



A SCOPING REVIEW

The perceptions of gender norms amongst sub-groups
of men and boys in Canada and abroad

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1.0 Introduction

Status of Women Canada's (SWC) goal is to advance women's equality by promoting women's full participation in the economic, social and democratic life of Canada. It is recognized that advancing this work will require a cultural shift and the participation of society as a whole as it will be necessary to break down patriarchal norms and biases, including attitudes that devalue femininity and condone violence. Consequently, the Minister of Status of Women has been mandated to engage men and boys as partners who, along with women, girls and non-binary people, should be involved in promoting inclusiveness and achieving gender equality. Building on continuing efforts to involve men and boys in gender-based violence prevention, SWC is undertaking engagement and research work on the broader agenda of advancing gender equality.

Research on understanding and restructuring gender norms has been at the forefront of the efforts to achieve gender equity and equality.¹ Increasing evidence suggests that inequitable gender norms negatively impact many men's behaviours, their health and well-being which in turn have implications for their partners and communities.² Consequently, the research project is seeking to identify key themes and research considerations regarding the perceptions of gender norms amongst sub-groups of men and boys in Canada and abroad.

The research project objectives include:

1. Conduct a scoping review with the focus on *individual* perceptionsⁱ of gender norms amongst men and boys;
2. Based on collected literature, identify sub-groups of men and boys using a lifespan approach (boys, teens, young adults, adults, older adults) and other groups that men and boys identify with (if available), and analyse relevant findings;
3. Identify the state of knowledge, gaps and opportunities; and
4. Inform the development of a strategy to engage men and boys in advancing gender equality.

2.0 Methods

Understanding perceptions on gender norms strongly depends on the way "norms" are defined; therefore, the project starting point was a review of relevant gender and social norm definitions, theories and approaches to engage men and boys in gender-based violence prevention efforts and efforts to advance gender equality.

ⁱ According to Rimal & Lapinski (2015), "Collective norms operate at the societal level or at the level of the social network, whereas perceived norms operate at the individual level"; as a result, individual's perceptions often significantly differ from collective norms and measuring collective norms represent a key challenge. (Rimal, R.N., & Lapinski, M.K. (2015). A re-explication of social norms: Ten years later. *Communication Theory*, 25(4), p. 395).

A scoping review was conducted to understand the research base regarding perceptions of gender norms amongst men and boys in Canada along with countries similar to Canada. At a general level, scoping studies aim to rapidly map key concepts in a research area, as well as identify the main sources and types of evidence available.³ While there are several reasons for conducting scoping reviews in a particular area, the purpose of using this methodology in this project was twofold:

1. To map the field of study in order to better understand the range of material that was available in the area of gender norm perceptions in order to guide the development of more defined and specific research questions, and
2. To identify key concepts and sources of evidence in regards to assessing and collecting perceptions of gender norms amongst men and boys.

The preliminary search that incorporated multiple databases and multiple search terms such as 'gender' OR 'norm' OR 'role' AND 'perception' OR 'attitude' OR 'stereotype' OR 'expectation' AND 'men' or 'boy' or 'male' was not successful. Thousands of unrelated studies were found with limited ability to narrow the scope down. The list of key words was revised in consultation with SWC project authorities into phrases that created significantly better results: "Gender norm(s) attitudes", "gender norm(s) perceptions", "gender role attitudes" and other combinations from words above.

Through these methods, it became clear that individual gender perceptions are mainly measured by scales and/or surveys. Although there are many other terms that are often used interchangeably to refer to different types of instruments (e.g., tests, inventories, questionnaires), the terms 'scale' and 'survey' were used for the purposes of this study.

A scale is often used as a way to measure abstract concepts/constructs.⁴ A construct is a representation of something that does not exist as an observable dimension of behavior.⁵ Scales commonly include psychometric properties and correlates, and require statistical analysis and various other assessments to be considered valid (e.g., dimensionality assessment, reliability assessment, validity assessment).⁶

A survey, on the other hand, is a much broader instrument that can include one or more different scales and/or constructs with the purpose of gathering information from a sample of individuals.⁷ In comparison with scales that have pre-determined set of items to ensure validity and reliability, surveys are flexible and can be customized for various needs. For example, a government department may commission a survey to gather public perception of a perceived legislative change. The questions asked in the survey may not have been validated (i.e., undergone reliability or validity assessment) and may not stay the same over time as legislation changes. As a result, survey methods are often utilized by governments, community organizations and community-based researchers to measure the behaviours, attitudes and other preferences of a sample from the population of interest in order to reliably project the findings onto the larger population.⁸

In order to reflect this finding and identify the sources of evidence in regards to assessing and collecting perceptions of gender norms amongst men and boys, the search strategy specifically focused on the studies that utilize scales and surveys. As a result, the scoping review consisted of the following three parts:

1. Broad search of scales and surveys available in the area of individual gender norm perceptions of men and boys;
2. Based on the findings from the broad search and pre-determined inclusion/exclusion criteria for scales (See Appendix A), identify a list of major scales (and relevant studies that utilize those scales) from academic databases that focus on measuring individual perceptions of gender norms amongst men and boys;
3. Based on the findings from the broad search and pre-determined inclusion/exclusion criteria for surveys (See Appendix B), identify a list of surveys conducted by non-academic organizations and/or government bodies.

Search Termsⁱⁱ:

'Gender perception' AND 'scales OR inventories' OR 'systematic review'
'Gender role' AND 'scales OR inventories' OR 'systematic review'
'Gender norm' AND 'scales OR inventories' OR 'systematic review'
'Gender role attitudes' AND "scales OR inventories' OR 'systematic review'
'Gender stereotypes' AND 'scales OR inventories' OR 'systematic review'
'Masculinity ideologies' AND 'scales OR inventories' OR 'systematic review'

The search terms for surveys was limited geographically only to Canada but broadened to include "sexual violence and "violence against women". In addition to search terms above, "survey, Canada, men, boy, male" were added individually and together in additional searches. Finally, additional search on "public perceptions" was done for each province and territory.

The following databases were reviewed: Soci Index with full text, PsycInfo, Google Scholar and EBSCO. Search was also conducted in the grey literature from key institutions (e.g., United Nations, World Health Organization). Literature was limited to English language only published between 2005 – 2018.

Search results were reviewed by both title and abstract to determine relevancy. The search was considered complete when, in each database, two consecutive search results or "pages" did not yield new or relevant material. In many cases, comprehensive reviews or compendiums of relevant scales were utilized to identify relevant scales. As a result, hand searches were done when particular references cited in the literature met the inclusion criteria.

Based on collected literature, researchers identified a list of major scales (international) and surveys (Canada) that met pre-determined inclusion and exclusion criteria (Appendix A for scales

ⁱⁱ Definitions of major search terms are provided in the Appendix A (for scales) and B (for surveys).

and Appendix B for surveys). Additional search was then conducted for each scale and survey to identify all studies that utilized these measurements since 2005 and meet the inclusion criteria. Finally, all studies were further analysed based on identified sub-groups of men and boys using a lifespan approach (children, early adolescents, youth, young adults, adults, older adults) and other groups that men and boys identify with (if available). It is important to mention that initial search did not target diverse population groups of men and boys as they were identified later, based on collected literature.

3.0 Social Norms Theory and Gender Norms

Given that redefining and restructuring gender norms has been at the forefront of the efforts to achieve gender equality, understanding how norms work and ways in which they can be shifted and changed has emerged as an area of focus.⁹

3.1 Social Norms Theory

Social Norms Theory (SNT) is both a theory and a well-evidenced approach to addressing public health issues, with increasing attention being paid to its relevance in preventing violence against women and advancing gender equality¹⁰. Social norms are defined as those implicit and explicit rules regarding the appropriateness of behaviour.¹¹ Social norms are different from legal or personal norms, which tend to be either formal and enforced by coercion (legal norms) or moral and internally motivated (personal norms). Social norms are informal, maintained by approval and disapproval, and are externally motivated (e.g., weight given to what others think in a social situation).¹²

SNT suggests that people tend to conform to peer/community norms, looking to others in their group or community to help define a given situation and give guidance on the expected behaviours in a particular setting.¹³ Individuals behave according to their perceptions of which behaviour is expected.¹⁴ Issues can arise, however, when individuals incorrectly perceive the norms they are trying to follow.¹⁵ This can occur through observing individuals engaged in highly problematic behaviour (e.g., using sexist language), leading these behaviours to be remembered more than respectful behaviour, which may be more common but less visible.¹⁶ These misperceptions tend to occur in relation to a problem, or risky behaviours, such as consumption of substance abuse, gambling, use of violence, etc.¹⁷

