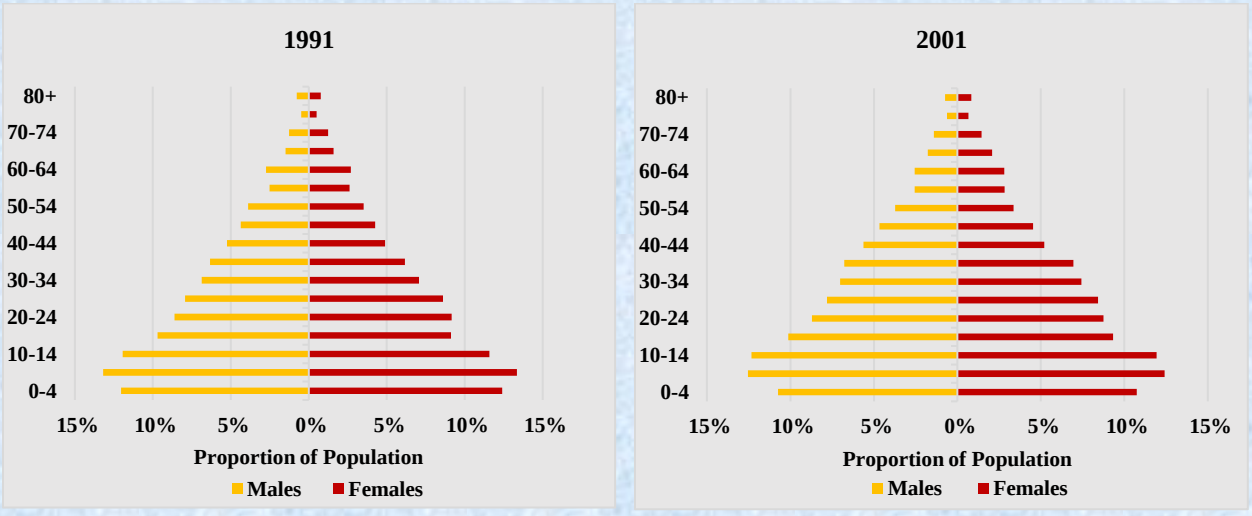
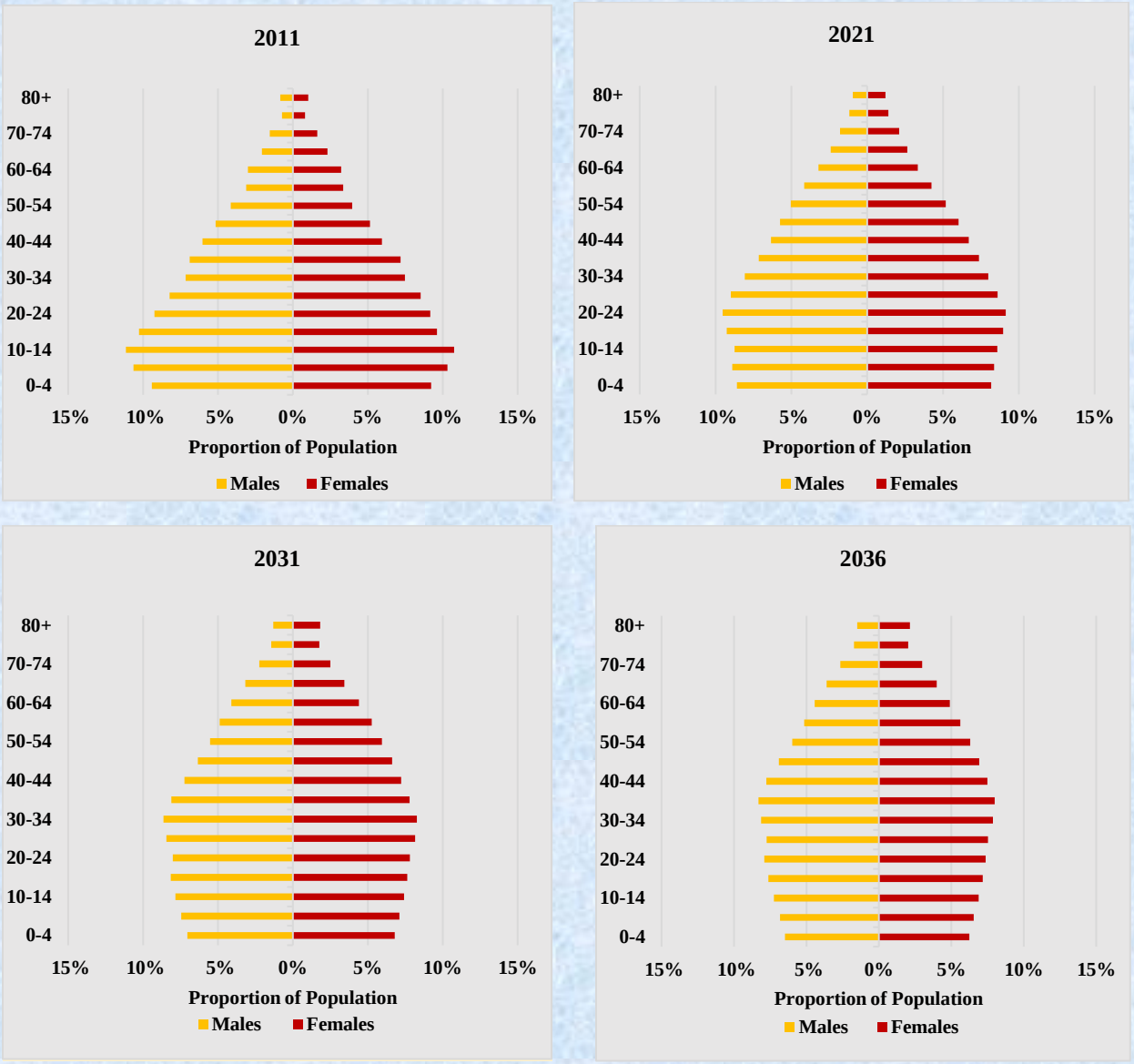
3.1 Population Statistics

3.1.1 Composition of population of a country is one of the prime determinants of the Economic status of the country. The age structure of population and the relative size of the youth cohort are important because they serve as determining factors in the growth of the labour force and pressures on the economy in terms of job creation. Indeed, Governments and policymakers often view young people not as an asset but as a source of labour market pressures that are difficult to address, and large numbers of unemployed youth are viewed as potential causes of political instability and civil unrest. Still, the active engagement of youth is prime to achieve sustainable, inclusive and stable societies, and to averting the worst threats and challenges to sustainable development, including the impacts of climate change, unemployment, poverty, gender inequality, conflict, and migration.

3.1.2 India's population, which reached 1211 million in 2011 and projected to reach 1363 million in 2021 makes India one of the youngest countries in the world, with 27.3 percent of its population aged 15–29 years, i.e., youth (Report of Technical Group on Population Projections for India and States 2011-2036, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare). In terms of absolute numbers, between 2011 and 2036, because of the declining fertility and increasing life-expectancy, the population pyramid of the country will undergo a shift. While the proportion of population aged under 15 years is projected to decline, the elderly in the population is expected to increase. The youth population is expected to increase initially but will start to decline in the latter half of 2011-2036 period. The total youth population increased from 222.7 Million in 1991 to 333.4 Million in 2011 and is projected to reach 371.4 Million by 2021 and thereafter decrease to 345.5 million by 2036. Changes in the age structure of the population have been depicted by population pyramids (**Figure -3.1**).

Figure 3.1: Age-wise Profile of Proportion of Male and Female Population





Source: *Census 1991, 2001 and 2011. Report of the Technical Group on Population Projections for India and States 2011-2036, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare, July 2020*

3.1.3 The change in the level of fertility and mortality has an impact on the distribution of population among different age groups in the subsequent years (**Table-1** provides year-wise TFR, CDR and IMR). As may be seen from the table, both the TFR and CDR show a declining trend resulting in a shift from young population (up to 29 years) to middle aged population (30-59 years) and elderly population. Proportion of youth to total population had increased from 26.6 percent in 1991 to 27.9 percent in 2016 and then projected to start downward trend and to reach 22.7 percent by year 2036. On the contrary, proportion of elderly population has increased from 6.8 percent in 1991 to 9.2 percent in 2016 and further projected to reach 14.9 percent in 2036 (**Figure 3.2**). Therefore, it can be predicted that a greater proportion of youth at present will result in a greater proportion of elderly in the population in future. This will create a demand for better

health care facilities and development of welfare schemes/programmes for elderly people. The sex ratio of population expressed as number of females per 1000 males has declined from 949 in 1991 to 928 in 2011.

Table-1: Year-wise TFR, CDR and IMR in India

Years	Total Fertility Rate (TFR)	Crude Death Rate (CDR) (per 1000 population)	Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) (per 1000 population)
2006	2.8	7.5	57
2007	2.7	7.4	55
2008	2.6	7.4	53
2009	2.6	7.3	50
2010	2.5	7.2	47
2011	2.4	7.1	44
2012	2.4	7.0	42
2013	2.3	7.0	40
2014	2.3	6.7	39
2015	2.3	6.5	37
2016	2.3	6.4	34
2017	2.2	6.3	33
2018	2.2	6.2	32
2019	2.1	6.0	30

Source: *Sample Registration System, O/o RGI*

Total Fertility Rate is defined as the average number of children expected to be born per woman during her entire span of reproductive period assuming that the age specific fertility rates, to which she is exposed to, continue to be the same and that there is no mortality.

$$\mathbf{TFR} = \frac{5 * \sum_{15-19}^{45-49} ASFR}{1000}$$

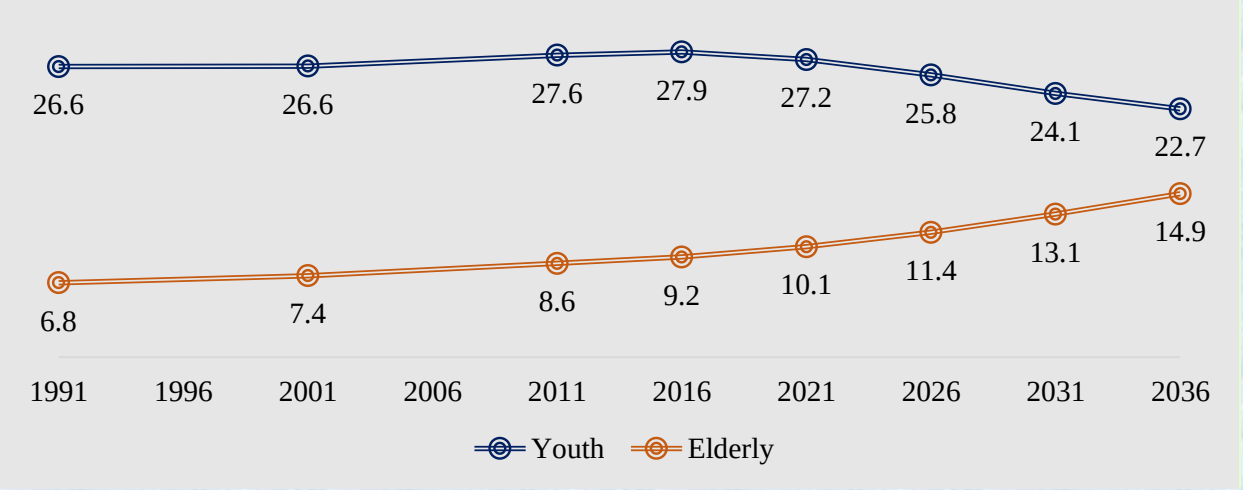
Crude Death Rate (CDR) is defined as Number of deaths per thousand population.

$$\text{CDR} = \frac{\text{Number of deaths during the year}}{\text{Mid-year population}} * 1000$$

Infant Mortality Rate refers to the measurement of mortality in the first year of life and is computed by (relating) the number of deaths under one year of age divided by 1000 live births in a given year.

$$\text{IMR} = \frac{\text{Number of infant deaths during the year}}{\text{Number of live births during the year}} * 1000$$

Figure 3.2: Percent Share of Youth & Elderly Population in Total Population



Source: *Census 1991, 2001 and 2011. Report of the Technical Group on Population Projections for India and States 2011-2036, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare, July 2020*

3.1.4 Worldwide, while the population of young people is growing overall, the age structure of the population and the relative size of the youth population vary widely. As countries develop economically, shifting towards more industrialization, urbanization, and skills dependent economic production, they experience a demographic transition wherein fertility and the share of the population made up of child-age dependents decline. As the relative number of children decreases, populations experience a growth in youth as a share of the total population, resulting in what is known as a youth bulge. This demographic bulge then passes through the body of the total population as a cohort in successive bulges until— as seen now in developed economies—the highest shares of the total population are made up of older population and those of retirement age.

3.1.5 Statement 2 gives percentage distribution of population in broader age groups by sex. According to this, the maximum population lies in the age group 0-14 years till 2001, then, from 2011 onwards the maximum population shifts to the age group 30-59 years and is projected to reach to 42.2% by 2036.

3.1.6 As far as State wise scenario is concerned, it is visible from the Statements 3 and 4 that the proportion of youth population to total population reached the peak in 2011 and then started to decline in most of the States of the country but in Kerala, the peak was attained in 1991, and the decline is predicted to be by 11 percentage points from 1991 to 2036. In Tamil Nadu also, youth population is lower in 2011 as compared to 2001 and shows a declining trend since then. Elderly population for the state of Kerala has been projected to be 16.5 percent in comparison to 22.1 percent of youth population in 2021 and their share (22.8%) is projected to cross the share of youth (19.2%) in total population by 2036. Tamil Nadu and Himachal Pradesh are also projected to experience elderly population more than the youth by 2036. States of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh experienced rise in proportion of youth population to total population till 2021 and then is expected to start declining. These two states along with Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan are projected to have more than half (52%) the country's youth. As per projection of 2021 population, the States with lower proportion of youth population as compared to All India are Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Odisha, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, Telangana and West Bengal. It can be seen that in almost all the states, proportion of female population is below the proportion of male population in youth but in elderly, the proportion of female population surpasses the proportion of male population. One of the main reasons responsible for the pattern is better life expectancy of females in the country.

3.2 Health

3.2.1 Health is pivotal for the growth, development and productivity of a society and is vital for a happy and healthy life anywhere in the world. The World Health Organisation (WHO) definition of health, includes physical, social, spiritual and mental health, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. Since ancient times, India, has given importance to the health of people and has highlighted the need for a healthy society. As evidenced from statistics and experience, youth who are healthy and happy are better equipped to contribute to their communities as young citizens despite the major shifts occurring in the world they are about to inherit.

3.2.2 Most young people are healthy however, a much greater number of young people suffer from illnesses which hinder their ability to grow and develop to their full potential. And a still great number of young people engage in behaviors that jeopardize not only their current state of health, but often their health for years to come. Promoting healthy practices during adolescence, and taking steps to better protect young people from health risks is critical to the future of countries' health and social infrastructure and to the prevention of health problems in adulthood.

3.2.3 Adolescence is a critical transitional period that includes the biological changes of puberty and developmental tasks such as normative exploration and learning to be independent. Young adults who have reached the age of majority also face significant social and economic challenges with few organizational supports at a time when they are expected to take on adult responsibilities and obligations. Early marriage and pregnancy contribute to further excluding young women from schooling due to health issues, stigma, social roles and expectations for young women.

"Investment in youth can derive a "triple dividend" by improving health now, enhancing it throughout the life course and contributing to the health of future generations".

3.2.4 Healthy adolescents who contribute fully to society are key to sustainable development. Adolescent girls who give birth have a much higher risk of dying from maternal causes, and babies born to adolescents face a significantly higher risk of death compared to those born to older women. Investment in youth can derive a "triple dividend" by improving health now, enhancing it throughout the life course and contributing to the health of future generations. Investing in adolescent health will also fuel economic growth by contributing to increased productivity, reduced health expenditure, and the interruption of intergenerational transmission of poor health, poverty and discrimination. For every dollar invested in adolescent health, there is an estimated tenfold social and economic return.

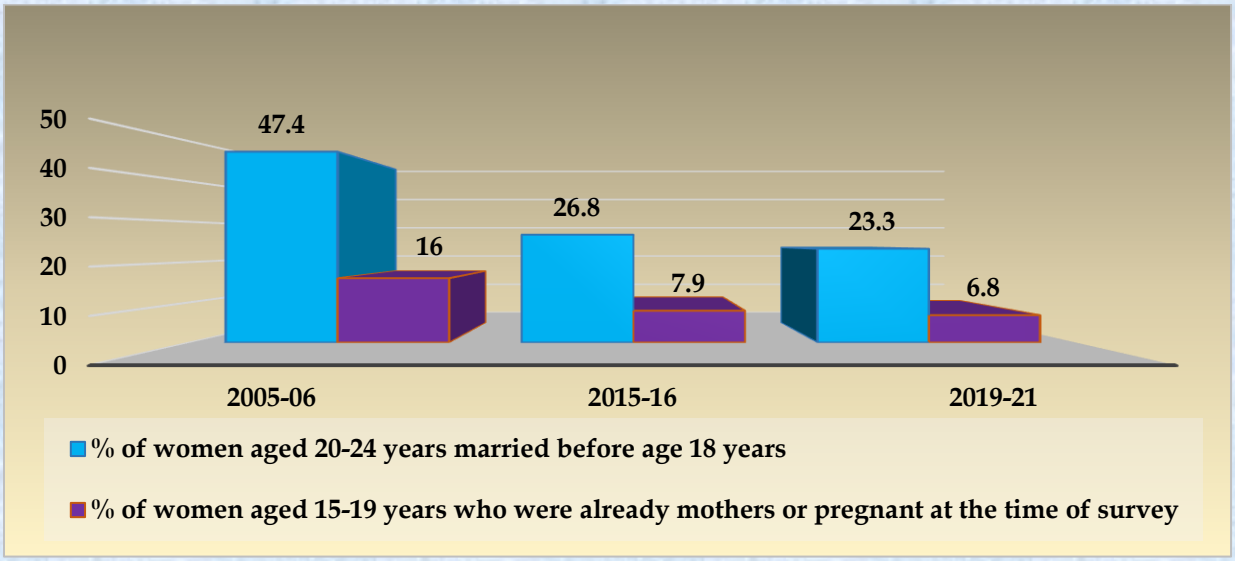
3.2.5 Marriage is a prime social instrument in all societies to promote reproduction activity, though reproduction and child bearing biologically continue to be almost exclusive privilege of youth. High prevalence of early marriage and childbearing is associated with higher maternal mortality and morbidity in adolescents as well as neonatal and infant mortality.

