

**SEXUAL APPEALS IN SOCIAL MARKETING:
THE INFLUENCE OF FEMINISM AND SEXUAL ATTITUDE**

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Dedication

To my parents:

For their love, support and continuous encouragement throughout the years.

Abstract

This study examined how females react to the use of sexual appeals in a social marketing context. Sexual appeal was operationalized as the use of female models who are suggestively dressed. Outcome variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention were tested. Feminism and sexual attitude were included as moderators. Three phases were conducted: pretest, short interviews and main study. The pretest and main study used a within study experimental design. Two hundred and nineteen women participated in the main study. It was discovered that overall individuals are offended by the use of suggestiveness, have a lower attitude towards the ad and are less inclined to perform the proposed behaviour. Feminism had no influence on an individual's reaction while sexual attitude only influenced offensiveness. This study has implications for social marketers who currently use sexual appeals to promote their behaviour as sexual appeals could results in a negative effect.

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Table of Contents

Dedication	iii
Abstract	iv
Acknowledgement	v
Table of Contents	vii
List of Tables	x
List of Figures	xi
1. Introduction	1
2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Building	6
2.1 Content Analyses	6
2.2 Theoretical Framework	9
2.3 Sexual Appeals in Social Marketing	10
2.4 Hypotheses Development	13
2.4.1 Suggestiveness	13
2.4.2 Feminism	15
2.4.3 Sexual Attitude	20
3. Method	23
3.1 Evolution of Study	23
3.2 Study Design	24
3.3 Advertisement & Message Development	25
3.4 Variables	27
3.4.1 Feminism	27
3.4.1.1 Feminist Identification	27
3.4.1.2 Affective Reaction to Feminism	28
3.4.2 Sexual Attitude	28
3.4.3 Social Desirability	29
3.4.4 Suggestiveness	29
3.4.5 Attitude Towards the Ad	29
3.4.6 Behaviour Intention	30
3.4.7 Offensiveness	30
3.4.8 Demographic Variables	30
3.5 Phase One - Pretest	30
3.5.1 Procedure and Participants	30
3.5.2 Results	32
3.6 Manipulation Development	38
3.7 Phase Two – Short Interviews	40
3.7.1 Procedure and Participants	40
3.7.2 Results	42
3.8 Phase Three – Main Study	44
3.8.1 Procedure and Participants	44
4. Results and Analyses	47
4.1 Reliability Analyses	47
4.1.1 Feminism	47
4.1.1.1 Feminist Identification	47
4.1.1.2 Affective Reaction to Feminism	48
4.1.2 Sexual Attitude	49

4.1.3 Social Desirability.....	50
4.1.4 Attitude Towards the Ad.....	51
4.1.5 Behaviour Intention.....	52
4.2 Descriptive Statistics.....	52
4.3 Ad Treatment Check.....	53
4.4 Manipulation Effect.....	54
4.4.1 Offensiveness.....	55
4.4.2 Attitude Towards the Ad.....	58
4.4.3 Behaviour Intention.....	61
4.5 Hypotheses Testing.....	63
4.5.1 Suggestiveness.....	65
4.5.2 Affective Reaction to Feminism.....	68
4.5.3 Feminist Identification.....	73
4.5.4 Sexual Attitude.....	77
4.6 Post-Hoc Analyses.....	82
4.6.1 Individual Advertisement Means.....	82
4.6.1.1 Suggestiveness.....	83
4.6.1.2 Offensiveness.....	84
4.6.1.3 Attitude Towards the Ad.....	86
4.6.1.4 Behaviour Intention.....	87
4.6.2 Salient Moderator.....	89
4.6.3 Sexual Attitude Correlations.....	90
4.6.4 Feminist Identification and Affective Reaction to Feminism Correlation.....	90
4.6.5 Experimental Design Effect.....	90
4.6.6 Mediation.....	92
5. Discussion and Conclusion.....	95
5.1 Pretest.....	95
5.2 Short Interviews.....	96
5.3 Main Study.....	97
5.3.1 Manipulation.....	97
5.3.2 Hypotheses.....	99
5.3.2.1 Suggestiveness.....	101
5.3.2.2 Feminism.....	102
5.3.2.3 Sexual Attitude.....	105
5.3.3 Mediation.....	106
5.4 Limitations.....	107
5.5 Future Research.....	111
5.6 Contributions.....	113
5.7 Conclusion.....	114
6. References.....	115
7. Appendices.....	121
Appendix A.....	121
A.1 Seat Belt Use.....	121
A.2 Reduced Tanning.....	123
A.3 Safe Sex.....	125
Appendix B.....	127

B.1 Feminist and Behaviour Measure.....	127
B.2 Feminism and the Women’s Movement (FWM) Scale	127
B.3 Sex Attitude Scale (SAS).....	128
B.4 Social Desirability Scale (SDS)	128
B.5 Suggestiveness of Ad	128
B.6 Attitude Towards the Ad (A_{Ad})	129
B.7 Behaviour Intention (BI)	129
B.8 Offensive Execution.....	129
Appendix C	130
C.1 Letter of Consent (Phase One)	130
Appendix D.....	131
D.1 Manipulation – Exploitation	131
D.2 Manipulation – Empowerment.....	131
Appendix E	132
E.1 Letter of Consent (Phase Two).....	132
Appendix F.....	133
F.1 Letter of Consent (Phase Three).....	133

List of Tables

Table 3.1: Experimental Design – Ad Set Combinations	25
Table 3.2: Categories for Level of Suggestiveness.....	26
Table 3.3: Pretest Correlation Results	36
Table 3.4: Attitude Towards the Ad Pretest Correlation Results.....	37
Table 3.5: Behaviour Intention Pretest Correlation Results	38
Table 3.6: Demographic Characteristics.....	46
Table 4.1: Factor Analysis for FWM.....	49
Table 4.2: Factor Analysis for SAS	50
Table 4.3: Factor Analysis for SDS	51
Table 4.4: Factor Analysis for A _{AD}	51
Table 4.5: Factor Analysis for BI	52
Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics for Measures	53
Table 4.7: Manipulation and Feminist Identification – Offensiveness.....	57
Table 4.8: Manipulation and Feminist Identification - A _{AD}	59
Table 4.8 (continued): Manipulation and Feminist Identification - A _{AD}	60
Table 4.9: Manipulation and Feminist Identification – BI	62
Table 4.10: Dependent Variables Correlation Results.....	65
Table 4.11: Descriptive Statistics for Suggestiveness	66
Table 4.12: Descriptive Statistics for Affective Reaction to Feminism	70
Table 4.13: Descriptive Statistics for Feminist Identification	74
Table 4.13 (continued): Descriptive Statistics for Feminist Identification.....	75
Table 4.14: Descriptive Statistics for Sexual Attitude.....	78
Table 4.14 (continued): Descriptive Statistics for Sexual Attitude	79
Table 4.15: MANCOVA Results.....	81
Table 4.15 (continued): MANCOVA Results	82
Table 4.16: Individual Advertisement Means for Suggestiveness.....	84
Table 4.17: Individual Advertisement Means for Offensiveness	85
Table 4.18: Individual Advertisement Means for A _{AD}	87
Table 4.19: Individual Advertisement Means for BI	88
Table 4.20: Ad Groupings Descriptive Statistics.....	91
Table 4.20 (continued): Ad Groupings Descriptive Statistics	92
Table 4.21: Mediation Results	93
Table 5.1: Summary of the Hypotheses.....	100

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: Research Model.....	22
Figure 3.1: Experimental Procedure – Phase One	32
Figure 3.2: Short Interview Procedure – Phase Two	41
Figure 3.3: Experimental Procedure – Phase Three.....	45
Figure 4.1: Ad Treatment.....	54
Figure 4.2: Empowerment Manipulation for Feminist Identification - Offensiveness.....	58
Figure 4.3: Exploitation Manipulation for Feminist Identification - Offensiveness	58
Figure 4.4: Empowerment Manipulation for Feminist Identification - A _{AD}	60
Figure 4.5: Exploitation Manipulation for Feminist Identification - A _{AD}	61
Figure 4.6: Empowerment Manipulation for Feminist Identification - BI	63
Figure 4.7: Exploitation Manipulation for Feminist Identification - BI	63
Figure 4.8: Hypothesis 1a	67
Figure 4.9: Hypothesis 1b	67
Figure 4.10: Hypothesis 1c	68
Figure 4.11: Hypothesis 2a	71
Figure 4.12: Hypothesis 3a	72
Figure 4.13: Hypothesis 4a	72
Figure 4.14: Hypothesis 2b	76
Figure 4.15: Hypothesis 3b	76
Figure 4.16: Hypothesis 4b	77
Figure 4.17: Hypothesis 5a	80
Figure 4.18: Hypothesis 5b	80
Figure 4.19: Hypothesis 5c	81
Figure 4.20: Individual Advertisement Means for Suggestiveness	84
Figure 4.21: Individual Advertisement Means for Offensiveness	86
Figure 4.22: Individual Advertisement Means for A _{AD}	87
Figure 4.23: Individual Advertisement Means for BI.....	89
Figure 4.24: Offensiveness Mediation - A _{AD}	94
Figure 4.25: Offensiveness Mediation - BI.....	94
Figure A.1: Non-Suggestive	121
Figure A.2: Moderately Suggestive	121
Figure A.3: Highly Suggestive	122
Figure A.4: Non-Suggestive	123
Figure A.5: Moderately Suggestive	123
Figure A.6: Highly Suggestive	124
Figure A.7: Non-Suggestive	125
Figure A.8: Moderately Suggestive	126
Figure A.9: Highly Suggestive	126

1. Introduction

Advertisers frequently use female models in advertising to gain the attention of the consumer, whether the model is relevant to the product or not. Female models who are not relevant to the product are known as decorative models. Chestnut, Lachance, and Lubitz (1977) defined decorative models as female models who are functionless or whose primary role is to be sexual or attractive stimuli for the product. Boddewyn (1991) refers to the use of decorative models as sexual objectification as, female models are mainly used for attention gaining with little relevance to the product in the ad. Research has confirmed that the use of female models is effective in gaining the attention of the viewer (Reichert, 2002); however, there are mixed results as to the effect it has on the viewer's attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. For example, some studies (see Pope, Voges, & Brown, 2004; Severn, Belch, & Belch, 1990) discovered that viewers had a favourable attitude towards the ad when decorative models were used. However, other studies have found that the use of decorative models had the opposite effect on attitude towards the ad (see Jones, Stanaland, & Gelb, 1998; LaTour & Henthorne, 1993, 1994; Lavine, Sweeney, & Wagner, 1999).

Jones et al. (1998) studied attitude towards the ad and found that females had a less favourable attitude towards the ad for advertisements that used provocatively dressed females models. In a study by Lavine et al. (1999) the use of sexist ads, women treated as sex objects, resulted in participants having a negative attitude towards the ad. LaTour and Henthorne (1994) discovered that advertisements with overt sexual themes, or models that are provocatively posed or dressed, had a negative effect on attitude towards the ad. LaTour and Henthorne (1993) found that women displayed a less favourable attitude

towards the ad for nude advertisements. Other studies have found the opposite results, in that when nudity was used in the advertisement the viewer had a more positive attitude towards the ad (Pope et al., 2004). Severn et al. (1990) also found a favourable attitude towards the ad for advertisements that used explicit sexual imagery.

These conflicting results give marketers an unclear picture as to whether or not sexual appeals in advertising are effective. While research has shown that sexual appeals in advertising captures the viewers' attention the conflicting results as to its effect on attitude towards the ad leaves the marketing industry with an incomplete picture. One of the objectives of this study is to shed some light on this incomplete picture. However, first it must be understood why these conflicting results are occurring. One explanation may be the lack of personality variables used in marketing research (Bagozzi, 1994; Reichert, 2002). For example, two studies previously discussed, Jones et al. (1998) and Pope et al. (2004), did not use any personality variables yet found conflicting results. This study will attempt to clarify the effect sexual appeals has on attitude towards the ad by introducing feminism and sexual attitude as moderating variables and testing the effect they have on attitude towards the ad. Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest that moderating variables be introduced when there is an inconsistent relationship between two variables, in this case suggestiveness and attitude towards the ad.

Another explanation which may be causing the conflicting results could be that sexual appeals in advertising have been mainly operationalized in three different ways: physical attractiveness, nudity and sexiness/suggestiveness (Jones et al., 1998). For example, the two studies that were compared in the previous paragraph were actually studying different concepts, mild erotica (Pope et al., 2004) and sexiness/suggestiveness

(Jones et al.). Pope et al. operationalized mild erotica as images that contained total or almost nudity and sexual activity with no genitalia visible. While, sexiness/suggestiveness was operationalized as when a model is provocatively dressed in the ad (Jones et al.). Therefore, while researchers state that they are all studying the same concept in actuality they are operationalizing it differently. This study will provide additional support for sexual appeals in advertising research already conducted on the use sexiness/suggestiveness by focusing on the use of decorative models who are sexy/suggestive in the ad by introducing three levels of suggestiveness: non-suggestive, moderately suggestive and highly suggestive.

In the area of sexual appeals in advertising research there has been a call for an increased use of theoretical frameworks (Reichert, 2002). Therefore, this study will employ social judgment theory to explain how an individual cognitively processes a stimulus to form an attitude (Sherif & Hovland, 1961). The main aspect of social judgment is essentially how we make sense of our social world (Eiser, 1991). Social judgment theory is based on an individual having a pre-existing psychological judgment scale which is the basis for how their attitudes are formed (Sherif & Hovland, 1961). Social judgment theory aims to examine a phenomena, in this case an individual's reaction to the use of decorative models, and identify major variables that affect the phenomena (Sherif & Sherif, 1967). The variables that will be used in this study to examine the effect of decorative models are moderating variables, feminism and sexual attitude. These variables are expected to have an underlying effect on how individuals form attitudes towards ads that use suggestiveness.

There are many streams of feminist theory each with their own perspective on the inequalities that women face. However, they share a similar assumption, the recognition of a male dominated social arrangement and a desire to change this social arrangement (Calas & Smircich, 2001). Previous research has discussed how feminists are more critical of the use of decorative models (Jhally & Kilbourne, 2000; Venkatesh, 1980; Wolf, 1990); however, few studies (see Ford, LaTour, & Lundstrom, 1991; Ford & LaTour, 1993) in the marketing literature have addressed this claim. In the well known documentary *Killing Us Softly 3: Advertising's Image of Women* Jhally and Kilbourne (2000) critically examine how girls and women are portrayed in contemporary advertising. Through the documentary Jhally and Kilbourne demonstrate how images of girls and women in the media often project the illusion of female empowerment but are actually subtly subverting them. One of the key points that Jhally and Kilbourne address in the documentary is that advertisers use women's bodies as objects, often by focusing on just one part of the body, to help sell the product. Since feminists have been known to be more critical of advertising that uses sexual appeals it is expected that a feminist's pre-existing psychological judgment scale will lead the individual to have a less favourable attitude towards an ad that uses suggestiveness.

Sexual attitude is how accepting an individual is of sexual activity either for themselves or others (Sprecher, 1989). Individuals may exhibit either a liberal sexual attitude, a positive attitude towards sex, or a conservative sexual attitude (Mercer & Kohn, 1979). Sexual attitude has been shown to have an underlying effect on an individual's attitude towards the ad (Mittal & Lassar, 2000; Reichert & Fosu, 2005; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008). Research has shown that individuals with a liberal sexual

attitude enjoy the use of sexual appeals (Mittal & Lassar, 2000; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008). Therefore, sexual attitude is expected to have an effect on an individual's psychological judgment scale as well. More specifically, it is expected that an individual with a liberal sexual attitude will have a favourable pre-existing psychological judgment scale for advertisements with suggestiveness, which will lead them to have a more favourable attitude towards the ad.

The majority of the research in this area has examined the use of sexual appeals in a commercial marketing context; however, social marketers are beginning to use sexual appeals. Social marketers are becoming creative at finding ways to use sexual appeals whether or not the use is relevant to the topic presented in the social marketing ad (Reichert, Heckler, & Jackson, 2001). For example, People for Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA), an organization who supports animal rights, often uses sexual appeals to promote their behaviour even though this technique may not be relevant to their message. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the use of sexual appeals in a social marketing context. By doing so this study will examine how the use of sexual appeals can affect an individual's response to a social marketing advertisement. In particular, this study will look at whether individuals are offended by social marketing ads with suggestiveness as well as whether sexual appeals affect their attitude towards the ad and their behaviour intention. The influence of feminism and sexual attitude will also be examined.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Building

Numerous studies have been conducted in the area of sexual appeals in advertising. One of the most common types of research conducted in this area is content analysis, which analyzes how women are portrayed in the media. Content analyses highlight how frequently women are used as decorative models. Another common type of research is how the use of sexual appeals affects attitude towards the ad, attitude towards the brand and purchase intention. However, the results from these studies are contradictory as some studies have found a positive effect while others have found a negative effect. By introducing moderating variables, feminism and sexual attitude, the current study will shed light on the conflicting results in this area of research. A large majority of the studies conducted in this area have focused on commercial marketing, very few have explored the use of sexual appeals in social marketing; therefore this study will focus on social marketing advertisements. Social judgment theory will be used to explain how an individual cognitively processes social marketing advertisements.

2.1 Content Analyses

Several content analyses have been conducted in this area of research which demonstrates how common the use of sexual appeals is in marketing. Soley and Kutzbard (1986) compared magazine ads from 1964 and 1984 that portrayed models, both males and females, sexually. They found that the use of sexual images was more overt in 1984. Their results also showed that if sexual content was used, it was more often visual rather than verbal. Soley and Kutzbard found that female models are also more likely than male models to be portrayed sexually. This study shows that the use of sexual appeals in advertising has been around for decades.

A content analysis was conducted on *Ms.*, a feminist magazine which debuted in the 1970s (Ferguson, Kreshel, & Tinkham, 1990). *Ms.* has an advertising policy to only present advertisements which display women as people and to not run ads which are insulting to women (“Personal Report form *Ms.*” 1972, as cited in Ferguson et al., 1990). The authors examined ads between 1973 and 1987 from *Ms.* and found that the ads from this magazine were contrary to its policy. Not only did the ads contain images which were insulting to women but that the use of this type of ad had increased over time (Ferguson et al., 1990). In another study which evaluated women’s perception of how women are portrayed in contemporary advertising the authors found that participants agreed that women are mainly treated as sex objects in advertising, which they find offensive (Ford et al., 1991). The authors concluded that even after reported changes had been made to the industry women are still mainly portrayed as sex objects.

A content analysis was conducted by Busby and Leichty (1993) to examine images in women’s magazines from the 1950s to the 1980s to determine what impact the feminist movement had on images of women in magazines that targeted women. The main research question was to what extent the goals of the feminist movement impacted images in women’s magazines. The authors chose the 1950s to the 1980s as the time frame so they could capture images in advertising before and after the start of the feminist movement. Based on the content analysis the authors observed that the use of women as decorative objects increased, despite the changes produced by the feminist movement. Busby and Leichty found that not only had the use of decorative models increased but a decorative model was the most common portrayal of women in advertising.

Reichert et al. (1999) concluded that women are three times more likely than men to be portrayed sexually and that sexual appeals are more common in women's and men's magazines than general interest magazines. In a follow-up to Reichert et al.'s (1999) study Reichert and Carpenter (2004) replicated Reichert et al.'s (1999) study, by using the same coding system for examining advertisements in 2003. The authors compared their findings with the previous study and discovered that overall advertisements became significantly more sexually explicit between 1983 and 2003 but the largest increase in sexual explicitness occurred between 1983 and 1993. Their results showed that women are shown in a more sexually explicit manner than men who remained relatively stable over the years for sexual explicitness. Based on Reichert and Carpenter's analysis, women are portrayed sexually 49% of the time in magazine advertisements, therefore in one out of two advertisements containing a female model she is displayed in a sexual manner. The studies conducted by Reichert et al. and Reichert and Carpenter demonstrate that the use of sexual images has increased over time, and that women are portrayed in a sexual manner more often.

In a most recent content analysis it was concluded that females were more likely than males to be used as sexual objects when sex was used to sell the product (Monk-Turner et al., 2008). Male models were rarely used for sexual objectification. Of the advertisements that used sex to sell a large proportion, 82%, used provocative clothing. Women's magazines were more likely than men's magazines to have advertisements that used provocative clothing. General interest magazines were the least common type of magazine to contain sexual appeals.

A number of conclusions can be drawn from these content analyses. First, if a sexual appeal is used in advertising is it more often visual rather than verbal. The use of sexual appeals has increased over time. More importantly, women are three times more likely than men to be displayed sexually and one out of every two advertisements containing a woman presents her in a sexual manner. In addition, even if a magazine, in this case *Ms.*, tries to not use images that are insulting to women, it is hard to avoid. Finally, the feminist movement which had such an impact on other areas concerning women had little impact on how women are displayed sexually in advertising.

Overall it appears the advertisers have become less sensitive to the state of female depictions in advertising despite the work of industry groups ... that have attempted to pressure national advertisers ... to portray women as multi-dimensional characters instead of sexually-available decor. (Reichert & Carpenter, 2004, p. 833)

2.2 Theoretical Framework

According to a literature review by Reichert (2002) it was concluded that there is an increased need for new theoretical frameworks to help explain the effect of sexual appeals in advertising. Therefore, this study will introduce social judgment theory, which has not been examined in this area of research, to help examine how sexual appeals affects attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention as well as whether the individual is offended. Social judgment theory's aim is to examine a phenomena, in this case an individual's reaction to the use of decorative models, and to specify the variables that affect the phenomena (Sherif & Sherif, 1967). Feminism and sexual attitude will be the variables used in this study to examine the effect of sexual appeals on perceived offensiveness, attitude towards the ad, and behaviour intention. Social judgment theory predicts how the phenomena will affect an individual's attitude (Sherif & Sherif, 1967).

While there are several branches of social judgment theory this research will use the model known as the assimilation–contrast model of attitudinal judgment developed by Sherif and Hovland (1961). This model outlines how an individual cognitively processes a social issue to form an attitude based on their latitude of acceptance, rejection and noncommitment on the social issue (Sherif & Hovland, 1961). An individual’s latitude of acceptance is his/her position on a social issue that he/she finds acceptable (Sherif & Sherif, 1967). In other terms, his/her latitude of acceptance is the range that an individual will tolerate on an issue (Sherif & Hovland, 1961). An individual’s latitude of rejection is one’s position on a social issue that one finds objectionable (Sherif & Sherif, 1967). Social issues that are neither acceptable nor objectionable and therefore outside either one’s latitude of acceptance or rejection falls into one’s latitude of noncommitment (Sherif & Sherif, 1967). An individual with a positive position on a social issue will have larger latitude of acceptance than an individual with a negative position whose latitude of rejection will be larger on the same issue. An individual’s latitude of acceptance, rejection and noncommitment is based on a pre-existing psychological judgment scale with established attitudes (Sherif & Hovland, 1961). These attitudes then provide an anchor for evaluating marketing communications.

2.3 Sexual Appeals in Social Marketing

A study by Reichert et al. (2001) examined the use of sexual appeals in social marketing advertisements and the effect sexual appeals have on persuasion. The authors tested matched social marketing ads (sexual/nonsexual) for 13 social marketing topics and found that the sexual ads had a larger effect on persuasion than the nonsexual appeals. In addition to the sexual appeals being more persuasive the authors also

discovered that the sexual appeals gained more attention and were more likeable. The sexual appeal ads had an effect on the participants' willingness to learn more about the topic. This study was based on Reichert's (1997) dissertation and some of the information was not transferred to the publication therefore some of the information on this study is taken from the dissertation. Sexual appeal was operationalized in Reichert (1997) as an appeal that the audience perceived as sexual or provoked a sexual response; however, this concept was not transferred into the published study (Reichert et al., 2001). This omission left the reader without an operational definition for sexual appeals. Reichert's operational definition is different from how sexual appeals are operationalized in the current study. Therefore, the findings from Reichert (1997) and Reichert et al. (2001) may not be transferable to the use of decorative models. For example, although attitude towards the ad was not one of Reichert's main concepts for the study it was tested in the pretest to measure whether the participants had a favourable attitude towards the ad. The results showed that individuals had a favourable attitude towards the sexual ads for 10 of the 13 topics.

Reichert et al. (2001) is the only published study on the use of sexual appeals in a social marketing context; therefore, there is a need for further research. The current study intends to fill this gap by providing evidence of the effect sexual appeals have on an individual's attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention as well as whether they find the ad offensive. Attitude towards the ad is an emotional response to an advertisement, which can affect the feelings about the brand and purchase intention (Muehling & McCann, 1993). Since this research is focusing on social marketing there is no purchase intention. Behaviour intention will be used in place of purchase intention. Behaviour

intention is an individual's willingness or motivation to perform a particular behaviour (Sheeran, 2002). Behaviour change would have been the preferred outcome to measure, however, since this is not a longitudinal study behaviour intention is measured instead. Behaviour intention is known to be a good predictor of behaviour change (Sheeran, 2002).

In addition to studying attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention this study will also evaluate whether the individual finds social marketing ads with suggestiveness to be offensive. Barnes and Dotson (1990) proposed a definition for offensive advertising consisting of two dimensions: offensive products and offensive execution. Offensive products are products that are related to consumer problems but are deemed socially unacceptable to discuss. Offensive execution is when the imagery, text or other aspects of the advertisement may or may not be related to the product in the advertisement. Offensive execution is seen as controllable by the marketer and as a result may be reduced more readily than offensive products. Offensive advertising has been found to elicit negative reactions by the viewer (Waller, 1999). However, only demographic variables such as sex and age have been measured which may not explain all the factors that could influence an individual's response to offensive advertising. Therefore, the current study will test the effect of feminism and sexual attitude on offensiveness. As there are two dimensions of offensive advertising this study will focus on offensive execution since the purpose of the study is to examine the use of suggestiveness.

