JAPAN AND KOREA CUISINE WAR IN A MUSLIM-MAJORITY COUNTRY:
THE INTENTION OF MUSLIM CUSTOMERS TO CONSUME FOREIGN FOOD

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine how country image and subjective knowledge influence customers' attitude and intention to try foreign foods in halal restaurants. The analysis was conducted by applying structural equation modeling using a sample consisting of 320 Muslims in Indonesia. The sampling method used was non-probability sampling. Results indicate that, even though country image and subjective knowledge about the food influence customers' attitude and intention to try foreign food, it is subjective knowledge that has a stronger influence than the former factors. The managerial implications of these results, particularly for the restaurant entrepreneurs and local government, are discussed herein. The study empirically tests whether the country image of non-Muslim-majority countries and subjective knowledge still play a significant role in affecting the Muslim consumer's decision to consume foreign food.

Keywords: Country image; Subjective knowledge; Attitude; Intention; Foreign food

1. INTRODUCTION

Islam has prescribed a set of dietary guidelines for its believers to follow, which is called "halal." Halal foods are those that are free from any components that are forbidden to be consumed by Muslims (Riaz & Chaudry, 2004). Halal food and healthy diet contribute to a strong and healthy family. Therefore, halal food supports the achievement of one element of the "Maqasid Syariah" (the objective of the Islamic law) in preserving the human life (Ibrahim, 2010). Although Islam is a monotheistic religion, it is worth noting that Muslim people are not a single homogenous group. The global Muslim population has diverse tastes and preferences, especially in their food selection. Nowadays, many Muslims consumers consume foreign foods and enjoy dining out in foreign restaurant chains.

As the global Muslim population is expected to increase by about 35% from 1.6 billion in 2010 to 2.2 billion by 2030 (Pew Research Center Religion & Public Life, 2011), the potential market for

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halal food is very high. The halal food market is projected to grow faster than the conventional food market at the value of $1.6 trillion by 2018 (Bodiat, 2017). However, the supply is lower compared with the demand for Muslim-friendly halal food. Thus, Muslim consumers are still waiting for more halal food suppliers to enter the market (Bodiat, 2017). The high potential market for halal food, coupled with low supply, has attracted many non-Muslim countries and entrepreneurs to enter this market. In fact, McDonald's, Subway, KFC, Starbucks, and Pizza Hut, all US-based restaurant chains, are already providing halal menus for their customers living in countries that are predominantly populated by Muslims (Muslim Ad Network, 2015).

Compared with other global cuisines, the Asian, or oriental, cuisine restaurant industry itself has grown by 500% in the last 15 years (Ferdman, 2015). Several factors that drive the growth of the industry are population growth, the economic development of the Asian continent, and the emigration of Asians to other regions of the world (Ferdman, 2015). Thus, there exists a great potential for entrepreneurs to enter the Asian cuisine restaurant industry, as more than 90% of global annual Asian cuisine sales ($135 billion) are generated by entrepreneurs who own independent and small restaurants (Ferdman, 2015).

Some of the most famous Asian/oriental cuisines in the world come from China, Thailand, Japan, Vietnam, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Korea (Yip, 2016). Based on the same report, compared with the other Asian cuisines, Japanese cuisine is the most promising market for oriental food that remains unsaturated. For almost three decades, Japanese food has successfully infiltrated worldwide gastronomy ("War, Empire and the Making of Japanese National Cuisine," n.d.). In contrast, Korean food has had a difficult time entering world dining culture. It is only recently that Korean food has expanded from the fine dining segment to the more common dining segment. In the United States, the annual (2011–2016) growth of Japanese restaurants reached 3.3% ("Sushi Restaurants in the US: Market Research Report," 2016), whereas the growth rate of Korean restaurants in the same period was higher at 3.5% (Korean Restaurants in the US: Market Research Report, 2016). These statistics indicate that the Korean restaurant industry may out-compete the Japanese restaurant industry in the future.

The ability of the Japanese and Korean cultures to influence the global culture is largely affected by their governments' tourism promotion strategies. Both countries implement intensive tourism campaigns to improve their country's respective images (OECD, 2009). The Japanese government, for example, launched the Cool Japan Strategy. One of the program's strategies is to promote Japanese food in Korea and to stimulate tourism to Japan (OECD, 2014). Based on previous empirical research, effective tourism promotion not only leads to the improvement of the country's image, but also directly influences consumers' attitude and intention to consume foreign food (Phillips, Asperin, & Wolfe, 2013). According to Phillips et al. (2013), customer intention to consume foreign food is also influenced by subjective knowledge of the food.

