

## **Title**

Social norms about dating and relationship violence and gender among adolescents: systematic review of measures used in dating and relationship violence research

## **Authors**

Rebecca Meiksin, MPH<sup>a\*</sup>; Professor Chris Bonell,<sup>b</sup> PhD; Amiya Bhatia, PhD;<sup>c</sup> GJ Melendez-Torres, PhD;<sup>d</sup> Nambusi Kyegombe, PhD;<sup>e</sup> Anjalee Kohli, PhD<sup>f</sup>

## **Affiliations**

<sup>a</sup> Department of Public Health, Environments and Society, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, 15-17 Tavistock Place, London WC1H 9SH, UK (rebecca.meiksin@lshtm.ac.uk)

<sup>b</sup> Department of Public Health, Environments and Society, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, 15-17 Tavistock Place, London WC1H 9SH, UK (chris.bonell@lshtm.ac.uk)

<sup>c</sup> Department of Global Health and Development, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, 15-17 Tavistock Place, London WC1H 9SH, UK (amiya.bhatia@lshtm.ac.uk)

<sup>d</sup> Peninsula Technology Assessment Group, College of Medicine and Health, University of Exeter, St. Luke's Campus, Heavitree Road, Exeter EX 2LU, UK (g.j.melendez-torres@exeter.ac.uk)

<sup>e</sup> Department of Global Health and Development, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, 15-17 Tavistock Place, London WC1H 9SH, UK (nambusi.kyegombe@lshtm.ac.uk)

<sup>f</sup> Institute for Reproductive Health, Georgetown University, 2115 Wisconsin Avenue, NW, 6<sup>th</sup> Floor,  
Washington, DC 20007, USA (ak1684@georgetown.edu)

\*Corresponding author: Rebecca Meiksin, rebecca.meiksin@lshtm.ac.uk, +44 (0)207 027 2893

**Declarations of interest:** none.

## **Abstract**

Adolescent dating and relationship violence (DRV) is widespread and associated with increased risk of subsequent poor mental health outcomes and partner violence. Shifting social norms (“descriptive norms” of perceived behaviour and “injunctive norms” of acceptable behaviour among a “reference group” of important others) may be important for reducing DRV. However, few DRV studies assess norms, measurement varies and evidence on measure quality is diffuse. We aimed to map and assess how studies examining DRV measured social norms concerning DRV and gender. We conducted a systematic review of DRV literature reporting on the use and validity of such measures among participants aged 10-18 years, identifying 24 studies using 40 eligible measures of DRV norms (descriptive: N=19; injunctive: N=14) and gender norms (descriptive: N=1; injunctive: N=6). No measure was shared across studies. Most measures were significantly associated with DRV outcomes. Reporting of statistically desirable properties was limited. DRV-norms measures sometimes specified heterosexual relationships but rarely separated norms governing DRV perpetrated by girls and boys. None specified sexual-minority relationships. Gender-norms measures tended to focus on violence, missing broader gendered expectations underpinning DRV. Future research should develop valid, reliable DRV-norms and gender-norms measures, and assess whether interventions’ impact on norms mediates impact on DRV.

## **Key words**

social norms; dating violence; dating and relationship violence; domestic violence; intimate partner violence; measurement

# Social norms about dating and relationship violence and gender among adolescents: systematic review of measures used in dating and relationship violence research

## 1. Introduction

Dating and relationship violence (DRV) refers to intimate partner violence (IPV) involving a young person (Young et al., 2017), defined here as aged 12-18 years. It comprises physical, psychological and/or sexual abuse perpetrated or experienced by a current or former intimate partner (Barter & Stanley, 2016; Breiding et al., 2015; Young et al., 2017). DRV is widespread among girls and boys (Leen et al., 2013; World Health Organization, 2021): in systematic reviews, psychological DRV victimisation rates range from 47% to 88% (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016a) and meta-analyses suggest prevalence of 21% for physical and 14% (among girls) and 8% (among boys) for sexual DRV (Wincentak et al., 2017). While specific prevalence rates vary widely by measurement and sampling (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016a; Leen et al., 2013; Wincentak et al., 2017), patterns tend to be consistent: psychological DRV is the most common, followed by physical and then sexual DRV, often with multiple types co-occurring (Leen et al., 2013). Experiencing DRV can lead to injuries (Foshee, 1996) and is associated with increased risk of subsequent depression (Roberts et al., 2003), substance use, antisocial behaviour (Exner-Cortens et al., 2013; Roberts et al., 2003), suicidal ideation (Exner-Cortens et al., 2013) and suicide attempts (Castellví et al., 2017) among girls and boys. Additionally, it is a leading risk factor for morbidity and mortality among girls aged 15-19 years (Mokdad et al., 2016), with girls who experience DRV reporting harms additional to those reported by boys including fear (Barter et al., 2009), increased substance use (Exner-Cortens et al., 2013) and more injuries (Foshee, 1996). DRV victimisation is a longitudinal risk factor for

IPV victimisation (Exner-Cortens et al., 2017; Herrenkohl & Jung, 2016) and perpetration (Manchikanti Gómez, 2011) in adulthood, highlighting the influence of adolescent relationships on future development (Exner-Cortens et al., 2017) and the importance of early intervention.

Systematic reviews report that interventions have been successful in increasing DRV knowledge (De La Rue et al., 2014; Fellmeth et al., 2013) and changing personal attitudes (De La Rue et al., 2014), but demonstrate little impact on DRV perpetration or victimisation (De La Rue et al., 2014; Fellmeth et al., 2013).

### 1.1 Social norms: theory and evidence in DRV prevention

While little is known about effective DRV prevention, social norms theory posits that harmful social norms can hinder behaviour change despite changes in knowledge or attitudes (Alexander-Scott et al., 2016), while protective norms can support behaviour change (Cislaghi & Heise, 2018). Social norms comprise perceptions of typical behaviours (descriptive norms) and acceptable behaviours (injunctive norms) among a reference group of important others, with social sanctions playing an important role in holding norms in place (Alexander-Scott et al., 2016; Cislaghi & Heise, 2018).

Empirical research finds that DRV norms are associated with DRV victimisation and perpetration.

Considering descriptive norms, young people who believe that their friends experience or perpetrate DRV are more likely to report perpetrating DRV themselves (Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Reed et al., 2011), including in longitudinal studies (Foshee et al., 2001; Vagi et al., 2013), even when controlling for their own attitudes towards DRV (Foshee et al., 2001). Girls who report having friends involved in violent relationships are at increased risk for subsequent victimisation (Arriaga & Foshee, 2004). Though injunctive norms are less explored in the literature, data also suggest that injunctive pro-DRV norms in

secondary school are associated with sexual violence perpetration prior to university (Salazar et al., 2018).

Gender norms, “collective beliefs about what behaviors are appropriate for women and men and the relations between them” (The Social Norms Learning Collaborative, 2021),<sup>p.8</sup> can be thought of as a particularly powerful type of social norms (Lokot et al., 2020) and play an important role in DRV risk. Qualitative research finds myriad ways in which inequitable gender norms operate to underpin male DRV in heterosexual relationships, including by forming a basis for the social acceptability of sexual coercion (Barter et al., 2009) and by grounding girls’ status in having a boyfriend (Marston & King, 2006), which could present a barrier to ending abusive relationships (Barter, 2006; Barter et al., 2009). In interviews with young people, norms supporting the legitimacy of male dominance in relationships emerge as drivers of both physical violence and controlling behaviours (Barter et al., 2009; Wood et al., 2011). Though less explored in quantitative, evidence also suggests that inequitable injunctive norms relating to household gender roles (Shakya et al., 2022) and female sexual availability (Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019) are associated with an increased risk of DRV.