2.4 Hypotheses Development

2.4.1 Suggestiveness

One of the challenges in this area of research is that sexual appeals have been operationalized in different ways: physical attractiveness, nudity, and sexiness/suggestiveness (Jones et al., 1998). For example, in a recent study by Putrevu (2008) the use of sexual appeals operationalized as couples displayed in a sexual manner resulted in a positive attitude towards the ad for low involvement products. While in a study by Jones (2005), the author operationalized sexual appeals as women portrayed as sexual objects. In this study, females reported a negative attitude towards the ad (Jones, 2005). These two studies display how sexual appeals are operationalized differently depending on the study. This study will attempt to clarify the ambiguity surrounding the use of sexual appeals by focusing on the use of decorative models that are sexy/suggestive. Three levels of suggestiveness will be used in this study: non-suggestive, moderately suggestive and highly suggestive. Sexiness/suggestiveness was chosen for this study because this form of sexual appeals is one of the most common ways women are displayed in the media (Ford et al., 1991; Reichert & Carpenter, 2004; Reichert et al., 1999).

This study focuses on social marketing advertisements as social marketers are beginning to use sexual appeals to promote their messages. Social marketing uses commercial marketing practices to promote social “products”, however, there is controversy surrounding this practice as commercial marketing often uses drastic methods to break through the clutter which may not be viewed as acceptable in social marketing (Smith, 2001). For instance, the use of sexual appeals is often employed in

commercial marketing to help break through the clutter and gain the attention of the audience. This tactic of using sexual appeals has been shown to be effective in commercial marketing (Reichert, 2002) yet it is unclear whether the use of sexual appeals is viewed as appropriate for social marketing advertisements. Social marketing is often held to a higher ethical standard because it deals with sensitive social issues (Andreasen, 2001). One of the ethical standards for which social marketing should adhere to is “Don’t be Offensive” (Smith, 2001, p. 3). Therefore, the use of sexual appeals in social marketing may be viewed as offensive to some individuals.

Sexist imagery has been found to elicit a negative reaction in commercial marketing due to the viewer finding the use of sexist images as offensive (Waller, 1999, 2007). Advertisements which use suggestive images of female models may be viewed as offensive because suggestive images often depict women as sexual objects which may be considered a form of sexist advertising. However, whether an individual finds an advertisement with suggestiveness as offensive is based on how they view that advertisement as sexual objectification is determined by the “eyes of the beholder” (Blair, Stephenson, Hill, & Green, 2006, p. 116). Waller (2005) discovered that while sexual appeals may be controversial to the public at large, they may not always have a negative reaction. When an individual reacts negatively to a controversial advertisement the advertisement can be classified as offensive as Waller (2005) defines offensiveness as “controversial advertising that has resulted in negative effects” (p. 7). Therefore, there is a fine line that marketers, especially social marketers, must balance when using sexual appeals as they are surely going to be thought of as controversial but not necessarily offensive unless that fine line is crossed and they receive a negative reaction.

Given that social marketing is held to a high ethical standard and one of the ethical standards social marketers should adhere to is to not offend, it is expected that individuals will find social marketing advertisements that use suggestiveness as offensive. Therefore, an individual's latitude of acceptance will be affected resulting in their latitude of acceptance being lower for social marketing advertisements that use suggestiveness. This lower latitude of acceptance is expected to influence an individual's attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention as well. Attitude towards the ad is expected to be negatively related to suggestiveness of the model as offensive advertising is controversial advertising that has resulted in a negative reaction. Behaviour intention is expected to be negatively related to suggestiveness.

H1a: *Greater levels of suggestiveness of the female model will result in increased offensiveness.*

H1b: *Suggestiveness of the female model will be negatively related to ad attitude.*

H1c: *Suggestiveness of the female model will be negatively related to behaviour intention.*

2.4.2 Feminism

There are many streams of feminist theory which have different perspectives on the inequalities that females face. Feminists have different beliefs about the origin of feminism and the nature of sexism, and as a result they have different thoughts of how to eliminate sexism (Bartky, 1975). Feminists disagree on how gender is understood as there is confusion on whether the inequalities that exist are between sexes, genders or gender relations (Calas & Smircich, 2001). Although there are many different branches of

feminism a general description of a feminist is someone who believes that there are inequalities in contemporary society which disadvantage women and who support the elimination of these inequalities (Bristor & Fisher, 1993). One way these inequalities are apparent is how women are portrayed in the media, as women are often treated as decorative models and sexually objectified. This inequality is evident in both commercial and social marketing. For example, commercial marketing frequently uses females in beer commercials as a male frequently “gets the girl” after ordering a certain brand of beer. As previously stated the non-profit, PETA, frequently uses nude female models to promote their behaviour, fair animal treatment.

Jhally and Kilbourne (2000) address this inequality in their documentary. While they acknowledge that men are increasingly being used in a sexual light they are not portrayed in the same manner as women. One instance this is the case is when only a part of a women’s body is used to sell a product implying that she is only an object and not an individual. A man’s body is rarely used in this fashion. Feminists seek to eliminate these types of inequalities. As Jhally and Kilbourne state, feminists do not seek to portray men in the same fashion, they hope to eliminate the use of such portrayals for either sex.

While many individuals hold feminist beliefs and support the elimination of the inequalities that women face, they may not identify with the feminist label (Zucker, 2004). These individuals are known as egalitarians because they endorse feminist values, but reject feminist identification (Bay-Cheng & Zucker, 2007). Aronson (2003) found that feminist values are shaped by an individual’s racial and class background as well as their life experiences. In her study Aronson found that individuals who do not like to adopt the label do not like the ambiguity and negative connotations associated with

feminism. As Aronson concluded while they may not be agent of change they are passive supporters as they support feminist goals, whether they call themselves feminist or not. Given that egalitarians hold feminist beliefs and feminists are more critical of the use of decorative models in advertising it is expected that egalitarians will also be critical of the use of decorative models.

In spite of the claim being made that feminist are critical of decorative models being used in the media very few studies have explored this claim empirically (see Duker & Tucker, 1977; Ford et al., 1991; Ford & LaTour, 1993). Duker and Tucker (1977) used the Wortze-Frisbie scale which was developed in 1974 to measure attitudes towards the Women's Liberation Movement (Wortze & Frisbie, 1974). The Wortze-Frisbie scale was created in 1974 and the women's movement has evolved since its initial creation. In the 1970s and 1980s women's liberation was focused on issues such as reproductive rights, sexual freedoms and equality in the workplace, today, women's liberation encompasses a much broader view on female empowerment (Gill, 2008). The two studies (Ford et al., 1991; Ford & LaTour, 1993) and used the Female Autonomy Inventory scale to measure whether the participant's view of women's role in society was traditional or modern. The Female Autonomy Inventory measures whether there is role congruency between husband and wife and what the wife's role is in the home and the work force (Arnott, 1972). The Female Autonomy Inventory fails to acknowledge that feminism is more than people's perception of gender roles; it involves a political movement with implications larger than gender roles (Morgan, 1996).

As a result there is a need for a feminist measure that is not as outdated as the Wortze-Frisbie scale as well as a measure that examines more than gender roles. To

address these issues the Attitudes Toward Feminism and the Women's Movement (FWM) scale will be used (Fassinger, 1994). This scale measures an individual's attitude towards the women's movement and is non-specific to a certain type of feminism because a person's affective reaction to feminism can be independent of a person's knowledge of philosophical or political principles (Fassinger, 1994). To identify whether an individual identifies themselves as a feminist, the Feminist and Behaviour measure will be used, which measures whether a person endorses feminist beliefs (Zucker, 2004). Zucker (2004) acknowledges that operationalizing feminist beliefs is a difficult task but that there is a consensus that a major component of feminists' beliefs is equal rights for women. Therefore, the author developed a measure of three cardinal beliefs of feminists which assess an individual's agreement with equality between the sexes, the basic feminist principle.

An individual's latitude of acceptance is based on a pre-existing psychological judgment scale with established attitudes (Sherif & Hovland, 1961). Therefore, it is expected that a feminist's latitude of acceptance will be affected by the criticism she has for the use of decorative models. An individual's affective reaction to feminism is expected to affect one's latitude of acceptance resulting in one having lower latitude of acceptance for social marketing advertisements which use suggestiveness. This lower latitude of acceptance will then affect one's reaction to social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness. Feminists, individuals who accept the label, are anticipated to have lower latitude of acceptance for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness because feminists are willing to accept the negative connotations associated with feminism and, therefore, are more committed to the inequalities facing women.

An individual's affective reaction to feminism is expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness resulting in an individual who is favourable towards feminism being more offended by the use of suggestiveness. Feminist identification is expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness even more than an individual's affective reaction to feminism therefore resulting in feminists being even more offended by the use of suggestiveness than egalitarians.

H2a: *Affective reaction to feminism will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness; as level of suggestiveness increases, offensiveness increases.*

H2b: *Feminists will report greater levels of offensiveness than egalitarians.*

An individual's affective reaction to feminism is also expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the ad resulting in an individual who is favourable towards feminism having a lower attitude towards social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness. At the same time feminist identification is expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the ad even more than affective reaction to feminism resulting in feminists having an even lower attitude towards social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness than egalitarians.

H3a: *Affective reaction to feminism will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the sexual appeal ad; as level of suggestiveness increases, attitude towards the ad decreases.*

H3b: *Feminists will report less favourable attitudes towards the sexual appeal ads than egalitarians.*

Finally, affective reaction to feminism is expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention resulting in an individual who is favourable towards feminism having a lower behaviour intention for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness. In addition, feminist identification is expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention more than affective reaction to feminism resulting in feminists having an even lower behaviour intention for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness than egalitarians.

H4a: *Affective reaction to feminism will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention; as level of suggestiveness increases, behaviour intention decreases.*

H4b: *Feminists will report lower behavioural intentions than egalitarians.*

2.4.3 Sexual Attitude

Sexual attitude, an individual's attitude about sex (Sengupta & Dahl, 2008) and how accepting one is of sexual activity (Sprecher, 1989) was introduced as one of the moderating variables in this study. Research has shown that an individual's sexual attitude has an underlying effect on one's attitude towards the ad (see Mittal & Lassar, 2000; Reichert & Fosu, 2005; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008). More specifically, individuals with a liberal sexual attitude, a positive attitude towards sex, reacted positively to an ad that contained sex appeals, while individuals with a conservative sexual attitude reacted negatively to the same ad (Sengupta & Dahl, 2008). Therefore, based on social judgment

theory it is expected that an individual's sexual attitude will have an impact on one's psychological judgment scale. An individual with a liberal sexual attitude is expected to have a larger latitude of acceptance for social marketing advertisements that use suggestiveness. One's larger latitude of acceptance is expected to affect one's reaction to social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness, resulting in one's being more accepting of these advertisements. Sexual attitude is expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness resulting in an individual with a liberal sexual attitude finding social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness not as offensive.

H5a: *Sexual attitude will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness; offensiveness will be lower for a liberal sexual attitude than for a conservative sexual attitude.*

Sexual attitude is also expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the ad resulting in an individual with a liberal sexual attitude having a positive attitude towards a social marketing advertisement with suggestiveness.

H5b: *Sexual attitude will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the sexual appeal ad; as level of suggestiveness increases, attitude towards the ad increases.*

Finally, sexual attitude is expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention resulting in an individual with a liberal sexual

attitude having an increased behaviour intention for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness.

H5c: *Sexual attitude will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention; as levels of suggestiveness increases, behaviour intention increases.*

Literature has shown that feminists and egalitarians have a positive attitude towards sex (Bay-Cheng & Zucker, 2007); therefore, it could be considered that feminists and egalitarians have liberal sexual attitudes. However, since having a feminist perspective is expected to have a negative effect on attitude towards the ad and sexual attitude is expected to have a positive effect on attitude towards the ad there may be conflicting psychological judgment scales occurring for an individual. As a result it is expected that either feminism or sexual attitude will be more salient for an individual and therefore will have a larger impact on one’s psychological judgment scale. This interaction will be analyzed post-hoc.

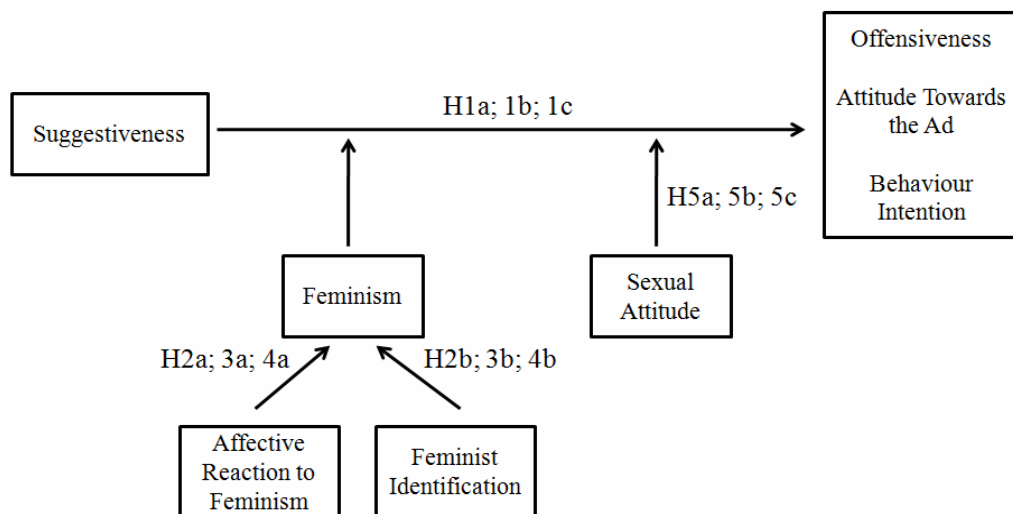


Figure 2.1: Research Model

3. Method

3.1 Evolution of Study

Initially, this study was a simple within study design to test how an individual responds to the use of sexual appeals in a social marketing context. There was going to be two parts to this study, pretest and main data collection. The researcher began by conducting the pretest to test the scale validity and reliability as well as the ad manipulation of suggestiveness. Correlations were also calculated to ensure that the hypotheses were correlating in the hypothesized direction. The pretest was completed successfully; however, based on the correlation results some of the results were counter-intuitive as they were observed to be opposite to the hypothesized direction. Due to this development the researcher chose to add another phase to this study to test a new manipulation.

The new manipulation consisted of two perspectives of how women are treated in the media. The first perspective is that women are choosing to use their sexuality and that it is a form of female empowerment while the second perspective is that women are being exploited in the media. Given that this study already had a manipulation it became complicated referring to both manipulations as ad manipulation and manipulation, therefore, the ad manipulation was renamed ad treatment. To investigate the impact of the manipulation the researcher conducted nine short interviews. Including short interviews in this study increased the complexity of this study to include three phases in total. The first phase consisted of the pretest, the second phase was the short interviews and the third phase was the main experimental study.

3.2 Study Design

To investigate how individuals respond to the use of sexual appeals in social marketing advertisements, three phases were conducted. The first phase consisted of testing the scales chosen for this study to ensure their validity and reliability as well as to ensure that the ads constructed for this study were the appropriate level of suggestiveness: non-suggestive, moderately suggestive, and highly suggestive. Factor analyses were used to test the validity of the scales while Cronbach alphas were calculated to test reliability. The ad treatment, suggestiveness of the model, was tested using an ANOVA. Zero-order correlations were conducted to ensure the results were in the hypothesized direction. A detailed explanation of phase one's results will be discussed in a later section. Phase two involved examining how individuals viewed ads with sexual appeals and some exploration of the possible manipulation. The second phase consisted of short interviews which will be discussed in a later section. Based on the results of the pretest correlations a manipulation was added to the study in phase three. The manipulation represented two different perspectives of how women are represented in the media. Phase three was the actual testing of the hypotheses.

Phase one and three were conducted online through an online survey provider, Market Tools, and involved a within subjects design. Participants were assigned by birth month to a set of three advertisements which consisted of one advertisement for each level of suggestiveness, non-suggestive, moderately suggestive and highly suggestive. Each level of suggestiveness represented a different social marketing behaviour, safe sex, reduced tanning, and seat belt use, resulting in three possible combinations that

participants could have been exposed to (see Table 3.1). Ethics approval was granted by the University of Lethbridge, Faculty of Management’s Research and Ethics Committee.

Table 3.1: Experimental Design – Ad Set Combinations

<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Level of Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Non-Suggestive</i>	<i>Moderately Suggestive</i>	<i>Highly Suggestive</i>
Safe Sex		3	2	1
Reduced Tanning		1	3	2
Seat Belt Use		2	1	3

3.3 Advertisement & Message Development

The social marketing advertisements were created by the researcher. The researcher and her supervisors discussed and chose three social marketing behaviours that related to women. The three behaviours chosen were: safe sex, reduced tanning, and seat belt use. Once the topics were chosen the researcher searched for three images, one for each level of suggestiveness, for each behaviour. The level of suggestiveness was based on the coding system developed by Soley and Reid (1988) and used by Reichert and Carpenter (2004). The coding system has four levels: demurely dressed, suggestively dressed, partially clad, and nude (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Categories for Level of Suggestiveness

<i>Level of Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Amount of Clothing</i>	<i>Advertisement Image</i>
Demurely dressed	Everyday dress – no cleavage or mini-skirts	Non-suggestive image – safe sex, reduced tanning, & seat belt use
Suggestively dressed	Mini-skirts, short-shorts, and clothing that partially exposes the body	Moderately suggestive image – safe sex & seat belt use
Partially clad	Bathing suits, underwear & close-ups of bare shoulders	Moderately suggestive image – reduced tanning Highly suggestive image – safe sex & seat belt use
Nude	Not wearing any clothing except for maybe a towel	Highly suggestive image – reduced tanning

(Soley & Reid, 1988)

The non-suggestive images for all three behaviours were representative of demurely dressed models. The moderately suggestive images chosen for safe sex and seat belt use were considered suggestively dressed, while the moderately suggestive image for reduced tanning had a model that was partially clad as she was wearing a bathing suit. The highly suggestive image for safe sex and seat belt use had a model that was partially clad. The image for the highly suggestive ad for reduced tanning had a nude model as the model's breast was partially exposed, from behind with no nipple exposure, and she was only wearing a sarong as a skirt. This level of suggestiveness was chosen for the highly suggestive ad for reduced tanning purposefully. The moderately suggestive ad had a model wearing a bathing suit, partially clad; therefore, to have a higher level of suggestiveness it was necessary to go up a level in suggestiveness to nudity.

After the images were chosen the ads were created based on a replicated matched design (Jackson, O’Keefe, & Brashers, 1994). For each topic, the message and layout were the same. The only change made for each topic was the image used. This design was used to help control for confounding factors (Jackson et al., 1994). Further, to insure comparability of the messages, the three messages were modified from original social marketing campaigns based on the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) to insure similar severity, susceptibility, response efficacy, and self-efficacy (Witte, 1992). Witte proposed that in order for an ad to be effective, the individual accepts the message and acts upon it, the message should contain severity, susceptibility, response efficacy and self-efficacy. Severity represents how serious the threat is. Susceptibility is how likely the target audience believes that they are going to experience the perceived severity. Response efficacy is whether the individual believes that the response will prevent the threat. Finally, self-efficacy is the individual’s belief that they can perform the proposed response, this is also known as the behavioural solution. The three messages created for this study represent all four features. In addition to each behaviour having the same message a logo was created for each behaviour to ensure credibility. All three ads were formatted similarly with the same message and logo. All advertisements created are shown in Appendix A.

3.4 Variables

3.4.1 Feminism

3.4.1.1 Feminist Identification. There are two components to feminist identification: holding feminist beliefs and accepting the feminist label (Zucker, 2004). To measure whether a participant identifies with feminist beliefs the Feminist and

Behaviour measure was used (Zucker, 2004, see Appendix B for all measures). This scale consists of four yes or no questions. The first three questions measure the cardinal beliefs of feminism while the final question is a behavioural measure that has the participant either label oneself as a feminists or not (Zucker, 2004). Asking the participant if one would label oneself as a feminist forces one to make a behavioural choice about whether he/she would be willing to align oneself with feminists (Zucker, 2004). This scale has been previously validated in a study by Bay-Cheng and Zucker (2007).

3.4.1.2 Affective Reaction to Feminism. The Attitudes Toward Feminism and the Women's Movement (FWM) Scale (Fassinger, 1994) measures affective reactions to the women's movement and feminism. As previously discussed this scale was chosen because it is non-specific to a certain type of feminism. The scales consist of ten 5-point Likert, strongly disagree to strongly agree, questions. A high score indicates favourability towards feminism. This scale has two constructs, favourable and unfavourable reactions to the women's movement and feminism. This scale has high reliability ($\alpha = .849$). Additional validity had been provided by other studies (see Mackay & Covell, 1997; Zucker, 2004). It is expected that there will be a positive correlation between the Feminist and Behaviour measure and the FWM scale. Zucker (2004) used the FWM scale in addition to creating the Feminist and Behaviour measure and found that there was a positive correlation between the two measures.

3.4.2 Sexual Attitude

The Sex Attitude Scale (SAS) measures the participant's attitude towards sex (Mercer & Kohn, 1979). The scale consists of seven 5-point Likert, strongly disagree to strongly agree, questions. A high score indicates an individual with a liberal sexual

attitude while a low score indicates an individual with a conservative sexual attitude. This scale also has high reliability ($\alpha = .784$). Sengupta and Dahl (2008) validated this scale.

3.4.3 Social Desirability

Crowne and Marlowe (1964) defined social desirability as a need for social approval or acceptance, and the belief that if an individual acts in a culturally acceptable manner this social acceptance can be achieved. Social desirability bias occurs when a participant consciously or unconsciously responds in a manner that conforms to the culturally acceptable behaviour (Keillor, Owens, & Pettijohn, 2001). Therefore, social desirability was used as a control variable in this study.

The scale used to measure social desirability was constructed from the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Fisher & Fick, 1993). This form is a shorter version of the original SDS and consists of seven items. The seven items were highly correlated with the original scale, $r = .958$. The original seven items scale has the participant answer true or false; however, to remain consistent with the study this scale was administered by modifying to a 5-point Likert-scale, very infrequently to very frequently. This scale is reliable ($\alpha = .69$).

3.4.4 Suggestiveness

To measure the perceived level of suggestiveness of the model a one item 5-point Likert scale was used, not at all suggestive to very suggestive.

3.4.5 Attitude Towards the Ad

To measure attitude towards the ad, A_{AD} , three questions (poor/bad/dislike; excellent/good/like) were used. This is a common measure used in marketing research

and had high reliability, ($\alpha = .967$). A 5-point Likert scale was used for these questions. This scale has been validated in previous research (Sengupta & Dahl, 2008).

3.4.6 Behaviour Intention

Behaviour intention, BI, was measured by asking the participants three questions pertaining to the proposed behaviour, safe sex, reduced tanning, and seat belt use. This scale has been validated in previous research (Basil et al., 2007). The scale used by Basil et al. was a 7-point Likert scale; however, to remain consistent with the other measures this scale was modified to a 5-point Likert scale, definitely not to definitely. This scale is highly reliable ($\alpha = .893$).

3.4.7 Offensiveness

For each ad the participant was asked to rate whether one found the ad offensive in terms of ad execution based on a one item 5-point Likert scale, not at all to highly. This question has been validated by Waller (1999).

3.4.8 Demographic Variables

Demographic variables were used as control variables and consisted of commonly asked questions in research: age (18-25; 26-35; 36-45; 46-55), sex (only in phase one – pretest), education level (high school; some college; diploma; bachelor; post-graduate), ethnicity (Caucasian; Asian; Hispanic; African American; Native American), and marital status (single; in a relationship; married; separated/divorced; widowed).

3.5 Phase One - Pretest

3.5.1 Procedure and Participants

Phase one, the pretest, was conducted to test the scale validity and reliability and to ensure that the ads constructed matched with the premeditated level of suggestiveness.

This phase consisted of an experiment which was uploaded through the survey provider. Participants were recruited by email and referrals and directed to an online survey site. Forty-nine individuals from the community and student population participated in phase one. There were more females, 34 (70%), who participated in phase one, than males, 15 (30%). Participants ranged in age from 18 to 64 and were mainly Caucasian (81%).

Participants began by viewing a consent page which informed them of all necessary information and notified them that they would be eligible to win a \$50 draw by participating in the study (see Appendix C). To enter in the draw participants were given the option to provide their name and email address, which was kept separate from the results. Next, participants completed the Feminist and Behaviour scale (Zucker, 2004), the FWM scale (Fassinger, 1994), the SAS scale (Mercer & Kohn, 1979) and the shorter SDS scale (Fisher & Fick, 1993). Participants then viewed a series of three ads and answered questions pertaining to each ad after viewing: suggestiveness of ad, A_{AD} (Sengupta & Dahl, 2008), BI (Basil, et al., 2007), and offensiveness of ad execution (Waller, 1999). The experiment concluded with demographic questions (see Figure 3.1).

