LUND UNIVERSITY • CENTRE FOR EAST AND SOUTH-EAST ASIAN STUDIES

Coffee, Country-of-Origin and China –

A closer look at Chinese consumption and perception of foreign and domestic coffee in Kunming

Author: Johan Wickström
Supervisor: Sara Brogaard

Master's Programme in Asian Studies

Fall semester 2012

Abstract

Being one of the most valuable commodities in the world, coffee is of great importance to the world economy, producing countries and the daily lives of millions of people. China is one of the largest and fastest growing consumer markets in the world and is experiencing an increasing demand for coffee. Very little research has been carried out concerning China's growing appreciation for the commodity but also in its role as a producer of coffee. This thesis was intended to contribute to the existing knowledge by examining Chinese consumers' coffee-buying behavior, and especially, how important the country-of-origin of coffee is for the perceived quality of a coffee product. This was done using an online-survey, a focus group discussion and two interviews where the interviewees both had their own company in the coffee business. The results showed, among other things, that Chinese coffee consumers do appear to be influenced by country-of-origin and that this influence differs between groups of people.

Contents

1. Introduction

This chapter will introduce the reader to the importance of coffee to the world economy, and the potential seen by many in the emerging coffee market in China. China's role as a coffee producing country will also be mentioned leading us in to the research motive, question and expected target audience

Coffee consumption in China amounts to about 0.03 kilos per capita and year (ITC 2012: 25). To most people this does not sound like a lot, especially compared to the Scandinavian countries, the region in the world with the highest level of consumption (Ponte 2002: 1103; Kjeldgaard & Ostberg 2007: 179). Here, each person on average consumes ten kilos of coffee every year (ITC 2012: 28).

However, as coffee consumption is growing all over Asia (ITC 2012: 24) and the beverage industry in China is one of the country's fastest growing (Business Monitor 2012: 10), what analysts and companies see is potential (e.g. Mitchell 2010; Allen 2011; F.O. Licht's 2011a; Business Monitor 2012: 42-3, 68-9; Starbucks 2012; Hogood; SPR Coffee). China's coffee consumption today is where Japan's consumption was in the 1960's (Allen 2011). Today Japan is the world's third largest importer of coffee with an average consumption of 3.4 kilos per capita per year (ITC 2012: 8, 25). Many are those hoping for China to follow a similar growth path.

1.1. Coffee

The significance of the world's coffee economy is by every measure enormous. Today one of the world's most popular beverages (ITC 2012: 18), coffee and coffee trees are said to have originated in the Ethiopian province of Kaffa (ICO). From its confined origins in the Horn of Africa coffee is now produced by some 70 countries (ITC 2012: 2) and an estimated 100 million people are employed in the industry through growing, processing and marketing (Waller, Bigger and Hillocks 2007: 1; ICO).

Waller et al. (2007: 17) describe coffee as one of the most valuable of traded commodities, second only to petroleum products (Vega 2008:138). The roughly 5.8 million tons exported in 2010 was worth approximately US$ 16.5 billion (ITC 2012: 2). This makes coffee not only crucial for the 25 to 30 million coffee farmers depending on it for their livelihoods but also for whole countries. For many developing countries, coffee is one of the primary exports with the earnings also financing many of the essential imports and services (cf. Charveriat 2001). This puts many countries in a situation where any decline in coffee exports can have major economic and political repercussions (Waller, Bigger & Hillocks 2007: vii).

And there have been declines. Fluctuations in supply and demand have over the last 150 years led to large price variations (ibid.: vii; 2; 17), but by the turn of the century the world saw a literary collapse in coffee prices. Figures 1.1 and 1.2 show the decline in coffee prices and the

Figure 1.1 – Decline in coffee prices (Osorio 2004: 3)

world supply and demand during this period. Several factors led up to the erosion in producer prices but responsibility has to a greater or lesser extent been placed on Vietnam and the country's fast growing coffee production in the 1990's, replacing Colombia as the world's second largest producer (see Ponte 2002: 1101-3; Stein & Burke 2002; Greenfield 2002; Ha & Shively 2008; Mitchell 2010). The recent dramatic drop left prices at historically low levels for years (Osorio 2003: 1), with adverse social, environmental and economical consequences, posing a real threat to the sustainable development of many poor countries (Osorio 2002: 2-3; ICC 2003: 1). "The expansion of coffee production, marketing, and consumption has resulted in the creation of a global commodity that can disrupt the lives of rural working families virtually overnight" (Kerr-Ritchie 2006: 212-3).

Organic or Fair Trade networks have proven to reduce the livelihood vulnerability for coffee farmers (Bacon 2005: 506-8). Although still just a small market segment, the demand for organic and Fair Trade coffee is growing (ibid.: 507; van der Vossen 2005: 450). As part of the solution to avoid future coffee crises and redressing the supply/demand imbalance the International Coffee Organization wants to stimulate consumption. In mature, traditional markets

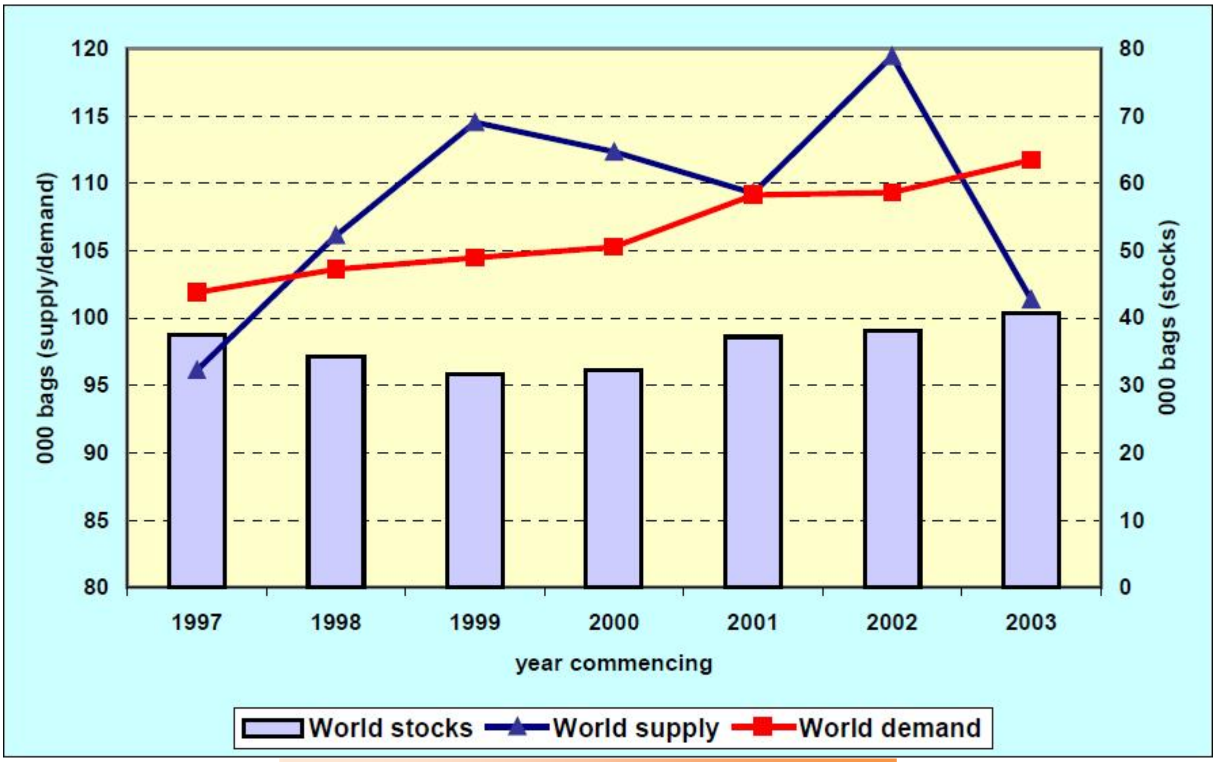


Figure 1.2 – Coffee supply and demand (Osorio 2004: 3)

consumption levels are to be protected using, among other measures, quality maintenance programs. Enhancing knowledge and appreciation of the beverage is the tactic used to promote coffee drinking in large emerging economies, such as China (cf. Waller, Bigger & Hillocks 2007: 2; Osorio 2005: 2-3).

1.2. Coffee in China

Considering that an annual growth in world consumption of 1.5 to 2 percent is desirable (see Waller, Bigger & Hillocks 2007: 2), an increase in the world's most populated country would be very much appreciated. And demand in China appears to be growing. Business Monitor (2012: 42) estimates that between 2012 and 2016 coffee sales will grow by average 11.2 percent every year and F.O. Licht's International Coffee Report (F.O. Licht's 2011b) predicts an annual growth in consumption by between 15 and 20 percent. The growth is often explained as a result of rising disposable incomes (ITC 2012: 28) and as a result of the adaption of more Western habits (ibid.: 24; Allen 2011). Like in many other countries in the world, China has also witnessed an explosion in the number of coffee bars opening up in cities all over the country (Wang 2011). Starbucks (2011) alone are now operating more than 500 stores across mainland China and the company's goal is to have 1500 shops by 2015. This is helping the beverage to acquire a more modern image and it is becoming very popular with the young (ITC 2012: 25). However, before the arrival of Starbucks and other Western-styled coffee shops the commonly used word for coffee was Nescafe (Mitchell 2010), a Nestlé brand for soluble coffee. This tells us something about the role the Swiss multinational has played in the development of the coffee industry in the country, contributing to why instant coffee still has the largest share of the market (ibid.; Allen 2011).

That China, recognized by many as the home land of tea, also is a producer of coffee comes as a surprise to many people (Dufrêne 2010). More than 100 years have passed since coffee first was introduced to China (Cai et al. 2007: 455) but it is only in recent years that the country has seen an upswing in production. This usually accredited to the joint efforts of the Chinese government and UNDP in cooperation with Nestlé who together replanted and accomplished a revival in coffee cultivation in the 1980's and 1990's in Yunnan Province, southwest China (Dufrêne 2010; Mitchell 2010; Allen 2011).

Most of the coffee produced is being exported, mainly to Japan and Germany (ITC 2012: 25), but both Nestlé and Starbucks are buying beans and are promoting and investing in the Yunnan coffee production (Starbucks 2012b; ITC 2012: 24). Yunnan based Dehong Hougu "Hogood" Coffee, for a long time the largest coffee been supplier to Nestlé, has in recent years launched its own brand of inexpensive instant coffee (Beijing Review 2008). The regional leader in planting and roasting aspires to get ahead of Nestlé and other major coffee brands and become one of the most recognized and respected brands in the world (Hogood).

Today production of coffee in Yunnan is on the rise. In 1997 production amounted to around 3 600 tons of coffee beans, rising to 13,000 in 2001 and about 17,000 tons in 2007 (Mitchell 2010). Growers in former tea producing areas are shifting to coffee (Dufrêne 2010; Schmitz 2011; F.O. Licht's 2012a) and production in 2011 is believed to have increased by 11.3 percent from the year before to reach 55,000 tons (F.O. Licht's 2012b). But apparently this is only the beginning. The Yunnan provincial government is planning to invest RMB 3 billion (US$ 450 million) in expanding the volume produced to reach 200,000 tons by 2020. Coffee acreage will also be expanded from the current 26 700 to 100,000 within the same period (Business Wire 2010). It appears as both Chinese coffee production and consumption are forces to be reckoned with for the global coffee economy in the future.

1.3. Research motive

Considering the importance of coffee to the world economy, producing countries and the daily lives of millions of people, it is surprising to see how little research has been carried out concerning China's growing appreciation for the commodity and emerging role as a global player. A large knowledge gap is evident.

China's integration into the global economy is causing the number of products available to the Chinese consumers to increase, naturally, this also holds true for coffee. In other parts of the world, a rising accessibility of products has led to an increase in the significance of products' country-of-origin images in influencing consumer behavior (Kaynak et al. 2000: 1221). In the available country-of-origin literature, however, little has been published regarding food and beverage products, and furthermore, most previous country-of-origin research has concentrated on North America and Europe (Balestrini & Gamble 2006: 398). It is quite often the case that consumer behavior theories and concepts have been developed in a specific cultural environment and it is necessary to investigate if they can be used cross the borders of cultures without losing relevance (Usunier & Lee 2005: 84).

This thesis will contribute to existing knowledge by examining Chinese consumers' coffee-buying behavior, and especially, how important the country-of-origin of coffee is for the perceived quality of a coffee product. Therefore, the research question is as follows: *how does the coffee's country-of-origin influence Chinese coffee consumers' perception of the beverage?* In order to answer the main research question the following set of sub-questions will also be dealt with along the way. *What does consumption in modern China look like? Why and how do we consume? How do we decide what to buy?* Also, with respect to the last couple of questions: *How is the Chinese consumer and Chinese consumption different?*

1.4. Target Audience

As already mentioned, there has been very little research carried out on coffee and China. Regarding the large expectations and potential associated with the Chinese coffee market, any study on Chinese consumer preferences would be very useful to companies, both Chinese and foreign, wishing to compete on the market. Hopefully, the better understanding of Chinese consumers generated by this thesis will be helpful for those companies wishing to promote their brands or develop marketing and positioning strategies.

The author also wishes to inspire others to commence research in this new, exciting and very important area. Much more needs to be studied and thoughts about this matter will be presented in the *Conclusions* chapter at the end of the thesis.

2. Consumption, the consumer and the COO-effect

One chapter does not provide enough space to give a thorough examination of all available explanations of consumer behavior. Instead the author has concentrated on the fact that theories and concepts often are developed in a specific cultural environment (Usunier & Lee 2004: 84). In light of this, much attention has been given to theories' applicability in a Chinese context, and what is being presented are concepts and theories believed to be of most relevance in a Chinese consumption society. It seems appropriate to begin this chapter with a short look at the emergence of mass consumption followed by a section discussing consumer behavior. The final part is dedicated to the concept of value from a consumer perspective and the value generating effect of country-of-origin. All three parts take China's cultural environment into special consideration.

When going to get a cup of coffee:

> *We shop for a coffee experience. It is something we* want*, and in the process of shopping we demonstrate to the world around us who we are, or rather who we would like to be at that very moment. (Thomassen, Lincoln & Aconis 2006: 112, original emphasis).*

Not only is the above quote interesting to include in this thesis because of its reference to coffee but it also represents the belief of consumption being an important cultural dynamic. In this thesis consumption is conceptualized as a way of creating identity and lifestyle and a way of communicating your identity and lifestyle to others (see Aldridge 2003: 19). We will return to this later in the chapter after a short look at the emergence of mass consumption.

2.1. Mass consumption

In the beginning of the twentieth century Henry Ford established standardized mass production techniques in his automobile factories. The assembly line method meant that the process was broken down into simple, repetitive tasks and that workers did not need to acquire specialized skills to perform their jobs (Wiedenhoft 2004; Jessop 2006). Although the production methods reduced the retail sale price of the Model T from $950 to $490 (McIntyre 2000: 269-70) Ford was well aware of the critical relationship between production and consumption, or supply and demand (Wiedenhoft 2004). "Fordist mass production of standardized goods required a mass market of consumers to purchase them" (Aldridge 2003: 35). Therefore, recognizing that his workers were also his customers, Ford paid his workers a high wage, and as other manufacturers adopted similar methods a workforce emerged that earned enough wages to support a stable, mass consumer market (Wiedenhoft 2004).

In the 1970s, however, drawbacks with the model became more evident (Jessop 2006). Since then, it has been argued, we have entered an era characterized by post-Fordist flexible specialization where companies need “to meet individual requirements and respond quickly to changes in consumer demand” (Aldridge 2003: 39-40). Ritzer (2011: 47) is one of the scholars questioning if there actually has been a clear transition between the two models and believe that elements of old-style Fordism are living on in many sites of consumption in contemporary society. Schmidt (2008) sees a Fordist consumer culture fuel the growth-rates of the Asian economies and a culture of mass consumption emerging. For him it appears not to be as much a question of the possible co-existing of Fordist and post-Fordist models as a world of global varieties of Fordism. To Schmidt “Fordism as a project of societal formation can be understood as a middle-class ‘festival.’ It represents and celebrates the success of the European and North American middle-class in the twentieth century.” According to the scholar, this success is now repeated, although somewhat modified, in Asia (ibid.).

2.1.1. The growing consumer market in China

> *What is big and emerging in countries like China and India is a new consumer base consisting of hundreds of millions of people. Starved of choice for over 40 years, the rising middle class is hungry for consumer goods and better quality of life and is ready to spend. (Prahalad & Lieberthal 2003: 110).*

According to Naím (2008) the middle class in poor countries is the fastest-growing segment of the world's population, and every month in China about one million or more people are joining (Doctoroff, 2005: 217). A growing middle class does not just show a population's ability to rise from poverty but is also an indication of the possibility for more people to buy items that go beyond bare necessities (Ali & Dadush 2012).