SNT suggests that interventions to correct “misperceptions by revealing the actual, healthier norm will have a positive effect on most individuals, who will either reduce their participation in the problematic behaviour or be encouraged to engage in prosocial, healthy behaviours”.¹⁸ It’s been argued that SNT interventions dispel the myths about the problem behaviour as the norm among peers or the group by intensively and purposefully communicating the actual information about norms based on data from the target population.¹⁹

Individuals perceive norms from a variety of sources (informal/formal authority) in their environment, such as other individuals’ public behaviour, summary information about a group,

and institutional signals, such as laws and regulations.²⁰ These sources of norm information inform people's impressions of what a group or community typically does or what the group values. As such, interventions can use these sources of norm information as avenues to change perceptions of norms.²¹

Interestingly, researchers that focus on conceptualizing social norms recently emphasized the importance of "reversing the cause-effect linkage" that "behaviours are driven by and not the drivers of norms".²² Rimal and Kalpinsky, have been working on explication of social norms for several decades, emphasize that most research has been focusing on how the norms affect behaviours but there was limited consideration of how behaviours affect norms.²³

3.2 Gender Norms

Gendered social norms play a powerful role in constituting contemporary society's understanding of what it means to be a woman or a man.²⁴ Gender norms and behaviours are dynamic, varying across time and space,²⁵ there is no doubt that gender norms associated with masculinity and femininity (and the reproduction of those norms in institutions and practices) are directly related to men's and women's daily behaviours. For example, men typically experience pressure to conform to norms of being independent, fearless, tough, invulnerable, self-reliant, stoic and above all, non-feminine.²⁶ These gendered norms and subsequent behaviours have been examined in the literature, particularly in regard to the detrimental outcomes often associated with traditional or normative masculinity.²⁷

Gender norms are powerful, in that virtually everyone in society knows what they are and expects that others hold those beliefs.²⁸ Gender norms have a wider reach and impact than solely on individual behaviour. Although these widely shared gender norms are among the core components that comprise our existing gender system²⁹, they often appear to vary by individual sociodemographic characteristics (sex, race/ethnicity and immigration, social class, and age)³⁰ and cultural settings.^{31,32} Sociologists explain this in terms of a dialectic: Individuals are shaped by their participation in social systems. In turn, their individual behaviour helps to shape those same social systems.³³

The dominant ideas and values related to gender greatly influence how men and women see themselves, how others see them as men and women (i.e., family and peers), and how institutions and policy frameworks treat them as men and women. Gender is relational, in that it is less a fixed, static component of our identity, but rather a product of the recurring interactions we have with others.³⁴

Even though gender is dynamic and relational, shifting gender norms can be incredibly difficult.³⁵ Our unconscious beliefs and attitudes about gender and gender differences are virtually everywhere, and some researchers argue that "biasing against women" is far more difficult to dislodge than race, class or religious divides because social pairings between the sexes occur with much higher frequency and intimacy than between the other social group categories".³⁶ Ridgeway and Correll state, "Gender goes home with you".³⁷ While social norms theory has been

used successfully in prevention and interventions targeting many public health issues (e.g., smoking cessation, alcohol consumption, etc.), it has only more recently been applied to issues involving gender, such as gender-based violence.³⁸ Evidence-based interventions using a social norms theory approach to shifting norms around gender-based violence include Mentors in Violence Prevention, Coaching Men into Boys, and Program H and M, to name a few.³⁹ More research is needed, however, to identify approaches that positively shift gender norms.

4.0 Findings: Perceptions of Men and Boys on Gender Norms

4.1 Major Scales Measuring Perceptions of Men and Boys

The scoping review conducted identified a large pool of scales that measure individual perceptions of gender norms. Scales focus on various types of individual norms and beliefs, target different population groups, vary in length and depth, have different levels of validity and evidence, and use different foundational theories.

All scales that were included in final analysis fall under the term of “masculinity ideologies” that was introduced over 25 years ago and recently (2015) divided to incorporate the following definitions:

- *Masculinity ideologies* is “the construct that identifies the cultural standards of manhood located in a society, a region, an ethnic community or in social groups and institutions”.^{40,41}
- *Masculinity beliefs* is “a set of norms that individuals have internalized and constitutes a belief system about masculinity”.⁴²

It is important to note that for decades “hegemonic masculinity, masculine norms, masculinity ideology, and masculine gender roles [have been] often used interchangeably to reference individual gendered schemas, discursive practices, or structural or symbolic aspects of gender inequality”.⁴³ Researchers that develop and utilize masculinity ideology measures often use Traditional Masculinity Ideology (TMI) as an overarching term; however, the meaning of this term as well as underpinning theories are constantly evolving.⁴⁴

Two extensive literature reviews of the measurement of masculinity ideologies have been published in 1995⁴⁵ and then 2015⁴⁶. Thompson and colleagues’ 2015 study provides an in-depth examination of prominent scales up to 2013 and has been followed with numerous and comprehensive commentaries from academics. There were also two other comprehensive reviews of the psychological measurements of TMI (2004⁴⁷ and 2006⁴⁸) identified, along with Flood’s 2008 review of the measures for assessment of dimensions of violence against women⁴⁹; and an online compendium of gender scales C-Change⁵⁰. The authors of this report (along with other researchers⁵¹) deemed Thompson and colleagues’ 2015 critical review to be the most comprehensive. As a result, it was used as a foundation to identify prominent scales that meet the inclusion criteria for this project.

A post 2013 review identified additional scales that were considered for inclusion. For example, Kågesten and colleagues⁵² conducted an international systematic review of various instruments that measure gender attitudes in early adolescence. Also, Padgett's 2017⁵³ dissertation that focused on the mapping of alternative masculinities and the development of a new alternative masculinity measure provided additional details about prominent measures to date.

As a result, a total of 53 scales that focus on gender perceptions were identified during initial search; however, only 14 scales focused on perceptions of men and boys (as well as met the other inclusion criteria). The following scales were included in this report:

1. **Adolescent Masculinity Ideology in Relationships Scale (AMIRS)** is a 12-item unidimensional measure that assesses adolescents' endorsement of traditional masculinity norms.⁵⁴
2. **Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI)** is a 94-item measure and aims to understand the role of multiple dimensions of masculine norms in men's lives.⁵⁵
3. **Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory Short Form (CMNI-SF)** is a short form of CMNI that is composed of 46 items and indicates the extent to which an individual conforms to nine masculine norms.⁵⁶
4. **Machismo Measure (MM)** is a 20-item measure developed to assess for a more refined definition of machismo, integrating both positive and negative male characteristics.⁵⁷
5. **Male Role Attitudes Scale (MRAS)** is an 8-item brief measure of masculine ideology and items were designed to measure a boy's perception of the importance of fulfilling traditional standards of masculinity.⁵⁸
6. **Male Role Norms Inventory (MRNI)** is a 58-item instrument that measures the endorsement of traditional masculinity ideology.⁵⁹
7. **Masculinity Role Norms Inventory (MRNI-R)** is a 53-item instrument that measures the endorsement of traditional masculinity ideology.⁶⁰
8. **Male Role Norms Inventory Short Form (MRNI-SF)** is a 21-item measure designed to measure endorsement of beliefs associated with TMI.⁶¹
9. **Masculinity Role Norms Inventory – Adolescent (MRNI-A-r)** is a 29-item inventory specifically designed for adolescent boys in which participants indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with statements concerning beliefs about how boys ought to think, feel, and behave.⁶²
10. **Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS)** is a 26-item scale that measures men's endorsement of hegemonic masculine ideology.⁶³
11. **Mapping Alternative Masculinities Scale (ALT-M)** is a 42-item scale that measures individual differences on constructs derived from a modern, socially progressive representation of masculinity.⁶⁴
12. **Meanings of Adolescent Masculinity Scale (MAMS)** is a 27-item scale designed to measure endorsement of male role norms.⁶⁵
13. **Measure of Men's Perceived Inexpressiveness Norms (M2PIN)** is an 18-item measure of men's perceptions of social norms concerning emotional inexpressiveness in their influential male reference groups.⁶⁶
14. **Multicultural Masculinity Ideology Scale (MMIS)** is a 35-item scale designed to assess internalization and adoption of cultural norms related to masculinity.⁶⁷

There were 61 studies found that were published between 2005 and June 2018 and met the inclusion criteria for this project. Table 1 (page 38) provides information about included studies for each scale while Appendix C lists all references relevant to particular scales even if they were not included in current review.ⁱⁱⁱ Appendix E provides a list of all excluded scales with references.

The authors identified the following nine themes that were incorporated in various ways in each scale reviewed:

1. Emotional control and toughness
2. Violence or physical toughness
3. Dominance
4. Risk taking
5. Homophobia/heterosexism
6. Anti-femininity
7. Self-reliance
8. Status
9. Sexuality

As it can be seen from Table 2 (on page 42), scales utilize from three to nine sub-themes in their structure. It is also common to use only specific sub-scales without utilizing full scale. For example, main Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory consists of 96 items and is considered lengthy, therefore, short version of that scale is much more commonly used (CMNI-SF).

