassment*, percentage of boys and girls aged 10-14 experiencing non-consensual sexual touch, and percentage of boys aged 10-14 perpetrating non-consensual sexual touch, Jharkhand, 2018

Non-consensual sexual experiences	Boys (10–14)	Girls (10–14)
Ever experienced non-contact sexual harassment	NA	12.7
Non-consensual sexual touch		
Ever experienced non-consensual sexual touch	2.9	1.8
Perpetration of non-consensual sexual acts		
Ever verbally harassed a girl in a sexual way	2.3	NA
Ever perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl	0.8	NA
Number of respondents	3,473	4,104
Help seeking		
Sought help when experienced non-contact sexual harassment	NA	62.2
Number who had experienced non-contact sexual harassment	NA	571
Sought help when experienced non-consensual sexual touch	17.7	54.3
Number who had experienced non-consensual sexual touch	85	74

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. *Includes teasing, whistling, staring, stalking, passing comments, making lewd and threatening gestures.

Table 9.5 presents the reports of older adolescents. Panel A presents the experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch or attempted forced sex. It shows that five percent of older boys had experienced non-consensual sexual touch, including attempted forced sex perpetrated by anyone other than a romantic partner, compared to 14 percent of unmarried and married girls alike. Two percent of boys and married girls, and eight percent of unmarried girls had experienced non-consensual sexual touch in the 12 months preceding the interview.

Panel A also present reports, provided in face-to-face interviews of perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch, including attempted forced sex, on a girl by boys aged 15-21. In contrast to the reports of experience by girls, cited above, just three percent of boys acknowledged that they had ever done so, and one percent report doing so in the 12 months preceding the interview.

Panel B presents the experience and perpetration of non-consensual sex relations, that is, through physical force, or through threats, blackmail and false promises. It encompasses non-consensual sex perpetrated by a romantic partner (applicable for girls) and anyone else. Findings show that overall, hardly any boys and 3-5 percent of girls had ever experienced forced sex (3-5 percent of all girls had been forced into sex by a romantic partner, and 0.4-0.7 percent by anyone else; in contrast, hardly any boys reported any such experience).

The perpetration of non-consensual sexual relations by boys aged 15-21 is also reported in Panel B. As above, our definition includes sexual relations through physical force, threats, blackmail or false promises and perpetrated on either a girlfriend or any other girl. Overall, two percent of all older boys reported perpetrating forced sex, almost entirely on a girlfriend, with fewer than 0.1 percent acknowledging forcing sex on any other girl.

Table 9.5 Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex among older adolescents
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 reporting non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex, and percentage of boys aged 15-21 reporting perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex, Jharkhand, 2018

Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
A. Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch including attempted forced sex			
• Experience			
Ever experienced non-consensual sexual touch, including attempted forced sex	5.4	14.3	13.8
Experienced non-consensual sexual touch in the 12 months preceding the interview	2.1	7.7	2.1
• Perpetration			
Ever perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl	2.9	NA	NA
Perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl in the 12 months prior to the interview	1.0	NA	NA
B. Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sex			
• Experience			
Pressured or forced by romantic partner	NA	2.6	5.2
Pressured or forced by anyone else	0.0	0.4	0.7
Pressured or forced by romantic partner or anyone else	0.0	2.7	5.2
• Perpetration: ever forced or pressured a girl to have sex			
A girlfriend	1.6	NA	NA
Anyone else	<0.1	NA	NA
A girlfriend or anyone else	1.7	NA	NA
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

We asked all older adolescents who had experienced non-consensual sex touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex (before marriage for married girls) whether they had sought help or confided the incident in anyone. Findings suggest that girls who had experienced these non-consensual incidents were far more likely than boys to seek help (50-54% versus 23%), with little difference between unmarried and married girls. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed among girls; however more boys in intervention than comparison areas (31% versus 22%) had sought help or confided about the incident to anyone.

Table 9.6 Help seeking for non-consensual sexual experience
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 reporting non-consensual sexual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex¹ who sought help, Jharkhand, 2018

Sought help for non-consensual sexual experience	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Sought help when experienced non-consensual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex	22.8	53.6	49.7
Number of respondents who had experienced non-consensual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex	157	475	265

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹2 boys and, 20 unmarried girls and 17 married girls reported experiencing forced sex.

9.4 SEXUAL EXPERIENCES WITHIN ROMANTIC AND OTHER RELATIONSHIPS AMONG OLDER ADOLESCENTS

Aside from the romantic and forced sexual relationships among older adolescents discussed in the previous sections, the survey also probed their experiences of pre-marital sex with other partners, including casual partners, and in situations characterised by force and exchange of gifts or favours. In addition, boys were asked about their sexual relations with sex workers and married girls/women, and married girls were asked about sexual relations with their husband before marriage. Table 9.7 first reports findings on the prevalence of pre-marital sexual experiences in each of these situations, among the total population aged 15-21 (earlier tables were restricted to those with a romantic partner). The table then shows the percentages reporting the experience of pre-marital sex in the face-to-face interview as well as a result of the opportunity to report experiences anonymously.

Most adolescents who had engaged in pre-marital sexual relations had done so with a romantic partner. Face-to-face interviews with all respondents, irrespective of whether they had a romantic partner, show that 12 percent of boys, five percent of unmarried girls and ten percent of married girls had pre-marital sexual experience with a romantic partner. Seven percent of married girls reported engaging in sex with their husband prior to marriage.

Forced sex (with a romantic partner or anyone else) was the second most likely relationship described among the unmarried, and the third most likely among married girls. As shown in Table 9.7, 3-5 percent of girls reported that they had been forced to engage in pre-marital sexual relations, either by their boyfriend or anyone else. Two percent of boys admitted that they had forced a girl, including their girlfriend, to engage in sexual relations, and just two boys (0%) reported that they had ever been forced to engage in sexual relations.

Other types of sex encounters about which we probed were reported by very few adolescents. For example, just between 0-1 percent of boys reported that they had ever engaged in either casual sex, exchange sex, sex worker relations or relations with a married woman. Fewer than one percent of girls had experienced casual or exchange sex.

Overall, in the face to face format, a total of 13 percent of boys, five percent of unmarried girls and 11 percent of married girls reported a pre-marital sexual experience. The opportunity to report pre-marital sexual relations anonymously did indeed enable several who hesitated to do so face-to-face to report an experience. Thus, 16 percent of boys, eight percent of unmarried girls and 13 percent of married girls acknowledged that they had engaged in premarital sex in the anonymous format. Overall, percentages reporting premarital sexual experiences in either the face-to-face or anonymous formats were 18 percent among boys, nine percent among unmarried girls, and 16 percent among married girls.

Differences by residence in comparison or intervention areas were evident, particularly among boys, with those in intervention areas systematically more likely (sometimes marginally so) than their counterparts in comparison areas to report any type of sexual encounter. For example, more boys in intervention than comparison areas reported sex with a romantic partner (19% versus 11%), reported sex with any partner in the face to face interview (20% versus 12%), in the anonymous format (21% versus 15%) and in either the face to face interview or the anonymous format (24% versus 17%). While the same pattern prevailed among girls, differences were unremarkable.

Table 9.7 Overall premarital sexual experiences adolescents aged 15-21
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 reporting premarital sexual experiences with opposite-sex partners and via different reporting methods, Jharkhand, 2018

Premarital sexual experiences and reporting methods	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Reported premarital sex partners			
Engaged in sex with a romantic partner	11.7	4.5	9.9
Ever forced a girl (including girlfriend) to have sex	2.0	NA	NA
Ever been forced (for girls, includes by boyfriend) to have sex	0.0	2.7	5.2
Engaged in sexual relations for marks, gifts, promotion	0.3	0.1	0.0
Engaged in casual sex	1.3	0.2	0.3
Experienced sex with husband before marriage	NA	NA	7.1
Engaged in relations with a sex worker	0.2	NA	NA
Engaged in relations with a married woman	1.0	NA	NA
Any premarital sex (face to face)	12.9	4.6	11.3
Any premarital sex (sealed envelope)	15.6	7.7	12.5
Any premarital sex	17.6	8.5	15.5
Number of respondents	3,150	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

9.5 PREMARITAL PREGNANCY

In order to assess the extent of unintended pregnancy, we asked boys who reported in the face-to-face interview that they had experienced sexual relations with one or more girlfriends about whether their girlfriend (or any of their girlfriends) had ever become pregnant. Similarly, we asked girls who reported in the face-to-face interview that they had experienced sexual relations with a boyfriend about whether pregnancy had ever ensued. Disturbing minorities of adolescents who had premarital sex with a romantic partner reported an unintended pregnancy (Table 9.8).

Table 9.8 Premarital pregnancy
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 who had premarital sexual experience reporting a premarital pregnancy, Jharkhand, 2018

Premarital pregnancy	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Had a premarital pregnancy (girl)/girlfriend or other sexual partner had become pregnant (boy)	1.9	2.6	6.9
Number reporting a premarital sexual relationship in face-to-face interview	553	195	276

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Two percent of boys, three percent of unmarried girls and seven percent of married girls reported so. Differences between boys in intervention and comparison areas were not observed. However, among girls, differences were mild among the unmarried (2-5%), but among the married, considerably larger proportions of those in the intervention areas (15%) than the comparison areas (6%) reported a pre-marital pregnancy resulting from a romantic relationship.





CHAPTER 10

MARRIAGE AND MARRIED LIFE

India has articulated its commitment to eliminate child marriage through numerous policies, laws and programmes; yet, more than one in four young women aged 20-24 in India and more than two in five in Jharkhand (44%) were married in childhood (below age 18) (IIPS and ICF, 2017; IIPS, 2017), and for many girls, marriage takes place without meaningful consent (IIPS and Population Council, 2009). Persisting child marriage and lack of voice are potential deterrents to India's likelihood of achieving the Sustainable Development (SDG) Goals and, in particular, SDG 5, by 2030.

This chapter describes marriage-related preferences among unmarried adolescents and their parents, the pervasiveness of child marriage and thereafter, among married girls, their marriage-related decision making, and the nature of married life, notably, experience of marital violence, spousal communication, as well as contraception and child bearing.

In this chapter, we present adolescents' romantic and sexual relationships for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

10.1 PREFERENCES ABOUT MARRIAGE AGE

We asked unmarried adolescents about the age at which they wished to marry, and the age at which they believed that their parents wished to conduct their marriage (Table 10.1). Findings show that almost two-thirds of younger (ages 10-14) boys and girls (63-65%) had not thought about when they would like to marry and a few adolescents (1%) did not wish to marry at all, compared to two-fifths of older (ages 15-21) boys (42%) and one-third of older girls (32%). Nevertheless, what is notable is that hardly any – less than one percent, irrespective of age and sex - reported a desire to marry in childhood (below age 18). However, gender differences were apparent in adolescents' desire to marry during their adolescence. While just 1-3 percent of boys wished to marry in adolescence (below age 20), 15 percent of younger girls and 13 percent of older girls expressed this wish; clearly, many more girls than boys at each age wished to marry in adolescence (15% versus 3% of younger adolescents; 13% versus 1% of older adolescents), perhaps reflecting community norms that stress child or adolescent marriage for girls but not boys. Notably, the majority wished to marry after they were aged 20.

Few adolescents knew the age at which their parents wished for them to marry, perhaps because given the overall increases in marriage age, this topic had not arisen or because parents do not discuss these matters with their children. Indeed, 90-95 percent of younger adolescents did not know their parents' preferences and hence we do not show findings on parental preferences for this age-group. Even among older adolescents, 82 percent of older boys and 54 percent of older girls did not know their parents' preferences, and findings are therefore illustrative and should be interpreted cautiously. More than one in five older girls (22%) compared to just two percent of older boys reported that their parents wished that their son married in adolescence (below age 20), and as many as six percent of older girls reported that their parents wished to marry them before they were aged 18.

Among older adolescents who were able to articulate their parents' preferences, findings suggest that parents were considerably more likely than adolescents to wish to marry their children at a younger age than the adolescent himself or herself wished to marry. As many as 47 percent of boys and 55 percent of girls aged 15-21 reported that they wished to marry when they were at least one year older than when their parents wished to arrange their marriage, and 8-9 percent reported that the difference between their parents' preference and their own was as much as five years (not shown in table).

Comparisons between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were generally narrow, with some exceptions. More younger adolescents in intervention than comparison areas had not thought about when to marry (68-74% versus 62-64%), and fewer younger adolescents and older girls in intervention than comparison areas wished to marry at ages 20 or older (17-23% versus 22-32% among younger adolescents, 48% versus 55% among older girls). More older girls in intervention areas than comparison areas could not articulate their parents' preference (59% versus 53%), and fewer reported that their parents wished for them to marry at age 20 or older (20% versus 25%). Finally, fewer boys aged 15-21 in intervention areas reported that they wished to marry at least one year later than their parents wished for them to marry.

Table 10.1 Preferred ages at marriage reported by unmarried adolescents, and perceptions regarding preferences of their parents

Percentage of unmarried adolescents reporting the age at which they would like to marry and the age at which they believe that their parents would like them to marry, Jharkhand, 2018

Preferred age at marriage and perceptions regarding preferences of their parents	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)
Adolescents' preferences about age at which to marry*				
Wish to marry in childhood (below age 18)	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.3
Wish to marry any time during adolescence (below age 20, includes those who wish to marry in childhood)	3.3	1.2	14.9	12.5
Wish to marry at age 20 or older	30.7	55.8	21.1	54.4
Have not thought about it	65.2	42.3	63.1	32.1
Never want to marry	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.0
Parental preferences for adolescents' age at marriage				
Wish to marry their child in childhood (below age 18)	a	0.1	a	5.5
Wish to marry their child any time during adolescence (below age 20, includes those whose parents wished for them to marry in childhood)	a	1.6	a	22.1
Wish to marry their child at age 20 or older	a	16.3	a	24.3
Adolescent does not know parents' preference	95.1	82.1	90.1	53.5
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237
Adolescents' versus parental preferences				
Adolescent preferred to marry one or more years later than their parents wished to marry them	a	46.6	a	54.9
Number of respondents who knew parental preferences	a	569	a	1,163

Notes: Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. *Because so few younger adolescents were aware of parental preferences, percentages would be misleading and are not shown.

10.2 ENTRY INTO MARRIED LIFE

Child marriage persists in Jharkhand. The National Family Health Survey (NFHS) has shown a huge decline in percentages of girls aged 20-24 who married below age 18, from 63 percent in 2005-06 to 37.9 in 2015-16 (IIPS, 2017); further analysis of NFHS4 data show that of those aged 15-21, 4.2 percent had married by age 15, and of those aged 18-21, 32.4 percent had done so. Our findings highlight similar levels of child marriage: 33 percent of 18-21-year-old girls were married before age 18, and four percent of girls aged 15-21 were married before age 15. Among girls aged 15-21 who were already married, the median age at marriage was 16, and among those whose **gauna** had been performed and were cohabiting with their husband, the median age at cohabitation was 17.

Differences between those in intervention and comparison areas in percentages married at various ages were narrow, except that the median age at cohabitation was one year younger among those in intervention areas than those in comparison areas. These findings suggest that the **gauna** was less to have been practised or practised for shorter periods of time in intervention areas than in comparison areas.

Table 10.2 Age at marriage and cohabitation
Percentage of adolescent girls aged 15-21 who were married before selected ages, percentage, and median age at marriage and cohabitation among those married, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of age at marriage	Girls (15-21)
Married by age 15	4.3
Number of married and unmarried girls aged 15-21	5,236
Married by age 18	33.4
Number of married and unmarried girls aged 18-21	2,804
Median age at marriage	16
Number of married girls aged 15-21	1,999
Median age at cohabitation	17
Number of married girls aged 15-21 who had started cohabiting with husband	1,991

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 10.3 presents the percentage of girls aged 18-21 who were married before age 18 by selected background characteristics. Age differences were mild, with those aged 18-19 just slightly less likely than those aged 20-21 to have married in childhood (35% versus 32%). Religion-wise differences show that similar proportions of Hindu, Muslim and Sarna girls had married in childhood (31-34%), compared to far fewer Christian girls (19%). Caste-wise, while 35-36 percent of those belonging to scheduled tribes and other backward castes had married in childhood, 30 percent of those belonging to scheduled castes had done so, and girls belonging to general castes were least likely to have done so (20%).

Educational attainment levels of the girl, as well as her mother and father, were consistently associated with marriage in childhood. The percentage of girls marrying before age 18 fell systematically with years of schooling, from 66 percent among those with no formal education to 28 percent and 16 percent among those who had completed 10 and 12 or more years of schooling, respectively. Moreover, while 44 percent of girls who were not enrolled in school/college at the time of the interview had married below age 18, just five percent of those pursuing their education had done so. Likewise, marriages before age 18 fell from 38 percent among girls whose mother had no formal education to 15 percent among girls whose mothers had completed 10 or more years of schooling, and from 40 percent among girls whose father had no education to 22 percent among those whose father had completed Class 10.

Household wealth status had a similar but not quite as consistent an association with proportions of girls' marrying below age 18. While 47 percent of girls in the poorest (first) quintile had married below age 18, percentages fell to 26-27 percent among those in the richer (fourth) and wealthiest (fifth) quintiles.

A larger proportion of girls who married before age 18 were not engaged in paid work in the year preceding the interview compared with those who were working (37% versus 26%).

Finally, rural-urban differences were wide, with rural girls far more likely to have married in childhood than their urban counterparts (39% versus 19%).

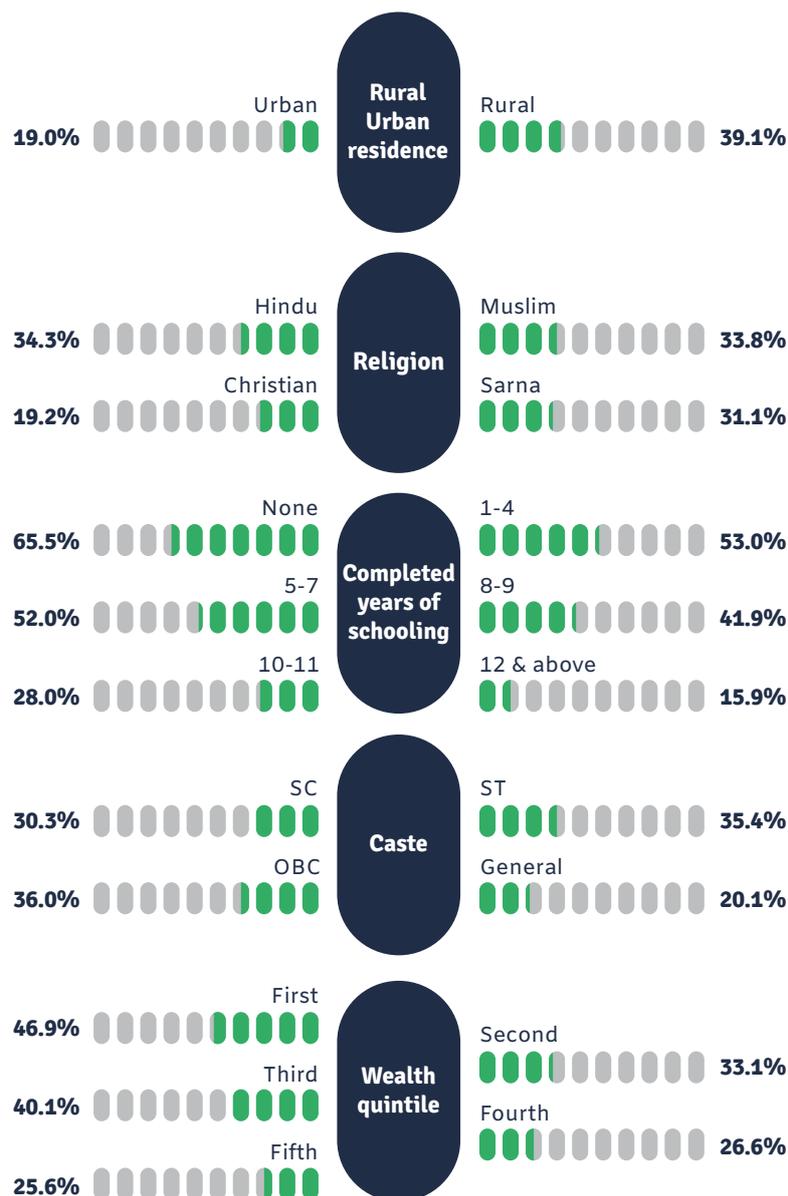
Table 10.3 Child marriage by selected background characteristics
Percentage of adolescent girls aged 18-21 who were married by age 18 by selected background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of age at marriage	Married Girls (18-21)
Age	
18-19	32.2
20-21	35.2
Religion¹	
Hindu	34.3
Muslim	33.8
Christian	19.2
Sarna	31.1
Caste²	
SC	30.3
ST	35.4
OBC	36.0
General	20.1
Current schooling status³	
No	43.7
Yes	5.3
Completed years of schooling	
None ⁴	65.5
1-4	53.0
5-7	52.0
8-9	41.9
10-11	28.0
12 and above	15.9
Paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview	
Yes	25.8
No	37.0
Wealth quintile	
First	46.9
Second	33.1
Third	40.1
Fourth	26.6
Fifth	25.6
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)	
None ⁴	38.2
1-7	24.0
8-9	29.8
10 and above	14.5
Don't know	35.3

Indicators of age at marriage	Married Girls (18–21)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)	
None ⁴	40.3
1–7	36.9
8–9	26.0
10 and above	21.9
Don't know	35.4
Rural-urban residence	
Urban	19.0
Rural	39.1

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: Includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ³Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school. ⁴Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

Figure 10.1 Child marriage by selected background characteristics



10.3 INVOLVEMENT IN MARRIAGE PROCESSES AND PRE-MARITAL ACQUAINTANCE WITH HUSBAND

We also probed married girls about their involvement in marriage related decisions, that is, whether they had selected their own husband, or whether their husband had been selected by their parents or family. Those reporting a parent- or family-arranged marriage were further probed about whether their approval had been sought. All married girls were asked, moreover, about their acquaintance with their husband prior to marriage.

Parent- or family-arranged marriages were the norm, with large proportions of girls continuing to marry a man selected by their parents. Overall, 18 percent of girls reported that they had selected their own husband (love marriage), an increase from eight percent reported by 15-24 year-old married girls in 2006 (IIPS and Population Council, 2009). At the other extreme, 27 percent reported that their parents had decided on the match without seeking their consent, and another 56 percent reported that their parents had decided on the match but had asked for their consent.

The extent to which consent was informed is however questionable. Few married girls who had an arranged marriage reported pre-marital acquaintance with their husband. Among those reporting a parent- or family-arranged marriage, many were not acquainted with or marginally acquainted with their husband before marriage. For example, just 37 percent of those reporting a parent-arranged marriage had a chance to meet or talk to their husband privately even once before the wedding or speak with him privately over the telephone, with percentages varying from 30 among those in intervention areas to 38 among those in comparison areas. Among these girls, moreover, almost three in five (58%) reported that they had met their husband for the first time on the wedding day, and 36 percent reported that they were somewhat acquainted with him before marriage. Just six percent were well-acquainted with their husband prior to marriage. More girls from intervention than comparison areas reported that they had met their husband for the first time at their wedding (64% versus 57%).

In order to understand whether girls entered marriage informed about contraception and pregnancy, we asked married girls whether, around the time of their marriage, someone had talked to them about the importance of delaying the first pregnancy. Findings show that just 12 percent of girls had received such information or advice, with little variation between those in intervention and comparison areas.

Table 10.4 Involvement in marriage processes, pre-marital acquaintance with husband and pre-marital counselling about pregnancy delay
Percent distribution of married girls aged 15-21 by type of marriage and extent of acquaintance with husband before marriage, and percentage reporting that they had been counselled about the importance of birth spacing prior to marriage, Jharkhand, 2018

Marriage indicators	Married Girls (15-21)
Engagement in marriage related decisions	
Girl selected husband herself (love marriage)	17.9
Husband was selected by parents, girl asked to consent	55.6
Husband was selected by parents, girl not consulted	26.5
Number of respondents	1,999
Acquaintance with husband before marriage	
Met on wedding day	57.8
Knew somewhat	36.1
Knew very well	6.1
Girl ever had a chance to meet or talk on the phone to her husband alone before marriage*	36.9
Number of respondents	1,593

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. *51 girls had only spoken to husband but met him for the first time on the wedding day; 154 knew their husband but had never had a chance to meet or speak to him privately before marriage.

Figure 10.2a Engagement in marriage related decisions

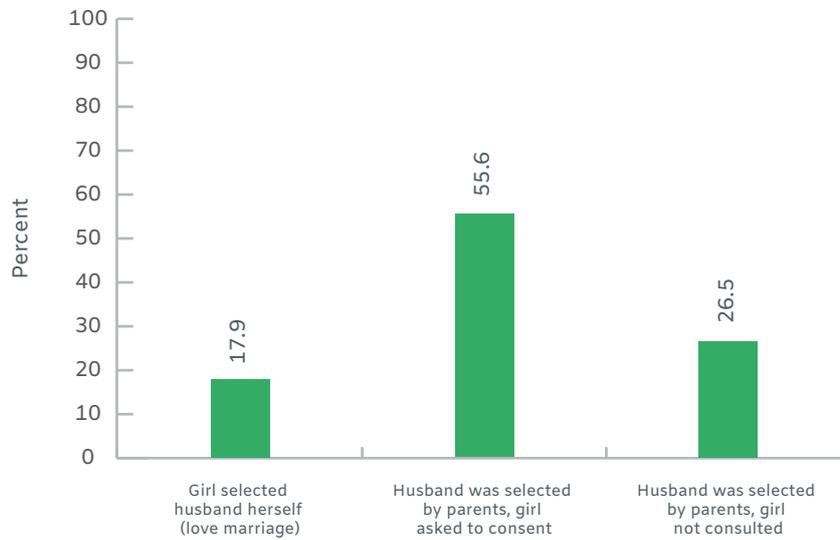
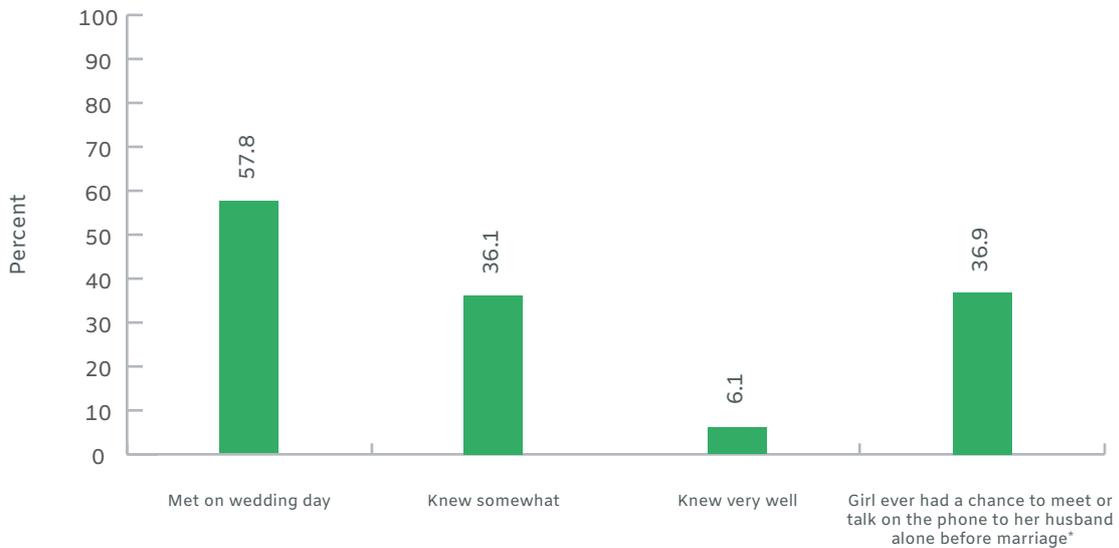


Figure 10.2b Acquaintance with husband before marriage



Note: *51 girls had only spoken to husband but met him for the first time on the wedding day; 154 knew their husband but had never had a chance to meet or speak to him privately before marriage.

In Chapter 9, we reported that overall, seven percent of married girls had engaged in pre-marital sexual relations with their husband. Table 10.5 describes the extent to which girls reporting various forms of involvement in marriage processes had engaged in pre-marital sexual relations. Findings show that one-third (35%) of those reporting that they had selected their husband themselves had engaged in sexual relations with him before marriage, compared to negligible proportions of those who reported an arranged marriage, irrespective of whether they had been consulted (2%) in the decision about the choice of husband or not (0.2%).

Differences between married girls in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Table 10.5 Pre-marital sex with husband
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 by pre-marital sex with husband by marriage type, Jharkhand, 2018

Marriage indicators	Married girls (15-21)
Had selected husband themselves (love marriage)	34.7
Number who had selected husband themselves	406
Husband was selected by parents, girl consulted	1.6
Number who were consulted about choice of husband	1,062
Husband was selected by parents, girl not consulted	0.2
Number who were not consulted in choice of husband	531

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

10.4 DOWRY AND BRIDE-PRICE

Findings, presented in Table 10.6, confirm that notwithstanding the Dowry Prohibition Act (Government of India, 1961), the practice of dowry remains widespread in the state. Provision of bride-price is also practised in Jharkhand. Almost three in four married girls (74%) reported that their family had paid a dowry, and nine percent reported that their family had received a bride-price. Differences between girls in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

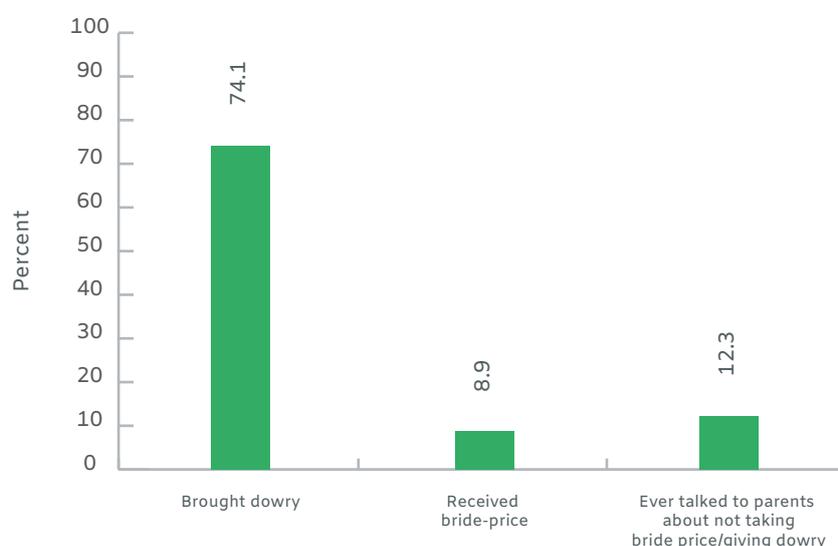
We also asked girls whether they had ever talked to their parents to dissuade them from making financial transactions in relation to their marriage. Just one in eight (12%) had communicated with their parents to dissuade them from paying a dowry or accepting a bride-price. Again, differences between girls in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Table 10.6 Dowry and bride-price
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 reporting payment of dowry or bride-price, and percentage who reported efforts to dissuade parents from marriage-related financial transactions, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of dowry practices	Married girls (15-21)
Brought dowry	74.1
Received bride-price	8.9
Ever talked to parents about not taking bride price/giving dowry	12.3
Number of respondents	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 10.3 Dowry and bride-price



10.5 INTRA-FAMILY COMMUNICATION ON SENSITIVE AND NON-SENSITIVE MATTERS

In order to assess intra-family communication, we probed girls whose **gauna** had been performed (i.e. are cohabiting with their husband) about whether they had discussed with their husband both less sensitive matters such as spending money, and more sensitive matters such as the number of children to have and using a contraceptive to delay the first birth. In addition, we asked girls whether they faced pressure from in-laws and other family members to have a child immediately after marriage. Findings, presented in Table 10.7, show that three-quarters of girls had discussed matters such as money and spending with their husband, but fewer had discussed the number of children they wanted (54%) and contraceptive use to delay the first pregnancy (23%). Differences in reports of married girls from intervention and comparison areas were negligible.

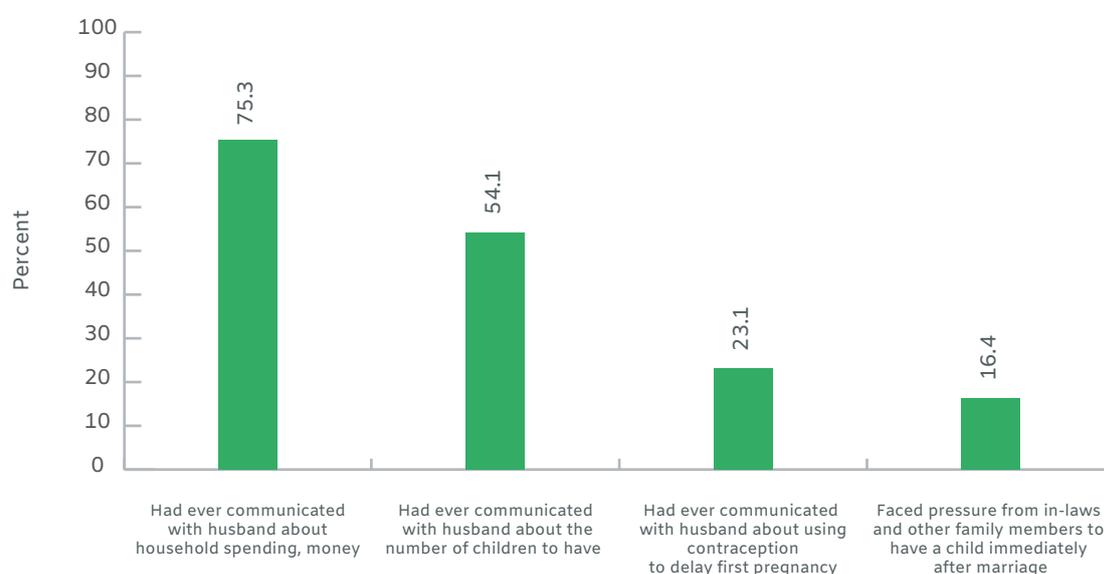
Almost one in six girls (16%) reported that they had faced pressure from their in-laws and other family members to have a child immediately after marriage, and again, differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Table 10.7 Intra-family communication on sensitive and non-sensitive matters
Percentage of married (and cohabiting) girls aged 15-21 reporting that they had discussed sensitive and non-sensitive matters with their husband and who faced family pressure to become pregnant, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of communication	Married girls (15-21)
Communicated with husband	
Had ever communicated about household spending, money	75.3
Had ever communicated about the number of children to have	54.1
Had ever communicated about using contraception to delay first pregnancy	23.1
Pressure from in-laws	
Faced pressure from in-laws and other family members to have a child immediately after marriage	16.4
Number who had begun cohabiting¹	1,991

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Girls whose **gauna** had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Figure 10.4 Intra-family communication on sensitive and non-sensitive matters



10.6 EXPERIENCE OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE WITHIN MARRIAGE

To assess girls' experience of domestic violence, we implemented the modules used in the National Family Health Survey (IIPS and ICF, 2017) and the UDAYA project (Santhya et al., 2016; 2016a). The module encompassed questions on emotional and sexual violence perpetrated by the husband, as well as detailed questions on physical violence perpetrated by the husband (Table 10.8). Overall, 30 percent of married girls reported that their husband had ever perpetrated any form of emotional violence on them, that is, they had verbally abused or humiliated the girl in the presence of others or threatened her with violence. While 31 percent of those in comparison areas so reported, 25 percent of those in intervention areas had done so.

Physical violence perpetrated by the husband was reported by similar proportions. In all, 31 percent of married girls reported that they had experienced at least one form of physical violence at any point in their married life, and differences between those from intervention and comparison areas were muted. Slapping was the most commonly reported form of physical violence experienced by girls, reported by 29 percent. In contrast, 8-13 percent had experienced other forms of violence, such as twisting of the arm or pulling hair (13%), being pushed, shaken or having something thrown at them (10%), being punched (10%), and being beaten, kicked or dragged (8%). Choking or burning on purpose, and threatening or attacking with a knife or gun were reported by three percent and 0.4 percent, respectively. Almost all the girls who had ever experienced physical violence in married life had also experienced it in the year preceding the interview (27%). Differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were muted.

In addition, as many as 41 percent of girls reported the experience of forced sex within marriage. However, in the case of sexual violence, fewer girls – 31 percent - reported having experienced it in the year preceding the interview than at any time during married life, hinting perhaps that sexual violence within marriage was most prominent in the early days of marriage. As in the case of physical violence, difference between those in intervention and comparison areas on both sexual violence indicators were negligible.

Notably, large proportions of girls who had experienced one form of violence – sexual or physical – had not experienced the other (not shown in table). Hence, overall, 53 percent of married girls reported the experience of physical or sexual violence perpetrated by their husband at any time during their married life, and 43 percent reported any such violence in the year preceding the interview.