Before continuing the discussion it is worth stopping for a moment and consider the usage of the word mass consumption in a Chinese context. Croll (2006: 16) writes about the transition of China’s people “from comrades to consumers”, and Thomassen et al. (2006: 14) call the Chinese the “emerging shopaholics“. Although the rapid economic growth in China has been followed by the emergence of what is called mass consumption (Elfick 2011: 190), inequality in income and consumption has also been increasing (Wan & Zhang 2006: 651). The growing inequality in both rural and urban areas (Wu & Perloff 2004; Zhao 2006: 462) is also slowing down the progress in poverty reduction, both the rising urban poverty and also the continuing problem with rural poverty (Yao, Zhang & Hanmer 2004: 146). Therefore, the usage of the words “mass market” and “mass consumption” can appear somewhat out of place when the true mass of China’s population is still not taking part in it (cf. Croll 2006: 317).

Nevertheless, China has been transformed to an economic power that is turning in to one of the largest and fastest growing consumer markets in the world (Zhang et al. 2008: 38; Yusuf & Brooks 2010: 5). For many of the urban Chinese, shopping has become a quotidian activity (Elfick 2011: 192) and they are becoming more sophisticated consumers (Zhang et al. 2008: 38). In his description of what he calls the consumer attitude, Bauman (1990: 204) equates "learning the art of living", with, among other things, acquiring "shopping skills and purchasing power". This can be witnessed across China in the number of newspapers, magazines, websites and television programs that are devoted to consumption related issues (Elfick 2011: 205). There are also theme bars educating their customers in wine or tea appreciation or inviting experts to host special events (ibid.), all pointing towards how important knowledge of how to consume correctly has become.

2.2. Consumer behavior

Learning about consumer behavior is not easy and consumers themselves often do not know what influences their buying decisions (Armstrong & Kotler 2007: 129). In his article "Marketing Myopia" from 1960 Levitt (1975) found the cause of problems experienced by many businesses being that they were product-oriented instead of customer-oriented. Their focus was wrong, forgetting that a product is only provided as response to a customer need or want. *Needs*, according to Armstrong and Kotler (2007: 6), are states of felt deprivation and a basic part of human life. *Wants* are the form that needs take when they are shaped by one's society, by culture and individual personality. They are objects that will satisfy needs, and although we all *need* to eat what we *want* to eat when we are hungry differs between people and across the globe. Grönroos (2007: 4) tells us that "Customers do not buy goods or services, they buy the benefits goods and services provide them with". When focus is shifted from the actual product per se and we instead talk about wants and perceived benefits, it becomes obvious that how products are perceived varies from one individual to another.

Consumers are influenced strongly by *cultural*, *social*, *personal*, and *psychological* characteristics when choosing between what goods and services to buy (Armstrong & Kotler 2007: 129). A universal *personal* factor is for example the connection between people consuming a lot of coffee and a personality that is high on sociability. This has been observed by coffee shops that are offering environments in which people can relax and socialize (Armstrong & Kotler 2007: 137). However, without becoming too universal and detailed the next section is intended to describe the characteristics influencing consumers from a cross-cultural viewpoint.

This is because “the Western rationality inherent in most consumer theories needs to be reinterpreted through the eyes of Eastern reality” (Wong & Ahuvia 1998: 436).

2.2.1. Consumption and identity

A major *psychological* factor influencing consumers’ buying choices is motivation (Armstrong & Kotler 2007: 138). In one of the most well known theories about human motivation and needs, Maslow (1987: 15-23) has organized human needs in different levels as to demonstrate what motivates people. In the “hierarchy of needs”, needs are arranged in order from the most pressing at the bottom to the least pressing at the top and for each level of need that is met a person moves up to the next level. The needs in order starting with the most important are; physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs (ibid.). For example, how people see you and the respect you get from others (esteem need) will not matter to you and become motivators in your life if you are starving (physiological need). Not even if you are breathing clean air or not (safety need) will matter until the most basic, important of all needs is met (Armstrong & Kotler 2007: 139).

Usunier and Lee (2004: 88-9) point out the fact that the relative importance among different sets of needs varies across cultures and, as an example, some cultures value the need for self-actualization or esteem higher. The authors suggest is that consumer motivations are rooted in the dynamics of social life, and instead of looking at needs it may be better to look at consumer desires.

Davies and Ward (2002: 49) wrote that “desires manifest themselves in an individual’s wish to become a certain type of person; to create, emulate or obtain a certain lifestyle and image”. Brand *personal*ity is “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (Aaker 1997: 347). That a brand can have human characteristics means that consumers can identify themselves with brands in different ways. What we buy can be regarded as parts of ourselves and a reflection of our identities (Belk 1988: 139) or we can buy products with an image we wish we had and hope that the image will “magically rub off” (Solomon et al. 2007: 5). There are many examples such as Harley-Davidson motorcycles with an image of strength and masculinity or Mercedes cars with an image of glamour and upper class (Aaker, 1997: 353). Currently luxury cars like Mercedes are highly demanded in China (Tang 2012) but we must be careful interpreting this behavior using Western rationality (Wong & Ahuvia 1998: 436).

Chan (2010: 48) writes about the collective characteristic of Chinese *culture* that encourages usage of material possessions to identify peers and establish long-term *social* relations. Collectivist cultures are said to be more likely to rely on an interdependent self-concept (Usunier & Lee 2007: 91). Independent and interdependent are two ways to view the self. Markus and Kitayama (1991: 245) wrote that the biggest difference between the two is the role that others have when defining the self. In the independent self construct people are separated, distinct, unique and independent from others (ibid.: 226-7). In the interdependent view others are part of the self and to some extent define who a person is. There is a connectedness between human beings. People are connected to others by familial and social relationships and how one person behaves is much influenced by how that person perceives the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationships to be (ibid.: 227, 245-6). Although the lines are not that distinct relatively more people in Western cultures will hold an independent view while most Asian cultures have an interdependent self (Usunier & Lee 2007: 90-1). In the Chinese collectivist and interdependent society buying products do not have to be a reflection of personal taste (Wong & Ahuvia 1998: 436), products can also be used to reinforce relationships (Usunier & Lee 2007: 91). "Face saving" is important in this discussion and something that is considered during decision-making. People of Chinese culture are always trying to act as to meet the expectations of others and maintain face (Hu, Li, Xie & Zhou 2008: 297).

According to Elfick (2011: 198) the best way to display wealth in China is through conspicuous consumption. The term was coined by Veblen and refers to consumption as a symbolic mechanism for expression, displaying wealth and power (Solomon et al. 2007: 447) or refinement and good taste (Davies & Ward 2002: 49). The social group of interest to Veblen was the American nouveaux riches at the end of the 19th century that desperately tried to turn their newfound wealth into social status (Aldridge 2003: 65). The Confucian tradition in China legitimizes hierarchy (Chan 2010: 48) and *social* roles and public perceptions are central in the interdependent self-view (Wong & Ahuvia 1998: 430). Consumption is a way of communicating status and to express class (Davies & Ward 2002: 473-4). For a Chinese consumer, being able to afford an expensive product, especially if it is imported, shows to others that the individual has succeeded economically (Anderson and He, 1998: 156). An expensive bottle of red wine can be a way for the newly rich Chinese to show to others that they are successful and have both the money and good taste to be wine drinkers (Hu, Li, Xie & Zhou 2008: 297). Bourdieu (1984: 7) wrote about the social function of consumption as legitimating social differences and:

> *in China, consumption has emerged as the single most important means of expressing social identity. Consumerism has enabled people to redefine themselves and their social status in terms of consumption and lifestyle. (Elfick 2011: 206)*

2.3. Value

Customers "demand products with benefits that add up to the most value and satisfaction" (Armstrong & Kotler 2007: 6). Grönroos (2007: 4) describes how customers are looking for solutions or packages that they can use so that value is created for them and refers to this as "customers' value generating processes".

A brand is "a name, a term, a symbol, or any other unique element of a product that identifies one firm's product(s) and sets them apart from the competition (Solomon 2009: 564). In marketing "brand equity" is a term used to describe the value of a brand to a firm (ibid.; Grönroos 2007: 334) or what the brand is worth to the customer (Tiwari 2010: 421-2). Whether the focus should be on the organization or the customer will not be discussed further here but the link between the two could be pointed out more clearly. The brand's value to the customers is the basis for achieving sales and in that way creates value to the organization (Grönroos 2007: 334). There are many definitions of brand equity available. Tiwari (2010: 421) defines it as "a set of perceptions, knowledge and behaviour on the part of customers that creates demand and/or a price premium for a branded product". Ambler (2000: 14, in Ambler et al. 2002: 14) writes that brand equity is "what we carry around in our heads about the brand". It becomes obvious that there are many associations that surround a brand. One of these is the brand name which importance is illustrated in Armstrong and Kotler's (2007: 214) definition of brand equity as "the positive differential effect that knowing the brand name has on customer response to the product or service". The point to be made is that "a name can convey a great deal of information and make a substantial contribution to brand equity" (Usunier & Lee 2007: 285). The next section will look closer at what impact origin, or a country name, might have on customers when evaluating a product.

2.3.1. Country of origin as a cue

When consumers evaluate a product they make use of what is called information cues of which there are intrinsic and extrinsic (Han & Terpstra 1988: 236). Intrinsic cues can be said to be part of the product while extrinsic cues, although related to, are not a part of the physical product (Pecotich & Ward 2007: 273). Examples of intrinsic cues are taste, design and for extrinsic there are price and brand name (Bilkey & Nes 1982: 89). Because of the difficulties in assessing intrinsic cues before purchase consumers often rely on extrinsic ones when evaluating a product (Han & Terpstra 1988: 236). Price is an example of this and is often used as a cue to quality especially when there are few other cues available (Zeithaml 1988: 11).

Another example is organic labeling, an extrinsic cue that helps organic consumers detect organic products which is often assumed to have particular intrinsic (quality and safety) characteristics (see Yiridoe et al. 2005). The expansion of the internet has increased the reach of marketers but is also an example of a distribution and information chain that relies almost exclusively on extrinsic cues (Insch & McBride 2004: 264).

The image of countries as the origin of products is also an extrinsic cue that may become part of a product's total image (Hamin & Eliott 2006: 79). Balestrini and Gamble (2006: 400) write that the perceptions of a country's image are especially important to consumers when evaluating a product if the true quality of a country's products is difficult to detect. As products from other countries are becoming more available to today's consumers a product's Country-of-Origin (COO) is becoming more important as an extrinsic cue (Ahmed et al. 2004: 102). This is especially true in emerging markets where consumers appear to pay particular attention to the COO when they have little else to base a decision on, "whether they are looking for mustard, clothes, perfume, or cars" (Essoussi & Merunka 2007: 422). Maheswaran (1994: 363) showed that COO is used in product evaluation as a stereotyping process, allowing consumers to predict the likelihood of a product manufactured in a certain country of having certain features. For example, Siu and Chan (1997, in Hu, Li, Xie & Zhou 2008: 296) found that Chinese consumers in Hong Kong perceived American products to be prestigious, Japanese products to be innovative, and Chinese products to be cheap. "Country of origin refers to information pertaining to where a product is made" (Zhang 1997: 267) and "Country of origin effects refer to the extent to which the place of manufacture influences product evaluations" (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran 2000: 309).

It has been suggested that familiarity with the foreign product can have an impact on the COO-effect. More product knowledge is thought to make a consumer less likely to be influenced by the COO when evaluating the product (Lee & Lee 2009: 140). This has to do with Han's (1989: 227-8) finding, that unfamiliar consumers are expected to use the so-called halo effect more frequently in product evaluation than more experienced consumers that instead are expected to use the summary effect. In simplified terms, summary effect can be described as basing decisions using past experience with similar products and halo effect is more of a general impression of the country (Josiassen et al. 2011: 629). However, Chiou (2003: 948-9) shows that COO has a role in influencing consumers' expectations for both experienced and non-experienced buyers, although the reasons for doing so are different (ibid.: 938).

Balestrini and Gamle (2006: 400) note that not only do producers of wine put the origin on the bottle's label but supermarkets and the majority of wine retailers display wine by COO. This point towards the importance of country or region as a choice criterion. The authors studied Chinese wine consumers and COO and found that COO is the most important factor when evaluating the product before purchase. Especially important is COO when buying wine for special occasions (ibid. 407). Chinese consumers are generally believed to have a strong preference for foreign brands (Sin et al. 2000: 40). The largest proportion of foreign brands in China is Western based, although another big group is from neighboring Japan (Kwok et al. 2006: 164). In their study about apparel Dickson et al. (2004: 313-4) concluded that consumption of foreign brands is especially high for Chinese consumers living in the major cities and who are relatively affluent, young, and educated. This preference is explained by Zhou and Hui (2003: 36) as a result of the symbolic benefits associated with foreign brands. Chinese consumers have traditionally associated foreign brands with concepts of sophistication, prestige, modernity, and novelty (Kwok et al. 2006: 164) and as having a higher quality (Li et al., 1997, in Kwok et al 2006: 164).

How products from different foreign countries are viewed differ in several ways. Lee and Lee (2009: 138-9) note how products made in developing countries often are faced with unreasonable psychological barriers in the international market. There appears to be a relationship between the level of economic development and country-of origin effect where products from developing countries are rated as being inferior to products from industrialized countries (Han & Terpstra 1988: 237). Generally, developed countries, such as Germany and Japan are associated with having higher quality products than developing nations such as China and the Philippines. The lowest reputation is found among countries which consumers know very little of, such as, for example, the Eastern European countries (Pecotich & Ward 2007: 274). However, reputation and quality perception varies across product categories and the negative country image of a developing country does not have to penalize all its products (Ahmed et al. 2004: 115). Usunier and Lee (2005: 286-7) mention how some products are associated with certain regions or countries. For the authors yoghurt calls to mind the Balkans and perfume evokes France. There are certain developing countries that are well known for producing a particular food product (Ahmed et al. 2004: 115) and because of South America's reputation as a source of coffee, a developing country such as Colombia can rank very high on coffee but perhaps very low on electronics. There must be a fit between the product category and the country image (ibid.: 113).

Naturally, today when supply chains are increasingly crossing international boundaries (Adams 2008: 168), specifying a product's COO, usually communicated by the made in labels (Bilkey & Nes 1982: 89), is becoming more difficult. Many products today can have dual or multiple origins (Chattalas et al. 2008 55). "Bi-national" products are products with a brand name associated with a specific country but where the manufacture (or assembly or production) is done in some other country (e.g. Iyer & Kalita 1997: 8; Insch & McBride 2004: 263; Essoussi & Merunka 2007: 410). Usunier and Lee (2005: 287) mention how national images, by operating on different levels, can send confusing messages to consumers. However, this also gives rise to opportunities and many managerial implications of which a few will be mentioned. A producer from a foreign country with a favorable image for that product category should highlight this information. An example is coffee from Colombia. The opposite goes for countries with an unfavorable image that should downplay their COO information (Ahmed et al. 2004: 114). A company could be wise to move manufacture or assembly to the country in which it wishes to sell its products if that country favors its own products. An example is a Mexican car radio manufacturer selling in the US market (Okechuku, 1994: 15). If a product category is associated with a specific country or region the manufacturer should not be afraid of changing the brand name accordingly. An example is a German name for machine tools because of the often positive association between Germany and technical reliability (Usunier & Lee 2005: 288). A strategic alliance or joint venture could be a way for a company to enhance an unfavorable country image. The company behind a bi-national product that is manufactured in a country with a poor image is recommended to promote the alliance with a foreign brand and make use of the partner country's technology to reassure customers about the quality of the product (Essoussi & Merunka 2007: 422). An example from Singapore is "*French bread: made in Indonesia under license from Boulangerie Moulin Rouge, Paris, France*" (Ahmed et al. 2004: 114).

Finally this chapter will mention the tendency for consumers to evaluate their own country's products more favorably than do foreigners (Han & Terpstra 1988: 236). 274). Shimp and Sharma (1987: 280) described Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE) as "the beliefs held by /…/ consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products". From an ethnocentric viewpoint, buying imported products is wrong because it hurts the domestic economy, causes unemployment and is unpatriotic (ibid.). There are many factors that affect CE. Sharma et al. (1995, in Piron, 2000: 198) found that the less important a product category is the greater the ethnocentric tendencies and behavior exhibited by consumers are expected to be. The authors also indicated that there seem to be a negative relation between higher education and CE and between higher income and CE. However, any effect on CE from income is reported as incorrect by Josiassen, et al. (2011: 637-9) who also found proof for the arguments that that older consumers and women are more ethnocentric (ibid.: 630-1, 639). Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000: 315) investigated differences between the individualist and the collectivist cultural orientation and found that “individualists evaluated the home country product more favorably only when it was superior to competition. In contrast, collectivists evaluated the home country product more favorably regardless of its superiority”.