Meanwhile, Indonesia, the largest Muslim-majority country in the world (up to 88% of its total 2016 population of 259 million) (www.muslimpopulation.com, 2017), has become a potential target market for both Japanese and Korean restaurants. The number of Asian restaurants and Asian fast food outlets in the country is generally increasing. More Asian food franchises, such as Yoshinoya, are now enjoying more loyal customers (Wasserbaue, 2016). Statistically, the total number of restaurant franchises in the country reached 698 units in 2015. Of these franchises, 400 (57.3%) are foreign franchisors, and the rest (42.7%) are local ones (Global Business Guide

Indonesia, 2017). Based on Trade Ministry data, only 360 restaurant franchisors hold a Franchise Registration Certificate, of which 308 (85.56%) are foreign ones (Global Business Guide Indonesia, 2017). The figures indicate the high preference of Indonesian customers to consume foreign foods in a restaurant, even though the foods and restaurants come from the non-Muslim-majority countries like Japan and South Korea. However, producers targeting Muslim customers must ensure that any products and services offered to the latter are in line with Shariah or Islamic law (Bin Abdullah, Haji Hamali, & Abdullah, 2015). Thus, all restaurants in Indonesia, including those that sell foreign food, must be halal certified.

Empirically, numerous studies have examined halal food awareness and certification from the perspective of non-Muslims (Aziz & Chok, 2013; Mathew, Abdullah, & Ismail, 2014; Rezai, Mohamed, & Nasir Shamsudin, 2012; Teng, Jusoh, Siong, & Mesbahi, 2013). In contrast, only a dearth of research have examined the Muslim consumer's perspective on halal foods originating from non-Muslim-majority countries (Hassan & Hall, 2003). Thus, the present study aims to examine the impact of subjective knowledge and a non-Muslim-majority country's image on Muslim customers' attitude and intention to consume foreign food by comparing Japanese and Korean halal restaurants. The study aims to empirically test whether a country's image of being non-Muslim-majority and subjective knowledge significantly affect Muslim consumers' decision to consume foreign food. This study contributes to the restaurant entrepreneurs by providing insights on how they can develop a positive attitude and increase Muslim customers' intention to consume foreign food. The study can also offer insights on how the governments can implement promotional tourism programs in developing the halal food industry.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. *Muslim Consumer and Foreign Halal Food*

The market of halal food indicates the presence of Muslim consumers with preferences that are governed by halal guidelines on food and beverages (Hassan & Hall, 2003). As previously discussed, the demand for halal food is still higher compared with the supply of halal food even in countries populated by Muslims as the majority (Bodiat, 2017). Therefore, many US-based restaurant chains include accommodating halal dietary requirements in the food they offer in many countries that are predominantly populated by Muslims (Muslim Ad Network, 2015). Despite the importance of halal food from the Muslims' perspective, the majority of the literature on halal food focuses more on the Muslim consumers' intention and behavior in consuming halal food in general (Bin Abdullah et al., 2015; Rezai et al., 2012). To date, only a few studies have examined the Muslims' perception, attitude, and behavior related to the halal food consumption in or originating from non-Muslim-majority countries (Hassan & Hall, 2003). Hassan and Hall (2003) showed that only around 24.7% Muslims dine out at some New Zealand restaurants when they travel, as they are not confident about the halal status of restaurants.

2.2. Explanation of Variables

2.2.1. Country Image

Country-of-origin image refers to "the sum of beliefs and impressions people hold about places" (Knight, Holdsworth, & Mather, 2007). Country image studies are important because country image can affect consumers and businesses in many ways. Specifically, country image affects consumers' evaluation of product quality and risk, the purchase probability, and other intervening variables (Liefield, 1993).

Consumers' perception of the country-of-origin comprises several categories, e.g., cognitive country image (CCI), affective country image (ACI), and conative country image (Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop, & Mourali, 2005). The cognitive component includes the consumer's view about the country's industrial and technological development (Laroche et al., 2005). In comparison, the affective component refers to the consumer's affective response to the country's people, and the conative component refers to the consumer's expected interaction level with the sourcing country (Laroche et al., 2005).

2.2.2. Subjective Knowledge

Subjective knowledge is one of the distinct constructs of consumer knowledge, along with objective knowledge and experience (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). Subjective knowledge can be defined as a self-assessment of knowledge about a specific product (Mothersbaugh, Feick, Park, Mothersbaugh, & Feick, 1994). Thus, subjective knowledge significantly influences product evaluation and decision making (Mothersbaugh et al., 1994). In contrast, objective knowledge refers to the actual knowledge about a product, and the form of measurement for objective knowledge is that specific questions are asked of the consumers (Johnson & Russo, 1984). For example, when asking consumers about their objective knowledge on Korean food, the researcher may ask consumers a question, such as "Baechu kimchi is the most commonly eaten kimchi variety" and limit the response to "true" or "false." Previous studies have indicated that moderate correlations between subjective and objective knowledge exist (Raju, Lonial, & Glynn Mangold, 1995).

Product knowledge is crucial in understanding the behavior of consumers in the processing of information and searching for information (Mothersbaugh et al., 1994). Consumers have dissimilar levels of product knowledge, and the levels of knowledge are created when separate meaning concepts are acquired, after which those concepts are combined into larger, more abstract knowledge categories (Peter & Olson, 2010). Furthermore, Peter and Olson (2010) stated that consumers can have product knowledge about product attributes, knowledge about the impact of product use, and personal values about the product consumptions.

