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Viewers' Perceptions of Objectified Images of Women in Alcohol Advertisements and Their Intentions to Intervene in Alcohol-Facilitated Sexual Assault Situations

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Alcohol-facilitated sexual assault is a serious problem on college campuses, and bystander intervention has been shown to be a successful method in reducing sexual assaults. Although there are a number of factors associated with individuals' intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations, the media's cultural scripts that link alcohol consumption to sexual success may play a role. Alcohol advertisements, in particular, routinely portray women as sexual objects and often link alcohol consumption to sexual success; therefore, exposure to such content may be negatively associated with people's intentions to intervene in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations. Thus, the current study investigated if exposure to and perceptions of objectified images of women in alcoholic beverage advertisements were associated with college students' intentions to intervene in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations. Undergraduate college students (N = 1208) were randomly assigned to view three alcohol advertisements that either included highly-objectified or low-objectified women, and then they reported their perceptions of the women in each of the alcohol advertisements and their intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations. Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that individuals' perceptions of alcohol advertisements moderate the relationship between exposure to objectifying alcohol advertisements and intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations.

As many as one in five U.S. college women reported being sexually assaulted during their tenure at college (Fedina, Holmes, & Backes, 2018; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2009), and many of these assaults were likely facilitated by alcohol (Fedina et al., 2018; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016). Sexual assault risk is highest for women between the ages of 18 and 24 (Sinozich & Langton, 2014) and college students are particularly at risk for unwanted sexual contact and sexual coercion (Fedina et al., 2018). Further, most victims of college sexual assault reported that at the time of the assault both they and the perpetrator had been drinking alcohol (Hines, Armstrong, Reed, & Cameron, 2012). Although research has established alcohol and drug use impairs decision making (De Wit, 2009; Loeber et al., 2009), just 24 U.S. states statutorily define that someone under the influence of such substances are incapacitated and cannot consent to sexual activity (DMatteo, Galloway, Arnold & Patel, 2015).

Alcohol advertising regulations specify that advertisers cannot rely on sexual prowess or success as a means of promoting

alcohol consumption (Beer Institute, n.d.; DISCUS, 2011). Yet advertisements that sell alcohol often use sexual appeals and link alcohol consumption to sexual prowess (Austin & Hust, 2005; Morgenstern et al., 2015; Padon, Rimal, Jernigan, Siegel, & DeJong, 2016; Rhoades & Jernigan, 2013). As much as 70% of alcohol advertisements focus on women's sex appeal, and many of these ads objectify women or include sexual connotations (Austin & Hust, 2005; Padon et al., 2016; Rhoades & Jernigan, 2013). A recent analysis of televised advertisements from the top 20 alcohol brands identified that the dominant theme, which was present in 42% of all ads, emphasized partying, love, and sex (Morgenstern et al., 2015).

Such content may reflect how young people use alcohol as they often consume alcohol while attending large-group parties. In fact, young people commonly use alcohol in settings where bystanders are present (Haikalis, Leone, Parrott, & DiLillo, 2018) so it is likely that bystanders have opportunities to help reduce alcohol-facilitated sexual assault (Planty, 2002). Planty (2002) identified that nearly one-third of situations involving sexual violence occur in the presence of bystanders. Similarly, 34% of victims surveyed by Haikalis et al. (2018) reported that bystanders were present before their assault, and the majority of these victims (67%) thought the bystander had an opportunity to prevent the sexual assault from occurring. Bystanders can act in numerous ways including interrupting aggressive situations before they happen or while they are in progress, speaking out

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against norms and attitudes that could lead to assault, calling appropriate authority figures to action and serving as an effective ally to survivors (Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2005). Intervention occurs when a potential active bystander notices, interprets and takes responsibility for intervening in a problematic situation. They must then decide on the best course of action to take and then act accordingly (Berkowitz, 2009; Burn, 2009; Latané & Darley, 1968).

Yet research also indicates that such bystanders face barriers to intervening. Individuals who do not take intervention seriously, who fear they do not have the skills to successfully intervene, or who worry how their peers will respond to their actions may fail to intervene (Bennett, Banyard, & Garnhart, 2014). In contrast, improved efficacy and a sense of responsibility are associated with intentions to intervene (Moynihan, Banyard, Arnold, Eckstein, & Stapleton, 2011). Banyard (2011) also proposed an ecological model for understanding factors that influence bystander intentions. She argued that factors external to the individual, such as societal norms and situation-specific indicators, may influence individuals' intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations.

Previous studies have identified some factors associated with bystander intervention including higher levels of prosocial tendencies, (Carlo, Hausmann, Christiansen, & Randall, 2003), higher perceptions of control over one's life, a greater sense of community, and friendship with victims (Bennett et al., 2014). In addition, previous research has established that gender, gender stereotypical beliefs, and exposure to media, in general, can be negatively associated with individual's intentions to intervene in a sexual assault situation (Hust et al., 2013; Moynihan & Banyard, 2008). Further, exposure to media that promotes female objectification was associated with rape myth acceptance and lower intentions to intervene in a sexual assault situation (Hust et al., 2013; Hust, Marett, Lei, Ren, & Ran, 2015; Potter, Moynihan, Stapleton, & Banyard, 2009).

