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UTILITARIAN AND VALUE-EXPRESSIVE APPEALS IN TELEVISION SHOPPING SEGMENTS

DISSertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

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************

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ABSTRACT

This research was designed to identify and compare the different forms of persuasion in television shopping segments among product categories (clothing, housewares, and home decor), weekend and weekday, and length of the shopping segment. Advertisements use different forms of persuasion to gain consumer attention, meet their economic and emotional shopping needs, to create a positive image of the product, brand, and the shopping medium, and influence consumers to purchase the product. Persuasion was classified in this study as functional congruity and self-congruity routes to persuasion. While functional congruity aims to motivate consumers by establishing product utilitarianism to the consumer, self-congruity motivates consumers by matching the product-user image to the consumer’s self-image. The self-congruity route to persuasion was assessed through value-expressive appeals. Value-expressive appeals were of two types: self-congruity appeals and social congruity appeals in this dissertation.

The study found, on an average, television shopping segments contained more utilitarian appeals than value-expressive appeals. The number of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals varied among the product categories but did not differ by weekday or weekend, or by length of the shopping segment. Television shopping segments on housewares contained more utilitarian appeals than clothing and home décor segments.
On the other hand, television shopping segments on home décor contained more value-expressive appeals than housewares or clothing.

There was no relationship between total number of information cues and the number of utilitarian or value-expressive appeals. The total number of information cues increased with the length of the shopping segment.

Social and self-congruity appeals were measured in the television shopping segments. Differences were found in the number of social congruity and self-congruity forms of value-expressive appeals among product categories. Television shopping segments on housewares contained more social congruity appeals while clothing contained more self-congruity appeals.

It is proposed that the findings of this study will help consumers, home shopping marketers, consumer scientists, and television shopping behavior analysts recognize the different forms of persuasion found in television shopping segments and its application in meeting the economic and emotional needs of the consumers.
Dedicated to my family, friends, and my advisor Dr. Susan Zavotka
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It seemed endless! I have had my share of concerns of whether I would finish it at all or not. Through these trying times, one person stood by me and had confidence in my abilities. That was my advisor — Dr. Susan Zavotka. A more understanding and patient person I have never met. This dissertation would not have been possible without her support.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The growth and success of television shopping has been phenomenal and will continue to grow at a tremendous speed (Baird, 1997; Black Enterprise, 1995; “QVC Designer,” 1994; “Sofa So Good,” 1996). In 1994, the total sales from electronic retailing that included television and online shopping generated $3.2 billion (Brown, 1995; Milford, 1997). In 1996, the net sales of the QVC television shopping channel alone was $1.84 billion, with about 113,000 orders a day, and resulted in 23% growth from the previous year (“Suppliers Get Exposure On QVC,” 1997). Jupiter Communications, a media firm, has estimated the total television shopping sales to be $5 billion by the year 2005 (Underwood, 1996). In 1999, the introduction of interactive television in the United Kingdom market was predicted to become a popular home shopping tool – even more than the personal computer. The sales of interactive televisions were reported to be over £1 million in United Kingdom (“Digital TV Puts DM Into Sharper Focus,” 2000).

Need for the Study

The need to research television as a consumer shopping medium and the study of information that television shopping segments provide, arises from several reasons. In
In the past decade, technological development has led to newer home shopping alternatives for consumers. One of the new home shopping alternatives is television shopping. This research will examine the information content of television shopping segments.

Secondly, television shopping as a medium has not gained consumer attention as was expected (Underwood, 1996). This research will help television marketers gain insight into marketing appeals in television shopping segments. Thirdly, television shoppers were found to be spontaneous and impulsive shoppers (Cortese, 1995). This research will examine the different forms of persuasion that could encourage impulsive buying behavior among consumers. Fourth, a new marketing paradigm has emerged that is being incorporated as the marketing strategy of direct marketers (Schultz, Tennenbaum, & Lauterborn, 1993; Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996). This paradigm is based on creating a one-to-one relationship with consumers with the objective of inducing purchase by gaining trust, serving individual needs, and making shopping convenient. This research will study television shopping segments in the light of this new paradigm.

Growth in Information Technology

The rising popularity of the Internet, webtv, high speed cable television, and telephone lines will enable marketers to interact with consumers directly and build a one-to-one relationship with them ("Evangelizing For Enhanced TV," 2000). The introduction of interactive television in the market that provides diverse direct marketing possibilities has attracted several companies to join the direct interactive marketing bandwagon ("Digital TV Puts DM Into Sharper Focus," 2000). It is believed that
interactive television will become more popular than even the personal computer.

These huge strides in technological development, will lead to dramatic changes in the way information is transmitted and communicated to the consumers, and subsequently used by the consumers. Information has become a dominant factor in determining the why, where, what, and how consumers shop, process information, and make decisions. While consumer information has always been an important factor in consumer decision-making, the provision of information at home via television has created a need to research the nature and amount of information that these technologies will provide.

Television as a Shopping Medium

"Interactive TV combines the emotional power of television, with the customer-driven experiences that the web offers. This combination results in one technology, making no extra work for the consumer" ("Digital TV Puts DM Into Sharper Focus," 2000)

One of the principal differences between television shopping and other forms of shopping is the amount of emotional appeal that televisions use to communicate with consumers. The nature and the use of emotional appeal in television shopping segments therefore can be considered a major factor in determining television shopping success.

There are contradictory beliefs regarding the growth and success of the television shopping channel as a consumer shopping medium. Some market observers have stated that television shopping has been successful because consumers are able to: learn about products, save time, shop safely, avoid crowds and standing in long queues, and purchase products all from the comfort of their home (Claxton, 1995;
Davies, 1995; “Digital TV Puts DM Into Sharper Focus,” 2000; Eicoff, 1995; Gillett, 1970; “Home Shopping,” 1994; Lumpkin, Caballero, & Chonko, 1989; McDonald, 1995; McKay & Fletcher, 1988). Other reasons for television shopping success, include emotional gratifications such as overcoming loneliness, boredom, or seeking social interaction (Bucholtz, 1994; Cortese, 1995; Harden, 1994).

On the contrary other media critics have raised concerns about the success and growth of television as a shopping medium (Berry, 1993; Murray, 1993; Underwood, 1996). Cotton Inc. a consumer tracking firm, found that out of a sample of 900, 55% reported not to have shopped via television and did not intend to do so in the future. The annual sales of television shopping reported earlier is not considered impressive by these authors. As compared to the annual sales of Kmart and Walmart that record annual sales of $125 billion these values are indeed low (“Home Shopping,” 1994).

Television shopping poses several disadvantages to the consumer over retail shopping. Berry (1993) believes that in order for television shopping to gain popularity, television shopping has to meet a need that retail shopping does not. Other drawbacks of television shopping are the threat to consumer privacy and inability of consumers to touch, feel, and 'try' the product before purchase. Consumers associate a higher risk of purchasing from the television and there is more likelihood of dissatisfaction arising from the purchase (Berry, 1993; Kim & Lennon, 2000; McKay & Fletcher, 1988; Solomon, 1994). The disappointing level of growth and the drawbacks associated with television shopping require marketers to evaluate marketing information and consumer shopping experience that television shopping provide. This research will help direct television marketers evaluate the nature of marketing information on television shopping
segments.

**Background of Television Shoppers**

"While channel surfing, Lori Smith of Bridgewater, N.J. paused on the Home Shopping Network. An amethyst ring caught her eye and within five minutes she had ordered two – one for her and one for her mother-in-law..." ("Home Shopping," 1994, p.s6).

Previous research shows that the majority of television shoppers are women (Bucholtz, 1994; "Home alone? Home shopping," 1996; "Home Shopping," 1994; "Shopping From the Sofa," 1997; Solomon, 1994; Stanforth & Lennon, 1996), married, between 35 and 54 years, with a median annual income between $50,000 and $75,000, and are not big spenders but who are more likely to possess credit cards and buy spontaneously ("Home Shopping," 1994; McDonald, 1995; "Shopping From the Sofa," 1997). From the profile of television shoppers, it is presumed that television shopping segments are framed to meet the emotional, psychological needs of the consumers rather than the economic need to purchase an item.

Shopping motives of consumers have been identified as economic, social, recreational, and/or emotional satisfaction (Bergadaa, Faure, & Perrien, 1995; Davies, 1995; Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990; Oumlil, 1983; Tauber, 1995; Westbrook & Black, 1985). With greater strides in consumer information technology, with the recognition that consumers shop to meet various personal, social, emotional, and economic needs, and with more people turning to television as a shopping medium, not only for economic reasons but also for emotional reasons, the need to examine the amount of product and non-product (emotional) information on television shopping segments has emerged.
New Marketing Paradigm

Consumer decision-making models under certainty put forth by Geistfeld (1994) question the ability of consumers to make meaningful and consistent decisions when provided with different choices. Geistfeld reported that consumer decision-making situations revealed that consumers chose different alternatives when the information structure was changed while retaining the same meaning. He pointed out that decisions that consumers make differ with sentence framing and structuring. He reiterated the need for consumer researchers to study marketing communications and their impact on consumer decision-making.

Television shopping marketers use a soft sell approach such as the Integrated Marketing Communication technique, to create a parasocial relationship with consumers that motivate consumers to purchase from television (Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996). The Integrated Marketing Communication Model (IMC) is a new alternative to the product-based approach of 4 Ps: price, product, place, and promotion (Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996; Hodgson, 1995). The IMC focuses on 4 Cs: cost to the consumer, consumer, convenience, and communication. Television shopping segments use the IMC to create parasocial relationships that enable television hosts to develop a personal, intimate, and trusting relationship with viewers that induce them to purchase (Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996). This strategy can pose a concern for consumer advocates, researchers, and policy makers who believe that consumers could make irrational and impulsive decisions when influenced by the television host.

Framework and Objectives

Advertisements use different methods of persuasion. These methods of
persuasion are used to meet different marketing objectives such as to: (a) meet consumers' economic, social, recreational, and emotional needs, (b) create a positive attitude toward a product, brand, and shopping medium and, (c) influence consumers to purchase a product. For this study, the Johar and Sirgy (1991) classification of advertising persuasion is used. They identified two types of persuasion in marketing: *functional congruity route to persuasion* and *self-congruity route to persuasion*. A functional congruity route to persuasion aims to match the product functionalism to consumer’s practical needs for the product. This is accomplished by presenting to the consumer the *utilitarian aspects* of the product such as product features, properties, components, materials used, and so forth.

A self-congruity route to persuasion is defined as “the match between the product’s *value-expressive attributes* (product-user self-image) to the consumer’s self-concept” (Johar & Sirgy, 1991, p.24). The self-congruity route to persuasion aims to match the image of the generalized product–user to the (a) actual self-image (what the consumer perceives himself or herself to be), (b) ideal self-image of the consumer (what s/he would like to be), (c) actual social self-image (what the consumer believes others think of him or her), and/or ideal social-self-image (what the consumer would like others to think of him or her) (Johar & Sirgy, 1991). Congruity created by matching the product-user self-image and the actual and ideal self-image of the consumer is referred to as the “actual and ideal self-congruity” and the congruity created by matching the product-user self-image and the actual and ideal *social* self-image of the consumer is referred to as “actual and ideal social self-congruity” in this dissertation. Actual and ideal self-congruity satisfy the needs for self-consistency and self-esteem while actual
and ideal social self-congruity satisfy the needs for social consistency and social approval respectively.

This research, through the use of the persuasion theories of functional congruity and self-congruity explained above, endeavors to examine the information that the television shopping shows provide by classifying information cues as either utilitarian or value-expressive appeals, and comparing the information content with product category, day of the week, and length of the shopping segment. Based on this framework the objectives were defined as:

1. To study the differences in the ratio of utilitarian to value-expressive appeals in television shopping segments across product categories and between weekday or weekend;

2. To investigate the relationship between the ratio of the value-expressive to utilitarian appeals between the length of television shopping segments and across product categories;

3. To explore the relationship between the total number of information cues and the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive cues;

4. To determine the differences in the total number of information cues presented across product categories, weekday or weekend, and the length of the shopping segment;

5. To determine the ratio of social congruity to self-congruity appeals across product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the show.

**Purposes of the Study**

The study of persuasion directly affects three parties in the area of marketing
communication - consumers, direct marketers, and consumer researchers and advocates. It is not within the scope of this study to provide the most appropriate ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals or to argue the appropriate use of the marketing appeals that will enhance responsible consumption. Rather the purpose of this study is to increase the knowledge and awareness of the use of functional and self-congruity routes to persuasion in direct marketing communication specifically in the area of television shopping.

The growth of the television shopping industry and the imminent upsurge in direct interactive marketing requires the consumers, the principal group, to be aware of the methods of persuasion which can enhance or limit their shopping experience and/or their information processing.

The disadvantages that television marketers face over retail marketers and the disappointing increase in sales from television as a shopping medium require the second group, direct marketers, to evaluate their television marketing information. This research by providing empirical data will help them to analyze the motivational appeals and thereby improve their marketing strategies.

The third group consists of researchers and academicians in the area of Consumer Science and Behavior who are interested in knowing the types of persuasion adopted by marketers in television shopping in order to gain a better understanding of advertising information available to the consumer. This research also will enable consumer advocates to learn about the amount and type of information that television provided in shopping segments. This will enable them to propose policy changes if required to promote responsible consumer shopping behavior.
Implications of the Study

The comparison of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals between day of the week, product categories, and length of the shopping shows will help determine the amount and types of persuasion that television shopping shows contain. It can be inferred that a low ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals will be beneficial to the economic consumer; and a high ratio will be more enjoyed by a consumer seeking emotional, social, or recreational gratification.

The comparison of the ratios of both utilitarian to value-expressive and social congruity to self-congruity appeals among product categories, day of the week and length of the shopping segments would help consumers and marketers gain an understanding of their usage in marketing. It will also enable consumers to evaluate the types of persuasion that motivate their purchase.

The analyses of the ratios and the total number of information cues across product categories, day of the week, and length of the shopping segments enable consumer advocates and researchers to gain a better understanding of the use of advertising persuasion, and to make policy decisions as to whether they would help consumers make "responsible" decisions.

Definition of Terms

Shopping. "The acquisition of information that precedes a purchase decision" (Salomon & Koppelman, 1992, p.189). Shopping as a broader term has been frequently used in different studies and literature to include information search, acquisition, comparison of product attributes and prices, decision-making, and purchase of the product.
**Soft Sell Approach.** Warm, friendly, spontaneous communication that appears as though marketers' objective is to take personal interest in the consumer rather than sell the products. (Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996).

**Direct Marketing.** Direct marketing is an “alternative system of marketing which uses one or more advertising media to effect a measurable response and/or transaction at any location” (Direct Marketing, 1987, p.24; Lumpkin, Caballero, & Chonko, 1989, p.2). Direct marketing is predominantly used to refer to mail order or mass media advertisements (such as television and radio) that ask consumers to respond directly.

**Direct shopping** refers to shopping using direct marketing system.

**Electronic Marketing and Interactive Marketing.** Electronic marketing or shopping refers to shopping over the computer (Prodigy, America Online, or through the Internet), television (television shopping channels), videotext, and other teleshopping services.

**In-home Shopping and Home Shopping.** These terms are used interchangeably in this research. They refer to shopping from home and are inclusive of shopping using direct marketing and electronic marketing.

**Integrated Marketing Communication.** Aims to establish long-term mutually beneficial consumer-marketer relationship that leads to the creation of a parasocial relationships that motivate consumers to purchase from the marketer (Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996).

**Parasocial Relationship.** “Feelings of friendship and intimacy on the viewer's part— with remote “personae” such as soap opera regulars, news anchors, and talk-show hosts” (Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996, p.194).
Interactive Television. "A continuous construct capturing the quality of two-way communication between two parties" (Alba, Lynch, Weitz, Janiszewaki, Lutz, Sawyer, & Wood 1997, p. 38). "Interactive has specific connotation that it is interactive TV programming, meaning content or data provided simultaneously and joined with the video... It also supports information services, whether Internet or Intranet and the e-commerce potential behind that. It also includes personal TV or digital video recording" (Yates, Director of Marketing, Microsoft TV Platforms Group, in “Evangelizing For Enhanced TV,” 2000).

Functional Congruity Route to Persuasion. The match the product functionalism to consumer’s practical needs for the product. This is accomplished by presenting to the consumer the utilitarian aspects of the product such as product features, properties, components, materials used, and so forth (Johar & Sirgy, 1991).

Self-Congruity Route to Persuasion. "The match between the product’s value-expressive attributes (product-user self-image) to the consumer’s self-concept” (Johar & Sirgy, 1991, p.24). This is accomplished by presenting the value-expressiveness of the product to the consumer such as matching the product-user image to the consumer’s actual and ideal self and social concepts

Actual Self-image. What the consumer perceives himself or herself to be.

Ideal Self-image. What the consumer desires to be.

Self-congruity appeals. The match between the product-user and the consumer self-image. Self-congruity appeals can be actual self-image (what the consumer perceives to be) and ideal self-image (what the consumer would like to be).

Social congruity appeals. The match between the product-user and the
consumer social self-image. Social congruity appeals can be actual self-image (what the consumer thinks others perceives them to be) and ideal self-image (what the consumer would like others to think of them to be).
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of related literature is divided into sections:

(a) Consumer shopping behavior

(b) Consumer shopping needs and motives: Theoretical studies

(c) Information processing

(d) Information content of advertisements

(e) Television shopping impact and information potential.

The first section relates studies on consumer behavior emphasizing on different motives consumers have while shopping for products or services. This research being on motivational appeals, the review of literature begins with the role of motivation in consumer shopping behavior.

The second section is on theory of motivation. Stemming from the studies on consumer shopping motives, theories have been developed in the field of consumer behavior that classify the different motives consumers have been known to exhibit. The section begins with a brief definition and classification of consumer needs, which are the driving forces behind consumer motives.
The third section is on information processing. Once consumers are motivated to make a purchase, they begin to process information. Information searching and processing depend on the type of product. The section explores the effect of product type on consumer information search and processing. From literature stated in this section, type of product was hypothesized to be a significant factor in determining how consumers use information. It is to be remembered that based on this literature, type of product is used as an independent variable in this study.

The next section examines the factors that influence the amount of information that advertisements contain. The section specifically explores the day of the week and length of the shopping segment in influencing the amount or content of information in advertisements.

The last section wraps up the review of literature with history, development, and the present scenario of shopping at home and specifically television shopping. A discussion of the demographic picture of television shoppers is presented to the reader with the intention of providing a general image of a television shopper. The general demographic picture of television shoppers allows (a) marketers to identify their target consumer, (b) consumer researchers and behavior analysts to draw an image of television shoppers, and (c) consumer advocates to take into consideration the demographic characteristics of television shoppers while making policy decisions.

**Consumer Shopping Behavior**

Information in the marketplace motivates consumer behavior. Consumers' decision making is not only determined by the amount and availability of information but also by the shopping experience that motivates the consumer to make a purchase. Motives play an important role in determining consumers' purchase decisions. Not all
consumers shop to obtain just product information. For example, Tauber (1995), put
forth several consumer shopping motives. They were: “role playing, diversion from the
routine of daily life, self gratification, learning about new trends in the market place,
physical activity, and sensory stimulation” (p.3).

Davies (1995) classifies shoppers based on motives and goals of the shopping
jaunt. In the presence of specific goals, shopping can be a planned or an economic
activity. When consumers shop for food and other essentials they most often plan what
has to be purchased. When purchasing is not the underlying goal, but is a secondary
activity, shopping is unplanned. When consumers visit the shopping location for travel,
work, or leisure and shop depending on time availability, crowd density, products sold
and the attention the products attract, shopping is recreational and non-economic.
When shopping is done for leisure, products that contribute to enjoyment and
complement the leisure activity are more likely to be purchased. Other factors that are
likely to influence shopping are: time available, crowding, and ability to exit from the
primary activity (Davies, 1995).

