Impact of Korea’s Image on Attitudes, Norms, and Purchase Intentions of Halal Foods: A Comparison Between Indonesia and Malaysia*

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Abstract

Purpose – Although Korean food export has been increasing, they will stagnate without markets. This study considers Korean halal food exports to Indonesia and Malaysia, which are two of the largest halal food markets. Given the context, this study aims to predict Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ purchase intention toward Korean halal food through their acceptance of and feeling toward Korea’s image.

Design/methodology – This study surveyed Indonesian and Malaysian consumers who purchased Korean halal food in the past year. The survey data were analyzed using the statistical package for the social sciences 21.0 and the analysis of moment structures 21.0.

Findings – The analysis reveals that the feeling toward Korea’s image and its food image significantly impacted attitudes and subjective norms, while the acceptance of Korea’s image significantly impacted only subjective norms. Attitude showed no significant effect on purchase intention, whereas subjective norms exhibited a significant effect on purchase intention. The image feeling had a greater impact on attitudes in Indonesia than those in Malaysia, whereas image acceptance showed a greater influence on subjective norms in Malaysia than those in Indonesia.

Originality/value – This study considers the difference between Indonesian and Malaysian consumers in relation to their acceptance of and feeling toward Korea’s image and its halal food image. These findings on Korea’s image can play a key role in establishing Korea’s food export strategy and have strategic implications on Korean companies aiming to enter the halal food market or increase their market share.

Keywords: Trade, Halal Foods, Korea’s Image, Attitude, Subjective Norms  
JEL Classifications: F10, F18, O53

1. Introduction

Halal is an Arabic word that translates to “permissible.” It is an Islamic guideline that encompasses food as well as all matters of life (Hanzae and Ramezani, 2011). Since halal products comply with Shariah law under Islam, the halal standards also regulate processing facilities and supply chains of companies engaged in halal food production. These standards

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have increasingly contributed toward ensuring food safety and quality and thereby increased the demand for halal foods among Muslim and non-Muslim consumers (Bashir et al., 2019). The halal logo indicates the rigorous tests that each food and manufacturing facility undergoes to receive the halal certification. This certification is important because it helps Muslims to determine whether a product is halal compliant (Sayogo, 2018). Although halal food is meant for Muslims, it has recently attained popularity as safe food and contributes toward the development of the food market. DinarStandard(2020) estimated that the global halal foods market will reach USD 1.38 trillion by 2024. In this context, this study considers the halal food markets of Indonesia and Malaysia.

Indonesia and Malaysia have the largest Muslim population, accounting for 87.2% and 61.3% of their total population of 267 million and 32.65 million, respectively (CIA World Factbook). Malaysia has been applying the halal standard since 1997 and is known for the successful implementation of halal policies (Ahmad et al., 2018). Both Muslims and non-Muslims in Malaysia recognize the concept of halal, and most companies in Malaysia provide halal-certified products or services (Izber-Bilgin and Nakata, 2016).

In Indonesia, in 1989, the Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI) started governing the halal certification system. With the enactment of the Halal Act in 2014, the halal certification system shifted from the society-centric to the state-centric authority of Badan Penyelenggara Jaminan Produk Halal (BPJPH), an independent government agency under the Ministry of Religious Affairs. This agency has been operating the halal certification system initially since October 19, 2019 (Farid, 2019).

In Indonesia and Malaysia, consumers’ attitudes toward halal food are closely related to the halal certification. This certification increases manufacturers’ competitiveness and guarantees quality to consumers. While these factors influence consumers’ attitude toward halal foods, in general, country and product image influence consumers’ attitude toward imported halal foods, in particular (Buhrau and Ozturk, 2018; Mody et al., 2017). Given this, consumers’ beliefs about the purchasing suitability and reliability of imported foods influence their attitudes toward imported foods (Xin and Seo, 2019). This purchasing suitability and reliability can be regarded as consumers’ subjective norms.

In other words, when consumers are uncertain about the quality of imported foods, the exporting country’s image significantly influences their product choice (Thøgersen et al., 2017). Hence, the product image is closely related to country image and can impact consumers’ attitudes and purchase intention (Yeh et al., 2010; Thøgersen et al., 2019). In particular, country image affects consumers’ choice of imported products when there is limited information about the imported products (Xin and Seo, 2019). Consumers infer product reliability based on their exporting country’s general conditions. In the export context, it would be appropriate to consider how the Korean wave has increased favorable perceptions of Korea’s image, thus allowing positive attitudes to form toward Korean halal food.