Based on Banyard's work, this study considers how several personal and social factors are associated with bystander intervention in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations. Although some existing research has identified that exposure to objectifying content is associated with lower intentions to intervene, this research has been limited to cross-sectional studies and has not focused on content that specifically promotes alcohol consumption (Hust et al., 2013, 2013, 2015). The current study experimentally tested how exposure to and perceptions of highly-objectified and low-objectified images of women in alcoholic beverage advertisements were associated with college students' intentions to intervene in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations.

Gender, Gender Stereotypical Beliefs, and Bystander Intervention

Numerous studies have found that gender is an important variable in willingness to intervene in sexual assaults. Women were more likely to intervene in sexual assault situations than their male counterparts (Banyard, 2008; Burn, 2009). This may be due to women's identification with the victim (Bell, Kuriloff, & Lottes, 1994). Men and women intervene in different ways, as well. Women were more likely to intervene by helping the

victim; whereas, men were more likely to try and stop the perpetrators (Burn, 2009; Chabot, Tracy, Manning, & Poisson, 2009). Based on the gender differences in bystander intervention in sexual assaults, we conducted our analyses separately for men and women.

Adherence to gender-related stereotypical beliefs had negative effects on bystander intentions (Banyard, 2011). Gender stereotypes refer to stereotypical roles and ideas about men and women's roles, appearance, behaviors, and occupations (Chandler & Munday, 2011). The gender stereotypes in the media include constructions of women as sexually available and compliant while men are portrayed as more dominant and sexually aggressive (Chandler & Munday, 2011). Previous studies have found that compared to men, for example, women are more likely to be portrayed as passive, domestic, and dependent than their male counterparts in television and radio advertising (Austin & Hust, 2005; Eisend, 2010; Matthes, Prieler, & Adam, 2016). Furthermore, rape myth acceptance, an attitudinal measure rooted in gender role stereotypes, was negatively associated with intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations (Hust, Lei et al., 2013; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011).

The Media's Role in Attitudes and Intentions Related to Bystander Intervention

Content analyses indicate the media frequently portray women and men in stereotypical ways that emphasize men's dominance and women's subservience (Chandler & Munday, 2011; Hust & Brown, 2008). Magazines, in particular, include content that reinforces gender stereotypes (Carpenter, 1998; Hust & Brown, 2008; Ménard & Kleinplatz, 2008; Stibbe, 2004; Taylor, 2005, 2006; Walsh-Childers, Gotthoffer, & Lepre, 2002). Although researchers have identified that some women's magazines include portrayals of sexually assertive women who pursue their sexual desire and sexual fulfillment (Kim & Ward, 2004), teen girl magazines often simultaneously provided contradictory messages of female independence and submission to men (Kim & Ward, 2004). Men's magazines, in contrast, emphasized men's sexual aggression even in content that seemingly focused on women's agency and sexual pleasure (Taylor, 2005).

In addition to general magazine content, alcohol advertisements reinforce gender stereotypes. Content analyses of alcohol advertisements indicate they routinely portray women as sexual objects and often link alcohol consumption to sexual success (Lin, 1998; Rhoades & Jernigan, 2013). The "sex kitten" stereotype of women was identified as a recurring motif in beer commercials that associated beer drinking with a predominantly male market (Solomon, Ashmore, & Longo, 1992). Women in alcohol advertisements are rarely shown as functional characters, but instead are commonly used as decorative and objectified objects (Austin & Hust, 2005). In contrast, men in alcohol advertisements are far more likely to be shown in a functional role (Krassas, Blauwkamp, & Wesselink, 2003). Taken together, these content analyses indicate alcohol advertisements often portray a gendered power differential in which men are depicted as functional and dominant, and women are portrayed as subservient, sexual objects. In particular, the objectification of women suggests that a woman's primary purpose is as an object to be

used for another's sexual gratification (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Szymanski, Moffitt, & Carr, 2011).