3.2.6 Early marriage in India has been declining over time. Statement 7 shows that among the adolescent women (15-19 years), 1.7 percent women have been first married by the age of 15 years during 2019-21 as compared to 11.9 percent in 2005-06. Age at marriage also seems to have increased over the years. Significant reduction has been observed in the level of age at first marriage for women in the 25-29 years age cohort as only 52.8 percent women have been first married by the age of 20 years during 2019-2021 as compared to 72.4 percent in 2005-06. Men tend to marry considerably later than women in India since against 42.9 percent of male in the 25-29 years age cohort being first married by the age of 25 years in 2019-21. This percentage was almost double at 83 percent for females. Percentage of population never married also has increased among both males and females in all age-groups over the years. Interestingly, even in the 25-29 years age group, this percentage has almost doubled among females and increased by 12 percent points among males between NFHS 3 and NFHS 5.

3.2.7 The median age at first marriage increased steadily from 17.4 years in 2005-06 to 19.7 years in 2019-21 for women in 25-29 age cohort. A similar trend has also been observed for the median age at first cohabitation in the same age cohort during the same period. **Statement 8** shows that the more educated the woman is, higher is the median age at first marriage, with the median among women aged 25-29 who have completed 12 or more years of education exceeding the median age among women having no schooling by 5.5 years during 2019-21. This trend is observed in all the three time points. Further, one good thing is the median age at marriage has increased by 2 years for women with no schooling and by 1.2 years for those who have not even completed their primary education during this period **(Statement 7).**

3.2.8 During the past decades, India has put enormous efforts to prevent early marriage and early childbearing among young women, the results of which are visible in recent times which also shows a welcome shift in the age group of early marriage and early childbearing. Schemes implemented by Union Government and State Governments are Beti Bachao Beti Padhao, Sukanya Samridhi Yojana, Mukhyamantri Laadli Yojana, Nanda Devi Kanya Yojana, etc. Median age at marriage of women, as per NFHS 5, is more than 18 years, the legal age at marriage in both the rural and urban areas. **Figure 3.3** shows that the percentage of women aged 20-24 years married before age 18 years in the country has halved in the last 15 years from 47 percent in 2005-2006 to 23 percent in 2019-21. Similarly, teenage pregnancy and motherhood has declined from 16 percent to 7 percent during the same period.

Figure 3.3: Early Marriage & Early Childbearing



Source: NFHS-3, NFHS-4 and NFHS-5 Factsheet

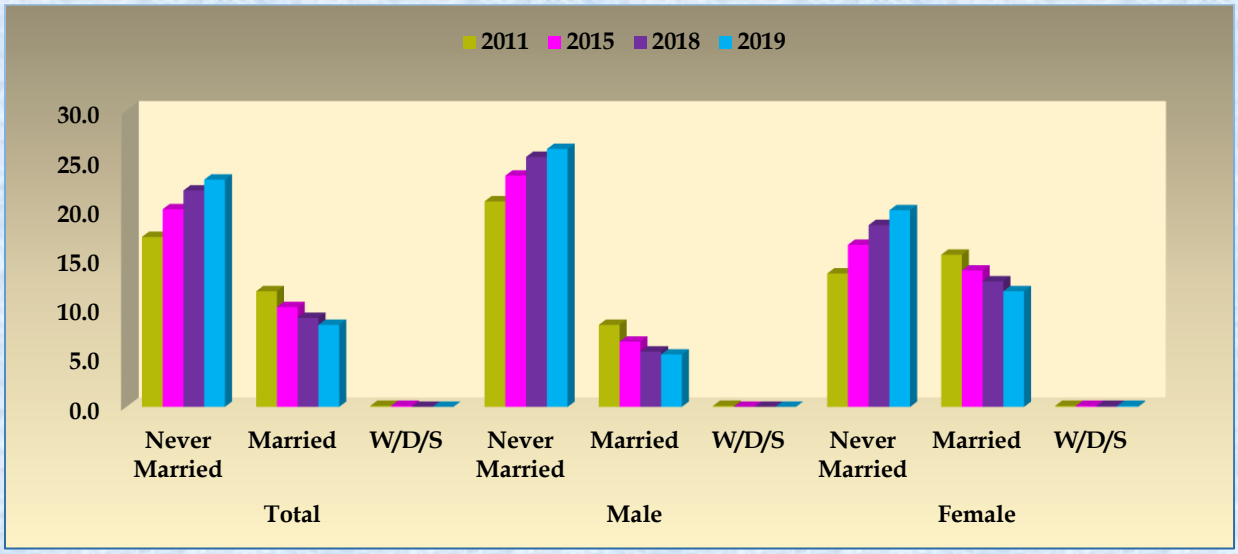
3.2.9 **Statement 9** shows that 24.7 percent women in 18-29 years of age cohort and 15.2 percent of men in 21-29 years of age cohort during 2019-21 had married by the exact legal minimum age of marriage in comparison to 45.6 percent women and 26.6 percent men in the same age cohort during 2005-06. However, state-wise variations in the first marriage by exact age for women and men still exists with 9 states/UTs exceeding the all-India percentage in case of women and 12 states/UTs in case of men implying that, focused interventions are required in these States/UTs to further address the issue of early marriage and early childbearing.

3.2.10 Mean age at effective marriage is an important determinant of the reproductive behavior of the women. Statements 10(a) to 10(c) show that mean age at effective marriage for females in India was 22.1 years in 2019 as compared to 21.2 years in 2011. The mean age at effective marriage of female in 2019 is 1.6 years more in urban areas (23.3 years) as compared to rural areas (21.7 years) in 2019. Mean age at effective marriage for females in 2019 was the lowest in West Bengal (21years) followed by Bihar (21.4 years) and Madhya Pradesh (21.6 years) and highest age at marriage was observed in Jammu & Kashmir (25.3 years) followed by Punjab (24.2 years), Delhi (24.1 years) and Himachal Pradesh (23.7 years).

3.2.11 The percentage share of youth population (15-29 years) who are never married has shown an increasing trend in male population from 20.8 percent in 2011 to 26.1 percent in 2019 (Figure 4.2). Similar trend has been observed in case of female population. State-wise distribution is given in Statement **12(a) to 12(c)**. In 2019, highest percentage share of

youth population who are never married have been observed in the States/UTs of Jammu & Kashmir followed by Uttar Pradesh, Delhi and Punjab and the lowest have been observed in the States/UTs of Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh.

Figure 3.4 : Share of Youth (%) by Marital Status and Sex



Source: Sample Registration System, O/o RGI

Fertility

3.2.12 Age of women is an important factor affecting the fertility levels. The age-specific fertility rate (ASFR) measures the annual number of births to women of a specified age group per 1,000 women in that age group. The ASFR provides a measure of the age pattern of fertility, that is of the relative frequency of childbearing among women of different ages within the reproductive years. The cumulative value of the age specific fertility rates at the end of the child bearing ages gives a measure of fertility known as Total Fertility Rate (TFR). It indicates the average number of children expected to be born per woman during her entire span of reproductive period assuming that the age specific fertility rates, to which she is exposed to, continue to be the same and that there is no mortality.

The number of live births in a specific age group of women per thousand female populations of that age group.

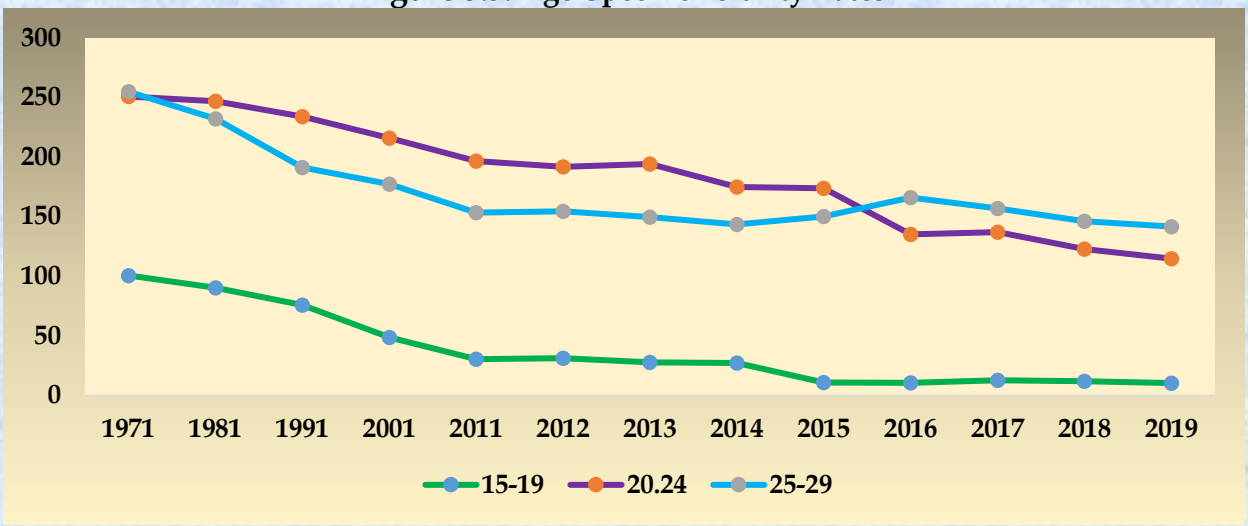
$$\text{ASFR} = \frac{\text{Number of live births in a particular age-group}}{\text{Mid-year female population of the same age-group}} * 1000$$

Age-Specific Fertility Rate for women aged 15-19 is termed as Adolescent Fertility Rate.

3.2.13 The shift towards postponement of the first birth in 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29 years of age cohort and the effect of the delay in childbearing are reflected in trends in adolescent fertility rates. It may be observed from **Figure 3.5** that adolescent fertility rate has fallen over the last few decades and current fertility rate for women aged 15-19 stand at 10.6 births per 1000 women. Fertility rates among the age groups 20-24 years and 25-29 years are much lower today (in 2019) than they were in 1971 **(Statement 13)**. Among States/UTs, West Bengal has the highest ASFR in the 15-19 years age group whereas the rate is the highest in Madhya Pradesh for the other two age groups of the youth population **(Statement 14).**

3.2.14 Total Fertility Rate, as per **Statement 13**, has also fallen significantly from 5.2 in 1971 to 2.1 in 2019 after being stable at 2.2 for the previous two years 2017 and 2018. TFR in urban areas (1.7) has fallen below two children per woman as compared to rural areas (2.3). TFR has now reached at the population-stabilizing "replacement level" of 2.1 children per woman. Decreased fertility rates may be associated with higher levels of education among women, higher participation rates in the labour force for women, prevention of unwanted pregnancies, need for better standard of living, etc.

Figure 3.5: Age-Specific Fertility Rates



Source: *Sample Registration System, O/o RGI*

Population Control

3.2.15 Family planning (FP) is key for reducing unintended pregnancies and their health consequences and is also associated with improvements in economic outcomes. It is an essential cross-sectoral intervention that can speed up progress in every aspect of development. While family planning is important to attain most of the Sustainable

Development Goals, specific references to family planning are included in Goal 3 on guaranteeing good health and well-being for all and in Goal 5 on promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. FP has been recognized as one of the most cost-effective solutions1 for achieving gender equality and equity by empowering women with knowledge and agency to control their bodies and reproductive choices by accessing contraceptive methods. India is the first country in the world which adopted an official Family Planning Programme (FPP), as early as in 1950. According to Census of India, the total population of India has increased from 548 million in 1971 to 1,211 million in 2011 census and further projected to 1363 million in 2021 mainly due to improvement in medical facilities, reduction in death and improvement in quality of life.

3.2.16 Among the currently married women in the reproductive age group with 2 living children, 86 percent reported that they wanted no more children (as per NFHS 5). However, there is no change in the percentage of mothers aged 15-24 years who do not want more children with 2 living children from 2005-06 to 2019-21. But there is a small decline in the mothers aged 25-34 who do not want more children with 2 living children from 86.5 percent in 2005-06 to 83.4 percent in 2019-21. In the younger age-group (15 – 24 years), there is a sharp decline of 10 percent points among mothers with 4 or more children, not wanting any more children **(Statement 16)**.

Table 2: Percentage of currently married women age 15 -49 years who want no more children by number of living children and more

Age of Mother	Number of living children[1]					
	0	1	2	3	4+	Total
15-24	2.7	9.8	64.5	75.1	77.2	25.1
25-34	3.4	25.3	83.4	86.9	86.2	65.8
35 and over	19.0	73.1	93.2	93.5	91.9	88.5
Total NFHS-5 (Age 15-49)	5.4	30.9	85.8	90.3	90.4	70.1
Total NFHS-4 (Age 15-49)	5.6	29.4	83.6	88.0	88.3	68.2

Source: *NFHS-4 and NFHS-5 National Report, Note*: [1] includes current pregnancy of women.

3.2.17 Percentage of currently married women aged 15-49 with two living children who wanted no more children during 2005-06 was the highest in Himachal Pradesh (96.3) followed by Sikkim (95.8) and Tamil Nadu (94.6); lowest in the States of Meghalaya (36.0) followed by Mizoram (43.0) and Nagaland (57.8). Corresponding percentage during 2019-21 was highest in the States/UTs of Himachal Pradesh (94.5) followed by Andaman

[1]Global SDG Target 3.7: By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes

& Nicobar Islands (94.2) and Tamil Nadu (93.5) whereas the percentage was found lowest in Mizoram (29.1) followed by Meghalaya (33.1) and Lakshadweep (53.7). **(Statement 17)**

Use of Contraceptive Methods

3.2.18 Expanding access to contraception and ensuring that demand for family planning is satisfied using effective contraceptive methods are essential for achieving universal access to reproductive health-care services, as called for in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. As per NFHS-5, the Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (CPR), expressed as percentage of all women, currently married women, and sexually active unmarried women aged 15-49 years who use any contraceptive method, is 67 percent of currently married women aged 15-49 years. Modern methods are more prevalent than the traditional methods with more than half (56 percent) of currently married women using any modern method. The family planning scenario in India is dominated by the use of female sterilization with 38 percent followed by condom/Nirodh with around 10 percent. Prevalence of male sterilization in the age group 25-29 continues to be low. There is significant increase in the percentage of currently married women using any contraceptive method in all age groups. However, among youth age 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29, Condom/Nirodh is more prominent with 10 percent, 12 percent and 13 percent respectively during 2019-21. The CPR among currently married women aged 15-49 has increased from 54 percent in 2015-16 to 67 percent in 2019-21.

Table 3: Percentage of Currently Married Women in India in 15-49 Age Group by Contraceptive Methods currently used

Age Group	Years	Contraceptive Methods Used							
		Any Method	Any Modern Method	Any Traditional Method	Female sterilization	Male sterilization	Pill	IUD/ PPIUD	Condom /Nirodh
15-19	2015-16	14.9	10	4.9	0.9	0	3.9	0.5	4.4
	2019-21	28.1	18.8	9.4	0.4	0	4.9	2.1	9.5
20-24	2015-16	28.9	23.5	5.4	9.1	0	5.5	1.6	6.8
	2019-21	42.5	31.8	10.7	7.9	0	6.1	3.1	11.7
25-29	2015-16	47.9	41.8	6.1	25.7	0.2	5.4	2.1	8
	2019-21	60.9	49.4	11.5	24.5	0.1	6.5	3	13
15-49	2015-16	53.5	47.7	5.8	36.0	0.3	4.1	1.5	5.6
	2019-21	66.7	56.4	10.3	37.9	0.3	5.1	2.1	9.5

Source: *NFHS-4 and NFHS-5 National Report*

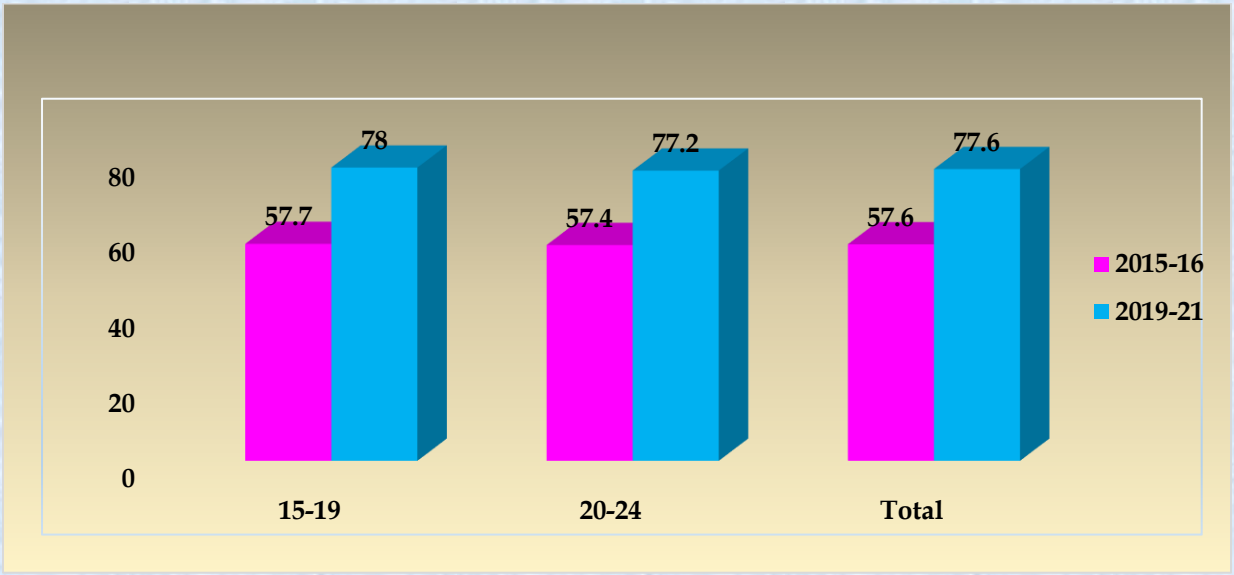
3.2.19 Although the contraceptive prevalence rate is growing, yet the need for family planning has not been fully met. Statement 19 shows that during 2019-21, 18 percent of currently married women aged 15-19 years have an unmet need for family planning while 17 percent and 13 percent of currently married women aged 20-24 years and 25-29 years respectively have an unmet need for family planning. However, there are still improvements in the met need of family planning. Percentage of demand satisfied has

shown an increase over the years. Unmet need may suggest that family planning services are not available, or are not adequately utilized. The reasons that women with unmet need do not intend to use contraception include lack of knowledge; ambivalence about future childbearing; and disapproval of family planning, fear of side-effects and low risk of conception, the price of contraceptives and their unavailability, etc.

