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The Power of Curiosity: The Effects of Mobile Teaser Ads

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Abstract

Mobile advertising using the Short Messaging Service (SMS), also referred to as text messaging, has become very popular in recent years. However, SMS advertisements are often regarded as junk mail and show mixed ad effects. This study examines "mobile teaser ads" and conducts two experiments to reveal how brand familiarity, spokesperson likeability, and spokesperson familiarity influence product curiosity in consumers with different SMS attitudes. Results indicate that for teaser ads featuring high-familiarity brands, a more likeable and more familiar spokesperson reduces consumer curiosity. For ads pertaining to low-familiarity brands, spokesperson likeability and familiarity have positive influences on curiosity for consumers with more favorable SMS attitudes. Spokesperson variables, in contrast, do not influence reactions from consumers with less favorable SMS attitudes. The implication of these and other findings are discussed.

Keywords: Mobile advertising; Teaser advertising; Curiosity

Introduction

As communication technology advances, mobile devices such as cellular phones have become a popular marketing medium due to their interactivity, speed, segmentation, and personalization—all of which help to attract new customers and improve service quality (Central News Agency, 2009). In 2007 alone, about US$2.6 billion were spent on mobile advertising in the global market, with the amount estimated to climb to US$19 billion by 2012 (EpochTimes, 2008). A growing number of firms employ SMS (Short Messaging Service) ads in brand promotion (Okazaki, Katsukura, and Nishiyama, 2007). In Taiwan, the rate of mobile phone ownership is greater than 100%, and most cell phone users send or receive text messages frequently (Tsang, Ho, and Liang, 2004). A survey by the research organization, Institute for Information Industry, indicates that in 2010, companies intend to sharply decrease their reliance on traditional media and public relations for marketing activities, while the use of digital media continues to rise. This is certainly the case for mobile advertising, whose usage intention has grown 14.3% over the previous year (i.e., 2009). Among mobile-advertising formats, the SMS format dominates with a 95.5% usage ratio (FIND, 2009).

Although the extensive use of text messaging speaks to its market potential, SMS advertising is not without disadvantages. According to Nielsen global online consumer survey, text message ads on mobile phones are the least trusted among major paid advertising media (AC Nielsen, 2009), implying that SMS ads, in nature, are less effective when promoting brands and products. Besides, compared to other interactive

medium, mobile media has limited bandwidth, and lacks both a standardized transmission format and receiving hardware (Carat Interactive, 2002); as such, the ability to deliver complete product information is often lacking (Nysven, Pedersen, Thorbjornsen, and Berthon, 2005). Furthermore, another drawback of today's SMS format is the limitation on the number of characters any message may include (Lian, 2007; Merisavo et al., 2007); a text message can only contain 160 English characters or 70 Chinese characters. As such, SMS advertising cannot convey much information and may not be more effective in promoting brands and products than ordinary product ads. Owing to the unique qualities of SMS advertising, they may prove more useful as part of a "teaser advertising" campaign.

According to the Business Dictionary, a teaser ad is an ad that does not reveal full information about the advertiser or the product; teaser ads may consist of an unfinished ad story or a partial view of the advertised product, and may even pertain to an unspecified product category. The purpose is to arouse widespread attention and build excitement and expectation through evoking consumer curiosity. As teaser ads are designed to deliberately conceal product information from the audience, the SMS character-count limitation is not such a large problem for teaser ads run in SMS format. Further, such a limitation can also be overcome when a SMS teaser ad successfully arouses recipients' curiosity, which in turn increases their motivation to search for additional information (Loewenstein, 1994) by conveniently using their mobile phones to make calls or go online. Furthermore, making good use of curiosity effects can also improve recipients' learning and product evaluation (Menon and Soman, 2002).

SMS advertising has received considerable attention in the marketing literature (e.g., Carroll, Barnes, Scornavacca, and Fletcher, 2007; Okazaki and Taylor, 2007; Zhang and Mao, 2008). Many studies discuss the effects of SMS ads and the factors that influence consumer acceptance of and attitudes towards these ads (e.g., Carroll et al., 2007; Drossos et al., 2007; Jun and Lee, 2007; Merisavo et al., 2007; Zhang and Mao, 2008; Cheng, Blankson, Wang, and Chen, 2009). However, most studies limit the application of SMS ads to ordinary product advertisements, which mainly convey brand image and product information (e.g., Rettie, Grandcolas, and Deakins, 2005; Chen and Hsieh, 2006; Peng, 2006; Unni and Harmon, 2007; Wang, 2007). As such, neither the effects of SMS teaser ad nor the importance of product curiosity has been explored.

This study aims to fill the research gap outlined above by discussing the effects of mobile teaser ads. To be more specific, this study explores how brand-related and ad-execution-related factors of SMS teaser ads influence recipient curiosity and their subsequent responses, as well as the moderating role of consumer attitudes towards SMS. Enrico (1995) suggests that in order to arouse curiosity, teaser ads should provide some clues from which consumers can infer undisclosed product messages. However,

few previous studies discuss which factors or clues provoke curiosity. Moreover, the proven antecedent variables of curiosity, including novelty, complexity, surprise (Berlyne, 1960), and conflict (Lowry and Johnson, 1981) are more abstract in terms of business applications. The present study, therefore, examines the causes of curiosity by adopting the concept of the "knowledge gap" (Menon and Soman, 2002), and suggests that any variable influencing the size of the knowledge gap also affects curiosity.

Brands and spokespersons are common elements in designing teaser ads. For example, an advertisement for the launch of "J" by Panasonic in July, 2009 shows only the brand name, Panasonic, and the message that "a mysterious vessel carrying J is about to dock", without revealing anything about what "J" is. In another example, a large-sized outdoor ad displayed in February, 2003 includes only a facial close-up of Britney Spears, the English interrogative "What do you want?", and the brand name and logo of TOYOTA. Despite the pervasive use of brands and spokespersons in teaser ads, these aspects have been neglected in previous teaser advertising studies, and whether they can successfully arouse consumer curiosity remains unknown. This paper proposes that brand familiarity, spokesperson likeability, and spokesperson familiarity may all influence the consumer knowledge gap, and empirically examines their influence on curiosity.

In examining the effects of SMS ads, consumers' roles cannot be overlooked, as their varying habits or opinions regarding SMS may lead to different reactions. Rarely have past studies focused on consumers' general attitudes towards online interactive media (Liu, 2007), let alone their attitudes towards the SMS medium. Stewart and Pavlou (2002) point out that, in discussing interactive media, research should not only focus on potential effects but should also consider consumers' general attitudes. Therefore, the present study also discusses the moderating effects of consumer attitudes towards SMS.

