



Cross-cultural differences in consumers' attention to food labels.

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Abstract

Purpose-Extended from Hofstede's cultural framework, this study investigated differences between Australian (representing the Western culture) and Chinese (representing the Eastern Culture) consumers regarding their attention paid to food product label cues, and the degree of such attention, controlling for an individual level moderator of product involvement.

Design/methodology approach-Data were collected using face-to-face interviews with semi-structured questionnaires for both Australian and Chinese samples. Data were analysed using factorial between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) to investigate the influence of culture and product involvement on attention and degree of attention paid to product nature-related (e.g., brand name), product assurance-related (e.g., country-of-origin) and health-related attribute (e.g., nutritional panel) cues.

Findings-The findings revealed that Chinese consumers, as compared to Australian consumers, paid attention to more product-assurance cues (e.g., country of origin) and health-related cues (e.g., bioactivity indicators). The degree of attention to these cues was also greater among Chinese consumers than Australian consumers. Product involvement moderated the relationship between culture and attention towards product nature- and product assurance-related cues.

Practical implications-Results from this study enable exporters to customize their labelling designs by strategically including label cues that are more salient to certain export markets.

Originality/value-This study offers novel insights into the impact of culture on consumers' attention to food product label cues, and the effect of product involvement on these relationships, which were previously underexplored.

1. Introduction

Making purchase decisions is a complex process, as consumers are required to compare, evaluate, and find the product that they want from a wide range of available products (Simmonds and Spence, 2017). In most purchasing situations, detailed product information is not always available to consumers at the time of exposure (Dean, 1999). Consumers also do not often have an opportunity to try product samples, especially when it comes to food and beverages. As a result, they have to make judgements about product quality based on attribute cues presented on packaging labels before making a purchase decision (Simmonds and Spence, 2017).

Product labels consist of various cues that can generate expectations about product attributes (Piqueras-Fiszman and Spence, 2015) and influence consumers' satisfaction with products and subsequent purchase behaviours (Liem et al., 2012; Oliver, 1980). However, the effectiveness of labels, as direct shopping aids, depends largely on consumers' attention. Most products have an overwhelming amount of information on their labels. Due to time constraints and limited cognitive capacity, consumers may not be able to pay attention to all attribute cues presented on labels (Fenko et al., 2018; Milosavljevic and Cerf, 2008) and may exhibit selective attention towards certain label cues that are relevant to them, such as Country-of-Origin (COO) (Berry et al., 2015) or health-related information (Grunert et al., 2010). Therefore, examining consumer attention is crucial for a better understanding of the relative salience of product attributes in purchase decision-making process.

Additionally, consumers may not be able to alter their culturally conditioned responses to certain aspects of a product and its packaging when purchasing food products (Liu et al., 2006). A few studies have reported that consumers differ in their responses to food product label cues, such as ingredients (Grunert et al., 2018); health-related (nutritional) information

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3 49 (Carrillo et al., 2014) and regulatory information (e.g., expiry dates) (Harcar and Karakaya,
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5 50 2005). These studies overall provide some evidence that there may be cross-cultural differences
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7 51 in consumers' responses to product label cues. However, cross-cultural research on food
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9 52 products is limited.

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13 53 The current study contributes to the existing literature by addressing three important
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15 54 research gaps. First, studies on consumer attention to packaging labelling has been limited.
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17 55 Attention is a poorly defined phenomenon, and the actual attention process is difficult to
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19 56 measure (Bialkova and van Trijp, 2010). Most studies have examined consumer perceptions of
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21 57 product labels (Arcia et al., 2012; Imm et al., 2012; Wansink et al., 2000) overlooking
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23 58 consumer attention to labels after an initial exposure. To address this gap, this study allowed
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25 59 consumers to view a product in their hands (a free viewing condition) to provide a more realistic
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27 60 assessment of consumer attention. It also examined two forms of consumers' attention to
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29 61 product label cues: 1) attention paid to the type of label cues and 2) the degree of attention given
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31 62 to those label cues, which have not been previously considered.

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36 63 Second, previous studies (Becker et al., 2015; Prendergast et al., 2010) have
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38 64 predominantly examined consumers' responses to one or two label cues, which could have
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40 65 exaggerated the effect of a particular attribute. To address this gap, this study systematically
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42 66 examined consumers' attention to three major categories of product label cues commonly
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44 67 found on food products, namely product nature-related (e.g., brand name), product assurance-
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46 68 related (e.g., bioactivity certification) and health-related (e.g., bioactivity rating).