The studies included for this review identified several variables relevant to the perception of gender norms amongst men and boys, specifically demographic variables such as gender, age, race, sexuality and socio-economic status. Preliminary analysis for age category is provided below with other variables being described within particular age groups. The authors suggest that further analysis is required for each sub-group and variable in order to better understand the complexity of findings.

4.1.1 Limitations and Challenges

It is important to note the limitations and challenges of such analysis. First of all, the studies included for this review have diverse demographics, but many studies do not target specific population groups and rather sample a random group of individuals 18 years of age and older, often using secondary school student or post-secondary students. As a result, demographic information in the studies often tell the make-up of people who participated in the research, but researchers may not conduct or report on the analysis of various sub-groups.

Also, many studies focus on developing and analysing tools that will be utilized in clinical settings.⁶⁸ As a result, the goal is often to confirm validity and generalizability of the tool rather

ⁱⁱⁱ Considering this study was a scoping review and not a systematic review, authors may have missed relevant studies.

than understand the perceptions of that particular sample and some studies report only validation-related findings. Although all studies usually provide average TMI score on the particular scale, this score does not provide sufficient findings as it is difficult to understand that particular sample without additional analysis. Finally, all studies that utilized scales used more than one tool to analyse the same data set. Although it is crucial for validity and to understand associations between different variables, findings are sometimes reported in aggregate form making it difficult to distinguish results for a particular scale or information relevant to a specific demographic category.

As a result, only preliminary analysis of each sub-category is provided, and additional research will be required for in-depth understanding of the findings.

4.1.2 Understanding the Perceptions of Gender Norms amongst Men and Boys across Lifespan

Understanding the perceptions of gender norms amongst men and boys across the lifespan was an important consideration in the analysis of the studies reviewed for this project. Researchers who study gender understand that gender identity and beliefs is not a fixed phenomenon, but rather one that can change for individuals across the lifespan.⁶⁹

The following categories were used to group reviewed scales:

- Children (0-10)
- Young Adolescents (10-14)
- Youth (15-18)
- Young Adults (18-25)
- Adults (25-64)
- Seniors (65 and over)

Authors noted through the review that scholars categorize their samples differently for various reasons often referring to their participants as “adolescents” even when age is under 14 or “young adults” when samples include youth under 18 years old.

As a result, it is important to understand participants’ age and to have a better understanding of the sample and the findings. Table 2 provides specific information on the age for each study that utilizes a particular scale. Preliminary results for each age category are provided below.

Children

Differences in gender roles become apparent in children at a very young age. Chapman (2015) found that children, as early as one and a half, are aware of gender roles and selecting behaviours appropriate to their gender and that “early childhood years are a ‘critical period’ for combating gender stereotypes”⁷⁰. Moreover, MacNaughton (2001) who conducted an extensive review of literature focused on children and gender concluded there is “strong evidence that children’s

living and learning is deeply affected by the gendered limits children place on themselves and others”.⁷¹

According to Statistics Canada, 0 to 14 is considered children; however, most researchers refer to 10-14 age group as early adolescents which can be found in the next section. Among scales that were included for review, no studies were found that focus on children under 10 years old. One explanation for this gap is that it is more difficult for younger than older children to use scales that consist of a series of graded response choices.⁷² To understand children’s gender perceptions and behaviours, researchers often use play observations⁷³ as well as analyze gender perceptions of adults in children’s lives (educators⁷⁴, parents⁷⁵) who are believed to have a strong influence on children’s understanding of gender. For example, a recent survey from Australia with parents of children from 0 to 3 years old showed that “the majority of parents believe that girls and boys need to be treated the same in the early years” but may “inadvertently or subtly reinforce gender stereotypes and differential treatment of girls and boys”.⁷⁶ Additional research that focuses specifically on children is required to understand existing literature and its implications.

Early Adolescents and Youth

Scholars agree that adherence to gender stereotypes and norms is getting stronger as boys enter adolescence⁷⁷ and emphasize that early teen years are critical for transformative education as it can lay a foundation for their future sexual health, healthy relationships, academic achievement and overall well-being.^{78,79,80,81} In addition to adolescents’ masculinity being influenced by developmental change,⁸² there is a difference between early adolescent girls and boys in accommodating traditional masculinities.⁸³ However, in the research reviewed, few studies focused on examining gender norms and beliefs among adolescent boys.

A recent systematic review compiled factors that shape understanding of gender in early adolescents in 29 countries including Canada.⁸⁴ Although Kågesten and colleagues’ 1984-2014 review included only two Canadian studies (one of which met the inclusion criteria as a survey⁸⁵), this analysis provides great insights into many variables that shape young adolescents’ gender attitudes including individual, interpersonal and community/social factors and confirms the importance of each factor in understanding adolescent’s gender attitudes. For example, at the individual level, there is evidence that girls have higher approval for equitable gender roles than boys or that boys appear to face more social barriers than girls to challenge gender inequalities.⁸⁶

Three scales were identified that specifically focus on measuring adolescent masculinity ideology:

1. Adolescent Masculinity Ideology in Relationships Scale (AMIRS)
2. Masculinity Role Norms Inventory – Adolescent (MRNI-A-r)
3. Meanings of Adolescent Masculinity Scale (MAMS)

The review identified 17 studies (see Table 2) that utilize these three scales and met the inclusion criteria. The majority of samples in the studies were early adolescents (N=14) with 11 studies on

youth and 2 studies utilized adolescent scales for younger adults. It should be noted that 16-18 age group was the least studied.

As seen in Table 1.1, the following themes (or sub-scales) are used in scales designed specifically for adolescent group and vary from three to seven. It is important to note that there were some other themes that were not captured in Table 2 and Table 1.1 because they were used in less than three scales but some of them may be important for adolescent population.

Scales/Themes	MRNI-A-r	AMIRS	MAMS
Emotional Control or toughness	•	•	•
Violence or physical toughness	•	•	•
Dominance	•	•	•
Risk Taking			
Homophobia/Heterosexism			•
Anti-Femininity	•		•
Self-reliance			
Status			•
Sexuality			•
Total	5	3	7

For example, Constant Effort and Social Teasing are found to be important variables by Oransky and Fisher who developed the MAMS scale in 2009.⁸⁷ They found that both sub-scales had significant relationship with endorsement of adolescent male role norms. Also, higher scores on Constant Effort and Emotional Restriction subscales were associated with higher levels of anxiety and lower levels of self-esteem but there was no connection found between Heterosexism and anxiety and self-esteem. Interestingly, the Social Teasing scale had negative relationship with boys’ anxiety and authors speculate that “the belief that social teasing is normal may serve to reduce anxiety for many boys”.⁸⁸ All these findings and speculations require additional research to be confirmed.

The majority of studies included in this group had a goal to measure adolescents TMI; therefore, the focus of the sample was predominantly on the age (young adolescents or youth) with only one study targeting racially diverse youth⁸⁹. Although all studies measure the overall TMI score, the main focus of many of them is on the factors that impact gender norms as well as associations between TMI and behaviours (dropout⁹⁰, academic achievement⁹¹, school adjustment⁹²). Also, several studies focused on evaluating the results of sexual health programs^{93,94} or solely focus on validating scales for use with adolescent boys⁹⁵.

Some findings specific to adolescent boys from Santos and colleagues’ study⁹⁶ include:

- “Boys who are more likely to endorse the notion that boys should not express themselves emotionally were also more likely to endorse physical toughness behaviors, which in turn were associated with lower standardized achievement in math during junior high school.”
- “Boys’ adherence to physical toughness was directly and negatively associated with self-esteem.”
- “Boys’ adherence to emotional stoicism behaviors was indirectly associated with self-esteem.”
- “Boys who are more likely to endorse the notion that boys should not express themselves emotionally were also more likely to endorse behaviors that emphasize aggression and toughness, which in turn was associated with lower levels of self-esteem.”

- “Racially and ethnically diverse boys’ adherence to physical toughness behaviors was a significant and negative predictor of math standardized test scores.”⁹⁷

Consistent with research on adults, adolescent girls had significantly lower levels of TMI than adolescent boys^{98, 99} confirming the common finding that adolescents’ TMI needs to be assessed across gender¹⁰⁰.

Scholars also found differences between ethnicities: White youth reported significantly lower TMI than other ethnic groups while Scottish adolescents were found to hold less traditional views on masculinity than American.¹⁰¹ Mixed results were found between African American and European American youth with no difference in one study¹⁰² and higher endorsement by African American in comparison to European American youth in another¹⁰³ suggesting that additional research is required. The difference was also found between grades (seventh and eighth graders reported higher traditional masculinity attitudes than fifth or sixth graders)¹⁰⁴ confirming that it is important to assess adolescents’ attitudes not only across cultures, ethno-cultural backgrounds but also other contexts (e.g., school, family, social networks).