Literature review

1. SMS ads

Mobile advertising refers to ads sent to viewers through wireless communication devices such as mobile phones or PDAs (Dickinger, Haghirian, Murphy, and Scharl, 2004) via formats including SMS, MMS, PDA, WAP, and i-Mode. The focus of this study is on SMS—the most common format for mobile advertising (Okazaki, 2005). Based on the method of transmission, SMS ads can be "pushed" or "pulled" (Chen and Hsieh, 2006). Pull advertisements can be sent following a consumer request. As such, most ad agencies choose push advertisements, where messages are sent directly to mobile phones, regardless of any consumer request (Quah and Lim, 2002); as the latter outnumber the former (FIND, 2009), this study focuses only on push ads.

There is a rich body of literature devoted to the antecedents of consumer acceptance of and attitudes towards SMS ads. These antecedents fall into one of five categories: (a) industrial factors, including technology, transmission time, complexity, and regulations (e.g., Scharl, Dickinger, and Murphy, 2005; Vatanparast and Asil, 2007); (b) media factors, including marketer-to-consumer interactions, incentives, and permission (e.g., Barnes and Scornavacca, 2004; Bauer, Barnes, Reichardt, and Neumann, 2005); (c) message factors, including advertising values, credibility, degree of personalization, and appeal type (e.g., Tsang et al., 2004; Drossos et al., 2007; Nantel and Sekhavat, 2008); (d) product factors, including product fitness, product familiarity, and product guarantees (e.g., Barnes and Scornavacca, 2004; Peng, 2006); and (e) consumer factors, including demographics, interest in technology, past experience, emotional attachment to mobile devices, and motivations for mobile phone use (e.g., Jun and Lee, 2007; Okazaki et al., 2007; Kolsaker and Drakators, 2009).

In terms of the effects of SMS advertising, scholars find that it can reinforce the relationship between consumers and firms because it can effectively target suitable consumers and convey focused messages (Barnes and Scornavacca, 2004). While the response rates are 3% and 1%, respectively, for direct mail and online banners, the corresponding rate for SMS advertising is 40% (Jelassi and Enders, 2004). Moreover, SMS ads are effective, both as a branding vehicle and in terms of stimulating response; they can significantly improve consumers' brand attitudes, purchase intentions, and loyalty (McMillan and Hwang, 2002; Rettie et al., 2005).

2. Teaser ads and theory of curiosity

Industries including entertainment, automobiles, and 3C products (Computer, Communication, and Consumer Electronics) often use teaser ads to increase consumer curiosity about products that will soon be launched. Despite the pervasive use of teaser ads, scholars have placed little emphasis on this unique advertising style, and there are only three related studies to date. Fazio, Herr, and Powell (1992) discover that unlike ordinary ads that reveal brand names immediately, "mystery ads" that only reveal brand names near the end may be more effective in building associations in the memory between the product category and the brand; however, they only work when the audience is unfamiliar with the brand. Hung (2001) proposes that music helps the audience interpret hidden messages in a teaser ad, especially when music is associated with certain visual images. Menon and Soman (2002) find that a teaser ad that provides some product clues and leaves the audience's knowledge gap at a medium level can lead to stronger curiosity than when the knowledge gap is at a low or high level; besides, curiosity leads to more extensive goal-oriented elaboration and better learning.

The primary purpose of teaser ads is to arouse consumer curiosity. Curiosity refers to the need and desire for information (Loewenstein, 1994). The gap between "what people want to know" and "what people already know" is called the "information gap" (Loewenstein, 1994) or "knowledge gap" (Menon and Soman, 2002). When a knowledge gap exists, consumers not only feel curious, but also experience an aversive feeling of deprivation or discomfort; as such, they have a strong desire to gather additional information to modify the incomplete knowledge structure and reduce their negative feelings (Berlyne, 1960). Menon and Soman (2002) posit that the intensity of the curiosity and the size of the knowledge gap have an inverted-U relationship. When the gap is too wide, the difficulty of filling the gap increases, and consumers tend to give up, in turn decreasing their curiosity. However, if the gap is too small, there is no challenge, and consumers do not feel compelled to seek out additional information. Loewenstein (1994) suggests that when people gain information on an object, the objective value of information declines, even though the object may remain unknown. Consequently, when the consumer knowledge gap is too small, their curiosity towards the object is also likely to decline because they can make reasonable assumptions about the content with a certain degree of confidence. A moderate gap, therefore, leads to stronger curiosity than does either alternative (Menon and Soman, 2002).

Conceptual model and research hypotheses

Rooted in the theory of curiosity, this paper examines how brand familiarity, spokesperson likeability, and spokesperson familiarity embedded in a SMS teaser ad work as curiosity clues, affecting consumers' product curiosity and subsequent behavioral intentions. The moderating effect of consumer individual differences pertaining to SMS attitudes is also explored. The conceptual model of this study is shown in Figure 1. Next, the authors discuss the effects of brand and spokesperson factors on "what people already know", which affects the size of the knowledge gap. This is followed by a definition of SMS attitude and the research hypotheses.

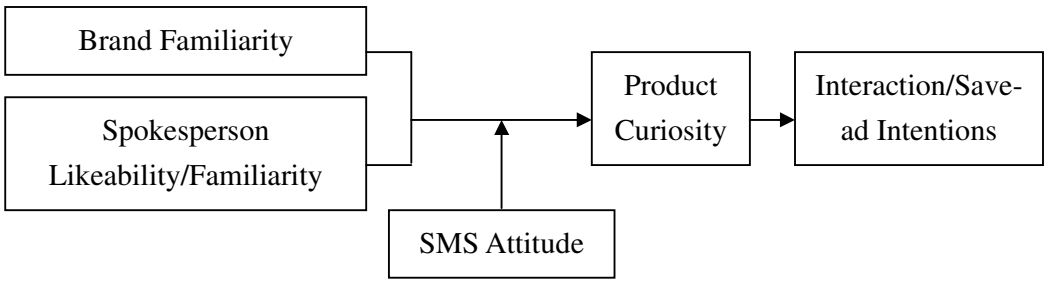

Figure 1. Conceptual model of this study

1. Brand familiarity

The greatest difference between familiar and unfamiliar brands is the amount of relevant knowledge in consumers' minds (Kent and Allen, 1994; Campbell and Keller, 2003). Consumers have stronger and more diverse memories associated with familiar brands, and the associations may come from past consumption experience, previous advertisements, or word-of-mouth recommendations from family or friends (Low and Lamb, 2000); all of these can help consumers understand how familiar brands are usually positioned, packaged, and linked to certain product categories. As a result, when they see a teaser ad for a familiar brand, consumers may infer the hidden messages based on their associative memories, and thereby reduce the knowledge gap. Loewenstein (1994) proposes that when the relative relationship of the changes in the knowledge gap is known, experimental situations and hypotheses can be established without any need to measure the actual size of the gap. Therefore, the size of the knowledge gap mentioned in this study is a relative concept whereby the gap becomes smaller as more information becomes known.