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51 69 Third, as noted earlier, a handful of empirical studies reported national differences in
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53 70 consumers' responses to product labels such as label usage (Grunert et al., 2018) and perception
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55 71 towards labels (Harcar and Karakaya, 2005). However, they have not taken into consideration
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57 72 cultural values of the studied countries. To overcome this limitation, this study will employ

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3 73 Hofstede's (2001) cultural values framework to examine the extent to which consumers from
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5 74 Western cultures (Australia) and Eastern cultures (China) differ in their attention to product
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8 75 label cues.
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10 76 **2. Conceptual Development**

11 12 13 77 *2.1 Types of product label cues*

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16 78 Attributes represent features or characteristics of a product. According to the Means-End Chain
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18 79 Theory, consumers purchase products with attributes that offer desired benefits and minimize
19
20 80 undesired consequences (Gutman, 1982). During product evaluation process, consumers
21
22 81 typically relate specific attributes of a product to either positive or negative consequences
23
24 82 associated with its consumption (Audenaert and Steenkamp, 1997). The overall quality of food
25
26 83 products is often evaluated based on various attributes, such as its brand (Anselmsson et al.,
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28 84 2014), safety (Barbarossa et al., 2016), and nutritional benefits (Batt and Liu, 2012). Product
29
30 85 labels play a critical role in communicating these attributes to consumers (Blanc et al., 2021).
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32 86 Specifically, product labels consist of three main types of cues that influence consumers'
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34 87 product evaluation: 1) product nature-related, 2) product assurance-related, and 3) health-
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36 88 related.
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42 89 Product nature-related cues contain label information that is directly related to the
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44 90 products. These labels aim to communicate general product characteristics, ranging from
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46 91 product/brand name to serving size. Product assurance-related cues refer to the information
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48 92 that has been certified by regulating authorities. For example, COO is an important product-
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50 93 assurance cue that designates the place where a product is produced (Li and Wyer Jr, 1994).
51
52 94 COO aims to activate consumers' beliefs and knowledge about a particular country, which
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54 95 subsequently affect the interpretation and evaluation of product attributes (its quality or safety)
55
56 96 (Liu and Murphy, 2007). The third label category is health-related cues, which include
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3 97 nutritional and health claims (see Bialkova and van Trijp, 2010; Turner et al., 2014). These
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5 98 cues are frequently embedded into food labels and represent a popular method to convey
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8 99 information about food healthiness related to food content (i.e., low sugar) and health benefits
9
10 100 (i.e., provides a heart-healthy diet) to consumers (Van Trijp and Van der Lans, 2007). The
11
12 101 quality of health-related attributes that food products possess cannot be evaluated even after
13
14 102 consumption. Hence, health-related cues help consumers make well-informed food purchases.
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20 104 *2.2 Attention to label cues*

23 105 In a decision-making process, the number and type of product attributes determine consumers'
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25 106 attention to certain types of label cues that serve as a basis for product evaluation (Aday and
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28 107 Yener, 2014). Attention represents a vital way to acquire information and product labels play
29
30 108 a crucial role in attracting consumers' attention that could potentially influence purchase
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32 109 decisions (Ares et al., 2013). McGuire (1976)'s Information Processing Model (IPM) is one of
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34 110 the most widely adopted models to examine consumers' processing of commercial information.
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37 111 According to this model, consumers go through sequential stages when processing information,
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39 112 such as exposure, attention, comprehension, acceptance of the comprehended information and
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41 113 retention and retrieval of information (McGuire, 1976). Although marketing communication
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43 114 efforts (e.g., labelling) affect all stages of information processing, attention represents the key
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45 115 step preceding any purchase decision (Milosavljevic and Cerf, 2008).
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49 116 Attention is typically defined as the amount of cognitive effort and/or capacity that an
50
51 117 individual directs to a particular stimulus (Kahneman, 1973). Attention occurs only when
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53 118 people allocate processing capacity to the stimulus. There are two forms of attention. The first
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55 119 one is involuntary (or bottom-up) and represents a stimulus-driven form of attentional capture,
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58 120 which is dependent on the design characteristics of the stimulus (shape, size, colour and
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3 121 contrast) (Wolfe, 1998). This form of attention is rapid, automatic and occurs when consumers
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5 122 do not specifically search for this stimulus. Voluntary (or top-down) attention occurs when
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8 123 consumers voluntarily search for specific information that is meaningful or relevant to them
9
10 124 (Pieters and Wedel, 2004). This type of attention depends on consumers' interests and goals
11
12 125 when evaluating the stimulus (Koch, 2004). Essentially, consumers will pay attention to
13
14 126 information that they are looking for disregarding information that seems to be irrelevant,
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17 127 unless it catches their attention automatically (bottom-up process).
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23 129 *2.3 Cross-cultural differences in attention to product label cues*