3. Methodology

When writing a thesis and doing research one is always faced with a range of choices relating to how to best complete the task ahead. This chapter will discuss the various steps and decisions taken during the course of writing and researching and how fieldwork was carried out.

The main approach of this thesis is basically a quantitative research strategy with a cross-sectional design using an online survey as method for collecting data (cf. Bryman 2004: 41). The decision behind the choice of design and method is naturally influenced by cost and time limitations but mainly based on the belief that general patterns of consumer preferences is needed (see Ragin & Amoroso 2011: 165-6), especially at this early stage in a new research area. However, qualitative methods will be used, in a large extent to inform the design of questions for the questionnaire (cf. Bryman 2004: 457).

3.1. Choice of location

The research was undertaken in Kunming, the capital of Yunnan province in southwest China. Choosing a location in a coffee producing area was influenced by the author's belief that this would make it more likely to find people with knowledge about the local product and also be more likely to find the local product in shops, cafés and other retail outlets. The reason for not choosing another coffee producing province (e.g. Hainan) is mainly motivated with Yunnan's incomparable production quantity, that no other province or region come close to.

Yunnan province is also famous for growing and producing other highly valued products. For example, the tea from Pu'er has a worldwide reputation and the cigarettes produced in the province that are also made from Yunnan tobacco are well known throughout the country (Encyclopædia Britannica Online 2012a). Because of the lack of previous research it is difficult to know how this fact might influence locals' perception of coffee grown in Yunnan. Research has shown that China does not constitute a homogenous market and shows differences in attitudes and consumption behavior between regions and between rural and urban locations (Yusuf & Brooks 2010: 7-8, 16). The author will leave it to the reader to assess the results applicability to other areas of China.

3.2. About the secondary sources

> */…/ documents need to be carefully checked, interpreted and triangulated with other data sources. They should never be taken at face value. In other words, they* must *be regarded as information that is context specific and as data which must be contextualized with other forms of research. They should, therefore, only be used with caution. (Forster, 1994: 149, original emphasis).*

What Forster is referring to in the above quotation are the considerations needed to be kept in mind when analyzing company documentation. However, the recommendations also seem highly appropriate when doing research in an unfamiliar research area and when the researcher is forced to look beyond the relative safety of refereed journals. It has already been mentioned that there exists a lack of academic literature on coffee in a Chinese context, so to be able to write this thesis information was searched for and found using many different sources.

Naturally this requires a careful and critical research approach, making sure that the information is reliable and sufficiently comprehensive and suitable for your needs. How representative documents are is also important since it impacts on the generalizability of conclusions drawn from them (Walliman 2011: 84-5). Some would say this kind of source critique is even more important when it comes to information found on the internet, and since that is where much of the information for this research has been gathered the author has spent considerable time examining sources thoroughly, assessing the quality of information and opinions provided. Is the source who it claims to be (Thurén 2005: 13)? What are validity of arguments presented and also the reputation of the organization supplying the data, or the qualifications of the writer or presenter (Walliman: 71, 84)? It is also recommended to find more than one source backing up a claim (Thurén 2005: 36) and also to compare the data from different sources (Walliman 2011: 71). This will help identifying bias, that the source presents a false image of reality because of own interests (Thurén 2005: 13), and also inaccuracies and different interpretations of a phenomenon (Walliman 2011: 71).

3.3. About the primary sources

Data has mainly been collected using an online survey. The design of the survey was based on existing literature but also incorporating the results of two interviews and a focus group. Although, as described above, information about coffee in China was scrutinized thoroughly, the author wanted to hear from people with knowledge about the coffee industry in the country and also consumers before launching the actual survey. Two interview subjects were located, both with their own company in the coffee business, but with different background and customer base. Furthermore, an interpreter was accompanying the researcher for one of the interviews (Mr. Sun). The results from the interviews were intended to support and clarify information from secondary sources. Moreover, another desired outcome of adding a qualitative element to the research is to add some depth and breadth of understanding to an otherwise explicitly quantitative study, a function of triangulation known as completeness (cf. Arksey &

Knight 1999: 22). To include a focus group seemed appropriate since this kind of group interview "tends to concentrate in depth on a particular theme or topic with an element of interaction" (Walliman 2011: 100). The participants in the focus group were university students from a Kunming University, all with different backgrounds. The interviews were semi-structured, organized around an interview guide (see Appendix 1) based on the key questions of the study (cf. Arksey & Knight 1999: 97). With regards to convenience for the interviewees, both interviews were carried out at respective respondents' own workplace. The focus group met the researcher over a cup of coffee at a coffee shop. The conversations were recorded and transcribed the same day.

The research was conducted in accordance with the ethical guidelines established by CODEX (2012). All the participants gave their informed consent before taking part in this study. The interviewees were fully aware that the information they provide would be used in a Master's thesis and might be published online. Out of convenience and respect of their anonymity only their chosen English name will be used as reference. All the interviewees granted their permissions for the conversations to be recorded, and each of them was informed that the participation in the study can be terminated at any time.

There were several reasons behind the decision to use a survey. As a method for data collection it is both flexible for the researcher at the same time it is considered easy and convenient for the respondents. That a survey also is cheap and quick to administer, especially when carried out over the internet, naturally also mattered (Walliman 2011: 97). The choice to put the survey online was based on more than it just being cheap and quick, it also struck the author as highly convenient for both researcher and respondents. Coffee bars in Kunming do not only offer coffee drinks, they also typically provide free Wi-Fi for their customers. Respondents could find the address to the surveys webpage at a coffee shop (see Appendix 2 & 3) and could then access the survey on their internet device (e.g. laptop, Smartphone, tablet). To administer the survey in this way was thought as a very efficient way of reaching enough respondents at the same time as it did not require the researcher to be present.

However, there are some important issues to be taken into consideration before choosing the internet survey as method for data collection. Although patterns are shifting, people with access to the Internet seem to differ in their social characteristics from those without access. In this group more people appear to be male, young, educated and wealthier than people without access (Lee, Fielding & Blank 2008: 11), and it is difficult to assess what influence this will have on a survey of a sample of coffee consumers in Kunming.

The generelizability of this kind of online-survey to a larger population is further impaired by the possibilities of individuals submitting multiple completed surveys or giving out-of-sample individuals the internet address to the survey on the World Wide Web. Unfortunately, this method of data collection does not permit the distribution of individual passwords which could have been used if respondents were contacted directly (Best & Krueger 2008: 218; 221). Fricker (2008: 205) calls this kind of survey an unrestricted, self-selected survey. That anyone who knows the address to the online-survey can participate, and that it is up to the individual to choose to participate (opt in), makes it a form of convenience sample and as such is difficult to generalize to a larger population.

However, this research, by using a triangulation of methods aims at getting some insight into one area of coffee consumption in Kunming, and possibly China. The author welcomes and hopes to see much more research in the area and until then acknowledges the limitations of the research design and any possible problems with generelizability caused by this. Uneven access to tools for internet access and also the anonymity of respondents might cause survey respondents not to represent the experience of all coffee consumers.

3.4. Survey design

LimeSurvey (www.limesurvey.org) was used to put together the online-questionnaire. Some general issues were taken into consideration when designing the survey. It was to follow a logical and sequential structure and be divided into parts corresponding to the different issues the questions relate to (Ficher 2007: 192). Also, demographic information should be asked at the end of the questionnaire as people are more likely to answer personal questions if they already have invested time and effort in answering the other questions (ibid.).

The survey consisted of five sections (see Appendix 4 & 5): an introduction, questions relating to experiences when visiting a coffee shop or café, questions for those who also consume instant/soluble coffee, questions for those who have access to a coffee machine at home, and a last section asking for demographic information. The usability and accessibility of the survey instrument was tested beforehand as to avoid drop out of respondents after they started taking the instrument (cf. Best & Krueger 2008 : 218) According to Ficher (2007: 192) a questionnaire should be kept as short as possible and also be designed to look attractive. The researcher also aspired to make the questionnaire as short as possible but to keep the design as simple as possible. This was motivated by the variety of hardware and software available to respondents when filling out the survey, making it possible for design elements and also the questionnaire to appear differently (Lee et al. 2008: 12). When it comes to the length of a questionnaire, and although it is very easy to add many questions to an online survey, long surveys can reduce response rates, make respondents choose not to complete or roll-off and also increase measurement error. This happens when respondents who want to finish a long survey quickly do not read instructions carefully, or only skim responses before answering, or even randomly answer questions (Best & Krueger 2008: 223).

Furthermore, the online-survey consisted of closed format questions. These are quick to answer for the respondent but naturally limit the range of possible answers (cf. Walliman 2011: 97-8). Generally the questions are related to the common information cues, price and brand name, and of course, country of origin. However, because of its possible importance for the coffee industry, as described in the introduction chapter, respondents are also asked about how important "organic" is as an attribute to them when deciding on what coffee to buy. An important question not the least for future research in the area. Definitions for organic in English and Chinese and many other languages plus much more information on organic agriculture can be found at the *International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movement*'s website (www.ifoam.org). The survey also includes a question asking the respondent to choose the country that first comes to mind when hearing the word coffee. Instead of including a list of all countries in the world a shorter list was created using the following criteria. With available data from the International Coffee Organisation (www.ICO.org) all countries that have not exported or re-exported a minimum of 1000 bags of coffee in any of the last ten years were excluded, leaving 135 countries. It is worth noticing that all countries reported by the International Trade Centre (ITC 2010: 15-6) as supplying coffee to China are represented on the list. The five countries that supplied the most coffee to China according to the same list are also present in the questions asking to rate countries according to the quality and price of the country's coffee. However, this group is not only based on large export quantities, but also on other ties to the coffee industry and therefore includes countries from North and South America, Africa, Europe, Asia and Oceania. The list was constructed with input from the focus group and all countries exports coffee to a greater and lesser extent. The ITC report (ibid.: 9) also influenced the answer alternatives in the question asking about why people visit coffee shops or cafés. However, most alternatives came from the interviews and the focus group. Also worth mentioning is that in the question about age, age groupings are not at all random but divided based on the generational cohorts identified by (Hung et al. 2007). The *Red Guards* (born 1951-1964) came of age during the cultural revolution, the *Modern Realists* (born 1965-1973) came of age during the economic reform, and the *Global Materialists* (1974-1984) came of age when China was integrating into the global community (ibid.: 839-40). It has been suggested that cohort members, among other things, share values and have brand relationships that distinguish them from other cohorts (e.g. Han & Uncles 2009; Teo et al. 2010; Han & Uncles 2011).

Several steps were taken to avoid that any unclear, misleading or in other ways poorly constructed questions still remained when the actual survey was launched. In addition to the focus group, who was encouraged to give their opinions on the questions, a pilot-study was also carried out consisting of five people. Translation from English to Chinese was done with the help of two bi-lingual Chinese. The combination of these measures led to several improvements done to the final survey.

3.5. Sample size

When the research for this thesis was carried out there were no available data as to how many of Kunming's about three million inhabitants (Encyclopædia Britannica Online 2012b) were drinking coffee. Naturally, deciding on a sample that is representative of an unknown population size has its difficulties.

Mazzocchi (2008: 116-7) demonstrates that (at the common confidence level of α=0.05), it is possible to stay under a margin of error of four percent, using a sample size of 500 and a population ranging from 5,000 to 100,000,000 units. Saunders et al. (2009: 219) show that (with the same margin of error and confidence level) the minimum sample size begins at 357 for a population of 5,000, reaching 384 at 1,000,000, and is still 384 for a population of 10,000,000 people. When studying the scholars calculations it becomes clear that for their accepted margin of error (5%, and logically also for even more generous figures) not much changes in terms of sample size when the population exceeds 10,000 people.

Although most researchers normally work to a 95 percent level of certainty (Saunders et al. 2009: 218), lack of time and funding added some limitations to this study. Also the exploratory nature of this research is a contributing factor to why a sample size of about 100 people was deemed to be sufficient. This would correspond to a margin of error of a little less than +/- 10. This number was derived using Yamane's (1964: 257) simplified formula for calculating sample size.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

$n =$ sample size

$N =$ populations size

$e =$ margin of error

For example, if 10% of Kunming's population (2,635,349 according to year 2000 census data available at China Data Online) drink coffee, and with a margin of error of 10% we would have the following equation and sample size.

$$\frac{263{,}535}{1 + (263{,}535 \times 0.1^2)} \approx 99.96$$

Just as was shown in the calculations of Mazzocchi and Saunders et al. above, margin of error and sample size will not change much if the population of coffee drinkers in Kunming is 10,000, 100,000, 1,000,000 or 10,000,000.

4. Research findings and analysis

The following pages will present the results from the survey together with comments from the two interviews and the focus group. Apart from the first section, presenting demographics of the sample surveyed and information about the interview subjects and focus group participants, the structure of this chapter follows the order of the survey's question groups.

The survey was launched on the 9th of June 2012 and responses collected until the 10th of July. During this month a total of 203 responses were registered of which 117 were fully completed and are the ones that will be presented and analyzed in this chapter.

4.1. Respondent Demographics

65 women and 52 men answered the questionnaire as shown in Table 4.1. The largest part, 60%, consisted of younger respondents born between 1985 and 1994. It is impossible to say if this result is because of younger people more often visit coffee shops and cafés or if the result has to do with the method used to collect data. Perhaps even a combination of the two. However, with respondents becoming fewer with age, it will not be possible to draw any general conclusions based on cohorts, as intended. Only 2 people represent the Red Guards, 9 are Modern Realists, while 36 people represent the Global Materialists.

Table 4.1 – Respondent demographics

What year where you born?			
1950 and before	0	0,0%	
1951 - 1964	2	1,7%	1,7%
1965 - 1969	1	0,9%	7,7%
1970 - 1973	8	6,8%	
1974 - 1979	12	10,3%	30,8%
1980 - 1984	24	20,5%	
1985 - 1989	33	28,2%	59,8%
1990 - 1994	37	31,6%	
1995 and after	0	0,0%	
Total	117	100,0%	

How would you describe your household's economic status?			
Poor	2	1,7%	7,7%
Below average	7	6,0%	
Average	85	72,6%	72,6%
Above average	20	17,1%	19,7%
Affluent	3	2,6%	
Total	117	100,0%	

What is your highest educational qualification?			
Junior high or below	1	0,9%	
High school	9	7,7%	
College, undergraduate	88	75,2%	91,5%
Graduate	16	13,7%	
PhD	3	2,6%	
Total	117	100,0%	

Where are you from?		
Yunnan province	60	51,3%
Other	57	48,7%
Total	117	100,0%

Most respondents consider their economic status as being average and it is noteworthy that almost 20% come from a household with above average or affluent economic status. Only 9 people were poor or below average in terms of their household income. More than 90% have studied at a college or university.

On the whole, not much is separating the male and female respondents. However, although an almost equal number of men and women have some form of higher education, twice as many males have studied at a graduate or PhD level. Somewhat surprising is that almost half of the respondents say that they come from another place than Yunnan Province in China. It is possible that this question would have generated a different response in a different country as it relates to a person's perception of belongingness.

4.1.1. About the interview respondents and focus group participants

The focus group consisted of *Mimi* (female,19 years old), *MK* (male, 18) *Lancy* (f, 19) and *Dream* (f, 19), all students at Yunnan Normal University, majoring in teaching Chinese to foreigners. They represent rural and urban China and also Yunnan and other provinces. Although the main idea with the focus group was to pilot and make improvements to the survey, some information were generated that could be of interest to the reader and help in the interpretation of the survey. The two interview subjects are both in their early thirties and their history and connection to the Chinese coffee industry will be outlined in more detail below.

The first interview subject, *Arnold*, is Korean and got his idea of a coffee business in 2009, when he was selling soft ice-cream in the busy Kundu area of Kunming. He felt that his ice-cream business was really easy to copy and experienced this when another shop-owner suddenly switched from selling sunglasses to ice-cream. He says "that selling ice-cream only requires a machine, ice-cream powder and water, but to get into the coffee business you need skill, intelligence and technology". In order to study and learn about coffee Arnold went back to Korea, where he says the coffee industry is booming. He returned the following year and started his coffee business that includes managing his own coffee shop, exporting Yunnan coffee beans to Korea and also selling beans to five other cities in mainland China.

