# UNIVERSIDAD DE LA RIOJA

## TESIS DOCTORAL

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| **Análisis de la innovación en marketing y del comportamiento del consumidor en el sector del comercio en España** | | |
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**Facultad de Ciencias Económicas y Empresariales**

Departamento de Economía y Empresa

TESIS DOCTORAL

**ANÁLISIS DE LA INNOVACIÓN EN MARKETING Y DEL COMPORTAMIENTO DEL CONSUMIDOR EN EL SECTOR DEL COMERCIO EN ESPAÑA**

**Natalia Medrano Sáez**

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*A mi familia, mi pareja y mis amigas,*
*por todo el tiempo que estás páginas se llevaron*
*y no pude disfrutar junto a ellos.*

*La vida te da las cartas,*
*no puedes cambiarlas,*
*pero tú decides cómo jugarlas.*

Emilio Duró

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# ÍNDICE

# Resumen

La globalización e intensificación de la competencia, la rápida evolución de la tecnología, los ciclos de vida de los productos cada vez más cortos o la existencia de una demanda cada vez más exigente, segmentada y conectada, entre otros factores, han acelerado el estudio de la innovación como factor clave para lograr posiciones de ventaja en los mercados y atraer a los clientes. En este contexto, la problemática del pequeño comercio urbano es también una preocupación para los investigadores, ya que la crisis económica ha acelerado el cierre de establecimientos comerciales tradicionales y, simultáneamente, están apareciendo nuevos formatos o recuperándose otros como respuesta a los nuevos consumidores.

Dada la escasa literatura científica que existía, al inicio de esta tesis, sobre la innovación en marketing resulta de gran interés contribuir a llenar este hueco ya que su estudio coadyuva a encontrar soluciones para abordar el nuevo escenario competitivo del comercio. Por tanto, en la presente tesis doctoral, se afronta el estudio del sector del comercio desde una doble perspectiva: por un lado, el análisis de la oferta (empresas) y por el otro, el análisis del comportamiento de la demanda (consumidores).

El primer enfoque se ha centrado en analizar la innovación en marketing. Los resultados han puesto de manifiesto que esta se encuentra en una fase incipiente, ya que únicamente el 27,2% de las empresas declaran realizar innovación en marketing, siendo las modificaciones en el diseño del producto las más frecuentes. En el caso del comercio el porcentaje se reduce al 26,1%, destacando la innovación en comunicación. Sin embargo, la innovación en marketing es la segunda más implementada por los pequeños y medianos comercios cuando en el resto de sectores es la última de los cuatro tipos (producto, proceso, organización y marketing). El tamaño, la actividad que desarrolla la empresa, la realización de tareas exportadoras y la inversión en I+D interna son las características que hacen a las empresas ser más propensas a

desarrollar innovación en marketing. La crisis también ha afectado a las características estructurales de las empresas que innovan en marketing.

El segundo enfoque, ha analizado el comportamiento de los consumidores en las calles comerciales para conocer lo que los clientes valoran en términos de calidad de la interacción cliente-vendedor. Los resultados muestran que los clientes citan la atención personal como el principal factor que motiva su preferencia por las tiendas minoristas situadas en las calles comerciales de las ciudades. Sin embargo, esta motivación no es tan relevante para aquellos que prefieren los centros comerciales. Analizando la calidad del servicio para medir simultáneamente las expectativas normativas, predictivas y la importancia de cada atributo de la escala SERVQUAL-P, el resultado más llamativo es que las dimensiones de las expectativas normativas y predictivas son las mismas, sin embargo, estas difieren respecto a su importancia. La principal contribución reside en el hallazgo de que la atención personal, cuando se evalúa con la escala de importancia se divide en dos dimensiones: (1) cortesía en la atención y (2) relación personal. La cortesía es siempre bienvenida, pero las relaciones personales son menos valoradas y con frecuencia rechazadas.

La tesis concluye con implicaciones académicas, prácticas y propone nuevas líneas de investigación.

# Abstract

Globalization and the intensification of competition, the rapid evolution of technology, shorter product life cycles and the existence of an increasingly challenging, segmented and connected demand, amongst other factors, have spurred the study of innovation as a key factor for achieving advantageous positions and attracting customers. In this context, the problem of small urban retailers is also a concern for researchers, as the economic crisis has accelerated the closure of traditional retail establishments, even as new formats are emerging and others are being recovered in response to new consumers.

This doctoral thesis sought to help fill a gap that existed when it was begun in the scientific literature on marketing innovation and, in so doing, contribute to finding solutions to address the new competitive scenario today's retailers face. To this end, it took a twofold approach to the study of retailers: first, it looked at supply (companies) and, second, it examined the behaviour of the demand (consumers).

The first approach focused on marketing innovation. The results show that it is still in the early stages, with only 27.2% of companies claiming to pursue innovation in marketing and modifications in product design being the most frequent type of innovation introduced. Specifically with regard to retail, the percentage falls to 26.1%, with an emphasis on innovation in communication. However, marketing innovation is the second most common form of innovation pursued by small and medium-sized retailers, whereas in other sectors it ranks last of all four types (product, process, organization and marketing). The size of the company, its specific business, whether or not it exports, and investment in internal R&D are the characteristics that make companies most likely to pursue marketing innovation. The crisis has also affected the structural characteristics of companies that innovate in this way.

The second approach analysed the behaviour of high-street shoppers to determine what consumers value in terms of quality customer-seller interactions. The results showed that personalized attention is the factor most often cited by

high-street shoppers, but was less relevant for those who prefer shopping centres. Most strikingly, an analysis of service quality simultaneously measuring normative expectations, predictive expectations and the importance of each attribute of the SERVQUAL-P scale showed that whilst the normative- and predictive-expectation dimensions were the same, they differed in terms of importance. The main contribution lies in the finding that personalized attention, when assessed in terms of importance, has two dimensions: (1) courteous attention and (2) a personal relationship. Whilst courtesy is always welcome, personal relationships are less valued and often rejected.

The thesis concludes with academic and practical implications and proposes new lines of research.

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# Capítulo 1.
# Introducción

# INTRODUCCIÓN

## 1.1. Interés y justificación del estudio

Hoy en día resulta innegable que la globalización, intensificación de la competencia, la existencia de una demanda cada vez más exigente y segmentada, la rápida evolución de la tecnología y los ciclos de vida de los productos cada vez más cortos han acrecentado la importancia de la innovación como factor clave para lograr posiciones de ventaja (García Rodríguez, Santos Vijande, Sanzo Pérez, y Trespalacios Gutiérrez, 2008). Estos cambios tan evidentes, tanto en la sociedad como en los hábitos de consumo de los ciudadanos, permiten evidenciar que los modelos que sirvieron en el pasado en otro escenario ya no son suficientes y que la disciplina del marketing, como saber práctico y científico, no se puede mantener ajena a estos movimientos.

Mirando atrás unos cuarenta años, se puede ver cómo las empresas estudiaban el mercado de una manera distinta, sin analizar demasiado los gustos de los consumidores y distribuían todo lo que producían, atendiendo solamente a las necesidades básicas del mercado y a la cantidad que se debía producir (Spada, 2008). Era un modelo de negocio en el que todo lo que se producía se lanzaba y se vendía, ya que los consumidores no tenían tanta variedad para elegir como ahora. Una vez superada esta fase se empieza a desarrollar la era de la información, en la

cual tanto consumidores como empresas disponen de más datos que nunca.

Teniendo en cuenta el contexto descrito, la idea de realizar esta tesis surge de la actual situación en la que se encuentra el pequeño comercio minorista del centro de ciudad. Ya que, paseando por el centro de la ciudad, cada día se ven más tiendas de toda la vida cerradas, otras que abren y al poco tiempo cierran o numerosos locales comerciales vacíos. Esta realidad hay que afrontarla desde una doble perspectiva, oferta y demanda.

Por el lado de la oferta, la intensificación de la competencia y la proliferación de los centros comerciales, principalmente situados a las afueras de la ciudad, ha afectado fuertemente a los pequeños comercios del centro de la ciudad. A este hecho hay que sumarle la actual crisis económica que ha provocado la caída generalizada del consumo y con ello el mencionado cierre de numerosos comercios.

Cabe destacar que la mayoría de los establecimientos del casco urbano de las ciudades europeas son pequeñas empresas independientes, sin departamento de investigación, por lo que es interesante que desde la Universidad se analicen sus problemas y se proporcionen soluciones dirigidas a atraer y mantener al cliente. Considerando de suma importancia el estudio de este sector ya que en España supone un gran peso dentro de la economía, tanto por su participación en el total del PIB como por su contribución al empleo. Además, la distribución comercial es un sector clave en la dinamización de las ciudades y de las regiones.

Por el lado de la demanda, en este momento de cambio, los consumidores empiezan a mandar y requerir innovaciones que satisfagan mejor sus deseos y necesidades. El consumidor ha dejado de ser una masa uniforme; es un sujeto con gustos cada vez más individualizados, más fragmentados y esta situación ha propiciado un marketing más personalizado (García-Guardia, Alcaraz, y García-García, 2011). Además, desde principios de 2010, ha comenzado la aparición de un nuevo consumidor y el sector del comercio se enfrenta a un entorno complejo en el que la tienda física comparte espacio y tiempo con otras alternativas online/ofline (Verhoef, Kannan, y Inman, 2015).

En este contexto de incertidumbre como el actual, con el rápido cambio de los mercados y de la tecnología, el comportamiento del consumidor representa uno de los mayores intereses de los académicos de marketing y las empresas que quieran asegurar su futuro están obligadas a innovar para adaptar sus estrategias a la nueva realidad. Por tanto, en la presente tesis doctoral, se va a hablar de la innovación en marketing como estrategia para satisfacer mejor las necesidades de los consumidores con el fin de adaptarse a los nuevos requerimientos de la sociedad y poder sobrevivir en este nuevo escenario.

## 1.2. Objetivos de la investigación

Como se ha indicado, esta tesis nace de la preocupación académica y sectorial por la pérdida de competitividad del comercio del centro de ciudad. Para afrontar este problema y poder aportar soluciones se ha desarrollado investigación desde una doble perspectiva: por un lado, el análisis de la oferta (empresas) y por el otro, el análisis del comportamiento de la demanda (consumidores).

El primer enfoque se ha centrado en analizar las características de las empresas y más concretamente del sector comercio, que llevan a cabo innovaciones en marketing. El segundo enfoque, ha analizado el comportamiento de los consumidores en el sector comercio. A través de estas dos perspectivas se puede tener una visión más global de la situación y dar recomendaciones de mejora a las empresas.

Por el lado de la oferta, se ha demostrado que la innovación juega un papel fundamental en el desarrollo de las empresas. Tradicionalmente se ha hablado de la innovación en producto y proceso, pero actualmente se considera que las nuevas ideas pueden transformar cualquier parte de la cadena de valor de una organización. En este sentido, se plantea que el **primer objetivo general** de investigación es indagar en el conocimiento de la innovación en marketing como posible estrategia de adaptación del comercio minorista a los nuevos tiempos.

Para poder alcanzar dicho objetivo, se plantea la consecución de una serie de objetivos específicos.

En primer lugar, se plantea conocer cómo actúan las empresas españolas y por ello se analizan las características estructurales de las empresas que llevan a cabo innovaciones en marketing. En este análisis se tiene en cuenta la variable sector dividida entre empresas manufactureras y de servicios, la cual va a ir dando pistas sobre el posterior análisis del comportamiento del sector comercio. Este primer análisis permite acercarse a la relación existente entre la innovación en marketing y la empresa española.

Una vez analizadas las características de las empresas que más probabilidad tienen de innovar en marketing se plantea la misma pregunta de investigación, pero ya centrada únicamente en el sector comercio, es decir, se analizan las características estructurales de las empresas del sector comercio que llevan a cabo innovaciones en marketing.

Posteriormente, el objetivo de investigación es contrastar si dichas características estructurales de las empresas que innovan en marketing se han visto afectadas por la crisis económica vivida.

Finalmente, el último objetivo de investigación dentro del análisis de la innovación en marketing es analizar la relación existente entre este tipo de innovación y el resto (producto, proceso y organización) centrándonos ya en las medianas y pequeñas empresas del sector comercio.

Una vez analizada la parte de la oferta, es decir, las características de las empresas relacionadas con la innovación en marketing, el siguiente paso es el análisis de la demanda, es decir, de los comportamientos de los consumidores. De esta manera, analizando cómo se comportan los consumidores e intentando conocer qué es lo que realmente quieren, se podrán dar recomendaciones a los comercios sobre en qué elementos de sus estrategia de marketing se debe poner mayor atención o innovar para poder satisfacer mejor a sus clientes.

Por lo tanto, el **segundo objetivo general** de la investigación es el análisis del comportamiento de los consumidores de los comercios del centro de ciudad. Y para poder alcanzarlo se plantean dos objetivos secundarios: analizar los motivos de elección de calles comerciales frente a los centros comerciales y analizar los atributos de la calidad del servicio que valoran los consumidores del comercio de centro de ciudad.

Los resultados extraídos de este doble análisis, en el que se analiza lo que hacen las empresas y lo que los consumidores quieren, permitirán avanzar en el conocimiento teórico y extraer conclusiones prácticas que permitirán a las empresas desarrollar estrategias de marketing más adecuadas a cada tipo de púbico objetivo.

## 1.3. Marco teórico general

En la actualidad, las nuevas ideas pueden transformar cualquier parte de la cadena de valor; las innovaciones en productos y servicios representan tan solo la punta del iceberg de la innovación (Birkinshaw, J., Bouquet, C. y Barsoux, 2011). En este sentido, se puede cometer el error de pensar que innovación es solamente crear nuevos productos, pero afortunadamente esta mentalidad está cambiando y actualmente se habla de innovación en muchos otros aspectos de una organización. Por ello, los esfuerzos y recursos que dedican las empresas a introducir en sus negocios nuevos métodos de comercialización son considerados actualmente como innovaciones en marketing, y son consideradas tan importantes para impulsar la competitividad de las empresas como las innovaciones tecnológicas.

El Manual de Oslo es la guía que elabora la Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económico (OCDE) y sirve para la recogida e interpretación de la información sobre la actividad innovadora de las empresas. En su tercera edición (2005) se produce un cambio muy significativo para las innovaciones en marketing, ya que su relevancia se amplía significativamente.

Hasta esa fecha, las innovaciones tecnológicas de producto y de proceso definían los dos únicos tipos de innovación considerados en la medición del fenómeno. Es a partir de esta tercera edición del Manual de Oslo, cuando se añaden dos tipos más de innovaciones al mismo nivel que la innovación tecnológica: la innovación en marketing y organización.