In marketing research, Dawson, Bloch and Ridgway (1990) and Westbrook and
Black (1985) classified motives as product-oriented motives, experiential motives, and a
combination of both. Studying psychological factors that affect retail-shopping
outcomes, the authors stated that while pre-existing motives propel shopping activity,
emotions influence shopping choice and preference.

A product-oriented motive is characterized by a desire to acquire product
information, search for more information about unique products or services, and see new
products. It also may include a search for the ‘best’ price, and updating old knowledge
with the new. An experiential motive is the desire to shop for recreational purposes or to
derive hedonic pleasure. Some of the examples stated by Dawson, Bloch, and Ridgway (1990) included watching other people, enjoying being amidst people, producing a source of entertainment, meeting and seeing new people, getting out of the house, and seeing interesting sights and smells. The third type of motive is a combination of gathering information and at the same time experiencing pleasure (Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990). While studying the retail-store shopping motives of consumers, these authors found that product motives were strong motivators of purchase behavior and experiential motives can impede purchase outcome. They concluded that a transient emotional state of pleasure and arousal accelerates satisfaction by entailing cognitive mental operations. However they may not motivate purchase.

In sociological research, Bergadaa, Faure, and Perrien (1995) classified five types of shoppers: (a) economic, (b) social, (c) recreational, (d) ethical, and (f) apathetic. The economic shopper shops to satisfy the economic need to purchase a product or a service; the social shopper enjoys the interpersonal interaction with people; the recreational shopper perceives shopping as a leisure time activity; the ethical shopper feels obliged to buy or visit a certain store; and the apathetic shopper dislikes shopping. The authors, studying involvement as an enduring motivational propensity to engage in shopping, found that women, elderly, retired or unemployed, were more involved than others in shopping as an economic, leisure, or social activity. The number of economic shoppers was lower among married couples with young children and persons between ages 31 and 45 years. People of higher income groups shopped less to socialize than others. The study found that while more women were economic shoppers, more men were apathetic to shopping. While 18% were ethical shoppers, apathetic shoppers constituted 17% of the sample. The study reported that shopping motives overlap. Sixty percent of the
shoppers were found to have economic, social, and leisure shopping motives. Their findings suggested that more than socio-demographic characteristics, psychology can play an important role in explaining shopping involvement.

The above-mentioned classification is similar to that of Stone (1954) as reported by Oumllil (1983), shoppers were found to be economic (33% of the women interviewed), personalizing (28%), ethical (18%), and apathetic (17%). An economic shopper is more likely to learn and evaluate the product and store in terms of quality, price, and variety offered. A personalizing shopper emphasizes personal contact to form relationships. Ethical shoppers do what they think is their duty. Stone’s study found that consumers who belonged to the higher socio-economic group were more likely to be ethical shoppers while those who belonged to the lower socio-economic group were apathetic shoppers. New residents in the neighborhood were more likely to be personalized shoppers (Oumllil, 1983).

From the above literature, it could be summarized that women more than men enjoy shopping. Women shop for a variety of reasons such as to compare prices, to obtain the best price, to pass leisure time, to socialize and so on. Men on the other hand shop for the sole goal of having to buy the product and do not see shopping as meeting any other socializing, recreational, or economic need. Shopping is also used as an activity performed to accomplish other objectives such as getting to know people in the neighborhood.

Lesser and Hughes (1986) while identifying seven shopper profiles found that 15% of their sample did not enjoy outdoor shopping, 13% enjoyed outdoor shopping, 10% exhibited loyalty in brand/store selection, and 14% were traditional shoppers enjoying shopping and being not price sensitive, 9% were individualistic shoppers, 10%
were price shoppers, and 7% were apathetic shoppers.

Consumers are seldom alike and seldom shop alike. Marketing and sociology research has found that consumers shop for varied reasons. Often shopping is not limited to gaining product information but also to satisfying personal and social needs (Bergadaa, Faure, & Perrien, 1995; Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990; Oumil, 1983). However, these studies on shopping motives illustrate that consumers in general shop for both emotional gratification and economic benefits.

Since the focus of this research is on motivational appeals in television shopping, the next few paragraphs briefly delve into the home shopping motives of consumers. Do home shopping motives differ from those in the retail store? This differentiation is important to prevent generalizations about shopper motives and to determine the general motives of shoppers and the unique motives of home shoppers. This section will explain why certain consumers shop from home, while others do not, and what features of the media attract certain segments of consumers. What are the unique motives of the home shoppers and how does the media address these motives? With this goal in mind, the following narration illustrates the commonality and uniqueness of consumer retail and home shopping motives.

**Consumer Home Shopping Behavior**

Consumers' shopping behaviors change when there is a simultaneous change in their attitudes, perceptions of the given shopping medium, and an understanding of it. Attitudes and perception of consumers undergo change when their needs and motives are met by the new medium. Different shopping media motivate consumers differently. The following studies illustrate how consumers' home shopping behavior is driven by their needs and motives.
Home shoppers have distinct needs and motives that drive their shopping behavior. McDonald (1995) classified television home shoppers based on their need and motivation for product information, credibility, recreation, entertainment, and social interaction. In his cross-cultural study, he concluded that 30% of the home shoppers were personal shoppers, 22% reliant shoppers, 14% entertainment shoppers, 10% recreational shoppers, and 8% social shoppers. Personal shoppers attached importance to product value, features, convenience and personal interaction with the host. Reliant shoppers counted less on host conversations and more on product information, demonstrations, and credibility. Entertainment shoppers on the other hand shopped to retrieve product information, features, and enjoy interaction with television personalities. Recreational shoppers derived pleasure from shopping and gave less importance to convenience, credibility, and variety. Lastly, social shoppers shopped solely for interacting with the television personality and listening to host-customer interactions.

Recent studies of online shopping concluded that Internet users are assisted when web sites provide information as well as entertainment, when the information is organized in terms of its purpose, and they are designed in such a way as to facilitate its use and execution (Eighmey, 1997; Eighmey & McCord, 1998). Entertainment value was found to be a factor that most users desired in the web sites. The other factors that consumers valued were personal involvement and personal relevance. Information value and interactivity (relationship building through the web site) were not considered as important factors by the consumers (Eighmey, 1997; Eighmey & McCord, 1998).

In a study television shoppers were surveyed to determine the uses and gratifications that they derived from watching and purchasing from the television (Cortese, 1995). The study found that several needs and motives of the consumers were
reported to be satisfied by watching television-shopping shows. Based on the motives studied, television-shopping viewers watched television shopping segments to derive entertainment and believed that products available on the television shopping segments were competitive in prices. Viewers also reported that they enjoyed interacting with the hosts, and believed that they saved time shopping from home, and were able to learn more about the product than they would otherwise. Several other factors were found to influence their shopping style. Television viewers were less mobile, more lonely, more bored, and required greater social interaction than non-television shoppers, and found television shopping segments to meet these needs. However, those who bought over the television were more often compulsive buyers who shopped because they enjoyed shopping and more often made impulsive purchases than those who watched television shows but did not make a purchase. On the other hand those who watched television shopping segments without making any purchases were less compulsive/impulsive buyers than those who made purchases and were more likely to make planned purchases (Cortese, 1995). This finding was similar to that of Harden (1994). Harden in her study on apparel shopping, found that older shoppers shopped to overcome boredom and loneliness, and younger shoppers for more economic reasons.

The growth of the information age has expanded the ways that consumers can shop. Previous literature has emphasized that consumers do not shop for the same reasons but seek to satisfy different needs. These shopping style changes and differing consumer characteristics make it imperative for marketers to structure their home shopping methods to meet the changing consumer attitudes and needs for shopping. The function of providing shopping experiences in the marketplace is not just to inform consumers of the product and purchase, but also to meet recreational, social, and
emotional needs.

Television shoppers differ from retail shoppers in seeking entertainment during the process of shopping. Television shoppers however also can be price conscious; their motives for shopping over the television are not driven by economics. The growth of the information age has expanded the ways that consumers can shop. Previous literature has emphasized that consumers do not shop for the same reasons but seek to satisfy different needs. These shopping style changes and differing consumer characteristics make it imperative for marketers to structure their home shopping methods to meet the changing consumer attitudes and needs for shopping. These studies emphasize the need for television shopping marketers to provide shopping experiences in the marketplace that makes shopping enjoyable and not just inform consumers of the product and purchase. The importance of television shopping marketers to meet recreational, social, and emotional needs of consumers is emphasized.

It should be emphasized that retail shoppers and television shoppers do not form exclusive groups. It is recognized that television shoppers also can enjoy retail shopping. However not all retail shoppers may enjoy television shopping. Moreover, television shoppers may feel that certain needs are being met by television shopping segments that attract them to that medium. This is illustrated by the following study.

In 1997, a study was conducted to determine the attitudes toward television shopping and store shopping (Eastlick & Liu, 1997). One thousand U.S. households were randomly selected and surveyed. Using the Fishbein model, cognitive and affective attitudes toward the attributes of television shopping programs were determined. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used for 24 attributes falling under the five categories of price (low price, competitive prices, good markdowns, value of price), merchandise

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(popular brand names, wide selection, quality merchandise, dependable products, fashionable styles), retailer atmosphere/entertainment (entertaining, interesting, pleasant, exciting place/way in which to shop), selling service (helpful, knowledgeable, likeable salesperson/spokesperson, presentation styles), and general service (return policy, accepts credit cards, convenient shopping hours, quick way to locate products, quick deliveries). Attitudes for each category were summed across the 24 attributes and a mean score derived. The study found that attitude towards store shopping and other home shopping methods was not a significant predictor of whether a person had a positive attitude toward television shopping or not. On the other hand, attitudes toward television shopping and store shopping were found to be positively correlated. Eastlick and Liu (1997) compared store characteristics and television shopping program characteristics to consumer shopping attitudes. They found that there existed a strong relationship between consumer attitude toward the store and television shopping characteristics strongly influenced their intention to shop through that medium (Eastlick & Liu, 1997). In other words, consumers were more likely to shop through television if they had a positive attitude toward television program attributes and were less likely to shop over television if they had a negative perception of television shopping programs.

In summary, consumers' attitudes and inclinations to shop via television are influenced by the information supplied by that medium, usefulness of the shopping medium in meeting unmet needs and motivating the consumer to shop. In an age where there are several home shopping and store shopping options open to the consumer, and in an age where consumers spend less time in shopping activities, television shopping will prove to be attractive only if it provides the same shopping experience or a unique experience from retail shopping.
Consumers' Shopping Needs and Motives: Theoretical Studies

This section helps to understand the different classifications of motives that consumer behavior researchers have framed. The framework used in this study is however, explained in Chapter 3.

This section describes two motivation models: The Motivation Opportunity Ability Model (MOA) and Webster's classification of motives as rational and emotional. Motivation, opportunity, and ability are considered important conditions for consumer advertising processing and persuasion (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Poiesz & Robben, 1996). It is under these conditions that consumers process information based on arguments in the message. The second model that is also included in this section is the Integrated Marketing Communication Model. The IMC is an innovative marketing strategy that uses the MOA to cater to the consumer needs. Direct interactive marketing models combine the MOA model in its message execution, and IMC as its marketing framework.

Motivation, Opportunity, and Ability Model

Consumer behavior in all forms of shopping, including television shopping, is influenced by motives, opportunity, and ability (Andrews, 1988; Batra & Ray, 1986; Curry & Moutinho, 1993; Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997). Therefore the following motivation theories can be applied to examine motivational appeals in television shopping segments.

Successful marketing communication takes into consideration these three factors in message formation. The purpose of motivation in a message is to address consumers' relevant values, goals, and needs and to reduce risk. While ability is exclusively related to personal capacity, capability, and proficiency in processing information, opportunity is defined as “the extent to which external conditions, unrelated to personal factors or
characteristics, are favorable or unfavorable for message processing to take place” (Poiesz & Robben, 1996, p.231). All three aspects, motivation, ability, and opportunity, influence consumer decision-making namely motives, opportunity, and ability of consumers are discussed below. However, in this section emphasis is placed on motivation as this research focuses on studying motivational appeals on television-shopping shows.

Previous sections of the literature review showed that needs and motives play an important role in consumer shopping behavior. This section will focus on the classification of needs and motives of consumers and the classification of motivational appeals that are founded on the former. It is important to have a knowledge of consumers’ needs and motives in order to understand the effects of motivational appeals among consumers.

Consumer behavior is driven by unsatisfied needs. Need is synonymous to a motive, drive, or desire. Needs have been classified differently by different authors. However, Maslow's hierarchy of needs is most widely accepted (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997). Maslow classifies needs as:

1. Physiological needs- food, water, sleep, clothes, physical activity, sex and others
2. Safety- to protect against nature, secure ones' possessions, and for comfort
3. Social/Love- to share and show affection, belongingness, acceptance
4. Egoistic/Self-esteem- to be recognized, respected by one's family and society
5. Self-actualization- to accomplish unique goals, personal achievement

Needs are ever increasing and one need replaces another. The need hierarchy represents the importance for the lower order needs to be met before higher order needs are met. Persons whose lower-order needs are not met will not be motivated by higher
order needs. However it is not essential that all lower order needs have to be met in
totality before the next higher level of needs appear to motivate the individual.

Motivation

According to Hoyer and MacInnis, “motivation is an inner force that reflects goal-
oriented arousal (1997, p.30). Motivation propels consumers to indulge in a particular
behavior, make decisions, or process information; it does not reflect consumers’ ability or
predisposition to achieve their goals. The authors propose three outcomes of motivation:
goal-oriented behavior, effortful information processing and decision-making, and felt
involvement. Motivation drives consumers to take up a particular behavior and utilize
resources to meet goals.

Motivation is a key factor that drives consumers to attend, absorb information,
process information and change attitudes towards a form of shopping behavior. The two
main types of motivation commonly used in marketing are: (a) cognitive, utilitarian, or
functional motivation and (b) emotional, affect, or value-expressive motivation. Factors
that affect motivation are, personal relevance to the consumer, values, goals and needs
of the consumer, perceived risk and consistency with existing knowledge, and attitudes.
Presenting product information can act as motivation when it creates a desire to buy.
Price, product features, and purchase plans are some of the examples of cognitive
motivation.

According to Schramm (1955 as reported by Webster, 1971, p.226), a good
message has the following characteristics:

1. Draws consumers’ attention and holds it

2. Expresses certain mutually common experiences between the communicator and
the receiver
3. Arouses consumers’ basic needs and suggests ways of satisfying those needs
4. Contains arguments to meet those needs that are acceptable and adaptable to
the consumer.

The primary objective of presenting motivational appeals is to influence the
consumer. A motivational appeal is a mode or strategy through which a need is
addressed. Needs may be appealed to the consumer by stimulating an emotion, fear,
rationalizing the need, humor, or creating a bandwagon effect. Appeals are classified in
different ways. According to Hoyer and MacInnis (1997), motivational appeals fall into
one of three categories: (a) functional appeal, (b) symbolic appeal, and (c) hedonic
appeal. Consumers’ symbolic needs arise based on the consumers’ desire to enhance
self-esteem, socialize (belong to a group), express individuality, and increase self-
concept (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997). Hedonic needs are sensory in nature. They include
needs for sex, play, novelty, sensory stimulation, cognitive stimulation, and
reinforcement (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997, p. 41). Table 2.1 shows the different forms of
appeals and their types according to Hoyer and MacInnis. The needs that each appeal
satisfies are drawn from an understanding of this literature.
### Table 2.1: Classification of Appeals According to Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appeal</th>
<th>Underlying Need that is Met</th>
<th>Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>Consumer’s Need to Know, Safety and Security - To prevent financial, physical risk</td>
<td>Features of the Product, Price and Payment Methods, Care and Maintenance,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic</td>
<td>Consumer’s desire to enhance self-esteem, Socialize (belong to a group), Express individuality, and Increase self-concept</td>
<td>Emblematic, Role acquisition, Connectedness, Expressiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedonic</td>
<td>Sexual desire, Play, Hunger, Laughter, Fear, other emotions</td>
<td>Sex, Humor, Fear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Symbolic appeal is the presentation of a product using the need for consumers to belong to a social, cultural, or economic group. Symbolic messages can be emblematic when they say something about a geographic location, culture, reference group, or gender that enable consumers to relate (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997). Role acquisition, connectedness, and expressiveness needs of the consumer are motivated through the use of appeals that symbolize roles that they wish to play, groups or events they would like to be connected to, and expressions that relate to their self-image respectively.

**Rational and Emotional Motivation**

According to Webster (1971) motives can be classified as (a) rational (cognitive) or (b) emotional (affective). Affect includes emotional motivation. It includes all aspects of a message that enhance the presentation of the message, add meaning that
is relevant to the consumer, motivate, or facilitate information processing. Affective involvement is when the motivational appeals render an emotional experience in consumers. Affect could be an influence when the objective is to change consumers' attitude, knowledge, interest, and motivate consumers to buy through television. It is not clear whether influencing consumers emotionally is right or wrong, as consumers with different shopping motives seek shopping for different reasons.

An emotional appeal uses sentimental and rhetoric language while a rational appeal is based on reason and provides supporting evidence for the claims made. It is believed that emotional appeal attracts attention, holds attention, and facilitates comprehension while rational appeal ensures acceptance of the message (Webster, 1971). Threat appeal is a form of emotional appeal that suggests unfavorable consequences that will occur if the consumer does not follow the directions in the message. For a threat appeal to be effective, the threat should be relevant to the consumer— the threat has to be something a receiver fears; should have a high probability of affecting the receiver, and the solution given should be acceptable and adaptable to the receiver. Connectedness urges receivers to behave in a certain way because others are doing so. This is based on the assumption that consumers will like to imitate what a majority of others are doing and conform to the general opinions and norms of the society. Humor appeals to the receiver's need for sensory stimulation. The different forms of appeals, the need they satisfy and their purpose are illustrated in Table 2.2.
Motivational Appeal | Consumer's Need (borrowed from Maslow's Needs) | Factors that increase effectiveness
---|---|---
Rational | Physiological need | Accurate, adequate, convincing information
Emotional | Love/self-esteem need | Appealing to a majority, relevant, convincing, attracts & holds attention
Threat | Safety need | Relevant, suggesting a solution, congruity between the threat and solution, high probability of threat
Bandwagon | Love/self-esteem/social approval need | Convincing others' behavior; how being a part of the society is important
Expressiveness | Self-actualization need | Convincing of being a symbol of accomplishment, personal achievement, prestige
Humor | Physiological need | Consistent with the message, helps hold attention, not violate norms

Table 2.2: Motivational Appeals, Consumer Needs, and Effectiveness (adapted from Webster, 1971).
Emotional motivation can be in the form of influence. The marketer can use different forms to influences (motivational appeals) to meet a consumer motive. Stern and Scheer (1992) who studied the use of power and influence in channel research proposed different types of influences. They recognized that the use of influence may or may not be a successful tactic in bringing about change in consumer behavior until the consumers recognize and acknowledge it. Influence can be obtrusive or unobtrusive and intentional or unintentional. Studying the unobtrusive or unintentional use of influence and power is not useful because unobtrusive influence has no effect.

Unobtrusive power/influence occurs when the host uses environmental manipulation and takes credit for influencing the consumer's behavior but the consumer believes to have made an autonomous decision (Stern & Scheer, 1992). However, if the host does not know the reason for the consumer behavior change, the whole effort is uninformative. Another situation that is not worthwhile is when the host unintentionally influences the consumer.

Influence can also be contingent or noncontingent. Contingent influence occurs when the host uses influence tactics that are dependent on consumer's compliance or noncompliance. Noncontingent influence is the use of influence tactics that are noncontingent or nondependent on a consumers' reaction.

Valence of influence. Positive influence is the bestowal of a reward or a relief while a negative influence is the bestowal of a punishment or a penalty - consequences that a consumer would like to gain or avoid respectively. From a consumer's perspective it is necessary to learn the different influence tactics that are used to change behavior.
"A positive exercise of power occurs when P (principal communicator) rewards T (the target). P attempts to achieve positive influence by exercising of resources that T evaluates as desirable (reward) or by discontinuing the exercise of resources that T evaluates as undesirable (relief) the provision of punishment or penalty is a negative exercise of power. P attempts to achieve negative influence by exercising resources that T perceives as undesirable (punishment) or by discontinuing a practice that T considers desirable (penalty)" (Stern & Scheer, 1992, p. 265).