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25 130 Numerous studies provide evidence on cross-national differences in food product attribute
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27 131 preferences (e.g., Wright et al., 2001; Nielsen et al., 1998; Prescott et al., 2002). For example, it
28
29 132 has been found that Malaysian consumers regard product quality, medical benefits, brand
30
31 133 reputation and pricing to be important when purchasing honey (Yeow et al., 2013). In contrast,
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33 134 American consumers were willing to pay premiums for honey products based on attributes
34
35 135 such as floral sources and brand (Unnevehr and Gouzou, 1998). These studies provide some
36
37 136 evidence to suggest that there could be cultural differences in consumers' responses to product
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39 137 attribute cues (De Mooij, 2000). However, it appears that no specific cultural framework (or
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41 138 cultural values) has been taken into consideration in past studies.
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46 139 Hofstede's (2001) cultural values framework is one of the most widely adopted
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48 140 frameworks in marketing (Steenkamp, 2001). The framework has five basic dimensions:
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50 141 'power distance' (PD), 'uncertainty avoidance' (UA), 'individualism/collectivism'
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52 142 'masculinity'/femininity' and 'long/short-term orientation' (Hofstede, 2001). This study
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54 143 focused on four dimensions (individualism/collectivism, UA, PD and long/short term
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3 144 orientations) as they have been identified by prior studies to be directly applicable to food
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5 145 communications (e.g., Tai and Chan, 2001; Cheong et al., 2010).
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8 146 Past literature has indicated that Western cultures (e.g., U.S. and Australia) are more
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10 147 individualistic, whereas Eastern cultures (e.g., China and Japan) are more collectivistic
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12 148 (Triandis, 1990). People from an individualistic culture value independence, freedom,
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14 149 stimulation, and high-level competition. In contrast, people from a collectivistic culture tend to
15
16 150 value interdependence, harmony, conformity, and a low level of competition (Hofstede, 2001).
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18 151 Past studies have reported that people from an individualistic culture prefer an explicit and
19
20 152 direct form of information. Conversely, people from a collectivistic culture prefer to receive an
21
22 153 implicit and indirect form of information (Liu et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2019). The reason for this
23
24 154 is that in a collectivist society, people perceive explicit information as ‘aggressive’ and ‘pushy,’
25
26 155 while people from individualistic culture think of this form of information as persuasive and
27
28 156 informative (Choi et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2019). Product nature-related attribute cues are
29
30 157 regarded as explicit information that communicates functional benefits to consumers. Due to
31
32 158 this difference, a few studies have suggested that consumers from a collectivistic culture may
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34 159 place less importance on functional benefits compared to consumers from an individualistic
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36 160 culture (Liu et al., 2019; Zakour, 2004).
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43 161 Besides the collectivism/individualism dimension, the UA dimension may also influence
44
45 162 consumers’ responses to product nature-related information. UA refers to the extent to which
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47 163 people feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity and would try to avoid these situations
48
49 164 (Hofstede, 2001). Cultures that are characterized by high UA may react more favourably to
50
51 165 explicit and direct information, as it would reduce perceived uncertainty (Tai and Chan, 2001).
52
53 166 Within high UA societies, such as China, people have a greater a tendency to seek orderliness,
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55 167 consistency, and structure than people in low UA societies, such as Australia (Shi and Wang,
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57 168 2011).
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3 169 The collectivism/individualism and UA dimension seem to suggest opposite directions
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5 170 for the Australian-Chinese comparison. Therefore, it is postulated that:
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8 171 **H1a:** *Australian and Chinese consumers will be significantly different in their attention to*
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10 172 *product nature- related cues.*
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13 173 **H1b:** *Australian and Chinese consumers will be significantly different in their degree of*
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15 174 *attention to product nature- related cues.*
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19 175 PD refers to the extent to which members of a culture accept inequality of power
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21 176 distribution in society (Hofstede, 2001). People from cultures with high PD (e.g., China) tend
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23 177 to maintain greater social distance and have respect for hierarchy and authority, while people
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25 178 from low PD cultures (e.g., Australia) tend to value equality (Liu et al., 2019). Past marketing
26
27 179 literature has also found that authority appeal is more accepted in cultures with greater power
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29 180 distance compared to that with less power distance (Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996; Cheong et
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31 181 al., 2010). Due to the respect given to power and authority, it can be inferred that consumers
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33 182 from high PD societies (e.g., China) would prefer label cues that are regulated by accredited
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35 183 authorities (e.g., government) than consumers from low PD societies. In addition, Chinese
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37 184 consumers have been reported to have a high level of trust in certifications issued by authorities,
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39 185 such as the government and medical doctors (Liu et al., 2014).
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45 186 The UA dimension may also influence consumers' responses to product-assurance
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47 187 information. People from cultures with high UA (e.g., China) are less open to change and
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49 188 innovation than people from cultures of low UA (e.g., Australia) (De Mooij and Hofstede,
50
51 189 2011). Therefore, compared to Australian consumers, Chinese consumers may be less
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53 190 comfortable with uncertain situations and would be more cautious about purchasing products
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55 191 that they have not consumed before. Furthermore, Chinese consumers have been reported to
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57 192 have a high level of concern over food safety due to frequent food contamination scandals that
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3 193 had occurred in China (Maitiniyazi and Canavari, 2021; Liu et al., 2014). Hence, in comparison
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5 194 to Australian consumers, Chinese consumers may be more likely to place more importance on
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8 195 credibility information and to rely more strongly on authority-certified attributes when making
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10 196 purchase decisions. Thus, it is postulated that:

