

University of Witwatersrand, School of Public Health

Factors associated with inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms among men in Gauteng

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DECLARATION

I, Shoeshoe Mokotla declare that this research report is my original work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Public Health, in the field of Social and Behaviour Change Communication, at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination to this or any other university.



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Table of Contents

DECLARATION	ii
LIST OF TABLES	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	vii
GLOSSARY OF TERMS	vii
ABSTRACT	viii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Literature Review	3
1.2.1 Factors associated with gender beliefs and attitudes among men	3
1.2.2 Factors associated with gender subjective and social norms among men.....	7
1.2.3 Factors associated with gender inequitable attitudes, beliefs and subjective norms.....	9
1.3 Statement of the problem	11
1.4 Justification	11
1.5 Research Question	11
1.6 Aim and Specific Objectives	12
1.6.1 Objectives.....	12
CHAPTER 2 METHODOLOGY	13
2.1 Study Design.....	13
2.2 Study Site	13
2.3 Study Population	13
2.3.1 Study Population: Secondary Data Analysis	13
2.4 Sampling: Primary	13
2.5 Data Collection: Primary	14
2.6 Description and Measurement of Variables:	15
2.7 Data Management	20
2.8 Data Analysis	20
2.9 Ethical Considerations.....	21
CHAPTER 3 RESULTS	19
3.1 Socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men in the study.....	23
3.2 Gender beliefs and subjective norms of gender roles, norms and power relations	25

3.3 Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural factors and inequitable gender beliefs.....	25
3.4 Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural factors and inequitable gender subjective norms.....	29
3.5 Logistic regression model of factors associated with gender inequitable beliefs	32
3.6 Logistic regression model of factors associated with gender inequitable subjective norms	36
CHAPTER 4 DISCUSSION	38
4.1 Factors associated with gender inequitable beliefs.....	38
4.2 Factors associated with gender inequitable subjective norms.....	43
4.3 Limitations.....	44
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	45
5.1 Conclusion.....	45
5.2 Recommendations	45
5.2.1 Witnessing abuse of mother	45
5.2.2 Awareness of GBV campaigns and laws.....	46
5.2.3 Norm shifting	46
5.2.4 Evidenced based interventions	47
REFERENCES.....	48
Appendix A Questionnaire	54
Appendix B Ethics Approval	72
Appendix C Ethics Approval	73
Appendix D Letter of Permission	74
Appendix E Consent form	75
Appendix F Plagiarism form	76

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Data variable scale items and structure	22
Table 2: Data analysis by objective	23
Table 3: Socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men	25
Table 4: Gender beliefs and gender subjective norms of men.....	26
Table 5: Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable gender beliefs	27
Table 6: Associations between socio-demographic factors and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable subjective norms	31
Table 7: Simple unadjusted odds ratios for bivariate associations.....	34
Table 8: Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable gender subjective norms as simple unadjusted odds ratios.....	35
Table 9: Logistic regression model of factors associated with gender inequitable beliefs while controlling for current relationship status and age group	37
Table 10: Logistic regression model of factors associated with gender inequitable subjective norms while controlling for current relationship status and age group	38

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

IPV: Intimate Partner Violence

GBV: Gender Based Violence

GEM: Gender Equitable Men Scale

DVA: Domestic Violence Act

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) is defined as physical, sexual or emotional violent acts perpetuated by a male partner against a female (Heise and Garcia-Moreno, 2002).

Gender Based Violence (GBV) is defined as abusive acts that include physical, sexual, emotional, economical and psychological from either intimate partners or non-partners (Dunkle et al., 2004).

Subjective norms are defined as the individual's perception of social norms. (Ajzen and Beck., 1991). Other scholars define it as individual's opinion about what other people he/she cares about believe he should or should not do (Finlay et al., 1999). Subjective norms are a dimension of the broader construct of social norms (Ajzen and Beck., 1991).

Social norms are defined as a set of rules recognised and expected of members by society. They represent the accepted group behaviour, encouraging members of the society to act accordingly (Jackson, 1965). Some scholars state that norms are important concepts of societies to an extent that individuals will receive punishment, negative social consequences or pressure failure to comply (Mtenga et al., 2016).

Gender norms are defined as the roles of men and women about whom society expects from each group (Vu et al., 2016).

ABSTRACT

Background: Inequitable gender beliefs are associated with perpetration of all forms of gender-based violence and sexual risk behaviour. In South Africa, there is a growing body of literature showing an association between men's gender inequitable beliefs and gender subjective norms and factors associated with them. This study engages more on explaining these associations in terms of broader gender and hegemonic masculinity concepts. This lens can us help understand factors associated with men's gender inequitable beliefs and gender subjective norms to enable the development of more effective interventions.

Aim: To describe factors associated with men's gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms of gender roles and norms in Gauteng and factors associated with them.

Design: Secondary data analysis using a cross-sectional household study with a two- stage random sample of men.

Methods: This study included 488 South African men aged 18 years and above who completed a questionnaire in the primary study and had available data for the key variables being studied. The Gender Equitable Men's (GEM) scale was used to measure gender inequitable beliefs and gender inequitable subjective norms. Scores were obtained by summing responses to items and later categorised. Logistic regression models were built to identify socio demographic and behavioural factors associated with gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms of gender roles and norms.

Results: Of the 488 men in the study, 51.24% of men expressed inequitable gender beliefs 45.54% men expressed inequitable gender subjective norms. Factors increasing risk for expressing inequitable gender beliefs included attaining lower levels of education (61.76% vs 38.2% $p=0.05$ of men with inequitable gender beliefs had lower levels of educations), having 2 or more sexual partners (57.29% vs 42.71% $p=0.01$ men with inequitable gender beliefs had multiple partners) and witnessing above of mother (67.50% vs 32.50% $p=0.01$ with inequitable gender beliefs had witnessed mother abuse).

Factors increasing risk for expressing subjective gender norms included lower level of education (24.19% vs 75.81% $p=0.001$ with inequitable gender subjective norms had attained lower levels of education).

Conclusions: This study shows that education level, number of sexual partners and witnessing abuse of mother and other socio-demographic characteristics play a role in men's gender beliefs and their perceptions of gender norms. Awareness of GBV laws was not associated with progressive or equitable gender beliefs or perceptions. The findings show the need for evidence based and effective programmes that will transform men's gender inequitable beliefs and gender subjective norms.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Gender power imbalances between men and women including patriarchal structures have been found to expose men to increased risk of negative behaviours, intimate partner violence (IPV) and general violence (Langen, 2005, Jewkes and Morrell, 2010,). Patriarchy describes structural circumstances of men's oppression of women, the power a man holds as head of the household or his authority to dominate women through social, political and economic institutions (Makama, 2013, Kochuthara, 2011).

There is a growing body of literature in South Africa on men's inequitable gender attitudes and beliefs and inequitable gender subjective norms linked with negative masculinity ideals (hegemonic masculinity) (Jewkes and Morrell, 2017, Conroy et al., 2016, Heise and Garcia-Moreno, 2002). Researchers have explained this association between inequitable beliefs and attitudes and harmful masculinity ideals by different masculinity positions (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005, Morrell et al., 2012, Jewkes et al., 2011). They suggest that there are a variety of fluctuating positions and identities of masculinity that are hierarchically arranged. For instance, hegemonic masculinity is a practice that legitimizes men's dominant position in society and justifies the subordination of women, and other marginalized ways of being a man (Connell and Connell, 2005). Jewkes and Morrell (2017), found that masculinity ideas or negative gender beliefs are linked with risky behaviour including control, dominance and power over women (Jewkes and Morrell, 2017) which was consistent with other studies (Heise and Garcia-Moreno, 2002, Langen, 2005, Jewkes and Morrell, 2010).

In South Africa, studies have consistently showed that hegemonic (or harmful) masculinities and men's gender inequitable norms, beliefs and attitudes have been associated with behaviours such as perpetration of GBV against women, transactional sex, low contraceptive and condom use, and reproductive health outcomes (Jewkes and Morrell, 2017, Heise and Garcia-Moreno, 2002, Kim and Motsei, 2002b, Raj et al., 2006, Reed et al., 2010, Conroy et al., 2016). Power imbalances between men and women in intimate relationships not only affect women's sexual, mental, physical and reproductive health but are also risk factors for HIV transmission in Sub-Saharan Africa (Conroy et al., 2016).

African manhood on the other hand, was found to be characterised by dominance ideals, toughness and sexual entitlement over women (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010). In South Africa, men who embrace hegemonic masculinity were found to assume control over women whether by use of violence or any other approach (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010). On the other hand, women were expected take a more submissive role of femininity and condoned this negative behaviour by tolerating and complying with violent and other risky behaviours (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010, Kochuthara, 2011).

Globally, gender based violence (GBV), including intimate partner violence (IPV), against women and girls has been experienced by many women and therefore has been identified as a major public health concern and a violation of human rights (Reed et al., 2010). According to Palermo, Bleck and Peterman (2014), it is estimated that at least 30% of women from the age of 15 and above, who ever had intimate relationships have experienced some kind of physical and or sexual IPV in their lifetimes and that this is associated with inequitable gender beliefs (Palermo et al., 2014). Evidence shows that the proportion of women who have experienced physical intimate partner violence in South Africa is between 25% and 55% (Dunkle et al., 2004, Abrahams et al., 2006, Jewkes et al., 2006b) while the rate of a male intimate partner killing the female partner was at least six times the global average (Abrahams et al., 2009). Social norms, gender norms and masculinity ideals have also been identified as major factors determining various other health outcomes such as chronic illnesses among women due to compliance of men's negative behaviours (Viitanen and Colvin, 2015). Beliefs, attitudes and social norms that promote gender inequality, such as those that encourage men to maintain control over the behaviour of their female partners, can increase both young men and young women's risk of STIs, HIV, and partner violence (UNFPA, 2010). While there is a growing attention and concern about outcomes of inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms among women who experience gender-based violence in South Africa, less concern and focus is given to men's perpetration of GBV and its determinants such as inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms (Abrahams and Jewkes, 2005, Jewkes et al., 2011). There is a strong need to be concerned about men's inequitable gender beliefs and its consequences as they affect society's health, economy and social structure as a whole (Langen, 2005). For instance, South Africa is one of the highest on global HIV epidemics. It is amongst countries with the

largest number (5.5 million) of people living with HIV (Langen, 2005), IPV, transactional sex and multiple sexual partnerships (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010). We need to be concerned and focus more on how hegemonic masculinity ideals influence women vulnerability within societies and how inequitable beliefs and norms impact on the way men and women position themselves (view their roles) and act as social beings within communities and in relationships (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010). Less is known about underlying factors that influence men's inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms, hence the need of this research.

Notably, there is growing evidence showing an association between inequitable relationship power and decreased relationship quality. For instance, there is an association between inequitable gender norms and a non-constructive communication and lack of shared power in a relationship (Conroy et al., 2016). Connell and Messerschmidt explained the link between inequitable gender norms and unhealthy relationships by showing a positive association between men who hold less inequitable gender beliefs and increased likelihood of risky sexual behaviours. They found that men who held more inequitable gender beliefs embrace hegemonic masculinity concepts and therefore were at risk or were more likely to engage in risky behaviours (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005).

1.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.2.1 Factors associated with gender beliefs and attitudes among men

In many different cultural settings, there are multiple defined ways of how men and women should behave. These are called gender norms. They are passed from one generation of young men to another by older people, peer groups, families and social institutions (Barker 2001). When individuals internalise, interpret or reconstruct these norms, they change into what that individual feels the society or people around him think he should behave in certain way, they are then called subjective gender norms (Barker 2001). In this study, the framework used asserts that in as much certain positions of masculinity are promoted in different cultural settings, the individual behaviour of a man will differ according to how he will adhere to the societal norms and other behavioural determinants around him (Pulerwitz and Barker 2008). It also highlights the complexity around gender as a social construct based on power relations and interactions between men and women (Pulerwitz and Barker 2008). The two outcomes gender beliefs and attitudes and subjective norms were selected because

they are important factors they determine reproductive, sexual health decision making and HIV prevalence (Barker et al, 2007) in South Africa.

Establishing the relationship between inequitable beliefs and health outcomes will better inform our programming. For instance, men who supported gender-inequitable norms, were most likely to report both IPV, multiple sexual partners (Pulerwitz and Barker 2008) and therefore programming for IPV and HIV risk behaviours needs to transform gender beliefs.

Attitudes are developed and shaped by circumstances and socio-cultural settings around a person. When a man grows up in violent circumstances, these may lead to him accepting and condoning violence predisposing him to abusive behaviours in future (White and Kowalski, 1998). For instance, studies show that children who grew up in violent families and had witnessed abuse of their mother, learn that violence is an acceptable and a normal way to deal with conflict between partners, hence when they grow up they become more susceptible to inequitable gender attitudes and beliefs compared to other children who never witnessed violence between their parents and abuse of their mother (Johnson, 1996, Ellsberg et al., 1999). Baker (2000), found consistent findings to this study, that men who witnessed abuse of their mother were more likely to have inequitable gender beliefs compared to men who never witnessed their mother being abused (Barker, 2000). This was almost similar for men who have directly experienced violence, they were more likely to have inequitable gender beliefs and attitudes (El-Bassel et al., 2001). Exposure to violence between parents was found to be risk factor for perpetrating IPV later in life and was found to be a predictor of inequitable gender beliefs (Capaldi et al 2012).

