University
of Stavanger

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES,
NORWEGIAN SCHOOL OF HOTEL MANAGEMENT

MASTER'S THESIS

STUDY PROGRAM:	THESIS IS WRITTEN IN THE FOLLOWING SPECIALIZATION/SUBJECT:
International Hospitality Management	Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors in Norway IS THE ASSIGNMENT CONFIDENTIAL? No

TITLE:
Attracting Chinese Tourists to Norwegian Retailers

AUTHOR		ADVISOR:
Student number	Name:	Mona Anita Kristiansen Olsen
250988	Fei Huang	
251454	Jingjing Li	

Acknowledgement

This thesis documents the end of our Master journeys in International Hospitality Management at the University of Stavanger (UiS). Learning and equipping ourselves with new knowledge is a slow process and we are grateful for all the teachers who have taught us valuable things, much more beyond the knowledge on the books.

Meanwhile, we would also like to express our gratitude to our supervisor, Mona Anita Kristiansen Olsen, who has been helpful and provided important guidance during this whole process.

We would also thank Anette Øfsti Worum, the manager at AMFI Madla, for supporting our research.

Finally, our heartfelt thanks go to our families and friends for supporting our work. The whole process has been challenging, and without their support and encouragement, we could not have come this far.

We have surely learned and gained valuable experiences throughout this journey!

Abstract

In today's economy, traditional brick-and-mortar retailers are facing a set of challenges. On the other hand, the tourism industry has given great impact on the retail industry as shopping is one of the major activities during a trip. This is particularly so during outbound trips, as previous studies indicate that international tourists spend much more money on shopping.

China is leading the outbound tourism market in the world both in tourists' numbers and travel expenditure. Under this circumstance, like all other destinations, Norway's tourism industry is also benefiting from the enormous number of Chinese tourists. Previous research has mostly studied outbound Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors in those traditional tourism destinations, however, very limited research so far has interpreted such shopping behaviors in Norway. Hence, the goal of this study is to fill this knowledge gap and further explore how Norwegian retail industry can align its strategies toward Chinese tourists.

An online survey questionnaire with open-ended questions was conducted and a combination of convenience sampling method and snowball sampling method was employed in this study. A total of 49 respondents participated in the survey and the collected data was interpreted by thematic analysis.

Building on the existing theories, this study demonstrates a series of Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors in Norway, and the main findings include Chinese culture is reflected in shopping behaviors, and practical goods with high quality and Norwegian unique features are the most popular items that Chinese tourists wish to purchase in Norway. A series of important factors were also found which can attract Chinese tourists into a store.

As a summary, a series of Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors and expectations are demonstrated. This study shows that overall, Chinese tourists are satisfied with their shopping experience in Norway, and for those who are planning to travel to Norway, they also show positive attitude towards shopping in this country. However, this study also finds that there is still a lack of marketing strategies for Norwegian retail industry to expand the target market. Specific marketing approaches are suggested. Finally, this study concludes with a discussion of implications for researchers and Norwegian retail practitioners.

KEYWORDS: tourism shopping, outbound Chinese tourist, shopping behaviors, shopping expectations, Norway

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

1. Introduction

1.1 Background and Motivation

Since 2014, China has become the world's largest and high-spending outbound tourism market (UNWTO, 2020a). In recent years, the number of guest nights of Chinese tourists has largely increased. Report shows that there are almost one million guest nights of Asian tourists in 2019, while 52% of them are guest nights of Chinese tourists (SSB, 2020a). Other data also shows that the peak season for Chinese tourists visiting Norway is from May to September, particularly from June to August. For instance, 55% of total guest nights of Chinese tourists happened in these three months last year (SSB, 2020b). In addition, a latest report illustrates that among all the international tourists, Chinese tourists spend much more money when they travel to Norway (E24, 2016).

Stavanger is one of the major tourist destinations in Norway. There are many scenic landmarks in this region, such as Lysefjord, beaches, museums and the most famous Pulpit Rock which is named by Lonely Planet as the world's most breathtaking viewing platform. With all these surrounding natures, Stavanger becomes the main transfer hub of all types of tourists, meanwhile, all the local businesses within this supply chain are also expecting to benefit from the tourism industry.

However, the local retail industry has not really benefited from the tourists' arrivals. AMFI Madla is the biggest shopping center in the city of Stavanger. There are over 80 stores and restaurants in this premises, and surrounded by the city's Convention Center, major hotels, as well as one of the city's most popular attractions: Swords in Rock. Nevertheless, as per conversation with the shopping center leader, AMFI Madla has not gained much business from tourists, including Chinese tourists. Although determining whether a customer is a tourist or not can be a challenge, but the facts can be measured from other aspects. According to its revenue reports from the last three years, the third quarter has always been the slowest season with the lowest revenue (see Table 1), however, the third quarter is the peak tourist season, which welcomes the largest number of tourists within a year. This indicates that the main market segment of this shopping center is the local consumers, and this also explains why this shopping center had the highest revenue in the fourth quarter, since the local customers spend more than ever during the Christmas season.

Table 1 - *Revenue Reports from AMFI Madla from 2017-2019*

Year \ Quarter	First Quarter	Second Quarter	Third Quarter	Fourth Quarter
2017	303,240,667	310,571,327	298,193,164	417,125,015
2018	304,515,060	320,115,913	308,677,378	431,121,737
2019	340,932,272	348,901,796	341,191,800	459,778,721

Note. All the revenue figures are in Norwegian Kroner

The increasingly intense competitions and challenges within the retail industry are urging AMFI Madla to expand its market into tourist segments and develop new marketing strategies toward this in order to sustain its economic gains. This plan from AMFI Madla's leading team is coping well with our research interests. Therefore, we structured our study framework and put our focus on Chinese tourists who have been discovered by many studies with comparatively higher consumption powers. Their shopping preferences and characterized behavior are widely studied by many researchers, however, such studies, particularly in relation to Norwegian market, are very limited. From this perspective, this study aims to fill this gap and further explore the possible marketing strategies that can have practical implications to the local retailers.

1.2 Research Question

What are outbound Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors and expectations in Norway? How can Norwegian retail industry become more attractive to Chinese tourists?

1.3 Research Method

Based on the nature of this study, a qualitative research methodology was employed, and primary data was collected from an online survey questionnaire which consisted of 28 questions. As a qualitative paper, the aim of this study is not to collect a large sample but rather to investigate the key topics in-depth.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Growth of Global Tourism

The tourism industry defines a person who travels as a visitor. The visitors are persons who travel outside their normal environment for leisure, business or other purposes, at which point the act of travelling becomes tourism. Tourism is the activities of people who travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment. Tourists are temporary visitors to a destination and will return to their permanent residencies after traveling (Paci, 1992). Furthermore, a tourist can be also described as a voluntary, temporary traveler, travelling in the expectation of pleasure from the novelty and change experienced on a relatively long and non-recurrent round-trip (Cohen, 1974).

Worth to mention, this study is progressing under a special period of time, when the Coronavirus (COVID-19) placed the world on lockdown, and the latest data from the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) shows that this pandemic has caused a 22% fall in international tourists arrivals during the first quarter of 2020, and this crisis could lead to an annual decline of between 60% and 80% when compared with 2019 figures (UNWTO, 2020b). Despite this unexpected outbreak, global tourism has been on the rise during recent decades. In 1950, there were only 25 million international tourist visits, however, this figure rose to 166 million in 1970 and 435 million in 1990. In 2018, global tourism hit record highs with 1.4 billion international tourist arrivals, and continuously grew 4% in 2019 to reach 1.5 billion (UNWTO, 2019).

2.2 Chinese Outbound Tourism

Research on outbound tourism in China began in the early 1980s and has passed through three stages (H. Q. Zhang & Heung, 2002). The first stage began in 1983, when the government allowed a limited number of organized tours to Hongkong and Macau. The second stage happened in 1990, when the government signed bilateral agreements with three Asian countries, including Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand. In 1997, the government signed its first bilateral agreements with non-Asian countries of Australia and New Zealand, which marked the third stage. Since then, Chinese outbound tourism has been regulated by the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system. This system is based on bilateral agreements between China and overseas destinations.

In recent years, the rapid growth of China's outbound tourism market has attracted tourist practitioners around the world. With the stable growth of Chinese economy, China has become the biggest source of global outbound tourism since 2013. According to the National Bureau of Statistics of China, the Chinese outbound tourism market grew from 5 million to 155 million tourists between 1995 and 2019, with an annual increase of 17% (NBSC, 2020).

This impressive growth can be related to the improvement of disposable income, leisure time availability as well as the simplified tourist visa requirements both in China and in many other hosting countries. Furthermore, researchers have also studied Chinese outbound tourists' motivation to explain this growth. The analysis of Chinese tourists' motivation toward visiting New Zealand indicates that general relaxation needs and intellectual/curiosity motives are the important factors for Chinese tourists to travel abroad (Mohsin, 2008). Moreover, Chinese tourists are more interested in increasing their knowledge by discovering new places and ideas. A study shows that Chinese tourists become very eager to acquire new knowledge through visiting other countries with different cultural backgrounds (Pan & Laws, 2001). Likewise, another study examines the competitiveness of overseas destinations where Chinese tourists may consider visiting and finds out that “safety” and “beautiful scenery” to be the most important attributes that Chinese respondents considered (S. S. Kim, Guo, & Agrusa, 2005). With the further economic development in China, Chinese outbound tourism is expected to expand significantly. The China Outbound Tourism Research Institute (COTRI) predicts that the total number of Chinese outbound trips will reach almost 400 million by 2030 (COTRI, 2020).

2.3 Retail Challenge

The development of E-commerce services and the diffusion of information technology have enabled new ways for consumers to interact with traditional brick and mortar retailers. For example, mobile devices have also changed the way customers search products and make payments (Grewal, Roggeveen, Compeau, & Levy, 2012). According to Statista, an estimated 3.33 billion people worldwide purchased goods online in 2017; in addition to that astounding statistic, global ‘e-retail sales’ are estimated to have reached $2.3 trillion dollars. The number of users is expected to reach 4.44 billion while the sales in the E-commerce market is predicted to hit approximately $4.48 trillion dollars by 2021(Statista, 2020a).

In Norway, customers are also choosing multichannel buying experiences. Statistics Norway reported in January 2020 that there was a 2% decrease in brick and mortar retail sales from November 2019 to December 2019, and the index was 1% decrease from July – September 2019 to October – December 2019, and 0.7% decrease from 2018 to 2019 (SSB, 2020c). Likewise, Statista reported online shoppers in Norway in 2019, and the data reveals that 49% of the consumers purchased clothes and sports goods online, while 30% of the consumers bought household goods and 23% of the consumers bought electronic equipment online (Statista, 2020d). Furthermore, the share of online shoppers that bought food and groceries online increased from 2% in 2007 to 13% in 2019 (Statista, 2020c). These statistical data indicate the fast growth of online shopping and the struggle of traditional brick and mortar retailers.

2.4 Tourism Shopping and Souvenir Products

The tourism industry has given great importance and substantial eco to the traditional brick and mortar retailers as shopping is one of the major activities during a trip (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Hsieh & Chang, 2006; Keown, 1989; Swanson & Horridge, 2004). The majority of the tourism product is intangible, people cannot stay and enjoy the intangible experience unlimited, but shopping for souvenirs can provide them an opportunity to experience the destination in a tangible way. The presence of a souvenir helps the tourist to "locate, define, and freeze in time a fleeting, transitory experience, and bring back to an ordinary experience something of the quality of an extraordinary experience" (Gordon, 1986). It tangibilizes the non-ordinary experience, and confirms the experience to themselves and others (Belk, 1997). Beside the memory for oneself, the presentation of gifts also allows the trip to be morally justified by the home community (N. Graburn, 1977). The souvenirs aim to vicariously experience the travel experiences to families and friends (MacCannell, 2013). Furthermore, souvenirs or handicrafts which are used as gifts for family or friends can also contribute to the satisfaction of tourists' psychological needs (Fodness, 1994). Souvenir includes a wide range of product lines, include but not limited to: figurines, art and craft, gemstones; jewelry ; leather goods; markers (e.g., plates, mugs, tea towels, and T-shirts) picture or symbol the place represented by the souvenir, antiques; collectibles; clothing; postcards; toys and local products such as foods and clothing (Asplet & Cooper, 2000; Gordon, 1986; Markwick, 2001; Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Therefore, traditional tourism products and tourist shopping are often associated with souvenir products.