The study of different types of influence has important effects on decisions consumers make. Use of relief (revoking a punishment) instead of reward (giving information, discounts) is cost effective for the principal communicator (P) while it is not for the target (T). Similarly, punishment (taking legal action), a form of fear appeal, is less credible, socially or politically less acceptable than penalty (discontinuation of a discount). Various studies in channel research reveal that greater satisfaction and less channel conflict is derived when positive influence is used rather than the use of negative influence (Stern & Scheer, 1992, p. 265). Table 2.3 shows that when the influencer uses a desirable appeal and bestows the consumer with a positive experience, there is a positive reaction from the consumer. For example providing price discounts to the consumer acts as a desirable incentive for consumers to act. When they earn this incentive, and receive the reward, the action is considered positive and encourages them to repeat this action in the future. However, if the incentive is not awarded as promised, the experience discourages the consumer.
Table 2.3: Taxonomy of Sanctions (Stem & Scheer, 1992, p.246)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influencer</th>
<th>Sanction</th>
<th>Valence of influence resource exercise</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Desirable</td>
<td>Bestowed</td>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desirable</td>
<td>Withdrawn</td>
<td>Penalty</td>
<td>Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undesirable</td>
<td>Bestowed</td>
<td>Punishment</td>
<td>Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undesirable</td>
<td>Withdrawn</td>
<td>Relief</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Noncontingent influence can take place in two ways: providing positive or negative sanctions unconditionally and by alerting the consumer of the positive and/or negative consequences if the consumer complies or does not comply. The provision of product information to the consumer to motivate purchase is a noncontingent positive influence. The use of providing negative consequences if the purchase is not made is a noncontingent negative influence. Hosts use of noncontingent influence strategies could be coercive or noncoercive. Coercive strategies include threats, promises, and legalistic pleas while noncoercive strategies include requests, and information exchange (Stem & Scheer, 1992, p. 267). Apart from the words used, the intonation can change a noncoercive strategy to a coercive strategy and vice versa. A noncontingent influence is positively framed when it takes the form of a recommendation strategy. An example of such a message is: 'If you purchase product A, you will get a free gift' while a negatively
framed influence would read: 'If you do not purchase product A, you will not get a free gift.' The difference in message shows whether the host emphasizes the positive or the negative consequences of making a purchase decision.

The Review of literature shows that consumers have different needs. These needs have been classified and recognized broadly as those that are basic to their living such as food, shelter, clothing, safety, security, humor, physical desire, and love, and those that enhance their living such as self-esteem, social approval, social connectedness, and so on. According to the Motivation Opportunity and Ability Model, factors of motivation, opportunity, and ability influence consumer decision-making and information processing. While motivation helps draw attention, holds attention, drives consumers to make a decision, and induces purchase, opportunity factors facilitate information processing, and ability refers to the consumer’s competence in processing information and making a purchase. Webster’s (1971) classification of motivational appeals as rational and emotional is similar to Hoyer and MacInnis (1997) classification of functional and symbolic. Appeals are communicated to the consumer using influence. The marketer may threaten, bestow a reward, or confer a punishment to motivate the consumer to make a decision and to act. This research will study the motivational factors present in television shopping segments that induce consumers to indulge in purchasing from the medium. The motivational factors are called “appeals” in this dissertation and their classification is elaborated in Chapter 3. The next section elaborates on the Integrated Marketing Communication Model, which is a new paradigm in the field of Marketing. This consumer-focused paradigm emphasizes meeting consumers’ needs of product expectations, cost, convenience of purchase, and need for information. This section is introduced to explain the importance of studying emotional
appeal and its place in IMC.

**Integrated Marketing Communication Model**

While factors such as ability and opportunity are recognized to facilitate information processing and decision-making, they are not included as a part of this research study. This study focuses on the nature and amount of motivational appeal in television shopping segments. Television shopping segments as mentioned earlier use the *Integrated Marketing Communication Model*. This model is built on the MOA model explained above in that the IMC uses a hierarchy of effects of motivation to produce purchase decisions. This is explained below.

IMC is a new alternative concept in marketing strategy to product-based approach of 4-ps: price, product, place and promotion. IMC focuses on 4 Cs: consumer, cost to the consumer, convenience and communication. The model emphasizes the need to understand: (a) needs and wants (*consumer*), (b) ability and willingness to buy (*cost to the consumer*), (c) ease in accessing information and the product (*convenience*), and (d) how to market the product or service to them (*communicate*) (Schultz, Tennenbaum, & Lauterborn, 1993). The future of direct marketing is based on creating a dialogue between the marketer and the consumer and not continuing the current monologue presented to the consumer through print, audio, and visual media such as the newspaper, magazines, direct mail, radio, or television (Spalter, 1995). Spalter puts forth the seven-I concept that all interactive marketers should use:

(a) Interconnection

(b) Interface

(c) Interactivity

(d) Involvement

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Interconnection is the creation of marketplaces where large networks are interconnected forming a labyrinth of information highways. An interface enables consumer to "move around" the electronic marketplace with ease and speed. A sound interface will be user-friendly, secure, interesting to the consumer, assist in searching, retrieving information, evaluating decision alternatives, making a decision, and motivating a post-purchase behavior. Interactivity means that the consumers (a) have control over the choice of content they are viewing, (b) are able to "chat" or communicate in real-time with one or more individuals/marketers; (c) ask and respond to questions they are interested in to gather more information. Involvement is the key to bringing consumers to the shopping site, keeping their attention, and producing a personal pitch that will result in a purchase. This is accomplished through the use of hierarchy of effects model.

Figure 2.1 Hierarchy of Effects Model (Spalter, 1995).
The hierarchy of effects model illustrated above explains the relationship between cognitive and affective motivation. While cognitive motivation enables awareness and knowledge of the product, affective motivation makes a consumer develop a liking and preference for the product, and a conviction to purchase the product.

The goal of direct marketing is to provide consumers with the information that they require at the time and place demanded in a way that would capture their attention and interest. Individualism is the provision of customizing products and services to meet individual needs, and provide effective advertising that will capture individual interest. This is accomplished by gathering individual information through interconnection, interface, interactivity, and involvement and creating consumer databases of information. Lastly integrity is the ensuring that consumer information is kept confidential, their transactions are made secure, and privacy issues are maintained. Based on this theory television shopping marketers use motivational tactics of the soft-sell approach (Stephens, Hill, & Bergman, 1996). Chapter 3 elaborates on the literature on motivational appeals and their classification that is used in this research.

Consumers not only shop for a variety of reasons but also process information in different ways. Consumers perceive different stimuli in the market place. Depending upon what they perceive, they add or subtract to their knowledge and create a picture that is unique. The following part of the review illustrates consumer information processing differences and the factors that influence these differences. These differences in consumer information searching and processing illustrate that apart from consumer differences, product category plays an important role in what information is used, how it is used, and how is affects consumer decisions.
Information Processing

In a study conducted by Biehal (1983), on the design of consumer information systems, consumer information processing was described to include problem recognition, decision framing, external information search, information integration, and choice. Recognition of the problem is the first step in information processing when the consumer experiences a desired state (to purchase a product) that is different from the present state. Once this desire is defined (that is, what the desire is) the consumer then engages in decision framing (that is, how this desire is to be satisfied), by using prior knowledge to (a) decide on choice alternatives (product brands), (b) stipulate attributes on which to base the evaluation of these alternatives, (c) rank the importance of these attributes in measuring the relative value of each alternative, and (d) establish the cut-off points for each attribute. In the external information search stage, the consumer retrieves information from stores, media, friends, family, and salespeople. Information integration is the process in which the consumer compares and combines information in hand and weighs each alternative. In the final stage of information processing, the consumer makes a choice based on the outcomes of the previous four stages. Information processing enables consumer decision-making. When motivation is absent, consumers do not recognize the need to process information or make a decision. In the presence of marketing motivation, several factors extraneous to motivational appeals have been recognized to influence information processing and decision-making. The following section illustrates the different factors that influence consumer information processing.

Factors that Influence Consumer Information Use

Factors that influence information processing are believed to include: type of
product, cost of information search, prior knowledge, cost of product, the nature of the buyer, and consumer information perception.

Type of Product. Nelson (1970) classifies goods as experience goods and search goods based on how information of the good is acquired. In shopping for certain goods such as automobiles, consumers search for information before making a purchase. Automobiles are considered search goods. For certain other products such as a can of tuna, consumers obtain information on the quality and taste of tuna only after consumption. In such instances, these goods are called "experience goods". In this case the satisfaction that the consumer gains from the product/service is evaluated through experience. Experience products include food and food products, sanitary products, detergents, and toiletries. These are inexpensive goods to the consumer who is willing to realize the value by trial and error. Certain products such as appliances, expensive clothes, and jewelry require a search to gain information. These are relatively expensive goods. Consumers gain information about these goods from external sources such as friends, relatives, salespersons, and the media. Darby and Karni (1973) have identified a third type of product, called credence products. They define credence products as those that are difficult to evaluate by immature consumers even after consumption. An example of credence product would be life insurance.

In studies on information acquisition and use behavior for expensive and/or durable goods, the underlying differences in search patterns for information have considered (a) individual differences and environmental variables (Capon & Burke, 1977) and (b) personality traits, situational, and product characteristics (Claxton, Fry, & Portis, 1974). Both of the studies hypothesized that these factors would influence the sources sought, the nature of the search, order of search, and the amount and nature of
information obtained. Comparing the amount of information consumers use to purchase non-durables and durables, the authors concluded that in the purchase of durables, consumers use 38.2% of available information. In contrast, consumers use only 10% of available information to make a decision to purchase a non-durable product. This result suggests that consumers are more selective in using information while shopping for a durable than a non-durable item. Thus the amount of information consumers searched for was largely dependent on the product type.

In purchasing a durable item, the amount of information consumers used was determined by the amount and number of product attributes provided to them. The greater the number provided, the greater the number of attributes considered in the decision-making process. However, increased information availability did not influence the depth of search. Consumers were tested to see which of the three types of information processing techniques they used. Among the three information-processing techniques, namely, Choice by Processing Brands (CPB), Choice by Processing Attributes (CPA), and Choice by Processing Feedback (CPF), CPA was found to be the most common method of information processing (Capon & Burke, 1977).

Claxton, Fry, and Portis (1974) using three constructs (personality characteristics, situational characteristics and product characteristics) conducted a survey of 546 housewives who had purchased a large household durable in the last year in Canada. More than half the sample used retail stores to gain information while less than 40% mentioned family, advertisements, or salesmen as sources of information. A majority of

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1 Personality traits included consumers' interests, and prior knowledge, which would determine the sources, sought, the nature of the search, the amount and nature of information obtained. Situational characteristics included economic resources and constraints, and nature of the market condition for the product. Product characteristics included cost, and utility.
the sample considered alternate brands while purchasing the product. Price, style, quality, and size were considered to be important criteria in the selection process. Brand was considered a criterion by a very small percent of the sample (2%). The average number of visits consumers made to a store before purchasing was less than three. A consumer deliberated for an average of two weeks before making a purchase. The type of product and the amount of information provided to the consumer largely determines consumer information processing. In the purchase of durable expensive (search) goods, consumers tend to spend more time searching, acquiring, and processing information than for inexpensive experience goods. More consumers process information by selecting from product attributes than by brand or from information derived from others. This suggests that television shopping channels need to provide more information on product attributes to the consumers to facilitate consumer information processing.

Cost of Search. Using an economic model to determine the amount of search that a consumer will perform Stigler (1961), stated that the price a consumer will settle for is dependent upon the benefits from the search, and the extent of perceived price dispersion relative to the cost of search. The external search is influenced by three constructs, (a) benefits of conducting an external search, (b) costs of conducting it, and (c) individual-specific characteristics; for example, tastes and needs (Punj & Staelin, 1983). In the purchase of automobiles, the Amount of External Information Search (AEIS) is believed to be a function of the cost of the external search, usable prior knowledge, number of choices available, desire to seek information, and prior memory structure. Excluding the cost of the external search and usable prior knowledge all variables were hypothesized to increase the information search. Cost of external search included direct and indirect costs. They concluded that when costs are high, the
consumer shortens the search and makes a decision with insufficient information or
sometimes postpones the decision. Punj and Staelin (1983, p.368), defined search costs
as the sum total of all direct and indirect costs to participating household members for
conducting the external search. The authors found that the amount of external
information search was significantly negatively related to the cost of search and
positively to cost savings. According to Zimmerman and Geistfeld (1984), the cost of
search is also related to the consumer's wage rate. When the wage rate is high, a
consumer is less inclined to spend more time searching for information. The implication
of this is that when the wage rate is low and if the potential savings from the information
search is higher than the opportunity cost, the consumer will engage in more searches.
These studies illustrate that consumers are more likely to make a purchase decision
when information is inexpensive. The cost of obtaining information can be greatly
reduced when television shopping segments provide the amount and type of information
that consumers seek. Understanding what consumers' information needs are can greatly
induce purchase.

**Prior Knowledge.** Prior knowledge of decision criteria and other relevant
information stored in memory can reduce information search and/or can increase it.
First, a consumer's search for information is decreased when the consumer already
possesses the relevant information. Secondly, a consumer's search is *increased* when
the knowledge motivates search for more information. Autonomous decision-making is
determined by the amount of prior knowledge a consumer possesses. When consumers
know what product attributes to look for and know the relative importance of each
attribute in the selection of a product, they are able to weigh each product relative to the
importance of its attributes and their desirability to suit perceived needs. On the other
hand for consumers whose knowledge of product attributes is limited, decision-making is
restricted to attributes they are familiar with or to those that are commonly reported
(Hill, King, & Cohen, 1996). An example would be, a person's knowledge of different
parts of an automobile would motivate the consumer to gain more information about the
condition/performance of each of these parts before the purchase. When consumers
have greater cognitive capacity, they wish to search for more information regarding more
product characteristics than consumers whose knowledge is limited (Punj & Staelin,
1983).

Thirdly, information search, according to Punj and Staelin, is influenced by
consumers' feasible set of alternatives. This is defined as the number of viable
alternatives available to a household, taking into consideration the household's pre-
search tastes, family requirements, and family constraints (Punj & Staelin, 1983, p. 368).
Financial constraints/budget allocations, household needs, and tastes, are taken into
account in determining the feasible set.

The fourth factor that is believed to influence information search, the authors put
forth is the desire to seek more information. Consumers pursue more information when
they perceive information as "knowledge" and spend time and effort to learn more to
expand this knowledge. Their benefit is more intrinsic in nature rather than being
monetary. Consumers who are capable of accessing and processing information
effectively are more likely to benefit from an information search than others. Benefits of
an information search are obtaining the best model of the product that best suits the
consumers' needs and obtaining the product at the best possible price. The first type of
benefit can be measured by using a households' preference function and the second type
of benefit is determined by calculating the cost savings. Cost savings is defined as "the
difference between the actual price of the product paid by a particular household buying a specific model and the actual price paid by other households in buying the same model” (Punj & Staelin, 1983, p. 369). The study concluded that satisfaction among consumers was greater when they were able to obtain cost savings.

Overall the authors found that prior relevant knowledge was the most important factor in amount of search conducted while desire to seek more information ranked second, third was size of the feasible set, fourth was cost of external search.

Cost of the Product. Zimmerman and Geistfeld, (1984) found that the cost of the product significantly affects the search efforts of the consumers. Using a panel data of 311 young couples from the Survey Research Laboratory, they studied the economic factors that influenced search for information of durable goods. They found that consumers spent more effort on information search when the cost of the product was a considerable proportion of their income.

Nature of the Buyer. The economic repercussions are found to be high when consumers make decisions with inadequate or no information (Bryant and Gerner, 1978). Consumers search and derive information several ways. Their drive to search for information is prompted by different reasons. Some consumers search for information with the objective of clarifying what they know or do not know. Others search to simplify the decision making process. Some consumers conduct a more thorough search process while some stop short of visiting more than one shop. According to Newman (1977), consumers become involved in a search process when they (a) consider the purchase important, (b) perceive a need to know more about the purchase, and (c) perceive the availability and use of the information. The type and amount of search that a consumer performs depends on the type of product and cost of the search.
Claxton, Fry, and Portis (1974) in their study on furniture buying behavior, sought to answer two main questions in furniture buying: what factors were considered before purchase, and how they were considered. In order to operationalize these questions, four composite variables were used. These included: (a) number of alternatives considered, (b) number of features considered, (c) number of information sources used, and (d) number of stores visited/duration of the search.

Based on the nature of the buyer, three main clusters were identified. They were thorough (store intense) grouping, thorough (balanced) grouping, and non-thorough grouping. The store intense consumers (5%) were found to visit on an average about 20 furniture stores. They used more information sources and deliberated for more than a year before making their decision. More than 40% of the consumers belonged to the thorough (balanced) grouping. They consulted about three sources of information on an average, visited six stores and spent several months before furniture was purchased. The non-thorough grouping (34%), on the other hand, spent the least amount of time and effort on information gathering. These consumers differed from the thorough group in their demographic characteristics. They tended to have less education and income. The thorough buyers spent more money on their purchases, which might explain their behavior to deliberate longer and search for more information. Comparing the purchase behavior between furniture and appliances, the authors found that when buying appliances, 8% of the buyers were thorough (store intense) buyers while 27% were thorough (balanced) buyers. *This reflected that the product purchased determined to a great extent the amount of information, deliberation time, and number of stores visited in making a purchase decision.* The study also found that consumers spent less time on pre-purchase decision making when they felt an immediate need to buy the product and
more time when they were under financial constraints. The above study concludes that consumers spend less time in information processing when they feel an immediate need to purchase a product. Television shopping segments through the use of a counter that indicates the number of products available, amount of time left to purchase the product, and by making statements that imply that the prices are unbeatable and represent a one-time offer create a need to purchase the product immediately. These tactics of television shopping programs could shorten the amount of time consumers spend on information processing and could require policy implications.

Consumers’ Perceptions of Information. The type of information that consumers use depends on their perceptions of information. Perception can be defined as “the process by which an individual selects, organizes, and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1978, p.59). Perception is dependent upon the length of time, strength, and emphasis given to an individual information cue. Studying the information expectations of 4,485 student consumers in advertising, James and Alman (1996) compared information expectations of consumers from corporate, brand image, political, retail, public service, advocacy, direct response, and comparative advertising. They found that in retail advertising\(^2\) 40% of the consumers expect information about the product/service and the retailer. Most consumers did not give credence to information that directed them to a specific action. About 16% of the consumers thought puffery\(^3\) in an advertisement should be ignored while 12% thought that advertisements should contain puffery that induces purchase.

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\(^2\) Retail advertisement includes those carried out by local markets by organizations and businesses to promote sales or increase traffic (James & Alman, 1996, p.79).
On their expectations from a direct response advertisement*, 43% of the consumers felt that it should inform them about the product or service, 24% felt that method of purchase should be detailed, 23% felt puffery or emotional appeals should be ignored, 8% felt that they would like to know about the company background, and less than 2% stated that direct response advertisements should inform them about special offers or about competitors. The authors concluded that information about organization/company/retailer, product/service, are important and that 'puffery' or affective cues should be ignored.

Aaker and Norris (1982) reported that 500 respondents evaluating 524 commercials perceived only 18% of the advertisements to have information content. In an earlier study by Bauer and Greyser (1968), on perception of information content in print advertisements, consumers found only 6% of the advertisements informative. The amount of information used to process information is dependent upon the amount of information perceived by the consumer. Consumers in general, utilize product and retailer information in making a decision. They use puffery less though it may be considered important depending on its ability to create a need, facilitate information processing, and induce purchase.