Forgas, Cooper and Crano (2010), explained the relationship between negative life experiences and having inequitable attitudes through the Theory of Attitudes and Behaviour. They suggest that holding negative gender attitudes that are associated with adverse childhood experiences or from conservative societal norms may predict risky and negative behaviour when a man becomes older (Forgas et al., 2010). While some scholars supported this assumption (Fishbein and Ajzen, 2010), others contradicted it by showing a reversed or reciprocal relationship between attitudes and behaviour. They suggested that the association may be reversed whereby attitudes justify behaviour, that having

inequitable gender beliefs may lead into perpetrating negative behaviour (Wubs et al., 2013, Abrahams et al., 2016).

A prospective study conducted in USA among young men showed that there is an association between inequitable gender attitudes and attaining lower levels of education. Men who attained lower levels of education had inequitable gender beliefs compared to men with higher levels of education who were found to be less likely to report inequitable gender beliefs including risky behaviours such as use of violence (Lanier, 2001).

On the other hand, scholars argued that factors associated with inequitable gender attitudes can also be understood through the social learning theory (Arriaga and Foshee, 2004b, Reed et al., 2011). Social Learning Theory suggests that inequitable gender attitudes and beliefs promoting aggressive and negative behaviour are learned and enforced through interactions with close people for instance, peers (Arriaga and Foshee, 2004b, Reed et al., 2011, Foshee et al., 2011). Various cross-sectional studies found that inequitable gender beliefs as risk factor for dating violence were higher among young men who have peers who also hold inequitable gender beliefs compared to those without peers with inequitable gender beliefs (Capaldi et al., 2012, Foshee et al., 2011). Although the direction of the association was not indicated, literature has consistently showed evidence that there was relationship between peer influences and gender inequitable beliefs, attitudes and masculinity ideas transforming into risky behaviours (Dixon and Graham-Kevan, 2011, Abrar et al., 2000). The reason might be that, in most societies, to have membership and become part of a group of friends, a man must be seen to conform to all behaviours and beliefs prevailing in that group. So one ends up learning and conforming to the behaviour his friends thinks its acceptable (Foshee et al., 2011). A study conducted in North America among college students and men convicted of rape (Malamuth et al., 1991, Malamuth et al., 1995) shows sexual promiscuity beliefs and hostile gender attitudes of men towards women as pathways independently predicating risky behaviours. Research suggests that men who perpetrate rape show acceptance of interpersonal violence and negative sexual beliefs marked with ideas of hegemonic masculinity and dominance over women (Malamuth et al., 1991, Jewkes et al., 2011).

Gender inequities, poor law enforcement and inequitable gender beliefs often contribute to the risky behaviours among men in most Sub Saharan countries (Heise et al., 1999). This often leads to women and girls, marginalised and forced to comply to these risky behaviours (Heise et al., 1999). For instance, men who agreed to most negative gender inequitable items on the GEM scale were found to hold gender inequitable beliefs (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008). They often report seeing the use of violence as a way to discipline women when they have transgressed from their social roles and not as an offence (Bott et al., 2005). This was associated with hegemonic masculinity ideas showing dominance over women in the relationship (Bott et al., 2005, Jewkes and Morrell, 2017, Morrell et al., 2012). In a study conducted in 2010 in Gauteng, 22.3% of men compared to 8.8% of women endorsed the inequitable gender beliefs that a husband has a right to punish her wife should she do something wrong and has a right to have a sexual relationship with many other different partners as he likes (Machisa et al., 2011). These findings were consistent with another study conducted in Cape Town, where there was an association between inequitable gender attitudes and men feeling entitled to have intergenerational sex and use violence against their partners (Abrahams et al., 2006).

Machisa et al 2011 further showed us how common inequitable gender beliefs are in South Africa. They found an association between men who hold inequitable gender beliefs and gender roles. Most men in their study agreed that men should have a final decision in the relationship and that victims of rape are promiscuous because a woman has no right to refuse to have sex with her husband (Machisa et al., 2011). This was consistent with studies conducted in Cape Town, Mankweng and Dar es Salaam showing similar patterns of men having inequitable gender beliefs associated with negative behaviours including a male dominance and women promiscuity (Wubs et al., 2013, Wood and Jewkes., 2001). Most men seemed to agree that they had the autonomy to have sex whenever they wanted regardless of whether a partner is willing or not and did not regard it as rape (Wubs et al., 2013, Wood and Jewkes., 2001).

Research has consistently showed that men who hold more gender power inequity in their relationships are more vulnerable to engaging in risky sexual and anti-social behaviours including transactional sex, risk of HIV infection and IPV perpetration (Mngoma et al., 2016, Abrahams et al., 2006, Dunkle et al., 2004, Heise and Garcia-Moreno, 2002). It was argued

that these risky behaviours stem from dominant attitude of hegemonic masculinity (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010, (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005). A study conducted in South Africa among men showed an association between inequitable gender beliefs and having multiple sexual partners. About 42% of men who reported having multiple sexual partners were found to have gender inequitable beliefs, they were also found to be more likely to report using violence particularly physical violence against their partner in past ten years (Abrahams et al., 2006). This might be explained through South African socio-cultural structure that condones men's risky behaviours of having multiple partners and men use of violence to discipline his partner and affirm control as the head of the family (Langen, 2005). This was consistent with Mngoma et al. (2016) study. They also found that hegemonic masculinity ideals were linked with inequitable gender beliefs and attitudes therefore influencing male perpetration of violence, risky behaviours, domination and power over women, in South Africa (Mngoma et al., 2016). For instance, a study conducted in South Africa in 2001 among women attending antenatal clinic in Soweto showed 55.5% prevalence of physical/sexual partner violence among participants (Dunkle et al., 2004).

1.2.2 Factors associated with gender subjective and social norms among men

Cultural practices, social norms and social expectations enable inequitable men's subjective gender norms (Kim and Motsei, 2002b). The socio-cultural structures existing in communities influence gender inequitable norms. These structures dictate gender roles of men and women in society; what they should or should not do. They were also found to affect men's behaviour such as the perpetration of violence against women, and risky sexual behaviours including transactional and intergenerational sex (Barker et al., 2007).

Studies suggest that societies that have high rates of intimate partner violence, general violence and risky behaviours are associated with gender inequitable social norms. However, gender inequitable norms may also be characterised by many other factors (Hindin, 2003 , Jewkes, 2002). For instance, research shows that some men gain superiority from certain gender roles and different masculinity positions in the society (Morrell et al., 2012). Men who ascribe to inequitable gender norms treat women as having lower social value and status in the community (Heise et al., 1994).

The inequitable gender norm that a man has a right to have multiple partners and sexual entitlement on his partner is an expression of power and hegemonic masculinity in societies (Morrell et al., 2012). For instance, in a study conducted in Central America, Nicaragua, found that negative beliefs about sexual entitlement enabled men to justify coercing their partners into unprotected sex and physically abusing them if they denied them their right of sexual entitlement (Boyce et al., 2016). Gender inequitable norms manifest in the acceptance that a man has power and dominance over a woman's body, roles and position in the society (Boyce et al., 2016). In order to avoid conflicts and accusations of infidelity, women in most communities end up living up to these inequitable subjective norms and engaging in unprotected forced sex with their partners more often than it becomes a normative action across most women in the society (Langen, 2005, Boyce et al., 2016). Furthermore, when inequitable gender norms prevail regularly in a society, members of the community see it as a normative way of interaction and a way in which men gain control or dominance in a relationship, workplace or community (Johnson, 1996, Ellsberg et al., 1999).

In South Africa, scholars have tried to explain gender inequitable social norms through various theories and models, for instance, some authors explain it through the feminist theory. Feminist Theory asserts that having negative gender norms are rooted in a patriarchal society which gives men power and domination over women (Machisa et al., 2016, Hindin, 2003, Abrar et al., 2000). It is normative for men in South Africa who hold gender inequitable subjective norms to have multiple partners and to see it as acceptable and expected by the society as they believe it embraces their masculinity (Jewkes and Morrell, 2017).

Several studies and reviews have offered an insight into how interactions between a male and a female partner are influenced and shaped by inequitable gender norms (Barker, 2000, Kimmel, 2000, Kaufman, 1993). Studies explored the associations between gender inequitable subjective norms and risky behaviour; unprotected sex, partner violence and transactional sex. They explain how gender inequitable subjective norms are derived from societal norms and impact on women's sexual relationships and their reproductive health risks (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008). For instance, as a way to affirm their identity, many young men engage in early sexual debut and have multiple partners in order to conform to

the societal expectation or gender norms prevailing in their communities, thereby being at risk of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (Marsiglio, 1988). In addition, scholars also found an association between having gender inequitable subjective norms and peer influence. They showed that younger men who have friends that cheat on or abuse their girlfriends are more likely to abuse and cheat on their girlfriends (Arriaga and Foshee, 2004a, Lewis and Fremount, 2001)

A study conducted in Thailand found that having gender inequitable subjective norms were associated with lack of communication and respect between partners (Hoffman et al., 1994). This could be explained through lack of respect and consideration for one another as patriarchal practices within the society may lead men to hold inequitable subjective norms and attitudes of dominance towards women (Langen, 2005).

A study conducted in Brazil, measuring attitudes towards gender norms among young men highlighted similarities in how these young men defined manhood. This study found that there were certain inequitable gender norms similar across different groups of men for example, most men across groups supported the idea that a man is defined by the number of sexual or intimate partner he has and that violence against women is justifiable through exciting societal norms (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008). Similarly, a qualitative study conducted in Central America at Nicaragua showed increased social support on gender inequitable subjective norm that infidelity in men is an acceptable norm encouraged by friends and society at large. On the contrary, if a woman had equally been unfaithful, she would be punished (use of physical violence) and rejected by husband, called names and shamed by the society at large (Boyce et al., 2016). This was consistent with research from various settings around the world showing that inequitable gender norms shapes in many ways how the interaction between a man and a women in their intimate relationships (Barker et al., 2007, Kaufman., 1993, Kimmel., 2000).

1.2.3 Factors associated with gender inequitable attitudes, beliefs and subjective norms

Behavioural and socio-demographic factors have been identified as potential contributing factors to gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms including education level, age, relationship status and household income (Shannon et al., 2012). A study conducted in Kenya and Zambia found that about 71% of Kenyan men who had lower levels of education

had held more gender inequitable subjective norms compared to those who attained higher levels of education (Lawoko, 2008). Consistent with this study, a cross sectional study conducted in Cape Town with men ages between 20 – 76 years also found an association between gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms and lower levels of education. Men who had no level of education or had only completed primary had negative attitudes towards women and gender roles (Abrahams et al., 2006), they have beliefs that women roles were that of nurturing, best suited in the kitchen, marginalised from the economy, labour market and politics (Makama, 2013).

On the other hand, men who had higher levels of education were found to have less gender inequitable subjective norms, with increased partner communication skills, more respect and consideration to their female counterparts (Lawoko, 2008). Similarly, Hoffman and associates (1994), found that attaining higher levels of education significantly reduced likelihood of men having gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms (Hoffman et al., 1994). Pulerwitz and Barker (2008), found a link between education and age associated with gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms. They found that younger men who had achieved higher levels of education reported higher support of equitable gender norms and were less likely to report perpetration of IPV compared to who have no education and held gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008). When compared to older men, younger men who agreed more with inequitable norm items were more likely to hold negative gender beliefs (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008).

Shannon, (2012), found an association between gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms and risky behaviours, that upholding gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms increases chances men likelihood of engaging in unprotected sex, acquiring HIV and controlling women sexual and reproductive health (Shannon, 2012). Consistent with these findings, Pulerwitz and Barker (2008), also found a link between reproductive health and risky sexual behaviours. Younger men who supported gender inequitable norms, reported less contraception or condom use with partners and more control on partner sexual reproductive health (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008).

Gender inequitable norms and beliefs were further associated with socio economic status; men with lower socio economic status are more likely to have inequitable gender beliefs

and attitudes on gender relations and have power over women (Conroy et al., 2016). A study conducted in Nigeria found that men with lower socio economic status upheld attitudes that discriminates women and girls from acquiring formal education, believed in early forced marriages and mistreated women kept them as house helpers (Makama, 2013). Men with lower socio economic status and lower levels of education were more likely to excise their male power through use of violence to redeem their masculinity identity, power and control (Moore, 1994).

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms impact negatively on health and are associated with violating human rights (Campbell, 2002). Men's risky behaviours driven by gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms include multiple sexual partners, transactional sex and masculinity ideals about sexual entitlement (Fulu et al., 2013, Morrell, 2012). Similarly, inequitable gender beliefs, attitudes and subjective norms among men in South Africa remain significant risk factor for many health challenges including high rates of HIV/AIDS infection. This is especially so in areas where patriarchal norms are highly prevalent (Harrison et al., 2006).

1.4 JUSTIFICATION

In South Africa, research and programming has concentrated on women and their experiences of violence and inequitable gender beliefs rather than on factors associated with men's inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms. There is a need to understand and target the root causes among men (Abrahams et al., 2016). Hence there is a pressing need for research on men's inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms in South Africa. A deeper understanding of male masculinity positions and expressions of inequitable beliefs and norms is critical for violence and HIV prevention and targeted programming (Jewkes, 2017).