Previous studies also indicate that shopping has become a determinant factor affecting travel destination choice and an important component of the overall travel experience. In some cases, shopping is the prime travel motivation that attracts tourists to destination countries where prices are generally lower (S. Kim & Littrell, 2001; Reisinger & Turner, 2002b; Timothy, 2005; Timothy & Butler, 1995). Research on tourism shopping defined two types of tourists on the basis of motivation theory and described them as shopping tourists and tourism shoppers. The first type consists of tourists with shopping as their primary reason for travelling while the second type consists of tourists who have other primary reasons for travelling but will include shopping as one kind of activities during their trip (Timothy, 2005)

Researchers have also acknowledged that a large component of the travel expenditures comes from shopping. For instance, some studies find that tourists often spend more money on shopping than other activities such as accommodation, transportation, dining or entertainment (Kent, Shock, & Snow, 1983; LeHew & Wesley, 2007; Reisinger & Turner, 2002b). Historically, shopping accounts for approximately one third of total tourist spend (Godbey & Graefe, 1991; Keown, 1989). In the main shopping destinations such as Hong Kong or Paris, shopping is found to be the main activity (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Heung & Qu, 1998; Mak, Tsang, & Cheung, 1999), and for the tourists travelling there, shopping can make up the largest share of total spending (Lawson, 1991).

Compared to domestic tourists, shopping is of greater importance to international tourists. The Travel Industry Association of America (2001) reported activities undertaken by tourists in the USA, 2000, and it showed that 33% of domestic tourists went shopping while 87% of international tourists did the shopping. Furthermore, shopping was the most important activity in both cases (Timothy, 2005). International tourists would spend much more money on goods or souvenirs which might not be available or affordable in the home country (Dimanche, 2003; Jansen-Verbeke, 1991; Timothy & Butler, 1995)

In practice, tourist destinations are developing more shopping facilities and options for tourists, not only because shopping is one of the primary travel motives, but also because it helps to improve the retail industry and to generate job opportunities within an economy (Hsieh & Chang, 2006; Kent et al., 1983; Timothy, 2005). Hence, tourism shopping represents a significant source of income for the local and national economies in the hosting countries (Hsieh & Chang, 2006; Wong & Law, 2003). Shopping also helps build a more favorable tourism image (Tosun, Temizkan, Timothy, & Fyall, 2007), and has an important role in the success of most tourist destinations (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006). In addition, shopping is becoming of increasing importance to tourism as it is an actual consumption of souvenirs purchased and a source of enjoyment and satisfaction (Tosun et al., 2007).

2.5 Tourists' Shopping Behavior

In a tourism context, liminal theory can be interpreted as an inversion of everyday life (N. H. Graburn, 2004). Hence, tourists' shopping behavior often differs from their normal pattern at home, because travel is a period of unordinary time that tourists spend in a destination away from their mundane everyday life (Belk, 1988; Brown, 1992; Littrell, Anderson, & Brown, 1993; Timothy & Butler, 1995; Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Moreover, tourists often have different shopping behaviors and preferences from local consumers, and this affects their choice of retail shopping location and other marketing mix preferences (Gordon, 1986).

Research on tourists' shopping behavior reveals that there are two forms of shopping value: utilitarian value and hedonic value. Utilitarian value results from some type of conscious pursuit of an intended shopping outcome, while hedonic value might be derived from non-purchase motives, for example, the pursuit of recreational experience, pure enjoyment and excitement (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Forsythe & Bailey, 1996). Hence, hedonic value is more subjective and personal, and is related to symbolic aspects of products rather than their concrete features (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Research also illustrates that distinct from convenience shoppers, recreational shoppers or leisure shoppers enjoy shopping as a leisure activity. They often look for an enjoyable atmosphere and quality products, the decoration of stores and variety of merchandise impacting their choices. They also spend longer time on trips, but they usually have no clear shop target (Korgaonkar & Bellenger, 1980).

Another study claims that tourist shopping is more hedonic than utilitarian as tourist shopping is a form of experiencing the place and interacting with the locals (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991). During travelling, tourists are attracted by shopping environment and ambience which are different from the shopping settings at their home, furthermore, they also look for pleasure and extraordinary experience, and seek opportunities to interact with the local people and become exposed to the local culture (Jones, 1999; Tosun et al., 2007).

Tourists may be driven by hedonic motives other than purchasing, such as self-gratification, learning about local traditions and new trends, and sensory stimulation (Tauber, 1972). Researchers also suggest that tourists may consider shopping for unneeded products as a leisure activity during travelling (Heung & Cheng, 2000). Therefore, retailers are suggested to use artistry, showmanship, and creative merchandising to meet the preference of this group of shoppers (Korgaonkar & Bellenger, 1980).

Meanwhile, other researchers reveal that tourists' utilitarian shopping behavior could also be observed. A number of studies indicate that function and use of handcrafts are rated as highly important criteria among tourists (Litirell et al., 1994; Slaybaugh, Littrell, & Farrell-Beck, 1990). A study also investigates key factors that influence tourists' shopping orientations for handcrafts, and the result showed that utilitarian shopping value has a significant influence on tourists' attitudes (Yu & Littrell, 2005).

As a summary of all many studies, researchers suggest that tourists' shopping behavior is utilitarian-oriented (shopping only for necessities); social obligated (shopping a gift for family or friends as a part of social and cultural obligation); value for money shopping (prices are lower in the travel destinations than their homes); self-indulging (indulging in luxury brands); destination related shopping (for instance shopping souvenirs) and extended leisure shopping (shopping as a leisure activity in the same way as at home but in a different place) (Jin, Moscardo, & Murphy, 2017).

A study further expands the understanding of the nature of tourist shopping behavior, and explains that it is a mixture of planned, impulsive and experiential consumption behavior (Meng & Xu, 2012). To those tourists who seek high level hedonic experiences, impulsive behavior plays a more significant role in tourists' shopping behavior. On the contrary, planned behavior will be more dominant in tourists' shopping behavior when tourists are more utilitarian-oriented and do not actively involve themselves in hedonic experiences. Tourists' overall travel satisfaction will also influence their shopping behavior. Those tourists who have high travel satisfaction may be more responsive to shopping stimuli, while tourists with low experience satisfaction may have more rational shopping behaviors.

In addition, studies suggest significant differences between Eastern and Western tourists' shopping behaviors. For instance, culture can be so important that it affects Japanese tourists' shopping propensity, as someone within a tourist's social network has the obligation to give a farewell gift while this tourist is also obligated to purchase a souvenir to reciprocate, in addition, the inter-relationship between tourists, tour operators and retailers are complex, as there exists certain rules on tourist shopping (Hobson & Christensen, 2001). Other studies also examines differences between tourists from different countries, with implications for motivation and travel-related activities (Armstrong, Mok, Go, & Chan, 1997; Iverson, 1997; Kozak, 2001; Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline, & Wang, 2011; Reisinger & Turner, 2002a). All these studies indicate that differences exist between expectation and satisfaction levels of different nationalities.

2.6 Chinese Tourist Shopping Behavior

When disposable income increases, Chinese tourists have more money to spend, which naturally leads to a growth in consumption. During 1995 to 2014, Chinese outbound travel expenditure rose from $3.69 billion to $19.15 billion, with an annual growth of 24.1%. Since then, China occupies the privileged position of the leading tourism outbound market in the world both in tourists' numbers and total travel expenditure. Over the last several years, tourists from China have been making the greatest impact in worldwide tourism. Reports from UNWTO demonstrates that in 2017, there were around 130 million outbound trips from China and Chinese tourists spent over $257.7 billion, while in 2018, the outbound trips increased to 150 million and the expenditure increased to $277.3 billion. In 2019, the outbound trips rose to 169 million and the expenditure was $262.1 billion (UNWTO, 2020a). The consumption by Chinese tourists are increasingly diversified, with top categories including accommodation, catering, transportation, local entertainment activities, etc, Meanwhile, shopping remains at the top of the total expenditure categories.

A large amount of research has been conducted in regard to tourists' shopping behavior for a long period of time, however, it is only in recent years that some researchers have started to study Chinese tourists' shopping behavior recently. A general review of the existing studies is presented here.

Some researchers pointed out that tourism shopping has become a particularly important activity for Chinese tourists, and they spend significantly more than tourists from other countries (Choi, Liu, Pang, & Chow, 2008; Pottinger, 2002; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005). The importance of shopping as a driver of destination choice in Chinese outbound travel was identified (Lehto, Cai, O'Leary, & Huan, 2004). Results indicated that travel purpose, travel style, age and gender are significant factors influencing shopping preferences and destination choice.

Researchers examined the basic shopping behavior model of Shanghai outbound tourists, and the result showed that outbound shopping was motivated by "utility", "gift-giving", "affection", "curiosity", "scarcity", "memory" and "culture" (Guo et al., 2009). Furthermore, quality, brand, shortage of specific goods in China's domestic market, the lower price of goods in the outbound market and the convenient payments in the destinations are important attributes that spark their shopping behaviors. This research also found impulsive shopping existed among the respondents, which again showed that these respondents seek hedonic shopping experience.

Researchers also interviewed Chinese tourists who visited the United States and explored their shopping behaviors (Xu & McGehee, 2012). The results revealed that Chinese tourists had various motivations to shop in the U.S, including a) gifts for friends and relatives; b) unique products (special souvenirs or high-quality products) and price differences; and c) make good use of travel time. Overall, Chinese tourists were satisfied with their shopping experience in the U.S., mainly due to high quality products, hospitable service and reasonable prices.

Likewise, 17 white-collar elites who have been travelling to Europe including Germany, Australia and UK were also interviewed, and the results suggested that Chinese tourists like to mainly purchase three categories of mass commodity – functional goods such as garments, alcohol or cosmetics, adornment goods such as jewelry and watch, and social gifts such as chocolate, perfume or small souvenirs, among which functional goods for practical use are the most popular (Zhu, Xu, & Jiang, 2016). The handicraft souvenirs were not found as the favorites of these respondents. The paper further concluded that the deeper "tourist gaze" of trust and brand admiration upon Western goods is a result of the long Chinese modernization process and is very much influenced by the global consumer culture.

As a summary, the existing researches are mainly studying Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors and experiences in traditional shopping destinations, such as Hongkong, the United States, France, New Zealand, Australia, etc, however, so far there is no literature studying such behaviors in Norway.

2.7 Summary

The above-mentioned studies have covered important categories to investigate tourists' shopping behavior, including

- who (domestic tourists or international tourists; Chinese tourists);

- what (purchased product)

- why (shopping motivation)

- where (tourism destination)

- how (shopping experience and behaviour)

- how much (shopping expenditure)

However, no existing research profiles Chinese tourists to Norway. Given the increase of the challenges the retail industry is confronting, and the increase of Chinese tourists as well as their consumption power, it is necessary for the Norwegian retail practitioners to extend their customer segment and pay very close attention to their marketing strategies toward Chinese tourists.

It is suggested that catering to tourists from different markets requires different approaches (Oppermann, 1997). Hence, the goal of this study is to explore Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors and expectations in Norway. As available information within this field is very limited, it is expected that this study will provide practical implication for the Norwegian retail practitioners.

3. Research Method

In this section, we lay out our research questions and research method that allows us to conduct our study.

3.1 Research Design

The strategy for designing and conducting studies varies depending on the orientation chosen for the research. Two different orientations towards research exist including qualitative and quantitative design. Qualitative data are soft data such as words, sentences, images or symbols while quantitative data are hard data and expressed precisely as numbers (Neuman, 2014).

The purpose of this study is to explore Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors and expectations in Norway as well as how the Norwegian retail industry can engage more with Chinese tourists. To meet this purpose, face-to-face interview was originally scheduled as it aims to gain a deep understanding of a specific organization or event, rather than a surface description of a large sample of a population, in addition, such interview receives a higher response rate, give support to the interviewers to go further into long and complex questionnaires. It also allows skilled interviewers to further engage the interviewers into a conversation based on the context (Neuman, 2014).

However, due to the spread of COVID-19, Norwegian government decided to close the border from March 15th, 2020 onwards (Government, 2020), thus, the designed face-to-face interviews had to be changed in order to continue the project without further delay. Instead, this study employed an online survey questionnaire, and the target population for this survey is the entire group of Chinese tourists who have travelled to Stavanger / Norway before or who plan to visit Stavanger / Norway in the future.

The attributes of online surveys have been widely described in the related literature, for instance, online surveys are cost and time efficient, convenient, accessible, flexible, more accurate and also provide quick results (Gurau, 2007; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006; Wilson & Laskey, 2003; Wright, 2005). In addition, online surveys also take advantage of the ability of the Internet to provide access to the target population during COVID-19.