2. Spokesperson likeability and familiarity

Spokesperson likeability focuses on whether the audience has globally positive responses to the spokesperson (Walker and Dubitsky, 1994). Advertisements that consumers like more receive a greater amount of attention, which in turn affects the degree to which they learn the messages it carries (Walker and Dubitsky, 1994). On the same basis, consumers usually pay more attention to favorable celebrity spokespersons and are thus highly familiar with them. Because consumers have a greater understanding of expectations, behaviors, and thoughts of their familiar people (Jayanti and Whipple, 2008), this paper assumes that consumers who are familiar with a spokesperson may use their memories associated with him or her to make inferences about what an endorsed product might be, based on previous products endorsed by the spokesperson and his/her entertainment-work experiences, as well as personal information about the spokesperson. Therefore, even with the incomplete product information offered in a teaser ad, consumers may make inferences and thus reduce the knowledge gap based on their knowledge regarding the spokesperson. In contrast, consumers cannot make the same inferences regarding an unfamiliar spokesperson, because they will not have paid a similar amount of attention to him or her.

3. SMS attitude

According to the scholarly definition of attitude (Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard, 1993; Kotler, Ang, Leong, and Tan, 1999) and technology readiness (Parasuraman, 2000), the SMS attitude in this study is defined as a long-term cognitive evaluation, affect, and behavioral tendency in a consumer towards SMS; a consumer with a more favorable SMS attitude means that he or she is more used to and likes sending/receiving SMS. Bauer and Greyser (1968) discover that a general attitude towards ads influences how consumers respond to specific advertisements. Consumers who have generally negative ad attitudes may not agree with all product commercials; in contrast, consumers with generally positive ad attitudes may have more favorable responses toward product commercials. Therefore, this paper assumes that consumers with more favorable SMS attitudes will display more favorable attitudes towards and a higher level of trust in all SMS information (including SMS ads) and be more motivated to read/process SMS information than consumers with less favorable SMS attitudes.

4. Hypotheses for consumers with more favorable SMS attitudes

Consumers who have more favorable SMS attitudes are likely to pay close attention to the content of text messages because they like receiving text messages. Therefore, they are also more likely to notice the curiosity clues in a text teaser ad and to use these clues to reduce their knowledge gap. Due to the limited number of characters allowed (Merisavo et al., 2007) and the incomplete nature of teaser ads (BusinessDictionary), a significant knowledge gap is expected to emerge when consumers receive a mobile SMS teaser ad. For a highly familiar brand, consumers can use their existing knowledge and previous memories associated with the brand to make inferences about the advertised product, and thereby reduce the knowledge gap from high to medium. A likeable or familiar spokesperson enables consumers to use their stored knowledge regarding the spokesperson to make further inferences, and thereby reduce the knowledge gap from medium to low. In contrast, when the spokesperson likeability/familiarity is low, consumers cannot make further inferences about the product because their knowledge regarding the spokesperson is limited; thus, the knowledge gap remains unchanged at a medium level. Further, since a small-sized knowledge gap leads to less curiosity than a medium-sized gap (Menon and Soman, 2002), this paper hypothesizes that when consumers with more favorable SMS attitudes receive a mobile teaser ad featuring a highly familiar brand, a more likeable/familiar spokesperson will generate reduced consumer curiosity as compared to a less likeable/familiar one.

Curiosity not only drives people to elaborate on the knowledge gap and come up with corresponding hypotheses in an attempt to fill it, but also encourages them to seek out additional information to test their hypotheses (Klayman and Ha, 1987). Menon and

Soman (2002) point out that product curiosity leads to more extensive goal-oriented elaboration, more information-searching, and better attitudinal responses. Therefore, this paper infers that when consumers have a medium-distance knowledge gap (e.g., under a high-familiarity brand and a low-likeability/familiarity spokesperson condition) and thus stronger curiosity, an aversive feeling of deprivation resulting from a lack of related knowledge (Berlyne, 1960) or anticipated pleasure from satisfying the curiosity (Loewenstein, 1994) motivates them to seek out additional product information to either reduce the feelings of deprivation or increase feelings of pleasure. Further, as the advertised product has not yet been released, the only source of product information at that time is the product firm itself (Lilly, 2000). Thus, consumers should exhibit a higher level of intention to interact with firms to gather more information. In addition, consumers are more likely to save the text messages for future contact with the firm. In contrast, when consumers have a low level of curiosity (e.g., under a high-familiarity brand and a high likeability/familiarity spokesperson condition), their interaction intentions and ad-saving intentions are likely to be reduced, since it is unlikely that they will feel the need to search for additional information. In other words, product curiosity should act as a mediator in terms of the effects of curiosity clues on behavior intentions. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is posited:

H1: When consumers have more favorable SMS attitudes and the mobile teaser ad features a high-familiarity brand, a spokesperson's (a) likeability and (b) familiarity will negatively affect consumer curiosity, as well as their subsequent intentions to interact with the firm and save the SMS ad.

When an advertisement features a low-familiarity brand, consumers often lack the brand-associated memories (Low and Lamb, 2000) that can help as they attempt to infer the ad's hidden messages; this results in a large knowledge gap. In this context, the memories associated with a likeable/familiar spokesperson (e.g., his/her image and previous product-endorsing experiences) may serve as inference cues, increasing the amount of "what people already know", which reduces the consumer knowledge gap to a medium level. However, such an inference-facilitating process is less likely to happen when spokesperson likeability/familiarity is low because consumers do not have many spokesperson-associated memories. Thus, the knowledge gap remains at a high level. That said, a medium-distance knowledge gap leads to stronger curiosity (Menon and Soman, 2002), so a high-likeability/familiarity spokesperson endorsing a low-familiarity brand has a more positive influence on consumers' curiosity and subsequent behavioral intentions than a low-likeability/familiarity spokesperson, as posited here:

H2: When consumers have more favorable SMS attitudes and the mobile teaser ad features a low-familiarity brand, a spokesperson's (a) likeability and (b) familiarity will positively affect consumer curiosity, as well as their subsequent intentions to interact with the firm and save the SMS ad.