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION

What are the factors associated with inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms among men in Gauteng?

1.6 AIM AND SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

The overall aim of the study is to describe factors associated with inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms among men in Gauteng.

1.6.1 Objectives

1. To describe gender inequitable beliefs among men 18 years and above in Gauteng Province
2. To describe subjective norms of gender roles and norms among men 18 years and above in Gauteng Province
3. To describe the factors associated with both inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms of gender roles, norms and power relations among men 18 and above in Gauteng Province

CHAPTER 2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 Study design

The study design of the primary study was cross-sectional using a household survey of GBV prevalence and attitudes conducted between April and July 2010 (Machisa et al., 2011). It was designed to be a representative study of Gauteng province (Machisa et al., 2011). The purpose of the study was to describe the prevalence and patterns of gender-based violence in Gauteng province (Machisa et al., 2011).

A secondary data analysis was conducted using men's data from the household survey.

2.2 Study site

The primary study was conducted in Gauteng Province (Machisa et al., 2011): Gauteng Province consists of 1.4% of South Africa's land area. It is the tiniest province that has a population of 20% of South Africa which is approximately 9.7 million people. It's the single largest contributor to South Africa's GDP contributing around (33.8%) (Statssa, 2016 25 August).

2.3 Study population

The primary study population included all men and women living in Gauteng province aged 18 years and above, who were mentally competent, met the socio economic status (SES) criteria and have stayed for four nights in a week in the selected household (Machisa et al., 2011).

2.3.1 Study population: secondary data analysis

All men 18 and above in Gauteng Province, South Africa in April to March 2010 were eligible to be sampled for the study.

2.4 Sampling: Primary

A two stage proportionate stratified sampling strategy was used to identify a representative sample of approximately 1568 households with 774 men. (Machisa et al., 2011). A total of 75 primary sampling units (PSU) were randomly sampled. The sample was stratified by urban, rural, semi-rural and peri-urban. Within each PSU, 20 Households were randomly selected for an interview (Machisa et al., 2011). Interviews were then conducted with 488 men. A majority (96%) of the selected households were reached in which 89% had an eligible household member. There was 77.2% response rate for men (Machisa et al., 2011).

The survey had an overall 7.7% refusal rate among those who were selected for the interview. The breakdown of the refusal rate by women and men is not presented in the primary study report (Machisa et al., 2011).

All 488 men, 18 years and above, who answered the questionnaire in the primary study were included in the secondary data analysis.

Power calculation for the secondary data analysis

The study power was calculated by assuming the proportion of men in each group (e.g. age group) who had more vs. less inequitable gender views. For example we may assume that 64% of older men hold inequitable views compared to 44% of younger men. We found that the sample size has 99% power to detect a difference of 20% between the two groups.

Test Ho: $p_1 = p_2$, where p_1 is the proportion in population 1 and p_2 is the proportion in population 2

Assumptions:

Alpha =	0.05 (two-sided)
$p_1 =$	0.64
$p_2 =$	0.44
$n_1 =$	200
$n_2 =$	287
$n_2 / n_1 =$	1.44

Estimated power:

Power =	0.99
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2.5 Data collection: primary

Self-administered questionnaires and face to face interviews were conducted in all PSUs with 488 men (Machisa et al., 2011). The questionnaire used in the survey was initially developed in English then Translated to Zulu, Sotho and Afrikaans. The translations were back translated into English and checked by multilingual speakers for quality and consistent translation (Machisa et al., 2011). The questionnaires were pre-tested with 20 men and 20

women from a PSU that was not part of the study. The questionnaires were either self-administered or completed face to face by same sex field workers in absolute privacy. Data was entered on the Personal Digital Assistant (PDA) (Machisa et al., 2011). The interviews were conducted by fieldworkers. All participants were informed about the study and told about voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality of data management. They each gave verbal informed consent to participate (Machisa et al., 2011).

The data specific to secondary data analysis was extracted from the database of the primary study from responses of men from the questionnaire (Machisa et al., 2011).

2.6 Description and measurement of variables:

Selected items from the questionnaire used in the primary study are in Appendix B.

Outcome variables

The outcome variables were measured in the following manner:

1. Gender Beliefs

Gender beliefs were measured using the Gender Equitable Men (GEM) scale (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008). The GEM scale measures attitudes toward gender norms in intimate relationships or differing social expectations for men and women, boys and girls (UNFPA, 2010). The scale consisted of 10 items measured using a Likert scale from “strongly agree” to “Strongly disagree”. An example of an item is: “There are times when a woman deserves to be beaten”. The scale was reversed so that men who have inequitable gender beliefs would also have a higher score. For instance, “strongly agree was scored as 1,” and “Strongly disagree was scored as 4”. They were all reversed by recoding to “strongly agree being scored as 4,” and “Strongly disagree was scored as 1”. A score was created by adding all the responses together to calculate the distribution of the scores between 10 and 40. The internal consistency of the scale was assessed (Cronbach’s alpha =0.71). Although this was not an optimal score, it was acceptable enough to give us reliable results. The inequitable gender belief score was categorised into two groups; a score equal or less than 26 represented more inequitable gender beliefs while a score greater than 26 represented less inequitable gender beliefs a score. less inequitable The highest possible score was 40 and the lowest possible score was 11 and 26 was the midpoint between the highest and lowest

This study looks closely into men inequitable gender beliefs and subjective gender norms that may predispose them to risky behaviours. Unpacking determinants of inequitable gender beliefs or societal messages that dictate appropriate or expected behaviour for males and females using the GEM scale closely relates to the researcher conceptual framework. Using the GEM scale to assess men's inequitable attitudes will assist us to reach conclusion based on the items in the scale.

2. s Subjective **gender norms**

Subjective gender norms were measured Using the Gender Equitable Men scale developed Gary Barker (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008). The scale consists of 13 items measured using a Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". An example of an item is: "My community thinks that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband". There was one item which was not measuring the same outcome as all other items in the scale for instance eg, "My community thinks that men should share the work around the house with women such as doing dishes, cleaning and cooking." It was recoded so that it reflects similar pattern of measurement. Once again all the items had to be reversed so that men with inequitable gender subjective norms would have the heist scores. "Strongly agree was scored as 1," and "Strongly disagree was scored as 4". They were all reversed by recoding to "strongly agree being scored as 4," and "Strongly disagree was scored as 1".

A score was created by adding all the responses together to calculate the distribution of the scores between 13 and 52 . The internal consistency of the scale was assessed (Cronbach's alpha =0.75). The score indicates acceptable internal consistency. The inequitable gender subjective norms was categorised into two groups (group 1: score equal or less than 33 and group 2: more inequitable gender beliefs score was greater than 33). The highest possible score was 49 and the lowest possible score was 16 and 33 was the midpoint between the highest and lowest score.

Explanatory variables:

- **Age group:** Age was measured in the primary study using a categorical variable. The three age categories adopted from the primary study were three categories: 18-29 years of age, 30-44 years of age and aged 45 and above. These age categories were defined by other papers which have been published using the same dataset.

- **Relationship status:** was measured by the question, “Do you currently have wife or girlfriend?” Possible answers were “yes or no”.
- **Education level:** was measured by the question “what is the highest standard or grade you have completed at school”? Possible answers were “No schooling, primary school incomplete, primary school complete (std4), high school incomplete, high school complete, further degree/qualification incomplete, further degree / qualification complete, don’t know”. These were recoded to great three categories as “no schooling and primary together, high school and tertiary”; a response of “don’t know” was recoded as missing.
- **Employment:** Employment in the past 12 months was measured by the question “Have you worked to earn money in the last 12 months?” Possible responses were yes or no.
- **Income:** Men who were employed were asked a follow-up question on monthly income i.e “How much do you earn per month, before tax, and including benefits” Possible answers were recoded into three categories, R1 – R 2000, R2001- 5000 and R 5000+. To include those who did not work, we combined employment and income variable by recoding those who answered “no” on employment in the past 12 months and those who earned as missing. This new variable now had four possible answers including those who earned R0 income in the past 12 months.
- **Food insecurity:** Household food insecurity was measured by the question “Would you say that the people in your home go without food”? Possible responses were “often, sometimes, seldom or never” We recoded the responses into a binary category of “yes and No”
- **Witnessing abuse of mother:** was measured by a question “Before I reached 18, I saw or heard my mother being beaten by her husband or boyfriend” Possible response were “Never”, “sometimes”, “often/very often”
- **Number of sexual partners in the past 12 months:** number of sexual partners in the past 12 months was measured by questions “How many sexual partners have you had in the last year?” with possible responses recoded into “0 (no sexual partner), 1 (one sexual partner) and 2 or more sexual partners”.

- **Awareness of GBV campaigns and laws:** This was measured by combining three categorical variables (awareness of GBV campaigns, Sexual Offences Amendment Act 32 of 2007 and Domestic Violence Act (DVA)).

Awareness of GBV campaigns was measured by a question, “Do you know of events or campaigns on gender based violence”.

Awareness of GBV- related laws was measured by two questions :“Have you heard about the new law against sexual violence and rape (the Sexual Offences Amendment Act)in South Africa”? and

“Have you heard about the law against domestic violence (Domestic Violence Act) in South Africa”

We created a binary variable of law awareness i.e yes if men answered yes to any of the laws and “no” if they had said no on both laws.

We created a combination variable of GBV awareness and laws. This was against the assumption that the different variables were measuring the same underlying latent variable which is men’s overall access to information relating to GBV whether as prevention or advocacy or responses.

- **Childhood trauma:** was measured using childhood adversity scale. The scale consists of 13 items measured using a Likert scale with possible responses from “never” to “very often”. An example of an item is: “Before I reached 18 I lived in different households at different times” and “Before I reached 18 I had sex with someone because I was threatened or frightened or forced”. A score was created by adding all the responses together. The distribution of the scores was between 140 and 153. There were three subscales: child neglect, child physical abuse and child sexual abuse which were then used to create child trauma category. We counted all men who answered no on all of the subscales and counted those who said yes in any of the subscale. The minimum score was 13 and maximum was 41.

- **Finding emergency money:** This item was measured by the question “If you have an emergency and R200 was needed immediately, would you say it would be very easy”, Possible responses were; easy, quite difficult or very difficult to find the money.

Table 1 Variable, scale items and structure

VARIABLE	ITEMS	VARIABLE STRUCTURE
OUTCOME		
Gender Equitable Men scale	<p>There are times when a woman deserves to be beaten.</p> <p>You don't talk about sex, you just do it.</p> <p>It is a woman's responsibility to avoid getting pregnant.</p> <p>Changing nappies, giving kids a bath, and feeding the kids are the mother's responsibility.</p> <p>A man should have the final word about decisions in his home.</p> <p>Men are always ready to have sex.</p> <p>If someone insults me, I will defend my reputation, with force if I have to.</p> <p>To be a man, you need to be tough.</p> <p>I would be outraged if my wife asked me to use a condom.</p> <p>Men should be embarrassed if they are unable to get an erection during sex.</p>	Categorical
Subjective gender norms scale	<p>There were 7 items measuring community ideas about gender relations including;</p> <p>My community thinks that a woman should obey her husband</p> <p>My community thinks that if a woman works she should give her money to her husband. My community thinks that a man should have the final say in all family matters.</p> <p>My community thinks that men should share the work around the house with women such as doing dishes, cleaning and cooking.</p> <p>My community thinks that a woman needs her husband's permission to do paid work.</p> <p>My community thinks that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband.</p> <p>My community thinks that children belong to a man and his family.</p> <p>My community thinks that there is nothing a woman can do if her husband wants to have girlfriends.</p> <p>My community thinks that if a wife does something wrong her husband has the right to punish her</p>	

EXPLANATORY		
Age group	How old are you	Categorical
Education level	What is the highest standard or grade you have completed at school	categorical
Relationship status	Do you currently have a girlfriend or are you married or living with a woman or are you a widower, separated or divorced or married in a polygamous relationship or have a same sex partner?	Categorical
Witnessing abuse of mother	Have you witnessed your mother been beaten	Categorical
Finding emergency money	If you have an emergency and R200 was needed immediately, would you say it would be very easy, easy, quite difficult or very difficult to find the money?	Categorical
Income	How much do you earn per month, before tax, and including benefits?	Categorical
Food insecurity	Would you say that you are food secure	Binary
Employment	Have you worked to earn money in the last 12 months?	Binary
Awareness of GBV campaigns and laws	Do you know of events or campaigns on gender based violence? Have you heard about the law against domestic violence in South Africa Have you heard about the new law against sexual violence and rape in South Africa?	Binary
Number of sexual partners	How many sexual partners have you had in the past 12 months?	Continuous

2.7 Data management

This data set was already de-identified; and there was no personal information that could reveal the identity of participants. It was further cleaned for both the exposure and outcome variables and recoded for analysis. This was done following the data cleaning procedures to assess inconsistencies and obvious data collection errors.