Use of hygienic method of menstrual protection

3.2.20 Using a hygienic method of menstrual protection is important for women's health and personal hygiene. In NFHS 4 and 5, women aged 15-24 years who have ever menstruated were asked what method or methods they use for menstrual protection. The locally prepared napkins, sanitary napkins, tampons and menstrual cups are considered to be hygienic method of menstrual protection. Overall, 58 percent of women in this age group used a hygienic method of menstrual protection during 2015-16 which increased to 77.6 percent during 2019-21 **(Statement 20)**. Use of hygienic method in the women aged 15-24 years is far higher in urban than rural areas. However, the percentage use in rural areas shows a drastic improvement in 2019-21 (72.6) as compared to 2015-16(48.2). It has increased with increasing levels of women's education. During 2019-21, Women with 12 or more years of schooling are more than twice as likely to be using a hygienic method as women with no schooling (90 percent versus 44 percent). Use of cloth is still highly prevalent among women with no schooling or with less than 5 years of schooling. There is a need to impart knowledge on using hygienic method during menstruation among this group.

Figure 3.6: Percentage of women age 15-24 who have ever menstruated using a hygienic method



Source: *NFHS-4 and NFHS-5 National Report*

Mortality

3.2.21 Mortality is one of the basic components of population change and the related data is essential for demographic studies and public health administration. Mortality statistics provide a valuable measure for assessing community health status. The importance of mortality statistics derives both from the significance of death in an individual's life as well as their potential to improve the public's health when used to systematically assess and monitor the health status of a whole community. One of the most commonly used measures of mortality is Crude Death Rate (CDR) which indicates the total number of deaths per year per 1,000 people. As per Sample Registration Report (SRS) report, CDR at the National level for 2019 is 6 per thousand populations and it varies from 6.5 in rural areas to 5 in urban areas.

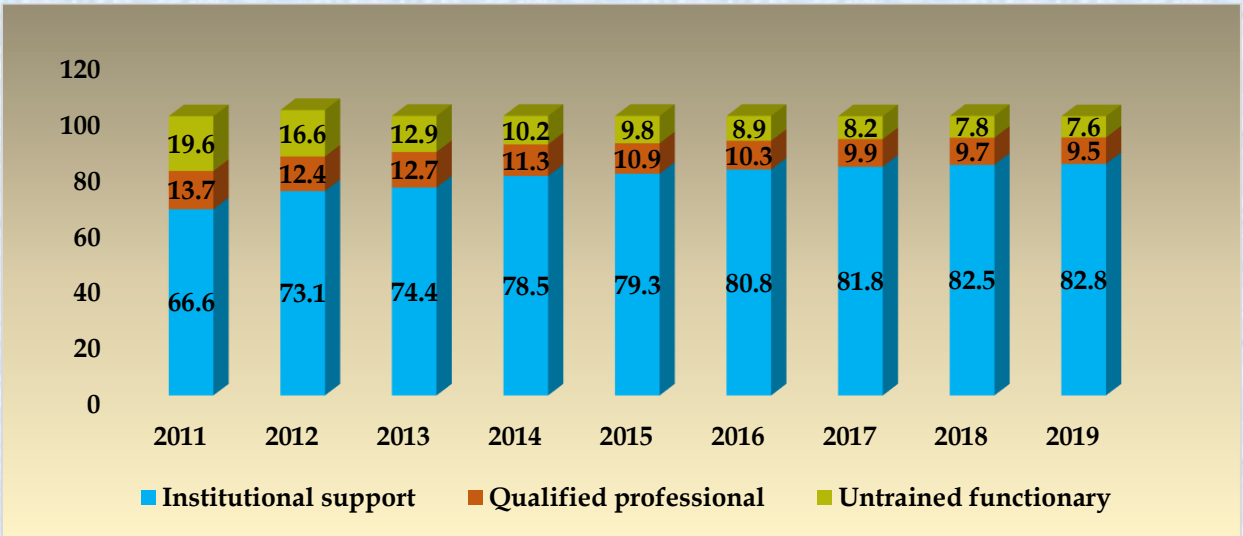
3.2.22 In India, adolescent mortality rates remain low for those aged 15-19 years old, the mortality rate has declined from 2.4 in 1971 to 0.7 in 2019 (Statement 21). A decreasing trend can also be seen among 20-24 years old and 25-29 years old from 3.6 and 3.7 in 1971 to 1 and 1.2 in 2019 respectively. Similar trends are observed in 2019 among both the sexes with the rates slightly lower among females in all the three age groups. An important observation here is that the mortality rate in the age group 15-19 years was higher for females than males in the earlier period (up to 2015). More decline in death rate among women in the age group of 15-19 years could be attributed to increase in the age of conception and better medical facilities. **(Statement 22).**

Adolescent Mortality Rate is defined as the number of deaths in age group 15-19 years per thousand populations in the same age-group in a given year.

Medical Attention received by mother at delivery

3.2.23 India has seen better medical care facilities over the years in case of either birth or death. During 2019, at the National level, 83 percent births received Institutional support (Government or Private Hospitals) and vary from 79 percent in rural areas to 95 percent in urban areas **(Statement 24)**. About 10 percent of births were attended by Qualified Professional. However, about 8 percent births were attended by untrained functionary with 10 percent in rural areas and 0.7 percent in urban areas.

Figure 3.7: Percentage distribution of live births by type of Medical Attention received by mother at delivery



Source: Sample Registration System, O/o RGI.

Nutrition

3.2.24 Adults in India suffer from a dual burden of malnutrition (abnormal thinness and overweight or obesity). As per NFHS 5 report, 43 percent of Indian women aged 15-49 years and 39 percent of Indian men aged 15-49 years have one of these two nutritional problems. Malnutrition in adults can be assessed using the body mass index (BMI), which is defined as weight in kilograms divided by height in metres square (kg/m^2). A BMI below 18.5 indicates chronic energy deficiency or undernutrition. Adults with a BMI below 18.5 are considered to be too thin for their height. Adults with a BMI of 25 or higher are considered to be overweight or obese. A normal weight for height is indicated by a BMI of 18.5-24.9.

3.2.25 Statement 27 shows that during 2019-21, almost 40 percent of women and men aged 15-19 years are undernourished, with a BMI less than 18.5, indicating a high prevalence of nutritional deficiency. Similarly, about 21 percent of women and 15 percent of men aged 20-29 years are undernourished, with a BMI less than 18.5. There is a decline in the undernourished youth aged 15-29 years in 2019-21 as compared to 2015-16. However, there is a slight increase in the overweight/obese, in 2019-21 as compared to 2015-16 for both women and men in the age groups 15-19 years and 20-29 years.

BMI is calculated by dividing weight in kilograms by height in metres squared (kg/m^2).

3.2.26 Iron deficiency anaemia is one of the most common forms of malnutrition in the world. Characterized by a low level of haemoglobin in the blood it can have detrimental effects on an individual 's health. A low level of haemoglobin interferes with the ability of the blood to carry oxygen from the lungs to other organs and tissues. Anaemia in young children results in increased morbidity from infectious diseases, and it can result in impairments in coordination, cognitive performance, behavioural development, language development, and scholastic achievement. Anaemia can be caused by a nutritional deficiency of iron and other essential minerals and vitamins, as well as infections such as malaria and sickle cell disease. Anaemia is of particular concern for female youth since it can become an underlying cause for maternal and perinatal mortality and is associated with an increased risk of premature delivery and low birth weight for children.

3.2.27 Statement 28 shows that during 2019-21, 59 percent of women and 31 percent of men aged 15-19 years are anaemic. 26 percent of women are mildly anaemic, 30 percent are moderately anaemic, and 2.6 percent are severely anaemic which is higher than anaemia in men aged 15-19 years (mild -25 percent, moderate – 5 percent, severe – 0.3 percent). Prevalence of anaemia is almost the same among both adolescent girls aged 15-19 years and women aged 20-29 years, but among males, the prevalence is more among adolescent boys than men aged 20-29 years. As expected, prevalence of anaemia is more among women than men. While there is an increase in mild anaemia among men between the period 2015-16 and 2019-21, moderate and severe anaemia has increased during this period among women. This is a cause of concern and need to be addressed.

3.3 Education

3.3.1 Education is fundamental for achieving full human potential, developing an equitable and just society, and promoting national development. Education is the most powerful tool which can lead to positive changes in different sectors like economic development, improvement in health conditions, better environment, etc. Household investment[2] in children's education is of central importance to policy makers in both developing and developed countries. Education is important in eradicating poverty and hunger and in promoting sustained, inclusive and equitable economic growth and sustainable development. Increased efforts towards accessible, quality and affordable education are central to global development efforts.

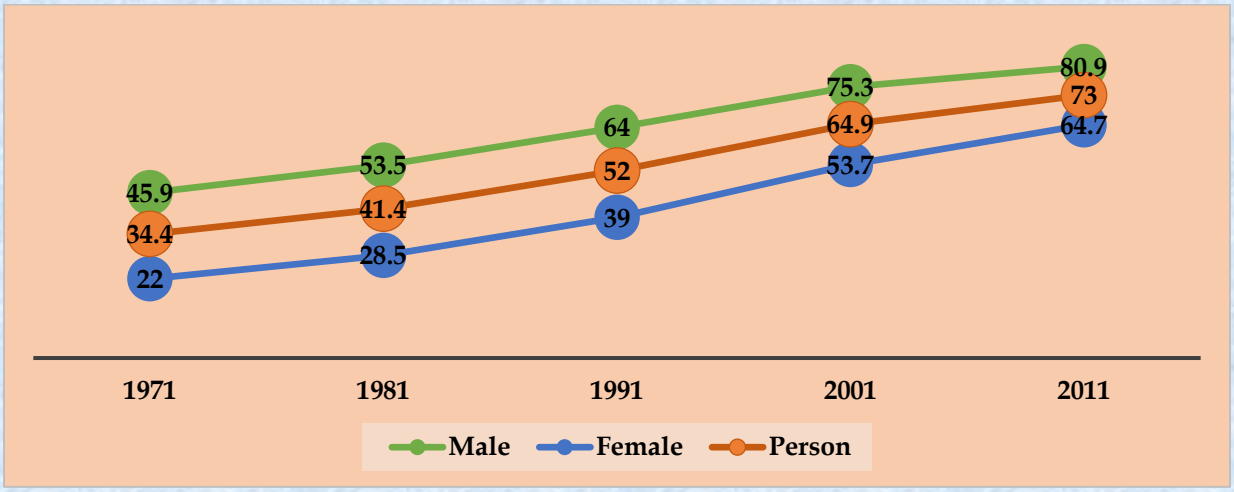
[2]National Youth Index, 2017 Report, Rajiv Gandhi National Institute of Youth Development Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports

3.3.2 Development of a country since the late 1980s is defined in terms of human development. Human development is the end and the economic growth the means. It entails enlargement of choices that development is an end in itself (Sen, 1999). Literacy and education have a direct role in human development and are intrinsic and instrumental in facilitating other achievements. It attempts to assess whether economic growth has been effectively translated into improvements in various aspects of life and then propose to measure development by results or achievements in different spheres of life such as the acquisition of knowledge, enjoyment of a healthy and long life. It was believed in the initial stages that economic growth will have a trickle-down effect on reducing poverty. Later, it was realized that poverty reduction may not be possible if we rely only on a trickle-down approach. The human development approach emphasized ensuring the rights and entitlements for building capabilities in improving the basic human choices for living a dignified life. From the human rights perspective, article 13 and 14 of the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) aptly states that "Secondary education in its different forms, including technical and vocational secondary education, shall be made generally available and accessible to all by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of education". At the same time, the Education Commission (1966) in India recognized the role of education in nation-building, human capital formation and overall growth of human capabilities. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), which has been ratified by the Government of India, in its Article 28 lays down that countries shall "encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need; make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means". The 2013/14 GMR reported the evidence of the positive impact of secondary education attainment on other important attitudes and values – for example, tolerance for diversity and support for democratic institutions, etc. Evidence show that literacy and educational attainment have positive externalities on political efficacy, democracy, crime reduction and civic engagement (McMahon, 2004).

3.3.3 Educational attainment not only affects the economic potential of youth, but also their effectiveness as informed citizens, parents, and family members. Today's children are tomorrow's youth. Hence to make the most of the young population that the country has, it is highly required that quality education is provided to all and is made accessible and affordable. Literacy is a step towards education and is an easy measure of education.

3.3.4 Literacy rate (**Figure 3.8**) in India has been growing consistently over the years and stands at 73% as per 2011 census. Female literacy rate (64.7%) is still much lower than male literacy rate (80.9%). The broad age group-wise literacy rate in India is given in the **Statement 29**.

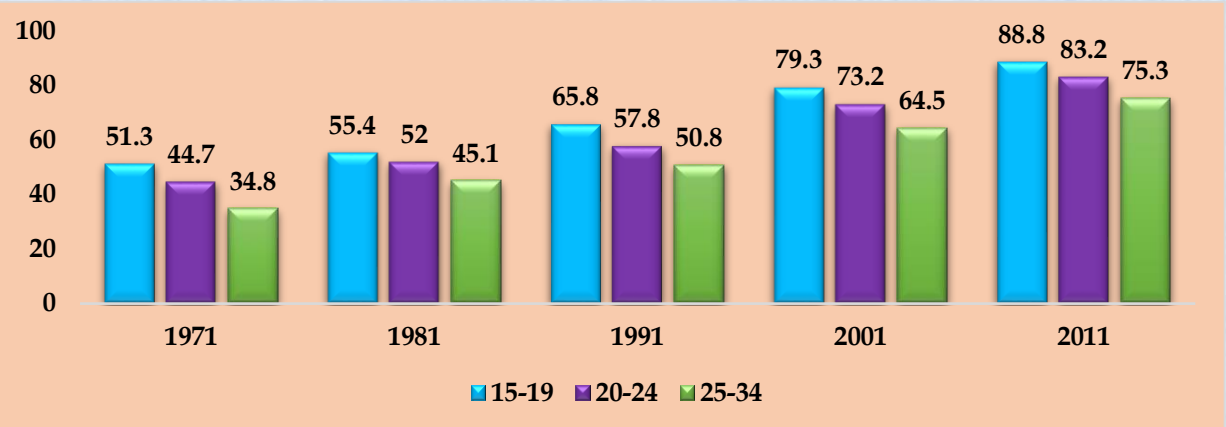
Figure 3.8: Literacy Rate Trends



Source: *Office of Registrar General of India.*

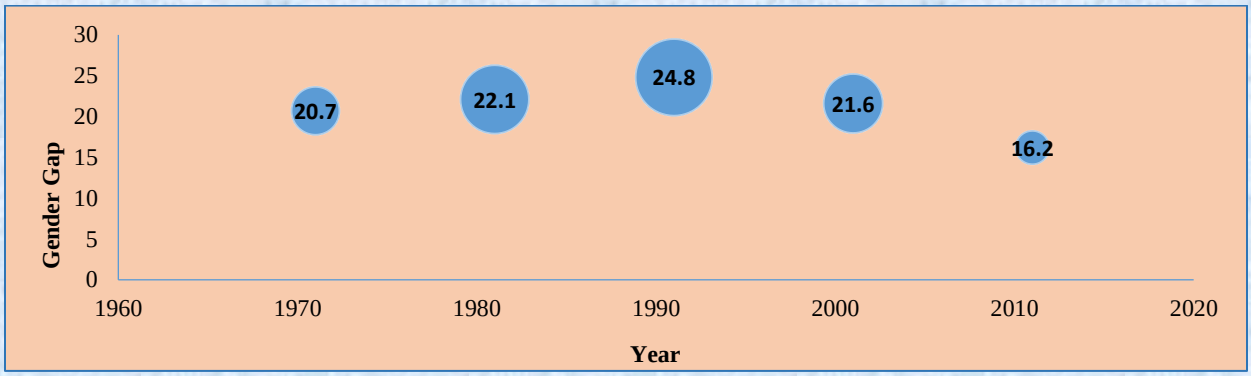
3.3.5 Amongst the age group 15-19, 20-24 & 25-34, the percentage of literate remains highest in the age group 15-19 throughout the census years 1971, 1981, 2001 and 2011(**Figure 3.9**). However, the increase in literacy rate is comparatively higher in case of females in all age groups and thus, the gender gap in literacy rate is gradually decreasing over years. **Figure 3.10** shows that gender gap in literacy has come down from 24.8 percent in 1991 to 16.2 percent in 2011.

Figure 3.9: Literacy rate in the age group 15-19, 20-24 & 25-34



Source: *Office of Registrar General of India.*

Figure 3.10: Gender Gap in Literacy



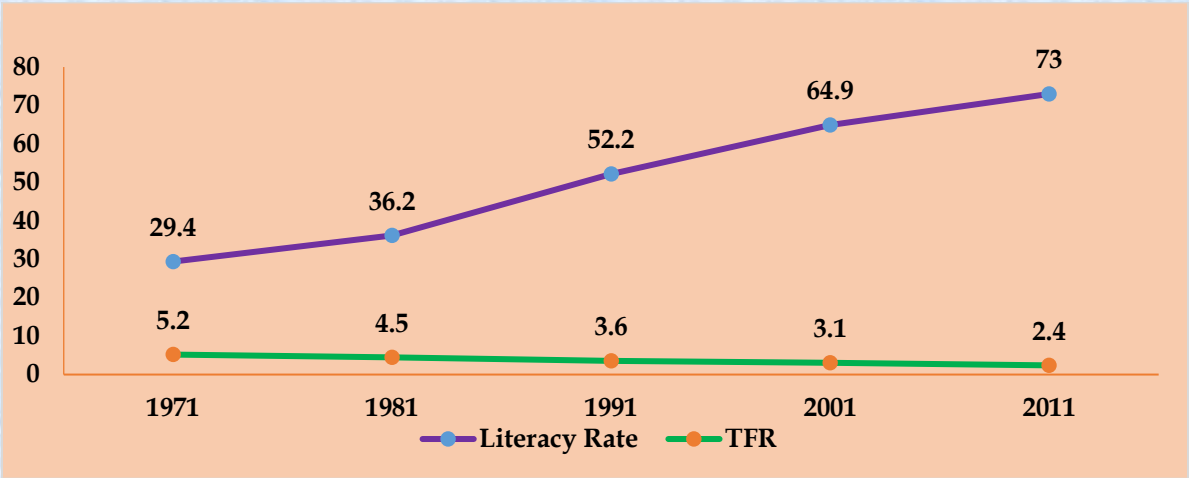
Source: *Office of Registrar General of India.*

Literacy Rate is the total percentage of the population of an area at a particular time aged seven year or above who can read and write with understanding.