5. Hypotheses for consumers with less favorable SMS attitudes

Consumers with less favorable SMS attitudes, as compared to those with more favorable SMS attitudes, are less used to and less fond of sending/receiving text messages. Therefore, they may also not like receiving SMS ads, have a lower level of trust in SMS ads, and in turn be less motivated to read them. In such a context, brand familiarity may have a moderating effect on consumer reactions towards ads. As pointed out by Kent and Allen (1994), given the large number of ads consumers encounter everyday, they attend to and elaborate on ad information in a highly selective manner. For high-familiarity brands, consumers may pay more attention and assign more cognitive resources to relative advertisements because familiar brands have higher availability to them. Alba, Hutchinson, and Lynch (1991) find that in a shopping setting, what consumers see is often driven by brand familiarity because they naturally pay more attention to more familiar brands. Thus, although consumers with less favorable SMS attitudes are less fond of receiving text messages, they may still pay attention to the ad content if it features a high-familiarity brand, which may in turn trigger the curiosity clues in the ad. Besides, Hardesty, Carlson, and Bearden (2002) find that even when consumer skepticism toward advertising is high, advertising claims could still positively influence consumer attitude under a high-familiarity brand condition. To maintain consistency with their actions and beliefs, consumers may interpret ads for the familiar brands more favorably (Tellis, 1997). Therefore, the high-familiarity brand in an ad may also make consumers with less favorable SMS attitudes become more favorable and acceptable for that SMS ad, which makes the ad display its effects. High brand familiarity may reduce the consumer knowledge gap (from high to medium). If the spokesperson is likeable and familiar, the knowledge gap may be further reduced (from medium to low), which in turn reduces consumer curiosity due to the small size of the gap (Menon and Soman, 2002); this generates negative impacts on consumers' subsequent behavioral intentions, as hypothesized:

H3: When consumers have less favorable SMS attitudes and the mobile teaser ad features a high-familiarity brand, a spokesperson's (a) likeability and (b) familiarity will negatively affect consumer curiosity, as well as their subsequent intentions to interact

with the firm and save the SMS ad.

When consumers with less favorable SMS attitudes receive a teaser ad for an unfamiliar brand, the lack of attention-driving effect and favorability-improving effect associated with a familiar brand (Alba et al., 1991; Tellis, 1997) produces low motivation to process the ad. As a result, consumers do not care about who the ad spokesperson is, and spokesperson likeability and familiarity do not have any effect, such as Hardesty et al.'s (2002) findings that consumers high in skepticism toward advertising are not affected by the price claims in ads when brand familiarity is low. Thus, the following hypothesis is posited:

H4: When consumers have less favorable SMS attitudes and the mobile teaser ad features a low-familiarity brand, a spokesperson's (a) likeability and (b) familiarity will not affect consumer curiosity, nor their subsequent intentions to interact with the firm and save the SMS ad.

Experiment 1

Experiment 1 explored whether brand familiarity and spokesperson likeability embedded in a mobile teaser ad could arouse consumer curiosity, as well as affect their intentions to interact with the firm and to save the SMS ad. Experiment 1 also investigated the moderating effects of consumer SMS attitudes with the purpose of testing component "a" for H1 through H4.

1. Participants and design

Hanley, Becker, and Martinsen (2006) point out that most undergraduate students are early adopters of the latest digital technologies and heavy users of mobile phones. Brier (2004) also finds that compared to other age groups, the 18-24 age group has the highest access rate for mobile services (e.g., text messages, mobile Internet, and ringtone downloads), and marketers who want to use mobile marketing often target undergraduate students. Therefore, the samples for the experiments of the current paper were made up of undergraduate students.

Experiment 1 had a 2 (brand familiarity: high vs. low) x 2 (spokesperson likeability: high vs. low) between-subject factorial design and features 170 students, of whom 155 were valid samples. The average age of respondents was 21, and they were

predominantly male (57.4%). The respondents were divided into two groups: a more favorable SMS-attitude group and a less favorable SMS-attitude group, based on the median split of their scores on the SMS attitude measures.

2. Stimuli and pretests

The stimulus in experiment 1 was a SMS advertisement for a new digital camera. There were four versions of the ad, with two brands manipulating brand familiarity and two celebrity spokespersons manipulating spokesperson likeability. Pretest 1 required that 48 students determine the camera brands that would be featured in the formal experiment. The respondents assessed their familiarity with 15 camera brands on a 7-point scale from "never heard of it" to "frequently heard of it", and from "not familiar with it at all" to "very familiar with it" (Machleit, Allen, and Madden, 1993). Based on the pretest results, "Nikon" was determined to be the high-familiarity brand, and "Premier" was determined to be the low-familiarity brand ($M= 4.65$ vs. 2.81, $p<.05$). There was no significant difference between them in terms of brand likeability ($p>.05$).

As for the spokespersons, pretest 2 was conducted, in which 28 students evaluated the likeability of 10 female celebrities on a 7-point scale from "not very friendly" to "very friendly", and from "not likeable at all" to "very likeable", as adapted from Wiggins (1979). In addition, celebrity awareness (not famous/very famous), frequency of endorsement (rarely endorses products/frequently endorses products), and the level of suitability for endorsing digital cameras (not suitable for endorsing cameras/very suitable for endorsing cameras) were also measured. Based on the pretest results, "Ariel Lin" was selected as being representative of high-likeability celebrities ($M= 5.61$), while "Barbie Hsu" was selected as representative of a low-likeability counterpart ($M=3.98$, $p<.05$); they exhibited no significant differences in terms of awareness, endorsement frequency, or endorsement suitability (all $p>.05$). In the design of the SMS ad, the content of the four versions was identical except for the manipulated brand names and spokespersons. Further, as SMS ads are restricted to a limited number of characters, and the focus of this study was teaser ads, the SMS ad in the experiment did not provide complete product information; instead, it only said, "Endorsed by OOO (spokesperson), the latest digital camera by XXX (brand) will be released soon. The cool new functions will totally change the way you use digital cameras." Tsang et al. (2004) suggest that marketers who want to advertise through text messages should obtain consent from consumers beforehand or provide monetary incentives to increase consumers' willingness to accept SMS ads. Therefore, in the SMS ad, this study provided an incentive of a 10% discount on the product price if they showed the text message.