2.8 Data analysis

All data analysis was conducted using STATA 13 accounting for the stratified, two-stage survey design with participants clustered within the PSUs. The *svy: tab* and *xt* command e.g. *xt: logistic* command was used to adjust for the cluster sampling. Means and standard deviations were used to summarize numerical variables while proportions were calculated for categorical variable as presented in **Table 1**. We excluded men who had never been in an

intimate relationship or who had missing data on key variables. There was not a substantial proportion of missing data (<10%). We assessed internal consistency of all the scales by evaluating the Cronbach's alpha. We conducted bivariate analyses using a chi squared test of the outcome variables and behavioural and selected socio-demographic variables. We used the 0.05 level of significance. We built two logistic regression models of the outcomes: gender beliefs and subjective norms, with selected explanatory variables with a p value of 0.2) or less while controlling for relationship status and age.

Table 2 Data analysis by objective

Objective	Variables	Variable recoding strategy	Data analysis
To describe beliefs of gender roles, norms and power relations among men 18 and above in Gauteng Province	An adaptation of Gender Equitable Men scale (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008), asking about men's gender beliefs. Internal consistency of the scale was assessed using a Cronbach's alpha	A score was created by adding all the responses to calculate the distribution of the scores between 10 and 40. The score was categorised into two groups	Mean and standard deviation were reported for the score. Categorical inequitable gender beliefs presented as frequencies & proportions
To describe subjective norms on gender roles, norms and power relations among men 18 and above in Gauteng Province	An adaptation of Gender Equitable Men scale (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008) asking about men's perception of community beliefs. Internal consistency of the scale was assessed using a Cronbach's alpha	A score was created by adding all the responses to calculate the distribution of the scores between 10 and 40. Score was transformed into subjective norms categories: equal to or less than 33 = inequitable gender beliefs and greater than 33 = less inequitable gender beliefs	Mean and standard deviation were reported for subjective norms score. Categorical variable was presented using frequencies and proportions
To explore the socio-demographic factors associated with both inequitable beliefs and subjective norms on gender roles, norms and power relations among men 18 and above in Gauteng Province	Outcome variables: a) Gender Equitable Men scale b) Subjective gender norms scale Explanatory variables: Age group, educational level, Relationship status, number of sexual partners, witnessing abuse of mother, food insecurity, income, employment, awareness of GBV campaigns and laws, finding emergency money		Two logistic regression models were built for each outcome (beliefs and subjective norms) explanatory variables that with p-value of 0.2 or less were included in the bivariate analyses

2.9 Ethical considerations

The protocol was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) of the University of Witwatersrand in South Africa. Permission to access the variables from the

primary data set was granted by the Medical Research Council for their household survey on the relationships between men and women in Gauteng province. No personal identifiers of participants were captured. Therefore, we received a de-identified dataset. We paid attention to some basic principles of ethics by adhering to high levels of confidentiality at all times. The data is stored safely from unauthorised access, accidental loss or destruction. Data are kept as encrypted files in the computer.

CHAPTER 3 RESULTS

3.1 Socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men in the study

Table 3 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of men who participated in the study. A total of 488 men were included in the analyses. Over a third (41.07%) were 18-29 years of age, 32.85% were aged 30 to 44 years while 26.08% were aged 45 years or older. The majority of men (70.84%) had high school education and 14.78% had no education or only primary school while 14.37% had tertiary education. Most men (65.78%) had been employed in the past 12 months. Of those who had been employed most (28.96%) earned more than R5000, while 28.13% had not earned any money in the past 12 months. Almost one quarter (22.71%) of the population has earned between R2001 and R5000 per month, and 20.21% have earned less than R2000.

Most men (87.50%) were currently in a romantic relationship and almost half (49%) had one sexual partner in the past 12 months. The proportion of those who witnessed abuse of mother was 26.22%. The childhood trauma score had a minimum of 13 and a maximum of 41 with mean/standard deviation of 19.06 (4.12). The proportion of men who were aware of GBV laws was 80.04% while the proportion of those who knew campaigns against GBV was 59.96%.

Table 3: Socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men

Characteristics	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Age group (n=487)		
18-29	200	41.07
30-44	160	32.85
45+	127	26.08
Level of education (n=487)		
None and primary	72	14.78
High School	345	70.84
Tertiary	70	14.37
Employed in past 12 months (n=488)		

No	167	34.22
Yes	321	65.78
Income per month (n=480)		
No income	135	28.13
R1 – R 2000	97	20.21
R2001- 5000	109	22.71
R 5000+	107	28.96
Food security (n=488)		
Food secure	293	60.04
Food insecure	195	39.96
Find emergency money (n=488)		
Very difficult	98	20.08
Quite difficult	196	40.16
Easy	124	25.41
very easy	70	14.34
Currently in romantic relationship (n=488)		
No	61	12.50
Yes	427	87.50
Number of sexual partners in the past 12 months (n=463)		
0	40	8.64
1	223	48.16
2 or more	200	43.20
Childhood trauma score Mean(SD)		
	19.06 (4.12)	
Witnessed abuse of mother (n=473)		
No	349	73.78
Yes	124	26.22
GBV campaign knowledge (n487)		
No	195	40.04
Yes	292	59.96

GBV Laws knowledge (n=461)		
No	92	19.96
YES	369	80.04

3.2 Gender beliefs and subjective norms of gender roles, norms and power relations

Table 4 shows the mean GEM and subjective norm scores as well as the proportion with more and less inequitable gender beliefs. The mean GEM score was 26.34 with the standard deviation of 5.04. The mean subjective gender norm score was 33.15 with the standard deviation of 5.62. For categorical variables, 51.24% of men had inequitable gender beliefs and the remaining 48.76% had less inequitable gender beliefs. About 45.54% men had inequitable gender subjective norms and over half (54.46%) men had less inequitable gender subjective norms.

Table 4: Gender beliefs and gender subjective norms of men

Characteristics	Mean	SD
GEM score	26.33708	(5.03757)
Subjective gender norms	33.14851	(5.623217)

Characteristics	N	%
Gender Equitable Men Category (n=445)		
Inequitable gender beliefs and attitudes	228	51.24
Less equitable gender beliefs and attitudes	217	48.76
Subjective Norms category (n=404)		
Inequitable subjective gender norms	184	45.54
Less equitable subjective gender norms	220	54.46

3.3 Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural factors and inequitable gender beliefs

Table 5 shows the associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable gender beliefs. The following characteristics were associated with inequitable gender beliefs; Education attainment, finding emergency money, number of sexual partners, witnessing abuse of mother and relationship status. . Men who had more inequitable gender beliefs compared to men who had less inequitable gender beliefs had; lower levels of education (61.76% vs 38.2% p=0.05), easy access to emergency money (55.03% vs 44.93 p=0.02), have two or more sexual partners in the past 12 months (57.29% vs 42.71% p=0.01), witnessed their mother being abused (67.50% vs 32.50% p=0.01) and

were more food insecure (59.76% vs 40.24% $p=0.001$) and were currently in a relationship (50.63% vs 49.37% $p=0.03$).

A smaller proportion of men with tertiary education held inequitable gender beliefs (34.33%) compared to 65.67% of men who reported less inequitable gender beliefs, the pattern was reversed with lower educational attainment where a higher proportion of men with no schooling or primary only had inequitable gender beliefs (61.76%) compared to smaller proportion of men (38.24%) with less inequitable gender beliefs. The proportion of men who attained high school level who had inequitable gender beliefs was 49.19% compared to 50.81% for those who had less inequitable gender beliefs.

There was a statistically significant difference in the proportions of men who found it easier or more difficult to access emergency money and their gender beliefs. A larger proportion (55.03%) who could find emergency quite easy had inequitable gender beliefs compared to those who had less inequitable beliefs (44.93%). The proportion of men who reported the ability to find emergency money easily who were found to hold inequitable gender beliefs was 37.39% compared to 62.61% of those who held less inequitable beliefs and reported finding emergency money easily. The proportion of those who held inequitable gender beliefs compared those who held less inequitable gender beliefs was similar (50.00% vs 50.00%) in men who reported that that it was very difficult to find emergency money.

There was a statistically significant association between number of sexual partners and inequitable gender beliefs. A higher percentage of men who had two or more partners (57.29%) in the past 12 months had inequitable gender beliefs as compared to 42.71% who had less inequitable gender beliefs. The pattern is reversed with having only one sexual partner in the past 12 months. The proportion of those who had inequitable gender beliefs was lower (34.21%) compared to those who had less inequitable gender beliefs (65.79%). There was a statistically significant difference in the proportions of men witnessing abuse of mother and those who never witnessed it. The proportion of men who had inequitable gender beliefs was lower (41.67%) among those who never who witnessed their mother being abused compared to 58.33% of those who had less inequitable gender beliefs. There was a reverse in the pattern where the proportion of men witnessing their mother

sometimes being abused who reported having inequitable gender beliefs was higher (67.50% vs 32.50%).

A smaller proportion of men who were more food secure held inequitable gender beliefs (42.03%) compared to 57.97% of men who reported less inequitable gender beliefs. The pattern was reversed with more food insecurity where 59.76% of men who were more food insecure held less inequitable gender beliefs compared to a smaller proportion (40.24%) that held equitable gender beliefs. There was a statistically significant difference in the proportions of men who were currently not in a romantic relationship, who held inequitable gender beliefs. The proportion of those who held inequitable was almost half, lower (43.00%) compared to 66% of those held less inequitable gender beliefs, who were currently not in a romantic relationship. Men who reported currently being in a romantic relationship, who had more inequitable gender beliefs was 50.63% compared to 49.37% of those who held less inequitable gender beliefs.

There was no statistically significant associations between men who had more or less inequitable gender beliefs by age group ($p=0.19$), income ($p=0.83$), employment status ($p=0.89$), awareness of campaigns and GBV laws ($p=0.61$) and childhood trauma ($p=0.29$).

Table 5: Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable gender beliefs

Characteristics	Equitable gender beliefs n (%)	Inequitable gender beliefs n (%)	P value
Age group (n=444)			
18-29	96 (54.24)	81 (45.76)	0.19
30-44	80 (53.69)	69 (46.31)	
45+	51 (43.22)	67 (56.78)	
Level of education (n=444)			
None and Primary	26 (38.24)	42 (61.76)	0.05*
High school	157 (50.81)	152 (49.19)	
Tertiary	44 (65.67)	23 (34.33)	
Income per month (n=439)			
No income	61 (50.41)	60 (49.59)	0.89
R1 – R 2000	43 (50.00)	43 (50.00)	
R2001- 5000	47 (48.45)	50 (51.55)	
R 5000+	72 (53.33)	63 (46.64)	
Find emergency money (n=445)			
Very difficult	48 (50.00)	48 (50.00)	0.02*
Quite easy	76 (44.93)	93 (55.03)	
Easy	72 (62.61)	43 (37.39)	

Very Easy	32 (49.23)	33 (50.77)	
Number of sexual partners in the past 12 months (n=430)			
0	25 (65.79)	13 (34.21)	0.01*
1	111 (55.50)	89 (44.50)	
2 or more	82 (42.71)	110 (57.29)	
Witnessed abuse of mother (n=431)			
No	173 (53.56)	150 (46.44)	0.03*
Yes	45 (41.67)	54 (67.50) 63 (58.33)	
Worked (n=445)			
No	79 (51.63)	74 (48.37)	0.89
Yes	149 (51.03)	143 (48.97)	
Food insecure (n=445)			
No	160 (57.97)	116 (42.03)	0.001*
Yes	68 (40.24)	101 (59.76)	
Currently in a relationship (n=445)			
No	33 (66.00)	17 (34.00)	0.03*
Yes	195 (49.37)	200 (50.63)	
GBV campaign awareness (n=487)			
No	91 (46.67)	104 (53.33)	0.004*
Yes	175 (59.93)	117 (40.07)	
GBV laws awareness (n=461)			
No	55 (59.78)	37 (40.22)	0.33
Yes	200 (54.20)	169 (48.50)	
Childhood trauma (n=429)			
No	12 (42.86)	16 (57.14)	0.29
Yes	207 (51.62)	194 (48.38)	

3.4 Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural factors and inequitable gender subjective norms

Table 6 shows associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable gender subjective norms. The following characteristics were associated with inequitable gender subjective norms; education attainment and exposure to GBV campaigns and laws.. Men who had inequitable gender subjective norms compared to men who had less inequitable gender subjective norms had; lower levels of education (24.19% vs 75.81% $p=0.001$) and had never been exposed to GBV campaigns or laws (70.45% vs 29.55% $p=0.02$).

The proportion of men who held inequitable gender subjective norms with no primary and those who attained primary level only was 75.81% higher compared to men 24.19% who had less inequitable gender subjective norms. Nearly equal proportions of men who had attainment high school level of education (50.18% vs 49.82%) reported having inequitable gender subjective norms when compared to those reporting equitable gender subjective norms. A significantly lower proportion of men who had tertiary education expressed inequitable subjective norms.

However, a higher proportion of men who had a tertiary education expressed more inequitable gender subjective norms (51.79% vs 48.21%)

Awareness of GBV campaigns and laws ($p=0.02$), was also statistically significantly associated with men having inequitable gender subjective norms. A higher proportion (70.45%) of men who had never been exposed to any GBV laws and campaigns held inequitable gender subjective norms compared to a smaller proportion (29.55%) of those who had less inequitable gender subjective. Similarly, the proportion of men who were aware of GBV laws and campaigns and held inequitable gender subjective norms was higher (52.46%) compared to men who were aware of GBV laws and campaigns and held less inequitable gender subjective norms (47.54%).