Gender Gap in Literacy Rate = Literacy Rate of Male - Literacy Rate of Female

3.3.6 Also, it is evident from the **Figure 3.11** that literacy rate has been on a continuous rise and the total fertility rate has taken a continuous fall. Thus, education has a role to play in empowering women to take decisions because they are more aware of good health practices, and they tend to live in better circumstances.

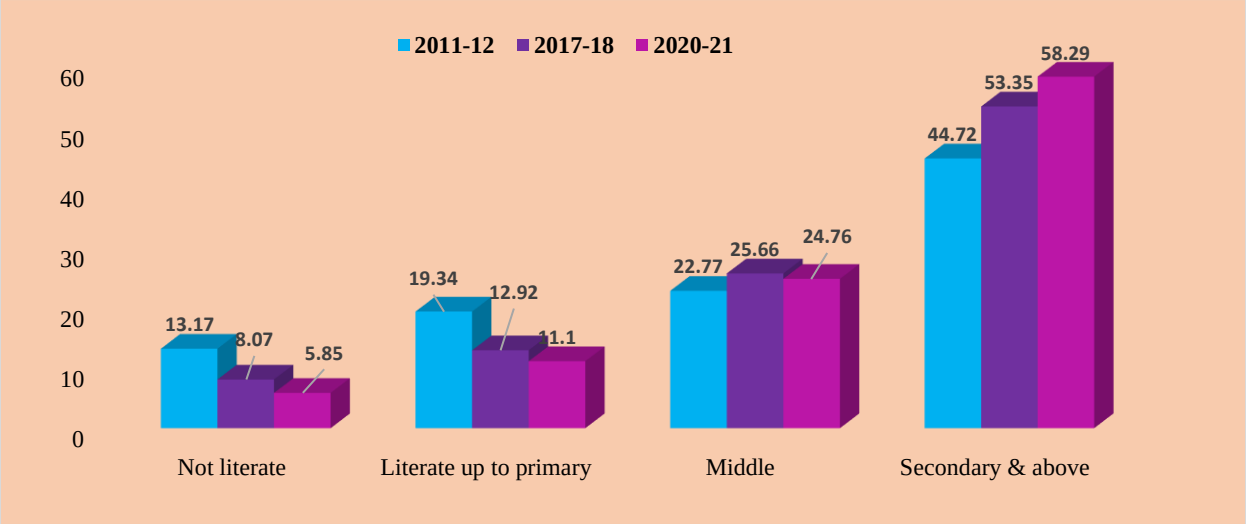
Figure 3.11: Literacy Rate and Total Fertility Rate



Source: *Office of Registrar General of India.*

3.3.7 Educational level of persons aged 15-29 years by area (Rural/Urban/Total) collected through 68thRound NSS-Employment and Unemployment Survey data in 2011-12, and Periodic Labour Force Surveys (PLFS) 2017-18 and 2020-21 are given in the **statements 30 (a) to (c)**. As per that, there has been a decline in percentage terms in case of persons who are not literate and those who are literate up to primary from 2011-12 to 2020-21. An impressive increase has been observed in case of secondary level of education from 2011-12 to 2020-21 (**Figure 3.12**). A similar trend has been observed in both rural and urban areas. During 2020-21, the percentages are far better in urban than rural areas. Kerala has the highest percentage of persons aged 15-29 years having general education level secondary and above at 87.94 percent followed by Lakshadweep at 84.64 percent and Himachal Pradesh at 83.64 percent. However, the lowest percentage of persons aged 15-29 years having general education level secondary and above is in Meghalaya at 31.64 percent followed by Tripura at 39.40 percent and Assam at 42.61 percent.

Figure 3.12: Percentage distribution of persons aged 15-29 years by general education level



Source: *EUS 2011-12 (NSS 68th Round) and PLFS 2017-18, 2019-20, MoSPI.*

Educational Institutions

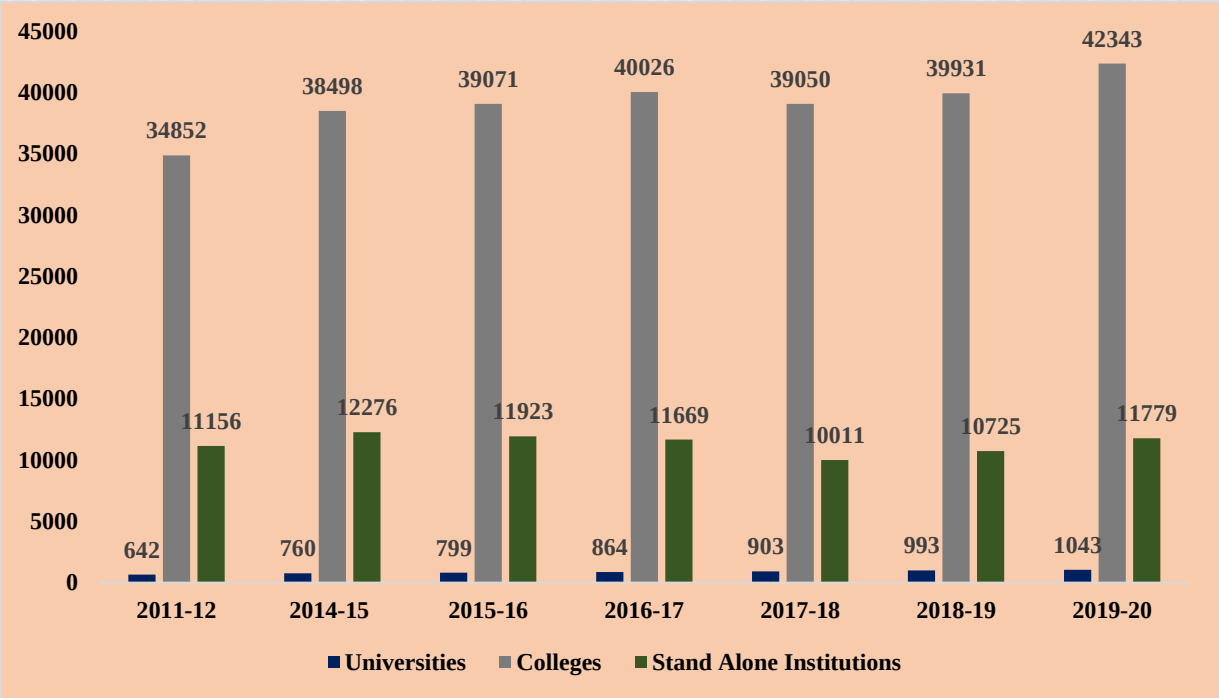
3.3.8 The level of education is determined by the size of institutional capacity of education system in the country. The Indian school education system is one of the largest in the world with more than 15 lakh schools. As per UDISE+ report during 2020-21, the number of schools at Higher Secondary level education has increased to 139520 from 92347 in 2015-16 and 85389 in 2011-12 (**Figure 3.13**).

Figure 3.13: No. of Schools by level of School Education

Source: *Statistics of School Education and UDISE Plus, D/o School Education, M/o Education*

3.3.9 As per the **Statement 31**, India has also witnessed an unprecedented expansion in the higher education sector. As of 2019-20, the higher education sector comprised of 38.5 million students **(Statement 36)** studying across 1043 universities, 42,343 colleges and 11,779 standalone institutions as compared to 29.2 million students in about 642 universities, 34,852 colleges and 11,156 standalone institutions in 2011-12.

Figure 3.14: Number of Institutions of Higher Education



Source: *All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE); D/o Higher Education, M/o Education.*

Institution by Management

3.3.10 During 2020-21, 56857 Higher secondary schools were run by Government as compared to 28208 in 2011-12 while 81413 schools were either running as Government aided or private during 2020-21 against 54807 in 2011-12. However, in the case of higher education institutions, large number of colleges in India are in private sector. As per All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE) 2019-20, 78.6% of colleges are Private as compared to 21.4% Government colleges. The private unaided recognized school education institutions have increased by more than 85% in higher secondary school education in 2020-21 and 96% in higher education in 2019-20 as compared to 2011-12. The state-wise number of Government and Private school education institutions/colleges at higher secondary school and higher education are given in **Statements 32 and 33**. During the period 2011-12 to 2019-20, despite the substantial increase in the number of colleges in higher education, there is marginal increase in the number of colleges per lakh population (18-23 years) (**Statement 34)**. The number of colleges per lakh population is 30 in 2019-20 as compared to 25 in 2011-12.

Table- 4: Number of School Education Institutions at Higher Secondary level (XI-XII) and Higher Education

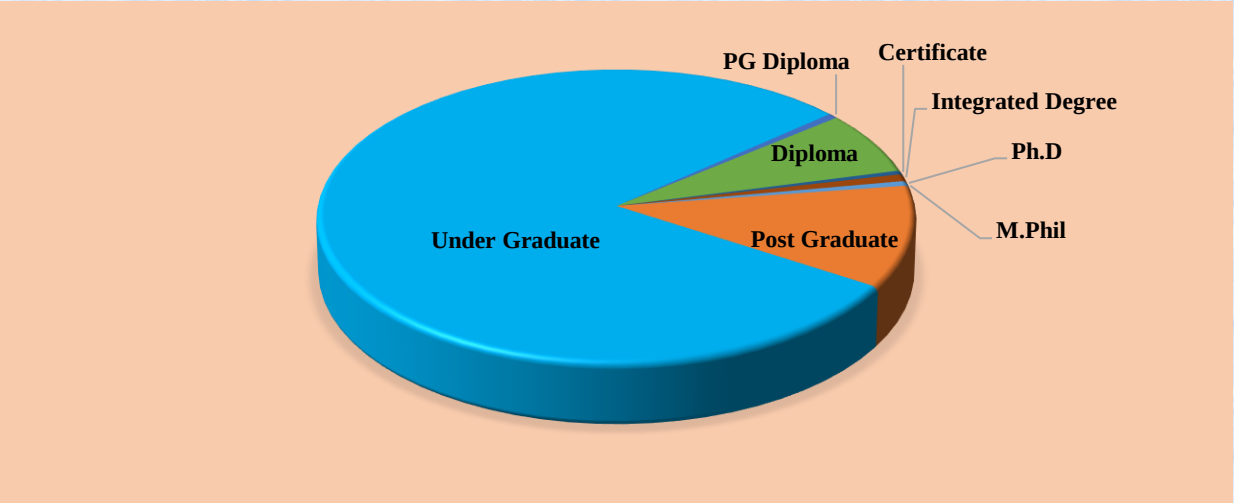
Year/ Management	Government	Government Aided / Private Aided	Private Unaided Recognized	Others	Total
Higher Secondary level (XI-XII)					
2011-12	28208	21381	33426	-	85389
2015-16	35135	17246	38800	1166	92347
2020-21	56857	19446	61967	1250	139520
Higher Education					
2011-12	6190	3498	13515	-	23203*
2015-16	7988	4924	22755	-	35667*
2019-20	8565	5336	26054	-	39955*

Source: *Statistics of School Education and UDISE Plus, D/o School Education, M/o Education and All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE); D/o Higher Education, M/o Education. Note: *Based on responses received by type of College*

Enrolment

3.3.11 Enrolment of students in higher secondary level of school education shows an increasing trend from 21 million in 2011-12 to 26.92 million in 2020-21. The higher education system along with basic education system in India has grown at a fast pace to become one of the largest systems in the world. From the student enrolment statistics given by All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE) 2019-20, (**Statement 36)** the highest number of students are seen to be enrolled at Under Graduate level. Out of the total students enrolled, 80% (30.6 million) students are enrolled in Under Graduate level followed by Post Graduate, 11% students (4.3 million). The state-wise number of enrolments in various levels of higher education is given in the **Statement 37(a) to 37(c)**.

Figure 3.15: Percentage of Students Enrolled at various levels in Higher Education in 2019-20

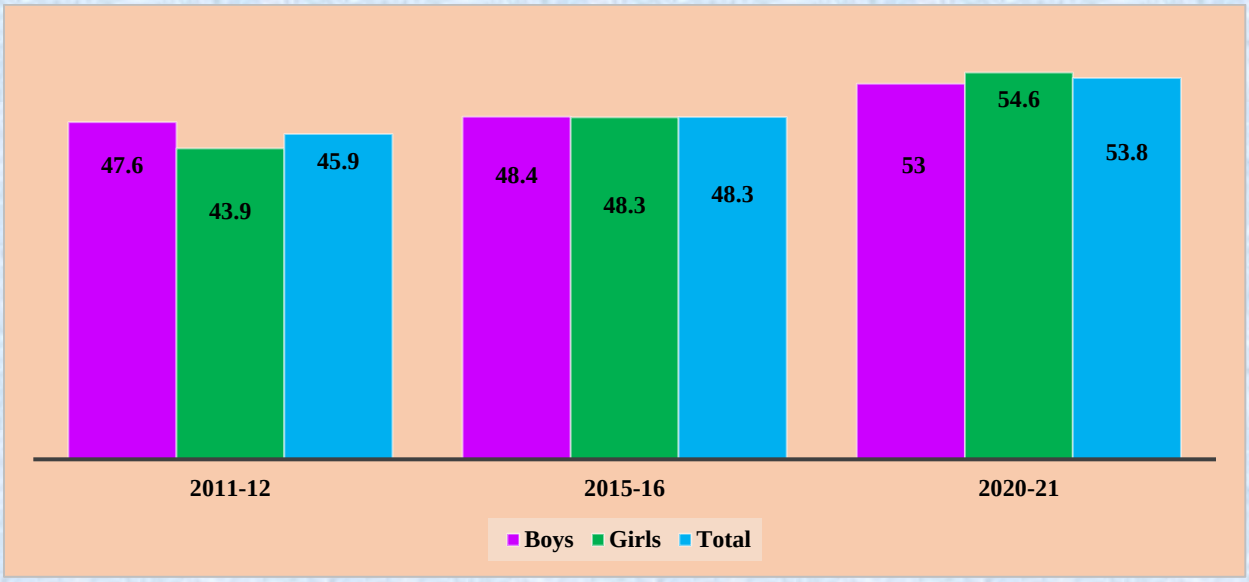


Source: *All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE); D/o Higher Education, M/o Education.*

Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)

3.3.12 Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is a statistical measure used to determine percentage of students enrolled in different level of education. This indicator shows the overall coverage of an educational system in relation to the population eligible for participation in the system. As per **Figure 3.16**, GER has improved by 7.9 percentage points in higher secondary between 2011-12 and 2020-21. GER for higher secondary has reached 53.8% in 2020-21, compared to 45.9% in 2011-12. GER for both boys and girls has gradually increased over the period. GER of girls at higher secondary level has increased by 10.7 percentage points between 2011-12 and 2020-21. As per the **Statement 38**, GER was found highest in Himachal Pradesh (85.6%) followed by Kerala (84.2%) and Delhi (82.1%) in 2020-21 whereas enrolment was observed lowest in the UTs of Assam (32.3%) followed by Nagaland (33.7%) and Bihar (34.0%).

Figure 3.16: Gross Enrolment Ratio by Gender in Higher Secondary Level of School Education



Source: *Statistics of School Education and UDISE Plus, D/o School Education, M/o Education.*

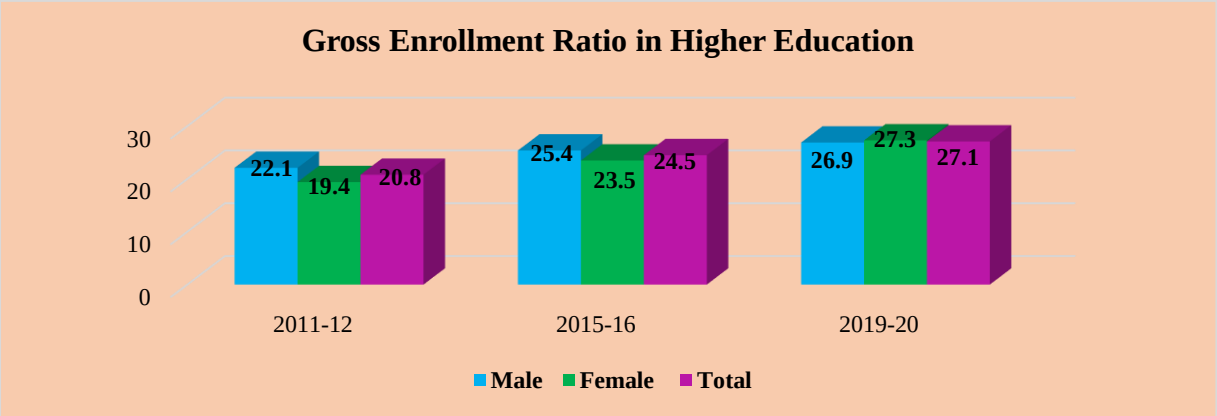
Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is the total enrolment in a particular level of school education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the Population of the official age-group which corresponds to the given level of school education in a given school year. Example: GER primary = Enrolment in class 1 to 5 ÷ projected population in age group 6-10 years.

3.3.13 Higher Education is an important educational tool much needed for growth of science and technology thereby benefitting both individual and society. It plays a vital role in developing a quality culture in an organization or in a society by encompassing structural, managerial, cultural and psychological attributes to act in synergy. As per the UNESCO classification, GER has been defined as the total enrolment in tertiary education programmes regardless of age expressed as percentage of total population in the five-year age group following the secondary education level. In India, GER is calculated by dividing the number of students enrolled in higher education out of the total population in the relevant age group of 18-23 years.

3.3.14 As per the report[3] on "Measuring access to Higher Education through eligible enrolment ratio", the development of higher education system is classified under three stages. With GER less than 15%, the higher education system is considered to be an elite system where access to higher education is limited and seen as a privilege. It indicates that the system is not massified nor wide access to higher education is there. When the GER is between 15% and 50%, the higher education system is a mass system where higher education is seen as a right for those who are formally qualified for entering into higher education. The system is considered to be a universal one when the GER is above 50% and higher education is an obligation of the state and well-articulated into its public policy.