3. Procedures

At the beginning of the experiment, each respondent was asked to imagine that he/she heard an "incoming SMS" alert tone from his/her mobile phone and checked the message right away. The questionnaire included a picture of a mobile phone screen showing a SMS ad. The respondent was asked to read through the text message and then fill out the questionnaire, including measures for the dependent variables, manipulation checks, control variables, and demographic questions.

4. Measures

(1) Dependent variables

Product curiosity was assessed on a 7-point scale (strongly disagree/strongly agree) with the following statements: "I am curious about this product," and "I am interested in knowing more about this product" (α= .94, Menon and Soman, 2002). Intentions to interact with the firm were measured on a 7-point scale (strongly disagree/strongly agree) with the following items: after reading this message, "I want to reply and get more information," and "I want to call back to get more information" (α= .84, Jun and Lee, 2007). The respondents also indicated on a one-item, 7-point scale (strongly disagree/strongly agree) the likelihood of their saving the SMS ad: "After reading this message, I will save it instead of deleting it."

(2) Manipulation checks and control variables

The items for brand familiarity (α= .96, Machleit et al., 1993) and spokesperson likeability (α= .94, Wiggins, 1979) were measured to test the manipulation. The experiment also controlled for spokesperson awareness, endorsement frequency, and endorsement suitability to ensure that these variables would not confound the effects of the manipulated variables. In addition, the respondents' SMS attitudes were measured using the following statements on a 7-point scale (strongly disagree/strongly agree): "I am used to accessing the text message service," "I am used to sending and receiving text messages in my everyday life," and "I like receiving text messages" (α= .75).

5. Results

(1) Manipulation checks

The respondents were more familiar with the high-familiarity brand "Nikon" than the low-familiarity brand "Premier" (M= 5.50 vs. 2.54, p<.05); in the group featuring the more likeable spokesperson, the respondents showed a greater preference for the spokesperson (M= 4.78 vs. 3.89, p<.05). The manipulated variables did not affect spokesperson awareness, endorsement frequency, or suitability (all p>.05). The more favorable SMS-attitude group had higher scores on the SMS attitude measures than did the less favorable SMS-attitude group (M= 5.72 vs. 3.34, p<.05).

(2) Hypothesis testing

First, the main effects of the experimental variables were examined. Neither brand familiarity nor spokesperson likeability had a significant influence on any dependent variable (all p>.05); the attitudes towards SMS directly influenced respondent intentions to save the message (p<.05): those with more favorable SMS attitudes were more likely to save the SMS ad (M= 2.49 vs. 1.93).

Second, the respondents with different SMS attitudes were analyzed. Table 1 suggests that, for respondents with more favorable SMS attitudes, neither brand familiarity nor spokesperson likeability influenced any of the dependent variables (all p>.05); however, they had significant interactions with product curiosity (p<.05) and intentions to interact with the firm (p<.05). When the teaser ad featured a high-familiarity brand, the more likeable spokesperson reduced consumer curiosity (M= 2.63 vs. 3.56, p<.05) and also reduced their interaction intentions (M= 1.22 vs. 1.89, p<.05). In addition, the meditative effect of product curiosity was tested using the technique recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986). First, likeability had a significant effect on curiosity (β = -.32, p<.05). Second, it also significantly affected interactive intentions (β = -.34, p<.05). Third, when both likeability and curiosity were included as predictors in the regression equation, curiosity significantly affected interactive intentions (β = .46, p<.01); however, the effects of likeability became non-significant (β = -.19, p=.179>.05). Thus, product curiosity did mediate the effects of spokesperson likeability on interactive intentions (hereafter, all meditative tests of product curiosity under different conditions used the same analysis technique, but the detailed analysis procedures were summarized in Table 2 for simplification). Although spokesperson likeability also negatively influenced intentions to save the ad (M= 2.25 vs. 2.58), the effects did not reach a significant level (p>.05); thus, H1(a) was only partially supported. When the ad featured a low-familiarity brand, spokesperson likeability had a positive impact on consumer curiosity (M= 3.28 vs. 2.39, p<.05). However, likeability did not affect intentions to interact or to save the ad (all p>.05); thus, H2(a) was only partially supported.

Table 1 Means and ANOVA results (more favorable SMS-attitude group)

	High Brand Fa. [a]		Low Brand Fa.		ANOVA F Values (p-value)		
	High S.L.	Low S.L.	High S.L.	Low S.L.	Brand Fa.	S. L.	Brand Fa. x S. L.
Product Curiosity	2.63	3.56	3.28	2.39	.784 (.379)	.006 (.937)	9.653 (.003)**
Interaction Intentions	1.22	1.89	2.26	1.63	2.350 (.129)	.006 (.941)	6.286 (.014)*
Save-ad Intentions	2.25	2.58	3.00	2.13	.123 (.727)	.381 (.539)	1.865 (.176)

Note. * p<.05 ** p<.01

a. Fa.: Familiarity; L.: Likeability; S.: Spokesperson

Table 3 indicates that, for respondents with less favorable SMS attitudes, brand familiarity had no direct effect on any dependent variable (all p>.05); however, spokesperson likeability negatively influenced product curiosity (M= 2.34 vs. 2.93; p<.05), intentions to interact with the firm (M= 1.43 vs. 2.10, p<.05) and intentions to save the ad (M= 1.48 vs. 2.38; p<.05). The simple main effect indicated that when the teaser ad featured a high-familiarity brand, the more consumers liked the spokesperson, the less curious they were about the advertised product (M= 2.42 vs. 3.29, p<.05), to interact with the firm (M= 1.40 vs. 2.14, p<.05), and the weaker their intentions were to save the ad (M= 1.58 vs. 2.64, p<.05), thus supporting H3(a). At this time, product curiosity mediated the effects of spokesperson likeability on interaction and save-ad intentions (shown in Table 2, condition 1). On the other hand, for consumers with less favorable SMS attitudes who saw an ad featuring a low-familiarity brand, spokesperson likeability had no effect on any consumer responses (all p>.05), in support of H4(a).