The other interview subject, *Mr. Sun*, became interested in coffee back in university where he, as a marketing student, had access to a lot of information about industries in China. He saw a lot of potential in the developing coffee industry. Mr. Sun explains that Chinese students experience a lot of competition and have to work very hard and plan ahead. In the coffee business he saw a chance of finding a good job, have a good career and perhaps make a lot of money. Coffee is also appealing because he sees it as a fashionable and not traditional or typical Chinese. It is European, and represents European culture and working for a coffee company or owning your own coffee business means having a job that you can be proud of. Mr. Sun began his career in one of the largest coffee companies in China but since a couple of years back runs his own business. He owns a café and a company that supplies beans to coffee shops and also helps with staff training. A smaller but growing part of the business is selling machines and other coffee related products to Chinese families.

4.2. General associations

Figure 4.2 shows that when asked what country first comes to mind when the word coffee is mentioned, the world's largest producer of coffee, Brazil (BR), was chosen by 30 respondents (26%). That the United States (US) comes to the mind for so many respondents (11%) can

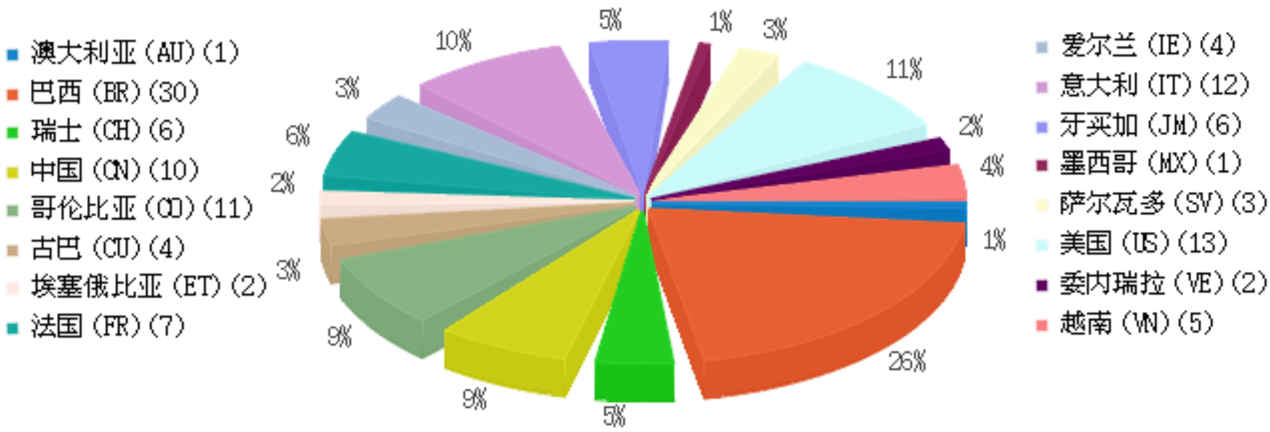


Figure 4.2 – Countries that comes to mind when respondents

have something to do with it being the home country of the fast spreading and well known coffee chain Starbucks, currently operating several coffee shops in central Kunming. Arnold noticed a big change when Starbuck opened its first shop in 2011. Not only did his sales triple, but also his customer base changed from being 90% foreigners into about half being Chinese. One of the girls in the focus group, Mimi, also thinks of the US and explicitly says this has to do with the country's relationship to Starbucks.

Italy (IT, 10%) and Colombia (CO, 9%) also seem to be associated with coffee among Chinese people. Colombia is a known coffee producing country and Italy is represented by several well known brands on the Chinese market. Apparently China (CN) easier comes to mind for respondents (9%) than Jamaica (JM, 5%) a well known coffee country, and Vietnam (VN, 4%) the second largest producer in the world. Why so many people (6%) have chosen France (FR), is not easily explained and no answer was given in the focus group or by the interview subjects. The same goes for Ireland (IE, 3%) and no reason can be given at this point. A possible answer for why Switzerland (CH) also was chosen by a notable number of people (5%)

can be related to it being the home country of Nestlé, a company whose contribution to the Chinese coffee market was discussed in the introduction chapter. Cuba (CU) was picked by 3 percent of the survey respondents. The focus group participant MK also chose Cuba (CU) and say this is because several movies he have seen, in which coffee from Cuba is mentioned.

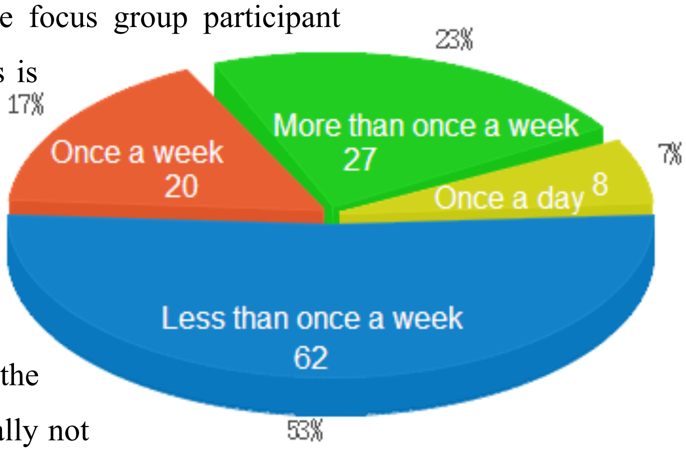


Figure 4.3.1 – How often coffee shops are visited

In the questions regarding the quality and expected price of the coffee from the country selected respondents had generally not chosen a country they perceived of as having worse than average coffee. Respondents that chose Brazil, Colombia, Cuba and Jamaica believed to a larger extent than the rest of the respondents that their chosen country made better quality coffee. People that chose coffee from Australia, China and Ethiopia expected their coffee to be a little bit less expensive than average. Cuba, Ireland, Jamaica and Italy were expected to have a bit more expensive coffee.

4.3. When visiting coffee shops

As demonstrated in Figure 4.3.1 more than half of the respondents visit coffee shops less than once a week. Only a few (7%) visit once a day and no one visits more than once a day. Almost three fourths pay more than 20 RMB for their coffee drink as shown in Table 4.3.1. 65% consider the coffee bought at a coffee shop as being expensive. 26,5% do not think so and 8,5% did not reply. Male and female respondents both share these views. Of the 23 respondents that consider their household income as being above average or affluent only 3 people (13%) drink coffee drinks that cost less than 21 RMB and also fewer people in this group (52%) consider the coffee they buy in coffee shops as being expensive.

Table 4.3.1 – How much is paid for coffee

On average, how much do you pay for a coffee drink?			
0-5 RMB	1	0,9%	
6-10 RMB	4	3,4%	
11-15 RMB	9	7,7%	
16-20 RMB	17	14,5%	
21-25 RMB	28	23,9%	73,5%
26-30 RMB	30	25,6%	
31-35 RMB	17	14,5%	
36-40 RMB	5	4,3%	
40 RMB or more	6	5,1%	
Total	117	100,0%	

Do you think coffee drinks are expensive?		
Yes	76	65,0%
No	31	26,5%
Did not answer	10	8,5%
Total	117	100,0%

Respondents appear to consider serving organic coffee as important as illustrated in Table 4.3.2. On a scale from 1 to 5, the mean was 3,7, with only 15% of respondents choosing the 1 or 2 alternatives. In comparison, 63% chose 4 or 5. Mr. Sun and Arnold both think that it is too soon to be talking about organic coffee in China. At the moment being able to provide good coffee is enough to be compatible. Both interview subjects and focus group respondents report of a lack of trust in organic labeling in China. This skepticism is nicely summed up by Mr. Sun, who calls China "a fantastic country. If you pay enough money you can make any product organic" (Mr. Sun, 31). Although he believes it is not important at the moment, Arnold plans ahead and is already telling anybody who asks him that his coffee is grown using organic methods. Not explicitly relating to any known definition of organic he talks about the methods used at the farm he is receiving his coffee from. He claims there to be no need for pesticides since the special growing conditions at a high elevation causes the coffee trees to be less vulnerable to insect attacks. No chemical fertilizer is being used either. Instead, the farmers collect what is being left from when the coffee bean is removed from the cherry. When piled up this becomes an interesting place for ducks and chickens to search for food and they in turn add to the nutritious composition. After about a month the farmers give this compost to the coffee trees as fertilizer. In the future when more coffee shops can provide good quality coffee and service Arnold thinks that he can have an advantage being able to provide his customers with his version of organic coffee. Arnold's ideas are supported by MK from the focus group. His impression is that an increasing number of people, for health reasons or concern about the environment, begin to care a lot about where the food they eat comes from. MK, himself, comes from a small rural village in Yunnan where they grow their own vegetables using natural manure and traditional methods.

Table 4.3.2 – Importance of organic coffee

Does it matter to you if the coffee served is organic?			
1	10	8,5%	15,4%
2	8	6,8%	
3	25	21,4%	21,4%
4	39	33,3%	63,2%
5	35	29,9%	
Total	117	100,0%	
Mean	3,7		

The interview subjects find it difficult to talk about an emerging coffee culture in China and what would characterize it. Arnold mentions how coffee is an easy way for Chinese people to begin experimenting with aspects of Western culture since China already has a tea-culture. So far there is no Chinese coffee culture of its own but instead many curious people wanting to try the different things available to them. In his coffee shop, Arnold has many customers that make large orders and want to try everything on the menu. Mr. Sun describes something that is not available to all. There is a link between a possible coffee culture and people's economy.

Therefore it also differs a lot throughout the country and between Kunming and cities where inhabitants have a higher income, such as Shanghai and Beijing. There is no need to drink co-ffee so the coffee drinker is a person with money to spend on non-essential things. Arnold agrees with most respondents in that coffee is relatively expensive but says that this has not led to Chinese paying the bill separately, a behavior often seen among foreigners. He des-cribes this as a cultural thing, Chinese people wanting to show to others that they can afford this new and western thing.

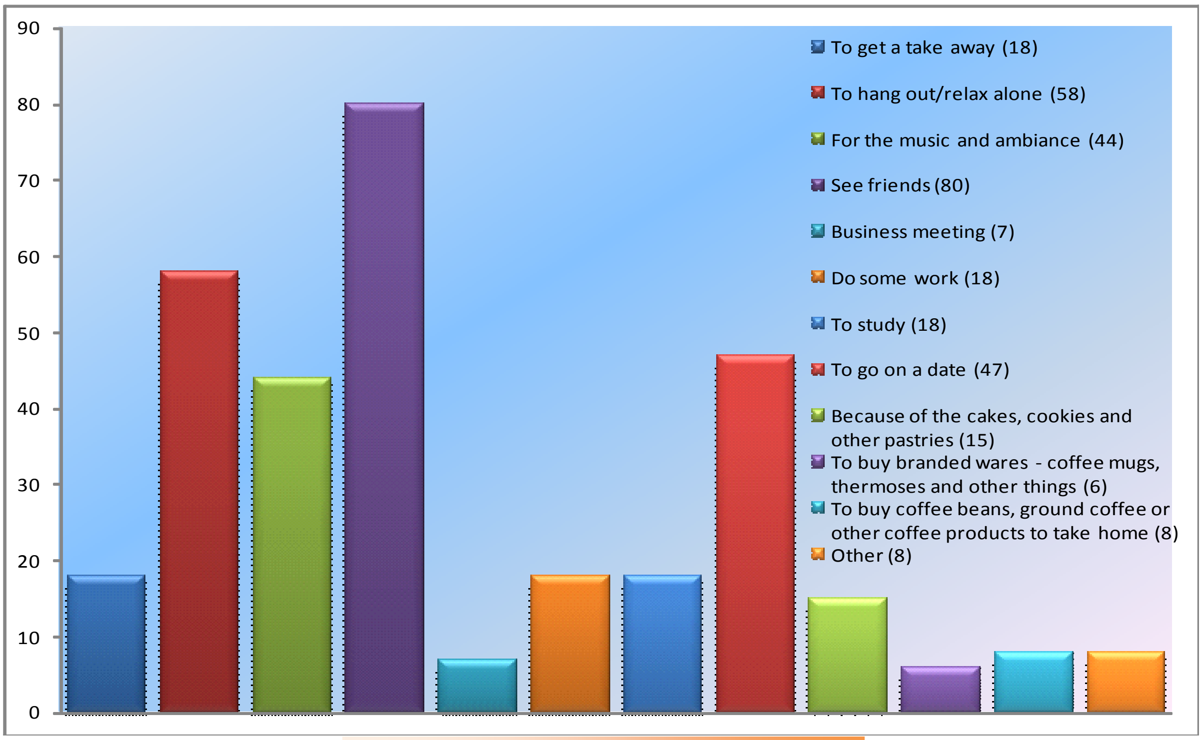


Figure 4.3.2 – Reasons for visiting coffee shops

Both interview subjects and also the focus group participants see visiting coffee shops as mostly something you do together with friends or a partner. Figure 4.3.2 shows that “to see friends” and “to go on a date” are among the most popular reasons but here we also find “to hang out/relax alone”. For the young people in the focus group this would quite possibly be considered as an odd behavior since they believe that going alone would also mean that you also are alone. Since coffee shops are seen as a popular place to go to for couples (supported by the survey) it becomes very obvious that you are single if you go there alone. To them this is not a status that you would want to display. Mr. Sun does not believe that Chinese yet have developed a habit out of going to coffee shops. Instead they are going there because it is fashionable or because of it having a nice environment (also supported by the survey) and a place with these characteristics is better suited for groups of people or couples on a date.

Some respondents also claim to order take-away coffee, which according to Arnold suddenly became popular after Starbucks opened its first outlets. To a lesser extent coffee shops also appear to be a good place to go to get some work done and do some studying. Of the people choosing and adding comments to the "other" alternative, nothing that differed from the general observations presented could be found.

Although it appears to be too soon to be talking about a Chinese coffee culture in itself, so far, findings have been in accordance with the view of consumption as being a method of communication. That the coffee is perceived as expensive can in this way be positive as it provides an individual with the opportunity to display to others the image of being successful. This is done through the ability to afford something new and fashionable. It appears, however, that visiting a coffee shop alone can send less desirable signals to the surroundings. Although purely speculative, it would be interesting to see further research and if the emerging trend of buying take-away coffee is a possible reaction to this. As many coffee shops put a clearly visible logo on their take-away-cups this gives a way of sending desirable signals to people you meet without suffer the risk of being labeled with a not sought-after status.

4.3.1 Coffee and country-of-origin

In Figure 4.3.3 we see that only 30% of respondents report that they have asked at a coffee shop where the coffee comes from. This does not have to mean that Chinese generally are not interested. For MK, from the focus group, there is an obvious distrust in the shopkeeper who he believes might lie when asked about the origin of the coffee. Many coffee shops in Kunming provide information in the menu of the origin of their coffee. The coffee shop where the researcher and focus group met is an example of this kind of establishment and it appears there are good reasons for including this kind of information in the menu. Dream thinks that including coffee from many different countries and regions gives the menu a more attractive appearance. Mimi adds that it shows that the coffee shop is fashionable. According to Lancy, this in turn, gives the customer a chance to show that he or she is fashionable too. MK thinks that many people in China have good impressions of products from abroad. They are willing to pay more money for it and think it is better. Mr. Sun does not believe that there