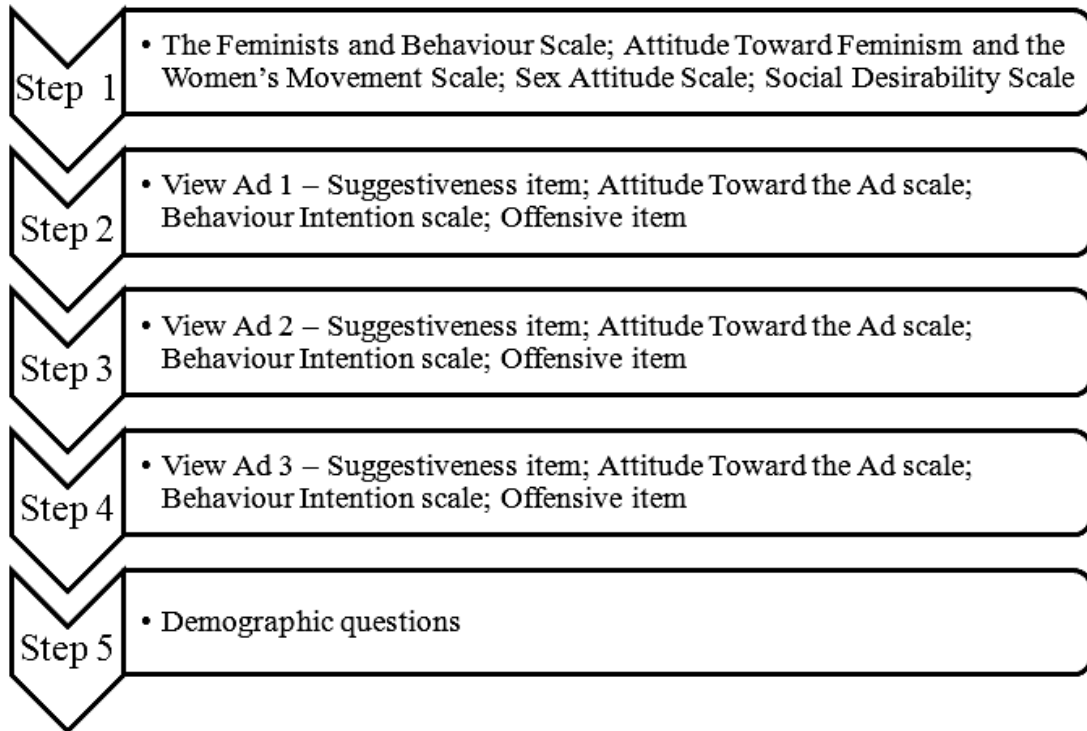


Figure 3.1: Experimental Procedure – Phase One

3.5.2 Results

Phase one, pretest, was conducted to ensure that the ad treatments were effective and that the scales used in the study were reliable and valid. Participants rated the suggestiveness of the ad on a scale of 1 to 5, not at all suggestive to very suggestive. The mean scores for suggestiveness indicated that the level of suggestiveness was suitable for the different levels, non-suggestive, moderately suggestive, and highly suggestive ($M = 1.98, 3.18, 3.85$, respectively). An ANOVA was conducted to ensure the ad treatment was significant [$F(2, 140) = 35.302, p < .000$].

Principle component factor analysis was performed for each scale using a varimax rotation. In addition to factor analysis being conducted, scale items were summed into a single scale and Cronbach alphas were calculated. Scales with Cronbach alphas above .70 were deemed reliable (Lee & Hooley, 2005). These calculations were preliminary

analysis to ensure the scales were reliable and valid for the main data collection. Each measure is briefly discussed below.

The Attitude Toward Feminism and the Women's Movement scale (FWM) loaded onto 2 constructs, favourable towards feminism (items 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, and 10) and unfavourable towards feminism (items 2, 5, 7, and 9). Both Cronbach alphas demonstrated high reliability, favourable towards feminism ($\alpha = .79$) and unfavourable towards feminism ($\alpha = .80$). The Sexual Attitude scale (SAS) loaded onto one construct and had high reliability as well ($\alpha = .85$). The Social Desirability Scale (SDS) loaded onto two constructs. Six (1, 2, 4, 5, 6, and 7) of the seven items loaded onto one construct while one item (I am always willing to admit when I make a mistake) loaded onto its own construct. This item was dropped from the pretest scale but retained for the main data collection in order to determine whether there was a variation. The one six-item construct has high reliability ($\alpha = .72$). Attitude towards the ad loaded onto one construct and had high reliability ($\alpha = .88$). Behaviour intention loaded onto one construct as well and has very high reliability ($\alpha = .92$).

The Feminist and Behaviour Measure which measured an individual's feminist identification was a categorical scale and therefore factor analysis and Cronbach alpha were not calculated. To determine an individual's feminist identification the three questions pertaining to feminist beliefs were summed resulting in a possible belief score of 1 through 3. An individual's feminist identification was determined by combining their belief score with whether one accepted the feminist label. Twenty participants (33.9%) were classified as non-feminists; they endorsed two or fewer beliefs and did not consider themselves a feminist. Egalitarians endorsed all three feminist beliefs but did not consider

themselves a feminist; seventeen participants (28.8%) were considered egalitarians. There were a total of 20 participants (33.9%) who were identified as feminists; they endorsed all three beliefs and accepted the feminist label. Two participants (3.4%) were classified as other; they did not endorse all three feminist beliefs but accepted the feminist label.

Correlation tests were conducted to determine if the interactions between the variables were in the hypothesized direction (see Table 3.3). Hypothesis 1a proposed that greater levels of suggestiveness will result in greater levels of offensiveness. The correlation for this hypothesis was in the hypothesized direction and significant ($r = .343$, $p < .05$). Participants found the social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness more offensive as suggestiveness increased. Hypothesis 1b projected that suggestiveness will be negatively related to attitude towards the ad. This correlation was also in the hypothesized direction and significant ($r = -.358$, $p < .05$), which suggests that the participants had a negative attitude towards the ad when exposed to social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness. Hypothesis 1c projected that suggestiveness will also be negatively related to behaviour intention; however, this correlation was not significant ($r = .113$).

There were three hypotheses based on how an individual's affective reaction to feminism influences the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. The first hypothesis, 2a, hypothesized that affective reaction to feminism will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness resulting in offensiveness being even greater as suggestiveness increases for an individual who is favourable towards feminism. The

correlation for this hypothesis was not significant ($r = .006$). Hypothesis 3a hypothesized that affective reaction to feminism will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the ad resulting in attitude towards the ad decreasing even further for individuals with a favourable attitude towards feminism. This correlation was also not significant ($r = .164$). The final hypothesis, hypothesis 4a, hypothesized that affective reaction to feminism would influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention producing a decreased behaviour intention for individual who are favourable towards feminism. The correlation result was counter-intuitive as it correlated in the opposite direction and was significant ($r = .228, p < .01$) indicating that individuals who are favourable towards feminism would have an increased behaviour intention for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness.

Feminist identification was hypothesized to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Feminists were expected to be more offended than egalitarians, hypothesis 2b. The correlation for this hypothesis was not significant ($r = .071$). Feminists were also expected to have a lower attitude towards the ad than egalitarians, hypothesis 3b, as well as a lower behaviour intention than egalitarians, hypothesis 4b. The correlation for A_{AD} was not significant ($r = .126$). The correlation for behaviour intention was once again counter-intuitive as it was a positive correlation and significant ($r = .237, p < .01$), suggesting that feminists would have a higher behaviour intention for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness.

Finally, sexual attitude was also expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad, and

behaviour intention. Sexual attitude was expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness resulting in an individual with a liberal sexual attitude not being as offended by social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness, hypothesis 5a. Hypothesis 5b predicted individuals with a liberal sexual attitude to have a positive attitude toward social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness. The correlation for hypothesis 5a and 5b were not significant, 5a offensiveness, ($r = .059$), and 5b A_{AD} ($r = .088$). Once again the correlation for behaviour intention, hypothesis 5c, was significant ($r = .185$, $p < .05$), which suggests that individuals with a liberal sexual attitude would have an increased behaviour intention for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness.

Table 3.3: Pretest Correlation Results

<i>DV</i> \ <i>IV</i>	<i>Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Affective Reaction to Feminism</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>	<i>Sexual Attitude</i>
Offensiveness	.343**	.006	.071	-.059
A_{AD}	-.385**	.164	.126	.088
BI	.113	.228**	.237**	.185*

** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

Due to the counter-intuitive negative correlations between the feminist measures and the outcome variables more detailed correlations were conducted. Correlations were tested for each level of suggestiveness for attitude towards the ad (see Table 3.4) and behaviour intention (see Table 3.5). Affective reaction to feminism was broken down into the levels of suggestiveness for attitude towards the ad. The correlations for both the non-suggestive and moderately suggestive ads were in the hypothesized direction ($r =$

.174, -.105, respectively); however, the correlation for the highly suggestive ad was not in the hypothesized direction ($r = .378, p < .01$) indicating that individuals who are favourable towards feminism have a positive attitude towards the ad with high suggestiveness. The correlation for the moderately suggestive ad correlated in the hypothesized direction but was not significant ($r = -.236$). The correlation for the highly suggestive ad was not in the hypothesized direction nor significant ($r = .174$).

Table 3.4: Attitude Towards the Ad Pretest Correlation Results

<i>Advertisement</i>	<i>Moderator</i>	<i>Affective Reaction to Feminism</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>
Non-suggestive A _{AD}		.174	.388**
Moderately Suggestive A _{AD}		-.105	-.236
Highly Suggestive A _{AD}		.378**	.174

** $p < 0.01$

In addition to attitude towards the ad being separated into the levels of suggestiveness correlations were also conducted for behaviour intention for each level of suggestiveness. The correlations for affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification correlated in the same direction for all three levels of suggestiveness. The highly suggestive ad was not in the hypothesized direction for affective reaction to feminism ($r = .248$). The correlation for feminist identification and the highly suggestive ad was not in the hypothesized direction and significant ($r = .343, p < .05$), indicating that feminists have an increased behaviour intention for highly suggestive advertisements. The correlations for the moderately suggestive ads were not in the hypothesized direction for affective reaction to feminism ($r = .093$) or feminist identification ($r = .041$). However, the non-suggestive ads correlated were in the hypothesized direction for

affective reaction to feminism ($r = .310, p < .05$) and feminist identification ($r = .305, p < .05$). The correlations for the highly suggestive ads were counter-intuitive as individuals who are feminists have an increase behaviour intention.

Table 3.5: Behaviour Intention Pretest Correlation Results

<i>Advertisement</i>	<i>Moderator</i>	<i>Affective Reaction to Feminism</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>
Non-Suggestive BI		.310*	.305*
Moderately Suggestive BI		.093	.041
Highly Suggestive BI		.248	.343*

* $p < 0.05$

3.6 Manipulation Development

Due to the counter-intuitive relationships between affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification with attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention in phase one a manipulation was added to the second and third phases of the study to investigate whether it would have an effect on how individuals react to a social marketing advertisement with suggestiveness. The purpose of adding the manipulation is to investigate whether adding the manipulation would assist with preventing the counter-intuitive results from occurring in the main study. In the second phase participants were randomly read one of the two manipulations while in the third phase participants were assigned one of the manipulations based on what day they were born.

The manipulation consisted of the two different ways an individual can interpret how women are represented in the media (see Appendix D). One manipulation was based on the feminist criticism that women are being exploited in the media for their sexuality (Jhally & Kilbourne, 2000; Wolf, 1990). The other manipulation was based on

how “Girl Power represents a ‘new girl’: assertive, dynamic, and unbound from the constraints of passive femininity” (Gonick, 2006, p. 2). Girl power emerged as a movement in response to sexism in the media (Gonick, 2006). In the 1990s, strong women began to emerge in the media through such television shows as Buffy the Vampire Slayer and pop groups as the Spice Girls representing a new female, a strong powerful beautiful woman who could be sexy (Driscoll, 1999; Gonick, 2006). It can be interpreted that women today are presented as active, desiring sexual objects who choose to present themselves in the objectified manner previously thought to be forced upon them because the objectification suits their empowered lifestyle (Gill, 2008).

The manipulation about “Girl Power”, empowerment, could be interpreted as how the participants were viewing the ads in phase one, since the correlations showed that participants were more favourable towards the ad for the highly suggestive ads. Adding the feminist criticism manipulation introduces participants to the other side of the story and raises their feminist consciousness (Bartky, 1975; Offen, 1988). Consciousness-raising is a term used by feminists to explain how feminists do not focus on different social issues than the rest of society but adjust how they view the social issue to bring into focus how women are represented (Bartky, 1975; Offen, 1988). By introducing the exploitation manipulation the participants are made aware of how women are exploited in the media which is expected to impact how they view the ad with suggestiveness resulting in a negative attitude towards the ad and a lower behaviour intention. Post-hoc analysis will be conducted to determine what impact the new manipulation has on a feminist’s reaction.

3.7 Phase Two – Short Interviews

3.7.1 Procedure and Participants

The purpose of phase two, short interviews, was to examine the counter-intuitive findings before the main study was conducted. This phase was conducted to determine what some of the reasons may be behind the positive attitude towards the suggestive ads found in phase one. The researcher wanted to determine if the empowerment manipulation was the perspective females had towards the ads with sexual appeals. In addition, the researcher wanted to investigate if being exposed to the exploitation manipulation had an effect on their perspective of the advertisements with suggestiveness.

This phase consisted of nine short interviews which took 10-15 minutes. The researcher decided to use only female participants for the main study because the messages created were centered on women's issues and was more applicable to a female sample. Females were approached in various public places and asked if they would be willing to answer a few questions. Public places were chosen because it offered a convenient more representative sample. Before any questions were asked participants were asked to sign a letter of consent (see Appendix E). The female participants from phase one were not asked to participate in this phase or the next as there was no way of identifying them since the only personal information collected was for the draw which was destroyed after the name was drawn.

To determine if participants were feminists, egalitarians or non-feminists the Feminist and Behaviour measure was used. This scale was chosen for its straightforward application and ease of determining whether the participant was feminist, egalitarian or

non-feminist. Of the nine female participants two were feminists, three were egalitarians and four were non-feminists. Upon determining their feminist identification the participant was shown one of the three highly suggestive advertisements and asked what their first initial thoughts were. Only the three highly suggestive advertisements were used in this phase as the researcher was interested in how individuals were responding to these advertisements since the highly suggestive advertisements had the positive correlation with affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification in the pretest. After discussing the advertisement with the participant the researcher read one of the two manipulations and discussed the manipulation with the participant. Next, the participant was asked if hearing the manipulation changed their view of the advertisement. Once the participant discussed the manipulation and whether it changed one's perspective, the researcher concluded the interview and thanked the participant for one's time (see Figure 3.2).

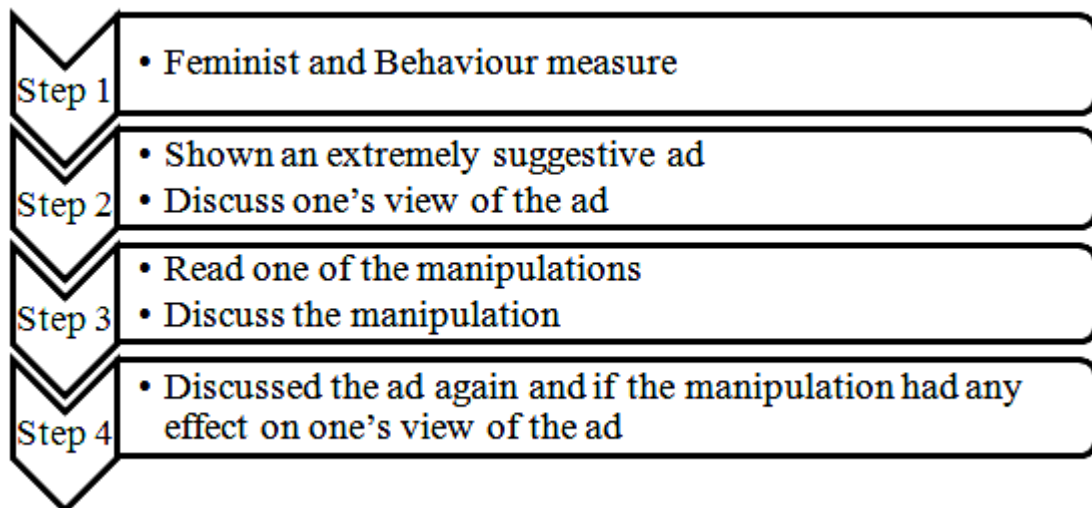


Figure 3.2: Short Interview Procedure – Phase Two

3.7.2 Results

Overall, the participants thought the ads were extreme and the use of sex was unnecessary for the intended messages. As one feminist stated “a real concern [tanning] doesn’t need to be shown in this way [sexual] ... [it] undermines the message.” A feminist who saw the highly suggestive seat belt use advertisement commented that the advertisement was “out there even for commercials.” An egalitarian observed that the advertisement she saw, highly suggestive safe sex ad, was “over the top.” She thought that at first the ad was “advertising a bra.” Non-feminists reacted negatively to the ads as well; one non-feminist criticized the highly suggestive seat belt use advertisement as being “trashy, degrading and inappropriate.” These comments provide support for the hypothesized interaction between feminism and the suggestive advertisements and are contrary to the counter-intuitive results found in phase one. The females who were interviewed in this phase gave no reasons behind the positive correlations.

The discussion that followed after hearing the manipulation contained both positive and negative remarks. The discussion surrounding the empowerment manipulation was mixed. A feminist commented that there are “different standards for women, you don’t see guys doing it.” One egalitarian thought that “society was backwards, women are identified for their looks and not for who they are.” A non-feminist thought that it “depends on the context whether women are empowered or not.” There were positive remarks from an egalitarian who thought that “women are portraying that they are confident when they express their sexuality.” The comments provided for the empowerment manipulation demonstrates that not all participants thought that this manipulation’s perspective is true, therefore implying that when women are expressing

their sexuality it is not a form of female empowerment. However, some participants thought that they were empowered when they expressed their sexuality.

The exploitation manipulation caused a lot of discussion about who was actually exploiting whom. One egalitarian said that “they [media and females] are exploiting each other,” while another egalitarian thought that “the media is not exploiting females, females are exploiting themselves.” The egalitarian who thought that they are exploiting each other commented “who’s to blame?” A non-feminist thought that “women are doing it voluntarily.” “Why does it have to be that way?” was one feminist’s statement. The different points of view expressed demonstrate that women are unsure if women are empowered or exploited in the media.

The main reason for phase two was to investigate if being exposed to the feminist criticism perspective could change the viewer’s reaction to the advertisement. Based on the discussion during the interviews exposure to the manipulations did not appear to change most of the participants’ views. As one feminist stated it told her what “lenses she should use to look at the ad, but it didn’t change how she viewed the ad.” Only one participant, an egalitarian, commented how after hearing and discussing the exploitation manipulation it made her “think about her [the model] as a person, it brought her side of the story into light.” Even though the manipulation had no effect on how participants viewed the ad once they were exposed to the manipulation the researcher decided that the manipulation would remain in the study. It is expected that the being exposed to the manipulation will affect how a feminist reacts to the social marketing advertisement. More specifically, it is expected that a feminist who is exposed to the exploitation manipulation will be more offended, react more negatively and have a lower behaviour

intention than a feminist who is exposed to the empowerment manipulation, providing additional support for hypotheses, 2b, 3b, and 4b.

H2b: *Feminists will report greater levels of offensiveness than egalitarians.*

H3b: *Feminists will report less favourable attitudes towards the sexual appeal ads than egalitarians.*

H4b: *Feminists will report lower behavioural intentions than egalitarians.*

3.8 Phase Three – Main Study

3.8.1 Procedure and Participants

The hypotheses testing occurred in phase three. This phase followed the same experimental design as phase one except for the addition of the manipulation tested in phase two. The manipulation was shown after the participants completed the various scales, before they saw any of the advertisements (see Figure 3.3). As a result of the manipulation not changing how the participants viewed the advertisement in phase two, the researcher placed the manipulation before the participant saw any advertisements to see if reading it would have any effect of the participant's reaction. The effect of this manipulation will be tested post-hoc.

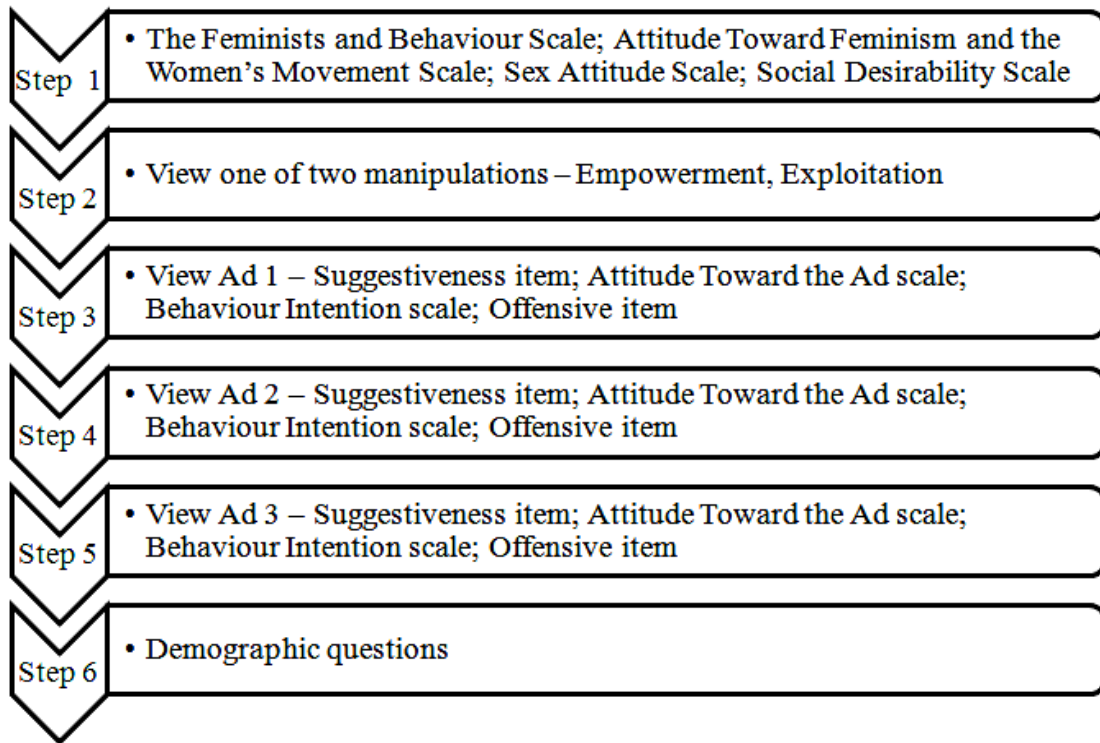


Figure 3.3: Experimental Procedure – Phase Three

Participants were recruited by the online survey provider, Market Tools, which has an existing pool of participants. Market Tools randomly selected female participants between the ages of 18 to 55 and sent them an email to participate in this study. Individuals who chose to participate in this study received 50 “ZoomPoints.” Prior to commencing the survey, participants were presented with a consent form (see Appendix F).

Two-hundred and twenty females spread across North America participated in this study (see Table 3.6). Participants ranged in age from 17-60, 27.7% were between 18 and 25, 29.1% were between 26 and 35, 21.4% were between 36 and 45 and 20.9% were between 46 and 55. There was a diverse educational representation with the sample, 40% had some college, 27% had a high school diploma, 19.5% had a Bachelor’s degree, 10%

had Post-Graduate studies and the remaining 6.4% had a diploma. A large majority of participants, 80.9%, were Caucasian. A broad sample was chosen for this study to capture a thorough representation of the different perspectives towards feminism.

Table 3.6: Demographic Characteristics

<i>Demographic Characteristic</i>	<i>Sample Characteristics</i>
Age	18-25 – 27.7%
	26-35 – 28.1%
	36-45 – 21.4%
	46-55 – 20.9%
Education	High school diploma – 27%
	Some college – 40%
	Diploma – 6.4%
	Bachelor’s degree – 19.5%
	Post-graduate – 10%
Ethnicity	Caucasian – 80.9%
	Hispanic – 8.6%
	African American – 5.5%
	Asian – 2.3%
	Native American – 1.4%
	Other – 1.4%
Marital Status	Single – 20.5%
	In a relationship/Common-Law – 17.9%
	Married – 52.5%
	Separated/Divorced – 7.8%
	Widowed – 1.4%

4. Results and Analyses

A detailed description of the results and analyses is given in this chapter. Data analyses include factor analyses, reliability analyses, correlations, comparative means, ANOVAs and MANCOVAs. The measures will be discussed first followed by the ad treatment check and the manipulation effect. Each hypothesis will be analyzed and briefly discussed. Post-hoc analyses will be discussed following the main data analyses. SPSS for windows software was used to complete all data analyses. Before any detailed analyses were conducted basic descriptives were performed to check for outliers and missing data. One outlier was found and was removed from the data. Fortunately, no missing data were discovered.

4.1 Reliability Analyses

For each measure individual reliability analysis was conducted to ensure that the scale was reliable and valid. Although reliability analyses were conducted on the pretest data and the results indicated reliability, the sample size was small; therefore, reliability analyses were conducted again with the main study data as the sample size was larger. Principle component factor analysis was performed for each scale using a varimax rotation. Scale items were summed into a single scale for each measure and Cronbach alphas were calculated. Scales with Cronbach alphas above 0.70 were deemed reliable (Lee & Hooley, 2005). Each measure is discussed separately below.

4.1.1 Feminism

4.1.1.1 Feminist Identification. Since the Feminist and Behaviour measure was categorical factor analysis and Cronbach alpha were not calculated. To determine a participant's feminist identification the three questions pertaining to feminist beliefs were

summed resulting in a possible beliefs score of one through three. Next, their identification was determined based on their belief score and whether they accepted the feminist label. A non-feminist endorsed two or fewer feminist beliefs and answered whether they considered themselves as a feminist as “no”. There were a total of 64 non-feminists, 29% of the sample. An egalitarian endorsed all three feminist beliefs but did not consider themselves a feminist. This was the largest group, 42%, with 93 participants being classified as an egalitarian. In order for a participant to be considered a feminist they had to endorse all three feminist beliefs and consider themselves as a feminist. Forty-five participants, 21%, were classified as a feminist. There was a small portion of participants, 19 in total and 8% of the sample, who considered themselves a feminist but did not endorse all three feminist beliefs. These individuals are classified as “other” since they consider themselves a feminist but do not support feminist beliefs.

4.1.1.2 Affective Reaction to Feminism. The 10-item FWM scale loaded onto two factors with Eigenvalues greater than one (see Table 4.1). The first factor was named favourable towards feminism. This factor had an Eigenvalue of 4.31 explaining 43.1% of the variance and an alpha of 0.829. The second factor was labelled unfavourable towards feminism. This factor has an Eigenvalue of 1.30 explaining 12.9% of the variance and an alpha of 0.735. Both of the alphas indicate that the FWM scale is reliable. To determine if the FWM scale was internally consistent both factors were correlated ($r = .525, p = .01$). Since both factors were correlated they were combined into one single measure with a Cronbach alpha of 0.849 indicating high reliability as one measure.