Indonesian and Malaysian consumers have limited information about Korean halal food. Hence, Korea’s image can create a strong halo effect, influencing their purchase attitudes and norms toward Korean halal food. The halo effect is one of the oldest and popular theories on cognitive bias in psychology (Berger et al., 2016). It hypothesizes that consumers apply their initial evaluation of a specific part of an object to their evaluations of other parts of the object (Kwak et al., 2019). Applying this theory, we find that consumers’ attitudes, subjective norms, and purchase intentions toward a product can differ from the production location’s image. Accordingly, this study seeks to identify how Korea’s image impacts Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ attitudes, subjective norms, and purchase intentions toward Korean halal food.

We also find that a product’s country of origin (COO) is a key determinant of consumers’
purchase intention toward imported products. Typically, the COO effect depends on the level of development of the COO (Chu et al., 2010). For example, Muslim consumers place their trust in products from countries with a well-implemented halal certification system. Thus, Muslim consumers’ tendencies to purchase halal food may vary owing to the COO. Research on the COO effect is based on the assumption that a country’s image can impact consumers’ evaluations (Andéhn et al., 2016). Hence, it is necessary to verify whether the COO effect applies to the purchases of Korean halal food.

Applying the halo and COO effects, this study categorizes Korea’s images into those felt and accepted by Indonesians and Malaysians and seeks to investigate their influence on Korean halal food image, attitudes, subjective norms, and purchase intention. This is because when consumers purchase imported food, they form attitudes, subjective norms, and purchase intentions, based on their feelings toward the image and the product image; they also accept the image based on the exporting country’s image. Thus far, however, there have been no studies on the influence of a non-Muslim country’s image (e.g., Korea) and its product image on Muslim consumers’ attitudes and subjective norms. In predicting Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ purchase intention toward Korean halal food, this study investigates the role of the acceptance of and feeling toward Korea’s image and the Korean halal food image as well as differences between the countries. Based on the findings on Korea’s image, this study suggests strategic implications for Korean companies aiming to enter the halal food market or increase their market share.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Korea’s Image

In the form of Korean dramas and K-pop, the Korean wave has swept through Indonesia and Malaysia. In addition, the mass media, such as television shows and the Internet, has introduced Indonesians and Malaysians to a variety of information about Korea’s economy, technology, and culture. This information and exposure have changed Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ image of Korea (Han et al., 2019). Earlier, consumers lacked information about Korean food, especially halal food. Therefore, Indonesian and Malaysian consumers speculated about the quality of Korean halal food based on Korea’s image.

As a country’s image emphasizes consumers’ perceived characteristics, it can be altered through association with a given image. The way consumers evaluate images can be categorized into two types. The country’s image is the result of consumers’ information processing; hence, internal and external factors impact the formation of an image (Koubaa, 2008). The external factor comprises consumers’ perception toward the product and the country’s image (Adina et al., 2015), and the internal factor comprises consumers’ personal feelings toward the image (Koubaa, 2008). Thus, the country’s image can differ according to consumers’ emotional and cognitive images of the country. Most studies investigate only the cognitive factors affecting consumers’ product quality evaluation based on their country image (Costa et al., 2016). However, the country image has both cognitive and emotional dimensions (Lindblom et al., 2018; Vijaranakorn and Shannon, 2017).

The cognitive image consists of beliefs and knowledge of the object, focusing primarily on tangible physical attributes (Pike and Ryan, 2004), whereas the emotional image represents feelings toward the object (Lin et al., 2011). However, it is difficult to assess a certain country’s image based on the benefits it provides to customers. This is because it is difficult for certain countries to provide direct benefits to foreigners. Therefore, this study divided the country’s
image into acceptance of the image and image, supplementing the cognitive and emotional images, respectively. The acceptance of Korea’s image is defined as the level to which Korea’s image is accepted by Indonesians and Malaysians, and Korea’s image feeling is defined as Indonesians’ and Malaysians’ emotions toward Korea. In particular, customers who encounter Korean food through the Korean wave may have a more favorable Korea image feeling than Korea’s image acceptance. This image has been formed by the Korean wave as well as its economic development.

Korea grew into an economically developed country in a short period through advanced technology development and investments in various fields. Similarly, the steadily growing exports of Korean cultural products (e.g., movies, dramas, music, and food) to Malaysia and Indonesia have been contributing toward the global proliferation of these products (Tjoe and Kim, 2016). Korea has also been applying its advanced technology to food and implementing systems that Muslim customers can trust and purchase. Some of these systems include the geographical indication registration systems, agricultural product management certification systems, eco-friendly agricultural product certification systems, and halal certifications. These systems may create a positive perception of Korean halal food when the Indonesian and Malaysian consumers base their image of Korean halal food on the reliability, price, and quality of halal food certifications.