Findings from the Smiler’s study suggested that youth in their sample were not particularly supportive of TMI but that greater endorsement of pursued dating motives and unintentional coital motives were related to lower TMI as measured by two different scales¹⁰⁵. Slaatten found a significant relationship between the endorsement of four aspects of TMI and gay-calling with males using gay name-calling more frequently than female.¹⁰⁶

Two sexual health programs that assessed results with young adolescents found that their programs are lessening participants’ endorsement of TMI.^{107, 108}

It is important to note Marcell’s study that focused on 845 males who were aged 15-17 at the beginning of the study and were followed up 2.5 and 4.5 years later in their young adulthood.¹⁰⁹ Authors found that “men’s masculinity attitudes became significantly less traditional between middle adolescence and early adulthood” and identified three distinct patterns of change in masculinity attitudes: a traditional-liberalizing (most prevalent), traditional-stable and non-traditional-stable.¹¹⁰

All studies that measured adolescents TMI utilize more than one tool to understand the perceived gender norms and associations with various variables. Also, there were other scales that initially were designed to focus on adults but were tested with adolescents (e.g., Machismo Measure that studied African American youth¹¹¹, Mexican American youth¹¹² and Mexican-origin early adolescents¹¹³). Finally, as demonstrated by Kågesten and colleagues’ review, there are many qualitative and mixed method studies in this area,¹¹⁴ as a result, additional research that targets this particular age group is required to understand the complexity of the findings.

Young Adults

Small number of studies were found that focus specifically on this age category because scholars often focus on samples that are 18 years and older without distinguishing “young adults” as a separate category.

Some scholars recognized that younger adults have less life experience (e.g., relationships, employment) than adults and decided that AMIRS scale that is specifically designed for adolescents will be the most suitable for intended outcomes despite the older age of the participants (18-29).^{115,116} In McDermott and colleagues’ study, authors used an adult scale (MRNI-SF) with their sample of 18 to 87 years old with 83% of the respondents between 18 to 29 years old and 22 being the average age.¹¹⁷ As a result, it is important to understand the intention of each scale to ensure that it is appropriate for answering given research questions.

Theunissen and colleagues found an interesting difference in how gender impacts the dropout rates from primary school for young women and men.¹¹⁸ Authors compared a group of 18-23 years old young adults some of which have dropped out and others who were still in primary school. For young men, hypermasculinity increased the likelihood of dropout but young men who are hypermasculine and simultaneously have strong normative beliefs about peer relationships had higher odds of dropout. The highest odds of dropout were also among men who “considered themselves simultaneously high on femininity and low on masculinity” (p.60). For young women though, hyper-femininity was a protective factor and high masculinity was a risk factor for dropout. This is just one example of gender differences that need to be considered during measurement of gender norms and their impact.

Another study on young men analysed a link between the media exposure and men’s beliefs. The findings show significant associations with some differences between types of media exposure (TV movies, sports, to name a few).¹¹⁹

In order to better understand perceptions of younger men and other findings related to this subgroup, additional analysis is required.

Adults and Older Adults

Most scales on TMI focus on adult population older than 18 years old and include young adults, adults and older adults often providing changes over time; therefore, preliminary findings are combined for these two groups.

Houle and colleagues review of masculinity norms in North America suggest that “men should be self-sufficient, in power, in control of their emotions, and physically strong, and should avoid activities perceived as feminine”.¹²⁰ All of these themes are covered in sub-scales showed in Table 1. Scales use up to nine themes to understand TMI and often more because all studies use more than one measure.

There were 44 studies with the focus on adults that were published between 2005 and 2018 that met the inclusion criteria. Many studies focused on relationship between TMI alcohol consumption,¹²¹ depressive symptoms,¹²² seeking psychological help,^{123,124} psychological distress,¹²⁵ involvement in male barroom aggression¹²⁶ and other experiences and behaviours. Interesting sons-fathers relationship was explored by Casselman and Rosenbaum with results that “college-age males’ perceptions of their fathers as rejecting and hypermasculine predicted aggression.”¹²⁷

Compilation of findings from such studies is challenging and requires comprehensive systematic review. For example, McDermott and colleagues’ study¹²⁸ from United States aimed to test MRNI-SF scale with women, men of colour and gay men. They had a large sample of 6,744 online-survey respondents with diverse demographic make-up. Despite the diversity of the sample, researchers focused on the population groups that they have initially targeted (i.e., women, men of colour, gay men) and only provide findings that are relevant to their research questions. As a result, findings are complex and often vary by gender, race, sexuality and social-economic status. For example, Houle and colleagues’ Canadian study has shown that:

- Men “who consider themselves poor and have low education endorsed masculinity norms more strongly and adopted fewer health-promoting behaviours” suggesting that men’s endorsement of masculinity norms should be included in health promotion programs.
- “Negative perceptions about sexual minorities increased with age while the Toughness Norm decreased.”
- “Restrictive Emotionality, Negativity toward Sexual Minorities, and Dominance norms decreased with years of education”.
- “Men who perceived themselves poor demonstrated higher scores towards Negativity toward Sexual Minorities norm”.
- “Adherence to norms of masculinity for men born in Canada was not statistically different from those born in another country”.¹²⁹

A consistent finding among all nationalities and cultures studied is that men endorse traditional masculinity more highly than women but also that racial-ethnic minorities tend to report higher levels of TMI compared to individuals from the racial-ethnic majority suggesting that TMI should be measured across gender and race.^{130,131}

Some scales were specifically designed to analyse TMI within certain ethno-cultural groups while other scales were tested with diverse samples (see Appendix C for references)^{iv}, for example:

- MM: numerous studies with Mexican American adults; tested with Mexican American gay men, African American youth and Mexican American early adolescents most of which found to have disadvantaged social-economic status or/and at risk.

^{iv} For additional review of scales and their use with adolescents, please refer to the section on Young Adolescents and Youth.

- MMIS: studies with African American and Russian men.
- MRNI-SF: heterosexual White women/men, heterosexual Black and Asian men, and gay White men.

McDermott and colleagues' findings indicate that, "although the MRNI-SF appears to be capturing both general and specific factors of TMI based on White, male, Eurocentric, and heterosexual cultural values, those factors may represent somewhat different constructs in other cultural groups."¹³² When scale items were compared with men of colour and gay men, only a few items raised concerns "suggesting that the between-groups differences on the meaning of overall TMI may be relatively trivial"; however, all of the items were noninvariant when comparing to women.¹³³ Authors' findings are consistent with other researchers^{134,135,136} and they speculate on the meaning of such findings suggesting that,

"Men and women have a shared understanding of specific aspects of masculinity, because messages about narrow aspects of masculinity are highly prevalent in the broader media and culture. However, a general conceptualization of masculinity (i.e., one's personal ideology about men overall) may be more abstract and created through personal experiences that vary based on whether one is in the in-group (men) or the out-group (women). Such personal experiences may fundamentally change the meaning of overall TMI for men compared to women, in that a man's perception of overall masculinity may be more nuanced than women's."¹³⁷

Considering that more than one study with consistent results is required to confirm or disconfirm any hypotheses, it is important to note that there are many studies that show inconsistent findings of perceptions across groups, depending on the aspect of the measurement being considered (e.g., meaning or scaling). For example, based on MRNI-SF studies, "Asian cultures do not emphasize hegemonic aspects of masculinity, particularly avoidance of femininity" but there were still more similarities than differences with White participants.¹³⁸ According to tests with CMNI-4, the difference between these two groups occurred for each item.¹³⁹

Such measurement differences may be caused by language (e.g., using others vs self) as the meaning of TMI between different sub-cultures varies. For example, MRNI-SF taps perspectives of what men "should" be and do from a third-person perspective (e.g., "Men should be detached in emotional situations"), whereas the CMNI-46 measures conformity to TMI from a first-person perspective (e.g., "I never share my feelings").¹⁴⁰

Most of the scales that were used in this review are described in detail in Thompson and Bennett's review¹⁴¹ but there are some new scales that have been developed since then and need to be considered despite no found studies outside development and validation. The Measure of Men's Perceived Inexpressiveness Norms (M2PIN) which is a "brief measure of men's perceptions of social norms concerning emotional inexpressiveness" that, according to authors, "complements and addresses limitations in current masculinity-related measures of emotional inexpressiveness" of men.¹⁴² Another new scale is called the Alternative Masculinity Measure (ALT-M) that incorporates "alternative forms of masculinity that include unique characteristics

not represented by traditional norms” and was developed and tested using Canadian sample of undergraduate male students.¹⁴³

The complexity of the results show that it is crucial to understand men’s gender perspectives in the context of their culture, race, setting, sexuality, and social-economic status. Any scale has the capacity to control for various factors and/or compare various variables to ensure consistency and reliability of the findings.