Table 4.1: Factor Analysis for FWM

<i>Individual Item</i>	<i>Factor 1</i>	<i>Factor 2</i>
The leaders of the women's movement may be extreme, but they have the right idea	0.687	0.204
More people would favour the women's movement if they knew more about it	0.757	0.115
The women's movement has positively influenced relationships between men and women	0.630	0.012
The women's movement has made important gains in equal rights and political power for women	0.761	0.233
Feminist principles should be adopted everywhere	0.697	0.330
I am overjoyed that women's liberation is finally happening in this country	0.709	0.304
There are better ways for women to fight for equality than through the women's movement	0.016	0.762
The women's movement is too radical and extreme in its views	0.345	0.664
Feminists are too visionary for a practical world	0.135	0.701
Feminists are a menace to this nation and the world	0.334	0.719
Factor 1 – 'Favourable towards Feminism'		
Factor 2 – 'Unfavourable towards Feminism'		

4.1.2 Sexual Attitude

The 7-item SAS scale loaded onto one factor with an Eigenvalue of 3.10 and 44.2% of variance explained (see Table 4.2). This scale has an alpha of 0.784, indicating reliability.

Table 4.2: Factor Analysis for SAS

<i>Individual Item</i>	<i>Factor 1</i>
Any sensible person would try to find out if he/she and his/her spouse were sexually compatible before marriage	0.681
I want/wanted my spouse to be a virgin	0.639
I personally would feel guilty if I engaged in sexual relations with a person who I did not love	0.769
I personally would feel guilty if I engaged in sexual relation with a person whom I was not engaged or married	0.705
There should be no legal restriction on sexual experimentation between consenting adults	0.587
I would feel guilty about masturbating	0.550
I approve of unmarried couples engaging in sexual intercourse	0.696

4.1.3 Social Desirability

The SDS scale had 7-items that loaded onto two factors (see Table 4.3). Six of the items loaded onto one factor while one single item loaded onto its own factor, therefore, this single item was dropped from the scale. The factor with six items had an Eigenvalue of 2.40 and explained 34.2% of the variance. The alpha for this scale was 0.69. Although this scale had an alpha below 0.70 it was still interpreted as reliable since it almost equalled 0.70 and was conceptually sound.

Table 4.3: Factor Analysis for SDS

<i>Individual Item</i>	<i>Factor 1</i>	<i>Factor 2</i>
I like to gossip at times	0.405	0.092
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone	0.712	0.032
I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake*	0.026	0.970
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive	0.720	-0.100
At times I have really insisted on having things my own way	0.597	0.033
I have been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from my own	0.671	0.077
I have deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings	0.630	-0.227

*item dropped from study due to loading onto its own factor

4.1.4 Attitude Towards the Ad

Attitude towards the ad loaded onto one factor (see Table 4.4) with an Eigenvalue of 2.82 that explained 93.9% of the variance. This scale had a high Cronbach alpha ($\alpha = 0.967$), indicating high reliability.

Table 4.4: Factor Analysis for A_{AD}

<i>Individual Item</i>	<i>Factor 1</i>
Poor/Excellent	0.972
Bad/Good	0.981
Dislike/Like	0.954

4.1.5 Behaviour Intention

Behaviour intention loaded onto one factor (see Table 4.5), with an Eigenvalue of 2.48 that explained 82.6% of the variance. This scale had high reliability with a Cronbach alpha of 0.893.

Table 4.5: Factor Analysis for BI

<i>Individual Item</i>	<i>Factor 1</i>
If I saw this ad, it would make me more likely to do what it wants me to	0.917
I will pay more attention to the issue the ad is talking about in the future	0.926
I would like to find out more about the topic the ad is talking about	0.884

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Once the measures were each constructed into scales, descriptive statistics were calculated. Means and standard deviations (see Table 4.6) were determined. The means for affective reaction to feminism, sexual attitude and A_{AD} are all in the relative middle of the 5-point scale. The remaining three scales, social desirability, offensiveness, and BI, are in the lower end of the scale which is to be expected with the nature of the study, as participants were expected to answer on the lower end due to the hypothesized interactions.

Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics for Measures

<i>Measure</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i> [#]
Affective Reaction to Feminism	3.41 (0.57) [#]
Sexual Attitude	3.50 (0.85) [#]
Social Desirability	2.41 (.56) [#]
Offensiveness	2.18 (1.28) ^{\$}
A _{AD}	3.12 (1.20) ^{\$}
BI	2.94 (1.11) ^{\$}

[#] N = 219

^{\$} N = 657

4.3 Ad Treatment Check

An ANOVA was conducted to ensure the social marketing advertisements created for this study were the appropriate level of suggestiveness. Participants rated the level of suggestiveness for each ad on a scale of 1 to 5, not at all suggestive to very suggestive. The mean scored for participants' rating indicate that the level of suggestiveness was successfully manipulated for each level, non-suggestive, moderately suggestive, and highly suggestive ($M = 2.26, 3.06, 3.76$, respectively; see Figure 4.1). ANOVA results confirm that the ad treatment was significant [$F(2, 656) = 87.762, p < .001$].

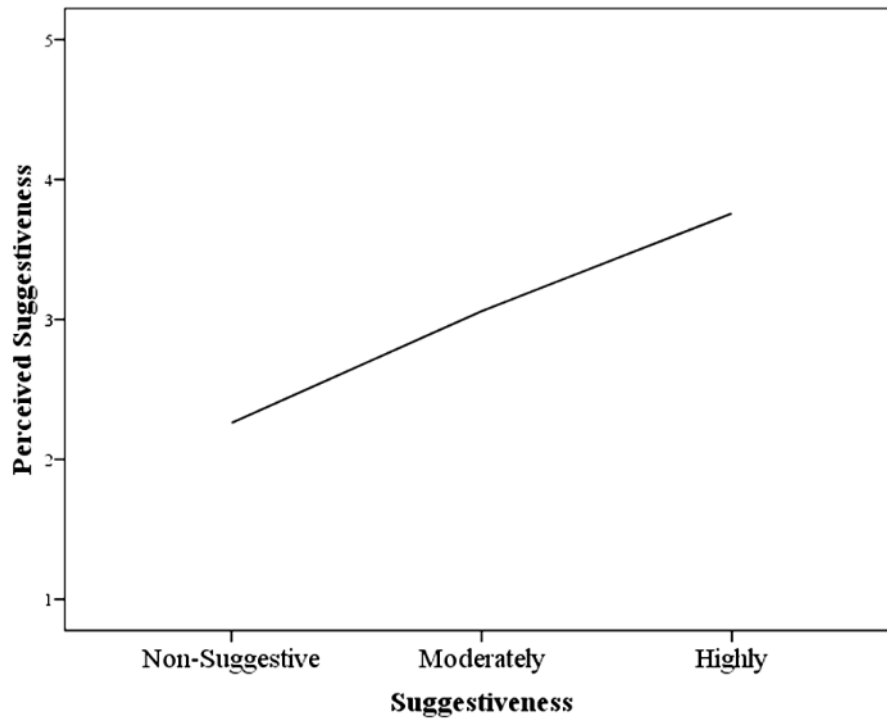


Figure 4.1: Ad Treatment

4.4 Manipulation Effect

A manipulation was added to the study due to the counter-intuitive results from phase one, pretest. The correlations for affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification with behaviour intention and affective reaction to feminism with attitude towards the ad were counter-intuitive. Affective reaction to feminism and attitude towards the ad did not correlate in the hypothesized direction for the highly suggestive ad ($r = .378, p < .01$), which indicates that individuals who are favourable towards feminism have a favourable attitude towards the ad for highly suggestive ads. Although the correlation for feminist identification and attitude towards the ad for the highly suggestive ad was not significant it was still not in the hypothesized direction ($r = 0.174$). The correlations for both affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification were

not in the hypothesized direction for the highly suggestive ad, affective reaction to feminism ($r = 0.228, p < .01$), and feminist identification ($r = 0.237, p < .01$). These correlations indicate that both individuals who are favourable towards feminism and individuals who are feminists have increased behaviour intentions for highly suggestive social marketing advertisements.

Due to these counter-intuitive relationships the researcher added a manipulation to the second and third phase of the study that attempted to expose participants to competing feminist arguments. Even though the manipulation did not appear to have an effect on the participants in phase two the researcher included the manipulation phase three. In phase three, participants viewed one of the two manipulations based on what day they were born before they saw any of the advertisements. There was a fairly equal split for the manipulation 342 viewed the empowerment manipulation while 315 viewed the exploitation manipulation. Comparative means were calculated for each manipulation with each level of suggestiveness for each of the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Feminist identification was used as the researcher was interested in how the manipulation affected feminists. Each dependent variable will be discussed in turn.

4.4.1 Offensiveness

Offensiveness was the first dependent variables examined to observe if the manipulation had any effect on the participant's reaction. The means were calculated for all three levels of suggestiveness (see Table 4.7). Based on the means for offensiveness participants who were exposed to the exploitation manipulation were slightly more offended by the ads than individuals who were exposed to the empowerment

manipulation. This difference is also apparent by viewing the visual representation for offensiveness and the manipulations. The two graphs created for this dependent variable are not identical for the empowerment manipulation (see Figure 4.2) and the exploitation manipulation (see Figure 4.3).

The researcher was mainly interested in how the manipulation affected feminists as the exploitation manipulation was expected to provide further support for the feminist criticism on how women are represented in the media. Feminists who viewed the exploitation manipulation reacted more negatively to the moderately suggestive and highly suggestive advertisements ($M = 2.27, 3.09$, respectively) than feminists who viewed the empowerment manipulation ($M = 2.00, 2.52$, respectively). Although the means were going in the hypothesized direction an ANOVA provides evidence that the manipulation was not significant for offensiveness [$F(1, 17) = .394, p = .539$]. While the participants exposed to the exploitation manipulation reacted more negatively to the advertisements with suggestiveness than participants exposed to the empowerment manipulation the difference between the two manipulations was not large enough to make a difference. Therefore, the manipulation does not provide further support for the expected results.

Table 4.7: Manipulation and Feminist Identification – Offensiveness

<i>Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>		<i>Empowerment</i>	<i>Exploitation</i>
Non-Suggestive	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	1.48 (0.972)	1.68 (1.08)
		<i>N</i>	33	31
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	1.43 (0.742)	1.48 (0.876)
		<i>N</i>	49	44
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	1.65 (1.03)	1.23 (0.612)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.56 (1.74)	1.88 (1.25)
		<i>N</i>	9	8
Moderately	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.37 (1.21)	2.72 (1.30)
		<i>N</i>	32	32
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.08 (1.12)	2.12 (1.20)
		<i>N</i>	50	43
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.00 (1.13)	2.27 (1.28)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	1.56 (.729)	2.62 (1.06)
		<i>N</i>	9	8
Highly	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.62 (1.34)	3.09 (1.45)
		<i>N</i>	32	32
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.66 (1.30)	2.72 (1.30)
		<i>N</i>	50	43
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.52 (1.28)	3.09 (1.38)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.44 (1.67)	2.50 (1.31)
		<i>N</i>	9	8

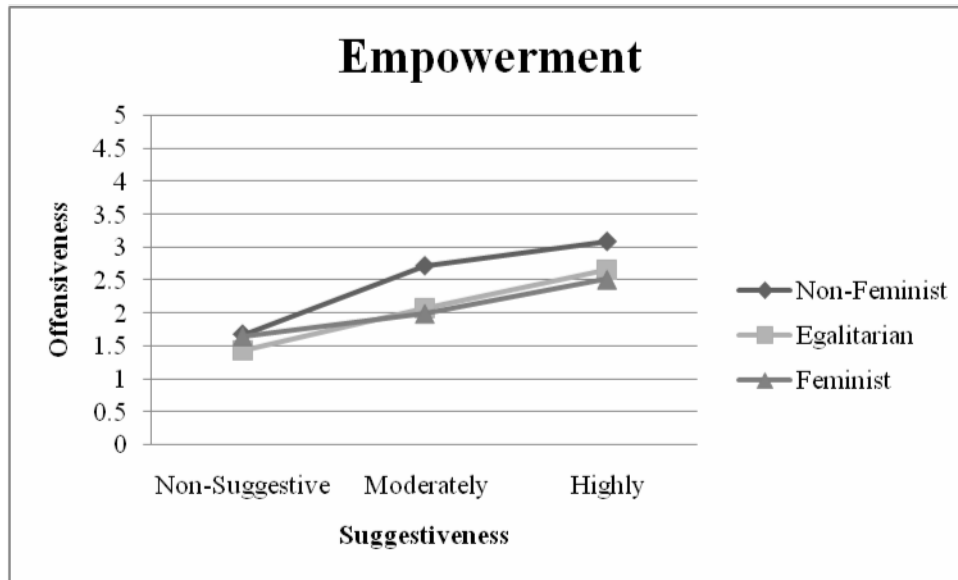


Figure 4.2: Empowerment Manipulation for Feminist Identification - Offensiveness

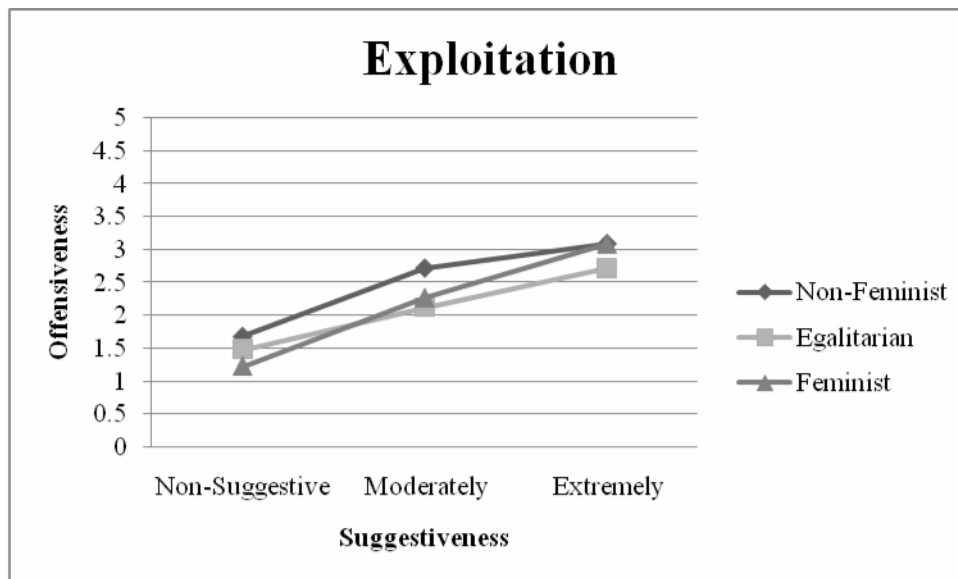


Figure 4.3: Exploitation Manipulation for Feminist Identification - Offensiveness

4.4.2 Attitude Towards the Ad

Attitude towards the ad was expected to be lower for feminists that were exposed to the exploitation manipulation. Based on the means for attitude towards the ad (see Table 4.8) feminists that viewed the exploitation manipulation had lower A_{AD} for the

highly suggestive ad ($M = 2.42$) than feminist that viewed the empowerment manipulation ($M = 3.06$). The opposite effect occurred for feminists that viewed the exploitation manipulation for the moderately suggestive ad. Feminists that viewed the exploitation manipulation had a more positive A_{AD} ($M = 3.15$) than feminists who viewed the empowerment manipulation ($M = 3.05$). A visual representation for how the manipulation affected attitude towards the ad can be viewed in Figure 4.4, empowerment, and Figure 4.5, exploitation. The figures display how the effect of the manipulation is different for the two manipulations. There is a larger drop for the highly suggestive ad for participants that viewed the exploitation manipulation. The means and the visual representation indicate that the exploitation manipulation only affected feminists' reaction to the highly suggestive ads as opposed to affecting both the moderately suggestive and highly suggestive ads. However, the ANOVA results show that the manipulation was not significant for attitude towards the ad [$F(1, 17) = .007, p = .934$]. Based on the results the manipulation does not provide further support for the expected results.

Table 4.8: Manipulation and Feminist Identification - A_{AD}

<i>Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>	<i>Empowerment</i>	<i>Exploitation</i>	
Non-Suggestive	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.29 (1.27)	3.57 (1.12)
		<i>N</i>	33	31
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.62 (0.977)	3.71 (1.09)
		<i>N</i>	49	44
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.80(0.875)	3.68 (1.05)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.74 (1.29)	3.13 (1.22)
		<i>N</i>	9	8

Table 4.8 (continued): Manipulation and Feminist Identification - A_{AD}

<i>Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	<i>Empowerment</i>	<i>Exploitation</i>
Moderately	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.84 (1.19)	2.85 (1.20)
		<i>N</i>	32	32
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.01 (1.00)	3.20 (1.12)
		<i>N</i>	50	43
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.05 (0.820)	3.15 (1.05)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.52 (1.42)	3.08 (0.751)
		<i>N</i>	9	8
Highly	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.67 (1.35)	2.82 (1.30)
		<i>N</i>	32	32
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.69 (1.23)	2.47 (1.21)
		<i>N</i>	50	43
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.06 (1.19)	2.42 (1.09)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.11 (1.46)	3.58 (1.14)
		<i>N</i>	9	8

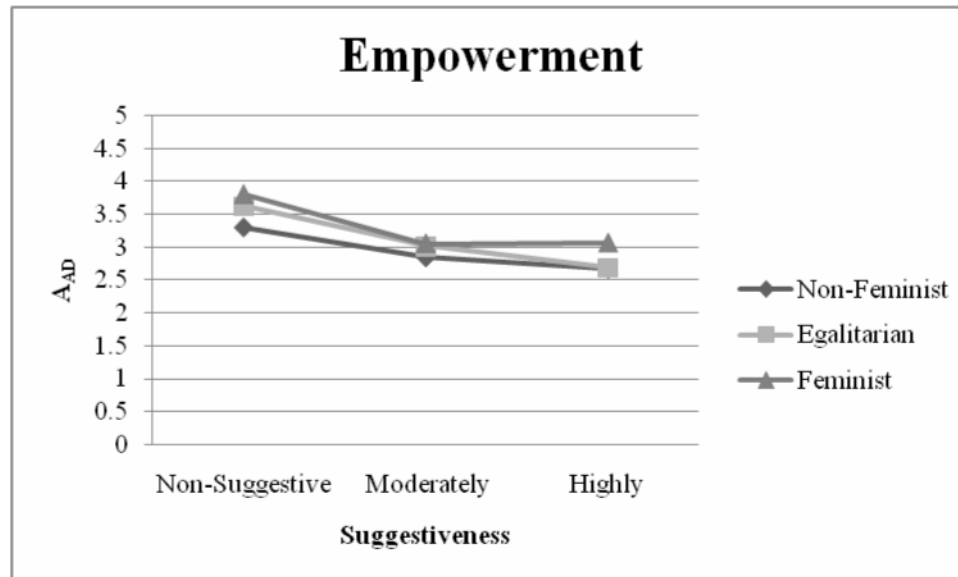


Figure 4.4: Empowerment Manipulation for Feminist Identification - A_{AD}

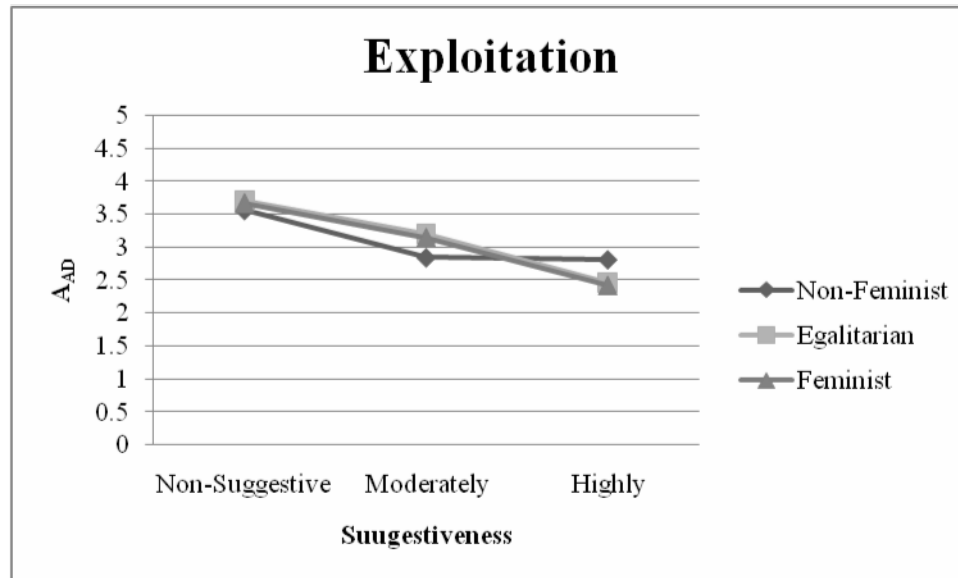


Figure 4.5: Exploitation Manipulation for Feminist Identification - A_{AD}

4.4.3 Behaviour Intention

Behaviour intention was expected to be lower for feminists who viewed the exploitation manipulation. The means for behaviour intention (see Table 4.5) followed a similar pattern to the means for attitude towards the ad. Feminists had a lower behaviour intention for the exploitation manipulation ($M = 2.41$) than egalitarians ($M = 2.96$) but not for the moderately suggestive ad, feminists ($M = 3.05$) and egalitarians ($M = 2.91$). The visual representation for behaviour intention is also very similar to the attitude towards the ad visual representation for both empowerment (see Figure 4.6) and exploitation (see Figure 4.7). The means and visual representation for behaviour intention display that the exploitation manipulation only affected the highly suggestive ad for the feminists. The ANOVA results show that the manipulation was not significant for behaviour intention [$F(1, 17) = .026, p = .873$]. Therefore, the manipulation does not provide further support for the expected results.

Table 4.9: Manipulation and Feminist Identification – BI

<i>Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>		<i>Empowerment</i>	<i>Exploitation</i>
Non-Suggestive	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.03 (1.11)	3.25 (1.12)
		<i>N</i>	33	31
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.30 (0.883)	3.39 (1.08)
		<i>N</i>	49	44
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.49 (0.920)	3.42 (0.950)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.56 (1.30)	3.25 (1.22)
		<i>N</i>	9	8
Moderately	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.65 (1.01)	2.65 (1.05)
		<i>N</i>	32	32
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.85 (1.10)	3.00 (1.07)
		<i>N</i>	50	43
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.91 (1.05)	3.05 (.994)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.19 (1.32)	3.04 (.453)
		<i>N</i>	9	8
Highly	Non-Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.36 (1.25)	2.67 (1.03)
		<i>N</i>	32	32
	Egalitarian	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.57 (1.08)	2.57 (1.19)
		<i>N</i>	50	43
	Feminist	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	2.96 (1.13)	2.41 (1.06)
		<i>N</i>	23	22
	Other	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>	3.00 (1.28)	3.63 (.966)
		<i>N</i>	9	8

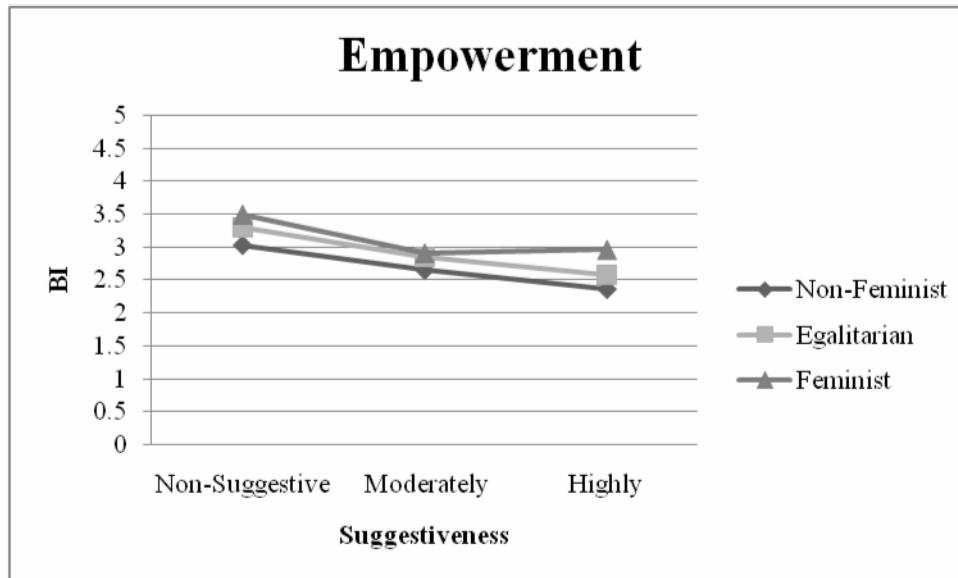


Figure 4.6: Empowerment Manipulation for Feminist Identification - BI

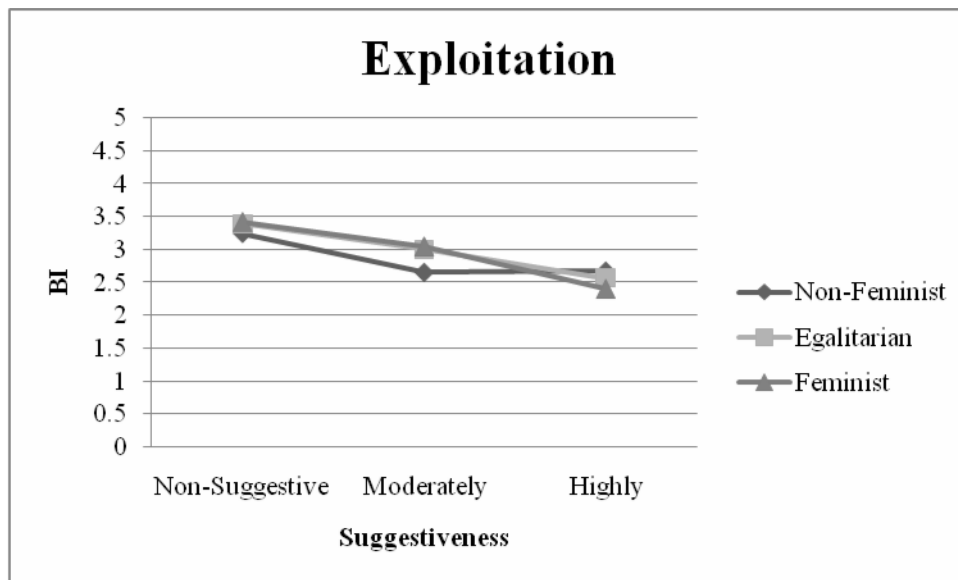


Figure 4.7: Exploitation Manipulation for Feminist Identification - BI

4.5 Hypotheses Testing

To test the hypotheses a Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was performed (see Table 4.15). Each hypothesis will be discussed below. A MANCOVA was chosen as the statistical tool for this study as the independent variable,

suggestiveness, was categorical and the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad, and behaviour intention, were continuous and correlated (see Table 4.10). Since the independent variable was categorical moderators, affective reaction to feminism and sexual attitude had to be transferred from continuous variables into categorical variables. Moderator feminist identification was already continuous. Affective reaction to feminism was transferred into a categorical variable with two categories, favourable towards feminism and unfavourable towards feminism. A mean split was used to split the sample into two, a score above the mean ($M = 3.41$) was classified as favourable towards feminism, while a score below the mean was classified as unfavourable towards feminism. Sexual attitude was also transferred into a two category categorical variable by a mean split. A score above the mean ($M = 3.50$) was classified as a liberal sexual attitude and a score below the mean was classified as a conservative sexual attitude. Social Desirability was a control variable and had no effect, Wilks' Lambda multivariate test for overall difference among groups was not significant ($p = .112$). This indicates that the variance amongst the groups is explained by the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad, and behaviour intention, and not social desirability.