Such portrayals emphasize power differentials in romantic relationships, and may influence individuals' beliefs and intentions related to sexual assault. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 2001) can explain how exposure to objectified media may influence individuals' intentions and behaviors. According to social cognitive theory, the media presents individuals with models for behavior, and viewers are likely to mimic actions that are rewarded in the media (Bandura, 2001). Vicarious learning allows people to internalize values that help determine their perceptions of reality and in turn influences real-world behaviors and attitudes (McCombs, Eyal, Graber, & Weaver, 1981). Further, heterosexual script theory (Kim et al., 2007; Tolman, Kim, Schooler, & Sorsoli, 2007) suggests sexual content in the media can influence people's sexual beliefs and behaviors by providing schemas for how men and women should behave in romantic and sexual relationships. Such heterosexual scripts endorse a sexual double standard that suggests men should be sexually aggressive and women should be objectified and judged for their sexual availability (Carpenter, 1998; Hust, Brown, & L'Engle, 2008; Ménard & Kleinplatz, 2008; Stibbe, 2004; Taylor, 2005, 2006; Walsh-Childers et al., 2002). In addition, these images normalize traditional ideas of women as sexual objects (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Szymanski et al., 2011). Taken together, social cognitive theory and heterosexual script theory suggests viewers' beliefs and behaviors will be influenced by the media's positive portrayals of gender stereotypes.

Viewing media content that emphasizes traditional gender stereotypes, such as men's sexual aggression and women's sexual passivity, can reinforce individuals' adherence to such stereotypes (Aubrey, Hopper, & Mbure, 2011; Galdi, Maass, & Cadinu, 2014; Kaloff, 1999; Lee, Hust, Zhang, & Zhang, 2011; Ward, Hansbrough, & Walker, 2005). Further, exposure to media's objectified images of women and gender stereotypical content negatively affects women's sexual agency through its association with gender stereotypical beliefs and self-objectification (Nowatzki & Morry, 2009; Seabrook et al., 2017; Ward et al., 2018). Exposure to women's magazines, specifically, was associated with women's greater self-sexualization, which in turn, was linked to lower sexual self-efficacy and greater use of alcohol to feel sexual (Ward et al., 2018).

Coy and Horvath (2011) posited exposure to the traditional gender scripts in men's magazines would be associated with acceptance of men's sexual aggression, and recent investigations of the magazines' effects support their claim. After viewing covers of lad magazines, men who accepted rape myths and who perceived that lad magazines were a source of information reported greater rape proclivity (Romero-Sánchez, Toro-García, Horvath, & Megías, 2017). Similarly, in another study, exposure to men's magazines was associated with the acceptance of women's objectification, which in turn, was positively associated with the acceptance of violence against women (Wright & Tokunaga, 2016). Men who were exposed to gender stereotypical content in magazines reported greater acceptance of casual sex and higher numbers of sexual partners (Ward et al.,

2011; Bleakley, Hennessy, Fishbein, & Jordan, 2009; Kim & Ward, 2004; Taylor, 2006). Exposure to men's magazines was also significantly associated with lower intentions to seek sexual consent and lower intentions to adhere to decisions about sexual consent (Hust et al., 2014).

Individuals who view the traditional gender stereotypes in the media may also be less likely to exhibit bystander attitudes and behavior (Bandura, 2001; Burn, 2009; Galdi et al., 2014). Two existing studies identified exposure to gender stereotypical television media content was associated with lower intentions to intervene in a sexual assault situation (Hust et al., 2013, 2015). Further, portrayals that normalize the link between alcohol use and the objectification of women may also be associated with intentions to intervene in sexual assaults, particularly assaults that involve alcohol. Exposure to the stereotypical content may reduce individuals' likelihood to identify problematic sexual behavior involving alcohol and therefore will reduce bystander behavior and attitudes. To this end, in the current study we experimentally tested the effects of alcohol advertisements that objectified women in comparison to alcohol advertisements that were digitally altered to include low-objectified portrayals of women.

Perceptions of women as sexual objects may also be associated with participants' intentions to intervene given that individuals may treat women they view as objects more negatively (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Szymanski et al., 2011). For example, individuals reported lower intentions to intervene if the potential victim was scantily dressed or acted provocatively (Burn, 2009) or if they perceived the victim to be promiscuous (Pugh, Ningard, Ven, & Butler, 2016). Therefore, in addition to testing the effects of the forced exposure to alcohol advertisements that contain high-objectified and low-objectified images of women, it is also important to consider participants' perceptions of the women in the alcohol advertisements. Based on the existing literature, we test the following hypotheses and pose the following research question:

H1: Adherence to gender stereotypes will be negatively associated with intentions to intervene in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations.

H2: Exposure to men's magazines will be negatively associated with intentions to intervene in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations.

H3: Exposure to alcohol advertisements that feature high-objectified portrayals of women will be negatively associated with intentions to intervene in an alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situation.

RQ1: How will exposure to women's magazines be associated with intentions to intervene in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations?

RQ2: How will participants' perceptions of women in the alcohol advertisements be associated with their intentions to intervene in an alcohol-facilitated sexual assault?

Method

Sample and Procedure

Participants were recruited from communication and human development courses in a large Northwestern University and were given extra credit for participation. Of the 1234 students who began the study, 26 were ineligible to participate because they were under the age of 18, thus resulting in a final sample of 1208. About 68.7% of the participants were female ($n = 830$), and 31.3% were male ($n = 378$). The majority of participants identified as white (69.5%, $n = 840$), 8.2% Hispanic, 8.1% Asian or Pacific Islander, 4.6%, African American, and 7.3% indicated multi-racial, and 2.2% did not specify their race. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 25, and 88.7% were below age 21.