2.2. Korean Food Image

The Korean wave introduced Korean food to Indonesia and Malaysia, which have been witnessing a continuous surge in its demand. This demand can also be attributed to the contribution of the Korean wave toward the formation of consumers’ Korean food image. Food images comprise multiple characteristics and dimensions, including the benefits perceived by consumers (Ekinci and Hosany, 2006). In prior research, food images were divided into cognitive and emotional dimensions (Seo and Yun, 2015; Seo et al., 2017). The cognitive dimension provides a perception of tangible attributes, beliefs, and knowledge of the product, while the emotional dimension relates to consumer’s emotions and feelings (Pike and Ryan, 2004; Renko et al., 2014).

The cognitive image is primarily evaluated by attributes formed by the surrounding environment (Lu et al., 2015). The cognitive image of the food is formed through nutritional value, food environment, food quality, variety, and price, though it may also include consumers’ food expectations and experiences (Renko et al., 2014). Hence, consumers may form different food images depending on their experiences (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017; Choe and Kim, 2018).

The food image is determined by the geographical environment, production location, and the food production method (Lin et al., 2011), and includes aspects of food quality, such as safety, labeling, health, taste, price, and organic characteristics (Seo and Yun, 2015). It also relates to how food is made and consumed and expresses customs, history, culture, religion, and ethnicity (Chang et al., 2016).

Regarding the social aspects, food provides people with important connections through social status and lifestyles as well as by shaping their environment and culture (Frochot, 2003). Therefore, food is influenced by social aspects such as religion. Muslim consumers exercise caution when purchasing halal food. Besides the halal logos, Muslim consumers analyze the information provided through marketing promotions and brands when choosing products (Awan et al., 2015; Aziz and Chok, 2013). Since the product image serves as the main benchmark when choosing and purchasing Korean halal food, it also influences consumers’ purchasing attitudes (Watson and Wright, 2000). Hence, the Indonesian and Malaysian con-
sumers’ positive attitude formation may depend on whether Korean halal food was produced in line with Shariah law.

2.3. Attitude
The attitude represents a consumer’s overall evaluation of an object (Faircloth et al., 2001). In other words, the consumers’ attitude toward the object indicates their subjective evaluation (like or dislike) (Keller, 1993). Additionally, attitude also expresses the product’s value (Keller, 1993). These evaluations help consumers form a comprehensive attitude (i.e., the sum of their cognitive and emotional attitudes toward the product) (Chang et al., 2016).

Since attitude is a fundamental factor in consumer behavior, it is a key factor for predicting and explaining consumer behavior (Adnan et al., 2017). In this regard, it must be noted that food characteristics such as the halal certification, are crucial to forming positive attitudes among Muslim consumers (Kim and Eves, 2012; Kivela and Crotts, 2006). These attitudes may lead to certain consumer behaviors, such as product purchasing (Shin and Hancer, 2016). When consumers are satisfied by a food item they perceive as having value, they form positive attitudes (Lai, 2015).

2.4. Subjective Norms
Subjective norms are defined as social pressures to indulge or not to indulge in a given behavior (Ajzen, 1991). They are determined by the perceived expectations of people important to an individual on how the individual should behave (Teo and Lee, 2010). In TRA (theory of reasoned action), which includes subjective norms (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1977), subjective norms express the expectations of others for a particular behavior (Bai et al., 2019; Minton et al., 2018). Subjective norms describe the degree to which people can be influenced by the perceptions of individuals, family members, friends, and others.

2.5. Hypothesis
In TRA is a model in which attitudes and subjective norms are used as motives for behavioral intentions (Karnowski et al., 2018). TRA is for controlling one’s behavior and predicting behavior in rational situations (Oni et al., 2017). This TRA means acting according to a reasonable intention through beliefs formed by various information in performing a specific action (Montaño and Kasprzyk 2015). Therefore, Korea’s image formed by Muslim prior information can influence TRA’s attitude, subjective norms, and behavior.

Studies show the country image as a factor influencing attitudes (Palau-Saumell et al., 2016). In another study, Fishbein and Ajzen (2005) explain that customers’ beliefs can be formed by personal factors (e.g., personal characteristics, moods, emotions, knowledge, values, stereotypes, general attitudes, and experiences), social factors (e.g., education, age, gender, income, religion, race, and culture), and information factors (e.g., knowledge, information, and media). Studies also consider customer beliefs as factors influencing attitudes and subjective norms (Khan and Azam, 2016). Thus, religion can strongly influence the social beliefs that form subjective norms (Kashif et al., 2018). Based on these studies, the following hypotheses can be formulated:

H1: Korea’s image acceptance positively (+) influences attitudes.
H2: Korea’s image feeling positively (+) influences attitudes.
H3: Korea’s image acceptance positively (+) influences subjective norms.
H4: Korea’s image feeling positively (+) influences subjective norms.
This implies religion and attitude share a positive relationship (Abd Rahman et al., 2015). Scalco et al. (2017) claimed that a food’s characteristics impact attitudes and subjective norms through the theory of planned behavior. In particular, the guidelines of Islam determine which food can be consumed; these guidelines are applied to the food image (Ab Talib et al., 2016) that can be a key determinant of attitudes and subjective norms. Therefore, the following hypotheses can be formulated:

H5: Korean food image positively (+) influences attitudes.
H6: Korean food image positively (+) influences subjective norms.