While the cost of search, prior knowledge, nature of the consumers, and consumers' perceptions of information influence what information consumers use, how they use, and how much they use in making a purchase decision, is dependent upon the type of product (Capon & Burke, 1977; Claxton, Fry, & Portis, 1974; Nelson, 1970; Punj

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3 Puffery is legally defined as: “advertising or other sales representations which praise the item to be sold with subjective opinions, superlatives, or exaggerations, vaguely and generally, stating no specific facts” (Preston, 1975).
& Staelin, 1983; Zimmerman & Geistfeld, 1984). The type of products bought greatly influence the number of stores consumers visit and the amount of time they deliberate before making a purchase decision (Claxton, Fry, & Portis, 1974).

George (1987) believed that a significant factor influencing home-shopping behavior was the type of product. Certain products that require to be touched, felt, handled, smelled, or examined prior to purchase, he believed, were not viable products for the electronic shopping medium. On the other hand products that were sold via catalogs, and other non-store retailing outlets were potential products for the electronic medium. The following study illustrates the important information cues that consumers seek while purchasing apparel.

In a study conducted by Kim and Lennon (2000) on the effects of perceived amount of information on perceived risks and intention to purchase in apparel purchase, the authors found that the perceived amount of information was a significant predictor of both perceived amount of risks and purchase intention. They found that their sample of 128 middle aged women felt that in apparel shopping, if salespeople were available the following types of information would be gathered: fabric related information, care instructions, return policy, construction/fabric quality, and size. The participants also reported that if they had shopped at a retail store, they would have: tried on the garment, physically examined it, checked its construction/fabric quality, checked its care instructions, determined its fiber content, and compared prices. The sample stated that the five most important pieces of information they would seek while shopping for apparel would be: care instructions, construction quality, price, fiber content, size, fit, return.

Direct response advertisement is one that asks the reader/viewer for an immediate response to a message (James & Alman, 1996, p.79).
policy, and others such as appropriate to lifestyle, delivery time, country of origin, availability, and shipping and handling costs. The study by Kim and Lennon (2000) emphasized the need of television shopping segments to provide sufficient types and amount of information in order to reduce risks associated with home shopping and in order to meet the needs of the consumer.

Satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the purchase decision is dependent upon the type of product as well. In a television shopping study in Scandinavia, Benterud and Sto (1993) found that 59% of the shoppers were satisfied and 34% were dissatisfied with their purchases. More customers were satisfied with a kitchen knife set and kitchen utensil purchases than they were with clothing or exercise equipment.

Consumers spend more time and effort in searching for information when they perceive greater benefits from doing so. Consumers gain greater benefits from searching for information for products that are expensive and durable rather than inexpensive or non-durable. Prior knowledge also determines the amount of search a consumer conducts. Prior knowledge can increase information search and processing or it can facilitate them. When a consumer knows that a product is complex and requires learning more about its attributes, she or he is more likely to spend more time searching for that information. On the other hand, if the product is simple, and the amount of information on its attributes is considered sufficient, then a consumer may stop the search.

Lastly the cost of a product is considered to influence the information search and processing. When the cost of the search is expensive relative to the cost of the product, the consumer may stop the search and give up buying the product or buy the product and take a certain amount of risk by doing so. In the next section, factors that influence information content of consumer information is reviewed. Particular emphasis is given to
the effect of day of the week and length of the advertisement or information segment on
the informativeness of the commercial.

Information Content of Advertisements

Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977) in their study of information content of 378 randomly
selected television advertisements, used six criteria of advertising informational
adequacy to evaluate the information content derived from Howard and Hulbert (1974).

Useful information was defined as that which enabled the consumer to make an
intelligent choice between alternatives. The six criteria considered useful were
timeliness, intelligibility, relevance, truthfulness, completeness, and proper
segmentation. Based on these six criteria, 14 cues were developed. An advertisement
that contained at least one of the 14 cues was considered informative.

What is termed as ‘useful’ information corresponds to the definition of ‘utilitarian’
information or appeal in this dissertation. The 14 cues of information developed by
Stern, Resnik and Grubb (1977) from the six criteria considered by Howard and Hulbert
(1974) were:

1. Price-value: the product cost, the need satisfaction capability/dollars, its value
   retention capability,

2. Quality: product characteristics which distinguish a particular product from
   competing products based upon an objective evaluation of workmanship,
   engineering, durability, excellence of materials, structural superiority, superiority
   of personnel, attention to detail, or special services,

3. Performance: the product functions and efficiency of its functions,

4. Components or Contents: product composition, ingredients it contains, additional
   components of the product,
5. Availability: availability for purchase, time when the product will be in the market,
6. Special offers: limited-time deals, if any,
7. Taste: whether the product is made to suit the taste of a particular clientele (the opinion of the advertiser is inadequate),
8. Nutrition: nutritional content of an edible product or direct specific comparison made with other products,
9. Packaging or shape,
10. Guarantees and warranties,
11. Safety: safety features available on a particular product compared to alternative choices,
12. Independent research: results of research gathered by an independent research firm presented,
13. Company research: results of research gathered by the manufacturer and comparison with a competitor’s product, and,
14. New ideas: if new concepts are presented to the consumers, and of what advantage it is to the consumers.

Information Content. Using the above definition for information, in 1977, Stern, Resnik, and Grubb reported that more than half of the advertisements (51%) were not informative. Stern and Resnik (1991) found that the average number of cues per ad was found to be significantly greater than found in their 1977 study. The three most used informational cues were: product components or contents, performance, and price. New ideas, warranties, packaging and shape, and special offers were more often stated in ads in 1986 than in 1977.

Sepstrup’s study (1985) found that all advertisements mentioned the brand,
retailer or product name. About 96% of the ads showed the product or service. Nearly half of the ads mentioned the manufacturer name, and/or described one or more characteristics of the product. A little more than 20% mentioned the varieties of the brand or instructions to use. A very small number of ads gave information on quantity or cost (2%), where to purchase the product (6%) or the safety precautions, nutritive value or special offers (1%).

Based on the same criterion, another study was conducted by Dowling (1980), on Australian television. The study found 74% of the commercials to be informative. Reid and Rotfeld (1981) replicating the study by Resnik and Stern (1977), found 42.3% of the commercials informative. They, however, found no statistically significant difference between information content of children’s television and the average television shows.

Using the same procedure described above by Resnik and Stern (1977), Laczniak (1979) analyzed the informativeness of print commercials. He found that 92% of the 380 commercials studied were informative. His study concluded that nearly half of the sample contained more than three of the information cues under consideration.

Stern, Krugman, and Resnik (1981), analyzed 1500 different advertisements taken from 100 magazines published in the month of February, 1978. They found that more than 85% of the advertisements were informative and more than 25% of them contained more than three information cues. In a later study conducted by Pollay (1984) using a modified procedure of the Resnik and Stern (1977) measurement, it was reported that 92% of 2000 print advertisements were informative, while 78% of them contained more than three information cues.

Sepstrup (1985) collected 2,035 print advertisements and concluded that 37% of them provided price information, 43% information on composition or content, 36% on
where to buy, 26% on special offers, 15% on performance and 1% on quality, safety
warnings and independent research respectively. Comparing the information content of
print and television advertisements, Sepstrup reported that print advertisements
contained more information than television commercials. Print advertisements also were
found to contain more information of interest to the consumer than television
commercials. These included instructions for use, components/content of the product,
quality, performance, and price.

Weekday Segments Less Informative. In 1977, Stern, Resnik, and Grubb
reported that more than half of the advertisements (51%) were not informative. The
most non-informative advertisements were found to be broadcast during weekday
afternoons (67%) and weekend mornings (65%). On the other hand advertisements
broadcast during the evenings (60%) were more likely to be informative. Using the
same data, Resnik and Stern (1977) found that the proportion of advertisements
televisionized in the evenings were significantly more informative than those televised during
the day. Afternoon advertisements were least informative both during the weekends as
well as the weekdays. The authors believed that the information content of television
advertisements is related to the target audience. They stated that the non-informative
television advertisements are televised in the weekday afternoons when more adult
females are likely to watch and in weekend mornings when children are more likely to
watch. Advertisements are more likely to be informative when the audience is more
likely to be mixed adults.
In 1986, Stem and Resnik replicated their own 1977 study. They found that more commercials contained less information and focused more on brand positioning than their earlier study. Commercials aired during weekend evenings, found to be informative in their earlier study, were less so in this study.

**Household Products Contain Less Information Than Others.** While analyzing the informative content by product category, the authors found that advertisements on food, personal care, laundry, and household products were more likely to be non-informative than advertisements on institutions, toys, hobbies, transportation, and so forth (Resnik, Stem, & Grubb, 1977). Stem and Resnik in their later study, found that television advertisements for food products were less likely to be informative than other products (Stem & Resnik, 1991). Resnik and Stem (1977), on comparing the life cycle of a product to the quality of the advertisement, found that advertisements for products in the maturity state of the life-cycle, were least likely to be informative.

**Channel Type.** Using the same data as Renik, Stern, and Grubb (1977), Resnik and Stem (1977) studied the information content of television advertisements comparing the informativeness of the ads between channels, between products advertised, and between times of the day the advertisement was broadcast. On comparing the number of advertisements broadcast by the three main television networks ABC, CBS, and NBC, they found that there was no statistically significant difference. In 1986, Stem and Resnik replicated their own 1977 study. They recorded a total of 462 commercials out of which 340 were from the three network channels ABC, NBC and CBS and the remainder from cable channels A&E, CBN, ESPN, MTV, USA, and WTBS. Their study found no significant changes from their earlier findings. A comparison between cable and network channel commercials revealed that more cable ads were informative than
network channel ads. On examination of the number of cues contained in each ad, on an average, the cable contained more cues than the network ads. The cue most frequently found was price/value cue (Stern & Resnik, 1991).

With the objective of studying the usefulness of television advertising in Europe, Sepstrup (1985), collected all commercials on the two most popular television channels in Germany. The coding scheme (the same as used by Resnik & Stern, 1977) took into account all the information that was sung, spoken, written or visualized. A total of 24 information cues (seven from Resnik & Stern, 1977) were taken into account. The information cues included those that were of interest to the consumer, and those that were common to all media of advertisement (television, print, etc.). Sepstrup found that 50% of the Sky Channel commercials and 39% of the ZDF commercials were "informative".

Length of Segment. Sepstrup (1985) further found that on an average most advertisements were of 30-seconds duration and most of the commercial time was for sweets, soft drinks, food, cleaning, and personal care products. It was also found that the time duration of an advertisement and amount of information contained were not related.

Sepstrup concluded that advertisements have limited value in providing information to the consumers. However, he reasoned that the information cue presented in the advertisement was dependent upon the product. Certain cues are more important to the consumer than others depending on the product. Also, he stated that it is difficult to define what exactly is the amount of information that a consumer needs to make a decision. Therefore it is difficult to estimate the degree of informativeness of a given advertisement.
According to Sepstrup (1985), content analysis is not a useful measurement to predict how effective advertisements are in providing consumer information or to provide any idea about the informativeness of the advertisements. The object of content analysis is only to find out the maximum information potential of a message—provided the information presented in true. This is because, consumers are more likely not to have perceived all of the information cues (given the time duration of exposure, frequency, nature of the cue and consumer interest). They may not comprehend all that they may have perceived, not believe in all that they comprehended, or not remember all that they believed (Sepstrup, 1985, p. 243). Therefore a careful content analysis overestimates the amount of information the consumer would have perceived, comprehended, believed, and remembered and taken into account while making a purchase decision.

In summary, the studies on content analyses noted above evaluated advertisements based on the criterion that if an advertisement contained one or more product information cues, it was considered informative. However when consumers were asked to evaluate the informativeness, the same criteria were not used. Most consumers perceived advertisements to be informative only when they provided them with the information that they needed.

Television Shopping Impact and Information Potential

Technological innovations have promoted mass production and changed the quality of life. With increases in productivity, the goods and services that were once not available or available only to a few are made available to many through mass production. Technology also has changed the ways in which goods and services are delivered and sold to the customers.
The current period in the United States is often referred to as "the information age." The growth of the telecommunications industry having its focus on the development of the information superhighway has led to the invention of high density interactive television, webtv, the Internet, electronic decision aids, and sophisticated cable systems. These new technologies, by providing home shopping alternatives, are capable of delivering information at a high speed that is selective to individual consumer needs. These technologies have also enabled marketers to develop a personal one-to-one relationship with consumers by communicating with them using personalized approach.

Direct marketing has changed the nature of consumption over time (Sherman, 1994). One of the technological changes that has brought about changes in consumer shopping behavior is media technology. Development of media technologies has given rise to the convenience of shopping from home. Direct marketing uses telecommunications technologies such as telephone, cable, and television that have enabled personal contact with consumers and introduced new trends that have not always been possible (Reynolds, 1990). With the rapid advancement in technology, consumers will have access to information right at their doorsteps.

An article in American Demographics ("Shopping From the Sofa," 1997) stated that television shopping was not popular in the US. The article reported a study by the Aragon Consulting Group that found that six out of ten respondents surveyed had not watched a television shopping segment and only two in every five people who watched made a purchase from the television. Conversely, some are optimistic about the future of the interactive media. It is predicted that more than three million homes in Britain will have access to online services, the Internet, CD-ROM, combinations of television,
telephone and newspapers by the year 2001 (Sayers, 1995).

In 1987, it was predicted that by 1990 at least 25% of U.S. households would have some type of electronic communications and 20% of retail sales would be made electronically (George, 1987). The following narrative gives key factors that are considered important in influencing consumer home-shopping behavior.

**Information Format.** George (1987) stated that for any electronic medium to provide home shopping alternatives, the quality of information it provided has to be significantly different from what is available in the market place. The factors that he believed would influence consumers' perception of quality of information were: information sufficiency, perceived usefulness, information completeness, perceived accuracy of information, perceived credibility of prices displayed on the television screen, and perceived efforts required to obtain product information from other sources” (George, 1987, p.51).

Factors such as lack of instant gratification and loss of social/entertainment benefits consumers derive while shopping in-store were considered obstacles to in-home shopping popularity. Hill, King, and Cohen (1996) reported that apart from information adequacy, the locus of control in information selection and personality characteristics of the consumers would affect the decision to substitute in-home shopping for store shopping. Studying the use of Electronic Decision Aids (EDA) in information processing, the authors categorized EDAs as dominant and autonomy formats⁵. They hypothesized that the type of product; amount of prior knowledge, and locus of control determined use of EDAs. The study found that consumers used EDAs more for search goods than

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⁵ Dominant formats made the decision based on the consumers' needs and abilities. Autonomy format gave the consumer alternatives and asked the consumer to choose one based on their needs and abilities.
experience goods. They also found that consumers who had prior knowledge of the product preferred autonomy formats of EDAs and preferred the inclusion of educational information to make decisions.

Alba, Lynch, Weitz, Janiszewaki, Lutz, Sawyer, and Wood (1997) hypothesized that for an interactive medium to influence shopping behavior, the formats of interactive marketing media need to be studied. The authors stated that the type of information presentation was influenced by: the type of merchandise that is sold, the situation, and consumer characteristics. The following factors were considered to determine the ability of the medium to attract consumers: (a) provision of alternatives for consideration (choice), (b) presentation of alternatives that form a consideration set, (c) provision of information that help selection from the consideration set, (d) provision of information on ordering and transaction costs, and (e) provision of other benefits such as entertainment, social interaction, and personal security were stated as factors that influence the ability of a medium to attract consumers. From consumers’ point of view, Alba et al. (1997) stated that consumers should seek formats that provide useful, meaningful and reliable information even when they have to make a choice between two formats that offer the same type of products.

Meeting Consumer Needs. Comparing the merits and demerits of various shopping modes, Talarzyk (1989), reasoned that the popularity of a shopping mode depends on the ability of the medium to meet the needs of the consumer through effective motivation. He concluded that while personal service, expediency in purchase, simplicity in the method, and satisfaction from post purchase services are greater in store shopping, the evaluation of alternatives is greater through the television medium.

Strauss (1983) compared the various methods of shopping and brought out their
advantages and disadvantages to the consumer. He stated that while in-store retailing offers consumers extensive periods of time to browse for a specific product; opportunity for consumer interaction with store salespeople; and larger variety of products enabling comparative shopping; its location and limited hours of operation may not be convenient for all consumers. On the other hand, direct marketing and electronic marketing though they provide a limited variety of products do not require consumers to travel to their location but enable them to shop from the convenience of their home or office.

Electronic shopping also enables the consumer to shop for unlimited hours with no time restrictions, and enjoy extensive customer support. The shopping differences are presented in Table 2.4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shopping Type</th>
<th>Response Capability</th>
<th>Time for Interaction</th>
<th>Geographic Restrictions</th>
<th>Variety</th>
<th>Support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-store retailing</td>
<td>Limited hours</td>
<td>Extensive</td>
<td>Localized</td>
<td>Unlimited</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct marketing (Catalogue, telephone)</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Limited</td>
<td>Limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic Marketing (television, computer)</td>
<td>Unlimited</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Limited</td>
<td>Extensive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.4: Comparison of Consumer Shopping Methods (Strauss, 1983, p.41).
The above comparison was made in 1983. It is believed that direct and electronic marketing provide more features than they did more than fifteen years ago. Today, most direct marketing (catalogue and telephone) provide 24 hours customer service and electronic marketing especially via the computer providing a huge array of products that surpasses the variety found in retail stores.

**Consumer Attitude Change.** A lifestyle change is possible only when perceptions and attitudes undergo change. One of the factors that has brought about lifestyle changes and will bring about changes in the future American household is a consumers' attitude toward direct marketing (Akaah, Korgaonkar, & Lund, 1995).

The growth of television retailing in the United States has occurred as a result of several attitudinal changes among consumers. Consumers have reported several advantages of home shopping over traditional modes of store shopping. A growing number of Americans find direct shopping alternatives more convenient to retail shopping (Packaged Facts, 1996). Television shows also are believed to facilitate shopping by the provision of more choices, comparative prices, and product information from the comfort of the home (Solomon, 1994; MacKay & Fletcher, 1988; Marti & Zeilinger, 1982). According to Lumpkin, Caballero, and Chonko, (1989, p. 49), factors that determined whether consumers shopped at home or at a store depended on: convenience, selection, monetary and time expenditures, knowledge, and the presence of risk reducers. In 1980, the number of hours an average American spent shopping was 12 hours per month while that in 1995 was four hours! Americans are spending less and less time in shopping (Packaged Facts, 1996, p.9).
There are several disadvantages of shopping from home as well. Lack of aesthetic appeal, lack of choice, limited range of products available, inability to examine a product before purchase, lack of visual and sensory stimulation, and unappealing experience, lack of instant gratification, errors in taking orders and documentation of orders made are some disadvantages that have been reported (George, 1987; MacKay & Fletcher, 1988). Other factors cited are: poor customer service, lack of product knowledge of sales people, safety concerns, and miscellaneous factors that are considered inconveniences ("Digital TV Puts DM Into Sharper Focus," 2000; Eicoff, 1995; Gillett, 1970; "Home Shopping," 1994; Lumpkin, Caballero, & Chonko, 1989; Packaged Facts, 1996).

Yankelovich Partners conducted a survey for the National Retail Federation which found that more than half of 502 consumers contacted over the telephone said that they left a store without buying anything because they found the salesperson unavailable or unable to furnish adequate information demanded by them (Packaged Facts, 1996, p. 10). In another study by the same marketing group sponsored by MasterCard International ("Home Shopping," 1994), researchers found that shoppers look for convenience, value, and speed. This is unlike shoppers in the eighties who shopped to acquire the latest gadgets introduced in the market. Most shoppers (about 55%) claimed that they make price comparisons and like to have a great deal of information before they buy a product. Advantages of in-store shopping included: (a) ability to feel and touch the products, (b) ability to interact with people around them, (c) wide selection and availability of nationally known brands, (d) availability of products that are of interest for each member of the family, and (e) less use of technology. Advantages of in-home shopping were: (a) greater personalization, (b) safer in terms of crime, (c) time saving, (d) convenient shopping hours, and (e) quick checkout.
Akaah, Korgaonkar, and Lund (1995), studying the attitudes toward direct marketing using a sample of 354 consumers randomly selected from a large southern metropolitan area, found that shoppers' attitudes toward direct marketing significantly influence their purchase intentions. The authors found consumers' attitudes towards direct marketing resulted from their feeling that retail salespeople were pushy and hassled them to purchase a product. Their dislike for direct marketing stemmed from receiving too much direct mail and their inability to examine a product before purchase. The study also found that for direct marketing to be appreciated, consumers need to have positive past experiences. Positive past experiences were found to encourage consumers to patronize a shopping medium.