4.2 Canadian Surveys Exploring Perceptions of Men and Boys

The authors identified 15 studies that utilized 10 survey tools that gathered information in Canada about perceptions of men and boys towards gender roles, violence and bullying. The 10 surveys are (in no particular order; please see Appendix D for references):

1. Reading Gender Relations and Sexuality: Preteens Speak Out (Canada);
2. Albertans' Perceptions of Family Violence and Bullying Survey (Alberta);
3. Attitudinal Survey on Violence Against Women (New Brunswick);
4. Awareness and Perceptions of Elder Abuse with Specific Attention to Financial Abuse (Canada);
5. Provincial Survey of Attitudes Towards Violence and Abuse (Newfoundland and Labrador);
6. Canadian Youth and Adult Survey (Canada);
7. Men's Attitudes and Behaviours Toward Violence Against Women, Alberta Council of Women’s Shelters (Alberta);
8. Men's Attitudes and Behaviours Toward Violence Against Women, White Ribbon (Canada);
9. The Alberta Men's Survey: A Conversation with Men about Well-being and Healthy Relationships (Alberta);
10. A Mixed-Methods Study of the Health-Related Masculine Values among Young Canadian Men (Canada).

Table 3 (page 43) provides an overview of each tool. Appendix F provides a sample of excluded surveys from other countries with relevant references.

4.2.1 Violence against Women as Common Focus

Of the 15 studies included and reviewed for the project, six were focused on perceptions or attitudes regarding family violence and/or violence against women. For example, in two of the surveys, participants were asked whether they agree or disagree with the statement “if women really wanted to leave a violent or an abusive relationship they would” and in both surveys, approximately half of male respondents indicated that they agreed with that statement.¹⁴⁴ Another example can be found in Newfoundland and Labrador’s provincial survey where respondents were asked their level of concern regarding violence and abuse in dating

relationships. Almost 31% of men indicated they were not at all concerned, compared to only 20% of women who answered similarly.¹⁴⁵

Of the surveys focused on family violence and/or violence against women, three were specifically focused on understanding men's attitudes and behaviours toward violence against women. Two of the surveys were conducted at the provincial level (Alberta)¹⁴⁶ and one was conducted at the national level.¹⁴⁷ In all cases, a gender equity score for respondents was calculated, and findings show that about half of respondents received a high gender equity score. One-third of respondents, on the other hand, received a low gender equity score.

Regarding men's attitudes and behaviours toward violence against women, the national survey found that 49% of men agreed with the statement that 'men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.' This statement aligns with traditional or normative masculinity stereotypes and norms that construct men as being hypersexual and unable to control their sexual desires.¹⁴⁸

Also, from the same national survey, more than a third of men (34%) disagreed with the statement 'sexist, violent language and the sexualization of women in media and popular culture helps to normalize violence against women'.¹⁴⁹ The authors suggest that this finding may imply that a third of men do not understand how verbal and visual expressions exist on the continuum of violence against women.

4.2.2 Geographic or Regional Similarities

Of the 15 studies included and reviewed, six were conducted in Western provinces and/or regions of the country. Of these, three were specifically focused on male attitudes and behaviours regarding masculine values, healthy relationships, and violence against women.

Of the six surveys, two surveys were conducted in the same province (Alberta). One survey was focused on violence against women and the other was focused on male attitudes towards well-being and healthy relationships. In regards to men's attitudes towards violence against women, the Alberta survey found that men from the main urban centres (Calgary and Edmonton) were more likely to have higher gender equity scores on average.¹⁵⁰ The survey focused on men's attitudes towards well-being and healthy relationships and found that approximately 40% of respondents used normative or traditional masculine qualities when asked 'what qualities best describes a man'.¹⁵¹

4.2.3 Limited Focus on Adolescents and Young Men

In only three cases were young men included as a specific focus in the reviewed surveys. The specific categories of young men include:

- Young Adolescents (10-14)
- Youth (15-18)

- Young Adults (18-25)

Two of these surveys were conducted in Western Canada and specifically targeted young men, with the other being national in scope, targeting both genders of young people.

The national survey found that some gender stereotypes and inequalities still exist among Canadian youth. One-third of Canadian boys feel that a women's most important role is to take care of her home and cook for the family, and almost half (48%) think men should be responsible for earning an income and providing for their families.¹⁵² Overwhelmingly, Canadian boys feel that the pressure to conform to traditional stereotypes comes from peers and friends.¹⁵³

4.2.4 Quality of Methodologies Used in the Field

Many studies reviewed for this project used weak or less than ideal research methodologies. In some cases, small sample size and nonprobability sampling methods were used, such as convenience samples, snowball samples, and targeted samples.^v This makes it difficult to generalize the findings to a wider population.

Second, some studies appeared to use different definitions for different aspects of their variables. For example, one survey had as a variable 'geographic locations' that included categories that were both at the municipal level as well as the county level. They also included as a category 'other localities' which included towns and cities from all geographic locations of the province. This conflation of categories would impact both reliability and validity of the study.

Generally, surveys which used well-known surveyors (i.e., Ipsos, Angus, Leger, etc.) tended to have stronger methodologies than those that did not use those consultants. These companies tend to have the knowledge and resources to appropriately sample and analyse data from large-scale studies.

4.3. Perceptions on Gender Equality

Our search strategy did not include such terms as equality or inequality; however, our scoping review identified various studies in Canada that gathered data on attitudes of men towards gender equality.

Ipsos Public Affairs has conducted many global public opinion polls examining views on women's equality and feminism and equality.¹⁵⁴ When considering Canada specifically, the surveys show that men and women are equally likely to agree that there is gender inequality in Canada,¹⁵⁵ as well as believe that there are unequal rights for women in Canada.¹⁵⁶ When considering feminism

^v Nonprobability sampling are those forms of sampling that are not conducted according to the tenets of probability sampling. Probability sampling is considered the 'gold star' of sampling in that it allows the researcher to generalize their findings beyond the participating sample and context in which the research is being conducted. Probability sampling generally eliminates bias by using a random selection process to select a sample. (Bryman, A., Bell, E., & Teevan, J.J. (2012). *Social Research Methods, Third Canadian Edition*. Toronto, ON: Oxford University Press).

and equality, however, approximately 11% of Canadians agreed with the statement that men are more capable of doing things in society (e.g., working, earning money, being educated, etc.) than women.¹⁵⁷ Of the 11%, men were more likely to agree with the statement than women. Of those that agreed with the statement that women should not aspire to do anything outside of the household (8%), men were more likely than women to agree with this statement.

Interestingly, slightly more than half of Canadian men identify themselves as feminists, although 17% of men are scared to speak out and advocate for equal rights of women because of what might happen to them.¹⁵⁸

The Canadian Women's Foundation has also conducted a national survey examining Canadian's view on gender equality. The survey found that 36% of Canadians feel that there is a risk of losing progress that has already been made on gender equality.¹⁵⁹ Of the 36%, women are much more likely than men to agree with this statement (42% of women vs 28% of men).

Although both studies provide limited results on men, access to data sets or additional analysis could be requested from research groups.

The authors would like to note that there are many other international surveys (Attachment F provides a list of excluded surveys with references) that gather data on public gender attitudes and experiences related to gender equality; however, Canada did not utilize them and were excluded from current analysis.

For example,

- Gender Equality and Quality of Life survey that was initially developed and tested in Norway in 2007 was implemented in 16 countries since then.¹⁶⁰
- YouGov's 2015 survey used 14 questions (10 on gender equality) to gather public opinion data from 24 countries. Table on the right shows average score for each country from YouGov study.¹⁶¹

- Promundo’s IMAGES survey is described as “one of the most comprehensive household studies ever carried out on men’s and women’s attitudes and practices on a wide variety of topics related to gender equality”.¹⁶² The IMAGES questionnaire includes items from the World Health Organization multi-country study on violence against women, Demographic and Health Surveys, the Gender Equitable Men (GEM) Scale.¹⁶³ IMAGES was used in more than 20 countries but none of the countries included in this project (similar to Canada) utilized it.

5.0 Discussion

Through the scoping review of scales and surveys, analysis indicates that at this stage, there is not enough data to construct a Canadian understanding of individual perceptions of gender norms amongst men and boys. Very few of the scales reviewed included a Canadian sample, and while there have been numerous public opinion surveys conducted, there is no national level data on men’s perceptions of gender norms. While Alberta has conducted a number of studies on men’s attitudes towards violence against women, and there has been a national study conducted, violence against women is only one subset of many potential constructs of gender norms.

Not only did few studies include Canadian samples, but not all studies were specifically focused on men. Many studies include samples of men, but results are not gender specific or not provided in the write-up. This contributes to the difficulty in assessing the state of men’s and boys perceptions of gender norms. Furthermore, analysis identified the multiple constructs that were being measured. For example, some scales measured men’s beliefs of how men *should* be, while other scales measured men’s actual behaviours, while yet others measured the impact of gendered behaviours and experiences. These variations in the constructs being measured makes it challenging to draw any significant conclusions on Canadian men’s and boys perceptions of gender norms.