We conducted an online experiment using the survey software Qualtrics. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two experimental conditions which both featured three alcohol advertisements. In the first condition, the three advertisements were selected from mainstream magazines through quantitative and qualitative pretests and included highly-objectified images of women (i.e., a woman exposing her leopard print underwear). In the second condition, the three advertisements were similar to the ones in the first condition but were digitally altered to remove the objectified content. For example, the woman in the digitally altered advertisement was wearing a leopard print dress. Both the original and altered advertisements were pretested via focus groups with college students, and revisions were made to the altered advertisements until the stimuli were overall similar with the exception that the female models in the advertisements were not as objectified according to viewers' assessments. Next all ads were quantitatively pilot tested with 87 college students to determine that they differed in regard to sexual appeal (see Fitts, 2010 for more detail). In the current study, after exposure to each advertisement, participants were asked to respond to twenty-one statements regarding their perceptions of the women in the advertisement. Participants then completed questions related to their intentions to intervene in a sexual assault situation that involved alcohol.

Measures

Gender Stereotypes

This was measured by 14 items that were summed and averaged to yield a reliable scale ($\alpha = 0.87$) that was adapted from a previous study (Ward et al., 2005). Items included "Women should be more concerned about their appearance than men" and "Men want sex; women want relationships." Participants were asked to indicate on a 4-point Likert-type scale how much they agreed or disagreed with each statement about sexual stereotypes (1 = *strongly disagree*, 4 = *strongly agree*).

Consumption of Women's Magazines

This was measured by two items that were adapted from a previous study (Hust et al., 2014). Participants indicated how often they read women's and teen girls magazines separately on a 6-point Likert-

type scale (1 = *not at all*, 6 = *multiple times a day*). These two items were summed and averaged, $r = 0.70$, $p < .001$.

Consumption of Men's Magazines

This was measured by two items that were adapted from a previous study (Hust et al., 2014). Participants indicated how often they read men's and young boys'/lad magazines separately on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all*, 6 = *multiple times a day*). These two items were summed and averaged, $r = 0.77$, $p < .001$.

Exposure to Objectified Alcohol Advertisements

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two experimental conditions. In condition 1, participants viewed three images of highly-objectified women in alcohol advertisements (coded as 1). In the second condition, participants viewed three images of low-objectified women in alcohol advertisements (coded as 0).

Perceptions of the Women in the Alcohol Ads

This was measured by 25 items. Participants' perceptions of the women in all three alcohol advertisements were summed across the three advertisements in each condition and averaged to account for their total perception. Principal component analyses with Varimax rotation were then conducted to examine the factors in participants' perceptions of women in the three advertisements. Four of the 25 perception items did not truly measure the perception of the women in the ads or were redundant with other items (gazed at, looking directly at me, looking away from me, and fully clothed) and so they were removed. Thus 21 items were included in the factor analysis. The analysis did not restrict the number of factors, and eigenvalues greater than one were used as the critical value in analyzing factors. The final result yielded four factors, with one cross loaded item removed (intelligent). These factors were summed and averaged to create the final perception variables.

Perceived Women as Victims. Participants responded on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 4 = *strongly agree*) about how much they agreed or disagreed that women in the advertisements were helpless, powerless, treated badly, and made to look like a non-living object, $\alpha = 0.80$.

Perceived Women as Appealing. Participants responded on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 4 = *strongly agree*) about how much they agreed or disagreed that women in the advertisements were glamorous, attractive, and popular. These three items were summed and averaged, $\alpha = 0.80$.

Perceived Women with Agency. Participants responded on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 4 = *strongly agree*) about how much they agreed or disagreed that women in the advertisements were actively completing a task, powerful, strong, in control of the situation, and physically aggressive, $\alpha = 0.73$.

Perceived Women as Sexualized. Participants responded on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 4 = *strongly agree*) about how much they agreed or disagreed that women in the advertisements were scantily clothed, sexually alluring to

men, and shown with only part of their body revealed to the viewers, $\alpha = 0.81$.

Intentions to Intervene in an Alcohol-Facilitated Sexual Assault Situation

Participants were asked on a 7-point Likert-type scale to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with 3 items about their intentions to intervene in a sexual assault situation that involved alcohol (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Items included the following: “I would discourage a friend if he/she was planning to get a person drunk to have sex,” “I would intervene if I witnessed a friend trying to coerce an intoxicated person into having sex with him or her,” and “I would warn someone if I saw a drug being slipped into their drink.” Items were adapted from a previous study (Hust, Rodgers, Ebreo, & Stefani, 2019), and were summed and averaged with a reliability score of 0.85.