Table 4.10: Dependent Variables Correlation Results

		<i>Offensiveness</i>	<i>A_{AD}</i>	<i>BI</i>
Offensiveness	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-0.600**	-.457**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	657	657	657
<i>A_{AD}</i>	Pearson Correlation	-.600**	1.000	.745**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	657	657	657
BI	Pearson Correlation	-.457**	.745**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	657	657	657

** $p = 0.01$ (2-tailed)

4.5.1 Suggestiveness

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the dependent variables with suggestiveness as the independent variable (see Table 4.11). The mean scores suggest that the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness are interacting in the hypothesized direction for hypothesis 1a, as suggestiveness increased, offensiveness increased as well ($M = 1.55, 2.23, 2.74$). Attitude towards the ad also implies that as suggestiveness increased, attitude towards the ad decreased which is in the hypothesized direction for hypothesis 1b ($M = 3.59, 3.04, 2.72$). Finally, the means for behaviour intention were also in the hypothesized direction for hypothesis 1c suggesting that behaviour intention is negatively related to suggestiveness ($M = 3.31, 2.87, 2.64$).

Table 4.11: Descriptive Statistics for Suggestiveness

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Offensiveness – Non-Suggestive	1.55 (0.97)
Offensiveness – Moderate Suggestive	2.23 (1.19)
Offensiveness – Highly Suggestive	2.74 (1.34)
A _{AD} – Non-Suggestive	3.59 (1.08)
A _{AD} – Moderate Suggestive	3.04 (1.08)
A _{AD} – Highly Suggestive	2.72 (1.25)
BI – Non-Suggestive	3.31 (1.02)
BI – Moderately Suggestive	2.87 (1.05)
BI – Highly Suggestive	2.64 (1.14)

N = 219

The Wilks' Lambda multivariate test of overall differences among groups was significant ($p = .001$). This statistical output indicates that the variance amongst the groups is explained by the level of suggestiveness. Univariate between-subject tests shows that suggestiveness was significantly related to offensiveness [$F(2, 657) = 18.316$, $\text{Eta} = .158$, $p = .001$; see Figure 4.8], attitude towards the ad [$F(2, 657) = 8.837$, $\text{Eta} = .092$, $p = .001$; see Figure 4.9], and behaviour intention [$F(2, 657) = 5.937$, $\text{Eta} = .066$, $p = .003$; see Figure 4.10]. Thus supporting H1a, H1b, and H1c.

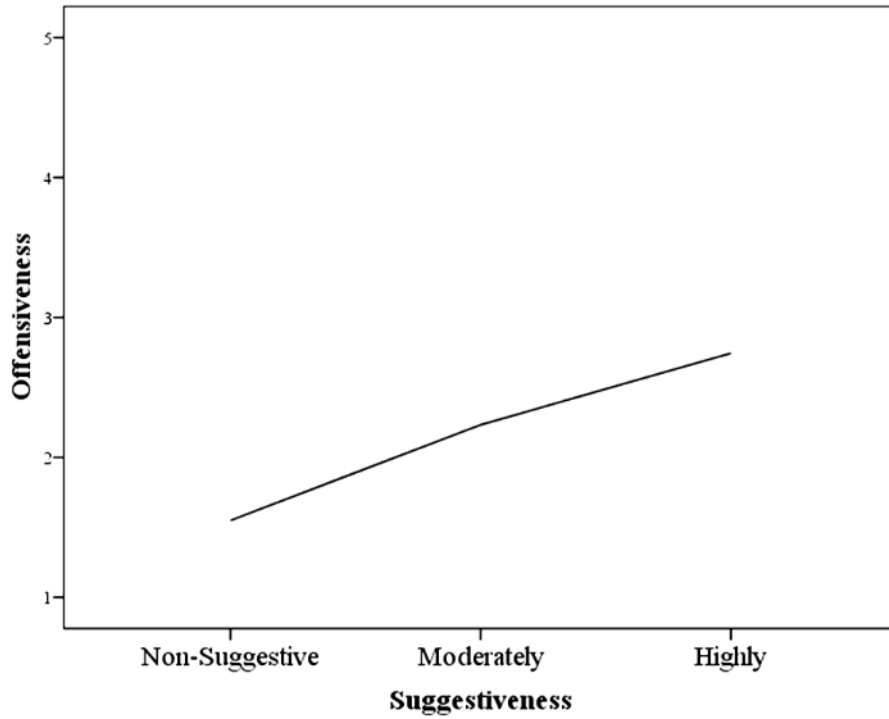


Figure 4.8: Hypothesis 1a

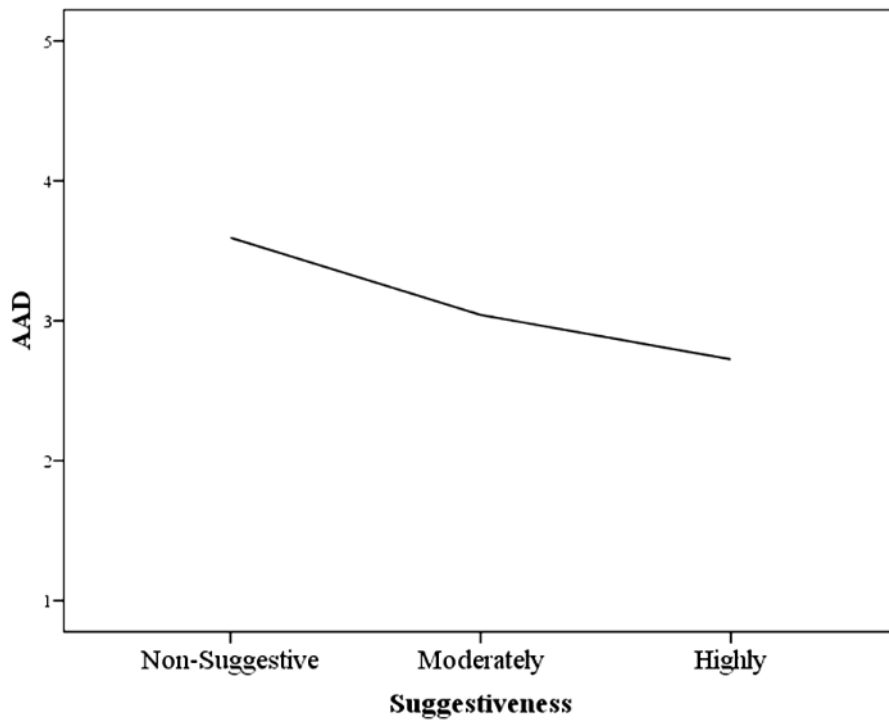


Figure 4.9: Hypothesis 1b

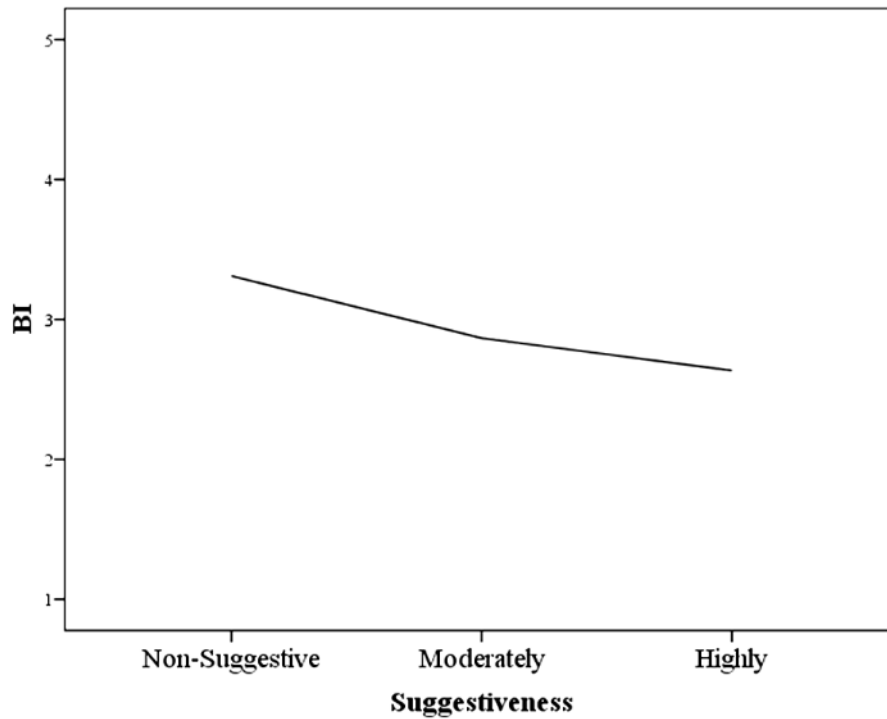


Figure 4.10: Hypothesis 1c

4.5.2 Affective Reaction to Feminism

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the dependent variables with affective reaction to feminism as the independent variable (see Table 4.12). Hypothesis 2a was that an individual's affective reaction to feminism would influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness; an individual who is favourable towards feminism will be more offended by social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness than an individual who is unfavourable towards feminism. The means however, indicate that this is not the case as individuals who were favourable towards feminism had higher means for all three levels of suggestiveness ($M = 1.58, 2.41, 2.88$) than individuals who were unfavourable towards feminism ($M = 1.50, 2.02, 2.63$), which displays that an individual

who is favourable towards feminism is more offended than an individual who is unfavourable towards feminism.

Hypothesis 3a was that an individual's affective reaction to feminism would influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the ad resulting in an individual who is favourable towards feminism having a more negative attitude towards social marketing advertisements that use suggestiveness than an individual who is unfavourable towards feminism. This however, was not that case since individuals who were unfavourable towards feminism had lower means for each level of suggestiveness ($M = 3.53, 2.85, 2.57$) than individuals who were favourable towards feminism ($M = 3.70, 3.24, 2.85$). These means indicate that individuals who are unfavourable towards feminism had a lower attitude towards the ad than individuals who are favourable towards feminism. This is the opposite of what was predicted in hypothesis 3a.

Affective reaction to feminism was also expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention for hypothesis 4a resulting in an individual who is favourable towards feminism having a decreased behaviour intention for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness than an individual who is unfavourable towards feminism. Once again the means were not in the hypothesized direction as individuals who were unfavourable towards feminism had lower means for all three levels of suggestiveness ($M = 3.20, 2.71, 2.49$) than individuals who were favourable towards feminism ($M = 3.46, 3.03, 2.76$). These means indicate that individuals who were unfavourable towards feminism had a lower behaviour intention than individuals who were favourable towards feminism.

Table 4.12: Descriptive Statistics for Affective Reaction to Feminism

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Affective Reaction to Feminism</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Offensiveness – Non-Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	1.58 (0.96)
	Favourable towards feminism	1.50 (0.98)
Offensiveness – Moderately Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	2.41 (1.21)
	Favourable towards feminism	2.02 (1.13)
Offensiveness – Highly Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	2.88 (1.30)
	Favourable towards feminism	2.63 (1.37)
A _{AD} – Non-Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	3.53 (1.10)
	Favourable towards feminism	3.70 (1.07)
A _{AD} – Moderately Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	2.85 (1.32)
	Favourable towards feminism	3.24 (1.09)
A _{AD} – Highly Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	2.57 (1.14)
	Favourable towards feminism	2.85 (1.32)
BI – Non-Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	3.20 (1.07)
	Favourable towards feminism	3.46 (0.99)
BI – Moderately Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	2.71 (1.01)
	Favourable towards feminism	3.03 (1.07)
BI – Highly Suggestive	Unfavourable towards feminism	2.49 (1.08)
	Favourable towards feminism	2.76 (1.17)

Unfavourable towards feminism N = 103

Favourable towards feminism N = 116

Given that affective reaction to feminism had the opposite effect than hypothesized, hypotheses 2a, 3a, and 4a are not supported. However, the researcher was still interested if affective reaction to feminism influenced the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables. Therefore, the results from the MANCOVA were still examined. The Wilks' Lambda multivariate test for overall differences among groups was not significant ($p = .110$). Wilks' Lambda suggests that the variance amongst the groups is explained by the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad,

and behaviour intention, and not affective reaction to feminism. Given that Wilks' Lambda equalled close to 0.10 the results were still examined; however, this interpretation should be used with caution. Univariate between-subject tests shows that affective reaction to feminism was not significantly related to offensiveness [$F(1, 657) = 1.764$, $\text{Eta} = .003$, $p = .185$; see Figure 4.11] but was significantly related to attitude towards the ad [$F(1, 657) = 5.093$, $\text{Eta} = .008$, $p = .024$; see Figure 4.12] and behaviour intention [$F(1, 657) = 6.067$, $\text{Eta} = .008$, $p = .021$; see Figure 4.13].

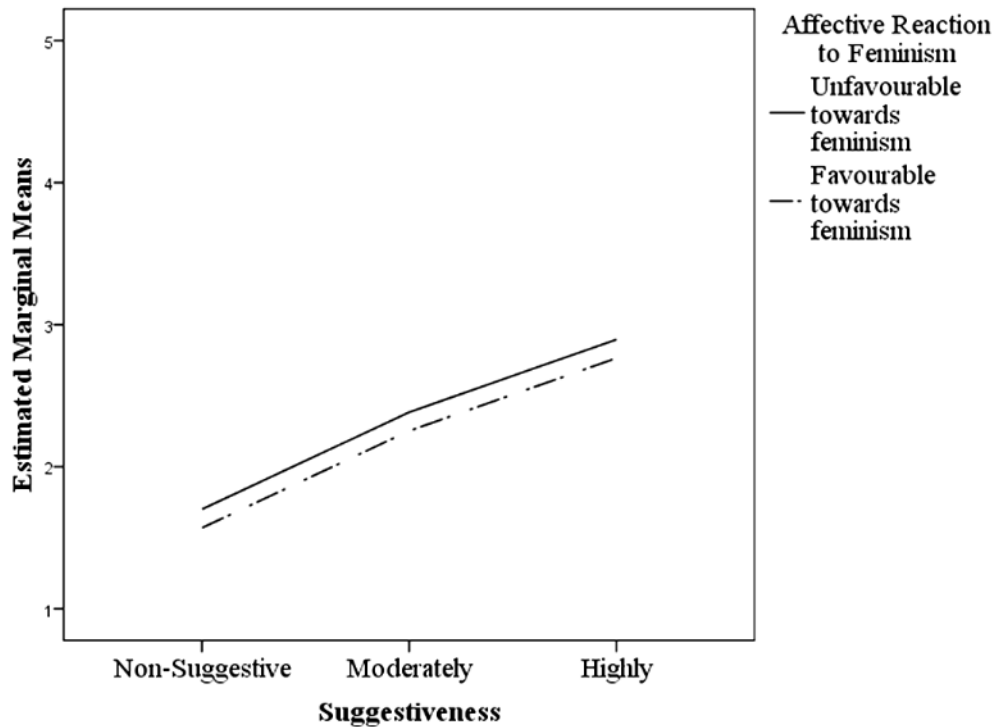


Figure 4.11: Hypothesis 2a

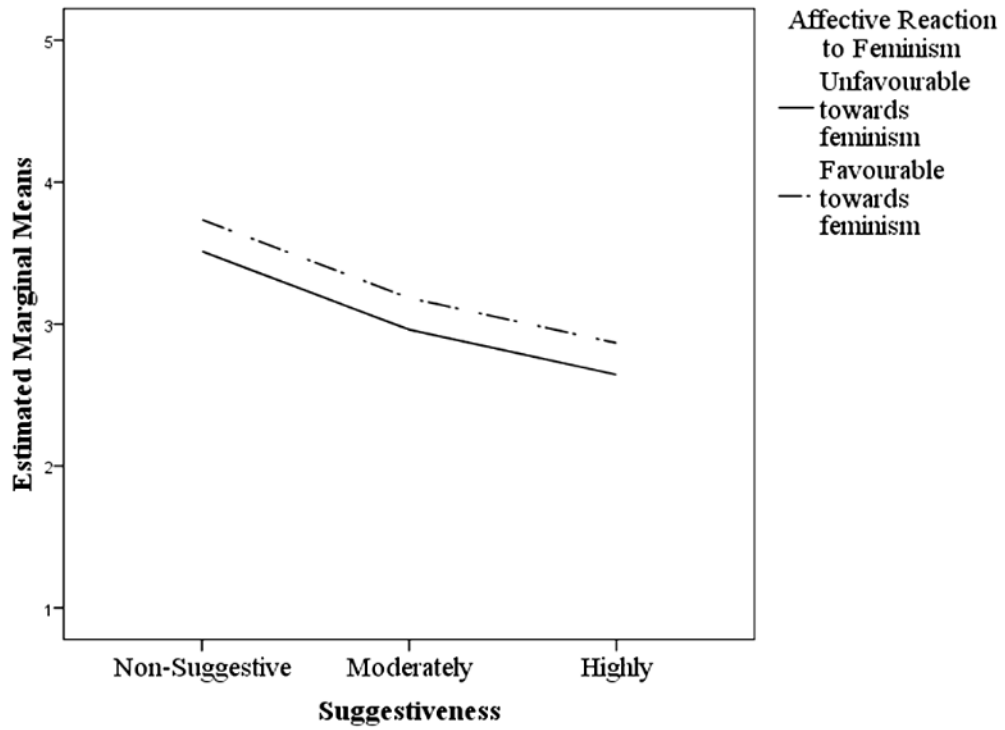


Figure 4.12: Hypothesis 3a

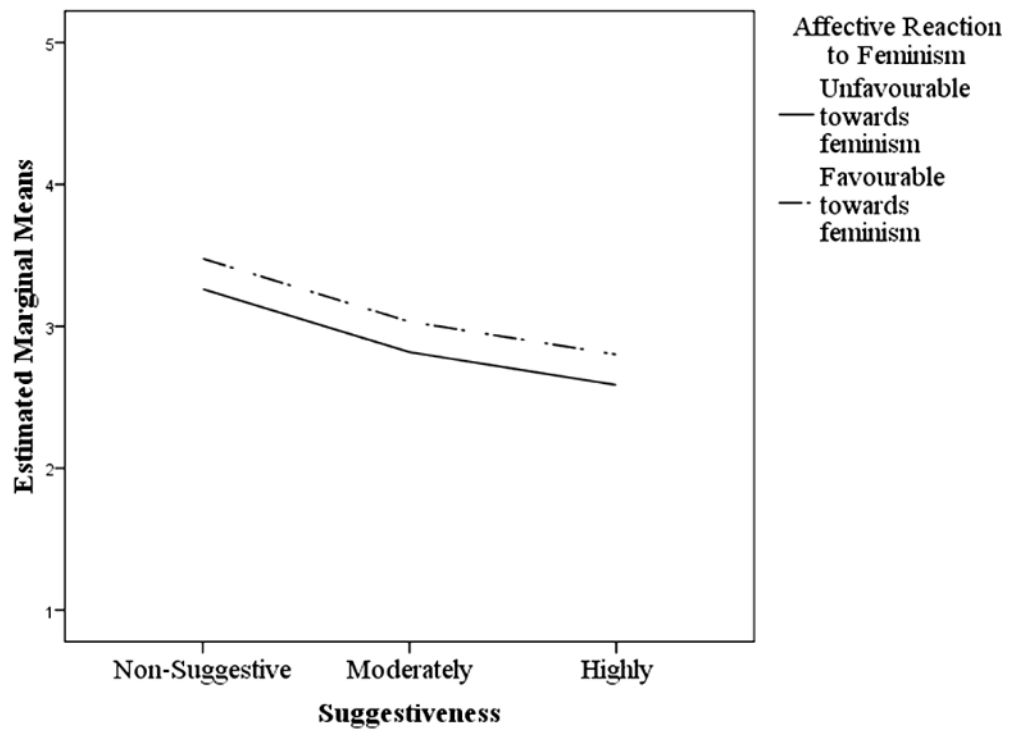


Figure 4.13: Hypothesis 4a

4.5.3 Feminist Identification

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the dependent variables with feminist identification as the independent variable (see Table 4.13). According to hypothesis 2b, a feminist was predicted to report greater levels of offensiveness than an egalitarian. Feminists had higher means for the highly suggestive advertisements ($M = 2.94$) than egalitarians ($M = 2.70$); however, the means for the moderately suggestive advertisements were fairly equal for feminists ($M = 2.11$) and egalitarians ($M = 2.10$). These results suggest that feminists are more offended by social marketing advertisements that are highly suggestive than egalitarians.

Feminists were predicted to have a less favourable attitude towards a social marketing advertisement with suggestiveness than egalitarians, hypothesis 3b. The means for the moderately suggestive ad were the same for both feminists and egalitarians ($M = 3.10$) indicating that there is no difference between the two groups for moderately suggestive ads. The highly suggestive ad was liked more by feminists than by egalitarians as feminists had a higher mean ($M = 2.68$) than egalitarians ($M = 2.58$). Finally, feminists were predicted to have a lower behaviour intention for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness than egalitarians, hypothesis 4b. Feminists had higher means ($M = 3.50, 2.98, 2.65$) for all three levels of suggestiveness than egalitarians ($M = 3.36, 2.92, 2.54$). These means are not in the hypothesized direction indicating that feminists have a higher behaviour intention than egalitarians.

Table 4.13: Descriptive Statistics for Feminist Identification

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Offensiveness – Non-Suggestive	Non-Feminist	1.58 (1.02)
	Egalitarian	1.45 (0.80)
	Feminist	1.42 (0.87)
	Other	2.18 (1.56)
Offensiveness – Moderately Suggestive	Non-Feminist	2.55 (1.26)
	Egalitarian	2.10 (1.15)
	Feminist	2.11 (1.15)
	Other	2.06 (1.03)
Offensiveness – Highly Suggestive	Non-Feminist	2.86 (1.40)
	Egalitarian	2.70 (1.28)
	Feminist	2.84 (1.35)
	Other	2.53 (1.42)
A _{AD} – Non-Suggestive	Non-Feminist	3.44 (1.20)
	Egalitarian	3.67 (1.03)
	Feminist	3.80 (0.93)
	Other	3.45 (1.26)
A _{AD} – Moderately Suggestive	Non-Feminist	2.84 (1.19)
	Egalitarian	3.10 (1.06)
	Feminist	3.10 (0.92)
	Other	3.20 (1.17)
A _{AD} – Highly Suggestive	Non-Feminist	2.68 (1.28)
	Egalitarian	2.58 (1.22)
	Feminist	2.68 (1.13)
	Other	3.45 (1.26)
BI – Non-Suggestive	Non-Feminist	3.13 (1.11)
	Egalitarian	3.36 (0.99)
	Feminist	3.50 (0.94)
	Other	3.41 (1.23)
BI – Moderately Suggestive	Non-Feminist	2.64 (1.02)
	Egalitarian	2.92 (1.08)
	Feminist	2.98 (1.01)
	Other	3.10 (.98)

Table 4.13 (continued): Descriptive Statistics for Feminist Identification

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Feminist Identification</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
BI – Highly Suggestive	Non-Feminist	2.52 (1.15)
	Egalitarian	2.54 (1.10)
	Feminist	2.65 (1.08)
	Other	3.29 (1.15)
Non-Feminist N = 64		
Egalitarian N = 93		
Feminist N = 45		
Other N = 17		

The Wilks' Lambda multivariate test of overall difference among groups was marginally significant ($p = 0.074$) indicating that the variance amongst the groups is partially explained by feminists identification. Univariate between-subject tests shows that feminist identification is not significantly related to offensiveness [$F(3, 657) = 1.990$, $\text{Eta} = .009$, $p = .114$; see Figure 4.14], attitude towards the ad [$F(3, 657) = .393$, $\text{Eta} = .002$, $p = .758$; see Figure 4.15], or behaviour intention [$F(3, 657) = 1.670$, $\text{Eta} = .008$, $p = .172$; see Figure 4.16]. Thus, hypotheses 2b, 3b, and 4b are not supported.

