

Television shopping: the effect of persuasive strategies on parasocial interaction, subjective well-being, and impulse buying tendency among older women

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## LIST OF TERMS

The followings are definitions of the major concepts investigated in this study.

**Impulse Buying:** An unplanned or spontaneous purchase (Rook, 1987)

**Loneliness:** The unpleasant experience related to the unmet need for human intimacy (Weiss, 1973).

**Mood:** Subjective feeling state (positive or negative state) induced by pleasant or unpleasant experiences (Clark & Isen, 1982).

**Parasocial Interaction:** A viewer's perceived relationship with a media personality (Papa, Singhal, Law, Pant, Sood, Rogers, & Shefner-Rogers, 2000).

**Perceived Risk:** The extent to which an individual senses the uncertainty in contemplating a particular purchase decision (Cox & Rich, 1964).

**Personal Selling Approach:** The promotional strategy the salesperson uses to persuade a customer to buy products through the direct interaction and communication of information (Jaramillo & Marshall, 2004).

**Persuasive Strategy:** One of the personal selling approaches using symbolic transactions (messages) to appeal to the emotions of the individual and to modify the individuals' attitude or behavior (Dillard & Pfau, 2002). Six persuasive strategies are:

**1) Reciprocation:** The social rule that people are likely to repay others (Cialdini, 1984).

**2) Consistency:** People are likely to make choices consistent with their other decisions (Cialdini, 1993).

**3) Social proof:** People are willing to comply with a request for behavior that is similar to behaviors performed by others (Cialdini, 1984).

**4) Liking:** People are willing to comply with the requests of friends or others they like (Cialdini, 1984).

**5) Authority:** People are willing to follow the suggestions of an individual with legitimate authority (Cialdini, 1984).

**6) Scarcity:** A general norm that what is less available is perceived to be more valuable (Cialdini, 1984).

**Social Involvement:** The extent to which an individual has a relationship with other people within a society (Weiss, 1998).

**Subjective Well-Being:** An individual's cognitive and affective perception about the quality of his/her life (Diener, 2000).

**ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of persuasive strategies on perceived parasocial interactions between the host and viewers in the television home shopping environment. The effects of perceived parasocial interactions, perceived social involvement, and perceived loneliness on mood, and mood's consequent influence on perceived risk and impulse buying tendency are examined. A questionnaire assessed perceived use of persuasive strategies, parasocial interaction with the host, social involvement, loneliness, mood, risk, and impulse buying. Through two different sampling methods, 109 usable responses from female television home shopping shoppers aged 55 to 80 were retained for data analyses. Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 7.0 was used to derive the maximum-likelihood estimation for analysis of the model. In this study, three models were tested—the theoretical model, the fully recursive model, and the empirical model. The fully recursive model was run after the theoretical model resulted in marginal fit. The effect of level of persuasive strategies on parasocial interaction was not significant. However, the results indicated that parasocial interaction between hosts and viewers significantly influence older middle-aging and elderly consumers' subjective well-being. Discussions of the results, practical implications, and limitations are also described.



## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

### Background

Introduced in the early 1980s, television shopping has shown remarkable growth during the past few years. Television shopping has reached a mature stage in terms of market size and sales volume. Two dominant television shopping channels, Quality Value Convenience (QVC) and Home Shopping Network (HSN), lead the t-commerce market (*Economist*, 1996). QVC and HSN generated more than \$5.7 and \$2.4 billion sales in 2004, respectively (“QVC Corporate Facts,” 2006; “HSN Company Information,” 2006). QVC launched in 1986 and generated \$112 million in its first full fiscal year (“QVC corporate Facts,” 2008). HSN reported annual sales of approximately \$53.4 million in 1986, up from \$4.9 million in 1985 (Parker, 2007). Recently, QVC introduced 250 new products weekly to viewers in approximately 87 million homes across the United States and attracted over 153.4 million cable and satellite homes worldwide (“QVC Business Overview,”; “QVC International Business,” 2006). Similarly, HSN reached more than 85 million U.S. households (“HSN Company Information,” 2006). In 2004, HSN responded to 66 million calls and delivered 50 million product packages worldwide (“HSN Company Information,” 2006).

During television shopping programs, the host plays several roles. The host leads a one-hour program and presents the product in detail. The main role of the host is to introduce a product to the viewers (Skumanich & Kintsfather, 1998; Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996). Typically, the host makes the viewers feel as if he/she is talking directly to them (Skumanich & Kintsfather, 1998). In addition, the host tries to talk about some common life issues of the viewers, such as their families, interests, and personal feelings

about themselves (Skumanich & Kintsfather, 1998). Through this process, the host also may play the role of a friend. Therefore, the viewer may feel an intimacy with the host. As the host plays the role of a friend, viewers may be able to fulfill their lack of social interaction through television shopping. Because a need for social interaction is a basic desire of humans, those who have limited opportunities for socialization are likely to turn to television shopping programs to fulfill social needs and, hence, may be likely to interact with the hosts (Rubin, Perse, & Powell, 1985).

During the show, the host uses various personal selling approaches to evoke viewers' purchase intentions. Television shopping hosts frequently use persuasive approaches for selling. Cialdini (1993) identifies six persuasive strategies—reciprocation, consistency, social proof, liking, authority, and scarcity. Fritchie and Johnson (2003) examine the presence of these persuasive strategies in television shopping programs and find that all persuasive strategies are present and two persuasive strategies, on an average, are used by the hosts every show.

Due to the strong population growth of the middle-aging and older population, shopping behavior of middle-aging and older people has become a major interest to marketers, consumer educators, and social scientists. Marketers are interested in exploring and segmenting the middle-aging and older consumer market because it has shown a remarkable increase in size (Michman, Mazze, & Greco, 2003) and purchase power (Shim & Bickle, 1993). As the population size of this group increases, the potential market for apparel expands as well.

The middle-aging and older consumer market also has some unique characteristics as compare to other age groups (Ahern, 1996). The middle-aging and older consumers have

diverse needs and characteristics influenced by health, age, gender, wealth, and family relations (Nummelin, 2005). For example, middle-aging and older women, on the average, are likely to take more time to make decisions than middle-aging and older men and seek an advisor when they make a decision (Kostrunek, 2005). Additionally, middle-aging and older people who lack mobility tend to enjoy places, such as restaurants or shopping malls, with easy access (Moschis, 1996). Thus, television shopping may be an attractive shopping venue to middle-aging and older shoppers. Several unique benefits are offered by television shopping programs, including ease in finding diverse clothing sizes and convenience to shop at home. Park and Lennon (2004) surveyed people with purchase experience via television shopping programs and found that nearly 87% of the respondents were over the age of 45. As the individual ages body shape changes, such as thickening of the waist, enlargement of the hips, a more protruding abdomen, and a drooping bustline (Jackson & O'Neal, 1994). Middle-aging and older people may experience some difficulties in finding suitable sizes because of these physical changes. Television shopping programs may fulfill these needs.

In addition, the health and mobility of elderly shoppers may influence motivation to shop via television shopping programs. For example, driving or walking may be too difficult for middle-aging and older consumers to shop at traditional malls or retail stores. Moreover, related to mental health and subjective well-being, a broader concept of life satisfaction has become a main issue in elderly life and influences shopping behavior. Elderly life is a time when individuals search for meaning of their lives (Michman et al., 2003). Loneliness (Weiss, 1973) and social involvement (Joung, 2002) are important contributors of subjective well-being. Lack of social involvement may cause loneliness and, in turn, result in depression (Russell, Cutrona, Mora, & Wallace, 1997). Thus, in the traditional shopping

setting, middle-aging and older shoppers place greater importance on interactions and relationships with the salespeople when purchasing a product; whereas, younger consumers tend to concentrate on seeking product information (Johnson-Hillery & Kang, 1997). Because middle-aging and older people are likely to have less social involvement than younger people (Gibson, 2000), they tend to perceive friendships with the television shopping show host as an alternative form of social interaction. A perceived relationship with hosts from television shopping programs can minimize loneliness, evoke positive moods, and ultimately influence customers' purchase tendency (Johnson-Hillery & Kang, 1997; Kim, Kang, & Kim, 2005).

### **Purpose**

Despite widespread awareness of the importance of a middle-aging and older consumer market, it is surprising that very little research has been conducted on consumer behavior for this age group. Most studies in the past have focused on younger female consumers and ignored middle-aging and older consumers. Even though the number of studies for middle-aging and older consumers has continued to increase, scholarly attention is lacking in shopping behavior via multiple retail channels and several areas still remain unexplored.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of persuasive strategies on perceived parasocial interactions between the host and viewers in the television home shopping environment. The effects of perceived parasocial interactions, perceived social involvement, and perceived loneliness on mood, and mood's consequent influence on perceived risk and impulse buying tendency are examined. This study will focus on middle-aging and older female television home shoppers.

A few studies have investigated the television home shopping context related to parasocial interaction, mood, risk, and impulse buying tendency. However, little attention has been paid to the host's use of personal selling approaches and the effect of parasocial interaction on middle-aging and older consumers. Subjective well-being measures an individual's perception of quality of life. Related to parasocial interaction, the important issue of subjective well-being (social involvement and loneliness) of middle-aging and older people will also be examined in this study.

## **CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Previous literature that pertains to consumer behavior of elderly, parasocial interaction between television shopping show hosts and viewers, the personal selling approach, and subjective well-being, mood, risk, and loyalty will be reviewed in Chapter 2. A theoretical model capturing ten research hypotheses will be proposed, based on past literature.

### **Middle-aging and Older Consumers**

Women 65 and older are a unique group, due to their fast growing population number and purchasing power. In the United States, a remarkable increase in the growth of the older population has become one of the major market trends. The number of people 65 and older was 36.3 million in 2004. This means that about one in every eight people is an older person. By the year 2030, the older population is projected to more than double to 72.1 million (U.S. Bureau of Census, 2004). The growth rate of the older consumer market is twice that of the general population rate (Michman et al., 2003). Another reason for recognition of the older consumer market lies in its purchasing power. The spending of householders aged 65 or older grew 12 percent between 1990 and 1999, after adjusting for inflation, far surpassing the 2 percent rise in spending by the average household during the same period. Moreover, their spending is increasing greater than they are usually expected to spend. Based on a consumer expenditure survey, people aged 55 to 74 earned an average of \$46,993 annual income and spent \$1,376 for apparel in 2003; whereas, people under 25, who presented greater interest and purchase power in apparel, spent \$1,117 for apparel in 2003. The average annual expenditures of people aged 55 to 64 was \$44,191, more than \$40,817 spent by all consumer units and \$40,525 spent by people aged 25-34 (U.S. Bureau of Census, 2005).

In 2002, there were 33 million women aged 55 years and over (U.S. Bureau of Census, 2003). People aged 55 and over are considered a market having much potential due to their buying power; this particular market spent more than \$20 billion on apparel each year (Michman, Mazze, & Greco, 2003). Seventy-five percent of the nation's wealth is currently owned by people aged 50 and over (Kostrunek, 2005). The over fifty group is expected to rise to 30 percent of the population by 2030 (Michman et al., 2003). Middle-aging and older women, aged 50 and over, play an important role in managing household finances, whether they are married or not (Hibib, Zohry, Nuwayhid, & Najdi, 2006). Therefore, the middle-aging and older women's market can be an important and rewarding customer group on which to focus. This study focused on middle-aging and older women from 55 to 80.

The older consumer group has unique characteristics (Ahern, 1996). Several studies (Hildreth & Kelly, 1984-85; Jackson, 1992; Reinecke, 1976) found a strong relationship between changes in the life cycle and apparel expenditure. Changes in age (Reinecke, 1976), retirement (Hildreth & Kelly, 1984-85), income, marital status, and household size influence individual expenditure (Jackson, 1992). Reinecke (1976) showed that expenditure on apparel decreases as people get older and the decrease in apparel expenditure is greater for men than for women. Additionally, apparel expenditure decreases dramatically after retirement (Hildreth & Kelly, 1984-1985). In contrast to these early findings, recent studies (Jackson, 1992) revealed that age does not significantly affect apparel expenditure. Jackson (1992) examined the effect of age and income on apparel expenditure among the elderly (age 60 and above) and found a positive relationship between income and apparel expenditure. Spending for apparel increased as income increases, regardless of age.

Michman et al. (2003) described recent trends of elderly lifestyles. In comparison to previous generations, the elderly today are healthier and more affluent, fashion conscious, sophisticated, feel and act younger, exhibit greater interest in activities, and spend more money on grandchildren. Michman et al. (2003) classified older consumers into two groups—the mature market (age 55 to 64) and active elderly (age 65 to 74). Consumers in the mature market are fashion conscious and tend to perceive themselves ten to fifteen years younger than their chronological age. They also may be less price-conscious. The active elderly market tends to use shopping trips as exercise or recreation, and usually likes to shop with others. Most of them are retired and tend to be careful when making a purchase decision.

### **Older Women and Television Shopping**

Older shoppers may prefer in-home shopping over in-store shopping (Michman et al., 2003). The methods of in-home shopping include catalogs, televisions, and the Internet. Several studies show that older women tend to shop via television shopping programs. Park and Lennon (2004) find that the average age of television shoppers is nearly 56 years old. Physical and psychological factors such as body shape changes, limited mobility, and loneliness may motivate older shoppers to watch television shopping programs (Park & Lennon, 2004). These body shape changes (e.g., thickened waist, enlarged hips, protruding abdomen, and drooping bustline) make it difficult for older women to find apparel that fits well in traditional retail stores, which cater to younger markets (Kaiser & Chandler, 1984). Older women also may experience fewer social interactions and spend more time alone (Nordlund, 1978). During television shopping shows, viewers may feel a close relationship with hosts, which may help alleviate loneliness caused by a lack of social involvement.



Stephens et al. (1996) found that television shoppers tend to feel a kind of friendship with the host. Similarly, viewers perceive that they have a meeting with the host during television shopping programs (Skumanich & Kintsfather, 1998). Thus, it is possible that older shoppers may view television shopping as entertainment and fun, and use television shopping to alleviate loneliness (Park & Lennon, 2004). This indicates that home shopping programs are used not only for apparel purchase, but also for hedonic fulfillment for older women.

### **Parasocial Interaction**

People seek human contact and desire to achieve acceptance and affection through interpersonal relationships (Conway & Rubin, 1991). Actual face-to-face relationships may be substituted by parasocial interaction with media personnel. In the television setting, parasocial interaction is defined as a viewer's perceived relationship with a media personality (Papa et al., 2000).