2.2.3. Attitude and Intention

Attitude is one of the most extensively studied subjects to predict consumer behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000; Glasman & Albarracín, 2006). According to Perner (2010), "attitude" in the context of consumer behavior and marketing is defined as a composite of a consumer's beliefs, feelings, and behavioral intentions toward an object. Theory of planned behavior (TPB) can explain how attitude and behavior work (Ajzen, 1991). TPB posits that a person's behavior is regulated by

one's intention to enact a certain behavior and that the intention is a consequence of one's attitude toward the behavior and that person's subjective norm.

According to the standard learning hierarchy model developed by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009), an individual first forms beliefs about a certain country by accumulating knowledge about relevant attributes, such as a country's political system or climate, which are part of the cognitive component of country image (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). After this stage, the consumer relies on these beliefs to develop feelings toward a country, such as liking the country or its people. Next, the person engages in relevant behaviors, such as buying products from that country. Although the use of such a model is usually when the consumer is highly involved in making his/her decision, and the purchase of food is a low-involvement purchase, this model is the most frequent manner by which consumers process country image information, as it resembles the process by which most attitudes are constructed (Knight & Calantone, 2000). A prior research by Phillips et al. (2013) has shown that this model can also be used in the context of foreign food purchases. The purchase of foreign foods can be considered as a less frequently purchased product in an unfamiliar category, where purchase decisions are more about problem solving. Similar to any other condition, unfamiliarity with a product can result in high-involvement purchases (Richins & Bloch, 1986). Moreover, attitude is an essential element for country-of-origin studies due to its impact on consumers' stereotypes, schemas, and feelings for a country, along with each individual's personal values and norms (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). In the food and drink sector per se, country-of-origin image is seen as an indicator of perceived quality, safety, health, and value, all of which help determine consumers' attitudes.

2.3. Hypotheses Development

2.3.1. Relations Among Affective Country Image, Cognitive Country Image, and Attitude Toward Consuming Foreign Food

Country image is developed from cognitive to affective (Orbaiz & Papadopoulo, 2003). The cognitive cues of the country are first evaluated, from which the emotion or affective cues for the country are created. Moreover, a causal relation exists between the cognitive and affective dimensions of the country image, suggesting that the relation between these two components is positive (Bertoli, 2013). Thus, we present the following hypothesis:

H1: CCI has a positive and significant impact on ACI.

A holistic understanding of the effects of country image can offer crucial information for international business marketing strategies because country image can influence the development of customers' attitude toward products manufactured or related to that country, thus influencing their purchase intentions. The ACI is thought to have a positive effect on attitudes toward consuming foreign foods. The direct and indirect experiences a consumer has will invoke emotions and feelings, which are part of the affective component and will have a significant influence on the consumers' beliefs regarding product attributes and expectations (Verlegh, 1999). In studies of the attitudes of Arab consumers toward Israeli products, Verlegh (1999) found that a poor perception of the country-of-origin leads to a strongly negative attitude toward products from that country. Hence, the correlation between ACI and attitude toward consuming foreign foods is positive. Thus, we present the following hypothesis:

H2: ACI has a positive and significant impact on one's attitude toward consuming foreign foods.

2.3.2.   *Relation between Subjective Knowledge and Attitude Toward Consuming Foreign Food*

Previous studies have demonstrated the mechanism by which product knowledge can affect the purchase of food, beverages, and food service (Boccaletti & Moro, 2000). Hence, more specific product knowledge would influence people's attitude toward consuming foreign food and is likely to result in a more positive attitude toward it. In addition, previous studies have found that both country-of-origin and subjective knowledge influence consumer evaluation, attitude, and decision making. Subjective knowledge refers to a person's belief in choosing a product based on its attributes (Park & Lessig, 1981). Subjective knowledge, as compared with objective knowledge, was found by Raju et al. (1995) to be significantly related to decisions. Therefore, it should not be strange that subjective knowledge is considered to be a stronger predictor of purchase intentions (Flynn & Goldsmith, 1999).

Furthermore, as suggested by Peter and Olson (2010) in studies on consumers' product knowledge, consumers often think about products in terms of their post-consumption effects rather than their attributes. Product consequences can be categorized into functional and psychosocial consequences: the former are the tangible outcomes that consumers experience, whereas the latter are the psychological and social outcomes of product use (Peter & Olson, 2010). According to Peter and Olson (2010), a person's affective and cognitive systems will interpret the consequences of product use and then form knowledge and beliefs about these functional and psychological consequences in their memory. Therefore, subjective knowledge is expected to have a positive effect on one's attitude toward consuming foreign foods. Therefore, we present the following hypothesis:

H3: Subjective knowledge (SK) of foreign foods has a positive and significant impact on one's attitude toward consuming foreign foods.