There was no statistically significant associations between men who had more or less equitable gender subjective norms by age ($p=0.79$), income ($p=0.57$), finding emergency money ($p=0.66$), number of sexual partner ($p=0.36$), witnessing mother abuse ($p=0.83$),

employment ($p=0.85$), food security ($p=0.17$), relationship status ($p=0.52$), and childhood trauma ($p=0.96$).

Table 6: Associations between socio-demographic factors and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable subjective norms

Characteristics	Equitable gender subjective norms n (%)	Inequitable gender subjective norms n (%)	P value
Age group (n=403)			
18-29	78 (47.56)	86 (52.44)	0.79
30-44	58 (43.61)	75 (56.39)	
45+	48 (45.28)	58 (54.72)	
Level of education (n=403)			
None and Primary	15 (24.19)	47 (75.81)	0.001*
High school	142 (49.82)	143 (50.18)	
Tertiary	27 (48.21)	29 (51.79)	
Income per month (n=399)			
No income	55 (48.67)	58 (51.33)	0.57
R1 – R 2000	32 (40.00)	48 (60.00)	
R2001- 5000	39 (45.35)	47 (54.65)	
R 5000+	58 (48.33)	62 (51.67)	
Find emergency money (n=488)			
Very difficult	42 (46.15)	49 (53.85)	0.66
Quite easy	68 (44.16)	86 (55.84)	
Easy	44 (43.14)	58 (56.86)	
Very Easy	30 (52.63)	27 (47.37)	
Number of sexual partners in the past 12 months (n=383)			
0	11 (31.43)	24 (68.57)	0.36
1	84 (44.92)	103 (55.08)	
2 or more	72 (44.72)	89 (55.28)	
Witnessed abuse of mother (n=391)			
Never	133 (45.39)	160 (54.61)	0.83
Sometimes	35 (47.30)	39 (52.70)	
Often/ very often	10 (41.67)	14 (58.33)	
Worked (n=404)			
No	66 (46.15)	77 (53.85)	0.85
Yes	118 (45.21)	143 (54.79)	
Food insecure (n=404)			
No	124 (49.01)	129 (50.99)	0.17
Yes	60 (39.74)	91 (60.26)	
Relationship (n=404)			
No	26 (50.00)	26 (50.00)	0.52
Yes	158 (44.89)	194 (55.11)	
Awareness (n=389)			
No	13 (29.55)	31 (70.45)	0.02*
Yes	164 (47.54)	181 (52.46)	
Childhood trauma (n=389)			
No	12 (46.15)	14 (53.85)	0.96
Yes	169 (46.56)	194 (53.44)	

3.5 Logistic regression model for bivariate associations as simple unadjusted odds ratios

A logistic regression analysis was conducted to test associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics and inequitable gender beliefs of men in the study as simple unadjusted odds ratios. Seven variables were statistically significantly associated with gender inequitable beliefs: age group ($p=0.04$), level of education ($p=0.04$ and $p=0.00$), finding emergency money ($p=0.03$), number of sexual partners in the past 12 months ($p=0.00$), GBV laws awareness ($p=0.00$), GBV campaign awareness ($p=0.00$) and currently being in a relationship ($p=0.00$).

The odds of men who have witnessed their mother being abused were 60% higher ($OR=1.42$, 95% CI 0.94-2.15) to have inequitable beliefs and subjective norms than the odds of men who have never witnessed abuse of their mother. Men in currently in a relationship were reported to had twice ($OR=2.36$, 95% CI 1.31-4.27) higher odds of having inequitable beliefs and subjective norms than the odds of men who are currently not in a relationship. GBV campaign awareness was significantly associate with having inequitable beliefs and subjective norms ($p=0.00$). The odds of men who are aware of GBV campaigns were 40% ($OR=0.58$, 95% CI 0.40-0.85) lower to have inequitable beliefs and subjective norms than the odds of men who are not aware of any GBV awareness campaigns.

The odds of men who have gender inequitable beliefs increased with age. They were found to be 40% ($OR=1.57$, 95% CI 0.73-1.71) higher at age group 45+ compared to age group 30-44. Similarly, when age group 30-44 is compared to ref age group, it was found to have 88% ($OR=1.12$, 95% CI 1.00-2.46) odds higher of having inequitable gender beliefs. The odds of men who reported 2 or more sexual partners were almost three times ($OR=2.75$, 95% CI 1.34- 5.64) higher compared to those who reported one sexual partner.

Table 7: Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable gender beliefs as simple unadjusted odds ratios

Characteristic	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence	Interval	P value
Age group	Ref.			
30-44	1.12	0.73	1.71	0.58
45+	1.57	1.00	2.46	0.04*
Level of education	Ref.			
High school	0.58	0.35	0.98	0.04*
Tertiary	0.34	0.17	0.69	0.00*
Income per month	Ref.			
R2001- 5000	1.14	0.65	1.97	0.64
R 5000+	1.01	0.58	1.76	0.95
Find emergency money	Ref.			
Quite easy	1.02	0.62	1.65	0.93
Easy	0.55	0.32	0.95	0.03*
Very Easy	0.92	0.50	1.71	0.81
Number of sexual partners in the past 12 months	Ref.			
1	1.37	0.67	2.81	0.37
2 or more	2.75	1.34	5.64	0.00*
Witnessed abuse of mother	Ref.			
Yes	1.42	0.94	2.15	0.08
Worked	Ref.			
Yes	1.06	0.72	1.54	0.75
Food insecure	Ref.			
Yes	0.56	0.38	0.81	0.00*
Currently in a relationship	Ref.			
Yes	2.36	1.31	4.27	0.00*
GBV campaign awareness	Ref.			
Yes	0.58	0.40	0.84	0.00*
GBV laws awareness	Ref.			
Yes	1.25	0.78	1.99	0.33

3.6 Logistic regression model for bivariate associations as simple unadjusted odds ratios

A logistic regression analysis was conducted to test associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics and inequitable gender subjective norms of men in the study as simple unadjusted odds ratios. Three variables were statistically significantly associated with gender inequitable subjective norms, level of education attainment ($p=0.02$ and $p=0.00$), awareness of GBV campaigns ($p=0.01$) and number of sexual partners ($p=0.02$).

The odds of men who have attained high school level were almost 50% (OR=0.46, 95% CI 0.23-0.89) less likely to have inequitable gender subjective norms than men who had primary or had never attended school was significantly associated (p=0.02). The odds of men who had one sexual partner were 70% less likely (OR=0.33, 95% CI 0.12-0.84) to have inequitable gender subjective norms compared to men who two or more sexual partners. Having two or more partners was statistically significantly associated with having inequitable gender subjective norms (p=0.02).

Table 8: Associations between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men and inequitable gender subjective norms as simple unadjusted odds ratios

Characteristics	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval		P Value
Age group	Ref.			
30-44	1.16	0.72	1.8	0.52
45+	1.03	0.62	1.71	0.90
Level of education	Ref.			
High school	0.46	0.23	0.89	0.02*
Tertiary	0.32	0.14	0.73	0.00*
Income per month	Ref.			
R2001- 5000	0.94	0.48	1.80	0.85
R 5000+	0.62	0.33	1.16	0.14
Find emergency money	Ref.			
Quite easy	1.21	0.69	2.11	0.49
Easy	0.73	0.41	1.32	0.31
Very Easy	0.76	0.38	1.51	0.44
Number of sexual partners in the past 12 months	Ref.			
1.	0.40	0.16	1.03	0.05
2 or more	0.33	0.12	0.84	0.02*
Witnessed abuse of mother	Ref.			
Yes	0.85	0.53	1.37	0.51
Worked	Ref.			
Yes	1.03	0.67	1.58	0.87
Food insecure	Ref.			
Yes	0.78	0.51	1.20	0.27
Currently in a relationship	Ref.			
Yes	0.88	0.47	1.63	0.69
GBV campaign awareness	Ref.			
Yes	0.59	0.38	0.90	0.01*
GBV laws awareness	Ref.			
Yes	0.62	0.36	1.06	0.08

3.7 Logistic regression model of factors associated with gender inequitable beliefs

A logistic regression analysis was conducted to test the relationship between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men in the study and their gender inequitable beliefs (n=389). Five variables were statistically significantly associated with gender inequitable beliefs: witnessing abuse of mother, higher number of sexual partners, food insecurity, older age group i.e 45+ and higher educational attainment.

Attaining higher-level education was protective against men developing negative gender beliefs. The odds of men having inequitable gender beliefs were 60% lower with tertiary level of education (aOR 0.41 95% CI 0.19-0.91) compared to those who had no school or primary school only. There was no statistically significant relationship between high school education and inequitable gender beliefs (aOR 0.77; 95% CI 0.41-1.45).

Witnessing the abuse of mother sometimes (but not often) was statistically significantly associated with having inequitable gender beliefs ($p=0.005$). There were twice the odds of men having inequitable gender beliefs if they had (aOR 2.27; 95%CI 1.29-4.01) sometimes witnessed the abuse of their mother compared to those who had never witnessed abuse of mother.

Having a higher number of sexual partners was associated with men having negative gender beliefs. Men who had two or more sexual partners had three times the odds (aOR 3.15; 95% CI 1.32-7.50) of having inequitable gender beliefs compared to those who had no sexual partner. Being food insecure was statistically significantly associated with having gender inequitable beliefs ($p=0.001$). There were twice the odds of men having inequitable gender beliefs (OR 2.14; 95% CI 1.38-3.32) if they were more food insecure compared to those who were more food secure.

The odds of having inequitable gender beliefs significantly increased with age. Men who were in the age category of above 45 years of age were statistically significantly ($p=0.02$) associated with having inequitable gender beliefs compared to younger ones. The odds of having inequitable beliefs among men aged 45 and above was twice as high (OR 2.02; 95% CI 1.13-3.61) as those who were in the 18-29 years of age category.

Table 9: Logistic regression model of factors associated with gender inequitable beliefs while controlling for current relationship status and age group (n=387)

Factors	Adjusted Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval		P value
Never witnessed mother abused	Ref.			
Sometimes	2.27	1.29	4.01	0.005*
Often	0.55	0.23	1.34	0.19
No sexual partners	Ref.			
One partner	1.58	0.68	3.70	0.29
two + sexual partners	3.15	1.32	7.50	0.01*
Primary or no schooling	Ref.			
High school	0.77	0.41	1.45	0.42
Tertiary	0.41	0.19	0.91	0.03*
18-29	Ref.			
30-44	1.13	0.69	1.85	0.62
45+	2.02	1.13	3.61	0.02*
Food security	Ref.			
Food insecure	2.14	1.38	3.32	0.001*
Not in a romantic relationship	Ref.			
Currently in a romantic relationship	1.79	0.84	3.84	0.13

3.8 Logistic regression model of factors associated with gender inequitable subjective norms

A logistic regression analysis was conducted to test the relationship between socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of men in the study and their gender inequitable subjective norms (n=388). The model was adjusted for current relationship status and age group. Only one variable was statistically significantly associated with gender inequitable subjective norms.

Having tertiary level of education was significantly associated (p=0.009) with having gender inequitable subjective norms. Men who had attained tertiary level of education were 70% less likely of having gender inequitable subjective norms (aOR 0.31 95% CI 0.13-0.75) compared to those who had no or only attained school primary school level of education. Similarly, having attained high school level of education was significantly associated (p=0.00) with and was protective against having gender inequitable subjective norms. Men who had attained high school level of education were 75% less likely of having gender inequitable subjective norms (OR 0.26; 95% CI 0.12-0.55) compared to those who had no or only attained school primary school level of education

Table 10: Logistic regression model of factors associated with gender inequitable subjective norms while controlling for current relationship status and age group (n=388)

Factors	Adjusted Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval		P value
Primary or no schooling	Ref.			
High school	0.26	0.12	0.55	0.00*
Tertiary	0.31	0.13	0.75	0.009*
18-29	Ref.			
30-44	1.08	0.67	1.74	0.76
44+	0.81	0.47	1.40	0.45
Food security	Ref.			
Food insecure	1.35	0.87	2.10	0.18
Not in a romantic relationship	Ref.			
Currently in a romantic relationship	1.73	0.91	3.27	0.10
Not aware of GBV laws and campaigns	Ref.			
Aware of GBV laws and campaigns	0.55	0.27	1.17	0.12

CHAPTER 4 DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the findings relating to gender inequitable beliefs and subjective norms which are presented in chapter 3. The discussion of results is done in accordance with the relevant literature. The overall aim of the study was to describe factors associated with inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms among men 18 years and above in Gauteng, South Africa and the factors associated with them. Inequitable gender beliefs were associated with having two or more sexual partners, having witnessed mother being abused, being food insecure and having an older age. Inequitable subjective norms of gender roles and norms were associated with attaining higher level of education.