3.2 Survey Questionnaire Design

The survey questionnaire was developed based on an extensive review of existing literature, and the research questions were broken down into several sub questions: What is the relationship between tourism and retail? What are Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors? What are their shopping preferences? What are their shopping experiences in Norway? Do Chinese tourists have interests in shopping in Norway if they plan to visit this country? What are their expectations? The questionnaire should contain a series of questions so that respondents could be asked about their behaviors, intentions, attitudes, preferences, experiences and demographic backgrounds. According to the survey research, the researchers can establish a clearer and more objective picture of how respondents' behaviors are and why (Lapan & Quartaroli, 2009). In addition, the questionnaire should be also designed as open-ended questions, as such questions will allow freedom of thought, and the responses can provide extra perspectives which are not anticipated by researchers. Open-ended questions tell respondents that their feedback is taken into account (Esuli & Sebastiani, 2010).

A pilot test was first conducted prior to implementation of the questionnaire. According to Neuman (2014), it is important to pilot test the questionnaire with a small set of respondents who are similar to those in the final survey. A group of four respondents were asked to participate in the pilot test for the purpose of checking whether the questions were clear, understandable and would not be misinterpreted. These four respondents are authors' friends who have travelled to Norway before. All respondents received an email from authors which included all the questions, and they replied to authors with their answers. In addition, they also shared their opinions and thoughts with authors, as well as the time that they used to answer. The purpose of obtaining their feedback on the questionnaire is to enhance its reliability as a research instrument. Feedback can also provide the authors with information about how well these four respondents understand the interview questions and whether their understanding is close to what the researcher intends or expects (Patton, 2015).

Finally, the whole survey questionnaire is bilingual, written in both English and Chinese. It consists of an introduction part, a "Thank You" ending, and 28 questions. Simple and clear language is used in the introduction part to mainly explain the topic and purpose of the survey. These 28 questions are all adapted into the tourism context to account for

Chinese tourists' shopping perceptions and preferences in Norway. The whole set of the questionnaire is attached (see appendix 7.1). This questionnaire involves open-ended and a few single choice questions, and collects the following categories of information:

1. Respondents' shopping attitudes
2. Respondents' travel information in Norway
3. Respondents' shopping information in Norway (for those who have travelled to Norway before)
4. Respondents' travel and shopping plan in Norway (for those respondents who are planning to visit Norway)
5. Respondents' demographic background

As shown above, different themes are mentioned in this survey questionnaire, such as questions regarding respondents' travel pattern and experience in Norway, further, it is of interest to explore respondents' shopping details, such as purchased item, payment method, shopping information acquisition, shopping preferences and experience. Another few questions are for those who are planning to travel to Norway, such as their travel plan, shopping plan and expectation, as well as perception of Norwegian shopping culture. Three questions about respondents' age, gender and occupation are listed at the end.

3.3 Measurements

The online survey platform was hosted by Epanel Online Survey (Epanel, 2000), and a self-administered questionnaire was used to increase anonymity (Neuman, 2014). The survey recruitment and the survey link were exclusively posted on Weibo through the author's personal Weibo account; copies of the survey were not provided in person nor via email. Weibo is a type of mini-blogging service used in China, including the Twitter-like functionality. In addition, Weibo users (nicknames are used instead of real names) can also buy and sell products, start polls, play games, monetary rewards by other users and paid subscriptions. According to the latest report, Monthly Active Users (MAUs) of Weibo were 497 million in September 2019, and mobile MAUs represented approximately 94% of total MAUs (Statista, 2020b).

The survey recruitment was in Chinese and in order to approach the target group, hashtags # Stavanger # Norway # spending the winter with you in Stavanger were used (see appendix 7.2). The last hashtag is a name of an online novel which is popular among young people in China, so using this as a hashtag could help to attract more attention.

If a respondent saw this recruitment on Weibo, and was willing to participate in the survey, he or she would click the survey link, fill in the questionnaire and submit. The questionnaire was estimated to be completed within 10 minutes. No monetary or non-monetary rewards were given to respondents.

3.4 Ethical Principles

Ethical questions arise in all stages of the research, and the protection of data through the whole process, from initial data collection to storage, is of great importance to ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of all research respondents (Allen & Roberts, 2010), hence, the questionnaire does not include any personal data. During the whole survey process, only authors' personal password-protected computers were used. As soon as the research project was finished, this online survey was deleted both on Weibo and Epanel website. In addition, ethical principles were also taken into consideration throughout the development of the questionnaire. Guided by (Bryman, 2016), the questionnaire is started with the wording which informs respondents about the purpose of the research, a guarantee of anonymity and the confidentiality of their responses, as well as authors' sincere appreciation for their time.

3.5 Sampling

In the literature, there is no specific statement on sample sizes for surveys with open-ended questionnaires. Instead, data saturation is recommended by (Weller et al., 2018) on which a sample size should rely. In other words, the sample size determination relies primarily on finding the point where little new information can be obtained. Hence, a target sample size was not predetermined in this study. However, it is suggested that the use of an "initial sample" and "stopping criterion" can determine the point of data saturation (Francis et al., 2010). Though this sampling method was developed for face-to-face theory-based interviews, the authors have decided to apply this method for this study and use an initial sample as ten as well as a stopping criterion as three consecutive respondents not eliciting a new theme.

This study employed a combined sampling strategy, which includes convenience sampling and snowball sampling. The convenience sampling approach was adopted as authors posted the survey recruitment on Weibo and it was open to the public, and strengths of such sampling is easy, cheap and quick to obtain (Neuman, 2014). Meanwhile, since not everyone in the target group has access to Weibo, weakness is also associated with such a method as samples may not be representative (Taherdoost, 2016). It is also pointed out that online surveys are limited in that not everyone has access to the internet (Gjestland, 1996). Self-selection bias is another limitation of online surveys, as there is a tendency of some individuals to respond to a survey recruitment post to participate in the survey, while others may ignore it, and hence leading to a systematic bias (Gurau, 2007; Wright, 2005). In addition, research also studies the usage patterns of Weibo and finds out that different ages or genders have shown distinctive preferences on the use of social media, for instance, women and young people are more likely to use Weibo (L. Zhang & Pentina, 2012).

In order to minimize the weakness of convenience sampling, the snowball sampling was also employed to gather desired samples. Authors' friends, who have travelled to Norway before, were asked to send the questionnaire link to someone who can be the target audience. This is to maximize the possibility that respondents from different ages can participate in the survey.

3.6 Data Collection

The survey recruitment was posted on March 30, 2020. In a qualitative study, it is likely to collect, analyze and interpret data simultaneously (Neuman, 2014). Meanwhile, as the authors need to determine the data saturation, hence, data collection was accompanied with data analysis and interpretation. Hence, the survey access was open for two weeks, however, this access would be closed earlier or later upon reaching the data saturation.

On April 8, which was ten days after posting the survey recruitment, the authors noticed that a data saturation was reached since the last three responses were not eliciting a new theme. As a result, there were 73 respondents who participated in this survey and 49 respondents completed the survey, hence, a 67% (49/73) response rate has been achieved. The available literature on online surveys shows widely varied response rates. This could be expected as Internet access changes in different times or different areas or may be due to the survey topic. However, most studies have revealed that lower response rates for online surveys are reported compared to traditional paper-and-pencil methods (Crawford, Couper, & Lamias, 2001; Fan & Yan, 2010; Handwerk, Carson, & Blackwell, 2000). Compared to the range that reported in a meta-analysis of online surveys (34–39%) (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000), the response rate achieved in this study is higher. This could be explained as people increase their level of confidence because of two aspects: the survey is totally anonymous, and respondents feel more comfortable providing open and honest feedback once anonymity is assured; on the other side, the author also showed her identification on Weibo – introducing that the two authors are

Master students in University of Stavanger. Both aspects positively impact response and completion rates, which are key to this response rate.

Most respondents chose to answer in Chinese, while a few answered in English. The translated version (from Chinese to English) have been discussed between two authors to assure that the translation is most accurate and objective.

During the data collection process, there was no missing data as the online survey required all questions to be answered (two sets of questions are designed for respondents who either have travelled to Norway or are planning to visit Norway). After the survey was closed, the authors collected all the data which are mainly free-text responses to open-ended questions. A summary list including questions and answers was generated, and this process was documented using Microsoft Excel form, meanwhile, each set of questions and answers was also created. These data are the groundwork for further data analysis.

3.7 Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted based on a thematic analysis of 49 responses. Thematic analysis is a search for themes which emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon (Daly, Kellehear, & Gliksman, 1997). It is also a method for identifying and interpreting patterns of meaning across qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Hence, the data analysis is also an interpretive approach, as the interpretive approach is making sense of respondents' accounts, so that the research is attempting to interpret their meaning (Mason, 2017).

Thematic analysis is not tied to a specific theoretical framework, hence, it has unique flexibility and can be used in a range of different ways. For instance, it can be used to answer a wide variety of research questions, such as perspectives, experiences or behaviors. In addition, thematic analysis can also handle all qualitative data, including data derived from the interaction with people (such as face-to-face interview); data generated by written responses (such as qualitative surveys); as well as data from social media (such as magazines or TV shows). Hence, thematic analysis is judged to be the most proper method for this study.

Furthermore, as guided by Braun and Clarke (2012), data analysis follows the six phases of thematic analysis which involve:

1) Familiarizing yourself with the data and identifying items of potential interest
2) Generating initial codes
3) Searching for themes
4) Reviewing potential themes
5) Defining and naming themes
6) Producing the report

Since the thematic analysis refers to codes and themes, it is necessary to examine the definition of a code and a theme. A code is a short or phrase which assigns a summative and salient attribute for a language-based or visual data (Saldaña, 2015). In this study, the authors started to read and get immersed in the data from the beginning of data collection, so a holistic impression could be obtained. The coding process involves recognizing an important moment and encoding it prior to interpretation (Boyatzis, 1998). In other words, the coding process is inductive and grounded in the data. Several codes may be merged into one if they express a similar meaning, and different codes with a logical relationship formed a meaning system. Several meaning systems under the same topic were concluded as a category. The themes emerged when several categories connected with each other in stating a meaning. Here a theme means a specific pattern of meaning found in the data (Joffe, 2012).

In this study, the survey questionnaire itself is also helpful with the theme development, as all these 28 questions are designed with certain initial themes. In this study, all the themes contain both manifest content and latent content, the latter process requires interpretation (Joffe, 2012).

During the whole process, the authors coded the data and developed the themes both manually and electronically. The collected data was coded with the aid of NVivo 12 software, though the data in this study was manageable. Using the NVivo 12 software can help the authors gain an overall impression of the whole data set which otherwise might be unduly influenced by the authors' memorable parts. Hence, carrying out coding electronically is to obtain more reliable results than doing it manually because human error can be ruled out (Welsh, 2002). When it came to theme development and interpretation, the authors decided to do them manually as these two parts in a qualitative study are more subjective and also depending on how the authors see and understand the data rather than a software tool.

An example of coding and theme development can be shown in Table 2. Initial codes are from the responses from two questions:

1. Where do you acquire the shopping related information? (the question is for respondents who have travelled to Norway before)

2. Where do you collect or search for your shopping information? (this question is for respondents who are planning to visit Norway)

This presented example is within the theme of “Source of shopping information”. With this theme, several other codes and categories emerged are not included in this table.

Table 2 - *Example of Code, Category and Theme from The Thematic Analysis of “Source of Shopping Information”*

<table>
<tr><th>Code</th><th>Category</th><th>Theme</th></tr>
<tr><td>Recommended by friends</td><td rowspan="2">Word of mouth</td><td rowspan="3">Shopping information acquisition</td></tr>
<tr><td>Recommended by people met during travel</td></tr>
<tr><td>Online search</td><td>Digital marketing</td></tr>
</table>

3.8 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are two major concerns in all measurements. Reliability means dependability or consistency, it can be defined as the same thing being repeated under the identical or similar conditions. Validity, on the other hand, suggests truthfulness and measures if a study has found out what it intended to find out, that is, how close it is with the result of the research project matches the reality (Neuman, 2014).

It is not possible to have perfect reliability and validity, however, they are ideals toward which all researchers strive. In this study, reliability firstly lies on the questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to be bilingual, including Chinese and English, so that the respondents could feel more comfortable with the language they like to use. Furthermore, the language translation was also reviewed and checked by English native speakers to ensure the meaning of the questionnaire was the same in both languages.

The level of reliability and validity was also increased during data analysis, as multiple coders were obtained by using the NVivo 12 software which can help capture the most essential information, so the research bias can be minimized.

Meanwhile, researchers must pay attention to the wording of the questions themselves to maximize reliability and validity (Somekh & Lewin, 2011). Hence, the survey questions were developed based on the related academic literature. Furthermore, a pilot test was conducted to ensure clarity, reliability and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire, and the questionnaire set was also reviewed and assessed by the supervisor, this is to measure whether the questionnaire is close to the research question and all questions are clear and would not lead to any confusion or misunderstanding. Through data analysis, all respondents answered questions in a direct and straightforward manner, which shows the questionnaire measures what it is supposed to measure. This also enhances the level of validity.