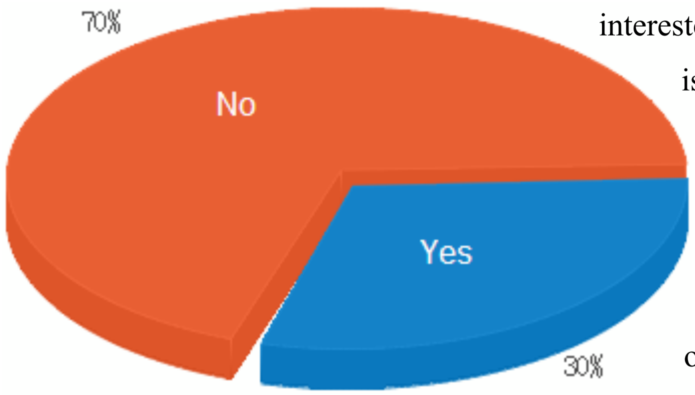
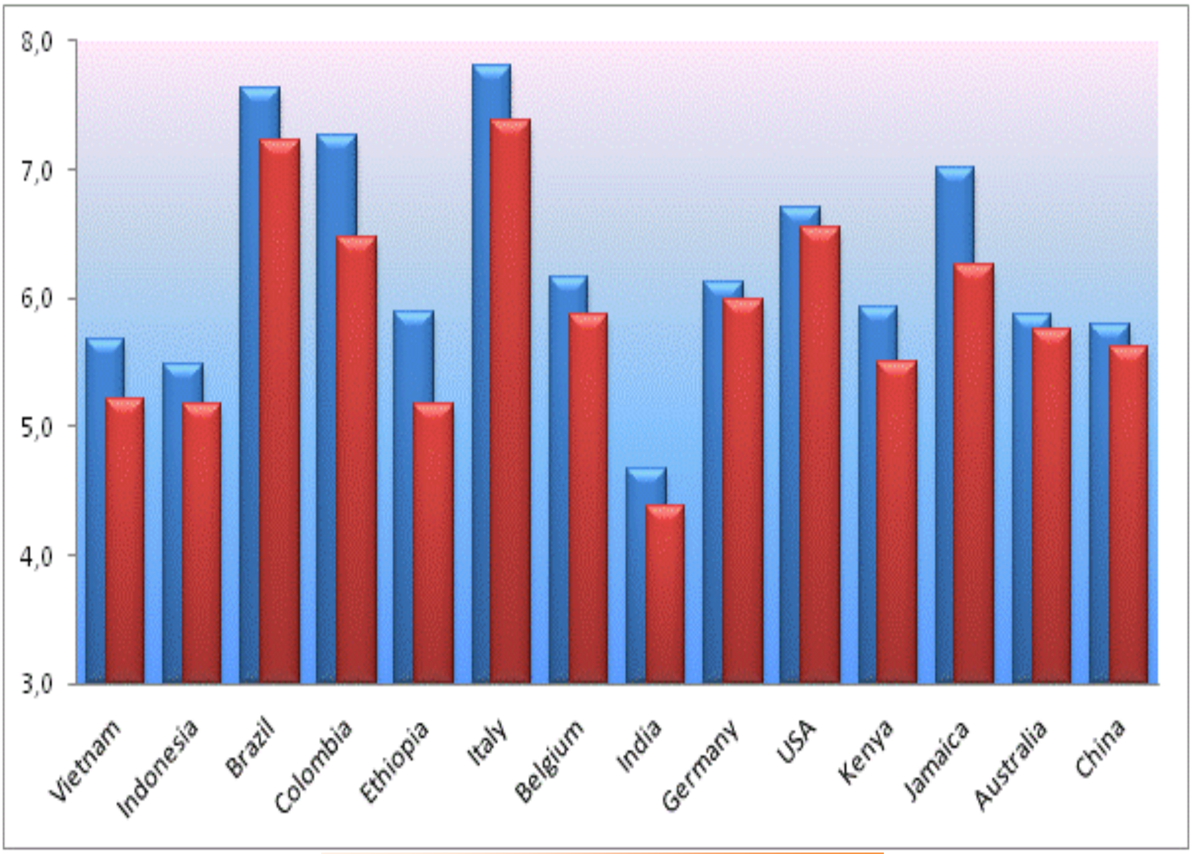


Figure 4.3.3 – Asking where the coffee comes from

are many customers that can tell a difference between Colombian coffee and Blue Mountain (a famous coffee from Jamaica). Nevertheless, coffee shop owners are forced to put many different kinds of coffee on the menu. If not, he says, customers will think that the coffee shop is no good. He does not think there is any (real) Blue Mountain coffee in China but coffee shops must still show that they have this because the customers have heard about this kind of coffee before. Arnold is an exception to this practice and only serves his own Chinese coffee in his coffee shop. He believes it is too early for China and that customers are not that interested in the origin of the coffee. He compares to Korea where he says interest in coffee began ten years ago. At first different coffee was mixed together but after about three years this changed when competition increased and coffee shop owners began using origin as a way of attracting customers. This worked and today there is a whole range of activities for coffee consumers to participate in to learn more about coffee. The importance of acquiring knowledge about how to consume correctly was described earlier in the thesis and Arnold thinks that there might be a similar development path ahead for China. However, the Chinese have to start drinking more coffee first for this business strategy to work.



gure 4.3.4 – Perceived quality and expected price

In the Figure 4.3.4 the mean score for perceived quality (blue) and the price respondents expect to pay for the same coffee (red) are similar. Coffee that is perceived of as having high quality is also believed to cost more money and vice versa. When countries are sorted by mean score Italy, Brazil, Colombia, USA and Jamaica received scores above average based on perceived quality, seen in Table 4.3.3. The same group is joined by Germany in a table based on expected price. When comparing the two tables there are some observations to be made. In relation to other countries USA, Australia and China have a notably (two or more) higher placements on the list based on expected price. The opposite goes for coffee from Ethiopia which is expected to be one of the least expensive coffees among the countries at the same time as perceived quality puts the country in the middle of the group.

The top halves of both lists only have countries from the Americas and Europe whereas coffee producing countries in Africa share the bottom half with countries from the rest of the world. Many reasons for this have been presented in this thesis. One is that South America is a famous coffee producing region. Although it is better to use local coffee because of the freshness,

Table 4.3.3 – Perceived quality and expected price (mean)

	Perceived Quality
Italy	7,8
Brazil	7,6
Colombia	7,3
Jamaica	7,0
USA	6,7
Belgium	6,2
Germany	6,1
Kenya	5,9
Ethiopia	5,9
Australia	5,9
China	5,8
Vietnam	5,7
Indonesia	5,5
India	4,7
Average	6,3

	Expected Price
Italy	7,4
Brazil	7,2
USA	6,6
Colombia	6,5
Jamaica	6,3
Germany	6,0
Belgium	5,9
Australia	5,8
China	5,6
Kenya	5,5
Vietnam	5,2
Indonesia	5,2
Ethiopia	5,2
India	4,4
Average	5,9

Mr. Sun believes that Chinese customers have a difficulty in judging the quality of the coffee beans used, especially when the taste of coffee often is hidden under a lot of added sugar, milk and flavorings. Instead he thinks customers use Brazil's reputation as a coffee country and assume that the coffee must be good. Earlier studies have also shown that products from developed countries are generally perceived as superior to those from developing countries. Apart from Australia, all countries on the bottom of the list are developing countries. When asked about if some countries are perceived as better than others Mimi thinks that American and some European countries generally are perceived as better. Dream thinks that most Chinese people would choose the coffee from abroad. The countries furthest down the list are all Asian. That both Vietnam and Indonesia are found here is notable, as a large part of the produced coffee in the world comes from these two countries. Studies have shown that the fit between a country and product type can have an impact. Perhaps this explains why Australia,

Table 4.3.4 – Perceived quality and expected price (gender mean)

as a developed country, receives a low average and the same might be contributing to India's particular low score as the country is better known for its fine tea.

When responses are studied in more detail some observations should be pointed out. In Table 4.3.4 we see that female respondents value coffee from China, Vietnam and Indonesia higher than do male respondents. The lowest score is found among the African countries and again India. This result does to some extent support the argument that women value products from the home country higher. In comparison, and demonstrated in Table 4.3.5, the small sample of "older" respondents (born before 1974) seem to think less of the Asian countries' coffee and better of the African countries. This speaks against the previous findings regarding an increased appreciation for products from the home country with age. Although the number of older respondents for this research was very limited and further research is needed an attempt to explain the finding will still be made. Among all the people answering the survey there were less respondents evaluating Ethiopia, Kenya and Australia compared to the other countries. This could be an indication of respondents being less familiar with these countries and their relation to coffee. Previous research have suggested that that the lowest reputation is found among countries which consumers know very little of. It was suggested by the focus group that most Chinese people start drinking coffee in college or final years of high school as a way of staying alert when studying for exams. Therefore, people born before 1974 have had a longer time to become familiar with the two African countries and their reputation as coffee producers. Also in this group Australia does not seem to match the product category.

♀	Perceived Quality
Italy	7,6
Brazil	7,5
Colombia	7,0
Jamaica	6,8
USA	6,6
Belgium	6,2
Vietnam	6,1
Germany	6,1
China	6,0
Indonesia	6,0
Australia	5,9
Ethiopia	5,8
Kenya	5,7
India	5,2
Average	6,3

♂	Perceived Quality
Italy	8,1
Brazil	7,8
Colombia	7,6
Jamaica	7,3
USA	6,8
Kenya	6,3
Germany	6,2
Belgium	6,1
Ethiopia	6,1
Australia	5,8
China	5,5
Vietnam	5,1
Indonesia	4,8
India	3,9
Average	6,2

Table 4.3.5 – Quality and price (before 1974)

Born before 1974	Perceived Quality
Italy	9,0
Colombia	8,2
USA	8,0
Jamaica	7,7
Brazil	7,6
Ethiopia	7,6
Germany	6,6
Kenya	6,4
Belgium	6,3
China	5,0
Australia	4,6
Vietnam	4,1
Indonesia	3,7
India	2,1
	6,2

Furthermore, respondents with higher education and better financial status tend to think less of Yunnan coffee than average. Although the difference is not very big this seems to support research claiming a negative relation between higher education and CE and between higher income and CE. People that answer that they come from Yunnan think that coffee from Yunnan is slightly better than people from other parts of the country.

That China scores lower in relation to most other countries would not come as a surprise to Mr. Sun who believes that customer's general perception of Yunnan coffee is that it is not very good. Dream and Lancy think that Chinese coffee must be cheaper than other coffee for people to choose it. Arnold holds a different opinion and thinks that Chinese people's perception about their products and brands have changed, especially after the Beijing Olympics. Chinese people now seem to like their country's own brands very much, and he thinks this is also true for coffee. In the coffee shop, Arnold has put a little sign among the beans in his coffee bags, telling the customer where the beans are grown (BaoShan, Yunnan). He says he used to have much more information and shows a sign that used to sit right above the counter. The sign has a small picture of a coffee field and information about the area where the coffee is grown, for example its elevation, and also information about growing techniques, for example that machines are not used in the process. Apparently, this is how it is done in many coffee shops in Korea, but his customers here in China did not seem to pay any attention to the sign and its information. Arnold is very passionate when talking about Yunnan coffee which of course is influenced by that he, over the last year, has been very involved in the quality improvements of his beans. He claims that his beans hold a similar quality to beans from Colombia (a good quality coffee) and that he has seen imported beans that are twice expensive as his but still with of a lower quality. Mr. Sun's impression is similar and says that the quality of the beans grown in Yunnan is excellent but what is lacking is the processing techniques following (e.g. washing and roasting). Arnold thinks that a problem influencing the perception of Yunnan coffee is the lack of knowledge in coffee shops on how to prepare a good cup of coffee. Many people do not seem to understand that the taste of coffee is influenced by many things (e.g. water temperature and how the machine is used). Mr. Sun is the least worried among the two as he is sure that things will improve as people will learn, change their opinions and start demanding better quality and more professional behavior from coffee shops.

Both interview subjects think that it is positive for the impression of Yunnan coffee that so many other products with an excellent reputation are grown in the province. However, Mr.

ıble 4.4.1 – Instant coffee (gender)

Sun points out that the “tourist coffee” brought home to other provinces as a souvenir often does not have a very high quality and can damage the reputation for Yunnan coffee as a whole. An interesting point is put forward by Dream who does not think that the coffee is helped by the image of Yunnan Province. To her “coffee is not a normal part of Chinese peoples’ lives. I think that the image of Yunnan hold by many is that of a simple place with beautiful nature and lots of tradition. Coffee does not go well with that image as it is too fashionable” (Dream, 19).

Table 4.4.2 – Yunnan instant coffee (comparison)

4.4. Instant coffee

There were 101 respondents that apart from visiting coffee shops also sometimes drink instant coffee. Of these 55% only drink once a week or less and only 10% once every day or more often. It is more common to chose the same brand when buying (66%) and brand is also perceived as the most important when respondents are asked to evaluate (on a scale 1 to 5) the significance of also price, origin and if the instant coffee is organic. Relative the others, origin is perceived as less important when both male and female responses are calculated, as demonstrated in Table 4.4.1. When separated, origin and organic are perceived as more important among female respondents than male. Both Arnold and Mr. Sun do not believe that origin is a main factor when buying instant coffee. However, Mr. Sun believes that brand and price are most important (the result of the male respondents).

Importance when buying instant coffee			
Mean		♀	♂
Brand	4,0	Brand	Brand
Organic	3,5	Organic	Price
Price	3,4	Origin	Organic
Origin	3,3	Price	Origin

Both interview subjects comment on the perceived health risks with instant coffee. They see fresh, ground coffee as harmless and Mr. Sun even sometimes puts forward health benefits when trying to sell coffee machines to Chinese families. However, because of the added creamer, instant coffee can be bad for you, and harmful to the brain (the word used was actually memories). If the same belief is to be found among the sample surveyed this could explain why organic is rated as the second most important factor, especially among women.

	Mean	♀	♂	Born before 1974	Higher income	Higher education	From Yunnan
Quality	5,5	5,8	5,2	5,2	5,2	5,3	5,5
Price	4,9	4,8	5,1	4,6	4,9	5,4	4,5

Table 4.4.2 shows that the perceived quality of instant coffee from Yunnan receives a lower mean score compared to the coffee bought at a coffee shop. However, before this question, respondents had not just been asked to evaluate thirteen other countries as was the

case when coffee at coffee shops were evaluated. Looking closer at different groups of respondents, women and people who consider themselves coming from Yunnan seem to be the groups adding to the score. Older respondents, the higher educated and people in a better financial situation have a tendency to put down a lower mark than average. This they also did for coffee at coffee shops. Women and people with higher education appear to think that coffee is most expensive while it is perceived as cheaper by older respondents and people from Yunnan.

Mr. Sun believes that foreign instant coffee probably is perceived as better. Of the people surveyed 45 (44,6%) think that foreign coffee has a better quality than Chinese Yunnan coffee, 6 respondents (5,9%) think that the quality is worse. Almost half of the sample appears to think there is not much difference between foreign and domestic instant coffee.

Looking closer at the percentage of people that perceive quality of foreign coffee as better we find a familiar pattern. In Table 4.4.3, female respondents, who in previous results have rated Yunnan coffee higher than average, to a less degree believe that foreign instant coffee is better. In comparison, the groups of people born before 1974, the ones having a higher income, and people with higher education, all seem to perceive foreign instant coffee as having a superior quality. This is also a similar result compared to previous findings. Also, more than half of the respondents coming from Yunnan think that foreign coffee has better quality.

Table 4.4.3 – Foreign coffee perception (comparison)

	Mean	♀	♂	Born before 1974	Higher income	Higher education	From Yunnan
Foreign coffee is better	44,6%	31,5%	59,6%	70,0%	65,0%	62,5%	51,9%

4.5. Having coffee machines at home

Coffee machines have in recent year made an appearance in large department stores in Kunming and almost 25% (29) of respondents have a machine at home. This survey only included people that every now and then drink coffee. Taking into consideration all people in Kunming, Mr. Sun, who sells coffee machines, thinks that as few as 5% or less have a coffee machine at home. Arnold, who also sells beans in his shop, estimates that most of his customers own coffee machines.

Because of the few respondents owning a coffee machine at home not much can be said about this section of the questionnaire. Apart from gender and where people come from there are not enough respondents in the groups consisting of people born before 1974, people with higher income and people with higher educational background to motivate any kind of generalization for the whole population. In Table 4.5 female respondents once again appear to think less of foreign coffee than average. People from Yunnan in this case also appear to think less of foreign coffee.

Table 4.5 - Home coffee perception (comparison)

	Mean	♀	♂	From Yunnan
Foreign coffee is better	24,1%	18,8%	30,8%	20,0%

5. Conclusions

The final chapter will discuss the findings of the research as well as provide an answer to the main research question. The practical implications from these results will be approached as well as suggestions for future research. Included are also reflections on the research carried out for this thesis as this will hopefully help with future research in China.

It appears that country-of-origin does have an influence on Chinese coffee consumers' perception of the beverage and that this influence differs between groups of people. Only a small sample of coffee consumers was surveyed for this research and this is not enough to draw conclusions on the behavior of any larger populations. However, some tendencies were observed among the sample of which the most prominent was that female respondents seem to rate coffee from Yunnan higher than do male respondents. This behavior was observed over different product groups and also when Chinese Yunnan coffee was rated on its own and in relation to other countries. It was also noticed that female respondents tend to value coffee from most other Asian countries in the survey higher than other respondents who instead put countries from this region furthest down the list. Results are in line with previous findings suggesting differences between developing and industrialized countries and that a fit between country/region and product group is desirable. Overall, findings from earlier research can in large be confirmed by this, however, the results from this research suggest that at least the theory of an increased ethnocentrism with age should be further researched, at least when it comes to coffee and China.

These results show that there definitely are incentives for companies interested in the Chinese coffee market to look closer for the possible effects country-of-origin might have on their products. Consumers do appear to value products based on images they have of countries and ideas about product groups. Although suggestions were given for why some countries come to mind when coffee is mentioned, others still lack explanations. Especially when doing business in a country where people are just discovering coffee, companies need to know that coming from a highly regarded coffee country might not be enough for success. Connotations appear to differ between parts of the world and opportunities await the marketer who finds these links and can downplay or highlight the country-of-origin information of the coffee. New companies on the market should remember that coffee is more than a beverage, it is part of an identity, and by going to a coffee shop people are telling you something about who they are. Being successful means learning this language. Companies should also pay attention to Chinese consumers' interest in eating healthy food and their concern about the environment.