Table 10.8 Domestic violence within marriage
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 reporting an experience of emotional, physical, and sexual violence perpetrated by their husband, Jharkhand, 2018

Types of violence	Married girls (15-21)
Emotional violence (ever)	
Verbally abused respondent in the presence of others or threatened to hurt or harm someone close to respondent	30.1
Physical violence (ever)	
Slapped	28.8
Twisted arm or pulled hair	12.5
Pushed/shook or threw something at respondent	10.1
Punched with fist or something that could hurt	9.6
Kicked, dragged or beaten	8.0
Choked or burnt on purpose	2.7
Threatened or attacked with knife/gun	0.4
At least one of the above	30.7
Sexual violence (ever)	
Ever forced to engage in sex	40.7
Experience of physical or sexual violence ever in marriage	52.6
Physical violence in the year preceding the interview	
Slapped	23.8
Twisted arm or pulled hair	9.9
Pushed/shook or threw something at respondent	9.0
Punched with fist or something that could hurt	8.0
Kicked, dragged or beaten	6.8
Choked or burnt on purpose	1.6
Threatened or attacked with knife/gun	0.2
At least one of the above	26.6
Sexual violence in the year preceding the interview	
Forced to engage in sex	30.8
Experience of physical or sexual violence in the year preceding the interview	42.7
Number who had begun cohabiting¹	1,991

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

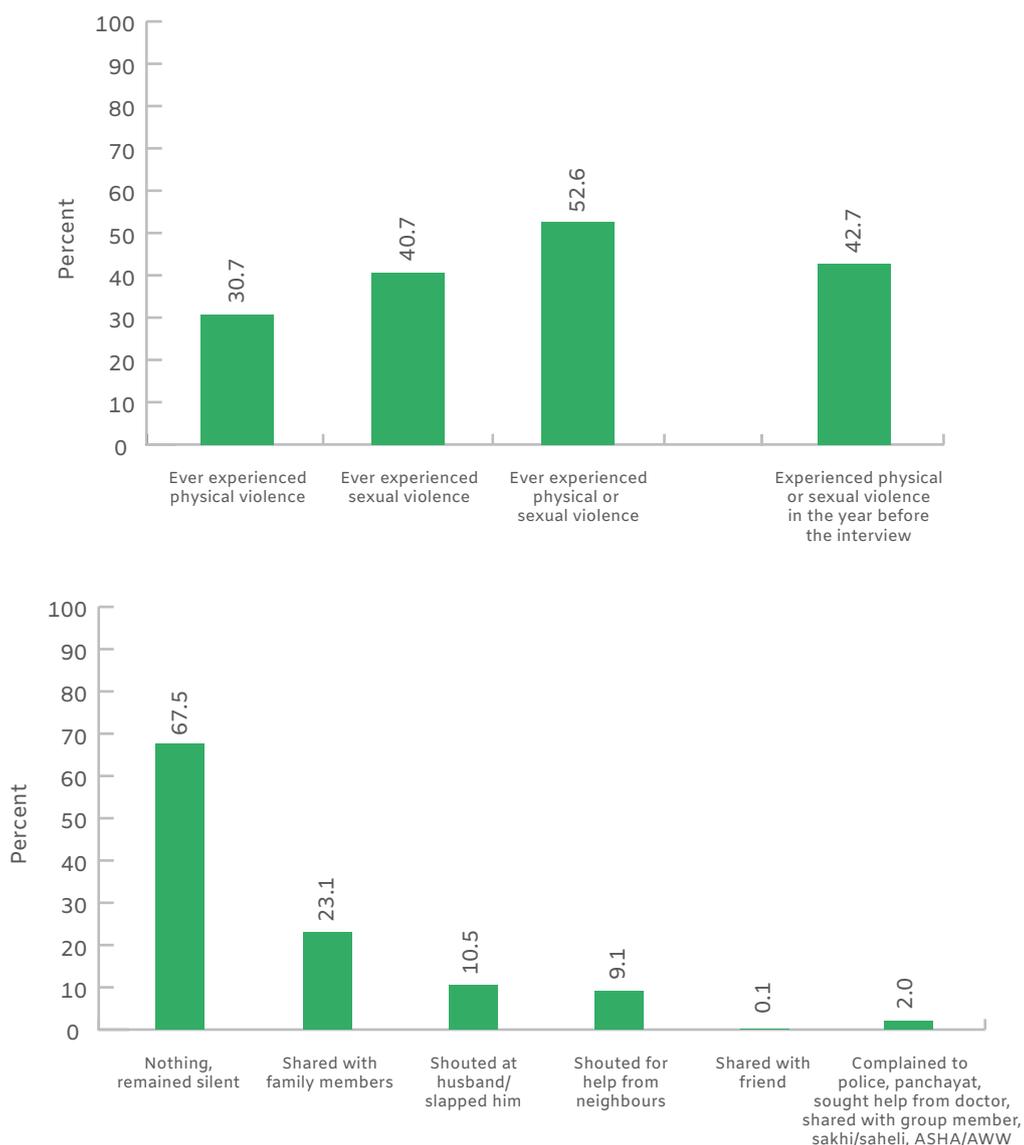
We asked girls who had experienced any form of physical violence about their reaction to the violence experienced. Findings, presented in Table 10.9, clearly suggest the lack of supportive options available to girls. The leading response, reported by two-thirds (68%) of girls who had experienced physical violence was to remain silent. Several reported that they had shared the incident with family members (23%), and a few reported that they had shouted at or slapped the husband (11%) or shouted for help from neighbours (9%). However, hardly any had confided in a friend (0.1%) or had complained to the authorities or shared the incident with frontline workers, health care professions or peer leaders (2%). Reactions were virtually identical among girls in intervention and comparison areas.

Table 10.9 Action taken on facing spousal violence
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who had experienced physical violence perpetrated by their husband by action¹ taken, Jharkhand, 2018

Action taken	Married girls (15-21)
Nothing, remained silent	67.5
Shared with family members	23.1
Shouted at husband/slapped him	10.5
Shouted for help from neighbours	9.1
Shared with friend	0.1
Complained to police, panchayat, sought help from doctor, shared with group member, sakhi/saheli, ASHA/AWW	2.0
Number of cohabiting girls² who had experienced any form of physical violence	563

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Multiple responses permitted; totals may exceed 100. ²Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Figure 10.5 Domestic violence within marriage and action taken facing spousal violence



10.7 PREFERENCES ABOUT POSTPONING THE FIRST BIRTH AND CONTRACEPTIVE PRACTICE TO DELAY FIRST BIRTH

In order to understand the perspectives and experiences in postponing the first birth, we asked those who had started cohabiting about how long they had wanted to delay their first birth, and whether they had used contraception to do so. Table 10.10 shows that 34 percent of girls had wanted to have their first birth immediately after marriage or in the first year of marriage, and 49 percent wished to delay the first birth up to two or more years of marriage. Almost one in six (17%) had not thought about the timing of their first birth. Differences between girls in intervention and comparison areas were muted.

However, just one in eight girls (13%) had practised contraception to postpone the first birth, with similar proportions of those from intervention and comparison areas doing so. Among those who had used a method, the large majority (71%) had used a condom; other methods commonly used were traditional - rhythm (17%) and withdrawal (15%). Just seven percent had used oral pills. While the number of married girls aged 15-21 who had practised contraception to delay the first pregnancy is small, findings suggest that more girls from comparison than intervention areas had used condoms (74% versus 47%), and fewer had used withdrawal (13% versus 33%).

Table 10.10 Preferred interval to first birth, and use of contraception to delay the first birth
Percent distribution of married girls aged 15-21 by preferred interval to first birth, percentage who had practised contraception to postpone the first birth, and method used, Jharkhand, 2018

Preferred interval for first birth and use of contraception	Married girls (15-21)
Preferred interval for first birth	
Within the first year of or a year after marriage	34.2
Two or more years after marriage	48.9
Had not thought about when to have the first birth	17.0
Number who had begun cohabiting	1,991
Contraception to delay the first birth	
Any method	12.7
Number who had begun cohabiting¹	1,991
Method used to delay the first birth	
Any modern method	78.8
Oral pills	7.2
Condom	70.6
Other (IUD, injectable, implant) ²	1.4
Any traditional method	28.3
Rhythm	16.6
Withdrawal	14.9
Number who had begun cohabiting who had practised contraception prior to the first pregnancy¹	146

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family. ²Reported by 4 girls.

We probed girls who had wished to postpone their first birth by two or more years but had not practised contraception to do so, about their reasons for not practising contraception in this interval (Table 10.11). Findings show that leading reasons included objections to family planning (31%), particularly from their husband (18%) and other family members (11%), and overall lack of awareness (22%), particularly about methods (19%) and/or sources of contraceptive supplies and services (4%). Several reported that they were embarrassed about procuring contraceptives (5%), or feared side-effects (6%). Many reported that

they did not use contraception because they were not having regular sexual relations, largely the result of out-migrant husbands (16%). Finally, as many as 23 percent had not practised contraception because they had simply not thought about it. Patterns reported by girls in intervention and comparison areas were largely similar.

Table 10.11 Reasons for not using contraception to delay the first birth
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who wanted to delay the first birth by reasons for not practising contraception to delay the first birth, Jharkhand, 2018

Reasons for not using contraception to delay the first birth	Married girls (15-21)
Objections to family planning	
Respondent's objection to family planning	2.0
Husband's objection to family planning	18.0
Other family members' objection to family planning	11.1
Against religion	2.3
Any of the above	30.7
Lack of awareness	
Lack of awareness about contraceptive methods	18.7
Lack of awareness about sources for contraceptives methods	3.5
Any of the above	22.0
Limited access	
Difficult physical access	0.9
Embarrassed to procure methods	4.5
Any of the above	5.5
Method-related concerns	
Fear of side effects or health concerns	5.8
Fear of procedure	1.3
Perceptions that available methods are not effective	0.0
Available methods are inconvenient to use	1.2
Dislike for available methods	0.0
Any of the above	8.3
Other issues	
Not having sex /infrequent sex /husband away	15.6
Never thought about it	22.5
Number who had wanted to delay the first birth for at least two years after marriage and did not use a method to do so¹	1,450

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. 2.5% gave other responses; not shown in table.¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

10.8 CONTRACEPTIVE PRACTICE: EVER IN MARRIED LIFE AND AT THE TIME OF THE INTERVIEW

In addition to contraception preceding the first birth, we asked married girls to report whether they had practised contraception at any time in their married life as well as at the time of the interview. Those who had ever practised contraception were asked when, following cohabitation, they had initiated contraceptive use. From information provided on contraceptive use and preferences for delaying or limiting pregnancy, we also present girls' unmet need for contraception.

Contraceptive practice ever in married life and at the time of the interview

About one in five girls (22%) of married girls had practised contraception – either a modern or traditional method - at any time during her married life, with identical percentages from intervention and comparison areas (Table 10.12). More girls had used a modern method than a traditional method (16% and 8%, respectively). The method most likely to have been used was the condom (12%); followed by withdrawal (6%) and the rhythm method (4%). Very few married girls reported the use of other modern methods, such as oral pills (2%), the IUD (1%), or other methods (0%). Notably, almost one percent of these young girls had been sterilised. The distribution of methods used was similar in intervention and comparison areas.

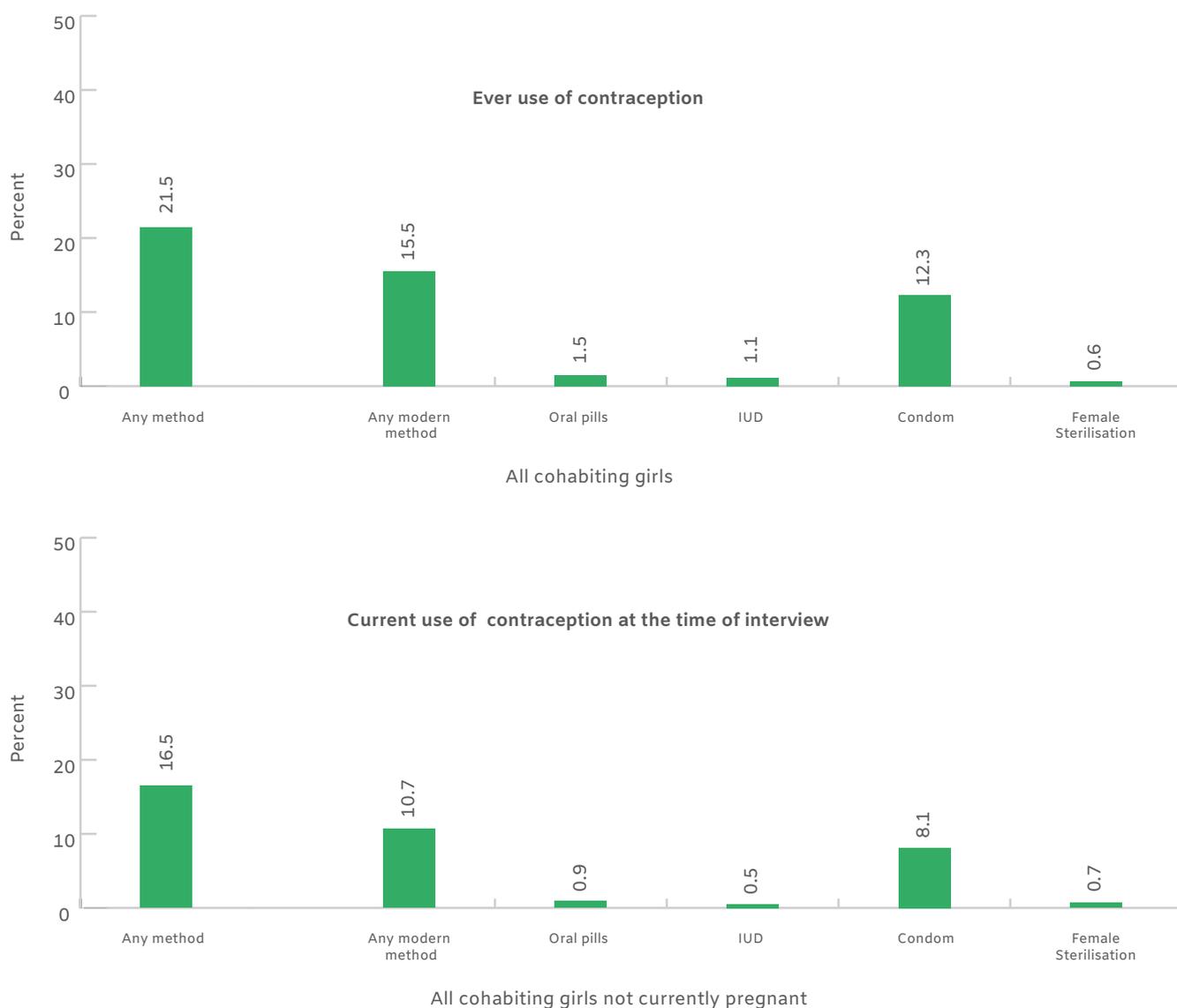
Contraceptive practice at the time of the interview, or current contraceptive practice, among those who were not pregnant at the time of the interview was reported by 17 percent, with little variation between those in intervention and comparison areas (16-19%). This translates into 14 percent of all cohabiting women (14-15% across intervention and comparison areas, not shown in table). Contraceptive use patterns were similar to those described above: while 11 percent reported using a modern method, seven percent reported using a traditional method. Again, the method most likely to have been used was the condom (8%), followed by withdrawal and the rhythm method (3-5%), oral pills (1%) and sterilisation (1%). Differences by residence in intervention and comparison areas were negligible.

Table 10.12 Contraceptive use within marriage
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 by ever and current contraceptive use, Jharkhand, 2018

Contraceptive use	Married girls (15-21)
Ever use of contraception	
Any method	21.5
Any modern method	15.5
Oral pills	1.5
IUD	1.1
Condom	12.3
Female sterilisation	0.6
Other (injectable, LAM)	0.2
Any traditional method	8.2
Rhythm	3.5
Withdrawal	5.5
Number who had begun cohabiting¹	1,991
Current use of contraception	
Any method	16.5
Any modern method	10.7
Oral pills	0.9
IUD	0.5
Condom	8.1
Female sterilisation	0.7
Other (injectable, LAM)	0.5
Any traditional method	7.4
Rhythm	3.1
Withdrawal	4.6
Number of cohabiting married girls¹ aged 15-21, not currently pregnant	1,663

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Figure 10.6 Contraceptive use within marriage



Interval from cohabitation to first contraceptive use

Girls who reported that they had practised contraception at some point in their married life were asked about the duration from cohabitation to their initiation of contraceptive use. Findings, presented in Table 10.13, show that while almost four-fifths had not practised contraception in their married life, some 12 percent had initiated contraceptive use within one year of cohabitation, and another five percent had done so in the second year. The distribution was similar for those in intervention and comparison areas.

Unmet need for contraception

Table 10.14 describes the extent of unmet need for contraception, both for limiting (wanted no more children) and for spacing (wanted to delay the next pregnancy). Unmet need is measured from responses to questions on practice of contraception at the time of the interview, desire for more children and the preferred timing of their next child. We considered a girl to have an unmet need for limiting childbearing, if she reported that she wanted no more children but was not using a method of contraception at the time of the interview. Those who were not using contraception but wished to have children after some time, at least two years or more, were considered to have an unmet need for spacing childbearing. Those who were practising contraception were considered to have a met need for contraception. The sum of unmet and met need is considered the total demand for family planning, from which we are able to assess the extent to which this demand had been satisfied.

Table 10.13 Length of interval between cohabitation and initiation of contraceptive use
Percent distribution of married girls aged 15-21 by timing of initiation of contraceptive use, Jharkhand, 2018

Initiation of contraceptive use after marriage	Married girls (15-21)
Less than 6 months	11.3
6-11 months	1.0
12-23 months	5.1
More than 2 years	2.8
Do not know/ do not remember	1.6
Never used contraception	78.2
Number who had begun cohabiting	1,991

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Findings show that 43 percent of all girls had an unmet need for contraception, with 34 percent reporting an unmet need for spacing and nine percent reporting an unmet need for limiting childbearing. Differences between girls from comparison and those from intervention areas were negligible. In all, just 14 percent of all cohabiting girls were practising contraception at the time of the interview and were considered to have a met demand for contraception (11% for spacing and 3% percent for limiting). Overall, 57 percent of girls had a demand for contraception, and just one quarter (25%) of that demand was satisfied.

Table 10.14 Unmet need for contraception
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 by unmet need, met need, and total demand for contraception, Jharkhand, 2018

Unmet/met need for contraception	Married girls (15-21)
Unmet need for spacing	33.8
Unmet need for limiting	8.9
Total unmet need for family planning¹	42.8
Met demand for spacing	11.4
Met demand for limiting	2.6
Total met demand for family planning²	13.9
Total demand for spacing	45.2
Total demand for limiting	11.5
Total demand for family planning³	56.7
Percent demand satisfied	24.6

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Women having an unmet need for contraception encompass: pregnant women whose pregnancy was mistimed or unwanted, women who were not using family planning and whose last birth was mistimed or whose last birth was unwanted but later wanted more children; non-pregnant women who were not using any method of family planning and wanted to wait two or more years for their next birth; were unsure about whether they wanted another child, or who wanted another child but were unsure about when. Women considered to have an unmet need for limiting include pregnant women whose pregnancy was unwanted; and non-pregnant women who were not using any method of family planning but wanted no more children. ²Met demand for spacing is defined as all cohabiting women who were using some method of family planning and wanted to have another child or were undecided about whether to have another. Met demand for limiting refers to all cohabiting women who were using a method and wanted no more children. ³Total demand: is the sum of met demand and unmet need for family planning

Table 10.15 presents levels of unmet need for contraception by various background characteristics. Associations with age, paid work status and rural-urban residence were not observed. Religion-wise findings show that percentages reporting an unmet need were greatest among Christian girls (49%) and lowest among those belonging to the Sarna religion (40%). By caste, those belonging to scheduled castes revealed considerably lower levels of unmet need than those belonging to other castes (27% versus 36-47%). Percentages reporting an unmet need increased steadily from those who had no education (36%) to those with 8-9 years of schooling (49%), and then declined to 42 among those with 10-11 or 12 or more years of

education. Fewer girls who were pursuing their education than those who were out of school at the time of the interview had unmet need for contraception (31% versus 44%). Differences by household economic status suggest that considerably more girls in the poorest quintile had unmet need for contraception than better off girls (51% versus 38-42%). While the association between the father's educational attainment status was inconsistent, the association with the mother's education was U-shaped, with 43 percent of girls whose mother had no education revealing an unmet need, compared to 34 percent of those whose mother had 1-7 years of schooling and 40-44 percent of those whose mother had 10 or more years of education.

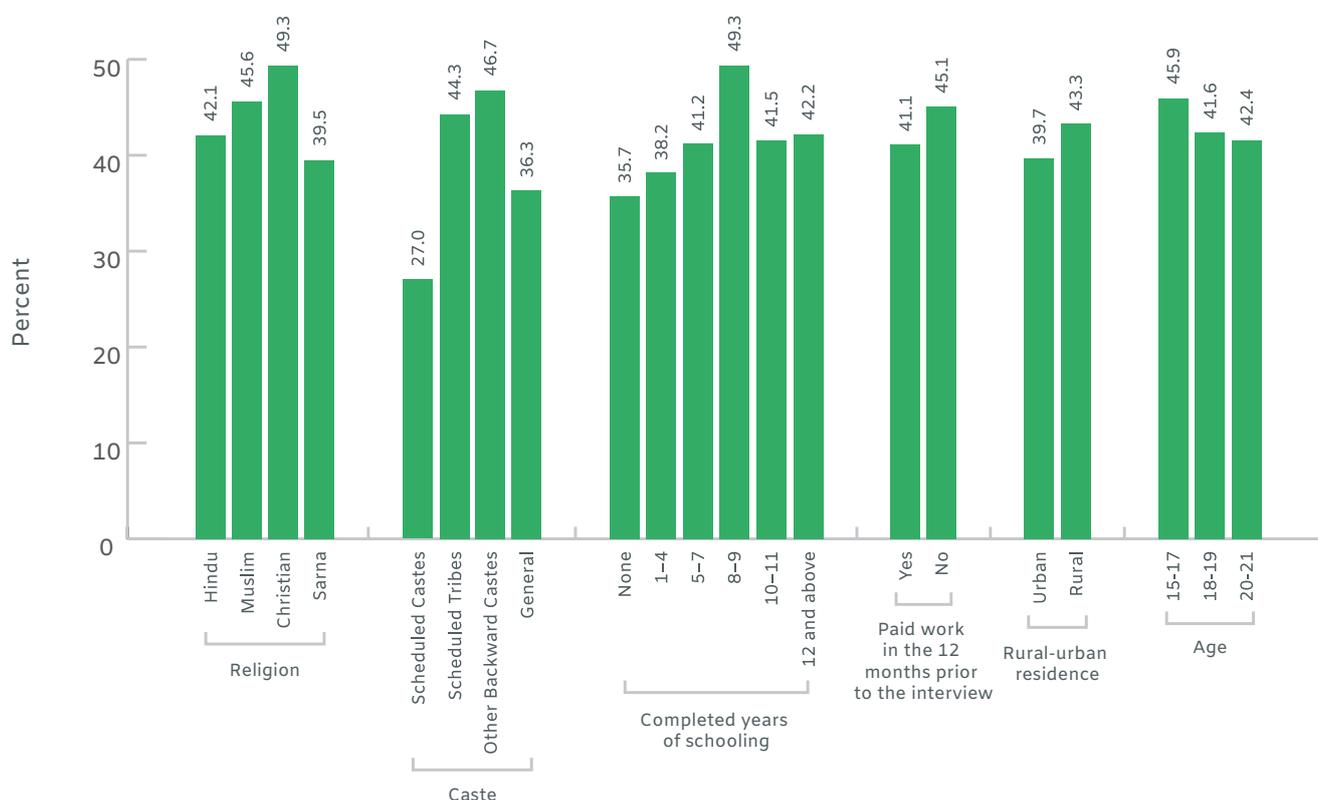
Table 10.15 Unmet need by selected background characteristics
Percentage of married adolescent girls with unmet need for contraception by selected background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Background characteristics	Married girls (15-21)
Age	
15-17	45.9
18-19	41.6
20-21	42.4
Religion¹	
Hindu	42.1
Muslim	45.6
Christian	49.3
Sarna	39.5
Caste²	
SC	27.0
ST	44.3
OBC	46.7
General	36.3
Current schooling status³	
No	43.5
Yes	31.1
Completed years of schooling	
None ⁴	35.7
1-4	38.2
5-7	41.2
8-9	49.3
10-11	41.5
12 and above	42.2
Paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview	
Yes	41.1
No	45.1
Wealth quintile	
First	50.8
Second	40.3
Third	42.1
Fourth	37.7
Fifth	41.1

Background characteristics	Married girls (15-21)
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)	
None ⁴	43.1
1-7	33.8
8-9	40.1
10 and above	43.7
Don't know	(55.0)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)	
None ⁴	42.6
1-7	44.0
8-9	35.7
10 and above	41.4
Don't know	49.7
Rural-urban residence	
Urban	39.7
Rural	43.3

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ²OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: Includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ³Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school. ⁴Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

Figure 10.7 Unmet need by selected background characteristics



10.9 PREGNANCY AND CHILDBEARING

We probed girls' age at first birth as well as the details of their reproductive histories, that is, whether they had ever been pregnant, the number of children they had given birth to and the number of surviving children they had, and their experience of stillbirths, miscarriages and induced abortions. We also sought details of pregnancy related care experiences, that is, the extent to which they had availed of ante-natal care services, institutional delivery and post-partum care, and the extent to which they had availed of pregnancy-related entitlements such as Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) and Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK).

Age at first birth

Pregnancy and childbearing follow close on the heels of marriage. Considerable proportions of all girls (married and unmarried) had given birth in adolescence, and many had done so as children (Table 10.16). While childbearing before age 15 was rare, with fewer than one percent so experiencing, as many as 12 percent of all girls aged 18-21 had given birth before age 18, and almost two in five (39%) of those aged 20-21 had given birth in adolescence, that is, before they were 20. Differences between girls from intervention and comparison areas were mild (11-15%).

Table 10.16 Age at first birth
Percentage of girls aged 15-21 who had given birth before age 15, 18 and 20 by current age, Jharkhand, 2018

Age at first birth	Married girls (15-21)
Age at first birth	
Below age 15	0.7
Number of girls aged 15-21	5,236
Below age 18	11.5
Number of girls aged 18-21	2,804
Below age 20	38.5
Number of girls aged 20-21	1,226

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Reproductive histories

The reproductive histories of married girls who had begun cohabiting are presented in Table 10.17. Findings show that 69 percent had experienced at least one pregnancy. At the time of the interview, 15 percent of all married girls were pregnant; eight percent were pregnant for the first time. A few (5%) reported that they had been pregnant at least once but did not have a live birth. At the time of the interview, two in five had one live birth (43%), and 13 percent had more than one live birth.

Almost as many girls reported one surviving child (42%) and two or more surviving children (12%). Three percent had experienced one or more infant deaths.

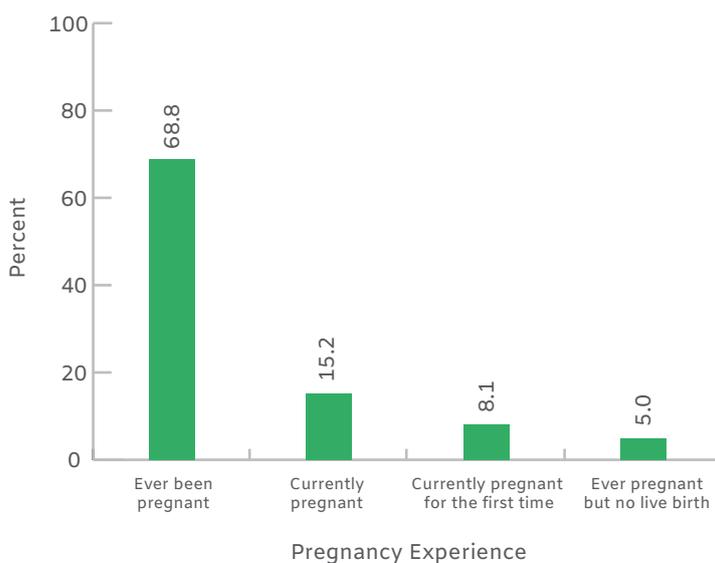
Reproductive histories of girls in intervention and comparison areas were similar.

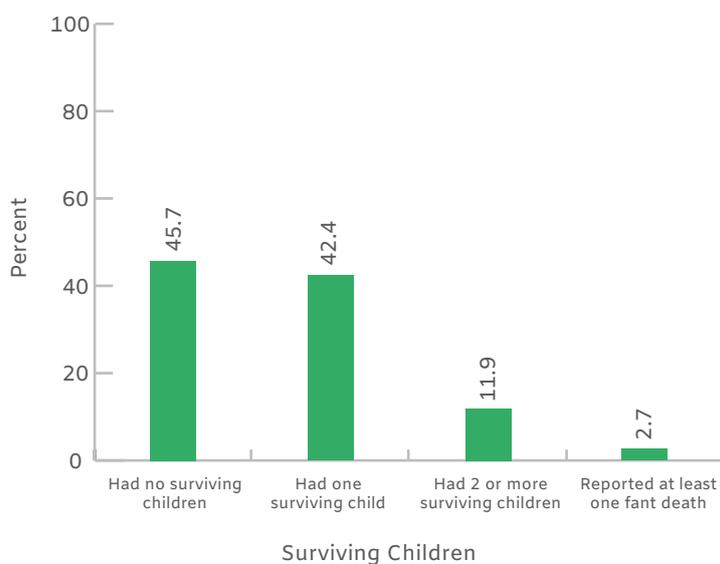
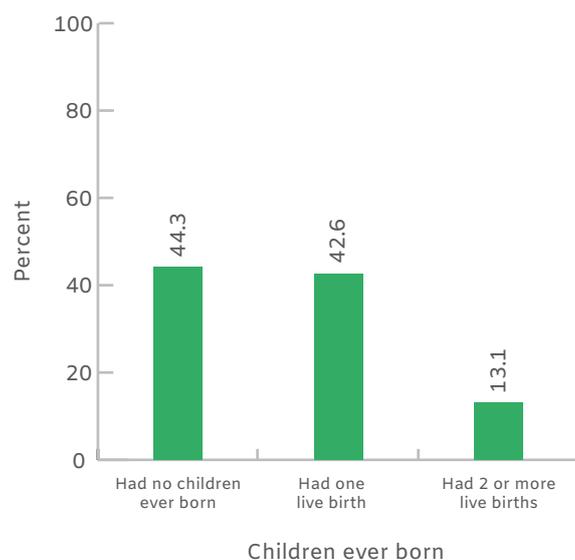
Table 10.17: Pregnancy and child bearing
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 cohabiting with their husband who had experienced at least one pregnancy, percentage reporting various pregnancy outcomes, Jharkhand, 2018

Pregnancy and childbearing	Married girls (15-21)
Pregnancy experience	
Ever been pregnant	68.8
Currently pregnant	15.2
Currently pregnant for the first time	8.1
Ever pregnant but no live birth	5.0
Children ever born	
Had no children ever born	44.3
Had one live birth	42.6
Had 2 or more live births	13.1
Surviving children	
Had no surviving children ¹	45.7
Had one surviving child	42.4
Had 2 or more surviving children	11.9
Reported at least one infant death	2.7
Number of cohabiting married girls aged 15-21²	1,991

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Includes those who had never been pregnant, were pregnant for the first time, never had a live birth, had one or more live births none of which survived. ²Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Figure 10.8 Pregnancy and child bearing





Findings, presented in Table 10.18, show that, in total, 56 percent of married girls already had one or more births, and eight percent were pregnant for the first time at the time of the interview. In all, almost two-thirds (64%) of married girls had already initiated childbearing, that is, they had at least one birth or were pregnant for the first time. Differences between those in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Table 10.18: Initiation of childbearing

Percentage of married adolescent girls aged 15-21 who had at least one child, who were pregnant with their first child at the time of the interview, and who had begun childbearing, ¹Jharkhand, 2018

Initiation of childbearing indicators	Married girls (15-21)
Had at least one birth	55.7
Pregnant for the first time	8.1
Had at least one birth or pregnant for the first time	63.8
Number of cohabiting married girls aged 15-21¹	1,991

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Either pregnant with their first child or has at least one live birth. The percentage excludes girls who had ever been pregnant but had not delivered a live birth.

Differences by various background characteristics are presented in Table 10.19. With regard to those who had initiated childbearing, that is, had at least one birth or were pregnant for the first time, findings show considerable variation by socio-demographic characteristics. As expected, there is a systematic increase by age in percentages who had started childbearing; while 34 percent of those aged 15-17 had done so, percentages increased to 62 and 79, respectively, among those aged 18-19 and 20-21. Differences by religion suggest that initiation of childbearing ranged from 50 percent among Christian girls to 66 percent among Hindu girls. Girls who belonged to general castes were the most likely to have begun childbearing and those who belonged to scheduled castes were least likely to have done so (74% versus 58%). Initiation of childbearing revealed a U-shaped association with girls' educational attainment levels, with 71 percent of those with no formal education, 55-59 percent of those with 1-7 years of education, and 61-69 percent of those with eight or more years of education reporting the initiation of childbearing. Those pursuing their education at the time of the interview were however far less likely than others to have initiated childbearing (41% versus 65%). Girls residing in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to have initiated childbearing (68% versus 63%). Associations with other indicators, such as engagement in wage work, household economic status, and mother's and father's education attainment levels were weak and/or erratic.

Differences by background characteristics in the remaining two indicators – percentages who had at least one birth, and percentages pregnant for the first time were more muted.

Table 10.19 Initiation of childbearing by selected background characteristics

Percentage of married adolescent girls aged 15-21 who had at least one child, who were pregnant with their first child at the time of the interview, and who had begun childbearing¹ by selected background characteristics, Jharkhand, 2018

Background characteristics	Had at least one birth	Pregnant for the first time	Had at least one birth or pregnant for the first time
Age			
15-17	23.3	11.0	34.3
18-19	50.9	10.7	61.6
20-21	74.7	4.4	79.1
Religion²			
Hindu	56.5	9.6	66.1
Muslim	52.4	4.8	57.2
Christian	49.6	0.8	50.3
Sarna	58.9	4.9	63.8

Background characteristics	Had at least one birth	Pregnant for the first time	Had at least one birth or pregnant for the first time
Caste³			
SC	42.9	15.3	58.2
ST	59.7	3.7	63.4
OBC	56.3	8.1	64.4
General	64.6	9.1	73.6
Current schooling status⁴			
No	57.0	8.3	65.3
Yes	36.1	5.1	41.2
Completed years of schooling			
None ⁵	64.1	6.6	70.7
1-4	43.7	10.8	54.6
5-7	46.6	11.8	58.5
8-9	60.6	3.9	64.5
10-11	53.4	7.7	61.2
12 and above	57.6	11.4	69.0
Paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview			
Yes	55.8	9.1	64.8
No	55.7	6.7	62.4
Wealth quintile			
First	58.2	8.1	66.3
Second	50.8	9.3	60.1
Third	59.8	7.9	67.6
Fourth	61.0	9.9	70.9
Fifth	51.1	6.1	57.2
Mother's education (in years of schooling completed)			
None ⁵	55.2	7.4	62.6
1-7	61.5	9.2	70.7
8-9	58.6	9.2	67.8
10 and above	53.6	3.2	56.8
Don't know	(54.2)	(22.9)	(77.1)
Father's education (in years of schooling completed)			
None ⁵	56.0	7.1	63.1
1-7	60.7	7.1	67.8
8-9	70.7	3.0	73.7
10 and above	50.5	12.5	63.0
Don't know	42.1	12.3	54.4
Rural-urban residence			
Urban	57.1	10.4	67.5
Rural	55.5	7.7	63.2

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers. ¹Either pregnant with their first child or has at least one live birth. The percentage excludes girls who had ever been pregnant but had not delivered a live birth. ²Percentages not shown for those belonging to other religions because of small numbers. ³OBC: other backward caste; SC: scheduled caste; ST: scheduled tribe; General: Includes all those not belonging to SCs, STs, or OBCs. ⁴Percentages not shown for adolescents who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of interview or those who never went to school. ⁵Includes non-literate and literate with no formal schooling.

Pregnancy loss

Overall, as many as 18 percent of married girls who had experienced at least one pregnancy had experienced pregnancy loss (Table 10.20). Five percent reported that their pregnancy had ended in a stillbirth, 13 percent had experienced at least one miscarriage, and two percent reported an induced abortion. Differences by residence in comparison and intervention areas were negligible on all these indicators.

Table 10.20: Pregnancy loss
Percentage of ever-pregnant married girls aged 15-21 cohabiting with their husband who had experienced at least one stillbirth, miscarriage or induced abortion, Jharkhand, 2018

Pregnancy and childbearing	Married girls (15-21)
Pregnancy loss	
Reported one or more stillbirths	4.5
Reported one or more miscarriage	12.9
Reported one or more induced abortions	1.6
Reported any pregnancy loss (any of the above)	18.4
Number of cohabiting married girls¹ aged 15-21 who had ever been pregnant	1,203

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

10.10 PREGNANCY RELATED CARE FOR THE FIRST BIRTH

Focusing on their first live birth, we asked married girls who had at least one live birth about their experience of ante-natal care, institutional delivery, and post-partum care. We also asked whether they had accessed pregnancy related entitlements, including the Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) and the Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK).

Antenatal care

As Table 10.21 shows, almost all married girls who had one or more live births had received at least one antenatal check-up (99%) for their first birth. However, just 64 percent had obtained their first check-up in the first trimester and just 62 percent had received the recommended four check-ups over the course of their pregnancy. While large proportions of girls (87%) had received iron and folic acid tablets, just nine percent had completed the recommended course of 100 tablets. Almost all girls had received at least one tetanus toxoid injection (97%) and almost ninety percent (89%) had received two. Ante-natal care profiles of girls in comparison and intervention areas were largely similar; however, more girls in comparison than intervention areas had received an antenatal check-up in the first trimester (65% versus 59%).

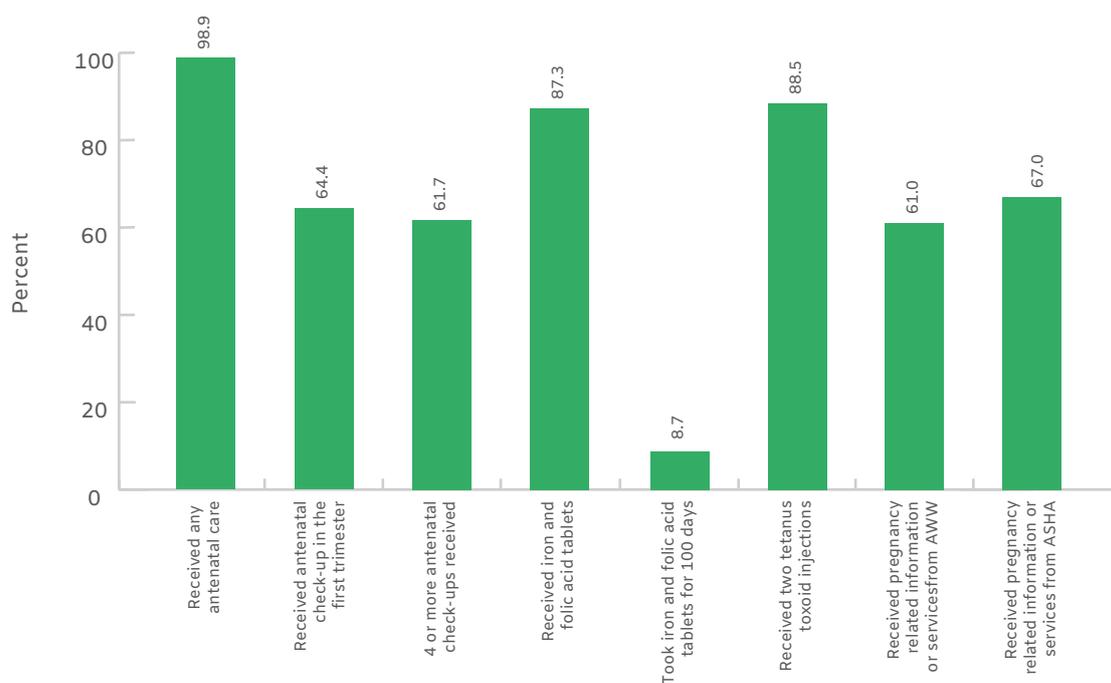
Although frontline workers are expected to provide pregnancy-related information or services to all pregnant women, just 61 percent and 67 percent of married girls reported that they had received information or services from an AWW and an ASHA, respectively, during their first pregnancy. While about as many girls residing in intervention and comparison areas had received information or services from an AWW, more girls from comparison than intervention areas (68% versus 61%) had received these from an ASHA.