4. Results and Discussion

This chapter covers three sections: validation, main findings and discussion. First, the overall reliability and validity in this study will be discussed. Following is a presentation of the main findings based on the data analysis. Finally, the findings are further discussed, since data collection, analysis and interpretation occur simultaneously in qualitative research (Neuman, 2014). Findings are the results of the data analysis while discussions are the interpretation of the findings. Hence, in this study, the authors decide to combine the results and the discussion as these two are closely connected. As stated in the previous chapter, thematic analysis is used as the data analysis method. Thus, the results are reported and discussed based on themes and categories.

4.1 Demographic Profile of The Respondents

The demographic section of the survey questionnaire deals with the respondents' gender, age and occupation and all three questions are mandatory in order to explore the relationship between respondents' demographic backgrounds and their shopping behaviors. These demographic variables are chosen based on the related literature, because they would reveal the most useful information about respondents in relation to their opinions about the shopping behaviors in Norway. These information show that among all the 49 respondents, 57% are female respondents and 43% are male respondents. Younger and mid-aged people are overrepresented, for instance, 69% are between 41 and 50 years old, 18% are between 31 and 40 years old. 6% are in the range of 51-60 years, 4% are 18-30 years, and only 3% of the respondents are 61-70 years old. Such distribution is close to previous findings that women and young people are more active on Weibo (L. Zhang & Pentina, 2012). The overrepresentation of mid-aged people may be also a result of the snowball sampling.

In addition, with regard to occupation, the collected data shows that two are retirees and two are housewives. There are 12 respondents who only state they are employees without knowing which company or industry they are working for, hence, these 12 respondents are marked as employees only. There are also two respondents only stating they are managers without providing the company name, so here they are marked as managers. Table 3 below presents all the demographic details.

Table 3 – *Demographic Details*

Demographic Information		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	21	43
	Female	28	57
Age	18-30	2	4
	31-40	9	18
	41-50	34	70
	51-60	3	6
	61-70	1	2
Occupation	Employee	12	25
	Government Officer	8	16
	Self-employed	8	16
	Lawyer	6	12
	Doctor	5	10
	Teacher	3	6
	Housewife	2	4
	Manager	2	4
	Retiree	2	4
	Engineer	1	3

4.2 The Popularity of Shopping

The first question on the questionnaire is asking whether respondents will go shopping every time when travelling abroad, and the following question is asking whether shopping is one of the main activities. For the first question, one respondent answered "no" while another mentioned that normally he doesn't go shopping, all other 47 respondents answered "yes", which indicates that 96% of these respondents are tourist shoppers. Furthermore, these two respondents who answered "no" are both males.

As mentioned in literature review, shopping is one of the most important activities for tourists, particularly international tourists (Timothy, 2005; UNWTO, 2020c). This is truly reflected in this question, as 47 out of 49 respondents go shopping during every overseas trip. In addition, this result is also similar to the previous findings which show that women are more positive about shopping than men (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991; Timothy, 2005; Turner & Reisinger, 2001), as in this study, there are only two male respondents who claimed they are not tourist shoppers.

As the follow-up question, the second question is to find out whether these respondents put shopping as the priority, 18 respondents said "no", and some of them described as "not really", "I will go shopping, but it is not exactly the main activity", "I will drop by to buy something during travelling "; one respondent answered "maybe"; and the rest answered "yes". However, 61% of the respondents consider shopping as one of the key activities during a trip. This finding is also coping with the previous studies which demonstrate that shopping is particularly important for Chinese tourists (Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005).

Another few questions analyze how many respondents who have travelled to Norway before went shopping in Norway. Current studies already demonstrated that the world has been clustered into various segments by becoming shopping attractions for tourists (Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2012). For instance, Hawaii and Las Vegas in North America; Dubai in the Middle East; Paris and London in Europe; and Singapore in the Asia-Pacific have all become destinations associated with shopping tourism. As these two questions specifically focus on Norway as the travel destination, hence, the purpose is to find out that compared to those traditional tourist shopping destinations, what the Norwegian retail industry can do to attract Chinese tourist shoppers.

First, all respondents were asked whether they had travelled to Norway before (Question 5). If a respondent answered "Yes" to this question, then he/she would be assigned to a follow-up question to identify whether this respondent went shopping in Norway. Based on two different travelling patterns (Question 6), a group traveler was asked whether shopping was included in the group activities (Question 7), while an individual traveler was asked whether he/she spent some time on shopping (Question 8). The results show that among all respondents, 11 have travelled to Norway (group I) while the rest are planning to visit Norway in the near future (group II). Among these 11 respondents, three travelled with groups, and two of them mentioned that shopping was included in their group activities while one said "no"; eight respondents travelled individually and all of them said they went shopping. This result shows that the majority of the respondents spent money on shopping in Norway. Section 3 and 4 in this chapter will illustrate more details about Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors in Norway.

4.3 A Sociocultural Reflection

All the 49 respondents were asked whether they buy merchandise for themselves or on behalf of others, and two questions were set for this purpose, i.e., Question 3 and Question 21. For the former question, 43 respondents demonstrated that they buy merchandise both for themselves and on behalf of others, while only four respondents answered that they only go shopping for themselves. Furthermore, there is also one respondent indicating that he would only shop for his family, and one respondent mentioned he seldom goes shopping. The latter question is set for those respondents who are planning to visit Norway and the answers show a similar pattern. 25 respondents indicated that they would go shopping both for themselves and on behalf of others. There are five respondents who said they would only buy goods on behalf of family and friends, six respondents said they would go shopping only for themselves, and one respondent mentioned that she is not certain so far.

A third question was also designed to investigate how the Chinese culture affects tourists' shopping behavior. Question 4 is asking whether respondents would bring souvenirs as gifts for friends and family each time they travel. And the results show that totally 46 respondents said they would bring gifts to their family and friends every time after travelling. There are only two respondents who said "no" while one respondent claimed that "she was not sure".

These three questions revealed one Chinese sociocultural aspect of shopping: "guanxi"in Chinese which means "relationship". Many cultural researchers have proposed that Chinese culture is characterized by collectivism, which prioritizes collectivities over the individual (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Triandis, 2001). Among the various collectivities in society, the family is particularly prioritized in Chinese culture (Lai, 1995; Yang, 1988). In China, the family is largely understood through Confucian thought. In Confucian thinking, the family contains the most important relationships for individuals and provides them with a sense of identity and a strong network of support. Hence, an individual is closely connected with his/her family, and the family relationship is the most important aspect of an individual's life.

Friendship is usually given lower importance than family relationship, however, as part of the "guanxi" (relationship), an individual also values the friendship, as in Chinese culture, friendship means trust, reciprocity and liabilities (Farh, Tsui, Xin, & Cheng, 1998; Vanhonacker, 2004). Chinese people determine their identities with reference to others around them, therefore, an individual would employ group goals and beliefs as one's own in order to receive reciprocity and mutual benefit, as well as to maintain harmony within the group. This characteristic is commonly defined as group orientation as one of the Chinese cultural values (Mok & DeFranco, 2000). In the tourism context, contemporary Chinese tourists are still constrained in its "collective identities and communal affinities" (Winter, 2009). Impacted by Confucianism, Chinese people are socially oriented, respecting authority and the elderly, and also place an emphasis on interpersonal relationships (Cai, Li, & Knutson, 2008; Chow & Murphy, 2008; Mok & DeFranco, 2000). So, they follow the tradition of gift giving after traveling in order to maintain those interpersonal relationships, which stimulates their shopping demand.

The importance of relationships means the importance of interdependence, and the value of interdependence is particularly meaningful to the study of souvenir shopping as the purpose of gift giving (Yau, 1988). Influenced by Confucianism, Chinese people place an emphasis on interdependence, hence, Chinese tourists follow the tradition of gift giving after travelling so as to maintain the interpersonal relationships. Moreover, the souvenir that Chinese tourists purchase from a trip and would give to friends is a maintenance gift which is often used to show care, respect and build a network (Joy, 2001).

On the other side, shopping on others' behalf or shopping for family and friends can be explained as another social phenomenon, if an individual travels abroad, his/her friends could probably ask him/her to buy something on their behalf, as some products are much cheaper in other countries than in China due to the tax policies or currency exchange rate variance (Xie & Tveterås, 2020), or because some products are not available in China. In addition, the internet technology, especially the mobile technology, also promotes such a phenomenon as it provides a channel to communicate without seeing in person. Nowadays, when Chinese tourists explore big flagship stores, many young Chinese use digital tools such as Weibo and Wechat to communicate in real time with their domestic friends about shopping.

Hence, the findings suggest that cultural values and social relations in the home society exert influence on Chinese tourists' behaviors even though they are physically away from home, in other words, Chinese outbound tourism shopping exits in a unique sociocultural structure between the destination and home.

4.4 Shopping Behaviors in Norway

Two sets of questions are designed for group I respondents and group II respondents. The first set of questions investigates the respondents' shopping behaviors in Norway. Questions 9-18 are set for respondents from group I, and a variety of aspects are covered in these questions. First of all, these respondents were asked about travel experience in Norway, and then they were asked about the purchased merchandise, shopping purpose, the time to decide to go shopping, shopping expenditure, payment method, shopping venue, attractive factors, the way to obtain shopping information and overall shopping experience in Norway. Table 4 below presents the detailed answers.

Table 4 - *Survey Questions and Answers – 11 Respondents in Group I*

Questions	Results										
	Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3	Respondent 4	Respondent 5	Respondent 6	Respondent 7	Respondent 8	Respondent 9	Respondent 10	Respondent 11
In general, how is your travel experience in Norway?	Very nice	Friendly people and peaceful environmen t	Good travel experience	Very good	Good nature conservatio n	Very good	Very nice	Wonderful	It is ok	Very good	Nice
How is your shopping experience in Norway? Why do you have such feelings?	Good shopping experience. Reasonable price and good quality	Cheap price, good quality	Good shopping experience. Reasonable price	Quite good experience. Quality is very good, and there is no big price differentials .	Good shopping experience	Feel comfortable when shopping. No sales will disturb you.	Very good shopping experience. Nice atmosphere, sales are friendly, varieties of goods, good service and facilities…	Good use effect	No experience	Very nice. I have a feeling of freshness	Good experience. There are varieties of goods
What was your purpose for shopping? Why would you shop in Norway?	Bring gifts to family and friends, they can also keep travel memories. Shopping is a necessary activity during travelling.	They are safe to use	To keep the travel memories	Reasonable price with good quality. Goods are also Norwegian style	I just buy as I wish	I will buy attractive goods	I will buy anything that attracts me	They are suitable to use		Just to spend money, and also for memories	Cheap
When did you decide to go shopping? (planned or impulsive shopping behavior)	No plan. All impulsive shopping	Plan	Impulsive	Both	Impulsive	Both	Both	Plan		Plan	Plan
How much did you spend on shopping during your visit?	¥3000	*Didn't provide*	¥3500	¥5000-10000	¥2000	No limits	At least ¥5000 per person	Within ¥7000		¥5000	¥50000
What was your payment method?	Visa	Credit card	Cash	Both credit card and debit card	Credit card	Credit card	Credit card	Credit card		Cash	Credit card
Where did you mostly shop?	Not certain	Shopping center	Supermarke t and shopping center	Shopping center and street stores	Street stores	Shopping center and street stores	Mostly in shopping center	Both in shopping center and street stores		City center, but also went shopping in other stores	Shopping center
What factors do you think are most important that can attract you to a brick and mortar store during your trip?	Shops with Norwegian feature	Visual effects and online promoting	Window decoration	Shop decoration; brand; recommend ation by friend	Promotion	Shopping based on the plan. I will also take a look if the shop display is unique	No special reason. I will walk around and buy what I need	Must have unique features		Local features	Bag
Where do you acquire the shopping related information?	Shop display	Suggested by friend, and also internet	From friends	Told by friends, and also someone I met during the trip	Shop display	Shop display, and also internet	Shop display, internet and friends' advise	Suggested by friends	Tour guide escort	Shop display	Shop display

Note. The money presented on the table are in CNY

4.4.1 Correlation between travel experience and shopping stimuli

Group I consists of 11 respondents, and all of them had a positive travel experience in Norway. Eight of them even used intensifying adverbs – “very” to describe their feelings, such as “Very nice”, “The nature conservation is very good”. With regard to the shopping experience, all of these respondents expressed their satisfaction with their shopping experiences in Norway. Varieties of answers were provided, and among which, reasonable price and good quality are frequently mentioned by these respondents. In addition, they also mentioned their satisfaction with the shopping environment, sales service, product categories and a feeling of freshness. Meanwhile, it should be also noticed that one respondent described his travel experience as “It is ok” and also mentioned that he didn't go shopping in Norway. “Ok” is a lukewarm word which lacks the more enthusiastic language, and often indirectly communicates evaluation about a non-positive experience (Bridges & Vásquez, 2018). This respondent (respondent 9 on Table 4) mentioned he was travelling to Norway with a group and shopping was part of the group activities. In addition, his answers show he would spend money on shopping when travelling abroad, but just didn't shop in Norway.