In a study on halal food, Alam and Sayuti (2011) found that attitudes, subjective norms, and behavioral control affect the purchase intention of halal food. Studies have also used the theory of reasoned action (TRA) because attitudes and subjective norms are positively related to consumers’ intention to choose halal products (Lada et al., 2009). Therefore, the following hypothesis can be formulated:

H7: Attitude positively (+) influences purchase intention.

Subjective norms influence behavioral intention (Ajzen, 1991). Dean et al. (2008) claimed that subjective norms are important determinants of food purchase intention. Consumers may believe that family, friends, and colleague groups prefer certain behaviors and that their preference affects behavioral intention (Pavlou and Chai, 2002). Furthermore, consumers are more likely to display purchasing behavior that suits their concept and product image (Tabassi et al., 2012). Thus, subjective norms can be formed by Muslims. Therefore, the following hypothesis can be formulated:

H8: Subjective norms positively (+) influence purchase intention.

2.6. Differences between Indonesia and Malaysia

Indonesia and Malaysia, located in Southeast Asia, are both members of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation. Nevertheless, they differ slightly in the characteristics of Islamic law in terms of their politics, economy, and social environment. The state religion of Malaysia is Islam, though the country guarantees freedom of religion. It is a multi-ethnic society; Muslims comprise 61.3% of its total population, with relatively high proportions of Buddhists, Christians, and Hindus. The Republic of Indonesia does not recognize an official state religion and guarantees freedom of religion. However, Muslims account for 87.2% of its total population (Yun et al., 2020). Since consumer behavior in both countries is influenced by the consumers as well as the norms and beliefs in the cultural and social environment, the behavior may differ according to the consumers’ lifestyle (Triandis, 1989). Given this context, studies on the purchasing behavior of Indonesian and Malaysian consumers can shed more understanding on the purchasing behavior of Korean halal food. Accordingly, this study seeks to identify the differences between the influence of Korea’s image and Korean food image as perceived by Malaysian and Indonesian Muslims on their attitudes and subjective norms. Hence, we formulated the following hypotheses:

H9-1: There will be a difference between the influence of Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ acceptance of Korea’s image on attitudes.
H9-2: There will be a difference between the influence of Indonesian and Malaysian...
consumers’ feelings toward Korea’s image on attitudes.

H9-3: There will be a difference between the influence of Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ Korean food image on attitudes.

H9-4: There will be a difference between the influence of Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ acceptance of Korea’s image on subjective norms.

H9-5: There will be a difference between the influence of Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ feelings toward Korea’s image on subjective norms.

H9-6: There will be a difference between the influence of Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ Korean food image on subjective norms.

3. Survey Design

3.1. Sample Design

To verify this study’s research model and hypotheses, we created questions for each variable and collected the data through a survey. Among the metrics used, the demographic variables were measured on a nominal scale, while all the other items were measured on a 5-point scale (1 = “not at all,” 5 = “very much so”).

After educating the researchers residing in Indonesia and Malaysia, the survey was conducted for 36 days, from March 6 to April 10, 2019. Five hundred surveys each were distributed between Malaysian and Indonesian customers who purchased Korean halal food in the last year. We collected 421 and 401 surveys from the Indonesian and Malaysian consumers, respectively. Gifts were provided to customers who participated in the survey. We removed 15 and 17 incomplete surveys of respondents from Indonesia and Malaysia, respectively. Accordingly, we used 406 and 386 surveys from Indonesia and Malaysia, respectively.

We used the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) 21.0 and the analysis of moment structure (AMOS) 21.0 for statistical processing to analyze the collected surveys; the contents of the analyses are detailed below. First, a frequency analysis was performed to analyze the characteristics of the sample. Second, the reliability analysis and the confirmatory factor analysis were performed to confirm the reliability of the metrics and verify their validity, respectively. Third, the structural equation modeling was used to analyze Korea’s image acceptance, Korea’s image feeling, Korean food image, attitudes, subjective norms, and purchase intentions. Fourth, this study analyzed the differences between the influence of Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ Korea’s image acceptance, Korea’s image feeling, and Korean food image on attitudes and subjective norms.