Studying the attitude of in-home catalogue shoppers, Cunningham and Cunningham (1973), found that home shoppers were more open to the buying on credit, and more cosmopolitan. The in-home shoppers with their higher income status had more buying power. Being cosmopolitan meant that they were more open to new ideas, and had worldly orientation and sophistication. Gillette (1970) in his study found that in-home shoppers perceived less risk associated with in-home shopping than store shopping as they were also more informed than shoppers who shopped from stores alone. Berkowitz, Walton, and Walker (1979) also found that home shoppers had higher incomes, no transportation or familial factors that prevented them from shopping from stores, and a more liberal attitude. They were also less price conscious, more flexible, adventuresome, and gave greater importance to convenience than store shoppers.

Technological development has increased the efficiency of the direct marketing/electronic shopping industry in meeting consumer needs. The above literature compared retail shopping to home shopping alternatives and proposed features that a
home shopping alternative should present to a consumer in order to be successful. In the following literature the growth and history of television shopping in America will be reviewed.

**Television Shopping**

Home Shopping Network, the pioneer of television shopping, first evolved as a radio show when Lowell Paxson and Roy Speer were faced with a bankrupt advertiser who paid his debt by giving them 112 brand name can openers. The pair went on air and sold the can openers in no time at all. Amazed at their own success, they decided to start a television shopping segment on Vision Cable in Clearwater, Florida that reached 14,000 homes. The response was so overwhelming that they made it a 24-hour program and launched their own television-shopping channel called the Home Shopping Network in July 1985 (Skumanich, 1994).

In the past decade technological progress has enabled consumers to shop from the comfort of their homes. In 1992, 92 million households (97%) in the United States owned a television, out of which 61% were served by cable television (Eicoff, 1995; Press, 1995). In 1989, it was reported that 7% of US households had watched television shopping segments, out of which 9% made purchases. On an average, six items were bought in a year and $179 spent on these purchases (Rauh, 1989). In 1994, the total sales from electronic retailing (including television shopping and shopping on-line) generated $3.2 billion, out of which $2.4 billion were from Home Shopping Network (HSN) and QVC television shopping segments alone (Brown, 1995). The average sales goal of a television shopping segment can range from $300,000 to $500,000 (Apparel Industry Magazine, 1994; Brown, 1995). In 1996, QVC's sales were $1.22 billion (Milford, 1997). In 1996, the average growth rate of television retailing industry was...
17.5% (Hazel, 1996). In 1995, QVC had sales of $1.6 billion with an average of
113,000 orders per day and a total of 400,000 regular customers.

Television shopping segments, using the integrated marketing approach, seek not
just to sell products to the consumers, but also to educate consumers about the product
(Black Enterprise, 1995). All products that are sold on the television are tested for their
performance and rated. The information is presented to the consumers so that it is
understood, and helps consumers make their decisions (American Demographics, 1997;
Black Enterprise, 1995). QVC presents different varieties of products at competitive
prices as they have fewer costs compared to store retailing. Television retailing offers
the unique ability for marketers to present their products in a lively manner by using
multimedia techniques and explaining any technical features that the consumer should
know about the product. For example, each day at midnight QVC offers a special
product on sale but in a limited quantity. These products are called Today’s Special
Value (TSV) and account for 30% of its total revenue. Live presentations allow the
company to obtain instant feedback from the consumers and present up-to-date
information about the availability of the product (Marketing Week, 1996).

With the combination of television shopping and online shopping technologies,
the future of home shopping is believed to boom (Ripley, 1994). Over and above,
factors that facilitate television shopping in the U.S. are: the sheer physical size of the
country, a successful well established mail order industry that has a database of
household names, high quality domestic telecommunication services such as television,
cable, telephone, which permit new methods of purchase transaction, and the
innovativeness of the retail industry to market products using different technologies
available (Reynolds, 1990).
Demographic Characteristics of Television Shoppers. Direct marketing is growing at a pace twice that of retail marketing (Akaah, Korgaonkar, & Lund, 1995). The percentage of consumers making a purchase of $200 or more per year rose from 16% to 21% in 1992. Studies predict that age, more than other demographic characteristics influence consumer shopping patronage (Lumpkin, Caballero, & Chonko, 1989; MacKay & Fletcher, 1988). Mature consumers are believed to patronize in-home shopping as it can save them time and effort.

Although technology has increased the opportunity to shop at home, not all consumers use this service. In the seventies, home shoppers were predominantly urban and most of their home shopping was done through mail order. In a study conducted on urban home shoppers, Gillett (1970), found that home shoppers were affluent, highly educated, and belonged to all age groups. Gillett also found that home shoppers were the more informed and were experienced store shoppers who perceived less difference between the benefits of store shopping and home shopping. However the inferences made by Gillett were not supported by a much later study by Darian (1987). Darian found that when controlling for multiple factors such as family life cycle, wife's education, population density (rural or urban), and merchandise mix purchased, households with incomes of $15,000 to $29,000, housewives, and part-time female workers with preschool children were significantly more likely to shop from home than others. Households with female heads in the age bracket 30-39 years and no preschool children were least likely to shop from home. When not controlling for product merchandise, income and education had little to do with home shopping behavior, although younger adults were more likely to be home shoppers than others. However, both studies concluded that family size, lack of availability of transportation, and disability or illness
had little do to with home shopping behavior.

Other studies on profiles of home shoppers have found that they were younger, had higher incomes, were more educated, and were generally of a higher social status. Married homeowners with children shopped from home more than others, and among the married couple households, women who were unemployed and stayed at home were more likely to shop than their counterparts who worked fulltime. Older adult consumers were not more likely to shop from home than the younger consumers perhaps indicating that the home shopping alternative did not meet the needs of the mature consumers as was expected (Lumpkin, Caballero, & Chonko, 1989).

The future of television shopping is believed to merge with that of Internet shopping. One of outcomes of the marriage between the Internet and television media technologies is interactive shopping. Interactive shopping enables consumers to access information they want, provides greater locus of control in making choices, and allows them to purchase products from the comfort of their home. In 1995, a study by Shermach, was conducted to identify the different interactive shopper typology, their media expectations and experiences. The survey consisted of 4,199 adults surveyed by the telephone and mail. The study revealed that interactive shoppers can be categorized as fast laners (14% of the respondents), diverse strivers (5%), savvy sophisticates (11%), and family focused (15%), bystanders (16%), sports fanatics (11%), moral Americans (17%), and the settled set (17%). Fast laners primarily belonged to Generation X who were open to technology and had optimistic views of the future in general. Diverse strivers were young and an ethnically diverse group. Savvy sophisticates were high-income, highly educated, sophisticated, innovative, and optimistic of interactive media. Family focused consumers were price-conscious, with
average income and lower than average knowledge of computers and other technologies. Bystanders were least confident and innovative of the new technologies. Fast laners, diverse strivers, family focused, and bystanders were most often likely to shop over the television. Savvy sophisticates were more likely to be online shoppers who did not see the television as a shopping medium. They were more involved in the way they shop than in the purchase. Their profile showed that they were more risk averse, more male, in their thirties, and well educated with more than three years of college (Shermach, 1995). This study suggests that television shoppers are more likely to be family-oriented, open to technology, and belong to ethnically diverse groups. Information provided to this group needs to take into consideration these demographic characteristics.

In a more recent study conducted by The MasterCard and Yankelovich Partners Inc., the majority of the non-interactive home shoppers (except computer and television shoppers), were married, 42 years of age, had a median income of $29,400, had some college education or more, held credit cards, and had access to television or a computer at home ("Home Shopping," 1994). The study also found that the average age of television shoppers was slightly higher than non-interactive shoppers. They were more likely to be married, and earned a higher income. In comparison to computer shoppers, television shoppers however, had a lower median income, were less likely to have college education or higher, and less likely to have a cable television or a personal computer at home ("Home Shopping," 1994). Women more than men are likely to enjoy shopping from home using the television media as women shop to meet entertainment needs more than men. However computer as a shopping medium was found to be more attractive to men than women ("Home Shopping," 1994).
In a television shopping study by Aragon Consulting Group ("Shopping From The Sofa," 1997), more than six out of ten respondents surveyed had not viewed a television shopping segment. But among those who had, nearly 50% had made a purchase. The television viewers were more likely to live in the Eastern part of the U.S., be full-time workers or homemakers, be married, and be between 35 and 45 years of age ("Shopping From The Sofa," 1997). Fifty-seven percent of the television shoppers earned an income between $50,000 and $75,000 per year and 44% earned an income higher than $75,000 a year. Although most television shoppers belonged to the high-income group, they did not spend more than $125 per purchase. Two-thirds of their purchases were spontaneous, not planned.

In a study of 6,000 regular television shoppers, Deloitte and Touche (1994) found that 48% of them were between 25 and 44 years of age, 43% were married, 8% widowed, and 27% single. Nearly 55% of the television shoppers were white, 20% African American, and 17% Hispanic. Contrary to the above mentioned study by Aragon Consulting Group ("Shopping From The Sofa," 1997), Deloitte and Touche found television shoppers more likely to be blue-collar workers, homemakers, and salespersons. Their study found that television shoppers belonged to either end of the income categories, high and low (Skumanich, 1994). However, the most important finding was that television shoppers watched more television than others, 37 minutes more on an average ("Home alone? Home shopping," 1996; Skumanich, 1994). One common finding of most of these studies indicates that a majority of the television shoppers are women (Solomon, 1994; Stanforth & Lennon, 1996). Supporting this finding, in an interview with Management Review (1994), HSN CEO, Gerald Hogan said that their most frequent customers were women in her mid-50s ("Shopping From Sofa," 1997).
The above mentioned studies contradict each other implying that it is difficult to draw a profile of home shoppers or television shoppers based solely on demographic variables. Akaah, Korgaonkar, and Lund, (1995) found that demographic factors such as age, income, education, presence of preschool children, employment status and so forth did not determine shopping patronage. This finding emphasizes the need to focus on the psychographic variables such as shopping styles, attitudes, and motives in determining shopping patronage. This leads one to believe that the soft-sell approach and the motivational appeals the television shopping segments provide are more likely to influence television shopping behavior than demographic variables.

Information to consumers includes both cognitive and affective information. While cognitive information meets the need of the consumers to learn about the product and its features, functions, properties, maintainability, and purchase methods, affective information is required to enable processing of information and to form trust, develop positive attitudes, and to believe that the purchase will make a difference in the consumer's life. This dissertation based on studies reviewed above, is directed towards the study of utilitarian (functional/cognitive) and value-expressive (affective/emotional) informational appeals of information content of television-shopping segments. The above-mentioned studies formed the basis for defining the dependent and independent variables. While the definition of Resnik and Stern (1977), which was widely used in content analyses research as stated above, was used to define utilitarian appeal, value-expressive appeal was defined using Johar and Sirgy's (1991) theoretical paper. The independent variables included in the study were based on the literature. The way consumers process information and the amount of information found in television advertisements were found to be influenced by the type and nature of the product.
Other independent variables found to influence the nature and amount of information were: channel category, time of the telecast, day of telecast, and length of the shopping segment. In this research, product categories, day of telecast, and length of the shopping segment were used as the independent variables. The theoretical framework and the methodology of the study are presented in Chapters 3 and 4.
CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND FRAMEWORK

The old school of thought in consumer economics considered the consumer as an economic person seeking to maximize utility and making rational decisions. However, marketing studies have shown that consumers do not always make decisions based on rationality or on information that is directly related to the product and its functionality (Bemacchi & Kono, 1977). Consumers are influenced by several factors that are totally unrelated to the product consumption or its usage. Factors such as how they would be perceived by others while using the product, recreational, experiential and emotional gratification derived from shopping and purchasing the product have been recognized as important consumer motives that influence consumer shopping behavior (Bergadaa, Faure, & Perrien, 1995; Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990; Oumilil, 1983). Marketers have identified meeting consumer needs for emotional gratification to be an important objective. Advertisements induce emotions such as fear; humor; elevation of depression, loneliness, boredom, or stress; and provision of excitement, relaxation, or entertainment to influence consumer decision-making (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982). Consumer behaviorists have recognized that there are several types of
motivations that influence consumer decision-making. These motivational factors can be broadly categorized as utilitarian (or functional or cognitive), and value-expressive (or affective or emotional) appeals (Erevelles, 1998).

The study of affect in consumer behavior has been investigated for the past fifteen years. Several researchers have classified the rational and emotional consumer responses to motivations present in the marketplace in different ways. Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) delineated cognitive factors as rational consumption and emotional responses as hedonic consumption; Anand, Holbrook, and Stephens, (1988) categorized them as cognitive and affective responses; Bhatt and Reddy (1998) in their study of the term brand classification, used the terms cognitive and symbolic. Many authors have used (a) utilitarian, functional, and cognitive responses, and, (b) symbolic, value-expressive, and affect interchangeably (Bhat & Reddy, 1998; Erevelles, 1998; MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989). In this study, the terms used to classify television-shopping appeals are as defined by Johar and Sirgy (1991) and they are utilitarian and value-expressive appeals.

The informativeness of television advertisement and infomercials using content analyses has been studied extensively in the past (Elliot & Lockard, 1996; Resnik & Stern, 1977; Sepstrup, 1985; Stern and Resnik, 1991; Stern, Resnik, & Grubb, 1977). Similarly several attitude studies have focused on the effect of advertisement information and evaluations, but not on emotional responses of the consumer to the advertisement information (Erevelles, 1998). Moreover, studies on the different types of appeals used in television shopping shows have not been studied previously. This
study investigated the use of value-expressive appeals and the utilitarian appeals among three product categories in television shopping shows.

Theory

According to Johar and Sirgy (1991), advertisements use different methods of persuasion to influence consumers. The two principal types of persuasion that they adopt are: (a) functional congruity route to persuasion and (b) self-congruity route to persuasion. While functional congruity appeals elaborate on the product's utilitarianism to the consumer, self-congruity elaborates on the image of the product-user of the target population and relates it to the product's attributes. The authors define self-congruity as "the match between the product's value-expressive attributes and the target audience's self-concept" (p.24). Products are defined as product value-expressive and product utilitarian. The authors stated that while some products are inherently functional in nature (utilitarian), others are made to satisfy consumers' emotional needs (value-expressive).

Persuasive messages describing the properties, functions, and uses of the product are utilitarian appeals. Persuasive messages formulated to meet the self-congruity needs of the consumer are value-expressive appeals. The following diagram (Figure 3.1) illustrates (Johar and Sirgy, 1991), the relationship between: (a) utilitarian and value-expressive appeals, (b) types of persuasion, and, (c) attitude formation and purchase action.
Figure 3.1: Television Shopping Show Appeals and Consumer Purchase Action (Johar and Sirgy, 1991, p. 28).
Factors that Influence the Use of Advertising Appeals

According to Johar and Sirgy (1991), utilitarian and value-expressive appeals are influenced by product and consumer characteristics. In this study, a product category is used as an independent variable. Appeals used in a message are dependent on what purpose the product serves the consumer. According to these authors, products can be utilitarian or value-expressive depending on whether they serve to meet the utilitarian needs of the consumer or serve to symbolize and express their identity and values (Shavitt, Johar, & Sirgy, 1992). It is difficult to classify clothing, housewares, or home décor as utilitarian or value-expressive products because there are some types of clothing that can be utilitarian (a winter jacket) while others are value-expressive (an evening dress). However, it is interesting to find out if any one of the categories is more utilitarian than value-expressive and vice-versa.

Product characteristics listed by Johar and Sirgy (1991), that influence the type of appeals include: product differentiation, product life cycle, product scarcity, and product conspicuousness. They are described as follows:

Product Differentiation. Consumer research shows that when a product is highly differentiated from others, such as a new product in the market, the utilitarian appeals of persuasion are used more than value-expressive appeals. Fashionable apparel would be expected to have more value-expressive appeals than would housewares.

Product Life Cycle. Products that are at the greater level of product maturity along the product life cycle, the benefits offered by the product become undistinguishable. In these cases, value-expressive appeals are more commonly used to sell the product. Similarly, products that are early in the product life cycle use a
greater amount of utilitarian appeals. Again clothing is more likely to use value-
expressive appeals than housewares or home décor, as clothing as a product category
have been in the market longer and its uses are apparent to the consumer.

Product Conspicuousness. The social visibility of the product (a product that is
consumed publicly) is more likely to be advertised with value-expressive appeals.
Clothing worn outside the home is more likely than housewares and home décor items
to have value-expressive appeals.

Product scarcity. Unique products or products that have distinct usage are
promoted using personal characteristics about the product-user (value-expressive
appeals).

Advertising Persuasion

The self-congruity route of persuasion is achieved through establishing a match
between the product-user characteristics of the target consumer segment and the target
consumer segment’s self-concept. A consumer’s self-concept has been classified into
four categories (Johar and Sirgy, 1991). They are: (a) the actual self-image — what one
has of himself or herself; (b) the ideal self-image — what one would like to be or aspires
to be; (c) a social self-image — what one believes others think of them; and (d) ideal
social self-image — what one would like others to think about them. Products are
advertised to form congruity between the product characteristics and consumer self-
image. The type of self-image that the advertisement strives to form in the mind of the
consumer has the following motivational responses:

(a) Forming congruity between the product-user image and the consumer self-
image, meets the need for self-consistency;
(b) Congruity between product-user image and the consumer ideal self-image meets the need for self-esteem;

(c) Congruity between product-user image and social image meets the need for social consistency; and

(d) Congruity between product-user image and ideal social self-image meets the need for social approval. Meeting any one of these needs creates a positive attitude in the mind of the consumer that is a precursor of purchase. The different forms of self-congruity are depicted in the diagram below.
Figure 3.2: Types of Self-Congruity and Attitude Change (adapted from Johar and Sirgy, 1991, p. 25).

Framework

Based on the classification of information appeals of Johar and Sirgy (1991), and the findings of earlier studies, this study classified information appeals as (a) utilitarian and (b) value-expressive. It proposed factors that would influence the amount and type of these appeals such as: length of the shopping segments, day of the week (weekday or weekend), and product category (clothing, housewares, and home decor). Using these variables the following framework was developed.
Rationale for Selection of Independent Variables

Product Category

There are several reasons why product category was selected as an independent variable. Previous literature has revealed that there is a significant difference in the informativeness of television commercials between product categories (Stern, Resnik, & Grubb, 1977). Other studies have revealed that type of product influences the amount of risk involved in the purchase decision (George, 1987; Hisey, 1995). Product attributes such as the amount of information required, type of product (search or experiential good), price of the product, brand, and product’s stage in its life cycle determine the amount of risk involved in the purchase decision (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997). Risk can be classified as performance risk, physical risk (or safety risk), economic risk (or financial risk), social risk (potential to harm one’s social concept), psychological risk, and time risk (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997). Consumer’s performance and physical risk could be higher among housewares as they include appliances whose functionality can be determined only after installation and use. Consumer’s social and psychological risk could be higher in the purchase of products such as home décor whose structural and decorative harmony with the room, balance with other items, and proportion relative to the size of the room and other interior design features can be judged only through consumer’s imagination. While some product categories could be purchased without being touched and felt, some products such as clothing and furnishings need to be touched, felt, and fitted before they are bought. Secondly, time risk may be lower among products that offer a variety of product information and higher.

1 “Consumer’s concern about the extent to which a product or service fits the way they perceive themselves” (Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997, p.47)
among products that offer more information than the consumer wants to know. Thirdly, economic risk may be higher among the more expensive products. Since the amount of risk involved varies among product categories and is dependent upon the amount and type of information provided, it was determined that product category was a useful variable in studying information content.