This evidence suggests that interventions may need to shift social norms concerning DRV and gender that support DRV. Social norms theory, and the approach of fostering protective DRV and gender norms among peers, have long informed DRV interventions (Offenhauer & Buchalter, 2011; Stanley et al., 2015; Wolfe & Jaffe, 1999). This is evident in the popularity of bystander interventions, which encourage young people to intervene in DRV (Stanley et al., 2015), and of gender-transformative approaches (Stanley et al., 2015; Whitaker et al., 2006), which aim to reshape gender roles and promote “more gender-equitable relationships” (Gupta, 2000).<sup>p.10</sup> Evaluations suggest that norms-based interventions can be effective in reducing intra-marital and domestic violence (Fulu et al., 2014), and there is emerging evidence that interventions with young people (Plourde et al., 2016) or their parents (Ehrensaft et al.,

2018) can shift DRV-specific social norms among adolescents. However, evaluations of DRV interventions rarely assess impact on social norms (Coker et al., 2017; Foshee et al., 2005; Miller et al., 2014; Taylor et al., 2011), and to our knowledge none have assessed social norms as a potential mediator of intervention effects, limiting what is known about intervention mechanisms.

This may be due in part to the lack of consensus on how to measure social norms and to limited evidence as to the reliability and validity of existing measures (Ashburn et al., 2016). Valid measures assess the construct in question (DeVellis, 2017): in this case, social norms important to DRV outcomes. Reliable measures do so consistently (DeVellis, 2017). Measures of social norms used with adults are unlikely to be suitable for adolescents due to likely differences between these populations in reference groups, behaviours and cognitive ability to distinguish between personal attitudes and the views of others (Moreau, 2018; Moreau et al., 2021). We therefore reviewed existing DRV literature to explore: (1) what measures exist of adolescent descriptive and injunctive social norms concerning DRV and gender; and (2) the validity and reliability of these measures.

## 2. Methods

This review was guided by a study protocol registered on the Open Science Framework (Meiksin, Rebecca, 2020) and is exempt from ethical review.

### 2.1 Eligibility, search strategy and screening

Eligible reports were studies published in English since 1997. We selected this timeframe because cultural shifts might render older measures meaningless or inappropriate for young people today (Reyes et al., 2016), and because 1997 marks the advent of social media (*The History of Social Media: Social Networking Evolution!*, n.d.), which plays an important role in the initiation and formation of relationships among adolescents (McGeeney & Hanson, 2017). Reports were required to assess the

construct validity of one or more quantitative measure of DRV norms and/or gender norms by testing these against DRV behavioural outcomes (i.e., by exploring their association with DRV victimisation, perpetration and/or bystander behaviour). Measures were assessed among participants aged 10-18 years and comprised one or more survey items, with at least 50% of items assessing one of four domains: descriptive DRV norms, injunctive DRV norms, descriptive gender norms or injunctive gender norms. Where eligible measures comprised subscales, subscales were also included as unique measures if they independently met eligibility criteria.

Measures of DRV and gender norms overlap where those relating to perceptions of the typicality or social acceptability of DRV are “gender-specific”, by which we mean they assess norms governing girls and boys separately (e.g., a measure assessing the social acceptability of a boy hitting his girlfriend). We categorised all measures of DRV norms as DRV norms whether or not they were gender-specific. Broader gender-norms measures, i.e., those that did not focus on violent behaviours in the context of adolescent relationships or dating, were categorised as gender norms. Descriptive norms were operationalised as perceptions of the typicality or frequency of 1) DRV and 2) gendered behaviours, excluding DRV behaviours. Injunctive norms were operationalised as perceptions of 1) DRV’s social acceptability and 2) social expectations based on gender, excluding social acceptability of DRV.

Our search strategy used free-text and controlled vocabulary terms linked by the Boolean connector “OR” for three concepts: (1) social norms concerning DRV and/or gender; (2) DRV; and (3) adolescents. The search terms used within each concept were linked by the Boolean connector “AND” (see Appendix A for Medline search strategy). The search strategy was peer-reviewed based on the Peer-Review for Electronic Search Strategies guidance (McGowan et al., 2016; Shamseer et al., 2015). After piloting the strategy in Medline, in June 2019 we searched nine databases containing reports relevant to our topic:



IBSS; Popline; Medline; PsychINFO; PsychEXTRA; EMBASE; Web of Science; Global Health; and Scopus.

We conducted additional searches via Google Scholar (July 2019; limited to the first 100 results), websites of relevant organisations (June 2020) (*Care Evaluations*, n.d.; *Explore Our Resources*, n.d.; *Find a Report*, n.d.; *Girl Effect*, n.d.; *Global Early Adolescent Study*, n.d.; *Publications*, n.d.; *Resources*, n.d.), two online databases of relevant measures (June 2020) (*EMERGE Home: Identify, Extract, and Evaluate*, n.d.; *Gender and Power Metrics*, n.d.; *Quantitative Measurement of Gender Equality and Empowerment (EMERGE)*, n.d.), contacting subject experts (February-March 2020) (*Advancing Learning and Innovation on Gender Norms (ALIGN)*, n.d.; *Gender Violence and Health Centre (GVHC)*, n.d.; *Learning Collaborative to Advance Normative Change - IRH*, n.d.; *Sexual Violence Research Initiative*, n.d.), our study team's internal database of DRV literature, and reference-checking. We also screened for eligibility all evaluations included in eight reviews of DRV intervention studies (Cornelius & Resseguie, 2007; De Koker et al., 2014; De La Rue et al., 2014; Fellmeth et al., 2013; Leen et al., 2013; Lundgren & Amin, 2015; Stanley et al., 2015; Whitaker et al., 2006).

Search results were imported into EndNote X9 (The EndNote Team, 2013), de-duplicated ("Removing Duplicates from an EndNote Library," 2018) and dual-screened on title and abstract by the first author (RM) and another reviewer in batches of 50 until reaching 85% agreement. These reviewers discussed records of uncertain eligibility to reach a consensus. RM then single-screened remaining records on title and abstract and screened all retained records on full text, discussing records of uncertain eligibility with AK and CB.

The database search was updated in March 2022, excluding IBSS (due to lack of institutional access) and Popline (retired in September 2019) (USAID, n.d.).

## 2.2. Data-extraction

From all included reports, RM extracted study information and the following data for each eligible measure: method of development; content; mode of data collection; evidence of reliability, construct validity, content validity, convergent validity; and statistical properties. A second reviewer (AB) checked all extracted data, flagging areas of disagreement which were then resolved through discussion. We requested missing information on social-norms measures and analysis results from study authors.

## 2.3 Analysis and synthesis

Informed by previous reviews of measures (Costenbader et al., 2017; Hennegan et al., 2020), we report on the quality of included norms measures rather than the overall quality of included studies. This quality-assessment is the key focus of this review. Drawing on existing methods for assessing survey measure quality (Doherty et al., 2016; Lewis et al., 2015, 2018; Pocock et al., 2021; Prinsen et al., 2018; Terwee et al., 2007), we assessed each measure against seven criteria: participatory development; defined reference group; reliability (internal consistency, test-retest reliability, or split-half reliability); content validity (assessed as 75% or more items aligning with a relevant domain); construct validity (association with DRV behaviour); other evidence of construct validity (association with theoretically related constructs: DRV/gender attitudes, DRV intentions or perceived behavioural control over DRV) or convergent validity (factor analysis); and statistically desirable properties (responsiveness, lack of floor/ceiling effects, or data available on measures of central tendency and distribution of total score for the full measure – or, where absent, for all measure subscales) (Lewis et al., 2015; Terwee et al., 2007). Reliability was scored to reflect poor reliability (Cronbach's alpha or correlation of  $<0.70$ ) (-1), no evidence (0) or good reliability (Cronbach's alpha or correlation of  $\geq 0.70$ ) (+1). Construct validity assessed by association with DRV behaviour was scored to reflect an inverse relationship between pro-

DRV/inequitable gender norms and DRV (-1), no evidence of a significant relationship (0) or pro-DRV/inequitable gender norms associated with increased risk of DRV (+1). All other criteria were scored as evidence absent (0) or present (1). Appendix B further details the methods and rationale for our analysis of measure quality.