As mentioned in the literature review, tourists’ overall travel satisfaction influences their shopping behavior. Those tourists who have high travel satisfaction may be more responsive to shopping stimuli, while tourists with low experience satisfaction may have more rational shopping behaviors (Christiansen & Snepenger, 2002; Meng & Xu, 2012). In this study, the findings suggest that a same correlation exists between tourists’ travel experience and shopping stimuli.

4.4.2 Shopping categories

Question 10 is asking what type of goods that these respondents bought in Norway. The results show that 10 out of 11 respondents spent money on shopping in Norway, and they purchased varieties of products. Zhu et al. (2016) found that Chinese tourists bought three different categories in Europe, including functional goods, adornment goods and social gifts. Functional goods refer to merchandise with actual useful functions, such as garments, health products, etc. They are not for gift giving but rather for self-use or for family members; adornment goods mean the goods can be used for decoration or adornment in people’s lives, such as watches, cosmetics and jewelries; social gifts are gifts bought for friends. In this study, all the goods that these respondents bought in Norway are grouped into these three categories (see Table 5 below).

Table 5 - *A Summary List of Items Group I Respondents Bought in Norway*

No.	Functional Goods	Adornment Goods	Social Gifts
Respondent 1	Fish oil, Garments		Refrigerator stickers
Respondent 2	Health products		
Respondent 3		Decoration	
Respondent 4	Garments, Outdoor equipment		
Respondent 5	Health products		
Respondent 6	Traditional Norwegian goods		
Respondent 7	Food, garments, daily necessities and health products		
Respondent 8	Norwegian specialties		
Respondent 10	Garments, shoes, and health products		Souvenirs
Respondent 11		Cosmetics, luxury goods	

As the table shows, the majority of respondents bought functional goods in Norway, and this is mainly because of the practical value of the goods. Among all the functional goods, Norwegian health products and garments are the most popular items. This finding suggests that shopping provides tourists an opportunity to experience the destination in a tangible way.

Furthermore, unlike France or Italy which is famous for luxury brands, there is only one respondent who bought luxury goods in Norway. Also, only two respondents mentioned that they bought small souvenirs in Norway. However, the results of Question 4 show that all these 11 respondents would bring souvenirs to their family and friends, from this aspect, we assume the definition of souvenirs to Chinese tourists can be extended to a broader range. It can indicate many different types of products which Chinese tourists would buy for their family and friends, and such products include but not limited to traditional souvenir products as discussed in the literature review.

In addition, Question 11 examines the reason behind buying, the question asks why these respondents bought these goods in Norway. Among all these answers, the purpose of memorizing and the practical value of goods were mentioned four times respectively; shopping as a leisure activity was mentioned three times, cheap price and good quality were both mentioned two times; while the purpose of gift giving and the unique feature of goods were mentioned one time.

The findings suggest that Chinese tourists' shopping behavior is 1) destination related as purchased goods are meaning holders for memorizing the travel experience (Swanson & Timothy, 2012); 2) utilitarian oriented as they place an emphasis on the practical value of goods (Jin et al., 2017) ; 3) making good use of travel time as they consider shopping is a leisure activity (Xu & McGehee, 2012); 4) quality oriented as they consider good quality is one of the buying motivations; 5) value for money shopping as prices of the goods are cheaper in Norway than in China; 6) sociocultural influences as gift giving as part of social and cultural obligation; 7) authenticity oriented as Chinese tourist is interested in goods with Norwegian feature, which are typical or indigenous to the destination (Asplet & Cooper, 2000; Litirell et al., 1994).

In addition, it should be noticed that Chinese tourists are no longer only focusing on the luxury brands as they do in Paris or Milan, but rather they start to place an emphasis on functional and practical goods. This could be the reason which explains why these respondents bought most practical goods, as Norway doesn’t have too many luxury brands, instead most of Norwegian products are quite practical.

4.4.3 Planned or impulsive shopping behavior

Question 12 investigates whether the respondents’ shopping behavior is planned or impulsive. Among the 10 respondents who shopped in Norway, four mentioned they had planned for shopping, three answered that they went shopping without any plan, and they further described their behavior as “just shopping, no plan”; anther three claimed that they had a shopping plan before they came to Norway, and meanwhile, they also bought something which were not on the plan (see Table 4).

Previous study shows that tourists seeking high level hedonic experiences will have the impulsive behavior, meanwhile, when tourists are more utilitarian-oriented, they will have the planned behavior (Meng & Xu, 2012). In this study, the results show that the nature of tourist shopping behavior is a mixture of planned and impulsive one, which is in line with the previous findings.

4.4.4 Shopping attractions

Meanwhile, Question 15 investigates whether Chinese tourists would go to a shopping mall or a street store for shopping, and Question 16 is asking these respondents the most important factors that can attract them to a store. As Table 4 shows, five respondents chose to buy goods in a shopping mall, four respondents said they would go to both two shopping places while there is only one respondent who said she would go to the street stores. Furthermore, the results of Question 16 show that visual effect, store display or window decoration was mentioned four times, Norwegian unique feature was mentioned three times, promotion was mentioned two times, furthermore, brand, recommendation by friends, luxury bags as well as walk around and discover were mentioned one time respectively. For the respondents only with impulsive shopping behavior or with both two behaviors, most of them were attracted by store display.

The findings suggest that most Chinese tourists tend to buy Norwegian branded or globally branded goods which are available mostly in the shopping malls, and this shows that Chinese tourists have greater brand awareness as a result of globalization and they buy commodities with good quality to pursue a high quality of life as well as prestige and status (Mok & DeFranco, 2000), which also originates from the traditional Chinese collectivist culture.

The findings also reveal that no matter it is a big shopping mall or a small street store, most respondents would be attracted by an eye-catching window or store display, and Norwegian unique features could be one of the elements for the display. Apparently, such store displays are different from the shopping settings in China, which symbolizes the liminality between the mundane home and the sacred destination (N. H. Graburn, 2004). Hence, Chinese tourists' shopping behavior in Norway is a form of experiencing authenticity - the local culture. Although tourist shopping can be a leisure activity during a trip, it also provides a great opportunity for Chinese tourists to get exposed to the Norwegian culture. The more "local" the store display is, the more appealing they become to Chinese tourists. The authenticity perceived by Chinese tourists will be part of their travelling experience, hence, Chinese tourists' shopping experience in Norway will also influence their overall travelling experience.

4.4.5 Shopping expenditure

Two questions on the questionnaire are related to respondents' shopping expenditure. Question 13 is asking how much these respondents spent on shopping in Norway and question 14 investigates their payment methods.

Table 4 shows the lowest amount of money spent on shopping is ¥2000, while the largest shopping expenditure is ¥50,000. There is also one respondent indicating that "no limit", which can only tell that she may misunderstand the question, or she may just forget how much money she spent on shopping.

With regard to the payment method, all respondents used either cash or credit card. The previous studies illustrate that the choice of payment methods is closely related to tourists' shopping satisfaction (Guo et al., 2009; Heung & Cheng, 2000), and limited payment methods are negatively impacting the tourists' shopping experiences (Xu &

McGehee, 2012). With the development of the internet technology, the mobile payment in China has become increasingly popular in various consumption situations, and China is now turning into a cashless society (Lu, 2018). As the most popular mobile payments systems in China, Alipay and WeChat Pay are currently dominating this market, and furthermore, the market value of mobile payment is continuously increasing.

Moreover, Chinese outbound tourists' main way for payment is to use mobile payment due to the speed and convenience (Nielsen, 2017). On the other side, as China is leading the outbound tourism market, many countries have adopted China's mobile payment system to attract more Chinese tourists to consume. Previous study shows that Alipay has covered 54 countries and regions while Wechat Pay has covered 49 countries and regions (Chen, 2019).

In Norway, China's mobile payment system has not expanded yet, however, if Chinese tourists can use the mobile payment or China Union Pay during their trips in Norway in the near future (by using China Union Pay, Chinese tourists do not need to convert Chinese Yuan to Norwegian Krone), their shopping experience must be further enhanced.

4.4.6 Shopping information acquisition

Question 17 investigates the sources of shopping related information. Among these 11 respondents, store display was mentioned five times, recommendation by friends was mentioned three times, the Internet was mentioned two times, while tour guide escort was mentioned one time. Meanwhile, there is one respondent who said he had varieties of ways to obtain information.

Existing research showed that tourist information search behavior could be defined as a process where tourists make use of various amounts and types of information sources to facilitate trip planning (Fodness & Murray, 1997). The evidence obtained in this study suggest that these respondents acquired shopping related information both pre and during the trip. Before the trip, some respondents searched the information on the Internet or got the information from friends, while during the trip, some respondents got the information through store display or escorted by tour guides as shopping was included in the group activities. The findings are in line with previous studies which demonstrate that information search can be divided into internal and external search behavior (Hyde, 2008; Kerstetter & Cho, 2004; D.-Y. Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007). Internal information search is defined as the retrieval of information from memory while external information search on the other hand is the acquisition of destination-relevant information from the environment or marketplace (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995). In this study, recommendation by friends is the internal information search, while the other three, including store display, the Internet and tour guide escort are considered as the external information search.

Internal information search relies on memory, so if the respondent had travelled to Norway before, he/she could recall and sort out the useful information. In this study, none of the respondents relied on retrieval of memory, instead they obtained information from their friends. This finding emphasizes again on the traditional Word-of-mouth (WOM) marketing. WOM is an interpersonal communication about a product or service which the receiver considers is not commercial (Buttle, 1998). Meanwhile, it is more credible than advertising or a sales message, and is a critical element in purchase decisions (Bayus, 1985). On one hand, this finding suggests that the traditional WOM is trustworthy, as tourists are more easily to be inspired by friends than by other platforms (Duffy, 2015); on the other hand, the Internet as an information source is substantial and has a stronger impact on Chinese tourists (Sparks & Pan, 2009). However, in this study, only two respondents mentioned that the Internet was one of the ways they chose to obtain information, hence, it may also reveal that Norway, as a new travel destination for Chinese tourists (compared to other traditional destinations), its destination promotion focused on the retail industry is still weak and lacks effectiveness.

4.5 Shopping Expectations in Norway

The second set of questions is formed for group II respondents. Though their shopping behaviors in Norway are not happened yet, all these questions are designed to explore their shopping expectations, and the authors aim to discover some important factors that could have practical implications for Norwegian retail industry.

This set of questions involves questions 19-25 and looks further into the respondents' travel pattern if they travel to Norway, their shopping willingness, shopping budget, shopping information search, important factors which could attract them and their perceptions toward Norwegian shopping culture. Group II has 38 respondents, and the detailed questions and results are presented in the rest of this section.

4.5.1 Travel patterns

Question 9 investigates their travel patterns for the upcoming trip to Norway. The result shows 27 respondents would choose to travel individually while nine respondents would travel with a group. Previous study examined the propensity for long-haul travelers to Western Europe and identified three different clusters of travelers based on their profile and service expectations (Prayag, Cohen, & Yan, 2015). The result showed that compared to the other two clusters, the cluster with the modified independent travelers assigned high importance to shopping. In addition, the results of group I respondents show that group travelers' shopping behavior is different from individual travelers' behavior, as shopping is in most cases involved in the group activity, and the group travelers would probably shop in certain places. Furthermore, Language remains a barrier for Chinese tourists, mostly the senior tourists when travelling abroad (Li et al., 2011), hence, these tourists would prefer to travel with a group. As a result, their shopping behaviors will be also affected. For instance, advertising should have limited usage for this group of tourists, and communication with the salespeople would also become difficult. In fact, most Norwegian retailers do not have any Chinese version of advertisements, particularly the street stores. In Stavanger, Norwegian Outlet Stavanger is the only place that recognizes the trends and includes Chinese as one of the three foreign languages on their official website, and it caters mostly to Chinese group travelers. Compared to group travelers, individual travelers would master English, and they also have more flexible itineraries, which means they have the freedom to do their shopping whenever they become attracted by store display or online advertisements.

4.5.2 Shopping expectations

Questions 20-24 examine these respondents' shopping expectations. Question 20 is asking whether they expect to buy something in Norway and what to buy, 31 respondents expressed their willingness to shop in Norway, and the products they plan to buy vary from electronic products, watches, specialties, garments, cosmetics to souvenirs. Their budgets range from ¥3000 to ¥100,000. Furthermore, Question 23 investigates how they search shopping related information, 32 respondents mentioned that they would rely on the Internet.