Day of the Week

Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977) found that the informativeness of television commercials vary between weekday and weekend. They concluded that information is less during the weekday when homemakers watch television shopping segments than during the weekend when the television viewers consists of more "mixed" audiences.

Length of the Shopping Segment

Sepstrup (1985) found that the amount of information did not vary with the length of the advertisement. Other studies (Resnik & Stern, 1977; Stern & Resnik, 1991; Stern, Resnik, & Grubb, 1977) on content analyses did not study the differences in the amount of information with the length of the advertisement. This study included length of the shopping segment to study the differences in the number of total information cues and in the number of different forms of appeals.

Other factors that have been found to influence the amount of information on television commercials have been reported to be: time of the day (morning or evening), channel, and product category (Resnik & Stern, 1977; Sepstrup, 1985; Stern & Resnik, 1991; Stern, Resnik, & Grubb, 1977). These have however, are not included in this present study.
Figure 3.3: Framework of the Study
Definitions of Utilitarian and Value-Expressive Appeals in this Study

According to Johar and Sirgy (1991) utilitarian appeals are those that inform the consumer about the key benefits of the product that are perceived as functional or important to target consumers. Based on previous studies by Resnik and Stern (1977), Stern and Resnik (1991), Sepstrup (1985) Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977), Elliot and Lockard (1996), information cues that relate to the utilitarian attributes of the product and those of key importance to a purchase decision were identified to be price, quality, quantity, guaranty or warranty, related product research, performance related attributes, and the characteristics of the product. Based on these studies, information cues that consumers consistently and popularly use to make a purchase decision were included to represent utilitarian appeals. A detailed list of the information cues present in the data set that were used to calculate utilitarian appeals is given below.

(a) price
(b) quality, material, features of the product
(c) use, care, and performance of the product
(d) components- what else comes with the product
(e) available sizes of the product
(f) research- reports or standardization seal present in the product
(g) payment schedule- payment options
(h) warranty- post purchase assurances
(i) availability- how much time is left, and quantity sold so far.

Value-expressive appeals included all information that was symbolic to the consumer. Symbolism is defined as building an image or "personality" around the
product or creating an image of the product-user (Johar and Sirgy, 1991). Information
cues that were considered to create a product-user image were classified under the
umbrella of value-expressive appeals. Value-expressive appeals included those appeals
that were directed at the consumer’s emotional state of mind. Value-expressive appeals
were classified in this dissertation as self-congruity and social congruity appeals.

Self-congruity appeals were those message attributes that matched the
consumer’s actual self-image and ideal self-image. Actual self-image appeals are
directed to meeting the need for self-consistency while ideal self-image appeals are
directed to meeting the need for self-esteem. These needs are met by the use of
information cues:

(a) Self consistency need- appearance of the product, what you think is an expression
   of yourself, value of the product;
(b) Self esteem need- feeling of owning the product and appeals that involve contest,
   lucky number, or other games that involve viewers.

Social Congruity appeals were those message attributes that matched
consumer’s actual social image and ideal social image. Meeting the consumer’s actual
social self-image fulfilled the need for social self-consistency and meeting the
consumer’s ideal social-self image fulfilled the need for social self-approval. The
information cues that enabled satisfying these needs were:

(a) Social approval appeals- image in the eyes of others, what others will think of the
   consumer or the product;
(b) Social consistency appeals- doing what the consumer thinks others are doing, caller
   testimonials, and host testimonial.
Objectives

Based on the framework, the objectives of the study were to:

1. To study the differences in the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals in television shopping segments across product categories and weekday or weekend;
2. To investigate the relationship between the ratio of the value-expressive and utilitarian appeals and the length of television shopping segments and product categories;
3. To explore the relationship between the total number of information cues and the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive cues;
4. To determine the differences in the total number of information cues presented across product categories, weekday or weekend, and the length of the shopping segment;
5. To determine the ratio of social congruity to self-congruity appeals across product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the show.

The next chapter details the methodology: operationalization of the variables, data collection, coding, recording, description of the sample, and data analyses performed in this study.
CHAPTER 4

METHODS

This chapter commences with a brief background of the study with specific objectives, followed by operationalization and definition of variables, a description of the data including its collection, classification, coding, and recording. The chapter concludes with a description of the sample and the data analyses performed to meet the objectives of the study. The framework and the definitions of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals given in Chapter 3 are used in the operationalization of variables and in the data analyses.

Background of the Study

The nature and the amount of information on television shopping segments were studied using persuasion theories of self-congruity and functional congruity (Sirgy & Johar, 1991). The authors suggest that marketers use cognitive and emotional appeals that motivate consumers to act by developing positive attitudes toward the product, brand, and the media. Cognitive motivation is brought about by utilitarian appeals that use persuasion cues that focus on the utilitarian benefits of the product to the consumer. Emotional motivation is brought about by value-expressive appeals that use
persuasion cues that relate the product-user characteristics to the general characteristics of the target consumer. This is done by meeting the self-consistency, self-esteem, social consistency, and social approval needs of the consumer as defined in Chapter 3.

Operationalization of Variables

The dependent variables were operationalized based on the Johar and Sirgy (1991) framework used for this study. The operational definitions of the dependent variables and the rationality behind the definitions are explained below. The independent variables were selected based on previous literature and on their definitions in the data set.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables included: the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeal, the ratio of social congruity to self-congruity appeals, and total information cues.

Definitions

Total number of information cues. (TC) is the sum of UA and VA and is given as:

TC = ( UA + VA ).

Utilitarian appeal. Sum total of the frequencies of variables that describe the product and information that is necessary to make the purchase. This is given by,

UA = Σ (Quality/material/features, Use/care/performance, Components, Size, Research, Price, Payment Schedule, Warranty, and Availability).
**Value-expressive appeal.** Sum total of frequencies of variables that constitute self-congruity and social congruity. Self-congruity appeals included actual self-image and ideal self-image and social congruity appeals included social self-image and ideal social image.

\[ VE = \sum (\text{Self-congruity} + \text{Social congruity appeals}), \]

where,

\[ \text{Self-congruity} = \sum (\text{Actual Self-image} + \text{Ideal Self-Image}), \]

and

\[ \text{Social Congruity} = \sum (\text{Social Self-Image} + \text{Ideal Social Self-Image}). \]

Self-congruity: Self-congruity (SfC), is the sum of Actual Self-Image (ASI) and Ideal Self-Image (ISI).

- **Actual Self-image:** Characteristics of the product that matches with the image of the consumer as seen by the consumer.

\[ \text{ASI} = \sum (\text{Appearance} + \text{Value}); \]

The variables "appearance", and "value" help the viewers to relate their self-concept to the characteristics of the product. Appearance refers to "color, shape, or other verbal or visual description of appearance of the product." Value refers to "good price, good value, affordable, reduced price" information cues. Value is an emotional appeal that is directed to make the consumer feel the decision is a sensible one. Value appeal enables the consumers to imagine that they will own the item for a price less than it would otherwise cost. These appeals help consumers meet their self-consistency needs by matching the product characteristics to consumers' physical appearance, personal aesthetic tastes and their economic preferences.
- Ideal Self-Image: Appeals that relate to beliefs about how the consumer aspires to feel as a product-user.

\[ \text{ISI} = (\text{Feel}) \]

The variable "feel" defined as "how you would feel owning the product," fulfills the self-esteem need of the consumer by making the consumer feel good or proud of owning and using the product.

Social Congruity: Social Congruity (SIC), is the sum of Actual Social Self-Image (ASSI) and Ideal Social Self-Image (ISSI).

- Actual Social Self-Image: Appeals that relate to how the consumers are viewed by others; these appeals motivate the consumer to do what others are doing.

\[ \text{ASSI} = \sum (\text{Host testimonials} + \text{Caller testimonials} + \text{Contest}) \]

The variables "host testimonials," "caller testimonials," and "contest" enable the consumer to realize that others are purchasing the product, what others think of the product and how they use it. These appeals induce the consumer to purchase the product and use the product the way it is being perceived and used by others. This creates a motivation in the mind of the consumer by alluring them to be socially consistent with other consumers.

- Ideal Social Self-Image: Appeal that relates to how the consumer would like to be perceived by others.

\[ \text{ISSI} = (\text{Image}) \]

The variable "image" is defined as "what others will think of you or the product." Appeals such as "your family will love you..." create a picture of how
the consumer will be perceived by others if s/he owns and uses the product. This meets the consumer’s need for social approval.

**Ratio of Utilitarian to Value-Expressive Appeals.** (VE/UA) is the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals. This is given by:

\[
\text{VE/UA} = \frac{\text{Value-Expressive Appeal}}{\text{Utilitarian Appeal}}.
\]

**Ratio of Social Congruity to Self-Congruity.** (SIC/SfC) is the ratio of social congruity appeal to self-congruity appeal. This is given by:

\[
\text{SIC/SfC} = \frac{\text{Social Congruity Appeal}}{\text{Self-Congruity Appeal}}.
\]

**Independent Variables**

Independent variables included product categories, day of the week, and length of the shopping segment. These variables were chosen as it was hypothesized that purchase of goods over the television shopping channels is a function of the product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the shopping segment.

**Product categories.** Product categories that were included in the data set were: clothing, housewares, and home décor. This is represented as \( PC_{x,y,z} \) where \( x = \) clothing, \( y = \) housewares, and \( z = \) home décor.

**Day of the week.** Dummy variable consisting of weekday and weekend represented as \( WK_{0,1} \), where 0 = weekend and 1 = weekday.

**Length of the shopping segment.** The amount of information is believed to be directly proportional to the length of the television shopping segment, \( L \). However, the type of information (utilitarian or value expressive) was considered to differ with the type of product. In order to estimate the differences in the
amount and type of information, an interaction term between product category and length of the shopping segment was used. Length of the segments was used as a categorical variable. The length of the shopping segment was made into a 4-level categorical variable based on quartile distribution of the frequencies of the length of time of television segments. The categorical variable was classified as k = less than 4 minutes, l = between 4 and 6 minutes, m = between 7 to 10 minutes, and n = more than 10 minutes.

Data

The data set created by Drs. Margaret Sanik and Sharon Lennon, of the Department of Consumer and Textile Sciences, The Ohio State University, was used for this study. The data were collected during Spring of 1997.

Sampling Technique

The sample of television shopping segments was randomized by recording them from three different shopping channels simultaneously at different times and days each for six-hour periods. The products that were going to be sold at any given point in time were not known. Television shopping segments that consisted of products of interest (clothing, housewares, and home décor) were coded while the others were not. The sample for the study contained seventy-one television shopping segments from the three television shopping channels Quality Value Convenience (QVC), Value Vision (VV), and Home Shopping Network (HSN).
Selection of Raters

Four students from the Department of Consumer and Textile Sciences were hired to code the data. They were instructed in definition of terms and coding procedures as a group. Sample segments were coded and discussed until an agreement was reached. Each television shopping segment was coded by three raters except three: 1, 35, and 69, which, mistakenly, were rated only by two raters. Recording the television shopping segments enabled the raters to rewind and replay the video-tape in order to code precisely the recorded television shopping segment until they felt convinced they had coded all the information cues.

Data Coding

Several copies of the Sanik-Lennon Television Content coding instrument (Appendix A) were given to each of the raters along with the videocassettes that contained the recorded television shopping segments. The coding instrument contained instructions to the rater and a sheet to record their observations. One coding instrument was used for each shopping segment. The raters were asked to record all information cues that they heard and saw according to the coding instrument. The following information was noted about each commercial: the network channel, name of the product, time of the day, whether it was a weekday or a weekend, and length of the shopping segment. An index of the tape number with the above information was created. All raters coded almost an equal number of television shopping segments.
Data Recording

The coded data recorded by the raters in the coding instruments for each shopping segment were built into a database using Excel and later transferred to SAS and SPSS software for statistical analyses.

Reliability is one of the key elements of content analyses. Reliability of the data confirms that the data obtained and used for the study is not biased by the measuring event, instrument or the person who coded the data (Kassarjian, 1977). Inter-rater reliability was measured as a ratio of the total number of agreements among utilitarian and value-expressive appeals between the raters to the total number of coding decisions. The intra-class reliability coefficient (alpha) that measures inter-rater reliability was found to be 57.04%. In order to reduce the inter-rater variability, the observations of the rater whose rating differed significantly from the other raters was weighted so that those who agreed had higher weights. The inter-rater reliability was found to be 83.80% after adding weights to rater’s scores. An explanation is given in Appendix B.

Description of the Sample

The sample contained 71 television shopping segments out of which 42 percent (30 segments) were of housewares, 35% (25 segments) were of clothing, and 23% (16 segments) of home décor. Sixty-one percent (43 segments) were coded on weekdays and 39% (28 segments) on weekends. Fifteen segments (35%) recorded during the week were of clothing, 16 (37%) of housewares, and 12 (28%) of home décor. Ten segments (36%) recorded during the weekend were of clothing, 12 (43%) of housewares and four (14%)
of home décor. The mean length of a television segment was seven minutes and seven seconds with a range of one minute to 31 minutes.

Table 4.1 shows the distribution of television shopping segments recorded by day of the week and product categories. Chi square test showed that there was no significant relationship ($\chi^2 (2, N = 71) = 2.056, p < 0.358$) between product categories and day of the week.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Categories</th>
<th>Weekday/Weekend</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Chi Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weekday</td>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewares</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Décor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>71</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1: Television Shopping Segments Recorded by Day of the Week and Product Categories.

Table 4.2 shows the differences in the television shopping segments across product categories and length of the television shopping segments. The mean length of the shopping segments for clothing was five minutes, housewares nine minutes, and home décor eight minutes. One-way analysis of variance showed that there were significant differences in the length of the
television shopping segments among the product categories. A post-hoc Scheffe test revealed that segments of housewares were on an average nearly four minutes longer than those of clothing \( F(2, 68) = 4.009, p < 0.05, \alpha = 0.05 \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Categories</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Length of Time</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>F-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewares</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.43</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Décor</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>71</td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2: Length of the Television Shopping Segments Recorded by Product Categories.

Table 4.3 shows the differences in the length of the television shopping segments between those recorded during the week and those recorded during the weekend. The mean length of time of television shopping segments recorded during the week was seven minutes and that of segments recorded during the weekend was eight minutes. A t-test \( t(69, N = 71) = 0.79, p = \)
0.434) revealed no significant differences in the length of the television shopping segments between the weekday and weekend.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weekday/Weekend</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean length of time</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>t-test value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weekday</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>7.57</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3: Length of the Television Shopping Segments Recorded by Weekday and Weekend.

Table 4.4 shows the differences in the length of the television shopping segments by product categories and weekday and weekend. The mean length of time of housewares recorded during the weekend was the longest (M=10.07, SD=8.16), and the mean length of segments on clothing recorded during the weekday was the shortest (M=4.67, SD=2.53).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Categories</th>
<th>Weekday/weekend</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Length</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>Weekday</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>2.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>4.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewares</td>
<td>Weekday</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>4.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10.07</td>
<td>8.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.43</td>
<td>6.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Decor</td>
<td>Weekday</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>5.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>4.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Weekday</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>4.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>6.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>5.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4. Mean Length of Television Shopping Segments by Product Categories and Weekday and Weekend.

Data Analyses and Design

The objectives of the study were:

1. To study the differences in the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals in television shopping segments among product categories and day of the week;
The General Linear Model (GLM) using analyses of variance was conducted to determine the differences in the ratio of value-expressive appeal to utilitarian appeal among product categories, weekday or weekend, and the interaction effect of product categories and weekday or weekend. This can be written as:

\[ \frac{VA}{UA} = f(\ PC_{x,y,z}, WK_{0,1}, [PC_{x,y,z}* WK_{0,1}] ) \]

Where PC stands for product categories, \( x, y, z \) and \( x = \) clothing, \( y = \) housewares, and \( z = \) home décor; and WK stands for weekday or weekend, \( 0 = \) weekend, and \( 1 = \) weekday.

2. To investigate the relationship between the ratio of the value-expressive and utilitarian appeals and the length of television shopping segments and product categories;

The General Linear Model (GLM) using analyses of variance was conducted to determine the differences in the ratio of value-expressive appeal to utilitarian appeal among product categories, length of the television shopping segments, and the interaction effect of product categories and length of the television shopping segments.

\[ \frac{VA}{UA} = f(\ PC_{x,y,z}, L, [PC_{x,y,z}* L] ) \]

Where \( L \) is the length of the television shopping segment. Length of the television shopping segment was used as a categorical variable.

3. To explore the relationship between the total number of information cues and the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive cues;
Pearson correlation and Kendal’s Tau-b were computed to analyze the correlation between the total number of information cues and the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals. Partial correlation was conducted to study the correlation between factors when controlling for product categories, weekend or weekday, and length of the shopping segment.

4. To determine the differences in the total number of information cues presented among product categories, weekday or weekend, and the length of the shopping segment;

Analysis of variance was conducted with product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the television shopping segments as independent variables with post-hoc Scheffe test. In order to perform the Scheffe test, length of the television shopping segment was categorized based on quartiles and the categorical variable was classified as $k =$ less than 4 minutes, $l =$ between 4 and 6 minutes, $m =$ between 7 to 10 minutes, and $n =$ more than 10 minutes.

$$TC = (UA + VA) = f (PC_{x,y,z}, WK_{0,1}, L_{k,l,m,n}, [PC_{x,y,z} \cdot WK_{0,1}], [PC_{x,y,z} \cdot L_{k,l,m,n}])$$

5. To determine the differences in the ratio of social congruity to self-congruity appeal among the product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the show.

$$SIC/SfC = f (PC_{x,y,z}, WK_{0,1}, L_{k,l,m,n})$$

GLM using analysis of variance was conducted with Scheffe test to determine the differences among product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the television shopping segments.
CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine the differences in the number and type of information present in the television shopping segments across product categories, day of the week, and length of the shopping segment. This study classified information as utilitarian and value-expressive appeals. Utilitarian appeals referred to all appeals that contained information that was beneficial to the consumer to make a decision to purchase an item. This information included: price, payment methods, quality, features, functions, components, materials, sizes, availability, and research information. Value-expressive appeals were those that motivated the consumer to make a purchase through creating an emotional experience. Value-expressive appeals included creating a product-user image and relating that image to the consumer. Value-expressive appeals used motivational strategies whose purpose was to meet the consumer’s self-consistency, self-esteem, social acceptance, and social approval needs. Value-expressive appeals were of two types: those appeals that matched the product-user image to consumer’s self-concept (self-congruity appeals) and those appeals that
matched the product-user image to the consumer’s social self-concept (social congruity appeals). This chapter will answer the questions in the following order:

(a) How does the ratio of value-expressive and utilitarian appeals differ across product categories and weekday or weekend?

(b) How does the ratio of value-expressive and utilitarian appeals differ across product categories and length of the television shopping segments?

(c) What is the correlation between total number of cues and the ratio of value-expressive and utilitarian appeals?

(d) What are the differences in the total number of cues across product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the television shopping segments?

(e) What are the differences in the ratio of social congruity and self-congruity across product categories, weekend or weekday, and length of the television shopping segment?

Results

Before answering the questions above, the data were analyzed to describe the dependent variables in the sample.

Descriptive Statistics

Among the 71 television shopping segments, the average total number of information cues (TC) coded per segment was 23.05. The mean of value-expressive appeals was 6.12 and the mean of utilitarian appeals was 16.93. The mean ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals (VE : UA) was 0.4. The mean number of cues of self-congruity (SFC) was four and that of social congruity (SIC) was 1.86. The mean
ratio of social congruity appeals to self-congruity appeals (SIC : SfC) was 0.64 (Table 5.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>55.00</td>
<td>23.05</td>
<td>11.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UA</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>43.67</td>
<td>16.93</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VE</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VE/UA</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIC</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SfC</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>2.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIC/SfC</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics of the Total Number of Information Cues, Utilitarian Appeals, Value-Expressive Appeals, Social Congruity Appeals, Self-Congruity Appeals, and their Ratios in Television Shopping Segments.