2.3.3.   *Relation between one's attitude toward consuming foreign foods and intention to try foreign foods*

TPB states that purchase intention is an accurate determinant of purchase behavior, and purchase intention, in turn, is determined by attitude (Ajzen, 1991). In its relation with food, previous studies indicate that attitude has a significant impact on a person's food choice and food-related behavior. One's attitude toward the food has been identified as a key influence on food choice and consumption behavior (Arvola et al., 2008). Therefore, the attitude toward consuming a new international cuisine would significantly influence the consumers' intention to try that food. According to Knight et al. (2007), the purchase of food items is influenced by individual beliefs and attitudes. The correlation between attitude toward consuming foreign food and intention to try foreign foods is also positive. Thus, we present the following hypothesis:

H4: Attitude toward consuming foreign foods has a positive and significant impact on intention to try foreign foods

Based on the aforementioned hypotheses, the following research framework is developed (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Research Framework
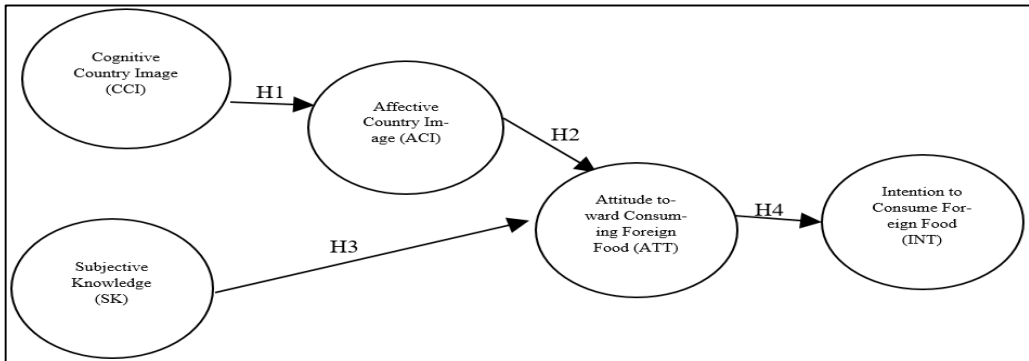
3.   RESEARCH METHODS

3.1.   *Data Collection*

The total sample size consisted of 320 Muslim consumers, with 160 consumers responding to the survey for Korean food and 160 consumers responding to the survey for Japanese food. The participants should have experience in consuming Korean or Japanese food in the restaurants that became objects of the study within the last three months. One famous Korean Food restaurant and one Japanese Korean restaurant, which were certified by the Indonesian Ulema Council, were chosen as objects of the study. To ensure that the respondents met the required criteria for the study, the researcher placed a filter question, which asked whether they had visited those famous Korean or Japanese restaurant within the last three months.

The sample size was determined based on the theory of Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, and Mena (2012), who stated that the minimum number of samples required for an analysis utilizing structural equation modeling (SEM) is the number of items in a questionnaire multiplied by five. The sampling method used in this research was non-probability sampling. Primary data were collected using an online survey through Google Docs, which was distributed to the respondents via online forums, social media networks, and email. The population included anyone living in Indonesia and were over 18 years old during the data collection period. The online forums chosen in the study were those that specifically discussed culinary issues.

3.2.   *Survey Instrument*

3.2.1.   *Cognitive Country Image Instrument*

Phillips et al. (2013) found that up to 26 indicators in three dimensions can be used for the CCI construct. The three dimensions of the CCI are fundamental, social/economic development, and good reputation. However, quoting Arnold and Reynolds (2003), Phillips et al. (2013) deleted 10 indicators that did not meet some validity criteria. A six-point Likert scale was used, with anchors at 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree. An example of the items includes the following: "This non-Muslim-majority country respects the environment."

3.2.2.   Affective Country Image Instrument

Three indicators were used for the ACI concept. These were adapted from the studies of Han (1989) and Martínez and Alvarez (2010). A six-point Likert scale was used, with anchors at 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree. The three indicators were as follows: "the non-Muslim-majority country's level of pleasantness," "the non-Muslim-majority country's level of friendliness," and "the non-Muslim-majority country's level of trustworthiness."

3.2.3.   Subjective Knowledge

For subjective knowledge, five items (i.e., indicators) were adapted from previous studies conducted by Flynn and Goldsmith (1999). Respondents were asked their level of agreement on a six-point Likert scale on statements about subjective knowledge, with anchors at 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree. These statements included the following: "I know a lot about Korean/Japanese foods;" "Among my circle of friends, I'm one of the 'experts' on Korean/Japanese foods;" "When it comes to Korean/Japanese foods, I really don't know a lot;" "I think I know enough about Korean/Japanese foods to feel pretty confident when I make a purchase;" and "I do not feel knowledgeable about Korean/Japanese foods."

3.2.4.   Attitude Toward Consuming Foreign Foods

For attitude toward consuming foreign foods, three indicators were adapted from the studies by Ajzen (1988, 1991). Respondents were asked to complete the following statement: "All things considered, consuming Korean/Japanese foods would be…" by stating to what extent they consider consuming Korean/Japanese food would be like based on three indicators: enjoyableness, pleasantness, or good. For enjoyableness, the six-point Likert scale was anchored at 1 = not enjoyable and 6 = enjoyable; for pleasantness, the anchors were 1 = unpleasant and 6 = pleasant, and for good, the anchors were 1 = bad and 6 = good.