3.2. Operational Definitions and Measurements of Variables

Korea’s image acceptance was measured using six items adapted from Andéhn et al. (2016); it was defined as the acceptance of Korea’s high level and standards. Korea’s image feeling was measured using four items modified from the measure of the country image in Maher and Carter (2011); it was defined as positive feelings toward Korea.

The Korean food image was measured using six items modified from food quality in Grunert (2005); it was defined as the degree to which Korean food maintains good quality based on advanced technology. The attitude was measured through the three items modified from attitudes toward products in Zarantonello and Schmitt (2013); it was defined as positive emotions toward Korean halal food. Subjective norms were measured through two items modified from the subjective norms for foods in O’Connor and White (2010); they were defined as the degree to which others allow an individual to consume Korean halal food.
Purchase intention was measured through six items modified from loyalty used in Das (2014); it was defined as positive word of mouth and purchase intention of Korean halal food in the future.

4. Empirical Analysis

4.1. General Characteristics of the Sample

Table 1 shows the general characteristics of the 792 respondents sampled in this study. The sample comprised 460 female respondents, and their ratio was (58.1%) higher than that of male respondents (41.3%). Concerning age, the largest group in the sample comprised teenagers (252, 31.8%). Most respondents were married (466, 58.8%) and held a university degree (517, 65.3%), and, in terms of profession, the largest group comprised office workers (233, 29.4%).

| Table 1. General characteristics of the sample (N = 792) |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
|                | Frequency | Percentage | Company  |
| Age 10-19      | 252 | 31.8 | Employee |
| Age 20-30      | 194 | 24.5 | Business man |
| Age 31-40      | 153 | 19.3 | Government employee |
| Age 41-50      | 120 | 15.2 | Professional |
| Age 51-60      | 70 | 8.8 | Agriculture and Fisheries |
| Female Gender  | 460 | 58.1 | Technician |
| Male Gender    | 327 | 41.3 | Student |
| Marital status | 323 | 40.8 | Teacher |
| Married        | 466 | 58.8 | |
| Not married    | 5 | 0.6 | Sales & Service |
| Education Level? | 12 | 1.5 | Transportation |
| Primary School | 57 | 7.2 | Business |
| Middle School  | 112 | 14.1 | |
| High School    | 517 | 65.3 | |
| University     | 90 | 11.4 | |
| Post Graduate  | Error  | 4 | 0.5 | |

4.2. Measurement Model Analysis

To verify the convergent and discriminant validity of the metrics, this study conducted a measurement model analysis of all research units, including this study’s model, as shown in Table 2.
According to the analysis, the goodness-of-fit was $\chi^2=710.660$, the degrees of freedom were $df=260(\chi^2/df=2.733)$, $p=0.000$, $CFI=0.948$, $NFI=0.921$, $GFI=0.930$, $RMR=0.023$, and $RMSEA=0.047$. Hence, there were no issues in analyzing the structural equation model (SEM).

**Table 2.** Measurement model analysis results for all research units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Standardized Factor Loadings</th>
<th>CCR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception of the Country Image</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In your perception, Korea is affluent</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In your perception, Korea is economically well-developed</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td>0.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In your perception, Korea has high living standards</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In your perception, Koreans are well-educated</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In your perception, Korea has advanced technology</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In your perception, Korea has a good standard of living</td>
<td>0.724</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling toward the Country Image</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on your feelings, Korea is peace-loving</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on your feelings, Korea is friendly</td>
<td>0.830</td>
<td>0.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on your feelings, Korea is cooperative</td>
<td>0.813</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on your feelings, Korea is likable</td>
<td>0.724</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Korean Food Image</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods made in Korea are carefully produced and the food designs reflect fine workmanship</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods made in Korea are superior in quality to similar products from other countries</td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods made in Korea reflect technological sophistication</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods made in Korea usually show very clever use of color and design</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods made in Korea are usually quite reliable</td>
<td>0.775</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods made in Korea usually have a good value for the money</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes toward Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean halal food is good.</td>
<td>0.815</td>
<td>0.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean halal food is beneficial.</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean halal food is attractive.</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective Norms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People important to me consume Korean halal food.</td>
<td>0.637</td>
<td>0.699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People important to me would want me to eat Korean halal food.</td>
<td>0.741</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intentions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will buy Korean products if they are the same as the products I currently consumer</td>
<td>0.574</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will buy products certified by Korea Muslim Federation</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can buy non-halal-certified Korean product if it does not contain any haram ingredients’</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a good feeling toward Korean halal food</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to recommend Korean halal food.</td>
<td>0.815</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will prefer Korean food if it is halal-certified</td>
<td>0.670</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** $\chi^2=710.660(df=260, \chi^2/df=2.733, p-value=0.000)$, $CFI=0.948$, $NFI=0.921$, $GFI=0.930$, $AGFI=0.912$, $RMR=0.023$, $RMSEA=0.047$. 
*Item was deleted during confirmatory factor analysis.
According to the validity and reliability analysis, this study examined the correlation obtained from the results of the SEM analysis to determine how the relationship between each research unit is formed for the scales of each single dimension unit as well as the extent of their relationship. As shown in Table 3, the relationship between each research unit has a significantly positive (+) direction at the p<0.01 level, indicating the consistency of the relationships between the research units suggested in the research hypotheses and the research model. Also, if the AVE value is greater than the square of the correlation between variables, it is judged to have discriminant validity (Asmelash and Kumar, 2019; Vahdati et al., 2015). In this study, discriminant validity was verified because it was larger than the square of the correlation between all variables.