Data Analysis Strategy

First, independent-sample t-tests were used to test gender differences in independent and dependent variables. Second, hierarchical regression analyses with four blocks were conducted separately for men and women to test the hypotheses and research questions. Gender stereotypes and magazine consumption were entered in the first block, exposure to objectified ads was entered in the second block, and perceptions of women in the advertisement variables were entered in the third block. To test the interaction between exposure to alcohol ads and perceptions of ads, interaction terms were created and entered in the fourth and final block. The interaction effects were reported only when they were significant.

Results

In general, participants reported that they intended to intervene in an alcohol-facilitated sexual assault, ($M = 6.11$, $SD = 1.16$), and women ($M = 6.32$, $SD = 1.04$) reported significantly greater intentions to intervene than men ($M = 5.64$, $SD = 1.27$). Gender differences were found in gender stereotypes, magazine consumption, and perceptions of alcohol advertisements, as listed

in Table 1. In addition, randomization checks revealed that the two conditions did not differ in age, race, or gender.

The first hypothesis (H1) predicted that adherence to gender stereotypes would be negatively associated with intentions to intervene, and this was supported by the results. For both females and males, adhering to gender stereotypes was negatively related to intentions to intervene, for males $\beta = -.21$, $t(297) = -3.69$, $p < .001$, for females, $\beta = -.17$, $t(689) = -4.64$, $p < .001$ (see Tables 2 and 3). This means that the more one adheres to gender stereotypical beliefs, the lower intention one has to intervene in a sexual assault situation that includes alcohol.

Hypothesis two predicted that exposure to men’s magazines would be negatively associated with intentions to intervene. According to the findings, consumption of men’s magazines was not significantly associated with intentions to intervene for males; whereas among females reading men and lad’s magazines was negatively related to intentions to intervene, $\beta = -.14$, $t(689) = -3.76$, $p < .001$. Therefore, H2 was not supported in our male sample, but was supported in our female sample. In other words, for females, reading these magazines was associated with lower intentions to intervene. In contrast, reading women’s magazines was not significantly associated with intentions to intervene for either women or men (RQ1).

Hypothesis three predicted that exposure to images of highly-objectified women in alcohol advertisements would be negatively associated with intentions to intervene, and this was supported by the results. Although exposure to alcohol ads was not significant at the point of entry in the model, it became significant in the final block when participants’ perceptions of women in the advertisements and the significant interactions were introduced in the model. Exposure to the highly-objectified condition was negatively associated with intentions to intervene for both men and women in the final model, for males, $\beta = -.17$, $t(297) = -2.56$, $p = .01$, and for females, $\beta = -.15$, $t(689) = -2.95$, $p < .01$.

The second research question about the association between participants’ perceptions of women in the alcohol advertisements and intentions to intervene was examined. The results indicated that perceptions of women in the ads were significant for both females and males. Specifically, for males, perceiving women in the ads as appealing, $\beta = .21$, $t(297) = 2.46$, $p = .02$, and perceiving women in the ads as sexualized were positively related to their

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of key measures and differences by gender

Measures (Scale)	Total Mean (SD)	Male Mean(SD)	Female Mean(SD)	t-value
Intentions to Intervene in an alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situation (1–7)	6.11 (1.16)	5.64 (1.27)	6.32 (1.04)	8.86***
Gender Stereotypes (1–4)	2.16 (.50)	2.34 (.51)	2.09 (.48)	-7.97***
Reading Women’s Magazines (1–6)	1.43 (.67)	1.07 (.53)	1.60 (.66)	15.03***
Reading Men’s Magazines (1–6)	1.13 (.57)	1.37 (.78)	1.02 (.39)	-8.32***
Perceived Women as Appealing (1–4)	2.74 (.46)	2.82 (.45)	2.70 (.46)	-4.16***
Perceived Women as Victims (1–4)	2.09 (.40)	2.06 (.40)	2.10 (.40)	1.73
Perceived Women with Agency (1–4)	2.28 (.39)	2.38 (.40)	2.24 (.39)	-5.55***
Perceived Women as Sexualized (1–4)	2.94 (.52)	2.86 (.49)	2.97 (.53)	3.26***

*** $p < .001$

Table 2. Hierarchical regression models estimating effects of predictors on intentions to intervene for **Men** (N = 378)