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13 197 **H2a:** *Chinese consumers will pay attention to more product assurance-related cues as*
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15 198 *compared to Australian consumers.*

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18 199 **H2b:** *Chinese consumers will pay a higher degree of attention to product assurance-*
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20 200 *related cues as compared to Australian consumers.*

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23 201 Long-term orientation is defined as the ability to foster and display a future-orientated
24
25 202 perspective with respect to past (Hofstede, 2001). People from cultures with long-term
26
27 203 orientation place more importance on perseverance and sustained efforts towards slow results.
28
29 204 In contrast, people in cultures with short-term orientation expect immediate results for any
30
31 205 given effort (Hofstede et al., 2005). It has been well established that Eastern cultures (e.g.,
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33 206 China) are long-term orientated compared to Western cultures (i.e., Australia) (Hofstede et al.,
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35 207 2005). Past advertising studies have reported that health-related appeals tap in the long-term
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37 208 orientation dimension as it emphasises consumption of nutritious food products to attain health
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39 209 benefits as opposed to instant benefits (Cheong et al., 2010). Considering that sustaining a
40
41 210 healthy lifestyle is a long-term goal that requires life-long commitment (Kelly, 2008),
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43 211 consumers in societies that are long-term orientated (e.g., China) would place more importance
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45 212 on product information pertaining to health attributes than cultures with short-term orientation
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47 213 (e.g., Australia).

48
49 214 Apart from short/long term orientation dimension, the UA dimension may also influence
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51 215 consumers' responses to health-related information. Past research has indicated that consumers
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53 216 in a high UA culture (e.g., China) are influenced more by healthy and nutrition advertising
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3 217 appeals than those in a low UA culture (e.g., Australia) (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010; Cheong
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5 218 et al., 2010). Based on the preceding discussion, it is postulated that:

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8 219 **H3a:** *Chinese consumers will pay attention to more health-related cues as compared to*
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10 220 *Australian consumers.*

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13 221 **H3b:** *Chinese consumers will pay a higher degree of attention to health-related cues as*
14
15 222 *compared to Australian consumers.*

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19 223 *2.4 Interaction effect of cross-cultural differences and product involvement in attention to*
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21 224 *product label cues*

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23 225 Besides cross-cultural differences, consumers from different markets would differ in their
24
25 226 attention towards food label information due to differences in product involvement. Product
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27 227 involvement has been defined as a motivational, self-directed emotional state that determines
28
29 228 the personal relevance of a specific product to a particular consumer (Zaichkowsky, 1985).
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31 229 According to elaboration likelihood theory (ELM) (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986), the extent to
32
33 230 which a consumer attend to information would always depend on their level of product
34
35 231 involvement and purchase decision (Celsi and Olson, 1988). Current research indicates that
36
37 232 high-involved consumers process information in more detail and use more criteria in buying
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39 233 decision making, such as taking more brands/product attributes into consideration compared to
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41 234 low-involved consumers (Behe et al., 2015; Breugelmans and Campo, 2011; Hollebeek et al.,
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43 235 2007).

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49 236 A few studies (i.e., Cochrane and Quester, 2005; Sharma, 2011) have also indicated
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51 237 that depending on the level of involvement towards certain product categories, consumers from
52
53 238 different markets will differ in their attention towards product label attributes. For example,
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55 239 when comparing consumers from China, India, UK and US, Sharma (2011) reported that
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57 240 consumers from societies with high UA tend to rely more on COO cue for low involvement
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241 products, whereas those from low UA societies tend to rely on this cue for high involvement
242 products.