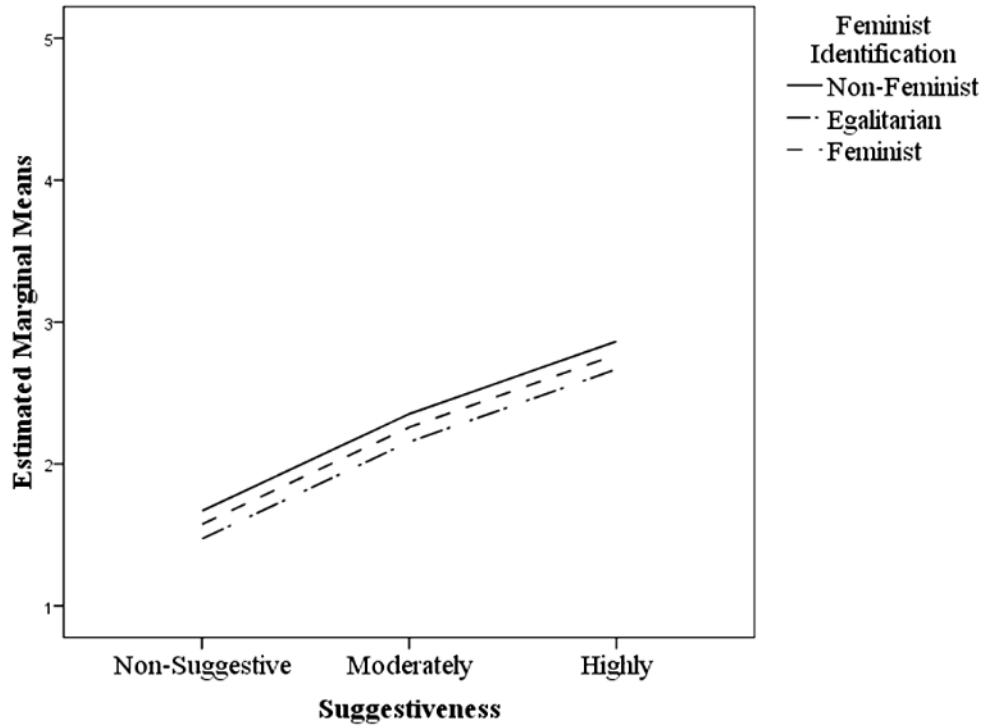


Figure 4.14: Hypothesis 2b

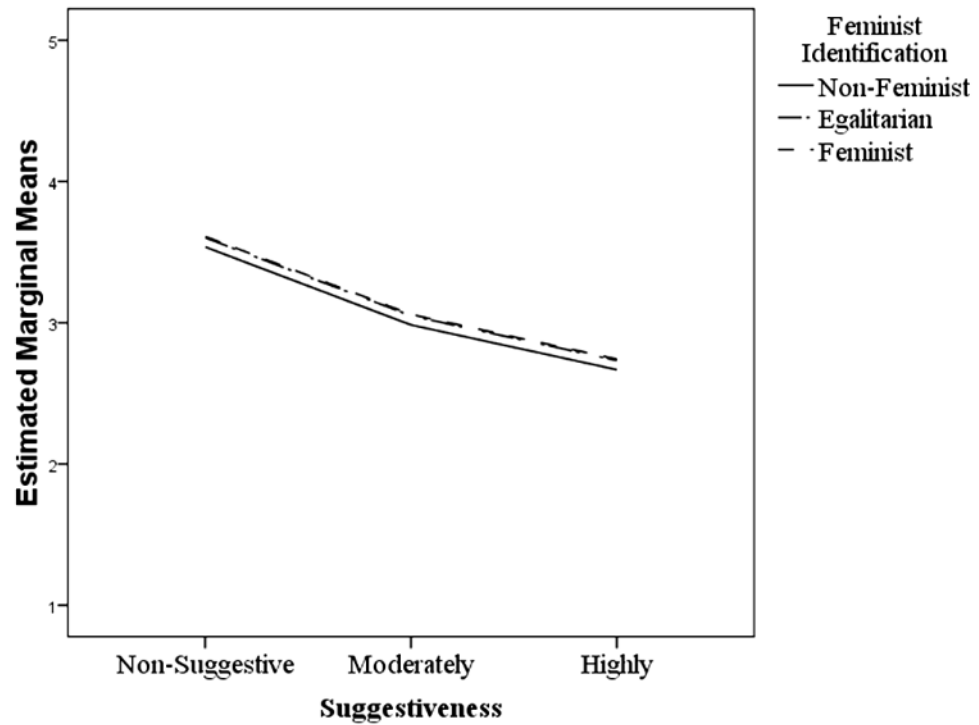


Figure 4.15: Hypothesis 3b

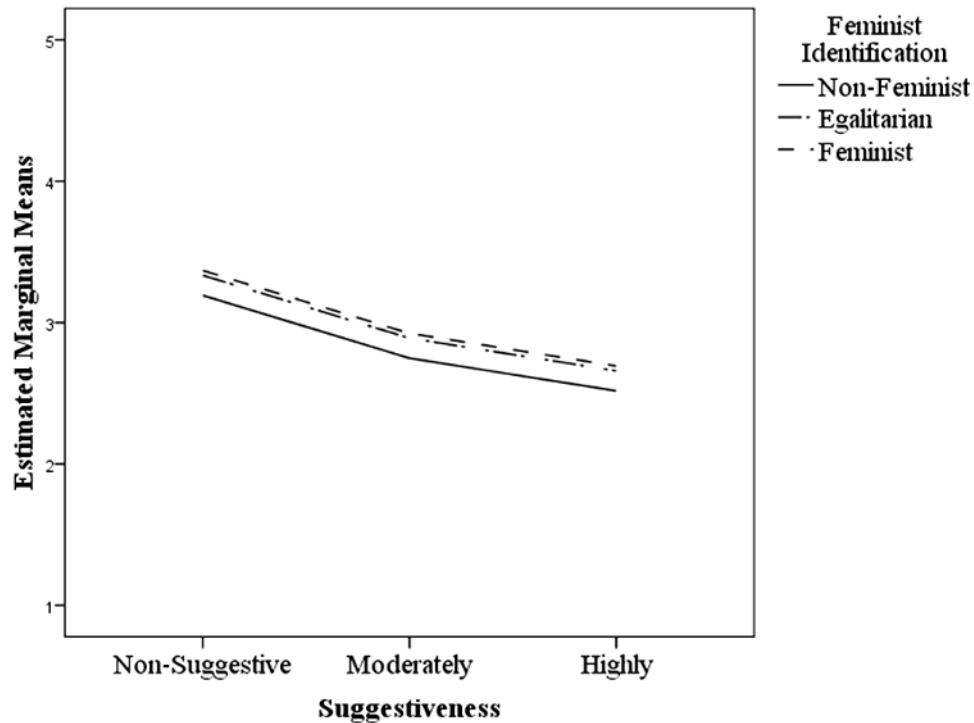


Figure 4.16: Hypothesis 4b

4.5.4 Sexual Attitude

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the dependent variables with sexual attitude on as the independent variable (see Table 4.14). Sexual attitude was predicted to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness, hypothesis 5a, resulting in an individual with a liberal sexual attitude not being as offended as an individual with a conservative sexual attitude. The means are in the hypothesized direction for this hypothesis. Individuals with a liberal sexual attitude had lower means for all three levels of suggestiveness ($M = 1.38, 1.96, 2.41$) than individuals with a conservative sexual attitude ($M = 1.74, 2.57, 3.21$), indicating that individuals with a liberal sexual attitude are not as offended as individuals with a conservative sexual attitude.

Sexual attitude is also predicted to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the ad resulting in individuals with a liberal sexual attitude having a higher attitude towards the ad for social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness than individuals with a conservative sexual attitude, hypothesis 5b. The means for this hypothesis were not completely in the hypothesized direction. Individuals with a liberal sexual attitude had a higher mean for the non-suggestive ($M = 3.64$) and highly suggestive ($M = 2.87$) ads than individuals with a conservative sexual attitude ($M = 3.57, 2.48$, respectively) but not for the moderately suggestive ad, liberal sexual attitude ($M = 3.02$), and conservative sexual attitude ($M = 3.04$).

The final hypothesis, hypothesis 5c, predicted that sexual attitude would influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention resulting in an individual with a liberal sexual attitude having a higher behaviour intention than an individual with a conservative sexual attitude. Individuals with a liberal sexual attitude had higher means for the moderately suggestive ($M = 2.87$) and highly suggestive ($M = 2.68$) ads than individuals with a conservative sexual attitude ($M = 2.86, 2.54$, respectively). These means indicate that individuals with a liberal sexual attitude have higher behaviour intentions than individuals with a conservative sexual attitude.

Table 4.14: Descriptive Statistics for Sexual Attitude

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Sexual Attitude</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Offensiveness – Non-Suggestive	Conservative	1.74 (1.03)
	Liberal	1.38 (0.88)
Offensiveness – Moderately Suggestive	Conservative	2.57 (1.15)
	Liberal	1.96 (1.15)
Offensiveness – Highly Suggestive	Conservative	3.21 (1.29)
	Liberal	2.41 (1.27)

Table 4.14 (continued): Descriptive Statistics for Sexual Attitude

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Sexual Attitude</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
A _{AD} – Non-Suggestive	Conservative	3.57 (1.02)
	Liberal	3.64 (1.13)
A _{AD} – Moderately Suggestive	Conservative	3.04 (1.08)
	Liberal	3.02 (1.08)
A _{AD} – Highly Suggestive	Conservative	2.48 (1.21)
	Liberal	2.87 (1.23)
BI – Non-Suggestive	Conservative	3.35 (0.99)
	Liberal	3.30 (1.08)
BI – Moderately Suggestive	Conservative	2.86 (1.02)
	Liberal	2.87 (1.08)
BI – Highly Suggestive	Conservative	2.54 (1.13)
	Liberal	2.68 (1.12)
Conservative N = 97		
Liberal N = 122		

The Wilks' Lambda multivariate test for overall difference among groups was significant ($p = .001$) indicating that the variance amongst the group is explained by an individual's sexual attitude. Univariate between-subject tests shows that sexual attitude is significantly related to offensiveness [$F(1, 657) = 39.140$, $\text{Eta} = .057$, $p = .001$; see Figure 4.17], but not to attitude towards the ad [$F(1, 657) = .707$, $\text{Eta} = .001$; $p = .401$, see Figure 4.18] nor behaviour intention [$F(1, 657) = .313$, $\text{Eta} = .001$, $p = .600$; see Figure 4.19]. Thus, hypothesis 5a is supported while hypotheses 5b and 5c are not supported.

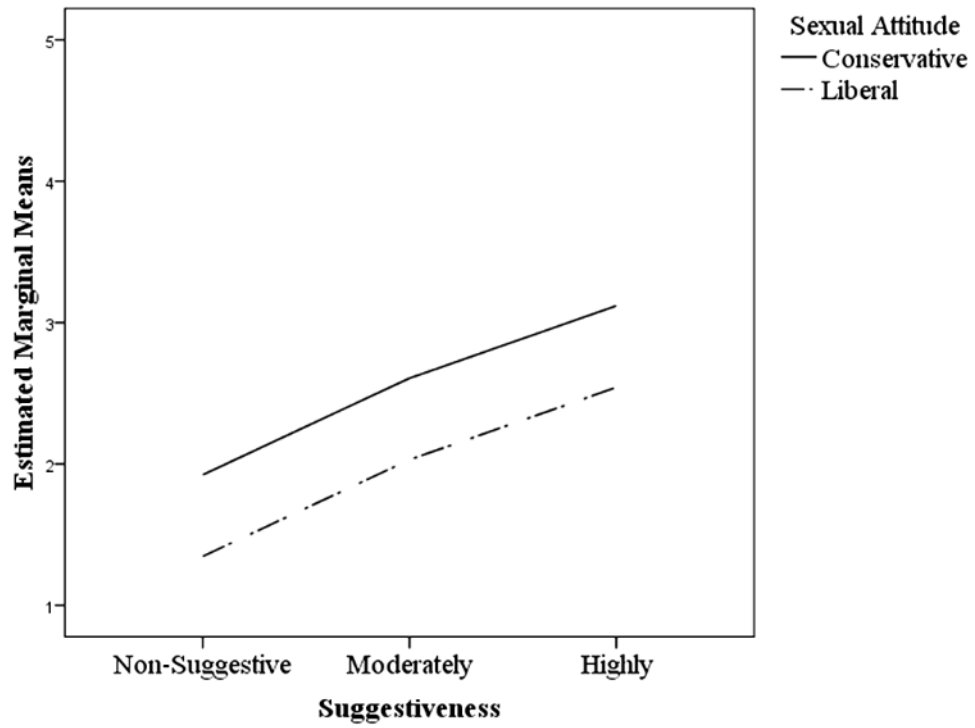


Figure 4.17: Hypothesis 5a

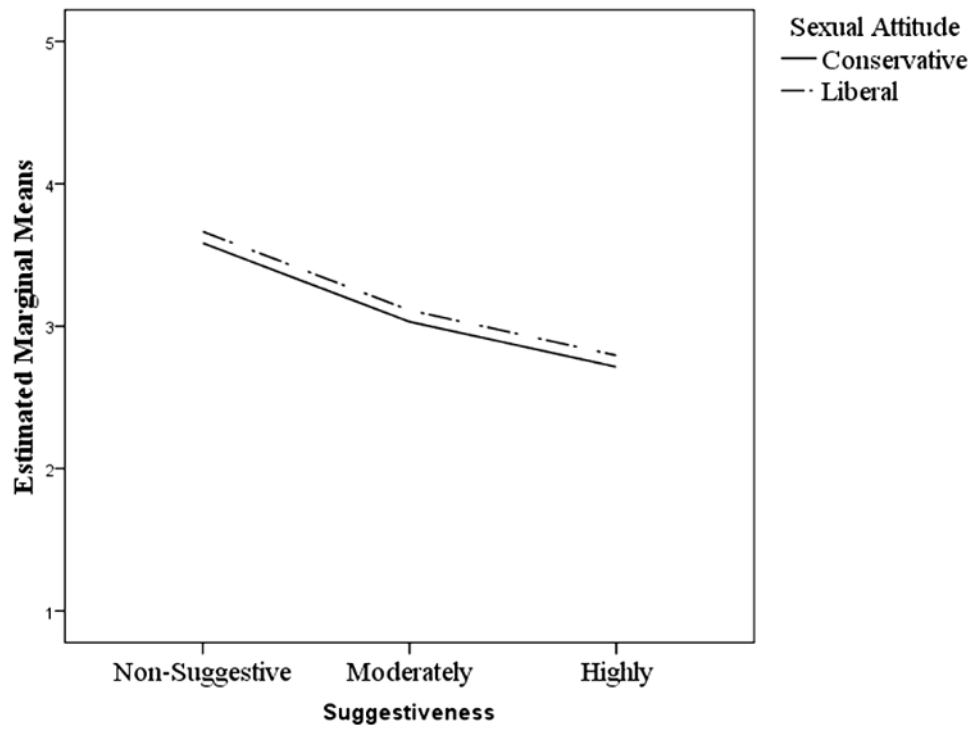


Figure 4.18: Hypothesis 5b

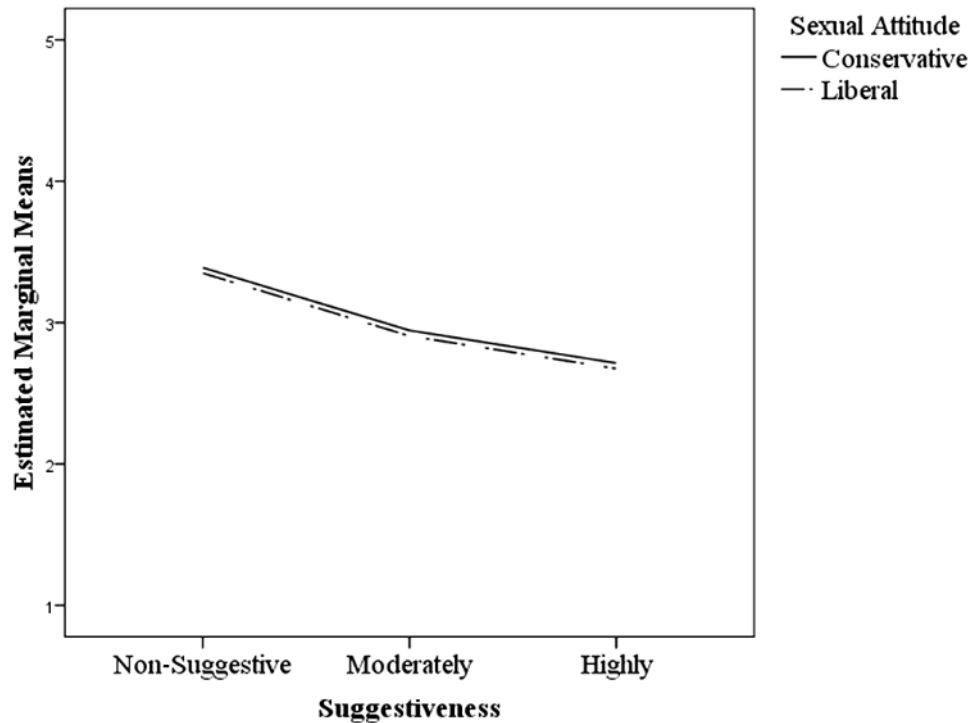


Figure 4.19: Hypothesis 5c

Table 4.15: MANCOVA Results

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Offensiveness	226.791a	8	28.349	21.867	.000	.211
	A _{AD}	101.003b	8	12.625	9.776	.000	.107
	BI	71.998c	8	9.000	7.934	.000	.089
Intercept	Offensiveness	266.483	1	266.483	205.557	.000	.169
	A _{AD}	559.300	1	559.300	433.068	.000	.266
	BI	496.272	1	496.272	437.518	.000	.258
Suggestiveness	Offensiveness	157.444	2	78.722	60.724	.000	.158
	A _{AD}	84.705	2	42.353	32.794	.000	.092
	BI	51.613	2	25.807	22.751	.000	.066
Affective Reaction to Feminism	Offensiveness	2.345	1	2.345	1.809	.179	.003
	A _{AD}	6.569	1	6.569	5.086	.024	.008
	BI	6.078	1	6.078	5.359	.021	.008

Table 4.15 (continued): MANCOVA Results

<i>Source</i>	<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Type III Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Partial Eta Squared</i>
Feminist Identification	Offensiveness	7.524	3	2.508	1.935	.123	.009
	A _{AD}	1.623	3	.541	.419	.740	.002
	BI	6.086	3	2.029	1.788	.148	.008
Sexual Attitude	Offensiveness	52.968	1	52.968	40.858	.000	.057
	A _{AD}	.726	1	.726	.562	.454	.001
	BI	.415	1	.415	.366	.546	.000
Social Desirability	Offensiveness	2.100	1	2.100	1.620	.204	.000
	A _{AD}	1.075	1	1.075	.833	.362	.001
	BI	1.490	1	1.490	1.314	.252	.002
Error	Offensiveness	840.064	648	1.296			
	A _{AD}	836.882	648	1.291			
	BI	735.019	648	1.134			
Total	Offensiveness	4176.290	657				
	A _{AD}	7332.950	657				
	BI	6475.283	657				
Corrected Total	Offensiveness	1066.855	656				
	A _{AD}	937.886	656				
	BI	807.017	656				

a. R Squared = .213 (Adjusted R Squared = .203)

b. R Squared = .108 (Adjusted R Squared = .097)

c. R Squared = .089 (Adjusted R Squared = .078)

4.6 Post-Hoc Analyses

4.6.1 Individual Advertisement Means

Once the hypotheses were tested the researcher looked at the individual means for each advertisement to investigate whether there was a difference between the three behaviours, safe sex, reduced tanning, and seat belt use. The researcher calculated means and standard deviations for each advertisement for the level of suggestiveness as well as the three dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad, and behaviour

intention (see Tables 4.16; 4.17; 4.18; 4.19). The visual representations are not the same for each behaviour, suggesting that participants had a different reaction for each behaviour (see Figures 4.20; 4.21; 4.22; 4.23). Each variable, suggestiveness, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad, and behaviour intention, will be discussed below.

4.6.1.1 Suggestiveness. The means for perceived level of suggestiveness for safe sex demonstrate that participants did not find the levels of suggestiveness increasingly suggestive, as the moderately suggestive advertisement ($M = 4.02$; see Table 4.16) was perceived as more suggestive than the highly suggestive advertisement ($M = 3.69$). The non-suggestive advertisement for safe sex was perceived as the least suggestive ($M = 2.28$). The means for the perceived level of suggestiveness for the other two behaviours, reduced tanning and seat belt use, display that participants found the levels of suggestiveness increasingly suggestive. The means for reduced tanning are increasingly higher for each level of suggestiveness ($M = 1.96, 2.75, 3.68$, respectively), indicating that participants found each level of suggestiveness more suggestive than the previous level. Although the means for seat belt use are higher for each level of suggestiveness the means between the non-suggestive ($M = 2.57$) and moderately suggestive ($M = 2.63$) are fairly similar indicating that participants did not find a major difference between the two levels of suggestiveness. The highly suggestive advertisement was perceived as the most suggestive ($M = 3.87$). The visual representation for suggestiveness can be viewed in Figure 4.20.

Table 4.16: Individual Advertisement Means for Suggestiveness

<i>Level of Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Non-suggestive	Safe Sex [#]	2.28 (1.42)
	Tanning ^{&}	1.96 (1.30)
	Seat Belt ^{\$}	2.57 (1.11)
Moderately	Safe Sex ^{\$}	4.02 (0.97)
	Tanning [#]	2.75 (1.14)
	Seat Belt ^{&}	2.63 (1.03)
Highly	Safe Sex ^{&}	3.69 (0.94)
	Tanning ^{\$}	3.68 (1.00)
	Seat Belt [#]	3.87 (1.03)

[#] N = 92

[&] N = 67

^{\$} N = 60

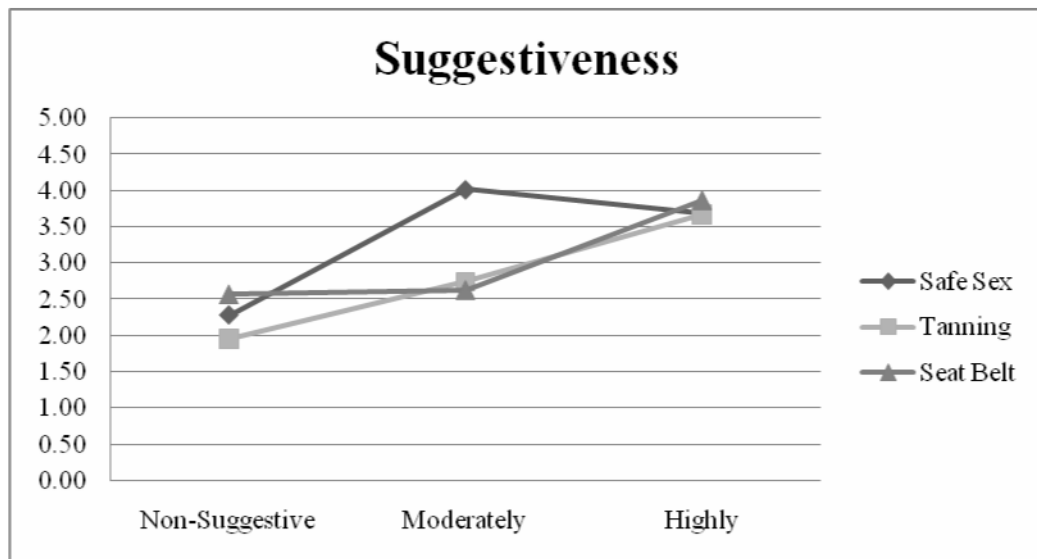


Figure 4.20: Individual Advertisement Means for Suggestiveness

4.6.1.2 Offensiveness. The means for offensiveness for the safe sex advertisements follow the same pattern as the means for perceived suggestiveness, as the mean for the moderately suggestive advertisement ($M = 3.05$; see Table 4.17) was higher than the mean for the highly suggestive advertisement ($M = 2.10$). This signifies that

participants found the moderately suggestive advertisement for safe sex as more offensive than the highly suggestive advertisement. The tanning advertisements were found to be increasingly offensive as suggestiveness increased ($M = 1.34, 1.88, 2.85$, respectively), indicating that participants found each level of suggestiveness for tanning to be more offensive than the previous. The means for seat belt use were higher for each level of suggestiveness as well ($M = 1.63, 1.97, 3.18$, respectively), which displays that participants found the seat belt use advertisements increasingly offensive. Figure 4.21 displays the visual representation for offensiveness.