3.2.5.   Intention to Consume Halal Foreign Foods

Finally, to measure the intention to consume foreign foods, three indicators were adapted from the studies by Ajzen (1991). The three indicators were as follows: "I would like to consume Korean/Japanese halal foods in the near future," "I will consume halal Korean/Japanese foods in the near future," and "I intend to consume halal Korean/Japanese foods in the near future." A six-point Likert scale was used and anchored at 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree.

3.3.   Data Analysis

The data was analyzed using SEM with LISREL as it can provide greater flexibility for the researcher to analyze the relationships among multiple predictor and criterion variables (Chin, 1998). The validity and reliability of the instruments were also assessed using LISREL by calculating the average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliability CR) score of each construct. All the instruments were valid and reliable as the value of the average variance extracted (AVE) was ≥ 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and the value of the CR was ≥ 0.70 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 1998). To avoid estimation and inference problem, the researchers examined the determinant of the correlation matrix of the predictor variables to detect multicollinearity (Grewal, Cote,

& Baumgartner, 2004). All the correlation among all predictors were lower than 0.85, indicating good discriminant validity (Kenny, 2016).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Demographic Characteristics

Based on the demographic characteristics shown in Table 1, the majority of respondents were male ($n = 131$; 40.94%), aged 18–24 years ($n = 188$; 58.75%), have a bachelor's degree ($n = 167$; 52.19%), live in Jakarta ($n = 225$; 70.31%), have an annual income ranging from IDR 1–5 million ($n = 183$; 57.19%), and monthly spending between IDR 1–5 million ($n = 220$; 68.75%).

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Variable	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	131	40.94
Female	189	59.06
Age		
18–24	188	58.75
25–34	97	30.31
35–44	25	7.81
65–74	5	1.56
Education		
Secondary School	3	0.94
High School	120	37.50
Diploma	18	5.63
Bachelor Degree	167	52.19
Postgraduate	12	3.75
City		
Jakarta	225	70.31
Bogor	13	4.06
Depok	37	11.56
Tangerang	35	4.06
Bekasi	10	3.13
Monthly Income		
Less than IDR 1 million	12	3.75
IDR 1–5 million	183	57.19
IDR 5,1–9 million	71	22.19
IDR 9,1–13 million	18	5.63
More than IDR 13 million	36	11.25
Monthly Expenditure		

Variable	Frequency	%
Less than IDR 1 million	23	7.19
IDR 1–5 million	220	68.75
IDR 5,1–9 million	49	15.31
IDR 9,1–13 million	11	3.44
More than IDR 13 million	17	5.31

4.2. Mean Analysis

Based on Table 2, the mean for Japanese food on all variables is higher than that for Korean food, indicating that the majority of respondents have a better perception of Japan's country image, a much higher specific knowledge about Japanese food, and higher positive feelings toward and intention to consume Japanese rather than Korean food.

Table 2: Mean of Japanese and Korean Foods

Variable	*n* for each Type of Restaurant	Mean Japanese Food	Mean Korean Food
Cognitive country image (CCI)	160	4.68	4.49
Affective country image (ACI)	160	4.73	4.34
Subjective knowledge (SK)	160	4.12	3.46
Attitude toward consuming foreign foods (ATT)	160	4.94	4.37
Intention to consume foreign food (INT)	160	5.09	4.69

4.3. Structure Equation Modeling

To test the hypotheses, the researchers analyzed the *t*-values and standardized solutions. If the *t*-value ≥ 1.645 for a hypothesis that predicts a positive effect, then the relation between the latent variables is significant, and the hypothesis can be accepted. Based on Table 3, all the hypotheses are accepted for both the Korean and Japanese food questionnaires, as the *t*-values exceeded 1.645. The SLF was used to determine which independent variable showed a more significant relation toward the dependent variable than the others. Based on the comparison in Table 3, we can see that for Korean food, the highest *t*-value and SLF can be found in the path between CCI and ACI, thus showing a better CCI of Korea (*t*-value = 10.05; SLF = 0.91) than Japan (*t*-value = 7.30; SLF = 0.72).

Table 3: *t*-Value and SLF for the Structural Model (Japanese and Korean Foods)

No.	Path	Japanese		Korea	
		t-value (Japanese)	SLF	*t*-value (Korea)	SLF
1.	*Cognitive Country Image ⇨ Affective Country Image*	7.30	0.72	10.05	0.91
2.	*Affective Country Image ⇨ Attitude to Consume Foreign Foods*	4.97	0.29	4.82	0.36

3.	*Subjective Knowledge ⇨ Attitude to Consume Foreign Foods*	6.92	0.49	6.11	0.49
4.	*Attitude to Consume Foreign Foods ⇨ Intention to Try Foreign Foods*	11.04	0.72	3.63	0.57

ACI has a significant influence on the attitude to consume foreign foods as the values are 4.97 and 4.82 for Japanese and Korean food, respectively. Subjective knowledge has a significant effect toward the attitude to consume foreign foods, as the values are 6.92 and 6.11 for Japanese and Korean food, respectively. In addition, the attitude to consume foreign foods has a significant impact on the intention to try foreign foods, as the values are 3.63 and 11.04 for Korean and Japanese food, respectively (shown in Figure 2).