243 In the context of food, past research has shown that Asian consumers primarily regard
244 honey as a health product, as compared to Anglo-Saxon consumers (Batt and Liu, 2012; Yeow
245 et al., 2013). In this aspect, Chinese consumers may be characterised as having a higher level
246 of UA and would be more involved in food product purchase as they have greater
247 considerations for health implications of honey consumption compared to Australian
248 consumers. Hence, high (low) involved Chinese consumers would likely attend to more
249 product attribute cues that are available in comparison to their Australian counterparts. Hence,
250 it is postulated that:

251 **H4a:** *High (low) involved Chinese consumers will pay attention to more 1) product*
252 *nature-related cues 2) product assurance-related cues 3) health-related cues than high (low)*
253 *involved Australian consumers.*

254 **H4b:** *High (low) involved Chinese consumers will pay a higher degree of attention to*
255 *1) product nature-related cues 2) product assurance-related cues 3) health-related cues than*
256 *high (low) involved Australian consumers.*

257

258 Insert Figure 1

259 3. Methods

260 3.1 Product Selection

261 Honey was chosen as the context for this study for several reasons. The Australian
262 honeybee industry has a significant contribution to the success of Australian agriculture. The
263 gross value of production of the honeybee industry in Australia was estimated to be 125 million

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3 264 Australian dollars (van Dijk et al., 2016) with approximately 4,500 tonnes of honey exported
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5 265 annually (Austrade, n.d.). China is the top export market for Australian honey that is valued at
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7 266 6,965,739 Australian dollars (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2019). Honey is also consumed
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9 267 for a variety of reasons. Apart from being a savoury product, it is widely regarded as a health
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11 268 product in different parts of the world (Ismaiel et., 2014; Yeow et al., 2013). Therefore, it is
12
13 269 imperative to understand if consumers from different countries may attend and respond
14
15 270 differently to honey product label cues.

20 271 *3.2 Stimuli and measures*

22 272 The stimuli used in this study were native Australian honey, Jarrah and Wildflower (see
23
24 273 appendix 1). The products were sourced from a relatively new to the market Australian brand
25
26 274 (One Flower). The use of an unfamiliar brand was critical to eliminate any influence of brand
27
28 275 familiarity. In addition, the overall label designs were standardized across both honey products.
29
30 276 Past research has shown that types of label cues (Oliveira et al., 2016), and label designs (i.e.,
31
32 277 location of label information) (Antúnez et al., 2013; Bialkova and van Trijp, 2010) affect
33
34 278 consumers' attention towards product labels. Hence, the use of unknown brands and
35
36 279 standardization of label content/placements helped eliminate any confounding effects which
37
38 280 could potentially bias the results.

43 281 The survey instrument was a four-page questionnaire consisting of three sections. The
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45 282 questionnaire was developed in English and subsequently translated into 'Simplified Chinese'
46
47 283 using the back-to-back translation method. The first section consisted of questions relating to
48
49 284 consumers' attention to the types of label information and the degree of attention given to it.
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51 285 To assess consumers' attention to the types of product label cues, respondents were asked 'Did
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53 286 you pay attention to this label?' Respondents answered either 'yes' or 'no' for the product
54
55 287 attribute cues which were grouped into 'product nature-related', 'product assurance-related'
56
57 288 and 'health-related cues (see figure 1). To assess the degree of attention given to the product

289 cues, participants were asked to specify how much attention they paid to the attended cues
290 ('How much attention did you pay to this label information?') on a 7-point response scale
291 ranging from 1-paid a little attention to 7-paid a lot of attention.

292 The second section consisted of questions relating to product involvement. Product
293 involvement was measured using the three items *adapted from* Liu et al., (2007) (e.g., 'I
294 definitely have a wanting for honey products'). Involvement items had good internal
295 consistency reliability ($\alpha = 0.85$). The third section collected demographic information, such
296 as age, gender, education level, household size and nationality.

297 The questionnaire was pre-tested on a representative sample of store shoppers (n=30).
298 Minor adaptations were made to the wording, structure and presentation of the questionnaire
299 based on the pre-test feedback and opinions of two marketing experts.

300 *3.3 Sampling procedure*

301 A mall-intercept technique approach was used to recruit participants and collect data. The
302 Australian participants were recruited at a local shopping centre where its patrons consisted of
303 typical shoppers of all ages. The recruitment of Chinese participants was conducted at an
304 Australian merchandise store which was popular among Chinese tourists. Both data collection
305 venues were based in Perth, Western Australia.

306 A quota sampling approach was employed to ensure that recruited participants for both
307 samples (Australian and Chinese) were approximately equivalent (Moser and Stuart, 1953).
308 The used quota consisted of nationality, gender, age, honey-type conditions (Jarrah and
309 Wildflower).