### Table 3. Mean, standard deviation, correlation matrix between each research unit, discriminant validity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception: Country Image</td>
<td>0.688&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.332&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.320&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.059&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.083&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.193&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling: Country Image</td>
<td>0.576&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.739&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.315&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.078&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.059&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.234&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Image</td>
<td>0.566&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.561&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.724&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.086&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.068&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.322&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>0.244&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.280&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.294&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.557&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.119&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.049&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective Norm</td>
<td>0.288&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.243&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.261&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.345&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.539&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.073&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intention</td>
<td>0.440&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.483&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.568&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.222&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.271&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.634&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.810</td>
<td>3.567</td>
<td>3.527</td>
<td>4.043</td>
<td>4.128</td>
<td>3.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>0.535</td>
<td>0.577</td>
<td>0.548</td>
<td>0.619</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td>0.601</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>**</sup> = All correlations were significant at p < 0.01.
<sup>a</sup> = AVE, <sup>b</sup> = r²

### 4.3. Testing of Research Hypotheses

This study verified the overall model between the research units, which comprise the perception of the country image, the feeling toward the country image, the product image, attitudes, subjective norms, and purchase intention. According to the results, the goodness-of-fit χ²=922.643, d.f.=264, p=0.000, χ²/df=3.495, GFI=0.909, AGFI=0.888, NFI=0.897, CFI=0.924, and RMSEA=0.056. Concerning the explanatory power (R²), which indicates the degree to which the exogenous variable is explained by the endogenous variable, the R² of the subjective norms for the environment, attitudes, and purchase intention was 0.658 (65.8%), 0.139 (13.9%), and 0.651 (65.1%), respectively.

Table 4 shows the results of testing the hypotheses for the relationship between the research units (perception of the country image, feelings toward the country image, product image, attitude, subjective norms, and purchase intentions).
Table 4. Results of hypotheses tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td>0.470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>2.202</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>2.532</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>3.647</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>3.222</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6</td>
<td>0.530</td>
<td>6.871</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7</td>
<td>-0.061</td>
<td>-1.554</td>
<td>0.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8</td>
<td>0.823</td>
<td>8.827</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Explanatory power (R²) adopted

| Subjective Norms | 0.685(68.5%) |
| Attitude         | 0.139(13.9%) |
| Purchase Intention | 0.651(65.1%) |

Model goodness-of-fit

| χ²     | 843.391 |
| Df     | 281    |
| P      | 0.000  |

Notes: *** p < 0.01; χ²=922.642, df=264, p=0.000, χ²/df=3.495, GFI=0.909, AGFI=0.888, NFI=0.897, CFI=0.924, RMSEA=0.056.

According to the test of H1, which states that attitudes increase with an increase in the perception of the country image, the path coefficient is 0.051 and the t-value is 0.723. It indicates that the perception of the country image has no statistically significant effect on attitude (p>0.05). Therefore, H1 was rejected.

According to the test of H2, which states that the attitude increases with an increase in the feelings toward the country image, the path coefficient is 0.150 and the t-value is 2.202. It indicates that the feelings toward the country image have a statistically significant positive (+) effect on attitude (p<0.05). Therefore, H2 was supported.

According to the test of H3, which states that subjective norms increase with an increase in the perception of the country image, the path coefficient is 0.164 and the t-value is 2.532. It indicates that the perception of the country image has a statistically significant positive (+) effect on subjective norms (p<0.05). Therefore, H3 was supported.

According to the test of H4, which states that subjective norms increase with an increase in the feeling toward the country image, the path coefficient is 0.234 and the t-value is 3.647. It indicates that the feelings toward the country image have a statistically significant positive (+) effect on subjective norms (p<0.01). Therefore, H4 was supported.