The result of question 21 shows a same behavior pattern among all the 49 respondents (this question has been discussed in section 3 in this chapter), however, the results of question 20 and 23 differ from the results obtained from group I. In group I, those respondents mainly bought specialties, health products and garments in Norway, however, some respondents in group II mentioned they would buy electronic products and watches in Norway. In addition, with regard to the information search, the majority of group I respondents did not use the Internet for searching, however, in group II, 84% of respondents mentioned that they would search information on the Internet.

The gap between two sets of results suggest that Chinese tourists would only know Norway better after their travelling, and they may discover more attractive products during their visit, which they are not aware before the actual visit. Also, the shopping related information is limited on Chinese social media or travel websites. The screenshot shows such information on a Chinese Travel Agent's website after searching "shopping + Stavanger" on China's main search engine - Baidu (see Figure 1). There are only four specialties being mentioned as “local specialties”, which include moose sausage, handicrafts, salmon and fish can. For the shopping mall, only Stavanger Center is on the recommendation list. As a result, Chinese tourists would not get much useful and detailed information on the Internet when they plan the trip, on the contrary, they would only discover after they arrive at Stavanger, or they could also rely on friends’ recommendation if their friends have visited Stavanger before.

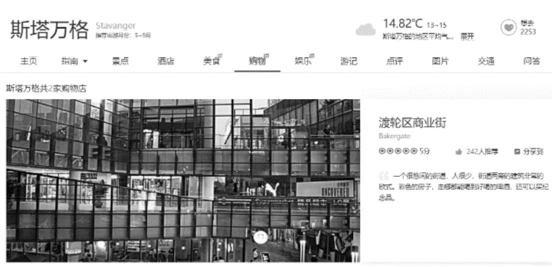
Figure 1 - *Search Results for "Shopping + Stavanger" showed on Baidu*

Local specialties: moose sausage

Local specialties: handcrafts

Local specialties: fish can

Local specialties: salmon



Downtown Shopping Street

Note. Website link: https://www.tuniu.com/g1174629/shopping-0-0/

The shortage of shopping related information is again proved by the result of question 25. This question is asking the respondents whether they have perception towards Norwegian shopping culture, and the result shows none of the respondents know this. Compared to traditional destinations for Chinese outbound tourism, Norwegian retailers' information is very limited. Hence, we suggest that the Norwegian retail industry needs to collaborate with the Norwegian tourism industry for more market exposure.

4.5.3 Shopping attractions

A same question was designed for group II to analyze what factors could attract the respondents into a store. The result shows 16 respondents chose Norwegian specialties, followed by price and store environment as each factor was mentioned by six respondents. In addition, four respondents considered going to a store if they can find something they need. Furthermore, store display, culture, goods that are not available in China, sales service, quality of goods, attractive advertisement, promotion, varieties of goods, brand, shopping center scale and Chinese language service were also mentioned by respondents. In this study, different factors are categorized into a cluster if they have the same meaning. Table 6 shows the factors and clusters.

Table 6 - *A Summary list of Shopping Attractions – Group II Respondents*

Factor	Cluster
Norwegian specialties	Norwegian unique features
Culture	
Store display	
Price	Price
Promotion / Attractive advertisement	
Store environment	In-store environment
Sales service	
Chinese language service	
Goods are not available in China	Product selection
The store has something I need	
Quality of goods	
varieties of goods	
brand	

Compared to the results of group I and group II, it is clear that Norwegian unique features are most attractive to both two groups, and this again demonstrates that the authenticity in relation to the local area would be perceived or expected as the key element in purchasing pursuits (Littrell et al., 1993).

With regard to the factor – price and promotion, the finding suggests that Chinese tourists' shopping behavior will be also influenced by price. However, as discussed in the previous section, Chinese tourists could only find very limited shopping related information from available online platforms, along with all related campaigns or promotions. From this aspect, the strategies and actions done by the Norwegian retail industry to engage Chinese tourists are quite insufficient. Hence, this paper would suggest that Norwegian retail industry could focus on the Chinese digital social media or travel websites for advertisements or online campaigns with both English and Chinese languages.

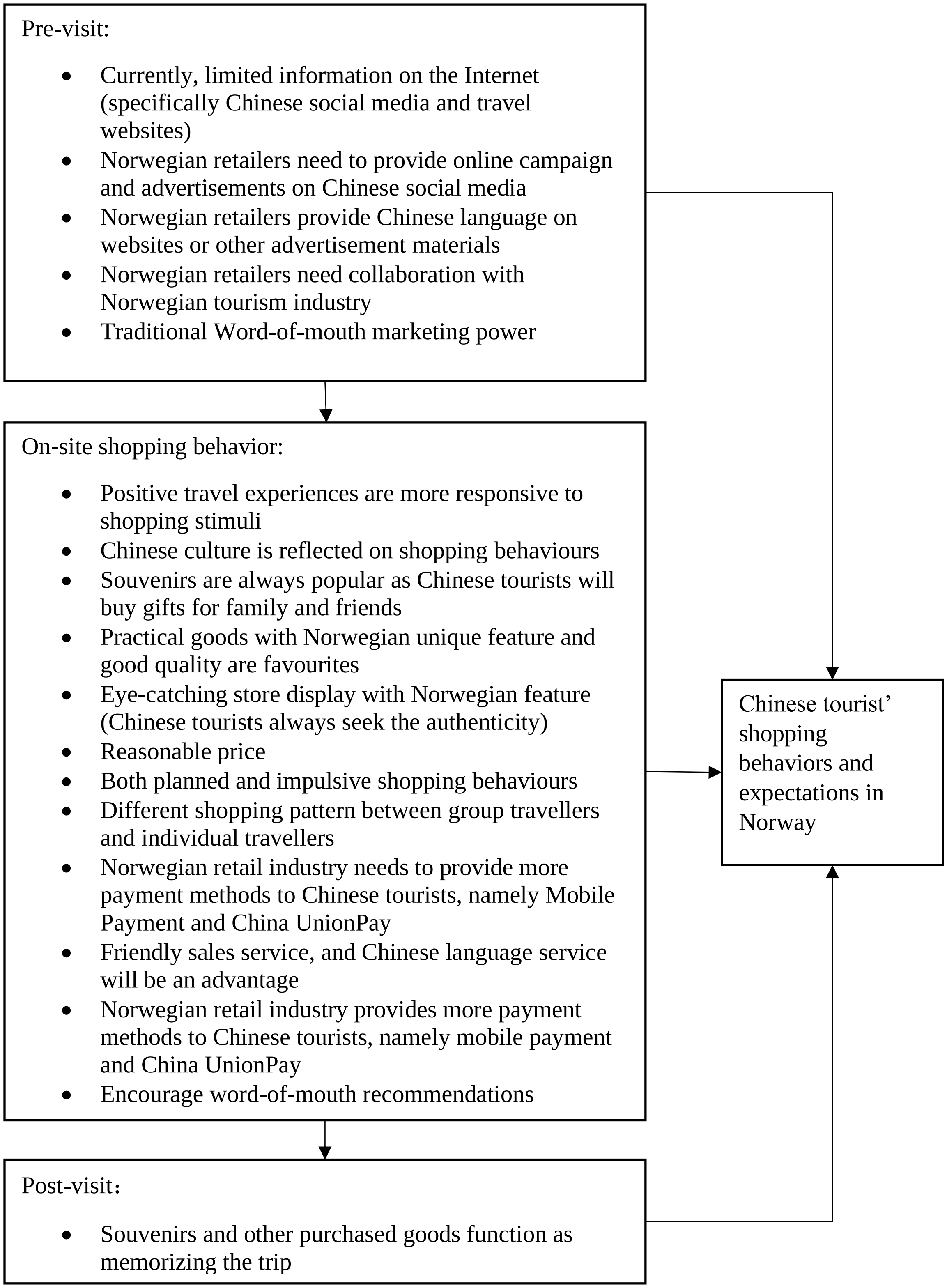
The respondents also put in-store environment and product selection as the attractive elements. This finding is in line with previous studies which illustrate that these two elements should match target tourists' expectations, since they can influence tourists' emotions and shopping behaviors (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Timothy, 2005). Also, international tourists would spend much more money on products which are not available in the home country (Dimanche, 2003; Jansen-Verbeke, 1991; Timothy & Butler, 1995).

With regard to the in-store environment, retailers could change this by adjusting the senses which cater to Chinese tourists, such as music, scent, employee appearance and display (Christiansen & Snepenger, 2002). In addition, sales service is also important as its quality has the most important effect on tourists' levels of shopping satisfaction (Heung and Cheng, 2000).

4.6 Proposed Conceptual Framework

An extensive literature review was conducted in chapter two. Based on the previous literature and findings, an integrative research framework is proposed. Figure 2 illustrates this framework.

Figure 2 - *Proposed Conceptual Framework of Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors and expectations in Norway*



4.7 Limitations

There are several methodological limitations related to this study. First of all, as previously discussed in research design, this study is a qualitative research and face-to-face interview was originally designed to explore the research topic. However, due to the COVID-19, an online survey questionnaire was employed. By using the web survey questionnaire, the authors had limited control over how the respondents answered the questionnaire. As the data shows, the respondents tended to answer the questions in a brief way. Though the key information is there, but as a qualitative study, face-to-face interview is still considered as the best way to obtain detailed information about personal feelings, perceptions and opinions. In addition, due to the absence of the authors, some respondents may misunderstand the questions, though a pilot test was conducted to avoid such issues; or some respondents may answer the questions carelessly. For instance, question 13 is asking the respondents how much money they spent on shopping, and there is one respondent who answered "a whole day". Hence, during the survey process, the authors had no opportunity to explain the questions or probe.

Secondly, though both convenience sampling and snowball sampling methods were employed, the 49 samples may not be representative enough for all the Chinese tourists who have travelled to Norway and who are planning to visit Norway. However, due to the population being so large, the authors believe the importance of having an entirely representative sample is less significant in an exploratory study.

Lastly, most respondents chose to answer in Chinese, the authors had to translate their answers into English. Though it was quite time-consuming as the authors had a long and serious discussion during the whole process, it may be possible that some minor misunderstanding may have occurred. However, this doesn't impact the validity as most answers are short and easy to understand.

5. Conclusion and Implications

5.1 Conclusion

This paper's main purpose is to explore how Norwegian retail industry can attract Chinese tourists by exploring and analyzing Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors in Norway as well as their shopping expectations.

As a qualitative research, an online survey questionnaire was employed, and data was collected from 49 respondents who participated in the survey. The paper finds that as the leading market of outbound tourism, shopping is one of the most important activities for Chinese tourists when they travel abroad, especially compared to other international tourists, outbound Chinese tourists have much closer connection with Chinese cultures, which is reflected in their shopping behaviors. Furthermore, Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors in Norway are explored. Norwegian unique features are the most important element which can be reflected on the products and store displays, and this demonstrates again that authenticity is most attractive to international tourists. The paper also finds that nowadays, Chinese tourists pursue not only luxury brands, but also practical goods with high quality and reasonable price. The paper also compares the respondents' travelling experience to their shopping experience and finds that positive travelling experience has more responsive to shopping stimuli, which is illustrated by previous studies. In addition, Chinese tourists' shopping expectations are also investigated. The results show that

Chinese tourists still consider Norwegian unique features as the most attractive factor for shopping, even though they have not travelled to Norway yet.

The findings also indicate that Chinese tourists have great interests in shopping in Norway, however, Norwegian retail industry still needs to work more to attract Chinese tourists by meeting or exceeding their expectations. Particularly, the paper finds that limited shopping related information can be found on Chinese websites, as well as a lack of Chinese language on Norwegian retailers' websites. In the study, specific marketing strategies are also suggested so that Norwegian retailers could expand into this new target market.

5.2 Implications

5.2.1. Implication for the future research

The goal of this paper is to answer the research question by exploring Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors and expectations in Norway. Building on the existing theories on outbound Chinese tourists' shopping behaviors, this research provides a research example in a new knowledge area by studying such behaviors as well as shopping expectations in Norway. As this is a new area, the authors hope the present findings can encourage future researchers to examine and further explore the topic by applying different research methods, for instance, qualitative interview, since this research method can provide researchers with rich and detailed qualitative data for understanding respondents' experiences, how they describe those experiences, and the meaning they make of those experiences (Rubin & Rubin, 2011).

5.2.2. Implication for Norwegian retail industry

The findings of this research offer Norwegian retail industry detailed information on Chinese tourists' shopping experience as well as their shopping expectations. For the Norwegian retailers who plan to target or attract Chinese tourists, this study suggests that satisfying and meeting these expectations will require a combination of insight into specific behaviors and understanding of cultural beliefs.