310 *3.4 Data Collection*

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3 311 Data were collected during the stores' opening hours (10 pm to 6 pm, Monday to Sunday). The
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5 312 selection of the time frame enhanced the representation of the sample and minimised potential
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8 313 sampling biases (i.e., length-bias – frequent shoppers/shoppers who shop longer are more likely
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10 314 to be selected for the study) (Nowell and Stanley, 1991).
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13 315 Participants were instructed to view one of the two honey products (Jarrah or Wildflower
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15 316 honey) as if they were to purchase them in a supermarket. Subsequently, surveys were
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17 317 administered to the participants based on the types of honey that they have viewed. Participants
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20 318 took approximately 20 to 30 minutes to complete the survey and the total time taken for the
21
22 319 entire data collection amounted to more than 60 hours.
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25 320 *3.5 Data analysis*

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28 321 Data were imported into IBM® SPSS® Statistics 24, where it was re-coded for analysis. Any
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30 322 invalid or incomplete responses were eliminated (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Initial
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32 323 descriptive statistical analysis of the sample was conducted to gain an understanding of
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34 324 consumer profiles. The means of attention counts and degree of attention for each product
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36 325 attribute cues were aggregated based on the three product label cues. Factorial between-groups
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38 326 analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the influence of culture and product
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40 327 involvement on the attention/degree of attention paid to product nature-related, product
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42 328 assurance-related and health-related cues.
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47 329 **4. Results**

48 49 50 330 *4.1. Sample*

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53 331 A total of 121 participants were recruited with a 40% response rate. Of all participants
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55 332 recruited, 54 participants were Australians and 67 were Chinese consumers. There was an even
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57 333 split between males and females in the Australian (male: 50% and female: 50%) and Chinese
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59 334 samples (male: 41.8% and female: 58.2%). Within the Australian samples, the age range was
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3 335 relatively equal (18 to 35 years old: 55.6% and 35 years old and above: 44.4%). Whereas, in
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5 336 the Chinese sample, there were a slight over-representation of younger participants (18 to 35
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7 337 years: 74.6% and 36 years and above: 25.4%). In both samples, most participants had a
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9 338 bachelor's degree (46.3%). Based on the equivalence of characteristic profile, both samples
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11 339 were suitable to be subjected to subsequent cross-comparison analysis.
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15 340 *4.2. Hypotheses testing*

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18 341 As shown in Table 1, there were significant differences in the attention given to product
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20 342 assurance and health-related cues by Australian and Chinese consumers. Chinese consumers
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22 343 reported they paid attention to more assurance- and health-related label cues and with a greater
23
24 344 degree of attention) than Australian consumers, supporting H1a to H3b.
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28 345 Insert Table 1
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34 347 As shown in Table 2, the moderating effects of product involvement on the relationship
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36 348 between culture and consumers' attention towards these label cues were also significant. Low-
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38 349 involved Chinese consumers paid attention to more product nature-related and assurance-
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40 350 related cues (and with a higher degree of attention) than low-involved Australian consumers,
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42 351 supporting H4a-1, H4a2, H4b-1 and H4b-2. The attention given (and degree of attention paid)
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44 352 to health-related cues were not significant, providing no support for H4a-3 and H4b-3.
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9 **5. Discussion**10
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12 360 *5.1 General Discussion*

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15 361 The purpose of this study was to examine cultural differences in consumers' attention to
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17 362 product label cues. Specifically, we have employed Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimension
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19 363 framework to investigate the extent to which Australian consumers and Chinese consumers
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22 364 differ regarding their attention to label cues presented on honey product packaging.

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25 365 First, results indicate that Chinese consumers paid attention to product assurance-related
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27 366 cues as well as with a greater degree of attention, than their Australian counterparts did. This
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29 367 suggests that the influence of cross-cultural differences in the degree of PD and UA
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32 368 significantly influenced consumers' attention to product assurance-related cues. The Eastern
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34 369 cultures (i.e., China) are characterized by a high level of PD and UA. Thus, in comparison to
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37 370 Australian consumers, Chinese consumers would value authority-certified product label cues
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39 371 (i.e., COO) and perceive such cues to be more credible than other forms of marketing claims.