Table 10.21 Antenatal care
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who had received antenatal care for their first birth, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of antenatal care	Married girls (15-21)
Received any antenatal care	98.9
Received antenatal check-up in the first trimester	64.4
Number of antenatal check-ups received	
No antenatal check-up	1.2
1	3.0
2	11.6
3	23.0
4 or above	61.7
Received iron and folic acid tablets	87.3
Took iron and folic acid tablets for 100 days	8.7
Received two tetanus toxoid injections	88.5
Received at least one tetanus toxoid injections	97.4
Information or services obtained from a frontline worker	
Received pregnancy related information or services from AWW	61.0
Received pregnancy related information or services from ASHA	67.0
Number who had at least one live birth	1,123

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 10.9 Antenatal Care



Assistance at delivery

The first pregnancy is known to be the riskiest, yet not all girls reported that their first birth had taken place institutionally. Only 79 percent of married girls reported that their first child was delivered in a health facility (Table 10.22). The majority of girls – almost three in five (58%) reported that their first delivery took place in a government health facility, and another one in five (21%) reported that their first delivery had taken place in a private sector facility.

A total of 81 percent of girls reported skilled attendance at first delivery. Three-quarters (74%) were delivered by a doctor, nurse, auxiliary nurse midwife (ANM) or lady health visitor (LHV) and seven percent were delivered by a trained midwife or other health professional. Even so, 19 percent were delivered by an untrained person or had no assistance.

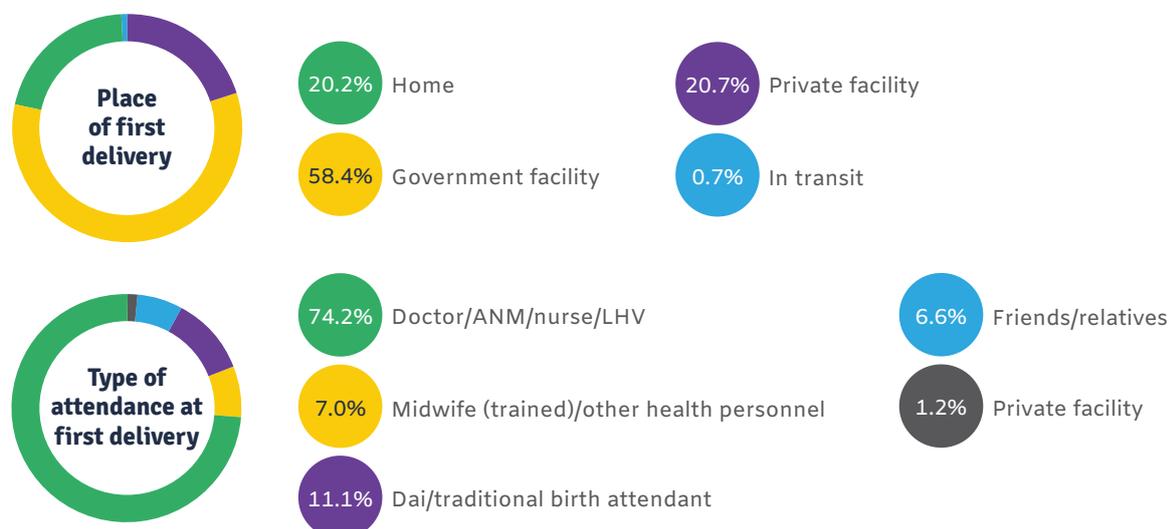
Similar percentages of girls in intervention and comparison areas reported institutional delivery and skilled attendance at first birth.

Table 10.22 Delivery care
Percentage of married girls in ages 15-21 by place of first delivery and type of attendance at first delivery, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of delivery care	Married girls (15-21)
Place of first delivery	
Home	20.2
Government facility	58.4
Private facility	20.7
In transit	0.7
Type of attendance at first delivery	
Doctor/ANM/nurse/LHV	74.2
Midwife (trained)/other health personnel	7.0
Dai/traditional birth attendant	11.1
Friends/relatives	6.6
No assistance	1.2
Number who had at least one live birth	1,123

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. Column totals may not equal 100% owing to multiple responses. ANM: auxiliary nurse midwife; LHV: lady health visitor.

Figure 10.10 Delivery care



Postpartum care

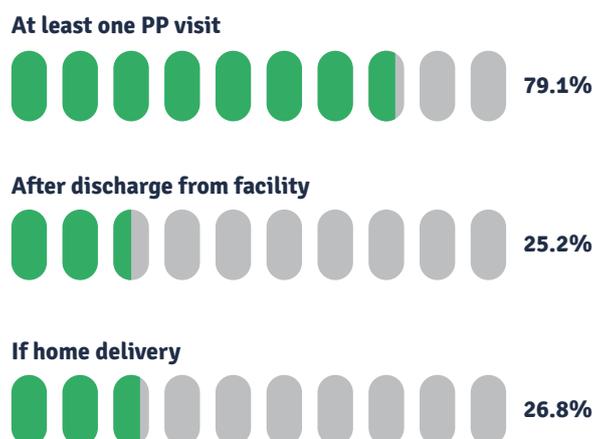
Findings show that almost four in five girls (79%) had received a post-partum check-up in the first six weeks following the first birth (Table 10.23), with almost one-third reporting three or more check-ups (31%). Findings suggest however, that the majority of these took place in the facility prior to discharge. Indeed, of those delivering in a facility, just one-quarter (25%) had been checked up following discharge, and among those who had delivered at home, just 27 percent had received even one post-partum check-up. Difference between girls in intervention and comparison areas were negligible.

Table 10.23 Postpartum care
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who received a post-partum check-up for the first birth, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of postpartum care	Married girls (15-21)
No post-partum check-up	20.9
1	23.0
2	21.3
3+	31.1
Could not recall the number of check-ups received	3.9
Number who had at least one live birth	1,123
Post-partum check-ups after discharge from the facility	
At least one	25.2
Number who had at least one live birth, delivered their first child in a facility and could recall the number of check-ups received¹	823
Post-partum check-ups following a home delivery	
At least one	26.8
Number who had at least one live birth, delivered their first child at home	267

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Excludes 33 cases who could not recall the number of check-ups they had and hence were not asked how many took place following discharge from the facility.

Figure 10.11 Postpartum Care



Pregnancy related entitlements

We asked married girls who had given birth at least once, to report whether they had received cash benefits under the Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) or free services under the Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (for example, free drugs and other supplies, free diet during hospitalization for delivery, free diagnostic services, blood transfusion, transport to the facility, treatment of newborn). We also assessed whether the girl had received, through the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) programme, supplementary nutrition during pregnancy and/or the postpartum period or health and nutrition education (Table 10.24).

Table 10.24 Benefits received from various pregnancy-related programmes and schemes
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who had received (or were awaiting receipt of) JSY benefits from among those whose first delivery took place in a public sector facility, percentage of girls who had received JSSK benefits and percentage of girls who had obtained supplementary nutrition or nutrition and health education from the ICDS scheme, Jharkhand, 2018

Benefits received from public sectors	Married girls (15-21)
JSY benefits	
Received cash assistance under the Janani Suraksha Yojana (or were awaiting receipt of benefits)	37.2
Number who had at least one live birth	1,123
Received cash assistance under the Janani Suraksha Yojana	56.0
Number who had at least one live birth and had delivered their first birth in a public facility	656
JSSK benefits accessed	
Received at least one benefit under the Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK) ¹	68.0
Number whose first delivery took place in a public/private health facility	856
Supplementary nutrition	
Received supplementary food from ICDS when pregnant with first child	78.6
Number who had at least one live birth	1,123

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Free drugs and other supplies, free diet during hospitalization for delivery, free diagnostic services, blood transfusion, transport to the facility, treatment of newborn. Note that many women also reported that they had not availed of these services because they had not required them.

With regard to JSY benefits, just 37 percent of girls had received JSY cash benefits or were awaiting receipt of benefits at the time of their first birth. However, among those who had delivered their first child in a public sector facility, percentages were considerably higher (56%). More girls had availed of JSSK benefits; for example, among those delivering in a facility, 68 percent had received one or more free service from JSSK.

Among all girls who had at least one birth, moreover, 79 percent had received supplementary nutrition during their first pregnancy or the postpartum period following the first birth.

Access to both JSY and JSSK was higher among girls in intervention than comparison areas. Among all girls, 42 percent of those in intervention areas, compared to 37 percent of those in comparison areas had availed of JSY benefits, and among those who had delivered in a public sector facility, correspondingly, percentages were 67 and 55. JSSK benefits were accessed by 74 percent of those in intervention areas, compared to 67 percent of those in comparison areas. In contrast, differences in access to supplementary nutrition were not observed.





CHAPTER 11

KEY ADOLESCENT HEALTH CONCERNS AND ACCESS TO HEALTH-RELATED PROGRAMMES

Health concerns of adolescents range from the experience of symptoms of reproductive morbidities and depression to the risk of accidents and injuries, substance misuse, and conditions such as lack of exercise which may manifest in non-communicable diseases in adulthood. Several programmes have been launched to address these concerns. The Rashtriya Kishor Swasthya Karyakram (RKSK) programme, as discussed earlier, is an umbrella programme that aims to raise awareness of key health concerns and offer adolescents counselling, referral and services. Other programmes, include the menstrual hygiene and sanitary napkin distribution programme, the School Health programme, the RKSK's peer-led information and counselling programme, the state's Adolescence Education programme (Udaan), re-orientation of frontline workers to incorporate among their responsibilities the concerns of the young, iron and folic acid distribution and deworming programmes at school and community levels, establishment of Adolescent Friendly Health Clinics (AFHC), organising of Village Health and Nutrition Days for the young and the still nascent establishment of Kishori Swasthya Diwas or adolescent health days. Our survey collected information about adolescents' various health concerns, as well as their awareness of various programmes and use of the services being offered.

In this chapter, we present adolescents' health concerns and access to health-related programmes for Jharkhand as a whole. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas on each issue are also discussed in this chapter; however, detailed tables are provided in appendices, bearing the same table number (for ease of recognition) as the table in this chapter.

11.1 HEALTH CONCERNS AND PRACTICES

The health concerns we probed included menstrual hygiene and use of sanitary pads, experience of symptoms of reproductive morbidity, accidents and injuries, symptoms of mental ill-health, and substance misuse. We also explored whether adolescents engaged in physical activity, the lack of which is a predictor of adult ill-health.

Menstrual hygiene

We asked girls who had started menstruating about what they used during menstruation (Table 11.1). Many girls who had attained menarche reported using sanitary pads to stem menstrual flow. Among girls aged 10-14, as many as 60 percent had not started menstruating and did not understand what menstruation is (not shown in table); among girls aged 15-21, fewer than one percent reported never having menstruated.

A large proportion of girls used only sanitary napkins, no longer relying on cloth and other less hygienic materials. Among those who had started menstruating, 57 percent of 10-14 year olds, 56 percent of unmarried 15-21 year olds and 44 percent of married 15-21 year olds reported that they used only sanitary napkins. In addition, 27-33 percent of girls reported that they used sanitary napkins intermittently, using cloth if sanitary napkins were not available. Free distribution of sanitary napkins to girls in school and in communities through frontline workers has been implemented as part of the government's adolescent health strategy, and it appears that many girls have been able to access these products through these channels.

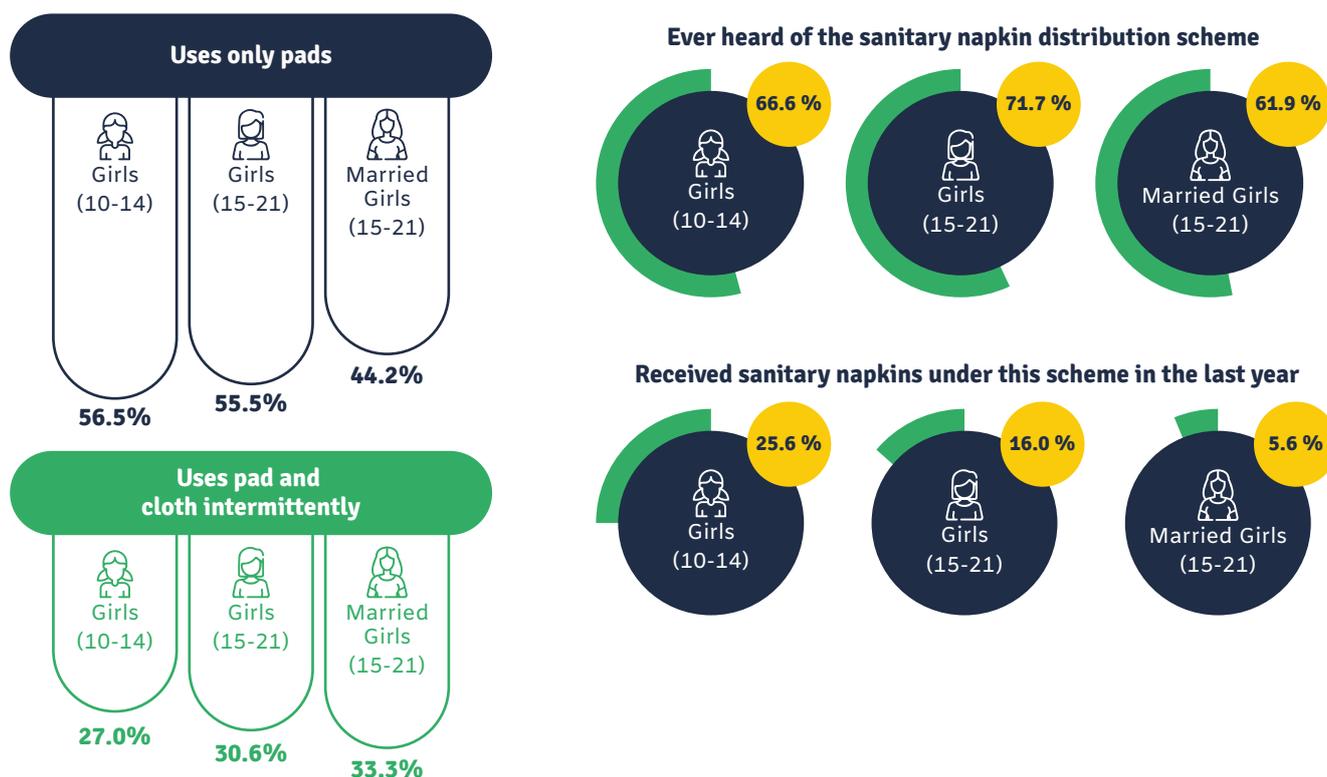
Differences between girls in intervention and comparison areas were evident. More girls from each group who belonged to comparison areas reported exclusive use of sanitary napkins than did those who belonged to intervention areas (58% versus 49% of girls aged 10-14; 57% versus 48% of unmarried girls aged 15-21; and 45% versus 38% of married girls).

Table 11.1 Menstrual hygiene: use of hygienic products
Percentage of adolescent girls who had started menstruating reporting use of sanitary napkins, Jharkhand, 2018

Menstrual hygiene	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Uses only pads	56.5	55.5	44.2
Uses pad and cloth intermittently	27.0	30.6	33.3
Number of girls who had started menstruation	1,645	3,210	1,996

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 11.1 Use of sanitary napkins and awareness of and access to sanitary napkin distribution scheme



Self-reported symptoms of sexual and reproductive health problems

All adolescents were asked whether, in the three months preceding the interview, they had experienced symptoms of sexual and reproductive health problems such as burning while passing urine, genital ulcers or itching, swelling in the groin, and genital discharge, irrespective of whether they had sought care for the problem. Girls who had started menstruating were asked, in addition, about whether they had experienced menstrual problems over the same period.

Overall, many adolescents reported that they had experienced symptoms suggestive of sexual and reproductive health concerns (Table 11.2). More boys aged 15-21 and married girls aged 15-21 compared to those from other groups of adolescents reported the experience of one or more symptoms. Age differences were wide, with far more older than younger adolescents reporting a problem: 31 percent versus 22 percent of boys, and 15-26 percent versus nine percent for girls. Gender differences were apparent too, with more boys than girls reporting a problem: 22 percent versus nine percent of younger adolescents, and 31 percent versus 15 percent among older boys and unmarried girls. Finally, among older girls, the married were far more likely to report a symptom of sexual and reproductive health morbidity than did the unmarried (26% versus 15%).

Menstrual problems in the three months preceding the interview were reported by small proportions of girls (6-10%), and differences by age group, and, among older girls, marital status were not observed.

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were small. The only exception was that more older boys in intervention than comparison areas reported experiencing one or more symptoms of sexual and reproductive ill-health (36% versus 30%).

Table 11.2 Experience of symptoms of sexual and reproductive health problems
Percentage of adolescents reporting symptoms of sexual and reproductive health problems in the three months preceding the interview, Jharkhand, 2018

Symptom of reproductive morbidity	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Any (genital ulcer, itching, swelling; burning urination, discharge) in last 3 months	21.9	30.8	9.0	15.1	25.5
Number of respondents	3,473	3,149	4,104	3,237	1,999
Menstrual problems in last 3 months	NA	NA	5.7	7.1	10.2
Number of menstruating girls	NA	NA	1,645	3,210	1,996

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not Applicable.

Accidents and injuries

Accidents and injuries are a major cause of morbidity among the young. To assess the extent to which adolescents were at risk, we asked them to report whether they had experienced an injury or were hurt as a result of a road accident, a fight or a fall in the three months preceding the interview. Findings from Table 11.3 suggest that considerable proportions of boys (29-39%) and far fewer girls (5-14%) had experienced accidents or injuries.

Here too, differences between adolescents residing in intervention and comparison areas were not observed in general. However, as in the case of symptoms of sexual and reproductive ill-health, here too, more older boys in intervention than comparison areas reported the experience of an accident or injury in the three months preceding the interview (34% versus 28%).

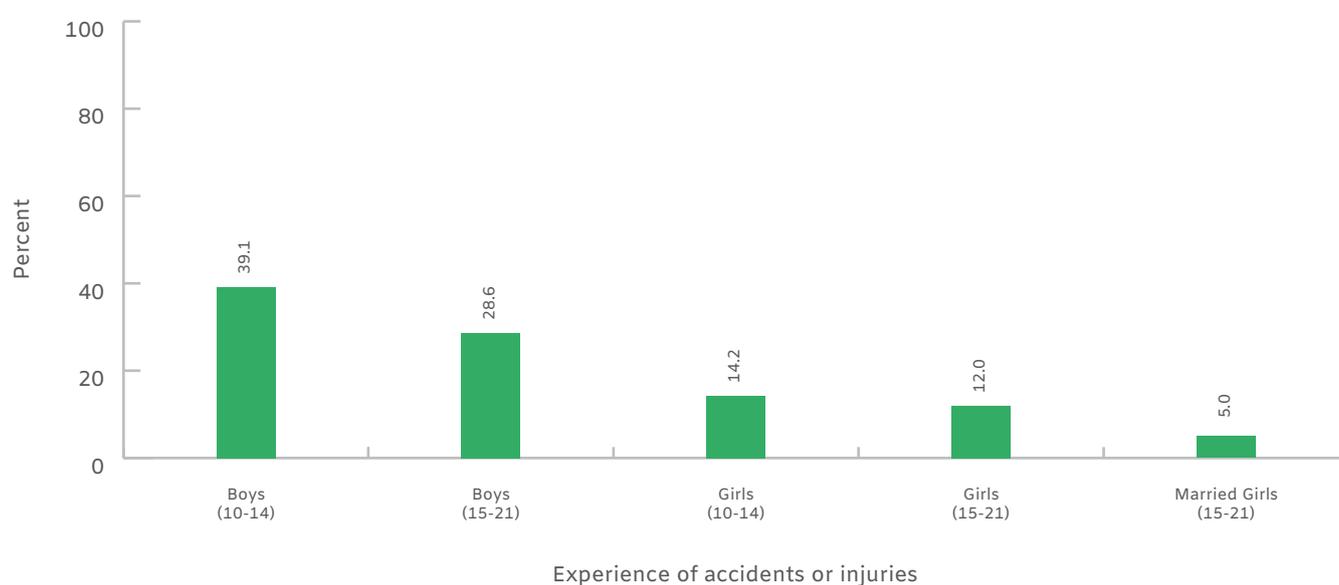
Table 11.3 Experience of accidents or injuries

Percentage of adolescents reporting the experience of accidents or injuries in the three months preceding the interview, Jharkhand, 2018

Injury, accidents	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Experienced in last three months	39.1	28.6	14.2	12.0	5.0
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 11.2 Experience of accidents or injuries



Mental health

In order to assess the mental health of adolescents, we administered the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9, Kroenke, Spitzer, and William, 2001). The PHQ is a screening tool that assesses symptoms of depression in the two weeks preceding the interview. It comprises nine questions, and respondents were asked to report how frequently they had experienced each symptom (e.g. trouble falling asleep, concentrating, etc.). Answers were classified into various categories, depending on whether they had experienced the symptom nearly every day in the previous two weeks, for one week or so, for less than one week or not at all, with scores ranging from 3 to 0, respectively. Scores were summed, and an index was created that ranged from 0 to 27, with scores of up to 5, 10, 15 and 20 or more representing mild, moderate, moderately severe and severe symptoms of depression, respectively. Table 11.4 presents the percentage of adolescents who reported moderate to severe depression (scores of 10-27). Findings show that symptoms of depression in the two weeks preceding the interview were reported by hardly any boys and girls aged 10-14 and boys aged 15-21 (0.1-0.3). Somewhat more older girls had so experienced, and among them, three percent of the unmarried, compared to five percent of the married displayed symptoms suggestive of moderate to severe depression.

We also asked adolescents aged 13 and above whether they had seriously thought about committing suicide in the 12 months preceding the interview. Findings show that none of the boys age 13-14 and one percent

of girls aged 13-14 and boys aged 15-21 had contemplated suicide. Percentages increased to three and six among unmarried and married girls aged 15-21 (Table 11.4).

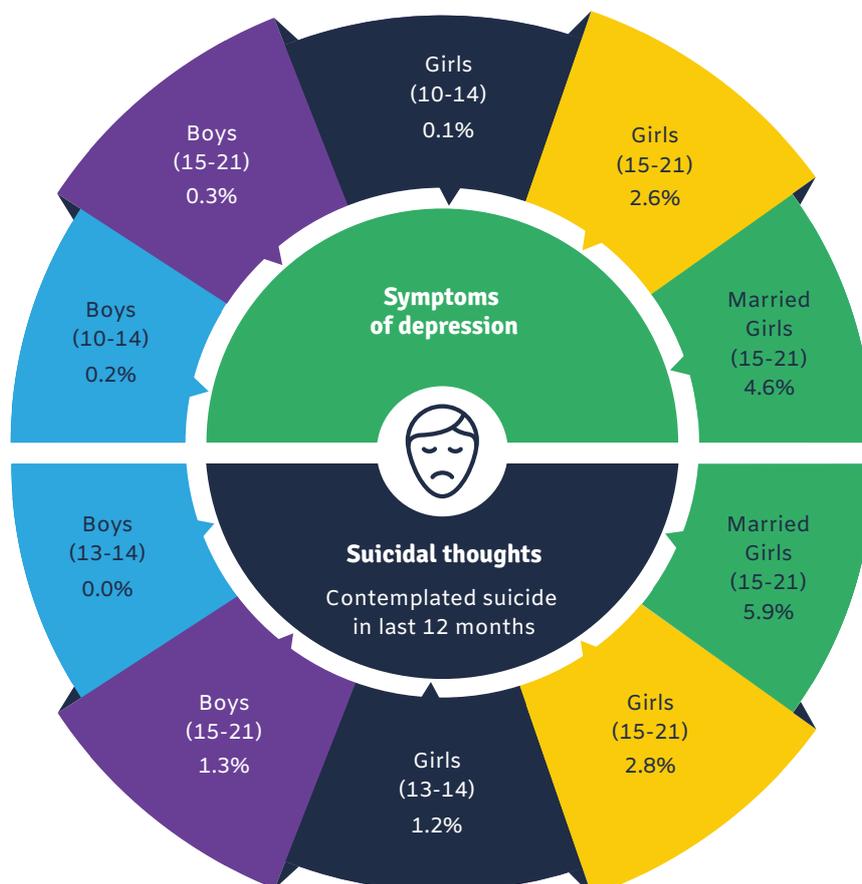
Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed both for reported symptoms of depression and in reported suicidal thoughts.

Table 11.4 Experience of symptoms of depression
Percentage of adolescents reporting the experience of symptoms of depression in the two weeks preceding the interview, and suicidal thoughts in the year preceding the interview, Jharkhand, 2018

Symptoms of depression	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Symptoms of depression					
Moderate to severe (phq_9score), last 2 weeks	0.2	0.3	0.1	2.6	4.6
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Symptoms of suicidal thoughts	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Suicidal thoughts¹					
Contemplated suicide in last 12 months	0.0	1.3	1.2	2.8	5.9
Number of respondents aged 13-21	1,289	3,150	1,631	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹The question on suicidal thoughts was not asked to 10-12 year olds.

Figure 11.3 Experience of symptoms of depression and suicidal thoughts



Note: ¹The question on suicidal thoughts was not asked to 10-12 year olds.

Substance use

In order to assess substance misuse, we asked adolescents whether they smoked or consumed tobacco products, consumed alcohol or consumed drugs. Findings presented in Table 11.5, show that very few adolescents of any group consumed drugs (0-2%) and few younger adolescents and older girls consumed tobacco products and alcohol (1-4%). However, large proportions of older boys reported consuming tobacco products (27%) and alcohol (23%).

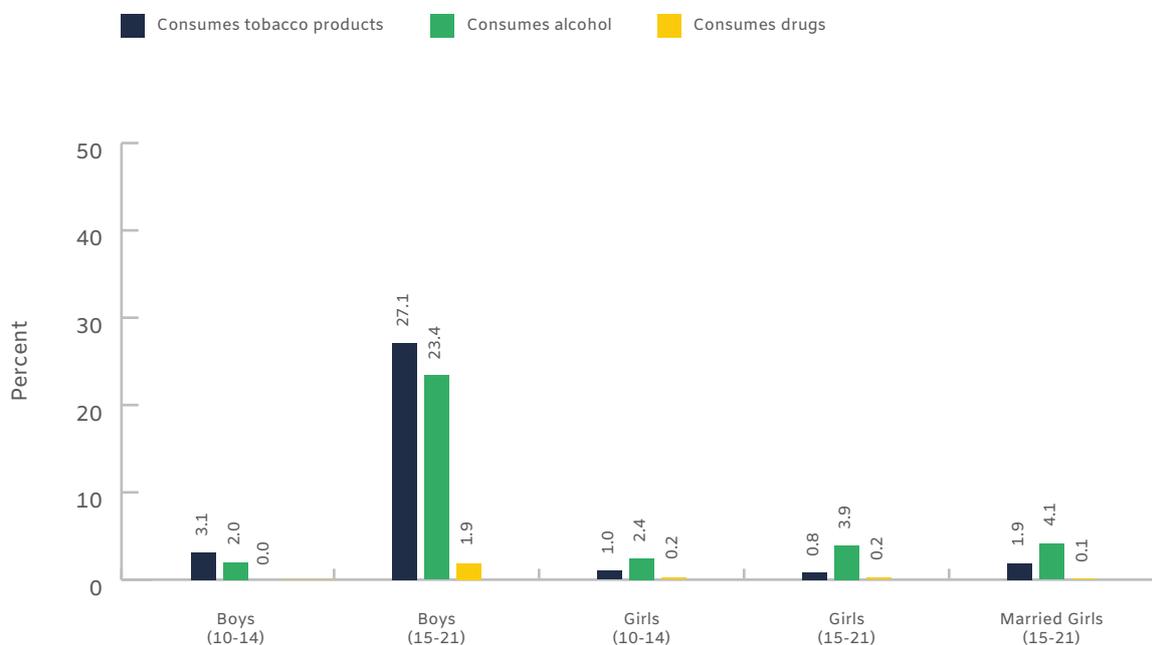
Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were negligible for the most part. However, as seen on several indicators, more boys in intervention than comparison areas reported consumption of both tobacco products and alcohol (34% versus 26% and 30% versus 23%, respectively).

Table 11.5 Substance use
Percentage of adolescents reporting substance use, Jharkhand, 2018

Substance use	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Consumes tobacco products	3.1	27.1	1.0	0.8	1.9
Consumes alcohol	2.0	23.4	2.4	3.9	4.1
Consumes drugs	0.0	1.9	0.2	0.2	0.1
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 11.4 Substance use



Engagement in physical activity

Physical activity in adolescence is increasingly observed to protect adults from non-communicable diseases. In order to gauge levels of physical activity, we inquired whether adolescents exercised in any way, such as, for example, sports, athletics, games and so on. Findings, presented in Table 11.6, show the extent to which, as girls' agency is curtailed, participation in physical activity declines, with married girls being hugely disadvantaged. We observe wide gender gaps, and among girls, wide differences by age and marital status.

Almost all boys reported engagement in some form of exercise (94-98%). However, age differences among girls are stark. Almost all younger girls (91%) exercised, but percentages fell to 62 and 11 among older unmarried and married girls, respectively. Gender differences were apparent, with somewhat more younger boys (98%) than girls (91%) engaging in physical activity, and more older boys than older girls doing so, with married girls particularly disadvantaged (94% versus 62% of unmarried girls and 11% of married girls).

In general, differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed. However, among unmarried girls aged 15-21, more of those from comparison than intervention areas reported engaging in physical activity.

Table 11.6 Engagement in physical activity
Percentage of adolescents reporting engagement in physical activity, Jharkhand, 2018

Engagement in physical activity	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Currently does exercise	98.1	94.4	91.4	61.6	11.0
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

11.2 AWARENESS OF HEALTH PROGRAMMES AND USE OF THEIR SERVICES

There exist a large number of programmes that are intended to reach adolescents with health promoting information as well as counselling, referral and services; these programmes are implemented at the health facility, school and community levels (for example, the School Health Programme, adolescent friendly health clinics (AFHCs) and peer educator activities established through the RKSK programme, the community-health worker programme and related frontline worker outreach and special days for service provision in rural areas (Village Health and Nutrition Day, Kishori Swasthya Diwas, for example), the sanitary napkin distribution, iron and folic acid and deworming services, height and weight monitoring and haemoglobin testing. Our survey probed respondents' awareness of these programmes, and the extent to which they had received the services of each one.

RKSK and related community and facility level activities

Although the Rashtriya Kishor Swasthya Karyakram (RKSK) was initiated in 2014, it had not been widely rolled out as of 2018. However, in order to provide baseline level indicators, we probed adolescents' awareness and use of programme activities. Findings (Table 11.7) show that awareness of the programme (even when described in terms of the activities that are implemented through it) was limited even in 2018 (0-4%). Associated services, such as AFHCs at facility level and peer educators at community level, were also poorly known. For example, just 1-2 percent of younger boys and girls, three percent of older boys, and 5-7 percent of older girls reported awareness of an AFHC, and very few respondents from any group were familiar with the peer educator serving their community (0-1%). Hardly any adolescents reported using the services of either the AFHC (0%) or peer educators (1%).

In addition, rural adolescents were asked whether they had ever attended the Village Health and Nutrition Day (VHND) or the more recently proposed Kishori Swasthya Diwas - in the year preceding the interview. Hardly any unmarried adolescent, irrespective of age and sex, had attended the VHND - ranging from one percent of boys to three percent of girls. That the VHND was largely used by married girls was however

evident, with almost one third (31%) of married girls reporting attendance. In contrast, hardly any adolescents, irrespective of age and sex, had attended the Kishori Swasthya Diwas (0-3%).

Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were not observed.

Table 11.7 Awareness of and access to various programmes and schemes
Percentage of adolescents reporting awareness of the RKSK, and awareness of and access to the peer educator scheme, adolescent friendly health clinics and other entitlements, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness and access	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
RKSK and related community and facility level activities					
Heard about RKSK	0.3	1.4	1.3	3.8	1.8
Knows/is a peer educator	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.5	0.5
Heard about AFHC	0.8	2.9	2.2	7.0	5.2
Used AFHC services	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.0
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
VHND and Kishori Swasthya diwas					
Attended VHND	0.9	1.1	2.6	3.4	31.4
Attended Kishori Swasthya Diwas	0.2	0.1	0.6	2.8	2.0
Number of rural respondents	2,745	2,443	3,268	2,446	1,707

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Sanitary napkin distribution scheme

In contrast, large proportions of girls who had attained menarche were aware of the sanitary napkin distribution scheme, ranging from 62 percent of married girls to 67-72 percent of unmarried girls aged 10-14 and 15-21 (Table 11.8). Despite quite widespread awareness, far fewer girls had received sanitary napkins through this scheme, just 26 percent of girls aged 10-14, 16 percent of those aged 15-21 and six percent of married girls, suggesting perhaps that distribution took place largely at school level.

Differences between girls in intervention and comparison areas were negligible.

Table 11.8 Awareness of sanitary napkin distribution scheme, and access to supplies through this scheme
Percentage of girls reporting awareness of the sanitary napkin distribution scheme, and accessing supplies through this scheme, Jharkhand, 2018

Sanitary napkin distribution scheme	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Ever heard of the sanitary napkin distribution scheme	66.6	71.7	61.9
Received sanitary napkins under this scheme in last year	25.6	16.0	5.6
Number of girls who had started menstruation	1,644	3,210	1,996

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Nutritional supplementation, health status monitoring

Programmes provide, at school level or through frontline workers, weekly iron and folic acid (WIFS programme), as well as periodic deworming, height and weight monitoring and anaemia screening. We probed awareness of all of these services, and asked adolescents if they had received them (Table 11.9).

Large proportions of adolescents had heard of the WIFS programme – two-thirds of boys and younger girls (65-66%) and more unmarried and married girls aged 15-21 (77% and 70%, respectively). Yet, few adolescents had received iron and folic acid in the year preceding the interview. Just 6-7 percent of boys reported receiving iron and folic acid supplementation, and even among girls, percentages were relatively low, ranging from 20 percent among those aged 10-14 and unmarried girls aged 15-21, to 25 percent among married girls. Deworming services were received by many more, notably younger adolescents, among whom more than half (51-56%) had taken deworming services in the previous year. In comparison, about one-quarter of older boys and unmarried girls (25-27%) and even fewer (14%) married girls had received this service, again suggesting that primary school-going adolescents may have been targeted for this service.

Haemoglobin screening and height and weight monitoring at school or at the anganwadi centre in the year preceding the interview were far from universal. Just 3-5 percent of unmarried boys and girls from both age groups reported that their blood had been tested (via finger prick). Somewhat more (11%) married girls reported so (this excludes pregnancy related haemoglobin testing).

Small proportions of adolescents reported that their height and weight had been monitored in the school or anganwadi centre in the year preceding the interview. Patterns differed. More younger boys than older boys reported weight and height monitoring (15-16% versus 5%). Among girls, similar proportions of younger and older unmarried girls reported weight and height monitoring (12-15%, 6-9%, respectively). While similar proportions of married and unmarried older girls reported height monitoring (6-10%), more married than unmarried girls reported weight monitoring (23% versus 12%), likely related to pregnancy related monitoring services. Gender differences were evident in a couple of instances: more older unmarried girls than older boys reported weight monitoring (12% versus 5%) and more younger boys than girls reported height monitoring (15% versus 9%). Overall, just 4-13 percent of adolescents reported that both their height and their weight had been monitored. Differences between adolescents in intervention and comparison areas were negligible.