Figure 2. *t*-Value Structural Model (Japanese Food)
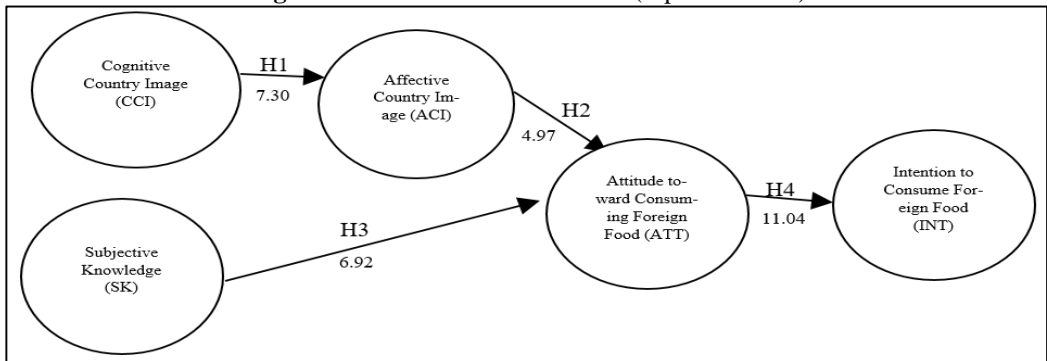
Notes: $(X^2/df) = 2.14$; RMSEA 0.09; TLI/NNFI= 0.86; CFI 0.88.

If we compare the Japanese and Korean food SLF, then we see that the highest SLF and *t*-values is in the path between attitude to consume foreign foods and the intention to try foreign food (*t*-value = 11.04; SLF = 0.72), and the *t*-value and SLF for Korean restaurants are 3.63 and 0.57, respectively. The results indicate that the paths in both samples are significant, but the customers have higher intention to consume Japanese food than Korean food. The SLF also shows that subjective knowledge is more significant in influencing the attitude to consume foreign foods for both Korean and Japanese foods (shown in Figure 3).

Figure 3: *t*-Value Structural Model (Korean Food)
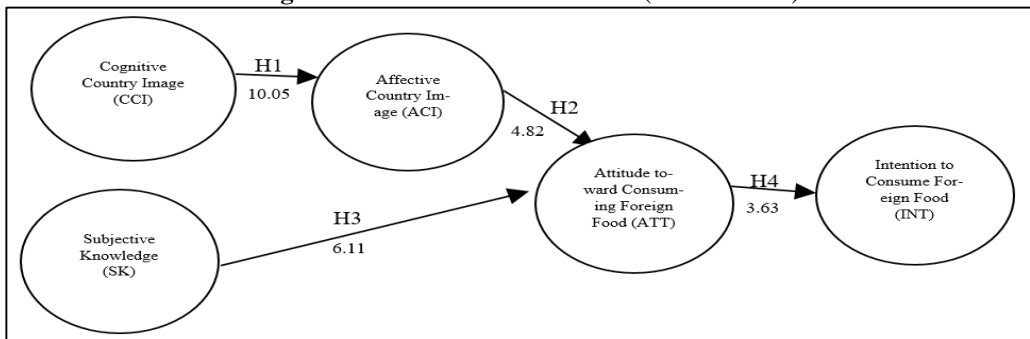
Notes: (X2/df) =2.04; RMSEA 0.08; TLI/NNFI = 0.88; CFI 0.89.

Based on the outputs from the tables above, the results are further discussed in the next section.

4.3.1.   *Effects of Cognitive Country Image and Affective Country Image*

As can be seen from Table 3, the *t*-values are 10.05 and 7.30 for Korean and Japanese foods, respectively. These values are more than 1.645; thus, hypothesis H1 (CCI has a positive influence on ACI) is accepted. This result supports that of Phillips et al. (2012), who found that CCI positively influences ACI.

The results of the current research support the recommendation by Orbaiz and Papadopoulo (2003) that country image is developed hierarchically from cognitive to affective. Moreover, Bertoli (2012) confirmed the presence of a positive causal relation between CCI and ACI. Referring to this research, results indicate that, according to respondents, South Korea and Japan enjoy positive perceptions, which translate into positive feelings for affective components of these countries. From a marketing perspective, this means marketers can emphasize factual information about a country, such as its technology, socio-economic conditions, or good reputation. In the context of marketing food products or restaurants, it could be used to influence the experience of consumers by promoting information about the country alongside its cuisine. This could include, for example, the use of popular culture icons from the origin country as ambassadors of a Korean or Japanese food product or restaurant, respectively. This particular strategy is popular, particularly among South Korean restaurants in Indonesia, such as Kyochon Chicken. The use of such icons can stimulate positive feelings toward a country, which is one indicator of ACI.