Table 2 Mediation of product curiosity on interaction/save-ad intentions

	Condition (1)		Condition (2)	Condition (3)	
	Y (1)	Y (2)		Y(1)	Y(2)
Regression 1 (X→C.[a])	β = -.37*	β = -.37*	β = .29*	β = -.41*	β = -.41*
Regression 2 (X→Y)	β = -.35*	β = -.40*	β = .32*	β = -.39*	β = -.43*
Regression 3 (X,C.→Y)	$\beta_{C.}$ = .36* β_{X} = -.22	$\beta_{C.}$ = .47** β_{X} = -.23	$\beta_{C.}$ = .64** β_{X} = .13	$\beta_{C.}$ = .45* β_{X} = -.21	$\beta_{C.}$ = .37* β_{X} = -.28

Note. * p<.05 ** p<.01

a. C.: Curiosity

Condition (1): under less-favorable SMS attitudes and high-familiarity brand condition in experiment 1, X: Spokesperson likeability, Y(1): interactive intentions, Y(2): save-ad intentions

Condition (2): under more-favorable SMS attitudes and low-familiarity brand condition in experiment 2, X: Spokesperson familiarity, Y: interactive intentions

Condition (3): under less-favorable SMS attitudes and high-familiarity brand condition in experiment 2, X: Spokesperson familiarity, Y(1): interactive intentions, Y(2): save-ad intentions

Table 3 Means and ANOVA results (less favorable SMS-attitude group)

	High Brand Fa. [a]		Low Brand Fa.		ANOVA F Values (p-value)		
	High S.L.	Low S.L.	High S.L.	Low S.L.	Brand Fa.	S. L.	Brand Fa. x S. L.
Product Curiosity	2.42	3.29	2.25	2.58	2.455 (.122)	4.494 (.038)*	.918 (.341)
Interaction Intentions	1.40	2.14	1.47	2.06	.000 (.996)	5.812 (.019)*	.081 (.777)
Save-ad Intentions	1.58	2.64	1.39	2.13	1.142 (.289)	7.386 (.008)**	.245 (.622)

Note. * p<.05 ** p<.01

a. Fa.: Familiarity; L.: Likeability; S.: Spokesperson

Experiment 2

Although spokesperson likeability may affect the size of the knowledge gap through spokesperson familiarity, likeability itself may also have a unique influence on the dependent variables, distorting the experimental results. As a result, experiment 2 manipulated spokesperson familiarity and controlled likeability to eliminate the influence of the latter. In addition, experiment 2 chose two other female celebrities as spokespersons and gathered different samples to again test the interactions among the experimental variables, in an attempt to increase the generalizability of the results. The purpose of experiment 2 was to test component “b” from H1 through H4.

1. Participants and design

Experiment 2 had a 2 (brand familiarity: high vs. low) x 2 (spokesperson familiarity: high vs. low) factorial design and included 189 students, of whom 171 produced valid data. The average age of respondents was 20, and they were predominantly male

(55.0%). The respondents were also divided into two SMS attitude groups based on their scores on the SMS attitude measures.

2. Stimuli, procedures, and measures

The stimulus and procedures in experiment 2 were the same as those in experiment 1, except that the female spokespersons were changed to manipulate spokesperson familiarity. Pretest 3 with 27 students asked the participants to rate the familiarity of the female celebrities on a 7-point scale (strongly disagree/strongly agree) with the following items: "I am familiar with this female celebrity," "I know much about her biography, background, and performances," "I am familiar with her work; I have seen/heard of it," "I read news about her," and "I know about her personal life." The results show that the respondents were more familiar with "Jo. Chen" (M= 3.64) than they were with "Genie Chuo" (M= 3.07, $p<.05$). Both spokespersons showed no differences in terms of likeability, awareness, endorsement frequency, or suitability (all $p>.05$). As for the measures, a new variable of "spokesperson familiarity" was added as a manipulation check, and the remainder of the variables were the same as those in experiment 1. The Cronbach's α values for the variables were all greater than .74.

3. Results

(1) Manipulation checks

The respondents were more familiar with the high-familiarity brand (M= 5.91 vs. 2.02, $p<.05$) and more familiar with the high-familiarity spokesperson (M= 3.31 vs. 2.34, $p<.05$). None of the manipulated variables influenced spokesperson likeability, awareness, endorsement frequency, or suitability (all $p>.05$). The more favorable SMS-attitude group had higher scores on the SMS attitude measures than did the less favorable SMS-attitude group (M= 5.43 vs. 3.25, $p<.05$).

(2) Hypothesis testing

In terms of the variables' main effects, neither brand familiarity nor spokesperson familiarity had significant effects on the dependent variables (all $p>.05$). However, SMS attitude had a directly positive influence on both the respondents' product curiosity (M= 3.04 vs. 2.44, $p<.05$) and intentions to save the ad (M= 2.50 vs. 2.00, $p<.05$).

The respondents in experiment 2 were also put into different groups based on their SMS attitudes. Table 4 suggests that, for the respondents with more favorable SMS attitudes,

brand familiarity and spokesperson familiarity had no significant influence on the dependent variables (all p>.05); however, there were significant interactions related to product curiosity (p<.05) and interaction intentions (p<.05). When the teaser ad featured a high-familiarity brand, a high-familiarity spokesperson led to less curiosity than did a low-familiarity spokesperson (M= 2.74 vs. 3.57, p<.05); however, because spokesperson familiarity did not affect interaction intentions (p>.05) or save-ad intentions (p>.05), H1(b) was partially supported. When the teaser ad featured a low-familiarity brand, spokesperson familiarity had positive effects only on product curiosity (M= 3.38 vs. 2.46, p<.05) and interaction intentions (M= 2.41 vs. 1.53, p<.05); thus, H2(b) was also partially supported. At this time, product curiosity meditated the impact of spokesperson familiarity on interaction intentions (shown in Table 2, condition 2).

Table 4 Means and ANOVA results (more favorable SMS-attitude group)

	High Brand Fa. [a]		Low Brand Fa.		ANOVA F Values (p-value)		
	High S. Fa.	Low S. Fa.	High S. Fa.	Low S. Fa.	Brand Fa.	S. Fa.	Brand Fa.x S. Fa.
Product Curiosity	2.74	3.57	3.38	2.46	.685 (.410)	.030 (.862)	9.410 (.003)**
Interaction Intentions	1.42	1.78	2.41	1.53	2.543 (.114)	1.192 (.278)	6.867 (.010)*
Save-ad Intentions	2.53	2.25	2.95	2.28	.368 (.545)	1.714 (.194)	.288 (.593)

Note. * p<.05 ** p<.01

a. Fa.: Familiarity; S.: Spokesperson

Table 5 indicates that when respondents had less favorable SMS attitudes, brand familiarity had no effect (all p>.05), while spokesperson familiarity negatively affected interaction intentions (M= 1.53 vs. 2.01, p<.05) and save-ad intentions (M= 1.56 vs.