Table 11.9 Awareness of schemes and access to services relating of nutritional supplementation and growth monitoring
Percentage of adolescents reporting awareness of schemes and access to services relating of nutritional supplementation and growth monitoring, Jharkhand, 2018

Nutritional supplementation, health status monitoring	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
WIFS					
Heard about a scheme that provides IFA and deworming	66.1	65.7	65.3	76.5	70.0
Received IFA services	7.2	6.4	19.8	20.0	25.0
Received deworming services	56.4	24.6	50.6	26.5	13.6
Screening for anaemia					
Screened in the last year	4.9	3.3	4.6	4.8	11.0
Weight and height measured					
Weight	16.3	5.3	14.6	12.2	23.0
Height	15.4	5.0	9.1	6.3	9.9
Weight and height	13.0	4.3	8.0	5.7	9.5
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 11.5 Awareness of schemes and access to services relating to nutritional supplementation

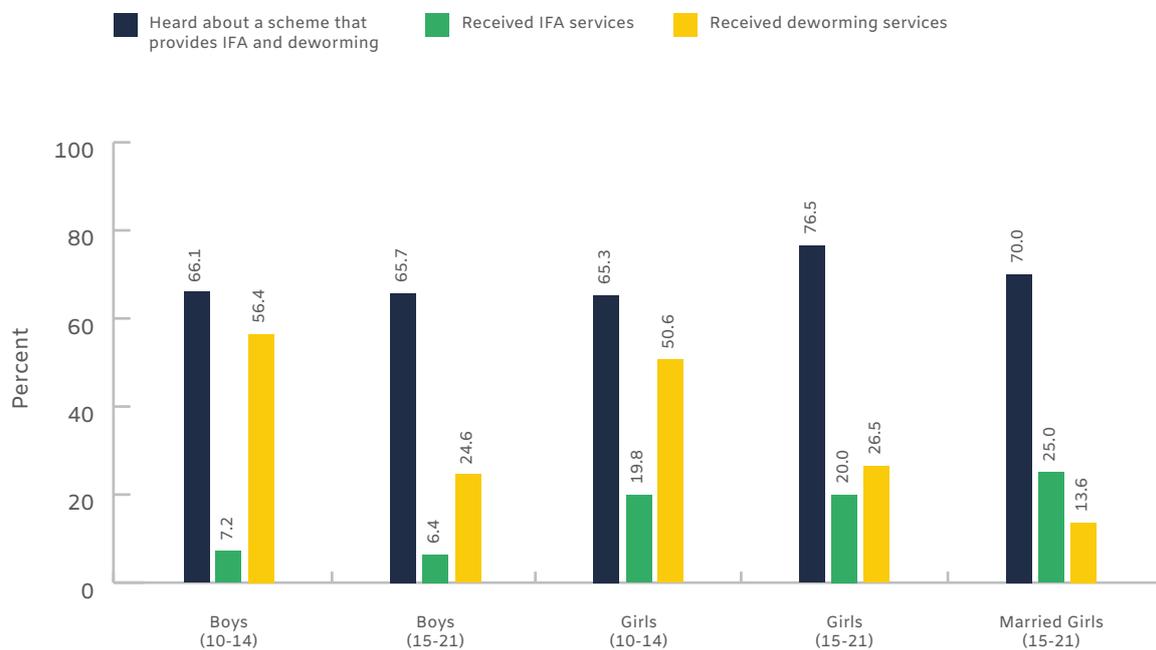
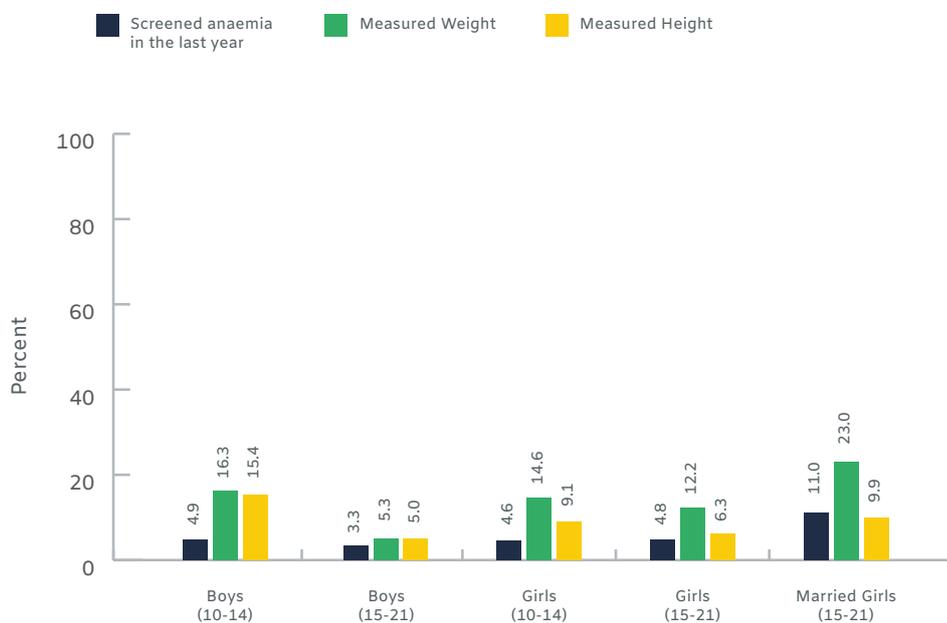


Figure 11.6 Growth monitoring and screening for anaemia



Screening for anaemia and weight and height measurement

Interaction with frontline workers and health care providers in educational facilities

We asked adolescents whether they were aware of frontline health workers (FLWs), that is, accredited social health activists (ASHAs) and anganwadi workers (AWWs), and whether they had interacted with either of these workers in the year preceding the interview. In addition, we asked school- or college-going adolescents whether they had received information or services from a doctor or nurse within the school or college premises in the year preceding the interview. Findings are presented in Table 11.10.

Almost all adolescents, irrespective of age, sex and marital status, had heard about anganwadi workers (95-99%). Fewer were aware of ASHAs, and now, differences emerged by age and sex of respondent. More older adolescents than younger ones had heard about ASHAs (76% versus 62% of boys, 92-94% versus 80% of girls). More girls than boys at each age were aware of ASHAs (80% versus 62% of younger adolescents and 92-94% versus 76% of older adolescents).

Under the RKSK, frontline workers are to provide information, counselling, contraceptive supplies, referrals and other services to adolescents. Nevertheless, findings relating to interactions with frontline workers in the year preceding the interview highlight their limited interaction with unmarried adolescents and boys in particular. Just 4-8 percent of boys had interacted with an ASHA or an AWW; corresponding percentages among unmarried girls were 12-17. In comparison, far more married girls had interacted with an ASHA (47%) or an AWW (54%). Overall, 7-14 percent of boys had received any service from one or other frontline worker, compared to 22-26 percent of unmarried girls, and 62 percent of married girls.

No differences were discerned between boys and unmarried girls residing in intervention and comparison areas on awareness of, and use of services from, frontline workers. However, more married girls in comparison than intervention areas reported interaction with an AWW (55% versus 49%) and from any frontline worker (63% versus 57%).

As far as receiving information or services from a doctor or nurse within the school or college premises in the year preceding the interview is concerned, overall, more younger than older adolescents (40-44% versus 14-26%) reported that they had done so. Gender differences were narrow, but more unmarried than married older girls reported such interaction (23% versus 14%). Where differences of five or more percentage points were observed, they show that those in comparison areas were more likely than their counterparts in intervention areas to have interacted with a health care provider (41% versus 31% among younger boys, 27% versus 22% among older boys, and 46% versus 28% among younger girls).

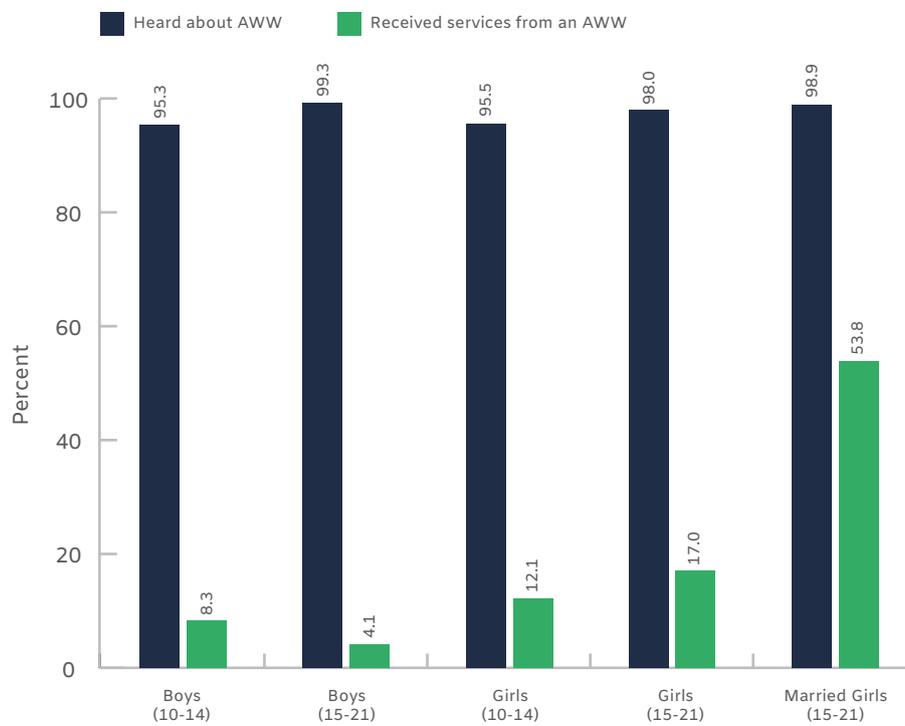
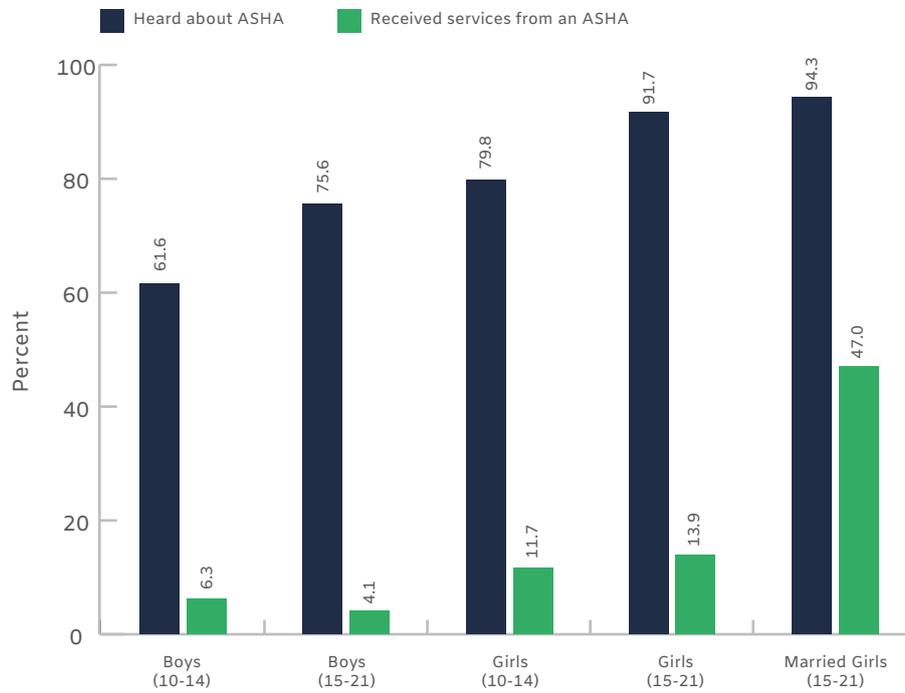
Table 11.10 Awareness of and interaction with frontline workers and interaction with health care providers in educational facilities

Percentage of adolescents reporting awareness of and receipt of services from frontline workers and access to information or services offered by health care providers in educational facilities, Jharkhand, 2018

Frontline workers	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Heard about ASHA	61.6	75.6	79.8	91.7	94.3
Heard about AWW	95.3	99.3	95.5	98.0	98.9
Received services from an ASHA	6.3	4.1	11.7	13.9	47.0
Received services from an AWW	8.3	4.1	12.1	17.0	53.8
Received services from a frontline worker (ASHA or AWW)	14.2	7.4	21.8	25.5	62.2
Number of respondents	3,473	3,150	4,104	3,237	1,999
Interaction with a health care provider in the school/college					
Obtained information or services from a doctor or nurse within school/college premises in the year preceding the interview	39.5	26.2	44.1	22.9	14.2
Number enrolled in a school or college at the time of the interview	3,218	1,916	3,756	1,929	139

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Figure 11.7 Interaction with frontline workers



We also sought to understand adolescents' readiness to interact with the health system in order to obtain sexual and reproductive health services such as contraception. To do so, we asked all older adolescents two questions about their comfort levels in seeking contraceptive supplies from a health care provider or from a medical shop, pharmacy or chemist. Findings, presented in Table 11.11 highlight that large proportions of adolescents would feel shy to approach a healthcare provider or medical shop for contraceptive supplies. With regard to seeking supplies from a health care provider, gender differences were mild: 35 percent of boys and 34-39 percent of girls reported discomfort about doing so; slightly fewer married than unmarried girls so reported (34% versus 39%).

Table 11.11 Shyness about accessing contraceptive supplies
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 reporting shyness about accessing contraceptive supplies from a health care provider or a medical shop, pharmacy or chemist, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of shyness about accessing contraceptive method	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married Girls (15-21)
Would feel shy to approach a healthcare provider for contraceptive supplies	35.2	39.3	34.0
Would feel shy to approach a chemist/pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptive supplies	29.7	43.1	41.6
Number aware of at least one contraceptive method	2,896	2,273	1,752

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

The picture was somewhat different when we asked about seeking contraceptive supplies from a medical shop, pharmacist or chemist. Now, boys were far less hesitant than were girls (30% versus 42-43%) and married girls were no less uncomfortable than unmarried girls.

Similar proportions of boys and girls from intervention and comparison areas reported discomfort about obtaining contraceptive supplies from these sources.





CHAPTER 12

RECOMMENDATIONS

This profile of the situation of adolescents in Jharkhand, drawn from a state representative survey of 41,393 households and 15,963 adolescents aged 10-21 residing in these households, has suggested that many adolescents are not equipped with the resources and assets necessary to make that a successful transition to adulthood. Findings provided in this report provide a broad picture of adolescents in the state, highlight wide inequities and call for special attention to the socially and economically marginalised. Findings provide implementing partners a glimpse into the kind of programmes that should be implemented in the state to arrive at positive outcomes for adolescents, and will serve as a benchmark through which to measure changes in adolescent life that result from partner programmes and other programmes over the next few years. This section recommends areas in need of programme attention to enhance the achievement of all of the markers of a successful transition to adulthood. We note the synergies between programmes, such that those focused on addressing one key marker of a successful transition to adulthood may, at the same time, affect others as well.

12.1 ENSURING THE COMPLETION OF A SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION FOR ALL WITH GOOD LEARNING OUTCOMES

Although school enrolment – entry into primary school -- was nearly universal, attainment of educational milestones varied. Indeed, despite the Right to Education Act, even among adolescents in ages 10–14, just two in three had completed Class 4, and just two in five adolescents aged 15-21 had completed a secondary school education (Class 10). However, being in school did not mean regular attendance and exposure to schooling. School attendance among those enrolled in school was compromised. Just 60-65 percent of the unmarried had attended school on the last day that school was in session preceding our interview, and just 55-63 percent had remained in school for the full day. School or college going married girls were most disadvantaged, with fewer than one-third attending school on the last day it was in session.

Learning outcomes were compromised too and gender disparities were pronounced. General knowledge was poor, even among those who had ever been to school – just 54 percent of boys versus 44 percent of girls in the ages 10-14, and 70 percent of boys versus 60 percent and 37 percent of unmarried and married girls aged 15-21, respectively, knew that Delhi is the capital of India. Numeracy skills, likewise, were compromised for many and gender differences were apparent, as were differences by marital status among older girls. Percentages of adolescents who could solve a division sum ranged from 43 to 31 among 10-14 year old boys and girls, respectively, from 53 to 43 among 15-21-year-old unmarried boys and girls, respectively, and down to 26 percent among married girls. Ability to read a Class 2 text fluently was also limited (47-50% among younger adolescents and married girls, and 70-73% among older boys and unmarried girls).

Premature school discontinuation and irregular school attendance were attributed to competing demands on adolescents' time, ranging from wage work to household chores. Additionally, a lack of interest in continuing their education, on the part of adolescents themselves and/or their parents, and school-related reasons such as failure in the last examination, poor quality of schools and limited physical accessibility. Among the married girls, marriage was a key reason for drop out, and household responsibilities a key reason for irregular attendance. These findings call for multipronged action to keep adolescents in school and improve learning outcomes at adolescent, system and parent (discussed in a later section) levels.

Conditional and unconditional cash transfer programmes

Poverty, and competing labour demands on adolescents' time, are a reality that must be countered. Globally, the provision of conditional and unconditional cash transfer schemes linked to keeping adolescents in school have shown great promise in achieving school continuation and regular attendance (see Glewwe and Muralidharan, 2015, for example). In India, recent state-wide programmes, such as Kanyashree Prakalpa in West Bengal, and the Mukhyamantri Kanya Utthan Yojana in Bihar have been implemented that aim to provide schooling based cash transfers, although their effects have not been evaluated. Other schemes, such as the bicycle scheme in Jharkhand, Bihar and elsewhere, have also shown promise – an evaluation

conducted in Bihar notes that it contributed to increasing age-appropriate enrolment in secondary schools among girls and even resulted in delayed age at marriage (Muralidharan and Prakash, 2013; Mitra and Moene, 2017).

Supplementary coaching

Programmes must also recognise that many adolescents may be first-generation students whose family environment may not be able to provide them the level of academic support that other students may access. Indeed, our findings showed a clear association between maternal education on the one hand, and such outcomes as adolescent secondary school completion and learning outcomes on the other. One successful strategy, adopted elsewhere and in small initiatives in India have included the provision of supplementary coaching to help students to overcome academic problems, for example by engaging informal teachers from the community for supplementary coaching (Banerjee, Cole, Duflo and Lunden, 2007; Lakshminarayan et al., 2013). Other successful pilot models in India have adapted curricula to children's learning levels and provide level-appropriate instead of grade-level learning materials and curricula (teaching at the right level, Banerjee et al., 2016).

At the same time, given that many adolescents who had never been enrolled in school or who had discontinued their education prematurely evinced interest in having a second chance at learning, learning opportunities for these groups must be created, and bridge courses offered to those who may, with some supplementary coaching, re-join the mainstream.

Make education interesting

Initiatives are needed that ensure that students do not lose interest in school and drop out for lack of interest; a more interactive mode of teaching, information and communication technology (ICT) based instruction (Banerjee et al., 2007; Linden, 2008), opportunities for livelihood skills training, sports coaching, and a future orientation in terms of livelihood options may be effective ways of stimulating interest and retaining adolescents within the education system.

Educational and career aspirations were high among surveyed adolescents. For example, almost three-quarters of unmarried adolescents aged 15-21 largely aspired to a college education, and hardly any (<1%) were content with less than a secondary school education. Many of these adolescents aspired for a professional career (army, engineer, doctor, nurse, teacher, banker, for example), yet, at the other extreme, more than one quarter of these older adolescents could not articulate a career aspiration. School- and community-based counselling and other opportunities must be made available to retain adolescents' interest in pursuing their dreams and guiding them about the subjects in which to focus in order to do so. At the same time, efforts must be extended to those whose aspirations seem unrealistic or who are unable to articulate an aspiration, to guide them into appropriate educational and career choices.

12.2 SUPPORTING THE SCHOOL-TO-WORK TRANSITION

India has invested hugely in skilling its population as clearly articulated in its National Policy on Skill Development and Entrepreneurship (Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, 2015). The National Skill Development Mission aims to skill or upgrade the skills of 150 million people, mostly youth, by 2022 (Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, n.d). Yet, making an age-appropriate transition to work eludes many adolescents in Jharkhand. Too many adolescents had been initiated into wage work in childhood, even below the legally permissible age, and at the same time, many older adolescents were neither engaged in wage work nor schooling nor attending a livelihood skill building programme (10% of boys, 17% of unmarried girls, 65% of married girls).

Eliminating child labour

Notwithstanding India's child labour laws that prohibit wage work among children under 14, child labour (wage work before age 14) was reported by 10 percent of boys and 17 percent of girls aged 10-13. Efforts must be made to dissuade premature entry into the workforce among the young, including enhancing community level awareness of child labour laws and enforcing these laws. The strategies recommended earlier to encourage and support disadvantaged parents, through cash transfers and interpersonal interaction, to keep children in school should go a long way in informing parents about the law and penalties for violation and for convincing them of the benefits of school over wage work for their children.

Skilling the next generation

Many adolescents were already in the work force, and had been engaged, in the 12 months preceding the interview, either in unpaid work on the family farm or business or tending family livestock (47-81%), or paid work (8-16% of younger adolescents, 26-34% of older girls, 44% of older boys). Wage work was largely seasonal, with relatively few working for the major part (6 months or more) of the year preceding the interview (6-13% of younger adolescents, 17-18% of older girls, and 36% of older boys), largely in agricultural labour or unskilled non-agricultural labour, and many older adolescents were seeking work at the time of the interview (37% of boys, 15-17% of girls). There is a serious concern that many adolescents are not employable – their literacy and numeracy skills are compromised, and many may not have the skills, knowledge and competencies that would allow them to secure work in the modern world.

Programmes must ensure a sound school-to-work transition. The success of such a transition depends hugely on the success of the school system in ensuring secondary school completion with appropriate learning outcomes, as well as on the extent of support to older adolescents, especially girls, in acquiring a marketable livelihood skill and mentorship in accessing placement thereafter. Comprehensive skills training and support programmes are needed that not only provide a vocational skill but also familiarise adolescents with marketable career options and provide the ‘softer,’ supportive activities that are found to lead to better outcomes, for example, life skills, preparing a CV, appearing for an interview, and presenting one’s self. Those trained need support in identifying available apprenticeship or employment opportunities for which they are eligible, as well as post-training placement and mentoring, as observed in several successful programmes in LMIC (Kluve et al., 2016), including one for girls in India (Jensen, 2012).

Girls, in particular, are in need of support - in accessing training opportunities, in overcoming family-level barriers to working outside the home, and in availing of apprenticeship or employment opportunities. Gatekeepers must be approached. Strategies must be explored that convey to parents the economic value and earning potential of girls, and change perceptions about the acceptability of enabling girls to earn outside the home. At the same time, industry must be sensitised to generate apprenticeship opportunities and more girl-friendly working conditions that are welcoming of girls.

12.3 BUILDING AGENCY, EGALITARIAN GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES, AND LIFE SKILLS AMONG GIRLS AND BOYS

Much needs to be done in order to ensure that all girls and boys exercise agency and make informed choices in their everyday lives. Findings have stressed the limited agency of girls, and the wide gender disparities in many indicators of agency, but also highlight that on some indicators, boys too did not exercise agency in their everyday lives. Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes was far from universal. Girls were more likely than boys, and older adolescents more likely than their younger counterparts to espouse egalitarian gender role attitudes.

These are disturbing findings. They argue for programmes such as gender transformative life skills education for boys and girls in and out of school (Haberland and Rogow, 2015), and comprehensive sexuality education for those in school (Patton et al., 2016). These programmes need to be contextualised to serve the needs of adolescents in Jharkhand. Programmes must be delivered that give adolescents the opportunity to gain exposure to new ideas about the world around them, that nurture their communication and negotiation skills, that build their confidence to exercise voice in demanding rights and entitlements, and that enable them to adopt new notions of masculinity and femininity and display an abhorrence of violence against women and girls in any form. At the same time, they must emphasise an understanding of human rights, skills to make informed decisions, critical thinking and a sense of self efficacy. For girls, whose limited mobility constrains their ability to form strong peer networks, programmes must offer the time and safe space in which to strengthen support systems. A number of programmes exist at state and national levels in India, including the Nehru Yuvak Kendra Sangathan’s (NYKS) that focuses on building the leadership skills of the young, the Scheme for Adolescent Girls (SAG) programme (previously known as the SABLA programme), that is intended to empower girls and the Adolescence Education Programme, implemented in some but not all states across India (UDAAN in Jharkhand) and the recently developed Ayushman Bharat curriculum intended to raise health promoting awareness, build egalitarian gender norms, and develop agency. Many civil society organisations have, moreover, implemented and tested programmes with promising findings, and their experiences may provide valuable lessons for replication and scale-up (see Jejeebhoy, 2017 for a

synthesis). The scale of these programmes has been limited, sometimes exposing those who demonstrate egalitarian practices and exercise agency to backlash (Dasra, 2019), emphasising the need for scale – at least to block or district level – so that a critical mass of transformed boys and girls is developed.

12.4 EQUIPPING ADOLESCENTS WITH INFORMATION AND SKILLS TO ENABLE A SAFE ENTRY INTO SEXUAL LIFE

Awareness about pregnancy and contraception was limited, and few adolescents aged 13-21 have been exposed to sexuality or family life education (4-7% of boys, 14-26% of girls). Large proportions of older boys and girls learned about sexual and reproductive health matters from the media (23-24%) and friends (65% of boys and 33-38% of girl), not always accurate sources of information. Almost three in five 13-14 year olds (58-59%) had never received information on these matters, and between one quarter and two fifths of adolescents (23-41%), irrespective of age, had never been informed about the physical changes they would experience during adolescence.

These findings, once again, reinforce the importance of providing comprehensive sexuality education to those in school, and/or gender transformative life skills education to adolescents both in and out of school. Comprehensive sexuality education has been widely recognised as a best practice for improving adolescent outcomes (see, for example, Patton et al., 2016). What is taught within the school system must be adapted and taught to those out-of-school as well. It is essential that programme content is bold and comprehensive. Content must, of course, be age-appropriate, but must start at an early age. Themes to be covered must include the physical and emotional changes taking place in adolescence, physical attraction, anxiety, stress, contraceptive options, safety and consent in sexual relations. Messaging must empower adolescents to ensure that entry into sexual life is informed, safe and wanted. This curriculum should also focus on developing their skills in negotiating safe sex, and in communicating with their partners on sexual and reproductive health matters, encourage adolescents to speak out and take action if they experience violence or sexual harassment in any form. The UDAAN programme in Jharkhand and the Adolescence Education Programmes most generally, provide an opportunity for imparting age-appropriate exposure to information on sexual and reproductive health and rights from an early age.

12.5 ENSURING THAT PREMARITAL SEXUAL RELATIONS, IF UNDERTAKEN, ARE SAFE AND WANTED

Findings have also documented the poor understanding that adolescents – even the married – have with regard to matters relating to pregnancy, contraception and sexually transmitted infection, including HIV/AIDS. For example, among younger adolescents, only 57 percent of boys and 43 percent of girls know that a woman cannot become pregnant after kissing or hugging a man. Even among 15-21 year olds, just over one quarter of the unmarried, and half of married girls know that a woman can become pregnant at first sex, just 60 percent of boys, 45 percent of married girls and 14 percent of unmarried girls have heard of condoms and know that one condom can be used just once, and just 4 percent and 18 percent of unmarried and married older girls know that a woman is most likely to become pregnant midway during her cycle. Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS related matters was also limited (reported by 15% percent of older boys, and 3-5% of older girls).

Romantic relations are increasingly practised among the young, and many do engage in sexual relations, with their romantic partner or others. For example, one-third of boys and married girls, and one-quarter of unmarried girls reported a romantic opposite-sex partner, and of these, one third of boys and married girls, and one in six unmarried girls reported sexual relations with this partner. Just a few adolescents had used any form of contraception (13-16%) at the time of their first sexual encounter with a romantic partner, and just nine percent had done so in all their sexual encounters with a romantic partner. Many girls reported that their first sexual encounter with their boyfriend had been characterised by pressure, threats, blackmail, false promises or physical force (50-56%), and several boys acknowledged that they had pressured or forced their girlfriend the first time (13%).

More generally, among the population of adolescents at large, pre-marital entry into sexual life was reported by 18 percent of boys, 16 percent of married girls, and nine percent of unmarried girls.

Access to contraception and HIV-related counselling and services in non-threatening ways, and to contraceptive supplies for the unmarried must be promoted, through the Rashtriya Kishor Swasthya Karyakram (RKSK) and other delivery mechanisms. The peer educator and group-based model advocated in the RKSK must also incorporate the provision of information, counselling and referrals for adolescents in need, and identify acceptable pathways through which supplies (condoms) can be accessed by the young. Additionally, this calls for intensive training and mentoring of peer educators in overcoming discomfort about imparting such services.

12.6 DELAYING MARRIAGE, AND ENSURING GIRLS' ENGAGEMENT IN MARRIAGE RELATED DECISIONS

Jharkhand has experienced a considerable decline in child marriage over the past decade, from 63 percent of girls aged 20-24 who were married in 2005-06 (IIPS and ICF, 2017) to 38 percent in 2015-16 (IIPS, 2017), and further to 33 percent of those aged 18-21 in our survey in 2018. Even so, one in three girls married in childhood (below age 18) and one in 20 married in very early adolescence (below age 15). That marriage was undertaken against their will is evident from findings that one percent or fewer girls wished to marry below age 18, and many expressed a desire to postpone marriage until after adolescence was crossed (84-87%). Also of concern, marriages were often arranged (82%), even without consulting adolescent girls themselves (27%). Few girls were familiar with their husband before marriage (37%) and most had met their husband for the first time at their wedding (58%). Dowry continues to be the norm with almost three in four married girls reporting dowry (74%) of married girls, reflecting hardly any change from the situation of 15-24 year olds in 2006 (70%, IIPS and Population Council, 2009). Much needs to be done to ensure that child marriage is eliminated and that young people enter into marriage with free and full consent. Initiatives to delay marriage and ensure informed choice consent in marriage decision are needed.

At adolescent level, many programmes have focused on building gender transformative life skills, that is, providing training on communication and negotiation skills, sharing information, creating safe spaces and developing support networks (Malhotra et al., 2011). These programmes must also incorporate messaging about the Prevention of Child Marriage Act, dowry laws, the health and other benefits of delaying marriage, and girls' right to prevent child marriage and to have a say in marriage related decisions. Available platforms, such as the SAG, the peer led and the AFHC components of the RKSK, and the expansion of responsibilities of frontline workers to include the young, must emphasise and empower girls to exercise their rights, and their voice in when and whom they marry. School level adolescence education programmes must convey these messages to both girls and boys.

At the same time, alternatives to child marriage must be provided to girls. Support for continuing in school, provision of livelihood training and employment opportunities before marriage. Evidence from elsewhere has noted the positive effects of conditional cash transfer schemes, and from India on the provision of bicycles, not only on keeping girls in school, but also, thereby, in delaying their marriage. Comprehensive skill building programmes have likewise found that such programmes succeed in empowering girls economically and also have an effect on delaying marriage (Jensen, 2012). Physical access to schools and training centres must be ensured, and those in authority must be mobilized to enable girls to overcome obstacles to their participation in training programmes and employment. Finally, girls (and boys) must have access to mechanisms through which those who are about to be married (or those whose sibling is about to be married) prematurely may seek the intervention of an authority figure, such as a teacher, a health care provider, or a panchayat member.

Parental and system level engagement are key, and are discussed in Sections 12.11 and 12.12.

12.7 PREVENTING UNMET NEED FOR CONTRACEPTION AND ADOLESCENT PREGNANCY

Pregnancy and childbearing follow closely on the heels of marriage. Indeed, among married girls aged 15-21, 56 percent had either a live birth or were pregnant for the first time. Many of them – 13 percent – had already experienced multiple live births, and pregnancy loss had been experienced by one in six (18%). Contraception was rarely practiced. Just 22 percent of married girls had practised contraception at any point in their married life, and modern contraception was reported by just 16 percent. Although at the time of marriage, almost half (49%) had wanted to postpone their first birth by two or more years, only 13 percent

had practised contraception to do so. Overall, at the time of the interview, more than two in five (43%) of married girls had an unmet need for contraception, that is, they wished to postpone their next pregnancy or limit childbearing altogether but were not using a contraceptive method to do so.

Programmes often assume that married girls face none of the system level constraints to accessing services that their sexually active unmarried counterparts face, and frontline workers assume that married girls wish to become pregnant as early as possible and do not therefore reach out to them with contraceptive counselling and supplies. These assumptions overlook the different challenges that married girls face, and the reality of their desire to postpone pregnancy. Many girls enter marriage un-informed about contraception, the health risks of an early pregnancy and the measures that must be taken to ensure a safe pregnancy and delivery. Additionally, they face the lack of freedom of movement to access a health facility for information or services, and lack the agency to make contraceptive decisions.

12.8 PROMOTING NO TOLERANCE FOR GENDER BASED VIOLENCE

Adolescents in Jharkhand grow up witnessing their father beating their mother (19-37%), and experiencing violence perpetrated by a parent (42-65%). As is well known, witnessing and experiencing violence from an early age normalises the practice. Our findings confirm this cycle. Relatively few grow up with an abhorrence of violence against women and girls; indeed, no more than 48-56 percent of older adolescents and 30-32 percent of younger adolescents rejected the acceptability of violence against women and girls. As many as 13 percent of younger girls had ever experienced non-contact harassment of a sexual nature; 2-3 percent of younger adolescents, five percent of older boys and 14 percent of older girls had experienced unwanted sexual touch. While three percent of older boys reported the perpetration of forced sex, including on their romantic partner/s, 3-5 percent of unmarried and married older girls reported the experience of forced sex. Large proportions of married girls had experienced physical (31%) and sexual (41%) violence, respectively, in marriage.

Attention must be paid to breaking this circle of violence. Life skills education and comprehensive sexuality education curricula must stress the importance of equitable gender relations at the sibling, peer, romantic partner and marital partner levels. It must also convey to adolescents the unacceptability of the violence they may have witnessed at home, and the importance of peaceful conflict resolution. For example, two programmes for boys successfully changed attitudes of boys through a mix of gender transformative life skills education and sports coaching to reinforce ideas of fairness, peaceful conflict resolution, and rejection of attitudes justifying violence against women and girls (Jejeebhoy et al., 2017a; 2017b; Das et al., 2012). Programmes for girls have provided safe spaces for girls to build solidarity and support systems, and a curriculum that includes information about protecting themselves against violence and taking action in case they experience it (CEDPA, 2006; UNFPA, 2018). Programmes are required that adapt, re-evaluate, and upscale these promising models.

12.9 MEETING MENTAL HEALTH NEEDS

Mental health and substance misuse are growing health concerns of adolescents, and these have been recognised in the national adolescent health programme (RKSK) as well as the National Mental Health Policy. Symptoms of mental disorders in Jharkhand were displayed by few boys of both age groups, and girls aged 10-14 (0.1-0.3%), however three percent of unmarried girls aged 15-21, and five percent of married girls displayed symptoms of moderate to severe depressive disorders during the two weeks prior to the interview. While not a single boy aged 13-14 had contemplated suicide, suicidal ideation was reported by one percent of older boys and girls aged 10-14, and three percent and six percent of unmarried and married girls aged 15-21, respectively. Substance misuse was reported largely by boys aged 15-21 (just 0-4% of those from other groups reported any substance use) – ranging from two percent who reported the consumption of drugs to 23 percent who reported alcohol consumption and 27 percent who reported tobacco consumption. Global evidence shows that life-skills and resilience training has a positive effect on mental health (Barry et al., 2013); small studies in India have incorporated components on dealing with anxiety and conflict in the course of life skills education (Srikala and Kumar, 2010), and used trained teachers and even volunteers in screening and providing counselling and referrals to adolescents in need (for example, Rajaram et al., 2012; Patel et al., 2010). The RKSK focus on the provision of counsellors in Adolescent Friendly Health Clinics who conduct outreach at school and community levels, may be an effective way of incorporating such prevention messages, as well as identifying, counselling and referring those at risk.

12.10 ADDRESSING THE PARTICULAR DISADVANTAGES EXPERIENCED BY MARRIED GIRLS

Findings have highlighted that of all adolescent groups, married girls are the most disadvantaged and vulnerable. They are less likely to be in school, have far worse learning outcomes than any other group, and are far more likely than other group to be engaged only in housework, that is, neither working nor in school nor engaged in a livelihood skills programme. Compared to adolescents of their age, they have less exposure to the internet or to social media, their freedom of movement is far more restricted, and fewer of them express self-efficacy or control money. Within marriage, husband-wife communication on sexual and reproductive matters is limited, many face violence perpetrated by their husband, several girls who had desired to delay their first pregnancy faced objections from their husband and family to use contraceptives, and many have an unmet need for contraception.

Promising interventions for married girls highlight such approaches as couple counselling, reaching other family members, home visits by health care workers and capacity building of health workers to address the needs of married young women (Sarkar et al., 2015) or encouraging couple communication on sensitive issues (contraception, for example), negotiation, and conflict management skills, but these models need to be scaled (Santhya, Haberland, Das, 2008; Pandey et al., 2016). The multifaceted vulnerabilities of married girls call for multi-pronged efforts that break their social isolation, expand their support networks, build their numeracy and literacy skills as well as their communication and negotiation skills, promote gender egalitarian attitudes, encourage access to livelihood training opportunities, enable them to make informed reproductive health choices, and inform them of their rights, including their options in case of marital violence. Where possible, husbands must also be reached with counselling, information, and peaceful conflict resolution skills.

12.11 ENGAGING PARENTS AND COMMUNITIES, AND IMPARTING NEW NOTIONS OF PARENTING

Findings have suggested that parents - both mothers and fathers - and senior family members play an important role in impeding a successful transition from adolescence to adulthood. So too do the social norms governing community level behaviours. Overcoming these barriers - in numerous dimensions of adolescent life - is therefore key.

Family life is characterised by gendered socialisation practices, with girls facing more disadvantages than boys. Decision-making is too often undertaken by parents on everyday matters pertaining to adolescents' life, as well as such key life decisions as school continuation and marriage. Communication between parents and adolescents, while it differs by topic, sex of the parent, and sex of the adolescent, is typically limited, particularly on sensitive topics such as physical maturation and reproductive processes. Many adolescents grow up witnessing and/or experiencing parental violence. As such, too many girls and some boys are excluded from life choices such as whom and when to marry, how much education to have, or what their employment options are, and too few are provided the information that will allow them to engage in safe and respectful sexual relations. In the educational arena, it is encouraging to note that almost all school and college going adolescents report that their parents encourage and support them to study at home (92-96%), and many studied at home for at least one hour daily (63-82%). Yet, parental interaction with the school was limited, and the limited priority placed by parents on schooling was often cited as a reason for premature school discontinuation or irregular school attendance.

Far more attention must be paid to changing parental attitudes and socialisation practices. Parents must be sensitised to prioritise the education of their sons and daughters, to recognise the potential of their daughters. They must be encouraged to allow their daughters (and sons) to take advantage of available opportunities and exercise their rights. A less authoritarian parenting style, with more open parent-child communication must be fostered, parental inhibitions about communicating openly with adolescents, particularly about sensitive matters, must be overcome. Programmes must convince parents to treat daughters and sons equally, giving both the same rights and opportunities for education, livelihood skill training and employment. They must, at the same time, sensitise parents and other stakeholders about the importance of engaging their daughters and sons in marriage related decisions and obtaining meaningful consent from them.

Parents must be familiarized with the rights and entitlements available to them and their children. Efforts must be made to inform parents about, for example, the RTE, the Prevention of Child Marriage Act (PCMA) and other Acts and their various requirements and the penalties for violating these laws. They must be informed about the health, livelihood skill building and school and college related entitlements for which adolescents are eligible, and supported through cumbersome application procedures that may deter enrolment. Socially and economically disadvantaged families, whose daughters are more likely than others to fail to attain education, employment or training, must receive special attention.