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42 372 Due to the food contamination scandals in China and recent negative publicity around
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44 373 adulterated honey produced (Strayer et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2015), Chinese consumers are more
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46 374 likely to express concern over food scares, which would heighten their level of uncertainty
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49 375 avoidance. Thus, Chinese consumers may actively seek product assurance-related cues, such
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51 376 as the COO logo of Australia, which could serve as a mark of quality for them. The beekeeping
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53 377 industry in Australia is widely recognised for its commitment to quality assurance by ensuring
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55 378 that produced products are clean, safe and free from chemical contamination. Furthermore,
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58 379 members of the Australian beekeeping industry, such as in Western Australia, have access to
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3 380 the country's most pristine forests and coastal wildflowers that enable beekeepers to produce
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5 381 unique floral honey products that are not found elsewhere in the world (Batt and Liu, 2012).
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8 382 Chinese consumers also paid attention to more health-related cues as well as with a higher
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10 383 level of attention in comparison to their Australian counterparts. These findings are consistent
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12 384 with the proposition that maintaining a healthy lifestyle takes a long-life commitment (Cheong
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14 385 et al., 2010; Kelly, 2008). Thus, consumers from an Eastern culture (i.e., China) (characterized
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16 386 by long-term orientation) would place more importance on health-related cues than those from
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18 387 a Western culture (characterized by short-term orientation). Compared to Australian
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20 388 consumers, Chinese consumers may be more likely to take into consideration future health
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22 389 implications of consuming certain food products. These findings are consistent with previous
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24 390 cross-cultural studies (i.e., Cheong et al., 2010) that have reported that health-related appeals
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26 391 were more influential in high UA society (i.e., China) than low UA society (i.e., Australia).
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32 392 Past research (e.g., Yeow et al., 2013) also suggests that functional foods, such as
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34 393 honey, is highly regarded as a health product in Asian cultures than in Western cultures. For
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36 394 example, Batt and Liu (2012) reported that Asian consumers were more likely to consume
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38 395 honey for its medicinal benefits, as compared to Anglo-Saxon consumers. Hence, Chinese
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40 396 consumers would rely more on health-related cues, such as bioactivity indicators, when
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42 397 purchasing honey than their Australian counterparts. Bioactivity indicators represent the
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44 398 potency of honey, and consumers might develop perceptions that honey products with higher
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46 399 bioactivity levels may be more beneficial for their health. Consumers from both cultures do not
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48 400 differ in their attention towards product nature-related cues. A plausible explanation for this
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50 401 result is that product nature-related cues (e.g., brand name/logo and product description)
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52 402 provide general information about product characteristic. Hence, most consumers would seek
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54 403 for such information to learn about the product, regardless of their cultural background.
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3 404 This study also indicates that cultural differences in product involvement do influence
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5 405 consumers' attention towards label cues. Specifically, low-involved Chinese consumers paid
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7 406 attention to more product nature-related cues and with a greater degree of attention than low
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9 407 involved Australian consumers. For low-involved consumers, product purchases (especially
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11 408 food) are often based on intuitive judgement, heuristic decision-making or habits (Thøgersen
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13 409 et al., 2021). Moreover, as previously mentioned, Chinese consumers possessed a high level of
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15 410 uncertainty avoidance. Thus, low-involved Chinese consumers would pay attention to more
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17 411 explicit functional product nature-related cues, such as brand name and product name (honey
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19 412 type specification), to make purchase decisions than their Australian counterparts.
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24 413 Similarly, low-involved Chinese consumers paid more attention to product assurance-
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26 414 related cues and a greater degree of attention than their Australian counterparts. This finding is
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28 415 consistent with some prior studies which found that low-involved consumers would base their
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30 416 quality evaluations on product assurance-related cues, such as COO, as these cues are more
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32 417 accessible and easier to process (Sáenz-Navajas et al., 2014). Also, compared to Australians,
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34 418 Chinese consumers are generally more risk-averse and would regard authority regulated
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36 419 certification as more trustworthy. Therefore, when evaluating a product, low-involved Chinese
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38 420 consumers would base their purchase decision on reliable and accessible cues, such as the
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40 421 COO.
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46 422 Contrary to our prediction, the interaction effect of culture and involvement on
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48 423 consumers' attention to health-related cues was insignificant. Specifically, high (low) involved
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50 424 Chinese consumers do not differ from high (low) involved Australian consumers in their
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52 425 attention towards health-related cues. With reference to the findings of cross-cultural
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54 426 comparison, it suggests that the differences in attention towards health-related cues are solely
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56 427 attributed to cross-cultural differences, regardless of consumers' level of product involvement.
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3 428 It is interesting to note that high-involved consumers from both countries do not differ
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5 429 in their attention towards any of the product label cues. One of the plausible explanations is
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7 430 that expertise is generally associated with the level of involvement a consumer has with a
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9 431 specific product category (Bruwe et al., 2017), where high-involved consumers would
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11 432 considerably be more knowledgeable about honey. Hence, these consumers may adopt a
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13 433 similar way of evaluating the quality of a product (i.e., paying attention to certain types of
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15 434 product label cues), regardless of their cultural backgrounds.