Table 4.17: Individual Advertisement Means for Offensiveness

<i>Level of Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Non-suggestive	Safe Sex [#]	1.62 (1.11)
	Tanning ^{&}	1.34 (0.81)
	Seat Belt ^{\$}	1.63 (0.88)
Moderately	Safe Sex ^{\$}	3.05 (1.14)
	Tanning [#]	1.88 (1.03)
	Seat Belt ^{&}	1.97 (1.09)
Highly	Safe Sex ^{&}	2.10 (1.23)
	Tanning ^{\$}	2.85 (1.19)
	Seat Belt [#]	3.18 (1.33)

[#] N = 92

[&] N = 67

^{\$} N = 60

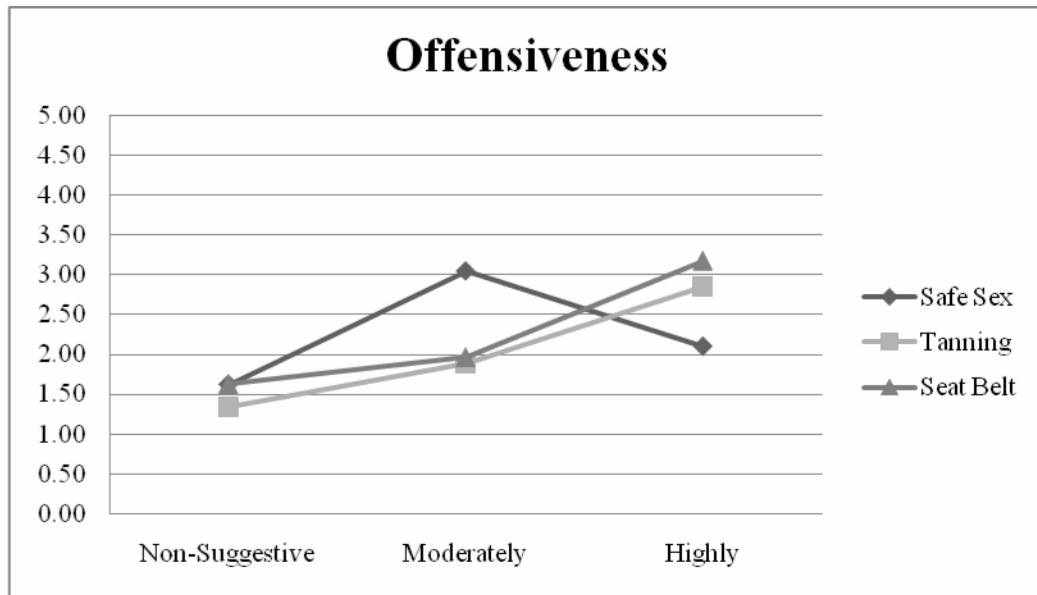


Figure 4.21: Individual Advertisement Means for Offensiveness

4.6.1.3 Attitude Towards the Ad. Once again the means for attitude towards the ad for the safe sex advertisements did not follow the expected direction, as the mean for the moderately suggestive advertisement received a less favourable response ($M = 2.82$; see Table 4.18) than the highly suggestive advertisement ($M = 3.36$). The non-suggestive advertisement for safe sex received the most favourable response ($M = 3.64$). The advertisements for reduced tanning received less favourable responses as the level of suggestiveness increased ($M = 3.90, 3.32, 2.96$, respectively). Overall, the seat belt use advertisements received the lowest A_{AD} which indicates that the participants disliked these advertisements the most. The means for seat belt use followed the expected direction as the means for A_{AD} decreased as the level of suggestiveness increased ($M = 3.26, 2.84, 2.05$, respectively). The visual representation for A_{AD} can be viewed in Figure 4.22.

Table 4.18: Individual Advertisement Means for A_{AD}

<i>Level of Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Non-suggestive	Safe Sex [#]	3.64 (1.10)
	Tanning ^{&}	3.90 (1.04)
	Seat Belt ^{\$}	3.26 (1.02)
Moderately	Safe Sex ^{\$}	2.82 (1.12)
	Tanning [#]	3.32 (0.99)
	Seat Belt ^{&}	2.84 (1.09)
Highly	Safe Sex ^{&}	3.36 (1.15)
	Tanning ^{\$}	2.96 (1.14)
	Seat Belt [#]	2.05 (1.03)

[#] N = 92

[&] N = 67

^{\$} N = 60

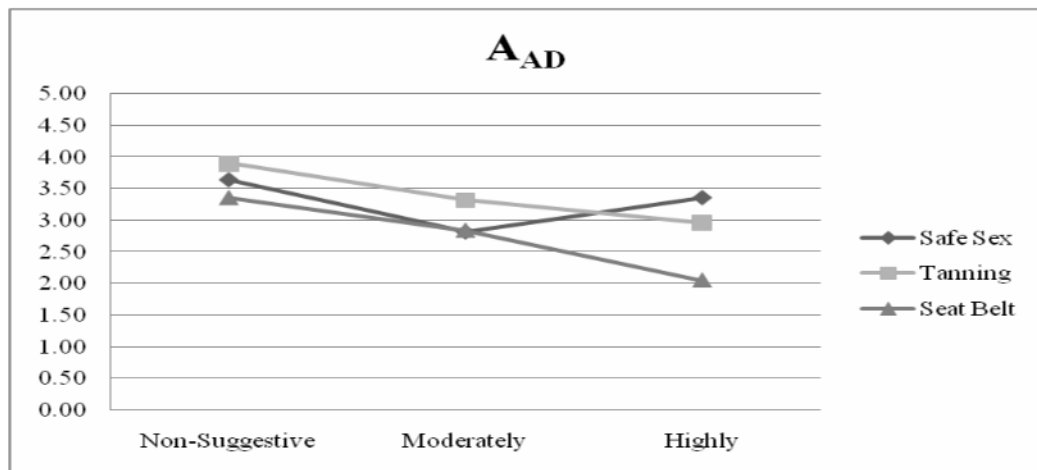


Figure 4.22: Individual Advertisement Means for A_{AD}

4.6.1.4 Behaviour Intention. The final set of means that were examined was the behaviour intention means. The safe sex advertisement means had the same relationship for BI, as the moderately suggestive advertisements had a lower mean ($M = 2.98$; see Table 4.19) than the highly suggestive advertisement ($M = 3.00$). The mean for the non-suggestive safe sex advertisement followed the expected relationship and received the

highest behaviour intention ($M = 3.30$). The non-suggestive reduced tanning advertisement had the highest mean ($M = 3.70$); however, the means for the moderately suggestive and highly suggestive advertisement were equal ($M = 2.98, 2.97$, respectively). This suggests that there was no difference between the moderately suggestive and highly suggestive advertisements for reduced tanning and behaviour intention. Finally, the seat belt use advertisements followed the expected relationship as the behaviour intentions decreased as the level of suggestiveness increased ($M = 2.96, 2.76, 2.12$, respectively), indicating that behaviour intention decreased as level of suggestiveness increased. Figure 4.23 displays the visual representation for behaviour intention.

Table 4.19: Individual Advertisement Means for BI

<i>Level of Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Non-suggestive	Safe Sex [#]	3.30 (1.09)
	Tanning ^{&}	3.70 (0.97)
	Seat Belt ^{\$}	2.96 (0.91)
Moderately	Safe Sex ^{\$}	2.81 (1.06)
	Tanning [#]	2.98 (0.97)
	Seat Belt ^{&}	2.76 (1.13)
Highly	Safe Sex ^{&}	3.00 (1.12)
	Tanning ^{\$}	2.97 (1.04)
	Seat Belt [#]	2.12 (1.00)

[#] N = 92

[&] N = 67

^{\$} N = 60

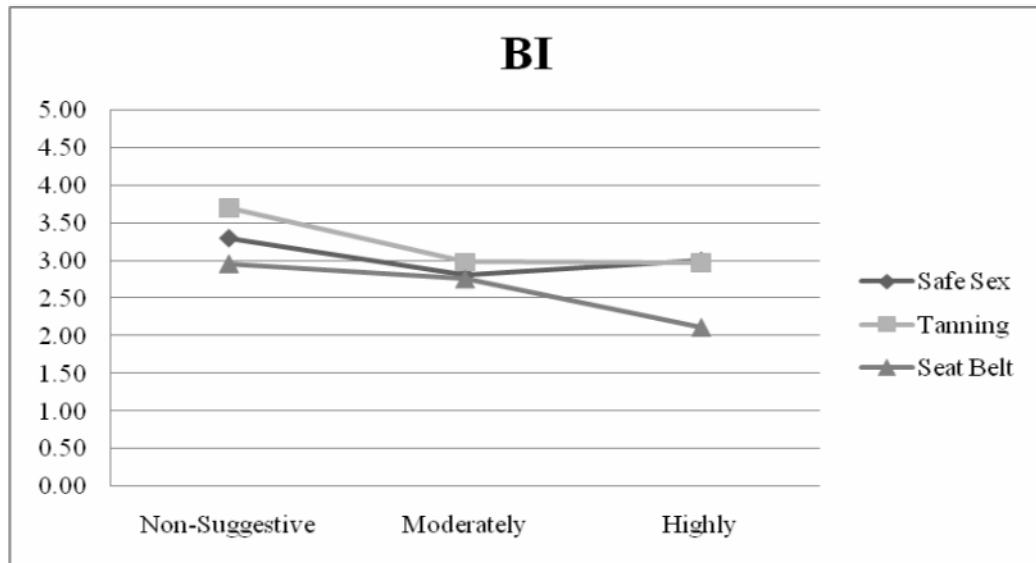


Figure 4.23: Individual Advertisement Means for BI

4.6.2 Salient Moderator

In the literature review section it was discussed that a feminist has a liberal sexual attitude; however, there were conflicting interactions expected for individuals who are favourable towards feminism and individuals with a liberal sexual attitude. Based on the interaction between feminism and sexual attitude it was expected that either an individual’s affective reaction to feminism or one’s sexual attitude would be more salient. To determine which moderator is more salient the researcher used the MANCOVA results. The interpretation was based on the Wilks’ Lambda for both variables. The Wilks’ Lambda for sexual attitude was significant ($p = .001$) while the Wilks’ Lambda for affective reaction to feminism was not significant ($p = .110$). Therefore, based on these results it appears that sexual attitude is more salient for individuals when it comes to responding to the sexual appeals in social marketing advertisements as the variance amongst the group is better explained by sexual attitude than affective reaction to feminism.

4.6.3 Sexual Attitude Correlations

As outlined in the literature review, it was expected that sexual attitude and feminism would be related therefore correlations between sexual attitude and affective reaction to feminism and correlations between sexual attitude and feminist identification were conducted. Based on the correlation results, sexual attitude significantly correlated with both affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification. Affective reaction to feminism and sexual attitude were moderately correlated ($r = .385, p = .01$) indicating that individuals who are favourable towards feminism have a liberal sexual attitude. Feminist identification was also correlated with sexual attitude ($r = .144, p = .01$) which indicates that individuals who identify themselves as feminist have a liberal sexual attitude.

4.6.4 Feminist Identification and Affective Reaction to Feminism Correlation

The Feminist and Behaviour scale was expected to correlate with the FWM scale. The correlation results for this interaction was significant ($r = .385, p = .01$). This indicates that individuals who were identified as feminists were also favourable towards feminism.

4.6.5 Experimental Design Effect

This study used a within study design. Social marketing advertisements were grouped into groups of three with one ad for each level of suggestiveness. Given this design, the researcher was interested in whether this grouping had an effect on participants' results as this experimental design was chosen to eliminate confounding effects. To test whether the ad groupings had an effect an ANOVA was conducted. However, first descriptive statistics were calculated (see Table 4.20). Upon first glance its

evident that the means and standard deviations are not the same for the different groupings. The results from the ANOVA show that the ad grouping had a significant effect on offensiveness [$F(2, 656) = 15.889, p = .000$], A_{AD} [$F(2, 656) = 6.192, p = .002$], and BI [$F(2, 656) = 6.042, p = .003$]. These results suggest that the ad sets had an effect on how participants responded to the suggestive social marketing advertisements. Controlling for this effect was not permissible as it was categorical and control variables must be continuous when conducting MANCOVAs.

Table 4.20: Ad Groupings Descriptive Statistics

<i>DV</i>	<i>Grouping – Behaviour/Level of Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
Offensiveness	Safe Sex/Highly Suggestive; Seat Belt Use/Moderately Suggestive; Reduced Tanning/Non-Suggestive [#]	1.80 (1.11)
	Seat Belt Use/Non-Suggestive; Reduced Tanning/Highly Suggestive; Safe Sex/Moderately Suggestive ^s	2.51 (1.24)
	Reduced Tanning/Moderately Suggestive; Safe Sex/Non-Suggestive; Seat Belt Use/Highly Suggestive ^{&}	2.23 (1.34)
A_{AD}	Safe Sex/Highly Suggestive; Seat Belt Use/Moderately Suggestive; Reduced Tanning/Non-Suggestive [#]	3.67 (1.18)
	Seat Belt Use/Non-Suggestive; Reduced Tanning/Highly Suggestive; Safe Sex/Moderately Suggestive ^s	3.01 (1.10)
	Reduced Tanning/Moderately Suggestive; Safe Sex/Non-Suggestive; Seat Belt Use/Highly Suggestive ^{&}	3.01 (1.25)

Table 4.20 (continued): Ad Groupings Descriptive Statistics

<i>DV</i>	<i>Grouping – Behaviour/Level of Suggestiveness</i>	<i>Mean (S.D.)</i>
BI	Safe Sex/Highly Suggestive; Seat Belt Use/Moderately Suggestive; Reduced Tanning/Non-Suggestive [#]	3.15 (1.14)
	Seat Belt Use/Non-Suggestive; Reduced Tanning/Highly Suggestive; Safe Sex/Moderately Suggestive ^{\$}	2.91 (1.00)
	Reduced Tanning/Moderately Suggestive; Safe Sex/Non-Suggestive; Seat Belt Use/Highly Suggestive ^{&}	2.79 (1.13)

[#] N = 201

^{\$} N = 180

[&] N = 276

4.6.6 Mediation

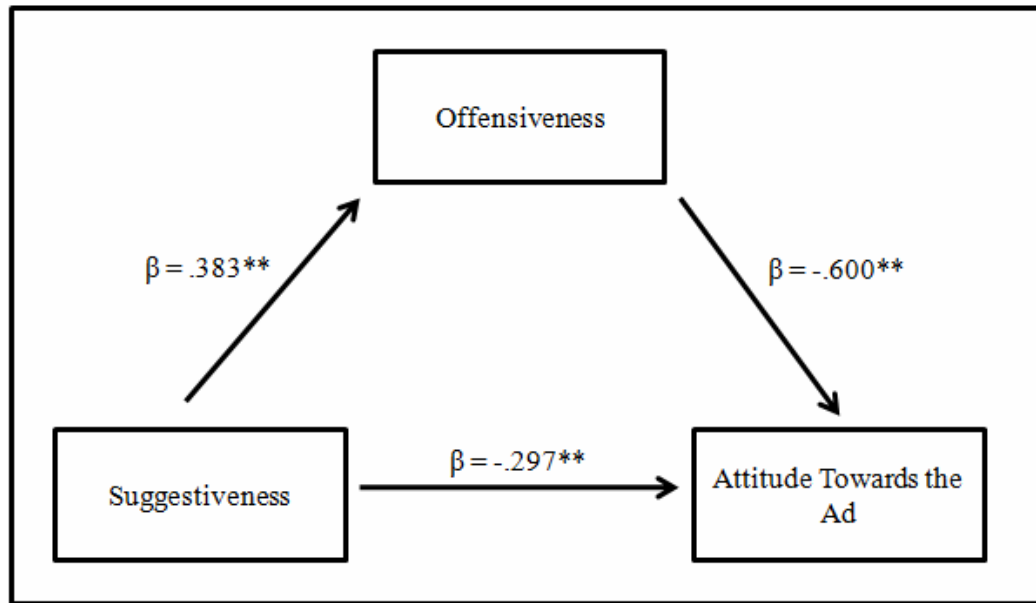
Based on the results from the main analyses, the researcher was interested in whether offensiveness mediates the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. To test this relationship the researcher used Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation steps which uses regression to test the relationship (see Table 4.17). Before conducting mediation test, one must ensure the independent variable and the mediator variable are correlated. The correlation results shows that suggestiveness and offensiveness are moderately correlated ($r = .383, p = .001$). Given that they are correlated, the actual relationship testing can occur.

For the first step, the dependent variables, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention, were regressed on the independent variable, suggestiveness. The regression was significant for attitude towards the ad ($\beta = -.297, p = .001$) and behaviour intention ($\beta = -.249, p = .001$). Next, the mediator, offensiveness, was regressed on the independent

variable, suggestiveness. This regression was also significant ($\beta = .383, p = .001$). The final step involved regressing the dependent variables, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention, on the mediator, offensiveness. Once again the regression was significant for attitude towards the ad ($\beta = -.600, p = .001$; see Figure 4.20), and behaviour intention ($\beta = -.457, p = .001$; see Figure 4.21). This test demonstrates that offensiveness is a partial mediator and that a participant's reaction to the ad partially depends on the level of offensiveness one sees in the social marketing advertisement.

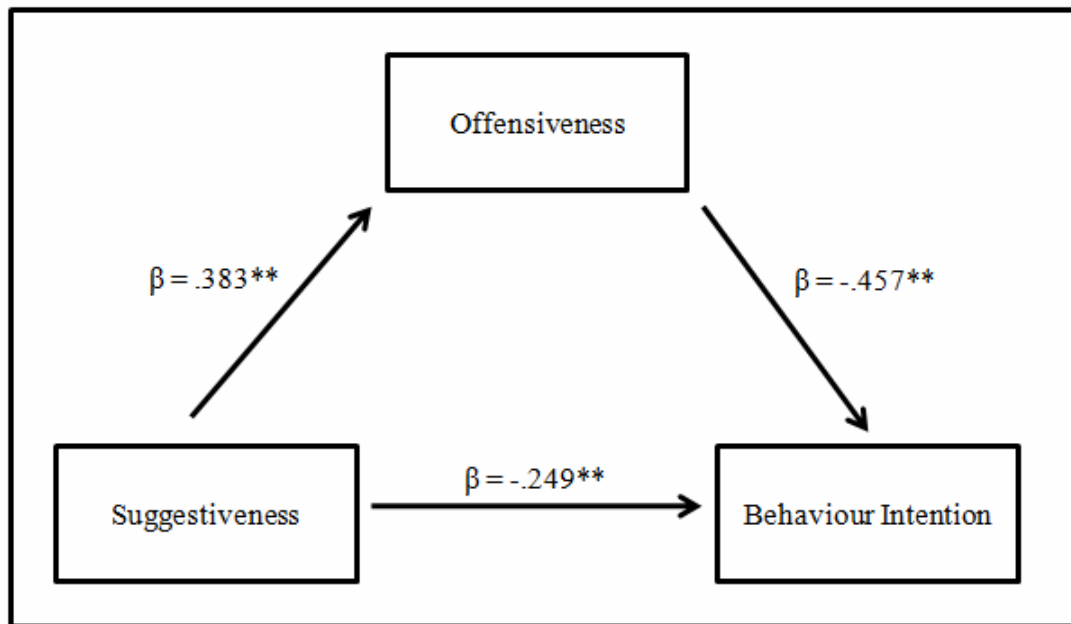
Table 4.21: Mediation Results

	<i>DV</i>	<i>R Squared</i>	<i>Standard Coefficient β</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Step 1	A_{AD}	.088	-.297	.000
DVs regressed on IV	BI	.062	-.249	.000
Step 2		.147	.383	.000
Mediator regressed on IV				
Step 3	A_{AD}	.360	-.600	.000
DVs regressed on Mediator	BI	.209	-.457	.000



$^{**}p = .01$

Figure 4.24: Offensiveness Mediation - A_{AD}



$^{**}p = .01$

Figure 4.25: Offensiveness Mediation - BI

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter will summarize the findings from this study. The pretest and short interviews will be discussed. The hypotheses will then be summarized and an explanation will be provided for the hypotheses which were not supported. In addition to discussing the hypotheses this chapter will also discuss limitations for this study. Future directions for this research will be presented. This chapter will conclude by discussing the contributions this research makes followed by a brief conclusion of this study.

5.1 Pretest

Correlation tests were conducted on the pretest data to determine if suggestiveness had the expected effect on the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad, and behaviour intention. Suggestiveness was expected to result in participants being offended. The correlation results for this interaction demonstrate that this expected interaction was occurring; participants were offended by the use of suggestiveness in social marketing advertisements. Suggestiveness was also expected to be negatively related to attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention resulting participants having a negative attitude towards the ad and lower behaviour intention. The results for these correlations were in the hypothesized direction, participants had a negative attitude towards the ad and lower behaviour intention. Based on these results no major changes were made to the experimental design for the main study.

Affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification were expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad, and behaviour intention. Individuals who are favourable towards feminism were expected to be offended by the use of suggestiveness

as well as have a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Feminists were expected to be more offended, have a lower attitude towards the ad, and behaviour intention than egalitarians. The correlation results for affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification did not support the expected interactions as the correlations were counter-intuitive. The results revealed that individuals who are favourable towards feminism and feminists were not as offended as individuals who are unfavourable towards feminism and egalitarians. In addition, individuals who are favourable towards feminism and feminists had a more favourable attitude towards the ad and an increased behaviour intention than individuals who are unfavourable towards feminism as well as egalitarians. Due to these results a manipulation was added to the main experimental study. The manipulation presented the two different sides to how women are presented in the media, empowered and exploited.

Sexual attitude was also expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Individuals with a liberal sexual attitude were expected to not be as offended by the use of suggestiveness as well as have a higher attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. The results show that the interactions were correlating in the hypothesized direction; individuals with a liberal sexual attitude were not as offended as well as had a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Based on these results no changes were made to the experimental design for the main study.

5.2 Short Interviews

The purpose of the short interviews was to examine what some of the possible reasons could have been behind the counter-intuitive results from the pretests. The short

interviews did not provide any reason as to why the pretest was not showing the predicted relationships as the women who were interviewed generally did not like the use of suggestiveness as it undermines the message. Although the interviews did not provide any reasons behind the counter-intuitive results, they reconfirmed the expected interaction for this research, that feminists would not like the social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness. Therefore, the researcher was able to continue with the experimental design for the main study.

The interviews were also conducted to examine if the manipulation would have an effect on participants' reaction to the social marketing advertisements with suggestiveness. The manipulation did not affect how participants reacted to the social marketing advertisements as they still found the advertisements offensive. As one participant commented the manipulation did provide context and it told the participant which lens to look through while looking at the advertisement. During the interviews the manipulation was read after they had already viewed and discussed the advertisement. Therefore, based on the manipulation having no major impact on participants' responses the manipulation was placed before the participants saw the advertisements in the main study. This placement was chosen to examine whether the manipulation would have an effect on how participants interpreted the advertisements.

5.3 Main Study

5.3.1 Manipulation

The manipulation that was added to the study was expected to affect how feminists react to the use of suggestiveness. It was expected that feminists who were exposed to the exploitation manipulation would be more offended, have a lower attitude

towards the ad, and behaviour intention than feminists who were exposed to the empowerment manipulation. The manipulation was added due to the counter-intuitive results from the pretest and was expected to influence the participants' responses so they would not react in the same manner for the main study as they did for the pretest. Unfortunately, the manipulation did not have this effect on participants' reaction, as the manipulation was not significant. The manipulation did influence the feminists who were exposed to the exploitation manipulation as their results were different than the feminists exposed to the empowerment manipulation. The results for the feminists exposed to the exploitation manipulation showed that they were more offended, had lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention than feminists exposed to the empowerment manipulation; however, the difference between the two groups of feminists was not significant.

There are several reasons why the difference between the two groups, exploitation and empowerment was not significant. Participants were only exposed to the manipulation briefly as they read it before they viewed the advertisements, therefore the exposure may not have had a lasting effect. The brief exposure may not have been long enough to truly impact their reaction to the advertisements. As a result, participants may have forgotten about the manipulation by the time they viewed the last advertisement in their ad set of three. The brief one time exposure probably did not impact their opinion of how women are presented in the media.

The manipulation was also only a short paragraph about the two different perspectives, empowerment and exploitation. As a result, the manipulation that the participant was exposed to may not have enough information for the participant to form

an opinion about how women are presented in the media. The short paragraph may not have been persuasive enough due to its short length not having enough information, which would have resulted in participants not being persuaded by the manipulation they were exposed to. If participants were not as persuaded by the exploitation manipulation they may not have responded differently than participants exposed to the empowerment manipulation which would explain the lack of significance between the two groups.

5.3.2 Hypotheses

The main purpose of this study was to examine how individuals react to the use of sexual appeals in social marketing advertisements. More specifically, this research was interested in what influence feminism and sexual attitude had on an individual's reaction. Overall, participants reacted negatively to the use of sexual appeals in social marketing ads as the main effect was significant. Feminism and sexual attitude did not have the influence that was expected as only one of the hypotheses for the moderators was supported. A review of the hypotheses and whether they were supported can be found in Table 5.1. The hypotheses are review and discussed below.

Table 5.1: Summary of the Hypotheses

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H1a: Greater levels of suggestiveness of the female model will result in increased offensiveness.	Yes
H1b: Suggestiveness of the female model will be negatively related to ad attitude.	Yes
H1c: Suggestiveness of the female model will be negatively related to behaviour intention.	Yes
H2a: Affective reaction to feminism will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness; as level of suggestiveness increases, offensiveness increases.	No
H3a: Affective reaction to feminism will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the sexual appeal ad; as level of suggestiveness increases, attitude towards the ad decreases.	No
H4a: Affective reaction to feminism will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention; as level of suggestiveness increases, behaviour intention decreases.	No
H2b: Feminists will report greater levels of offensiveness than egalitarians.	No
H3b: Feminists will report less favourable attitudes towards the sexual appeal ads than egalitarians.	No
H4b: Feminists will report lower behavioural intentions than egalitarians.	No
H5a: Sexual attitude will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness; offensiveness will be lower for a liberal sexual attitude than for a conservative sexual attitude.	Yes
H5b: Sexual attitude will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and attitude towards the sexual appeal ad; as level of suggestiveness increases, attitude towards the ad increases.	No
H5c: Sexual attitude will influence the relationship between suggestiveness and behaviour intention; as levels of suggestiveness increases, behaviour intention increases.	No

5.3.2.1 Suggestiveness. An individual's latitude of acceptance was expected to be lower for social marketing advertisements that use suggestiveness, which was expected to impact how they respond to the use of suggestiveness. As a result, they were expected to be offended by the use of suggestiveness as well as have a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. The results from this study support the expected interactions as all three of the hypotheses for the main effect were significant. Participants found the use of sexual appeals in social marketing advertisements offensive. In addition, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention were negatively related to the use of suggestiveness. These results show that overall individuals do not like the use of sexual appeals in social marketing advertisements.

The results from this study provide additional support for the research already conducted with commercial marketing that shows individuals have a negative reaction to the use of sexual appeals (see Jones et al., 1998; LaTour & Henthorne, 1994; Lavine et al., 1999). Therefore, this study extends the previous findings to social marketing advertisements as individuals found the use of suggestiveness in social marketing as offensiveness as well as had a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Social marketing advertisements which result in individuals having a lower behaviour intention could affect the effectiveness of the social marketing campaign as one of the main objectives of social marketing is the proposed behaviour change. This research also provides support for Waller's (2005) definition of offensive advertising "controversial advertising that has resulted in negative effects" (p. 7), as the results show that participants were both offended and had a negative reaction.