Traditional gender unequal norms must be tackled. For example, many parents who are willing to delay the marriage of their daughters or permit their unmarried daughters greater autonomy in life choices fear negative community reactions, and refrain from doing so. Influential members of the community, including religious and political leaders, must be mobilised, and must convey their support for delayed marriage practices. Positive role models and deviants – parents who have adopted new parenting practices without affecting the family reputation, whose daughter delayed her marriage without adverse repercussions, and girls whose parents have encouraged them to make informed life choices and who have achieved success in school or work -- must be identified and showcased as a way of allaying parental fears and encouraging behaviour change. At the same time, community-based leaders, teachers and frontline workers must be more proactive about identifying girls at risk of child marriage and taking steps to stop these marriages from taking place.

Unfortunately, models that focus on changing parenting practices are rare (see, for example, Pandey, Goyal and Sundaraman, 2009; Santhya et al., 2016 for promising pilots), although many have identified the need for more research on parental influences, and programmes that explore parenting support interventions (Patton et al., 2016; Banati, 2016). New models must be implemented that include the insertion of parenting components in the curriculum and content of existing gender-specific platforms in which men and women – including parents of children and adolescents – participate, for example, self-help groups of women, livelihood training activities in which men and women participate, and farmers' forums saving and loan forums that may be frequented by men. School management committee activities and parent-teacher meetings and other school-based interactions may also provide an effective platform. Efforts may be made through meetings mandated to be held by elected representatives (PRI members) (see, for example, Nirantar, 2015). Finally, strategies that have shown promise and appear feasible must be expanded. These include, for example, community rallies, distribution of pamphlets about the availability of Helplines and other issues related to child marriage and other social issues, public pledges in schools, and engagement of community and religious leaders in advocating for preventing child marriage, prioritising the education of girls and boys, and advocating greater autonomy for girls, as well as the employment of community level mechanisms such as Child Protection Committees and Gram Bal Sabhas (Santhya, 2019; UNFPA-UNICEF, 2017; Nirantar, 2015).

12.12 ENSURING WIDESPREAD AWARENESS AND USE OF ENTITLEMENTS

Although many programmes exist, not all adolescents know of the benefits to which they are entitled, and far fewer have actually accessed these entitlements. For example, although more than 90 percent of adolescents know about school-based entitlements such as scholarships and bicycles, far fewer eligible adolescents accessed these (32-51% of boys, 38-61% of girls). Other entitlements, for example, the sanitary napkin distribution scheme, anaemia testing and height and weight monitoring, adolescent friendly health clinics, are known far more erratically, and accessed by few (6-26% of girls had obtained sanitary napkins under the scheme, 3-11% were screened for anaemia, 6-25% and 14-56% had received IFA and deworming services, respectively). Special efforts must be made, through targeted campaigns and in partnership with public sector structures, that encourage adolescents - especially boys and the unmarried - and their gatekeepers, to overcome obstacles in accessing entitlements and services. In particular, programmes must be inclusive, and must ensure that the poorest and those from socially disadvantaged communities are not left out. Unfortunately, evidence of models that have succeeded in doing so are unavailable, and far more must be done to demonstrate what works to ensure that the most vulnerable are served.

12.13 ENGAGING AND REORIENTING THE WIDER SYSTEM TO ADDRESS THE NEEDS OF ALL ADOLESCENTS

In general, findings have emphasised that adolescents have limited access to the frontline workers who serve their communities. While most adolescents had heard about accredited social health activists, few had received health-related information or services from these workers. Awareness and use of Adolescent Friendly Health Clinics is limited. School related entitlements do not reach all eligible adolescents. Efforts to facilitate access to available livelihood skill building opportunities are limited. Key Acts affecting adolescents – RTE and PCMA, for example, are rarely invoked, and even awareness of support services and avenues for recourse, such as helplines and anonymous facilities for reporting violations, is poor.

At education level, a host of school level barriers were observed that must be overcome. Poor infrastructure and amenities, indifferent quality of teaching, failure in examinations, and, for girls, physical inaccessibility of schools are key school-level barriers identified by adolescents that must be corrected. While it may not be practical to have a secondary school in every village, it is important that efforts are made to ensure physical accessibility to schools, and the safety of adolescents, particularly girls. Frequent absenteeism of teachers, the absence of a female teacher, and poor quality teaching are deterrents that must be overcome; teacher training is needed that enables teachers to be more approachable to students, make classes more stimulating and adolescent friendly, and hold teachers accountable for the performance of their students (see, for example, Glewwe and Muralidharan, 2015). Efforts must be made to hold government accountable for improving school infrastructure as well as teacher quality. Teachers and SMC members must be made responsible for following up drop-outs and irregular students, and ensure interpersonal communication with parents so as to keep parents informed about their children's progress and advise them about future options for schooling and career that match the adolescent's aspirations and skills.

In the health area, it was only recently, since the introduction of the RKSK and the addition of "+A" to the RMNCH programme that the responsibilities of frontline workers were expanded to include the young. ASHAs are to serve as mentors to peer educators, and as the link between peer educators and the health system; they are also expected to provide information, counselling, supplies and referrals to boys and girls, irrespective of marital status. This expansion of responsibilities requires significant reorientation and sustained, supportive supervision of frontline workers, for which engagement between civil society organisations and government structures is essential. Reorientation is needed on several fronts: technical knowledge about physical maturation, the rights of the young, the unique constraints faced by girls and also boys in obtaining information and exercising informed choice, and so on; communication skills in conveying sensitive information in non-judgemental ways; overcoming their own inhibitions about communicating with boys, and providing information and counselling on sensitive topics to the unmarried; and recognising that girls and boys, the married and the unmarried have unique concerns and reaching each group may require somewhat different strategies. Frontline worker responsibilities must extend to providing information, supplies and referrals for adolescents, and linking adolescents with services to which they are entitled. For this, training and values clarification; appropriate job aids and supplies (sanitary pads and contraceptives, for example); and supportive supervision that mentors them to discharge this expanded role in an effective and non-judgemental way, are critical.

The health system must be sensitised, moreover, to recognise the particular constraints faced by married girls, and pay particular attention to their birth spacing and pregnancy-related needs. Frontline workers need to be trained and charged with the responsibility of ensuring that those who wish to postpone pregnancy are provided the means to do so, that married adolescents who have not yet experienced pregnancy receive information on contraception and other reproductive health matters and are also given contraceptive supplies. The misconception held by healthcare providers that married adolescents will not seek contraception until they have experienced one pregnancy needs to be corrected. Given girls' limited freedom of movement to seek healthcare, it is important, moreover, that health workers reach these girls—particularly those newly married and first time pregnant—in their homes. The potential for the engagement of civil society organisations in reaching and empowering married girls in these ways must be explored.

Addressing child marriage requires the engagement of law enforcement authorities including local police, as well as teachers, frontline workers, locally elected representatives and others in positions of authority. They must be sensitised about the breadth and nuances of the law, the right to marry with free and full consent, and their duty to take action to prevent child marriage and prosecute those who violate the law. Programmes have advocated a softer touch, such as sensitising the police and other administrative

authorities to take action in non-threatening ways, giving warnings rather than arrests in cases of impending marriages, extracting oaths from parents who are known to be planning an underage marriage, making phone numbers of local authorities available, or disseminating information about child helplines run by the state or NGOs (Nirantar, 2015). At the same time, platforms for anonymous reporting of child marriages must be established and publicised.

12.14 EXPLORING THE USE OF THE MEDIA IN INFORMING ADOLESCENTS AND DEVELOPING EGALITARIAN GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES

Many adolescents were exposed to the media, but exposure was gendered. For example, although the majority were exposed to television, more boys than girls were (91-93% versus 72-85%). More boys than girls in each age group reported use of the internet (29% versus 16% of younger adolescents; 71% versus 33% and 18% among older boys, unmarried girls, married girls) and of social media (20% versus 10% of younger adolescents; 64% versus 28% and 18% among older boys, unmarried girls and married girls). While considerable proportions had access to mobile phones (83-97% of boys, 81-94% of girls), more boys than girls owned their own mobile phone (6% versus 1% of younger adolescents; 64% versus 18-35%) as opposed to occasionally accessing a family member's phone.

These findings suggest that media can play an important role in exposing adolescents to the world around them, to health-promoting practices, and to new notions of masculinity and femininity. However, different approaches may be needed for each group. While television has a universal appeal among both boys and girls, it may remain the only medium through which to reach girls. In contrast, it is boys who access information transmitted through mobile phones, the internet and social media. Given the rapid pace of change, efforts are required to track the reach of existing and new media, devise programmes and messages that recognise gender discrepancies in access, reach boys and girls through media they are most likely to use, and evaluate the retention of these messages.

12.15 EXPANDING THE EVIDENCE

While the evidence on the markers of a successful transition to adulthood has expanded in recent decades, gaps do remain that must be addressed. For example, research is needed to explore how best to ensure school completion with good learning outcomes and understand obstacles to accessing skilling and productive employment opportunities. In the health arena, far more attention must be paid to understanding mental health needs, alcohol and substance abuse patterns, and the continued experience and perpetration of violence. Research is needed to better understand trends in pre-marital sexual behaviour, abortion-seeking pathways and obstacles among unmarried girls, as well as menstrual hygiene and management practices and their consequences for adolescent reproductive health and adolescent life. Parental perspectives and the obstacles they face must be far better understood.

Much more evidence is needed that addresses what works (see Jejeebhoy 2017). Programme evaluation must be rigorous. To understand the complexities and challenges of adolescent programming, we need well-designed evaluations that use robust counterfactuals, as well as process documentation that tracks implementation challenges. Measurement issues also arise. It is very likely that programmes aiming to influence one outcome (for example schooling) will affect other dimensions of adolescent life as well (for example marriage and childbearing), and that effects of programmes focused on adolescence will show results many years in the future. However, programme evaluations have rarely made efforts to understand these multifaceted and/or longer-term programme effects. Finally, translating what works in successful NGO pilots into scaled-up public sector programmes remains one of the most significant challenges in evidence-informed programming for adolescents and projects need to pay attention to potential scalability from the time they are conceptualised, rather than at their conclusion, and must conclude with a roadmap of what is feasible and what is effective. Innovative pilots that are implemented with the engagement of government agencies are of course ideal, with potential for replicating promising lessons at scale. The Dasra 10to19 Collaborative's partners are well placed to make a contribution in this direction.





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APPENDIX TABLES

CHAPTER 3

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Table 3.1 Educational attainment and current educational status of boys and girls aged 10-21, Jharkhand
Percent distribution of adolescents by years of schooling successfully completed, median years of schooling, and percentage currently in school, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Schooling status	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Completed years of schooling					
None ¹	0.9	2.1	1.6	3.7	11.5
1-4	30.2	2.9	28.2	2.8	6.4
5-7	56.0	14.1	56.3	12.3	18.1
8-9	12.9	42.2	13.8	41.2	34.7
10-11	0.0	22.8	0.2	23.3	17.8
12 and above	0.0	16.0	0.0	16.7	11.6
Median years of schooling	5	9	6	9	8
Current schooling status					
Currently in school	93.2	59.7	92.2	61.1	7.6
Attending distance education programmes	0.0	1.21	0.0	0.7	1.4
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Completed years of schooling					
None ¹	0.9	1.6	2.1	3.4	12.3
1-4	32.8	2.5	30.8	2.3	7.2
5-7	53.2	11.9	55.2	10.6	15.6
8-9	13.2	41.8	11.7	39.9	26.2
10-11	0.0	24.1	0.1	25.9	19.2
12 and above	0.0	18.1	0.0	17.9	19.6
Median years of schooling	5	9	5	9	9
Current schooling status					
Currently in school	93.5	64.1	93.3	63.0	6.5
Attending distance education programmes	0.2	1.0	0.0	2.8	2.6
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 3.5 Desire to enrol or re-enrol in school

Percentage of adolescents who had never enrolled in school or had discontinued their education who are prepared to enrol or re-enrol in school and reasons for lack of desire to do so, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Desire to enrol or re-enrol	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Desire to get enrolled or get re-enrolled					
Desire to get enrolled in school	(32.5)	12.3	13.3	9.6	4.2
Number who were never enrolled in school	33	63	56	82	181
Desire to return to school	55.4	41.6	61.1	54.9	35.5
Number who had discontinued their education before completing Class 12	160	762	199	748	1,103
Reasons for not wanting to get enrolled or re-enrolled					
Scared	11.3	0.2	8.2	2.2	0.4
Doesn't want to/ not interested	42.0	25.1	43.2	38.5	35.3
Parents won't allow	1.9	0.0	15.8	5.7	2.4
Too old	5.0	10.5	6.6	13.2	17.1
Shy or embarrassed	14.6	10.0	4.2	18.4	21.9
Already working	12.9	49.1	3.6	10.0	3.1
No reason/don't know	10.8	3.6	9.1	7.2	7.8
Other	1.7	1.4	9.2	4.8	12.0
Number never been to school or not completed Class 12 and do not wish to return to school	92	528	106	374	847
Comparison (percent)					
Desire to get enrolled or get re-enrolled					
Desire to get enrolled in school	-	-	(23.7)	(6.0)	6.3
Number who were never enrolled in school	5	16	29	36	72
Desire to return to school	69.4	46.5	62.6	65.9	40.5
Number who had discontinued their education before completing Class 12	56	236	64	264	314
Reasons for not wanting to get enrolled or re-enrolled					
Scared	-	0.0	(6.7)	3.5	0.0
Doesn't want to/ not interested	-	28.3	(45.9)	45.5	44.0
Parents won't allow	-	1.5	(7.5)	6.5	2.7
Too old-	-	10.8	(2.2)	7.4	14.6
Shy or embarrassed	-	6.2	(13.0)	17.5	23.0
Already working	-	37.8	(6.6)	3.7	2.9
No reason/don't know	-	12.6	(14.9)	7.7	4.6
Other	-	2.9	(3.3)	8.3	8.3
Number never been to school or not completed Class 12 and do not wish to return to school	19	130	35	111	239

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases.

Table 3.6 School attendance in the week preceding the interview
Percentage of adolescents who were attending school at the time of the interview by school attendance in the week prior to the interview¹ and percentage of adolescents who missed class in the week prior to the interview by reasons for absence, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of regularity of school attendance	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
School attendance in the week preceding the interview¹					
Attended all days	63.1	72.4	64.4	70.9	56.9
• Attended all days and regular	60.2	70.6	59.5	69.0	56.9
• Attended all days but irregular	2.9	1.7	4.9	2.0	0.0
Missed a day	9.3	3.8	10.2	5.7	1.0
• But attended full day	0.8	0.4	2.1	0.5	0.0
• Did not attend full day	8.5	3.4	8.1	5.2	1.0
Missed a few days	20.3	10.9	18.5	12.3	4.9
• But attended full day	18.1	9.2	14.7	8.3	4.9
• Did not attend full day	2.2	1.7	3.8	4.0	0.0
Missed all days	7.3	12.9	6.9	11.1	37.2
Number currently in school/college²	2,349	1,407	2,664	1,358	106
Comparison (percent)					
School attendance in the week preceding the interview¹					
Attended all days	62.9	58.5	59.1	64.8	(24.6)
• Attended all days and regular	59.5	56.8	53.9	62.2	(24.6)
• Attended all days but irregular	3.4	1.7	5.3	2.6	(0.0)
Missed a day	10.3	3.6	10.5	4.1	(0.0)
• But attended full day	2.0	1.1	2.1	0.6	(0.0)
• Did not attend full day	8.3	2.4	8.4	3.5	(0.0)
Missed a few days	21.4	17.1	22.2	17.0	(0.0)
• But attended full day	18.5	14.6	17.8	12.6	(0.0)
• Did not attend full day	2.9	2.5	4.4	4.5	(0.0)
Missed all days	5.4	20.9	8.2	14.1	(75.4)
Number currently in school/college²	869	509	1,092	571	33

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. ¹Those who were interviewed during their school holidays and hence reported that school was not in session were asked to recall the week prior to the break. ²Excludes those who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of the interview.

Table 3.7 Reasons for irregular school attendance
Percentage of adolescents who missed class in the week prior to the interview by reasons for absence, according to intervention project status, Jharkhand, 2018

Reasons for irregularity	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Lack of affordability and competing demands on adolescent's time					
Required for household work, tending livestock, care of siblings, children	13.4	15.8	23.4	18.1	(25.1)
Required for work on family farm/business	13.7	21.5	7.0	6.8	(10.4)
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	(0.0)
Couldn't afford to pay school fees	1.1	0.2	0.5	1.3	(0.0)
Family function	15.5	12.1	19.4	10.4	(12.2)
Attitudes of adolescents					
Respondent did not feel like going	18.1	8.1	16.6	11.1	(9.1)
School-related reasons					
Punishment/harassment by teacher	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	(0.0)
Poor quality of teaching/teacher absenteeism	5.4	9.2	3.6	9.8	(12.2)
Bullying by other students	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	(0.0)
No transportation/ no one to escort respondent	2.1	6.3	2.7	15.3	(2.8)
No toilet	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	(0.0)
Health-related reasons					
Respondent's illness	22.4	10.6	17.5	16.5	(4.3)
Illness or death of a family member	1.6	2.7	5.4	3.9	(0.0)
Monthly periods	NA	NA	0.2	0.2	(0.0)
Other reasons¹					
Bad weather	4.1	2.2	3.2	4.2	(0.0)
Taking private tuitions during school time	2.0	4.2	0.6	1.8	(4.7)
Marriage, pregnancy	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	(8.6)
Got late because school is far away	5.0	1.6	4.1	3.0	(3.9)
Did not have school uniform	0.3	0.8	0.8	0.8	(0.0)
Other	3.3	2.8	3.3	2.3	(7.4)
Number who were absent at least one day in the week prior to the interview	860	415	1,039	380	43
Comparison (percent)					
Lack of affordability and competing demands on adolescent's time					
Required for household work, tending livestock, care of siblings, children	13.6	9.4	23.9	14.4	-
Required for work on family farm/business	14.2	28.7	9.2	12.0	-
Required for outside work for payment in cash/kind	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	-
Couldn't afford to pay school fees	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.3	-
Family function	9.8	1.9	14.3	6.6	-

Reasons for irregularity	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Attitudes of adolescents					
Respondent did not feel like going	17.9	13.9	19.4	13.1	-
School-related reasons					
Punishment/harassment by teacher	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.0	-
Poor quality of teaching/teacher absenteeism	5.4	18.6	4.2	11.2	-
Bullying by other students	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	-
No transportation/ no one to escort respondent	1.8	5.2	2.1	11.2	-
No toilet	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	-
Health-related reasons					
Respondent's illness	23.2	13.3	22.9	14.1	-
Illness or death of a family member	5.3	1.1	5.2	2.4	-
Monthly periods	NA	NA	0.5	0.5	-
Other reasons¹					
Bad weather	0.9	1.3	0.6	0.7	-
Taking private tuitions during school time	1.7	9.0	1.3	7.3	-
Marriage, pregnancy	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-
Got late because school is far away	5.9	3.7	2.4	5.7	-
Did not have school uniform	1.7	0.3	1.3	0.0	-
Other	5.3	3.7	3.3	3.3	-
Number who were absent at least one day in the week prior to the interview	340	237	466	239	23

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. ¹recoded from textual responses if respondent provided reasons not listed.

Table 3.8 Homework time and parental engagement in adolescents' schooling
Percent distribution of adolescents who were enrolled in school or college at the time of the interview by time spent daily in homework, and parent's interaction with the education facility and parental encouragement of adolescents' education, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Schooling status	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Time spent daily in homework					
Less than half an hour/don't do	15.7	10.4	18.0	13.4	24.5
Between half an hour and one hour	24.8	11.7	25.5	12.3	15.6
One to two hours	36.2	27.2	34.2	28.8	25.2
More than 2 hours	23.4	50.8	22.3	45.6	34.7
Times a parent came to school in last 6 months					
0	48.1	67.8	45.3	60.0	73.7
1	20.0	14.1	20.2	17.0	9.8
2	16.9	11.3	19.4	13.0	9.7
3+	15.0	6.8	15.2	10.0	6.8
Parents encourage respondent to study					
Yes	95.1	93.6	94.6	93.9	NA
No	4.7	6.3	5.2	5.2	NA
Can't say	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.0	NA
Number of respondents currently in school	2,349	1,407	2,664	1,358	106
Comparison (percent)					
Time spent daily in homework					
Less than half an hour/don't do	13.6	9.5	14.7	6.6	(25.0)
Between half an hour and one hour	23.5	15.7	21.1	10.2	(12.1)
One to two hours	36.5	24.8	33.9	30.9	(37.8)
More than 2 hours	26.4	50.0	30.2	52.4	(25.1)
Times a parent came to school in last 6 months					
0	50.3	75.6	42.4	58.6	(74.5)
1	16.8	9.8	17.1	14.5	(15.0)
2	15.6	9.9	23.1	14.6	(2.3)
3+	17.3	4.8	17.5	12.3	(8.3)
Parents encourage respondent to study					
Yes	95.5	91.5	94.6	96.5	NA
No	4.4	8.0	5.2	3.5	NA
Can't say	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.0	NA
Number of respondents currently in school	869	509	1,092	571	33

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. NA: Not applicable.

Table 3.9 School/college type, amenities available in educational facilities
Percentage of adolescents currently enrolled in school or college by characteristics of educational facility in which they were enrolled at the time of the interview or at the time of discontinuing their education, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Facility characteristics	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Public or private school					
Government	73.5	79.4	80.4	80.1	91.7
Private	26.4	20.5	19.4	19.8	8.0
Don't know	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3
Available amenities					
Drinking water	94.7	95.4	95.4	95.8	97.1
Toilet facility in working condition	76.2	77.9	85.7	87.3	84.7
Separate toilet facility for girls	NA	NA	79.9	83.1	79.3
Playground	85.2	84.4	87.8	93.0	91.9
Library	40.5	60.2	56.4	73.6	60.9
All of the above	31.4	46.7	45.5	61.2	52.2
Number currently enrolled in school/college¹	2,509	2,259	2,863	2,193	1,301
Comparison (percent)					
Public or private school					
Government	62.0	70.3	71.4	69.8	78.9
Private	38.0	29.7	28.7	30.0	20.9
Don't know	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2
Available amenities					
Drinking water	98.0	96.4	96.7	96.7	98.2
Toilet facility in working condition	80.5	78.1	87.6	90.9	81.3
Separate toilet facility for girls	NA	NA	83.4	86.8	72.7
Playground	83.1	82.0	88.7	92.2	91.7
Library	41.3	57.2	56.4	72.1	57.3
All of the above	34.2	42.1	45.8	60.0	44.8
Number currently enrolled in school/college¹	925	777	1,156	878	412

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. ¹Excludes those who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of the interview.

Table 3.10 Private tuition**Percentage of adolescents currently enrolled in a school/college¹ who had taken private tuition in the month prior to the interview by intervention status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Having private tuition	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Yes	42.3	43.3	35.7	31.1	16.6
No	57.7	56.7	64.3	68.9	83.4
Number of respondents	2,349	1,407	2,664	1,358	106
Comparison (percent)					
Yes	53.0	49.3	50.7	49.6	(10.2)
No	47.0	50.7	49.3	50.4	(89.8)
Number of respondents	869	509	1,092	571	33

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. ¹Excludes those who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of the interview.

Table 3.11 Educational aspirations**Percentage of adolescents currently enrolled in school/college by level of education they aspire to achieve, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Level of education adolescents aspire to achieve	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Less than secondary education (<Class 10)	4.0	0.2	3.5	0.2	0.0
Secondary education (Classes 10-11)	22.4	4.6	27.6	5.6	4.5
Higher secondary education (Class 12)	16.9	11.6	19.1	15.2	11.0
College (Classes 13-15)	18.7	38.3	18.6	42.6	49.2
Post grad (Class 17+) or professional degree (MBBS, B.Ed, engineer, technical)	9.3	32.9	6.8	27.3	28.1
Don't know	28.7	12.4	24.5	9.1	7.2
Number pursuing their education in school or college¹	2,349	1,407	2,664	1,358	106
Comparison (percent)					
Less than secondary education (<Class 10)	3.1	0.3	5.1	0.3	(0.0)
Secondary education (Classes 10-11)	20.7	4.5	23.1	4.8	(3.7)
Higher secondary education (Class 12)	15.3	16.3	19.8	13.9	(12.0)
College (Classes 13-15)	26.5	42.8	20.9	41.1	(60.6)
Post grad (Class 17+) or professional degree (MBBS, B.Ed, engineer, technical)	13.7	29.5	9.4	30.6	(17.1)
Don't know	20.7	6.7	21.8	9.4	(6.7)
Number pursuing their education in school or college¹	869	509	1,092	571	33

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. ¹The table above excludes those who were pursuing their education through distance education courses at the time of the interview.

Table 3.12 Awareness of entitlements from school**Percentage of eligible adolescents reporting awareness of selected entitlements from school, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Entitlements	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Free uniforms/ money to buy uniforms	99.0	100.0	99.7	100.0	-
Free textbooks	99.1	98.8	99.5	99.2	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	1,447	80	1,824	96	2
Scholarships	99.4	97.1	99.0	97.5	98.1
Free bicycle/money to buy bicycle	97.3	99.0	97.9	99.7	98.5
Number eligible to receive the entitlement²	229	1,238	287	1,213	580
Comparison (percent)					
Free uniforms/ money to buy uniforms	99.4	(100.0)	99.6	(100.0)	-
Free textbooks	98.4	(100.0)	99.9	(100.0)	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	455	27	696	28	1
Scholarships	97.7	98.6	99.1	97.9	97.3
Free bicycle/money to buy bicycle	98.3	98.4	97.9	98.6	100.0
Number eligible to receive the entitlement²	75	419	75	493	159

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on <25 or fewer unweighted numbers. -Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. ¹Number of adolescents enrolled in Classes 1-8 at the time of the interview or completed Classes 1-8 in the year preceding the interview in a government school. ²Number of adolescents completed Class 8 and currently in Class 9 or completed at least Class 9 irrespective of whether still studying in the years preceding the interview in a government school.

Table 3.13 Reach of entitlements from school
Percentage of eligible adolescents who received various schooling-related entitlements, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Entitlements	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Free uniforms/ money to buy uniforms	91.0	88.7	95.3	94.1	-
Free textbooks	95.6	94.4	97.2	94.6	-
Midday meal on last day respondent attended school	94.9	91.1	92.9	86.4	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	1,447	80	1,824	96	2
Scholarships	65.8	38.8	63.6	46.4	41.9
Free bicycle/money to buy bicycle	47.8	43.1	53.1	51.1	62.4
Number eligible to receive the entitlement²	229	1,238	287	1,213	580
Comparison (percent)					
Free uniforms/ money to buy uniforms	93.0	(82.7)	96.3	(93.5)	-
Free textbooks	95.2	(90.6)	98.8	(97.9)	-
Midday meal on last day respondent attended school	90.9	(82.5)	90.1	(93.7)	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	455	27	696	28	1
Scholarships	56.5	31.2	59.9	39.3	39.4
Free bicycle/money to buy bicycle	51.4	32.6	34.8	37.0	58.6
Number eligible to receive the entitlement²	75	419	75	493	159

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. ¹Number of adolescents enrolled in Classes 1-8 at the time of the interview or completed Classes 1-8 in the year preceding the interview in a government school. ²Number of adolescents completed Class 8 and currently in Class 9 or completed at least Class 9 irrespective of whether still studying in the years preceding the interview in a government school.

Table 3.14 Awareness of School Management Committees (SMC) and Bal Sansad, and participation in and contact with these facilities

Percentage of adolescents attending primary school reporting awareness of School Management Committees and the Bal Sansad, and contact with the SMC and participation in the Bal Sansad programme, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Entitlements	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
SMC					
Heard about SMC	13.6	15.1	17.7	23	-
Knows someone who is a member	9.0	5.2	9.8	14.5	-
SMC member came home	2.5	2.8	3.7	2.9	-
Bal Sansad					
Aware of Bal Sansad	70.8	80.5	69.6	76.2	-
Participated in Bal Sansad	21.5	26.6	19.7	22.3	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	1,447	80	1,824	96	2
Comparison (percent)					
SMC					
Heard about SMC	14.6	(23.8)	13.3	(23.0)	-
Knows someone who is a member	9.3	(19.3)	7.2	(8.7)	-
SMC member came home	2.6	(10.0)	3.7	(0.0)	-
Bal Sansad					
Aware of Bal Sansad	67.6	(70.0)	72.6	(93.9)	-
Participated in Bal Sansad	25.7	(16.0)	22.1	(17.5)	-
Number eligible to receive the entitlement¹	455	27	696	29	1

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. ¹Number of adolescents who were enrolled in Classes 1-8 at the time of the interview in a government school.

Table 3.15 Literacy and numeracy levels

Percentage distribution of adolescents who were ever enrolled in school by levels of literacy and numeracy, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Literacy and numeracy levels	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Literacy levels					
Can read Class 2 text (story)	45.6	68.0	46.5	66.8	45.1
Can read Class 1 text (paragraph) but not story	15.4	12.5	13.8	11.2	11.4
Can read words but not para	13.0	5.6	10.5	6.0	11.6
Can read letters but not words	18.9	9.6	21.4	10.6	20.8
Cannot read even letters	7.1	4.2	7.9	8.5	11.2
Numeracy levels					
Can solve a division problem	33.3	47.8	25.6	35.1	18.1
Can solve a subtraction problem but not division	21.3	17.8	20.9	18.8	19.6
Can recognise double-digit numbers but not subtraction	32.1	31.1	27.8	32.9	40.6
Can recognise single-digit numbers but not double digit	11.6	2.5	23.5	11.7	19.7
Cannot recognise even single-digit numbers	1.8	0.9	2.2	1.5	2.0
Number ever enrolled	2,509	2,287	2,863	2,210	1,323
Comparison (percent)					
Literacy levels					
Can read Class 2 text (story)	50.0	73.6	47.6	70.0	50.8
Can read Class 1 text (paragraph) but not story	17.6	8.7	15.9	11.5	12.6
Can read words but not para	9.5	5.3	9.7	5.1	9.2
Can read letters but not words	17.4	8.8	19.6	9.8	16.5
Cannot read even letters	5.5	3.7	7.2	3.6	11.0
Numeracy levels					
Can solve a division problem	44.1	54.6	31.9	43.8	27.0
Can solve a subtraction problem but not division	21.3	16.2	20.3	19.7	14.9
Can recognise double-digit numbers but not subtraction	26.3	25.7	25.8	26.8	38.6
Can recognise single-digit numbers but not double digit	7.6	3.3	19.5	8.5	16.7
Cannot recognise even single-digit numbers	0.8	0.2	2.6	1.1	2.9
Number ever enrolled	926	784	1,156	909	423

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 3.16 General knowledge levels

Percentage distribution of adolescents who were ever enrolled in school by basic general knowledge levels, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

General knowledge levels	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
What is the capital of India					
Delhi	50.0	68.1	37.7	55.4	30.9
Other	13.9	9.5	20.8	17.1	20.3
Don't know	36.1	22.4	41.5	27.5	48.8
What is state of residence					
Jharkhand	70.9	87.4	67.4	82.2	72.5
Other	8.3	4.2	12.2	7.9	9.8
Don't know	20.8	8.3	20.4	9.9	17.7
Knows at least one state neighbouring their own					
Mentions Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, Uttar Pradesh or West Bengal	23.9	54.7	15.3	33.1	19.7
Other	13.9	11.3	16.8	18.4	17.8
Don't know	62.3	34.0	67.9	48.5	62.6
Number ever enrolled	2,509	2,287	2,863	2,210	1,323
Comparison (percent)					
What is the capital of India					
Delhi	54.9	70.0	45.1	60.1	37.8
Other	10.4	9.4	18.7	14.4	21.3
Don't know	34.7	20.7	36.3	25.6	40.9
What is state of residence					
Jharkhand	77.3	92.3	70.5	85.6	73.6
Other	8.5	3.0	11.2	8.0	8.6
Don't know	14.2	4.8	18.3	6.3	17.8
Knows at least one state neighbouring their own					
Mentions Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, Uttar Pradesh or West Bengal	32.4	64.1	17.9	40.5	22.5
Other	13.6	8.0	18.9	18.1	16.6
Don't know	54.0	27.9	63.3	41.4	60.9
Number ever enrolled	926	784	1,156	909	423

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 3.17 Practical numeracy levels

Percentage distribution of adolescents who were ever enrolled in school by ability to perform practical calculations, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

General knowledge levels	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Can add 5+20+100+2000					
Right	69.1	86.9	50.0	69.1	64.7
Wrong	20.6	10.8	29.1	22.8	23.5
Don't know	10.4	2.3	20.9	8.1	11.9
Can understand weights					
2 kg	38.0	64.9	18.4	37.1	26.6
Answer only in grams	5.9	4.3	6.2	6.0	5.3
Other	42.9	26.4	43.2	39.7	47.2
Don't know	13.2	4.5	32.2	17.2	20.9
Can do comparison for shopping (Shop¹)					
Yes	50.5	60.8	34.7	42.8	28.8
No	49.5	39.2	65.3	57.2	71.2
Number ever enrolled	2,509	2,287	2,863	2,210	1,323
Comparison (percent)					
Can add 5+20+100+2000					
Right	73.9	85.5	52.2	75.0	64.8
Wrong	18.5	12.5	31.1	19.2	22.1
Don't know	7.6	2.1	16.7	5.9	13.1
Can understand weights					
2 kg	42.1	68.8	19.2	43.1	29.8
Answer only in grams	6.9	5.1	7.4	5.3	6.1
Other	39.2	22.0	43.1	36.8	43.8
Don't know	11.8	4.1	30.2	14.9	20.3
Can do comparison for shopping (Shop¹)					
Yes	40.0	56.7	39.2	52.3	30.3
No	60.0	43.4	60.8	47.7	69.8
Number ever enrolled	926	784	1,156	909	423

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. The respondent was given a card with pictures of 2 shops selling an indexical set of books. Shop 1 sold each book separately, and Shop 2 showed a special "sale" rate for all five books together; Shop 1 was shown to charge less (Rs. 270) than Shop 2. The respondent was asked to indicate the shop from which he/she would prefer to make the purchase, and for those who indicated Shop 1, the amount they would have to pay.



CHAPTER 4

ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, CAREER ASPIRATIONS, LIVELIHOOD SKILLS TRAINING, ACTIVITY STATUS AND MIGRATION

Table 4.1 Economic activity

Percentage of adolescents who had ever worked and who had worked in the last 12 months, and percent distribution of adolescents who had been engaged in paid work in the last 12 months by duration of work and main occupation, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Economic activity	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Ever worked					
Paid work	14.1	52.8	32.7	50.9	48.9
Unpaid work	72.4	86.4	58.7	64.9	68.1
Either paid or unpaid work	73.1	91.8	63.2	73.9	76.7
Ever worked in the 12 months preceding the interview					
Paid work	11.0	46.4	28.6	45.0	35.5
Unpaid work	69.1	84.5	55.4	60.8	57.1
Either paid or unpaid work	69.9	89.7	59.8	69.5	65.0
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Duration of paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview					
Most of the year (6 months or more)	4.6	35.6	7.1	19.6	25.8
Part of the year (3–5 months)	6.9	22.9	5.4	11.6	13.7
Rarely (less than 3 months)*	88.6	41.5	87.5	68.8	60.5
Main occupation (paid work)					
Agricultural labour	61.5	18.5	90.0	74.2	67.1
Unskilled non-agricultural labour	33.8	56.6	2.3	6.8	8.4
Administrative/managerial/clerical	1.1	4.5	0.2	0.7	0.6
Skilled labour	1.4	14.5	6.8	17.9	20.4
Business	1.1	3.3	0.0	0.2	0.6
Others	1.1	2.4	0.6	0.2	2.9
DK/Missing	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1
Number engaged in paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview	244	1,043	696	931	521
Child labour					
Started working for pay before age 14	12.9	NA	29.8	NA	NA
Number of adolescents aged 10-13	2,122	NA	2,359	NA	NA
Employment seeking					
Currently seeking a job for pay	NA	34.7	NA	16.9	11.3
Number of respondents	NA	2,350	NA	2,292	1,504

Economic activity	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Comparison (percent)					
Ever worked					
Paid work	11.8	47.2	17.2	37.5	39.7
Unpaid work	65.2	82.8	48.4	52.8	66.8
Either paid or unpaid work	66.6	88.7	51.1	63.9	73.5
Ever worked in the 12 months preceding the interview					
Paid work	7.5	43.4	13.9	32.7	24.2
Unpaid work	62.0	80.0	45.4	49.5	52.7
Either paid or unpaid work	63.5	86.2	47.1	59.3	57.9
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Duration of paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview					
Most of the year (6 months or more)	14.8	36.0	5.5	17.6	15.4
Part of the year (3–5 months)	9.9	22.9	7.1	11.3	19.8
Rarely (less than 3 months)*	75.2	41.1	87.4	71.1	64.8
Main occupation (paid work)					
Agricultural labour	20.5	10.8	85.2	61.4	66.6
Unskilled non-agricultural labour	64.5	58.6	8.8	13.3	10.9
Administrative/managerial/clerical	8.5	6.8	1.5	4.6	1.2
Skilled labour	5.7	17.9	2.9	19.4	14.4
Business	0.0	1.9	0.0	0.0	1.7
Others	0.9	2.4	0.0	0.3	4.7
DK/Missing	0.0	1.6	1.6	1.1	0.5
Number engaged in paid work in the 12 months prior to the interview	71	330	170	309	123
Child labour					
Started working for pay before age 14	9.0	NA	15.0	NA	NA
Number of adolescents aged 10-13	748	NA	977	945	495
Currently seeking a job for pay	NA	36.8	NA	16.9	15.2
Number of respondents	NA	800	NA	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. *includes 46 cases reporting don't know.