Within each of the four social-norms domains considered in this review, we created inductive groupings of the concepts assessed by included measures (Hennegan et al., 2020). We then created tables summarising features of included measures and evidence on their quality; and summarising characteristics of the measures and of the samples in which their reliability and construct validity (assessed by association with DRV behaviour) were assessed. Drawing on these tables and other extracted data, we summarised: features of included studies; features of included measures; and evidence for measures' validity and reliability, identifying strengths and limitations of existing measures.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1 Literature search

Database and Google Scholar searches identified 7,347 unique records (Figure 1), of which 477 were retained to screen on full text and 21 were eligible for inclusion (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Hopper, 2011; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shamu et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019), reporting on 21 unique studies. Two reports presented analyses of different social-norms measures from the same randomised controlled trial (Foshee et al., 2001; Reyes et al., 2016) and were therefore treated as two

unique studies. Our updated search identified one new eligible report (Hunt et al., 2022), and two additional reports were identified by screening known studies (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Shakya et al., 2022), resulting in the inclusion of 24 eligible reports of 24 unique studies (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022, p.; Peskin et al., 2017; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019).

[Figure 1]

### 3.2 Included studies

Key characteristics of included studies are shown in Table 1. Fourteen were conducted in North America (Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019), four in Africa (Flisher et al., 2007; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016), four in Europe (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017), one in the Middle East (Enosh, 2007) and one in Latin America (Antônio et al., 2012). All studies were observational, and seven (Enosh, 2007; Foshee et al., 2001; Peskin et al., 2017; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Reyes et al., 2016; Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016) analysed data collected as part of an evaluation. One report presented only longitudinal associations between social-norms measures and DRV (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022), all other reports presented cross-sectional analyses (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005;

Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019) and three presented both (Foshee et al., 2001; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018).

### [Table 1]

Considering participants, seventeen studies sampled girls and boys (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Foshee et al., 2001; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Shamu et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019), four included only girls (Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Shakya et al., 2022) and three only boys (Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016) (see Appendix C for further sample characteristics). All studies assessed relationships between social-norms measures and DRV victimisation and/or perpetration; none assessed relationships with bystander behaviours.

### 3.3 Included measures

Most studies included a single eligible social-norms measure assessing a single domain of interest (N=15) (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Enosh, 2007; Foshee et al., 2001; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019). Six studies included two eligible measures (Flisher et al., 2007; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hopper,

2011; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Shakya et al., 2022) and one study included three (Shamu et al., 2016). Additionally, one study included a single measure for which half the items assessed one social-norms domain and half assessed another (Gagné et al., 2005), and a second study included four such measures (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022). Since half of a measure's items must assess a domain of interest for inclusion as a measure of that domain, each of these five measures was eligible for inclusion in two separate domains and therefore counted twice for this review. The review therefore includes 35 unique measures, assessed as 40 measures across four domains: 19 measuring descriptive-DRV norms, 14 measuring injunctive-DRV norms, one measuring descriptive gender norms and six measuring injunctive gender norms.

#### 3.4. Characteristics of measures

Characteristics of included measures are reported in Table 2 (descriptive-DRV norms), Table 3 (injunctive-DRV norms) and Table 4 (descriptive and injunctive gender norms). Appendix C provides details on item wording, response options and variable computation. Measures were generally quite short, comprising a median of six items (range=1-28, mean=7). For most measures (58%) (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019), all items assessed the domain of interest. Where information was provided on measure development, reports suggested that six measures were adapted from measures of DRV outcomes (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Hopper, 2011; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017); two were adapted from a measure of personal attitudes (Shakya et al., 2022); two were tools used in previous studies (Hébert et al., 2019; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011); one was adapted from a previous study to ask

about physically rather than sexually aggressive behaviours (Helland, 1998); and six were newly developed (Flisher et al., 2007; Peskin et al., 2017; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019).

### *3.4.1. Descriptive-DRV norms*

The review identified 19 eligible measures of descriptive-DRV norms from 14 included reports (Table 2) (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018). Measures ranged from one to 26 items (mean=6, median=4). Most specified reference groups of friends (Gagné et al., 2005; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011) or peers (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Reyes et al., 2016). Only two referenced social rewards or consequences for adhering to/violating a norm (Flisher et al., 2007; Pöllänen et al., 2018). Questions were typically framed to ask for perceptions of the number (Gagné et al., 2005; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004) or proportion (Antônio et al., 2012; Hébert et al., 2019; Peskin et al., 2017; Reed et al., 2011; Shorey et al., 2018) of reference-group members who had experienced or perpetrated DRV, or for perceptions of whether “most” reference-group members had done so ((Foshee et al., 2001),<sup>p.133</sup> (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022),<sup>pp. 12-13</sup> (Reyes et al., 2016)<sup>p.353</sup>) Most measures referred to specific DRV behaviours among the reference group (e.g., hitting, yelling, threatening, forcing sex) (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018).

[Table 2]

Most measures were gender-neutral, i.e. they did not specify gender (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Shorey et al., 2018) or they included items about girls and boys within the same measure (Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Reyes et al., 2016). Most asked about perceptions of DRV perpetration alone (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018). Inductive groupings of the concepts measured are shown in Table 2. In addition to ten “gender/sexuality-neutral DRV” measures that did not specify heterosexual or sexual minority relationships (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Shorey et al., 2018), one “mixed-DRV” measure assessed perceptions of gender-neutral perpetration and female victimisation within heterosexual partnerships (Gagné et al., 2005) and eight “heterosexual-DRV” measures assessed perceptions of DRV within heterosexual relationships (perpetration by girls and boys within one measure (Foshee et al., 2001; Reyes et al., 2016), boys’ perpetration (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011) or girls’ victimisation (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022)).

#### *3.4.2. Injunctive-DRV norms*

We identified 14 eligible measures of injunctive-DRV norms from eight included reports (Table 3) (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017). These ranged from two to 28 items (mean=8, median=6). Six specified a single reference group of respondents’ friends (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017) and six referred to multiple reference groups (Flisher et al., 2007; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen



et al., 2018), one of which also assessed the importance of each (Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011). One measure did not specify a reference group (Pöllänen et al., 2018).

[Table 3]

Measures asked respondents to report their perceptions of the views of reference-group members (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017), or the extent to which the respondent thought that DRV perpetration would “make me seem successful” (Pöllänen et al., 2018).<sup>p.9</sup>

Nine (64%) asked about norms governing DRV perpetration alone (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017).

Most measures used Likert scale response options (Enosh, 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017).

Half of the measures were gender-specific (Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018), and all but one measure (Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011) specified a single type of DRV. We identified three inductive groupings of included measures (Table 3). Seven “respondent-DRV” measures assessed injunctive norms governing DRV among survey respondents (Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018) (e.g., asked to select a response for what will happen “[i]f I put pressure on my boyfriend or girlfriend to have sex...”) (Pöllänen et al., 2018).<sup>p.9</sup> Five “gender-neutral heterosexual DRV” measures combined DRV among girls and boys and focused on heterosexual partnerships (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022). Two “mixed-or-unspecified DRV” measures assessed a combination of DRV perpetrated by girls and boys in

heterosexual relationships and by young people responding to the survey (without specifying partner gender) (Flisher et al., 2007), or gender-neutral DRV perpetration (Van Ouytsel et al., 2017).

#### *3.4.3. Descriptive gender norms*

The review identified one eligible measure of descriptive gender norms from one included report (Table 4). This measure assessed perceptions of the prevalence of male-perpetrated sexual coercion of females (without specifying a dating/relationship context) among friends from the past year (Gagné et al., 2005).

#### *3.4.4. Injunctive gender norms*

The review identified six eligible measures of injunctive gender norms from three included reports (Table 4) (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019). Measures ranged from one to 15 items (mean=6, median=5) and where response options were described, measures used Likert scales (Shamu et al., 2016; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019). Four “gendered-violence” measures assessed injunctive norms governing male-perpetrated violence and violence against girls/women (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016) (e.g., “My family thinks that there are times when a woman deserves to be beaten”) (S. Shamu, personal communication, May 2, 2019), without specifying the context of adolescent dating/relationships (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016). Two “gendered-expectations” measures assessed social norms concerning broader gender roles (Shakya et al., 2022; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019), including sexual expectations of female gang-members (Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019) and gender roles within the family or household (Shakya et al., 2022).