Meanwhile, the findings also reveal that there is a lack of marketing strategies toward this market segment. This study also provides specific approaches and some new insights for Norwegian retail practitioners so that they can be well-prepared to accommodate the needs of Chinese tourists shopping in Norway, particularly for the first time. With effective marketing, the retailers should benefit from the world's largest and high-spending outbound tourism market.

6. Reference

Allen, P. J., & Roberts, L. D. (2010). The ethics of outsourcing online survey research. *International Journal of Technoethics (IJT), 1*(3), 35-48.

Armstrong, R. W., Mok, C., Go, F. M., & Chan, A. (1997). The importance of cross-cultural expectations in the measurement of service quality perceptions in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *16*(2), 181-190.

Arnold, M. J., & Reynolds, K. E. (2003). Hedonic shopping motivations. *Journal of Retailing, 79*(2), 77-95.

Asplet, M., & Cooper, M. (2000). Cultural designs in New Zealand souvenir clothing: the question of authenticity. *Tourism management*, *21*(3), 307-312.

Babin, B. J., Darden, W. R., & Griffin, M. (1994). Work and/or fun: measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *20*(4), 644-656.

Bayus, B. L. (1985). Word of mouth-the indirect effects of marketing efforts. *Journal of advertising research, 25*(3), 31-39.

Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the extended self. *Journal of Consumer Research, 15*(2), 139-168.

Belk, R. W. (1997). Been there, done that, bought the souvenirs. In *Consumer research: Postcards from the edge* (pp. 22): Psychology Press.

Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*: sage.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis.

Brewer, M. B., & Chen, Y.-R. (2007). Where (who) are collectives in collectivism? Toward conceptual clarification of individualism and collectivism. *Psychological review, 114*(1), 133.

Bridges, J., & Vásquez, C. (2018). If nearly all Airbnb reviews are positive, does that make them meaningless? *Current Issues in Tourism, 21*(18), 2057-2075.

Brown, S. (1992). Tenant mix, tenant placement and shopper behaviour in a planned shopping centre. *Service Industries Journal, 12*(3), 384-403.

Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*: Oxford university press.

Buttle, F. A. (1998). Word of mouth: understanding and managing referral marketing. *Journal of strategic marketing, 6*(3), 241-254.

Cai, L. A., Li, M., & Knutson, B. J. (2008). Research on China outbound market: A meta-review. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 16*(1-2), 5-20.

Chen, T. (2019). https://walkthechat.com/the-cross-border-payment-war-of-wechat-pay-and-alipay/. Retrieved from https://walkthechat.com/the-cross-border-payment-war-of-wechat-pay-and-alipay/

Choi, T.-M., Liu, S.-C., Pang, K.-M., & Chow, P.-S. (2008). Shopping behaviors of individual tourists from the Chinese Mainland to Hong Kong. *Tourism management, 29*(4), 811-820.

Chow, I., & Murphy, P. (2008). Travel activity preferences of Chinese outbound tourists for overseas destinations. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 16*(1-2), 61-80.

Christiansen, T., & Snepenger, D. J. (2002). Is it the mood or the mall that encourages tourists to shop. *Journal of Shopping Center Research, 9*(1), 7-26.

Cohen, E. (1974). Who is a tourist?: A conceptual clarification. *The sociological review, 22*(4), 527-555.

Cook, C., Heath, F., & Thompson, R. L. (2000). A meta-analysis of response rates in web-or internet-based surveys. *Educational and psychological measurement, 60*(6), 821-836.

COTRI. (2020). Chinese outbound tourism data latest. Retrieved from https://china-outbound.com/editorial-chinese-outbound-tourism-latest/

Crawford, S. D., Couper, M. P., & Lamias, M. J. (2001). Web surveys: Perceptions of burden. *Social science computer review, 19*(2), 146-162.

Daly, J., Kellehear, A., & Gliksman, M. (1997). *The public health researcher: A methodological guide*: Oxford University Press.

Dimanche, F. (2003). The Louisiana tax free shopping program for international visitors: a case study. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(3), 311-314.

Duffy, A. (2015). Friends and fellow travelers: comparative influence of review sites and friends on hotel choice. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*.

E24. (2016). Retrieved from https://e24.no/naeringsliv/i/P9OpLe/innovasjon-norge-topp-om-kinesiske-turister-det-er-lukrative-gjester

Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R., D, & Miniard, P. W. (1995). Consumer Behavior, Chicago. *Dry Den, 12*, 251-264.

Epanel. (2000). Retrieved from https://www.epanel.cn/

Esuli, A., & Sebastiani, F. (2010). Machines that learn how to code open-ended survey data. *International Journal of Market Research, 52*(6), 775-800.

Fan, W., & Yan, Z. (2010). Factors affecting response rates of the web survey: A systematic review. *Computers in human behavior, 26*(2), 132-139.

Farh, J.-L., Tsui, A. S., Xin, K., & Cheng, B.-S. (1998). The influence of relational demography and guanxi: The Chinese case. *Organization science, 9*(4), 471-488.

Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring tourist motivation. *Annals of tourism research, 21*(3), 555-581.

Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (1997). Tourist information search. *Annals of tourism research, 24*(3), 503-523.

Forsythe, S. M., & Bailey, A. W. (1996). Shopping enjoyment, perceived time poverty, and time spent shopping. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 14*(3), 185-191.

Francis, J. J., Johnston, M., Robertson, C., Glidewell, L., Entwistle, V., Eccles, M. P., & Grimshaw, J. M. (2010). What is an adequate sample size? Operationalising data saturation for theory-based interview studies. *Psychology and health, 25*(10), 1229-1245.

Gjestland, L. (1996). Net? not yet. *Marketing Research, 8*(1), 26.

Godbey, G., & Graefe, A. (1991). Repeat tourism, play, and monetary spending. *Annals of tourism research, 18*(2), 213-225.

Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2006). *Tourism : principles, practices, philosophies* (10th ed. ed.). Hoboken, N.J: Wiley.

Gordon, B. (1986). The souvenir: Messenger of the extraordinary. *Journal of popular culture, 20*(3), 135.

Government, N. (2020). Timeline: News from Norwegian Ministries about the Coronavirus disease COVID-19. Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/en/topics/koronavirus-covid-19/timeline-for-news-from-norwegian-ministries-about-the-coronavirus-disease-covid-19/id2692402/

Graburn, N. (1977). Tourism: Sacred Journey. *Hosts and guests: The anthropology of tourism*.

Graburn, N. H. (2004). Secular ritual: A general theory of tourism. *Tourists and tourism: A reader*, 23-34.

Grewal, D., Roggeveen, A. L., Compeau, L. D., & Levy, M. (2012). Retail value-based pricing strategies: New times, new technologies, new consumers. *Journal of Retailing, 88*(1), 1-6.

Guo, Y., Pei, Y., Ye, Y., Chen, Y., Wang, K.-C., & Chan, H.-C. (2009). Tourist shopping behavior: A case of Shanghai outbound tourists. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts (JTHCA), 1*(1), 1-18.

Gurau, C. (2007). The ethics of online surveys. In *Handbook of research on electronic surveys and measurements* (pp. 112-119): IGI Global.

Handwerk, P. G., Carson, C., & Blackwell, K. M. (2000). On-Line vs. Paper-and-Pencil Surveying of Students: A Case Study. AIR 2000 Annual Forum Paper.

Heung, V. C., & Cheng, E. (2000). Assessing tourists' satisfaction with shopping in the Hong Kong special administrative region of China. *Journal of Travel Research*, *38*(4), 396-404.

Heung, V. C., & Qu, H. (1998). Tourism shopping and its contributions to Hong Kong. *Tourism management*, *19*(4), 383-386.

Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of marketing*, *46*(3), 92-101.

Hobson, J. P., & Christensen, M. (2001). Cultural and structural issues affecting Japanese tourist shopping behaviour. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 6*(1), 37-45.

Hsieh, A.-T., & Chang, J. (2006). Shopping and tourist night markets in Taiwan. *Tourism management*, *27*(1), 138-145.

Hyde, K. F. (2008). Information processing and touring planning theory. *Annals of tourism research, 35*(3), 712-731.

Iverson, T. J. (1997). Japanese visitors to Guam: lessons from experience. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *6*(1), 41-54.

Jansen-Verbeke, M. (1991). Leisure shopping: a magic concept for the tourism industry? *Tourism management*, *12*(1), 9-14.

Jin, H., Moscardo, G., & Murphy, L. (2017). Making sense of tourist shopping research: A critical review. *Tourism management*, *62*, 120-134.

Joffe, H. (2012). Thematic analysis. *Qualitative research methods in mental health and psychotherapy, 1*.

Jones, M. A. (1999). Entertaining shopping experiences: an exploratory investigation. *Journal of Retailing and consumer services, 6*(3), 129-139.

Joy, A. (2001). Gift giving in Hong Kong and the continuum of social ties. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *28*(2), 239-256.

Kattiyapornpong, U., & Miller, K. E. (2012). Propensity to shop: Identifying who shops til they drop. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 29*(6), 552-565.

Kent, W. E., Shock, P. J., & Snow, R. E. (1983). Shopping: Tourism's unsung hero (ine). *Journal of Travel Research, 21*(4), 2-4.

Keown, C. F. (1989). A model of tourists' propensity to buy: The case of Japanese visitors to Hawaii. *Journal of Travel Research, 27*(3), 31-34.

Kerstetter, D., & Cho, M.-H. (2004). Prior knowledge, credibility and information search. *Annals of tourism research, 31*(4), 961-985.

Kim, D.-Y., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Gender differences in online travel information search: Implications for marketing communications on the internet. *Tourism management, 28*(2), 423-433.

Kim, S., & Littrell, M. A. (2001). Souvenir buying intentions for self versus others. *Annals of tourism research, 28*(3), 638-657.

Kim, S. S., Guo, Y., & Agrusa, J. (2005). Preference and positioning analyses of overseas destinations by mainland Chinese outbound pleasure tourists. *Journal of Travel Research, 44*(2), 212-220.

Korgaonkar, P., & Bellenger, D. N. (1980). Profiling the recreational shopper. *Journal of Retailing, 56*(3), 77-91.

Kozak, M. (2001). Comparative assessment of tourist satisfaction with destinations across two nationalities. *Tourism management, 22*(4), 391-401.

Lai, G. (1995). Work and family roles and psychological well-being in urban China. *Journal of health and social behavior*, 11-37.

Lapan, S. D., & Quartaroli, M. T. (2009). *Research essentials: An introduction to designs and practices* (Vol. 16): Jossey-Bass.

Lawson, R. (1991). Patterns of tourist expenditure and types of vacation across the family life cycle. *Journal of Travel Research, 29*(4), 12-18.

LeHew, M. L., & Wesley, S. C. (2007). Tourist shoppers' satisfaction with regional shopping mall experiences. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism Hospitality Research, 1*(1), 82-96.

Lehto, X. Y., Cai, L. A., O'Leary, J. T., & Huan, T.-C. (2004). Tourist shopping preferences and expenditure behaviours: The case of the Taiwanese outbound market. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*(4), 320-332.

Li, X. R., Lai, C., Harrill, R., Kline, S., & Wang, L. (2011). When east meets west: An exploratory study on Chinese outbound tourists' travel expectations. *Tourism management, 32*(4), 741-749.

Litirell, M. A., Baizerman, S., Kean, R., Gahring, S., Niemeyer, S., Reilly, R., & Stout, J. (1994). Souvenirs and tourism styles. *Journal of Travel Research, 33*(1), 3-11.

Littrell, M. A., Anderson, L. F., & Brown, P. J. (1993). What makes a craft souvenir authentic? *Annals of tourism research, 20*(1), 197-215.

Lu, L. (2018). Decoding Alipay: mobile payments, a cashless society and regulatory challenges. *Butterworths Journal of International Banking and Financial Law*, 40-43.

MacCannell, D. (2013). *The tourist: A new theory of the leisure class*: Univ of California Press.

Mak, B. L., Tsang, N. K., & Cheung, I. C. (1999). Taiwanese tourists' shopping preferences. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 5*(2), 190-198.

Markwick, M. C. (2001). Tourism and the development of handicraft production in the Maltese islands. *Tourism Geographies, 3*(1), 29-51.

Mason, J. (2017). *Qualitative researching*: Sage.

Meng, F., & Xu, Y. (2012). Tourism shopping behavior: planned, impulsive, or experiential? *International Journal of Culture, Tourism Hospitality Research*, *6*(3), 250-265.

Mohsin, A. (2008). Analysis of Chinese travellers' attitudes toward holidaying in New Zealand: The impact of socio-demographic variables. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 16*(1-2), 21-40.

Mok, C., & DeFranco, A. L. (2000). Chinese cultural values: Their implications for travel and tourism marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 8*(2), 99-114.

NBSC. (2020). 国际地位显著提高 国际影响力持续增强. Retrieved from http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/zxfb/201908/t20190829_1694202.html

Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches*: Pearson.