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
(Constant)	-.42	.10		-.41	.10		-.38	.09		-.42	.09	
Gender Stereotypes	-.20	.06	-.19***	-.20	.06	-.19***	-.23	.06	-.22***	-.22	.06	-.21***
Reading Women’s Magazines	-.16	.10	-.10	-.15	.10	-.10	-.08	.10	-.05	-.11	.10	-.07
Reading Men’s Magazines	.06	.05	.07	.05	.05	.07	.05	.05	.06	.03	.05	.04
Exposure to Objectified Alcohol Ads				-.08	.06	-.07	-.20	.07	-.19**	-.19	.07	-.17*
Perceived Women as Appealing							.24	.09	.22*	.23	.09	.21*
Perceived Women as Victims							-.12	.07	-.11	-.12	.07	-.11
Perceived Women with Agency							-.09	.07	-.08	-.05	.07	-.05
Perceived Women as Sexualized							.24	.11	.21*	.27	.10	.23*
Exposure to Ads * Perceived Women as Victims										.19	.06	.16**
R ²		.05			.05			.16			.19	
Adjusted R ²		.04			.04			.14			.16	
F		4.76**			4.01**			7.15**			7.52***	
Change in R ²					.01			.11			.02	
F for Change in R ²					1.72			9.83***			8.92**	

Note. All variables are standardized (z-scored) to ease the interpretation of the interaction.
 * p < .05, **p < .01, *** p < .001;

Table 3. Hierarchical regression models estimating effects of predictors on intentions to intervene for **Women** (N = 830)

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	SE	β									
(Constant)	.17	.04		.16	.04		.15	.04		.14	.04	
Gender Stereotypes	-.16	.03	-.17***	-.16	.03	-.18***	-.15	.03	-.17***	-.15	.03	-.17***
Reading Women’s Magazines	-.03	.04	-.03	-.03	.04	-.03	-.01	.04	-.01	-.02	.04	-.02
Reading Men’s Magazines	-.26	.06	-.18***	-.26	.06	-.18***	-.20	.05	-.14***	-.20	.05	-.14***
Exposure to Objectified Alcohol Ads				.04	.03	.05	-.15	.05	-.18***	-.13	.05	-.15**
Perceived Women as Appealing							.04	.04	.05	.09	.04	.10*
Perceived Women as Victims							-.07	.03	-.07	-.07	.03	-.07*
Perceived Women with Agency							-.04	.04	-.04*	-.03	.04	-.03
Perceived Women as Sexualized							.30	.05	.35***	.27	.05	.31***
Exposure to Ads * Perceived Women as Appealing										-.14	.03	-.17***
R ²		.08			.08			.15			.18	
Adjusted R ²		.07			.07			.14			.17	
F		18.83***			14.52***			15.49***			16.35***	
Change in R ²					.00			.08			.02	
F for Change in R ²					1.56			15.26***			19.88***	

Note. All variables are standardized (z-scored) to ease the interpretation of the interaction.
 * p < .05, **p < .01, *** p < .001

intentions to intervene, $\beta = .23, t(294) = 2.57, p = .01$. For females, intentions to intervene were positively associated with perceiving the women in the ads as appealing, $\beta = .10, t(689) = 2.20, p = .03$, and perceiving the women in the ads as sexualized, $\beta = .31, t(689) = 2.20, p < .001$. Women’s perceptions of women in the ads as victims were negatively associated with their intentions to intervene, $\beta = -.07, t(689) = -2.05, p = .04$.

In addition, there were interaction effects between exposure to alcohol ads and perceptions of the women in the ads. For males,

there was an interaction effect between exposure to the ads and perception of the women in the ads as victims on intentions to intervene, $\beta = .16, t(297) = 2.99, p < .01$. For females, there was an interaction effect between exposure to the ads and perception of the women in the ads as appealing on intentions to intervene, $\beta = -.17, t(689) = -4.46, p < .001$. Post hoc simple slope analyses were computed to further examine the interaction effects, and were plotted (see Figures 1 and 2) for both males and females. Post hoc analyses found a significant slope for males who were exposed to

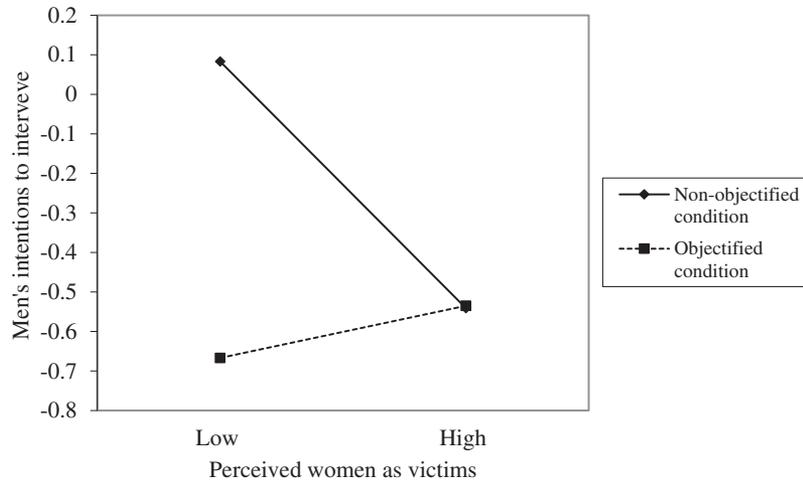


Fig. 1. Interaction effects between perceived women as victims and experimental conditions **for men**.