3.3.15 According to the All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE) 2019-20 report, Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in higher education is 27.1% against 24.5% in 2015-16 and 20.8 % in 2011-12. Though, GER for males and females has increased over the years, GER for females (27.3%) has recorded higher percentage compared to males (26.9%) during 2019-20. In view of the classification as mentioned above, India with its present GER of 27.1% is in the stage of 'massification'.

Figure 3.17: Gross Enrolment Ratio in Higher Education



Source: *All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE); D/o Higher Education, M/o Education.*

[3]**AIU Research Report 1/2020: Measuring Access to Higher Education through Eligible Enrolment Ratio (EER) [https://www.aiu.ac.in/documents/research/AIU%20Research%20Report-2020-2%20Feb.pdf]**

3.3.16 As per the **Statement 39**, GER in higher education during 2019-20, at the state-level was observed highest in the states of Sikkim (75.8), Chandigarh (52.1) and Tamil Nadu (51.4). Similarly, the GER was lowest in the UTs of Daman and Diu (6.1), Lakshadweep (7.5) and Ladakh (7.9).

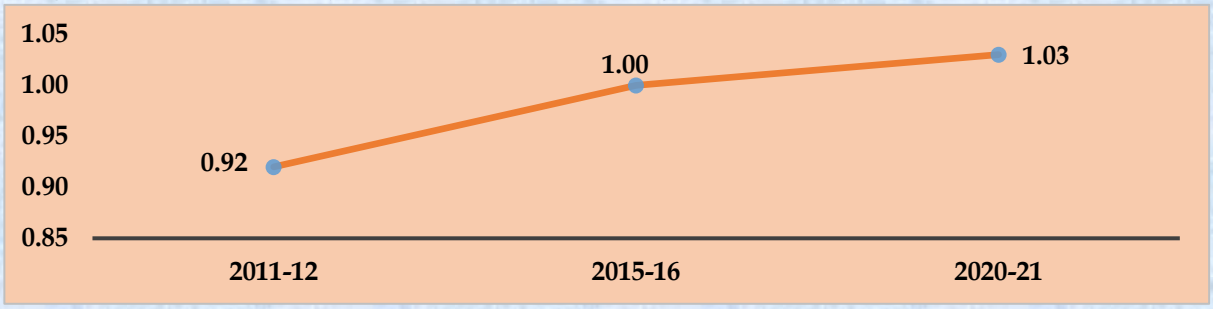
It is heartening to see that the enrolment ratio in higher secondary level of school education as well as that in higher education has increased with time. Almost 100% GER at elementary level has declined by half to 53.8% for higher secondary level and further to 27% for higher education. GER shows an increasing trend at all the levels of education. GER at elementary level has increased from 97.4 in 2011-12 to 99.1 in 2020-21 and at the secondary level, it has increased from 66.6 in 2011-12 to 79.8 in 2020-21. Improvement in GER is also seen at the Higher Secondary and Higher Education level with an increase from 45.9 in 2011-12 to 2020-21 and 20.8 in 2011-12 to 27.1 in 2020-21, respectively.

Gender Parity Index (GPI)

Gender Parity Index (GPI) of GER is the ratio of GER of girls to GER of boys.

3.3.17 The Gender Parity Index (GPI) is a socio-economic index usually designed to measure the relative access to education of males and females. A GPI of less than 1 suggests girls are more disadvantaged than boys in learning opportunities and a GPI of greater than 1 suggests the other way around. Eliminating gender disparities in education would help increase the status and capabilities of women. **Statement 40** shows that at all India level, Gender Parity Index (GPI) in Higher Secondary has increased from 0.92 in 2011-12 to 1.03 in 2020-21. During 2020-21, at State level, GPI value was observed highest in Dadar and Nagar Haveli and Daman & Diu each at 1.68 followed by Ladakh (1.32) and Andaman and Nicobar Islands (1.31) and was lowest in Rajasthan (0.89) which is much lower than the national value followed by Lakshadweep (0.91) and Uttar Pradesh (0.93). However, Rajasthan in terms of GPI has improved against 0.69 in 2011-12 and 0.77 in 2015-16.

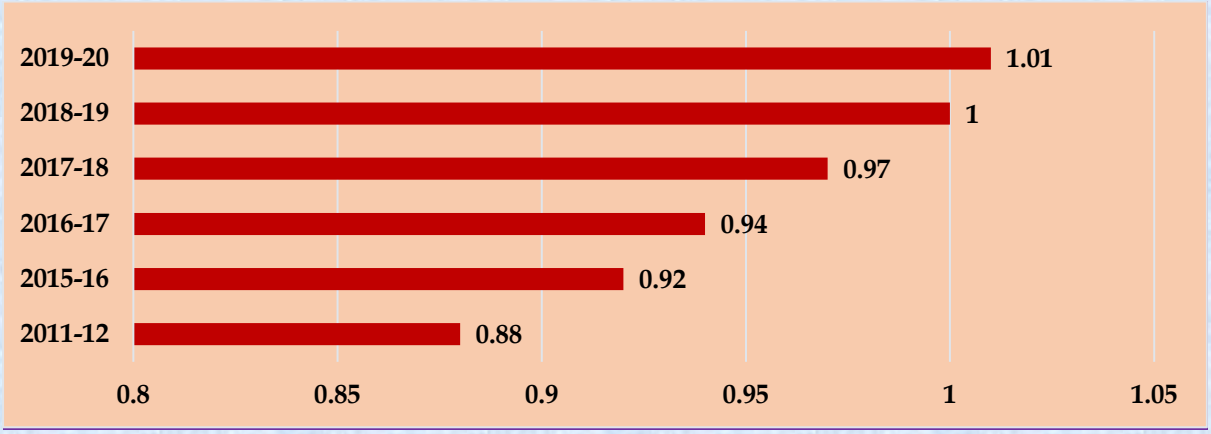
Figure 3.18: Gender Parity Index (GPI) of GER in Higher Secondary Level of School Education



Source: *Statistics of School Education and UDISE Plus, D/o School Education, M/o Education.*

3.3.18 AISHE report revealed India witnessed improvement in Gender Parity Index in Higher Education for the age group 18-23 years over the years from 0.88 in 2011-12 to 1.01 in 2019-20 indicating an improvement in the relative access to higher education for females as compared to males (**Statement 41**). At state-level, GPI in 2019-20 was recorded lowest in Tripura (0.80) followed by Sikkim (0.81), Bihar (0.83) and Andhra Pradesh (0.84). However, these states have improved their position over the years.

Figure 3.19: Trend of GPI in Higher Education

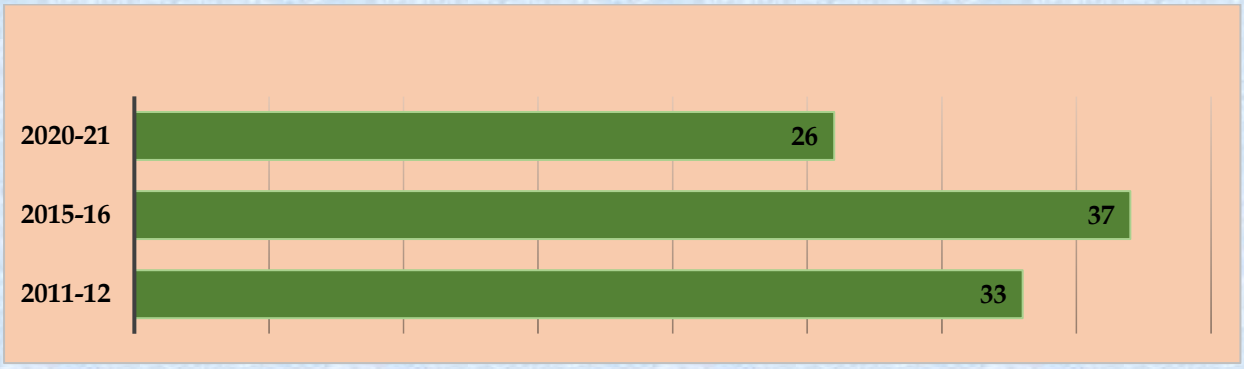


Source: *All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE); D/o Higher Education, M/o Education*

Pupil Teacher Ratio

3.3.19 The Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) is the average number of pupils (at a specific level of education) per teacher (teaching at that level of education) in a given school year. Reduction in the PTR indicates that number of students per teacher has reduced implying more focus of teacher on students in which ought to lead to an improvement in quality of teaching. **Statement 42** shows that in 2011-12, India had 33 pupils per teacher at Higher secondary level education against 37 in 2015-16 and 26 in 2020-21. At state-level, PTR was still high in the States/UTs of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Odisha, Telangana, and Uttar Pradesh as against the all India PTR.

Figure 3.20: Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) at Higher Secondary (XI-XII) level of Education

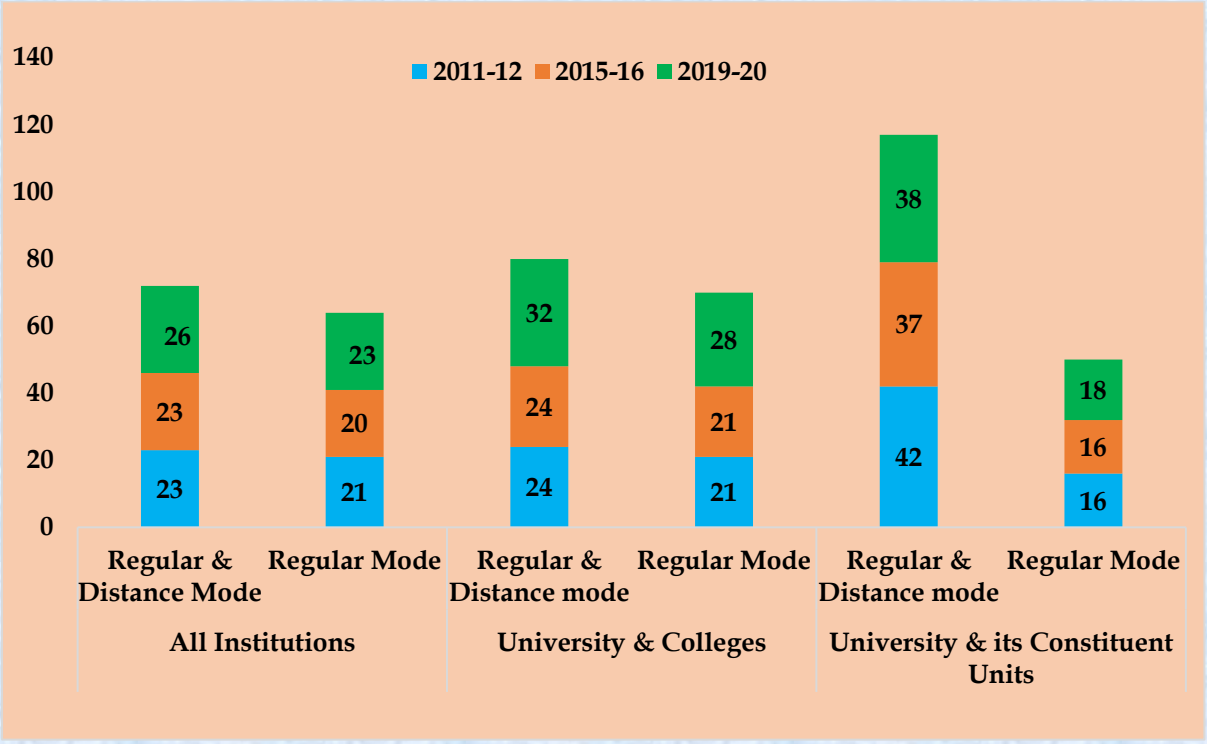


Source: *Statistics of School Education 2011-12, Educational Statistics at a Glance and UDISE Plus 2020-21.*

3.3.20 Also, **Statement 43** shows that during 2011-12, PTR in Universities and Colleges was 21 and PTR for Universities and its constituent Units was 16 for regular mode whereas during 2019-20, the corresponding ratio was 28 and 18 respectively. As such, PTR of the "University & Constituent Units (regular mode)" remains lowest as compared to PTR of the "University & Colleges and All Institutions (regular mode)" throughout the years 2011-12, 2015-16 and 2019-20.

Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) is the average number of pupils (at a specific level of education) per teacher (teaching at that level of education) in a given school-year.

Figure 3.21: Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) for Higher Education



Source: *All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE); D/o Higher Education, M/o Education*

Skill Development and Education

3.3.21 Skill development is essential for achieving faster, sustainable and inclusive growth on the one hand and for providing decent employment opportunities to the youth on the other. Education and Skill are the powerful factors of economic growth and social development of a country. Skills in India are largely acquired through two main sources: formal training and informal. Nowadays, vocational courses are becoming quite popular among youth because it is believed that taking these courses would provide more and better employment opportunities than those provided by conventional academic courses.

3.3.22 Statement 44 shows that formal vocational and technical training among youth (age 15-29 years) has improved in 2020-21 over 2017-18. During 2020-21, 7.3 per cent of the male population between 15-29 years of age in urban India were imparted formal vocational or technical training against 4.6 percent in 2017-18, while 3.4 per cent in rural part of the country received the benefits of skill development as compared to 2 percent during the same period. In the same age bracket, the data for women showed a similar widening gap between rural and urban India. 6.5 per cent females received the training in urban areas during 2020-21 whereas 4.2 percent females received the training in 2017-18, and 2.6 per cent females received the training in rural India in 2020-21 as compared to 1.3 percent during 2017-18. This table indicates that around 86 percent of youth population did not receive any vocational/technical training during 2020-21, of these, 5% were illiterate and 2% had not even completed primary education. Around 50% has received (at the time of survey) education up to or beyond secondary school level.

3.4 Economic Participation

Economic Participation of Youth

3.4.1 The transition of young people into work marks a critical period in the life cycle. It signifies a crucial stage of independence, the application of academic learning, and social and economic productivity, as well as sets the stage for an individual's potential in terms of earning capacity, job options and the possibility of advancement. In effect, the manner in which a young person enters the work force influences his or her life-long employment experiences. When and how this transition occurs further impacts the well-being of that person as well as his/ her relationships with family, friends, community and society. With less experience and fewer skills than many adults, young people often encounter particular difficulty accessing work.

3.4.2 The challenges of securing and retaining decent work are even more serious and complex for vulnerable and marginalized youth including young women, those living in humanitarian settings, youth with disabilities, migrant youth, and lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender youth. While entrepreneurship offers opportunities for some youth, a diverse and robust employment strategy must include options and opportunities for all young people in society

3.4.3 India, is currently in the phase of youth bulge. This bulge will become a demographic dividend if the increase in the number of working age individuals can be fully employed in productive activities and thereby increase the per-capita income of the country. However, if a large cohort of young people cannot find employment and earn satisfactory income, the youth bulge will become a burden on the society.

Therefore, one basic measure of a country's success in turning the youth bulge into a demographic dividend is Labour Force Participation Rate of youth.

Participation of Youth in Labour Market

3.4.4 The Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) indicates the percentage of the population who are already engaged in any kind of work and those who are ready to work given the employment opportunity. In other words, the labour force includes both the workers or the employed and the unemployed. The ideal situation would be when almost all persons up to the age of 24 years are able to complete their tertiary level of education, which would imply their reduced participation in the labour force as most of them would be studying. The reality, however, is that a large percentage of the youth in the country today are either working or seeking work, which makes them a part of the labour force.

3.4.5 Table-5 gives the area-wise and gender-wise LFPR for youth age 15-29 years and population of age 15 years and above. It can be seen that during 2017-18, young people's participation rate in the labour force was at low levels of 38.2% which rose

Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) is defined as the percentage of persons in the labour force in the population.

$$\boldsymbol{LFPR = \frac{No.\ of\ Employed\ Persons + No.\ of\ Unemployed\ Persons}{Total\ Population} * 100}$$

up slightly to 41.4% during 2020-21. It is also clearly visible that young women's labour force participation is far below the young men's in all the regions and also over all the years. However, LFPR of female youth rose by around 5 percentage points from 2017-18 to 2020-21 with the increase more in rural than urban areas. In the 15 years and above age group also, maximum increase in LFPR was of rural females, from 24.6 in 2017-18 to 36.5 in 2020-21.

Table-5: Labour Force Participation Rates (in per cent) in Usual Status (ps+ss)

Sector	2017-18			2018-19			2019-20			2020-21		
	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P
15-29 Years												
Rural	58.9	15.9	38.1	58.8	15.8	37.8	60.8	20.7	41.3	60.6	22.0	42.0
Urban	58.5	17.5	38.5	58.6	17.1	38.7	58.3	20.3	40.0	59.0	19.0	39.9
Rural + Urban	**58.8**	**16.4**	**38.2**	**58.8**	**16.2**	**38.1**	**60**	**20.6**	**40.9**	**60.1**	**21.1**	**41.4**
15 years and above												
Rural	76.4	24.6	50.7	76.4	26.4	51.5	77.9	33.0	55.5	78.1	36.5	57.4
Urban	74.5	20.4	47.6	73.7	20.4	47.5	74.6	23.3	49.3	74.6	23.2	49.1
Rural + Urban	**75.8**	**23.3**	**49.8**	**75.5**	**24.5**	**50.2**	**76.8**	**30.0**	**53.5**	**77.0**	**32.5**	**54.9**

Source: *Periodic Labour Force Survey, National Statistical Office, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation; M: Male, F: Female, P: Person*

3.4.6 Statements 46(a) and 46(b) give the Youth LFPR among the States/UTs during 2017-18 and 2020-21. Youth LFPR has increased by 15 percentage points in Jharkhand followed by Nagaland (14.6%), Himachal Pradesh (11.5%), Uttarakhand (10.6%) and Puducherry (8.4%). On the other hands, sharp decline in youth LFPR has also been observed in the States/UTs of Chandigarh (11.5%) followed by Lakshadweep (11.3%), Goa (11.1%) and Manipur (10.9). Similarly, decrease in female youth LFPR has also been observed in the States/UTs of Lakshadweep (13.4%) followed by Goa (13.1%), Manipur (8.1%) and Chandigarh (6.3%). It is also noted that the rise in youth LFPR was better in rural areas than urban areas. The similar pattern was recorded in almost all the States/UTs except in Lakshadweep, Goa, Andaman & Nicobar Island, Manipur, Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Puducherry and Bihar. It is interesting to note that the difference in the improvement in youth LFPR of rural areas is in the lead of urban areas by a wide gap in the States/UTs of Himachal Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Nagaland and Rajasthan.