20 435 **6. Conclusion**

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23 436 This study is the first to employ Hofstede's (2001) cultural framework to examine consumers'
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25 437 attention towards three major types of food label cues. Specifically, this study has demonstrated
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27 438 that cultural differences in attention to product labels can be explained by cultural values such
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29 439 as power distance, uncertainty avoidance and short/long term orientation. One of the most
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31 440 important implications is that consumers from Eastern cultures (characterized by high PD, high
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33 441 UA and long-term oriented) would pay more attention to product assurance-related and health-
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35 442 related cues when purchasing food products, as compared to consumers from Western cultures
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37 443 (who are characterised by low PD, low UA and short-term oriented).

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42 444 Product involvement was also found to be crucial when examining cross-cultural
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44 445 differences in the context of food labelling. Low-involved Chinese consumers appear to pay
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46 446 more attention to product nature-related and product assurance-related cues than their
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48 447 Australian counterparts. As such, having a good understanding of the potential influence
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50 448 culture may have on consumers' attention to food product labels would have important
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52 449 implications not only for food labelling design, but also communication strategies, such as
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54 450 traditional and digital advertising to target international markets.

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Table 1: Results of hypothesis testing

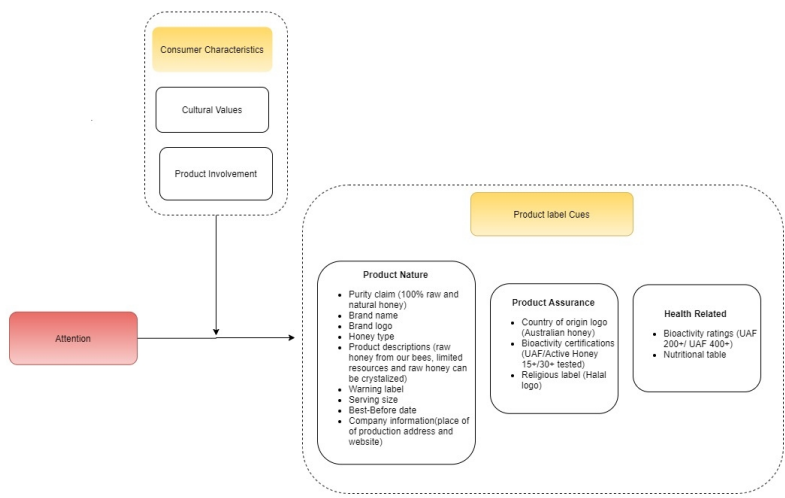
Hypotheses	Australian		Chinese		<i>F</i> (1,117)	P
	M	SD	M	SD		
H1a: Australian and Chinese consumers will be significantly different in their attention to product nature-related cues.	6.70	2.07	7.39	2.01	5.28	0.20
H1b: Australian and Chinese consumers will be significantly different in their degree of attention to product nature-related cues.	3.13	1.05	3.40	1.05	4.19	0.04
H2a: Chinese consumers will pay attention to more product assurance-related cues as compared to Australian consumers.	1.57	1.21	1.99	0.91	5.80	0.02
H2b: Chinese consumers will pay a higher degree of attention to product assurance-related cues as compared to Australian consumers.	2.12	1.68	2.87	1.39	10.01	P < 0.001
H3a: Chinese consumers will pay attention to more health-related cues as compared to Australian consumers.	1.30	0.69	1.55	0.53	4.62	0.03
H3b: Chinese consumers will pay a higher degree of attention to health-related cues as compared to Australian consumers.	3.53	1.87	4.49	1.74	2.74	0.01

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Table 2: Moderating effect

	Australian (low-involved)		Chinese (low-involved)		<i>P</i>	Australian (high- involved)		Chinese (high- involved)		<i>P</i>	<i>F</i> (2,117)
	M	SD	M	SD		M	SD	M	SD		
H4a-1: High (low) involved Chinese consumers will pay attention to more product nature-related cues.	5.90	1.90	7.02	1.90	0.02	7.64	1.87	8.19	2.04	0.35	8.18
H4a-2: High (low) involved Chinese consumers will pay attention to more product assurance-related cues.	1.14	1.16	1.85	0.89	< 0.001	2.08	1.08	2.29	0.90	0.49	7.31
H4a-3: High (low) involved Chinese consumers will pay attention to more health-related cues.	1.31	0.71	1.57	0.54	0.08	1.28	0.68	1.52	0.51	0.18	0.05

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Conceptual model

469x256mm (72 x 72 DPI)

Appendix. 1

Stimuli 1: Jarrah Honey Packaging

Left side



Front side



Right side



Stimuli 2: Wildflower Honey Packaging

Left side



Front side



Right side