2.43, p<.05). More importantly, a significant interaction existed with product curiosity (p<.05). For a teaser ad featuring a high-familiarity brand, a spokesperson with higher familiarity reduced consumers' curiosity (M= 2.07 vs. 3.10, p<.05); moreover, the simple main effect also suggested that spokesperson familiarity had a negative impact on interaction intentions (M= 1.53 vs. 2.36, p<.05) and save-ad intentions (M= 1.53 vs. 2.67, p<.05), thus supporting H3(b). At this time, product curiosity played a meditative role on the effects of spokesperson familiarity (shown in Table 2, condition 3). When the teaser ad featured a low-familiarity brand, spokesperson familiarity had no effect on any consumer responses (all p>.05); thus, H4(b) was supported.

Table 5 Means and ANOVA results (less favorable SMS-attitude group)

	High Brand Fa. [a]		Low Brand Fa.		ANOVA F Values (p-value)		
	High S. Fa.	Low S. Fa.	High S. Fa.	High S. Fa.	Brand Fa.	S. Fa.	Brand Fa.x S. Fa.
Product Curiosity	2.07	3.10	2.33	2.26	1.116 (.295)	3.150 (.080)	4.153 (.046)*
Interaction Intentions	1.53	2.36	1.53	1.67	2.148 (.147)	4.101 (.047)*	2.100 (.152)
Save-ad Intentions	1.53	2.67	1.59	2.19	.422 (.518)	7.170 (.009)**	.671 (.415)

Note. * p<.05 ** p<.01

a. Fa.: Familiarity; S.: Spokesperson

General discussion

1. Conclusions

This study finds that mobile phone users' SMS attitudes have a significant influence on how they react when receiving SMS ads. Although the effects are not identical across

the two experiments, the overall pattern indicates that, after seeing a mobile teaser ad, consumers who are more fond of text messages are also more curious about the advertised product and more likely to save the ad.

Across different combinations of SMS attitudes and brand familiarity, spokesperson likeability and spokesperson familiarity show similar patterns. For consumers with more favorable SMS attitudes, a high-familiarity brand in a mobile teaser ad can drive consumers to use relative brand associations to infer hidden information and reduce the knowledge gap. In such a context, if the same ad features a spokesperson with higher likeability/familiarity, consumers also use these spokesperson-related clues to fill in the knowledge gap, which results in a gap that is too small to evoke curiosity. When the teaser ad features a low-familiarity brand, the knowledge gap is at a high level because consumers know little about the brand and the information provided is incomplete. A spokesperson with higher likeability/familiarity in turn helps consumers reduce the knowledge gap to a moderate level and thereby generates stronger curiosity. In short, if both brand familiarity and spokesperson likeability/familiarity are high (low), the amount of information that people already know may be too much (little), so the knowledge gap will be too small (large) and lead to less product curiosity. While only one of the brand and spokesperson factors is high, the knowledge gap will be medium-sized and lead to stronger product curiosity.

Consumers who have less favorable attitudes towards SMS messages are less fond of receiving any SMS information, but high-familiarity brands can increase their motivation to process a mobile teaser ad. At the same time, the associations that come with the high-familiarity brand help reduce the knowledge gap. If the ad also features a spokesperson with higher likeability/familiarity, the result is a knowledge gap that is too small to arouse consumer curiosity, which in turn leads to a reduced willingness to interact with the firm and save the ad. If the ad features a low-familiarity brand, however, consumers lack the motivation to process the ad, and the ad's spokesperson, regardless the degree of likeability/familiarity, has no influence on those consumers' reactions.

2. Theoretical implications

Due to the low cost, high speed, and anonymity of SMS advertising, it is overused and misused, generating a large number of junk messages that bother consumers and making them feel more negative towards SMS ads. Many scholars have studied SMS advertising in recent years in an attempt to determine the factors that influence consumer acceptance of and attitudes towards SMS advertising (e.g., Carroll et al., 2007; Drossos et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2009), and also to improve its effectiveness. However,

according to Nielsen global online consumer survey, text message ads on mobile phones are the least trusted among major paid advertising media (AC Nielsen, 2009), implying that SMS ads, in nature, are less effective when promoting brands and products. The current study is the first that proposes using text messages as teaser ads and focuses on arousing consumer curiosity. The findings demonstrate that SMS itself is an excellent medium for sending teaser ads, and that once consumer curiosity is successfully aroused, they may simply use their phones to interact with the firm and acquire additional product information. Thus, unlike past studies in which SMS ads were treated only as a way to promote brands and products, this study has generated new insights regarding the use of SMS ads. In addition, the variables adopted in this study have been neglected in prior SMS advertising studies; these variables have significant interaction effects on curiosity that may in turn influence consumer intentions to interact with and/or save the ad. In this way, these results complement the findings of previous studies.

This paper gives additional emphasis to the role played by recipient SMS attitudes, which differ from their general attitudes toward SMS ads. SMS attitude is a more super-ordinate construct that broadly affects people's responses toward all SMS information. Before recipients read a SMS and perceive it is an advertisement, SMS attitude has already had an effect on their attitudes and reading motives towards the SMS. Therefore, SMS attitudes may be more influential than recipients' general attitudes towards SMS ads. Further, Wang (2001) finds that consumers' general attitudes toward SMS ads do not interact with SMS ad contents in terms of the measures of recognition and ad effects. Drossos et al. (2007) also find that consumers' general SMS ad attitudes do not moderate the impact of message appeals or source credibility on advertising effectiveness. However, the significantly interactive effects of SMS attitude in the current paper suggest that the same SMS message can potentially create different outcomes for different consumers; this finding provides preliminary evidence in support of the importance of SMS attitudes, and should entice a greater number of scholars to pay attention to this important construct. Moreover, this study also contributes to interactive advertising research. Researchers who wish to encourage consumers to interact with firms can focus on the variable of "curiosity", which can serve as an important mediator.

At this point in time, few scholars have addressed the effects of teaser ads despite their extensive use in practice. The findings of the current paper demonstrate that they do influence consumer curiosity and behavioral intentions, and confirm the importance of teaser ads. As such, this type of advertising deserves additional attention from researchers. The study results also suggest that the curiosity theory of Menon and Soman (2002) can be applied to SMS-based teaser ads. The size of the knowledge gap has an important influence on consumer curiosity, and a medium-sized knowledge gap leads to stronger curiosity. Furthermore, previous studies on teaser ads have never

addressed the effects of spokespersons, even though they are often featured in teaser ads. This study empirically examines spokespersons' characteristics and confirms their influence on curiosity, thus contributing to research into teaser ads. Unlike spokesperson likeability and familiarity, which usually have positive advertising effects in ordinary product ads (e.g., Chaiken, 1980; Chebat, Laroche, Baddoura, and Filiatrault, 1992; Weisbuch and Mackie, 2009), spokespersons' characteristics may instead lead to negative effects, depending on the size of knowledge gap. Therefore, when scholars want to explain/predict the effects of teaser ads, consistent with the different core response variables, directly applying the theories from ordinary product ads is inappropriate. Scholars should establish exclusive theoretical models for teaser ads, and this study provides a preliminary starting point.