4.3.2.   *Effects of Affective Country Image and Attitude Toward Consuming Foreign Foods*

As presented in Table 3, the *t*-values are 4.97 and 4.82 for Japanese and Korean foods, respectively. These values are greater than 1.645; thus, H2 (ACI positively influences attitude toward consuming foreign foods) can be accepted. This result is the same as that reported by Phillips et al. (2013), who found that ACI positively influences one's attitude toward consuming Korean food. Therefore, as this research included Japanese food, it can also be inferred that the same statement applies to Japanese food.

The result that ACI has a positive influence on attitude toward consuming foreign foods is in line with that of Verlegh (1999), who found that an experience by the consumer, whether direct or indirect, can invoke emotions and feelings that have a strong effect on the consumers' expectations and knowledge of product attributes. Referring to this research, both South Korea and Japan enjoy positive ACI in Indonesia and that such a perception by Indonesian consumers positively encourages them to consume food and food products from those countries. Moreover, despite promoting its pop culture years later after Japan, South Korea has caught up in promoting its ACI in Indonesia; as indicated by the *t*-values and the descriptive statistics earlier for this variable, the results do not show a significant gap.

Moreover, from an international marketing perspective, as the country images of both countries are positive, entrepreneurs selling in Korea and/or Japan can charge higher prices for foods or food products with ingredients originating from South Korea and/or Japan because, according to Clarke,

Owens, and Ford (2000), consumers have a willingness to pay higher prices for items manufactured and produced from these desirable locations. In addition, Maher and Carter (2011) claimed that when a country image is strong based on the cognitive and affective perspective, a high willingness to buy is evident. A high-country image evaluation is also an indication of a high consumer interest of a foreign country; thus, marketers of Korean and Japanese foods can utilize consumers' high interest in South Korea and Japan as part of the marketing strategy when promoting foods originating from these countries (Yeh et al., 2010). The marketing strategies could include describing in detail from which regions of South Korea or Japan the foods originated.

4.3.3.   *Effects of Subjective Knowledge and Attitude Toward Consuming Foreign Food*

As presented in Table 3, the *t*-values are 6.11 and 6.92 for Korean and Japanese foods, respectively. These values are greater than 1.645; thus, H3 (subjective knowledge positively influences attitude toward consuming foreign foods) is accepted. This result is the same as that reported by Phillips et al. (2013), who found that subjective knowledge positively influences attitude toward consuming Korean food. Therefore, as this research included Japanese food, it can also be inferred that the same statement applies to Japanese food. In addition, based on the standardized solution, the SLF is higher for the relation between subjective knowledge and attitude compared with that between ACI and attitude. Therefore, subjective knowledge is a better predictor of attitude toward consuming foreign foods than ACI.

The result that subjective knowledge of foreign foods has a positive impact on attitude toward consuming foreign foods is in line with the statement by Raju et al. (1995), who concluded that subjective knowledge influences usage. Referring to this research, the result could suggest that the Korean and Japanese governments and food entrepreneurs might want to increase awareness of their foods in Indonesia, particularly the Greater Jakarta area. This is shown by the results from the descriptive research, which suggest that consumers do not have extensive knowledge about these foods. In the research, as consumers of Japanese food have a higher subjective knowledge compared with consumers of Korean food, this indicates that Japanese food consumers are more reliant on country image when evaluating Japanese food products. A higher subjective knowledge score indicates more reliance on external information, such as country image, to evaluate products (Veale & Quester, 2009).

In addition, Park (1994) found that subjective knowledge, which influences usage, is also affected by past experience; thus, it can be suggested that the marketing and promotion of these foods continue to increase consumer knowledge. Phillips et al. (2013) suggested some ways to increase such exposure through marketing activities, such as educating the potential target market about the country and food through media (e.g., travel books, TV travel channels, and the Internet). The Japanese government and private sector opted for this above-the-line advertising method in 2014 when they launched the Waku Waku Japan channel in the Indonesian Pay TV. In addition, promotional strategies could also be conducted using non-media means, such as intensifying the distribution of Korean or Japanese food products in grocery stores in Jakarta and holding cultural fairs. Both the South Korean and Japanese governments have implemented such measures by holding annual cultural fairs and establishing cultural centers.

4.3.4.   *Effects of Attitude Toward Consuming Foreign Foods and Intention To Try Foreign Foods*

As presented in Table 3, the *t*-values are 3.63 and 11.04 for Korean and Japanese foods, respectively. These values are greater than 1.645; thus, H4 (one's attitude toward consuming foreign foods positively influences the intention to try foreign foods) is also accepted. This result is the same as that of Phillips et al. (2013), who found that attitude toward consuming foreign foods positively influences the intention to try Korean food. Therefore, as this research included Japanese food, it can be applied to Japanese food as well.