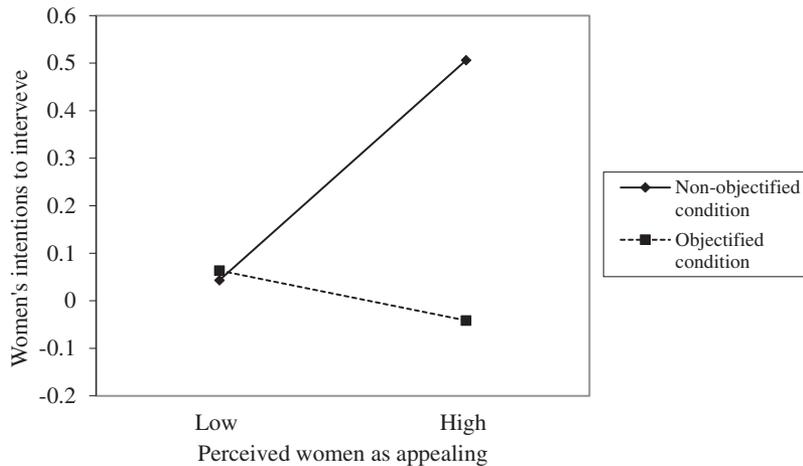


Fig. 2. Interaction effects between perceived women as appealing and experimental conditions **for women**.

low-objectified images of women and who perceived the women as victims, $\beta = -.30$, $t(297) = -3.38$, $p < .001$, but the slope was not significant for the objectified condition. A significant slope was also found for females who were exposed to low-objectified images of women and who perceived the women as appealing, $\beta = .23$, $t(689) = 3.96$, $p < .001$. The interaction effects were also plotted in Figures 1 and 2. In summary, men who were exposed to low-objectified images and perceived the women as victims reported lower intentions to intervene, and women who were exposed to low-objectified images and perceived the women as appealing reported higher intentions to intervene.

Discussion

The role of alcohol in sexual assault has long been an interest among health communication scholars, but few have examined whether alcohol advertising may contribute to beliefs associated with alcohol-facilitated sexual assault. Using social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 2001) and heterosexual scripting theory

(Kim et al., 2007; Tolman et al., 2007) as the lens through which to understand the effect of objectified alcohol advertisements on participants, this study expands on existing research that identifies media exposure as affecting viewers' intentions related to bystander intervention (Hust et al., 2013, 2013) by testing whether exposure to and perceptions of alcohol advertisements are similarly associated with such intentions related to alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations.

Previous research has identified that women were more likely than men to intervene in sexual assault situations (Banyard, 2008; Burn, 2009). Our results indicate such gender differences exist for intentions to intervene, specifically in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations. Female participants reported greater intentions to intervene than male participants. Men, however, reported significantly greater adherence to gender stereotypes than women in our sample, although adherence to gender stereotypes was negatively associated with intervening for both men and women. This finding supports existing research that suggests gender-stereotyped beliefs were

negatively associated with individuals' intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations (Banyard, 2011). Overall, these findings suggest gender differences for alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations do not differ from those that exist in sexual assault situations more generally.

Prior research on media's effects on intentions to intervene have largely focused on television media that routinely portray sexual violence (Hust et al., 2013) or on television programming that promotes gendered power differentials, such as sports programming, (Hust et al., 2013). Magazines, however, promote highly gendered content (Bazzini, Pepper, Swofford, & Cochran, 2015; Lindner, 2004), and reading men's magazines has previously been linked to the acceptance of violence against women (Wright & Tokunaga, 2016). Our results indicate that for men reading magazines was not associated with their intentions to intervene in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations. Among women, however, reading men's magazines was significantly, negatively associated with their intentions to intervene. Thus women who regularly view magazine content that promotes male dominance and male sexual aggression may view this behavior as acceptable and normal, which may prevent them from intervening to stop such behavior. It is also possible that women who choose to read men's magazines endorse such stereotypical gender roles, and so choose magazines that are consistent with these beliefs. Future research should explore this relationship further. Specifically, longitudinal research looking into how media promoting male stereotypes impacts women's attitudes towards sexual assault is needed.

In contrast, reading women's magazines was not significantly associated with intentions to intervene for either men or women. Prior research has identified that women's and girl's magazines include content that promotes female sexual agency (Kim & Ward, 2004), but content analyses have not considered whether such content discusses bystander intervention. Our results indicate that further research such as content analyses of women's magazines is needed, and suggest that women's and teen girls' magazines may be missing a significant opportunity to inform readers about intentions to intervene. Such a missed opportunity is noteworthy given that bystander intervention is the key to reducing sexual assault (Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007; Gidycz, Orchowski, & Berkowitz, 2011).