4.1 Factors associated with gender inequitable beliefs

4.1.1 Associations between having multiple sexual partners and gender inequitable beliefs:

The study found that having two or more sexual partners was associated with having inequitable gender beliefs. Similarly, scholars have consistently found that men who hold inequitable gender beliefs and attitudes are at a higher risk of having multiple sexual relationships (Jewkes and Morrell, 2017, Jewkes et al., 2011, El-Bassel et al., 2001, Fulu et al., 2013, Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005). This can be attributed to gender power differences within societies, for instance, in many relationships a man takes charge in sexual relations and a woman is expected to be submissive. A man may feel entitled to have sexual relations with other women as he likes while expecting his partner to be faithful as women as supposed to be (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010). There is strong evidence that men inequitable beliefs and hegemonic masculinity puts women at heightened vulnerability to HIV infection due to men having multiple sexual partners (Langen, 2005).

In a study conducted in Cape Town, men who scored lower on the gender equitable men (GEM) scale were more likely to engage in sexual risky behaviours including having multiple partners (Abrahams et al., 2006). Men who scored lower on the GEM scale may have hegemonic masculinity beliefs that a real man is defined by the number of sexual partners he has (Morrell et al., 2012). Furthermore, Jewkes and Morrell (2010) found that most men were found to have characteristics of control and dominance over women and entitled to have sexual relationships with other women (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010). For instance, in a

case where sex is used as substance for material reward or security for livelihood in South Africa, men were found to hold more power and dominance in such relationships. This was associated with holding inequitable gender beliefs and having many sexual partners (Jewkes and Morrell, 2012).

Scholars argue that hegemonic masculinity concepts and holding inequitable gender beliefs are factors influencing men's sexual risky behaviours. They suggest that men who embrace hegemonic masculinity, negative gender beliefs of control and power were more likely to have multiple sexual partners (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005 , Morrell et al., 2012). This might be a result of polygamous culture and "lobola" payment from a man to a women's family. Men believe that paying lobola gives them the right to own women and hence they have as many partners as they like (Morrell et al., 2012). Studies conducted in South Africa and in Boston consistently found that men who have less equitable beliefs on gender relations were more likely to have unprotected sex, engage in intergenerational sex and perpetrate gender based violence (Jewkes et al., 2011, El-Bassel et al., 2001, Morrell et al., 2012).

However, Connell and Messerschmidt argued this out by showing a protective relationship between men who hold less inequitable gender beliefs and less risky sexual behaviours. They argue that men who held less inequitable gender beliefs did not embrace masculinity concepts such as having multiple partners or abusing their partners compared to those who held hegemonic masculinity ideals. They assert that men with equitable gender beliefs respect women and allow their opinion in the relationship (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005), they have respect and consideration for women as well (Langen, 2005).

4.1.2 Associations between witnessing abuse of mother and gender inequitable beliefs:

The study found that witnessing abuse of mother sometimes (but not often) was associated with having inequitable gender beliefs. Men who witnessed abuse of their mother were more likely to have inequitable gender beliefs compared to men who never witnessed their mother being abused. Studies from many settings have also consistently found an association between having inequitable gender beliefs and having witnessed abuse directed to mother (Abrahams et al., 2006, El-Bassel et al., 2001). They suggest that that men who have inequitable gender attitudes and beliefs have experienced childhood trauma or more

especially witnessed their mother being abused at an early age of their life (Abrahams et al., 2006, El-Bassel et al., 2001). This was explained by the long term effects of childhood abuse (psychological, emotional and physical), as result men develop negative gender attitudes (El-Bassel et al., 2001).

In this study, witnessing abuse of mother was significantly associated with inequitable gender beliefs while experiencing abuse as a child using the childhood trauma questionnaire was not. This might be because men have learned the behaviour by observing how people close to them react in situations. The impact of watching their mother being abused had a permanent mark in their lives and they ended up believing that violence is the correct way to settle conflicts (Abrahams and Jewkes, 2005; Abrahams et al., 2016). They end up accepting that violence is an appropriate way of solving conflicts in the relationship and they develop negative attitudes and beliefs that women deserve to be controlled and punished when they are wrong (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005). Capaldi et al, 2012 stated that witnessing IPV as a child was positively associated with IPV perpetration in adulthood. Men who witnessed family violence were at greater risk for having inequitable gender beliefs and perpetrating IPV (Capaldi et al, 2012),

4.1.3 Associations between being food insecure and gender inequitable beliefs:

The study found that having inequitable gender beliefs was associated with food insecurity. This was supported by research showing that dominant male gender roles include assuming a provider role to their partners; this was an expectation within a wider society (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010). The frustrations of not being able to adequately provide for themselves or their partners was associated with violence and holding negative gender beliefs and attitudes (Vu et al., 2016). The frustrations, shame and stress that come with not being able to fulfil a provider role lead to men having inequitable attitudes including using violence to regain a sense of their manhood (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010).

Similarly, Conroy and associates (2016), suggest that men with lower socio economic status were found to be more likely to have inequitable gender beliefs and attitudes. He explains that having lower socio economic status affects a person's ability to afford basic needs including food security (Conroy et al., 2016). Research in Sub-Saharan Africa has shown that depending on men for financial and material basic resources such as food security,

introduces power imbalances between men and women. Men feel more in control and at power when they are more food secure and can provide for their partners. When they fail to perform their provider role, they end up having inequitable gender beliefs and attitudes against women (Shannon, 2012).

Associations between being food insecure and having inequitable gender beliefs were also explained through the hegemonic masculinity where men believe that they have to be strong, tough, in control and dominant over women and assume a provider role. Men who are struggling to live up to hegemonic masculinity ideals such as fulfilling their provider roles and being food secure are more likely to have inequitable gender beliefs and violent behaviours (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005). On the other hand, women are often forced to comply with violent and other risky men behaviours as a trade-off to have a more secure livelihood (food security) and mainly because cultural systems are allowing men to dominate and women to be submissive to inequitable gender norms and hegemonic ideals (Jewkes and Morrell, 2010). Jewkes and Morrell, (2017) further stated that masculinity is expressed through various gender positions. This may include the male provider role, toughness, control and violence against women, especially in South Africa. Failure to fulfil any of the roles including the provider role perpetuate inequitable gender attitudes; blame shifting, and may lead to partner violence (Dunkle et al., 2004, Jewkes and Morrell, 2017).

4.1.4 Associations between being older in age and gender inequitable beliefs:

The study found that being older in age was associated with having inequitable gender beliefs. It suggests that there is more likelihood of having inequitable gender beliefs in older men who are 45 years and above compared to younger men aged between 18 and 29 years. Although this finding was inconsistent with other studies, it may be explained through the transition from olden eras to more modern contemporary ways of living (Wiesner, 2000, Inglehart and Norris, 2000). The transition to modern societies collapsed the traditional family structures and transformed many gender roles as more women were now taking part in the paid labour force, participated in elections and were able to attain rights they never had before (Inglehart and Norris, 2000). This often poses challenges for older men to shift or understand the modern ways of living and engage in more gender equitable lifestyles as they are more vested in reinforcing their olden masculinity identities (Barker et al., 2010).

This finding was however, inconsistent with other studies (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008, Vu et al., 2016), where their findings suggested higher levels of support on inequitable gender beliefs for men ages between 15-24 years of age compared to older men. They suggest that younger men are more likely to have inequitable gender beliefs than older men as they internalise negative gender norms about sexual and intimate relationships at a very young age and from peers (Vu et al., 2016). Furthermore, a study conducted by Pulerwitz and Barker (2008), measuring attitudes and gender beliefs among young men in Brazil found an association between younger age and men's inequitable gender beliefs. Younger men expressed more inequitable gender beliefs compared to older men who moderately or strongly supported gender equitable belief items.. They were found to have more inequitable gender beliefs compared to older men who moderately or strongly supported gender equitable belief items (Pulerwitz and Barker, 2008).

Jewkes and Morrell conducted a hegemonic masculinity, violence, and gender equality study in South Africa in 2017. They also found that younger men in the study were more likely to have inequitable gender beliefs compared to older men who scored higher in the GEM scale. The study found that being older was protective against masculinity ideas and inequitable gender beliefs (Jewkes and Morrell, 2017). Scholars argued that older men withhold hegemonic stereotypes more than younger men. They often become too rigid to cultural norms that discriminates women and denies them any positions in the society leaving them with no power and say over their lives (Dunkle et al., 2004, Jewkes and Morrell, 2012).

4.1.5 Associations between having higher education level and gender inequitable beliefs:

The study found that attaining higher education was associated with having inequitable gender beliefs. It shows that men who have attained tertiary level of education were less likely to have gender inequitable beliefs. This was consistent with other studies across different settings (Jewkes and Morrell, 2017, Lawoko, 2008, Hoffman et al., 1994). In Kenya and Zambia, research found an association between attaining a higher education level and having more gender equitable attitudes and beliefs (Lawoko, 2008). For instance, most men in Kenya (71%) who had inequitable gender beliefs had lower levels of education compared to those with higher levels of education (Lawoko, 2008). Research suggest that the reason

might be that education has the ability to promote more gender equitable beliefs as it introduces people to a broader scope of thinking beyond cultural perspectives (Gibbs et al., 2012, Hallfors et al., 2011). It was also pointed out that attaining a higher level of education was necessary for men to develop confidence and consideration of women's opinion as it introduces one to concepts of equality either in the work place or at home (Hallfors et al., 2011). As more men attain higher levels of education, there is an increase in gender equitable norms for the whole society as more men who have attained a higher level of education become more open to social development than a society with less educated people (Gibbs et al., 2012, Hallfors et al., 2011).

Another study conducted in South Africa found that attaining higher education level was protective against negative or hegemonic masculinity. Higher education was associated with less inequitable gender beliefs (Jewkes and Morrell, 2017). Even though Scott and associates were not clear what level of education was necessary to attain for less inequitable beliefs, they at least articulate that education is necessary to influence a men's beliefs and bring him into another world where power is not defined by risky behaviours and dominance but by shared and equitable views between men and women (Scott et al., 2014).

4.2 Factors associated with gender inequitable subjective norms

The study found that attaining higher level of education was associated with having gender inequitable subjective norms. Men with higher levels of education were less likely to have gender inequitable subjective norms compared to those with lower levels of education; this was true for both high school and tertiary education level of education. Similarly, a study conducted in Cape Town showed that having higher education was protective against having gender inequitable subjective norms (Abrahams et al., 2006). Men who held inequitable gender subjective norms reflected ideas of hegemony from cultural norms of control and power. Societal norms about the male role were highly criticised as contributing factors towards negative and oppressive behaviour. Education was found to significantly reduce these ideas of hegemonic masculinity (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005). Abrahams and associates (2006), suggest that attaining post school education might increase men's self-esteem, decision making, communication skills and lower their economic stress (Abrahams et al., 2006). Due to lack of education or lower levels of education, inequitable gender subjective norms were explained in terms set of roles, expectations and identities

assumed by society allowing negative behaviour and dominance over women (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005).

4.3 Limitations

Lack of temporality between variables:

The primary study was a cross sectional survey and it was difficult to tell the temporal sequence in the association between outcome and explanatory variables measured. The direction of association could be reversed or could be reciprocal. For example, men who have inequitable gender beliefs may be more inclined to have a greater number of sexual partners rather than the other way around.

Social desirability bias

All data were self-reported and participants could have under-reported or over-reported behaviours such as multiple partners depending on what he felt the researcher wanted to hear.

Recall bias

Another limitation was recall bias from the primary study. Participants might not have accurately remembered details from their childhood. For instance, men may have under-reported witnessing the abuse of mother.

However, the main strength of this study is the fact that it involved a large random sample of adult men from the general population and the survey had a good response rate. Therefore, the findings can be generalizable.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

The overall findings presented in this study clearly show an association between inequitable gender beliefs and having two or more sexual partners, having witnessed mother being abused, being food insecure and having an older age. It further showed a relationship between having inequitable gender subjective norms and attaining higher education level. The findings show that attaining a higher education level was found to be protective against inequitable gender subjective norms and hegemonic masculinity ideals. Men who had attained tertiary level of education held less inequitable gender beliefs compared to those who had attained primary only or those with no school.

Witnessing mother being abused was associated with men's inequitable gender beliefs later on in life when one grows up. Men who witnessed abuse of mother were at heightened risk of having inequitable gender beliefs compared to those that have not witnessed their mother being beaten. These findings are similar to previous studies that have shown that South African children witnessing their mother or women abuse are more likely to perceive it as socially acceptable, develop gender inequitable views and be more likely to abuse intimate partners or women that they are not intimately involved with. (Abrahams and Jewkes, 2005). These findings were explained through theories based in social learning and intergenerational transmission as a risk factor to negative gender attitudes, for example men who witnessed abuse of mother reported higher levels of violence in their relationships (Capaldi et al. 2012).

However, the study also emphasises the importance of using quantitative sociological approaches to clearly describe certain men's equitable and inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms to help us develop appropriate programmes, well targeted for sustainable results.

5.2 Recommendations

5.2.1 Support programmes for children whose mother have been or are in an abusive relationship

In order to address men's gender inequitable beliefs there is a need to address the factors underlying them, for instance, for children currently witnessing abuse of mother. There is an

urgent need to focus on family violence and parenting issues to alleviate domestic violence. This will help create a conducive environment for both the parents and the children thereby reducing the likelihood of gender inequitable norms in men later on during their lives. These programs should be coupled with rigorous monitoring and evaluation activities of family violence and parenting sessions. This may be effectively conducted through sampling two groups; intervention and control groups to provide an opportunity for assessing the impact of the program and the attribution making a comparison between the two interventions. For men who had witnessed their mother being abused while they were still young, psychosocial support programmes would help them to overcome the trauma and inequitable attitudes gained from watching their mother being abused. This maybe done through psychosocial support, participatory men forums and women and men integrated programs.