3. Managerial implications

This study also provides important suggestions for advertisers. The findings suggest that advertisers should experiment with teaser ads when formulating advertising strategies. Increasing consumer curiosity in an attempt to have them spontaneously seek more information is often better than directly presenting a significant quantity of information. Companies with greater brand familiarity that wish to utilize SMS teaser advertising should consider the spokesperson's likeability and familiarity and determine whether the spokesperson should be named in the ad. If the spokesperson is likeable and familiar to consumers, the spokesperson's identity should be hidden in the teaser ad. However, companies with low brand familiarity should carefully select the ad's target audience and send the teaser ad only to consumers who respond more favorably towards text messages. As to how to find such consumers, companies could consider people's usage ratio or service payments of text messages or directly target young generations because they are more likely to be heavier users of mobile service (Brier, 2004; Hanley et al., 2006). Those companies should also work with a high-likeability and high-familiarity spokesperson whose identity should be revealed in the ad. In addition, advertisers who use traditional media (e.g., television and magazines) for teaser ads should note the concept of the "knowledge gap". Though a teaser ad needs to provide some clues to arouse consumer curiosity, the number of clues must be limited, and the aim should be to try to make consumers reach a moderate knowledge gap.

In this study, SMS teaser ads are sent without recipients' prior consent. Although unsolicited SMS ads are illegal in some countries, to the best of the authors' knowledge, there are still many countries with a high rate of mobile phone ownership that have no explicit regulations that strictly forbid such ads, including China, India, Indonesia (the three largest mobile markets in the world in recent years, Kumar, 2009), Bangladesh, Turkey, Russia, South Africa, and other emerging markets. Furthermore, even in

countries that have passed anti-mobile-spam laws, it is still possible for consumers to receive mobile teaser ads. For example, in countries that adopt an opt-out approach, like the US, South Korea, and Japan, marketers can send unsolicited commercial communication to recipients, but must provide clear instructions to the receivers so that they can opt out of future wireless ads from these sources (ITU, 2005). Therefore, consumers in these countries are more likely to receive at least some mobile ads. At this time, the content of the first-contact ad is extraordinarily important. If marketers can send a well-designed teaser ad, this may lead to increased consumer curiosity, and also improve consumers' interactive intentions with the firm, thereby increasing their intention to receive subsequent ads. As such, the findings in this paper offer important referent value for marketers, especially those in opt-out countries, to design a superior first-contact ad.

Finally, Hofstede (1984) has classified many country cultures on a continuum of individualism (e.g., Western countries) versus collectivism (e.g., Asian countries). Hofstede (1984) as well as Han and Shavitt (1994) suggest that employing celebrities to bring credibility to product endorsements and to transfer their symbolic properties to consumers is more consistent with the communicative mode in collectivistic cultures, and that the use of celebrities is more effective in collectivistic cultures. Choi, Lee, and Kim (2005) compare the implementation of celebrity endorsements in TV ads within the individualistic US and the collectivistic Korea and find that Korean ads employ celebrity endorsers far more frequently than their counterparts in the US (57% versus 9.3%), which also reflects the importance of celebrity spokespersons in collectivistic cultures. Therefore, exploring the celebrity effects of likeability and familiarity in collectivistic Taiwan is very suitable, and provides additional practical value for international companies that use spokespersons in mobile marketing in collectivistic countries.

4. Limitations and future research

The sample consists of only undergraduate students. Scholars who wish to generalize these findings to consumers from other demographics can repeat this study with a non-student sample, as the responses may differ.

Further, instead of cooperating with cellular service providers and actually sending a teaser ad to the respondents' mobile phones, this study follows Drossos et al. (2007) and Chen and Hsieh (2006) by asking respondents in a laboratory setting to imagine that they had received and read a SMS ad. However, the authors made real attempts to add to the reality of the experimental situation, such as employing real advertisers (i.e., Nikon and Premier), real phone number of the intermediate cellular service provider,

and real consumers (i.e., undergraduates who are heavy users of digital cameras). The design of the content of the SMS teaser ads resembled that of true teaser ads. In addition, the study asked respondents to imagine that they had heard an "incoming SMS alert tone" and used a picture of a mobile phone screen to show the SMS ad. Moreover, the laboratory setting employed in this paper has its advantage, such as better control in terms of eliminating the moderation of external variables and higher internal validity in terms of reflecting the more explicit cause-effect relationships between the experimental variables (Burns and Bush, 2006). However, for increasing external validity, future studies can use a more realistic simulation in which ads are actually sent to respondents' phones to understand how consumers naturally react to SMS ads.

Previous mobile advertising studies have identified many antecedent variables (e.g., interactivity, degree of personalization, ad relevance, and ad credibility) that influence consumer intentions to receive SMS ads and ad attitudes. Future studies could also empirically examine the influence of these variables on curiosity, which may contribute to the design of a more effective teaser ad. In addition, the product featured in the teaser ad in this study is a digital camera that has a higher degree of product involvement. There is still a dearth of relative studies that determine the types of product that may be most appropriate for SMS advertising; future researchers, therefore, are encouraged to discuss the effects of SMS teaser ads on low-involvement products.

Finally, few teaser-advertising studies discuss consumer responses after they have filled the knowledge gap. Menon and Soman (2002) suggest that a sense of anticlimax might occur when the curiosity-resolving information itself is not very new; yet for information on novel and innovative products, a positive affect is more likely to result. The authors of the current paper, therefore, believe that in terms of teaser advertising, when curiosity is satisfied (i.e., after locating related information), people's emotions may be affected by the extent of the expectation disconfirmation. According to Oliver's (1980) expectancy disconfirmation model, if received product-related information matches or even exceeds people's prior expectancy, it can generate expectancy/positive disconfirmation, which leads to satisfactory positive emotions and then better advertising persuasive effectiveness; that is, before companies use mobile teaser ads to evoke consumers' product curiosity, they should attempt to determine whether their new product is worthy of curiosity. Future research could focus more on the process after curiosity is evoked and thereby empirically examine the ways in which the extent of expectancy disconfirmation directly affect and interact with consumer curiosity intensity in terms of formal advertising effectiveness (e.g., product attitudes and purchase intention).

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