According to objectification theory, (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Szymanski et al., 2011) the objectification of women devalues women's worth to such a degree that violence against women seems acceptable. Our results support this premise as viewers exposed to alcohol advertisements that included objectified images of women were less likely to report intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations that involve alcohol. Further, these results support previous research that identifies exposure to objectifying images of women has been associated with negative attitudes toward women (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Szymanski et al., 2011) and with lower intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations (Hust et al., 2013). Overall, such results support social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 2001) and objectification theory (Fredrickson & Roberts,

1997) and suggest that viewing media content can have a normalizing effect on viewers.

The results also suggested viewers' perceptions of media content were an important factor to consider, and they should be considered in tandem with exposure to media content. Viewers' perceptions of media content can inform our understanding of why exposure to some media content is associated with negative beliefs and intentions related to sexual assault situations. Although individuals exposed to objectifying images of women were less likely to report intentions to intervene in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations, those that perceived the women in the ads to be sexualized (i.e., sexually alluring to men and scantily clad) and appealing (i.e., glamorous and attractive) reported greater intentions to intervene. Furthermore, the results indicated a significant interaction between men's perceptions of women as appealing and the type of alcohol advertisement they viewed (i.e., the condition). Men who viewed alcohol advertisements in which women were not objectified (i.e., fully clothed) and who perceived those women as appealing were significantly more likely to report intentions to intervene than men who did not perceive the women in the ads as appealing. Thus, men who found the fully-clothed women in the advertisements attractive and likable were more likely to report intervening in real-life alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situations. Taken together, these results lend support to Loseke's (2003) argument that individuals will be more likely to help women whom they perceive to be attractive, innocent or undeserving of harm. It is also possible that participants who identified women in the advertisements as sexual perceived them to be more vulnerable to an assault, and because of their perception that these women were also appealing, they intended to intervene in a sexual assault situation that involved alcohol.

Women were less likely to report intentions to intervene if they perceived women in the alcohol advertisements to be victims. Similarly, the significant interactions suggest that men exposed to the low-objectified images of women who perceived the female models in the ads to be victims were less likely to report intentions to intervene than those men in the same condition who did not view the female models as victims. Thus, men who viewed the fully-clothed women in the ads as powerless or perceived that they were made to look like a non-living object, despite being fully clothed, reported lower intentions to intervene. These findings support the premise of objectification theory (Szymanski et al., 2011), which suggests that individuals may treat women they view as objects more negatively than women they do not view as objects. Overall, this study's findings have implications for media effects research given that women in the media are commonly portrayed as sexual objects, and our results indicate exposure to and perceptions of such content may have real-life (often negative) consequences for women. Additional research, however, is needed to further understand how perceptions of women, especially those they see in the media, influence bystanders' intentions to intervene in sexual assault situations.

Although this study contributes to our understanding of the role alcohol advertising may play in college students' intentions

to intervene in sexual assaults linked to alcohol, it is not without limitations. College students are at greatest risk for sexual assault, yet our sample was limited to college students, which may limit the applicability of the results to other samples. Additionally, our outcome measure focused on intentions to intervene in a sexual assault situation involving alcohol, which is particularly relevant to our sample. Future research, however, should consider alcohol advertisements' effects on intentions to intervene in sexual assault, in general, and in alcohol-facilitated sexual assault, specifically, to determine if the advertisements have a different effect on those assaults linked to alcohol consumption. Further, although this study helped identify some potential effects of exposure to alcohol ads, this study was limited to a one-time post-test assessment. Future research should employ longitudinal experiments to further explore the effects of exposure to images of objectified women in alcohol advertisements. Additionally, future research in this area should include measures of actual bystander intervention behaviors.

Further, our results indicate the viewers' perceptions of women in alcohol advertisements contribute to their intentions to intervene. These results provide a rationale for additional investigations into what affects viewers' perceptions of media content. For example, future research should consider whether ambivalent sexism, the belief that women are vulnerable and in need of protection, plays a role in their perceptions of women in the media. Additionally, it could be important to identify whether women in our sample identified with the women in the alcohol advertisements, and if such identification played a role in their perceptions of the women as appealing. This could be especially important given that women's perceptions of the models in the advertisements as appealing were associated with their intentions to intervene in alcohol facilitated sexual assault situations.

Despite these limitations, the current study extends existing research in media effects, bystander intervention, and alcohol facilitated sexual assault. These results also have theoretical and practical implications. This study is unique because it includes forced exposure of objectified images of women in alcohol advertisements and it considers the role perceptions of the women in the advertisements may play on intentions to intervene in an alcohol-facilitated sexual assault situation. The results largely support objectification theory, which suggests that perceptions of women as powerless objects result in individuals' negative treatment of women. Such findings can inform health campaigns aimed at encouraging bystander intervention. Message designers need to be conscientious of the portrayals of women in their messages and need to test viewers' perceptions of the female models. The results also suggest a greater need for media literacy training that can help emerging adults make sense of media portrayals of women.

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