Finally, analysis has identified that the type of measurement matters. Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method approaches were all used in the literature reviewed. This means it is important to understand the specific research question needing to be answered, as research questions will guide the type of method, and as such, measurement, needing to be used.

Global gender equality attitude ranking

Average net responses to ten agree/disagree statements, from representative adult populations in the following countries. Higher scores show progressive attitudes to gender equality

	Total	Men	Women
Sweden	72	70	73
Finland	68	65	72
Denmark	62	56	68
Australia	59	56	63
Norway	59	53	66
France	59	59	59
Britain	58	54	61
Germany	57	52	61
USA	49	46	51
China	44	35	55
Hong Kong	42	31	52
Singapore	41	31	51
Thailand	39	34	44
Indonesia	31	20	42
Malaysia	30	23	39
Lebanon	38	-	-
UAE	33	-	-
Tunisia	16	-	-
Iraq	14	-	-
Saudi Arabia	14	-	-
Jordan	10	-	-
Morocco	7	-	-
Egypt	6	-	-
Algeria	-11	-	-

YouGov | yougov.com

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6.0 Implications for Moving Forward

Findings from the scoping review have identified the state of knowledge, as well as gaps and opportunities that exist to inform and target work moving forward. Based on the research conducted, the authors suggest the following:

1. **Invest in collecting national surveillance data on perceptions of gender norms.** Given the gaps in the state of knowledge, there is a need for national level data regarding the perception of gender norms in Canada (across genders). Disaggregating the data and analyzing results across genders, other sociodemographic characteristics and settings is crucial.
2. **Develop clearly defined research questions, as this will dictate the methods used.** It is important to understand what needs to be measured because the “how” and findings will vary. For example, is the research question focused on:
 - a. What men think their behaviours and experiences have to be or should be?
 - b. What men actually do or report doing - actual gendered behaviours and experiences?
 - c. What predicts men’s attitudes?
 - d. What are men’s experiences from conforming to gender norms?
 - e. What are the impact of gendered behaviours and experiences on men?
 - f. Men’s and women’s perceptions of masculinities, femininities or both?
 - g. Men’s and women’s perceptions towards men, women or both?

Once the research questions are developed, further considerations will need to be made. For example:

- Use of descriptive statements (e.g., men are) vs prescriptive directives (e.g., men should)¹⁶⁴
 - General public perceptions vs specific sub-group perceptions
 - General age or specific age group
3. **Consider using international scales and surveys that have been used at a national level.** Once research questions have been clearly defined, consider using an appropriate international survey (or a combination of tools) that have been used at a national scale and can be disaggregated by many indicators, such as men’s age, number of children, education, income, urban/rural status, etc. The ability to disaggregate multiple indicators would be important in order to understand the contextual differences (e.g., geographic, socio-economic, etc.) that exist in relation to perceptions of gender norms.
 4. **Review data sets of completed surveys in Canada.** Several data sets already exist and could be accessed to see if necessary or additional data could be gathered or analysed. For example, Ipsos has a tremendous amount of data for Canada on gender equality.

5. **Intervene early as a key prevention strategy.** Research shows early teen years are a critical time where transformative education and alternative gender ideologies may lay a foundation for future sexual health and well-being¹⁶⁵ and gender equality. “The current findings support the notion that curricula promoting alternative discourses about gender and sexuality may encourage both boys and girls to be more accepting of a wider range of gendered behaviors and ultimately engage in healthier sexual behaviors and relationships.”¹⁶⁶

6. **Conduct additional research focused on children under 10 years old.** It is clear that the early years are seen as ‘critical periods’ in addressing gender stereotypes¹⁶⁷ and there is strong evidence of the impact of gendered limits on children¹⁶⁸ as well as the impact of parents and early educators on children’s gender norms and behaviours.^{169,170} Although our methodology did not capture studies that focus on this population group, it is recommended to systematically review research that focuses specifically on children to understand existing findings and its implications to policy and practice.

Appendix A: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria for Major Scales

Inclusion criteria

In order to create the list of major scales from academic databases that focus on measuring individual perceptions of gender norms amongst men and boys, the following definitions were used:

Gender role or gender norm: cultural expectations about what is normative and appropriate behavior for men and women.

Gender role attitudes: feelings of approval or disapproval toward traditionally prescribed gender roles.

Gender stereotypes: individual's beliefs about the characteristics associated with males and females.

Masculinity ideologies: "the construct that identifies the cultural standards of manhood located in a society, a region, an ethnic community or in social groups and institutions".^{171,172}

Masculinity beliefs^{vi}: "set of norms that individuals have internalized and constitutes a belief system about masculinity".¹⁷³

Additional inclusion criteria beyond guiding definitions were also used in order to develop the list of major scales. These are:

- Studies that explicitly focus on individual gender norms perceptions of men and boys;
- Studies that were conducted in Canada or in other countries with similar economic, social and cultural similarities to Canada (such as the United States, Australia, New Zealand, England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, Republic of Northern Ireland, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland and Iceland);
- Scales that have published results that include a statistical analysis (found in either academic or grey literature);
- Scales that focus on various norms and beliefs (comprehensive scales vs. focus on one particular area, i.e., "Commitment Scale");
- Scales that have systematic reviews/meta-analysis or other aggregated data conducted;
- Priority given to scales that were recently (after 2010) developed and/or tested (even if they do not have significant number of studies but meet the other requirements described above). Scales developed earlier may also have been included if they are referenced significantly in the literature or if they form the basis for scales developed later in the search parameters (i.e., after 2010).

^{vi} Please note that the definition of "masculinity belief" was introduced in 2015 to distinguish from overarching term of masculinity ideologies.

Exclusion criteria

Scales that focus on the following definitions were excluded from the study:

Gender identity or gender role identity or gender role orientation: knowing that one is male or female (usually applied to small children); extent to which individuals see themselves as possessing masculine or feminine traits.

Gender conflict: perceiving gender role expectations to be conflicting, contradictory, or inconsistent.

Additional exclusion criteria beyond guiding definitions were also used in order to develop the list of major scales. These exclusions include:

- Scales that specifically/only focus on physical and sexual violence are excluded. However, included data will cover perceptions on “emotional control or toughness”, “general violence” or “physical toughness” and “dominance”;
- The search will not target diverse population groups of men and boys as they will be identified later, based on collected literature;
- Scales that focus on clinical population groups (e.g., perpetrators/offenders) and/or clinical interventions;
- Scales that solely focus on the willingness and intentions to intervene, to help, bystander behaviour and intentions;
- Scales that focus on organizational, community and climate measures; collective measures;
- Scales that focus on perceptions towards women;
- Following Thompson and Bennett’s approach, we will exclude studies that were “designed to reveal men’s gendered experiences and specific matters such as body esteem, depression, muscle dysphoria, or (normative male) alexithymia. These instruments were constructed to determined individual differences in feelings, thoughts, and behaviours arising as men try to conform to competing masculinity ideologies and/or manage gender role strain”¹⁷⁴ (e.g., conflict scales, stress scales, hostility scales);
- Scales and/or studies that focus on the impacts and/or effects of perceptions;
- Studies that only focus on scale validation and do not report on relevant results;
- Scales that were critically reviewed and found to be methodologically or theoretically unsound;
- Scales that were not used beyond 2005.

Appendix B: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria for Canadian Surveys

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

In order to create the list of surveys conducted by non-academic organizations and/or government bodies, the following target areas were included in the research:

- Surveys that explicitly focus on individual perceptions of men and boys in the following areas:
 - Gender role or gender norm: cultural expectations about what is normative and appropriate behavior for men and women.
 - Gender role attitudes: feelings of approval or disapproval toward traditionally prescribed gender roles.
 - Gender stereotypes: individual's beliefs about the characteristics associated with males and females.
 - Surveys that focus on physical and sexual violence, violence against women, general violence in general including "emotional control or toughness", "physical toughness" and "dominance".
- Surveys that were conducted in Canada ONLY including governments, community and academia.
- Priority is given to surveys that were recently (after 2010) developed and/or tested even if it is only one report/study.

The following target areas were excluded:

- *Gender identity or gender role identity or gender role orientation*: knowing that one is male or female (usually applied to small children); extent to which individuals see themselves as possessing masculine or feminine traits.
- *Gender conflict*: perceiving gender role expectations to be conflicting, contradictory, or inconsistent.
- Surveys that specifically focus on clinical population groups (e.g., perpetrators/offenders) and/or clinical interventions.
- Surveys that solely focus on the willingness and intentions to intervene, to help, bystander behaviour and intentions.
- Organizational, community and climate measures; collective measures.
- Impacts and/or effects of perceptions.
- Surveys that were not used beyond 2005

Appendix C: Included Scales with Relevant References

Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI and CMNI-46/SF)

- Amato, F.J. (2012). The relationship of violence to gender role conflict and conformity to masculine norms in a forensic sample. *The Journal of Men's Studies, 20*(3), 187-208. doi:10.3149/jms.2003.187.
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- Wong, Y.J., Owen, J., & Shea, M. (2012). A latent class regression analysis of men's conformity to masculine norms and psychological distress. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 59*(1), 176-183. doi: 10.1037/a0026206.

MALE ROLE NORMS INVENTORY (MRNI)

- Casselmann, R.B., & Rosenbaum, A. (2014). Adverse childhood experiences, gender roles, developmental issues and the child welfare system. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment and Trauma, 23*, 513-531. doi:10.1080/10926771.2014.904464.
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Appendix D: Included Surveys with Relevant References

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Appendix E: Excluded Scales

1. Attitudes Towards Lesbian and Gay Men Scale¹⁷⁵
2. Attitudes Towards Men Scale¹⁷⁶
3. Attitudes Towards Women Scale¹⁷⁷
4. Bem Sex Role Inventory¹⁷⁸
5. Children's Occupational, Activity, and Traits (COAT) Scales including COAT-Attitude Measure and COAT-Personal Measure¹⁷⁹
6. Couple Communication on Sex Scale¹⁸⁰
7. Drive for Muscularity Attitudes Questionnaire¹⁸¹
8. Drive for Muscularity Scale¹⁸²
9. Gender Beliefs Scales¹⁸³
10. Gender Equitable Men Scale¹⁸⁴
11. Gender Equity Scale¹⁸⁵
12. Gender Norms Attitudes Scale¹⁸⁶
13. Gender Relations Scale¹⁸⁷
14. Gender Role Attitudes Scale (GRAS)¹⁸⁸
15. Gender Role Belief Scale¹⁸⁹
16. Gender Role Conflict Scale¹⁹⁰
17. Gender Role Exploration and Commitment Scale¹⁹¹
18. Gender Role Stereotypes Scale¹⁹²
19. Gender Socialization Scale¹⁹³
20. Homophobia Scale¹⁹⁴
21. Household Decision Making Scale¹⁹⁵
22. Male Attitude Norms Inventory¹⁹⁶
23. Male Role Attitude Scale¹⁹⁷
24. Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale¹⁹⁸
25. Masculinities Representations Inventory¹⁹⁹
26. Measuring masculine identity, ambivalent sexism, and attitudes toward gender subtypes²⁰⁰
27. Measuring men's implicit masculine self-concept²⁰¹
28. Modern Homophobia Scale²⁰²
29. New Masculinity Inventory (NMI)²⁰³
30. New Masculinity Inventory (NMI)²⁰⁴
31. Russian Male Norms Inventory²⁰⁵
32. Sex Role Egalitarian Scale²⁰⁶
33. Sexual Relationship Power Scale²⁰⁷
34. Subjective Masculinity Experiences Scale²⁰⁸
35. Subjective Masculinity Stress Scale²⁰⁹
36. The Brannon Masculinity Scale²¹⁰
37. Traditional Attitudes About Men²¹¹
38. Traditional Gender Role²¹²
39. Traditional Gender Role Attitudes²¹³
40. Traditional Masculinity-Femininity (TMF) scale²¹⁴

Appendix F: Excluded Surveys

**Please note there was no specific search conducted for other countries than Canada and this list is not comprehensive but rather a list of survey examples.*

Canadian

1. Ipsos Surveys on Gender Equality (Canada and over 20 other countries)²¹⁵
2. Canadian Women's Foundation Survey (Canada)²¹⁶
3. Canadian Survey Sex Now (Survey examines generational differences of Canadian queer men)²¹⁷
4. Gender-Based Analysis Perceptions Report, Ottawa²¹⁸
5. Canadian Public Attitudes Towards Family Violence: A Syndicated Study (2002)²¹⁹
6. Assessing Violence Against Women: A Statistical Profile, 2002 (Survey looked at the severity and prevalence of violence against women, impact, risk factors and public attitudes)²²⁰
7. Children's Perceptions of Male Stereotypes (boys were asked about their perceptions of the male characters they saw on television, in music videos and in movies (1999))²²¹

National Public Surveys (includes City-wide surveys)

8. Australia's National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey²²²
9. Australian Youth Attitudes to Violence Against Women²²³
10. International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGES): gathers data on gender attitudes and practices related to gender equality (used in the following countries Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Rwanda.... to name a few)^{224,225,226}
11. Gender Equality and Quality of Life²²⁷ (Norway 2007, Poland 2017; total 16 countries)
12. YouGov in UK has collated public opinion data on gender equality from 24 countries worldwide using 14 questions including 10 on gender equality that require agree or disagree²²⁸
13. Public Opinion Poll on Gender Equal Society, Japan (Stereotyped Perception for Gender Roles)²²⁹
14. Public Perception of Domestic Violence in European Union (Public Perception on Frequency of domestic violence against men in EU in 2016)²³⁰
15. Northern European Adolescent Attitudes Toward Dating Violence (targets adolescents)²³¹
16. Swedish Child Level of Living Survey 2000²³²
17. Hong Kong's Survey on Community Perception on Gender Issues²³³
18. Gender Norm Attitudes in New Jersey (30 questions from various scales to measure attitudes and behaviors related to gender norms)²³⁴
19. Attitudes and Beliefs About Domestic Violence: Results of a Public Opinion Survey in New York²³⁵

Targeted Surveys

20. My Beliefs of My Peers' Beliefs (Survey focused on adolescents' attitudes on appropriateness of abusive behaviors in romantic relationships, identification of characteristics that make relationships healthy or unhealthy, student observations of unhealthy relationship behaviors, perceived sources of support, and the degree of communication with same-sex peers about romantic relationships)²³⁶
21. Children's Evaluations of Gender-Stereotypic Household Activities in the Family Context (Survey analyses children's evaluations about parental decisions regarding gender-stereotypic household family activities)²³⁷
22. PE Is Not for Me: When Boys' Masculinities Are Threatened (Survey examined the intersection of masculinities and school physical education)²³⁸
23. "It Might Be Nice to Be a Girl . . . Then You Wouldn't Have to Be Emotionless": Boys' Resistance to Norms of Masculinity During Adolescence (Survey examines patterns of resistance to norms of masculinity)²³⁹
24. Social Dominance Orientation (SDO)²⁴⁰

Table 1: List of Major Scales and Relevant Studies

Name of the Scale/Study	Country	Gender and Sample Size	Age Group
Male Role Norms Inventory (MRNI)			
Uy et al., 2013	United States	Men (N=109)	Adult (18+)
Matthews et al., 2013 (only Self-Reliance Sub-scale)	United States	Men (N=478)	Adult (18+)
Casselmann & Rosenbaum, 2014	United States	Men (N=335)	Adult (Average age 19)
Houle et al., 2015	Canada	Men (N=669)	Adult (19-71)
Male Role Norms Inventory Short Form (MRNI-SF)			
Levant, Hall, Ranking, 2013	United States	Men (N=549), Women (N=468)	Adult (18-59)
Levant et al., 2016	United States	Men (N=484)	Adult (18-72)
Rosenberg et al., 2016	United States	Women (N=182), Men (N=80)	Adult (18-72)
McDermott et al., 2017	United States	Women, Men (N=6,744)	Adults (18 to 87; 83% 18-29)
Male Role Norms Inventory (MRNI-R)			
Levant, 2007	United States	Men (N=38) Women (N=132)	Adult (18-51)
Levant et al., 2010	United States	Men (N=341) Women (N=251) Other (N=1)	Adult (18-51)
Levant, Stefanov et al., 2013	United States	Men (N=654)	Adult (18-81)
Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI and CMNI-46)			
Mahalik et al., 2007 (CMNI)	United States	Men (N=140)	Adults (18-78)
Parent et al., 2011 (CMNI-46)	United States	Men (N1=116 N2=113)	Adults (Mean age 20)
Wong et al., 2012 (CMNI-46)	United States	Men (N=223)	Adults (Average age=26)
Amato, 2012 (CMNI)	United States	Men (N=258)	Adults (18-63)
Levant et al., 2015 (CMNI-46)	United States	Men (N=444)	Adults (18-72)
Miller et al., 2016	Australia	Men (N=322)	Adults (18-25)
Levant et al., 2016 (CMNI-46)	United States	Men (N=484)	Adults (18-72)
Giaccardi et al., 2016 (Study 2)	United States	Men (N=449)	Young adults (18-25)
Padgett, 2017 (CMNI-46)	Canada	Men (N=497)	Youth, Adult (16-43)
Triemstra et al., 2017 (CMNI)	United States	Women (N=26), Men (N=26)	Adults (23-57)
Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS)			
Gallagher & Parrott, 2011	United States	Men (N=338)	Adult (18-35)
Male Role Attitudes Scale (MRAS)			