5.2.2 Periodic GBV campaigns and laws to shift norms

South Africa should ensure a country wide political and social mobilization to address gender inequitable beliefs and norms, and their roles in increasing HIV risk, violence and vulnerability among women. As this study showed, there was no significant association between awareness of GBV campaigns and laws and inequitable gender beliefs. However, there needs to be a combination of mass campaigns and interpersonal communication level of activities at different ecological levels to enable men to interact and unpack the meanings of GBV laws applying them to their lives. This will help men engage with the laws and human rights policies vouching for an equitable gender society more effectively increasing their self-efficacy to make healthier and less inequitable choices. Even though there was no significant association between GBV campaigns and laws awareness this suggests the need to re-strategies mobilisation approaches scaling up reach to the social context involving intersectoral approach and community leaders.

5.2.3 Norm shifting programmes for men

Programmers need to put more attention on the role of inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms for both men and women. Across all levels of society, there is a need to promote men's gender equitable masculinities vs inequitable hegemonic masculinity, encourage equitable gender norms and reduce the violent and risky behaviours in men. Programmers should focus more on the factors associated with having inequitable gender

beliefs and subjective norms for men to develop a robust root cause analysis. Research and interventions in the future should put more effort in working with men and women together to shift inequitable social norms on gender relations, roles and negative stereotypes. The collaboration of male and female will help include the differences and highlight similarities of men and women when designing programmes taking into consideration the social norms and systems that sustain gender inequality beliefs and subjective norms. The results presented in this study calls for an evidence based need for more involving men and boys in the transformation of gender HIV prevention, IPV and inequitable gender beliefs and norms prevention programmes.

5.2.4 Implementing evidence based interventions

Introduction of evidence based gender sensitive programmes is needed to focus more on the specific needs and realities of men in accordance with social construction of gender roles. Improved measurement through evidence based approaches will enable an understanding of the immediate and longer term health needs of women exposed to IPV. However, realising the social needs of men, on the other hand will help programmers better understand the facilitators of men equitable gender beliefs. Investing in long term gender sensitive programmes may help change men's negative behaviour related to inequitable attitudes and beliefs and subjective norms.

Furthermore, this study found more equitable beliefs in tertiary educated men compared to less educated men. Yet it is a fact that majority of South Africans do not make it to tertiary education due to the high dropout rates. Intervening in schools (primary and secondary) will be strategic in beginning to transform gender attitudes and perceptions. . Instilling norm shift approaches at a tender age will enable young men to grow up with less inequitable gender norms and attitudes as they are more vulnerable to peer pressure such as negative subjective norms. This will also curb the inequitable gender beliefs even before developing. This can be carried out as a peer based programme aiming at targeting multiple forms of inequitable gender beliefs and behaviours

There is a need for a longitudinal study with a male cohort with intervention and control groups to try and understand factors associated with inequitable gender beliefs and subjective norms for a clearer picture and explanation of these factors. For example, a longitudinal study with a cohort of men who have witnessed abuse of mother and those in

the control group who have not witnessed abuse of mother would be necessary to assess change in implemented programmes over time.

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Appendix A Questionnaire

RELATIONSHIPS HOUSEHOLD SURVEY: GAUTENG

(MEN ENGLISH)

Study identification number	
Date of interview	__ __ / __ __ / 200 __ <i>D D M M Y</i>
Cluster number:	[] []

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this survey. The interviewer is available to help you if you have any difficulties completing the questionnaire or if there is anything you do not understand.

He will not look at how you answer the questions unless you ask him to, and will not look at the survey once it is complete so nobody will ever know that it is you who told us particular things. We have organised it this way to protect your privacy because we want you to feel free in answering our questions.

We know some questions are more difficult to answer than others. Please take your time and relax. All the questions are about your life and your ideas. There are no right or wrong answers. **The first questions we will ask you are about yourself, your home and your childhood. If there is a question you do not want to answer please indicate by hitting a Refuse button and skip to the next question.**

SECTION ONE: BACKGROUND

Let us begin. Please remember that everything you tell me was kept secret.

NO	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
101	<p>How old are you?</p> <p>AGE</p>	<p>18-20.....1</p> <p>21-24.....2</p> <p>25-29.....3</p> <p>30-34.....4</p> <p>35-39.....5</p> <p>40-44.....6</p> <p>45 -49.....7</p> <p>50 - 548</p> <p>55 or older 9</p>	
102	<p>What is the highest standard or grade you have completed at school?</p> <p>LEVEL OF EDUCATION</p>	<p>No schooling.....1</p> <p>Primary school incomplete2</p> <p>Primary school complete (std4)3</p> <p>High school incomplete.....4</p> <p>High school complete.....5</p> <p>Further degree/Qualification incomplete...6</p> <p>Further degree/Qualification complete.....7</p> <p>DON'T KNOW.....8</p>	

103	Are you currently studying?	YES..... 1 NO 0	
104	With which race group do you identify?	Black/ African 1 Coloured 2 Indian 3 White 4 Other: 5	
105	What is your religion, if you have one? RELIGION	Christian 1 Islam 2 Hindu 3 Judaism 4 Buddhist 5 Other 6 None 7	
105 b	What nationality are you?	South African.....1 Southern Africa.....2 African country outside Southern region..3 Other.....4	
106	Have you worked to earn money in the last 12 months?	YES1 NO.....0	→109
107	How much do you earn per month, before tax, and including benefits?	R1 – R500.....1 R501 – R1000.....2 R1 001 – R2000.....3 R2001 – R5000.....4 R5001 – R10 000.....5 R10 001 – R20 000.....6 R20 000 or more.....7	

108	What kind of work do you mainly do?	Police, security or armed forces.....1 Professional.....2 Domestic worker/cleaner.....3 Driver/transportation industry 4 Other5	
109	Do you usually work ...	Throughout the year.....1 Seasonally.....2 Once in a while.....3 Never worked.....4	
110	Would you say that the people in your home often, sometimes, seldom or never go without food?	OFTEN.....1 SOMETIMES.....2 SELDOM.....3 NEVER.....4	
111	If you have an emergency and R200 was needed immediately, would you say it would be very easy, easy, quite difficult or very difficult to find the money?	VERY DIFFICULT.....1 QUITE DIFFICULT.....2 EASY.....3 VERY EASY.....4	
112	How many people, including all the children, live in your home?	1.....1 2-5.....2 6-10.....3 10 or more.....4	

113	What level of schooling did your mother complete?	No schooling.....1 Primary school incomplete2 Primary school complete (std4)3 High school incomplete.....4 High school complete.....5 Further degree/Qualification incomplete...6 Further degree/Qualification complete.....7 DON'T KNOW.....8	
114	What level of schooling did your father complete?	No schooling.....1 Primary school incomplete2 Primary school complete (std4)3 High school incomplete.....4 High school complete.....5 Further degree/Qualification incomplete...6 Further degree/Qualification complete.....7 DON'T KNOW.....8	

<p>SECTION 2: CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES (FROM BIRTH TO 18 YEARS)</p> <p>I want to ask you some questions about your childhood and teenage years. Can you tell me how often the following things happened to you? I will read out some statements and I want to know if each one was never true, sometimes true, often true or very often true.</p>					
		Never 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Very Often 4
140	Before I reached 18 I did not have enough to	1	2	3	4

	eat				
141	Before I reached 18 I lived in different households at different times	1	2	3	4
142	Before I reached 18 I saw or heard my mother being beaten by her husband or boyfriend	1	2	3	4
143	Before I reached 18 I was told I was lazy or stupid or weak by someone in my family	1	2	3	4
144	Before I reached 18 someone touched my buttocks or genitals or made me touch them when I did not want to	1	2	3	4
145	Before I reached 18 I was insulted or humiliated by someone in my family in front of other people	1	2	3	4
146	Before I reached 18 I was beaten at home with a belt or stick or whip or something else which was hard	1	2	3	4
147	Before I reached 18 I had sex with a woman who was more than 5 years older than me	1	2	3	4
148	Before I reached 18 one or both of my parents were too drunk to take care of me	1	2	3	4
149	Before I reached 18 I was beaten so hard at home that it left a mark or bruise	1	2	3	4
150	Before I reached 18 I spent time outside the home and none of the adults at home knew where I was	1	2	3	4
151	Before I reached 18 I had sex with someone because I was threatened or frightened or forced	1	2	3	4
152	Before I reached 18 I was beaten or physically punished at school by a teacher	1	2	3	4
153	Before I reached 18 I was forced to have sex against my will by a boyfriend	1	2	3	4

SECTION 3: COMMUNITY IDEAS ABOUT GENDER RELATIONS (Social norms)

Now I would like to ask your opinion on some statements on what the community thinks about relations between men and women, can you tell me if your community strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with the following statements:

		SA	A	D	SD
201	My community thinks that a woman should obey her husband	1	2	3	4
202	I think that a woman should obey her husband	1	2	3	4
203	My community thinks that if a woman works she should give her money to her husband.	1	2	3	4
204	I think that if a woman works she should give her money to her husband.	1	2	3	4
205	My community thinks that a man should have the final say in all family matters.	1	2	3	4
206	I think that a man should have the final say in all family matters.	1	2	3	4
207	My community thinks that men should share the work around the house with women such as doing dishes, cleaning and cooking.	1	2	3	4
208	I think that men should share the work around the house with women such as doing dishes, cleaning and cooking.	1	2	3	4
209	My community thinks that a woman needs her husband's permission to do paid work.	1	2	3	4
210	I think that a woman needs her husband's permission to do paid work.	1	2	3	4
211	My community thinks that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband.	1	2	3	4

212	I think that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband.	1	2	3	4
213	My community thinks that children belong to a man and his family.	1	2	3	4
214	I think that children belong to a man and his family.	1	2	3	4
215	My community thinks that there is nothing a woman can do if her husband wants to have girlfriends.	1	2	3	4
216	I think that there is nothing a woman can do if her husband wants to have girlfriends.	1	2	3	4
217	My community thinks that if a wife does something wrong her husband has the right to punish her	1	2	3	4
218	I think that if a wife does something wrong her husband has the right to punish her	1	2	3	4
219	My community thinks that if a man has paid Lobola for his wife, he owns her.	1	2	3	4
220	I think that if a man has paid Lobola for his wife, he owns her.	1	2	3	4
221	My community thinks that if a man has paid Lobola for his wife, she must have sex when he wants it.	1	2	3	4
222	I think that if a man has paid Lobola for his wife, she must have sex when he wants it	1	2	3	4
223	My community thinks that if a man beats you it shows that he loves you.	1	2	3	4
224	I think that if a man beats you it shows that he loves you.	1	2	3	4
225	My community thinks that people should be treated the same whether they are male or female	1	2	3	4

226	I think that people should be treated the same whether they are male or female	1	2	3	4
SECTION 4: COMMUNITY IDEAS ABOUT RAPE:					
Now I would like to ask what the community thinks, can you tell me if your community strongly agrees, agrees, disagrees or strongly disagrees with the following statements:					
227	My community thinks that when a woman is raped, she is usually to blame for putting herself in that situation.	SA 1	A 2	D 3	SD 4
228	I think that when a woman is raped, she is usually to blame for putting herself in that situation.	1	2	3	4
229	My community thinks that in some rape cases women actually want it to happen.	1	2	3	4
230	I think that in some rape cases women actually want it to happen.	1	2	3	4
231	My community thinks that if a woman doesn't physically fight back, it's not rape.	1	2	3	4
232	I think that if a woman doesn't physically fight back, it's not rape.	1	2	3	4
233	My community thinks that it is possible for a woman to be raped by her husband	1	2	3	4
234	I think that it is possible for a woman to be raped by her husband	1	2	3	4
235	My community thinks that in any rape case one would have to question whether the victim is promiscuous.	1	2	3	4
236	I think that in any rape case one would have to question whether the victim is promiscuous	1	2	3	4

Thank you for answering those. We know it was a lot of questions but we hope you found them interesting. We want to ask you a few more that are very similar.

	SECTION 5: GENDER EQUITABLE MEN SCALE	SA	A	D	SD
250	You don't talk about sex, you just do it.	1	2	3	4
251	There are times when a woman deserves to be beaten.	1	2	3	4
252	Changing nappies, giving kids a bath, and feeding the kids are the mother's responsibility.	1	2	3	4
253	It is a woman's responsibility to avoid getting pregnant.	1	2	3	4
253 b	A man should have the final word about decisions in his home.	1	2	3	4
254	Men are always ready to have sex.	1	2	3	4
254 b	If someone insults me, I will defend my reputation, with force if I have to.	1	2	3	4
255	I would be outraged if my wife asked me to use a condom.	1	2	3	4
256	To be a man, you need to be tough.	1	2	3	4
257	Men should be embarrassed if they are unable to get an erection during sex.	1	2	3	4

SECTION 6: WITNESSING DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

We are going to ask you a few questions about witnessing domestic violence in your community. This is not about your personal experiences of violence.