Tables 5.2 and 5.3 report the means and standard deviations of total number of cues, utilitarian appeals, value-expressive appeals, ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals, social congruity appeals, self-congruity appeals, and ratio of social congruity to self-congruity appeals by product categories, weekday and weekend (Table 5.2), and by the length of the segments (Table 5.3).
Table 5.2: Mean and Standard Deviation of the Dependent Variables by Product Categories and, Weekday or Weekend in Television Shopping Segments.

Table 5.2 indicates that the mean of total number of information cues ranged from 24.69 for home décor segments to 20.41 for clothing segments. The mean number of utilitarian appeals was 19.28 for housewares segments, 17.01 for home décor segments, and 14.05 for clothing segments. The mean number of value-expressive appeals for home decor segments was 7.68 and for housewares segments...
was 5.10. The mean ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals was 0.49 for clothing segments, 0.27 for housewares segments, and 0.48 for home décor segments.

The mean number of self-congruity appeals was 5.53 among home décor segments and 2.76 among housewares segments. The mean number of social congruity appeals ranged from 1.05 for clothing segments to 2.39 for housewares segments. The mean ratio of social congruity to self-congruity appeals for television segments of housewares was 1.05, for those of home décor was 0.49, and of clothing was 0.24.

The mean of the total number of information cues was 24.77 on weekend segments and 21.93 on weekday segments. The mean number of utilitarian appeals was 18.56 on weekend segments and 15.86 on weekday segments. With the length of the shopping segments categorized, the mean number of all information cues increased with length (Table 5.3).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Mean and Standard Deviation of Number of Cues: Less than 4 minutes N = 15</th>
<th>Mean and Standard Deviation of Number of Cues: 4 to 6 minutes N = 23</th>
<th>Mean and Standard Deviation of Number of Cues: 7 to 10 minutes N = 13</th>
<th>Mean and Standard Deviation of Number of Cues: More than 10 minutes N = 20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>12.71 (5.63)</td>
<td>18.09 (3.91)</td>
<td>24.92 (6.67)</td>
<td>35.30 (10.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UA</td>
<td>9.22 (4.18)</td>
<td>12.99 (2.76)</td>
<td>17.72 (5.16)</td>
<td>26.73 (8.99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VE</td>
<td>3.49 (2.07)</td>
<td>5.10 (2.50)</td>
<td>7.21 (2.81)</td>
<td>8.58 (3.58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VE/UA</td>
<td>0.40 (0.23)</td>
<td>0.41 (0.24)</td>
<td>0.43 (0.18)</td>
<td>0.35 (0.20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIC</td>
<td>0.62 (0.69)</td>
<td>1.43 (1.24)</td>
<td>2.18 (1.36)</td>
<td>3.08 (2.59)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SfC</td>
<td>2.87 (1.90)</td>
<td>3.67 (2.14)</td>
<td>5.03 (3.30)</td>
<td>5.56 (3.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIC/SfC</td>
<td>0.27 (0.33)</td>
<td>0.66 (0.89)</td>
<td>0.79 (0.82)</td>
<td>0.77 (0.74)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3: Mean and Standard Deviation of the Dependent Variables by Length of the Television Shopping Segments.

**Research Question 1**

How does the ratio of value-expressive and utilitarian appeals differ across product categories and between weekday and weekend?

Analysis of variance was performed to examine differences in the ratio of value-expressive appeals to utilitarian appeals across product categories, weekday and
weekend and the interaction of the two variables. There were statistically significant
differences in the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals across product
categories (Table 5.4). A Scheffe test indicated that housewares segments contained a
higher mean ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals than either clothing or home
décor (Table 5.5). There was no statistically significant difference in the ratio of value-
expressive to utilitarian appeals between segments of clothing and home décor. The
interaction effect between product categories and weekday/weekend was non-
significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source Df Sum of Squares Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>9.05***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/Weekend</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction term :</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.0095</td>
<td>0.0047</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>14.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.4: Results of Analysis of Variance of Ratio of Value-Expressive to Utilitarian
Appeals by Product Categories and, Weekday or Weekend.

Computed using alpha=0.05
R squared = 0.262 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.205)
* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

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Table 5.5: Mean, Standard Deviations, and Scheffe Test Estimates of the Ratio of Value-Expressive to Utilitarian Appeals by Product Categories, computed using alpha=0.05, p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Categories</th>
<th>Mean and Standard Deviations</th>
<th>Mean Difference Clothing - Housewares</th>
<th>Mean Difference Home Décor - Housewares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>0.49 (0.23)</td>
<td>0.2112***</td>
<td>0.2033*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewares</td>
<td>0.27 (0.13)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Decor</td>
<td>0.48 (0.21)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question 2

How does the ratio of value-expressive and utilitarian appeals differ across product categories and by length of the television shopping segments?

Results of analysis of variance revealed that while there were statistically significant differences in the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals across product categories, there were no statistically significance differences in the length of the television shopping segments, or in the interaction between the two variables. The results are given in Table 5.6.
Table 5.6: Results of Analysis of Variance of the Ratio of Value-Expressive to Utilitarian Appeals by Product Categories and Length of the Television Shopping Segments.

Computed using alpha=0.05
R squared = 0.30 (Adjusted R squared = 0.17)
* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

**Research Question 3**

What is the correlation between total number of cues and the ratio of value-expressive and utilitarian appeals?

Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between total number of information cues and the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals. The results showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between the two dependent variables ($r = -0.087, p=0.47$). In fact, total number of information cues and the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals were found to be almost uncorrelated.
A Kendall’s Tau-b was performed to test the correlation not assuming that the data is interval but is ordinal. Kendall’s Tau-b was $\tau = 0.031$, ($p=0.702$) showing no statistically significant correlation between the two variables. A partial correlation was performed controlling for product categories, weekday and weekend, and length of the shopping segment. The result was partial correlation, $pr = 0.071$ ($p=0.532$) indicating no significant correlation.

**Research Question 4**

What are the differences in the total number of cues across product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the television shopping segments?

Table 5.7 presents the results of analysis of variance between total number of information cues and the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals by product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the television shopping segment. Total number of cues did not differ by product categories. However, statistically significant differences in the total number of information cues were found among the categories of length of the shopping segments. A post hoc Scheffe test revealed that the number of cues increased significantly with the length of the shopping segment. Segments that were more than ten minutes in length were statistically significantly higher in the number of total number of cues than all others. There were no statistically significant differences in the mean number of cues between segments of length four to six minutes and seven to ten minutes or between segments of length less than four minutes and four to six minutes in length (Table 5.8).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>119.67</td>
<td>59.83</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/Weekend</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17.65</td>
<td>17.65</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Segment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4291.07</td>
<td>1430.36</td>
<td>29.15***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories by Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories by Length of Segments</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>267.07</td>
<td>44.51</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories by Weekday/Weekend and by Length of Segments</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>298.95</td>
<td>42.71</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2404.66</td>
<td>49.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>46326.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.7: Results of Analysis of Variance of Total Number of Information Cues by Product Categories, Weekday or Weekend, and Length of the Shopping Segment.

Computed using alpha=0.05
R squared = 0.720 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.600)
* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001
The table shows the mean, standard deviation, and Scheffe Test results of the total number of information cues by length of the shopping segment. The results are computed using alpha=0.05.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Difference (p-value)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 4 min</td>
<td>12.71 (5.63)</td>
<td>-12.21***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-22.59***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-17.21***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-10.38**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 to 6 min</td>
<td>18.09 (3.91)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 10 min</td>
<td>24.92 (6.67)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10 min</td>
<td>35.30 (10.43)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.8: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Scheffe Test Results of Total Number of Information Cues by Length of the Shopping Segment.

Computed using alpha=0.05
* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

**Research Question 5**

What are the differences in the ratio of social congruity and self-congruity across product categories, weekend or weekday, and length of the television shopping segment?

Table 5.9 shows the results of analysis of variance of the ratio of social congruity and self-congruity of value-expressive appeals by product categories, weekday or
weekend, length of the shopping segment and their interaction effects. The results indicate that while there are statistically significant differences across product categories, there are no statistically significant differences for the length of the shopping segment or the day of the week. The results of the Scheffe test (Table 5.10) showed that the ratio of social congruity to self-congruity was significantly higher in television shopping segments of housewares than of clothing or home décor. There were no significant differences in the ratio across the length of the television shopping segments. A Scheffe test between product categories indicated that the mean difference in the ratio of social congruity and self-congruity between housewares and clothing was 0.81, (p<0.001), and between housewares and home décor was 0.57 (p<0.05). The mean difference between clothing and home décor was not statistically significant.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>6.15**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/Weekend</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Segment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories by Weekday/Weekend</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories by Length of Segments</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Categories by Weekday/Weekend and by Length of Segments</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>66.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.9: Results of Analysis of Variance of Ratio of Social Congruity to Self-Congruity by Product Categories, Weekday or Weekend, and Length of the Shopping Segment.

Computed using alpha=0.05

*R squared = 0.408* (Adjusted *R squared* = 0.162)

* *p<0.05, ** *p<0.01, *** p<0.001
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Categories</th>
<th>Mean and Standard Deviations</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>0.24 (0.29)</td>
<td>-0.8142***</td>
<td>-0.5654*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewares</td>
<td>1.05 (0.93)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Décor</td>
<td>0.49 (0.51)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.10: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Scheffe Test Results of the Ratio of Social Congruity to Self-Congruity by Product Categories in Television Shopping Segments.

Computed using alpha=0.05
* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Discussion

On an average, television shopping segments contained about 23 information cues. Of the 23 cues, 17 (74%) were utilitarian in nature and 6 cues (26%) were value-expressive. Therefore, on an average, of the total number of cues present in a television shopping segments, one-fourth were value-expressive and three-fourths were utilitarian appeals. James and Alman (1996) found that consumers believe that advertisements should contain more information on the product rather than puffery (affect or emotional information). The finding that television shopping segments on an average contain more utilitarian than value-expressive appeals reflects that the shows'
use of persuasion is in concordance with consumers’ information beliefs. It could also be due to the way the data was collected and coded. More categories that represented utilitarian appeals were used to collect data than those representing value-expressive appeals.

Among the three product categories, home décor and housewares segments had about an equal number of information cues while clothing had fewer cues. The finding that the amount of information contained in television shopping segments differed with the type of product, is associated with the findings on consumer information use by Capon and Burke (1977), and Claxton, Fry and Portis (1974). The authors found that the type of product is an important factor that determines the amount of information consumers use in making a purchase decision.

On an average, the number of utilitarian appeals was greater among housewares segments, and least among clothing segments. Segments on housewares contained on an average, of five utilitarian cues more than clothing and two more than home décor. The number of value-expressive appeals was highest among segments on home décor and least among housewares. The finding that the type of information namely, the number of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals, differed with products, confirms the theory by Shavitt, Johar and Sirgy (1992), that the type of appeals used in advertising is a function of the nature of the product. Products differ inherently in the features, utility, cost, properties, and so on. The nature of the product determines whether a product is utilitarian or value-expressive. It can be inferred from this study that housewares are more utilitarian in nature than other product categories considered in this study; and home décor is more value-expressive in nature than housewares or clothing.
This study also found that all television shopping segments contained more utilitarian appeals than value-expressive appeals, on an average, irrespective of the nature of the product. Utilitarian appeals are considered important to the consumer to make them develop awareness and gain knowledge of the product and payment features (James and Alman, 1996). This is consistent with the hierarchy of effects model described in the Review of Literature (Spalter, 1995). However, the amount of each type of information represented in this study by the ratio of utilitarian to value-expressive appeals found in the segments differed with product. According to MacInnis and Jaworski (1989), consumers with greater utilitarian need will pay more attention to product attributes while consumers with greater value-expressive need will focus greater attention on experiential or symbolic value of the product. The use of different information cues by the consumer implies that the decision to purchase an item differs with what the product means to the consumer. Consumers base housewares purchases on their utility; while they base purchases of clothing and home décor on their value-expressiveness. Therefore value-expressive appeals play a greater role in the choice of home décor and clothing products than in the choice of housewares.

According to the theory of functional and self-congruity routes to persuasion, products are chosen by the consumer on the basis of the product's functionalism and the consumer's perception of the match of the product-user image presented in the television shopping segment to the consumer's perceived or aspired self-image. This study found that television shopping segments selling housewares contained more social congruity appeals than self-congruity appeals. The difference was greatest between housewares and clothing. This finding suggests that television shopping segments aim
to match the social self-image of the consumers more among housewares segments and use more self-congruity appeal among clothing and home décor segments. This is a finding that adds new knowledge to the literature of direct marketing communication.

Weekend shows had, on an average, about three cues more than weekdays. The weekend segments contained more utilitarian cues than weekday segments.

Resnik and Stern (1977), Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977), and Stern and Resnik (1991) found that non-informative advertisements occurred more often on weekday afternoons and weekend mornings when more women and children are likely to watch and were more likely to be informative when they are expected to be watched by a more ‘mixed’ audience. The finding that weekend television shopping shows contained more information cues and more cues that were utilitarian in nature substantiates earlier studies. However, the findings of this study differ from the earlier studies in the differences between weekday and weekend segments being statistically insignificant. There was also no difference in the number of value-expressive appeals used between weekends and weekdays.

The total number of cues increased with the length of the segment. Segments that were more than ten minutes long contained as many as 35 information cues while those that were less than four minutes long contained about 13 cues. The number of utilitarian appeals also increased with the length of the shopping segment. There was a statistically significant difference in the number of value-expressive appeals used with the length of the shopping segments. The findings indicated that with the increase in the length of the shopping segments both utilitarian and value-expressive appeals simultaneously increased. This finding contradicted the finding of Sepstrup (1985) who
stated that there was no relationship between the amount of information and the time duration of an advertisement. This could also be due to a different coding strategy that was adopted.

The mean ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals was 0.4 indicating that twice as much utilitarian appeals were used in television shopping segments than value-expressive appeals. The ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals significantly differed with product categories. Analysis of variance showed that differences in the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals existed across product categories, but not between weekends and weekdays. The differences were not significant with the interaction effect of product category and weekday or weekend implying that there were no significant differences in the ratio between segments selling housewares on a weekday and those sold on a weekend. Post hoc tests indicated that housewares on an average contained a smaller ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals than clothing or home decor. On comparing the differences in the ratio of the value-expressive to utilitarian appeals across product categories, length of the shopping segments and the interaction effect of the two, significant differences were found across the product categories, but there were no differences by length of the segment nor was the interaction effect significant.

Correlation analysis revealed no significant correlation between the total number of information cues and the ratio of value-expressive and utilitarian appeals. This test was performed to determine if there were differences in the number of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals compared with the total number of information cues. The reason that the ratio of the value-expressive to utilitarian appeals remained uncorrelated
to the total number of information cues was because both value-expressive appeals and utilitarian appeals increased simultaneously with the increase in the total number of information cues and vice versa thereby keeping the ratio constant, as was illustrated in the descriptive statistics.

The total number of information cues varied significantly with the length of the shopping segment, however, did not vary with product categories or with weekday and weekend. As expected with the increase in the length of the shopping segment, the number of cues presented increased. This finding contradicted Resnik and Stern (1977), Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977), and Stern and Resnik (1991), who found that informativeness of television advertisements differed with weekday and weekend and Sepstrup (1985) who found that television advertisement duration was not related to its informativeness.

Value-expressive appeals consist of social congruity appeals and self-congruity appeals. Social congruity appeals match the product-user to the social image of the consumer. Self-congruity appeals match the product-user to the self-image of the consumer. On analyzing the ratio of social congruity to self-congruity appeals, on an average, value-expressive appeals contained more self-congruity appeals than social congruity appeals.

The number of social and self-congruity appeals differed by type of product and segments lengths. While segments on housewares contained more social congruity appeals, clothing and home décor segments used more self-congruity appeals.

Among the length of the shopping segments, statistically significant differences existed in the number of self-congruity and social congruity appeals. While both self-
congruity and social congruity appeals were highest among segments that were more than ten minutes long, the variance in the number of social congruity appeals between the segments lengths was greater with social congruity than self-congruity appeals. No difference was found in the number of self-congruity and social congruity appeals used between weekends and weekdays.

The social congruity to self-congruity ratio was found to have a mean of 0.64. While analyzing the differences in the ratio of social congruity to self-congruity, it was found that there were differences across product categories, however, no significant differences were found between weekday and weekend, or length of the shopping segments, or the interaction effects between product categories, weekend or weekday, and length of the shopping segment. The ratio was highest among housewares and least among clothing segments. The mean ratio was higher among segments televised during the weekends than weekdays. However the differences between weekends and weekdays were not significant. There were no significant differences in the number of social congruity to self-congruity appeals used among the length of the shopping segments. The findings on social and self-congruity appeals used in television shopping segments are unique to this study as no known previous study has compared social congruity to self-congruity appeals in television shopping segments.

The findings from this study substantiate the motivational studies (Anand, Holbrook, & Stephens, 1988; Batra & Ray, 1986; Bhatt & Reddy, 1998; Erevelles, 1998; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997; MacInnis & Jaworski, 1991) that state that marketers use different forms of motivational appeals that strive to meet the varying goals, needs, and values of different consumers. The television shopping
segments were found to contain utilitarian and value-expressive appeals. Television shopping segments used different forms of persuasion to convince the consumer of the value of the product and the purchase. The two forms of persuasion that were studied were functional and self-congruity routes to persuasion. Appeals that adopted the functional route to persuasion were more among products (housewares) that served utilitarian needs of the consumer and appeals that adopted self-congruity route to persuasion were more among products (clothing and home décor) that expressed the product-user self-image.

In confirmation of the Shavitt, Johar, and Sirgy (1992) theory that products are inherently utilitarian and value-expressive in nature, this study found that television shopping segments utilized different amounts of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals when presenting different products. Clothing and home décor are products that are often used to express the individual personality and tastes of the consumer and contained more value-expressive than utilitarian appeals. Housewares that predominantly have functional usage to the consumer contained more utilitarian appeals.

In this study more television shopping segments were found to be informative than in the television advertisements reported by Resnik and Stern (1977), Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977), and Stern and Resnik (1991). In addition, this study found no significant differences in the nature and number of information cues between weekday and weekend segments. This finding contradicted the studies of Resnik and Stern (1977), Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977), and Stern and Resnik (1991), who found
significant differences in the informativeness of television advertisements between weekday and weekend shows.

While the total number of information cues increased with the length of the television shopping segments, there were no significant differences in the number of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals with the length of the shopping segments. The finding that both utilitarian and value-expressive appeals increased with length of the shopping segments irrespective on the product was a new finding of this study.
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Information in the marketplace motivates consumer behavior. Consumers’ decision making is not only determined by the amount and availability of information but also by ability of the shopping experience to motivate the consumer to make the purchase. Motives play an important role in determining consumers’ purchase decisions. Not all consumers shop to obtain merely product information. Marketing and sociology research have found that consumers shop for varied reasons (Oumil, 1983). Often shopping is not limited to gaining product information but also to satisfying personal and social needs (Bergadad, Faure, & Perrien, 1995; Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990; Oumil, 1983). A product-oriented motive is characterized by a desire to acquire product information, search for more information about unique products or services, and see new products. It may also include search for the ‘best’ price, and updating old knowledge with the new. An experiential motive is the desire to shop for recreational purposes or to derive hedonic pleasure. Some of the examples stated by the authors include watching other people, enjoying being amidst people, producing a source of entertainment, meeting and seeing new people, getting out of the house, and seeing
interesting sights and smells. The third type of motive is a combination of gathering information and at the same time experiencing pleasure (Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990).

While the informativeness of television advertisement and infomercials using content analyses has been studied extensively in the past (Elliot & Lockard, 1996; Stern & Resnik, 1977; Stern & Resnik, 1991; Sepstrup, 1985; Stern, Resnik, & Grubb, 1977) there is a dearth in the study of persuasion of television shopping shows.