5.3.2.2 Feminism. Feminism was broken into two concepts, affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification. Both concepts were expected to influence the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. In particular, individuals who are favourable towards feminism as well as individuals who are identified as feminists were expected to have lower latitude of acceptance which affects their reaction to the use of suggestiveness in social marketing advertisements. Individuals who are favourable towards feminism were expected to find the use of suggestiveness as offensive as well as have a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Feminists were expected to find the use of suggestiveness as more offensive than egalitarians. Feminists are also expected to have a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention than egalitarians. These two concepts did not have the expected influence on the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables as the hypotheses were not supported. Therefore, we can conclude that affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification are not moderators.

The results for affective reaction to feminism are contrary to the expected outcome, as the results were opposite to the expected direction. Individuals who are favourable towards feminism were expected to be more offended than individuals who are unfavourable towards feminism but this is not the observed interaction as individuals who are favourable towards feminism were less offended than individuals who are unfavourable towards feminism. A similar interaction was also expected for attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention as individuals who are favourable towards feminism were expected to have lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention

than individuals who are unfavourable towards feminism however, this is not the result of the study. This is also the case for feminists as they were less offended than egalitarians as well as had a higher attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. These results show that not all feminists hold the same criticism for how women are represented in the media. Instead of thinking that women are mistreated in the media by how they are presented, these results show that feminists and individuals who are favourable towards feminism are less inclined to dislike how women are presented in the media than previously thought. The feminist view adopted for this research, women are exploited in the media, does not match individuals' current views of how women are presented in the media.

An explanation for these results may be that the feminist criticism of how women are presented in the media has never been investigated. Feminists who hold the feminist criticism just assumed that this criticism was held by all feminist; that women are oppressed in the media (Scott, 2005). This concern was raised in the literature review section when the argument for the feminist criticism was presented as this claim has been made; however, there are very few studies that have explored this claim. Therefore, one of the objectives of this study was to provide empirical support for the feminist criticism. Unfortunately, the results from this research do not provide empirical support for the feminist criticism. Contrary to the expected results most feminists do not support the feminist criticism. Given that the feminists measures used in this study were newer versions and the feminist criticism steams back to the 1970s and 1980s the measures may not have measured to correct type of feminism, as there are many branches of feminism.

In the book, *Fresh Lipstick: Redressing Fashion and Feminism*, Scott (2005) addresses how feminists for decades have claimed that fashion and advertising have been oppressing women. However, in actuality this is not the case; frequently it is feminists who push the boundaries of how women are able to dress. This is apparent today with the “Girl Power” phenomenon as many feminists are opposed to how women are expressing their sexuality today (Gonick, 2006). Scott (2005) examined how it has been feminists who pushed how women were able to dress and present themselves, for example in the 1920s the Flapper Girl caused an uproar with feminists as they wore short dresses and plunging necklines. The Flapper Girl is very similar to how other women are pushing the status quo on how women are able to dress today, which is often interpreted as a form of female empowerment.

Women have more choice today in terms of fashion, employment, family dynamics, and gender roles than ever before in North America. This ability to choose has led women in a variety of directions to express their freedom. Future research is needed to explore the different avenues of freedom feminists prefer. It is likely that some women view the choice to dress however they choose, including dressing in a suggestive manner, not as exploitation but as freedom to express their sexuality. In addition, research suggests feminists and individuals who are favourable towards feminism are also highly correlated with sexual attitude. This shows that feminists are open with their sexuality which may also explain why they are not offended by the use of suggestiveness in social marketing advertisements. Given that feminists are sexually liberal and individuals with a liberal sexual attitude are not offended by the use of suggestiveness may also provide another explanation for these results. Sexual attitude is the salient moderator for this

study as well which also helps explain why these results occurred. Since sexual attitude is the salient moderator it is a stronger predictor for how individuals will react to the use of suggestiveness in social marketing advertisements. The results suggest that although individuals are sometimes offended by the depictions of sexuality, this did not depend on whether or not they were feminists, only on their attitude toward sexuality.

5.3.2.3 Sexual Attitude. An individual with a liberal sexual attitude was expected to have higher latitude of acceptance for social marketing ads which use suggestiveness. It was expected that individuals with a liberal sexual attitude would be less offended by the use of suggestiveness, have a more favourable attitude towards the ad, and be more inclined to perform the behaviour. The results for sexual attitude were mixed. Although sexual attitude was the salient moderator, it only had a significant effect on the relationship between suggestiveness and offensiveness, which indicates that individuals with a liberal sexual attitude were not as offended by the use of suggestiveness as those with a conservative sexual attitude. The other two dependent variables, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention, on the other hand, were not influenced by an individual's sexual attitude. Due to these results, we can conclude that sexual attitude is only a partial moderator for this study.

A possible explanation for the moderator's limited influence on the other two variables lies in the definition of sexual attitude: an individual's attitude about sex and how accepting one is of sexual activity. This is relevant because only one of the proposed behaviours related to sex. When these interactions were tested all three behaviours were joined together into one construct for each level of suggestiveness; therefore, the expected influence on the use of suggestiveness may not have been detectable due to the

other two behaviours not relating to sex. To address this possible explanation it is recommended that in future research the behaviours be examined separately. Another reason for these results could be that the levels of suggestiveness may have not been extreme enough to cause a reaction among individuals with a liberal sexual attitude for attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Future studies are needed to determine the precise role of the levels of suggestiveness. These results contribute to offensive advertising research as it was determined that an individual's sexual attitude is a contributing factor for why someone may be less offended by the use of suggestiveness.

5.3.3 Mediation

This study tested, post-hoc, whether offensiveness mediates the relationship between suggestiveness and the other two dependent variables, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. The results show that offensiveness was a partial mediator for attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. This demonstrates that a participant's reaction to the ad depends on the level of offensiveness one sees in the social marketing advertisement. This finding is another contribution this study makes, as it shows that offensiveness has a larger impact than previously found. Offensiveness has an effect on attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Therefore, there are practical implications for social marketers who uses suggestiveness as this may have an adverse effect on the effectiveness of their campaign. If the target audience finds the social marketing advertisement offensive due to the use of suggestiveness it will affect one's behaviour intention and the target audience will be less inclined to perform the proposed behaviour.

5.4 Limitations

This study has several limitations. As an experimental design this study fails to replicate a real-world scenario. The advertisements were created by the researcher; consequently, they may not represent actual social marketing advertisements. Precautions were taken to help alleviate this potential limitation by using messages from original social marketing campaigns. In addition the advertisements used a replicated matched design (Jackson et al., 1994) to help control for confounding effects. The advertisements also followed the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) proposed by Witte (1992) to ensure the all advertisements contained severity, susceptibility, self-efficacy and response efficacy. Finally, the advertisements that were created were based on other real life social marketing advertisements that use suggestiveness. For instance, the moderately suggestive advertisement for reduced tanning was modified from an actual social marketing advertisement to include the EPPM factors as the image and message were the original advertisement.

The use of an experimental design also raises concerns for internal validity and external validity. Internal validity is concerned with whether the independent variable is the only cause for the change on the dependent variables (Zikmund, 2003). To overcome this limitation, several precautions were taken. To help with the levels of suggestiveness, participants were asked to rate the levels of suggestiveness, the results from this rating show that the levels of suggestiveness chosen were increasingly suggestiveness. This provides support that suggestiveness was the contributing factor behind the results. In addition, the scales chosen for this study were reliable and valid as the factor analyses and Cronbach alphas were significant. This demonstrates that the scales were testing

what they were designated to test for this study. Although these precautions were taken, an experimental design still is not a real life scenario. In real life individuals are bombarded with millions of advertisements which causes them to either not focus on them or form an instant reaction. The design of this study asked participants to focus on one advertisement at a time and to think about their response by answering questions for each advertisement which is not a typical response. To help with this concern, the method could have consisted of filler advertisements which would have replicated a more real life scenario as participants would have been exposed to more advertisements than the ones that were just being tested. This method should be used in future research that examines how individuals react to the use of suggestiveness.

External validity is concerned with whether the results from the study can be generalized to the real world (Zikmund, 2003). The care which went into the creation of the advertisements helps ease this concern as they were created from real social marketing campaigns. One of the problems with external validity is whether the experimental design is similar enough to real life as it is a contrived environment. By creating the advertisements from real life campaigns they replicated the real world more than advertisements that are solely created from scratch for research. An issue with generalizability comes from the use of a sample. Usually an experimental design has a sample which is narrow and not a true representation of the population. This study used a broad sample which represents the population fairly well as their demographic characteristics were not homogeneous but well distributed. The findings from this study may be partially limiting as the use of suggestiveness was not tested amongst all behaviours which social marketing promotes. This study focused on the three social

marketing behaviours concerned with women's issues. Therefore, future research should examine how the use of suggestiveness affects other behaviours as well including behaviour for children and men.

The within study design may also have had implications for this study as the ad set which participants saw had a significant effect of their responses. It was expected that the ad sets would have no effect on participants' reaction. Unfortunately, this research was unable to control for the ad set effect as the ad sets were categorical and in order to control effects while conducting MANCOVAs the control must be continuous. When the ad sets were created it was ensured that the each level of suggestiveness was placed in each position possible. For example, the highly suggestive advertisement was placed in the first, second and third position in the ad sets. In addition to each level of suggestiveness being placed in each position each behaviour chosen, safe sex, reduced tanning, and seat belt use, was also placed in each position. Ad sets were assigned to participants by birth month and as a result were not randomized which resulted in an uneven number of participants per ad set. This was unavoidable as the survey provider, Market Tools, was unable to provide the ability to randomize who was exposed to which set.

Given that the ad set could not be a control variable in this study the researcher examined the means for each advertisement separately. Examining the means separately exposed that participants did not react to all three behaviours equally as each behaviour received different responses. Overall, the seat belt use advertisements received the most negative response as participants were generally more offended, had a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention than the other two behaviours. However, the safe

sex advertisements caused the biggest concern as the moderately suggestive advertisement was perceived as more suggestive than the highly suggestive advertisement which had an effect on how participants responded for the safe sex advertisements. Instead of participants finding the highly suggestive advertisement as more offensive they found the moderately suggestive advertisements more offensive. In addition participants had a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention for the moderately suggestive advertisement. The different reactions for the behaviours could have had an affect on the statistical analysis as the behaviours were combined into one construct for each level of suggestiveness. Therefore, future research should analyze each behaviour separately.

One of the issues which may have confounded individuals' responses to the behaviour is topic relevance. Topic relevance may be an issue as not all behaviours related to the use of sexual appeals. It would not be uncommon to find a safe sex advertisement using a sexual appeal to promote its message as the behaviour the advertisement is promoting is safe sex practices. Reduced tanning could also be related to the use of sexual appeals as individuals often use tanning as a technique to make themselves more attractive. As a result it would not be completely unheard of to use sexual appeals to promote reduced tanning. However, the seat belt use is not related to the topic and therefore, individuals may have had more concerns about these advertisements as the behaviour would not be commonly promoted with the use of sexual appeals. Future research should investigate the importance of topic relevance in social marketing advertisements as previous research has found that topic relevance can have an impact on an individual's response (Pope, et al., 2004).

Due to the suggestiveness of the safe sex advertisements not being perceived as increasingly suggestive it appears that the levels of suggestiveness may not have been extreme enough for this study. Although the advertisements were found to be increasingly suggestive when all three behaviours were combined into one construct, the increase may not have been drastic enough to cause a major shift in how individuals responded. In the future more care should be taken to select the images; a pretest could be conducted to select the images. Upon further examination it appears that the image chosen for the highly suggestive seat belt use advertisement confounds sexuality and sexism, which may have caused the more negative response for this advertisement than the other highly suggestive advertisements. If more care had been taken to select the images, this limitation could have been avoided.

5.5 Future Research

There are several possible future directions for this research. As previously mentioned this study only used three social marketing behaviours which focused on women's issues. Therefore, future research should examine other social marketing behaviours especially behaviours that do not focus only on women. By researching other social marketing behaviours, future studies would increase the generalizability of the findings of this study. This research focused on women's issues found that women do not like the use of suggestiveness; therefore future research should explore which type of social marketing advertisements would work best for women. By discovering which type of social marketing advertisements women respond to best we can increase the successfulness of social marketing campaigns.

A comparison between social marketing and commercial marketing advertisements that use suggestiveness is another direction for this research. Mainly, how does comparing social marketing and commercial marketing advertisements affect an individual's response to the use of suggestiveness? Due to social marketing being held to a higher ethical standard, it would be expected that individuals would react less favourably for social marketing than for commercial marketing.

Given that social marketing is held to a higher ethical standard, future research should examine what effect an individual's ethical perspective has on one's response to the use of suggestiveness. A study by LaTour and Henthorne (1994) discovered that the use of overt sexual appeals was found to be less ethical than the use of mild sexual appeals with commercial marketing. The findings from this study should be applied to social marketing advertisements with sexual appeals. In addition, one of the objectives of this research was to examine which potential factors influence an individual's negative reaction to suggestiveness. Perhaps an individual's ethical perspective is a better indicator of what influences an individual's reaction to the use of suggestiveness.

Exploratory research has been conducted cross-culturally on how an individual's cultural values can affect their response to sexual imagery in advertising (Lass & Hart, 2004). In this study several factors were determined to have an effect on an individual's response. These factors should be applied to a social marketing context across cultures to investigate what influence they may have on social marketing advertisements that use suggestiveness. An individual's cultural perspective may have a major influence on how an individual views women's role in the media. In addition, different cultures hold different feminist views which could affect their interpretation of how women are

presented in the media. Further examination of the difference between cultures could bring new light into this area of research.

5.6 Contributions

This study makes several contributions to the area of sexual appeals in advertising. First off, this research shows that not all feminists share the feminism criticism that women are exploited in the media. While some feminists may still be critical of how women are presented in the media other feminists may not hold this view and actually view how women are presented in the media as empowering. In addition to discovering that not all feminists hold the feminism criticism, this study also uncovered that an individual's sexual attitude is a better indicator of how they will react to use of sexual appeals in advertising than their feminist view. Another contribution this study makes is to the area of offensive advertising. The results from this study show that an individual's reaction to an advertisement with suggestiveness depends on the level of offensiveness one observes.

There are practical implications for this research as well. Social marketers must keep in mind who their target audience is before suggestiveness is used to promote their message, as the use of suggestiveness could possibly results in a negative effect. Given that an individual's sexual attitude is a better indicator of how one will react to the use of suggestiveness social marketers should consider their target audience potential sexual attitude before decided whether suggestiveness should be used. Instead of using sexual appeals for social marketing advertisements aimed at women it is suggested that research be conducted to examine which type of social marketing is more effective for women.

5.7 Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to examine how individuals react to the use of sexual appeals in social marketing advertisements. More specifically, this research was interested in what influence feminism and sexual attitude had on an individual's reaction. Outcome variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention were measured. The main effect was supported as individuals were offended, had a lower attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Feminism was broken into two constructs, affective reaction to feminism and feminist identification. Unfortunately, both of these constructs did not have the predicted influence on the relationship between suggestiveness and the dependent variables, offensiveness, attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention. Therefore, feminism was discovered to not be a moderator for an individual's reaction to sexual appeals in advertising. Sexual attitude only influenced the relationship between offensiveness and therefore was only a partial moderator for an individual's reaction to sexual appeals in advertising.

This study has three main contributions. First off, the feminism criticism that women are exploited in the media is not shared by all feminists. Second, offensiveness was discovered to have an effect on an individual's attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention as an individual's reaction to attitude towards the ad and behaviour intention depends on the level of offensiveness one observes in the advertisements. Finally, from a practitioner's perspective the use of suggestiveness may not be the most appropriate technique to promote their behaviour change as the use of suggestiveness could result in negative effects. Therefore, social marketers need to fully understand their target audience before choosing to use sexual appeals.

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7. Appendices

Appendix A

A.1 Seat Belt Use



Figure A.1: Non-Suggestive



Figure A.2: Moderately Suggestive

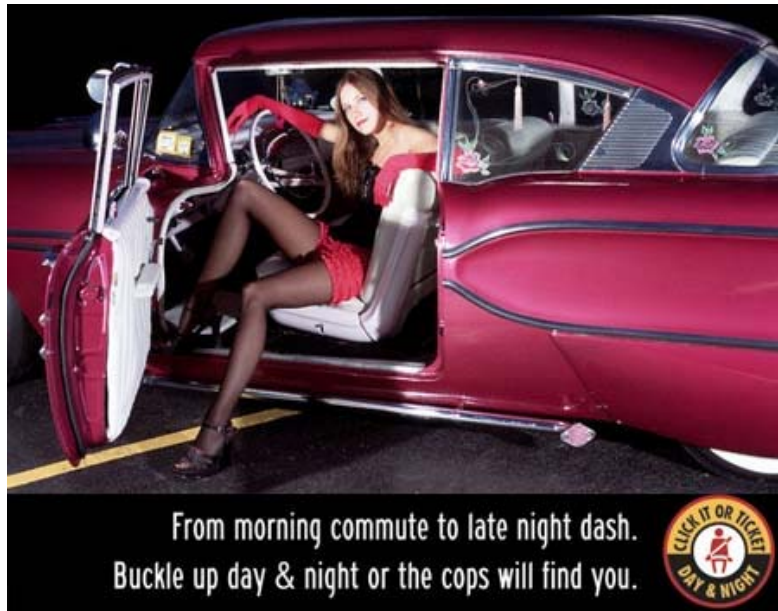


Figure A.3: Highly Suggestive

A.2 Reduced Tanning



Figure A.4: Non-Suggestive



Figure A.5: Moderately Suggestive



Figure A.6: Highly Suggestive

A.3 Safe Sex



Figure A.7: Non-Suggestive



Figure A.8: Moderately Suggestive



Figure A.9: Highly Suggestive

Appendix B

B.1 Feminist and Behaviour Measure

(Zucker, 2004)

Yes/No

1. Girls and women have not been treated as well as boys and men in our society
2. Women and men should be paid equally for the same work
3. Women's unpaid work should be more socially valued
4. Do you consider yourself a feminist?

B.2 Feminism and the Women's Movement (FWM) Scale

(Fassinger, 1994)

5 point Likert scale – strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree

1. The leaders of the women's movement may be extreme, but they have the right idea
2. There are better ways for women to fight for equality than through the women's movement*
3. More people would favour the women's movement if they knew more about it
4. The women's movement has positively influenced relationships between men and women
5. The women's movement is too radical and extreme in its view*
6. The women's movement has made important gains in equal rights and political power for women
7. Feminists are too visionary for a practical world*
8. Feminists principles should be adopted everywhere
9. Feminists are a menace to this nation and the world*
10. I am overjoyed that women's liberation is finally happening in this country

*reverse scored

B.3 Sex Attitude Scale (SAS)

(Mercer & Kohn, 1979)

5 point Likert scale – strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree

1. Any sensible person would try to find out if he/she and his/her spouse were sexually compatible before marriage
2. I want/wanted my spouse to be a virgin*
3. I personally would feel guilty if I engaged in sexual relations with a person who I did not love*
4. I personally would feel guilty if I engaged in sexual relation with a person whom I was not engaged or married*
5. There should be no legal restriction on sexual experimentation between consenting adults*
6. I would feel guilty about masturbating
7. I approve of unmarried couples engaging in sexual intercourse

*reverse scored

B.4 Social Desirability Scale (SDS)

(Fisher & Fick, 1993)

5-point Likert scale – very infrequently, infrequently, sometimes, frequently, very frequently

1. I like to gossip at times
2. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone
3. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake*
4. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive
5. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way
6. I have been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from my own
7. I have deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings

*reverse scored

B.5 Suggestiveness of Ad

5 point scale – not at all suggestive, not very suggestive, neutral, very suggestive, extremely suggestive

1. The level of suggestiveness for this advertisement is

B.6 Attitude Towards the Ad (A_{Ad})

(Sengupta & Dahl, 2008)

5-point scale

1. poor/excellent
2. bad/good
3. dislike/like

B.7 Behaviour Intention (BI)

(Basil, et. al., 2007)

5-point scale – definitely not, maybe not, maybe, probably, definitely

1. If I saw this ad, it would make me more likely to do what it wants me to
2. I will pay more attention to the issue the ad is talking about in the future
3. I would like to find out more about the topic the ad is talking about

B.8 Offensive Execution

(Waller, 1999)

5 point scale – not at all offensive, not very offensive, neutral, very offensive, extremely offensive

1. I found this advertisement offensive in terms of image used

Appendix C

C.1 Letter of Consent (Phase One)

You are being invited to participate in a research study on people's reaction to advertisements. More specifically, we are interested in how people react to social marketing ads.

This research will require about 20 minutes of your time. During this time, you will be required to answer questions and view ads. There are no expected risks or discomfort related to this research. If at any time you feel uncomfortable and would like to stop, you have the right to do so without consequences. Your answers will be destroyed and will not be used in this study.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You will not benefit directly from participating in this research. However, you will be entered into a draw for \$50.00. Your name and contact information will be collected at the end of the study but will be kept separate so there is no way of connecting your name with your responses. If you choose to withdraw from this study you will still be entered into the draw.

All necessary precautions will be taken to protect your anonymity. The completed response will not contain any mention of your name or any other identifying information. Your responses will be kept on a password protected computer at the University of Lethbridge. Only the researcher and the researcher's supervisors will have access to the data. The researcher's supervisors may view the data while assisting the researcher with data analysis. All information will be destroyed after 5 years.

The results from this study will be presented in a thesis. The results may also be published in an academic journal. At no time will your name be used or any identifying information be revealed. If you wish to receive a copy of the results of this study, you may contact the researcher at the email address given below.

If you require any information about this study, or would like to speak to the researcher, please email Cathy Aspen at cathy.aspen@uleth.ca. If you would like to contact the researcher's supervisors email Dr. Michael Basil at michael.basil@uleth.ca and/or Dr. Sameer Deshpande at sameer.deshpande@uleth.ca. Questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research may be addressed to the Office of Research Services, University of Lethbridge at 403-329-2747.

I have read the above information regarding this research study on people's reaction to advertisements and consent to participate in this study. By clicking next, I give my consent.

Appendix D

D.1 Manipulation – Exploitation

Some women believe that females in the media who dress suggestively are being exploited for their sexuality. While they believe that women have the right to express their sexuality, they feel that the media has taken this a step further by objectifying women. They believe that this is not a form of female empowerment as this is an unfair representation of females in the media, as they are often treated as sexual objects.

D.2 Manipulation – Empowerment

Some women believe that females in the media who dress suggestively are expressing their own sexuality and that it is their freedom to do so. They believe expressing their sexuality is a form of female empowerment. For example the Spice Girls and Pussycat Dolls attempt to convey that they are empowered by being sexy. Individuals who believe this perspective on female empowerment do not see anything wrong with how women are portrayed in the media.

Appendix E

E.1 Letter of Consent (Phase Two)

You are being invited to participate in a research study on people’s reaction to advertisements. More specifically, we are interested in how people react to social marketing ads.

This research will require about 20 minutes of your time. During this time, you will be required answer questions, view ads and discuss your reaction to the ads with the researcher. There are no expected risks or discomfort related to this research. If at any time you feel uncomfortable and would like to stop, you have the right to do so without consequences. Your answers will be destroyed and will not be used in this study. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You will not benefit directly from participating in this research.

All necessary precautions will be taken to protect your anonymity. Notes will be taken during the interview. The notes will not contain any mention of your name or any other identifying information. The notes will be kept under lock and key. Only the researcher and the researcher’s supervisors will have access to the data. The researcher’s supervisors may read the interview while assisting the researcher with data analysis. All information will be destroyed after 5 years.

The results from this study will be presented in a thesis. The results may also be published in an academic journal. At no time will your name be used or any identifying information be revealed. If you wish to receive a copy of the results of this study, you may contact the researcher at the email address given below.

If you require any information about this study, or would like to speak to the researcher, please email Cathy Aspen at cathy.aspen@uleth.ca. If you would like to contact the researcher’s supervisors email Dr. Michael Basil at michael.basil@uleth.ca and/or Dr. Sameer Deshpande at sameer.deshpande@uleth.ca. Questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research may be addressed to the Office of Research Services, University of Lethbridge at 403-329-2747.

I have read the above information regarding this research study on people’s reaction to advertisements and consent to participate in this study. By signing below, I give my consent.

X

Cathy Aspen

X

Participant

Appendix F

F.1 Letter of Consent (Phase Three)

You are being invited to participate in a research study on people's reaction to advertisements. More specifically, we are interested in how people react to social marketing ads.

This research will require about 20 minutes of your time. During this time, you will be required to answer questions and view ads. There are no expected risks or discomfort related to this research. If at any time you feel uncomfortable and would like to stop, you have the right to do so without consequences. Your answers will be destroyed and will not be used in this study.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You will not benefit directly from participating in this research. However, you will receive Zoomerang points by participating in this study.

All necessary precautions will be taken to protect your anonymity and identity. The completed response will not contain any mention of your name or any other identifying information. Your responses will be kept on a password protected computer at the University of Lethbridge. Only the researcher and the researcher's supervisors will have access to the data. The researcher's supervisors may view the data while assisting the researcher with data analysis. All information will be destroyed after 5 years.

The results from this study will be presented in a thesis. The results may also be published in an academic journal. At no time will your name be used or any identifying information be revealed. If you wish to receive a copy of the results of this study, you may contact the researcher at the email address given below.

If you require any information about this study, or would like to speak to the researcher, please email Cathy Aspen at cathy.aspen@uleth.ca. If you would like to contact the researcher's supervisors email Dr. Michael Basil at michael.basil@uleth.ca and/or Dr. Sameer Deshpande at sameer.deshpande@uleth.ca. Questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research may be addressed to the Office of Research Services, University of Lethbridge at 403-329-2747.

I have read the above information regarding this research study on people's reaction to advertisements and consent to participate in this study. By clicking next, I give my consent.