Table 4.3 Awareness and utilisation of government programmes and schemes for skill-building and employment generation
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 reporting awareness of government programmes for skill-building and employment generation, and percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 who had made use of these programmes and schemes, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness and use of programmes, schemes	Boys (15–21)	Girls (15–21)	Married Girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)			
Awareness of programmes/schemes			
Heard about MGNREGA	76.9	78.0	81.1
Hear about schemes for loans for men/women	53.8	73.8	71.4
Heard about Jharkhand Skills Development Mission	27.4	34.5	25.1
Heard about employment exchanges or employment counselling centres	10.5	10.5	6.6
Knows any training centres that offer training under the Mission	10.2	13.8	9.9
Number of respondents (aged 15-21)	2,350	2,292	1,504
Use of programmes/schemes			
Received employment under MGNREGA	12.8	7.3	4.6
Number of rural respondents (aged 18-21)	820	618	1,011
Received loan to start or expand business	1.3	0.3	2.5
Sought services from employment exchange or counselling centres	1.6	1.7	0.2
Number of respondents (aged 18-21)	1,065	858	1,199
Comparison (percent)			
Heard about MGNREGA	73.9	71.1	77.3
Hear about schemes for loans for men/women	53.4	73.7	75.6
Heard about Jharkhand Skills Development Mission	30.8	43.9	33.8
Heard about employment exchanges or employment counselling centres	17.5	19.1	9.8
Knows any training centres that offer training under the Mission	10.8	15.5	16.4
Number of respondents (aged 15-21)	800	945	495
Use of programmes/schemes			
Received employment under MGNREGA	2.2	1.3	0.4
Number of rural respondents (aged 18-21)	236	221	337
Received loan to start or expand business	0.9	0.3	2.9
Sought services from employment exchange or counselling centres	4.3	0.7	0.6
Number of respondents (aged 18-21)	338	350	397

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 4.4 Career aspirations for adulthood**Percentage of adolescents reporting the kinds of careers they would like to pursue in adulthood, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Preferred careers	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Teacher	8.3	7.6	23.2	21.0	6.9
Engineer	8.6	7.4	2.3	2.2	0.2
Police/Armed Force	23.0	23.1	8.2	9.4	1.7
Start a business	2.2	12.4	0.2	0.9	2.6
Doctor	10.8	3.7	13.2	6.8	0.4
Banking, administration, accountant	1.9	4.7	1.8	3.8	0.7
ANM/nurse	0.1	0.0	5.4	8.9	2.8
Tailor	0.2	0.4	1.6	5.1	7.7
Homemaker	0.1	0.0	1.2	4.8	17.7
Lawyer	0.4	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.1
Plumber	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Electrician	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Anganwadi worker/ASHA/Sahayika	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.2	2.2
Beautician	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.1	1.2
Sportsperson	2.4	1.1	0.2	0.1	0.0
Agricultural activities	0.7	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.2
Airlines/hotel/chef (hospitality)	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.0
Artiste (actor, artist, film work..)	0.4	0.7	1.1	0.6	0.2
Computer/applications	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0
Construction/factory	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Driver/mechanic	0.8	2.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
Journalist/reporter, writer	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Politics	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0
Railways/govt. job	0.3	1.8	0.1	0.4	0.0
Scientist/social work	1.2	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.1
Other	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0
Can't say/don't know	37.9	30.9	39.9	33.5	55.3
Total	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Teacher	6.7	3.9	24.4	20.1	11.1
Engineer	16.1	9.9	5.1	3.0	0.2
Police/Armed Force	25.6	24.6	8.8	10.1	2.3
Start a business	2.7	9.4	0.1	1.3	2.7
Doctor	10.6	4.4	17.5	9.4	0.9
Banking, administration, accountant	2.2	6.5	2.8	8.7	0.6

Preferred careers (percent)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
ANM/nurse	0.0	0.0	3.0	6.4	4.8
Tailor	0.2	0.6	0.6	3.5	7.7
Homemaker	0.0	0.0	0.2	3.3	14.8
Lawyer	0.4	0.2	0.3	1.0	0.3
Plumber	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Lawyer	0.4	0.2	0.3	1.0	0.3
Electrician	0.2	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
Anganwadi worker/ASHA/Sahayika	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.5	2.8
Beautician	0.0	0.1	0.3	1.8	0.8
Sportsperson	3.3	2.2	0.4	0.2	0.0
Agricultural activities	0.4	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Airlines/hotel/chef (hospitality)	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.0
Artiste (actor, artist, film work..)	1.1	1.3	0.8	0.8	0.0
Computer/applications	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
Construction/factory	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
Driver/mechanic	1.6	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Journalist/reporter, writer	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.0
Politics	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Railways/govt. job	0.6	3.9	0.1	0.6	0.0
Scientist/social work	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.0	0.0
Other	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0
Can't say/don't know	26.6	23.9	34.6	28.4	51.1
Total	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 4.5 Participation in livelihood skills training programmes
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 who had ever attended a livelihood skills training programme and who had done so in the 12 months prior to the interview, by type of skills training programme attended, type of institution that offered the programme, and completion status of the course attended, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Programme attended	Boys (15–21)	Girls (15–21)	Married Girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)			
Ever attended a livelihood skills training programme	10.7	16.4	13.1
Attended a livelihood skills training programme in the 12 months preceding the interview	7.1	9.6	3.1
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504
Types of programmes/courses attended			
Tailoring	3.3	43.9	(59.3)
Fashion designing	0.0	0.3	(0.0)
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	1.5	4.3	(4.2)
Masonry/plumbing	0.7	0.0	(0.0)
Auto mechanics/electric work	4.0	0.1	(2.4)
Typing/shorthand/English language	5.5	2.4	(0.0)
Computer training	72.2	38.0	(31.2)
Nurse's aid	0.4	1.1	(0.0)
Poultry/goat farm	0.0	0.0	(0.0)
Driving	5.3	0.0	(0.0)
Beauty parlour skills	0.0	5.8	(2.9)
Other	7.2	4.2	(0.0)
Type of institution that conducted the programme			
Government	39.0	40.2	(42.0)
Private	58.9	56.4	(56.6)
Non-governmental organisation	2.1	3.4	(1.4)
Completion status			
Completed the course/s attended	41.2	41.1	(59.7)
Attending the course at the time of interview	32.9	30.7	(11.7)
Number who attended a livelihood skills training programme in the 12 months preceding the interview	157	224	46
Comparison (percent)			
Ever attended a livelihood skills training programme	11.8	22.1	19.8
Attended a livelihood skills training programme in the 12 months preceding the interview	6.5	13.9	6.9
Number of respondents	800	945	495
Types of programmes/courses attended			
Tailoring	0.0	49.8	(81.4)
Fashion designing	0.0	0.8	(0.0)
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	2.0	1.1	(4.6)
Masonry/plumbing	0.0	0.0	(0.0)

Programme attended	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married Girls (15-21)
Auto mechanics/electric work	15.1	0.0	(0.0)
Typing/shorthand/English language	2.8	2.1	(0.0)
Computer training	71.6	31.7	(3.6)
Nurse's aid	0.0	1.5	(0.0)
Poultry/goat farm	0.0	0.0	(0.0)
Driving	0.0	0.0	(0.0)
Beauty parlour skills	0.0	8.8	(5.4)
Other	8.4	4.1	(5.1)
Type of institution that conducted the programme			
Government	29.2	36.5	(43.2)
Private	67.9	61.4	(56.9)
Non-governmental organisation	2.9	2.1	(0.0)
Completion status			
Completed the course/s attended	48.2	40.6	(31.9)
Attending the course at the time of interview	34.9	31.6	(18.5)
Number who attended a livelihood skills training programme in the 12 months preceding the interview	58	119	26

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers.

Table 4.7 Unmet need for livelihood skill training
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 who wished to, but could not attend a livelihood skill training programme, and reasons for their inability, according to intervention project status, Jharkhand, 2018

Unmet need for livelihood skills training and reasons	Boys (15–21)	Girls (15–21)	Married Girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)			
Unmet need for livelihood skills training			
Had wanted at some time to attend a training programme, but could not do so	13.8	39.8	42.7
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504
Reasons for unmet need			
Supply-side reasons	15.9	31.8	29.6
Did not know a training centre that offers the course	7.2	6.1	7.9
No training centre nearby	8.7	25.7	21.8
Demand-side reasons	89.3	77.0	77.5
Not sure about the employment potential	1.1	0.1	(2.4)
Did not know which course to enrol in	0.2	2.4	(0.0)
Could not afford the cost of attending the course	56.5	38.0	(31.2)
Objections from family	2.9	1.1	(0.0)
Clashed with studies/no time/needed for housework	23.7	0.0	(0.0)
Illness of family member or respondent	5.0	0.0	(0.0)
No reason	1.7	2.0	3.8
Number of respondents with an unmet need for livelihood skills training	296	889	606
Comparison (percent)			
Unmet need for livelihood skills training			
Had wanted at some time to attend a training programme, but could not do so	16.7	43.1	44.4
Number of respondents	800	945	495
Reasons for unmet need			
Supply-side reasons	12.5	24.1	22.1
Did not know a training centre that offers the course	7.1	5.1	4.5
No training centre nearby	5.4	19.7	18.9
Demand-side reasons	88.8	84.0	84.0
Not sure about the employment potential	0.7	0.1	0.4
Did not know which course to enrol in	0.0	1.3	2.3
Could not afford the cost of attending the course	54.4	32.5	26.8
Objections from family	1.4	10.4	20.3
Clashed with studies/no time/needed for housework	28.9	34.7	29.3
Illness of family member or respondent	3.4	5.0	4.9
No reason	0.9	1.8	3.0
Number of respondents with an unmet need for livelihood skills training	116	389	216

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 4.8 Demand for livelihood skill training
Percentage of adolescents aged 15–21 reporting interest in attending a livelihood skill training programmes in the future by type of programme preferred, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Programme	Boys (15–21)	Girls (15–21)	Married Girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)			
Interest in participating in a livelihood skill training programme	77.3	87.0	77.1
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504
Type of programme preferred			
Tailoring	1.3	41.7	69.8
Fashion designing	0.2	1.1	0.5
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	1.5	2.8	4.9
Masonry/plumbing/carpentry	3.3	0.0	0.0
Auto mechanics/electric work	17.3	0.0	0.0
Typing/shorthand/English language	1.8	1.8	0.2
Computer training	54.8	37.4	13.2
Nurse's aid/nursing	0.7	2.3	2.0
Poultry/goat-rearing/farm work	1.0	0.2	0.1
Driving	8.2	0.1	0.1
Beauty parlour skills	0.5	11.1	8.2
Performing arts/sports	1.9	0.3	0.0
Others	7.5	1.2	1.0
Number interested in receiving livelihood skills training	1,786	2,005	1,153
Comparison (percent)			
Interest in participating in a livelihood skill training programme	83.1	88.1	76.9
Number of respondents	800	945	495
Type of programme preferred			
Tailoring	2.1	32.1	61.3
Fashion designing	0.2	1.1	0.3
Handicrafts/painting/embroidery/cooking	2.1	5.9	7.7
Masonry/plumbing/carpentry	3.0	0.0	0.0
Auto mechanics/electric work	22.8	0.0	0.0
Typing/shorthand/English language	1.0	1.9	0.2
Computer training	52.1	35.3	15.4
Nurse's aid/nursing	0.1	1.8	1.8
Poultry/goat-rearing/farm work	0.8	0.0	0.0
Driving	7.8	0.5	0.0
Beauty parlour skills	0.0	18.8	12.4
Performing arts/sports	1.8	0.2	0.0
Others	6.3	2.5	1.0
Number interested in receiving livelihood skills training	648	830	375

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. *Multiple responses permitted; totals may exceed 100.

Table 4.9 Activity status in the 12 months preceding the interview
Percentage of adolescents who were in school, in wage work, attending livelihood skills training or not in education, employment or training in the 12 months preceding the interview, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Activity in the 12 months preceding the interview	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Activity in the 12 months preceding the interview					
In school	93.2	59.8	92.2	61.1	7.6
In wage work	11.0	46.4	28.6	45.0	35.5
In skill building training	-	7.1	-	9.6	3.1
Not in education, employment or training	4.4	10.9	4.9	14.5	56.8
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Activity in the 12 months preceding the interview					
In school	93.5	64.1	93.3	63.3	6.5
In wage work	7.5	43.4	14.0	32.7	24.2
In skill building training	-	6.5	-	13.9	6.9
Not in education, employment or training	4.2	10.1	4.0	16.9	65.9
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases.

Table 4.10 Migration status and reason for migration
Percent distribution of adolescents in ages 15-21 by duration of residence at the usual place of residence at the time of the interview and reason for migration among those who had migrated to their usual place of residence, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Duration of residence and reason for migration	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married Girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Duration of residence			
Always/since birth	87.5	88.5	10.7
Since marriage	NA	NA	85.7
5 or more years	6.5	6.6	1.1
Less than 5 years	6.1	4.9	2.5
Migrated to the current usual place of residence	12.6	11.5	89.3
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504
Reasons for migration			
Marriage	NA	NA	96.7
Moved with family	49.6	48.5	1.4
Education related	26.7	37.7	0.3
Work related	13.6	1.4	0.2
Economic distress of the family	9.4	12.4	1.5
Other	0.7	0.0	0.0
Number of respondents who experienced migration	298	250	1,343

Duration of residence and reason for migration	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married Girls (15-21)
Comparison (percent)			
Reasons for migration			
Always/since birth	86.0	87.8	8.0
Since marriage	NA	NA	88.5
5 or more years	6.2	7.9	1.1
Less than 5 years	7.9	4.3	2.5
Migrated to the current usual place of residence	14.1	12.2	92.0
Number of respondents	800	945	495
Reasons for migration			
Marriage	NA	NA	97.1
Moved with family	26.9	57.7	0.6
Education related	38.8	24.1	0.0
Work related	22.0	1.3	0.6
Economic distress of the family	12.3	15.3	1.7
Other	0.0	1.6	0.0
Number of respondents who experienced migration	96	104	454

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable; () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases; - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. 0.3% of boys and 0.1% of unmarried girls who could not recall their duration of residence are assumed to have resided in the current residence since childhood.



CHAPTER 5

MASS MEDIA AND SOCIAL MEDIA EXPOSURE

Table 5.1 Mass media exposure

Percentage of adolescents who were exposed to mass media, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of exposure to the mass media	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Exposure to television					
Exposed	91.1	91.1	82.5	83.7	75.2
Watches almost everyday	36.4	37.6	41.1	41.7	35.7
Exposure to films					
Exposed	93.2	96.5	85.2	86.9	85.2
Watches almost everyday	18.8	26.8	12.8	13.1	14.3
Exposure to radio					
Exposed	13.1	23	8.8	12.2	7.9
Listens almost every day	1.5	2.8	1.5	2.3	0.9
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Exposure to newspapers/magazines/books¹					
Exposed	47.5	71.1	57.2	72.2	44.0
Reads almost everyday	12.4	19.5	9.0	12.9	4.0
Number with 5 or more years of education	1,718	2,213	2,075	2,127	1,238
Medium through which films are accessed					
Television	86.3	80.3	86.2	82.2	76.7
Computer	2.5	4.9	2.0	2.0	0.7
Mobile phone	49.6	72.8	44.6	55.7	64.7
Theatre	1.7	8.6	1.1	3.0	1.1
Exposure to pornographic films					
Has watched blue films	NA	52.4	NA	10.2	45.7
Number of respondents exposed to films	2,388	2,280	2,483	2,032	1,277
Comparison (percent)					
Exposure to television					
Exposed	90.5	93.0	83.1	85.8	71.8
Watches almost everyday	47.8	45.8	52.4	55.0	38.0
Exposure to films					
Exposed	93.7	98.1	85.8	90.3	82.6
Watches almost everyday	28.7	29.7	17.4	17.7	17.7
Exposure to radio					
Exposed	22.1	28.1	12.4	18.1	9.9
Listens almost every day	3.7	5.3	2.7	4.8	2.8
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	395

Indicators of exposure to the mass media	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Exposure to newspapers/magazines/books¹					
Exposed	56.7	75.0	62.6	74.4	46.6
Reads almost everyday	14.0	25.1	8.9	16.5	5.2
Number with 5 or more years of education	626	762	802	890	388
Medium through which films are accessed					
Television	86.2	82.5	90.0	88.7	72.6
Computer	2.7	3.8	3.2	3.5	1.1
Mobile phone	55.4	73.4	39.2	46.5	64.4
Theatre	2.1	10.0	2.0	4.0	1.4
Exposure to pornographic films					
Has watched blue films	NA	44.8	NA	11.4	46.6
Number of respondents exposed to films	867	779	993	834	404

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. ¹Asked only to respondents who had completed five or more years of education.

Table 5.2 Access to mobile phones

Percentage of adolescents who had access to mobile phones, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of access to mobile phones	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Owns a mobile phone	5.6	65.6	1.3	22.4	33
Does not own but access family member's phone	78.7	30.7	79.3	71.8	62.1
Has no access to a mobile phone	15.7	3.6	19.4	5.8	4.9
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Use of mobile phone					
Received health related information on mobile phone	2.7	10.8	2.7	7.1	5.3
Used a mobile phone to harass someone	NA	3.6	NA	NA	NA
Number having access to mobile phone	2,011	2,228	2,385	2,147	1,438
Someone has used a cell phone or text messages to harass	0.4	3.8	0.5	4.7	3.2
Number of respondents	2,542	2,349	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Owns a mobile phone	5.6	63.8	0.7	17.1	35.1
Does not own but access family member's phone	77.6	33.2	80.1	76.1	58.3
Has no access to a mobile phone	16.8	3.0	19.2	6.8	6.6
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Use of mobile phone					
Received health related information on mobile phone	3.5	13.2	3.4	10.1	5.2
Used a mobile phone to harass someone	NA	3.6	NA	NA	NA
Number having access to mobile phone	793	768	967	872	468
Someone has used a cell phone or text messages to harass	0.4	5.6	1.0	5.2	3.8
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 5.3 Access to internet and social media

Percent distribution of adolescents who had ever enrolled in school by frequency of accessing the internet and social media, and percentage of adolescents with five or more years of education requiring permission to, and accessing various types of information from the internet, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of access to the internet	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Use and frequency of accessing the internet					
Any access	22.0	60.3	11.5	25.7	18.1
• Almost every day	3.9	33.2	2.2	10.9	6.8
• At least once a week	7.7	14.2	3.8	5.9	4.3
• Less frequently (once a month or less frequently)	10.4	12.9	5.5	8.9	7.0
Not at all/not heard of the internet	78.1	39.7	88.6	74.2	82.0
Use and frequency of accessing social media (whatsapp, facebook..)					
Any use	13.3	51.9	7.6	20.7	15.0
• Use social media almost every day	2.7	29.5	1.7	10.6	6.7
• At least once a week	4.8	11.5	2.1	5.0	3.6
• Less frequently (once a month or less frequently)	5.8	10.9	3.8	5.1	4.7
Not at all/not heard of social media	86.8	48.1	92.4	79.4	85.1
Number of respondents who had ever enrolled in school	2,509	2,287	2,863	2,210	1,323
Permission to access the internet					
Required permission to access the internet	33.5	6.9	34.5	17.4	8.9
Ever sought the following types of information:					
Studies related	57.4	63.0	64.5	80.4	53.0
Career/job related search	12.8	38.5	22.5	52.6	28.2
Scholarship related search	3.2	15.1	3.3	14.7	4.2
Accessed health information from the internet	10.3	26.6	21.0	42.1	28.2
Pornographic materials on net	NA	57.8	NA	40.6	71.4
Someone used internet to bother, harass, spread mean words or pictures about R	NA	NA	NA	3.8	2.0
R used internet to bother, harass, spread mean words or pictures	NA	10.4	NA	NA	NA
Number who had completed five or more years of schooling and had ever accessed the internet	462	1,432	300	596	239
Comparison (percent)					
Use and frequency of accessing the internet					
Any access	23.9	72.5	16.4	34.1	11.5
• Almost every day	6.5	39.1	3.1	12.7	7.4
• At least once a week	10.4	16.2	5.7	9.7	3.0
• Less frequently (once a month or less frequently)	13.0	17.2	7.6	11.7	8.1
Not at all/not heard of the internet	70.0	27.5	83.6	65.8	81.5
Use and frequency of accessing social media (whatsapp, facebook..)					
Any use	20.4	64.6	10.6	28.9	18.3
• Use social media almost every day	3.9	36.1	2.7	11.9	8.3
• At least once a week	7.5	16.5	3.9	8.6	3.5

Indicators of access to the internet	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
• Less frequently (once a month or less frequently)	9.0	12.8	4.0	8.4	6.5
Not at all/not heard of social media	79.6	34.6	89.4	71.1	81.7
Number of respondents who had ever enrolled in school	926	784	1,156	909	423
Permission to access the internet					
Required permission to access the internet	33.5	7.6	47.7	20.7	15.9
Ever sought the following types of information:					
Studies related	63.9	65.4	70.7	78.5	57.1
Career/job related search	18.8	45.8	35.9	55.8	30.4
Scholarship related search	4.2	14.7	11.3	14.5	10.3
Accessed health information from the internet	8.5	26.1	30.2	49.6	36.7
Pornographic materials on net	NA	50.3	NA	35.7	69.8
Someone used internet to bother, harass, spread mean words or pictures about R	NA	NA	NA	2.9	1.4
R used internet to bother, harass, spread mean words or pictures	NA	6.9	NA	NA	NA
Number who had completed five or more years of schooling and had ever accessed the internet	221	543	150	275	75

Notes: : All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.



CHAPTER 6

PARENT-CHILD RELATIONS

Table 6.1 Witnessing parental violence

Percentage of adolescents reporting witnessing parental violence, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Exposure to parental violence	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Physical violence between parents					
Father ever beaten mother	23.1	20.7	34.5	31.2	33.0
Father beaten mother in the 12 months preceding to the interview	8.7	5.3	16.5	10.5	4.5
Number of respondents with both parents alive	2,433	2,203	2,847	2,209	1,451
Reaction to last incident of parental violence witnessed					
Passive: did nothing, walked away, went out of home	78.1	58.5	64.4	41.0	42.7
Active: intervened verbally; attempted to physically restrain father; sought help	21.9	41.6	35.6	59.0	57.3
Number of respondents who had witnessed parental violence, both parents alive	530	401	920	634	458
Comparison (percent)					
Physical violence between parents					
Father ever beaten mother	22.5	18.2	33.3	27.0	37.8
Father beaten mother in the 12 months preceding to the interview	9.5	4.6	14.8	7.4	3.0
Number of respondents with both parents alive	902	743	1,154	917	482
Reaction to last incident of parental violence witnessed					
Passive: did nothing, walked away, went out of home	76.6	72.2	66.8	51.9	47.4
Active: intervened verbally; attempted to physically restrain father; sought help	23.4	27.8	32.2	48.1	52.6
Number of respondents who had witnessed parental violence, both parents alive	216	118	369	240	157

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 6.2 Experience of violence perpetrated by a parent
Percentage of adolescents reporting the experience of physical violence perpetrated by a parent, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Exposure to parental violence	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Experience of physical violence perpetrated by a parent					
Experienced physical violence any time since the age of 10	67.8	47.7	64.4	45.5	40.8
Experienced physical violence in the 12 months preceding the interview	51.2	10.1	46.6	11.2	NA
Number of respondents with at least one parent alive	2,518	2,320	2,893	2,269	1,485
Comparison with similarly aged opposite sex sibling in experience of violence perpetrated by a parent					
Sibling of opposite sex beaten more	10.6	2.5	29.8	20.7	NA
Sibling of opposite sex sibling beaten less	26.9	9.7	16.3	4.8	NA
Beaten about as much as sibling of opposite sex	5.5	1.7	13.4	3.4	NA
Neither one beaten	57.0	86.1	40.6	71.2	NA
Number with at least one parent alive, and an opposite sex sibling aged up to three years greater or less than respondent	1,231	1,202	1,963	1,744	NA
Comparison (percent)					
Experience of physical violence perpetrated by a parent					
Experienced physical violence any time since the age of 10	64.3	50.7	62.8	44.2	42.5
Experienced physical violence in the 12 months preceding the interview	51.1	11.2	45.1	8.2	NA
Number of respondents with at least one parent alive	928	792	1,177	934	792
Comparison with similarly aged opposite sex sibling in experience of violence perpetrated by a parent					
Sibling of opposite sex beaten more	8.2	3.1	30.7	19.0	NA
Sibling of opposite sex beaten less	26.6	11.0	16.8	6.8	NA
Beaten about as much as sibling of opposite sex	4.2	0.5	12.7	3.5	NA
Neither one beaten	61.1	85.3	39.8	70.8	NA
Number with at least one parent alive, and an opposite sex sibling aged up to three years greater or less than respondent	460	376	869	771	NA

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable

Table 6.3 Parent-child communication
Percentage of adolescents¹ who discussed various general and sensitive matters with their parents in the year preceding the interview, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Matters discussed	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)				
Schooling (whether to study, how much to study, events in school, etc.)				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	59.8	49.0	74.2	64.4
Discussed with father/male guardian	52.3	45.2	54.1	49.4
Did not discuss with either parent	17.1	35.2	16.7	29.4
Friends				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	43.2	39.0	69.6	70.1
Discussed with father/male guardian	23.6	27.5	20.8	21.3
Did not discuss with either parent	49.0	53.3	28.8	28.3
Teasing/bullying				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	22.4	NA	24.8	NA
Discussed with father/male guardian	13.2	NA	3.8	NA
Did not discuss with either parent	69.4	NA	73.9	NA
Growing up matters (menstruation for girls, voice change/facial growth for boys)				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	3.5	4.5	32.4	69.9
Discussed with father/male guardian	2.9	4.0	0.2	0.5
Did not discuss with either parent	94.6	93.0	67.6	29.9
Reproductive processes				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	NA	0.4	NA	3.4
Discussed with father/male guardian	NA	0.2	NA	0.4
Did not discuss with either parent	NA	99.5	NA	96.5
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292
Comparison (percent)				
Schooling (whether to study, how much to study, events in school, etc.)				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	65.5	56.5	77.7	69.8
Discussed with father/male guardian	59.8	51.2	54.5	53.2
Did not discuss with either parent	11.8	26.7	14.8	24.4
Friends				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	51.0	49.8	72.6	74.8
Discussed with father/male guardian	27.3	33.9	19.1	25.8
Did not discuss with either parent	40.2	42.0	26.2	23.7
Teasing/bullying				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	30.7	NA	23.5	NA
Discussed with father/male guardian	18.0	NA	3.3	NA
Did not discuss with either parent	59.3	NA	75.8	NA
Growing up matters (menstruation for girls, voice change/facial growth for boys)				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	7.2	7.3	36.1	70.8
Discussed with father/male guardian	3.3	5.2	0.1	0.5
Did not discuss with either parent	90.9	90.9	63.9	29

Matters discussed	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)
Reproductive processes				
Discussed with mother/female guardian	NA	0.9	NA	5.1
Discussed with father/male guardian	NA	0.9	NA	0.6
Did not discuss with either parent	NA	99.1	NA	94.7
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 6.4 Parents' involvement in the lives of their sons and daughters
Percentage of adolescents⁴ whose parents are aware of how free time is spent, who can talk to parents about personal matters, and who are encouraged to study at home, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Types of interaction	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)				
Parents awareness of how adolescent spends free time				
Parents know how adolescent spends free time	63.0	58.1	81.3	82.8
Parents do not know how adolescent spends free time	31.5	31.8	15.5	14.2
Can't say	5.4	10.2	3.2	3.0
Adolescent can talk to parents about personal matters such as career aspirations or what they want to become in the future and parents will take them seriously				
Yes, can talk to parents about career aspirations	73.3	77.1	67.3	71.4
Yes, can talk to parents about career aspirations and they will listen	71.0	74.8	62.5	67.7
Encouragement to study at home				
Parents encourage respondent to study at home	91.0	70.5	89.8	70.9
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292
Comparison (percent)				
Parents awareness of how adolescent spends free time				
Parents know how adolescent spends free time	70.2	52.7	82.8	84.1
Parents do not know how adolescent spends free time	26.1	28.5	13.4	12.5
Can't say	3.8	18.9	3.8	3.4
Adolescent can talk to parents about personal matters such as career aspirations or what they want to become in the future and parents will take them seriously				
Yes, can talk to parents about career aspirations	73.9	78.3	71	75.9
Yes, can talk to parents about career aspirations and they will listen	71.2	74.6	67.5	70.4
Encouragement to study at home				
Parents encourage respondent to study at home	92.6	73.7	90.6	76.2
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 6.5 Gender disparities in childrearing practices

Percentage of unmarried adolescents residing with a similarly-aged sibling of the opposite sex (three or fewer years older or younger) reporting gender disparities in childrearing practices, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Child rearing practices	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)				
Sister given less pocket money/brother given more	24.8	35.5	33.4	29.6
Sister sent to a poorer quality school/brother to a better quality school	12.5	14.3	18.8	19.0
Sister made to do more housework than brother	69.1	73.5	62.8	65.2
Sister's mobility more restricted than brother's	58.3	73.3	58.1	59.7
Sister's freedom to find work more restricted than brother's	NA	67.7	NA	39.6
Number of respondents residing with a similarly-aged opposite-sex sibling (three or fewer years older or younger)	973	651	1,154	872
Comparison (percent)				
Sister given less pocket money/brother given more	20.4	22.1	31.8	23.4
Sister sent to a poorer quality school/brother to a better quality school	7.7	7.7	13.5	11.3
Sister made to do more housework than brother	68.4	68.5	62.7	61.6
Sister's mobility more restricted than brother's	62.2	77.9	54.4	60.3
Sister's freedom to find work more restricted than brother's	NA	61.1	NA	34.7
Number of respondents residing with a similarly-aged opposite-sex sibling (three or fewer years older or younger)	340	233	473	361

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable

Table 6.6 Adolescents' role models
Percentage of adolescents having a role model, and among them, identifying their role models, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Person identified as role model	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Role model					
Adolescent has someone he/she considers a role model	25.1	37	37.2	42.2	21.2
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Person identified as role model					
Mother/sister	1.1	1.6	19.0	18.4	31.3
Father/brother	14.6	13.9	11.6	15.2	8.3
Other relatives	48.8	48.1	27.7	28.5	35.1
Friends and neighbours	3.7	11.2	7.8	11.5	14.0
Teachers	10.3	10.7	31.6	24.2	10.8
Health personnel	2.2	0.5	1.6	0.5	2.9
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers) or prominent personalities	19.6	15.1	6.1	4.7	3.0
Number of respondents who reported their having a role model	651	816	1,033	883	303
Comparison (percent)					
Role model					
Adolescent has someone he/she considers a role model	37.3	40.1	42.5	48.5	24.8
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Person identified as role model					
Mother/sister	1.4	0.0	17.9	20.5	32.3
Father/brother	11.7	10.6	8.5	14.3	6.2
Other relatives	52.2	50.2	31.4	30.5	30.3
Friends and neighbours	1.1	12.4	8.7	11.9	14.0
Teachers	10.9	8.6	29.7	21.0	22.8
Health personnel	1.9	0.4	2.3	1.6	2.1
Prominent personality	5.1	8.6	1.6	1.6	3.4
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers) or prominent personalities	21.2	17.6	6.0	8.0	3.8
Number of respondents who reported their having a role model	303	289	486	429	110

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 6.7 Parents versus others as leading confidante on personal matters
Percent distribution of adolescents by individual in whom they are most likely to confide about personal matters, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Person identified as leading confidante	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Bullying					
Mother	55.8	NA	78.6	NA	NA
Father	23.5	NA	3.5	NA	NA
Brother	1.7	NA	0.7	NA	NA
Sister	1.0	NA	3.7	NA	NA
Other relatives	1.6	NA	3.1	NA	NA
Friends including romantic partner	3.6	NA	3.7	NA	NA
Health care provider	0.0	NA	0.0	NA	NA
Teacher	7.9	NA	2.8	NA	NA
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.2	NA	0.1	NA	NA
Nobody	4.9	NA	3.9	NA	NA
Number of respondents	2,542	NA	2,919	NA	NA
Problem in private parts					
Mother	54.2	25.0	87.0	79.0	25.6
Father	31.9	25.0	0.3	0.2	0.8
Brother	2.0	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.1
Sister	0.4	0.2	1.5	5.3	2.1
Other relatives	1.9	1.6	3.1	5.1	0.7
Friends including romantic partner	4.0	23.2	2.2	5.3	1.1
Health care provider	2.9	16.9	0.1	1.1	1.9
Teacher	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0
Husband	NA	NA	NA	NA	64.4
Nobody	2.2	4.3	3.6	4.0	3.1
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Problem with opposite sex friend/romantic partner (unmarried)/in married life (married)	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Mother	19.1	11.7	28.4	21.8	56.6
Father	2.8	2.2	0.5	0.5	3.0
Brother	1.6	2.8	0.1	0.4	0.6
Sister	1.4	0.4	6.0	8.2	2.8
Other relatives	1.5	1.1	1.8	2.5	1.8
Friends including romantic partner	52.7	73.8	44.3	50.9	3.4
Health care provider	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0
Teacher	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.0
Husband	NA	NA	NA	NA	18.3

Problem with opposite sex friend/romantic partner (unmarried)/in married life (married)	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Nobody	20.7	7.7	18.9	15.7	12.6
Number of respondents	926	2,350	1,178	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Bullying					
Mother	57.2	NA	76.2	NA	NA
Father	24.5	NA	3.9	NA	NA
Brother	1.5	NA	0.7	NA	NA
Sister	0.3	NA	3.9	NA	NA
Other relatives	2.6	NA	2.5	NA	NA
Friends including romantic partner	2.9	NA	5.0	NA	NA
Health care provider	0.0	NA	0.0	NA	NA
Person identified as leading confidante	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Teacher	5.9	NA	4.6	NA	NA
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.3	NA	0.0	NA	NA
Nobody	4.9	NA	3.2	NA	NA
Number of respondents	931	NA	1,185	NA	NA
Problem in private parts					
Mother	58.7	28.0	88.4	80.0	20.1
Father	31.0	25.8	0.5	0.1	0.4
Brother	1.5	4.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sister	0.4	0.3	3.0	6.4	3.8
Other relatives	2.5	1.9	3.0	5.1	2.3
Friends including romantic partner	2.7	21.3	1.8	5.2	2.3
Health care provider	0.8	14.3	0.0	0.6	0.2
Teacher	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspersons, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.9
Husband	NA	NA	NA	NA	67.8
Nobody	2.4	3.5	3.3	2.7	2.3
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Problem with opposite sex friend/romantic partner (unmarried)/in married life (married)	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Mother	15.9	8.4	28.0	22.5	56.1
Father	6.0	1.6	0.0	0.7	1.6
Brother	0.5	2.6	0.7	0.8	1.0
Sister	1.0	1.2	7.2	9.7	3.2
Other relatives	0.7	1.7	3.4	3.4	2.1
Friends including romantic partner	51.1	74.6	39.7	48.0	8.9
Health care provider	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3
Teacher	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Problem with opposite sex friend/romantic partner (unmarried)/in married life (married)	Boys (13–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (13–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Others in public life or positions of authority (politician, sportspeople, police/armed forces, community workers)	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.6
Husband	NA	NA	NA	NA	15.3
Nobody	24.9	9.5	21.1	14.9	10.9
Number of respondents	363	800	453	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 6.8 Reaction to parental pressure: Responses on vignette
Percentage of adolescents reporting on how they would advise a girl who was being compelled to enter into an underage marriage, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Reaction to parental pressure to marry in adolescence	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Obeys parents' wishes and marry	16.6	23.8	17.4	18.2	28.0
Express her opinion to her parents/convince her parents	38.0	55.6	54.4	64.9	55.7
Seek help from ASHA/AWW	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.2
Seek help from teacher or police	4.3	7.3	4.9	6.0	5.1
Seek help from locally influential person	0.5	1.1	0.6	1.9	0.8
Seek help from peer educator	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.4
Seek help from friend	0.9	0.9	1.5	2.1	2.0
Other (elope, study after marriage etc.)	1.6	1.6	1.0	0.3	0.4
Don't know/can't say	37.5	8.4	19.6	5.5	7.4
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Obeys parents' wishes and marry	19.5	22.2	19.6	20.2	29.8
Express her opinion to her parents/convince her parents	44.9	53.2	54.2	67.4	55.7
Seek help from ASHA/AWW	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0
Seek help from teacher or police	7.1	11.2	6.0	7.5	3.7
Seek help from locally influential person	0.6	1.6	0.7	0.8	1.2
Seek help from peer educator	0.9	1.3	0.6	0.0	0.0
Seek help from friend	1.7	1.5	1.8	0.9	2.5
Other (elope, study after marriage etc.)	1.3	2.0	0.7	0.8	0.1
Don't know/can't say	23.9	7.1	16.4	2.1	6.9
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.



CHAPTER 7

AGENCY, SUPPORT NETWORKS, ATTITUDES

Table 7.1 Decision-making

Percent distribution of adolescents by participation in decision-making on selected matters, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Participation in decision-making	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Years of schooling					
Respondent only	29.9	60.0	14.7	27.6	26.6
Jointly with others	34.1	23.1	33.3	39.9	21.4
Others only*	35.2	14.8	51.7	31.4	49.2
Going to a friend's house					
Respondent only	56.6	NA	32.5	NA	NA
Jointly with others	26.7	NA	37.7	NA	NA
Others only	16.8	NA	29.8	NA	NA
Marriage timing					
Respondent only	4.3	13.3	1.9	4.5	15
Jointly with others	32.7	41.7	19.4	34.4	18.6
Others only	61.7	43.6	75.4	60.6	66.4
Don't know	1.3	1.4	3.3	0.6	0.0
Household purchases					
Respondent only	NA	2.7	NA	0.8	1.9
Jointly with others	NA	41.1	NA	33.1	44.2
Others only	NA	56.2	NA	66.1	53.9
Working or staying at home					
Respondent only	NA	69.9	NA	19.2	12.3
Jointly with others	NA	19.5	NA	44.2	48.0
Others only	NA	10.7	NA	36.6	39.7
Decision-making summary indicator: Participated in all decisions about which this age group was probed**					
	33.8	34.8	15.1	17.6	13.8
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Years of schooling					
Respondent only	24.6	54.8	13.0	25.1	29.2
Jointly with others	36.5	28.4	33.2	40.3	19.7
Others only*	38.1	15.2	52.8	33.2	46.1
Going to a friend's house					
Respondent only	52.2	NA	27.8	NA	NA
Jointly with others	28.0	NA	35.6	NA	NA
Others only	19.8	NA	36.6	NA	NA

Participation in decision-making	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Marriage timing					
Respondent only	3.8	12.3	3.0	4.6	10.9
Jointly with others	29.2	38.3	20.5	31.9	16.4
Others only	64.0	49.1	72.5	62.6	72.3
Don't know	3.0	0.4	4.0	1.0	0.5
Household purchases					
Respondent only	NA	2.6	NA	0.5	1.8
Jointly with others	NA	37.0	NA	29.8	41.4
Others only	NA	60.5	NA	69.7	56.8
Working or staying at home					
Respondent only	NA	63.3	NA	21.5	14.8
Jointly with others	NA	26.4	NA	43.4	44.5
Others only	NA	10.3	NA	35.1	40.8
Decision-making summary indicator: Participated in all decisions about which this age group was probed**	28.3	30.5	16.6	17.7	10.0
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. *We assumed that those who were never enrolled did not participate in the decision. **Decision-making summary measure differed for younger and older adolescents. The indicator refers to three indicators for younger adolescents (education, marriage, going to a friend's house) and four among older adolescents, (education, marriage, household purchases and whether to work or not).