Several studies investigated parasocial interactions between viewers and media personalities such as actors, newscasters, and show hosts (Auter & Moore, 1993; Fritchie & Johnson, 2003; Grant, Guthrie, & Ball-Rokeach, 1991; Levy, 1979; Papa et al., 2000; Rubin et al., 1985; Skumanich & Kintsfather, 1998; Stephens et al., 1996). During television shopping programs, parasocial relationships can be developed between viewers and hosts. Media personae share their opinions with the viewers and sometimes communicate with callers' (Fritchie & Johnson, 2003). Parasocial interaction is an important motivation for watching home shopping programs (Auter & Moore, 1993) and may induce viewers to watch more television shows (Conway & Rubin, 1991). Levy (1979) found that the stronger the parasocial interaction, the more television news the viewers watch. Similarly, Rubin et al.

(1985) also found a positive relationship between parasocial interaction and television reliance.

Some researchers emphasized the effect of parasocial interaction on viewers' social activities. Papa et al. (2000) found that parasocial interaction can facilitate behavioral changes among media viewers. People with greater parasocial interactions were more likely to have a conversation with other community members about the content of media programs they watched than those who interacted less (Papa et al., 2000). People with less social interactions may develop parasocial relationships with media personae as an alternative form of social involvement. Levy (1979) studied the parasocial interaction between audience and television newscasters, and found that the more social interaction opportunities an individual has, the less likely a person will engage in a parasocial interactions with newscasters.

### **Parasocial Interaction and Older People**

Loneliness may motive shopping (Tauber, 1972). Shopping is considered a way of alleviating loneliness (Das, Echambadi, McCardle, & Lockett, 2003). Loneliness is often caused by less social interactions and limited leisure activities (Nordlund, 1978). Thus, people tend to go shopping when they feel lonely and need contact with others (Tauber, 1972). Rubin et al. (1985) found that people who feel lonely tend to interact with salespeople more frequently than people who are not lonely. Similarly, elderly consumers, who tend to be socially-isolated, are more likely to interact with salespeople than younger consumers (Levy, 1979).

### **Personal Selling Approaches**

Personal selling is defined as an interaction and communication of information between the seller and the customer, and is often used to persuade a customer to buy products

or services (Jaramillo & Marshall, 2004). Personal selling becomes overwhelmingly important for high volume goods and services in the mass market (Jaramillo & Marshall, 2004). Using persuasive strategies is one of the most fundamental promotion techniques in social and marketing communication (Dillard & Pfau, 2002). A broad range of practitioners such as salespeople, fund-raisers, advertisers, and politicians use persuasive strategies (Cialdini, 1993). Dillard and Pfau (2002) defined persuasion as the process of/skill of symbolic message transmissions in order to appeal to emotions and to modify the persons' attitude or behavior (Dillard & Pfau, 2002). A persuasive strategy can change how people think about and act toward other people, groups, objects, or issues. Cialdini (1993) identified six persuasive strategies—reciprocation, consistency, social proof, liking, authority, and scarcity.

### Reciprocation

Societies contain a norm for reciprocation that pushes people to repay others (Cialdini, 1984). Cialdini (1993) explained the rule of reciprocation as "...we are obligated to the future repayment of favors, gifts, invitations, and the like" (p. 12). Because the rule of reciprocation is deeply embodied in every human society, people give something to another with an expectation that it will be returned. The pressure of reciprocation is frequently used as a marketing technique, such as a free sample (Cialdini, 1993) and gift or favor (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2002). When salespeople give free merchandise or offer additional products, customers tend to feel the pressure of reciprocation. So, they are likely to purchase a product as a form of reciprocation. Usually, the return (or purchase) from the customers is worth more for sellers than the cost of the free merchandise or additional products the customers receive (Cialdini, 1984). Scott (1976) also found a positive effect of incentives on a purchase

decision for newspaper subscriptions. Incentives tended to generate a positive purchase decision. A customer who received the newspaper as a free incentive may feel the pressure of subscribing to the newspaper.

### Consistency

Consistency means that individuals are likely to make decisions that are consistent with their other choices (Cialdini, 1993). Individuals tend to confirm they have made a right decision to feel better about their decision. Cialdini (1984) argued this behavior results from a socially desirable need for a consistent image, because consistency is positively valued by society. Consistency is often related to stability, honesty, and intellectual strength.

A variety of techniques can be used to induce consistency. For example, door-to-door salespeople may start to ask a few questions that customers are likely to answer “yes.” Then, the customers may have the pressure for consistency with the previous answers and continue to say “yes” to the main final question (Cialdini, 1984). In a restaurant, if servers ask customers about potential dessert purchases first and remind the customers of their earlier choices after they finish dining, the customers may feel obligated to say “yes” (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2002). In a sales situation, salespeople can ask customers the reason why they want a product first and then explain how a product matches these criteria (Fritchie & Johnson, 2003). This strategy may motivate the customer to make a purchase.

### Social proof

Cialdini (1984) explained that social proof occurs when people are willing to comply with a request similar to the level of compliance of others. Use of a social proof technique can be easily found in marketing strategies. Marketers emphasize that a product is the best seller. Customers think “if others are buying, I should buy” (Fritchie & Johnson, 2003).

Social proof becomes most effective when people are uncertain in the buying situation and when they find a strong similarity of shopping motives with others (Cialdini, 1993).

### Liking

The liking strategy notes that people are more willing to comply with the requests of friends or others they like (Cialdini, 1984). The power of “liking” can make viewers feel affinity to the host, when viewers see a product for the first time and within a relatively short time (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2002). During selling presentations, a salesperson is not only a likeable person, but also can be seen as a friend (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2002). Factors such as physical attractiveness, similarity, praise, repeated contact, and association with positive things tend to increase the level of liking (Cialdini, 1993). Thus, the liking strategy is often referred to as ‘the friendly thief’ (Cialdini, 1993).

### Authority

Cialdini (1984) explained that “authority” is at work when people are willing to follow the suggestions of an individual with legitimate authority. People are more likely to obey authorities because of their high level of knowledge, wisdom, and power (Cialdini, 1993). In the marketing field, the strategy of authority is frequently used. For example, advertisers for health-related products frequently employ a real doctor as a spokesperson or an actor wearing the outfit of an expert. In home shopping programs, the host leads a program with an expert co-host, such as a designer or celebrity (Fritchie & Johnson, 2003).

### Scarcity

In many societies, what is less available is more valuable (Cialdini, 1984). This norm is the root of the scarcity strategy. Cialdini (1993) called the scarcity strategy “the rule of the few.” The scarcity strategy works well in selling situations. A product that is less available

decreases customers' freedom of choice (Cialdini, 1993). Limited availability may force viewers to purchase a product at that moment (Fritchie & Johnson, 2003). A variety of scarcity techniques can be used, such as offering a limited supply of memberships (Cialdini, 1984). When salespeople mention the limited number of the products or the limited time to purchase, customers perceive it as more valuable, which persuades consumers to purchase. This type of a selling technique often drives customers to make an immediate purchase decision (Cialdini, 1984).

### **Subjective Well-Being**

As life expectancy increases, subjective well-being related to aging becomes an important and interesting issue in society. It is desirable for people to maintain physical and mental health. Every individual has personal indicators to define whether his/her life is worthwhile, which is often called 'subjective well-being'. Subjective well-being is defined as cognitive and affective evaluations of life, based on an individual's self-assessment. Subjective well-being also can be labeled "happiness" in the colloquial term (Diener, 2000).

Subjective well-being is a broad and complex concept. Diener, Suh, Lucas, and Smith (1999) identified three dimensions of subjective well-being: 1) emotional responses (or affect), 2) life satisfaction, and 3) domain satisfactions. Affect refers to mood and emotion that represent an individual's positive or negative feelings of the event such as joy, elation, affection, ecstasy, guilt, shame, sadness, stress, and depression. Life satisfaction is based on global judgments of life quality, including satisfaction with the current, past, and future life as well as significant others' views of one's life. Domain satisfaction is based on evaluations of where people are satisfied in their life such as work, family, leisure, health, finance, or self.

Subjective well-being is affected by various factors such as social activity (Smith & Moschis, 1985) and loneliness (Weiss, 1973). Joung (2002) found older people, who participated in more social activities, showed greater life satisfaction than those having less social activities. Social relationship also is positively related to physical health and mental well-being among older people (Kang & Ridgway, 1996).

### Social Involvement

Social involvement is a key dimension affecting quality of life. Several studies (Joung, 2002; Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin, 1961) investigated the effects of social involvement on life satisfaction or psychological well-being. Joung (2002) found that older people are more likely to be satisfied when they are physically, mentally, and socially active, and have frequent social interactions with others. Older people, who are more involved in social activities, reported greater life satisfaction than those who had less social activities. Thus, the greater the range of social participation, the greater the subjective well-being of older people (Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin, 1961). Some researchers argued that older people became more active and are more involved in social relationships such as family ties, close friends, good neighbors, and community participation (Neugarten & Neugarten, 1986). However, compared to the younger generation, it is still true that older people have fewer opportunities for social activities and social interactions than younger people because people usually have fewer family members or friends in their later years. This is described as a 'solitary survivor' (Kang & Ridgway, 1996). Smith and Moschis (1985) also found that people tend to engage in interactions with their families less frequently as they age.

Several studies examined the relationship between older people's social activities and their shopping behaviors. Lee and Geistfeld (1999) found that older consumers are willing to

listen to what a telemarketer says over the phone. Furthermore, Joung (2002) found a significant positive relationship between older women's activity participation and apparel shopping. Older women, who participated in more social activities, exhibited more fashion interests and engaged in more apparel shopping activities than those who participated less (Joung, 2002).

### Loneliness

Loneliness is one of the important predictors of subjective well-being (Weiss, 1973). Loneliness is a universal phenomenon ("Web of Loneliness," 2006), so all humans may experience loneliness to some extent. Loneliness is an unpleasant experience occurring when there is the unmet need for human intimacy (Weiss, 1973). People may feel loneliness when there is the absence of a particular type of relationship. For instance, Horley and Larvery (1994) found a relationship between marital status and loneliness. Married individuals reported higher scores of subjective well-being and, in turn, lower scores of loneliness than those who were single.

Researchers have focused on the effects of loneliness on consumer behavior. For example, previous studies examined the effects of loneliness on Internet usage (Das et al., 2003; Seepersad, 1997) and television news viewing (Rubin et al., 1985). Das et al. (2003) found lonely people to use the Internet as a coping strategy. Socially lonely people also are likely to use the Internet for surfing (Seepersad, 1997) and watch television news (Rubin et al., 1985). Perlman and Landolt (1999) focused on how age and gender correlate with loneliness. Loneliness increased slightly with age from middle age to older age. Women more than men were likely to report to be lonely.



Loneliness is influenced by aging. Older people may experience different forms of loneliness, due to the 'biogenic' and 'sociogenic' problems of aging as compared to younger people (Gibson, 2000). A biogenic problem is caused by the natural physical deterioration during the aging process, such as decline in physical robustness, less efficient sight and hearing, weakened muscles and joints, and dysfunctional internal organs (Gibson, 2000). Even though older people want to continue their active lifestyle, these biogenic problems may make them practically housebound. A sociogenic problem causing loneliness in later life is related to social relationships of older people (Gibson, 2000). Because of the longer life expectancy of women compared to men, there may be more and more widows in later life. Absence of a husband, as well as few chances of finding a male companion, may cause loneliness for older women. Retirement also can cause loneliness due to the decline of social relationships with others who shared interests and gossip (Gibson, 2000).

### **Mood**

Several studies (Brandstatter & Elias, 2001; Clark & Isen, 1982; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) in consumer behavior used 'feeling,' 'emotion,' 'mood,' and, more generally, 'affect' to assess consumer responses to marketing stimuli. The present study will examine 'mood' to explain an individual's emotional state. Mood is a guiding spirit that leads us in how we should move and act (Brandstatter & Elias, 2001). Mood is based on a global evaluation of an individual's situation and can be stimulated by pleasant or unpleasant experiences with marketing stimuli or by the memory of past experiences (Clark & Isen, 1982). For example, receiving a free gift at the shopping mall may enhance mood; conversely, experiencing poor customer service may lead to a negative mood state.

Researchers classify two states of mood—positive and negative states. Positive mood state includes feeling attentive, interested, alert, excited, enthusiastic, inspired, proud, determined, strong, and active; whereas, negative mood includes feeling distressed, angry, fearful, guilty, and nervous (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Bower (1981) examined the relationship between mood and memory, and found that an individual in a depressed mood is likely to recall only unpleasant events. A person in the depressed mood also tends to show a negative interpretation about a common life event. Bagozzi, Gopinath, and Nyer (1999) mentioned that positive and negative mood states influence aspects of the shopping experience, including complaints, repurchase, word-of-mouth communication, and satisfaction.

Mood may affect customer evaluations of the product and judgments of how much they like the product. Gorn, Goldberg, and Basu (1993) mentioned that people may be influenced by the mood state they experience at the moment when making a decision. A negative mood state can lead to a less favorable evaluation of the situation (e.g., decreased buying intention); whereas, a positive mood state can result in a more favorable evaluation of the situation (e.g., increased buying intention) (Andrade, 2005). Andrade (2005) found that people were more likely to try a new product when they were in a positive mood state than in a negative mood state.

### **Perceived Risk**

Perceived risk can be defined as the uncertainty during contemplating a particular purchase decision (Cox & Rich, 1964). Despite the significant growth of television home shopping, some obstacles for selling apparel still exist. When consumers make a purchase decision about a product on a television shopping programs, they may experience uncertainty

in their decision due to a lack of physical product contact. Several studies (e.g., Kim & Lennon, 2000; McCorkle, 1990) reported that the main concern of television home shopping is the inability to examine and evaluate merchandise before making a purchase. Uncertainty may be strongly related to the inability to inspect products and service quality such as size, color, fabric, pattern, and delivery (McCorkle, 1990). In fact, the merchandise return rate of 20 to 40% in television home shopping may result from the inability to inspect apparel physically (Jasper & Ouellette, 1994, Kim & Lennon, 2000; Solomon, 1994). Kim and Lennon (2000) found the main reason for returning products was the product received did not meet expectations. Physical experience with the product prior to purchase, especially for apparel products, is required (Kwon, Paek, & Arzeni, 1991), but is not available in television home shopping. Thus, the absence of physical experience with the product strongly influences television shoppers' perceived risk and, in turn, purchase intention (Kim & Lennon, 2000). Perceived risk includes four dimensions: 1) financial, 2) functional, 3) social, and 4) time dimensions (Kwon et al., 1991).

Financial risk refers to an individual's uncertainty about monetary loss in the purchase process (O'Bannon, Feather, Vann, & Dillard, 1988). Financial loss includes the initial product cost as well as the potential cost of repair, maintenance, or return (McCorkle, 1990). Financial risk may occur when the price of a product is relatively expensive and/or when the product return and refund is complex (Kwon et al., 1991). Several promotion strategies—special discounts, reduced shipping charges, clearance items, a free gift, and exclusive offers—are frequently used by home shopping marketers to reduce financial risk (McCorkle, 1990).

Functional risk may be caused by the uncertainty of product quality and the tendency to avoid a poor quality product (O'Bannon et al., 1988). When customers cannot examine merchandise before making a purchase, perceived functional risk is likely to be greater. In-home shoppers tend to exhibit a greater level of perceived functional risk than in-store shoppers regarding apparel selection because of uncertainty about size, quality of fabric, color, and style (McCorkle, 1990).

Perceived social risk refers to the uncertainty of reassurance from others such as family and friends about a particular product purchase (McCorkle, 1990; O'Bannon et al., 1988). Eastlick and Feinberg (1995) explained that social risk results from 'disapproval by family or friends'. People are likely to perceive greater social risk with socially visible products, such as clothing, accessories, and household furnishings than other consumer goods (McCorkle, 1990). Similarly, Kwon et al. (1991) found that fashion products are associated with social risk. Because of perceived social risk, people are likely to purchase branded products that can be clearly recognized and socially accepted by others.

Perceived time risk is defined as the concern of time-loss involved in receiving or returning the product (Eastlick & Feinberg, 1995). Perceived time risk involves the time lost between the order and receipt of products, and/or time lost in returning the products. McCorkle (1990) mentioned that customers considered difficulties and associated possible time lost in returning an unsatisfactory product before they finalized a purchase decision.

Perceived risk plays an important role in purchase decisions (Eastlick & Feinberg, 1995). Purchase intention increases when perceived risk decreases (Kim & Lennon, 2000). For older consumers, new product trial is influenced by perceived risk (Schiffman, 1972). The amount of perceived risk may differ by shopping channel. Previous researchers studied

perceived risk of multiple shopping channels and found consumers perceive more risk in home shopping than in-store shopping (McCorkle, 1990).

### **Impulse Buying**

Traditionally, impulse buying is defined as an unplanned or spontaneous purchase (Rook, 1987). Consumer behavior researchers have studied impulse buying (Han, Morgan, Kotsiopulos, & Kang-Park, 1991; Rook, 1987; Rook & Fisher, 1995). Rook (1987) considered impulse buying to be a widespread behavior associated with an array of product categories. Impulse purchases are hard to resist, due to pleasurable feelings such as “good,” “happy,” “satisfied,” or “wonderful” associated with the experience (Rook, 1987).

Impulse buying of apparel shoppers (Han et al., 1991; Park & O’Neal, 2000), Internet shoppers (Shin, Lee, Bae, & Noh, 2003), and television shoppers (Park & Lennon, 2004) has been studied. Impulse buying tendency is frequently observed in non-store shopping of apparel. Television home shoppers are more likely to purchase impulsively rather than engage in information search for a particular product (*Economist*, 1996). The more time shoppers watch television shopping programs, the more likely they are to purchase products on impulse (Park & Lennon, 2004). Due to the nature of the television shopping environment (e.g., products are presented for only 30 minutes, specific products are not announced in the program guide), consumers do not know what products will be presented and will watch a series of product presentations without much prior information (Lennon & Sanik, 2003). Thus, television shoppers cannot plan their purchases before they watch a shopping program.

Impulse buying may be stimulated by parasocial interaction with the show hosts. Grant et al. (1991) found that parasocial interactions are related to television shopping

program exposure. As exposure to television shopping programs increases, viewers tend to interact with television shopping program hosts and purchase more (Grant et al., 1991). Park and Lennon (2004) also found that television home shoppers of apparel, who develop more parasocial relationships with the hosts, tend to purchase on impulse.

### **Hypotheses Development**

#### Personal Selling Approach and Parasocial Interaction

For television shopping, the host tends to use various personal selling approaches to evoke viewers' purchase intentions. The informal and friendly verbal style of the television shopping show host may create the illusion of an inter-personal relationship with the host for viewers (Grant et al., 1991). Jaramillo and Marshall (2004) found that salespeople, who use a customer-friendly language during the sales presentation, are more likely to be successful than those who use technical and non-friendly language. Several researchers (e.g., Auter & Moore, 1993) argued that television shopping show hosts encourage parasocial interaction, using a friendly verbal style. Through parasocial interaction, customers may seek guidance for purchasing products and see media personalities as friends (Rubin et al., 1985).

Television shopping show hosts may use persuasive strategies to accelerate purchases as well as to develop parasocial interactions with their customers. In fact, Fritchie and Johnson (2003) examined the occurrences of Cialdini's (1993) persuasive strategies in the television shopping environment and found that the hosts used six persuasive strategies. Among the six persuasive strategies, social proof and scarcity strategies were the most commonly used by the television shopping program hosts (Fritchie & Johnson, 2003).

All persuasive strategies are executed through informal and friendly conversations with the hosts. In this communication process, viewers may feel the hosts are friends

(Cialdini & Goldstein, 2002) and tend to interact with the program hosts. It is reasonable to expect that some persuasive selling approaches lead to parasocial interactions between hosts and viewers. Thus, this study will examine the effect of consumer perception of persuasive strategies on parasocial interactions. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed (see Figure 1):

**Hypothesis 1:** Consumer perceptions of the use of a personal selling approach (persuasive strategies) are positively associated with level of perceived parasocial interactions.

#### Parasocial Interaction and Perceived Social Involvement

Older people tend to have fewer opportunities than younger people for social activities and experience fewer social interactions, due to limited mobility and health (Rahtz, Sirgy, & Meadow, 1989). Levy (1979) mentioned that people with less social interactions are more likely to have parasocial relationships with media personae as an alternative form of social involvement. Shopping may be considered to be a social activity among older people (Rahtz et al., 1989; Michman et al., 2003).

Television shopping includes social involvement because it simulates the perceived interpersonal relationship between hosts and viewers (Fritchie & Johnson, 2003). During television shopping, parasocial interactions between viewers and the hosts may lead the viewers to feel that the hosts are friends. Thus, television-shopping activities can enhance older consumers' perceived social involvement (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2002).

Based on previous literature of older consumers, it is reasonable to expect a positive relationship between parasocial interaction and perceived social involvement. Therefore, the following hypothesis is posited:

**Hypothesis 2:** Perceived parasocial interactions have a positive effect on perceived social involvement of older consumers.

#### Parasocial Interaction and Mood

Shoppers' moods may be affected by their relationships with the salespeople. A positive mood is enhanced when consumers experience good service from salespeople (Diener, 2000; Johnson-Hillery & Kang, 1997). Older people are even more sensitive to salespeople's treatment than younger consumers (Braus, 1990). They tend to shop more in stores where salespeople know them. Therefore, when older people have dynamic interactions with salespeople, they are likely to feel better and be in a positive mood (Johnson-Hillery & Kang, 1997). In television shopping, because older people who have limited opportunities for social interaction (Rubin et al., 1985) and less social involvement (Gibson, 2000) tend to interact with the hosts, they are more likely to develop a close relationship with the host, feel a sense of social involvement that fulfill their social needs, and, in turn, feel pleasure. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that parasocial interactions with the hosts in the television shopping environment may lead to a positive mood state for older consumers. Based on the literature, the following hypothesis is developed:

**Hypothesis 3:** Perceived parasocial interaction enhances positive mood state of older consumers.

#### Parasocial Interaction and Perceived Loneliness

People may feel lonely when they perceive a lack of social participation (Rubin et al., 1985). Older women may use television home shopping to alleviate loneliness (Park & Lennon, 2004) resulting from fewer social interactions and spending more time alone.



Stephens et al. (1996) mentioned that television shoppers feel a type of friendship with the host.

Several researchers (Kang & Ridgway, 1996; McDonald, 1995) have found that television shopping attracts consumers for hedonic reasons. Consumers may enjoy recreational experiences from television shopping through indirect conversation and a perceived close relationship with the affable and accessible program hosts (*Consumer Reports*, 1995; McDonald, 1995). For people living alone or having few social interactions, interacting with the hosts can be an alternative form of social activity (Kang & Ridgway, 1996). Thus, parasocial interaction with media personae can be an antidote for loneliness (Levy, 1979). Therefore, the following hypothesis is developed (see Figure 1):

**Hypothesis 4:** Perceived parasocial interaction has a negative effect on perceived loneliness of older consumers.

#### Perceived Social Involvement and Perceived Loneliness

Loneliness is a significant issue for older people (Townsend, 1973). Several researchers (Kang & Ridgway, 1996; Manthorpe, 2005) described life events, such as retirement and death of a spouse and/or friends, as contributing to loneliness among older people (Manthorpe, 2005). Loneliness also may result from a decrease in social involvement. Previous literature showed a strong inverse relationship between social involvement and loneliness among older people. Increasing and maintaining levels of social involvement may alleviate loneliness among older people (Cattan, White, Bond, & Learmouth, 2005). Similarly, Kim et al. (2005) found that older consumers, who had less social involvement, were likely to feel lonelier than those who had greater social involvement. When shopping is seen as a social activity, loneliness can be reduced (Kim et al., 2005). Based on the literature,

it is reasonable to expect that perceived social involvement of older consumers will be inversely related to perceived loneliness. Therefore, the following hypothesis is generated:

**Hypothesis 5:** Perceived social involvement has a negative effect on perceived loneliness of older consumers.

#### Perceived Social Involvement and Mood

Social involvement and mood are important indicators of subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1999). Researchers (e.g., Gore, Aseltine, & Colten, 1993; Klumb, 2004; Lu, 1999) have determined that social involvement may influence mood state. Klumb (2004) found a positive relationship between social involvement and mood state. People included in a social context, such as a company, are more likely to have a positive mood than those who are alone (Klumb, 2004). Similarly, Lu (1999) found that social support enhances the degree of happiness and positive mood among older people. Therefore, based on the literature, it is reasonable to expect a positive relationship between perceived social involvement and mood of older consumers. The following hypothesis is generated:

**Hypothesis 6:** Perceived social involvement has a positive effect on mood state of older consumers.

#### Perceived Loneliness and Mood

Loneliness may be a painful and stressful experience (Rokach, 2004) often influenced by the death of close friends or family members, fewer neighbor visitors, and less participation in social activities for older people (Adams, Sanders, & Auth, 2004). These causes of loneliness contribute to negative experiences in later life. Several researchers (Holmen, Ericsson, & Winblad, 1999; Groothof, 2004) found a negative relationship between perceived loneliness and a positive mood state. In particular, loneliness had a negative effect

on the mood state of older people (Holmen et al., 1999). Those who were lonely were likely to experience a negative mood state (Groothof, 2004; Holmen et al., 1999). Based on the literature, it is reasonable to expect that older consumers' level of perceived loneliness may inversely influence their mood state. Therefore, the following hypothesis is generated (see Figure 1):

**Hypothesis 7:** Perceived loneliness has a negative effect on positive mood of older consumers.

#### Mood and Perceived Risk

Mood state influences decision-making (Schwarz & Clore, 1983; Slovic, Finucane, Peters, & MacGregor, 2004; Yeung & Wyer, 2004). Product evaluation may be affected by mood state (Yeung & Wyer, 2004) and mood state may influence customers' risk perceptions during the process of product evaluation (Slovic et al., 2004; Williams, Zainuba, & Jackson, 2003).

A consumer's positive mood state may lead to a positive evaluation of a product by reducing perceived risk. A relationship between mood and perceived risk was found in past studies. A positive mood was negatively related to perceived risk (Arjun, 1997). Park, Lennon, and Stoel (2005) found that consumers in positive moods perceived less risk than those in negative moods in an on-line apparel shopping environment (Park et al., 2005). Consumers in positive moods may evaluate risk situations more optimistically. Moreover, individuals with negative moods were less willing to take risk (Williams et al., 2003). Based on the literature, it is reasonable to expect that a positive mood state may reduce the level of perceived risk in purchasing merchandise. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**Hypothesis 8:** Positive mood negatively affects perceived risk involved in purchasing merchandise.

#### Perceived Risk and Impulse Buying

The relationship between perceived risk and purchase intention has been a focus of in-home shopping studies, including telephone shopping (Cox & Rich, 1964), catalog purchases (Gaal & Burns, 2005; Jasper & Ouellette, 1994), television shopping (Kim & Lennon, 2000; Stanforth, Lennon, & Moore, 2000), and Internet apparel shopping (Park et al., 2005). Jasper and Ouellette (1994) found a significant negative relationship between perceived risk, due to lack of physical inspection of products, and the amount of money spent on catalog shopping. Park et al. (2005) found a significant negative relationship between perceived risk and apparel purchase intention from the Internet. Similarly, in television home shopping, a decrease in risk perceived may lead to more purchases (Burgess, 2003). Kim and Lennon (2000) found that purchase intention increases when perceived risk decreases during television home shopping. The greater the level of perceived risk, the less the customer is willing to pay for the product (Tsiros & Heilman, 2005).

Consumers perceive television home shopping as a high-risk shopping environment. Moreover, clothing is the riskiest product category to purchase among all products sold through television shopping programs (Burgess, 2003). When television shoppers feel less risk associated with purchasing apparel, impulse purchases increase (Park & Lennon, 2004). According to Schiffman (1972), older people who perceive less risk may be more willing to try a new product. Based on the literature, it is reasonable to expect that perceived risk may negatively influence impulse buying. Therefore, the following hypothesis is developed (see Figure 1):

**Hypothesis 9:** Perceived risk associated with purchase of merchandise on television shopping shows negatively affects impulse buying.

### Mood and Impulse Buying

Impulse buying is strongly affected by mood (Weinberg & Gottwald, 1982). Several researchers examined the effect of customers' mood state on their purchase behavior (Gardner, 1985; Park et al., 2005) and impulse buying (Rook & Gardner, 1993). Customers in a positive mood are more willing to try on clothing than those who are in a negative mood (Gardner, 1985). Park et al. (2005) also found those who are in a positive mood are more willing to purchase. A pleasurable mood state also is a stronger antecedent to impulse buying than carefree, exciting, and powerful mood states (Rook & Gardner, 1993). Therefore, there may be a positive relationship between customers' mood and impulse buying behavior in the television home shopping environment. The following hypothesis is posited (see Figure 1):

**Hypothesis 10:** Mood has a positive effect on impulse buying.

### **Proposed Model**

Based on previous research, the following model (see Figure 1.1) was developed to examine the effect of persuasive strategies on parasocial interaction, perceived social involvement, perceived loneliness, mood, and risk in the television home shopping environment.

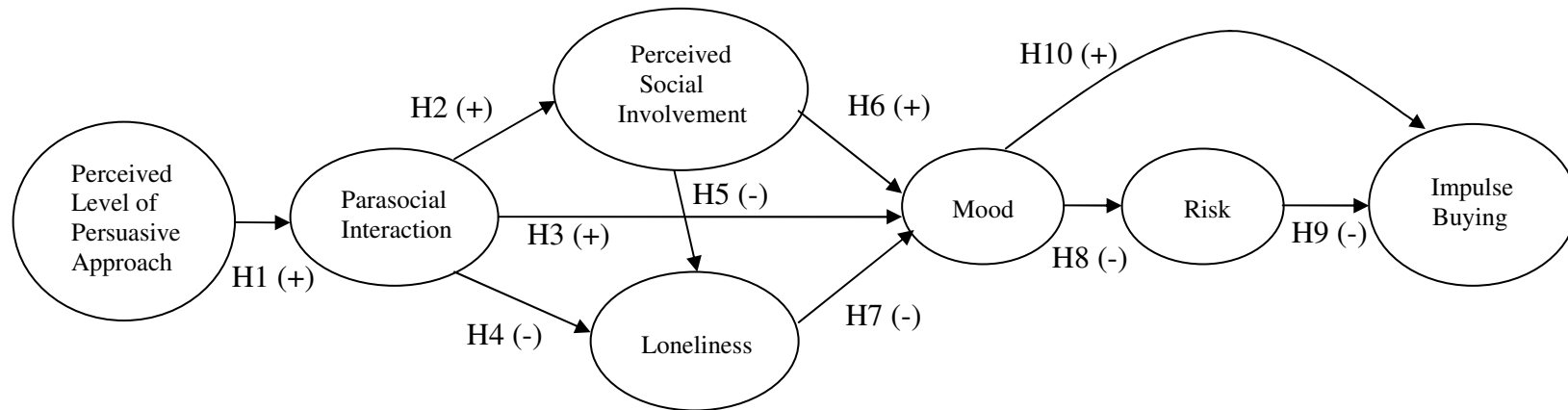


Figure 1.1. Relationship between Personal Selling Approach, Parasocial Interaction, Perceived Social Involvement, Perceived Loneliness, Perceived Risk, and Impulse Buying in the Television Shopping Environment

### **CHAPTER 3: METHOD**

This chapter includes a description of procedures and data collection methods for this study. A questionnaire assessed perceived use of persuasive strategies, parasocial interaction with the host, social involvement, loneliness, mood, risk, and impulse buying. Before data analysis, NORM, which performs multiple imputation of multivariate continuous data under a normal model, was used for missing data (Schafer & Olsen, 1998). Each missing value was replaced by  $m > 1$  simulated versions (Rubin, 1987). Multiple imputation is one of the approaches to the statistical analysis of missing data (Rubin, 1987). This instrument was pre-tested prior to data collection. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, Pearson correlations, factor analysis, and AMOS.

#### **Sample**

Two different sampling methods were used in this study because of a low response rate in the initial method. Elderly women (55 and older) who had experience with television home shopping programs were recruited through a variety of churches, senior centers, or senior agencies in central and eastern Iowa in the initial sample. To increase the number of respondents, a mail survey was sent to 200 women (55 to 80) drawn from a list of college alumni of a major Midwestern university. If these elderly women had never watched a television home shopping program, they were asked to watch any television home shopping program at least once and then complete the survey.

#### **Procedure**

##### **Sample Identification**

For the first stage of sampling, I approached 10 administrators from churches, senior centers, and senior agencies via mail, and then visited the administrators at their central Iowa

locations to personally request permission to obtain the data from their members/clients. Once approval was acquired, I provided invitation letters/announcements to be shared with members/clients. After obtaining permission to visit the agencies, I set up a date with the administrators to visit each church, senior center, and senior agency. Administrators assisted in identifying women who were television home shoppers and helped recruit participants prior to the researcher's visit.

On the scheduled dates, I visited the agencies and collected the data from those who were television home shopping shoppers, between the ages of 55 to 80, and who agreed to participate. Human Subjects information was provided along with a description of the purpose of the study. Individuals who agreed to participate completed the questionnaire and then left their signed consent form and contact information with the completed questionnaire. The instruments did not contain the names of participants. Rather, identification numbers were assigned to questionnaires completed by participants. In this sampling, 117 surveys were distributed and 59 responses were collected.

For the second stage of the sampling, the survey used in the first stage of sampling was mailed to two hundred randomly selected female members of a college alumni list, who were aged 55 to 80. In July 2007, an invitation flyer, a copy of the questionnaire, and a postage-paid self-addressed return envelope were mailed to the 200 Alumni members. Due to limitations in research funds, a reminder letter and another questionnaire were not distributed. After a month, 75 questionnaires had been received. Fifty usable questionnaires were retained, after incomplete questionnaires were removed. Compensation was not offered to either sample.



### **Instrument**

The consent form and questionnaire were pre-tested using 10 university faculty and staff members (55 and older) to identify any wording, procedural, or format problems (e.g., font size) and to confirm the length of time needed to complete the questionnaire prior to collecting data for this study. Approval was obtained from the ISU Human Subjects Research Office to ensure the rights and confidentiality of the participants. The questionnaire, consisting of seven parts, contained Likert-type scales to measure perceived levels of persuasive strategies, parasocial interaction with the host, social involvement, loneliness, mood, risk, and loyalty. Demographic information was also collected. See Appendix A for the questionnaire.

#### Level of persuasive strategies

Fritchie and Johnson (2003) found that two persuasive strategies, consistency and reciprocation, were seldom used by television shopping show hosts. They counted how frequently each persuasive strategy was used by television shopping show hosts. In their study, 197 incidences of persuasive strategy usage were identified. Consistency and reciprocation appeared in 9.1 and 2.0 percent of the total persuasive strategies, respectively (Fritchie & Johnson, 2003). Thus, the present study will focus on the four more frequently used persuasive strategies—social proof, liking, authority, and scarcity. Because no existing scale was found, I developed a fourteen-item scale for these four persuasive strategies proposed by Cialdini (1993). Using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*), participants indicated their perception regarding the use of the four persuasive strategies during television shopping programs they have watched. Social proof items captured whether viewers recognized the use of social proof techniques of

television shopping show hosts such as mentioning best-selling items or product popularity. For instance, the item “The hosts inform the viewer that the product they are selling is one of the best sellers” was created. Liking items captured factors such as physical attractiveness, similarity, praise, repeated contact, and association with positive things. For instance, the item “The hosts have the same preferences or same concerns as me” was used. Authority items captured perceptions of the presence of a co-host or a fashion expert on television shopping programs. For example, the item “The hosts introduce a designer/expert who co-hosts the show with them” was included. Scarcity items captured whether viewers recognize the use of a scarcity technique by television shopping show hosts such as mentioning limited availability or a limited time offer. For instance, the item “The hosts mention that there are a limited number of the products left” was included. Using three Textiles and Clothing graduate students, all items of persuasive strategies were pre-tested to identify whether the scale had face validity.

#### Perceived parasocial interaction

To measure perceived parasocial interactions between hosts and viewers, I used seven items originally developed by Levy (1979) and modified by Park and Lennon (2004). Park and Lennon revised the original scale to reflect a television home shopping context, which makes their scale relevant to the present study. Using a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*), respondents were asked to rate perceptions of their relationship with the hosts. For instance, the item, “The hosts are almost like friends I see everyday” captured a viewer’s perceived relationship with television shopping show hosts. The reported reliability of the parasocial interaction scale was .85 (Park & Lennon, 2004).

### Perceived social involvement

I used items from the Social Provisions Scale to assess social involvement. The original Social Provisions Scale included six subscales—guidance, reassurance of worth, social integration, attachment, nurturance, and reliable alliance (Cutrona & Russell, 1987). Among the six subscales of the Social Provisions Scale, four subscales focused on actual relationships and only two subscales (social integration and attachment) focused on the perceived relationships. Because the present study focused on older consumers' perceived level of social involvement, I adopted the two subscales, social integration and attachment. These two scales consisted of eight items scored on a 4-point Likert-type response scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 4 (*Strongly agree*). For instance, for social integration “I feel part of a group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs” was designed to capture a viewer's sense of belonging to a group. For attachment, “I believe I do not have close personal relationships with other people” captured a viewer's emotional closeness to others. According to Cutrona and Russell (1987), the coefficient alphas were .67 for social integration and .75 for attachment.

### Perceived loneliness

To assess viewers' perceived loneliness, the UCLA Loneliness Scale (Version 3) was adopted (Russell, 1996). The scale is composed of 10 items, containing 5 negatively worded (lonely) and 5 positively worded (non-lonely) items, using a 4-point Likert-type scale—“*Never*,” “*Rarely*,” “*Sometimes*,” and “*Always*.” 1 represented *Never*, and 5 represented *Always*. Respondents were asked about their feelings when they watched television shopping programs. For instance, the item “I feel isolated from others” captured a viewer's perceived level of loneliness. Several studies evaluated the reliability, validity, and factor structure of

the UCLA Loneliness Scale (Version 3) using a variety of populations (e.g., college students, elderly individuals) and research methods (e.g., self-report questionnaires, mail surveys, personal interviews) (Russell & Cutrona, 1991; Russell, Kao, & Cutrona, 1987). Cronbach's *alpha* coefficients for the UCLA Loneliness Scale ranged from .89 to .94 for four studies using different samples (Russell, 1996).

### Mood

To capture respondents' mood, Izard's (1972) six-item scale measured positive and negative mood states. Reliabilities of the two subscales (positive and negative mood) were .80 and .90, respectively, in a previous study (Izard, 1972). This scale has been frequently used to measure emotional state of consumers. Park et al. (2005) used this mood scale in an Internet shopping context and measured pre-mood and post-mood in an experimental study. They reported high reliabilities for pre-mood and post-mood (*alphas*=.81 and .76, respectively). In the present study, participants were asked to rate their mood state with three positive mood state (happy, delighted, joyful) and three negative mood state (discouraged, sad, downhearted) items using a 5-point Likert-type scale: "Not at all," "Slightly," "Moderately," "Considerably," and "Very strongly." 1 represented *Not at all* and 5 represented *Very Strongly*.

### Perceived risk

To measure perceived risk, I modified a scale developed by Kwon et al. (1991) to reflect the television-shopping context. The scale was composed of 16 items with four subscales of perceived risks (i.e., social, functional, financial, and time risk). Kwon et al. (1991) found that all four dimensions of perceived risk were related to a catalog-shopping context. Because both catalog shopping and television shopping are considered to represent

a home shopping context, all subscales were used in the present study. All statements were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with 1 representing *strongly disagree* and 5 representing *strongly agree*. An example item for social risk is, “Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not be in fashion.” Reliability for this scale was not reported, but loadings of the items within the factor ranged from .50 to .90 (Kwon et al., 1991).

### Impulse buying

To measure impulse buying, a scale originally developed by Martin, Weun, and Betty (1993) and revised by Weun, Jones, and Beatty (1997) was adapted to reflect the television shopping context. The scale was composed of 10 items, such as “When I watch TV shopping shows, I buy things I had not intended to purchase.” A 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*) was used. An *alpha* of .82 was reported by Mick (1996).

### Sample characteristics

Information collected about the participants’ general background included age, ethnicity, income, marital status, and education. Because health status is one of the most important issues among older people, participants were also asked how they perceived their health status. Participants also indicated how often they watched television and purchased products from television home shopping programs, and what programs or home shopping channels they watched.

### **Analysis**

I used SPSS 15.0 for calculating descriptive statistics describing the sample, as well as Pearson correlations, reliabilities, and factor analysis. A factor analysis with varimax rotation determined factor items and reliabilities for each variable in the model. For multi-item variables, a Cronbach's *alpha* coefficient above .70 was used as an acceptable level of internal consistency. In addition, items were retained in the factor if they loaded at .50 or more on a factor and did not cross load on another factor more than .30 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black 1998). I used Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 7.0 to derive the maximum-likelihood estimation for analysis of the model. A Chi-square statistic, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used.

## **CHAPTER 4: RESULTS**

The following chapter includes the sample description and factor analysis results, including reliabilities for the factors. Also, the proposed model analysis, the results of hypothesis testing and decomposition of effects are discussed.

### **Description of Sample**

Out of 134 responses, 109 usable responses from female television home shopping shoppers aged 55 to 80 were retained for data analyses. The description of the sample includes participants' demographic profiles and previous television home shopping experience, such as frequency of buying from or watching television home shopping programs. A description of the sample is summarized in Table 4.1. The largest percentage of participants was aged 55 to 64 (57.8 %), followed by those aged 75 and over (22.9 %) and those aged 65 to 74 (19.3 %). The majority of the respondents were White or European (92.5 %), followed by Native American (3.7 %), Asian American (1.9 %), Black or African American (0.9 %), and two or more races (0.9 %). Over 60% of the participants were married, about 18% were widowed, 14% were divorced, and 3% were never married. About 50% of the respondents were retired and 50% were working full/part time. About 40% of the participants reported less than \$50,000 annual income, while the remaining 60% reported over \$50,000 annual income. Almost all (95.4%) of participants perceived their health as above 'fair' status. Also, over 90% of the respondents reported their financial status to be above 'fair'. About 95% of the participants had a driver's license and currently drove their own vehicles. The education level of the respondents was high because one-half of the participants were college alumni. About 58.8% of the participants had a college bachelor's degree and 29.4 % had a graduate or professional degree. The majority watched television

home shopping programs less than once a month (67.3%), followed by 1 to 2 times a month (15.0%), once a week (7.5%), everyday (5.6%), and 2 to 3 times a week (4.7%). About 51.9% of participants never purchased from television home shopping programs. Whereas, 18.5 % of respondents bought products from television home shopping programs 1 to 2 times a year, followed by less than once a year (15.7 %), 3 to 4 times a year (5.6 %), more than once a month (4.6 %), and 5 to 6 times a year (3.7 %). Most of the respondents watched QVC (66.1 %), followed by HSN (47.7 %), JTV (3.7 %), and ShopNBC (2.8%). About 53% of the participants had never bought a product from television shopping channels; 19.5% of the respondents bought apparel from television shopping channels, followed by jewelry (17.4%), decorative items (16.5%), kitchen appliances (16.5%), others (14.7%), bedding (12.8%), cosmetics (11.9%), electronics (10.1%), home improvement (8.3%), shoes (7.3%), and food (5.5).

Table 4.1. Sample characteristics

Variables	Frequency ( <i>n</i> = 109)	Percent (%)
<b>Age</b>		
55 – 64	63	57.8 %
65 – 74	21	19.3 %
75 and over	25	22.9 %
<b>Ethnicity</b>		
Asian American	2	1.9 %
Black or African American	1	.9 %
Native American	4	3.7 %
White or European	99	92.5 %
Two or more races	1 *	.9 %
<b>Marital status</b>		
Never married	3	2.8 %
Married	69	63.3 %
Widowed	20	18.3 %
Divorced	15	13.8 %
Other	2	1.8 %

Note: \* Due to missing data, the total numbers do not equal 109.

\*\* Due to multiple answers, the total number is above 109.



Table 4.1. (continued)

<b>Work status</b>		
Working full time	43	39.4 %
Working part time	12	11.0 %
Retired	52	47.7 %
Never worked outside the home	2	1.8 %
<b>Income</b>		
Less than \$25,000	14	14.1 %
\$25,000 – \$49,999	25	25.3 %
\$50,000 – \$74,999	25	25.3 %
\$75,000 – \$99,999	17	17.2 %
Over \$100,000	18 *	18.2 %
<b>Perception of health status</b>		
Very poor	2	1.8 %
Poor	3	2.8 %
Fair	12	11.0 %
Good	52	47.7 %
Excellent	40	36.7 %
<b>Perception of finance status</b>		
Very poor	2	1.9 %
Poor	6	5.6 %
Fair	20	18.5 %
Good	57	52.8 %
Excellent	23 *	21.3 %
<b>Education</b>		
Less than high school graduate	3	2.8 %
High school diploma or GED certificate	21	19.3 %
Some college or technical school	18	16.5 %
Associate degree	3	2.8 %
College degree	32	29.4 %
Graduate or professional degree	32	29.4 %
<b>Driver's license</b>		
Yes	104	95.4 %
No	5	4.6 %
<b>Vehicle own</b>		
Yes	101	93.5 %
No	7 *	6.5 %

Note: \* Due to missing data, the total numbers do not equal 109.

\*\* Due to multiple answers, the total number is above 109.

Table 4.1. (continued)

<b>Television shopping program watching</b>		
Less than once a month	72	67.3 %
1 to 2 times a month	16	15.0 %
Once a week	8	7.5 %
2 to 3 times a week	5	4.7 %
Everyday	6 *	5.6 %
<b>Frequency of buying products from television home shopping programs</b>		
Never bought from TV shopping	56	51.9 %
Less than once a year	17	15.7 %
1 to 2 times a year	20	18.5 %
3 to 4 times a year	6	5.6 %
5 to 6 times a year	4	3.7 %
More than once a month	5 *	4.6 %
<b>Television home shopping channels watched</b>		
QVC	72	66.1 %
HSN	52	47.7 %
JTV	4	3.7 %
ShopNBC	3 **	2.8 %
<b>Products bought from television shopping channels</b>		
Apparel	21	19.3 %
Bedding	14	12.8 %
Cosmetics	13	11.9 %
Decoration items	18	16.5 %
Food	6	5.5 %
Electronics	11	10.1 %
Home improvement	9	8.3 %
Jewelry	19	17.4 %
Kitchen appliances	18	16.5 %
Shoes	8	7.3 %
Other	16	14.7 %
None of these	58 **	53.2 %

Note: \* Due to missing data, the total numbers do not equal 109.

\*\* Due to multiple answers, the total number is above 109.

## Factor Analysis

Factor analysis using a principal axis factoring method with varimax rotation was conducted to determine the multi-item structure of the following variables: level of persuasive strategies, perceived parasocial interaction, perceived loneliness, perceived social involvement, mood, perceived risk, and impulse buying. An “eigenvalue greater than 1” criterion was used to determine the number of factors. Items were retained using guidelines noted above, as found in Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998). Cronbach *alpha* coefficients above .70 were used as a measure of internal consistency of the multi-item variables (Nunnally, 1978). The means of the summated multiple items in each variable were used to create all research variables for hypothesis testing.

### Level of persuasive strategies

Factor analysis was performed on the 14 persuasive strategy items. The first iteration of exploratory factor analysis extracted three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, but four of the 14 items were cross-loaded on more than one factor. After removing the cross-loaded items, the remaining 10 items were again factor analyzed, and two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (Costello & Osborne, 2005) were extracted. The first factor included six items: three social proof items and three scarcity items. The second factor included liking items. To simplify the tested model only one factor, consisting of six items (three social proof items and three scarcity items) and explaining the most variance, was used for this study. This factor was entitled, ‘Persuasive strategies’. Factor items, variance explained, and *alpha* coefficients are presented in Table 4.2. The first factor explained 38.43 percent of the total variance in the persuasive strategies variable. Factor loadings ranged from .61 to .91.

Table 4.2. Factor analysis results for the persuasive strategies variable

Factor title and items	Loadings
<u>Persuasive strategies</u>	
The hosts inform the viewer that the product they are selling is one of the best sellers.	.69
The hosts explain the level of popularity of the product.	.68
The hosts inform me that an item that was popular in a past show is now available for purchase.	.61
The hosts mention that there are a limited number of the products left.	.90
The hosts tell me that the product is almost sold out.	.91
The hosts mention that this is last chance for me to purchase a product.	.86
Eigenvalue = 3.84	
Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .88	
Variance explained = 38.43	
<u>Liking</u>	
The hosts feel like my friends.	.78
The hosts have the same preferences or same concerns as me.	.80
The hosts praise me when I make a purchase from the show.	.67
The hosts agree with what I think.	.80
Eigenvalue = 2.51	
Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .79	
Variance explained = 25.09	
Total Percent of Variance = 63.53	
<u>Cross-loaded items not included in the second factor analysis</u>	
The hosts encourage me to watch, purchase, or contact the program/host again.	
The hosts appear knowledgeable about the product.	
The hosts introduce a designer/expert who co-hosts the show with them.	
The hosts inform me how the name brands on their show are reliable.	

### **Perceived parasocial interaction**

Factor analysis on the seven perceived parasocial interaction items resulted in one factor, which explained 56.27 percent of the variance. The eigenvalue of this factor was 3.94

and factor loadings ranged from .59 to .85. The Cronbach's *alpha* was .87. Factor items and factor loadings are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Factor analysis results for perceived parasocial interaction

Factor title and items	Loadings
<u>Parasocial interaction</u>	
The hosts are almost like friends I see everyday.	.81
I like hearing the voices of the hosts in my home.	.85
When the hosts show how they feel about the product, it helps me make up my mind about the product.	.84
I like to compare my feelings for the product with what the hosts say about it.	.71
When the hosts joke around with each other, it makes the program even more enjoyable.	.78
The hosts show me what people in the media are really like.	.59
I feel sorry for the hosts when they make mistakes.	.64
Eigenvalue = 3.94	
Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .87	
Total variance explained = 56.27	

### **Perceived social involvement**

Factor analysis of the eight items of perceived social involvement resulted in two factors (see Table 4.4). These two factors represented 69.28 percent of the total variance. Factor loadings ranged from .70 to .96. The first factor included four items with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .89 and was labeled "Social involvement." The second factor, labeled as "Non-social involvement," consisted of four items with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .79. The Social involvement factor, which explained the most variance, was used in hypothesis testing. The factor items and their factor loadings are listed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Factor analysis for perceived social involvement

Factor title and items	Loadings
<u>Social involvement</u>	
When watching television shopping programs, I believe there are people who depend on me for help.	.75
I feel part of the group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs.	.85
I believe I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being.	.96
I feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other person.	.90
Eigenvalue = 3.04 Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .89 Variance explained = 38.04%	
<u>Non-social involvement</u>	
When watching television shopping programs, I believe I do not have close personal relationships with other people.	.70
I believe there is no one who shares my interests and concerns.	.87
I lack a feeling of intimacy with another person.	.75
I believe there is no one who likes to do the things I do.	.83
Eigenvalue = 2.50 Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .79 Variance explained = 31.24%	
Total percent of variance = 69.28	

### Perceived loneliness

Factor analysis was performed on the 10 items of perceived loneliness. The first iteration of exploratory factor analysis extracted two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, but one item cross-loaded on more than one factor. After its removal, two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 resulted from the remaining nine items. The first factor included five items and was labeled "Loneliness 1." It showed good internal consistency with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .88. The second factor, labeled "Loneliness 2," consisted of four items

with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .80. Again, to simplify hypothesis testing, only the Loneliness 1 factor, which explained more of the variance, was used for this study. Loneliness 1 factor included five positively worded (non-lonely) items, such as "When watching television shopping programs, I feel I have a lot in common with other people." These five items were reverse coded, which means that higher scores for the Loneliness 1 variable represent higher levels of loneliness. Factor items and factor loadings are presented in Table 4.5. The factor used in hypothesis testing explained 38.05 percent of the variance. Factor loadings ranged from .63 to .93.

### **Mood**

Factor analysis of the six items of mood resulted in two factors (see Table 4.6). These two factors represented 83.30 percent of the total variance. Factor loadings ranged from .83 to .94. The first factor included three items with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .94 and was labeled "Positive mood." The second factor, labeled as "Negative mood," consisted of three items with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .85. The Positive mood factor, which explained the most variance was used for hypothesis testing. The items and their factor loadings are listed in Table 4.6.

Table 4.5. Factor analysis results for perceived loneliness

Factor title and items	Loadings
<u>Loneliness 1</u>	
When watching television shopping programs, I feel I have a lot in common with other people.	.68
I feel close to people.	.63
I feel there are people who really understand me.	.89
I feel there are people I can talk to.	.92
I feel there are people I can turn to.	.93
Eigenvalue = 3.43 Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .88 Variance explained = 38.05%	
<u>Loneliness 2</u>	
When watching television shopping programs, I feel lack of companionships.	.75
I feel left out.	.80
How often do you feel that no one really knows you well.	.81
I feel isolated from others.	.77
Eigenvalue = 2.52 Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .80 Variance explained = 28.03%	
Total percent of variance = 66.09	
<u>Cross-loaded items not included in the second factor analysis</u>	
When watching television shopping programs, I feel that people are around me but not with me.	



Table 4.6. Factor analysis results for mood

Factor title and items	Loadings
<u>Positive mood</u>	
Happy	.94
Delighted	.92
Joyful	.94
Eigenvalue = 2.69 Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .94 Variance explained = 44.85%	
<u>Negative mood</u>	
Discouraged	.85
Sad	.83
Downhearted	.90
Eigenvalue = 2.31 Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .85 Variance explained = 38.45%	
Total percent of variance = 83.30	

### Perceived risk

Factor analysis was performed on the 16 items of perceived risk. The first iteration of exploratory factor analysis extracted three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, but eight of 16 items were cross-loaded on more than one factor. After removing the cross-loaded items, three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted. The 16 items developed by Kwon et al. (1991) were modified to reflect a television shopping context. The resulting factors did not coincide with the subscales proposed by Kwon et al. (1991). The first factor (Social risk) included four items: three social risk items and one functional risk item with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .84. The second factor included two functional risk items with a

Cronbach's *alpha* of .65. The third factor was composed of two items; one financial risk item and one time risk item with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .41. Only the Social risk factor was used in hypothesis testing because it is the most relevant to this study and had an *alpha* above .70. Factor items and loadings are presented in Table 4.7. The first factor explained 33.54 percent of the variance with factor loadings from .73 to .83.

Table 4.7. Factor analysis results for perceived risk

Factor title and items	Loadings
<u>Social risk</u>	
Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not be the same as shown on TV.	.80
Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not be in fashion.	.83
Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not fit.	.83
Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not fit into my existing wardrobe.	.73
Eigenvalue = 2.68	
Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .84	
Variance explained = 33.54%	
<u>Functional risk</u>	
The assortment of products on TV home shopping programs is competitive with store apparel.	.73
Prices of product from TV home shopping programs are competitive with those of store products.	.92
Eigenvalue = 1.58	
Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .65	
Variance explained = 19.79%	

Table 4.7. (continued)

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<u>Time and Financial risk</u>	
Time is important to me.	.78
Financial loss is important to me.	.80

Eigenvalue = 1.28  
 Cronbach's *alpha* = .41  
 Variance explained = 16.01

Total percent of variance = 69.34

Cross-loaded items not used in the second factor analysis

Products purchased from TV home shopping programs may be unsatisfactory.  
 It may be difficult to return products purchased from TV home shopping programs.  
 I am willing to buy products from TV home shopping programs.  
 It may take a long time to get products from TV home shopping programs.  
 TV home shopping purchase leads to time loss because of delivery and shipping time.  
 I prefer to look around several stores before purchasing.  
 There is a possibility of a small financial loss due to higher prices of products from TV home shopping programs.  
 It may be difficult to get money back when ordering from TV home shopping programs.

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### **Impulse buying**

Factor analysis was performed on the 10 items of impulse buying. The first iteration of exploratory factor analysis extracted two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, but two items cross-loaded on more than one factor. The remaining eight items were factor analyzed. Two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted. The first factor included five items with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .89. The second factor included three items with a Cronbach's *alpha* of .70. Again, only one factor, which explained more variance, was used for hypothesis testing. The Impulse buying factor explained 42.45 percent of the variance. Factor loading ranged from .68 to .88.

Factor items and loadings are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. Factor analysis results for impulse buying

Factor title and items	Loadings
<u>Impulse buying</u>	
If a TV shopping show introduces something new that really interests me, I buy it right away just to see what it is like.	.86
I may buy things from a TV shopping show without hesitation if I like them when I first see them.	.88
If a TV shopping show introduces something new and I really want, I purchase it immediately, even if I had not planned to buy it.	.84
I can make unplanned purchases from a TV shopping show.	.72
If a TV shopping show introduces something that really interests me, I buy it without considering the consequences.	.68
Eigenvalue = 3.40	
Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .89	
Variance explained = 42.45%	
<u>Non-impulse buying</u>	
Even when I see something I really like, I do not buy it unless it is a planned purchase.	.70
I am not willing to buy things from a TV shopping show that are not on my shopping list.	.78
I do not buy until I can make sure the TV shopping show is offering a real bargain.	.78
Eigenvalue = 2.03	
Cronbach's <i>alpha</i> = .70	
Variance explained = 25.41%	
Total percent of variance = 67.86	
<u>Cross-loaded items not used in the second factor analysis</u>	
When I watch TV shopping shows, I buy things I had not intended to purchase.	
It is fun to buy spontaneously from a TV shopping show.	

### Correlations Among Research Variables

The correlations among variables are summarized in Table 4.9. Whereas Persuasive strategies was not significantly correlated with other variables, statistically significant correlations were found:

- Parasocial interaction was correlated with Social involvement, Positive mood state, and Impulse buying. The results showed negative correlations between Parasocial interaction and Loneliness and Social risk.
- Loneliness was negatively correlated with Social involvement, Positive mood state, and Impulse buying.
- Social involvement was correlated with Positive mood and Impulse buying.
- Positive mood state was negatively correlated with Social risk and positively correlated with Impulse buying.
- Social risk was negatively correlated with Impulse buying.

Table 4.9. Correlations among research variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Persuasive Strategies	1						
2. Parasocial Interaction	.15	1					
3. Social Involvement	.03	.44**	1				
4. Loneliness	-.06	-.41**	-.78**	1			
5. Positive Mood	.08	.48**	.52**	-.54**	1		
6. Social risk	-.15	-.41**	-.19	-.16	-.22*	1	
7. Impulse Buying	-.03	.53**	.27**	-.25**	.30**	-.42**	1

Notes: \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .

### **Hypotheses Testing**

The theoretical model consisted of one exogenous variable (level of Persuasive strategies) and six endogenous variables (Parasocial interaction, Social involvement, Loneliness, Positive mood, Social risk, and Impulse buying). To assess the overall fit of the hypothesized model to the data, a Chi-square statistic, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used. A Chi-square statistic was used as a function of the maximum likelihood estimator for the parameters and a value close to zero indicates a good fit of the model. GFI is based on a ratio of the sum of the squared differences between the observed and reproduced matrices to the observed variances. A value of 1.00 indicates a perfect fit and a value greater than .90 indicates an acceptable fit of the model (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). AGFI takes into account degrees of freedom available for testing the model. A value of 1.00 indicates a perfect fit and a value greater than .90 indicates acceptable fit of the model. CFI ranges from 0 to 1 and a value greater than .90 indicates acceptable fit. RMSEA is a population-based index and is relatively unaffected by sample size. A value .05 or less would indicate a good fit of the model in relation to the degrees of freedom (Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

Three models were tested—the theoretical model, the fully recursive model, and the empirical model. The fully recursive model was run after the theoretical model resulted in marginal fit. The fully recursive model identified the statistically significant paths. The results of both the theoretical model and the fully recursive model are presented in Table 4.10. The empirical model, which included the two additional statistically significant paths identified in the fully recursive model, was used for hypothesis testing.

### **The theoretical model and the fully recursive model**

The theoretical model was first tested and the results indicated that overall fit indices were marginal. The results revealed a  $\chi^2$  of 35.82 with 11 degrees-of-freedom ( $p < .01$ ). The GFI was .92; AGFI was .80; CFI was .89; and RMSEA was .15. These results indicate that the theoretical model did not fully explain the data. Therefore, the fully recursive model was examined and revealed a  $\chi^2$  of 0.00 with 0 degrees-of-freedom. The GFI was 1.00, CFI was 1.00.

Standardized path estimates, critical values, and square multiple correlations for both the theoretical model and the fully recursive model are shown in Table 4.10. The theoretical model and the fully recursive model resulted in two significant differences. First, positive mood had significant effects on social risk and impulse buying in the theoretical model ( $\beta = -.22$ ,  $C.R. = -2.29$ ,  $p < .05$ ;  $\beta = .22$ ,  $C.R. = 2.52$ ,  $p < .05$ , respectively) whereas positive mood had no significant effects on social risk and impulse buying in the fully recursive model ( $\beta = -.03$ ,  $C.R. = -.28$ ;  $\beta = .05$ ,  $C.R. = .46$ , respectively). From the fully recursive model two statistically significant paths, not included in the theoretical model, were found. Parasocial interaction with television home shopping show hosts had significant effects on social risk and impulse buying ( $\beta = -.39$ ,  $C.R. = -3.80$ ,  $p < .01$ ;  $\beta = .41$ ,  $C.R. = 4.13$ ,  $p < .01$ , respectively). These two significant paths were added to the empirical model. The present study tested the hypothesized relationships using the empirical model.

Table 4.10. Path estimates for the theoretical model and the fully recursive model

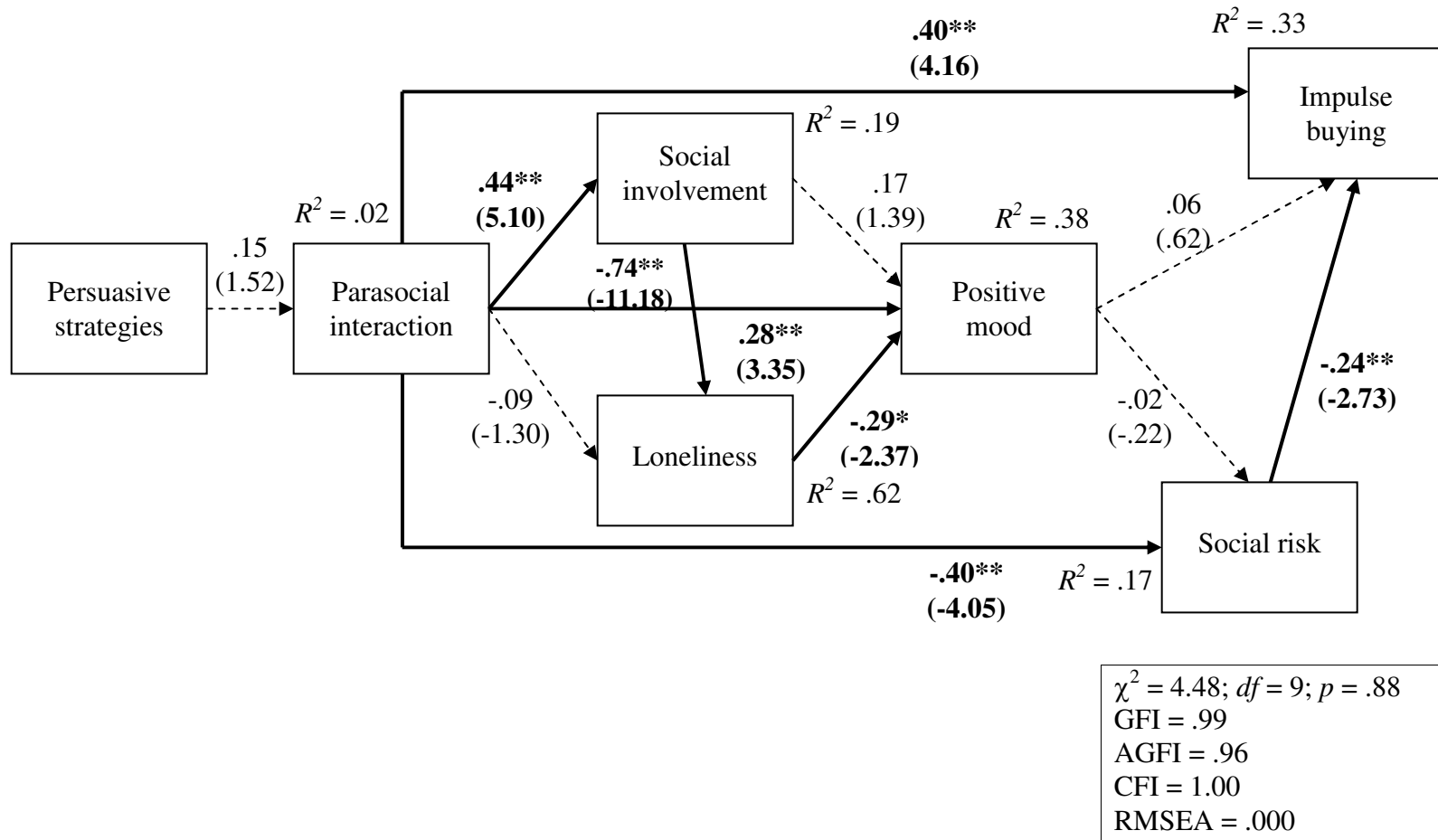
Predictor variables	Parasocial interaction	Social involvement		Loneliness		Positive mood		Social risk		Impulse buying	
	M1 & M2	M1	M2	M1	M2	M1	M2	M1	M2	M1	M2
Persuasive strategies	.15 (1.52)		-.04 (-.51)		-.03 (-.40)		.02 (.25)		-.10 (-1.08)		-.13 (-1.61)
Parasocial interaction		.44** (5.10)	.45** (5.10)	-.09 (-1.30)	-.08 (-1.21)	.28** (3.35)	.28** (3.28)		-.39** (-3.80)		.41** (4.13)
Social involvement				-.74** (-11.18)	-.74** (-11.21)	.17 (1.39)	.17 (1.41)		-.05 (-.31)		.01 (.09)
Loneliness						-.29* (-2.37)	-.29* (-2.36)		-.07 (-.46)		-.02 (-.13)
Positive mood								-.22* (-2.29)	-.03 (-.28)	.22* (2.52)	.05 (.46)
Social risk										-.37** (-4.22)	-.25** (-2.91)
$R^2$	.02	.19	.20	.62	.62	.38	.38	.05	.18	.22	.34

Notes: Standardized path estimates are reported with critical ratio (C.R.) in parentheses.

M1 refers to the theoretical model; M2 refers to the fully recursive model

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .





Notes: Standardized path estimates are reported with critical ratio (C.R.) in parentheses.  
 \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Figure 4.1. The final empirical model showing the effects of persuasive strategies on parasocial interactions, social involvement, loneliness, positive mood, social risk, and impulse buying.

### **The empirical model**

The empirical model was tested after two significant paths identified in the fully recursive model were added. The results revealed a  $\chi^2$  of 4.48 with 9 degrees-of-freedom ( $p = .88$ ). The GFI was .99; AGFI was .96; CFI was 1.00; and RMSEA was .00. The fit indices showed the data fit the empirical model very well with the two added significant paths from perceived parasocial interaction to perceived social risk and impulse buying tendency. Path coefficients, critical ratios (*C.R.*), and squared multiple correlations ( $R^2$ ) for the empirical model were illustrated in Figure 4.1. Several paths were significant, as hypothesized.

#### Level of persuasive strategies and parasocial interaction

Hypothesis 1 tested the relationship between the level of persuasive strategies and parasocial interactions.

H1. Consumer perceptions of the use of a personal selling approach (persuasive strategies) are positively associated with level of perceived parasocial interactions.

Using the 6-item Persuasive strategies factor, consumer perceptions of the use of persuasive strategies did not have a significant effect on the level of perceived parasocial interactions ( $\beta = .15$ ,  $C.R. = 1.52$ ,  $p = .21$ ). Therefore, H1 was not supported.

#### Parasocial interaction and social involvement

Hypothesis 2 examined the relationship between parasocial interaction and social involvement of older consumers.

H2. Perceived parasocial interactions have a positive effect on perceived social involvement of older consumers.

Using the four-item Social involvement factor, results revealed that parasocial interactions positively affected social involvement of older consumers ( $\beta = .44$ ,  $C.R. = 5.10$ ,  $p < .01$ ). In other words, those who perceived that they had higher levels of parasocial interaction with television home shopping show hosts felt like they had higher levels of social involvement. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was supported. In addition, parasocial interactions explained 19% of the variance for social involvement ( $R^2 = .19$ ).

#### Effects of parasocial interaction, social involvement, and loneliness on positive mood

Hypotheses 3, 6, and 7 tested the effects of parasocial interaction, social involvement, and loneliness on positive mood.

H3. Perceived parasocial interaction enhances positive mood state of older consumers.

H6. Perceived social involvement has a positive effect on positive mood states of older consumers.

H7. Perceived loneliness has a negative effect on positive mood of older consumers.

Results revealed that hypothesis 3 was supported. Parasocial interaction positively affected positive mood state of older consumers ( $\beta = .28$ ,  $C.R. = 3.35$ ,  $p < .01$ ). However, hypothesis 6 was not supported ( $\beta = .17$ ,  $C.R. = 1.39$ ,  $p = .29$ ). In line with hypothesis 7, results revealed that loneliness negatively affected positive mood state of older consumers ( $\beta = -.29$ ,  $C.R. = -2.37$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypotheses 3 and 7 were supported, whereas hypothesis 6 was not supported. Consumers' perceived parasocial interaction, social involvement, and loneliness explained 38% of the variance for positive mood state ( $R^2 = .38$ ).

#### Effects of parasocial interaction and social involvement on loneliness

Hypotheses 4 and 5 examined the effect of parasocial interaction and social involvement on loneliness of older consumers.

H4. Perceived parasocial interaction has a negative effect on perceived loneliness of older consumers.

H5. Perceived social involvement has a negative effect on perceived loneliness of older consumers.

A statistically significant relationship between perceived parasocial interaction and loneliness was not found ( $\beta = -.09$ ,  $C.R. = -1.30$ ,  $p = .22$ ). However, social involvement negatively affected loneliness ( $\beta = -.74$ ,  $C.R. = -11.18$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 5 was supported, whereas hypothesis 4 was not supported. Consumers' perceived parasocial interaction and social involvement explained 62% of the variance for perceived loneliness of older consumers ( $R^2 = .62$ ).

#### Effects of parasocial interaction, and positive mood on social risk

Hypothesis 8 tested the relationship between positive mood state and perceived risk involved in purchasing merchandise.

H8. Positive mood negatively affects perceived risk involved in purchasing merchandise.

Positive mood state did not have a statistically significant negative effect on perceived social risk ( $\beta = -.02$ ,  $C.R. = -.22$ ,  $p = .84$ ). Hence, hypothesis 8 was not supported. As previously discussed, a significant path from parasocial interaction to social risk was added to the empirical model. This path revealed a statistically significant negative association between perceived level of parasocial interactions and social risk ( $\beta = -.40$ ,  $C.R.$

= -4.05,  $p < .01$ ). Positive mood state and perceived level of parasocial interactions explained 17% of the variance for social risk ( $R^2 = .17$ ).

#### Effects of parasocial interaction, social risk and positive mood on impulse buying

Hypotheses 9 and 10 examined the effects of perceived risk and mood on impulse buying tendency.

H9. Perceived risk associated with purchase of merchandise on television shopping negatively affects impulse buying.

H10. Mood has a positive effect on impulse buying.

Results revealed that perceived social risk had a significant negative effect on impulse buying tendencies ( $\beta = -.24$ ,  $C.R. = -2.73$ ,  $p < .01$ ), whereas there was no statistically significant effect of positive mood state on impulse buying ( $\beta = .06$ ,  $C.R. = .62$ ,  $p = .53$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 9 was supported and hypothesis 10 was not supported. Moreover, the added path from parasocial interaction to impulse buying was statistically significant ( $\beta = .40$ ,  $C.R. = 4.16$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Thirty-three percent of the consumers' impulse buying tendency was explained by social risk, positive mood state, and parasocial interaction ( $R^2 = .33$ ), although positive mood was not a significant predictor.

#### **Decomposition of Effects**

Decomposition of direct, indirect, and total effects of predictor variables on endogenous variables are found in Table 4.11. Direct effects refer to the hypothesized effects, represented by the path arrows in Figure 4.1. An indirect effect reflects the influence of a mediating variable on an endogenous variable. The total effect is the sum of the direct and indirect effects of the predictor variables. The direct, indirect, and total effects of the empirical model were presented in Table 4.11.

Persuasive strategies had no significant direct or indirect effect on any endogenous variables, including parasocial interaction ( $\beta = .15, p = .21$ ). Parasocial interaction had a significant direct effect on social involvement ( $\beta = .44, p < .01$ ). For loneliness, social involvement had the largest significant direct and total effect on loneliness ( $\beta = -.74, p < .01$ ), but parasocial interaction also had a statistically significant indirect effect on loneliness ( $\beta = -.33, p < .01$ ).

For positive mood, parasocial interaction and loneliness had statistically significant direct effects ( $\beta = .28, p < .01$ ;  $\beta = -.29, p < .05$ , respectively). Parasocial interaction ( $\beta = .20, p < .01$ ) and social involvement ( $\beta = .22, p < .05$ ) had statistically significant indirect effects. Overall, parasocial interaction had the largest total effect on positive mood ( $\beta = .48, p < .01$ ). This suggests that it is not only parasocial interaction that affects positive mood, but that the effect of parasocial interaction was partially explained by mediating affects of social involvement and loneliness.

For social risk, parasocial interaction only had a significant direct effect ( $\beta = -.40, p < .01$ ) and total effect ( $\beta = -.41, p < .01$ ). For impulse buying, parasocial interaction and social risk had significant direct effects on impulse buying ( $\beta = .40, p < .01$ ;  $\beta = -.24, p < .01$ , respectively). Parasocial interaction had a statistically significant indirect effect ( $\beta = .13, p < .05$ ). Overall, parasocial interaction had the largest total effect on impulse buying ( $\beta = .53, p < .01$ ).

Table 4.11. Decomposition of direct, indirect, and total effects for the empirical model

Predictor variables	Parasocial interaction			Social involvement		
	Indirect effect	Direct effect	Total effect	Indirect effect	Direct effect	Total effect
Persuasive strategies	–	.15	.15	.06	–	.06
Parasocial interaction				–	.44**	.44**
Social involvement						
Loneliness						
Positive mood						
Social risk						
R <sup>2</sup>			.02			.19
Predictor variables	Loneliness			Positive mood		
	Indirect effect	Direct effect	Total effect	Indirect effect	Direct effect	Total effect
Persuasive strategies	-.06	–	-.06	.07	–	.07
Parasocial interaction	-.33**	-.09	-.41**	.20**	.28**	.48**
Social involvement	–	-.74**	-.74**	.22*	.17	.39**
Loneliness				–	-.29*	-.29*
Positive mood						
Social risk						
R <sup>2</sup>			.62			.38

Table 4.11. (continued)

Predictor variables	Social risk			Impulse buying		
	Indirect effect	Direct effect	Total effect	Indirect effect	Direct effect	Total effect
Persuasive strategies	-.06	–	-.06	.08	–	.08
Parasocial interaction	-.01	-.40**	-.41**	.13*	.40**	.53**
Social involvement	-.01	–	-.01	.02	–	.02
Loneliness	.01	–	.01	-.02	–	-.02
Positive mood	–	-.02	-.02	.01	.06	.06
Social risk				–	-.24**	-.24**
R <sup>2</sup>			.17			.33

*Notes:* Standardized path estimates are reported with significant levels of direct effect.

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .



## **CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

This study investigated the effects of persuasive strategies on perceived parasocial interactions between the host and viewers, social involvement, loneliness, mood, perceived risk and impulse buying tendency among older female shoppers in the television shopping environment. The results of this study show the effects of parasocial interactions from television shopping on older consumers subjective well-being (social involvement and loneliness), their mood states, perceived social risk, and impulse buying behavior. This chapter provides a summary of the findings, limitations, implications and recommendations for future research.

### **Discussion**

In this study, the host's use of persuasive strategies was expected to directly affect viewer's perceived level of parasocial interaction with the host in the television home shopping context. However, the effect of level of persuasive strategies on parasocial interaction was not significant. This might be due to the characteristics of participants. Parasocial interaction is defined as a viewer's perceived relationship with a media personality (Papa et al., 2000) and the relationship may be garnered over repeated exposure to television home shopping hosts. In this study, only about 32% of the participants watched television home shopping programs more than once a month, and about 51.9% of participants never purchased from television home shopping programs. This suggests that the majority of the participants did not have enough experience to perceive a relationship with television home shopping hosts. Yet, the results indicated that parasocial interaction between hosts and viewers significantly influence older consumers' subjective well-being. Older consumers with higher levels of parasocial interaction with television home shopping show hosts

believed they had higher levels of social involvement. This finding is consistent with Levy's (1979) findings, which showed parasocial interaction with a media personality had a positive influence on older viewer's perceived social involvement. Also consistent with previous research (Johnson-Hillery & Kang, 1997), the present findings revealed that parasocial interaction was associated with the positive mood state of older consumers. When older people perceived higher parasocial interactions with the television home shopping host, they reported being in a more positive mood.

Inconsistent with earlier findings (Levy, 1979; Rubin et al., 1985), a significant negative association between parasocial interaction and loneliness was not found. Parasocial interaction did not have a significant effect on loneliness, but social involvement did have a significant effect on loneliness, which may have resulted in a mediating effect. Kraus, Davis, Bazzini, Church, and Kirchman (1993) examined the effects of personal and social interaction factors on loneliness, before/after controlling for the effect of social involvement. They found the mediating effect of social involvement between personal and social interactions and loneliness.

Inconsistent with previous research (Klumb, 2004; Lu, 1999), social involvement did not enhance mood among older women, but loneliness had a significant negative effect on positive mood. Again, a non-significant effect of social involvement on positive mood might be due to the mediating effect of loneliness. Even though a significant direct effect of social involvement on mood was not found, the results showed a significant indirect effect of social involvement, which is mediated by loneliness, on mood. Several studies (Groothof, 2004; Holmen, Ericsson, & Winblad, 1999) have found a negative relationship between loneliness and a positive mood state. In particular, Holmen et al. (1999) found that loneliness had a

negative effect on the positive mood states of older individuals. Moreover, the results showed that social involvement had a significant negative effect on loneliness among older female television home shopping shoppers. This is consistent with Kim et al.'s (2005) finding that older consumers, who had less social involvement, were likely to feel lonelier than those who had greater social involvement. Yet, it is important to mention that Kim et al. (2005) examined person-to-person relationships; whereas, this study focused on a viewer's perceived relationship with television home shopping hosts through the media.

The findings of the present study did not support the hypothesized negative relationship between positive mood and perceived social risk of older consumers. Therefore, the results are inconsistent with previous research, which found that consumers in positive moods perceived less risk than those in negative moods in the on-line apparel shopping environment (Park et al., 2005). As mentioned above, one reason for this might be the characteristics of the study's sample. Another reason could be a different concept of perceived risk. This study captured consumers' social risk, which is only one among four dimensions: 1) financial, 2) functional, 3) social, and 4) time dimensions used in previous research.

Social risk had a significant effect on impulse buying. This result supports Park and Lennon's (2004) finding that impulse buying increases when television shoppers feel less risk associated with products. However, positive mood did not influence impulse buying, which contradicts previous research (Rook & Gardner, 1993). This may result from the characteristics of older consumers. Older consumers are likely to shop with specific purposes; whereas, younger consumers are more likely to make impulse buying behavior in response to mood (DeNora & Belcher, 2000).

The present study found two interesting associations between variables, which were not hypothesized. First, there was a significant negative effect of parasocial interaction on social risk. Dholakia (2001) mentioned that social risk increases when significant other people have unfavorable opinions about a product. In the television home shopping environment, if a viewer received a favorable opinion of the television home shopping host, who is perceived as a friend through parasocial interaction, a viewer's social risk would decrease. Thus, television home shoppers, who formed parasocial interactions with hosts, were less likely to perceive social risk of a product.

Second, a significant positive effect of parasocial interaction on impulse buying was found. This supports Stephens et al.'s (1996) study, which analyzed conversations between television home shopping hosts and viewers of QVC programs. In their study, television home shopping hosts tried to create parasocial interactions with viewers, while selling products, and viewers indicated their increased impulse buying experiences when television home shopping hosts encouraged them to buy a product.

### **Limitation of the Study**

The results of this study should be reviewed in the context of several limitations. First, there is a limitation with respect to the study's sample. Data were collected from not only those who frequently shop from a television home shopping program, but also those who watched a television home shopping program only once as part of the study. Respondents who have never watched television home shopping programs were asked to watch one of the television home shopping programs about 5 to 10 minutes and then complete the survey. Length of exposure to home shopping programs may influence effects proposed in the present study. Those who have previous experience with television home

shopping may have higher levels of parasocial interaction with hosts than those who have watched a television home shopping program only once. This difference might also influence other variables such as older consumers subjective well-being (social involvement and loneliness), their mood states, perceived social risk, and impulse buying behavior.

Second, respondents were asked to think of the situation when they watch television home shopping programs. For example, the item “when watching television shopping programs, I feel a lack of companionship” was used to capture respondents’ feelings about the television home shopping programs they usually watch. Thus, the respondents had to depend on memory when they answered the questions. In particular, because mood is temporal, it may not be accurately recalled from memory.

Third, one of the limitations is related to the measure of persuasive strategies. Because no existing scale was found, I developed a fourteen-item scale for four of the six persuasive strategies proposed by Cialdini (1993). Based on factor analysis, six items (three social proof items and three scarcity items) capturing only two of the four persuasive strategy constructs, were used for this study. Whereas, the scale had internal consistency with a Cronbach’s *alpha* of .88, tests of validity were not performed before its usage in the present study. Thus, it is possible that a better measure of persuasive strategies should be developed.

### **Implications and Future Research**

Several recommendations for television home shopping retailers and future research are suggested, based on this study. Television shopping has shown remarkable growth during the past few years and has reached a mature stage in terms of market size and sales volume. In this stage, it is important to maintain a relationship with previous customers as well as to encourage new customers to watch television home shopping programs. Results of

this study revealed the importance of parasocial interaction between hosts and viewers in the television home shopping context. The effects of perceived parasocial interaction with the hosts could be bolstered through live experiences, such as actually meeting favorite hosts during promotional tours. The television home shopping industry should further strengthen parasocial interactions through various marketing efforts. For example, if the hosts offer products that reflect issues important to the demographic, such as a line of apparel with a portion of profits supporting women's breast cancer or heart disease research, it may strengthen customers' perceived parasocial interaction and increase sales. At present, older women are more likely to shop via television shopping programs than younger consumers. To extend their consumer base, perhaps hosts popular among younger consumers and promoted on websites and TV channels attractive to these younger consumers could attract a new audience. In addition, new program formats using technology popular among these consumers, such as iPods and cell phones, could be explored.

The present study does not support research, which found persuasive strategies to have a significant impact on parasocial interaction. Future research may explore the reason for the differences in results. For instance, past research focused on one persuasive strategy, scarcity (Cialdini, 1984). The present study captured two persuasive strategies—social proof and scarcity. Perhaps the effect of scarcity is diluted when other persuasive strategies are added for certain product categories or used with certain target markets.

Parasocial interactions between hosts and viewers may enhance older consumers' subjective well-being, which is enhanced by social activity (Smith & Moschis, 1985). This study focused on older consumers' subjective well-being and found a significant effect of parasocial interaction on social involvement. Older people may perceive a host to be a friend

through parasocial interaction leading to an increase in social involvement. Future studies may examine this effect among consumers with different levels of disposable income. Are those who are able to act on the advice of the host (i.e., purchase products) more likely to experience positive effects due to parasocial interactions; whereas, those who are not able to fully participate through the purchase of products more likely to experience a diminished sense of social involvement, decreased mood, and increased loneliness?

The present study focused impulse buying behavior of middle-aging and older consumers. However, older consumers are likely to shop with specific purposes; whereas younger consumers are more likely to make an impulse purchase in response to mood (DeNora & Belcher, 2000). Future studies may examine other shopping response variables such as purchase intention, rather than impulse buying behavior.

**APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL**



IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY  
OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Institutional Review Board  
Office of Research Assurances  
Vice Provost for Research  
1138 Pearson Hall  
Ames, Iowa 50011-2207  
515 294-4566  
FAX 515 294-4267

**DATE:** 9 January 2007

**TO:** Minsun Lee  
c/o M. Damhorst, 1068 LeBaron

**CC:** Dr. Mary Lynn Damhorst  
1068 LeBaron

**FROM:** Jan Canny, IRB Administrator  
Office of Research Assurances

**SUBJECT:** IRB ID 06-634                      **Study Review Date:** 9 January 2007

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The Institutional Review Board (IRB) Chair has reviewed the project, "Television Shopping: The effect of personal selling approach on parasocial interaction, subjective well-being, and purchase intention among older women" (IRB ID **06-634**) and has declared the study exempt from the requirements of the human subject protections regulations as described in 45 CFR 46.101(b) (2). The applicable exemption category is provided below for your information. Please note that you must submit all research involving human participants for review by the IRB. Only the IRB may make the determination of exemption, even if you conduct a study in the future that is exactly like this study.

The IRB determination of exemption means that this project does not need to meet the requirements from the Department of Health and Human Service (DHHS) regulations for the protection of human subjects, unless required by the IRB. We do, however, urge you to protect the rights of your participants in the same ways that you would if the project was required to follow the regulations. This includes providing relevant information about the research to the participants.

Because your project is exempt, you do not need to submit an application for continuing review. However, you must carry out the research as proposed in the IRB application, including obtaining and documenting (signed) informed consent if you have stated in your application that you will do so or if required by the IRB.

Any modification of this research should be submitted to the IRB on a Continuation and/or Modification form, prior to making any changes, to determine if the project still meets the Federal criteria for exemption. If it is determined that exemption is no longer warranted, then an IRB proposal will need to be submitted and approved before proceeding with data collection.

Exempt Category

- (2) *Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.*

**APPENDIX B: COVER SHEET**

## **IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY**

OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Dear Participant:

We would like to invite you to participate in research about older women's shopping behavior toward television home shopping. We want to know your thoughts about personal selling approaches used by television shopping show hosts.

Due to the strong population growth of people above 55 years of age in the U.S., shopping behavior of older persons has been a major interest to marketers. In addition, television home shopping networks have also increased their audiences. During the television home shopping show, the host uses various personal selling approaches to evoke viewers' loyalty level. Knowledge of how the personal selling approach influences the loyalty of shoppers can provide strategic information for a broad range of practitioners such as television home shopping marketers, hosts, and advertisers. The purpose of this study is to examine television home shopping shows and the effects of interaction between the host and viewers in the television shopping environment, focusing on older female television home shoppers.

Your individual responses will be kept in strict confidence. Your names will not be attached to any responses you give. Results will be published in summary form only. There are no foreseeable risks from participating in this study. We are very appreciative of your participation in our study. No monetary compensation will be allocated for doing so; however, you will be offered some chocolates and candies as a token of our appreciation.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may discontinue participation at any time without recrimination from the researcher or Iowa State University. Also, you may skip any question you do not feel comfortable answering in the survey. The questionnaire will take no more than 15 minutes of your time. We greatly appreciate your participation. You will be asked your perception about the use of hosts as a persuasive strategy in television home shopping shows, the interaction with the hosts, social involvement, loneliness, mood, risk, and your loyalty to television home shopping networks.

You are encouraged to ask questions at any time during this study. For further information about the study contact Minsun Lee, e-mail address: [sinbylad@iastate.edu](mailto:sinbylad@iastate.edu), phone: 515-520-0429 or the major advisor for the study: Mary Lynn Damhorst, [mldmhrst@iastate.edu](mailto:mldmhrst@iastate.edu), 515-294-9919. If you have any questions about the rights of research subjects or research-related injury, please contact the IRB Administrator, (515) 294-4566, [IRB@iastate.edu](mailto:IRB@iastate.edu), or Director, (515) 294-3115, Office of Research Assurances, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa 50011.

Sincerely,

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\*\*\*\*\*

PARTICIPANTS SIGNATURE

**Your signature indicates that you voluntarily agree to participate in this study, that the study has been explained to you, that you have been given the time to read the document, and that your questions have been satisfactorily answered.**

\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant's Name (printed)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Participant's Signature)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Date)

\*\*\*\*\*

INVESTIGATOR STATEMENT

I certify that the participant has been given adequate time to read and learn about the study and all of their questions have been answered. It is my opinion that the participant understands the purpose, risks, benefits and the procedures that will be followed in this study and has voluntarily agreed to participate.

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Signature of Person Obtaining  
Informed Consent)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Date)

**APPENDIX C: THE MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE**

## TV Home Shopping Behavior Survey

ID# \_\_\_\_\_.

Female television shoppers aged 55 and over should complete this survey. I am interested in your feelings about television home shopping as well as your shopping behaviors through television home shopping. This survey takes approximately 15 minutes to complete.

**NOTE:** This survey is composed of two parts. Please **THINK ABOUT THE TELEVISION SHOPPING PROGRAM YOU USUALLY WATCH** when you answer the following questions.

**Part I.** The questions below ask about **YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT THE TELEVISION HOME SHOPPING PROGRAMS YOU USUALLY WATCH**. Please complete the questions by circling one number for each statement.

*Instructions:* Please respond to each statement by circling one number from 1 to 5 that most closely corresponds to your position. (1=Strongly Disagree. . . 5=Strongly Agree).

**NOTE:** Please **THINK ABOUT THE TV SHOPPING SHOW HOSTS YOU USUALLY WATCH**.

		<i>Strongly Disagree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Strongly Agree</i>
1.	The hosts inform the viewer that the product they are selling is one of the best sellers.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	The hosts explain the level of popularity of the product.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The hosts inform me that an item that was popular in a past show is now available for purchase.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The hosts feel like my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	The hosts have the same preferences or same concerns as me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The hosts praise me when I make a purchase from the show.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	The hosts encourage me to watch, purchase, or contact the program/host again.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	The hosts agree with what I think.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	The hosts appear knowledgeable about the product.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The hosts introduce a designer/expert who co-hosts the show with them.	1	2	3	4	5

		<i>Strongly Disagree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Strongly Agree</i>
11.	The hosts inform me how the name brands on their show are reliable.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	The hosts mention that there are a limited number of the products left.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	The hosts tell me that the product is almost sold out.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	The hosts mention that this is last chance for me to purchase a product.	1	2	3	4	5

		<i>Strongly Disagree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Strongly Agree</i>
1.	The hosts are almost like friends I see everyday.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I like hearing the voices of the hosts in my home.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	When the hosts show how they feel about the product, it helps me make up my mind about the product.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I like to compare my feelings for the product with what the hosts say about it.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	When the hosts joke around with each other, it makes the program even more enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The hosts show me what people in the media are really like.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I feel sorry for the hosts when they make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5

*Instructions:* Please respond to each statement by circling one number from 1 to 4 that most closely corresponds to your position. (1=Never. . . 4=Always).

**When watching television shopping programs.....**

		<i>Never</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Always</i>
1.	I feel lack of companionship?	1	2	3	4
2.	I feel I have a lot in common with other people?	1	2	3	4

<b>When watching television shopping programs.....</b>		<i>Never</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Always</i>
3.	I feel close to people?	1	2	3	4
4.	I feel left out?	1	2	3	4
5.	How often do you feel that no one really knows you well?	1	2	3	4
6.	I feel isolated from others?	1	2	3	4
7.	I feel there are people who really understand me?	1	2	3	4
8.	I feel that people are around me but not with me?	1	2	3	4
9.	I feel there are people I can talk to?	1	2	3	4
10.	I feel there are people I can turn to?	1	2	3	4

*Instructions:* Please respond to each statement by circling one number from 1 to 5 that most closely corresponds to your position. (1=Strongly Disagree. . . 4=Strongly Agree)

<b>When watching television shopping programs.....</b>		<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
1.	I believe I do not have close personal relationships with other people.	1	2	3	4
2.	I believe there are people who depend on me for help.	1	2	3	4



<b>When watching television shopping programs.....</b>		<i>Never</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Always</i>
3.	I feel part of the group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs.	1	2	3	4
4.	I believe I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being.	1	2	3	4
5.	I believe there is no one who shares my interests and concerns.	1	2	3	4
6.	I feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other person.	1	2	3	4
7.	I lack a feeling of intimacy with another person.	1	2	3	4
8.	I believe there is no one who likes to do the things I do.	1	2	3	4

*Instructions:* In answering the following questions, think about your feelings **WHEN YOU WATCH TELEVISION SHOPPING PROGRAMS**. Please indicate **how strongly you feel** by circling one number provided for each word.

	<i>Not at all</i>	<i>Slightly</i>	<i>Moderately</i>	<i>Considerably</i>	<i>Very Strongly</i>
1. Discouraged	1	2	3	4	5
2. Happy	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sad	1	2	3	4	5
4. Delighted	1	2	3	4	5
5. Downhearted	1	2	3	4	5
6. Joyful	1	2	3	4	5

*Instructions:* Please indicate **the extent to which you agree with the following statements** by circling one number provided for each statement.

	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Strongly Agree</i>
1. Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not be the same as shown on TV.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not be in fashion.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not fit.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Products purchased from TV home shopping programs will not fit into my existing wardrobe.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Products purchased from TV home shopping programs may be unsatisfactory.	1	2	3	4	5
6. It may be difficult to return products purchased from TV home shopping programs.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am willing to buy products from TV home shopping programs.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The assortment of products on TV home shopping programs is competitive with store apparel.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Time is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
10. It may take a long time to get products from TV home shopping programs.	1	2	3	4	5
11. TV home shopping purchase leads to time loss because of delivery and shipping time.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I prefer to look around several stores before purchasing.	1	2	3	4	5
13. There is a possibility of a small financial loss due to higher prices of products from the TV home shopping programs.	1	2	3	4	5

	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Strongly Agree</i>
14. Financial loss is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Prices of product from TV home shopping programs are competitive with those of store products.	1	2	3	4	5
16. It may be difficult to get money back when ordering from a TV home shopping program.	1	2	3	4	5

**Instructions:** Please indicate **the degree to which the following statements describe your behavior when you are watching TV home shopping programs.** Please respond to each statement by circling one number from 1 to 7 that most closely corresponds to your position.

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Strongly agree</i>		
1. Even when I see something I really like, I do not buy it unless it is a planned purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. When I watch TV shopping shows, I buy things I had not intended to purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am not willing to buy things from TV shopping show that are not on my shopping list.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It is fun to buy spontaneously from TV shopping show.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not buy until I can make sure TV shopping show is offering a real bargain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. If TV shopping show introduces something new that really interests me, I buy it right away just to see what it is like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I may buy things from TV shopping show without hesitation if I like them when I first see them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. If TV shopping show introduces something new I really want, I purchase it immediately, even if I had not planned to buy it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I can make unplanned purchases from TV shopping show.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. If TV shopping show introduces something that really interests me, I buy it without considering the consequences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

*Instructions:* Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by circling one number provided for each statement.

<b>If I were actually shopping for products, I would.....</b>		<i>Strongly disagree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>			<i>Strongly agree</i>	
1.	.....be willing to buy products through the home shopping channel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	.....likely visit a real store to buy a product I have seen on the home shopping channel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	.....visit a home shopping channel in the hopes of purchase a product.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Part II. General Background Information.** Please check or fill in the appropriate information.

1. What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_
2. What is your ethnicity? Please CHECK ONE.  
 Asian American     Black or African-American     Hispanic or Latino American  
 Native American     Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander     White or European  
 Two or more races    Other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
3. What is your **CURRENT** marital status? CHECK ONE.  
 Never married     Married  
 Widowed     Separated     Divorced  
 Other
4. What is your **CURRENT** work status? Please CHECK ONE.  
 Working full time  
 Working part time  
 Retired  
 Never worked outside the home
5. How do you feel about your health? Please CHECK ONE.  
 Very poor     Poor     Fair     Good     Excellent
6. What is your annual household income before taxes and other reductions? Check one.  
 Less than \$25,000     \$25,000-\$49,999     \$50,000-\$74,999  
 \$75,000-\$99,999     Over \$100,000
7. What do you think about your financial status?  
 Excellent     Good     Fair  
 Poor     Very poor

8. In which county do you **CURRENTLY** live?  
 County and State Name (Please list): \_\_\_\_\_  
 Zip code \_\_\_\_\_
9. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed? Please CHECK ONE answer.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Less than High School Graduate  
 \_\_\_\_\_ High School Diploma or GED certificate  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Some college or technical school  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Associate degree  
 \_\_\_\_\_ College degree  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Graduate, or professional degree
10. Do you have a driver's license?  
 Yes \_\_\_\_\_  
 No \_\_\_\_\_
11. Do you **CURRENTLY** drive your own vehicle?  
 Yes \_\_\_\_\_  
 No \_\_\_\_\_
12. How often do you watch television home shopping programs?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Less than once a month      \_\_\_\_\_ 1 to 2 times a month  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Once a week      \_\_\_\_\_ 2 to 3 times a week  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Everyday
13. How often do you actually buy products from television home shopping?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Never bought from TV shopping      \_\_\_\_\_ Less than once a year  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 1 to 2 times a year      \_\_\_\_\_ 3 to 4 times a year  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 5 to 6 times a year      \_\_\_\_\_ More than once a month
14. Please list television home shopping channels you have watched (e.g., HSN, QVC, etc.)  
 \_\_\_\_\_
15. Please check all which products you have bought from television home shopping channels.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Apparel      \_\_\_\_\_ Bedding      \_\_\_\_\_ Cosmetics  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Decoration items      \_\_\_\_\_ Food      \_\_\_\_\_ Electronics  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Home improvement      \_\_\_\_\_ Jewelry      \_\_\_\_\_ Kitchen appliances  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Shoes      \_\_\_\_\_ Other      \_\_\_\_\_ None of these

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*Thank you very much for your time. Please give this survey to the researcher.*

If you would like a copy of the results summary, please provide Min Sun Lee your name and address.

Minsun Lee, Graduate Student

Textiles and Clothing Program, Iowa State University

E016 Lagomarcino Ames, IA. Phone: (515) 294-1941 Email: [sinbylad@iastate.edu](mailto:sinbylad@iastate.edu)

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**APPENDIX D: INVITATION FLYER**

## Television Home Shopper Survey

My name is Minsun Lee. I am working on my Master's degree in Textiles and Clothing at Iowa State University. I am really interested in understanding how the media is used by women between the ages of 55 and over, and I am asking for your assistance.

To complete my thesis, I will be collecting data from women aged over 55 who are television home shoppers. Television home shopper means those who have watched television home shopping programs, such as HSN and QVC, more than once. If you match that description, I would like to invite you to participate in a survey tapping your opinions regarding television home shopping. Even through you have never watched television home shopping program, you can still participate in this survey. Just watch one of television home shopping about 5 to 10 minutes, and then complete the survey.

The survey will take about 15 minutes of your time. **If you are female, aged over 55, and willing to participate in this survey, PLEASE COMPLETE A SURVEY. After you fill out all questions through the survey PLEASE PLACE IT IN THE RETURN ENVELOPE AND SEND IT BACK.**

Your participation in my project is very important to me and my research. All information is strictly confidential and voluntary. If you have questions, I can send more information about my survey in detail. Please contact me via e-mail address: [sinbylad@iastate.edu](mailto:sinbylad@iastate.edu) or phone: 515-520-0429, anytime.

Thank you for your time,



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