Gibbons et al., 2006	United States	Men (N=40), Women (N=108)	Adult (Average age 19)
Blazina et al., 2007	United States	Boys (N=96)	Early Adolescents, Youth (12-18)
Marcell et al., 2011	United States	Men (N=845)	Young adults (15-17)
Epstein & Ward, 2011	United States	Men and Women (N1=291 46% female; N2=259 62% female)	Youth (14-19)
Sullivan et al., 2015	United Kingdom	Men (N=581)	Adult (18-65)
Levant et al., 2015	United States	Men (N=444)	Adult (18-72)
Levant et al., 2016	United States	Men (N=484)	Adult (18-72)
Ojeda et al., 2016	United States	Men (N=134)	Adult (17-42)
Taylor & Fortaleza, 2016	United States	Men (N=97)	Adult (18-29)
Multicultural Masculinity Ideology Scale (MMIS)			
Corneille et al., 2012	United States	Men (N=92)	Adult (18-25)
Machismo Measure (MM)			
Estrada et al., 2011	United States	Male (N=152)	Adult (18-54)
Zully et al., 2011	United States	Male (10)	Adult (45+)
Cunningham et al., 2013	United States	Male (N=241)	Early Adolescents, Youth (12-17)
Estrada & Archiniega, 2014	United States	Men (N=168)	Adult (18-60)
Galvan et al., 2014	United States	Men (N=208)	Adult (Average age 45)
Ojeda & Pina-Watson, 2014	United States	Men (N=70)	Adult (18-67)
Ojeda & Liang, 2014	United States	Men (N=93)	Early adolescents, youth (13-19)
Davis & Liang, 2015	United States	Men (N=202)	Adult (18-81)
Richter et al., 2017	United States	Male (N=17) Female (N=73)	Parents (32-63); Children (15-24)
Sanchez et al., 2017	United States	Boys (N=242), Girls (N=196)	Early adolescents (11-14)
Measure of Men's Perceived Inexpressiveness Norms (M2PIN)			
Wong et al., 2013	United States	Male (N=410)	Adult (18-74)
Mapping Alternative Masculinities Scale (ALT-M)			
Padgett, 2017	Canada	Men (N=497)	Youth, Adult (16-43)
Male Role Norms Inventory Adolescent (MRNI-A-r)			
Levant et al., 2008	United States	Boys and Girls (N=436)	Early Adolescents, Youth (11-15)
Levant et al., 2012	United States	Boys (N=162) Girls (N=157)	Children (Average age=12)

Levant et al., 2016	United States	Boys (N=163), Girls (N=221)	Children, Youth (11-15)
Claussen, 2017	Canada	Boys (N=52)	Early Adolescents, Youth (13-15)
Adolescent Masculinity Ideology in Relationships Scale (AMIRS)			
Chu et al., 2005 (Study 3)	United States	Boys (N=246)	Early Adolescents, Youth (10-18)
Blazina et al., 2007	United States	Boys (N=96)	Early Adolescents, Youth (12-18)
Smiler, 2008	United States	Boys (N=105)	Early Adolescents (15-16)
Santos et al., 2013	United States	Boys (N=226)	Early Adolescents (12-14)
Grose et al., 2013	United States	Boys (N=51) Girls (N=44)	Early Adolescents, Youth (12-15)
Theunissen et al., 2014	Europe	Boys and Girls (N=660)	Young adults (18-23)
O'Beaglaioich et al., 2015	Ireland	Boys (N=325)	Early Adolescents, Youth (12-19)
Birkett & Espelage, 2015	United States	Boys (N=243) and Girls (N=250)	Early Adolescents (10-14)
Giaccardi et al., 2016 (Study 1)	United States	Men (N=488)	Young Adult (18-26)
Rogers et al., 2017	United States	Boys (N=183) Girls (N=155)	Early Adolescents (Mid 12)
Meanings of Adolescent Masculinity Scale (MAMS)			
Oransky & Fisher, 2009	United States	Male (N=193)	Early Adolescents, Youth (12-17)
Slaatten et al., 2014	Norway	Male (N=450) Female (N=466)	Youth (14-15)
O'Beaglaioich et al., 2015	Ireland	Boys (N=325)	Early Adolescents, Youth (12-19)
Levant et al., 2016	United States	Boys (N=163), Girls (N=221)	Children, Youth (11-15)

Table 2: List of Major Scales with Common Themes from Prominent Masculinity Measures^{vii}

Scales/Themes	CMNI	CMNI -46	MRNI	MRNI -R	MRNI -SF	MRNI -A-r	ALT- M	MRNS	MRAS	AMIRS	MM	MMIS	MAMS	M2PIN
Emotional Control or Toughness	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Violence or Physical Toughness	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
Dominance	•	•		•	•	•				•	•		•	
Risk Taking	•	•						•	•					
Homophobia/Heterosexism	•	•	•	•	•		•						•	
Anti-Femininity	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•
Self-reliance	•	•	•	•	•							•		
Status	•		•					•	•				•	•
Sexuality	•		•	•	•		•		•				•	
Total	9	6	7	8	7	5	6	5	6	3	4	4	7	3

^{vii} This table was updated using Padgett (2017)'s table on Common Themes. Padgett's note: Not all scales from the above measures were included. Dimensions of winning, power over women, primacy of work, constant effort, and social teasing were not included as they occurred only on less than 3 of the above measures. Padgett, J.K. (2017). Mapping alternative masculinities: Development validation, and latent profile analysis of a new masculinity measure. *Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository*, 4619, 1-103.

Table 3: Canadian Surveys that Focus on Public Perceptions of Gender, Violence and Bullying

#	Title of the Survey/Study	Year	Author/Publisher	Location	Target Group	Sample Size	Age	Notes
1	Reading Gender Relations and Sexuality: Preteens Speak Out	2008	Moffatt, L., & Nortonm, B.	Vancouver	Male, Female	47	Early Adolescents (Gr 5-7)	The goal is to understand students' constructions of gender relations and ideas about masculine and feminine desires and sexuality.
2	Albertans' Perceptions of Family Violence and Bullying Survey	2005 2010 2012 2014 2016	Ekos Research (2005) and Ipsos Reid (2010-2016) on behalf of Government of Alberta	Alberta	Male, Female	803-977	Youth (16 years and older)	The goal is to understand public perceptions of family violence and bullying in Alberta.
3	Attitudinal Survey on Violence Against Women	2009	Harris/Decima Research Inc. on behalf of the Government of New Brunswick's Executive Council Office	New Brunswick	Male, Female	594	Adults (18+)	The goal is to understand public perceptions of violence against women in New Brunswick.
4	Awareness and Perceptions of Elder Abuse with Specific Attention to Financial Abuse	2009	Ekos Research for Justice Canada	Canada	Male, Female	3,002	Adults (18+)	The goal is to understand Canadian public's awareness and perceptions of elder abuse with specific attention to financial abuse.
5	Provincial Survey of Attitudes Towards Violence and Abuse 2010	2010	Newfoundland and Labrador Statistics Agency	Newfoundland and Labrador	Male, Female	3,987	Adults (18+)	The goal is to measure public awareness and attitudes in Newfoundland and Labrador about violence and abuse against identified violence prevention initiative vulnerable populations.

6	Canadian Youth and Adult survey	2011	Plan Canada, Because I am a Girl	Canada	Male, Female	1,001 1,003	Early Adolescents, Youth (12-17), Adult (n/a)	The goal is to understand the perceptions of gender roles and inequalities.
7	Men's Attitudes and Behaviours Toward Violence Against Women	2012 2016	Alberta Council of Women's Shelters	Alberta	Male	1,000 1,478	Adult (18+)	The goal is to understand perceptions of domestic violence, perceptions and attitudes towards violence against women, perceptions on the role men play in reducing and preventing violence.
8	Men's Attitudes and Behaviours Toward Violence Against Women	2012	White Ribbon Campaign: Working to end violence against women	Ontario	Male	1,064	Adult (18+)	The goal is to understand men's attitudes and behaviours toward violence against women.
9	The Alberta Men's Survey: A Conversation with Men about Well-being and Healthy Relationships	2016	Lorenzetti et al., Alberta Men's Network	Alberta	Male	2,214	Adult (18+)	The goal is to understand men's sense of well-being and capacities to build and sustain healthy relationships, in particular to understand what it means to be a man, masculinity pressures and help seeking strategies.
10	A Mixed-Methods Study of the Health-Related Masculine Values Among Young Canadian Men	2018	Oliffe et al.	Canada	Male	600	Youth, Adult (15-29)	The goal is to understand health-related masculine values among young men including (a) selflessness, (b) openness, (c) well-being, (d) strength, and (e) autonomy.

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