Table 7.3 Freedom of movement
Percentage of adolescents permitted to visit selected locations within or outside the village/ward, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Mobility indicators	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Permitted to visit various places alone/unescorted:					
Shop/market/ or a friend/relative within village/ward	90.0	98.9	85.4	86.8	59.7
Shop/market or a friend/relative outside village/ward	36.4	93.0	12.9	34.3	25.1
Attend programme (mela, sports event, adolescent group meeting) within village/ward	64.6	95.2	37.3	48.8	33.7
Health centre outside the village/ward	14.0	78.6	3.5	23.9	23.5
At least three of four places	33.1	92.4	10.2	30.8	25
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Permitted to visit various places alone/unescorted:					
Shop/market/ or a friend/relative within village/ward	93.0	99.3	87.1	86.5	57.7
Shop/market or a friend/relative outside village/ward	40.5	92.3	13.8	38.6	26.8
Attend programme (mela, sports event, adolescent group meeting) within village/ward	66.8	94.2	35.0	47.6	34.8
Health centre outside the village/ward	15.9	77.0	4.9	27.1	24.9
At least three of four places	35.6	91.2	10.7	32.7	28.2
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable

Table 7.5 Access to and control over resources
Percentage of adolescents who reported having any savings, owning an account in a bank or post office, and operating the account themselves, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Access to and control over money	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Has cash savings of any amount	58.7	74.9	62.7	77.6	74.0
Ownership of a bank/post office account					
In own (respondent's) name or both in own and someone else's name	65.7	72.5	68.9	72.2	58.5
Only jointly with someone else	3.9	0.6	6.4	1.6	3.0
No account	30.5	26.9	24.7	26.2	38.7
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Operates bank/post office account themselves	43.2	86.3	37.5	77.8	72.5
Number of respondents owning an account	1,763	1,698	2,203	1,662	919
Comparison (percent)					
Has cash savings of any amount	55.0	75.8	63.1	77.0	70.6
Ownership of a bank/post office account*					
In own (respondent's) name or both in own and someone else's name	64.3	73.9	62.6	70.2	58.7
Only jointly with someone else	4.1	1.3	10.3	3.0	2.2
No account	31.6	24.8	27.1	26.8	39.1
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Operates bank/post office account themselves	50.5	83.3	39.7	82.5	75.3
Number of respondents owning an account	636	596	864	697	300

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 7.6 Sense of self-efficacy
Percentage of adolescents expressing a sense of self-efficacy under selected circumstances, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Self-efficacy	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Confident about asking questions to his/her teachers					
Never	7.2	NA	11.0	NA	NA
Sometimes	40.6	NA	43.1	NA	NA
Most of the time	52.2	NA	45.9	NA	NA
Number of respondents enrolled in school at the time of the interview	2,349	NA	2,664	NA	NA
Able to express own opinion to elders in the family					
Never	12.3	9.1	16.2	12.6	17.3
Sometimes	60.4	59.9	54.5	53.1	59.9
Most of the time	27.3	31.1	29.3	34.3	22.8

Self-efficacy	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Able to confront a person who says or does something wrong to the respondent (15-21)/Able to convey disagreement to someone with whom respondent disagrees (10-14)					
Never	20.2	7.9	19.8	5.5	14.6
Sometimes	60.8	50.1	55.4	48.7	54.2
Always	19.1	42.0	24.9	41.9	30.9
Confident about speaking in front of a group of peers					
No	13.6	8.1	14.4	10.1	18.1
Only in a same sex group	49.3	43.7	48.7	48.8	51.0
In groups of girls and/or boys	37.0	48.2	36.9	41.0	31.0
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Confident about asking questions to his/her teachers					
Never	5.4	NA	8.2	NA	NA
Some of the time	32.2	NA	38.3	NA	NA
Most of the time	62.5	NA	53.5	NA	NA
Number of respondents enrolled in school at the time of the interview	869	NA	1,092	NA	NA
Able to express own opinion to elders in the family					
Never	10.6	7.9	13.5	12.3	16.8
Sometimes	59.0	61.6	54.7	54.8	61.6
Most of the time	30.5	30.5	31.9	33.0	21.7
Able to confront a person who says or does something wrong to the respondent (15-21)/Able to convey disagreement to someone with whom respondent disagrees (10-14)					
Never	17.0	5.7	19.7	7.5	15.5
Sometimes	56.7	44.7	52.5	48.9	56.4
Always	26.3	49.6	27.8	43.6	28.1
Confident about speaking in front of a group of peers					
No	13.6	5.7	14.4	8.1	16.2
Only in a same sex group	47.3	43.6	51.6	47.5	52.7
In groups of girls and/or boys	39.0	50.7	34.0	44.4	31.1
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable

Table 7.7 Sense of self-efficacy as revealed in vignettes

Percentage of adolescents expressing a sense of self-efficacy as revealed under selected circumstances through vignettes, Jharkhand, 2018

Self-efficacy	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Keeping in mind the increasing cases of harassment of girls, the Panchayat has decided that the girls will not step out of the home after 5 pm. Lalita and her friends play in the evening, but with this decision they will not be able to do so. Lalita asks you what to do, what would you tell her?					
To confront the Panchayat	4.7	12.9	9.6	18.3	10.4
To confront boys	43.4	61.0	0.8	2.6	1.3
To ignore the Panchayat's decision	0.3	0.4	3.2	3.2	2.1
To accept the Panchayat's decision	12.1	19.0	74.8	74.2	83.4
Don't know/other	39.5	6.7	11.6	1.8	2.7
Deena and Mahesh love each other very much and want to get married, but Deena's parents refuse to allow it. Deena is your friend and she comes to you to ask your advice. What would you tell her?					
To confront parents	NA	38.7	NA	31.5	26.0
To elope	NA	28.2	NA	19.7	24.3
To refuse to marry anyone else	NA	7.8	NA	1.4	1.5
To seek help from friends, peer educator, other	NA	12.3	NA	9.3	7.9
To obey parents	NA	7.2	NA	33.1	35.5
Don't know	NA	5.9	NA	5.0	4.9
Nutan has studied till class 12 and has got a job in a nearby office. Her husband and in-laws refuse to let her work. What should she do?					
To confront husband/in-laws	NA	55.1	NA	60.1	50.9
To seek help	NA	2.5	NA	4.0	2.7
To obey husband/in-laws	NA	35.4	NA	31.4	42.9
Don't know/other	NA	7.1	NA	4.5	3.5
Meenu has recently got married. Her in-laws are very fond of her. However, they have been pressuring her to have a child as soon as possible. Meenu does not want a child at the moment. What should she do in this situation?					
To confront husband/in-laws	NA	58.0	NA	62.4	52.6
To seek help	NA	1.2	NA	2.9	1.3
To obey husband/in-laws	NA	29.5	NA	27.0	43.0
Don't know/other	NA	11.3	NA	7.6	3.0
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,291	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Keeping in mind the increasing cases of harassment of girls, the Panchayat has decided that the girls will not step out of the home after 5 pm. Lalita and her friends play in the evening, but with this decision they will not be able to do so. Lalita asks you what to do, what would you tell her?					
To confront the Panchayat	8.4	13.9	13.3	20.7	13.5
To confront boys	42.8	59.8	0.8	1.9	1.1
To ignore the Panchayat's decision	0.0	0.5	2.9	4.8	2.2
To accept the Panchayat's decision	13.0	20.5	73.9	71.2	80.7
Don't know/other	35.9	5.3	9.1	1.5	2.5

Self-efficacy	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Deena and Mahesh love each other very much and want to get married, but Deena's parents refuse to allow it. Deena is your friend and she comes to you to ask your advice. What would you tell her?					
To confront parents	NA	36.8	NA	32.4	26.8
To elope	NA	28.6	NA	15.6	18.6
To refuse to marry anyone else	NA	4.9	NA	2.4	2.8
To seek help from friends, peer educator, other	NA	12.5	NA	10.0	5.7
To obey parents	NA	10.0	NA	36.0	41.2
Don't know	NA	7.2	NA	3.7	5.1
Nutan has studied till class 12 and has got a job in a nearby office. Her husband and in-laws refuse to let her work. What should she do?					
To confront husband/in-laws	NA	59.0	NA	61.3	51.2
To seek help	NA	3.3	NA	4.2	2.0
To obey husband/in-laws	NA	32.5	NA	30.6	45.9
Don't know/other	NA	5.2	NA	4.0	0.9
Meenu has recently got married. Her in-laws are very fond of her. However, they have been pressurising her to have a child as soon as possible. Meenu does not want a child at the moment. What should she do in this situation?					
To confront husband/in-laws	NA	61.3	NA	65.6	50.6
To seek help	NA	2.4	NA	2.4	1.2
To obey husband/in-laws	NA	25.7	NA	24.1	45.4
Don't know/other	NA	10.6	NA	8.0	2.8
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable

Table 7.8 Friendship networks

Percent distribution of adolescents by number of friends, frequency of interaction with friends and location of these interactions, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Number of friends, frequency and location of meeting friends	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Size of peer networks: Number of friends					
0	0.8	1.6	0.8	2.8	10.8
1-2	27.5	25.4	31.6	38.9	38.4
3-4	33.7	33.1	32.9	29.7	28.9
5 or more	38.1	39.9	34.7	28.6	22
Mean number of friends	4.4	4.9	4.1	3.7	3.1
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Frequency of interaction with friends					
Never meet or meet once a year	0.3	0.8	0.3	2.1	25
Meet once in 6 months (6-11 months)	0.0	0.5	0.3	3.0	36.2
Meet once a month (1-5 months)	0.4	1.8	1.2	10.5	20.4
Meet daily or at least once a week	99.4	96.8	98.2	84.4	18.5
Location of interaction with friends (multiple response)					
At each other's home	76.7	80.5	84.9	86.9	91.2
At school or around the school	79.1	44.1	85.9	52.4	6.1

Number of friends, frequency and location of meeting friends	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
At work or around work area	0.1	0.6	0.3	0.8	0.2
At recreation sites (park, mall etc.)	67.8	78.3	21.5	24.1	14.3
At other sites	0.5	1.1	0.7	1.1	0.4
Number of respondents with at least one friend	2,518	2,306	2,891	2,227	1,338
Comparison (percent)					
Size of peer networks: Number of friends					
0	0.9	0.8	1.0	3.2	7.7
1-2	31.1	24.7	37.6	43.6	39.9
3-4	27.2	31.3	28.1	30.0	29.2
5 or more	40.7	43.3	33.4	23.2	23.2
Mean number of friends	4.2	4.8	3.9	3.2	3.1
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Frequency of interaction with friends					
Never meet or meet once a year	0.2	0.2	0.8	2.7	24.0
Meet once in 6 months (6-11 months)	0.0	1.3	0.2	3.9	40.9
Meet once a month (1-5 months)	0.2	1.4	0.9	9.8	16.3
Meet daily or at least once a week	99.7	97.1	98.1	83.7	18.8
Location of interaction with friends (multiple response)					
At each other's home	71.2	78.4	82.4	83.8	94.1
At school or around the school	82.6	50	86.8	57.8	6.6
At work or around work area	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.0
At recreation sites (park, mall etc.)	67.5	78.6	15.6	22.6	15.5
At other sites	0.1	0.4	0.8	2.1	0.6
Number of respondents with at least one friend	923	791	1,174	916	452

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable

Table 7.9 Awareness of available groups and group membership
Percentage of adolescents aware of and members of various groups, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Group awareness and membership	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
SAG/SABLA/KSY programme					
Heard about it	NA	NA	5.7	12.9	10.3
Is a member	NA	NA	0.9	1.5	0.5
NYKS					
Heard about it	5.4	16.6	1.7	6.2	2.8
Is a member	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.2	0.1
SHG					
Heard about it	NA	NA	NA	80.6	87.5
Is a member	NA	NA	NA	0.9	14.7

Group awareness and membership	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Udaan Club					
Is a member	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.2	0.2
Sports Club					
Is a member	0.9	2.7	0.4	0.4	0.1
Any club					
Is a member of at least one organization (SABLA, NYKS, sports, Udaan club)	1.0	3.8	1.6	3.1	0.8
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
SAG/SABLA/KSY programme					
Heard about it	NA	NA	6.3	20.2	20.7
Is a member	NA	NA	1.2	3.0	2.1
NYKS					
Heard about it	14.8	23.8	3.6	11.1	7.9
Is a member	0.2	0.6	0.1	1.1	0.0
SHG					
Heard about it	NA	NA	NA	86.4	88.5
Is a member	NA	NA	NA	1.4	17.4
Udaan Club					
Is a member	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.2
Sports Club					
Is a member	2.4	4.5	0.7	1.4	0.5
Any Club					
Is a member of at least one organization (SABLA, NYKS, sports, Udaan club)	2.7	5.5	2.3	5.5	2.9
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 7.10 Gender role attitudes
Percentage of adolescents expressing egalitarian gender role attitudes, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes: % adolescents agreeing or disagreeing with gender role statements					
Educating boys is more important than educating girls: DISAGREE	70.5	NA	85.9	NA	NA
Girls are as good as boys in maths: AGREE	56.9	NA	73.4	NA	NA
Boys should do as much domestic work as girls: AGREE	47.7	NA	51.9	NA	NA
Girls should be allowed to decide when they want to marry: AGREE	38.7	61.5	54.7	79.4	72.3
Father/husband alone/mainly should decide about spending household money: DISAGREE	36.0	64.3	55.3	77.6	72.9

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Giving young children a bath and feeding them are only a woman's responsibility: DISAGREE	61.8	75.4	73.5	86.8	82.0
It is acceptable for a woman whose husband is earning well to work: AGREE	57.6	75.3	48.2	67.1	49.4
It is wrong for girls to have male friends: DISAGREE	28.8	37.1	61.5	70.3	68.0
Summary measures					
Egalitarian responses on four common statements posed	6.2	20.6	20.6	41.1	26.9
Egalitarian responses on all statements posed (7 to 10-14 year olds; 5 to 15-21 year olds)	3.6	19.6	13.7	37.3	23.2
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes: % adolescents agreeing or disagreeing with gender role statements					
Educating boys is more important than educating girls: DISAGREE	72.6	NA	91.0	NA	NA
Girls are as good as boys in maths: AGREE	54.6	NA	75.2	NA	NA
Boys should do as much domestic work as girls: AGREE	43.1	NA	50.4	NA	NA
Girls should be allowed to decide when they want to marry: AGREE	38.7	61.5	54.7	79.4	72.3
Father/husband alone/mainly should decide about spending household money: DISAGREE	61.3	76.7	73.2	85.3	85.0
Giving young children a bath and feeding them are only a woman's responsibility: DISAGREE	57.0	77.6	50.4	70.4	51.6
It is acceptable for a woman whose husband is earning well to work: AGREE	31.5	40.9	62.6	75.3	63.1
It is wrong for girls to have male friends: DISAGREE	NA	90.0	NA	77.7	72.3
Summary measures					
Egalitarian responses on four common statements posed	6.8	22.5	22.5	46.7	28.1
Egalitarian responses on all statements posed (7 to 10-14 year olds; 5 to 15-21 year olds)	3.1	22.0	13.3	41.7	25.4
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 7.12 Attitudes about the justifiability of violence against women and girls
Percentage of adolescents reporting attitudes rejecting violence against women and girls in various circumstances, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Rejection of violence against unmarried girls in the following circumstances:					
A girl deserves to be beaten if she talks to a boy: DISAGREE	71.5	86.0	64.0	79.5	73.7
A girl deserves to be beaten if she stays out late: DISAGREE	62.0	72.9	58.1	71.7	66.9
A girl deserves to be beaten if she doesn't do household chores: DISAGREE	70.2	NA	63.7	NA	NA
A girl deserves to be beaten if she doesn't obey her elders: DISAGREE	55.2	NA	49.0	NA	NA
Rejection of violence against married women in the following circumstances:					
A woman deserves to be beaten if she doesn't listen to her husband: DISAGREE	63.4	71.7	56.8	69.2	61.6
A woman deserves to be beaten if she neglects her family or children: DISAGREE	66.1	72.6	60.3	71.6	65.4
A woman deserves to be beaten if she doesn't cook well: DISAGREE	85.0	90.9	72.3	82.7	78.2
A woman deserves to be beaten if she gives birth only to girls: DISAGREE	90.0	98.1	90.9	97.6	97.3
A woman deserves to be beaten if she has an extra-marital affair: DISAGREE	NA	27.2	NA	31.8	28.1
Summary measures					
Rejects violence in all eight situations posed	32.8	NA	30.6	NA	NA
Rejects violence in six situations posed (excluding the acceptability of violence if the woman has extramarital relations)	NA	51.6	NA	53.7	45.6
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Rejection of violence against unmarried girls in the following circumstances:					
A girl deserves to be beaten if she talks to a boy: DISAGREE	68.8	82.7	65.4	82.1	73.4
A girl deserves to be beaten if she stays out late: DISAGREE	61.1	72.3	58.1	73.7	69.6
A girl deserves to be beaten if she doesn't do household chores: DISAGREE	68.9	NA	65.6	NA	NA
A girl deserves to be beaten if she doesn't obey her elders: DISAGREE	53.4	NA	46.4	NA	NA
Rejection of violence against married women in the following circumstances:					
A woman deserves to be beaten if she doesn't listen to her husband: DISAGREE	66.4	72.7	58.4	71.8	65.1
A woman deserves to be beaten if she neglects her family or children: DISAGREE	69.7	74.7	60.2	73.5	66.7
A woman deserves to be beaten if she doesn't cook well: DISAGREE	85.6	91.7	74.6	84.4	81.2

Expression of gender egalitarian attitudes	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
A woman deserves to be beaten if she gives birth only to girls: DISAGREE	88.4	97.9	91.1	97.8	98.3
A woman deserves to be beaten if she has an extra-marital affair: DISAGREE	NA	28.9	NA	29.9	27.0
Summary measures					
Rejects violence in all eight situations posed	32.3	NA	29.9	NA	NA
Rejects violence in six situations posed (excluding the acceptability of violence if the woman has extramarital relations)	NA	52.2	NA	56.1	48.7
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 7.14 Expression of prosocial or secular attitudes
Percentage of adolescents who would mix freely with individuals from other religions and castes, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Expression of secular attitudes	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Mix freely with those from different castes	96.7	94.0	91.6
Mix freely with those from different religions	91.7	90.3	86.4
Would eat together with those from different castes and religions	67.8	67.8	51.1
Mix with and would eat together with those from both different castes and different religions	66.9	66.5	50.0
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)			
Mix freely with those from different castes	98.1	95.4	92.9
Mix freely with those from different religions	94.3	93.3	87.3
Would eat together with those from different castes and religions	70.6	73.1	57.6
Mix with and would eat together with those from both different castes and different religions	69.6	72.7	57.1
Number of respondents	800	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.



CHAPTER 8

AWARENESS OF SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH MATTERS

Table 8.1 Awareness about puberty-related matters

Percentage of adolescents reporting awareness about whether boys, girls or both boys and girls experience selected physiological changes, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Correct responses to questions on whether only boys, only girls or both boys and girls	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Responses to questions on whether only boys, only girls or both boys and girls experience various physiological changes					
Increase in height and weight takes place among both boys and girls	90.0	91.5	89.7	94.0	96.3
Growth of hair in private parts takes place among both boys and girls	42.3	86.2	50.5	86.9	96.5
Menstruation takes place only among girls	13.3	70.7	57.0	97.5	98.9
Broadening of hips takes place only among girls	13.2	45.0	24.6	44.0	44.9
Development of breasts takes place only among girls	73.6	95.2	91.7	96.7	97.3
Change in voice takes place only among boys	12.6	20.8	15.4	28.0	23.2
Nocturnal emission takes place only among boys	4.4	36.1	0.8	4.4	19.1
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Responses to questions on whether only boys, only girls or both boys and girls experience various physiological changes					
Increase in height and weight takes place among both boys and girls	88.4	92.7	91.1	95.7	95.7
Growth of hair in private parts takes place among both boys and girls	42.0	87.3	53.8	87.6	98.6
Menstruation takes place only among girls	15.2	64.5	58.4	97.9	99.0
Broadening of hips takes place only among girls	13.7	42.4	24.6	39.3	46.0
Development of breasts takes place only among girls	76.5	94.5	89.8	95.3	98.4
Change in voice takes place only among boys	18.1	24.0	16.9	29.9	21.7
Nocturnal emission takes place only among boys	8.3	38.9	0.9	4.9	17.5
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 8.2 Perceptions about acceptable behaviour during menstruation
Percentage of adolescent girls reporting that it is acceptable for women and girls to perform various taboo activities during menstruation, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Responses to questions on whether girls can perform various taboo activities during menstruation	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Rejection of traditional taboos on activities during menstruation			
During menstruation, it is acceptable for a woman/girl to visit a temple/mosque	6.5	15.2	7.0
During menstruation, women/girls do not need to stay away from others	36.1	68.9	58.4
During menstruation, it is acceptable for girls to play	20.8	46.2	38.3
During menstruation, it is acceptable for a woman/girl to make pickles or papad	11.7	26.2	19.5
Number of respondents	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)			
Rejection of traditional taboos on activities during menstruation			
During menstruation, it is acceptable for a woman/girl to visit a temple/mosque	4.2	12.1	5.3
During menstruation, women/girls do not need to stay away from others	34.3	70.1	58.3
During menstruation, it is acceptable for girls to play	21.9	51.7	45.6
During menstruation, it is acceptable for a woman/girl to make pickles or papad	10.7	24.8	21.3
Number of respondents	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 8.3 Awareness about becoming pregnant
Percentage of adolescents aged 13-21 who were aware about pregnancy-related matters, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness indicators	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
A woman can get pregnant after kissing/hugging					
No	62.3	NA	48.2	NA	NA
A woman can get pregnant after kissing/hugging					
Yes	4.6	28.6	13.2	27.4	46.1
A woman can get pregnant after kissing/hugging					
Yes	NA	NA	NA	4.8	13.3
Number of respondents	926	2,350	1,178	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
A woman can get pregnant after kissing/hugging					
No	56.3	NA	42.1	NA	NA
A woman can get pregnant at first sex					
Yes	8.1	28.2	11.1	26.9	52.8
A woman is most likely to get pregnant if she has sex half-way between her periods					
Yes	NA	NA	NA	4.3	19.1
Number of respondents	363	800	453	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 8.4 Awareness of matters relating to the sex of the foetus

Percentage of adolescents aware that males are responsible for the sex of the foetus, that prenatal sex determination tests are available, and that disclosure of the sex of the foetus is illegal, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness of matters relating to the sex of the foetus	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Awareness that it is the male who is responsible for the sex of the foetus	11.8	34.0	11.9	28.8	25.6
Awareness that there exist tests to determine the sex of the foetus	27.8	66.4	45.8	75.2	77.5
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Aware that disclosure of the sex of the foetus is illegal	NA	68.9	NA	67.9	65.7
Number of respondents aware that tests to determine the sex of the foetus exist	NA	1,571	NA	1,689	1,144
Comparison (percent)					
Awareness that it is the male who is responsible for the sex of the foetus	12.6	30.9	9.9	28.1	23.7
Awareness that there exist tests to determine the sex of the foetus	36.1	72.0	46.0	81.2	79.6
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Aware that disclosure of the sex of the foetus is illegal	NA	77.7	NA	74.3	65.8
Number of respondents aware that tests to determine the sex of the foetus exist	NA	543	NA	760	387

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 8.5 Awareness of selected contraceptive methods

Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 who reported awareness and specific knowledge of selected contraceptive methods, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Contraceptive methods	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
	Any awareness Has heard about selected contraceptives			In-depth awareness Knows specific use of selected methods		
Intervention (percent)						
Oral pills	51.8	64.0	80.0	7.0	5.3	18.9
Emergency contraception	18.4	10.0	12.3	3.4	1.3	1.0
Condoms	89.3	46.8	75.7	62.5	13.6	41.8
IUCD	14.0	22.5	45.9	4.7	2.4	7.4
Any of the above	91.1	73.3	90.5	63.7	17.6	50.7
Female sterilisation*	42.7	83.6	88.6	NA	NA	NA
Traditional methods (withdrawal, safe period)*	2.7	1.4	9.9	NA	NA	NA
Other methods (female condom, male sterilisation, implant, vaginal tablets, injections)*	11.7	14.3	26.5	NA	NA	NA
Any of the above	92.1	93.3	98.4	NA	NA	NA
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504	2,350	2,292	1,504

Contraceptive methods	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
	Any awareness Has heard about selected contraceptives			In-depth awareness Knows specific use of selected methods		
Comparison (percent)						
Oral pills	51.6	66.6	78.1	5.8	5.7	14.8
Emergency contraception	22.7	14.5	14.7	3.4	2.2	1.6
Condoms	91.6	50.8	73.2	59.9	14.1	45.7
IUCD	13.9	23.9	45.9	5.2	2.5	8.4
Any of the above	93.5	74.3	87.7	60.5	18.6	51.9
Female sterilisation*	50.0	74.4	87.0	NA	NA	NA
Traditional methods (withdrawal, safe period)*	2.6	1.4	7.2	NA	NA	NA
Other methods (female condom, male sterilisation, implant, vaginal tablets, injections)*	14.6	16.5	23.6	NA	NA	NA
Any of the above	94.7	91.7	97.3	NA	NA	NA
Number of respondents	800	945	495	800	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. *spontaneous responses: in response to question "what other methods have you heard about?"

Table 8.6 Awareness of HIV/AIDS and STIs other than HIV

Percentage of adolescents who had heard of and had comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS, and percentage of adolescents who had heard about STIs, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness indicators	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Heard about HIV/AIDS	6.6	46.4	4.3	26.1	14.2
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Aware that disclosure of the sex of the foetus is illegal	NA	68.9	NA	67.9	65.7
Knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention, common misperceptions					
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by having a single sexual partner	NA	77.4	NA	58.2	67.4
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by consistent use of condoms	NA	81.2	NA	40.5	58.5
One cannot get HIV through mosquito bites	48.1	61.6	51.5	69.4	62.0
One cannot get HIV by sharing food with an HIV-positive person	36.9	53.2	30.7	59.6	59.1
One cannot get HIV by hugging an HIV-positive person	49.8	65.8	54.0	72.1	70.6
One cannot tell if a person is HIV-positive by just looking at him/her	83.7	84.5	82.4	89.9	89.7
Number who had heard about HIV/AIDS	181	1,097	140	584	226
Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS¹	1.4	11.1	0.8	5.1	3.5
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Heard about STIs other than HIV	NA	17.8	NA	22.0	24.0
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Heard about HIV/AIDS	10.4	57.2	7.1	35.4	22.0
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Awareness indicators	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention, common misperceptions					
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by having a single sexual partner	NA	79.4	NA	52.4	72.5
One can reduce one's chances of getting HIV by consistent use of condoms	NA	77.4	NA	35.4	51.5
One cannot get HIV through mosquito bites	68.2	67.9	45.7	59.5	39.8
One cannot get HIV by sharing food with an HIV-positive person	43.0	56.1	38.9	51.9	50.3
One cannot get HIV by hugging an HIV-positive person	54.4	71.7	51.1	63.6	66.3
One cannot tell if a person is HIV-positive by just looking at him/her	80.9	88.9	73.0	90.2	77.4
Number who had heard about HIV/AIDS	89	424	71	281	89
Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS¹	2.4	15.0	1.5	4.8	3.4
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Heard about STIs other than HIV	NA	17.4	NA	18.8	29.3
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. ¹Comprehensive awareness of HIV/AIDS includes percentages aware of all issues about which they were probed (4 for 10-14 year olds; 6 for 15-21 year olds; those unaware of HIV/AIDS were coded as lacking comprehensive awareness.

Table 8.7 Awareness about the legal minimum age at marriage
Percentage of adolescents who knew the legal minimum age at marriage for males and females in India, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Awareness indicators	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Aware that there is a legal minimum age of marriage for boys and girls in India	60.7	88.8	51.0	80.8	73.1
Knew that 21 is the legal minimum age of marriage for boys in India	18.8	38.0	22.6	43.8	31.3
Knew that 18 is the legal minimum age of marriage for girls in India	43.8	74.3	50.7	81.0	73.6
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Aware that there is a legal minimum age of marriage for boys and girls in India	67.2	92.0	49.9	86.1	78.5
Knew that 21 is the legal minimum age of marriage for boys in India	19.2	44.3	21.4	46.6	35.3
Knew that 18 is the legal minimum age of marriage for girls in India	47.7	75.1	51.3	79.1	75.1
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 8.8 Sources of information about physiological changes taking place in adolescence

Percentage of adolescents aged 10-14 by sources of information about physiological changes taking place during adolescence, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Sources of information	Boys (10-14)	Girls (10-14)	Boys (10-14)	Girls (10-14)
	Intervention (percent)		Comparison (percent)	
Parents	7.1	24.1	10.4	28.6
Siblings	1.7	11.1	1.3	10.9
Spouse/partner	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.1
Siblings-in-law	0.0	3.0	0.0	1.6
Other female family members	0.4	15.7	0.2	11.7
Other male family members	3.2	0.2	1.2	0.2
Any family member	12.4	54.0	13.4	53.1
Female friends/neighbours	0.5	27.7	0.0	26.8
Male friends/neighbours	41.7	0.3	30.7	0.1
Any friend	42.2	28.0	30.7	26.9
Teachers /school	11.0	12.9	13.4	14.5
Healthcare providers	0.5	0.7	0.0	0.7
Youth/mahila mandal /NGO	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
AWW/ASHA/Sahiya	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.6
AEP/UDAAN	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.9
Any person in a position of authority in the community¹	11.6	14.6	13.4	16.7
Newspapers/books /magazines	2.2	3.2	2.0	4.2
Radio/ TV/internet	0.3	0.5	0.3	1.4
Posters/billboards	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Any media	2.6	3.7	2.3	5.7
Never received	33.9	22.5	40.9	23.8
Does not remember/cannot say	5.4	0.5	4.6	1.9
Number of respondents	2,542	2,919	931	1,185

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Not a single respondent indicated Sakhi/Saheli or RKSK peer educator.

Table 8.9 Sources of information about sexual and reproductive matters

Percentage of adolescents aged 13-21 by sources of information about sexual and reproductive matters, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Sources of information	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Father/mother	0.3	0.2	8.0	6.8	4.4
Brother/sister	0.6	0.4	4.6	4.5	1.8
Husband/partner	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.1	12.8
Brother-in-law/Sister in law	0.2	0.7	3.7	9.6	13.5
Other female family members	0.0	0.3	10.5	25.1	38.1
Other male family members	0.5	1.9	0.1	0.3	0.7
Any family member	1.6	3.6	27.2	46.3	71.2
Female friends/neighbours	0.2	0.9	15.3	38.1	33.3
Male friends/neighbours	32.0	68.4	0.1	0.5	0.3
Any friend	32.2	69.3	15.4	38.6	33.6
Teachers /school	9.4	11.9	5.4	12.3	4.1
Healthcare providers	1.2	4.0	1.6	2.4	9.6
Youth/mahila mandal /NGO workers	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1
AWW/ASHA/Sahiya	0.0	0.4	0.5	1.9	5.9
Any person in a position of authority in the community¹	10.9	16.9	7.7	16.8	20.1
Newspapers/books /magazines	3.7	9.2	2.2	11.0	4.6
Radio/ TV/internet	0.6	5.3	1.0	6.0	2.5
Posters/billboards	0.0	1.6	0.0	0.9	0.5
Any media	4.3	16.1	3.3	17.8	7.6
Never received	54.8	15.9	56.3	18.1	8.7
Does not remember/cannot say	2.7	0.6	1.2	0.2	0.3
Number of respondents	926	2,350	1,178	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Father/mother	0.5	0.2	10.2	9.6	7.6
Brother/sister	0.2	0.3	5.5	7.2	3.2
Husband/partner	0.6	0.3	0.0	0.0	12.7
Brother-in-law/Sister in law	1.3	0.0	1.4	12.9	15.5
Other female family members	0.0	0.1	7.0	17.7	32.6
Other male family members	0.8	1.4	0.2	0.2	0.8
Any family member	3.4	2.3	24.3	47.6	72.5
Female friends/neighbours	0.0	0.5	16.9	37.4	32.5
Male friends/neighbours	25.7	63.5	0.0	0.3	0.3
Any friend	25.7	63.9	16.9	37.7	32.9
Teachers /school	10.0	15.5	6.7	11.2	4.0
Healthcare providers	1.5	5.4	2.3	2.4	10.8
Youth/mahila mandal /NGO	0.0	0.0	0.2	2.0	8.2

Sources of information	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
AWW/ASHA/Sahiya	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
Any person in a position of authority in the community¹	11.5	21.7	9.2	15.5	23.1
Newspapers/books /magazines	2.0	10.6	3.3	10.1	5.5
Radio/ TV/internet	0.5	12.6	3.3	13.0	3.8
Posters/billboards	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.3	0.9
Any media	2.5	25.4	6.6	23.4	10.1
Never received	59.3	16.3	58.8	20.5	6.2
Does not remember/cannot say	2.8	0.6	2.1	0.2	0.0
Number of respondents	363	800	453	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Not a single respondent indicated Sakhi/Saheli, RKSK peer educator, or AEP/UDAAN.

Table 8.10 Sources from which adolescents would like to learn about sexual and reproductive matters
Percentage of adolescents aged 13-21 by preferred sources of information about sexual and reproductive matters, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Preferred sources of information	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Father/mother	3.0	1.1	29.3	21.0	5.6
Brother/sister	1.2	0.4	10.2	9.3	2.7
Husband/partner	0.1	0.8	0.7	1.0	24.2
Brother-in-law/Sister-in-law	0.6	1.0	9.6	14.4	15.0
Other female family members	0.5	0.3	12.1	14.3	22.1
Other male family members	1.2	2.7	0.0	0.3	0.6
Any family member	6.5	6.3	62.0	60.3	70.3
Female friends/neighbours	0.7	1.2	20.9	30.6	17.6
Male friends/neighbours	43.4	59.1	0.2	0.5	0.1
Any friend	44.1	60.2	21.0	31.0	17.7
Teachers /school	19.6	11.6	8.6	5.0	0.7
Healthcare providers	18.9	31.8	10.2	19.3	29.3
Youth/mahila mandal /NGO workers	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.1	0.0
AWW/ASHA/Sahiya	0.1	0.6	1.4	3.4	7.1
Sakhi/saheli/sabla	NA	NA	0.0	0.3	0.0
RKSK/peer educator	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Any person in a position of authority in the community¹	38.9	44.3	20.3	28.1	37.1
Newspapers/books /magazines	4.7	5.3	3.3	4.1	1.5
Radio/ TV/internet	2.1	11.0	0.8	3.7	1.4
Posters/billboards	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Any media	6.8	16.5	4.1	7.8	2.9
No desire to receive information	17.5	4.6	10.3	4.7	2.0
Does not remember/cannot say	8.3	1.3	5.3	2.3	0.7
Number of respondents	926	2,350	1,178	2,292	1,504

Preferred sources of information	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Comparison (percent)					
Father/mother	4.6	0.9	35.9	22.6	7.2
Brother/sister	0.6	0.6	12.1	10.4	1.7
Husband/partner	2.5	1.7	0.0	0.9	25.1
Brother-in-law/Sister-in-law	1.3	0.7	6.5	14.9	14.2
Other female family members	0.0	0.4	7.7	12.0	22.9
Other male family members	1.3	2.2	0.4	0.1	0.0
Any family member	10.2	6.4	62.7	61.0	71.0
Female friends/neighbours	0.4	1.1	21.3	28.3	17.0
Male friends/neighbours	33.1	54.3	0.0	0.4	0.0
Any friend	33.5	55.4	21.3	28.7	17.0
Teachers /school	18.4	9.5	8.6	4.3	0.5
Healthcare providers	20.4	35.1	10.0	20.3	30.2
Youth/mahila mandal /NGO	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
AWW/ASHA/Sahiya	0.2	2.2	0.5	3.5	11.3
Sakhi/saheli/sabla	NA	NA	0.0	0.0	0.0
RKSK/peer educator	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Any person in a position of authority in the community¹	39.0	46.8	19.1	28.2	42.0
Newspapers/books /magazines	5.7	5.7	5.1	5.2	2.4
Radio/ TV/internet	2.5	14.2	2.8	6.6	2.0
Posters/billboards	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.0	0.2
Any media	8.3	20.5	8.0	11.9	4.5
No desire to receive information	21.6	8.3	12.5	7.4	1.2
Does not remember/cannot say	9.6	1.7	4.5	2.1	0.4
Number of respondents	363	800	453	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Not a single respondent indicated the AEP/UDAAN.

Table 8.11 Participation in adolescence education or sexuality education programmes
Percentage of adolescents aged 13-21 by exposure to adolescence education or sexuality programmes, and percentages of these adolescents reporting various experiences, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Exposure indicators	Boys (13-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (13-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Ever received family life or sex education					
Yes	2.2	4.8	22.3	25.5	15.5
Number of respondents	926	2,350	1,178	2,292	1,504
Source of family life or sex education					
NGO programme/camp	-	20.9	2.3	1.9	0.2
Government programme/camp	-	4.1	0.8	2.0	1.6
School/college	-	72.9	96.9	95.8	97.7
Other	-	2.2	0.1	0.3	0.5
Age at first exposure					
Median	-	15	13	14	14
Topics covered					
Menstruation/nocturnal emission	-	32.3	95.4	97.4	96.0
Pregnancy	-	35.0	17.4	29.6	23.4
Relationship between boys and girls	-	57.3	32.5	44.0	36.0
Respondents ever exposed	21	105	284	620	240
Comparison (percent)					
Ever received family life or sex education					
Yes	4.5	7.4	24.4	26.3	14.2
Number of respondents	363	800	453	945	495
Source of family life or sex education					
NGO programme/camp	-	(4.5)	0.0	0.1	0.0
Government programme/camp	-	(3.5)	0.0	1.5	0.0
School/college	-	(92.0)	99.2	98.4	100.0
Other	-	(0.0)	0.9	(0.0)	(0.0)
Age at first exposure					
Median	-	(15)	13	14	14
Topics covered					
Menstruation/nocturnal emission	-	(25.4)	91.3	93.5	98.4
Pregnancy	-	(31.2)	20.9	31.5	51.7
Relationship between boys and girls	-	(62.4)	33.8	26.3	28.4
Respondents ever exposed	11	37	92	218	54

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. -Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases.