Although apparently regarded with some degree of skepticism by consumers, the idea of organic seems popular, especially among women, and could be an increasingly important factor when choosing between products in the future.

Future researchers are recommended to look closer at coffee in a Chinese context using larger samples and studying different regions. This study did not look closer at the interaction of different cues before purchase, so a multiple-cue study on Chinese coffee in China is welcomed. As noted earlier, coffee as a way of expressing identity is important and related to this is the growing trend of take-away coffee that deserves to be looked into more closely. The big question of how Chinese coffee is perceived by the rest of the world has still not received any attention. As more Chinese coffee will be available for trading it becomes increasingly important to find out how the Yunnan bean will be welcomed on the more mature coffee markets.

In hindsight, choosing to collect data using an online survey tool was perhaps not the best solution in this case. Although it was believed to make it easier for both the researcher and respondents the method resulted in many respondents only partially answering the questions. Many people also seem to be reluctant to log into websites they are not familiar with. These can lead to an unnecessary low number of responses and the method is perhaps better to use in a different research setting. Although more time-demanding for the researcher, a paper-based survey and respondents being approached face-to-face might have worked better for this particular research.

Hopefully this thesis has spread some light on coffee consumption in China and has helped in generating new interest in this field as there are still many more areas to explore.

References

Aaker, J.L. (1997) Dimensions of Brand Personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *34*, 3: 347-56.

Adams, F.G. (2008) Globalization: From Heckscher–Ohlin to the New Economic Geography. *World Economics*, *9*, 2: 153-74.

Ahmed, Z.U., Johnson, J.P., Yang, X., Fatt, C.K., Teng, H.S., Boon, L.C. (2004) Does country of origin matter for low-involvement products? *International Marketing Review*, *21*, 1: 102-20.

Aldridge, A. (2003) *Consumption*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.

Ali, S. & Dadush, U. (2012, May 16) The Global Middle Class Is Bigger Than We Thought. Foreign Policy. May 16. (Accessed 2012-06-10). <http://www.foreignpolicy.com/articles/2012/05/16/the_global_middle_class_is_bigger_than_we_thought>

Allen, D. (2011, Mar 11) *China's new brew*. Asia Times Online. (Accessed 2011-10-12). <http://www.atimes.com/atimes/China_Business/MC11Cb02.html>

Ambler, T (2000), *Marketing and the Bottom Line*. London: Pearson Education.

Ambler, T.; Bhattacharya, C.B.; Edell, J.; Keller, K.L.; Lemon, K.N. & Mittal, V. (2002) Relating brand and customer perspectives on marketing management. *Journal of Service Research*, *5*, 1: 13-25.

Anderson, P.M. & He, X. (1998) Price influence and age segments of Beijing consumers. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *15*, 2: 152-69.

Arksey, H.& Knight, P.T. (1999). *Interviewing for social scientists: an introductory resource with examples*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE.

Armstrong, G. & Kotler, P. (2007) *Marketing: an introduction*. 8. ed. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Bacon, C. (2005) Confronting the coffee crisis: Can fair trade, organic, and specialty coffees reduce small-scale farmer vulnerability in Northern Nicaragua? *World Development*, *33*, 3: 497-511.

Balestrini, P. & Gamble, P. (2006) Country-of-origin effects on Chinese wine consumers. *British Food Journal*, *108*, 5: 396-412.

Bauman, Z. (1990) *Thinking sociologically*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Beijing Review (2008, July 10) *Forging a homegrown coffee brand*. (Accessed 2011-11-13). <http://www.bjreview.com.cn/business/txt/2008-07/05/content_131750_3.htm>

Belk, R.W. (1988) Possessions and the Extended Self. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *15*, 2: 139-68.

Best, S.J. & Krueger, B.S. (2008) Internet Survey Design. In, N. Fielding, R.M. Lee & G.Blank (eds) *The SAGE Handbook of Online Research Methods* (pp. 217-35). Los Angeles: SAGE.

Bilkey, W.J & Nes, E. (1982) Country-of-Origin Effects on Product Evaluations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *13*, 1: 89-99.

Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: a social critique of the judgement of taste*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Bryman, A. (2004). *Social research methods*. 2. ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Business Monitor (2012) *China Food and Drink Report Q2 2012.*

Business Wire (2010, Nov 12) *Starbucks and Chinese government announce Yunnan coffee industry investments*. (Accessed 2012-04-30). < http:///www.businesswire.com/news/home/20 101111 006872/en/Starbucks-Chinese-Government-Announce-Yunnan-Coffee-Industry>

Cai, C.T., Cai, Z.Q., Yao, T.Q. & Qi, X. (2007) Vegetative growth and photosynthesis in coffee plants under different watering and fertilization managements in Yunnan, SW China. *Photosynthetica*, *45*, 3: 455-61.

Chan, K.W. (2010). *Youth and consumption*. Hong Kong: City University of Hong Kong Press.

Charveriat, C. (2001) *Bitter coffee: how the poor are paying for the slump in coffee prices*. Oxford: Oxfam. Manuscript

Chattalas, M.; Kramer, T. & Takada, H. (2008) The impact of national stereotypes on the country of origin effect: A conceptual framework. *International Marketing Review*, *25*, 1: 54-4.

China Data Online. Yunnan 2000 population census data assembly. (Accessed 2012-06-12). <http://www.chinadataonline.org/>

Chiou, J-S. (2003) The impact of country of origin on pretrial and posttrial product evaluations: The moderating effect of consumer expertise. *Psychology and Marketing*, *20*, 10: 935-54.

CODEX (2012) About research ethics. (Accessed 2012-09-02). <http://www.codex.vr.se/en/forskningsetik.shtml>

Croll, E. (2006) *China's New Consumers: Social Development and Domestic Demand*. London: Routledge.

Davies, B.J. & Ward, P. (2002). *Managing retail consumption*. New York: Wiley.

Definition of Organic Agriculture. International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movement (IFOAM). < http://ifoam.org/growing_organic/definitions/doa/index.html>

Dickson, M.; Lennon, S.; Montalto, C.; Shen, D. & Zhang, L. (2004) Chinese consumer market segments for foreign apparel products. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *21*, 5: 301-17.

Doctoroff, T., 2005. *Billions: Selling to the New Chinese Consumer*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Dufrêne, B. (2010) Pu'er coffee - The next Chinese success story? *Tea and Coffee Asia*, *12*, 4: 20-4.

Elfick, J. (2011) Class Formation and Consumption among Middle-Class Professionals in Shenzhen. *Journal of Current Chinese Affairs*, *40*, 1: 187-211.

Encyclopædia Britannica Online (2012a) *Yunnan*. (Accessed 2012-05-13). <http://www.britannica.com.ludwig.lub.lu.se/EBchecked/topic/655000/Yunnan>

Encyclopædia Britannica Online (2012b) *Kunming*. (Accessed 2012-05-13). <http://www.britannica.com.ludwig.lub.lu.se/EBchecked/topic/324836/Kunming>

Essoussi, L.H. & Merunka, D. (2007) Consumers' product evaluations in emerging markets: Does country of design, country of manufacture, or brand image matter? *International Marketing Review*, *24*, 4: 409-26.

F.O. Licht's (2011a) Global coffee retailers see potential brewing in Chinese market. *F.O. Licht's International Coffee Report*, *26*, 4: 64-5.

F.O. Licht's (2011b) Lifestyle coffee drinkers to keep demand growing. *F.O. Licht's International Coffee Report*, *26*, 3.

F.O. Licht's (2012a) Pu'er shifts to coffee production. *F.O. Licht's International Coffee Report*, *26*, 21.

F.O. Licht's (2012b) Yunnan coffee production rises by 11.3% in 2011. *F.O. Licht's International Coffee Report*, *26*, 15.

Fisher, C. (2007). *Researching and writing a dissertation: a guidebook for business students*. 2. ed. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Forster, N. (1994) The Analysis of Company Documentation. In C. Cassell and G. Symon (eds), *Qualitative Methods of Organizational Research: A Practical Guide* (pp. 147–66). London: SAGE.

Fricker Jr, R.D. (2008) Sampling Methods for Web and E-mail Surveys. In, N. Fielding, R.M. Lee & G.Blank (eds) *The SAGE Handbook of Online Research Methods* (pp. 195-216). Los Angeles: SAGE.

Greenfield, G. (2002). *Vietnam and the World Coffee Crisis*. (Accessed 2012-05-01) <http://www.focusweb.org/publications/2002/Vietnam-and-the-world-coffee-crisis.html>

Grönroos, C. (2007) *Service management and marketing: customer management in service competition*. 3. ed. Chichester: Wiley.

Gürhan-Canli, Z. & Maheswaran, D. (2000) Cultural Variations in Country of Origin Effects. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *37*, 3: 309-17.

Ha, D.T. and Shively, G. (2008) Coffee Boom, coffee bust and smallholder response in Vietnam's central highlands. *Review of Development Economics*, 12, 2 312-26.

Hamin & Elliott, G. (2006) A less-developed country perspective of consumer ethnocentrism and "country of origin" effects: Indonesian evidence. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *18*, 2: 79-92.

Han, C.M. (1989) Country Image: Halo or Summary Construct? *Journal of Marketing Research*. *26*, 2: 222-9.

Han, M. & Terpstra, V. (1988) Country-of-Origin Effects for Uni-National and Bi-National Products. *Journal of International Business Studies*,*19*, 2: 235-55.

Han, X.H. & Uncles, M.D. (2011) An examination of the validity of cohort segmentaiton in China, in *Proceedings of ANZMAC (Australia New Zealand Marketing Academy) 2011*. <http://anzmac.org/conference/2011/Papers%20by%20Presenting%20Author/Han,%20Xiao%20Paper%20589.pdf>

Han, X.H. & Uncles, M.D. (2011) The Buyer Behavior of Chinese Consumers of Different Ages: An investigation using the Juster scale and the Dirichlet model, in *ANZMAC (Australia New Zealand Marketing Academy) 2009*. <http://www.duplication.net.au/ANZMAC09/papers/ANZMAC2009-711.pdf >

Hogood (Dehong Hogood Coffee Co. Ltd) About Hogood. (Accessed 2012-05-01). <http://www.hogoodcoffee.com/en/>

Hu, X.; Li, L.; Xie, C. & Zhou, J. (2008) The effects of country-of-origin on Chinese consumers' wine purchasing behavior. *Journal of Technology Management in China*, *3*, 3: 292-306.

Hung, K.H., Gu, F.F., Yim, C.K. (2007) A Social Institutional Approach to Identifying Generation Cohorts in China with a Comparison with American Consumers. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *38*, 5: 836-53.

ICC (International Coffee Council, International Coffee Organization) (2003) Impact of the coffee crisis on poverty in producing countries. (Accessed 2012-04-21). <http://dev.ico.org/documents/icc89-5r1e.pdf>

ICO (International Coffee Organization) *Story of coffee*. (Accessed 2012-05-01). <http://www.ico.org/coffee_story.asp?section=About_Coffee>

Insch, G.S. & McBride, J.B. (2004) The impact of country-of-origin cues on consumer perceptions of product quality: A binational test of the decomposed country-of-origin construct. *Journal of Business Research 57*, 3: 256-65.

International Coffee Organisation (ICO). Historical data. (Accessed 2012-05-02). <http://www.ico.org/new_historical.asp?section=Statistics>

International Trade Center (ITC) (2010) *The coffee sector in China: An overview of production, trade and consumption*. (Accessed 2012-05-21). < http://vi.unctad.org/digital-library/1/?act=show&doc_name=507coffee-s>
ITC (International Trade Center) (2012) The Coffee Exporter's Guide. 3rd Edition. Geneva.

Iyer, G.R. & Kalita, J.K. (1997): The Impact of Country-of-Origin and Country-of-Manufacture Cues on Consumer Perceptions of Quality and Value. *Journal of Global Marketing*, *11*, 1: 7-28.

Jessop, B. (2006) Fordism and Post-Fordism. *Encyclopedia of Governance*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE, 2006. 315-16. SAGE Reference Online. Web. 8 Jul. 2012.

Josiassen, A.; Assaf, A.G. & Karpen, I.O. (2011) Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy: Analyzing the role of three demographic consumer characteristics. *International Marketing Review*, *28*, 6: 627-46.

Kaynak, E. Kucukemiroglu, O. & Hyder, A.S. (2000) Consumers' country-of-origin (COO) perceptions of imported products in a homogenous less-developed country. *European Journal of Marketing*, *34*, 9: 1221-41.

Kerr-Ritchie, J.R. (2006) Coffee's Dark and Bloody Ground. *Nature, Society, and Thought, 19*, 2: 207-16.

Kjeldgaard, D. & Ostberg, J. (2007) Coffee grounds and the global cup: Glocal consumer culture in Scandinavia. *Consumption, Markets and Culture*, *10*, 2: 175–87.

Kwok, S.; Uncles, M. & Huang, Y. (2006) Brand preferences and brand choices among urban Chinese consumers: An investigation of country-of-origin effects, *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *18*, 3: 163-72.

Lee, J.K. & Lee, W-N (2009) Country-of-Origin Effects on Consumer Product Evaluation and Purchase Intention: The Role of Objective Versus Subjective Knowledge, *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *21*, 2: 137-51.

Lee, R.M.; Fielding, N. & Blank, G. (2008) The Internet as a Research Medium: An Editorial Introduction to The SAGE Handbook of Online Research Methods. In, N. Fielding, R.M. Lee & G.Blank (eds) *The SAGE Handbook of Online Research Methods* (pp. 2-19). Los Angeles: SAGE.

Levitt, T. (1975) Marketing Myopia. *Harvard Business Review*, reprint Sep-Oct.

Li, Z.; Fu, S. & Murray, L. (1997) Country and product images: the perceptions of consumers in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *10*, 1/2: 115-39.

LimeSurvey (2012) (Accessed 2012-09-02). <http://www.limesurvey.org/>

Maheswaran, D. (1994) Country of Origin as a Stereotype: Effects of Consumer Expertise and Attribute Strength onProduct Evaluations. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *21*, 2: 354-65.

Markus, H.R. & Kitayama, S. (1991) Culture and the Self: Implications for Cognition, Emotion, and Motivation. *Psychological Review*, *98*, 2: 224-253.

Maslow, A.H. (1987). *Motivation and personality*. 3. ed. New York: Harper & Row.

Mazzocchi, M. (2008). *Statistics for marketing and consumer research*. London: SAGE.

McIntyre, S.L. (2000) The Failure of Fordism: Reform of the Automobile Repair Industry, 1913-1940. *Technology and Culture*, *41*, 2: 269-299.

Mitchell, H. (2010) Asian coffee cultures: Unique and exotic caffeine adventures. *Tea and Coffee Asia*, *12*, 1: 22-9.

Naím, M. (2008, Feb 8) Middle class rising. L.A Times. (Accessed 2012-06-10). <http://articles.latimes.com/2008/feb/08/opinion/oe-naim8>

Okechuku, C. (1994) The Importance of Product Country of Origin:: A Conjoint Analysis of the United States, Canada, Germany and The Netherlands. *European Journal of Marketing*. *28*, 4: 5-19.

Osorio, N. (2002) *The global coffee crisis: a threat to sustainable development*. Submission to the World Summit on Sustainable Development. (Accessed 2012-04-21). <http://dev.ico.org/documents/globalcrisise.pdf>

Osorio, N. (2003) *Action to address the coffee crisis*. Submission to the G-8 Summit. (Accessed 2012-04-21). <http://dev.ico.org/documents/g8e.pdf>

Osorio, N. (2004) *Lessons from the world coffee crisis: A serious problem for sustainable development*. Submission to UNCTAD XI. (Accessed 2012-04-21). <http://dev.ico.org/documents/ed1922e.pdf>

Osorio, N. (2005) *Action to avoid further coffee price crises*. Submission to the G-8 Summit. (Accessed 2012-04-21). <http://dev.ico.org/documents/ed1959e.pdf>

Pecotich, A. & Ward, S. (2007) Global branding, country of origin and expertise: An experimental evaluation. *International Marketing Review*, *24*, 3: 271-96.

Piron, F. (2002) International outshopping and ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, *36*, 1: 189-210.

Ponte, S. (2002) The 'latte revolution'? Regulation, markets and consumption in the global coffee chain. *World Development*, *30*, 7: 1099–122.

Prahalad, C.K. & Lieberthal, K. (2003) The End of Corporate Imperialism. *Harvard Business Review*, Aug, 110-7.

Ragin, C.C. & Amoroso, L.M. (2011) *Constructing social research: the unity and diversity of method*. 2. ed. Los Angeles: SAGE.

Ritzer, G. (2011). *The McDonaldization of society*. 6. ed. Thousand Oaks, California: Pine Forge.

Saunders, M.; Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009) *Research Methods for Business Students*. 5. ed. Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Schmidt, G. (2008) Globalization and Asian Fordisms. *Globality Studies Journal*, *11*. Feb 29.

Schmitz, R. (2011, Jan 10) *Growing coffee in China's tea country*. Marketplace Business. (Accessed 2011-10-12). < http://www.marketplace.org/topics/business/growing-coffee-chinas-tea-country>

Sharma, S., Shimp, T.A & Shin, J. (1995) Consumer ethnocentrism: a test of antecedents and moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *23*, 1: 26-37.

Shimp, T.A. & Sharma, S. (1987) Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *24*, 3: 280-9.

Sin, L.Y.M.; Ho, S.C. & So, S. (2000) Research on advertising in Mainland China: a review and assessment. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *12*, 1: 37-65.

Siu, W.S. and Chan, H.M. (1997) Country-of-origin effects on products evaluation: the case of Chinese consumers in Hong Kong. *Journal of International Marketing and Marketing Research*, *22*, 2: 115-22.

Solomon, M.R, Bamossy, G., Askegaard, S., & Hogg, M.K, (2010). *Consumer Behaviour: A European Perspective*. 4. ed. New York: Prentice Hall/Financial Times.

Solomon, M.R. (red.) (2009). *Marketing: real people, real decisions.* 1st European ed. New York: Prentice Hall Financial Times.

SPR Coffee. *An analys of the China coffee market*. (Accessed 2012-04-22). <http://www.sprcoffee.com/Market.html>

Starbucks (2011, Oct 25) *Starbucks celebrates its 500th store opening in mainland China*. (Accessed 2012-04-27). < http://news.starbucks.com/article_print.cfm?article_id=580>

Starbucks (2012a, Apr 1) *Starbucks believes that China will be second largest market by 2014*. (Accessed 2012-04-27). <http://news.starbucks.com/article_print.cfm?article_id=641>

Starbucks (2012b, Feb 06) Starbucks to partner with Ai Ni Group to bring China's Yunnan coffee to the world. (Accessed 2012-04-27). <http://news.starbucks.com/article_print.cfm?article_id=617>

Stein, N. & Burke, D. (2002) Crisis in a coffee cup. In Fortune, *146*, 12: 204-18.

Tang, D. (2012, Apr 26) Luxury automakers rush to capture Chinese demand. Huffington Post. (Accessed 2012-07-06). < http://www.huffingtonpost.com/huff-wires/20120426/as-china-luxury-car-boom/#>

Teo, T., Uncles, M.D. & Burford, M.R. (2010) Generational Cohort Differences in Consumer-Brand Relationships of Chinese Consumers, in *ANZMAC (Australia New Zealand Marketing Academy) 2010 Conference Proceedings*. <http://anzmac2010.org/proceedings/pdf/anzmac10Final00394.pdf>

Thomassen, L.; Lincoln, K. & Aconis, A. (2006) *Retailization: brand survival in the age of retailer power*. London: Kogan Page.

Thurén, T. (2005). *Källkritik*. Liber, Stockholm.

Tiwari, M.K (2010) Separation of Brand Equity and Brand Value. *Global Business Review*, *11*, 3: 421–34.

Usunier, J-C. & Lee, J.A. (2005). *Marketing across cultures*. 4. ed. New York: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

van der Vossen, H.A.M. (2005) A critical analysis of the agronomic and economic sustainability of organic coffee production. *Experimental Agriculture*, *41*, 4: 449-73.

Vega, F.E. (2008) The rise of coffee. *American Scientist*, *96*, 2: 138-45.

Waller, J.M., Bigger, M. & Hillocks, R.J. (2007) Coffee, pests, diseases and their management. Oxfordshire: CABI.

Walliman, N. (2011) *Research methods – the basics*. London: Routledge.

Wan, G. & Zhang, X. (2006) Rising inequality in China. *China Economic Review*, *15*,145– 63.

Wang, H. (2011) Coffee market in China: land of opportunity or fantasy? In Tea and Coffee Trade Journal, 183, 7: 30-3.

Wiedenhoft, W.A. (2004) Fordism and Post-Fordism. *Encyclopedia of Social Theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA:

SAGE, 2004. 283-84. SAGE Reference Online. Web. 10 Jun. 2012.

Wong, N.Y & Ahuvia, A.C. (1998) Personal taste and family face: luxury consumption in Confucian and Western societies. *Psychology & Marketing*, *15*, 5: 423-41.

Wu, X. & Perloff, J.M. (2004) China's income distribution over time: Reasons for rising inequality, Department of Agriculture and Resource Economics, University of California, Berkeley. Working paper.

Yamane, T. (1964). *Statistics: an introductory analysis*. New York: Harper & Row.

Yao, S.; Zhang, Z. & Hanmer, L. (2004) Growing inequality and poverty in China. *China Economic Review*, *15*, 145– 63.

Yiridoe, E.K., Bonti-Ankomah, S. & Martin, R.C. (2005) Comparison of consumer perceptions and preference toward organic versus conventionally produced foods: A review and update of the literature. *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems*, *20*, 4: 193-205.

Yusuf, F. & Brooks, G. (2010) Demographics and Consumption Patterns in Urban China. *Population Research and Policy Review*, *29*, 1: 5-17.

Zeithaml, V.A. (1988) Consumer Perceptions of Price, Quality, and Value: A Means-End Model and Synthesis of Evidence. *Journal of Marketing*, *52*, 3: 2-22.

Zhang, X.; Dagevos, H.; He, Y.; van der Lans, I. & Zhai, F. (2008) Consumption and corpulence in China: A consumer segmentation study based on the food perspective. *Food Policy*, *33*, 37–47.

Zhang, Y. (1997),Country-of-origin effect: The moderating function of individual difference in information processing. *International Marketing Review*, *14*, 4: 266-87.

Zhao, Z. (2006) Income Inequality, Unequal Health Care Access, and Mortality in China. *Population and Development Review*, *32*, 3: 461–83.

Zhou, L. & Hui, M. (2003) Symbolic value of foreign products in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of International Marketing*, *11*, 2: 36-58.

Interviews and focus group

Arnold. Recorded interview, May 22, 2012.

Mr. Sun. Recorded interview, June 5, 2012.

Focus Group (Mimi, MK, Lancy and Dream). Recorded discussion, June 6, 2012.

Appendix 1 – Interview guide

- What is your relationship to coffee?
  (Why begin? What did you do before? How long?)

- What is it that you do?
  (Coffee shop? Exports? Wholesale? Retail?)

- Have you noticed any change in the Chinese people's relationship to coffee?
  (Increased consumption? Special demands?)

- Why do you think in recent years people in China have begun drinking coffee?
  (What are the reasons some people drink coffee? Do they just like the taste or is there something else?)

- Is there a typical Chinese coffee drinker?
  (Age? What they want to drink? What they want to do in the coffee shop? Drink alone or with friends?)

- What do you think Chinese coffee culture is like?
  (Is there such a thing as an emerging Chinese coffee culture? If so, how does it differ from other countries?)

- In your café, do you inform people about where your coffee comes from?
  (Does the menu or something else specify where your coffee originates from?)'

- Why?/Why not?
  (Do you think it matters for customers where the coffee originates from?)

- Do you think the same thing applies to instant/soluble coffee?
  (Does it matter where to coffee comes from?)

- What do you think about organic coffee?
  (Is it something that the Chinese coffee customer wants?)

- How many people do you think have coffee machines at home?
  (Do they want to own a coffee machine? What is stopping them?)

- Have you noticed any coffee trends lately?
  (In Kunming? In China? Elsewhere?)

- What is your perception about the coffee that is grown here in Yunnan?
  (Quality? What about organic?)

- Yunnan is famous for other products. Do you think being a local Yunnan product can help boost the popularity of coffee from Yunnan?

- What do you think about the future for Yunnan coffee and other coffee in China?
  (Will local demand grow? Will foreign demand grow? Will the local demand grow enough?)

- Do you think interest for Chinese coffee will grow in other countries?
  (Why? Why not? Where is it more likely to grow?)

- Anything else you would like to tell me about coffee?

Appendix 2 – Invitation

你好！

你是中国人吗？你喜欢喝咖啡吗？如果这两个问题的回答是肯定的话，请给我几分钟的时间。

我的名字是约翰，是一个瑞典的硕士研究生。我现在在中国研究我的硕士论文，如果你愿意回答我的调查问卷，我将十分感激！

调查问卷在该网页 coffee.limeask.com/[redacted]

你可以使用你的智能手机、笔记本电脑或平板电脑登录该网页。不到五分钟你就可以完成，你会帮我很大的忙。你所提供的回答将只用于我的论文，而且信息都将被视为机密。请务必回答所有的问题，了解你的意见对我很重要。

如果你有任何的家庭成员或朋友也喜欢喝咖啡，请毫不犹豫地把我的在线调查地址给他们。

非常感谢！

Appendix 3 – Invitation (English translation)

Hello!

Are you Chinese? Do you like to drink coffee? If the answers to both questions are yes then please lend me a couple of minutes of your time.

My name is Johan and I am a Swedish Master student. I am currently in China doing research for my master thesis and I would very much appreciate if you would answer a questionnaire that I have designed.

The questionnaire can be found on this internet address http://coffee.limeask.com/[redacted]

Please log in using your smart phone, laptop or tablet. You will be finished in less than five minutes and by then you will have done me a great favor. The responses you provide will only be used in my thesis and the information will be treated confidentially. It is very important for me to learn your opinions so please make sure to answer all the questions.

If you have any family members or friends that also like to drink coffee please do not hesitate to give them the address to the online-questionnaire.

THANK YOU!

Appendix 4 – Survey questions and answers (in Chinese)

欢迎你参加我的调查!

我是一个瑞典的硕士研究生,目前住在昆明。通过参与这个调查问卷，请你帮我完成 我的硕士论文。这项调查将询问你有关咖啡的意见和咖啡的相关问题。回答这些问题不会超过五分钟，我将把所有的答案都妥善保存，只使用于我的论文信息。带 着这种想法，请一定要回答每一个问题.你的回答对我非常重要。

另外，这项调查只针对喝咖啡的中国人士，如果你不符合以上两项标准，你可以不用参加。

如果有问题或你注意到一些其它情况须要加以纠正，请在 [redacted]@student.lu.se 与我联系。

谢谢您付出的时间和支持。请开始调查，现在通过单击 [下一页>>] 继续。

本调查包括 31 个问题。

介绍

1

当你听到“咖啡”一词时，请你选择一个国家/地区。

- ○ 阿拉伯联合酋长国 (AE)
- ○ 阿尔巴尼亚 (AL)
- ○ 亚美尼亚 (AM)
- ○ 安哥拉 (AO)
- ○ 阿根廷 (AR)
- ○ 奥地利 (AT)
- ○ 澳大利亚 (AU)
- ○ 波斯尼亚和黑塞哥维那 (BA)
- ○ 比利时 (BE)
- ○ 布基纳法索 (BF)
- ○ 保加利亚 (BG)
- ○ 巴林 (BH)
- ○ 布隆迪 (BI)
- ○ 贝宁 (BJ)
- ○ 玻利维亚 (BO)
- ○ 巴西 (BR)
- ○ 白俄罗斯 (BY)
- ○ 伯利兹 (BZ)
- ○ 加拿大 (CA)
- ○ 刚果（金） (CD)
- ○ 中非共和国 (CF)
- ○ 刚果（布） (CG)
- ○ 瑞士 (CH)
- ○ 象牙海岸 (CI)
- ○ 智利 (CL)
- ○ 喀麦隆 (CM)
- ○ 中国 (CN)
- ○ 哥伦比亚 (CO)
- ○ 哥斯达黎加 (CR)
- ○ 古巴 (CU)
- ○ 塞浦路斯 (CY)
- ○ 捷克共和国 (CZ)
- ○ 德国 (DE)
- ○ 吉布提 (DJ)
- ○ 丹麦 (DK)
- ○ 多米尼加共和国 (DO)
- ○ 厄瓜多尔 (EC)
- ○ 爱沙尼亚 (EE)
- ○ 埃及 (EG)
- ○ 西班牙 (ES)
- ○ 埃塞俄比亚 (ET)
- ○ 斐济 (FJ)
- ○ 法国 (FR)
- ○ 加蓬 (GA)
- ○ 英国 (GB)
- ○ 格鲁吉亚 (GE)
- ○ 加纳 (GH)
- ○ 几内亚 (GN)
- ○ 赤道几内亚 (GQ)
- ○ 希腊 (GR)
- ○ 危地马拉 (GT)
- ○ 几内亚比绍 (GW)
- ○ 圭亚那 (GY)
- ○ 中国香港特别行政区 (HK)
- ○ 洪都拉斯 (HN)
- ○ 克罗地亚 (HR)
- ○ 海地 (HT)
- ○ 匈牙利 (HU)
- ○ 印度尼西亚 (ID)
- ○ 爱尔兰 (IE)
- ○ 以色列 (IL)
- ○ 印度 (IN)
- ○ 伊朗 (IR)
- ○ 意大利 (IT)
- ○ 牙买加 (JM)
- ○ 约旦 (JO)
- ○ 日本 (JP)
- ○ 肯尼亚 (KE)
- ○ 吉尔吉斯斯坦 (KG)
- ○ 韩国 (KR)
- ○ 科威特 (KW)
- ○ 哈萨克斯坦 (KZ)
- ○ 老挝人民民主共和国 (LA)
- ○ 黎巴嫩 (LB)
- ○ 斯里兰卡 (LK)

- 利比里亚 (LR)
- 立陶宛 (LT)
- 卢森堡 (LU)
- 拉脱维亚 (LV)
- 摩洛哥 (MA)
- 马达加斯加 (MG)
- 马其顿 (MK)
- 马里 (ML)
- 缅甸 (MM)
- 马拉维 (MW)
- 墨西哥 (MX)
- 马来西亚 (MY)
- 尼日利亚 (NG)
- 尼加拉瓜 (NI)
- 荷兰 (NL)
- 挪威 (NO)
- 尼泊尔 (NP)
- 新西兰 (NZ)
- 阿曼 (OM)
- 巴拿马 (PA)
- 秘鲁 (PE)
- 巴布亚新几内亚 (PG)
- 菲律宾 (PH)
- 波兰 (PL)
- 波多黎各 (PR)
- 葡萄牙 (PT)
- 巴拉圭 (PY)
- 卡塔尔 (QA)
- 罗马尼亚 (RO)
- 塞尔维亚 (RS)
- 俄罗斯 (RU)
- 卢旺达 (RW)
- 沙特阿拉伯 (SA)
- 瑞典 (SE)
- 新加坡 (SG)
- 斯洛文尼亚 (SI)
- 斯洛伐克 (SK)
- 塞拉利昂 (SL)
- 塞内加尔 (SN)
- 苏里南 (SR)
- 萨尔瓦多 (SV)
- 叙利亚 (SY)
- 斯威士兰 (SZ)
- 多哥 (TG)
- 泰国 (TH)
- 东帝汶 (TL)
- 突尼斯 (TN)
- 土耳其 (TR)
- 特立尼达和多巴哥 (TT)
- 台湾 (TW)
- 坦桑尼亚 (TZ)
- 乌克兰 (UA)
- 乌干达 (UG)
- 美国 (US)
- 委内瑞拉 (VE)
- 越南 (VN)
- 也门 (YE)
- 南非 (ZA)
- 赞比亚 (ZM)
- 津巴布韦 (ZW)

2

和一般的咖啡相比，你认为你所选择的这个国家/地区的咖啡的质量是更好还是更差?
不管你之前有没有尝试过的这杯咖啡，都请回答这个问题呢。

- 非常糟
- 比较糟
- 相同 相同
- 更好
- 好很多

3

你愿意支付更多或更少的钱买这个国家/地区的咖啡吗？请提供一个对这个问题的回答。

- 少得多
- 少一点儿
- 相同
- 多
- 很多

去咖啡馆时

4

你多久去一次咖啡厅/店?

- 少于一周一次
- 一周一次
- 一周超过一次
- 一天一次
- 一天超过一次

5

你为什么光顾咖啡厅/店?

- 打包带走
- 独自放松
- 为了音乐和氛围
- 见朋友
- 商务会议
- 做一些工作
- 学习
- 去约会
- 为了蛋糕，饼干和其他点心
- 买品牌商品，咖啡杯，热水瓶和其他东西
- 买咖啡豆或其他咖啡产品带回家
- 其它

6

你在咖啡厅/店平均支付多少钱来买咖啡饮料?

- 0-5 元
- 6-10 元
- 11-15 元
- 16-20 元
- 21-25 元
- 26-30 元
- 31-35 元

- ○ 36-40 元
- ○ 40 元或更多

7

你认为咖啡厅/店的咖啡贵吗?

- ○ 是
- ○ 否

8

当你去咖啡厅/店喝咖啡时，你有没有问过服务员他们的咖啡来自哪个国家/地区?

- ○ 是
- ○ 否

9

当你在咖啡厅/店里看到以下国家的咖啡时，请对他们的咖啡质量打分。1 分是很糟糕，10 分是非常好。在你打分之前你不需要去尝这些咖啡。重要的是，你提供答案。

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
越南	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
印度尼西亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
巴西	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
哥伦比亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
埃塞俄比亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
意大利	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
比利时	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
印度	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
德国	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
美国	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
肯尼亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
牙买加	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
澳大利亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

10

当你在咖啡厅/店里看到名单上同样的国家时，你会花多少钱去买咖啡? 1 分意味着很少，10 分意味着很多。重要的是，请你尽可能多地提供答案。

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
越南	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
印度尼西亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
巴西	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
哥伦比亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
埃塞俄比亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
意大利	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
比利时	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
印度	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
德国	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
美国	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
肯尼亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
牙买加	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
澳大利亚	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

11

你怎么看待咖啡厅/店里的出产于中国云南的咖啡质量? 1 分是很糟糕，10 分是非常好。请给出一个答案。

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
中国云南的咖啡	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

12

你希望花多少钱来支付在咖啡厅/店的中国云南的咖啡? 1 分意味着很少，10 分意味着很多。请提供一个答案。

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
中国云南的咖啡	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

13

以下是有机农业的定义:

有机农业是一种能维护土壤、生态系统和人类 健康的生产体系，她遵从当地的生态节律、生物多样性和自然循环，而不依赖会带来不利影响的投入物质。有机农业是 传统农业、创新思维和科学技术的结合，她有利于保护我们所共享的生存环境，也有利于促进包括人类在内的自然界的公平与和谐共生。

咖啡厅/店是否提供有机咖啡，对你来说重要不重要？1 意味着它不重要, 5 意味着它是非常重要的。请提供问题的答案。

	1	2	3	4	5
有机?	○	○	○	○	○

速溶咖啡

14

你有时喝速溶咖啡吗?

- ○ 是
- ○ 否

15

你多久喝一次速溶咖啡?

- ○ 一周少于一次
- ○ 一周一次
- ○ 一周超过一次
- ○ 一天一次
- ○ 一天超过一次

16

你通常购买相同的品牌还是会尝试不同品牌的速溶咖啡?

- ○ 是的，我通常买相同的品牌
- ○ 不是，我通常购买不同的品牌

17

你怎样选择购买速溶咖啡? 买多少? 你购买的决定因素是什么? 1 意味着它不重要，5 意味着它是非常重要的。请提供问题的答案。

	1	2	3	4	5
价格?	○	○	○	○	○
哪个国家/地区的咖啡?	○	○	○	○	○
是什么品牌?	○	○	○	○	○

18

让我们再来看看有机农业的定义：

有机农业是一种能维护土壤、生态系统和人类健康的生产体系，她遵从当地的生态节律、生物多样性和自然循环，而不 依赖会带来不利影响的投入物质。有机农业是传统农业、创新思维和科学技术的结合，她有利于保护我们所共享的生存环境，也有利于促进包括人类在内的自然界的 公平与和谐共生。

如果你可以辨认出有机咖啡，那么你购买有机速溶咖啡的决定因素是什么? 1 意味着它不重要，5 意味着它是非常重要的。请提供问题的答案。

	1	2	3	4	5
有机?	○	○	○	○	○

19

你认为中国云南的速溶咖啡的质量好不好? 1 分是很糟糕，10 分是非常好。请提供一个这个问题的回答。

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
质量?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

20

你怎样看待中国云南的速溶咖啡的价格? 1 分意味着廉价，10 分意味着昂贵。请提供一个对这个问题的回答。

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

价格?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

21

你认为其它国家的速溶咖啡的质量比中国云南的好吗?

- ○ 是
- ○ 否

22

一般来说，你认为质量是更好还是更差?

- ○ 更好
- ○ 更糟

家里的咖啡机

23

你家里有咖啡机吗?

- ○ 是
- ○ 否

24

当你买自己的咖啡机所使用的咖啡时，买哪国的咖啡重要不重要？

- ○ 是
- ○ 否

25

你认为当你买自己的咖啡机所使用的咖啡时，产自其它国家的咖啡质量比中国云南的更好吗？

- 是
- 否

26

一般来说，你认为质量是更好还是更差?

- 更好
- 更糟

个人信息

这是最后一部分的调查，问题涉及到你的背景和个人信息。你在这里提供了回答，意味着将允许我与其他人进行比较。我知道这是比较敏感的问题，只是想再次向你保证，你的答案会保持匿名。谢谢您的合作。

27

性别?

- 女
- 男

28

你是哪一年出生的?

- 1950 年以及之前的
- 1951 - 1964
- 1965 - 1969
- 1970 - 1973
- 1974 - 1979
- 1980 - 1984
- 1985 - 1989
- 1990 - 1994
- 1995 年及以后

29

你会怎么描述你的家庭经济状况?

- 贫穷的
- 低于中等水平
- 中等
- 高于中等水平
- 富裕的

30

你的最高学历是什么?

- 初中或以下
- 高中
- 大专、大学本
- 硕士研究生
- 博士研究生

31

你从哪里来?

- 云南省 云南省
- 其它省/地区 其它省/地区

再一次感谢您花时间来完成我的在线调查。如果你注意到任何需要更正的地方，请在[redacted]@student.lu.se 与我联系。

Appendix 5 – Survey questions and answers (English translation)

Welcome!

I am a Swedish Master student currently living in Kunming. By participating in this online-survey you are helping me with my master thesis. The survey will ask you questions about coffee and your opinion about coffee related issues. Answering them should not take more than five minutes and I will treat all responses confidentially and only use the information in my thesis. With this in mind please make sure to answer every question since your responses are very important to me.

One more thing, this survey is only intended to be answered by Chinese people that drink coffee. If you do not fulfill these two criteria I kindly ask you not to take part.

If anything is wrong with the survey or if you notice something else that needs to be corrected please contact me at [redacted]@student.lu.se.

Thank you very much for your time and support. Please start with the survey now by clicking on the [Next>>] button below.

There are 31 questions in this survey

Introduction

1

Please choose the country/region that first comes to mind when you hear the word coffee.

- United Arab Emirates (AE)
- Albania (AL)
- Armenia (AM)
- Angola (AO)
- Argentina (AR)
- Austria (AT)
- Australia (AU)
- Bosnia and Herzegovina (BA)
- Belgium (BE)
- Burkina Faso (BF)
- Bulgaria (BG)
- Bahrain (BH)
- Burundi (BI)
- Benin (BJ)
- Bolivia (BO)
- Brazil (BR)
- Belarus (BY)
- Belize (BZ)
- Canada (CA)
- Congo - Kinshasa (CD)
- Central African Republic (CF)
- Congo - Brazzaville (CG)
- Switzerland (CH)
- Côte d’Ivoire (CI)
- Chile (CL)
- Cameroon (CM)
- China (CN)
- Colombia (CO)
- Costa Rica (CR)
- Cuba (CU)
- Cyprus (CY)
- Czech Republic (CZ)
- Germany (DE)
- Djibouti (DJ)
- Denmark (DK)
- Dominican Republic (DO)
- Ecuador (EC)
- Estonia (EE)
- Egypt (EG)
- Spain (ES)
- Ethiopia (ET)
- Fiji (FJ)
- France (FR)
- Gabon (GA)
- United Kingdom (GB)
- Georgia (GE)
- Ghana (GH)
- Guinea (GN)
- Equatorial Guinea (GQ)
- Greece (GR)
- Guatemala (GT)
- Guinea-Bissau (GW)
- Guyana (GY)

- o Hong Kong SAR China (HK)
- o Honduras (HN)
- o Croatia (HR)
- o Haiti (HT)
- o Hungary (HU)
- o Indonesia (ID)
- o Ireland (IE)
- o Israel (IL)
- o India (IN)
- o Iran (IR)
- o Italy (IT)
- o Jamaica (JM)
- o Jordan (JO)
- o Japan (JP)
- o Kenya (KE)
- o Kyrgyzstan (KG)
- o South Korea (KR)
- o Kuwait (KW)
- o Kazakhstan (KZ)
- o Laos (LA)
- o Lebanon (LB)
- o Sri Lanka (LK)
- o Liberia (LR)
- o Lithuania (LT)
- o Luxembourg (LU)
- o Latvia (LV)
- o Morocco (MA)
- o Madagascar (MG)
- o Macedonia (MK)
- o Mali (ML)
- o Myanmar [Burma] (MM)
- o Malawi (MW)
- o Mexico (MX)
- o Malaysia (MY)
- o Nigeria (NG)
- o Nicaragua (NI)
- o Netherlands (NL)
- o Norway (NO)
- o Nepal (NP)
- o New Zealand (NZ)
- o Oman (OM)
- o Panama (PA)
- o Peru (PE)
- o Papua New Guinea (PG)
- o Philippines (PH)
- o Poland (PL)
- o Puerto Rico (PR)
- o Portugal (PT)
- o Paraguay (PY)
- o Qatar (QA)
- o Romania (RO)
- o Serbia (RS)
- o Russia (RU)
- o Rwanda (RW)
- o Saudi Arabia (SA)
- o Sweden (SE)
- o Singapore (SG)
- o Slovenia (SI)
- o Slovakia (SK)
- o Sierra Leone (SL)
- o Senegal (SN)
- o Suriname (SR)
- o El Salvador (SV)
- o Syria (SY)
- o Swaziland (SZ)
- o Togo (TG)
- o Thailand (TH)
- o Timor-Leste (TL)
- o Tunisia (TN)
- o Turkey (TR)
- o Trinidad and Tobago (TT)
- o Taiwan (TW)
- o Tanzania (TZ)
- o Ukraine (UA)
- o Uganda (UG)
- o United States (US)
- o Venezuela (VE)
- o Vietnam (VN)
- o Yemen (YE)
- o South Africa (ZA)
- o Zambia (ZM)
- o Zimbabwe (ZW))

2

When you think about coffee from the country/region you just selected in the first question, do you think that the quality of this coffee is better or worse? It does not matter if you have not tried this coffee before yourself. Please answer the question anyway.

- o Much worse
- o Worse
- o Same
- o Better
- o Much better

3

Would you be prepared to pay more or less money for coffee from this country/region? Please provide an answer to the question.

- o Much less
- o Less
- o Same

- More
- Much more

Visiting coffee shops and cafés

4

How often do you visit coffee shops and cafés?

- Less than once a week
- Once a week
- More than once a week
- Once a day
- More than once a day

5

Why do you visit coffee shops and cafés?

- To get a take away
- To hang out/relax alone
- For the music and ambiance
- See friends
- Business meeting
- Do some work
- To study
- To go on a date
- Because of the cakes, cookies and other pastries
- To buy branded wares - coffee mugs, thermoses and other things
- To buy coffee beans, ground coffee or other coffee products to take home
- Other

6

On average, how much do you pay for your coffee drink at a coffee shop or café?

- 0-5 RMB
- 6-10 RMB
- 11-15 RMB
- 16-20 RMB
- 21-25 RMB

- 26-30 RMB
- 31-35 RMB
- 36-40 RMB
- 40 RMB or more

7

Do you think coffee drinks are expensive at coffee shops and cafés?

- Yes
- No

8

When visiting coffee shops and cafés. Have you ever asked from what country the coffee comes from?

- Yes
- No

9

For the following list of countries, please rate how good or bad the quality of that country's coffee is when found in a coffee shop or café. 1 is very bad and 10 is very good. You do not have to have tried coffee from a certain country before to have an opinion. It is important that you provide an answer to as many countries as possible.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Vietnam	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Indonesia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Brazil	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Colombia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ethiopia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Italy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Belgium	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
India	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Germany	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
USA	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Kenya	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jamaica	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Australia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

10

For the same list of countries. How much would you expect to pay for coffee from a certain country when found in a coffee shop or café? 1 means a little and 10 means a lot. It is important that you provide an answer to as many countries as possible.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Vietnam	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Indonesia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Brazil	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Colombia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ethiopia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Italy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Belgium	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
India	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Germany	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
USA	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Kenya	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jamaica	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Australia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

11

What do you think about the quality of Chinese (Yunnan) coffee in coffee shops and cafés? 1 is very bad and 10 is very good. Please provide an answer.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Chinese (Yunnan) coffee	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

12

How much would you expect to pay for Chinese (Yunnan) coffee in coffee shops and cafés? 1 means a little and 10 means a lot. Please provide an answer.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Chinese (Yunnan) coffee	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

13

This is the definition of organic agriculture:

Organic agriculture is a production system that sustains the health of soils, ecosystems and people. It relies on ecological processes, biodiversity and cycles adapted to local conditions, rather than the use of inputs with adverse effects. Organic agriculture combines tradition, innovation and science to benefit the shared environment and promote fair relationships and a good quality of life for all involved.

Does it matter to you if coffee served at coffee shops or cafés is organic? 1 means that it does not matter and 5 means that it is very important. Please provide an answer to the question.

	1	2	3	4	5
Organic?	○	○	○	○	○

Instant coffee

14

Do you sometimes drink instant/soluble coffee?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

15

How often do you drink instant/soluble coffee?

- ○ Less than once a week
- ○ Once a week
- ○ More than once a week
- ○ Once a day
- ○ More than once a day

16

Do you usually buy the same brand of instant/soluble coffee or buy different ones?

- ○ Yes, I usually buy the same brand
- ○ No, I usually buy different brands

17

When you choose what instant/soluble coffee to buy, how much do these factors influence your buying decision? 1 means that it does not matter and 5 means that it is very important. Please provide answers to the questions.

	1	2	3	4	5
Price?	○	○	○	○	○
What country/area the coffee comes from?	○	○	○	○	○
Brand?	○	○	○	○	○

18

This is the definition of organic agriculture:

Organic agriculture is a production system that sustains the health of soils, ecosystems and people. It relies on ecological processes, biodiversity and cycles adapted to local conditions, rather than the use of inputs with adverse effects. Organic agriculture combines tradition, innovation and science to benefit the shared environment and promote fair relationships and a good quality of life for all involved.

If you could tell whether a coffee is organic or not, how would that influence your buying decision when choosing what instant/soluble coffee to buy? 1 means that it does not matter and 5 means that it is very important. Please provide an answer to the question.

	1	2	3	4	5
Organic?	○	○	○	○	○

19

What do you think of the quality of instant/soluble coffee from China (Yunnan)? 1 is very bad and 10 is very good. Please provide an answer to the question.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Quality?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

20

What do you think about the price of Chinese (Yunnan) instant coffee? 1 means cheap and 10 means expensive. Please provide an answer to the question.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Price?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

21

Do you think instant/soluble coffee that originates from another country has a different quality than Chinese (Yunnan) coffee?

- Yes
- No

22

Generally speaking, do you think the quality is better or worse?

- Better
- Worse

Coffee machines at home

23

Do you have a coffee machine at home?

- Yes
- No

24

When you buy coffee for your coffee machine does it matter from what country the coffee originates from?

- Yes
- No

25

Do you think coffee you buy for your coffee machine that originate from another country have a different quality than Chinese (Yunnan) coffee?

- Yes
- No

26

Generally speaking, do you think the quality is better or worse?

- Better
- Worse

Personal information

This is the last section of the survey and the questions refer to your background and personal information. The responses you provide here will allow me to compare groups of people. I am aware of the sensitivity of the questions and just want to once again assure you that your answers will remain anonymous. Thank you for your cooperation.

27

Gender?

- 女
- 男

28

What year were you born?

- 1950 or before
- 1951 - 1964
- 1965 - 1969
- 1970 - 1973
- 1974 - 1979
- 1980 - 1984
- 1985 - 1989
- 1990 - 1994
- 1995 or after

29

How would you describe your household's economic status?

- Poor

- Below average
- Average
- Above average
- Affluent

30

What is your highest educational qualification?

- Junior high or below
- High school
- College, undergraduate
- Graduate
- PhD

31

Where are you from?

- Yunnan province
- Other

Once again, thank you for taking the time to answer my online survey. If you noticed anything that you think should be corrected please contact me at [redacted]@student.lu.se.。