350	Do you know of anyone that has been abused by her husband/boyfriend in your community?	YES 1 NO.....0	
351	Do you know of anyone that has been abused by her husband/boyfriend in your family?	YES 1 NO.....0	
352	How often have you talked to someone about domestic violence?	Never 1 Once/or twice 2 Sometimes 3 Often 4	
353	Have you ever personally intervened in violence in a relationship?	YES 1 NO.....0	→300
354	Has this happened in the past 12 months?	YES 1 NO.....0	
355	What did you do to intervene?	Called the police 1 Tried to make the man stop abusing his wife/girlfriend 2 Tried to make the wife/girlfriend stop doing things to make her husband abuse her 3 Reported to the family 4 Other 5	

SECTION 8: PARTNER

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP
401	Do you currently have a girlfriend or are you married or living with a woman or are you a widower, separated or divorced or married in a polygamous relationship or have a same sex partner?	MARRIED TO A WOMAN..... 1 LIVING WITH WOMAN 2 GIRLFRIEND 3 NO GIRLFRIEND 4 IN A SAME SEX RELATIONSHIP 5 WIDOWER.....6 SEPARATED.....7 DIVORCED.....8 POLYGAMOUS MARRIAGE.....9	→403 →403 →403 →406 →406 →403 →403 →403 →402
402	If you are in a polygamous marriage, in addition to your wives, are you having sex with someone else?	Yes 1 No0	
403	How old is your current or most recent girlfriend/wife?	17 or younger.....1 18-20.....2 21-24.....3 25-29.....4 30-34.....5 35-39.....6 40-44.....7 45 or older.....8	

CHECK if NOT MARRIED, GO TO q407

404	How old were you when you got married?	17 or younger.....1 18-20.....2 21-24.....3 25-29.....4 30-34.....5 35-39.....6 40-44.....7 45 or older.....8 Never married 9	→407
405	What were the circumstances around getting married? Was it an arranged marriage, was it abduction, did you elope or was it for love?	Arranged 1 Abducted 2 Elopement 3 Love 4	
406	Have you ever had a girlfriend or wife?	YES.....1 NO0	→ 543
407	Does your current or most recent girlfriend/wife drink alcohol? How often?	EVERY DAY/NEARLY EVERY DAY.....1 ONLY AT WEEKENDS.....2 A FEW TIMES IN A MONTH.....3 LESS THAN ONCE A MONTH.....4 NEVER 5 NOT NOW.....6 DON'T KNOW.....7	
410	Is your wife or girlfriend your ONLY partner?	NO.....0 YES.....1	

RELATIONSHIP CONTROL SCALE

Thank you for answering those. Now we want to ask you some more about your relationship your wife or girlfriend. We will read some statements and we want to know for each if you Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree or Strongly Disagree.

		SA	A	D	SD
450	I become jealous when she wears things that make her look too beautiful	1	2	3	4
451	I have more to say than she does about important decisions that affect us.	1	2	3	4
452	I never tell her who she can see or spend time with.	1	2	3	4
453	I like to do what I want, even if she doesn't want me to.	1	2	3	4
454	When she and I disagree, I get my way most of the time.	1	2	3	4
455	I like to know where she is most of the time	1	2	3	4
456	I expect her to do things for me like my ironing and cooking	1	2	3	4
457	I let her know that she is not the only girlfriend I have or could have	1	2	3	4
458	When I want sex I expect her to agree	1	2	3	4
459	If she asked me to use a condom I would get angry	1	2	3	4
450	If she asked me to use a condom I would think she is having sex with other people	1	2	3	4
451	If she asked me to use a condom I would hit her	1	2	3	4
SECTION 20: CAMPAIGNS AND LAWS AROUND THE PREVENTION OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN					
801	Do you know of events or campaigns on gender based violence?	YES 1			→ 820
		NO 0			
802	Please tell me where you know these campaigns/events on gender based violence from:	On the radio 1			
		In the newspaper2			
		On TV 3			
		From a neighbour /friend 4			
		Community meeting/Imbizo ... 5			
		Other 6			

803	Have you heard about Protection Orders?	YES 1 NO 0	
804	Have you heard about People Opposed to Women Abuse (POWA)?	YES 1 NO 0	
805	Have you heard about Gender Links?	YES 1 NO 0	
806	Have you heard about Soul City?	YES 1 NO 0	
807	Have you heard about the Stop Women Abuse telephone Helpline?	YES 1 NO 0	→ 810
808	Have you ever made use of the Stop Women Abuse telephone Helpline?	YES 1 NO 0	
809	Which symbol do you most associate with campaigns to end gender violence?	The dove1 The drum2 The white ribbon3 A butterfly being set free... 4	
810	Which slogan do you most associate with campaigns to end gender violence	Act against abuse..... 1 Peace begins at home 2 Don't look away.....3 Real men don't abuse.....4	
811	In the past 12 months, have you heard of, or seen anything on the 16 Days campaign?	YES 1 NO 0	
812	In the past 12 months, have you heard of, or seen anything on the 365 Days campaign?	YES 1 NO 0	
813	Have you ever participated in a march or event to protest against violence against women?	YES 1 NO 0	

814	Have you ever participated in a cyber dialogue on gender-based violence?	YES 1 NO 0					→ 819
815	Which statement best describes how you felt about participating in cyber dialogues?	Being in an anonymous space helped me speak out 1 I got help through the chat 2 I felt empowered by this technology..... 3 The chatting made very little difference to me 4					
816	Which statement best describes your reaction to campaigns to end gender violence?	I feel empowered 1 I feel angry 2 I feel helpless 3 I feel I am not alone 4 I feel indifferent 5 None of the above 6					
Please say whether you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with the following statements:							
		SA	A	D	SD	Don't know	
817	Campaigns to end violence against women have to make people more aware that this is a violation of women's rights	0	1	2	3	4	
818	Campaigns to end violence against women have helped to change the attitudes of men.	0	1	2	3	4	
819	Campaigns to end violence against women have made women more aware of where to go for help	0	1	2	3	4	
820	Campaigns to end violence against women have made politicians take action to end gender violence	0	1	2	3	4	
821	Campaigns to end violence against women only happen once a year therefore they are of little value	0	1	2	3	4	

822	Are there any laws in South Africa that protect women and children against violence or abuse?	Yes.....1 No.....0 Don't know.....99	→ 825
823	Have you heard about the law against domestic violence in South Africa (Domestic Violence Act)?	YES 1 NO 0	→ 823
824	Where did you hear about it?	On the radio 1 In the newspaper2 On TV 3 From a neighbour /friend 4 Community meeting/Imbizo ... 5 Other 6	
825	Have you heard about the new law against sexual violence and rape in South Africa? (Sexual Offences Act)?	YES 1 NO 0	→ 825
826	Where did you hear about it?	On the radio 1 In the newspaper2 On TV 3 From a neighbour /friend 4 Community meeting/Imbizo ... 5 Other 6	

827	<p>The news sometimes shows very sexual images of women. When you see something like this in the news how do you respond?</p> <p>Pick the one that describes your main response.</p>	<p>I find these stories and images entertaining and/or interesting1</p> <p>I don't really notice them2</p> <p>I feel uncomfortable when I see them3</p> <p>I feel they are insulting to women.....4</p> <p>They encourage me to buy the newspaper or watch the news 5</p>	
828	<p>Which statement best describes your view of media coverage of violence against women?</p>	<p>It is fair and balanced; the media gives the facts as they are 1</p> <p>It is biased against women; the voices of those most affected is seldom heard.....2</p> <p>It is biased against men; they are always treated as though they are to blame 3</p> <p>It fuels such violence even more by naming victims and showing little sensitivity towards them..... 4</p> <p>None of the above 5</p>	
829	<p>How do you think the media could best improve its coverage of gender violence?</p>	<p>By relying less on what they hear in court and more on talking to survivors of violence 1</p> <p>By being less sensational 2</p> <p>By having more women reporters covering such stories3</p> <p>By respecting the privacy of victims..... 4</p>	



R14/49 Ms Shoeshoe Mokotla

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (MEDICAL)
CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE NO. M170747

NAME: Ms Shoeshoe Mokotla
(Principal Investigator)
DEPARTMENT: School of Public Health

PROJECT TITLE: Factors Associated with Inequitable Gender Beliefs and Subjective Norms among Men 18 Years and Above in Gauteng

DATE CONSIDERED: 28/07/2017

DECISION: Approved unconditionally

CONDITIONS:

SUPERVISOR: Nicola Christofides and Mercilene Machisa

APPROVED BY: 
Prof P Cleaton-Jones, Chairperson, HREC (Medical)

DATE OF APPROVAL: 14/08/2017

This clearance certificate is valid for 5 years from date of approval. Extension may be applied for.

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATORS

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Research Office Secretary in Room 301, Third floor, Faculty of Health Sciences, Phillip Tobias Building, 29 Princess of Wales Terrace, Parktown, 2193, University of the Witwatersrand. I/we fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the above-mentioned research and I/we undertake to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure be contemplated, from the research protocol as approved, I/we undertake to resubmit the application to the Committee. **I agree to submit a yearly progress report.** The date for annual re-certification will be one year after the date of convened meeting the study was initially reviewed. In this case, the study was initially reviewed in July and will therefore be due in the month of July each year. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Medical).

Principal Investigator Signature

Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix C Ethics Approval



ETHICS COMMITTEE

PO Box 19070, Tygerberg 7505, South Africa,
Francie van Zijl Drive, Parow Valley 7500, Cape Town.
Tel: +27 (0)21 938 0341, Fax: +27 (0)21 938 0201
Email: adri.labuschagne@mrc.ac.za
<http://www.sahhealthinfo.org/ethics/ethics.htm>

30 November 2009

Ms N Christofides
School of Public Health
University of the Witwatersrand/Gender and Health Research Unit

Dear Ms Christofides

Protocol ID: EC09-012
Protocol title: Relationships and health in Gauteng: A household survey
Meeting date: 23 November 2009

Thank you for your response to the Committee, dated 6 November 2009. The Committee granted ethics approval for the study, provided that the following changes are made to the information sheets and consent forms - copies of the amended forms must be submitted for the Committee's records:

1. For focus groups, it must be stated that only the researcher can ensure confidentiality, but that participants will be requested to maintain confidentiality.
2. All the information sheets should mention audiotaping. There should be a request for permission to audiotape, not just a statement that it will be done, with a statement that the tapes will be kept under lock and key and destroyed 2 years after publication of the research.

Wishing you well with your research.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'D. Du Toit'.

PROF. D DU TOIT
CHAIRPERSON: MRC ETHICS COMMITTEE



Appendix D Letter of Permission



The Secretary of the Committee

University of Witwatersrand

Human Research Ethics Council

27 June 2017

Dear Sir or Madam

REF: PERMISSION TO USE DATA FOR MASTERS RESEARCH PROJECT

This letter serves to confirm that we have allowed Ms Shoeshoe Mokotla (Student Number: 1429658), an MPH student, access to the SAMRC and Gender Links Gauteng Research data. Ms Mokotla may use the men's data set and perform secondary analyses to suit her research objectives. The data will be made available to her on approval of the ethics submission. As co-supervisor on Ms Mokotla's research project, I will provide support in the interpretation and presentation of her findings. However, for every publication ensuing from the SAMRC and Gender Links data, Ms Mokotla is required to appropriately acknowledge the organisations and funders.

Should you require any further clarifications, kindly contact the Ms Mercilene Machisa on +27123398596 or email Mercilene.Machisa@mrc.ac.za

Yours sincerely

Ms Mercilene T Machisa

Senior Scientist and Project Manager

Appendix E Consent form

I hereby confirm that the person seeking my informed consent to participate in this study has given me information to my satisfaction. He explained to me the purpose, procedures involved, risks and benefits and my rights as a participant in the study. I have received the information leaflet for the study and have had enough time to read it on my own and ask questions. I feel that questions regarding participation in the study have been answered to my satisfaction. I have been told that information I give to the study will together with other information gathered from other people, be anonymously processed into a research report and scientific publication.

I am aware that it is my right to withdraw my consent in the study without any prejudice. I hereby, freely and voluntarily give my consent to participate in the study.

Participant's name..... (Please print)

Participant's signature.....Date.....

Researcher's name..... (Please print)

Researcher's signature Date.....

Witness's name..... (Please print)

Witness's signature..... Date.....

Appendix F Plagiarism form

PLAGIARISM DECLARATION TO BE SIGNED BY ALL HIGHER DEGREE STUDENTS

SENATE PLAGIARISM POLICY: APPENDIX ONE

I **Shoeshoe Matumelo Mokotla** (Student number: **1429658**) am a student registered for the degree of **Master of Public Health MC 017** in the academic year **2018**.

I hereby declare the following:

- ❖ I am aware that plagiarism (the use of someone else's work without their permission and/or without acknowledging the original source) is wrong.
- ❖ I confirm that the work submitted for assessment for the above degree is my own unaided work except where I have explicitly indicated otherwise.
- ❖ I have followed the required conventions in referencing the thoughts and ideas of others.
- ❖ I understand that the University of the Witwatersrand may take disciplinary action against me if there is a belief that this is not my own unaided work or that I have failed to acknowledge the source of the ideas or words in my writing.

Signature: 

Date: **01/03/2018**