According to the test of H5, which states that the attitude increases with an increase in the product image, the path coefficient is 0.218 and the t-value is 3.222. It indicates that the product image has a statistically significant positive (+) effect on attitude (p<0.01). Therefore, H5 was supported.

According to the test of H6, which states that subjective norms increase with an increase in the product image, the path coefficient is 0.530 and the t-value is 6.871. It indicates that product image has a statistically significant positive (+) effect on subjective norms (p<0.01). Therefore, H6 was supported.

According to the test of H7, which states that the purchase intention increases with an increase in attitudes, the path coefficient is -0.061 and the t-value is 1.554. It indicates that the
attitude has no statistically significant effect on the purchase intention \( (p>0.05) \). Therefore, H7 was rejected.

According to the test of H8, which states that the purchase intention increases with an increase in subjective norms, the path coefficient is 0.823 and the t-value is 8.827. It indicates that subjective norms have a statistically significant positive (+) effect on the purchase intention \( (p<0.01) \). Therefore, H8 was supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis Path</th>
<th>Indonesia Standardized regression weights (t-value)</th>
<th>Malaysia Standardized regression weights (t-value)</th>
<th>Constrained model ( \chi^2 ) (df)</th>
<th>( \Delta \chi^2 ) (( \Delta df ))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H9-1 Perception: Country Image → Attitude</td>
<td>0.053 (0.573)</td>
<td>0.281* (2.230)</td>
<td>1350.658 (529)</td>
<td>2.371 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9-2 Feelings: Country Image → Attitude</td>
<td>0.054 (0.581)</td>
<td>-0.110 (-0.970)</td>
<td>1362.511 (529)</td>
<td>14.224 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9-3 Perception: Country Image → Subjective Norms</td>
<td>0.011 (0.139)</td>
<td>0.536** (4.289)</td>
<td>1353.015 (529)</td>
<td>4.728 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9-4 Feelings: Country Image → Subjective Norms</td>
<td>0.303** (3.077)</td>
<td>-0.071 (-0.688)</td>
<td>1348.294 (529)</td>
<td>0.007 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9-5 Product Image → Attitude</td>
<td>0.224* (2.226)</td>
<td>0.208* (2.234)</td>
<td>1349.477 (529)</td>
<td>1.190 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9-6 Product Image → Subjective Norms</td>
<td>0.610** (4.363)</td>
<td>0.433** (4.688)</td>
<td>1348.705 (529)</td>
<td>0.418 (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: ** \( p<0.01 \); Unconstrained model: \( \chi^2 = 1348.287, df=528 \).

Table 5 shows a comparison between the \( \chi^2 \) and df of the unconstrained model and the \( \chi^2 \) and df of the constrained model, for H9, which demonstrates the differences between the images, attitudes, and subjective norms between Indonesia and Malaysia. However, the influence of Feeling Country Image on attitudes was rejected in both Indonesia and Malaysia. The remaining hypotheses (H9-1, H9-4, H9-5, and H9-6) were rejected.

For Indonesia, product image was found to have a significant effect on attitude (path coefficient=0.224, t-value=2.226), and product image (path coefficient=0.610, t-value=4.363) and feelings toward the country Image (path coefficient=0.303, t-value=3.077) had a significant effect on subjective norms.

For Malaysia, the perception of the country image (path coefficient=0.281, t-value=2.230) and product image (path coefficient=0.208, t-value=2.234) had a significant effect on the attitude and the perception toward the country image (path coefficient=0.536, t-value=4.289), and product image (path coefficient=0.433, t-value=4.688) had a significant effect on subjective norms.

5. Conclusions

This study analyzed the influence of Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ Korea’s image
acceptance, Korea’s image feeling, and Korean food image on purchase intention through attitudes and subjective norms. This study has the following implications.

5.1. Theoretical Implications

First, this study verified the halo effect through the country image because the halo effect exerts an influence when assessing attributes that are not well-known (Kwak et al., 2019). The findings suggest that the purchase intentions of the Indonesian and Malaysian consumers differ from their Korea’s image. Since these consumers have limited information about Korea, they evaluate the Korean halal food through their Korea’s image. Thus, the halo effect of the Indonesian and Malaysian consumers was verified.

Second, this study found that country image acceptance and feelings influence attitudes and subjective norms. This study confirmed that purchase intentions may vary with the country producing halal foods. This indicates that the COO effect applies to Korean halal food purchases by Indonesian and Malaysian consumers. In other words, the COO plays an important role in their intention to purchase Korean halal food.