[Table 4]

### 3.5. Quality of measures

Appendix B shows the quality of included measures by domain, and Appendix C summarises the characteristics of DRV outcome measures and study samples. Appendix D presents analysis methods, results, and summary findings on assessments of construct validity (assessed by association with DRV behaviour).

#### *3.5.1. Descriptive-DRV norms*

Among the 19 included measures of descriptive-DRV norms, three (16%) were informed by participatory development (Foshee et al., 2001; Price, 2002; Reyes et al., 2016) and all had defined reference groups (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018). Eleven (58%) had good reliability (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002) and two (11%) had poor reliability (Hébert et al., 2019; Reyes et al., 2016). Twelve measures (63%) had good content validity (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018). All showed a significant association between higher levels of perceived DRV prevalence and higher DRV risk (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011). Eight measures (42%) also had other evidence of validity (Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Price, 2002; Reyes et al., 2016) and twelve (63%) had statistically desirable properties (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Kinsfogel &

Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018).

Most measures were tested separately against DRV perpetration (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Helland, 1998; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018) and/or victimisation (Antônio et al., 2012; Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022) outcomes. Although most descriptive DRV-norms measures were gender-neutral (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Helland, 1998; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Peskin et al., 2017; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018), almost all were tested against gender-specific DRV outcomes (Foshee et al., 2001; Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018), primarily standalone measures of girls' victimisation (Gagné et al., 2005; Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019; Hébert et al., 2019) and/or boys' perpetration (Foshee et al., 2001; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018).

The six gender-specific descriptive-DRV norms measures were tested against DRV outcomes that matched the gender of the norms measure (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011) (i.e., norms concerning DRV among boys tested against DRV outcomes among boys). Fifteen measures were tested against DRV outcomes that matched on type of DRV involvement (victimisation or perpetration) (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001; Helland, 1998; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Peskin et al., 2017; Price, 2002; Reed et al., 2011; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018), and eleven were tested against outcomes that matched on type(s) of DRV (psychological, physical

and/or sexual) (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antônio et al., 2012; Gagné et al., 2005; Helland, 1998; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Price, 2002; Reyes et al., 2016; Shorey et al., 2018). Five measures matched the DRV outcome against which they were assessed in all three dimensions, which focused on boys' perpetration (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Price, 2002) and girls' experience (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022) of psychological DRV.

### *3.5.2. Injunctive-DRV norms*

Of the 14 included measures of injunctive-DRV norms (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017), three (21%) were informed by participatory development (Enosh, 2007; Pöllänen et al., 2018). Thirteen (93%) included a defined reference group (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017), 11 (79%) had good reliability (Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017) and two (14%) had poor reliability (Flisher et al., 2007). Nine measures (64%) had good content validity (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017). Eleven (79%) showed a significant association between pro-DRV norms and higher DRV risk (Enosh, 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017). Ten (71%) had other evidence of validity (Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017) and eleven (79%) had statistically desirable properties (Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017).

Most injunctive-DRV measures were tested against standalone DRV perpetration outcomes (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017) and against gender-specific outcomes (Table 3) (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017). All seven gender-specific measures were tested against DRV outcomes specifying the same gender (Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018). Ten measures were tested against outcomes that matched on victimisation (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022) or perpetration (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017), and 13 were tested against DRV outcomes that matched on type of DRV (Enosh, 2007; Flisher et al., 2007; Hopper, 2011; Hunt et al., 2022; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017). Six gender-specific measures aligned with assessed DRV outcomes in all three dimensions, focusing on girls' and boys' perpetration of sexual DRV (Pöllänen et al., 2018) and on boys' perpetration and girls' experience of psychological DRV (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022).

### *3.5.3. Descriptive gender norms*

The single measure of descriptive gender norms had a defined reference group and showed a significant association with DRV outcomes: Girls who reported more inequitable descriptive gender norms (i.e., more friends involved in sexual coercion) were significantly more likely to report DRV victimisation (Table 4) (Gagné et al., 2005). The measure met no other quality criteria.

### *3.5.4. Injunctive gender norms*

Of the six included measures of injunctive gender norms (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019), three (50%) were informed by participatory development (Shamu et al., 2016) and five (83%) had a defined reference group (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016). Two

(33%) had good reliability (Shakya et al., 2022; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019) and three had poor reliability (Shamu et al., 2016). Five (83%) had good content validity (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019). For five measures inequitable gender norms were significantly associated with higher DRV risk (Table 4) (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019). Two measures had other evidence of validity (Shamu et al., 2016; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019) and five had statistically desirable properties (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016; Wesche & Dickson-Gomez, 2019). Five were tested against gender-specific DRV outcomes (Shakya et al., 2022; Shamu et al., 2016).

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Summary of key findings

Our findings suggest that social-norms measures relating to DRV that are valid and reliable among young people can be developed, but that measurement methods are inconsistent and evidence supporting the quality of existing measures is limited. We found no eligible measure used more than once, limiting comparability across studies.

Most included measures had evidence of a significant association between pro-DRV/inequitable gender norms and increased DRV risk. Measures were typically tested against gender-specific DRV outcomes, most commonly girls' victimisation and boys' perpetration. Psychological, physical and sexual DRV all featured frequently among the behavioural outcomes explored.

Other evidence of validity, assessed via factor analysis or as associations with theoretically related attitudes, intentions or perceived DRV behavioural control, was limited, and evidence on reliability and content validity was mixed.

Though under a third of included measures had evidence of being informed by participatory development with young people, nearly all specified a defined reference group. However, all reference groups were pre-defined; no measure asked respondents to identify who held the most influence over them in relation to the assessed norms (Costenbader et al., 2017) and only one assessed the importance of each reference group to the respondent (Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011).

Two-thirds of gender norms measures asked about the respondent's friends and/or family, two groups that are particularly influential in gender socialization (Kågesten et al., 2016). However, several measures combined items asking about multiple reference groups, including unbounded groups of "others" and "people important to you" (Flisher et al., 2007):<sup>p.622</sup> features that limit their usefulness for gathering valid data about norms among a clear, coherent group and the relationship between these norms and DRV. Only two measures of injunctive norms referenced social sanctions, both without specifying the reference group applying these (Flisher et al., 2007; Pöllänen et al., 2018).

Several measures specified norms within heterosexual partnerships. Though sexual-minority youth face significantly higher risk of DRV than their heterosexual peers (Dank et al., 2014; Luo et al., 2014; Young et al., 2017), no measures specified norms governing same-sex or other non-heterosexual relationships and no studies explicitly explored associations between included measures and DRV within non-heterosexual relationships. Little is known about social norms contributing to DRV among same-sex partners and the key reference groups among which these norms are held. Some experts have suggested minority-stress theory (Dietz, 2019; Martin-Storey & Fromme, 2017; Reuter & Whitton, 2018) as a framework for understanding the elevated DRV risk among sexual-minority youth, which would suggest that homophobia, underpinned by gender norms (Solomon, 2015; Whitley, Jr., 2001), could play



an important role. Formative research is needed to explore the social norms influencing same-sex DRV, and its findings should form the basis of social-norms measures used in intervention research with sexual-minority youth.