CHAPTER 9

ROMANTIC AND SEXUAL RELATIONSHIPS

Table 9.1 Premarital romantic relationships of older adolescents
Percentage of adolescents in ages 15-21 reporting a premarital romantic relationship, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Premarital romantic relationships	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Reported a romantic partner	37.2	26.9	33.6
Reported more than one romantic partner	10.8	1.0	2.6
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)			
Reported a romantic partner	32.7	24.8	31.8
Reported more than one romantic partner	10.4	1.2	1.0
Number of respondents	800	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 9.2 Extent of physical intimacy within a romantic relationship
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 who reported a premarital romantic relationship by experiences of physical intimacy and sex with their romantic partner, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Nature of relationships	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Ever hugged	75.5	58.4	65.5
Ever kissed	71.0	47.3	56.7
Ever had sexual relations	49.9	25.7	36.1
Number of respondents	833	625	518
Comparison (percent)			
Ever hugged	76.8	58.3	68.9
Ever kissed	67.6	41.8	60.3
Ever had sexual relations	33.0	16.7	30.2
Number of respondents	250	217	152

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 9.3 Nature of sexual experiences of adolescents within premarital romantic relationships
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 who had engaged in premarital sexual relations with a romantic partner reporting age at entry into premarital sexual life, contraceptive use, and non-consensual sexual relations with an opposite-sex romantic partner, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Characteristics	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Entry into pre-marital sexual relations			
Age at first sex (Mean)	16.2	16.1	15.6
Contraception			
Contraceptive use			
Practised contraception at first sex	13.1	10.4	8.4
Consistent contraceptive use: in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner¹	5.2	7.6	3.7
Condom use			
Used a condom at first sex	10.8	4.2	3.7
Consistent condom use: in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner¹	4.3	2.3	1.1
Traditional method use			
Used withdrawal or rhythm at first sex			
Used withdrawal or rhythm in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner	0.8	3.9	3.8
Non-Consensual sex			
Boy pressured/threatened/forced girl/ Girl was pressured/threatened/forced by boy at first sex	14.8	61.5	59.8
Boy pressured/threatened/forced girl/ Girl was pressured/threatened/forced by boy in any sexual encounter	16.0	64.5	63.0
Number reporting premarital sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner	416	142	174
Comparison (percent)			
Entry into pre-marital sexual relations			
Age at first sex (Mean)	16.2	16.3	15.6
Contraception			
Contraceptive use			
Practised contraception at first sex	16.2	(13.4)	17.5
Consistent contraceptive use: in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner¹	8.6	(9.8)	9.3
Condom use			
Used a condom at first sex	13.8	(9.1)	9.3
Consistent condom use: in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner¹	6.8	(6.8)	4.7
Traditional method use			
Used withdrawal or rhythm at first sex			
Used withdrawal or rhythm in all sexual encounters with first and last romantic sexual partner	1.8	(3.0)	6.1

Characteristics	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Boy pressured/threatened/forced girl/ Girl was pressured/threatened/forced by boy at first sex	12.4	(55.2)	48.1
Boy pressured/threatened/forced girl/ Girl was pressured/threatened/forced by boy in any sexual encounter	17.8	(57.6)	44.9
Number reporting premarital sex with an opposite-sex romantic partner	94	43	50

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () based on 25-49 unweighted numbers.

Table 9.4 Non-contact sexual harassment and non-consensual sexual touch among younger adolescents
Percentage of adolescents aged 10–14 reporting experience (girls) and perpetration (boys) of non-contact sexual harassment*, percentage of boys and girls aged 10-14 experiencing non-consensual sexual touch, and percentage of boys aged 10-14 perpetrating non-consensual sexual touch according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Non-consensual sexual experiences	Boys (10-14)	Girls (10-14)	Boys (10-14)	Girls (10-14)
	Intervention (percent)		Comparison (percent)	
Ever experienced non-contact sexual harassment	NA	16.0	NA	12.2
Non-consensual sexual touch				
Ever experienced non-consensual sexual touch	2.5	2.7	3.0	1.6
Perpetration of non-consensual sexual acts				
Ever verbally harassed a girl in a sexual way	3.9	NA	2.1	NA
Ever perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl	0.3	NA	0.8	NA
Number of respondents	2,542	2,919	931	1,185
Help seeking				
Sought help when experienced non-contact sexual harassment	NA	57.9	NA	-
Number who had experienced non-contact sexual harassment	NA	444	NA	-
Sought help when experienced non-consensual sexual touch	26	44.5	-	-
Number who had experienced non-consensual sexual touch	61	57	24	17

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases. *Includes teasing, whistling, staring, stalking, passing comments, making lewd and threatening gestures.

Table 9.5 Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex among older adolescents
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 reporting non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex, and percentage of boys aged 15-21 reporting perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
A. Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch including attempted forced sex			
• Experience			
Ever experienced non-consensual sexual touch, including attempted forced sex	5.7	14.6	11.7
Experienced non-consensual sexual touch in the 12 months preceding the interview	2.9	7.6	1.7
• Perpetration			
Ever perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl	3.9	NA	NA
Perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl in the 12 months prior to the interview	1.8	NA	NA
B. Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sex			
• Experience			
Pressured or forced by romantic partner	NA	4.5	7.7
Pressured or forced by anyone else	0.3	0.9	0.8
Pressured or forced by romantic partner or anyone else	0.3	4.8	8.2
• Perpetration: ever forced or pressured a girl to have sex			
A girlfriend	2.8	NA	NA
Anyone else	0.7	NA	NA
A girlfriend or anyone else	3.4	NA	NA
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)			
A. Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch including attempted forced sex			
• Experience			
Ever experienced non-consensual sexual touch, including attempted forced sex	5.4	14.2	14.1
Experienced non-consensual sexual touch in the 12 months preceding the interview	2.0	7.8	2.2
• Perpetration			
Ever perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl	2.8	NA	NA
Perpetrated non-consensual sexual touch on a girl in the 12 months prior to the interview	0.8	NA	NA
B. Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sex			
• Experience			
Pressured or forced by romantic partner	NA	2.4	4.8
Pressured or forced by anyone else	0.0	0.4	0.6
Pressured or forced by romantic partner or anyone else	0.0	2.4	4.8

Experience and perpetration of non-consensual sexual touch and forced sex	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
• Perpetration: ever forced or pressured a girl to have sex			
A girlfriend	1.4	NA	NA
Anyone else	0.0	NA	NA
A girlfriend or anyone else	1.4	NA	NA
Number of respondents	800	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. - Percentage not shown; Based on <25 or fewer unweighted cases.

Table 9.6 Help seeking for non-consensual sexual experience
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 reporting non-consensual sexual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex¹ who sought help, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Sought help for non-consensual sexual experience	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Sought help when experienced non-consensual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex	31.0	55.5	45.8
Number of respondents who had experienced non-consensual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex	124	351	205
Comparison (percent)			
Sought help when experienced non-consensual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex	(22.2)	53.3	50.2
Number of respondents who had experienced non-consensual touch, attempted forced sex or forced sex	33	124	60

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases. ¹2 boys and, 20 unmarried girls and 17 married girls) reported experiencing forced sex.

Table 9.7 Overall premarital sexual experiences adolescents aged 15-21
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 reporting premarital sexual experiences with opposite-sex partners and via different reporting methods, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Premarital sexual experiences and reporting methods	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Reported premarital sex partners			
Engaged in sex with a romantic partner	18.5	6.9	12.1
Ever forced a girl (including girlfriend) to have sex	3.4	NA	NA
Ever been forced (for girls, includes by boyfriend) to have sex	0.3	4.8	8.2
Engaged in sexual relations for marks, gifts, promotion	0.7	0.4	0.0
Engaged in casual sex	2.4	0.1	0.0
Experienced sex with husband before marriage	NA	NA	9.2
Engaged in relations with a sex worker	0.5	NA	NA
Engaged in relations with a married woman	1.6	NA	NA
Any premarital sex (face to face)	20.0	7.1	13.8
Any premarital sex (sealed envelope)	20.7	10.4	13.1
Any premarital sex	23.5	11.6	18.2
Number of respondents	2,350	2,292	1,504

Premarital sexual experiences and reporting methods	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Comparison (percent)			
Reported premarital sex partners			
Engaged in sex with a romantic partner	10.8	4.2	9.6
Ever forced a girl (including girlfriend) to have sex	1.4	NA	NA
Ever been forced (for girls, includes by boyfriend) to have sex	0.0	2.4	4.8
Engaged in sexual relations for marks, gifts, promotion	0.2	0	0
Engaged in casual sex	1.2	0.2	0.3
Experienced sex with husband before marriage	NA	NA	6.8
Engaged in relations with a sex worker	0.1	NA	NA
Engaged in relations with a married woman	0.8	NA	NA
Any premarital sex (face to face)	11.9	4.2	11.0
Any premarital sex (sealed envelope)	14.9	7.3	12.4
Any premarital sex	16.8	8.1	15.1
Number of respondents	800	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 9.8 Premarital pregnancy
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 who had premarital sexual experience reporting a premarital pregnancy, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Premarital sexual experiences and reporting methods	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Had a premarital pregnancy (girl)/girlfriend or other sexual partner had become pregnant (boy)	2.2	4.7	15.2
Number reporting a premarital sexual relationship in face-to-face interview	450	151	215
Comparison (percent)			
Had a premarital pregnancy (girl)/girlfriend or other sexual partner had become pregnant (boy)	1.8	(2.1)	5.5
Number reporting a premarital sexual relationship in face-to-face interview	103	44	61

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases.



CHAPTER 10

MARRIAGE AND MARRIED LIFE

Table 10.1 Preferred ages at marriage reported by unmarried adolescents, and perceptions regarding preferences of their parents

Percentage of unmarried adolescents reporting the age at which they would like to marry and the age at which they believe that their parents would like them to marry, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Preferred age at marriage and perceptions regarding preferences of their parents	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)				
Adolescents' preferences about age at which to marry*				
Wish to marry in childhood (below age 18)	0.3	0.2	1.5	0.7
Wish to marry any time during adolescence (below age 20, includes those who wish to marry in childhood)	2.3	2.1	14.2	15.9
Wish to marry at age 20 or older	22.9	55.0	17.4	48.0
Have not thought about it	74.4	42.8	68.3	34.9
Never want to marry	0.5	0.1	1.3	1.1
Parental preferences for adolescents' age at marriage				
Wish to marry their child in adolescence (below age 18)	a	0.2	a	6.8
Wish to marry their child any time during adolescence (below age 20), includes those whose parents wished for them to marry in childhood	a	2.3	a	21.2
Wish to marry their child at age 20 or older	a	17.9	a	19.6
Adolescent does not know parents' preference	97.3	79.8	90.1	59.2
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292
Adolescents' versus parental preferences				
Adolescent preferred to marry one or more years later than parents wished to marry them	a	38.8	a	56.4
Number of respondents who knew parental preferences	a	437	a	804
Comparison (percent)				
Adolescents' preferences about age at which to marry*				
Wish to marry in childhood (below age 18)	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.3
Wish to marry any time during adolescence (below age 20, includes those who wish to marry in childhood)	3.4	1.1	15.1	12.1
Wish to marry at age 20 or older	31.7	55.9	21.9	55.2
Have not thought about it	64.0	42.2	62.4	31.7
Never want to marry	1.0	0.8	0.8	1.0
Parental preferences for adolescents' age at marriage				
Wish to marry their child in adolescence (below age 18)	a	0.1	a	5.3
Wish to marry their child any time during adolescence (below age 20), includes those whose parents wished for them to marry in childhood	a	1.5	a	22.3
Wish to marry their child at age 20 or older	a	16.1	a	25.0

Preferred age at marriage and perceptions regarding preferences of their parents	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)
Adolescent does not know parents' preference	94.9	82.4	90.1	52.7
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945
Adolescents' versus parental preferences				
Adolescent preferred to marry one or more years later than parents wished to marry them	a	47.8	a	54.8
Number of respondents who knew parental preferences	a	132	a	359

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. *Because so few younger adolescents were aware of parental preferences, percentages would be misleading and are not shown.

Table 10.2 Age at marriage and cohabitation
Percentage of adolescent girls aged 15-21 who were married before selected ages, percentage, and median age at marriage and cohabitation among those married, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of age at marriage	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Married by age 15	5.1	4.2
Number of married and unmarried girls aged 15-21	3,796	1,440
Married by age 18	35.3	33.18
Number of married and unmarried girls aged 18-21	2,057	747
Median age at marriage	16	16
Number of married girls aged 15-21	1,504	495
Median age at cohabitation	16	17
Number of married girls aged 15-21 who had started cohabiting with husband	1,497	491

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 10.4 Involvement in marriage processes, pre-marital acquaintance with husband and pre-marital counselling about pregnancy delay
Percent distribution of married girls aged 15-21 by type of marriage and extent of acquaintance with husband before marriage, and percentage reporting that they had been counselled about the importance of birth spacing prior to marriage, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Marriage indicators	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Engagement in marriage related decisions		
Girl selected husband herself (love marriage)	20.9	17.5
Husband was selected by parents, girl asked to consent	51.7	56.2
Husband was selected by parents, girl not consulted	27.5	26.4
Number of respondents	1,504	495
Acquaintance with husband before marriage		
Met on wedding day	64.0	57.0
Knew somewhat	30.3	36.9
Knew very well	5.7	6.1
Girl ever had a chance to meet or talk on the phone to her husband alone before marriage*	30.3	37.7
Number of respondents whose husband was selected by parents/family	1,183	410
Someone talked to the girl about the importance of delaying first pregnancy around the time of marriage	12.7	12.3
Number of respondents	1,504	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. *51 girls had only spoken to husband but met him for the first time on the wedding day; 154 knew their husband but had never had a chance to meet or speak to him privately before marriage.

Table 10.5 Pre-marital sex with husband
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 by pre-marital sex with husband by marriage type, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Marriage indicators	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Had selected husband themselves (love marriage)	37.7	34.2
Number who had selected husband themselves	321	85
Husband was selected by parents, girl consulted	2.0	1.5
Number who were consulted about choice of husband	794	268
Husband was selected by parents, girl not consulted	1.1	0.0
Number who were not consulted in choice of husband	389	142

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 10.6 Dowry and bride-price
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 reporting payment of dowry or bride-price, and percentage who reported efforts to dissuade parents from marriage-related financial transactions according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of dowry practices	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Brought dowry	73.1	74.3
Received bride-price	8.8	8.9
Ever talked to parents about not taking bride price/giving dowry	15.2	11.9
Number of respondents	1,504	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 10.7 Intra-family communication on sensitive and non-sensitive matters
Percentage of married (and cohabiting) girls aged 15-21 reporting that they had discussed sensitive and non-sensitive matters with their husband and who faced family pressure to become pregnant, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of communication	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Communicated with husband		
Had ever communicated about household spending, money	76.6	75.1
Had ever communicated about the number of children to have	54.9	53.9
Had ever communicated about using contraception to delay first pregnancy	24.5	22.8
Pressure from in-laws		
Faced pressure from in-laws and other family members to have a child immediately after marriage	15.6	16.5
Number who had begun cohabiting¹	1,504	491

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Table 10.8 Domestic violence within marriage
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 reporting an experience of emotional, physical, and sexual violence perpetrated by their husband, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Types of violence	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Emotional violence (ever)		
Verbally abused respondent in the presence of others or threatened to hurt or harm someone close to respondent	24.5	30.9
Physical violence (ever)		
Slapped	27.6	29.0
Twisted arm or pulled hair	8.8	13.0
Pushed/shook or threw something at respondent	7.9	10.4
Punched with fist or something that could hurt	5.8	10.1
Kicked, dragged or beaten	5.4	8.3
Choked or burnt on purpose	1.7	2.8
Threatened or attacked with knife/gun	1.0	0.4
At least one of the above	28.4	31.0
Sexual violence (ever)		
Ever forced to engage in sex	42.0	40.8
Experience of physical or sexual violence ever in marriage	50.1	40.8
Physical violence in the year preceding the interview		
Slapped	22.1	24.1
Twisted arm or pulled hair	7.1	10.3
Pushed/shook or threw something at respondent	6.9	9.3
Punched with fist or something that could hurt	5.2	8.4
Kicked, dragged or beaten	4.7	7.1
Choked or burnt on purpose	1.4	1.6
Threatened or attacked with knife/gun	0.8	0.2
At least one of the above	23.2	27.1
Sexual violence in the year preceding the interview		
Forced to engage in sex	33.4	30.4
Experience of physical or sexual violence in the year preceding the interview	44.4	42.4
Number who had begun cohabiting¹	1,500	491

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Table 10.9 Action taken on facing spousal violence**Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who had experienced physical violence perpetrated by their husband by action¹ taken, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Action taken	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Nothing, remained silent	65.3	67.8
Shared with family members	23.9	22.9
Shouted at husband/slapped him	12.6	10.2
Shouted for help from neighbours	9.0	9.2
Shared with friend	0.8	0.0
Complained to police, panchayat, sought help from doctor, shared with group member, sakhi/saheli, ASHA/AWW	2.4	1.9
Number of cohabiting girls² who had experienced any form of physical violence	420	143

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Multiple responses permitted; totals may exceed 100. ²girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Table 10.10 Preferred interval to first birth, and use of contraception to delay the first birth**Percent distribution of married girls aged 15-21 by preferred interval to first birth, percentage who had practised contraception to postpone the first birth, and method used, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Preferred interval for first birth and use of contraception	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Preferred interval for first birth		
Within the first year of or a year after marriage	32.8	34.4
Two or more years after marriage	49.3	48.8
Had not thought about when to have the first birth	18.0	16.8
Number who had begun cohabiting	1,500	491
Contraception to delay the first birth		
Any method	12.1	12.8
Number who had begun cohabiting¹	1,500	491
Method used to delay the first birth		
Any modern method	58.6	(81.5)
Oral pills	11.1	(6.7)
Condom	46.5	(73.6)
Other (IUD, injectable, implant) ²	3.7	(1.1)
Any traditional method	45.2	(26.0)
Rhythm	16.8	(16.6)
Withdrawal	32.7	(12.6)
Number who had begun cohabiting who had practised contraception prior to the first pregnancy¹	110	36

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family. ²Reported by 4 girls.

Table 10.11 Reasons for not using contraception to delay the first birth
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who wanted to delay the first birth by reasons for not practising contraception to delay the first birth, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Reasons for not using contraception to delay the first birth	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Objections to family planning		
Respondent's objection to family planning	2.0	2.0
Husband's objection to family planning	25.2	17.0
Other family members' objection to family planning	7.0	11.7
Against religion	1.3	2.4
Any of the above	33.0	30.4
Lack of awareness		
Lack of awareness about contraceptive methods	22.0	18.2
Lack of awareness about sources for contraceptives methods	3.5	3.5
Any of the above	24.0	21.2
Limited access		
Difficult physical access	1.3	0.9
Embarrassed to procure methods	3.3	4.7
Any of the above	4.6	5.6
Method-related concerns		
Fear of side effects or health concerns	6.4	5.7
Fear of procedure	1.9	1.2
Perceptions that available methods are not effective	0.0	0.0
Available methods are inconvenient to use	0.8	1.3
Dislike for available methods	0.1	0.0
Any of the above	9.2	8.2
Other issues		
Not having sex /infrequent sex /husband away	12.9	15.9
Never thought about it	18.7	23.0
Number who had wanted to delay the first birth for at least two years after marriage and did not use a method to do so¹	1,078	372

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. 2.5% gave other responses; not shown in table. ¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Table 10.12 Contraceptive use within marriage
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 by ever and current contraceptive use, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Contraceptive use	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Any method	21.6	21.5
Any modern method	12.6	15.9
Oral pills	2.6	1.3
IUD	1.3	1.1
Condom	8.8	12.8
Female sterilisation	0.8	0.5
Other (injectable, LAM)	0.3	0.2
Any traditional method	9.9	8.0
Rhythm	5.1	3.2
Withdrawal	5.7	5.4
Number who had begun cohabiting¹	1,500	491
Any method	18.5	16.2
Any modern method	11.0	10.7
Oral pills	2.0	0.7
IUD	1.3	0.4
Condom	6.4	8.4
Female sterilisation	1.0	0.6
Other (injectable, LAM)	0.3	0.5
Any traditional method	8.1	7.3
Rhythm	4.8	2.9
Withdrawal	4.1	4.7
Number of cohabiting married girls¹ aged 15-21, not currently pregnant	1,245	418

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Table 10.13 Length of interval between cohabitation and initiation of contraceptive use
Percent distribution of married girls aged 15-21 by timing of initiation of contraceptive use, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Initiation of contraceptive use after marriage	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Less than 6 months	10.3	11.5
6-11 months	1.3	0.9
12-23 months	4.0	5.2
More than 2 years	4.6	2.5
Do not know/ do not remember	1.4	1.7
Never used contraception	78.4	78.2
Number who had begun cohabiting	1,504	491

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 10.14 Unmet need for contraception
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 by unmet need, met need, and total demand for contraception, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Unmet/met need for contraception	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Unmet need for spacing	35.6	33.6
Unmet need for limiting	8.7	9.0
Total unmet need for family planning¹	44.3	42.5
Met demand for spacing	11.5	11.4
Met demand for limiting	3.7	2.4
Total met demand for family planning²	15.1	13.8
Total demand for spacing	47.1	45.0
Total demand for limiting	12.3	11.3
Total demand for family planning³	59.4	56.3
Percent demand satisfied	25.4	24.5

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Women having an unmet need for contraception encompass: pregnant women whose pregnancy was mistimed or unwanted, women who were not using family planning and whose last birth was mistimed or whose last birth was unwanted but later wanted more children; non-pregnant women who were not using any method of family planning and wanted to wait two or more years for their next birth; were unsure about whether they wanted another child, or who wanted another child but were unsure about when. Women considered to have an unmet need for limiting include pregnant women whose pregnancy was unwanted; and non-pregnant women who were not using any method of family planning but wanted no more children. ²Met demand for spacing is defined as all cohabiting women who were using some method of family planning and wanted to have another child or were undecided about whether to have another. Met demand for limiting refers to all cohabiting women who were using a method and wanted no more children. ³Total demand: is the sum of met demand and unmet need for family planning

Table 10.16 Age at first birth

Percentage of girls aged 15-21 who had given birth before age 15, 18 and 20 and percentage who have never given birth by current age and according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Age at first birth	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Age at first birth		
Below age 15	0.8	0.7
Number of girls aged 15-21	3,796	1,440
Below age 18	15.4	11.0
Number of girls aged 18-21	2,057	747
Below age 20	37.9	38.5
Number of girls aged 20-21	912	314

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 10.17 Pregnancy and child bearing

Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 cohabiting with their husband who had experienced at least one pregnancy, percentage reporting various pregnancy outcomes, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Pregnancy and childbearing	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Pregnancy experience		
Ever been pregnant	67.8	68.9
Currently pregnant	17.0	14.9
Currently pregnant for the first time	9.0	8.0
Ever pregnant but no live birth	4.0	5.1
Children ever born		
Had no children ever born	45.2	44.1
Had one live birth	40.9	42.9
Had 2 or more live births	13.9	13.0
Surviving children		
Had no surviving children ¹	46.6	45.6
Had one surviving child	40.4	42.7
Had 2 or more surviving children	13.0	11.7
Reported at least one infant death	2.5	2.7
Number of cohabiting married girls aged 15-21²	1,500	491

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Includes those who had never been pregnant, were pregnant for the first time, never had a live birth, had one or more live births none of which survived. ²Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Table 10.18 Initiation of childbearing

Percentage of married adolescent girls aged 15-21 who had at least one child, who were pregnant with their first child at the time of the interview, and who had begun childbearing¹ by intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Initiation of childbearing indicators	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Had at least one birth	54.8	55.9
Pregnant for the first time	8.1	9.0
Had at least one birth or pregnant for the first time	63.8	63.8
Number of cohabiting married girls aged 15-21¹	1,500	491

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Either pregnant with their first child or has at least one live birth. The percentage excludes girls who had ever been pregnant but had not delivered a live birth.

Table 10.20 Pregnancy loss

Percentage of ever-pregnant married girls aged 15-21 cohabiting with their husband who had experienced at least one stillbirth, miscarriage or induced abortion, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Pregnancy and childbearing	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Pregnancy loss		
Reported one or more stillbirths	3.2	4.7
Reported one or more miscarriage	12.0	13.0
Reported one or more induced abortions	3.6	1.3
Reported any pregnancy loss (any of the above)	17.9	18.5
Number of cohabiting married girls¹ aged 15-21 who had ever been pregnant	905	298

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Girls whose gauna had been performed and who were residing with their marital family.

Table 10.21 Antenatal care
Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who had received antenatal care for their first birth, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of antenatal care	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Received any antenatal care	98.2	98.9
Received antenatal check-up in the first trimester	58.9	65.2
Number of antenatal check-ups received		
No antenatal check-up	1.8	1.1
1	4.6	2.8
2	11.9	11.5
3	23.0	22.5
4 or above	58.8	62.1
Received iron and folic acid tablets	88.2	87.3
Took iron and folic acid tablets for 100 days	11.9	8.3
Received two tetanus toxoid injections	89.7	88.3
Received at least one tetanus toxoid injections	97.0	97.5
Information or services obtained from a frontline worker		
Received pregnancy related information or services from AWW	60.5	61.1
Received pregnancy related information or services from ASHA	60.7	67.9
Number who had at least one live birth	849	274

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 10.22 Delivery care
Percentage of married girls in ages 15-21 by place of first delivery and type of attendance at first delivery, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of delivery care	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
Place of first delivery		
Home	25.3	19.5
Government facility	57.5	58.5
Private facility	16.7	21.3
In transit	0.5	0.8
Type of attendance at first delivery		
Doctor/ANM/nurse/LHV	71.4	74.5
Midwife (trained)/other health personnel	7.1	6.9
Dai/traditional birth attendant	13.6	10.8
Friends/relatives	7.0	6.5
No assistance	0.8	1.3
Number who had at least one live birth	849	274

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. Column totals may not equal 100% owing to multiple responses. ANM: auxiliary nurse midwife; LHV: lady health visitor.

Table 10.23 Postpartum care

Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who received a post-partum check-up for the first birth, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of postpartum care	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
No post-partum check-up	22.1	20.7
1	21.7	23.2
2	21.2	21.3
3+	32.3	30.9
Could not recall the number of check-ups received	2.8	4.0
Number who had at least one live birth	849	274
At least one	24.3	25.4
Number who had at least one live birth, delivered their first child in a facility and could recall the number of check-ups received¹	624	199
Post-partum check-ups following a home delivery		
At least one	29.9	26.2
Number who had at least one live birth, delivered their first child at home	206	61

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹Excludes 33 cases who could not recall the number of check-ups they had and hence were not asked how many took place following discharge from the facility.

Table 10.24 Benefits received from various pregnancy-related programmes and schemes

Percentage of married girls aged 15-21 who had received (or were awaiting receipt of) JSY benefits from among those whose first delivery took place in a public sector facility, percentage of girls who had received JSSK benefits and percentage of girls who had obtained supplementary nutrition or nutrition and health education from the ICDS scheme, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Benefits received from public schemes	Intervention (percent)	Comparison (percent)
JSY benefits		
Received cash assistance under the Janani Suraksha Yojana (or were awaiting receipt of benefits)	42.2	36.5
Number who had at least one live birth	849	274
Received cash assistance under the Janani Suraksha Yojana	66.6	54.5
Number who had at least one live birth and had delivered their first birth in a public facility	498	158
JSSY benefits accessed		
Received at least one benefit under the Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK) ¹	73.5	67.3
Number whose first delivery took place in a public/private health facility	643	213
Supplementary nutrition		
Received supplementary food from ICDS when pregnant with first child	77.0	78.8
Number who had at least one live birth	849	274

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹free drugs and other supplies, free diet during hospitalization for delivery, free diagnostic services, blood transfusion, transport to the facility, treatment of newborn. Note that many women also reported that they had not availed of these services because they had not required them.



CHAPTER 11

KEY ADOLESCENT HEALTH CONCERNS AND ACCESS TO HEALTH-RELATED PROGRAMMES

Table 11.1 Menstrual hygiene: use of hygienic products
Percentage of adolescent girls who had started menstruating reporting use of sanitary napkins according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Menstrual hygiene	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Menstrual hygiene			
Uses only pads	49.4	48.1	37.8
Uses pad and cloth intermittently	29.3	34.8	33.3
Number of girls who had started menstruation	1,179	2,273	1,501
Comparison (percent)			
Menstrual hygiene			
Uses only pads	57.5	56.5	45.1
Uses pad and cloth intermittently	26.6	30.0	33.3
Number of girls who had started menstruation	466	937	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 11.2 Experience of symptoms of sexual and reproductive health problems
Percentage of adolescents reporting symptoms of sexual and reproductive health problems in the three months preceding the interview, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Symptom of reproductive morbidity	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Any (genital ulcer, itching, swelling; burning urination, discharge) in last 3 m	21.5	36.1	8.1	15.0	24.1
Number of respondents	2,542	2,349	2,919	2,292	1,504
Menstrual problems in last 3 months	NA	NA	3.5	9.6	6.5
Number of menstruating girls	NA	NA	1,179	2,273	1,501
Comparison (percent)					
Symptom of reproductive morbidity					
Any (genital ulcer, itching, swelling; burning urination, discharge) in last 3 m	21.9	30.0	9.1	15.1	25.7
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Menstrual problems in last 3 months	NA	NA	6.0	6.8	10.2
Number of menstruating girls	NA	NA	466	937	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. NA: Not applicable.

Table 11.3 Experience of accidents or injuries

Percentage of adolescents reporting the experience of accidents or injuries in the three months preceding the interview, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Injury, accidents	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Experienced in last three months	39.5	33.5	12.6	8.3	5.8
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Experienced in last three months	39.1	28.0	14.4	12.5	4.9
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 11.4 Experience of symptoms of depression

Percentage of adolescents reporting the experience of symptoms of depression in the two weeks preceding the interview, and suicidal thoughts in the year preceding the interview, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Symptoms of depression and suicidal thoughts	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Symptom of depression					
Moderate to severe (phq_9score)	0.0	0.3	0.7	2.8	4.9
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Suicidal thoughts ¹					
Contemplated suicide in last 12 months	0.3	1.6	1.7	2.6	5.0
Number of respondents aged 13-21	926	2,350	1,178	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Symptom of depression					
Moderate to severe (phq_9score)	0.3	0.3	0.0	2.6	4.6
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Suicidal thoughts ¹					
Contemplated suicide in last 12 months	0.0	1.3	1.2	2.8	6.1
Number of respondents aged 13-21	363	800	453	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. ¹The question on suicidal thoughts was not asked to 10-12 year olds.

Table 11.5 Substance use**Percentage of adolescents reporting substance use according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Substance use	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Consumes tobacco products	7.3	34.3	1.4	1.3	2.5
Consumes alcohol	5.9	29.9	3.4	4.3	3.6
Consumes drugs	0.1	1.5	0.0	0.2	0.0
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Consumes tobacco products	2.5	26.2	0.9	0.8	1.9
Consumes alcohol	1.5	22.5	2.2	3.8	4.1
Consumes drugs	0.0	1.9	0.2	0.2	0.1
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 11.6 Engagement in physical activity**Percentage of adolescents reporting engagement in physical activity according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Engagement in physical activity	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
Currently does exercise	98.2	90.8	89.7	56.8	10.8
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
Currently does exercise	98.1	94.9	91.6	62.3	11.1
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 11.7 Awareness of and access to various programmes and schemes**Percentage of adolescents reporting awareness of the RKSK, and awareness of and access to the peer educator scheme, adolescent friendly health clinics and other entitlements, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018**

Awareness and access	Boys (10–14)	Boys (15–21)	Girls (10–14)	Girls (15–21)	Married girls (15–21)
Intervention (percent)					
RKSK and related community and facility level activities					
Heard about RKSK	0.2	1.3	0.5	2.1	0.8
Knows/is a peer educator	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.7	0.2
AFHC					
Heard about AFHC	0.3	2.4	1.0	4.5	2.5
Used AFHC services	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.2
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504

Awareness and access	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
VHND and Kishori Swasthya diwas					
Attended VHND	0.4	0.7	1.9	2.1	31.5
Attended Kishori Swasthya Diwas	0.0	0.1	0.7	1.4	0.7
Number of rural respondents	2,024	1,828	2,348	1,731	1,275
Comparison (percent)					
RKSK and related community and facility level activities					
Heard about RKSK	0.4	1.4	1.4	4.0	2.0
Knows/is a peer educator	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.6
AFHC					
Heard about AFHC	0.9	2.9	2.4	7.3	5.6
Used AFHC services	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.0
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
VHND and Kishori Swasthya diwas					
Attended VHND	1.0	1.2	2.7	3.6	31.3
Attended Kishori Swasthya Diwas	0.2	0.0	0.6	3.0	2.1
Number of rural respondents	721	615	920	715	432

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 11.8 Awareness of sanitary napkin distribution scheme, and access to supplies through this scheme
Percentage of girls reporting awareness of the sanitary napkin distribution scheme, and accessing supplies through this scheme, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Sanitary napkin distribution scheme	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Ever heard of a sanitary napkin distribution scheme	66.2	70.1	54.0
Receive any sanitary napkins under this scheme in last year	29.4	17.9	3.0
Number of girls who had started menstruation	1,178	2,273	1,501
Comparison (percent)			
Ever heard of a sanitary napkin distribution scheme	66.7	71.9	63.0
Received sanitary napkins under this scheme in last year	25.1	15.8	6.0
Number of girls who had started menstruation	466	937	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 11.9 Awareness of schemes and access to services relating of nutritional supplementation and growth monitoring
Percentage of adolescents reporting awareness of schemes and access to services relating of nutritional supplementation and growth monitoring, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Nutritional supplementation, health status monitoring	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
WIFS					
Heard about a scheme that provides IFA and deworming	65.8	66.8	66.9	78.9	66.1
Received IFA services	9.1	6.4	23.3	22.1	22.8
Received deworming services	62.4	28.7	50.0	28.1	11.5
Screening for anaemia					
Screened in the last year	4.2	2.5	6.4	6.0	11.1
Weight and height measured					
Weight	17.3	6.4	15.2	9.2	20.0
Height	16.0	6.8	10.8	7.1	7.2
Weight and height	14.0	5.0	9.6	6.0	6.8
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Comparison (percent)					
WIFS					
Heard about a scheme that provides IFA and deworming	66.2	65.5	65.1	76.1	70.5
Received IFA services	7.0	6.4	19.3	19.7	25.3
Received deworming services	55.6	24.0	50.7	26.3	13.9
Screening for anaemia					
Screened in the last year	5.0	3.4	4.4	4.7	11.0
Weight and height measured					
Weight	16.2	5.1	14.5	12.5	23.5
Height	15.1	4.8	8.9	6.2	10.3
Weight and height	12.9	4.2	7.8	5.7	9.9
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.

Table 11.10 Awareness of and interaction with frontline workers and interaction with health care providers in educational facilities

Percentage of adolescents reporting awareness of and receipt of services from frontline workers and access to information or services offered by health care providers in educational facilities, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Frontline workers	Boys (10-14)	Boys (15-21)	Girls (10-14)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)					
Frontline workers					
Heard about ASHA	60.7	78.8	76.3	88.2	95.3
Heard about AWW	94.7	98.5	94.0	96.9	97.8
Received services from an ASHA	6.5	5.7	12.7	14.3	45.8
Received services from an AWW	10.8	5.0	15.0	13.6	49.3
Received services from a frontline worker (ASHA or AWW)	15.8	9.7	24.2	24.0	57.1
Number of respondents	2,542	2,350	2,919	2,292	1,504
Interaction with a health care provider in the school/college					
Obtained information or services from a doctor or nurse within school/college premises in the year preceding the interview	31.2	22.1	28.3	18.6	11.6
Number enrolled in a school or college at the time of the interview	2,349	1,407	2,664	1,358	106
Comparison (percent)					
Frontline workers					
Heard about ASHA	61.7	75.2	80.3	92.2	94.2
Heard about AWW	95.4	99.4	95.7	98.1	98.9
Received services from an ASHA	6.2	3.9	11.5	13.8	47.2
Received services from an AWW	8.6	4.0	12.0	17.6	54.6
Received services from a frontline worker (ASHA or AWW)	14.6	7.1	21.4	25.7	62.9
Number of respondents	931	800	1,185	945	495
Interaction with a health care provider in the school/college					
Obtained information or services from a doctor or nurse within school/college premises in the year preceding the interview	40.6	26.7	46.2	23.4	(14.6)
Number enrolled in a school or college at the time of the interview	869	509	1,092	571	33

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable. () Based on 25-49 unweighted cases.

Table 11.11 Shyness about accessing contraceptive supplies
Percentage of adolescents aged 15-21 reporting shyness about accessing contraceptive supplies from a health care provider or a medical shop, pharmacy or chemist, according to intervention programme status, Jharkhand, 2018

Indicators of shyness about accessing contraceptive method	Boys (15-21)	Girls (15-21)	Married girls (15-21)
Intervention (percent)			
Would feel shy to approach a healthcare provider for contraceptive supplies	36.0	39.2	33.4
Would feel shy to approach a chemist/pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptive supplies	29.8	44.3	39.4
Number aware of at least one contraceptive method	2,159	1,609	1,323
Comparison (percent)			
Would feel shy to approach a healthcare provider for contraceptive supplies	35.1	39.4	34.1
Would feel shy to approach a chemist/pharmacy/medical shop for contraceptive supplies	29.7	43.0	41.9
Number aware of at least one contraceptive method	737	664	429

Notes: All Ns are unweighted; however, all indicators have been weighted using normalised weights for the total population. As such, drawing numbers based on the percentages in the tables is not advisable.



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