Third, this study found that image acceptance does not influence attitude. This finding differs from that of Watson and Wright (2000), who reported that the food image affects attitude. This is because Korea’s economic level and halal food quality can be perceived as not correlate. The results confirmed that even if Korea’s economic level is high, the perception toward halal foods is not proportional to its economic level. Thus, consumers’ attitudes toward halal food may not change even if they positively accept the country’s image.

Fourth, attitude showed no influence on purchase intention, whereas subjective norms exerted an effect on purchase intention. This indicates that subjective norms influence the purchase of halal foods by Muslims. This finding differs from that of the TRA (Fischbein and Ajzen, 1977). While attitude can change depending on the image, it does not influence purchase intention. Hence, even when the Indonesian and Malaysian consumers positively perceive Korean halal food, they may have doubts about the compliance of these foods to halal regulations. However, it can be said that these consumers form purchase intentions when those around them acknowledge Korean halal food. This indicates that subjective norms influence the purchase of halal foods.

Fifth, Korea’s image feeling had a greater impact on the attitudes of the Indonesian consumers than those of the Malaysian consumers, whereas Korea’s image acceptance exerted a greater influence on the subjective norms of the Malaysian consumers than those of the Indonesian consumers. This may be because although Malaysia’s state religion is Islam, it has a lower proportion of Muslims than that of Indonesia, that is, Malaysians live with more Chinese and Indian residents than that of Indonesians.

5.2. Practical Implications

First, as Indonesian and Malaysian consumers have limited information about Korea, Korean food companies must establish marketing strategies using the Korean wave. This is because K-pop, Korean cinema, dramas, and food, among others, positively influence Korea’s image for the Southeast Asian consumers, especially the Indonesians and Malaysians. Many Indonesian and Malaysian Muslims also enjoy Korean dramas and K-Pop and have developed an interest in Korean products. Thus, Indonesian and Malaysian consumers’ purchase intentions differ from Korea’s image, and this purchasing intention can be considered a halo effect emerging from the country’s image. Conversely, this study found that image acceptance does not influence attitude. In other words, despite perceiving Korea positively, Muslim consumers hesitate to purchase foods that are not halal-certified. If Samyang Ramen and
Nongshim Shin Ramen were not halal-certified, they would not have gained sensational popularity from Muslim consumers in Malaysia and Indonesia. This is because Muslim consumers try to purchase foods compliant with their religious guidelines. In the case of Korean food, for example, these consumers find it difficult to confirm the food’s characteristics intuitively because its description does not use the local language. Even if Korean food complies with their religious guidelines, consumers may not purchase these foods when it is difficult to confirm their characteristics.

Second, Korean halal food exported to Indonesia should emphasize Korea’s emotional elements, and Korean halal food exported to Malaysia must emphasize that they were produced using Korea’s advanced technology. In other words, the overall image of Korean halal food should be managed in Indonesia, whereas marketing in Malaysia should be based on the attributes of halal foods since Indonesia has a Muslim population of 87.2%, making up the majority of the country, but is a country where religious freedom is recognized. On the other hand, Malaysia’s state religion is Islam, it may regulate the consumption of halal food more strictly than that of Indonesia.

Third, in the case of halal food, problems may arise due to various types of cross-contamination. Therefore, Korean halal food exporters to Indonesia and Malaysia must develop clearer and comprehensible food labels. Since cross-contamination may occur during the processing stage, companies must label such cases (allergy-related labels) in English or the local language. Using these labels, companies must inform consumers about the safety and hygiene of Korean halal food.

Fourth, Shariah law can be considered an important factor in food purchasing because subjective norms influence purchase intentions. Therefore, halal certification is desirable for Korean food exported to Indonesia and Malaysia. Hence, companies must convince Muslim consumers that Korean food sold in Indonesia and Malaysia have been halal-certified and that Korea’s halal certification system is strictly managed. This study confirmed that Korean food companies must use relevant marketing strategies to inform Muslim Indonesian and Malaysian consumers about the Halal compliance of the exported food items.

5.3. Study Limitations and Future Research

This study presented implications to help Korean halal food exporters establish a marketing strategy that uses the country’s image. Nevertheless, this study has the following limitations. First, this study focused on the TRA. However, Muslims’ purchase intentions toward halal food can be formed not only through attitudes and subjective norms but also through perceived behavioral control. Hence, future studies must use the theory of planned behavior (TPB) in their investigations. Second, this study examined the Indonesian and Malaysian consumers and collected a similar number of samples to verify the differences between the consumers from these two countries. However, it overlooked the nearly nine-fold difference in population size between the two countries. Therefore, future studies must collect and investigate samples according to the ratio of the populations.

References


Impact of Korea’s Image on Attitudes, Norms, and Purchase Intentions of Halal Foods: A Comparison Between Indonesia and Malaysia