3.4.7 Low rates of labour force participation among youth are natural, given that many young people are engaged in full-time studies or in training in preparation for future work. Inactivity is not in and of itself a reflection of poor labour market outcomes. Youth may be economically inactive by choice, spending their time on personal development or carrying out the responsibilities associated with marriage, household work, raising children, or providing care to older relatives. While there are concerns that young women, who still bear the primary responsibility for taking care of children and the home in most countries, are being excluded from economic opportunities outside the home, this remains an important personal choice. However, inactivity may also reflect aspects of economic exclusion among youth; for example,

there are young people who have exited the labour market out of frustration, those who have never actively sought work because they believe that decent jobs are not available, and youth who have been denied work because of discrimination. Other reasons for low LFPR of female youth may be about the working conditions such as law and order, inefficient public transportation, violence against women, societal norms etc.

3.4.8 While not being actively engaged in the labour force can be a choice, young people and women often remain out of the workforce because of perceptions that no jobs are available to them or because they are discouraged in their efforts to secure work. Differentiating disguised unemployment from voluntary inactivity can be difficult, but inactivity among young women that is the result of having given up the search for employment rather than having made a voluntary decision not to work should be considered disguised unemployment.

Youth in Unemployment

3.4.9 Unemployment status is only one marker of the difficult transition to work faced by young people around the world, but it is the most commonly cited and perhaps the most telling of the indicators used in analyses of labour market outcomes.

Unemployment Rate (UR) is defined as the percentage of persons unemployed among the persons in the labour force.

$$UR = \frac{No.\,of\ Unemployed\ Persons}{No.\,of\ Employed\ Persons + No.\,of\ Unemployed\ Persons} * 100$$

3.4.10 **Table-6** gives area-wise, gender-wise unemployment rate for youth age 15-29 years and population 15 years and above. It shows that the country experienced a very high youth unemployment rate of 17.8% during 2017-18 which has reduced significantly to 12.9% in 2020-21 but it is still on the higher side. It can also be seen that urban area experienced worse unemployment scenario of youth than rural area and female youth experiencing higher unemployment rate as compared to male youth. Unemployment rate reduced in rural area at a greater pace than in urban area over the period of four years (5.9% points in rural and 2.1% points in urban). The improvement in the unemployment situation of female youth is better than males during 2020-21.

Table-6: Unemployment Rate (in per cent) according to Usual Status (ps+ss)

Area	2017-18			2018-19			2019-20			2020-21		
	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P
15-29 Years												
Rural	17.4	13.6	16.6	16.6	13.8	16	13.8	10.3	12.9	11.6	8.2	10.7
Urban	18.7	27.2	20.6	18.7	25.7	20.2	18.2	24.9	19.9	16.6	24.9	18.5
Rural + Urban	**17.8**	**17.9**	**17.8**	**17.2**	**17.7**	**17.3**	**15.1**	**14.6**	**15.0**	**13.0**	**12.5**	**12.9**
15 years and above												
Rural	5.7	3.8	5.3	5.5	3.5	5.0	4.5	2.6	3.9	3.8	2.1	3.3
Urban	6.9	10.8	7.7	7.0	9.8	7.6	6.4	8.9	6.9	6.1	8.6	6.7
Rural + Urban	**6.1**	**5.6**	**6.0**	**6.0**	**5.1**	**5.8**	**5.0**	**4.2**	**4.8**	**4.5**	**3.5**	**4.2**

Source: Periodic Labour Force Survey, National Statistical Office, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation; M: Male, F: Female, P: Person

3.4.11 The ratio of unemployment rate of youth to unemployment rate of population of age 15+ years was 2.96 in 2017-18 which increased to 3.07 in 2020-21. While striking, this difference in unemployment rate of youth and the population of 15+ years makes sense when one considers that young people are generally new entrants to the labour market with little or no job experience and are competing for entry-level positions. They are also exploring and experimenting with different types of work and are thus more prone to leave jobs that do not meet their goals and expectations or to move frequently to secure better positions. Moreover, for those able to depend on their families for housing and living costs, remaining unemployed may be a viable option as it gives them the freedom to pursue better opportunities.

3.4.12 Statements 47(a) and 47(b) show that youth unemployment rate has improved in almost all the States/UTs during 2017-18 and 2020-21. Steep improvement in the youth unemployment rate has been observed in the States/UTs of Uttarakhand, Mizoram, Manipur, Jharkhand, Assam and Andaman & Nicobar Islands. Further, in the States of Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Uttarakhand, Tripura, Mizoram, Assam, the improvement in unemployment rate was due to the high improvement in unemployment rate of female youth population.

3.4.13 In addition, one more aspect that plays an important role in unemployment rate is the choice of public and private sector employment. The lure of the public sector has two institutional implications. First, the possibility of securing public sector work may incentivize youth who can afford it to delay labour market entry as they wait for public sector opportunities, which has a direct impact on unemployment rates. Second, it "plays a role in signaling the skills in which youth should invest: where the attraction is too strong, youth may make educational investments that aim to secure public sector jobs rather than acquiring the skills sought by private employers". This reinforces skills gaps between what graduates bring to the marketplace and what is

needed in the private sector. Another aspect of the dichotomy between the public and private sectors is Small, Medium Enterprises (SMEs), which are an economy's core engine of job creation. While large companies (and in some cases the public sector) may be the dominant employers in a country, most new jobs will come from SMEs.

3.4.14 Clearly, efforts to stimulate youth employment should focus on bolstering the SME sector and facilitating growth. This would require addressing the specific needs of SMEs, including issues relating to regulation and access to credit and financing. Particular attention should be given to promoting SMEs that provide policymakers with the most effective and efficient means of stimulating job-intensive economic growth.

Education and Employment

3.4.15 During the formative period between childhood and adulthood, young people begin to define their aspirations, pursue economic independence and establish their place in society. For many, this period includes the transition to the world of work. The reality is that for a substantial number of youths, the transition from school to work is not easy or smooth but instead represents a period marked by instability and frustration. For these young people, participation in the labour market is characterized not by decent work but by income insecurity and poor job quality. For those able to find a job, informal sector work and underemployment are common, while many others face prolonged periods of unemployment at the start of their transition to the workforce. During these extended periods without decent work, the skills young people acquired as students are eroding and declining in economic value. Many youths in developing economies can only find work in the informal sector, and with poor job security, low wages and limited opportunities for on-the-job learning, such youth often find themselves among the working poor. Education past primary school is often out of the reach of young people living in poverty and those who are otherwise vulnerable or marginalized, as they are expected to help cover their family's more immediate needs, and this early exit from education further limits their future employment options. The importance of education in expanding job opportunities in the school to-work transition period is particularly evident in these circumstances.

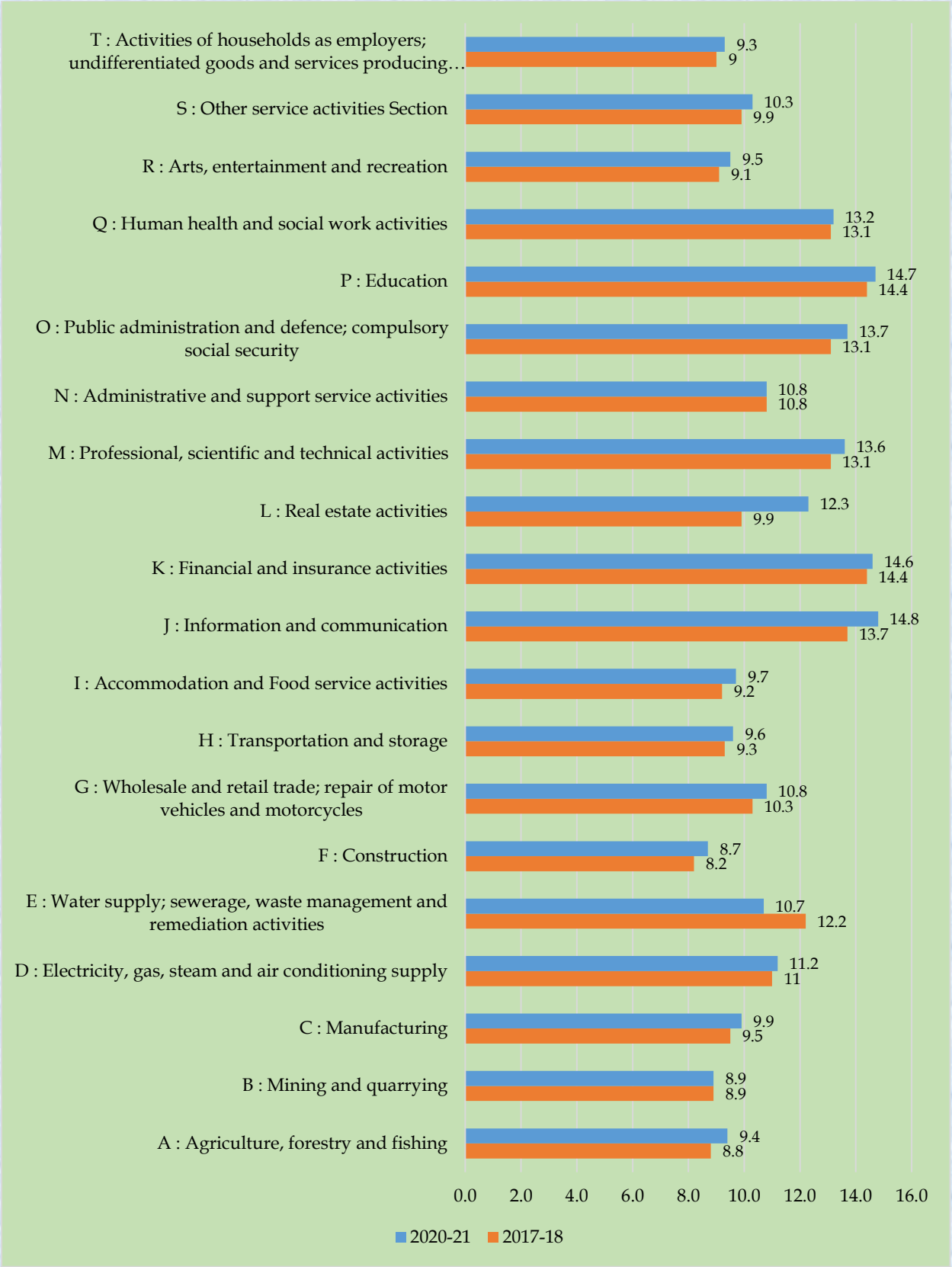
3.4.16 While youth in developing economies face unique and difficult challenges in this transition, youth in developed economies also often find the transition to work increasingly marked by frustration with poor labour market outcomes, unemployment, underemployment and prolonged periods of waiting for opportunities aligned with their expectations and educational investments. Although such frustration is temporary for most, prolonged unemployment and delays in securing a first job can impact career trajectories and economic, psychological and

emotional well-being. There is evidence that delays in transitioning from school to work can have a negative long-term impact on career development and even salaries (Nelson and Reiso, 2011; Gregg and Tominey, 2004).

3.4.17 Young people need relevant skills, knowledge, competencies and aptitudes to help them obtain jobs and establish career paths. As the demand for skilled labour rises owing to globalization, technological advancements and the changing organization of work, quality education and appropriate training will be key to addressing employment challenges. Ensuring that present and future generations of youth have the tools they need to successfully navigate the school-to-work transition and secure decent work is essential for the well-being of both young people and the economy as a whole. Work is the foundation on which economic stability and prosperity are built. Putting the skills and talents of young people to productive use contributes to economic prosperity for entire populations and helps to reduce economic inequality and eliminate poverty. The alignment of education and skills with the needs of the labour market enhances opportunities for decent work.

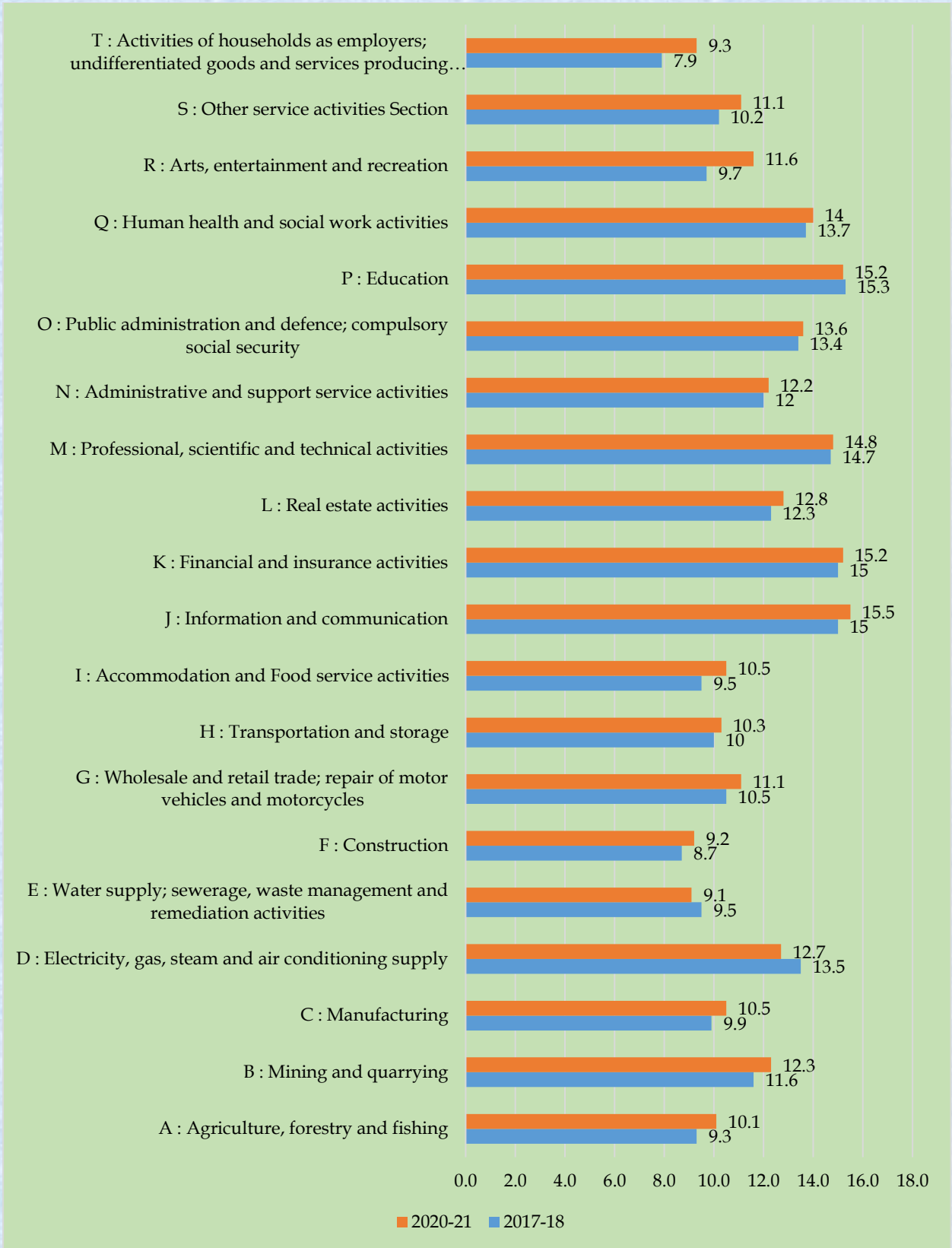
3.4.18 Statements 48(a) and 48(b) presents the average number of years spent in formal education by youth workers in usual status (ps+ss) who are literate through formal schooling by industry of work and by sex separately for rural and urban areas for the period 2017-18 and 2020-21. In 2020-21, youth had an average of 10.2 years of formal education who were engaged in various industries activities as compared to 9.8 years in 2017-18. During 2020-21, average number of years spent in formal education was highest (15.4 years) for the youth engaged in "Information and Communication" industry followed by youth workers engaged in "Financial and Insurance activities" and "Education" (14.9 years for each) followed by "Professional, scientific and technical activities (14.4 years)" and "Public Administration and Defence; compulsory social security (13.7 years)". The workers with lesser number of years of formal education were engaged in "Construction" (8.8 years), "Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods and services producing activities of households for own use" (9.3 years), "Agriculture, forestry and fishing" (9.4 years) and "Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities" (9.5 years). It can also be seen from the **Figures 3.22 and 3.23** that there was an improvement in time spent in formal education over a period of 4 years in respect of almost all the activities in both rural and urban areas. It is also interesting to note that in urban areas young female workers had spent more time in formal education as compared to young male workers.

Figure 3.22: Average No. of years spent in formal education by workers in usual status (ps+ss) of age 15-29 years who are literate through formal schooling by industry of work-RURAL



Source: *Periodic Labour Force Survey, National Statistical Office, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (estimated from Unit Level Data)*

Figure 3.23: Average No. of years spent in formal education by workers in usual status (ps+ss) of age 15-29 years who are literate through formal schooling by industry of work-URBAN



Source: *Periodic Labour Force Survey, National Statistical Office, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (estimated from Unit Level Data)*

Time disposition of Youth

3.4.19 Time Use Survey (TUS) provides a framework for measuring time dispositions by the population on different activities. One distinguishing feature of Time Use Survey from other household surveys is that it can capture time disposition on different aspects of human activities, be it paid, unpaid or other activities with such details which is not possible in other surveys. The primary objective of Time Use Survey (TUS) is to measure participation of men and women in paid and unpaid activities. It is an important source of information on the time spent in unpaid caregiving activities, volunteer work, unpaid domestic service producing activities of the household members. It also provides information on time spent on learning, socializing, leisure activities, self-care activities, etc., by the household members. The survey was conducted by Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation in 2019.

3.4.20 All-India level, 34.1% of young persons were involved in employment related activities at All India level. Among male youth, 53.9% and among female youth only 14.2 % were involved in employment related activities. The reason for huge difference in the percentage of young males' and females' involvement in employment related activities is reflected in other activities viz. "Unpaid domestic services for household members" and "Unpaid caregiving services for household members". 85.8% and 39.8% of young females participated in unpaid domestic services and unpaid caregiving services for household members respectively whereas the proportions of young males were only 24.2% and 11.5% respectively. The proportions of "Unpaid domestic services for household members" and "Unpaid caregiving services for household members" were much more highlighted in rural areas as compared to urban areas. Average time spent in a day per participant of 15-29 years in employment related activities, unpaid domestic services for household members and Unpaid caregiving services for household members was 463 minutes, 94 minutes and 75 minutes respectively for males and 328 minutes, 291 minutes and 154 minutes for females. **(Statement 49)**

3.4.21 Statement 50 provides the data on percentage of youth "participating in a day in unpaid domestic service activities for household members" and "average time spent in a day in unpaid domestic service activities". The statement shows that at all-India level, 79.2% female youth were engaged in food and meals management and preparation followed by 65.9% females engaged in cleaning and maintaining of own dwelling & surroundings and 48.6% females involved in care and maintenance of textiles and footwear whereas, for male youth, the proportions were 6.4%, 6.1% and 3.5% respectively. Again, the phenomenon was more highlighted in rural areas than urban areas. Average time spent in a day per participant of female youth was highest

in food and meals management and preparation (200 minutes) followed by other unpaid domestic services for household members (93 minutes) and pet care (77 minutes) whereas, for male youth, the average time spent in a day per participant was highest in food and meals management and preparation (89 minutes) followed by pet care (85 minutes) and do-it-yourself decoration, maintenance and repair (81 minutes).