Nielsen. (2017). Outbound Chinese Tourism and Consumption Trends report. Retrieved from https://www.nielsen.com/wp-content/uploads/sites/3/2019/04/Outbound20Chinese20Tourism20and20Consumption20Trends.pdf

Oppermann, M. (1997). The outbound tourism cycle and the Asian tourism tigers. *The outbound tourism cycle and the Asian tourism tigers.*, 60-75.

Paci, E. (1992). *International issues forum: Common measures of tourism.* Paper presented at the Conference Proceedings, 23rd Annual Conference of the Travel and Tourism Research Association, June.

Pan, G., & Laws, E. (2001). Attracting Chinese outbound tourists: Guanxi and the Australian preferred destination perspective. *Tourism distribution channels: Practices, issues and transformations*, 282-297.

Patton, M. Q. (2015). Qualitative research and methods: Integrating theory and practice. *Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications*.

Pottinger, M. (2002). Chinese Travellers are changing tourism in a shopping spree. *Wall Street Journal–Eastern Edition, 239*(85), 29-41.

Prayag, G., Cohen, S. A., & Yan, H. (2015). Potential Chinese travellers to Western Europe: Segmenting motivations and service expectations. *Current Issues in Tourism, 18*(8), 725-743.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2002a). Cultural differences between Asian tourist markets and Australian hosts, Part 1. *Journal of Travel Research, 40*(3), 295-315.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2002b). The determination of shopping satisfaction of Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii and the Gold Coast compared. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(2), 167-176.

Rosenbaum, M. S., & Spears, D. L. (2005). Who buys that? Who does what? Analysis of cross-cultural consumption behaviours among tourists in Hawaii. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 11*(3), 235-247.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2011). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*: sage.

Saldaña, J. (2015). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*: Sage.

Slaybaugh, J., Littrell, M. A., & Farrell-Beck, J. (1990). Consumers of Hmong textiles. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 8*(2), 56-64.

Somekh, B., & Lewin, C. (2011). *Theory and methods in social research*: Sage.

Sparks, B., & Pan, G. W. (2009). Chinese outbound tourists: Understanding their attitudes, constraints and use of information sources. *Tourism management, 30*(4), 483-494.

SSB. (2020a). Guest nights, by region, type of accommodation, country of residence, contents and month. Retrieved from https://www.ssb.no/en/statbank/table/12892/tableViewLayout1/

SSB. (2020b). Guest nights, by type of accommodation, country of residence, contents and month. Retrieved from https://www.ssb.no/en/statbank/table/12892/tableViewLayout1/

SSB. (2020c). Index of retail sales. Retrieved from https://www.ssb.no/en/varehandel-og-tjenesteyting/statistikker/doi/maaned

Statista. (2020a). eCommerce Worldwide. Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/outlook/243/100/ecommerce/worldwide#market-revenue

Statista. (2020b). Number of monthly active users of Sina Weibo from 4th quarter 2017 to 1st quarter 2020 (in millions). Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/statistics/795303/china-mau-of-sina-weibo/

Statista. (2020c). Share of online food and groceries shoppers in Norway 2009-2019

Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/statistics/567829/share-of-online-food-and-groceries-shoppers-in-norway/

Statista. (2020d). Share of online shoppers in Norway from 2017 to 2019, by product category. Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/statistics/567749/share-of-online-shoppers-in-norway-by-category/

Swanson, K. K., & Horridge, P. E. (2004). A structural model for souvenir consumption, travel activities, and tourist demographics. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(4), 372-380.

Swanson, K. K., & Timothy, D. J. (2012). Souvenirs: Icons of meaning, commercialization and commoditization. *Tourism management, 33*(3), 489-499.

Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling methods in research methodology; how to choose a sampling technique for research. *How to Choose a Sampling Technique for Research (April 10, 2016)*.

Tauber, E. M. (1972). Marketing notes and communications: why do people shop? *Journal of marketing, 36*(4), 46-49.

Timothy, D. J. (2005). *Shopping tourism, retailing and leisure*: Channel View Publications.

Timothy, D. J., & Butler, R. W. (1995). Cross-boder shopping: A North American perspective. *Annals of tourism research, 22*(1), 16-34.

Tosun, C., Temizkan, S. P., Timothy, D. J., & Fyall, A. (2007). Tourist shopping experiences and satisfaction. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 9*(2), 87-102.

Triandis, H. C. (2001). Individualism and collectivism: Past, present, and future. *The handbook of culture and psychology*, 35-50.

Turner, L. W., & Reisinger, Y. (2001). Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. *Journal of Retailing and consumer services*, *8*(1), 15-27.

UNWTO. (2019). International Tourism Highlights, 2019 Edition. Retrieved from https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284421152

UNWTO. (2020a). Guidelines for Success in the Chinese Outbound Tourism Market. Retrieved from https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284421138

UNWTO. (2020b). INTERNATIONAL TOURIST NUMBERS COULD FALL 60-80% IN 2020, UNWTO REPORTS. Retrieved from https://www.unwto.org/news/covid-19-international-tourist-numbers-could-fall-60-80-in-2020

UNWTO. (2020c). Shopping Tourism. Retrieved from https://www.unwto.org/shopping-tourism

Van Selm, M., & Jankowski, N. W. (2006). Conducting online surveys. *Quality and quantity, 40*(3), 435-456.

Vanhonacker, W. R. (2004). Guanxi networks in China. *China Business Review, 31*(3), 48-53.

Weller, S. C., Vickers, B., Bernard, H. R., Blackburn, A. M., Borgatti, S., Gravlee, C. C., & Johnson, J. C. (2018). Open-ended interview questions and saturation. *PloS one*, *13*(6), e0198606.

Welsh, J. P. (2002). Functional significance of climbing-fiber synchrony: a population coding and behavioral analysis. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *978*(1), 188-204.

Wilson, A., & Laskey, N. (2003). Internet based marketing research: a serious alternative to traditional research methods? *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*.

Winter, T. (2009). The modernities of heritage and tourism: interpretations of an Asian future. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *4*(2), 105-115.

Wong, J., & Law, R. (2003). Difference in shopping satisfaction levels: A study of tourists in Hong Kong. *Tourism management*, *24*(4), 401-410.

Wright, K. B. (2005). Researching Internet-based populations: Advantages and disadvantages of online survey research, online questionnaire authoring software packages, and web survey services. *Journal of computer-mediated communication, 10*(3), JCMC1034.

Xie, J., & Tveterås, S. (2020). Economic drivers for the Chinese tourists. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 20*(2), 110-125.

Xu, Y., & McGehee, N. G. J. T. M. (2012). Shopping behavior of Chinese tourists visiting the United States: Letting the shoppers do the talking. *33*(2), 427-430.

Yang, C.-f. (1988). Familism and development: An examination of the role of family in contemporary China mainland, Hong Kong and Taiwan.

Yau, O. H. (1988). Chinese cultural values: Their dimensions and marketing implications. *European Journal of marketing, 22*(5), 44-57.

Yu, H., & Littrell, M. A. (2005). Tourists' shopping orientations for handcrafts: what are key influences? *Journal of Travel Tourism Marketing, 18*(4), 1-19.

Zhang, H. Q., & Heung, V. C. (2002). The emergence of the mainland Chinese outbound travel market and its implications for tourism marketing. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 8*(1), 7-12.

Zhang, L., & Pentina, I. (2012). Motivations and usage patterns of Weibo. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 15*(6), 312-317.

Zhu, D., Xu, H., & Jiang, L. (2016). Behind buying: The Chinese gaze on European commodities. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 21*(3), 293-311.

7. Appendix

7.1 Survey Questions

We are master students of International Hospitality Management at the University of Stavanger, Norway. Our master thesis aims to study and understand how tourists could contribute to the destination's economy and giving a micro look into a particular case of: how a destination shopping Center (Amfi Madla) could be benefited from the increased incoming of tourists (Chinese Tourists).

We would highly appreciate it if you could assist us to answer the following questions, and your answers can provide the important data for our study related to Chinese tourist shopping behaviors and their consumption power. Meanwhile, we assure that your answers are completely anonymous.

我们是挪威斯塔万格大学旅游管理硕士生。我们正在进行的硕士毕业论文旨在研究和了解游客如何为目的地经济做出贡献，并给出一个具体案例：一个挪威购物中心(Amfi Madla)如何从数量增长的中国游客中获益。

如果您能帮助我们回答以下问题，我们将不胜感激，您的回答可以为我们研究有关中国游客的旅游购物行为及消费能力提供重要的数据。与此同时，我们也向您保证您的回答将会被严格保密。

1. When you travel abroad, do you spend time and money on shopping activities?

   当您出国旅行时，您花时间和预算在购物活动上吗?

2. If you do, is shopping one of your main activities?

   如果有，购物是您的主要活动之一吗?

3. Do you shop for yourself or on behalf of others?

   您为自己或他人购物?

4. Do you bring travel souvenirs as gifts to friends and families each time you travel?

   每次旅行时，您都会带旅游纪念品作为礼物送给朋友和家人吗?

If we take Norway as an example to continue：

如果我们以挪威为例来继续:

5. Have you ever visited this country?

   您去过这个国家旅游吗?

If you have visited Norway before：如果之前您去过挪威旅游：

(Please turn to the second to last page if you have not 若您此前没有去过，请在倒数第二页完成问题)

6. Are you travelling as an independent traveler or with a group?

   您是自由行还是跟团游?

7. If you travel with a group, are there any shopping activities planned?

   如果您跟团游，团体活动是否安排了购物这一项?

8. If you travel as an independent traveler, have you spent time on shopping activities?

   如果您是自由行，您是否花时间在购物上?

9. In general, how is your travel experience in Norway?

   总体来说，您在挪威的旅游体验如何?

If you went shopping during your trip in Norway：

如果您在挪威旅行时进行了购物活动， 那么：

10. What types of merchandise did you purchase?

    您购买的商品类型有哪些?

11. What was your purpose of shopping? Why would you shop in Norway?

    您购物的目的是什么？为何在挪威购物？

12. When did you decide to go shopping? (planned or impulsive shopping behavior)

    您什么时候决定去购物的？（是计划或冲动购物行为）

13. How much did you spend on shopping during your visit?

    在挪威旅行期间您在购物上大概花了多少钱?

14. What was your payment method?

    您的付款方式是什么?

15. Where did you mostly shop? Shopping centers (shopping malls) or street shops?

    您主要在哪里购物？购物中心还是街边商店?

16. What factors do you think are most important that can attract you to a brick and mortar store during your trip?

    在旅行购物期间，您认为哪些因素能吸引您进入到一个商店内?

17. Where do you acquire the shopping related information?

    您在哪里获得购物相关信息?

18. How is your shopping experience in Norway? Why do you have such feelings?

    您在挪威的购物体验如何？你为什么有这种感觉?

If you have not visited Norway before, but you are planning it:

如果您以前没有访问过挪威，但您正在计划以后来旅游：

19. Are you planning to travel as an independent traveler or with a group?

    您打算自由行还是跟团游?

20. Is there merchandise you are expecting to purchase in Norway?

    您期望在挪威购买任何商品吗?

21. Are you buying for yourself or on behalf of families and friends?

    您是为自己购买还是帮家人和朋友购买?

22. Do you have a shopping budget? If you have, can you tell how much it is?

    您有购物预算吗？如果您有，可透露大概金额吗?

23. Where do you collect or search for your shopping information?

    您在哪里收集或搜索您所需的购物信息？

24. What factors do you think are most important that can attract you to a brick and mortar store during your trip?

    在旅行购物期间，您认为哪些因素能吸引您进入到一个商店内？

25. What is your perception of Norwegian shopping culture?

    您对挪威的购物文化有什么了解和看法吗？

Finally, can you share with us a little of your background?

最后，您能和我们分享一下您的背景吗？

26. Your age:

    您的年龄：

    18–30

    31–40

    41–50

    51–60

    61–70

    Over 70

27. Gender

性别

Man 男士

Woman 女士

28. Occupation

职业

We thank you for your time and help and wish you all the best!

感谢您的时间和帮助， 祝您万事顺意！

7.2 Survey Recruitment on Weibo

7.3 Consent Form

Declaration of consent

We are working on our Master Thesis and the topic is "Attracting Chinese Tourists to Norwegian Retailers: A Case Study on AMFI Madla in Stavanger". This project is in collaboration with AMFI Madla with the purpose of obtaining crucial information for this study.

The informant is Ms Anette Øfsti Worum who commits to meet with two authors who are Jingjing Li and Fei Huang at Norwegian School of Hotel Management. And all the information shared by the informant will be only used for the thesis and treated confidentially.

Declaration of consent:

I have received this written information and am willing to take part in this project.

Signature	4/6/20 Date