According to Johar and Sirgy, (1991), advertisements use different methods of persuasion to meet consumers' economic and emotional needs and to create a positive attitude towards the product, brand, and the shopping medium. The two principal types of persuasion that they adopt are: functional congruity route to persuasion and self-congruity route to persuasion. While functional congruity establishes product utilitarianism to the consumer, self-congruity establishes an image of the product-user and relates it to the product's attributes. This research through the use of the persuasion theories of self-congruity and functional congruity endeavors to examine the information that the television shopping shows provide by classifying information cues as value-expressive and functional appeals, and comparing the information content across product category, day of the week (weekday or weekend), and length of the shopping segments.

This study attempted to: (a) study the differences in the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals in television shopping segments among product categories and weekday or weekend; (b) investigate the relationship between the ratio of the value-expressive and utilitarian appeals and the length of television shopping segments and product categories; (c) explore the relationship between the total number of information
cues and the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive cues; (d) determine the differences in the total number of information cues presented among product categories, weekday or weekend, and the length of the shopping segment; and (e) determine the ratio of social congruity to self-congruity appeals among the product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the show.

Seventy-one television shopping segments were recorded from three different television shopping channels: Quality Value Convenience (QVC), Home Shopping Network (HSN), and Value Vision (VV) using random sampling. Three consumer products were selected. They were: clothing, housewares, and home décor. Four raters were hired to view the television-shopping shows, classify, and evaluate the information present using a recording sheet. The raters' evaluation was coded and entered into a SPSS statistical data sheet. Using descriptive statistics, correlation, and analysis of variance, the amount of functional and utilitarian appeals in the television shopping shows among product categories, weekday or weekend, and length of the shopping segments were compared and discussed. Forty-two percent (30 segments) were of housewares, 35% (25 segments) were of clothing, and 23% (16 segments) were of home décor.

The segments were recorded both on weekdays and weekends. Sixty-one percent of the segments were recorded on a weekday and the remaining 29% on a weekend. Fifteen segments (35%) recorded during the week were of clothing, 16 (37%) of housewares, and 12 (28%) of home décor. Ten segments (36%) recorded during the weekend were of clothing, 12 (43%) of housewares and four (14%) of home décor.

The mean length of a television show was seven minutes and seven seconds.
with a range of one minute to 31 minutes. The mean length of the clothing shopping segments was about six minutes, housewares nine minutes, and home décor eight minutes.

Implications of the Study

Television shopping segments on an average contained 23 information cues that were determined to be more of utilitarian than value-expressive. This suggests that television shopping segments provide greater amounts of information than television commercials as reported in earlier studies by Resnik and Stern (1977), Stern, Resnik, and Grubb (1977), Stern and Resnik (1991), and Sepstrup (1985).

Statistically significant differences exist in the nature and the amount of persuasion appeals presented in the television shows based on the criteria used to measure these appeals. The presence of different forms of appeals can make television shopping segments appealing to different types of consumers.

There are clearly differences in the nature and amount of utilitarian versus value-expressive appeals used between product categories. However, should there be differences? Previous literature shows that consumers use different amounts and types (information attributes) while shopping for different products (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Claxton, Fry, & Portis, 1974; Nelson, 1974; Darby & Karni, 1973; Punj & Staelin, 1983). Statistically significant differences were detected in the ratio of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals used among the three product categories, clothing, housewares, and home décor. Television shopping segments of housewares, on an average, contained more utilitarian appeals and fewer value-expressive appeals than segments of clothing and home décor. The number of social congruity appeals was also greater than self-congruity appeals among segments that featured housewares than clothing or home décor.
décor. On the other hand, the number of self-congruity appeals was greater than social congruity appeals among clothing and home décor segments.

The finding that appeals vary with the type of product sold clarifies Johar and Sirgy (1991) and Shavitt, Johar and Sirgy's (1992) theory that a product can be classified as utilitarian and value-expressive. The findings from this study indicate that television shopping segments of housewares presented more utilitarian appeals than clothing and home décor segments. On the other hand, clothing and home décor segments contained more value-expressive appeals than housewares segments. In other words television segments present housewares as being more utilitarian in nature while clothing and home décor are presented as more value-expressive products. The differentiation in the nature of appeals used across product categories implies that consumers while purchasing products such as housewares are more likely to be presented with utilitarian information while they are more likely to be presented with value-expressive information while purchasing products such as clothing and home décor. While purchasing a utilitarian versus a value-expressive product, consumers therefore need to be aware of the types of information to seek and obtain.

While the average number of value-expressive appeals was similar between weekdays and weekends, the average number of utilitarian appeals was less during weekdays than weekends. However, no significant differences were found in the ratios of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals or the social congruity to self-congruity appeals between weekday and weekend or length of the television shopping segments.

The number of cues increased with the length of the television shopping segments. However there were no significant relationships among the ratios of value-
expressive to utilitarian appeals or the social to self-congruity appeals and the length of
the television shopping segments.

Recommendations

This study suggests the following recommendations to the three principal groups
of people who will benefit from this knowledge.

Consumers. Television shopping is most likely to be an unplanned activity
rather than a planned activity. Consumers are not aware of what products are going to
be sold and when they are going to be aired. Television shopping segments therefore
may be enjoyed and accepted as a shopping medium by consumers who do not plan
their shopping but to whom shopping is an adventure and is unplanned. This could be a
concern especially when consumers purchase products they do not need and when
shopping becomes a compulsive or an impulsive behavior.

While technological advances can make shopping a recreational activity, the
time, emotional costs, safety, and financial expenditures involved in shopping and
purchasing from television shopping segments may be more than the benefits of
purchasing from the television. Television shoppers are more likely to be compulsive
and impulsive buyers (Cortese, 1995). The nature of information put forth to the
consumers by the television shopping shows can stir emotional feelings that make
consumer shopping a risky experience. While purchasing products from television,
consumers need to be aware of the different types of persuasion used. While
persuasion need not be negative or positive, consumers need to realize the differences
between the different forms of persuasion in order to be able to assess the value of the
information to the consumer. Television shopping shows provide information, some of
which consumers need and some that they do not. It is for the consumers to make
value-judgments as to what knowledge will be beneficial to them to make a purchase
decision and what will not.

New technologies with greater direct marketing capabilities can motivate
consumers to buy when they are not in need of a purchase, or not aware of being
targeted. Consumer education is required to educate consumers to be aware of
marketer’s motivational techniques and to maintain their privacy and confidentiality
while making transactions. Most direct marketing companies maintain a database of
consumers and keep records of consumers’ spending habits, tastes, and preferences. It
is important for the consumer to be aware of these consequences while shopping
directly.

Marketers. Television shopping segments utilized appeals that differed in nature
and amount of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals among different product
categories. Should there be differences in the amount and nature of motivational
appeals between product categories? It has to be recognized that a product can be
value-expressive to one but utilitarian to another. While some consumers may not pay
much attention to the color or the appearance of a skillet, some consumers may be
concerned about it. While it may be inconsistent with research findings that state
products are inherently utilitarian or value-expressive, at the same time it may be
incorrect to depreciate the aesthetic appeal of a skillet to a consumer or more
importantly to depreciate the importance of utilitarian information to a clothing or a
home décor item.

Consumer Scientists and Behavior Analysts. Several new findings evolved in this
study and old findings were confirmed or challenged. Some of the new findings include
the knowledge regarding significant and insignificant differences in the use of:
(a) Utilitarian and value-expressive appeals in television shopping segments among product categories: Product category evolved a significant factor in the number of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals that television shopping segments used. While all product categories on an average contained more utilitarian than value-expressive appeals, the number of utilitarian appeals was significantly higher among segments of housewares than segments of clothing or home décor. Segments of home décor contained significantly more value-expressive appeals than housewares.

(b) Total number of information cues and its relationship with the ratio of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals: There was no correlation between the two variables.

(c) Social and self-congruity appeals among product categories: Segments of housewares used more social congruity appeals than clothing or home décor segments and segments of clothing and home décor contained more self-congruity appeals than housewares.

(d) Number of appeals and length of segments: Total number of information cues, utilitarian appeals, value-expressive appeals, social congruity appeals, and self-congruity appeals increased with length of the television segments. The ratios of value-expressive to utilitarian appeals and social congruity to self-congruity appeals did not vary with segment lengths.

(e) Weekend and weekday did not have a significant effect on the number of appeals used.
Certain findings that substantiated the research conducted earlier include:

(a) Informativeness of advertisements differ with product categories: Products are classified based on the amount of information the consumers require before they make a purchase. Products that require an information search are called "search products" while those whose attributes are realized during consumption are called "experience products" (Nelson, 1974). The literature that certain products require information more than others prior to purchase is substantiates by this research.

Certain findings that challenge earlier findings were:

(a) There were no differences in the amount and type of advertisement appeals used between weekday and weekend: Contrary to the findings of Resnik and Stern (1977), Resnik, Stern and Grubb (1977), this research found that there were no significant differences in the informativeness between weekdays and weekends.

(b) There were differences in the number of appeals provided with the length of the shopping segments: Sepstrup (1985) reported that the informativeness did not differ with the length of the segment. In this research, it was found that length of the segment was a significant factor in determining the number of information cues it contained.

This study attempted to identify the different methods of persuasion in television shopping segments, but not to argue whether one type of persuasion is better than the other. Development of 'ideal' consumer information was not attempted because previous literature has stated that consumers are not alike –
they do not shop for the same reasons, they do not process information the same way, and they do not use the same amount and type of information while making choices.

Limitations of the Study

The scope of the study is limited to the television shopping shows of the three product categories, clothing, housewares, and home décor. These three product categories were chosen as they were of interest to the researcher and can be considered as those consumed by women who are the primary consumers of the home shopping channels (Bold, 1997; Bucholtz, 1994; “Home alone? Home shopping,” 1996; Solomon, 1994). While shopping shows were compared between weekday and weekend, comparisons between times of the day, or between shopping channels were not included in this study.

The nature and the type of appeals that characterize the two types of persuasion- functional congruity route and self-congruity route to persuasion - across three product categories were studied. However, since this framework was not used in the collection and coding of information cues, it is possible that the results of this empirical study do not wholly reflect the number of functional and self-congruity routes to persuasion present in the television shopping segments. The empirical study is limited to the comparison of the number of utilitarian and value-expressive appeals that have been collected and coded. It is believed that with richer data, the number of value-expressive appeals would have been more than is reported in this study.

It is also recognized that there are several models for studying motivational appeals in television shopping segments. Different classification methods would enable
analyses of different forms of motivation. However, due to the limitation of the data set, these models could not be adopted.

Future Research

Future research is needed to estimate the amount and type of information that consumers desire to have that television shopping shows need to provide. While television shopping shows provided more utilitarian information than value-expressive information, the specific cues of utilitarian information that they provide was beyond the scope of this study. Further research is needed to determine the type of utilitarian information that the television shopping segments provide and to determine the type of utilitarian cues that consumers look for while making purchasing decisions.

Using the hierarchy of effects model, it would be interesting to study the flow of motivational appeals in television shopping shows. What type of motivational appeals occurs first, is there a pattern, does this pattern vary with length, product, time of the day, day of the week, or channel? The study will help support or challenge the hierarchy of effects theory that utilitarian (cognitive) appeals usually precede value-expressive (affective) appeals. It would also be interesting to find out the effect of each type of appeals on the consumer decision-making process.

What information cues are presented most often? Do the cues vary with the product? What cue is repeated most often in the same television shopping segment? Consumers look for certain cues more than others. The type of attributes that consumers consider to make a purchase decision is based on the product. It would be interesting to match the number of times a cue is presented and the cues that consumers consider most often.
Are there differences in the nature and amount of appeals used between products where the target audience is male versus those where the target audience is female? What are the opportunity and ability factors that the television shopping shows provide to facilitate consumer information processing and decision making? What types of influence do they provide? How much of humor or fear appeals are present in television shopping shows?

This study emphasized the prevalence of different forms of persuasion in television shopping shows through quantitative research methods. However the same study may be replicated using qualitative research methods by transcribing the television shopping content and studying the different forms of semantic usage.

This dissertation used data of television shopping segments based on a coding instrument developed by Dr. Sanik and the different information cues recorded by four different raters. It should be remembered that consumers differ in the amount and nature of information they seek while purchasing products. Also, the amount of information that consumers perceive is generally less than the amount that is actually present. In such a scenario the results of this dissertation need to be compared with consumers' information perceptions.
REFERENCES


CODING INSTRUMENT

Coder Instructions

1. You will be given videotapes of recorded home shopping shows. Find the product segment listed on the check-off sheet. The clock counter is in the format hour:minute.

2. Finding the segment:
   - You must fast forward (FF) to the product and approximate clock counter location. We have only given the first three numbers: hours:minutes (no seconds) Ex. 2:40 not 2:40:08.
   - [The TV displays all five numbers.]
   - To use the remote control, hit the DISPLAY key.
   - To FF or Rewind slowly, do so while in play mode
   - The 1 MINUTE key advances the tape approximately one minute more.

3. Watch the segment and check off what types of the following information that you see in the ad. Place a hash mark on the blank for every time you
hear the type of information used in the ad or see it on the screen in print.

4. These segments will sometimes contain previews and reviews of other products; do not evaluate any of the other products reviewed or previewed.

5. You may pause the tape if you need to do so at any time.

6. You will be given a new check-off sheet for each separate product advertisement.
Name of Evaluator ________ Item number ___ Rater ___ Tape Number ________

Network Channel _____ Weekday/Weekend ________ Time ________
(1: QVC, 2: VV, 3: HSN) (1: day, 2: end) (1: 7 to 3, 2: 3 to 11, 3: 11 to 7)

Clock Counter: _____ to _____ Length _____ (hour):(minute)

Product(s) ____________ Category____ (1: clothing, 2: houseware, 3: decor)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality/Material/Features</th>
<th>How well it is made. What material or finish is on the product? Comments about durability, excellence of materials. Features of the product. Comfort of material or shape.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Good price, good value, affordable, reduced price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use/Care/Performance</td>
<td>Use, care (How to clean/ease of cleaning), other something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Components</td>
<td>What else comes with the product?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>Color, shape, or other description of appearance.(Do not count each color separately.) How it will look.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>What sizes are available? What is its capacity or volume?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Any reports regarding it, or organization seal of approval.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>What does it cost?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment Schedule</td>
<td>May one make more, smaller payments?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warranty</td>
<td>What post-purchase assurances come with it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability</td>
<td>How much time is left? How many are left remaining? Quantity sold so far display Only a few are left... There isn't much time...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel</td>
<td>How you will feel owning the product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td>What others will think of you or the product. Your family will love....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host Testimonials</td>
<td>How host feels about the product: I like this...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caller Testimonials</td>
<td>Callers report good things about the product. Count each caller only once.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contest</td>
<td>Any contest, lucky number, or involvement of viewers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

DATA AGGREGATION

The following calculations were performed to determine the variability among raters and to consolidate the data in a meaningful way.

1. Since the study used utilitarian and value-expressive appeals, ratio of social and self-congruity appeals, and total information cues as the dependent variables, these were calculated as:
   a. $UA = \sum (Quality/material/features, Use/care/performance, Components, Size, Research, Price, Payment Schedule, Warranty, and Availability)$.
   b. $VA = \sum (Appearance, Value, Feel, Image, Host Testimonials, Caller Testimonials, Contest)$

2. Total number of utilitarian appeals and value-expressive appeals for each segment for each rater was calculated.

3. The total number of segments wherein the raters were in total or near agreement (with a range $\pm 5$ frequencies) in coding the number of utilitarian appeals was 37. The inter-rater reliability among raters in coding utilitarian appeals was 0.52.
4. The total number of segments wherein the raters were in total or near agreement (with a range \(\pm 5\) frequencies) in coding the number of value-expressive appeals was 44. The inter-rater reliability in coding value-expressive appeals was 0.62.

5. The aggregate inter-rater reliability was calculated to be 0.57.

6. One-way ANOVA with post-hoc Scheffe test was performed to determine if any one of the raters was significantly different from the others in coding utilitarian and value-expressive appeals. The test indicated that rater one was significantly different from the other raters in coding both utilitarian and value-expressive appeals.

7. It was found that on 19 television shopping segments: 1 (18, 9)\(^1\), 3 (49, 26, 40), 4 (37, 24, 33), 5 (18, 9, 8), 9 (42, 31, 21), 10 (19, 17, 9), 12 (43, 17, 23), 26 (28, 17, 17), 42 (24, 14, 17), 43 (39, 24, 20), 44 (19, 8, 6), 53 (42, 21, 25), 57 (21, 12, 12), 61 (67, 30, 34), 62 (29, 15, 17), 65 (36, 21, 19), 66 (29, 22, 17), 67 (42, 24, 31), and 75 (20, 14, 10) rater one's frequencies were higher than the other raters.

8. It was found that on 8 television shopping segments: 1 (20, 5)\(^2\), 3 (14, 6, 1), 6 (13, 6, 2), 14 (9, 1, 0), 36 (28, 10, 3), 43 (21, 11, 10), 65 (22, 13, 10), and 75 (16, 4, 6) rater one's frequencies of value-expressive appeals were higher than the other raters by more than five standard deviations.

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\(^1\) a \((x, y, z)\) refers to a, television shopping segment number \((x\); rater one's total sum of frequencies of information cues that constitute utilitarian appeal, followed by \(y, z\) those of the other raters).

\(^2\) a \((l, m, n)\) refers to a, television shopping segment number \((l\); rater one's total sum of frequencies of information cues that constitute value-expressive appeal, followed by \(m, n\) those of the other raters).
9. One-way ANOVA and post-hoc Scheffe test using individual information cues as the dependent variables and rater as the independent variable revealed that the differences between the raters was most significant in coding information cues: quality/material/features, value, use/care/performance, components, appearance, feel, image, host testimonials, and contest. Since in step (1) it was determined that rater one was the one who was significantly different from others in coding, information cues on which this rater differed from all the others were alone taken for further analyses. It was found that rater one differed significantly from all others in coding use/care/performance, image, and host testimonials. Rater one's frequencies were higher than other raters.

10. Steps (7 and 8) revealed the television shopping segments for utilitarian and value-expressive appeals where rater one's frequencies were higher than other raters. These television shopping segments were selected and the three types of information cues (use/care/performance, image, and host testimonials) in which rater one differed significantly from others were visually examined. It was found that among the television shopping segments in which the total utilitarian appeal was higher for rater one, the frequencies of information cue on use/care/performance were: 9 (8, 1, 5), 12 (8, 4, 3), 26 (10, 6, 3), 42 (11, 5, 2), 43 (13, 5, 1), 44 (10, 1, 2), 61 (14, 3, 5), and 66 (10, 3, 7). Among the television shopping segments where rater one was higher than other raters, the frequencies of variable for "image" were: 1 (2, 0), 3 (1, 0, 0), 6 (2, 0, 0), 14 (1, 0, 0), 36 (0, 0, 1), 43 (3, 0, 0), 65 (0, 0, 0), 75 (1, 0, 0). For "host testimonials"

3 The number a (b,c,d) refer to a, television shopping segment number (b, rater one's frequency for use/care/performance variable, followed by c, d, those of other two raters).
the frequencies were: 1 (6, 0), 3 (6, 2, 0), 6 (2, 0, 0), 14 (2, 0, 0), 36 (5, 1, 1), 43 (1, 1, 1), and 75 (4, 0, 0).

11. Based on these calculations, data were aggregated by calculating the mean of the frequencies of the raters and substituting the three raters' frequencies with the mean for each television segment.

12. For 19 television shopping segments where rater one's coding of utilitarian appeal was higher for the information cue use/care/performance, the mean of the three raters was substituted with the M-estimator. However the mean of the frequencies of "image" and "host testimonial" did not vary from the M-estimator for the 8 television shopping segments that rater one differed from the other raters. Therefore, the mean was taken for these television shopping segments.

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*M-estimators are more robust than the median or the mean in measuring central tendency. They differ from other measures of central tendency in the weights they apply to the cases. Extreme values receive less weight than values closer to the center. When the data are from a symmetric distribution with long tails, or when the data have extreme values, M-estimators provide better estimates of the location than do the mean or median (SPSS Help). Huber's M-estimator is used to substitute for the mean value of the three raters.*