3.4.22 Statement 51 provides average time spent in a day per young person in different type of self-care and maintenance activities. As may be seen from the statement that under this activity "Sleep & related activities", "Eating & drinking" and "Personal hygiene and care" are the three main activities on which most of the time is spent with both males and females spending almost equal amount of time on each of these three activities. In rural areas, youth spent more time on self-care and maintenance activities than in urban areas.

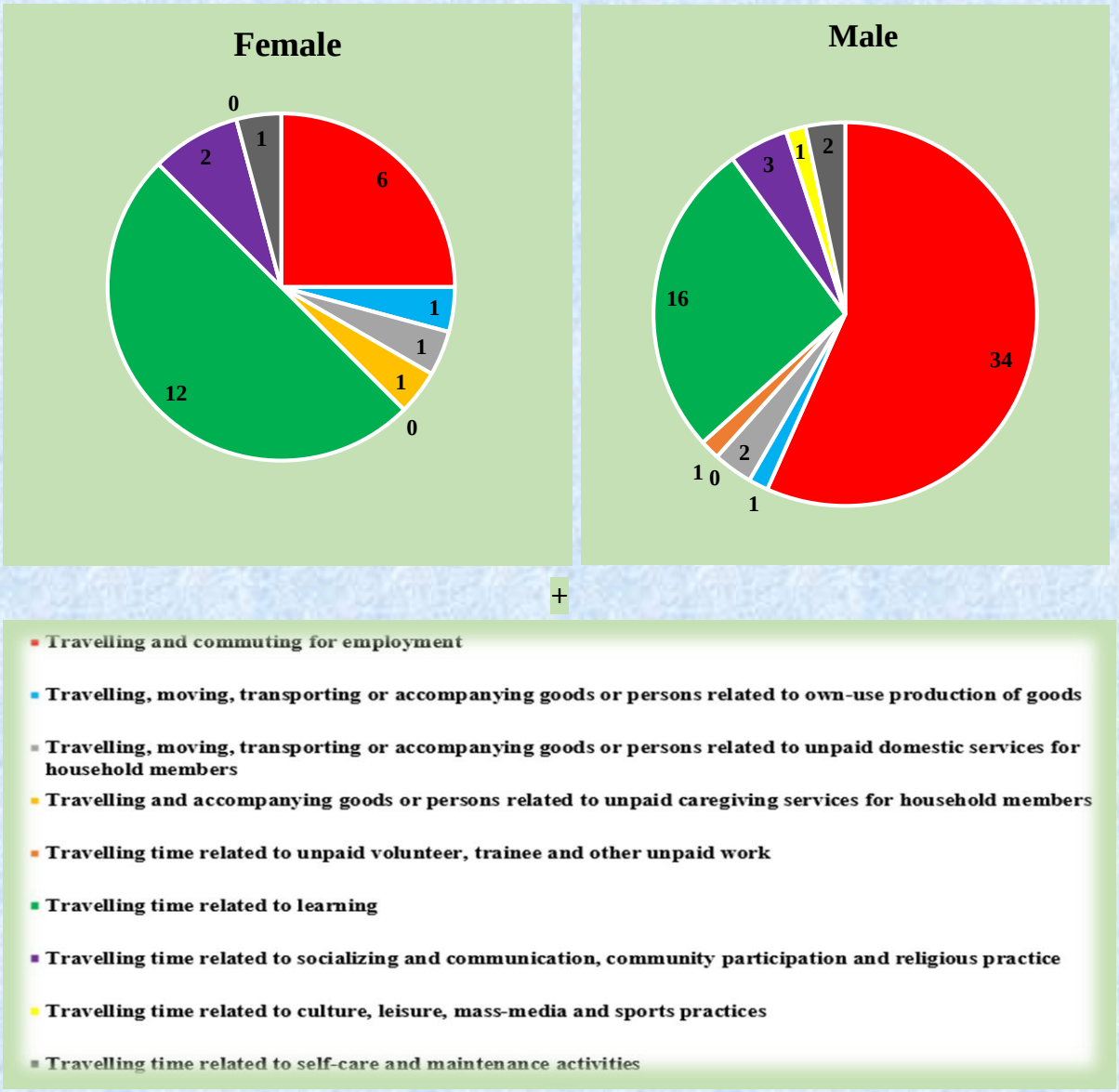
3.4.23 Statement 52 provides all-India percentage of young persons participating in a day in unpaid activities, paid activities and residual other activities & average time (in minutes) spent in a day per participant in unpaid activities, paid activities and residual other activities which is also presented in the **Figure 3.24**. Irrespective of the area (rural or urban) of work, more females are involved in unpaid activities than males. Average time spent on paid activities (423 minutes) is more than that on unpaid activity (303 minutes).

Figure 3.24: Percentage of persons of age group 15-29 years participating in a day in unpaid activities, paid activities

Source: *Time Use Survey, 2019, National Statistical Office, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation*

3.4.24 Statement 53 and Figure 3.25 gives average time spent in a day per young person in travelling related activities (in minutes). It is evident from the statement that maximum time spent in a day by youth at all-India level is invested for "Travelling and commuting for employment (20 minutes)" followed by "Travelling time related to learning (14 minutes). For young males the proportion of travelling time for employment was more than that of learning but in case of female youth, more of travelling time was for the purpose of learning as compared to employment.

Figure 3.25: Average time spent in a day per person of age 15-29 years in travelling (in minutes)



3.4.25 SNA (System of National Accounts) production activities include both paid activities and unpaid activities while all the non-SNA production activities are covered under unpaid activities. To understand the extent of paid and unpaid work in SNA activities, percentage of persons participating in unpaid SNA production, non-

SNA production and paid activities and average amount of time (in minutes) in a day spent by those who participated in such activities are given in the **Statement 54**. At all-India level, 90.7% of youth workers were engaged in SNA Production activities with 458 minutes spent on an average in a day per participant. 22.9% and 17.6% of young unemployed and youth not in labour force respectively were engaged in SNA Production activities. In rural areas, 90.4% of youth workers were engaged in SNA Production activities with 436 minutes spent on an average in a day per participant. 28.7% and 21.7% of young unemployed and youth not in labour force respectively were engaged in SNA Production activities. In urban areas, 91.3% of youth workers were engaged in SNA Production activities with 509 minutes spent on an average in a day per participant. 12.6% and 8.3% of young unemployed and youth not in labour force respectively were engaged in SNA Production activities.

Method of deriving time spent per participant and per person:

1. ***Average time spent per participant in an activity (say, activity A)***

$$\frac{total\ time\ spent\ by\ the\ participants\ in\ activity\ 'A'}{total\ number\ of\ persons\ participating\ in\ activity\ 'A'}$$

2. ***Average time spent per person in an activity (say, activity 'A')***

$$\frac{total\ time\ spent\ by\ the\ participants\ in\ activity\ 'A'}{total\ number\ of\ persons}$$

3.4.26 Statement 55 shows all-India average time (in minutes) spent in a day per participant and per youth in SNA production, non-SNA production and residual other activities in a day. As far as time spent on activities per participant is concerned, youth had spent 353 minutes and 287 minutes on SNA production and Non-SNA production activities respectively. For gender-wise, there was huge difference in time spent by male youth on SNA production and Non-SNA production activities as compared to female youth. 426 minutes and 100 minutes were spent by male youth on SNA production and Non-SNA production activities as compared to 209 and 359 minutes spent by female youth on the same activities. This shows that among participants, more time of males is spent on SNA activities while for females, more time is spent on Non-SNA activities. Similar gender wise scenario was seen in urban and rural areas with youth participants spending more time in SNA Activities in urban areas as compared to rural areas.

3.5 Crime

3.5.1 Youth is an important developmental phase in human life and the most energetic force of the society[4]. Different characters, structures, goals and temperaments have been reflected in their life due to the impact of socio-cultural, psychological and environmental influences. Well known Indian Sociologist Ram Ahuja, (1996) mentioned about the relation between youth and crime, "Youth crime is the caused frustrations and deprivations arising from a failure to achieve goals desires and aspirations. These frustrations break or weaken the youths 'social bonds with groups which control their social behavior. However, the breaking/weakening of social bonds depends upon youth's personality structure. One, who is committed to social norms, continues to remain attached to the family, and since he has the ability to adjust to a situation, he is not like to break his bonds with his groups. Thus, the breaking or weakening of the social bonds becomes the cause of a youth's criminal behavior." Crime is a relative concept, it varies from society to society, country to country, and also time to time in the same society. It is, therefore, difficult to give a universal definition of crime. According to K. C. Dubey (2009), crime is a deviant behavior that violates prevailing norms cultural standards prescribing how humans ought to behave normally.

3.5.2 Crime is primarily the outcome of multiple adverse social, economic, cultural and family conditions. In order to prevent crime, it is important to understand its roots, causes of crimes which differs from country to country and different cultural, economic and social characteristics. The causes of crime are primarily related to:

(i) **Economic Situation:** - The major economic factors that contribute to the crime are unemployment, poverty and political situation.

(ii) **Social Environment:** - The core social root causes of crime are inequality, not sharing power, lack of support to families and neighborhoods, real or perceived inaccessibility to services, lack of leadership in communities, low value placed on children.

(iii) **Family Structures:-** Youth whose family have one or more characteristics listed below, are more likely to be involved in crime viz., parents are involved in crime, poor parental supervision, their parents neglect them, there is erratic discipline or they are treated harshly, family income is low or they are isolated, family conflict, lack of communication between children and parents, lack of respect and responsibility amongst family members, abuse and neglect of children, family violence, family breakup.

[4]Involvement of Youth Attitudes in Crime: A Study Conducted in Four Jails of Upper Assam, India By Karabi Konch and Joyanta Borbora (http://iasir.net/AIJRHASSpapers/AIJRHASS13-150.pdf)

3.5.3 This section provides an overview of the involvement of youth in crimes and youth as victims of crimes, suicides and physical and sexual violence which provides a basis for development of crime prevention strategies and it should be integrated in a cross-cutting manner, into a social, economic, educational, employment, health, housing, urban planning and justice. These strategies are required to be built upon cooperative partnerships between government institutions and ministries, community and non-governmental organizations.

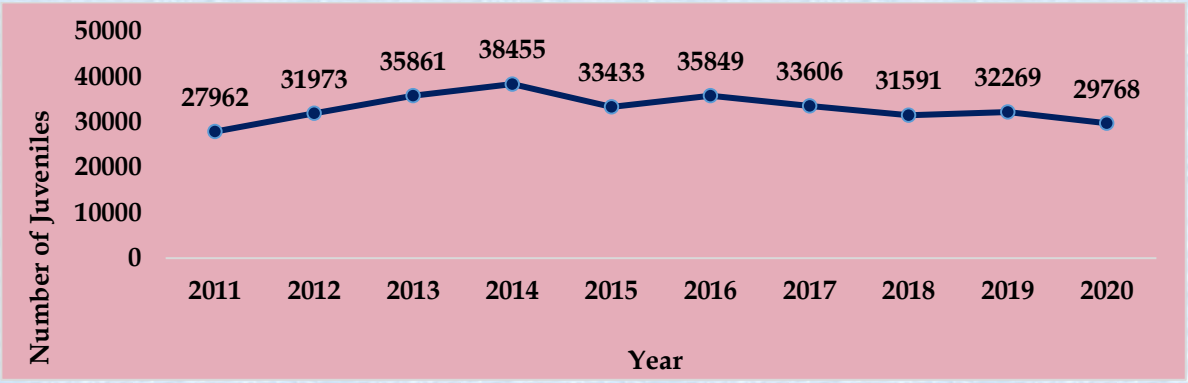
Juvenile Delinquency

3.5.4 Juvenile delinquency is an enormous problem in India because of which most of the youth ruin their lives. Youth, their families and the entire society suffer multiple consequences because of juvenile crime and related problems. Not only does the problem affect the victims of the crime; it also affects the juvenile delinquent's family, their future, and the society as a whole. The most intensive consequence of crimes committed by juveniles are due to socio-economic and psychological problems which reflect on their family members and the society. Due to the psychological problems, sometimes juveniles are involved in robberies, rapes and other heinous crimes. Sometimes due to these criminal activities, the juveniles habituate to consume alcohol or other drugs.

3.5.5 Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) Act 2000 provide for special dispensation in respect of children involved in criminal activity. It recognizes a person below the age of 18 years as juvenile. The Act was replaced by Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) Act 2015 which was again amended in 2021 as Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) Amendment Act 2021.

3.5.6 **Statement 57** gives state-wise crime committed by Juveniles under IPC (Indian Penal Code) and SLL (Special and Local Laws) from 2011 onwards. At all-India level, a total of 29,768 cases were registered against Juveniles during 2020, depicting a decrease of 7.8% from 2019 (32,269 cases). It was also showing a decreasing trend in number of crimes involving Juveniles since 2016, depicted in the **Figure 3.26**. During 2020, highest crime committed by juveniles was registered in the States of Madhya Pradesh, followed by Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Delhi and Rajasthan whereas lowest crime committed by juveniles registered in the States/UTs of Lakshadweep, Nagaland, Sikkim and Arunachal Pradesh. In comparison to crime committed by juveniles in 2020 over 2019, significant reduction was observed in the states of Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Bihar, Delhi, Gujarat, Haryana and Telangana whereas increase was observed in the states of Chhattisgarh, Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh.

Figure 3.26: Crime Committed by Juveniles (IPC+SLL)

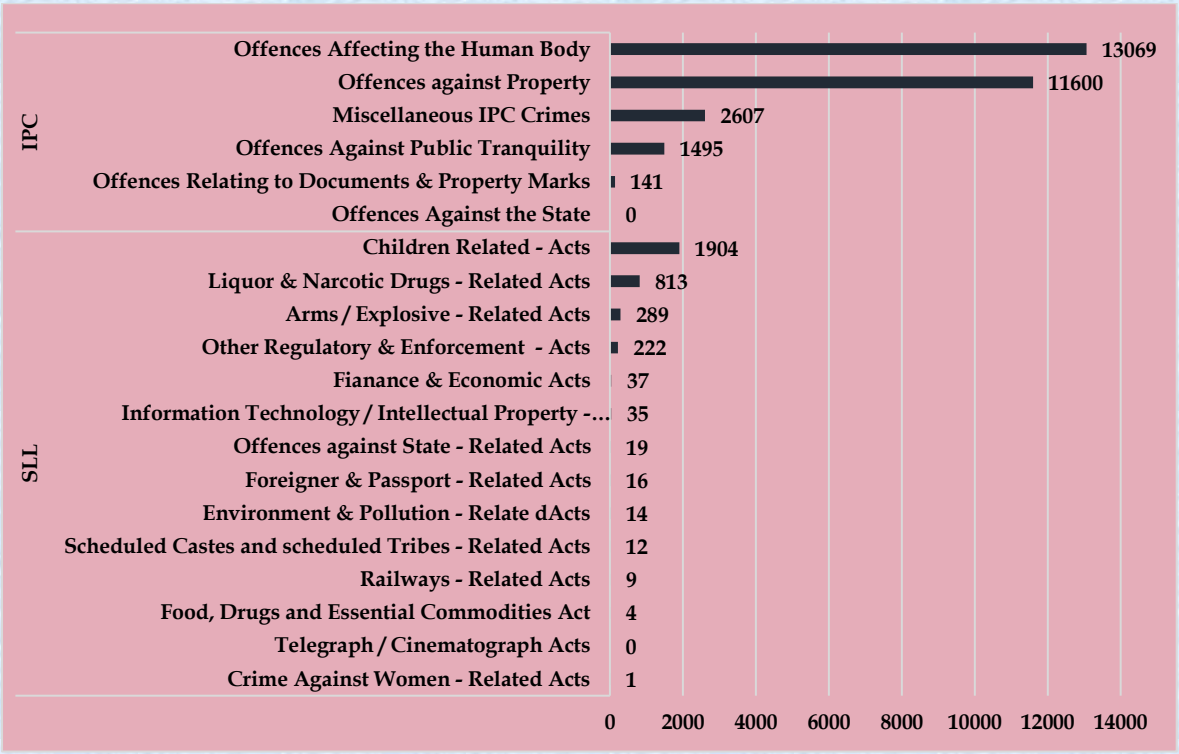


Source: *Crime in India, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs*

3.5.7 As it can be seen from the **Statement 56(a)** that a total of 35,352 juveniles were apprehended under IPC (Indian Penal Code) and SLL (Special and Local Laws) crimes during 2020 of which 394 were girls. Also, the incidence of crime rate per lakh population decreased from 3.4 in 2016 to 2.6 in 2020.

3.5.8 Majority of the crimes committed by juveniles, as presented in the **Figure 3.27**, during 2020 were Offences Affecting the Human Body followed by Offences against Property under the cognizable IPC crime. **Statement 56(b)** shows that 31618 juveniles were apprehended, of which 24157 juveniles apprehended were of the age groups 16- 18 years and 7229 juveniles of the age group 12-16 years.

Figure 3.27: Juvenile Apprehended (IPC+SLL) during the year 2020



Source: *Crime in India, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs*

3.5.9 The **Statements 58(a) and 58(b)** gives State-wise educational and family background of juveniles apprehended. All-India summary of juvenile's educational background is presented in the **Figure 3.28** which shows that number of juveniles apprehended, in absolute numbers, had decreased to 35352 in 2020 from 38256 in 2018. 21% of juveniles apprehended were from 19 metropolitan cities which accounted for only 9% of the country's population as per 2011 census. During 2020, the majority of juveniles apprehended had received education "above primary to matric" (49%) followed by "upper primary" (26%) and "above matric to higher secondary" (14%). Similar situation was observed in 2018 also. The family background as per National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) report is the set up in which a juvenile was living. While almost 83 percent (29,285) of the juveniles apprehended were living with their parents, 10 percent (3,742) were living with guardians and only 7 percent (2352) were homeless during 2020.