The results of this research are also in line with the findings of Rozin (1988), who found that attitude plays a significant role in relation to food, in a way that it could influence consumers' food choice and food-related behavior. Referring to this research, the results are significantly higher for Japanese compared with Korean food. Moreover, Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) claimed that affective components of country image can influence the customers' willingness to buy. In this context, intention to try, which can be considered as the willingness to buy, is positively influenced by attitude, which in turn, is positively influenced by ACI. Therefore, relevant parties that are responsible for promoting Japan and South Korea in Indonesia may need to promote more about their countries' respective images to increase the attitude and intention of Indonesians to try Korean and Japanese foods.

Based on the results of this data analysis, several conclusions are drawn with respect to the research questions. First, CCI has a significant positive effect toward ACI, which is aligned with the findings of Phillips et al. (2013), Orbaiz and Papadopoulo (2003), and Bertoli (2012). Therefore, in the context of this research, South Korea and Japan enjoy respondents' positive perceptions, which turn into positive feelings for affective components of these countries.

Second, ACI has a significant positive effect toward one's attitude to consume foreign foods. The results of this research suggest that an experience by the consumer toward South Korea and Japan, whether direct or indirect, will invoke emotions and feelings, which can have a strong influence on the consumers' product attributes and expectations. For marketers, when country image is the strength from both the cognitive and affective perspectives, then attitude in the form of a high willingness to buy or consume becomes evident. This result is consistent with those reported by Phillips et al. (2013), Verlegh (1999), Clarke et al. (2000), and Maher and Carter (2011).

Third, subjective knowledge of foreign foods has a significant positive effect toward one's attitude to consume foreign foods. The result of this research has shown that subjective knowledge influences usage, and a higher subjective knowledge is an indication of the increasing usage of the country image to determine behavior. This result is aligned with those of Phillips et al. (2013) and Raju et al. (1995).

Fourth, one's attitude to consume foreign foods has a significant positive impact toward the intention to try foreign foods. Therefore, attitude can be used as an important predictor in relation to food, as it could influence consumers' food choice and food-related behaviors. Regarding the academic implications, all the proposed hypotheses were accepted; hence, the research framework model proposed by Phillips et al. (2013) can be used in the context of foreign foods outside of Korean food, as Japanese food was also used as a study case.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the result, and in the context of a Muslim-majority country, South Korea and Japan, as non-Muslim-majority countries, may enjoy the Muslim consumers' positive perceptions, which turn into positive feelings for affective components of these countries. The research also shows that subjective knowledge influences usage, and a higher subjective knowledge is an indication of the increasing use of country image to determine behavior. Moreover, one's attitude toward consuming foreign food positively influences the intention to try foreign foods, and attitude can be used as an important predictor in its relation to food as it could influence consumers' food choice and food-related behavior.

The findings of this research demonstrate some managerial implications, particularly in the field of marketing and specifically the marketing strategies that can be employed by a country or an enterprise offering foreign products in a Muslim-majority country. First, both CCI and ACI have a positive effect toward the attitude to consume foreign foods. If the country-of-origin has a positive country image, then a promotional strategy can emphasize the country-of-origin when promoting its food products. The descriptive research results indicate that both South Korean and Japanese restaurant enterprises enjoy positive CCI and ACI generated from the heavy promotional efforts of their respective governments. These satisfactory evaluations from consumers for these variables should encourage any government that wants to support the development of restaurant enterprises in the overseas market to follow the Japanese and Korean governments' efforts in promoting their respective country images.

The study also found that, among Muslim consumers, subjective knowledge has a greater impact on influencing attitude compared with ACI. Hence, marketing or promotional strategies to increase the attitude to consume foreign foods should focus more on increasing the subjective or specific knowledge about the food. To increase subjective knowledge of the country-of-origin, food marketers could increase the promotion of the country-of-origin through events such as educating the potential market segment about the country and food through media (e.g., travel books, TV travel channels, and the Internet). For example, marketing the method by which expensive beef from the Kobe region of Japan is processed can create curiosity. Beef from this region of Japan is highly desirable, and consumers are typically curious as to what makes beef from Kobe so expensive compared with beef from other regions. Consumers who possess higher subjective knowledge can better use country image in their purchase decisions and, therefore, hold a more positive subjective knowledge of the country-of-origin, which is expected to increase the likelihood of buying. However, it is worth noting that all foods offered in a Muslim-majority country should meet the halal criterion first. Only then can the above managerial implications be applied.

Our study, however, has several limitations. This research was limited to examining only the influence of country image and subjective knowledge on attitude and purchase intention of urban Indonesian Muslim consumers. Moreover, this study only examined consumers' perceptions of Japanese and Korean foods without measuring religiously related variables, such as religiosity, which may play a significant factor in influencing the Muslim consumer's intention. As is the case with the majority of online studies, the sample of the research tends to be young, and people between 45–65 years are not represented yet in the study. Those factors limit the generalizability of the findings to another context. In addition, it would be more interesting for future scholars to

investigate the impact of customer ethnocentrism and local food preferences, as ethnocentrism may influence consumers' attitude toward buying foreign products (Shua, Strombeck, & Hsieh, 2013).

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