Considering measures of DRV norms, several studies explored the relationship between descriptive-DRV norms and DRV outcomes, while fewer explored the relationship between injunctive-DRV norms and DRV outcomes. DRV-norms measures most commonly focused on DRV perpetration, and most were gender-neutral. While studies usually explored DRV norms as predictors of gender-specific DRV outcomes, this was less common for measures of injunctive- than descriptive-DRV norms despite evidence suggesting that predictors of DRV differ for girls and boys (Ali et al., 2011; Arriaga & Foshee, 2004; Capaldi et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2001, 2011; Leen et al., 2013). A minority of DRV-norms measures were tested against DRV outcomes focusing on the same gender, involvement (victimisation/perpetration) and DRV type (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Price, 2002). This presents an important limitation to existing measures of DRV norms: social norms theorists hypothesise that norms relating directly to a behaviour of interest (as the most salient at the time of the behaviour) generally exert a stronger influence than do more distal norms (Cislaghi & Heise, 2018). Empirical literature suggests that this may be the case for DRV. DRV norms may affect DRV outcomes via gender-specific pathways (Foshee et al., 2001; Pöllänen et al., 2018; Shorey et al., 2018), and in Gagne, et al.'s research physical-DRV norms predicted physical and psychological but not sexual DRV (Gagné et al., 2005). The relationship between attitudes and DRV outcomes has been more widely explored, finding that young people tend to view male-perpetrated DRV more negatively than female-perpetrated DRV (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016b; Reeves & Orpinas, 2012; Rogers et al., 2019), and that attitudes towards DRV vary by DRV type (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016b; Reeves & Orpinas, 2012), with attitudes most strongly predicting DRV outcomes of the same type (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016b). Omitting or

combining genders, victimisation/perpetration and/or types of DRV in measures of DRV norms (and the outcomes these might predict) therefore risks missing important differences in norms and their influence.

Far fewer studies explored the relationship between gender norms and DRV. Compared to measures of DRV norms, these measures tended to have less evidence of reliability and construct validity (assessed by association with theoretically related constructs aside from DRV behaviours). As a strength, most gender norms measures were assessed for their relationship with gender-specific measures of DRV outcomes. We identified only one measure of descriptive gender norms, which did not appear to be conceptualised as such given that only half of its items assessed this domain. Measures of injunctive gender norms were more conceptually consistent, with the vast majority showing good content validity. However, both tended to focus on the social acceptability of violence by males and/or against females. This is a limitation to existing measures, as evidence points to the importance of separating gender norms from violence norms to avoid conflating the relationships between these distinct constructs and DRV behaviour (Reyes et al., 2016). Only two measures asked about broader gendered expectations, assessing norms governing female sexual availability/submission and gender roles within the family/household. No measures explored other gendered expectations that qualitative research suggests contribute to DRV, such as the social importance of sustained heterosexual relationships for girls (Barter et al., 2009; Marston & King, 2006) and of being sexually active for boys (Wood et al., 2011).

#### 4.2. Limitations

Like all reviews, this review might have missed eligible reports published after our search was completed. However, our database search was extensive and updated near the end of the study period, and no additional reports were identified through our expert requests. Eligible reports might also have

been missed where abstracts did not indicate that relevant norms measures were used. However, we mitigated this risk by full-text screening evaluations of DRV interventions identified via reviews, and reports for which abstracts referenced “attitudes” or any terminology suggestive of norms.

We did not undertake dual data-extraction, but worked with a second reviewer to check data-extraction and identify and reconcile disagreements. We used a novel, tailored tool for quality-assessment rather than an existing tool.

#### 4.3. Implications

We recommend that future research build on existing measures where evidence supports their reliability and validity among similar populations, and where measures distinguish between victimisation/perpetration among girls and boys and focus on the DRV type(s) of interest; or where they can be adapted to do so. New measures should be informed by existing literature and participatory research with young people to develop and refine measures and to select reference groups. Researchers should report on the development, piloting, refinement, reliability and validity of such measures.

Future research should inform the development of gender-norms measures that predict DRV but are distinct from norms about gendered violence itself, including descriptive gender norms. New research is also needed to inform the development of measures of social norms influencing same-sex DRV, considering the higher risk of DRV among sexual-minority youth.

New measures should specify a bounded reference group, and where more than one reference group is pertinent, norms among each should be measured separately. Finally, future research should use valid and reliable measures to explore relationships between descriptive and injunctive DRV and gender

norms and subsequent DRV outcomes, assess the impact of interventions on these norms and explore their role in reducing DRV.

#### 4.4. Conclusions

Developing valid, reliable measures of social norms associated with DRV is possible, but measurement methods are currently inconsistent. Researchers should report on the development, reliability and validity of such measures, which should be gender-specific where norms exert gendered influence, consider sexual-minority relationships, and assess gender norms beyond gendered violence.

## Appendices

- A. Medline search strategy
- B. Quality of measures
- C. Sample and measure characteristics, by social norms domain
- D. Relationships between measures of social norms relating to DRV, and DRV behavioural outcomes, by social norms domain

## Abbreviations

DRV = dating and relationship violence

IPV = intimate partner violence

## Funding

This work was supported with funding from the Passages Project. Passages is made possible by the generous support of the American people through the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) under the terms of Cooperative Agreement No. AID-OAA-A-15-00042. The contents are the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of Georgetown University, USAID, or the United States Government.

## Acknowledgments

The authors gratefully acknowledge Manika Garg, Ben Pelhan and Nicola Pocock for their contributions to and support for this research.

## References

- Advancing Learning and Innovation on Gender Norms (ALIGN)*. (n.d.). Align Platform. Retrieved February 22, 2022, from <https://www.alignplatform.org/>
- Aizpitarte, A., Alonso-Arbiol, I., & Van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2017). An Explanatory Model of Dating Violence Risk Factors in Spanish Adolescents. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 27(4), 797–809. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12315>
- Alexander-Scott, M., Bell, E., & Holden, J. (2016). *Shifting social norms to tackle violence against women and girls (VAWG)*. VAWG Helpdesk.
- Ali, B., Swahn, M., & Hamburger, M. (2011). Attitudes Affecting Physical Dating Violence Perpetration and Victimization: Findings From Adolescents in a High-Risk Urban Community. *Violence and Victims*, 26(5), 669–683. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.26.5.669>
- Antônio, T., Koller, S. H., & Hokoda, A. (2012). Peer Influences on the Dating Aggression Process Among Brazilian Street Youth: A Brief Report. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 27(8), 1579–1592. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260511425794>
- Arriaga, X. B., & Foshee, V. A. (2004). Adolescent Dating Violence: Do Adolescents Follow in Their Friends', Or Their Parents', Footsteps? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 19(2), 162–184. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260503260247>
- Ashburn, K., Costenbader, B., Igras, S., Pirzadeh, M., & Homan, R. (2016). *Learning Collaborative Background Reader: Advancing research and practice on normative change for*

- adolescent sexual and reproductive health and well-being. Developed for the convening meeting, December 5-6, 2016.* Institute for Reproductive Health at Georgetown University and FHI 360.
- Barter, C. (2006). Discourses of blame: Deconstructing (hetero)sexuality, peer sexual violence and residential children's homes. *Child & Family Social Work, 11*(4), 347–356.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2206.2006.00425.x>
- Barter, C., McCarry, M., Berridge, D., & Evans, K. (2009). *Partner exploitation and violence in teenage intimate relationships.* NSPCC.
- Barter, C., & Stanley, N. (2016). Inter-personal violence and abuse in adolescent intimate relationships: Mental health impact and implications for practice. *International Review of Psychiatry, 28*(5), 485–503. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540261.2016.1215295>
- Breiding, M., Basile, K., Smith, S., Black, M., & Mahendra, P. (2015). *Intimate partner violence surveillance: Uniform definitions and recommended data elements, version 2.0.* National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Center for Disease Control and Prevention.
- Capaldi, D. M., Knoble, N. B., Shortt, J. W., & Kim, H. K. (2012). A Systematic Review of Risk Factors for Intimate Partner Violence. *Partner Abuse, 3*(2), 231–280.  
<https://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.3.2.231>
- Care Evaluations.* (n.d.). Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <http://www.careevaluations.org/>
- Castellví, P., Miranda-Mendizábal, A., Parés-Badell, O., Almenara, J., Alonso, I., Blasco, M. J., Cebrià, A., Gabilondo, A., Gili, M., Lagares, C., Piqueras, J. A., Roca, M., Rodríguez-Marín, J., Rodríguez-Jimenez, T., Soto-Sanz, V., & Alonso, J. (2017). Exposure to violence, a risk

- for suicide in youths and young adults. A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica*, 135(3), 195–211. <https://doi.org/10.1111/acps.12679>
- Cislaghi, B., & Heise, L. (2018). Four avenues of normative influence: A research agenda for health promotion in low and mid-income countries. *Health Psychology*, 37(6), 562–573. <https://doi.org/10.1037/hea0000618>
- Coker, A. L., Bush, H. M., Cook-Craig, P. G., DeGue, S. A., Clear, E. R., Brancato, C. J., Fisher, B. S., & Recktenwald, E. A. (2017). RCT Testing Bystander Effectiveness to Reduce Violence. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 52(5), 566–578. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2017.01.020>
- Cornelius, T. L., & Resseguie, N. (2007). Primary and secondary prevention programs for dating violence: A review of the literature. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 12(3), 364–375. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2006.09.006>
- Costenbader, E., Lenzi, R., Hershov, R. B., Ashburn, K., & McCarraher, D. R. (2017). Measurement of Social Norms Affecting Modern Contraceptive Use: A Literature Review. *Studies in Family Planning*, 48(4), 377–389. <https://doi.org/10.1111/sifp.12040>
- Dank, M., Lachman, P., Zweig, J. M., & Yahner, J. (2014). Dating Violence Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Youth. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 43(5), 846–857. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9975-8>
- De Koker, P., Mathews, C., Zuch, M., Bastien, S., & Mason-Jones, A. J. (2014). A Systematic Review of Interventions for Preventing Adolescent Intimate Partner Violence. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 54(1), 3–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013.08.008>



- De La Rue, L., Polanin, J. R., Espelage, D. L., & Pigott, T. D. (2014). School-based interventions to reduce dating and sexual violence. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, 7.  
<https://doi.org/10.4073/csr.2014.7>
- DeVellis, R. F. (2017). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (Fourth edition). SAGE.
- Dietz, J. (2019). *Dating and relationship violence in sexual and gender minority youth: A systematic review of the literature and cost-effectiveness analysis of a targeted school-based preventative intervention*. London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine.
- Doherty, S., Oram, S., Siriwardhana, C., & Abas, M. (2016). Suitability of measurements used to assess mental health outcomes in men and women trafficked for sexual and labour exploitation: A systematic review. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 3(5), 464–471.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(16\)30047-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(16)30047-5)
- Ehrensaft, M. K., Westfall, H. K., Niolon, P. H., Lopez, T., Kamboukos, D., Huang, K.-Y., & Brotman, L. M. (2018). Can a Parenting Intervention to Prevent Early Conduct Problems Interrupt Girls' Risk for Intimate Partner Violence 10 Years Later? *Prevention Science: The Official Journal of the Society for Prevention Research*, 19(4), 449–458.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-017-0831-z>
- EMERGE Home: Identify, Extract, and Evaluate*. (n.d.). EMERGE. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <http://emerge.ucsd.edu/>
- Enosh, G. (2007). Cognition or Involvement? Explaining Sexual-coercion in High-school Dating. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*, 19(3), 311–329.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/107906320701900308>

- Exner-Cortens, D., Eckenrode, J., Bunge, J., & Rothman, E. (2017). Revictimization After Adolescent Dating Violence in a Matched, National Sample of Youth. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 60*(2), 176–183. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2016.09.015>
- Exner-Cortens, D., Eckenrode, J., & Rothman, E. (2013). Longitudinal Associations Between Teen Dating Violence Victimization and Adverse Health Outcomes. *Pediatrics, 131*(1), 71–78. <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2012-1029>
- Exner-Cortens, D., Gill, L., & Eckenrode, J. (2016a). Measurement of adolescent dating violence: A comprehensive review (Part 1, behaviors). *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 27*, 64–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.02.007>
- Exner-Cortens, D., Gill, L., & Eckenrode, J. (2016b). Measurement of adolescent dating violence: A comprehensive review (Part 2, attitudes). *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 27*, 93–106. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.02.011>
- Explore Our Resources.* (n.d.). Institute for Reproductive Health. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <http://irh.org/resource-library/>
- Fellmeth, G. L., Heffernan, C., Nurse, J., Habibula, S., & Sethi, D. (2013). Educational and skills-based interventions for preventing relationship and dating violence in adolescents and young adults. *The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, 6*, Cd004534. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD004534.pub3>
- Find a Report.* (n.d.). Save the Children International. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <https://www.savethechildren.net/research-reports/search>

- Flisher, A. J., Myer, L., Mèrais, A., Lombard, C., & Reddy, P. (2007). Prevalence and correlates of partner violence among South African adolescents. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 48*(6), 619–627. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2007.01711.x>
- Foshee, V. A. (1996). Gender differences in adolescent dating abuse prevalence, types and injuries. *Health Education Research, 11*(3), 275–286. <https://doi.org/10.1093/her/11.3.275-a>
- Foshee, V. A., Bauman, K. E., Ennett, S. T., Suchindran, C., Benefield, T., & Linder, G. F. (2005). Assessing the Effects of the Dating Violence Prevention Program “Safe Dates” Using Random Coefficient Regression Modeling. *Prevention Science, 6*(3), 245–258. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-005-0007-0>
- Foshee, V. A., Linder, F., MacDougall, J. E., & Bangdiwala, S. (2001). Gender Differences in the Longitudinal Predictors of Adolescent Dating Violence. *Preventive Medicine, 32*(2), 128–141. <https://doi.org/10.1006/pmed.2000.0793>
- Foshee, V. A., McNaughton Reyes, H. L., Ennett, S. T., Suchindran, C., Mathias, J. P., Karriker-Jaffe, K. J., Bauman, K. E., & Benefield, T. S. (2011). Risk and Protective Factors Distinguishing Profiles of Adolescent Peer and Dating Violence Perpetration. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 48*(4), 344–350. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2010.07.030>
- Fulu, E., Kerr-Wilson, L., & Lang, J. (2014). *What works to prevent violence against women and girls? Evidence review of interventions to prevent violence against women and girls.*
- Gagné, M.-H., Lavoie, F., & Hébert, M. (2005). Victimization during childhood and revictimization in dating relationships in adolescent girls. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 29*(10), 1155–1172.

- Gender and Power Metrics*. (n.d.). Population Council. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <https://gendermetrics.popcouncil.org/>
- Gender Violence and Health Centre (GVHC)*. (n.d.). London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <https://www.lshtm.ac.uk/research/centres-projects-groups/gender-violence-health-centre>
- Girl Effect*. (n.d.). Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <https://www.girleffect.org/>
- Global Early Adolescent Study*. (n.d.). Global Early Adolescent Study. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <https://www.geastudy.org>
- Gonzalez-Mendez, R., Aguilera, L., & Ramírez-Santana, G. (2019). Weighing Risk Factors for Adolescent Victimization in the Context of Romantic Relationship Initiation. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 088626051984328. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260519843284>
- Gupta, G. R. (2000, July 12). *Gender, sexuality, and HIV/AIDS: The what, the why, and the how*. XIIIth International AIDS Conference, Durban, South Africa.
- Hébert, M., Moreau, C., Blais, M., Oussaïd, E., & Lavoie, F. (2019). A three-step gendered latent class analysis on dating victimization profiles. *Psychology of Violence*, 9(5), 504–516. <https://doi.org/10.1037/vio0000225>
- Helland, T. A. (1998). The role of the peer group on individual use and acceptance of physical aggression in adolescent dating relationships. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*, 58(8-B), 4450.
- Hennegan, J., Brooks, D. J., Schwab, K. J., & Melendez-Torres, G. J. (2020). Measurement in the study of menstrual health and hygiene: A systematic review and audit. *PLOS ONE*, 15(6), e0232935. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0232935>

- Herrenkohl, T. I., & Jung, H. (2016). Effects of child abuse, adolescent violence, peer approval and pro-violence attitudes on intimate partner violence in adulthood. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health: CBMH*, 26(4), 304–314.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/cbm.2014>
- Hopper, L. (2011). Contributions of individual and friend attitudes to dating violence experience in adolescents. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*, 73(4-B), 2563.
- Hunt, K. E., Robinson, L. E., Valido, A., Espelage, D. L., & Hong, J. S. (2022). Teen Dating Violence Victimization: Associations Among Peer Justification, Attitudes Toward Gender Inequality, Sexual Activity, and Peer Victimization. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 37(9–10), 5914–5936. <https://doi.org/10.1177/08862605221085015>
- Kågesten, A., Gibbs, S., Blum, R. W., Moreau, C., Chandra-Mouli, V., Herbert, A., & Amin, A. (2016). Understanding Factors that Shape Gender Attitudes in Early Adolescence Globally: A Mixed-Methods Systematic Review. *PLOS ONE*, 11(6), e0157805.  
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0157805>
- Kernsmith, P. D., & Tolman, R. M. (2011). Attitudinal Correlates of Girls' Use of Violence in Teen Dating Relationships. *Violence Against Women*, 17(4), 500–516.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801211404312>
- Kinsfogel, K. M., & Grych, J. H. (2004). Interparental Conflict and Adolescent Dating Relationships: Integrating Cognitive, Emotional, and Peer Influences. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 18(3), 505–515. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.18.3.505>

- Learning Collaborative to Advance Normative Change—IRH*. (n.d.). Institute for Reproductive Health. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <http://irh.org/projects/learning-collaborative-to-advance-normative-change/>
- Leen, E., Sorbring, E., Mawer, M., Holdsworth, E., Helsing, B., & Bowen, E. (2013). Prevalence, dynamic risk factors and the efficacy of primary interventions for adolescent dating violence: An international review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 18*(1), 159–174. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2012.11.015>
- Lewis, C. C., Mettert, K. D., Dorsey, C. N., Martinez, R. G., Weiner, B. J., Nolen, E., Stanick, C., Halko, H., & Powell, B. J. (2018). An updated protocol for a systematic review of implementation-related measures. *Systematic Reviews, 7*(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13643-018-0728-3>
- Lewis, C. C., Stanick, C. F., Martinez, R. G., Weiner, B. J., Kim, M., Barwick, M., & Comtois, K. A. (2015). The Society for Implementation Research Collaboration Instrument Review Project: A methodology to promote rigorous evaluation. *Implementation Science, 10*(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13012-014-0193-x>
- Lokot, M., Bhatia, A., Kenny, L., & Cislighi, B. (2020). Corporal punishment, discipline and social norms: A systematic review in low- and middle-income countries. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 55*, 101507. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2020.101507>
- Lundgren, R., & Amin, A. (2015). Addressing Intimate Partner Violence and Sexual Violence Among Adolescents: Emerging Evidence of Effectiveness. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 56*(1), S42–S50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2014.08.012>

Luo, F., Stone, D. M., & Tharp, A. T. (2014). Physical dating violence victimization among sexual minority youth. *American Journal of Public Health, 104*(10), e66-73.

<https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2014.302051>

Manchikanti Gómez, A. (2011). Testing the Cycle of Violence Hypothesis: Child Abuse and Adolescent Dating Violence as Predictors of Intimate Partner Violence in Young Adulthood. *Youth & Society, 43*(1), 171–192.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X09358313>

Marston, C., & King, E. (2006). Factors that shape young people's sexual behaviour: A systematic review. *Lancet, 368*(9547), 1581–1586. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(06\)69662-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(06)69662-1)

Martin-Storey, A., & Fromme, K. (2017). Mediating Factors Explaining the Association Between Sexual Minority Status and Dating Violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 886260517726971*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517726971>

McGeeney, E., & Hanson, E. (2017). *Digital romance: A research project exploring young people's use of technology in their romantic relationships and love lives*. National Crime Agency and Brook. <https://www.thinkuknow.co.uk/professionals/guidance/digital-romance/>

McGowan, J., Sampson, M., Salzwedel, D. M., Cogo, E., Foerster, V., & Lefebvre, C. (2016). PRESS Peer Review of Electronic Search Strategies: 2015 Guideline Statement. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology, 75*, 40–46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2016.01.021>

Meiksin, Rebecca. (2020). *Systematic review of social norms measures relating to dating and relationship violence*. Open Science Framework. <https://osf.io/5472r/>

- Miller, E., Das, M., Tancredi, D. J., McCauley, H. L., Virata, M. C. D., Nettiksimmons, J., O'Connor, B., Ghosh, S., & Verma, R. (2014). Evaluation of a Gender-Based Violence Prevention Program for Student Athletes in Mumbai, India. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 29*(4), 758–778. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260513505205>
- Mokdad, A. H., Forouzanfar, M. H., Daoud, F., Mokdad, A. A., El Bcheraoui, C., Moradi-Lakeh, M., Kyu, H. H., Barber, R. M., Wagner, J., Cercy, K., Kravitz, H., Coggeshall, M., Chew, A., O'Rourke, K. F., Steiner, C., Tuffaha, M., Charara, R., Al-Ghamdi, E. A., Adi, Y., ... Murray, C. J. L. (2016). Global burden of diseases, injuries, and risk factors for young people's health during 1990–2013: A systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *The Lancet, 387*(10036), 2383–2401. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(16\)00648-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(16)00648-6)
- Moreau, C. (2018, February 1). *Development and validation of cross-cultural gender norms scales for early adolescents* [Webinar]. <http://www.geastudy.org/webinars/>
- Moreau, C., Li, M., Ahmed, S., Zuo, X., & Cislighi, B. (2021). Assessing the Spectrum of Gender Norms Perceptions in Early Adolescence: A Cross-Cultural Analysis of the Global Early Adolescent Study. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 69*(1), S16–S22. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2021.03.010>
- Nardi-Rodríguez, A., Pastor-Mira, M. Á., López-Roig, S., Pamies-Aubalat, L., Martínez-Zaragoza, F., & Ferrer-Pérez, V. A. (2022). Predicting Abusive Behaviours in Spanish Adolescents' Relationships: Insights from the Reasoned Action Approach. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 19*(3), 1441. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19031441>



- Offenhauer, P., & Buchalter, A. (2011). *Teen dating violence: A literature review and annotated bibliography*. <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/235368.pdf>
- Peskin, M. F., Markham, C. M., Shegog, R., Temple, J. R., Baumler, E. R., Addy, R. C., Hernandez, B., Cuccaro, P., Gabay, E. K., Thiel, M., & Emery, S. T. (2017). Prevalence and Correlates of the Perpetration of Cyber Dating Abuse among Early Adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *46*(2), 358–375. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-016-0568-1>
- Plourde, C., Shore, N., Herrick, P., Morrill, A., Cattabriga, G., Bottino, L., Orme, E., & Stromgren, C. (2016). You the man: Theater as bystander education in dating violence. *Arts & Health*, *8*(3), 229–247. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17533015.2015.1091017>
- Pocock, N. S., Chan, C. W., & Zimmerman, C. (2021). Suitability of Measurement Tools for Assessing the Prevalence of Child Domestic Work: A Rapid Systematic Review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *18*(5), 2357. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18052357>
- Pöllänen, K., de Vries, H., Mathews, C., Schneider, F., & de Vries, P. J. (2018). Beliefs About Sexual Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration Among Adolescents in South Africa. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 088626051875611. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260518756114>
- Price, E. L. (2002). Risk factors for boys' psychologically abusive behaviour in dating relationships. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*, *62*(10-B), 4800.
- Prinsen, C. A. C., Mokkink, L. B., Bouter, L. M., Alonso, J., Patrick, D. L., de Vet, H. C. W., & Terwee, C. B. (2018). COSMIN guideline for systematic reviews of patient-reported

outcome measures. *Quality of Life Research*, 27(5), 1147–1157.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-018-1798-3>

*Publications*. (n.d.). ODI. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <https://www.odi.org/publications>

*Quantitative Measurement of Gender Equality and Empowerment (EMERGE)*. (n.d.). EMERGE.

Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <http://geh.ucsd.edu/quantitative-measurement-of-gender-equality-and-empowerment-emerge/>

Reed, E., Silverman, J. G., Raj, A., Decker, M. R., & Miller, E. (2011). Male Perpetration of Teen Dating Violence: Associations with Neighborhood Violence Involvement, Gender Attitudes, and Perceived Peer and Neighborhood Norms. *Journal of Urban Health*, 88(2), 226–239. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11524-011-9545-x>

Reeves, P. M., & Orpinas, P. (2012). Dating Norms and Dating Violence Among Ninth Graders in Northeast Georgia: Reports From Student Surveys and Focus Groups. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 27(9), 1677–1698. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260511430386>

Removing duplicates from an EndNote library. (2018, December 7). *Library & Archives Service Blog*. <http://blogs.lshtm.ac.uk/library/2018/12/07/removing-duplicates-from-an-endnote-library/>

*Resources*. (n.d.). Promundo. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <https://promundoglobal.org/resources/>

Reuter, T. R., & Whitton, S. W. (2018). Adolescent Dating Violence Among Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Questioning Youth. In *Adolescent Dating Violence* (pp. 215–231). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811797-2.00009-8>

- Reyes, H. L. M., Foshee, V. A., Niolon, P. H., Reidy, D. E., & Hall, J. E. (2016). Gender Role Attitudes and Male Adolescent Dating Violence Perpetration: Normative Beliefs as Moderators. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *45*(2), 350–360.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-015-0278-0>
- Roberts, T. A., Klein, J. D., & Fisher, S. (2003). Longitudinal Effect of Intimate Partner Abuse on High-Risk Behavior Among Adolescents. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, *157*(9), 875. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archpedi.157.9.875>
- Rogers, M., Rumley, T., & Lovatt, G. (2019). The Change Up Project: Using Social Norming Theory with Young People to Address Domestic Abuse and Promote Healthy Relationships. *Journal of Family Violence*, *34*(6), 507–519.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-018-0026-9>
- Salazar, L. F., Swartout, K. M., Swahn, M. H., Bellis, A. L., Carney, J., Vagi, K. J., & Lokey, C. (2018). Precollege Sexual Violence Perpetration and Associated Risk and Protective Factors Among Male College Freshmen in Georgia. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, *62*(3), S51–S57. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2017.09.028>
- Sexual Violence Research Initiative*. (n.d.). Sexual Violence Research Initiative. Retrieved July 25, 2020, from <https://www.svri.org/>
- Shakya, H. B., Cislighi, B., Fleming, P., Levto, R. G., Boyce, S. C., Raj, A., & Silverman, J. G. (2022). Associations of attitudes and social norms with experiences of intimate partner violence among married adolescents and their husbands in rural Niger: A dyadic cross-sectional study. *BMC Women's Health*, *22*(1), 180. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-022-01724-y>

- Shamseer, L., Moher, D., Clarke, M., Gherzi, D., Liberati, A., Petticrew, M., Shekelle, P., Stewart, L. A., & the PRISMA-P Group. (2015). Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015: Elaboration and explanation. *BMJ*, *350*(jan02 1), g7647–g7647. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.g7647>
- Shamu, S. (2019, May 2). *Following up on your paper on Skhokho Supporting Success cRCT* [Personal communication].
- Shamu, S., Gevers, A., Mahlangu, B. P., Jama Shai, P. N., Chirwa, E. D., & Jewkes, R. K. (2016). Prevalence and risk factors for intimate partner violence among Grade 8 learners in urban South Africa: Baseline analysis from the Skhokho Supporting Success cluster randomised controlled trial. *International Health*, *8*(1), 18–26. <https://doi.org/10.1093/inthealth/ihv068>
- Shorey, R. C., Wymbys, B., Torres, L., Cohen, J. R., Fite, P. J., & Temple, J. R. (2018). Does change in perceptions of peer teen dating violence predict change in teen dating violence perpetration over time? *Aggressive Behavior*, *44*(2), 156–164. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.21739>
- Solomon, S. D. (2015). *“Run Like a Girl? That’s So Gay!” Exploring Homophobic and Sexist Language among Grade 7 and 8 Students in the Toronto District School Board* [Factor Inwentash Faculty of Social Work, University of Toronto]. <https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/handle/1807/71345>
- Stanley, N., Ellis, J., Farrelly, N., Hollinghurst, S., & Downe, S. (2015). Preventing domestic abuse for children and young people: A review of school-based interventions. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *59*, 120–131. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2015.10.018>

- Taylor, B., Stein, N. D., Woods, D., & Mumford, E. (2011). *Shifting Boundaries: Final Report on an Experimental Evaluation of a Youth Dating Violence Prevention Program in New York City Middle Schools* (No. 236175). U.S. Department of Justice.
- Terwee, C. B., Bot, S. D. M., de Boer, M. R., van der Windt, D. A. W. M., Knol, D. L., Dekker, J., Bouter, L. M., & de Vet, H. C. W. (2007). Quality criteria were proposed for measurement properties of health status questionnaires. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, *60*(1), 34–42. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2006.03.012>
- The EndNote Team. (2013). *EndNote* (EndNote X9). Clarivate.
- The history of social media: Social networking evolution!* (n.d.). History Cooperative. Retrieved June 3, 2019, from <https://historycooperative.org/the-history-of-social-media/>
- The Social Norms Learning Collaborative. (2021). *Social norms atlas: Understanding global social norms and related concepts*. Institute for Reproductive Health, Georgetown University.
- USAID. (n.d.). *Are you looking for an article or resource from POPLINE?* Knowledge Success.
- Vagi, K. J., Rothman, E. F., Latzman, N. E., Tharp, A. T., Hall, D. M., & Breiding, M. J. (2013). Beyond Correlates: A Review of Risk and Protective Factors for Adolescent Dating Violence Perpetration. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *42*(4), 633–649. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9907-7>
- Van Ouytsel, J., Ponnet, K., & Walrave, M. (2017). Cyber Dating Abuse: Investigating Digital Monitoring Behaviors Among Adolescents From a Social Learning Perspective. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *088626051771953*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517719538>

- Wesche, R., & Dickson-Gomez, J. (2019). Gender Attitudes, Sexual Risk, Intimate Partner Violence, and Coercive Sex Among Adolescent Gang Members. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 64*(5), 648–656. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2018.10.292>
- Whitaker, D. J., Morrison, S., Lindquist, C., Hawkins, S. R., O’Neil, J. A., Nesius, A. M., Mathew, A., & Reese, L. (2006). A critical review of interventions for the primary prevention of perpetration of partner violence. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 11*(2), 151–166. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2005.07.007>
- Whitley, Jr., B. E. (2001). Gender-Role Variables and Attitudes Toward Homosexuality. *Sex Roles, 45*(11/12), 691–721. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1015640318045>
- Wincentak, K., Connolly, J., & Card, N. (2017). Teen dating violence: A meta-analytic review of prevalence rates. *Psychology of Violence, 7*(2), 224–241. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0040194>
- Wolfe, D. A., & Jaffe, P. G. (1999). Emerging strategies in the prevention of domestic violence. *The Future of Children, 9*(3), 133–144.
- Wood, M., Barter, C., & Berridge, D. (2011). ‘Standing on my own two feet’: Disadvantaged Teenagers, Intimate Partner Violence and Coercive Control. NSPCC.
- World Health Organization. (2021). *Violence against women prevalence estimates, 2018: Global, regional and national prevalence estimates for intimate partner violence against women and global and regional prevalence estimates for non-partner sexual violence against women*. World Health Organization. <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/341337>

Young, H., Turney, C., White, J., Bonell, C., Lewis, R., & Fletcher, A. (2017). Dating and relationship violence among 16-19 year olds in England and Wales: A cross-sectional study of victimization. *Journal of Public Health (Oxford, England)*, 1–9.  
<https://doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/fox139>