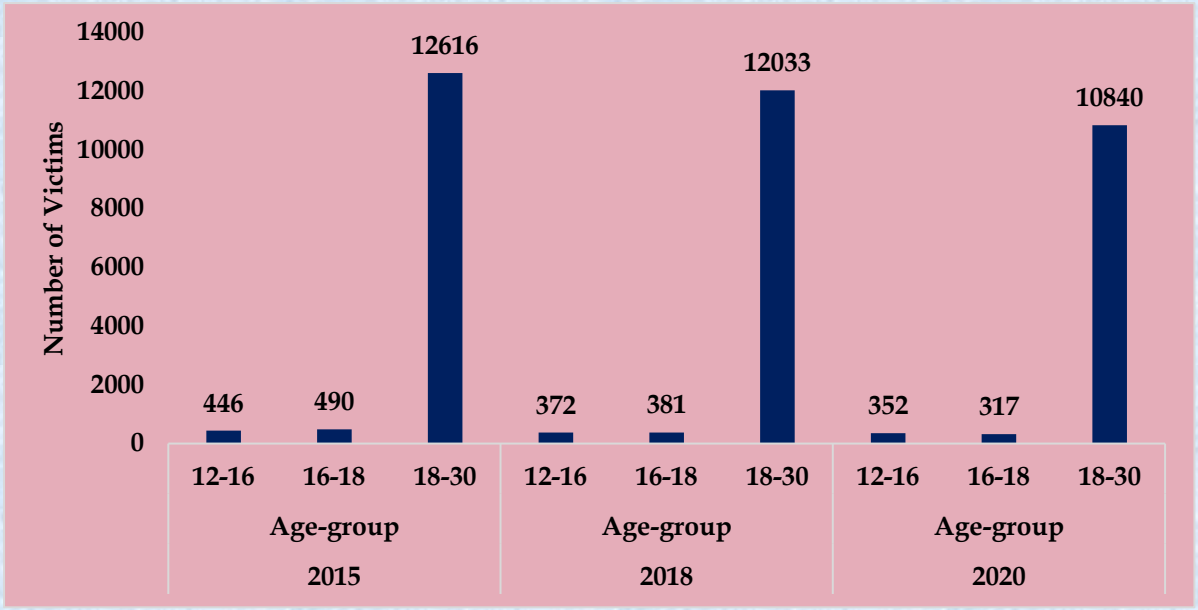
Figure 3.28: Educational Qualification of Juveniles, 2018 and 2020

Source: *Crime in India, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs*

Youth as Victims of Crime

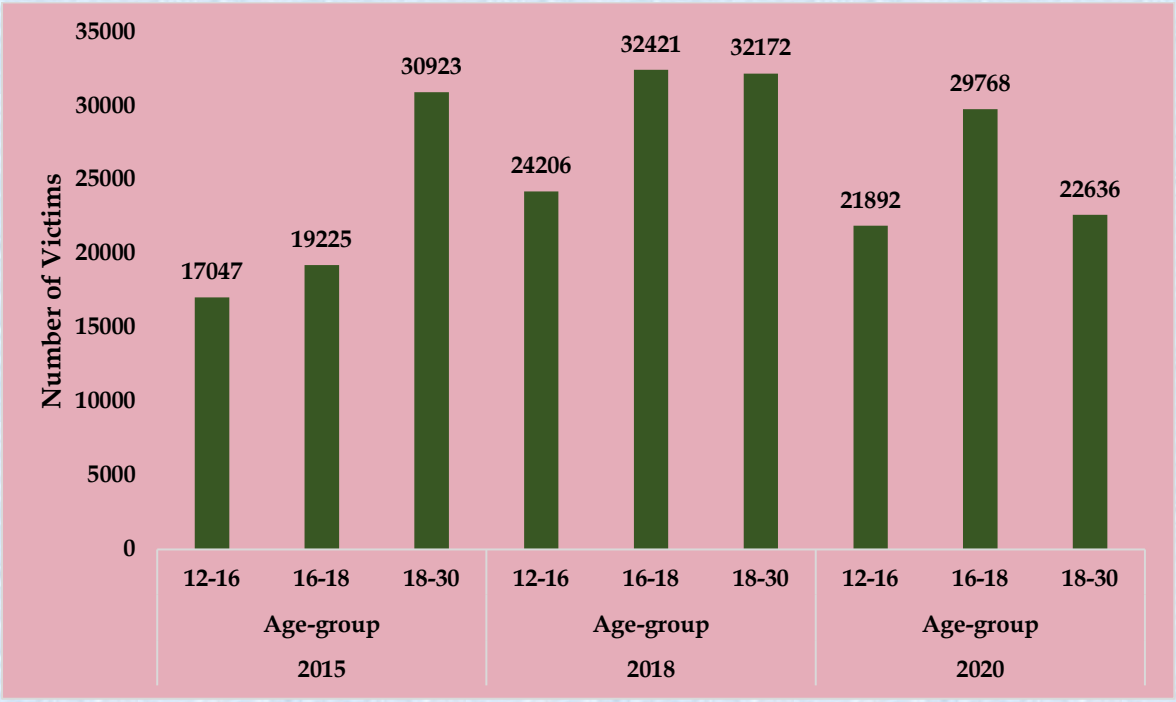
3.5.10 Statements 59 and 60 give State-wise, age-wise "Victims of Murder" and "Victims of Kidnapping and Abduction". 18-30 years age-group accounts for more than a third of the victims of murder. **Figure 3.29** shows that the number of victims of murder in age groups 18-30 years has reduced from 12616 (38.1%) in 2015 to 10840(35.9%) in 2020. Similar trend was observed from 2015 to 2020 in case of age group 12-18 years. During 2020, highest number of victims of murder in the age group 18-30 years was observed in the State of Uttar Pradesh followed by Bihar, Odisha, West Bengal and Madhya Pradesh. In case of victims of kidnapping and abduction, 18-30 years age-group accounts for the vast majority of victims among youth followed by 16-18 years and 12-16 years. **Figure 3.30** shows that the number of victims of kidnapping and abduction in the age groups 18-30 years has reduced from 30923 (36.6%) in 2015 to 22636(25.6%) in 2020. However, in case of age group 16-18 years, it had increased from 22.8% in 2015 to 33.6% in 2020. Similar observation was also observed from 2015 to 2020 in case of age group 12-16 years. During 2020, highest number of victims of kidnapping and abduction in the age group 18-30 years was observed in the States of Uttar Pradesh followed by Assam, Bihar, West Bengal, Haryana and Jharkhand. Similarly, highest number of victims of kidnapping and abduction in the age group 16-18 years was observed in the States of Madhya Pradesh, followed by West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Odisha, Assam, Bihar and Rajasthan.

Figure 3.29: Victims of Murder



Source: *Crime in India, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs*

Figure 3.30: Victims of Kidnapping and Abduction



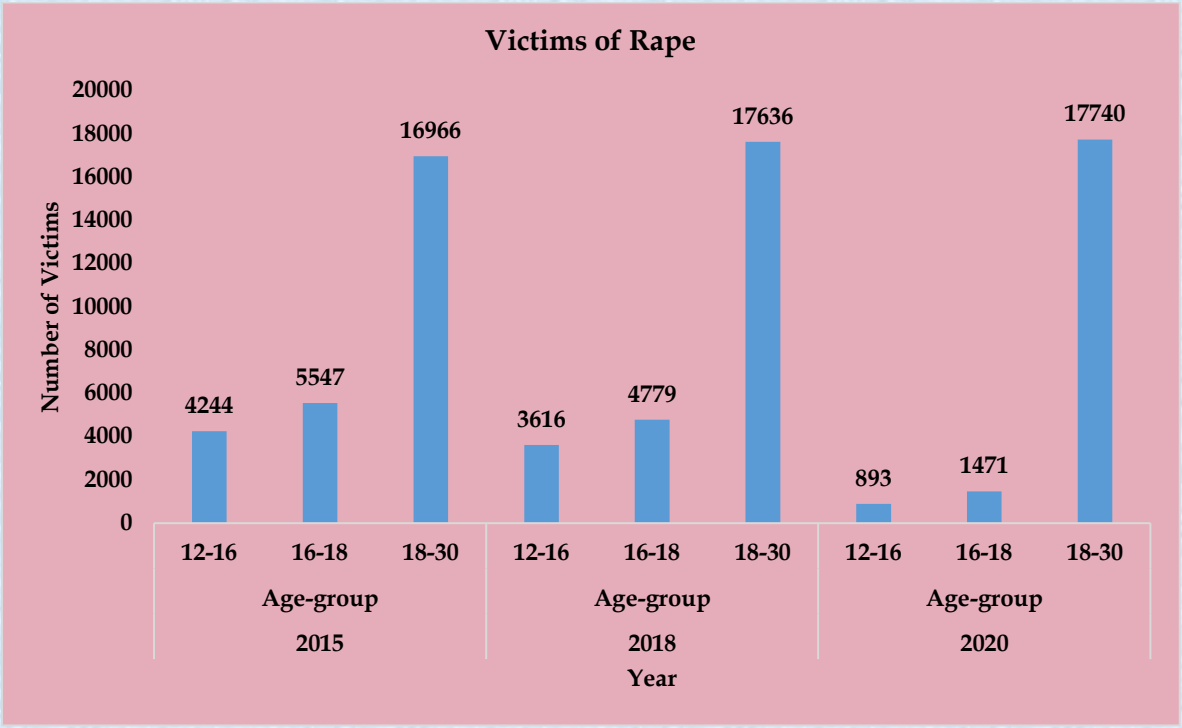
Source: *Crime in India, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs*

Incidences of Rape

3.5.11 Rape is one of the heinous and most common crime against women. It is unfortunate that incidences of rape in India against female and more so against minors are rising steadily. There has been demand to make the law more stringent in case of rape. The criminal law was amended in 2013 providing for enhanced punishment for convicts, repeat offenders and also making provision of punishment for other offences like eve-teasing, stalking, voyeurism etc. Which were otherwise not covered earlier.

3.5.12 Statement 61 gives State-wise, age-wise "women and girls victims of rape". **Figure 3.31** shows that the 18-30 years age-group accounts for the vast majority of victims of rape among youth in all the years 2015, 2018 and 2020. While, a decreasing trend is seen in the cases reported in the age-groups 12-16 years and 16-18 years, trend is, unfortunately, reversed for the 18-30 years age group. During 2020, highest number of victims of rape were reported in Rajasthan followed by Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Odisha and Assam.

Figure 3.31: Women and Girls Victims of Rape



Source: *Crime in India, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs*

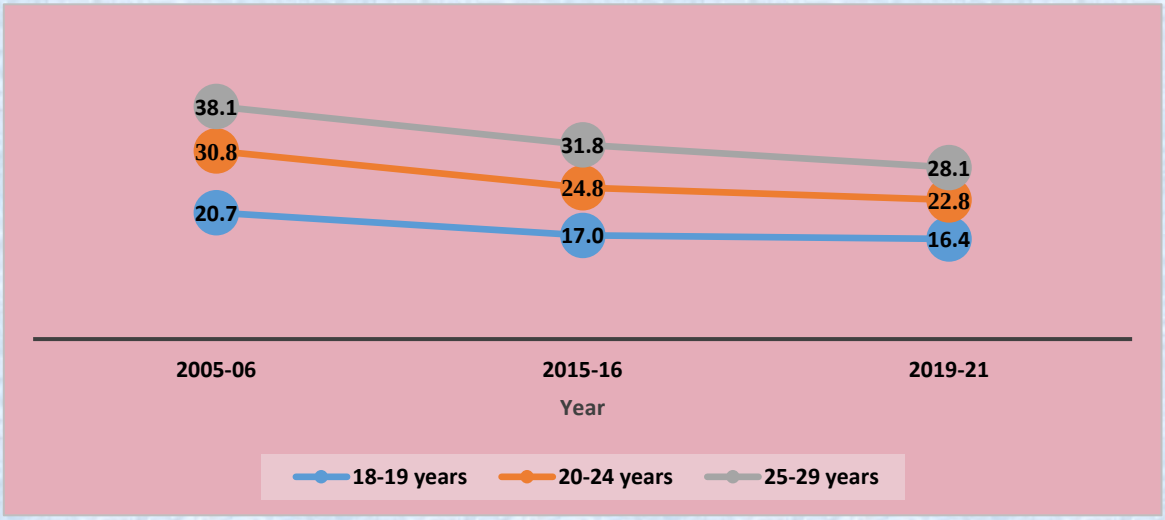
Physical and Sexual Violence

3.5.13 Physical and sexual violence is a major problem all over the world which can have a profound impact on lifelong health, opportunity, and well-being. Experience of violence affects the health of victims directly through the injuries they sustain and through life-long detrimental effects on their mental and physical health. Although both women and men face violence, women are disproportionately more likely to experience domestic violence than men, and spousal violence is one of the most common forms of violence that women ever experience.

3.5.14 As per National Family Health Survey (NFHS), physical spousal violence includes pushing, shaking, throwing something at the victim, slapping, twisting arm or pulling hair, punching with fist or something that could hurt, kicking, dragging, beating, trying to choke or burn on purpose, threaten or attack with a knife, gun or any other weapon. Sexual spousal violence includes physically forcing to have sexual intercourse, physically forcing to perform any other sexual acts, forcing with threats or in any other way to perform sexual acts. Emotional spousal violence includes saying or doing something to humiliate in front of others, threatening, hurting or harming the victim or someone close to the victim, insulting or making the victim feeling bad about themselves.

3.5.15 Statement 63 gives comparative statement of percentage of women aged 18-29 years who have ever experienced physical violence since age 15 years and percentage who have experienced physical violence during the 12 months preceding the survey conducted in 2005-06, 2015-16 and 2019-21. **Figure 3.32** depicts the percentage of women who have ever experienced physical violence since age 15 years by year and age-group. Percentage of women in the age-group 18-49 years who have ever experienced physical violence since age 15 years is more than 30% for women with no schooling or less than 8 years of schooling and is the lowest for women with 12 or more years of schooling (NFHS 5).

Figure 3.32: Percentage of women who have ever experienced physical violence in different age groups



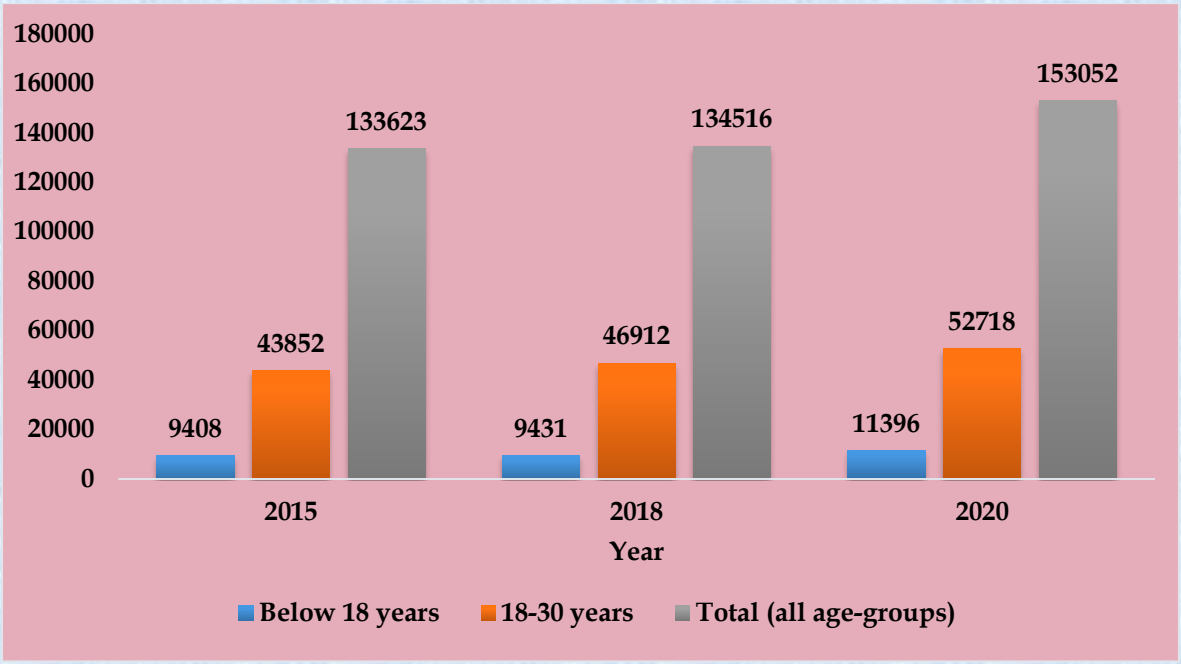
Source: *National Family Health Survey, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare.*

3.5.16 Physical violence and sexual violence may not occur in isolation; rather, women may experience a combination of different types of violence. **Statement 64** gives comparative statement of percentage of women who have experienced different types of violence by age, residence and marital status during 2015-16 and 2019-21. During 2019-21, 30 percent women experienced physical violence in the age-group 25-29 years as against 23.8 percent and 17 percent in the age-groups 20-24 and 18-19 years respectively. Similar trend was observed in 2015-16. Percentage women who experienced sexual violence were far lower than those who experienced physical violence with the percentage varying between 6.6 and 3.7 for the three age groups. Here also, percentage was highest in the age group 25-29 years among the three age groups under 18-29 years.

Suicides

3.5.17 Suicide is one of the leading causes of death among young adults worldwide. Every year, more than 1,00,000 people commit suicide in our country. There are various known causes of suicides like family problems, financial distress, professional problems, illness etc. National Crime Records Bureau collects data on suicides from police recorded suicide cases. **Statements 62(a) to 62(c)** give the cause-wise incidence of suicides for different age groups. Of a total of 1,53,052 suicides reported in the country during 2020, 52,718 suicides reported were in the age-group 18-30 years in comparison to 133623 total suicides reported during 2015 and 43852 suicides reported in the age-group 18-30 years. Youth is one of the most vulnerable groups resorting to suicides with almost 34% share of total suicides in the year 2020 which has increased from 32% in 2015. It is seen that 'Family problems' is the most prevalent cause amongst youth committing suicide followed by 'Illness' and within illness, insanity/mental illness accounts for almost 50%.

Figure 3.33: Incidence of Suicides in various age-groups



Source: *Accidental Deaths & Suicides in India, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs*