

Factors Influencing Irrational Buying: The Case of Television Shopping

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Abstract

Although it is assumed that consumers make their purchasing decisions rationally, it is not true all the time. Consumers often buy a product which they do not plan to buy initially, or buy the product with the amount more than what they need, or pay the price over what they expect. Such purchasing is called as impulse buying, unplanned buying, or irrational buying. This study chooses television shopping as the case to examine some important factors which will affect such irrational buying.

After reviewing related literature, a research framework depicting the antecedents of television shopping is presented. Three individual variables (including perceived risk, attitude toward television shopping, and impulse buying tendency), three situational variables (including time available for going out shopping, time available for watching television, and money available), and two stimulating variables (promotional stimuli exposure and attraction of program host and celebrity guest) are expected to influence three endogenous variables (including positive affect, television shopping exposure, and impulse buying urge), and ultimately, affect television shopping. The research hypotheses are empirically tested with data collected by a questionnaire survey with 262 effective subjects.

The major findings of this study are as follow:

- (1) Impulse buying urge and money available can stimulate television shopping while perceived risk reduce it.
- (2) Impulse buying urge is directly influenced by television shopping exposure, impulse buying tendency, promotional stimuli exposure, and positive affect.
- (3) Time available to watching television, positive affect, and attitude toward television shopping can enhance television shopping exposure while time available for going out shopping has the negative impact
- (4) The attraction of program host and celebrity has the stronger effect, followed by promotional stimuli exposure, on positive affect.

Key words: Television Shopping, Irrational Buying, Impulse Buying, Perceived Risk, Positive Affect, Promotional Stimuli Exposure

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Introduction

Although it is assumed that consumers make their purchasing decisions rationally, it is not true all the time. Consumers often buy a product which they do not plan to buy initially, or buy the product with the amount more than what they need, or pay the price over what they expect. Such purchasing is called as impulse purchasing, unplanned purchasing, or irrational purchasing. Such irrational purchasing can be found easily in television shopping. Because of technological progress and the active shopping environment, television shopping has become as one of the most promising sales distribution channels (Mafé and Blas 2007). In addition, it has high sales volume and growth potential. Thus, a more comprehensive examination of television shopping should be highly necessary for both practical managers and academic researchers.

Previous studies have focused on a single or a few motivations of television shopping. For example, McDonald (1995) showed that there are eight major buying motivations including: interests in product value, confidence in merchandise recommendations, and enjoyment of the host personalities, etc. Because consumers may be much affected by program hosts and repeated media exposure that encourage them to buy impulsively, television shopping is inherently an impulse buying situation (Park and Lennon 2006).

To comprehensively examine the factors inducing impulse buying urge and impulse buying in the shopping mall, Beatty and Ferrell (1998) have developed the Impulse Buying Model. Due to the fact that the television shopping is a type of impulse buying (or so-called irrational buying) and the television shopping is different from mall shopping in some aspects, this study applies the Impulse Buying Model to comprehensively investigate the television shopping behaviors and modifies the model by including some variables which are unique to television shopping such as: perceived risk, attitude toward to television shopping, promotional stimuli exposure, and attraction of host and celebrity.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

(1) Impulse Buying Urge and Television Shopping

Impulse buying urge is a sudden and spontaneous desire to buy something (Rook and Hoch, 1985). It happens when people meet an item or a promotional incentive unexpectedly in the shopping environment that precedes the real buying behavior (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). Because the urge or desire is usually powerful and irresistible, consumers incline to make purchase decision immediately. As more urges are experienced, the likelihood of engaging in an impulse purchase increases. Thus, in the TV shopping setting, we expect that, before consumers conduct TV shopping behaviors, they should positively affected by the impulse buying urge. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

***H1:** Impulse buying urge has a positive effect on television shopping.*

(2) Television Shopping Exposure

Television shopping exposure is the average time that respondents watch television shopping programs within a period of time. Previous studies show that television shopping exposure is considered to be one of the most significant precursors of television shopping (Grant et al. 1991; Mafé and Blas 2007). According to Jarboe and McDaniel (1987), when people browse longer, they are more likely to be stimulated by a product. The linking of in-store browsing and impulse buying urge comes from the concept of physical proximity (Beatty and Ferrell 1998). Rook (1987) suggested that when people browse through products in the physical store, they may be stimulated by a product and feel a sudden urge to buy. In the television shopping context, shoppers are not actually in physical proximity to merchandise, but they are in virtual proximity to merchandise (Ridgway and Monika 2005). Hence, consumers with the higher television shopping exposure are more likely to have the stronger impulse buying urge for a product (Park and Lennon 2006). Therefore,

***H2:** Television shopping exposure has a positive effect on impulse buying urge.*

(3) Positive Affect

Positive affect is the extent to which individual feels enthusiastic, active, and alert

(Watson, Clark, and Tellegen, 1988). When an individual experiences positive affect created by the environment, s/he usually intends to maintain the elevated mood by engaging in approach behaviors, such as rewarding themselves more bountifully. For example, they may incline to buying more products without much restriction (Beatty and Ferrell 1998; Heilman, Nakamoto, and Rao 2002). They also may relax and extend browsing behaviors. Therefore, we expect that when consumers are in positive affect while watching TV shopping programs, they have strength buying urge as well as television shopping exposure. Thus, we offer the following hypothesis:

H3a: Positive affect positively influences impulse buying urge.

H3b: Positive affect positively influences television shopping exposure.

(4) The Influences of Three Exogenous Individual Variables

Three exogenous individual variables are examined by this study: perceived risk, attitude toward television shopping, and impulse buying tendency.

Perceived risk is “the consumer’s perceptions of the uncertainty and adverse consequences of buying a product or service” (Dowling and Staelin 1994, p119). Consumers of TV shopping may perceive some risk from two sources. First, they lack the opportunity to physically examine or test the products (Stephens et al., 1996). They may fear not getting what they want. Secondly, they also concern the possible dishonesty of hosts in the TV shopping programs due to exaggerating description about the products (Li, 2004). When consumers perceive such risks and would not adopt effective strategies to reduce risk, they are less likely to make purchase decision (Lwin and Williams, 2006). Thus, we expect that perceived risk would reduce the TV shopping behaviors.

H4: Perceived risk has a negative effect on television shopping.

Attitude toward TV shopping is an individual’s cognitive and affective evaluations of attributes of TV shopping programs (Eastlick and Liu, 1997). Previous studies indicate that when consumers with a favorable attitude toward a specific shopping setting are more likely to employ this setting to search for what they need (Shim and Eastlick, 1998). Similarly, if consumers regard TV shopping as a safer, more secure shopping environment, or evaluate it as a channel to provide more appealing

merchandise and related information, these positive attitude toward TV shopping programs would encourage them to watch TV shopping longer (Eastlick and Liu 1997; Mafé and Blas 2007). Thus, we expect:

***H5:** Attitude toward television shopping has a positive effect on television shopping exposure.*

Impulse buying tendency is the degree to which an individual is likely to make unintended, immediate and unreflective purchase (Weun et al., 1998). When consumers have higher impulse buying tendency, they have difficulty in controlling their purchase behaviors. Thus, higher impulse buying tendency is positively related to the actual impulse buying (Dholakia, 2000). Because impulse buying tendency is a kind of personal trait, it may carry over to impulse buying in the TV shopping setting. Consumers with high impulse buying tendency are more easily to be urged by the programs. We expect

***H6:** Impulse buying tendency (IBT) has a positive effect on impulse buying urge.*

(5) The Influences of Situational Variables

Three situational variables are studied in this study: time available for going out shopping, time available for watching television, and money available.

Time available for watching television is the amount of time that individuals can spend on watching television. This variable has been viewed as a significant predictor of television shopping exposure. Most television shopping exposure occurs when viewers flip the television channels (Park and Lennon 2006). Hence, when people watch more television, they will have more opportunities to flip the television shopping channels (Grant et al. 1991; Li 2004; Mafé and Blas 2007).

***H7:** Time available for watching television has a positive effect on television shopping exposure.*

Time saving is one of the major benefits of in-home shopping. In-home shopping can save the time of transportation and in-store search and serve as a feasible shopping channel for people who are highly pressed for time (Darian 1987; Gillett 1976). Being a

type of in-home shopping, television shopping provides shoppers with convenient order service that makes the merchandise more accessible (Eastlick and Liu 1997; McDonald 1995; Park and Lennon 2006; Stephens et al. 1996), and enhances the benefit of time saving (Eastlick and Liu 1997). People with less time for going out shopping may be more likely to browse the television shopping channels to search products because it allows them to shop efficiently (Cook 2000; Li 2004). Therefore,

***H8:** Time available for going out shopping has a positive effect on television shopping exposure.*

Money available is the amount of extra money or disposal income an individual has in daily life. Darian (1987) suggested that consumers with higher income would be more likely to make purchases via in-home shopping network because they can tolerate more risk than those with lower income. Grant et al. (1991) found that income was a significant predictor of television shopping buying frequency. Thus, we expect that there will be a positive relationship between money available and frequency of patronizing television shopping. Therefore, this idea produces the following hypothesis:

***H9:** Money available has a positive effect on television shopping.*

(6) The Influences of Stimulating Variables

Two stimulating variables are investigated in this study: promotional stimuli exposure and attraction of program host and celebrity guest.

Promotion stimuli occur frequently in the TV shopping programs. These programs employ kinds of sale signs (e.g., “on sale”, “deep discount”, and “special sale” etc.) on the screen to show the best price of the offered product. Because consumers tend to repeatedly associate promotional stimuli with positive outcome such as monetary saving or the perception of oneself as a “smart shopper”, consumers would have positive responses (Chandon et al. 2000; Inman et al. 1990). Thus, we expect that the promotion stimuli of TV shopping also raise positive affects among consumers.

In addition, the promotion stimuli also may trigger consumers’ impulse buying urge. In the TV shopping programs, firms usually repeatedly stresses the promotion stimuli

through on-screen countdowns of the number of remaining items or the time remaining for ordering (Grant et al. 1991; Ridgway and Monika 2005). Such temporal proximity with a promotional incentive would stimulate people's urge buying (Dholakia 2000). Based on these arguments, we hypothesize:

H10a: *Promotional stimuli exposure has a positive effect on positive affect.*

H10b: *Promotional stimuli exposure has a positive effect on impulse buying urge.*

Prior research suggested that there are parasocial relationships between the program hosts and television shoppers (Grant et al. 1991; Park and Lennon 2006; Stephens et al. 1996). The parasocial relationships occur when viewers feel friendly and intimate with remote 'personae' such as program hosts (Stephens et al. 1996). The live hosts are usually friendly and neighborly, and they are not as perfect as the super-stars. Therefore, viewers feel that they are like real people we see everyday and are more likely to produce intimate and friendly feelings with them (Stephens et al. 1996). Further, a celebrity may be employed to be a co-host to promote products (Ridgway and Monika 2005; Solomon 1994). An attractive endorser can achieve a high degree of attention and attain good recall from customers (Atkin and Block 1983; Ohanian 1991; Stephens and Hill 1994). Therefore, the last one hypothesis is offered:

H11: *The attraction of program host and celebrity guest has a positive effect on positive affect.*

Method

(1) Procedure

This study conducted an intercept consumer survey to obtain data. Subjects were sampled at the front of a department store. Following Dickson and Sawyer's (1990) data collecting procedure, the interviewers approached the third shopper they met since the completion of the last interview. First, the interviewers asked whether the shopper would fill in the questionnaire. The respondents who completed the questionnaire would be given a small gift.

(2) Measurement

Twelve variables were measured in this study: television shopping, impulse buying urge, television shopping exposure, positive affect, perceived risk, attitude toward television shopping, impulse buying tendency, time available for watching television, time available for going out shopping, money available, promotional stimuli exposure, and attraction of host and celebrity. Most measurement items were adapted from previous research. The items are shown in Appendix (except for money available). Most items are measured with 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) except for television shopping, television shopping exposure, positive affect, Time available for watching television

The first two items to measure television shopping were drawn from Grant et al. (1991) and the last item was from Eastlick and Liu (1997). The first and last items used the seven-point scale (first item: 1 = never to 7 = very often; last item: 1 = below 1,000 NTD to 7 = over 10,000 NTD). The items to measure impulse buying urge were drawn from Beatty and Ferrell (1998). In order to fit the television shopping context, items were modified somewhat.

The measurement of television shopping exposure was modified from Lee, Lennon, and Rudd (2000). Both items used the seven-point scale (first item: 1 = never to 7 = very often; second item: 1 = less than 10 minutes to 7 = over 60 minutes). The positive affect items were directly drawn from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule Scale (PANAS) (Watson et al. 1988). The measurement items of perceived risk were modified from Burges (2003) who divided perceived risk into six parts including: overall,

financial, social, performance, functional, and time risk. To measure attitude toward television shopping, this study modified the items from Taylor, George, and Michael (2000) that discussed consumers' attitude toward telemarketing. The measurement items of impulse buying tendency were directly drawn from Rook and Fisher (1995).

Time available for watching television was modified from Lee et al. (2000). Both items used the seven-point scale (first item: 1 = never to 7 = very often; second item: 1 = less than 30 minutes to 7 = over 180 minutes). Vermeir and Van Kenhove (2005) proposed the items to measure perceived time pressure (PTP) in a grocery shopping context. Because time available for going out shopping is related to the concept of perceived time pressure for shopping, this study modified such items to measure the time available for going out shopping. Further, the money available was measured by personal monthly disposable income. The items used a seven-point scale (1 = less than 5,000 NTD to 7 = over 50,000 NTD).

Previous studies did not propose the appropriate items to measure promotional stimuli in the television shopping and environment. Thus, we proposed three items scale to measure it based on the literature and the results of in-depth interview. To measure attraction of host and celebrity, this study adopted the work of Aheame, Gruen, and Jarvis (1999) which suggested that the personal attraction of a salesperson could be measured by five attributes including: physical attractiveness, likeability, trustworthiness, communication ability, and expertise.

(3) Pretest

The questionnaire was pretested on a convenience sample of 35 people with 27 who ever patronized television shopping. One purpose of pretest was to identify potential problems with wording, instructions, and questionnaire format. Further, this study conducted exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis to delete items that did not enough contribute to the reliability.

Data Analysis and Results

(1) Data Description

In total, 312 questionnaires were obtained. After eliminating invalided questionnaires with uncompleted items or logic errors, the final sample is 262 questionnaires with 216 have television shopping experience. The demographic profile of the final sample is presented in Table 1

Table 1 Demographics of the Sample

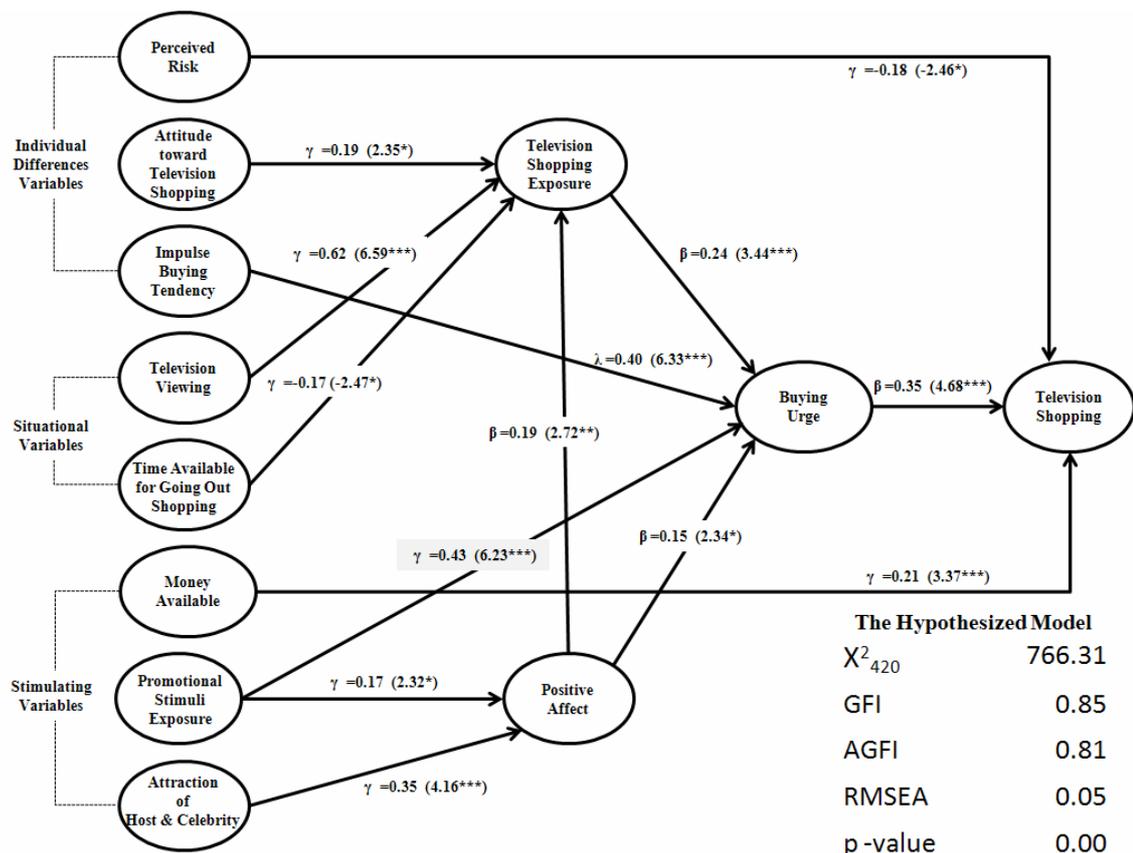
<i>Characteristic</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Gender	Male	86	32.8
	Female	176	67.2
Age	Less than 18	7	2.7
	19 – 29	187	71.4
	30 – 39	45	17.2
	40 – 49	11	4.2
	50 – 59	12	4.6
	60 or over	0	0.0
Marital Status	Single	197	75.2
	Married	65	24.8
Education	Less than Junior High School	3	1.1
	Senior High School	31	11.8
	Some College	204	77.9
	College Graduate	21	8.0
	Post Graduate	3	1.1
Occupation	Employee	106	40.5
	Self-employed	24	9.2
	Retired	3	1.1
	Housewife	14	5.3
	Student	95	36.3
	Others	20	7.6
Disposable Income (NTD/monthly)	Less than 5,000	73	27.9
	5,001 – 10,000	84	32.1
	10,001 – 20,000	50	19.1
	20,001 – 30,000	30	11.5
	30,001 – 40,000	15	5.7
	40,001 – 50,000	4	1.5
	50,000 or over	6	2.3

(2) Measurement Assessment

This study uses the AMOS 5.0 structural equation analysis to assess the measurements of 11 variables and to test the research hypotheses. The construct

reliability, as calculated with AMOS estimates, is analogous to coefficient alpha. Further, construct validity is assessed through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to discuss convergent validity and discriminant validity of the proposed scales. Convergent validity is assessed by the significance of the standardized loading (λ_{ij}). Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested that discriminant validity can be assessed by comparing the variance extracted to the square of the correlation (Φ^2) between the two latent variables.

The items that remained after items deletion based on the results of pretest and the measurement model are presented in Appendix . All construct reliabilities are above 0.7 with the exception of attitude toward television shopping. Furthermore, discriminant validity is proved for all pairs of scales by comparing the variance extracted to the square of the correlation between any two latent variables.



Note: *: p-value<0.05; **: p-value<0.01; ***: p-value<0.001

Figure 1 Final Structural Model

(3) Structural Equation Model

Figure 1 presents the final model with the path coefficients and the associated

t-values for each of the hypothesized paths. The overall model fit statistics show that the model fits the data within established guidelines: $\chi^2_{420}=766.31$; GFI=0.85; AGFI=0.81; RMSEA=0.05. In addition, all thirteen hypothesized paths are statistically significant and in the predicted direction.

This study expects that there are four positive hypothesized paths among the endogenous variables. The statistical results indicate that all of these paths were in the expected direction. First, television shopping exposure increases the impulse buying urge (H2: $\beta=0.24$; t-value=3.44), as does the positive affect (H3a: $\beta=0.15$; t-value=2.34). Then, positive affect positively influences television shopping exposure (H3b: $\beta=0.19$; t-value=2.72). Finally, impulse buying urge significantly affects television shopping buying behaviors (H1: $\beta=0.35$; t-value=4.68).

Further, statistical results show that three individual variables have their impacts as expected. First, perceived risk can decrease television shopping significant (H4: $\gamma=-0.18$; t-value -2.46) Next, attitude toward television shopping does increase an individual's television shopping exposure (H5: $\gamma=0.19$; t-value=2.35). As expected, the impulse buying tendency significantly has a positive effect on impulse buying urge (H6: $\gamma=0.40$; t-value=6.33).

Regarding the impacts of situational variables, the results show that all are supported. First, time available for watching television has a positive relationship with television shopping exposure (H7: $\gamma=0.62$; t-value=6.59). In addition, time available for going out shopping does have a significantly negative effect on television shopping exposure (H8: $\gamma=-0.17$; t-value=-2.47). Lastly, available money has a significant effect on television shopping buying behaviors (H9: $\gamma=0.21$; t-value=3.37).

Promotional stimuli exposure is hypothesized to increase both impulse buying urge (H10a) and positive affect (H10b). As expected, promotional stimuli exposure can increase both impulse buying urge ($\gamma=0.43$; t-value=6.23) and positive affect ($\gamma=0.17$; t-value=2.32). Finally, the attraction of host and celebrity is significantly increase positive affect (H11b: $\gamma=0.35$; t-value=4.16).

Conclusions and Suggestions

(1) Research Conclusions

After reviewing the related literature to develop research hypotheses and analyzing the data collected from a questionnaire survey to test hypotheses, several major conclusions regarding the television shopping can be drawn as follows:

1. Impulse buying urge and money available can stimulate television shopping while perceived risk reduce it. .

This study finds that impulse buying urge has the strongest positive impact on television shopping among three major factors. When consumers have impulse buying urges, they are very likely to patronize television shopping. Money available is another important factor to positively influence television shopping. It means that consumers with more available money would spend more on television shopping. Although the impact of perceived risk is the least one of three factors, its impact is negative. Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) have suggested that when consumers perceive higher risk, they may not fulfill the impulse buying urge because of the uncertain outcomes. The results of this study coincide with this viewpoint.

2. Impulse buying urge is directly influenced by television shopping exposure, impulse buying tendency, promotional stimuli exposure, and positive affect.

Among four factors positively influencing impulse buying urge, promotional stimuli exposure have the strongest effect and followed by impulse buying tendency. This means that promotional stimuli provided in television shopping is the most important tool to enhance impulse buying urge. Besides, the characteristic of the television shopper (impulse buying tendency) is another critical factor for the marketers to consider even the marketers cannot change it. Further, this study shows that consumers who watch more television shopping programs or have more positive affect when they watch such programs will have higher impulse buying urge. Although positive affect has the least impact, it has a direct impact on television shopping exposure

3. Time available to watching television, positive affect, and attitude toward television shopping can enhance television shopping exposure while time available for going out shopping has the negative impact.

As expected, people who have more time to watch television have more exposure to television shopping. Thus, this study finds that time available to watching television has the strongest impact on television shopping exposure. In addition, positive affect and attitude toward television shopping are another two factors have positive influences on television shopping exposure. For people who have time to go out shopping, they are less likely to exposure to television shopping. Thus, this study shows the negative impact of time available for going out shopping on television shopping.

4. The attraction of program host and celebrity has the stronger effect, followed by promotional stimuli exposure, on positive affect.

Among two factors positively influencing positive affect, the attraction of program host and celebrity has the stronger effect. This means that the more attractive the program host and celebrity are, the viewers have more positive affect, which will directly influence television shopping exposure and impulse buying urge. Thus, the attraction of program host and celebrity plays an important role in television shopping. Although the impact of promotional stimuli exposure on positive affect is not as strong as the attraction of program host and celebrity, promotional stimuli exposure has a direct impact on impulse buying urge. Therefore, its importance on television shopping should not be underestimated.

(2) Managerial Implications

Some of the managerial implications of the findings can be provided to the television shopping operators.

First, given the significant relationship between money available and television shopping, television shopping operators should attempt to make consumers feel that they have available money to spend. In addition to keeping providing installment payment services, operators should sales events around paydays to make consumers feel they have available money to spend. On the other hand, according to the negative relationship between television shopping and perceived risk, operators should reduce consumers' perceived risks by providing quality products or warranty.

Second, due to the fact that promotional stimuli exposure has the strongest direct impact on impulse buying urge, operators should utilize promotion activities to

encourage consumers to purchase products, especially restricted promotion activities. However, operators should offer such promotion activities without deception. In addition, impulse buying tendency has the second largest impact on impulse buying urge, operators should try to identify the customers with high impulse buying tendency as targeted customers.

Finally, this study shows that positive affect and television shopping exposure have positive impact on impulse buying urge. Television shopping operators should persistently devote to creating enthusiastic, exciting, and attentive television shopping program to attract customers to watch the program and have positive affect. This can be achieved by providing promotional stimuli and attractive host and celebrity.

(3) Limitations and Future Research

This study has some limitations which may offer some directions for future research. First, there are measurement problems throughout this study. Some variables have the difficulties to measure correctly and completely such as: promotional stimuli exposure and positive affect. It should be useful to develop precise measurement items with high reliability and validity. In addition, not all important variables regarding the television shopping behavior are included.

Another issue is that this study does not examine the interaction effects between variables. In fact, the examination of these interactions may provide some insightful perspectives. For example, perceived risk and money available may have interaction effect on television shopping behavior.

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Appendix: Measurement Items

<i>Item/Construct</i>	<i>Standardized Loading</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Construct Reliability</i>
Television Shopping			.75
How often did you shop from television shopping programs?	.89	12.04	
How many purchases you had made from television shopping programs?	.57	8.50	
How much did you pay for these items in average?	.63	b	
Impulse Buying Urge			.75
When browsing television shopping channels, I usually felt a sudden urge to buy something.	.62	9.23	
When watching television shopping channels, I usually experienced a number of sudden urges to buy things I had not planned to purchase	.89	12.13	
When watching television shopping channels, I usually saw a number of things I wanted to buy even though I never wanted to buy them.	.58	b	
Television Shopping Exposure			.76
How often did you watch television shopping channels?	.88	8.33	
How long did you watch television shopping channels on an average day?	.69	b	
Positive Affect			.81
Enthusiastic	.71	8.47	
Proud	.73	10.00	
Excited	.78	10.63	
Attentive	.59	7.74	
Inspired	.54	b	
Perceived Risk			
<i>Social & Financial Risk</i>			.84
Purchasing from television shopping let me think I just threw away a lot of money.	.86	14.46	
Purchasing from television shopping would cause me to be thought of as foolish by some people whose opinion I value.	.80	16.06	
Purchasing from television shopping is a bad way to spend money.	.72	12.70	
Purchasing from television shopping is perceived as imprudent or socially unacceptable.	.62	b	
<i>Performance Risk</i>			.89
There will be something wrong with the product, or it will not function properly.	.86	16.61	
The merchandise will not be durable.	.92	b	
<i>Functional Risk</i>			.74
I will feel comfortable giving my credit card number when I order.	.53	11.91	
There will be problems with after-sales services.	.96	b	

Appendix: Item Measurement Properties (Cont.)

<i>Item/Construct</i>	<i>Standardized Loading</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Construct Reliability</i>
Attitude toward Television Shopping			.63
Television shopping provides a convenient and good way to buy things.	.91	5.61	
Television shopping is an offensive way to sell.a	.41	b	
Impulse Buying Tendency			.89
I often buy things spontaneously.	.76	13.89	
I often buy things without thinking.	.95	19.01	
“Buy it, think about it later” describes me.	.82	b	
Time Available for Watching Television			.76
How often did you watch TV?	.67	8.27	
How long did you watch TV on an average day?	.89	b	
Time Available for Going Out Shopping			.79
I have only a limited amount of time available to go out shopping. a	.73	8.692	
I am in a hurry when go out shopping. a	.87	b	
Promotional Stimuli Exposure			.90
Products restrictedly offered on television shopping channels attract my attention.	.71	12.89	
The on-screen countdown of the number of remaining items for ordering makes me experience time pressure about purchasing.	.93	18.93	
The on-screen countdown of the time remaining for ordering makes me experience time pressure about purchasing.	.95	b	
Attraction of Host and Celebrity			
<i>Expertise of Host</i>			.85
The program host is an excellent source of information about the products s/he represents.	.99	17.66	
The program host is able to recommend new treatment regimens for dealing with difficult cases.	.71	b	
<i>Likeability of Host</i>			.78
The program host would generally be thought of as beautiful/handsome.	.56	9.24	
The program host is a fun person to be around.	.72	12.58	
The program host is easy to like.	.90	b	
<i>Likeability of Celebrity</i>			.83
The celebrity guest has an attractive appearance.	.69	12.02	
The celebrity guest is a fun person to be around.	.80	14.55	
The celebrity guest is easy to like.	.88	b	
<i>Trustworthiness of Celebrity</i>			.83
The celebrity guest is someone I feel I can trust.	.91	16.19	
The celebrity guest never tries to mislead me.	.77	b	

Note: a. item was reversed scored.

b. the parameter compared by others s set as 1, therefore there is no t-value.