Según OCDE (2005) la innovación en marketing puede definirse como la aplicación de un nuevo método de comercialización de un producto o servicio que suponga alteraciones significativas en alguno de los siguientes elementos: diseño o envasado del producto, posicionamiento, promoción o criterio de fijación de precios.

- El diseño del producto se refiere a los cambios en la forma o en el aspecto que no producen alteración en su funcionalidad, como por ejemplo el envasado de los alimentos, el cambio en el diseño de una línea de muebles o la introducción de diferentes presentaciones finales de un producto según el mercado al que se dirige. Por ejemplo, se pueden considerar diferentes portadas y tipos de letras en versiones para niños o adultos de un mismo libro.

- La promoción se refiere a los cambios en los medios de comunicación utilizados, así como a cambios en la imagen de marca, por ejemplo, la inclusión de publicidad dentro de programas de televisión o uso de personajes famosos como imagen de la firma entre otros.

- El posicionamiento del producto se refiere principalmente, en este contexto, al uso de nuevos canales de venta (franquicias, venta directa, venta a través de Internet o móvil, etc.).

- Por último, en cuanto a los criterios de fijación de precios, la utilización de nuevos métodos de tarificación de precios en los servicios o la introducción de nuevas segmentaciones de precios son ejemplos de este tipo de innovaciones, como puede ser la aplicación de estrategias de bajada de los precios de los artículos menos demandados para impulsar así su venta.

Esta definición que da el Manual de Oslo, es similar a las recogidas en la literatura. Así por ejemplo, Utkun y Atilgan (2010) definen la innovación en marketing como la aplicación de un nuevo método de marketing el cual incluye cambios significativos en el precio, promoción, distribución o packaging del producto. Y comenta que, si las empresas adoptan un nuevo enfoque que incluya alguna de estas prácticas, significa que han realizado una innovación en marketing. Otros autores como Vorhies y Harker (2000), Weerawardena (2003) y Lin et al. (2010) dicen que la innovación en marketing se refiere a la investigación de mercado, estrategia de fijación de precios, la segmentación del mercado, promociones, canales de venta y sistemas de información de marketing.

Las definiciones de innovación en marketing encontradas en la literatura son similares, pero, sin embargo, la conceptualización de "innovación en comercialización" no siempre queda clara, ya que, en ciertas circunstancias, pueden existir dudas sobre de qué tipo de innovación se está tratando. La diferencia entre una innovación en marketing con otras actividades de marketing llevadas a cabo en una organización es que la primera implica la puesta en marcha de métodos no utilizados previamente (Asenjo Pérez, Rivero Duque, y Martínez Jover, 2010; Rivero, Asenjo, y Martinéz, 2009).

Para que una innovación en marketing sea considerada como tal no es necesario que las prácticas de marketing sean originales, lo más probable es que sean adaptaciones de conceptos o prácticas que ejerce la misma empresa. También pueden ser prácticas de marketing que realizan otras empresas y que la empresa incorpora en su estrategia de marketing.

Con respecto a la literatura sobre innovación hay que destacar que, aunque esta es abundante, la mayor parte se ha referido a las innovaciones de producto y proceso, dejando en un segundo plano a las innovaciones no tecnológicas, marketing y organización. Pero, a pesar de la escasa literatura sobre el tema de investigación, en los últimos años los estudios relacionados con este tipo de innovación están cogiendo cada vez mayor relevancia y son ya abundantes las voces (Chen, 2006; Naidoo, 2010; Schubert, 2010; Shergill y Nargundkar, 2005) que afirman que el desarrollo de innovaciones en marketing puede ser muy

exitoso para la empresa y no solamente una herramienta auxiliar de las innovaciones tecnológicas.

Según Wang (2015) en la literatura sobre innovación en marketing se distinguen tres corrientes. La primera corriente discute las ventajas competitivas que se pueden lograr a través de la innovación de marketing. La segunda, aborda las relaciones entre las innovaciones de marketing y los otros tipos de innovación. Por último, la tercera corriente intenta comprender las características de las empresas que adoptan innovaciones de este tipo.

Desde una perspectiva teórica, Ren et al. (2009) consideran las innovaciones en marketing como un método apropiado para conseguir una ventaja competitiva sostenible, señalando que algunos directivos están demasiado cegados con las innovaciones tecnológicas. Esto les impediría conseguir ventajas competitivas a través de las innovaciones en marketing. O'Dwyer et al. (2009) también defienden la idea de conseguir una ventaja competitiva sostenible a partir de la innovación en marketing, concluyendo que la innovación en marketing es más probable que consista en incesantes ajustes complementarios de las actuales actividades o prácticas que desarrolla la empresa, las cuales permiten a las PYMES diferenciarse de la oferta estandarizada de productos y servicios que realizan las grandes empresas. En la misma línea, el estudio de Epetimehin (2011), referente al sector de los seguros, muestra que la innovación en marketing y la creatividad son cruciales en el éxito de la empresa a través de la innovación en precios, promoción y distribución, sirviendo para la atracción de nuevos clientes y la consecución de una ventaja competitiva.

En relación al segundo enfoque, que aborda las relaciones entre las innovaciones de marketing y los otros tipos de innovación, según Walker (2004) las actividades de innovación se influencian mutuamente y por lo tanto, necesitan ser implementadas conjuntamente. La relación disputada entre la innovación tecnológica y la innovación de marketing se centra en si son complementarios o sustitutos. Según Kijek (2013), es bastante intuitivo que la introducción de un nuevo proceso o producto requiera cambios en las estrategias de marketing. Por ejemplo, una nueva línea de productos a menudo requiere cambios en los canales

de envasado y ventas. Lewis y Wackowski (2006) proporcionan un ejemplo de la industria tabacalera, en la que la introducción de cigarrillos aromatizados fue intensamente apoyada por innovaciones de marketing. Sin embargo, otros autores sostienen que las innovaciones de marketing hacen algo más que simplemente apoyar las innovaciones tecnológicas (Bhaskaran, 2006; Rammer, Czarnitzki, y Spielkamp, 2009). Siguiendo este razonamiento, Schubert (2010) sostiene que las innovaciones en marketing son, en promedio, complementarias -en lugar de sustitutos- de las innovaciones tecnológicas, pero señala que esta relación es sensible a factores externos e internos, tamaño de la empresa y oportunidades tecnológicas. Este autor sostiene que las innovaciones de marketing hacen que las innovaciones de producto y proceso tengan más éxito. Además, Walker (2008) concluye que las innovaciones organizacionales, de marketing y de servicio (o producto) están interrelacionadas en las organizaciones públicas. En un estudio de empresas manufactureras en Turquía se encontraron relaciones positivas entre la innovación organizativa y la innovación de procesos, la innovación organizacional y la innovación en marketing, la innovación de procesos y la innovación de producto y la innovación de marketing y de producto (Gunday, Ulusoy, Kilic, y Alpkan, 2011). Además, Soltani et al. (2015) muestran que, aunque no existe una relación directa de causa efecto entre la innovación organizativa y de producto, ambos tipos de innovación están influidos por la innovación en marketing.

Por último, en relación a la tercera corriente, los investigadores han comenzado a examinar la relación entre la innovación de marketing y otros aspectos de las empresas, como el tamaño (Geldes y Felzensztein, 2013); el gasto en I+D (T. Kijek, 2013; Moreira, Jacinta; Silva, Maria Jose; Simões, Jorge and Sousa, 2012); la formación del personal (Geldes y Felzensztein, 2013; A. Kijek, Lisowski, y Starzyńska, 2013; Moreira, Jacinta; Silva, Maria Jose; Simões, Jorge and Sousa, 2012); las actividades de exportación, la clase de empresa y cooperación que realiza (Geldes y Felzensztein, 2013); cuota de mercado (Camisón y Villar-López, 2014; Schubert, 2010; Shergill y Nargundkar, 2005) o la concentración de mercado (Schubert, 2010) entre otras características de las empresas.

## 1.4. Estructura de la tesis doctoral

Para la consecución de los objetivos planteados, la presente tesis doctoral se ha dividido en cinco capítulos, cada uno de los cuales se corresponde con una investigación. Después de estos cinco capítulos se encuentra una última sección de conclusiones (Figura 1).

**Figura 1.** Estructura y contenidos de la tesis
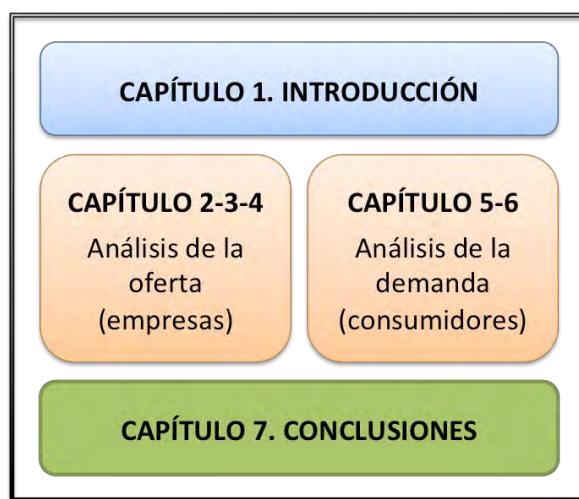


Los capítulos 2, 3 y 4 abordan el análisis de la innovación en marketing en las empresas. El capítulo 2 analiza la adopción de innovaciones en marketing de las empresas y comercios españoles para poder comprobar que características tienen las empresas que llevan a cabo este tipo de innovación. El capítulo 3 estudia los efectos de la crisis en la innovación en marketing. El capítulo 4 se centra en analizar la innovación en marketing en el pequeño y mediano comercio y busca la relación que puede tener con otros tipos de innovación como la de producto, proceso y organización.

Una vez analizada la innovación en marketing en profundidad se pasa al estudio del comportamiento del consumidor en los capítulos 5 y 6. En el capítulo 5 se analizan las motivaciones de los consumidores en la elección de la tienda física, distinguiendo entre establecimientos del casco urbano y centros comerciales. En el último estudio llevado a cabo, capítulo 6, se centra en la

calidad del servicio de estos establecimientos para poder comprobar qué es lo que realmente importa a este tipo de público.

Finalmente, el último capítulo, como no podía ser de otra manera, está dedicado a las principales conclusiones, limitaciones y futuras líneas de investigación.

## 1.5. Referencias

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# Capítulo 2.
# Adopción de innovaciones en marketing en la empresa y en el comercio

# CAPÍTULO 2

## 2.1. Resumen

Los objetivos de este capítulo son:

- Analizar las características estructurales que tienen las empresas manufactureras y de servicios que llevan a cabo innovaciones en marketing.

- Realizar el análisis de la innovación en marketing en las empresas del sector comercio para poder analizar las posibles diferencias.

La base de datos utilizada para la realización de estos trabajos de investigación proviene del Panel de Innovación Tecnológica (PITEC) del año 2008. PITEC es un instrumento estadístico concebido para el seguimiento de las actividades de innovación de las empresas españolas. Su construcción se realiza a partir de dos estadísticas que se publican periódicamente por el INE y siguiendo las directrices metodológicas definidas en el Manual de Oslo de la OCDE. PITEC recoge, por primera vez, información sobre las innovaciones no tecnológicas (organizativas y de marketing) en los datos correspondientes a 2008. Hasta ese momento el PITEC únicamente recogía información de las innovaciones de producto y proceso.

Para analizar la propensión a innovar en marketing se han utilizado modelos de elección discreta Logit, ya que se acomodan a todos los tipos de variables independientes (métricas y no métricas).

Los resultados muestran que la innovación en marketing se encuentra en una fase incipiente, ya que únicamente el 27,2% de las empresas declaran realizar este tipo de innovación. En el caso del comercio el porcentaje se reduce al 26,1%.

Las empresas más propensas a realizar innovaciones en marketing también realizan actividades de I+D interna, tienen una elevada cifra de negocio, realizan tareas de exportación y son de tamaño pequeño o mediano. Los comercios más propensos son aquellos que invierten en I+D interna y tienen una elevada cifra de negocio.

Las empresas más propensas a realizar innovaciones en diseño llevan a cabo actividades de I+D interna, son del sector manufacturero, realizan tareas de exportación, tienen una elevada cifra de negocio y son de tamaño pequeño o mediano. Los comercios más propensos son los que llevan a cabo actividades de I+D interna, de exportación y tienen una elevada cifra de negocio.

Las empresas más propensas a realizar innovaciones en comunicación desarrollan I+D interna, son del sector servicios, tienen una elevada cifra de negocio, realizan tareas de exportación, y son de tamaño pequeño. Los comercios más propensos realizan actividades de I+D interna y tienen una elevada cifra de negocio.

Las empresas más propensas a realizar innovaciones en distribución realizan actividades de I+D interna, son del sector servicios, realizan tareas de exportación, tienen una elevada cifra de negocio y son de tamaño pequeño. Los comercios más propensos desarrollan actividades de I+D interna y tienen una elevada cifra de negocio.

Las empresas más propensas a realizar innovaciones en fijación de precios, en línea con los tipos de innovación en marketing anteriores, también desarrollan actividades de I+D interna, son de tamaño pequeño, tienen una elevada cifra de

negocio, son del sector servicios y realizan tareas de exportación. Los comercios más propensos realizan actividades de I+D interna, no llevan a cabo tareas de exportación y tienen una elevada cifra de negocio.

Como conclusión cabe destacar que las cuatro formas de innovar en marketing - diseño, precio, comunicación y distribución - están explicadas por la actividad de la empresa, su tamaño, la realización de exportación y de I+D interna. Sin embargo, con respecto a la actividad que realizan las empresas el sentido de la relación no es el mismo para todos los tipos de innovación en marketing. En el caso de las innovaciones en diseño, la relación que presenta mayor probabilidad de innovación es en las empresas manufactureras. Esto es así, debido a que las empresas manufactureras son las que fabrican los productos y por tanto las que deben, en mayor medida, ocuparse de realizar este tipo de innovaciones. Y en el resto de innovaciones en marketing, precio, comunicación y distribución, las empresas de servicios tienen mayor probabilidad de realizarlas, ya que este tipo de empresas son mayoritariamente las que están en contacto con el consumidor final y por ello las que más deben preocuparse de las estrategias de innovación en distribución del producto o servicio, en su comunicación o fijación del precio.

## 2.2. Introduction

It can hardly be denied today that globalisation and increasingly stronger competition, the existence of increasingly stringent and segmented demands, rapid evolution of technology and ever shorter life cycles have led to substantial growth in the relevance of innovation as a key factor to achieve advantageous positions in the market (García-Rodríguez et al., 2008). These obvious changes, both in society and in consumer habits by the general public have led us to realise that the models that worked in the past, in a different scenario, are no longer sufficient and the discipline of marketing, as practical and scientific know-how, cannot remain isolated from these changes. Therefore, in the current situation, with fast changing

markets and technology, companies who wish to guarantee their futures must innovate. In this sense, we would like to discuss marketing innovation in this paper as a strategy to better meet the needs of consumers and the products or services offered by companies to provide the highest possible value. Therefore the need to research characteristics of companies who innovate in marketing is pointed out, who do so in order to adapt to the new requirements by society and to survive in this demanding, dynamic context.

We also feel studying marketing innovation is extremely important due to the empiric lack of available evidence (Bhaskaran, 2006; Rammer et al., 2009; Schubert, 2010), and above all, in relation to Spanish companies, where we are only able to find theoretical articles. We shall therefore try to shine some light on the study of marketing innovation in companies in general, and in the retail sector in particular.

In view of the above, the objective of this reserach is to carry out a double analysis that firstly permits the structural characteristics of manufacturing and service companies associated with marketing innovation to be identified, based on the data from Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC) 2008. Secondly, it permits the identification of structural characteristics of Spanish retailers which are associated with marketing innovation, since the study of the retail sector in Spain is considered important due to the significant role that it plays in the country's economy, both due to contribution to overall GDP and employment. Furthermore, retailing is a key sector in the growth of cities and regions.

This paper focussing on marketing innovation is arranged in the following fashion: firstly the concept of marketing innovation is discussed and its repercussions in literature. Secondly, a number of theories are put forward before moving on to define the sample, variables and methodology employed in the study. Finally the results and conclusions of the study are shown.

## 2.3. Theoretical framework

New ideas today can transform any part of the value chain; product and service innovation are just the tip of the iceberg of innovation (Birkinshaw et al., 2011). In this regard, it is easy to fall into the trap of thinking that innovation is solely the creation of new products; fortunately, this way of thinking is changing and currently we can talk about innovation referring to many other aspects within a company. Therefore, any efforts and resources companies invest in new methods of marketing in their business are currently considered to be marketing innovation, and are just as important to increase competitiveness of companies as technological innovation.

The Oslo Manual is the guide drafted by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) which serves to compile and interpret information about innovation by companies. In the third edition (2005), there is a very significant change in marketing innovation, given that the relevance of this field is significantly heightened. Previously, technological product and process innovation defined the two unique types of innovation considered in the measurement of innovation. As of the third edition of the Oslo Manual, two other types of innovation were added at the same level as technological innovation: marketing innovation and organisational innovation (Figure 1).

**Figure 1.** Types of innovation according to the Oslo Manual



*Source: own source based on OECD (2005)*

According to  OECD (2005) marketing innovation can be defined as the application of a new method of marketing a product or service accounting for significant alterations to any of the following elements: design or packaging of a product, placement, promotion or price establishing criteria.

This definition by the Oslo Manual is fairly similar to the rest of the definitions we have found in the literature (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Definitions of marketing innovation in literature

| **Definition/Author** |
| --- |
| The application of a new marketing method for a product or service accounting for significant alterations to any of the following elements: product design or packaging, placement, promotion or price establishing criteria. **OECD (2005)** |
| The development of new marketing tools and methods. **Chen (2006)** |
| The application of a new marketing method which includes significant changes to the product, placement, promotion or price. Improvements in the marketing mix (4 marketing P's). **Deshpandé et al. (1993); Hurley & Hult (1998); Shergill & Nargundkar (2005); Naidoo (2010); Utkun & Atilgan (2010)** |
| Market research, price establishing strategy, market segmentation, promotions, sales channels and marketing information systems. **Vorhies & Harker (2000); Weerawardena (2003); Lin et al. (2010)** |

After explaining what is understood by marketing innovation, we would now like to mention that the most widely accepted definition today is the one defined in the Oslo Manual, which constitutes the methodological basis of statistics in innovation, and which is therefore the one we shall use through this research paper.

From the literature about innovation it must be pointed at that non-technological innovation, i.e. marketing and organisation, have generally been left to one side. Although there is abundant literature on innovation, most of it refers to product and process innovation. Over recent years, research has also focussed on organisational innovation, while paying very little attention to marketing

innovation; (Naidoo, 2010; Augusto & Coelho, 2009; Chen, 2006; Shergill & Nargundkar, 2005). In spite of the shortage of literature about this subject matter, we have found some authors who deal with the subject from different perspectives.

From a theoretical perspective, Ren et al. (2010) consider marketing innovation as an appropriate method for companies to obtain a sustainable, competitive advantage, while pointing out the fact that some businesses are too blinded by technology innovation, consequently preventing them from reaching competitive advantages through marketing innovation. O'Dwyer et al. (2009a) also defend the idea of achieving a sustainable competitive advantage through marketing innovation, moving on to conclude in their study that marketing innovation is most likely to consist of continuous, complementary adjustments to the activities or practices that are currently being carried out by a business, which enable small and medium size enterprises to stand out from standardized offers of products or services afforded by big companies. Along these same lines the study by Epetimehin (2011) on the insurance sector shows that marketing innovation and creativity are crucial to the success of the company through innovation in services, prices, promotion and distribution, consequently attracting clients and securing a competitive advantage.

In the available literature on marketing, most authors usually qualify marketing innovation as a type of incremental innovation (Grewal y Tansuhaj, 2001; Naidoo, 2010). In line with this train of thought, when analysing the shellfish market, Bhaskaran (2006) reached the conclusion that small and medium size enterprises which focus on incremental innovation, such as marketing innovation, are profitable and are able to secure a substantial competitive advantage and successfully compete with big businesses. Likewise, Rammer et al. (2009) consider that small and medium size enterprises who do not invest in internal R&D, can, through this kind of incremental innovation, achieve equally successful results as companies who do invest in internal R&D. And in the airport industry Halpern (2010) by analyzing the relationship between marketing

innovation and performance of airports, reached the conclusion that there is a positive effect between both variables.

From the literature review on marketing innovation we have observed that it has clearly taken two directions, the first deals with the concept of marketing innovation as such, whereas the second discusses the competitive advantages that businesses can achieve through said innovation.

Whichever the case, as emphasised by Halpern (2010), marketing innovation should not be confused with market innovation, discussed in the literature as "market innovation" which according to Johne (1999) involves improving the target market mix and how those markets can be better served.

As Chen (2006) cites, the development of new tools and marketing methods play an important role in the evolution of industries. Therefore, we believe that researching innovation by businesses in said variables, included under the concept of marketing innovation, is of utmost importance.

## 2.4. Research model and hypotheses

As pointed out previously, our interest in this paper is to study the factors that influence Spanish companies and retail sector when making decisions about marketing innovation. In order to do so, we are going to put forward a number of hypotheses which will help us to understand the importance those aspects have on decisions relating to marketing innovation.

The shortage of literature identified with empirical articles only dealing with marketing innovation forces us to justify some of our hypotheses with work that deals with technological and organisational innovation that we will try to extrapolate to marketing innovation. The hypotheses take the variables highlighted in the literature as reference points (size, activity, exports, R&D, group).

**Size.** Regarding the literature about the size of businesses and innovation, there are authors who voice a positive relationship between the two variables, and others who state a negative relationship. Authors such as Schumpeter (1934) are of the opinion that big companies have more resources to be able to take on innovation and also have greater capacity to absorb losses when facing risks of any kind, and therefore a positive relationship is proposed: the larger the size, the greater the trend to innovate. On the other hand, authors such as Acs & Audretsch (1987, 1991) and Afuah (1998) suggest that small companies are more likely to innovate because of their greater flexibility, since they have a much less bureaucratic structure than large companies. In agreement with the majority of authors, we shall put forward the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 1.** Marketing innovation will be greater, the larger the size of the company.

- Hypothesis 1a. Companies will be more likely to innovate in product design, the larger the size of the company.
- Hypothesis 1b. Companies will be more likely to innovate in product promotion, the larger the size of the company.
- Hypothesis 1c. Companies will be more likely to innovate in product placement, the larger the size of the company.
- Hypothesis 1d. Companies will be more likely to innovate in product pricing, the larger the size of the company.

**Activity.** Insofar as business activity is concerned Slater & Narver (1995) claim that the best way for service companies to innovate is by developing new services or applying new formulae to existing ones through creating new distribution channels or identifying new management approaches, which are essentially marketing innovations (Halpern, 2010).

**Hypothesis 2.** The likelihood of marketing innovation is significantly different depending on the business activity of the company.

- ▪ Hypothesis 2a. Product design innovation is more likely in manufacturing companies than in service companies.
- ▪ Hypothesis 2b. Product promotion innovation is more likely in service companies.
- ▪ Hypothesis 2c. Product placement innovation is more likely in service companies.
- ▪ Hypothesis 2d. Product price innovation is more likely in service companies.

**Exports.** On the other hand, distinctions must be made between companies who carry out export activities, and those who only sell their goods or services within their domestic markets. The available scientific literature claims, concerning this matter, that export companies are more likely to innovate owing to the fact that they operate in more competitive environments than those who limit their scope to domestic markets. Another reason why export companies have more incentive to innovate is, according to Nelson (1959), because by operating in more than one country they have more options to exploit novel results (economy of scope). Therefore, based on the literature about innovation, we put forward the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 3.** Export companies will tend towards greater marketing innovation.

- ▪ Hypothesis 3a. Export companies are more likely to innovate in design.
- ▪ Hypothesis 3b. Export companies are more likely to innovate in promotion.
- ▪ Hypothesis 3c. Export companies are more likely to innovate in placement.
- ▪ Hypothesis 3d. Export companies are more likely to innovate in prices.

**Internal R&D.** The work by Nelson (1986, 1989, 1992), Cohen & Levinthal (1989, 1990) shows the relevance of internal technological capacity to carry out innovation efforts. In this sense, companies who carry out internal R&D have a mentality oriented towards innovation, and are therefore more likely to be

involved in marketing innovation. Therefore, the following hypotheses are put forward:

**Hypothesis 4.** Companies with greater technological capability are more likely to innovate in marketing.

- Hypothesis 4a. Companies with greater technological capability are more likely to innovate in design.
- Hypothesis 4b. Companies with greater technological capability are more likely to innovate in promotion.
- Hypothesis 4c. Companies with greater technological capability are more likely to innovate in placement.
- Hypothesis 4d. Companies with greater technological capability are more likely to innovate in pricing.

**Business groups.** In the business market, there are companies who belong to the same business group, defining a business group as a supra-organisation with legally independent companies, linked by some kind of mechanism, either shareholdings and/or coordination of the use of one or more resource/s, including under a common decision-making centre in favour of which they yield part of their autonomy (Nieto, 2001). Companies belonging to a business group are characterised by having greater ability to face costs involved with innovation activities and therefore a more able to take any possible risks inherent to innovation activities.

**Hypothesis 5.** Companies belonging to a business group are more likely to innovate in marketing.

- Hypothesis 5a. Companies belonging to a business group are more likely to innovate in design.
- Hypothesis 5b. Companies belonging to a business group are more likely to innovate in promotion.
- Hypothesis 5c. Companies belonging to a business group are more likely to innovate in placement.

- Hypothesis 5d. Companies belonging to a business group are more likely to innovate in pricing.

Having defined all the hypothesis it is necessary to emphasize that all these hypotheses shuld be equally in the retail sector, since the purpose of marketing innovation is to improve business, attract new customers and obtain satisfaction as a way to increase customer loyalty and transform it into a competitive advantage. Hypothesis 2 is not analyzed in the case of trade since in this case we do not have the need to differentiate between manufacturing and service companies because the trading companies belong to the services sector.

The general analysis model for each of the marketing innovation types is defined as follows (Figure 2):

**Figure 2.** General analysis model



## 2.5. Methodology

### 2.5.1. Data

The database used to carry out this research work has been obtained from the Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC). PITEC is a statistical instrument that was conceived to follow-up on technological innovation activities by Spanish companies and was designed by the National Statistics Institute (INE), supported by a advisory group of university researchers, under the sponsorship of Spanish Foundation for Science and Technology (FECYT).

**Table 2.** Research Technical Card

| | |
|---|---|
| **Database** | Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC) |
| **Scope** | Spanish companies |
| **Sample size** | Manufacturers and services companies: 10,430 |
| | Retailers: 874 |
| **Region of study** | Spain |
| **Information compilation system** | Self-administered postal questionnaire |
| **Organisation responsible for the questionnaire** | INE (National Statistics Institute) |
| **Reference period** | 2008 |
| **Statistical programmes** | SPSS 15.0, STATA SE 10.0 |

For the first time, PITEC includes information concerning non-technological innovations (marketing and organisational) within the data corresponding to 2008. Up to that moment PITEC only collected information concerning product and process innovation.

In order to carry out our research work, we processed data from the last available year (2008). Table 3 below shows the descriptive statistics of the sample.

### 2.5.2. Statistical methods

The first step is to find out if the independent variables have any influence on our dependent variable, namely marketing innovation. In order to do so, we carried out a bivariable analysis using contingency tables between the independent variables, which we believe are discriminatory, and the dependent variable (marketing innovation) to tell us if there is a relationship between them, either of dependence or independence.

**Table 3.** Characteristics of the sample companies

| | | Retail | | Manufacturers Services | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Size | Micro | 72 | 8.2 | 1,246 | 11.9 |
| | Small | 287 | 32.8 | 3,888 | 37.3 |
| | Medium | 213 | 24.4 | 2,998 | 28.7 |
| | Large | 302 | 34.6 | 2,298 | 22.0 |
| Company activity | Manufacturers | . | . | 5,784 | 55.5 |
| | Services | . | . | 4,646 | 44.5 |
| Export activity | No | 488 | 55.8 | 5,260 | 50.4 |
| | Yes | 386 | 44.2 | 5,170 | 49.6 |
| Group companies | No | 453 | 51.8 | 6,285 | 60.3 |
| | Yes | 421 | 48.2 | 4,145 | 39.7 |
| Internal R&D activities | No | 627 | 71.7 | 5,311 | 50.9 |
| | Yes | 247 | 28.3 | 5,119 | 49.1 |
| **Total** | | **874** | **100** | **10,430** | **100** |

But the objective is to find out which business characteristics have an influence on the likelihood of a company innovating in marketing, and to what extent. Therefore, we are shall move on to use the Logit discrete choice models since they adapt to all kinds of independent variables (metric and non-metric) and do not require the supposition of multi-variant normality (Hair et al., 1999). Another valued option is to use the Probit models. Although these two models set out different probability distributions for random disturbance (logistics for Logit and normal standard in Probit), in most cases both models give similar results (Liao, 1994). The dependent variable is presented in binary form (0/1), thus the Binomial Logit model is used.

## 2.6. Results

### 2.6.1. General results

The first item to highlight is the incipient stage in which it is found, since not even three out of ten companies claim to carry out this kind of innovation. From the 10,430 companies analysed in the Technological Innovation Panel, 2,839 claimed to carry out some kind of marketing innovation, with modifications to product design and packaging (16.8%) being the most frequent forms of marketing innovation. Followed by promotion (14.4%), placement (11.9%) and pricing (10.3%).

**Table 4.** Percentage of companies implementing marketing innovation

|  | Percentage |
|---|---|
| Marketing Innovation | 27,2 |
| ▪ Design or packaging of a product | 16.8 |
| ▪ Promotion | 14.4 |
| ▪ Placement | 11.9 |
| ▪ Price establishing criteria | 10,3 |

**Bivariable analysis using contingency tables**

Table 5 shows the results of the bivariable analysis using contingency tables between the independent variables of the model and marketing innovation. This proves that marketing innovation is dependent on the chosen variables since through the Chi-square statistics it can be seen that there are statistically significant differences between the characteristics of the companies and marketing innovation, due to the fact that association shows a significance level below 1%. Therefore, the hypothesis that holds the fact that the variables are independent is rejected, and it can be claimed that there is a relationship of dependence between said variables and marketing innovation.

**Table 5.** Marketing innovation and company characteristics

|  |  | Marketing innovation | | Pearson's Chi-square | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | No | Yes |  |  |
| **Size** | Micro | 79.1% | 20.9% | 44.088 | <0.01 |
|  | Small | 71.4% | 28.6% |  |  |
|  | Medium | 70.2% | 29.8% |  |  |
|  | Large | 74.9% | 25.1% |  |  |
| **Activity** | Manufacturers | 69.7% | 30.3% | 61.811 | <0.01 |
|  | Services | 76.6% | 23.4% |  |  |
| **Exports** | No | 79.2% | 20.8% | 223.475 | <0.01 |
|  | Yes | 66.2% | 33.8% |  |  |
| **R&D** | No | 85.4% | 14.6% | 863.177 | <0.01 |
|  | Yes | 59.7% | 40.3% |  |  |
| **Group** | No | 73.5% | 26.5% | 4.417 | 0.019 |
|  | Yes | 71.7% | 28.3% |  |  |

**Logit Binomial**

The relationships between the different independent variables have been analysed, observing that there are no significant relationships between them, which a priori appears to indicate the absence of multicolinearity. Therefore the Logit model includes all the variables described to date.

Table 6 shows the estimated coefficients of the independent variables obtained in the Logit model estimate. The first column contains the results for marketing innovation. The subsequent columns provide the results for each of the types of marketing innovation analysed according to the Oslo Manual. Table 6 also shows the marginal effects, since through the coefficients of the variables we only identify the direction of change of the variables (through the sign of their coefficients). In the Logit models the magnitude of the effect of the change in the variables must be calculated through the marginal effects (Dunne, 1984).

In general, the models put forward present good overall significance of the parameters and a high percentage of correct predictions. Regarding adjustment to the Pseudo R2 model we can see an adjustment that is not too high. But this adjustment was to be expected since most of our variables are qualitative and, moreover, only six explicative variables were introduced in the model.

Marketing innovation. There is a significant, positive relationship between marketing and turnover ($\beta = 0.457$, $p < 0.01$), export activity ($\beta = 0.352$, $p < 0.01$), and the undertaking of internal R&D ($\beta = 1.268$, $p < 0.01$); and therefore H1, H3 and H4 are accepted. Belonging to a business group ($\beta = - 0.033$, $p > 0.1$), and the activity carried out by the company ($\beta = 0. 011$, $p < 0.1$), are not significantly related to marketing innovation, and therefore H2 and H5 are not accepted.

Concerning the magnitude of the effect of change, the variable with most specific weight on the decision to carry out marketing innovation is the fact that the company carries out internal R&D ($dy/dx = 0.2365$). This is followed by the turnover ($dy/dx = 0.0856$). Third place is occupied by the export activity of the company ($dy/dx = 0.0658$), which is finally followed by the number of employees, with smaller companies having higher likelihood ($dy/dx = 0.0475$) followed by medium size companies ($dy/dx = 0.0384$).

Design innovation. Product design includes the changes in the way or in the aspect that do not alter their functionality (OECD, 2005). Table 5 indicates there is a positive, significant relationship between companies with big turnovers ($\beta = 0.323$, $p < 0.01$), manufacturers ($\beta = 0.488$, $p < 0.01$), and that carry out export activities ($\beta = 0.451$, $p < 0.01$) and internal R&D ($\beta = 1.457$, $p < 0.01$), regarding product design innovation; therefore leading to H1a – H4a being accepted.

However, between design innovation and belonging to a business group, there is no significant relationship ($\beta = - 0.109$, $p > 0.1$); and therefore H5a is not accepted.

**Table 6.** Determining factors for adopting marketing innovation in Spanish companies

| | Marketing innovation | | Design innovation | | Promotion innovation | | Placement innovation | | Pricing innovation | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx |
| Small | 0.250*** | (0.0475) | 0.240** | (0.0283) | 0.254** | (-0.0500) | -0.415 | (-0.0406) | 0.022 | (0.0017) |
| Medium | 0.201** | (0.0384) | 0.229** | (0.0274) | 0.150 | (-0.0196) | -0.044 | (-0.0045) | 0.432 | (0.0379) |
| Large | 0.117 | (0.0221) | 0.175 | (0.0209) | 0.143 | (-0.0268) | -0.089 | (-0.0090) | 0.319 | (0.0266) |
| Turnover | 0.457*** | (0.0856) | 0.323*** | (0.0373) | 0.360*** | (0.0311) | 0.269*** | (0.0278) | 0.223 ** | (0.0179) |
| Manufacturers | 0.011 | (0.0019) | 0.488*** | (0.0553) | -0.402*** | | | | | |
| Export activity | 0.352*** | (0.0658) | 0.451*** | (0.0521) | 0.268*** | (0.0008) | -0.016 | (-0.0016) | -0.536** | (-0.0421) |
| Internal R&D | -0.033 | (-0.0062) | -0.109 | (-0.0124) | -0.058 | (0.1933) | 1.181*** | (0.1493) | 1.241*** | (0.1264) |
| Group company | 1.268*** | (0.2365) | 1.457*** | (0.1737) | 1.118*** | (0.0074) | 0.121 | (0.0125) | -0.168 | (-0.0134) |
| Constant | -2.101*** | | | | -3.259*** | | | | -2.541*** | |
| No. Obs. | 10.430 | | 10.430 | | 10.430 | | 10.430 | | 10.430 | |
| Pseudo-R$^2$ | 0.0823 | | 0.1094 | | 0.0537 | | 0.0549 | | 0.0451 | |
| LR chi2(8) | 1004.88*** | | 1032.12*** | | 462.25*** | | 418.75*** | | 311.39*** | |
| % correct predictions | 72.9 | | 83.2 | | 85.6 | | 88.1 | | 89.7 | |

Note: Significance coefficients: 1% ***, 5% **, 10% *. The marginal effects (dy/dx) are evaluated in the sample average. For the dichotomy variables, the marginal effect corresponds to the step from 0 to 1.

Promotion innovation. Promotion includes all new commercial communication action (changes of media, brand image or the use of new methods or techniques of communication, among others) (OECD, 2005). Table 5 shows that companies with most likelihood of innovating in product placement are those companies with higher turnovers ($\beta = 0.360$, $p < 0.01$), service companies ($\beta = -0.402$, $p < 0.01$) and those who carry out exports ($\beta = 0.268$, $p < 0.01$), and internal R&D ($\beta = 1.118$, $p < 0.01$), therefore accepting H1b – H4b.

Nevertheless neither is there a significant relationship in this case between design innovation and belonging to business groups ($\beta = -0.058$, $p > 0.1$); and therefore H5b is not accepted.

Market place innovation. Product placement refers to the use of new sales channels such as franchises, direct sales, Internet or mobile sales, among others (OECD, 2005). Table 5 indicates there is a positive, significant relationship between companies with large turnovers ($\beta = 0.311$, $p < 0.01$), services ($\beta = -0.400$, $p < 0.01$) those which export ($\beta = 0.380$, $p < 0.01$) and internal R&D ($\beta = 1.134$, $p < 0.01$), concerning innovation in placement; therefore accepting H1c – H4c.

Nevertheless, there is no significant relationship between design innovation and belonging to a business group ($\beta = -0.015$, $p > 0.1$); and therefore H5c is not accepted.

Price innovation. Innovation in pricing techniques, which are tactics widely used to activate demand, show a significant, positive relationship with turnover of the company ($\beta = 0.310$, $p < 0.01$), service companies ($\beta = -0.252$, $p < 0.01$), and export activities ($\beta = 0.203$, $p < 0.01$), and internal R&D ($\beta = 1.062$, $p < 0.01$) carried out by the company, therefore accepting H1d – H4d.

Nevertheless, as was true in the previous cases, between pricing innovation and belonging to a business group, there is no significant relationship ($\beta = -0.064$, $p > 0.1$); and therefore H5d is not accepted.

### 2.6.2. Retail results

The database provides us with a sample comprising 874 companies from which just under a quarter (26.1%) report to have implemented marketing innovation activities (table 7).

**Table 7.** Percentage of companies implementing marketing innovation

|                                      | Percentage |
| ------------------------------------ | ---------- |
| Marketing Innovation                 | 26,1       |
|   ▪ Design or packaging of a product | 12,6 |
|   ▪ Promotion               | 15,6       |
|   ▪ Placement               | 13,2       |
|   ▪ Price establishing criteria | 10,1   |

In the retail case, the database provides us with a sample comprising 874 companies from which just under a quarter (26.1%) report to have implemented marketing innovation activities. Activities with a higher weighting are those related to the use of new ways of communication (15.6%) and product placement activities (13.2%). Given that it is a sector close to the end user, they need to perform placement innovation activities to attract customers.

**Determining factors in retail marketing innovation**

Table 8 proves that marketing innovation is dependent on the chosen variables since through the Chi-square statistics it can be seen that there are statistically significant differences between the characteristics of the companies and marketing innovation, due to the fact that association shows a significance level below 1%. Therefore, the hypothesis that holds the fact that the variables are independent is rejected, and it can be claimed that there is a relationship of dependence between said variables and marketing innovation.

**Table 8.** Marketing innovation and retailer characteristics

| | | Marketing innovation | | Pearson's Chi-square | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | No | Yes | | |
| **Size** | Micro | 76,4% | 23,6% | 1,518 | 0,678 |
| | Small | 75,3% | 24,7% | | |
| | Medium | 70,9% | 29,1% | | |
| | Large | 74,2% | 25,8% | | |
| **Exports** | No | 77,5% | 22,5% | 7,206 | <0,01 |
| | Yes | 69,4% | 30,6% | | |
| **R&D** | No | 82,0% | 18,0% | 74,835 | <0,01 |
| | Yes | 53,4% | 46,6% | | |
| **Group** | No | 76,4% | 23,6% | 2,968 | 0,085 |
| | Yes | 71,3% | 28,7% | | |

The relationships between the different independent variables have been analysed, observing that there are no significant relationships between them, which, *a priori,* appears to indicate the absence of multicolinearity. Therefore the Logit model includes all the variables described to date.

Table 9 shows the estimated coefficients of the independent variables obtained in the Logit model estimate. The first column contains the results for marketing innovation. The subsequent columns provide the results for each of the types of marketing innovation analysed according to the Oslo Manual. Table 5 also shows the marginal effects, since through the coefficients of the variables we only identify the direction of change of the variables (through the sign of their coefficients).

In general, the models put forward present good overall significance of the parameters and a high percentage of correct predictions. Regarding adjustment to the Pseudo $R^2$ model we can see an adjustment that is not too high. But this adjustment was to be expected since most of our variables are qualitative and, moreover, only six explicative variables were introduced in the model.

**Marketing innovation**. There is a significant, positive relationship between marketing and turnover ($\beta = 0.237$, $p < 0.05$), and the undertaking of internal R&D ($\beta = 1.387$, $p < 0.01$); and therefore H1 and H3 are accepted.

However, between marketing innovation and belonging to a business group ($\beta = 0.136$, $p > 0.1$), and the export activity carried out by the retailer ($\beta = 0.133$, $p > 0.1$), there is no significant relationship; and therefore H4 and H2 are not accepted.

**Design innovation.** Product design includes the changes in the way or in the aspect that do not alter their functionality (OECD, 2005). Table 9 indicates there is a positive, significant relationship between companies with big turnovers ($\beta = 0.183$, $p < 0.1$), and that carry out export activities ($\beta = 0.866$, $p < 0.01$) and internal R&D ($\beta = 1.432$, $p < 0.01$), regarding product design innovation; therefore leading to H1a – H3a being accepted.

However, between design innovation and belonging to a business group, there is no significant relationship ($\beta = 0.067$, $p > 0.1$); and therefore H4a is not accepted.

**Promotion innovation.** Promotion includes all new commercial communication action (changes of media, brand image or the use of new methods or techniques of communication, among others) (OECD, 2005). Table 7 shows that retailer with most likelihood of innovating in product placement are those companies with higher turnovers ($\beta = 0.262$, $p < 0.01$), and those who carry out internal R&D ($\beta = 1.324$ $p < 0.01$), and therefore H1b and H3b are accepted.

Nevertheless neither is there a significant relationship in this case between design innovation and belonging to business groups ($\beta = 0.062$ $p > 0.1$), and carrying out export activities ($\beta = 0.007$ $p > 0.1$); and therefore H4b and H2b are not accepted.

**Table 9.** Determining factors for adopting marketing innovation in Spanish retailers

| | Marketing innovation | | Design innovation | | Promotion innovation | | Placement innovation | | Pricing innovation | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx |
| Small | -0.069 | (-0.0126) | 0.207 | (0.0185) | -0.444 | (-0.0500) | -0.415 | (-0.0406) | 0.022 | (0.0017) |
| Medium | 0.145 | (0.0272) | 0.209 | (0.0189) | -0.171 | (-0.0196) | -0.044 | (-0.0045) | 0.432 | (0.0379) |
| Large | 0.125 | (0.0232) | -0.054 | (-0.0046) | -0.232 | (-0.0268) | -0.089 | (-0.0090) | 0.319 | (0.0266) |
| Turnover | 0.237** | (0.0436) | 0.183* | (0.0159) | 0.262*** | (0.0311) | 0.269*** | (0.0278) | 0.223** | (0.0179) |
| Export activity | 0.133 | (0.0244) | 0.866*** | (0.0794) | 0.007 | (0.0008) | -0.016 | (-0.0016) | -0.536** | (-0.0421) |
| Internal R&D | 1.387*** | (0.2863) | 1.432*** | (0.1626) | 1.324*** | (0.1933) | 1.181*** | (0.1493) | 1.241*** | (0.1264) |
| Group company | 0.136 | (0.0249) | 0.067 | (0.0057) | 0.062 | (0.0074) | 0.121 | (0.0125) | -0.168 | (-0.0134) |
| Constant | -1.757*** | | -3.199*** | | -2.026*** | | -2.283*** | | -2.642*** | |
| No. Obs. | 874 | | 874 | | 874 | | 874 | | 874 | |
| Pseudo-$R^2$ | 0.0828 | | 0.1205 | | 0.0749 | | 0.0653 | | 0.0617 | |
| LR chi2(8) | 83.07*** | | 79.71*** | | 56.63*** | | 44.43*** | | 35.23*** | |
| % correct predictions | 74.8 | | 87.4 | | 84.7 | | 87.1 | | 89.9 | |

Note: Significance coefficients: 1% ***, 5% **, 10% *. The marginal effects (dy/dx) are evaluated in the sample average. For the dichotomy variables, the marginal effect corresponds to the step from 0 to 1.

**Market place innovation.** Product placement refers to the use of new sales channels such as franchises, direct sales, Internet or mobile sales, among others (OECD, 2005). Table 7 indicates there is a positive, significant relationship between companies with large turnovers ($\beta = 0.269$, $p < 0.01$), those which internal R&D ($\beta = 1.181$, $p < 0.01$), concerning innovation in placement; therefore accepting H1c and H3c.

Nevertheless, there is no significant relationship between design innovation and belonging to a business group ($\beta = 0.121$, $p > 0.1$), and carrying out export activities ($\beta = - 0.016$ $p > 0.1$); and therefore H4c are H2c are not accepted.

**Price innovation.** Innovation in pricing techniques, which are tactics widely used to activate demand, show a significant, positive relationship with turnover of the company ($\beta = 0.223$, $p < 0.05$), and internal R&D activities ($\beta = 1.241$, $p < 0.01$) carried out by the retailer, therefore accepting H1d and H3d. Moreover, innovation in pricing techniques show a significant, negative relationship with export activities ($\beta = - 0.536$, $p < 0.05$) therefore H2d is not accepted.

Nevertheless, as was true in the previous cases, between pricing innovation and belonging to a business group, there is no significant relationship ($\beta = - 0.168$, $p > 0.1$); and therefore H4d is not accepted.

## 2.7. Conclusions

Today's economic context, with strong competition, an increasingly demanding and segmented market, rapid evolution of new technologies and ever shorter product lifecycles, forces companies to become more competitive in order to survive. These obvious changes, both in society itself and in consumer habits, mean we have to wake up to the fact that the models that worked in the past in other scenarios are no longer sufficient and marketing, as a practical and scientific

discipline, cannot remove itself from these trends. We therefore believe that developing new marketing tools and methods play a major role in the competitiveness of companies and we have established the objective of analysing the factors that affect companies when making decisions about marketing innovation.

The results show that marketing innovation is currently at an incipient stage, since only 27.2% of Spanish companies and 26.1% of retailers claim to innovate in this way, with modifications to product design and packaging being the most frequently employed methods of marketing innovation for the first ones and with modifications to product design and packaging being the most frequently employed methods for the second.

The most noteworthy results from the research are outlined as follows:

▪ The companies that are most likely to innovate in marketing also carry out internal R&D activities, have high turnovers, export and are small or medium size companies. Retailers that are most likely to innovate in marketing also carry out internal R&D activities and have high turnovers.

▪ The companies that are most likely to innovate in design carry out internal R&D activities, they belong to the manufacturing sector, they export and have high turnover figures, and are small or medium size companies. Retailers that are most likely to innovate in design carry out internal R&D activities, they export and have high turnover figures.

▪ The companies that are most likely to innovate in promotion, carry out internal R&D activities, pertain to the service sector, having high turnovers, exporting their products and are small size companies. Retailers that are most likely to innovate in promotion carry out internal R&D activities and have high turnovers.

▪ The companies that are most likely to innovate in placement carry out internal R&D activities, belong to the service sector, export their services, have high turnovers and are small size companies. Retailers that are most likely to

innovate in placement carry out internal R&D activities, have high turnovers and do not export.

▪ The companies most likely to innovate in pricing, in line with the previous types of marketing innovation, also carry out internal R&D activities, are small size companies with high turnovers, belonging to the service sector and who export their products. Retailers that are most likely to innovate in pricing, in line with the previous types of marketing innovation, also carry out internal R&D activities and have high turnovers. However, unlike what one might expect the relationship between innovation in pricing and export activity is negative.

The undertaking of internal R&D is the principal determining factor of all kinds of marketing innovation. Therefore, we have reached the conclusion that companies who make major efforts to carry out these internal R&D tasks are also likely to carry out non-technological innovation such as the case of marketing. Along these lines we would like to point out that in the current situation of crisis, survival of organisations can be characterised by thinking about (Internal R&D) and launching (marketing) new offers which try to find a solution to the new economic context.

Turnover also represents a direct, significant relationship with carrying out marketing innovation in all types of marketing innovation, since this variable was included to measure the size of the companies. This result agrees with the findings of many authors such as Schumpeter, who defend the fact that company size has a positive influence on the innovative capacity of companies.

Concerning the relationship of each type of innovation with the business sector (manufacturing or services) it must be said that the results obtained are perfectly coherent since it is the manufacturing companies who make the products, and therefore they are the ones who mostly innovate in product design and packaging. On the other hand, service companies are the ones who are mainly in contact with end users and therefore they are the ones who need to address

innovation strategies regarding product or service placement, promotion and pricing.

Exports in all types of innovation have also given the expected result, i.e. a direct relationship with marketing innovation. However, pricing innovation in retailers reports a different behaviour when compared to the rest, given that there is an indirect relation between both variables. This can be explained by considering that companies that sell their products or services in other countries do not have the flexibility to develop pricing innovation there as they will have in the national market, as they have to adapt to the conditions and pricing in the target country. In any case, this feature shall remain for a further in-depth study.

And finally, as was expected, because there are no major differences between companies who belong to business groups and those that do not, regarding marketing innovation, the relationship between these two variables is not significant for any of the marketing innovation types.

As a final conclusion it is perhaps worth stating that companies cannot remain impassive before the new challenges of the current situation and must strive to better meet consumers' requirements through marketing innovation. Due to the incipient stage at which marketing innovation practices are currently found, we recommend companies take advantage of the moment and start to innovate in this aspects, more so in a country like Spain where the economy is very industrialised, developed and the so-called "basic" needs are already catered for, meaning the potential for growth will be through marketing innovation.

These results shed light on the marketing innovation carried out by companies, but in order to continue researching about this kind of innovation we believe that the first step to be taken should be to find a better definition for the concept of "marketing innovation", since it is not really clear what companies understand by marketing innovation. For this purpose it would be useful to fine tune an "ad hoc" measuring system to allow us to identify the depth of the revolution that is currently taking place in marketing, through the possibilities

conferred by new technologies with a whole heap of new systems for customer relations allowing us to get to know them better.

The effect of innovation on company performance has been researched by many authors and the results normally show a direct, positive effect between innovation and performance (Hult et al., 2004). Therefore, once the concept of marketing innovation has been defined and a scale of measures designed, future work could research the relationship between marketing innovation and company performance.

In the available literature about marketing innovation, "competitive advantage" is discussed. When a strategy cannot be satisfactorily implemented, imitated or copied by a potential competitor, it is said to provide the company with a sustainable, competitive advantage (Ren et al., 2010). The literature points out that these marketing innovation practices can lead companies to hold said competitive advantage, and we therefore suggest analyzing this aspect.

We shall finish off by saying that this paper includes certain limitations due to the use of a pre-elaborated database (PITEC). In this sense we have not been able to work with all the variables we would have liked. Neither have we been able measure marketing innovation in a manner we consider to be ideal, but instead have had to adapt our work to how it is measured in the database, which was designed for national statistics and consequently does not afford in-depth information about marketing innovation.

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# Capítulo 3.
# Los efectos de la crisis en
# la innovación en marketing

# CAPÍTULO 3

## 3.1. Resumen

Los objetivos de este capítulo son:

- Identificar las características estructurales de las empresas que han implementado innovaciones en marketing en dos momentos del tiempo diferentes, antes de la crisis y durante la misma.

- Identificar si el resto de tipos de innovaciones (producto, proceso y organización) influyen a la hora de llevar a cabo innovación en marketing.

- Analizar si las características estructurales de las empresas que innovan en marketing son estables en el tiempo.

La muestra de empresas, obtenida del Panel de Innovación Tecnológica, consta de dos submuestras (2008 y 2010) de 9.415 empresas cada una. La información se procesó utilizando un modelo logit binomial, pruebas paramétricas y no paramétricas para muestras independientes y una prueba de estabilidad estructural.

Se encontraron diferencias en los resultados de 2008 y 2010. La primera a destacar es que las empresas en España implementaron menos innovaciones en

marketing en 2010 que en 2008. El efecto del tamaño de una empresa sobre la probabilidad de innovar en marketing disminuyó en más de la mitad entre los dos períodos. Y en contraste con 2008, en 2010, las empresas que tenían más probabilidades de innovar en marketing eran las que exportaban a países fuera de la Unión Europea. En cuanto al resto de tipos de innovacion, producto, proceso y organización, se encontró que todas ellas presentaban una significativa mayor probabilidad de implementar innovaciones en marketing, destacando que la probabilidad de innovar en marketing aumentó en las empresas que también persiguieron innovaciones en organización.

Se puede decir que la crisis económica de los últimos años ha llevado a una disminución en las innovaciones en marketing. En momentos como este, muchas empresas concentran su energía simplemente en sobrevivir y como resultado, se olvidan de realizar tareas de innovación. Y si innovar, en general, pasa a un segundo plano, las innovaciones en marketing quedan relegadas casi al olvido, ya que suele ser el departamento de marketing el que sufre los recortes más profundos en tiempos de crisis. Sin embargo, el lado positivo sería que en momentos como el que se ha analizado, el tamaño deja de ser tan importante a la hora de innovar y la capacidad de llevar a cabo innovaciones por parte de las empresas se vuelve mucho más accesible a todo tipo de empresas.

En relación al ámbito geográfico de las empresas, al no afectar la crisis sólo a España, sino también a toda Europa, las empresas españolas se han podido ver forzadas a buscar nuevos mercados fuera de la UE, provocando que las empresas tengan que hacer un mayor esfuerzo en innovaciones en marketing para satisfacer mejor las necesidades de los consumidores de los diferentes paises.

En cuanto al resto de tipos de innovacion, se encontró que todas ellas presentaban una significativa mayor probabilidad de implementar innovaciones en marketing. Esto se puede deber a que cualquier innovación de producto, proceso o en organización que una empresa lleve a cabo pueda verse "mejorada" a través de la innovación en marketing como ayuda para su presentación o divulgación a los consumidores, ya que puede que sin la innovación en marketing no lo perciban como una innovación. En este sentido, destacar el incremento en la relación entre

las innovaciones en marketing y organización pudiendose deber a su carácter de no tecnológicas, lo que hace que estén más estrechamente relacionadas.

## 3.2. Introduction

In an economy where the only certainty is uncertainty, the one source of lasting competitive advantage is knowledge. Successful companies are those that consistently create new knowledge, companies whose sole business is continuous innovation (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Rapidly changing markets, technology, and consumer habits mean that the models companies once used are no longer sufficient. Intense competition is forcing companies to carry out innovative marketing activities in order to determine customers' needs and improve customer satisfaction and retention (Noori & Salimi, 2005). As a practical and scientific field of knowledge, the discipline of marketing cannot ignore these changes. However, there is a lack of empirical evidence related to marketing innovation (Bhaskaran, 2006; Geldes & Felzensztein, 2013; Medrano-Sáez & Olarte-Pascual, 2012; Rammer et al., 2009; Schubert, 2010).

This article will try to shed some light on marketing innovation. We seek to thoroughly study the marketing innovations implemented by companies as part of their strategy to better meet consumer needs. More specifically, this study arose from the need to identify the characteristics of companies that implemented marketing innovations at two different points: before and during the economic recession.

Consequently, our aim in this study is threefold. First, we will perform an analysis in order to identify which structural features of manufacturing and service enterprises were related to their propensity to pursue marketing innovations at two different points, 2008 and 2010, using data from the Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC). Second, we will determine whether there is a difference between the subsamples in how likely companies were to

innovate in marketing. Finally, we will look at whether the structural characteristics of enterprises that innovated in marketing were stable over time.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows. First, we will discuss the concept of marketing innovation and how it is defined in the literature. Second, we will define the hypotheses and methodology used in the study. Finally, we will present the results and conclusions.

## 3.3. Theoretical framework

Today, new ideas can completely transform any aspect of the value chain. Innovations in products and services are just the tip of the innovation iceberg (Birkinshaw et al., 2011). Consequently, the efforts and resources that enterprises dedicate to introducing new sales methods into their business are currently regarded as marketing innovations and as being just as important as technological innovations when it comes to boosting companies' competitiveness.

The Oslo Manual is a set of guidelines produced by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) for collecting and interpreting data on companies' innovation activities. The third edition (2005) gives significantly more importance to marketing innovations. Whereas previous editions considered only technological innovations in products and processes when measuring innovation activity in general, the third edition gives equal importance to two additional types of innovation: marketing innovations and organizational innovations.

According to the OECD (2005), a marketing innovation can be defined as the implementation of a new method for selling a product or service involving significant changes in any of the following aspects: product design or packaging, product placement, product promotion, or pricing. This definition from the Oslo Manual is fairly similar to the main definitions found in the literature. Thus, for example, Utkun and Atilgan (2010) define innovation in marketing as the

application of a new marketing method involving significant changes in a product's pricing, promotion, placement, or packaging. They also argue that the adoption by companies of a new approach including some of these practices is a marketing innovation.

Other authors, such as Vorhies and Harker (2000), Weerawardena (2003), and Lin et al. (2010), hold that marketing innovation refers to market research, pricing strategies, market segmentation, promotions, distribution channels, and marketing information systems.

As can be seen, the definitions found in the literature are quite similar. Nevertheless, the concept of "marketing innovation" is not always clear, since doubts can exist regarding the exact type of innovation in question. For something to be considered a marketing innovation, the marketing practices themselves do not need to be novel or original. They will more likely be adaptations of concepts or practices the company itself has developed. Alternatively, they may be marketing practices used by other companies that a company has integrated into its own marketing strategy.

Of these different definitions of marketing innovation, the most widely accepted is that given in the Oslo Manual, which provides the methodological basis for the manual's statistics on innovation. That definition is thus the one we will use in this study.

The literature on innovation has largely neglected non-technological innovations, i.e., innovations in marketing and organization. Although the literature on innovation is abundant, it mostly refers to product and process innovation. In recent years, research has also focused on organizational innovation, but marketing innovation has continued to receive little attention (Camisón & Villar-López, 2012; Ganter & Hecker, 2012; Naidoo, 2010; Augusto & Coelho, 2009; Chen, 2006; Shergill & Nargundkar, 2005). Despite the scarcity of literature, some authors have addressed the topic from different perspectives.

From a theoretical perspective, Ren et al. (2010) consider marketing innovation to be an appropriate method for companies to obtain a sustainable, competitive advantage. They further note that some businesses are so blinded by technological innovation that they fail to achieve competitive advantages through marketing innovation. O'Dwyer et al. (2009) also defend the idea of achieving a sustainable competitive advantage through marketing innovation, concluding that marketing innovation will most likely consist of continuous, complementary adjustments to current activities or practices that enable small and medium-sized enterprises to differentiate their product or service offers from those of big companies. Along the same lines, looking at the insurance sector, Epetimehin (2011) found that marketing innovation and creativity are crucial to a company's success, as innovation in services, prices, promotion, and distribution attracts clients and secures a competitive advantage. Similarly, Fabling (2006) found that companies are considered more innovative when they incorporate innovative marketing and organizational measures. Geldes and Felzensztein (2013) analyzed the characteristics of marketing innovations in the agribusiness sector.

In the literature on marketing, most authors consider marketing innovation to be a type of incremental innovation (Grewal & Tansuhaj, 2001; Naidoo, 2010). In keeping with this view, in an analysis of the shellfish market, Bhaskaran (2006) found that small and medium-sized enterprises that focus on incremental innovation, such as marketing innovation, are profitable and able to secure a substantial competitive advantage and to successfully compete with big businesses. Likewise, Rammer et al. (2009) found that small and medium-sized enterprises that do not invest in internal R&D can, through such incremental innovation, achieve results that are just as successful as those achieved by companies that do invest in internal R&D. Halpern (2010) concluded that marketing innovation had a positive effect on performance in the airport industry.

In the tourism sector, Hjalager (2010) and Buhalis and Law (2008) emphasized that the development of the World Wide Web over the past decade has led to a complete series of marketing innovations that impinge on most tourism businesses and have already led to a far-reaching reduction in traditional

marketing and sales intermediaries such as travel agencies. Hankinson (2004) argued that marketing innovations also include the co-production of brands, an activity found, for example, in the food and tourism industries.

A review of the literature on marketing innovation reveals two distinct approaches: the first deals with the concept of marketing innovation as such, whereas the second discusses the competitive advantages that businesses can achieve through the said innovation.

Whichever the case, as emphasized by Halpern (2010), marketing innovation should not be confused with what the literature calls "market innovation," which, according to Johne (1999), involves improving the target market mix and determining how these markets can be better served.

As Chen (2006) has noted, the development of new tools and marketing methods plays an important role in the evolution of industries. Therefore, it is of utmost importance for businesses to research innovation in these variables, including the concept of marketing innovation. Hsu (2011) found that Taiwanese computer and electronics firms incorporate design and marketing strategies into their design innovation because competition in the global market is so intense that only enterprises with advantages in design, innovation, rapid response, and flexibility can survive.

## 3.4. Research model and hypotheses

As mentioned above, our interest in this paper is threefold. To this end, we will present a series of hypotheses that will help us understand the importance of a variety of aspects in the decision to innovate in marketing.

Due to the apparent lack of empirical studies focusing on marketing innovation, we have had to justify some of our hypotheses with studies on technological and organizational innovation, which we have tried to transfer to

marketing innovation. The hypotheses take as their reference point the variables highlighted in the literature (size, geographic scope, field of activity, membership in a group, and other kinds of innovation), to which we added the surrounding circumstances to reflect the fact that we are studying the phenomenon at two different points in time.

The hypotheses regarding the study's three proposed objectives are discussed below.

Different authors have found both positive and negative relationships between company size and innovation. Authors such as Schumpeter (1934), Damanpour and Schneider (2006) or Bellas and Nentl (2007) maintain that large enterprises have more resources, which both enables them to implement innovations and increases their capacity to withstand losses should they have to assume any kind of risk. They thus defend a positive relationship: the larger the size of the enterprise, the more likely it is to innovate. In contrast, authors such as Acs and Audretsch (1987; Geroski, 1991) and Afuah (1998) claim that small enterprises are more likely to innovate due to the greater flexibility they enjoy compared to large enterprises as a result of their more wieldy structures. In keeping with the majority of the authors, we propose the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 1.** The larger the size of the enterprise, the more likely it is to innovate in marketing.

It is also necessary to differentiate between companies that export and those that only sell their goods or services domestically. In this regard, the literature says that exporting enterprises are more likely to innovate because they operate in more competitive environments than companies that operate only at the national level. According to Nelson (1959), companies that export also have a greater incentive to innovate since, because they are active in more than one country, they have more opportunities to take advantage of novel results (economies of scope). However, as noted by Ganter & Hecker (2012), it is not only whether a company exports that matters, but also the breadth of the geographical area in which it sells. A firm's geographic scope also positively

correlates to the necessities and possibilities of introducing marketing innovations. In other words, the more a company internationalizes, the larger the number and size of its competitors will be. At the same time, participation in a growing number of international markets affords access to more learning opportunities from innovative marketing practices. Therefore, a broader geographic scope both stimulates the need for innovation and creates favorable conditions for the adoption thereof (Geletkanycz & Hambrick, 1997; Kogut & Parkinson, 1993; Kogut & Parkinson, 1998). Consequently, in light of the literature on innovation, we propose the following hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 2.** The greater the geographic scope of the market in which a firm operates, the more likely it is to adopt marketing innovations.

With regard to the type of business activity, numerous studies, such as Gehrke et al. (2010), have analyzed innovation in enterprises in relation to the activity they perform. In this study, we are interested in the difference between manufacturing and service companies in terms of their likelihood to innovate in marketing. Slater and Narver (1995) argue that the best way for service companies to innovate is to develop new services or reformulate existing ones through the creation of new distribution channels or to identify new management approaches. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 3.** An enterprise's tendency to innovate in marketing differs significantly depending on the activity in which it is engaged.

Many enterprises in the marketplace belong to a group of companies, understood as an umbrella organization linking legally independent companies by means of some sort of mechanism, such as shared ownership and/or coordination of the use of one or more resources, and integrating them under a common decision-making body in which they have vested part of their autonomy (Nieto, 2001). Enterprises that belong to a group are characterized as having a greater capacity to absorb the expenses involved in innovation activities and, consequently, a greater capacity to face the potential risks of innovating. In this sense, Geldes and Felzensztein (2013) propose a relationship between inter-

organizational cooperation and marketing innovations in agribusiness. Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 4.** Enterprises belonging to a group of companies are more likely to innovate in marketing.

Nelson (1986, 1990) and Cohen and Levinthal (1989, 1990) found that enterprises that innovate in any aspect of their value chain have an innovation culture and are thus more likely to engage in other kinds of innovation, too. Zollo and Winter (2002) found that firms adopt a mix of learning behaviors due to a semiautomatic accumulation of experience and deliberate investments in knowledge articulation and codification activities. More specifically, the term "innovation culture" refers to the values, beliefs, and assumptions shared by an organization's members that can facilitate the innovation process. In this regard, a firm's cultural and social context can greatly influence its innovation capability (Martín-de Castro et al., 2013; Nielsen & Nielsen, 2009). Considering the role of successful innovation in an organization's culture, we propose the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 5.** Enterprises that carry out product innovations are more likely to innovate in marketing.

**Hypothesis 6.** Enterprises that carry out process innovations are more likely to innovate in marketing.

**Hypothesis 7.** Enterprises that carry out organizational innovations are more likely to innovate in marketing.

Improving competitiveness through innovation is the second of the five objectives proposed by the European Union (EU) for 2020 (European Commission, 2012). The importance that has thus been given to innovation by public authorities, organizations, and associations makes it possible for all enterprises to implement innovations. However, at present, the economic crisis is the most commonly cited obstacle to continuous growth in industry. Trends like these may be devastating in the short term, but they can also drive innovation

(Hjalager, 2010). On the one hand, Nickell et al. (2013) found that during the recession, successful firms sought out innovative ways to address the downturn, for example, by experimenting with new marketing techniques such as social media and crowdsourcing. On the other, Brenčič et al. (2012) found that the crisis is affecting organizational performance because companies are deploying fewer innovation activities. This study aims to determine whether the current economic crisis affects the likelihood of adopting marketing innovations and whether the features of those enterprises most likely to implement marketing innovations changed between 2008 and 2010. We thus propose the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 8.** Enterprises' likelihood of innovating in marketing changed significantly between 2008 and 2010.

**Hypothesis 9.** The characteristics of companies that innovate in marketing were not the same in 2008 and 2010.

Having now defined all the hypotheses, we will proceed to test them using the following general analytical model (Figure 1).

**Figure 1.** Diagram of the aggregate model
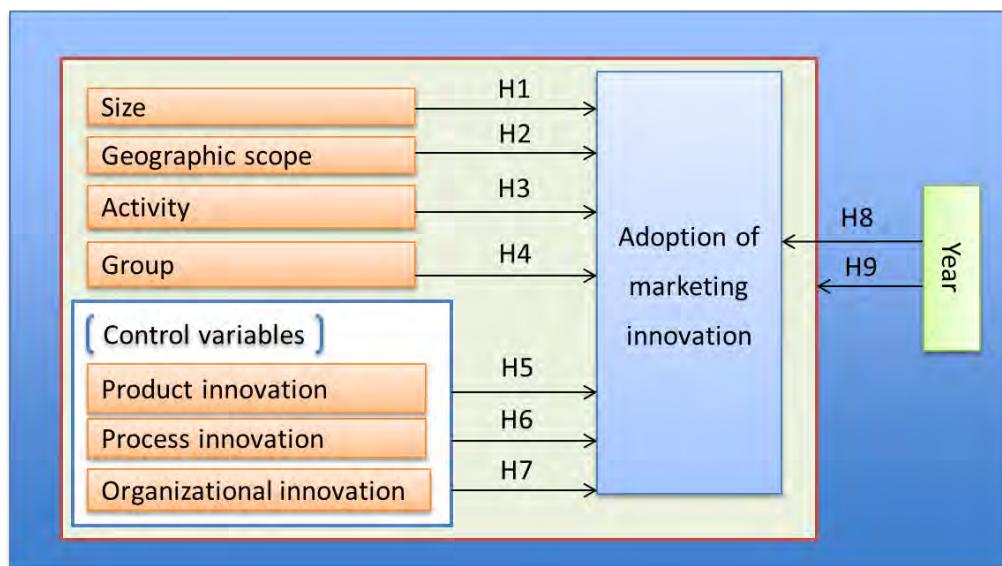
## 3.5. Methodology

### 3.5.1. Data

The data used to conduct the research was obtained from the Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC). PITEC is a statistical instrument created to monitor technological innovation activities by Spanish companies. It was designed by the Spanish National Statistics Institute (INE), with the support of an advisory group made up of university researchers, and it is sponsored by the Spanish Foundation for Science and Technology (FECYT). It is a well-known survey of data in the field of innovation and has been widely used by other authors to analyze technological innovation. Nevertheless, it has rarely been used to study marketing innovation.

**Table 1.** Research specifications

| | |
|---|---|
| **Database** | Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC) |
| **Scope** | Spanish companies |
| **Sample size** | 2008: Manufacturers and services companies 10,416 |
| | 2010: Manufacturers and services companies 9,578 |
| | Sample selected for the study: 9,415 |
| **Region of study** | Spain |
| **Information compilation system** | Self-administered postal questionnaire |
| **Organization responsible for the questionnaire** | INE (National Statistics Institute) |
| **Reference period** | 2008 and 2010 |
| **Statistical programs** | SPSS 15.0, STATA SE 10.0 |

In order to conduct our research, we processed data from manufacturing and service companies from the year 2008 and the last available year (2010). The

sample is composed of 9,415 enterprises and consists only of companies present in both years in order to enable comparisons between the 2008 and 2010 subsamples. Appendix 1 includes a description of the variables used for this study.

**Table 2.** Characteristics of the sample companies

| Variable | 2008 | | 2010 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Frequency** | **(%)** | **Frequency** | **(%)** |
| *Marketing innovation* | | | | |
| *No* | 6,801 | 72,2 | 6,911 | 73,4 |
| *Yes* | 2,614 | 27,8 | 2,504 | 26,6 |
| *Geographic scope* | | | | |
| *Local or regional* | 972 | 10,3 | 975 | 10,4 |
| *National* | 2,677 | 28,4 | 2,564 | 27,2 |
| *UE countries* | 1,793 | 19,0 | 1,700 | 18,1 |
| *Other countries* | 3,973 | 42,2 | 4,176 | 44,4 |
| *Company activity* | | | | |
| *Services* | 4,205 | 44,7 | 4,216 | 44,8 |
| *Manufacturers* | 5,210 | 55,3 | 5,199 | 55,2 |
| *Group companies* | | | | |
| *No* | 5,682 | 60,4 | 5,615 | 59,6 |
| *Yes* | 3,733 | 39,6 | 3,800 | 40,4 |
| *Product innovation* | | | | |
| *No* | 4,440 | 47,2 | 4,249 | 45,1 |
| *Yes* | 4,975 | 52,8 | 5,166 | 54,9 |
| *Process innovation* | | | | |
| *No* | 4,287 | 45,5 | 4,047 | 43,0 |
| *Yes* | 5,128 | 54,5 | 5,368 | 57,0 |
| *Organizational innovation* | | | | |
| *No* | 5,150 | 54,7 | 5,598 | 59,5 |
| *Yes* | 4,265 | 45,3 | 3,817 | 40,5 |
| ***Total*** | **9,415** | **100** | **9,415** | **100** |

### 3.5.2. Statistical method

The first step was to determine whether the independent variables had any influence on the dependent variable, namely, marketing innovation. To this end, we carried out a bivariate analysis using contingency tables of the independent variables, which we believed were discriminatory, and the dependent variable (marketing innovation) in order to determine whether there was any relationship, dependent or independent, between them.

However, the first aim (Figure 2) was to determine which business characteristics influenced a company's likelihood of innovating in marketing and to what extent. We thus chose to use binomial logit discrete choice models, as they can be adapted to all kinds of independent variables (metric and non-metric) and do not require the supposition of multivariant normality (Hair et al., 1999). We also weighed the option of using probit models. Although the two models set out different probability distributions for random disturbance (logistics for logit and normal standard in probit), in most cases they yield similar results (Liao, 1994).

**Figure 2.** Research methodology
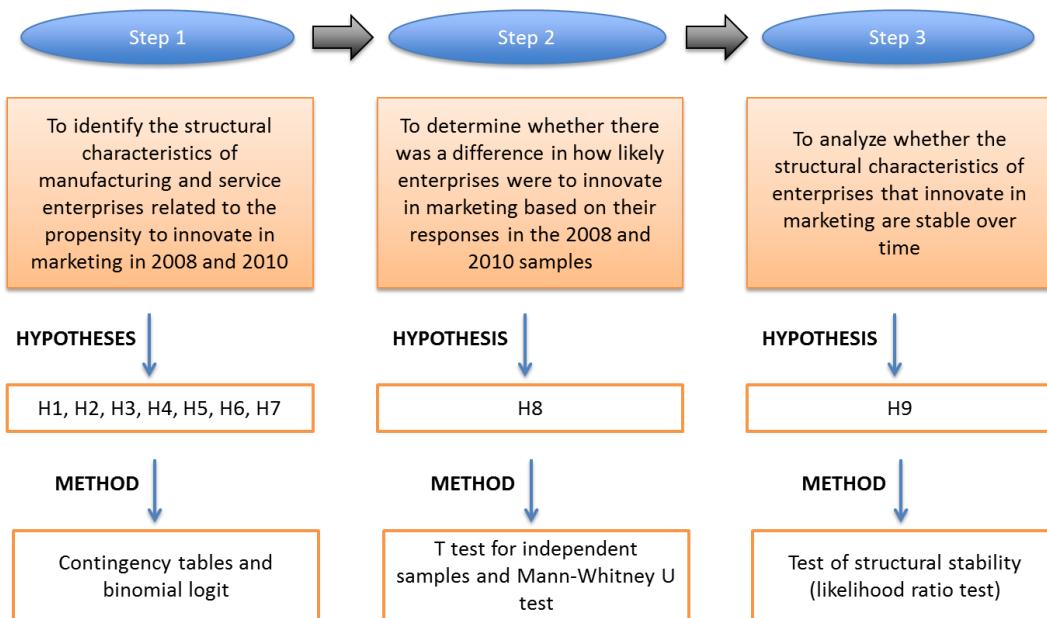
In order to prove whether or not enterprises' likelihood of innovating in marketing changed between 2008 and 2010, we used a T test for the independent samples and a non-parametric test, specifically, the Mann-Whitney U test.

Finally, to determine whether the structural characteristics of enterprises that innovate in marketing were stable over time, we carried out a test of structural stability, i.e., the likelihood ratio test (Hensher et al., 2005).

## 3.6. Results

**Bivariate analysis using contingency tables**

Table 3 shows the results of the bivariate analysis using contingency tables of the model's independent variables and marketing innovation. As can be seen in the Chi-square statistics, there were statistically significant differences between the various company characteristics and marketing innovation, as the significance level of the association was less than 5%. The results therefore show that marketing innovation was dependent on the chosen variables. There is thus a dependent relationship between the variables, and the hypothesis that held that the variables were independent can be rejected.

**Binomial logit**

The analysis of the association between the different independent variables did not reveal any significant relationships between them. A priori, this would seem to suggest an absence of multicollinearity. The logit model thus includes all the variables described thus far.

**Table 3.** Marketing innovation and company characteristics

| | 2008 | | | | 2010 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mk Inn (%) | | | | Mk Inn (%) | | | |
| **Variable** | **No** | **Yes** | **Pearson's $x^2$** | **Signif.** | **No** | **Yes** | **Pearson's $x^2$** | **Signif.** |
| *Geographic scope* | | | | | | | | |
| *Local or regional* | 9,4 | 0,9 | | | 9,3 | 1,0 | | |
| *National* | 22,0 | 6,4 | 307,016 | <0,01 | 21,8 | 5,4 | 340,472 | <0,01 |
| *UE countries* | 13,3 | 5,8 | | | 13,3 | 4,8 | | |
| *Other countries* | 27,6 | 14,6 | | | 29,0 | 15,4 | | |
| *Company activity* | | | | | | | | |
| *Services* | 34,1 | 10,6 | 61.552 | <0,01 | 34,3 | 10,4 | 42.072 | <0,01 |
| *Manufacturers* | 38,2 | 17,2 | | | 39,1 | 16,2 | | |
| *Group companies* | | | | | | | | |
| *No* | 44,1 | 16,3 | 4.594 | <0,05 | 45,0 | 14,7 | 28.534 | <0,01 |
| *Yes* | 28,2 | 11,5 | | | 28,4 | 11,9 | | |
| *Product innovation* | | | | | | | | |
| *No* | 41,3 | 5,9 | 987.717 | <0,01 | 40,0 | 5,1 | 928.429 | <0,01 |
| *Yes* | 30,9 | 21,9 | | | 33,4 | 21,5 | | |
| *Process innovation* | | | | | | | | |
| *No* | 39,5 | 6,1 | 821.517 | <0,01 | 37,8 | 5,2 | 765.792 | <0,01 |
| *Yes* | 32,8 | 21,7 | | | 35,6 | 21,4 | | |
| *Organizational innovation* | | | | | | | | |
| *No* | 49,0 | 5,7 | 1692.374 | <0,01 | 53,8 | 5,6 | 2075.007 | <0,01 |
| *Yes* | 23,3 | 22,0 | | | 19,6 | 21,0 | | |

Table 4 shows the estimated coefficients of the independent variables obtained in the estimation of the logit model. The first column contains the results for marketing innovation. The subsequent columns show the results for each of the types of marketing innovation defined by the Oslo Manual, that is, innovations in product design, product promotion, product placement, and pricing. Table 4 also shows the marginal effects, since the variables' coefficients indicate only the direction of the change in the variables (through their sign). In logit models, the magnitude of the effect of the change in the variables has to be calculated through

the marginal effects (Dunne, 1984). These marginal effects can be obtained via the following formula (Greene, 2008):

$$\frac{\partial E(Y/X)}{\partial X} = \wedge (\beta'X)\big(1 - \wedge (\beta'X)\big) * \beta_j$$

Table 4 shows that there was a significant, positive relationship between marketing innovation and turnover in both periods. Therefore, Hypothesis 1, which held that the larger an enterprise is, the more likely it is to innovate, can be accepted. With regard to the geographical scope of each company's sales in 2008 and 2010, Hypothesis 2, which stated that the greater the geographical scope of a company's activity, the more likely it is to innovate in marketing, can also be accepted. As for a company's field of activity, the models for all four types of marketing innovation cited by the OECD (2005) show that an enterprise's activity is significant for each type of innovation. Consequently, Hypothesis 3, which states that an enterprise's tendency to innovate in marketing differs significantly depending on the activity in which it is engaged, can be accepted, too. Membership in a group of companies likewise proved to be significant; however, the relationship between the two variables was negative. Thus, Hypothesis 4, which posited a positive relationship between membership in a group of companies and the tendency to innovate in marketing, was rejected for both years. Finally, with regard to the control variables, Hypotheses 5, 6, and 7 were all satisfied: enterprises that carried out product, process, or organizational innovations were more likely to innovate in marketing.

**Differences in likelihood depending on the period**

In order to test whether there were statistically significant differences in a company's likelihood of innovating in marketing in 2008 and 2010, a T test was performed for independent samples followed by a non-parametric test, namely, the Mann-Whitney U test.

**Table 4.** Determining factors for the adoption of marketing innovations in Spanish companies

| | Marketing innovation | | Innovation in design | | Innovation in promotion | | Innovation in placement | | Innovation in pricing | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 2008 | 2010 | 2008 | 2010 | 2008 | 2010 | 2008 | 2010 | 2008 | 2010 |
| Turnover | 0.268*** | 0.138** | 0.197*** | 0.169*** | 0.227*** | 0.132** | 0.187*** | 0.197*** | 0.218*** | 0.106** |
| | (0.0440) | (0.0212) | (0.0186) | (0.0135) | (0.0197) | (0.0073) | (0.0132) | (0.0166) | (0.0122) | (0.0071) |
| Geographic scope | | | | | | | | | | |
| National | 0.743*** | 0.495*** | 0.693*** | 0.613*** | 0.605*** | 0.601*** | 0.726*** | 0.492*** | 0.851*** | 0.626*** |
| | (0.1331) | (0.0817) | (0.0749) | (0.0555) | (0.0586) | (0.0377) | (0.0589) | (0.0454) | (0.0569) | (0.0477) |
| EU countries | 1.018*** | 0.710*** | 1.030*** | 0.869*** | 0.738*** | 0.681*** | 0.883*** | 0.618*** | 0.795*** | 0.787*** |
| | (0.1959) | (0.1248) | (0.1268) | (0.0881) | (0.0773) | (0.0460) | (0.0790) | (0.0612) | (0.0558) | (0.0658) |
| Other countries | 1.004*** | 0.882*** | 1.124*** | 0.998*** | 0.722*** | 0.809*** | 0.969*** | 0.914*** | 0.742*** | 1.154*** |
| | (0.1720) | (0.1404) | (0.1174) | (0.0855) | (0.0662) | (0.0473) | (0.0742) | (0.0814) | (0.0443) | (0.0842) |
| Company activity | -0.022 | -0.068 | 0.482*** | 0.550*** | -0.470*** | -0.295*** | -0.467*** | -0.544*** | -0.230*** | -0.436*** |
| | (-0.0036) | (-0.0105) | (0.0454) | (0.0441) | (-0.0417) | (-0.0165) | (-0.0337) | (-0.0470) | (-0.0130) | (-0.0298) |
| Group company | -0.215*** | -0.150*** | -0.212*** | -0.139*** | -0.190*** | -0.166** | -0.144** | -0.164** | -0.237*** | -0.099 |
| | (-0.0348) | (-0.0230) | (-0.0200) | (-0.0110) | (-0.0162) | (-0.0090) | (-0.0100) | (-0.0135) | (-0.0130) | (-0.0066) |
| Product innovation | 1.043*** | 0.984*** | 1.200*** | 1.178*** | 0.825*** | 0.600*** | 0.893*** | 0.810*** | 0.785*** | 0.905*** |
| | (0.1683) | (0.1478) | (0.1147) | (0.0928) | (0.0712) | (0.0326) | (0.0627) | (0.0667) | (0.0438) | (0.0596) |
| Process innovation | 0.604*** | 0.517*** | 0.647*** | 0.518*** | 0.608*** | 0.483*** | 0.462*** | 0.469*** | 0.609*** | 0.307*** |
| | (0.0975) | (0.0780) | (0.0610) | (0.0405) | (0.0520) | (0.0260) | (0.0321) | (0.0385) | (0.0336) | (0.0202) |
| Organizational innovation | 1.678*** | 1.969*** | 1.287*** | 1.674*** | 1.635*** | 2.074*** | 1.615*** | 1.890*** | 1.823*** | 1.925*** |
| | (0.2863) | (0.3356) | (0.1326) | (0.1602) | (0.1579) | (0.1500) | (0.1281) | (0.1936) | (0.1194) | (0.1619) |
| Constant | -3.738*** | -3.646*** | -4.754*** | -4.991*** | -4.050*** | -4.646*** | -4.433*** | -4.059*** | -4.834*** | -4.559*** |
| No. Obs. | 9.415 | 9.415 | 9.415 | 9.415 | 9.415 | 9.415 | 9.415 | 9.415 | 9.415 | 9.415 |
| Nagelkerke's R2 | 0.334 | 0.362 | 0.271 | 0.295 | 0.229 | 0.230 | 0.208 | 0.267 | 0.210 | 0.252 |
| LR chi2(9) | 2481.54*** | 2696.87*** | 1678.33*** | 1766.65*** | 1312.37*** | 1127.55*** | 1083.10*** | 1565.59*** | 1013.52*** | 1557.48*** |
| % correct predictions | 79.2 | 77.4 | 84.5 | 82.7 | 89.34 | 85.3 | 84.9 | 87.4 | 87.4 | 89.6 |

Significance coefficients: 1%***, 5%**, 10%*. The marginal effects (in parentheses) are evaluated in the sample average. For the dichotomy variables, the marginal effect corresponds to the step from 0 to 1.

The probability variable was created from the beta values of the logit analysis done for each year using the following formula (Greene, 2008):

$$P\ (Y=1) = (e^{\beta i})/\ (1+e^{\beta i})$$

After conducting the two tests, we were able to reject the null hypothesis, with 99% probability. Consequently, we can state that statistically significant differences in the likelihood of innovating in marketing did exist between the two periods; we thus accepted Hypothesis 8. Figure 3 shows the decline in probability in 2010 in comparison with 2008.

**Figure 3.** Mean probabilities in the years 2008 and 2010
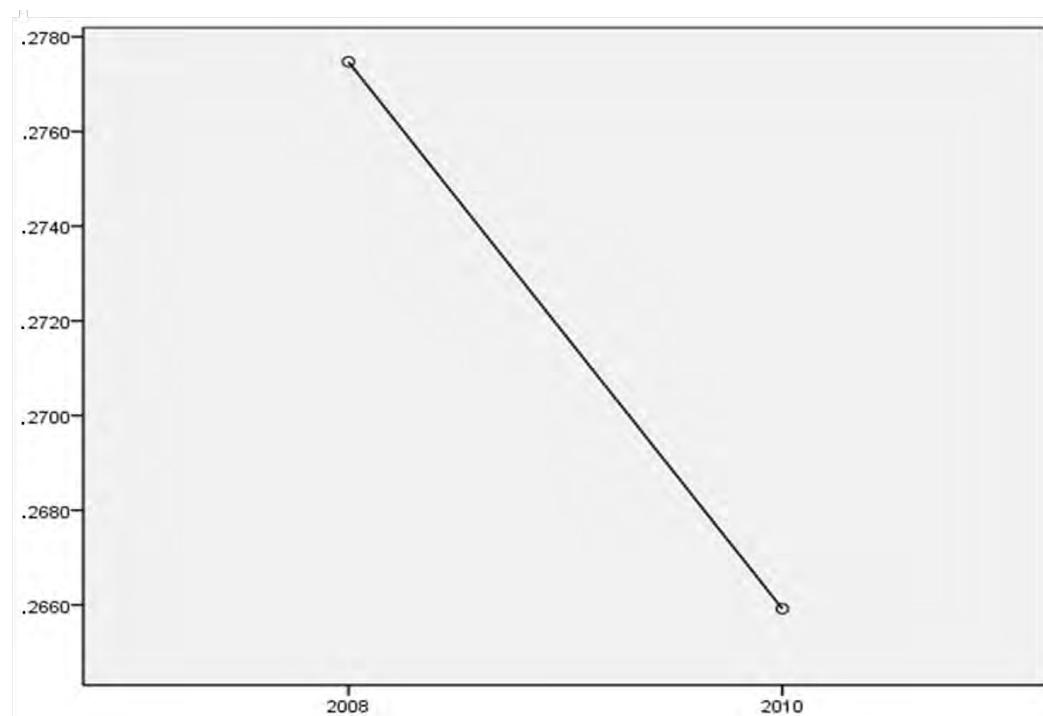


**Structural changes over time**

In order to determine whether the structural characteristics of enterprises that innovated in marketing were stable over time, we carried out a test of structural stability, specifically, the likelihood ratio test (Table 5).

**Table 5.** Results of likelihood ratio test

**Dependent variable: Marketing innovation**

Pooled Log likelihood function = -8437.0951

| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Err. | z | P>z | [95% Conf. | Interval] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Turnover** | .197442 | .047666 | 4.14 | 0.000 | .104018 | .29086 |
| **National** | .618939 | .093125 | 6.65 | 0.000 | .436417 | .80146 |
| **EU** | .869538 | .096162 | 9.04 | 0.000 | .681062 | 1.05801 |
| **Other** | .942097 | .092416 | 10.19 | 0.000 | .760963 | 1.12323 |
| **Activity** | -.043677 | .043748 | -1.00 | 0.318 | -.129421 | .04206 |
| **Group** | -.181681 | .039938 | -4.55 | 0.000 | -.259958 | -.10340 |
| **Product innovation** | 1.013573 | .044222 | 22.92 | 0.000 | .926898 | 1.10024 |
| **Process innovation** | .558769 | .045090 | 12.39 | 0.000 | .470394 | .64714 |
| **Organizational inn** | 1.825903 | .041857 | 43.62 | 0.000 | 1.743863 | 1.90794 |
| **Constant** | -3.69496 | .093449 | -39.54 | 0.000 | -3.878117 | -3.51180 |

2008 Log likelihood function = -4321.2033

| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Err. | z | P>z | [95% Conf. | Interval] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Turnover** | .26825 | .0699516 | 3.83 | 0.000 | .131147 | .405352 |
| **National** | .74332 | .1322828 | 5.62 | 0.000 | .484056 | 1.002595 |
| **EU** | 1.01762 | .1364633 | 7.46 | 0.000 | .750158 | 1.285085 |
| **Other** | 1.00432 | .1321077 | 7.60 | 0.000 | .745401 | 1.263254 |
| **Activity** | -.02172 | .0609045 | -0.36 | 0.721 | -.141092 | .097649 |
| **Group** | -.21499 | .0560673 | -3.83 | 0.000 | -.324880 | -.105100 |
| **Product innovation** | 1.04326 | .0603763 | 17.28 | 0.000 | .924927 | 1.161598 |
| **Process innovation** | .60393 | .0616545 | 9.80 | 0.000 | .483092 | .724773 |
| **Organizational inn** | 1.67838 | .0589567 | 28.47 | 0.000 | 1.562828 | 1.793934 |
| **Constant** | -3.69496 | .0934495 | -39.54 | 0.000 | -3.878117 | -3.511802 |

2010 Log likelihood function = -4104.8602

| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Err. | z | P>z | [95% Conf. | Interval] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Turnover** | .13772 | .0615481 | 2.24 | 0.025 | .017092 | .25835 |
| **National** | .49479 | .1315899 | 3.76 | 0.000 | .236881 | .75270 |
| **EU** | .71027 | .1360276 | 5.22 | 0.000 | .443662 | .97688 |
| **Other** | .88204 | .1296339 | 6.80 | 0.000 | .627964 | 1.13612 |
| **Activity** | -.06763 | .0630577 | -1.07 | 0.283 | -.191226 | .05595 |
| **Group** | -.15043 | .0570857 | -2.64 | 0.008 | -.262322 | -.03855 |
| **Product innovation** | .98400 | .0651877 | 15.09 | 0.000 | .856242 | 1.11177 |
| **Process innovation** | .51698 | .0664261 | 7.78 | 0.000 | .386790 | .64717 |
| **Organizational inn** | 1.96888 | .0597231 | 32.97 | 0.000 | 1.851825 | 2.08593 |
| **Constant** | -3.64568 | .1311933 | -27.79 | 0.000 | -3.902822 | -3.38855 |

Chi squared [10] = -2 [-8437.0951 – [-4321.2033+ (-4104.8602)]] = 22.0632

The null hypothesis (no structural change) can be rejected, as 95 per cent of the critical value from the chi-squared table is 18.3070, so the null hypothesis (no structural change) can be rejected, and we can accept that there were structural changes over time. Therefore, Hypothesis 9 can be accepted (Figure 4).

**Figure 4.** Results
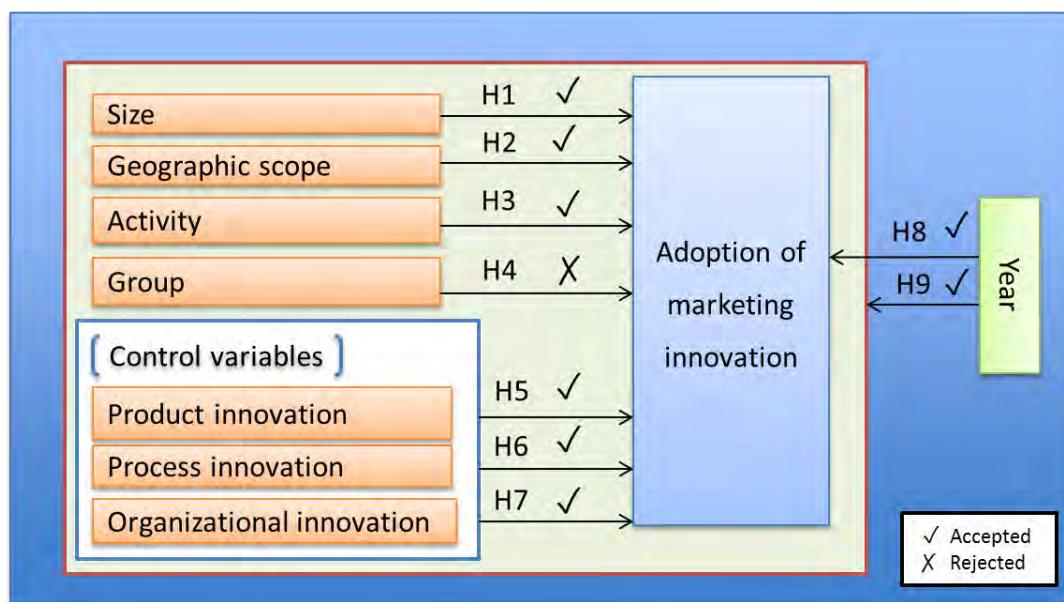


Table 6 provides a summary of all the relationships examined in the study taking into account the magnitude of the effect through the marginal effects. The independent variables are listed in descending order of the magnitude of their effect on the dependent variable (marketing innovation).

As the table shows, the weight of the turnover variable in 2010 dropped to less than half of what it was in 2008. With regard to the geographic scope of the enterprise's activities, the likelihood of innovating in marketing decreased in all cases; however, it dropped least among enterprises that exported to other countries. The likelihood of marketing innovation by enterprises that did not belong to a group of companies was also lower in 2010 than in 2008. Likewise, the effect of also innovating in products and processes was smaller in 2010 than in 2008. In contrast, the case of organizational innovation ran contrary to the others: enterprises that innovated in organization were more likely to adopt marketing innovations in 2010 than in 2008.

**Table 6.** Importance and direction of the variables affecting marketing innovation in enterprises

| Marketing innovation | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 2008 | | | 2010 | | |
| Effect direction | Variable | Magnitude of the effect | Effect direction | Variable | Magnitude of the effect |
| + | Organizational innovation | (0.2863) | + | Organizational innovation | (0.3356) |
| + | EU countries | (0.1959) | + | EU countries | (0.1478) |
| + | Other countries | (0.1720) | + | Other countries | (0.1404) |
| + | Product innovation | (0.1683) | + | Product innovation | (0.1248) |
| + | National | (0.1331) | + | National | (0.0780) |
| + | Process innovation | (0.0975) | + | Process innovation | (0.0817) |
| + | Turnover | (0.0440) | + | Turnover | (0.0212) |
| - | Group company | (-0.0348) | - | Group company | (-0.0230) |

## 3.7. Conclusions

This research aimed to highlight the importance for companies of innovation in general and of marketing innovation in particular. At the same time, it aimed to make the effects of such efforts known to national and international organizations that are firmly committed to fostering innovation.

With regard to company size, we found that the larger an enterprise, the more likely it is to implement marketing innovations, as reported by other authors (Schumpeter, 1934; Damanpour & Schneider, 2006 Bellas & Nentl, 2007). However, the effect of size on the likelihood of innovating in marketing is decreasing, perhaps because in recent years Spanish public policy has placed particular importance on supporting small and medium-sized enterprises, since they constitute a very significant share of the country's business structure.

With regard to the geographic scope of an enterprise's sales, we were able to draw several key conclusions. In 2008, enterprises that conducted their business

in the EU were more likely to innovate in marketing than those that also sold to the rest of the world. In contrast, in 2010, the companies most likely to innovate in marketing were those that also sold in other markets. This can be explained by the economic crisis in recent years, not only in Spain but also throughout Europe, which has forced Spanish companies to seek out new markets outside the EU and, thus, to make a greater effort with regard to marketing innovation in order to better meet the needs of consumers in the new countries. These findings underscore, first, the effect of public policies aimed at encouraging internationalization and, second, the need to sell abroad in order to survive due to stagnant consumption in the EU.

As for the tendency for marketing innovations to depend on an enterprise's activity, the differences between the two sectors – manufacturing and services – becomes significant when the variable is broken down into the four types of marketing innovation proposed by the OECD (2005). Specifically, manufacturing enterprises make products and, therefore, have a greater need to innovate in product design and packaging. In contrast, service companies are generally in closer contact with the end consumer and, thus, must embrace innovative strategies regarding product or service placement, promotion, and pricing. These findings show that there are statistically significant differences in an enterprise's likelihood of adopting marketing innovations, depending on its business activity.

Contrary to what might have been expected and to the innovation culture theory (Martín-de Castro et al., 2013; Nielsen & Nielsen, 2009), whether or not a company belongs to a group of companies was indirectly related to the tendency to innovate in marketing. Specifically, companies that are not members of a group are more likely to innovate in marketing. This may be because companies that belong to groups tend to be less flexible and depend more on the parent company, whereas independent enterprises have greater flexibility with regard to making decisions about marketing innovations. According to Felzensztein et al. (2010), cooperation on marketing activities varies depending on regional and national culture; therefore, each company operates independently. Finally, membership in

a group of companies is constant over time, although it may be affected by public policies supporting innovation in all types of companies.

With regard to the control variables, as expected, the different kinds of innovation (product, process, and organizational) were found to correlate significantly with a greater likelihood of implementing marketing innovations. This is because any product, process, or organizational innovation an enterprise might make must be backed by marketing innovations in order to be presented and publicized innovatively to consumers, who, otherwise, will not perceive it as an innovation. However, attention must also be drawn to the notable increase between 2008 and 2010 in the tendency for companies that pursue organizational innovations to innovate in marketing as well, which suggests that the two kinds of innovation may be closely related.

Finally, this study found that the characteristics of enterprises that innovate in marketing undergo structural changes over time. This may be due to the huge efforts of various national and organizational bodies to foster innovation. On the one hand, the ability to innovate has become much more accessible to all kinds of companies. On the other, the current deep economic crisis has led many enterprises to concentrate their energy simply on surviving; as a result, they are not focusing on innovation in general, let alone on innovation in marketing in particular, since it is usually the marketing department that suffers the deepest cuts in times of crisis. This point was clearly reflected in Hypothesis 8, which revealed statistically significant differences between the two periods in terms of companies' likelihood of innovating in marketing and, specifically, showed that companies were much less likely to do it in 2010 than in 2008.

**Implications for management**

Marketing innovation is currently still in its early stages and may even have suffered setbacks in recent times due to the economic crisis. Companies should thus take advantage of this early stage and innovate in marketing as a way

of differentiating themselves from their rivals and to become more competitive. This is particularly true given that marketing innovations need not involve an excessively high cost for enterprises.

It is also worth noting that continued investment in innovation is the best way to achieve economic development. This raises the question of the need to promote business programs that encourage innovation, albeit adapted to different types of innovation and firm characteristics.

In keeping with Noori and Salimi (2005), we also recommend that, as part of the process of designing a marketing strategy to meet the challenges of environmental change, firms analyze their active customers in order to identify opportunities for marketing innovation.

## Limitations and future research

This study has opened up various paths for future research.

First, it would be interesting to conduct an analysis over a longer time span, something that could not be done in this study, as the chosen database did not begin to provide data on the marketing innovation variable until 2008.

In addition, the study could be broadened by breaking down the "geographical scope" variable more precisely. The term "other countries" covers a very wide range of countries with completely different cultures. Examining this aspect in greater depth could thus yield very interesting conclusions.

Further research into the concept of "marketing innovation" would also be interesting, since it is not entirely clear what companies understand by the term. To this end, an ad hoc measuring system could be designed to provide greater insight into the latest developments in marketing as a result of the possibilities afforded by new technologies, including a multitude of new customer relations systems that provide companies with much more insight into their customers.

Another key finding was the link between marketing innovation and other types of innovation, such as organizational innovation. We believe that the model should thus include internal variables related to the people running the enterprises, such as their attitude, motivations, or expectations, which may be very closely related to the decision to tackle innovation.

The effects of innovation on company performance have been studied by many authors, and the results normally show a direct, positive correlation between innovation and performance (Hult et al., 2004). Therefore, once the concept of marketing innovation has been defined and a measuring scale designed, future work could research the relationship between marketing innovation and company performance.

The published literature about marketing innovation also discusses competitive advantages. When a strategy cannot be satisfactorily implemented, imitated, or copied by a potential competitor, it is said to provide the company with a sustainable, competitive advantage (Ren et al., 2010). The literature suggests that marketing innovation practices can give companies a competitive advantage. We thus suggest analyzing this aspect.

Finally, this study was subject to certain limitations due to the use of a pre-prepared database (PITEC). We were thus unable to work with all the variables we would have liked. We were likewise unable to measure marketing innovation in what we consider to be the ideal way, but instead had to adapt our work to how marketing innovation is measured in the chosen database, which was designed for national statistics and consequently does not afford in-depth information about marketing innovation.

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## Appendix A. Variable definition

| Independent variables | Category | Description |
|---|---|---|
| **Turnover** | Continuous | Numerical value (in billion euros) |
| **Activity sector** | Binary | Assigned the value of 1 if the firm was manufacturing, and 0 if was service company. |
| **Geographic scope** | Continuous | This variable comprises the scope of locations composing a company's sales market. If it is only local or regional, the study assigns the value 1. If it is limited to within Spain, the variable takes on the value 2. If the sales markets cover EU countries, EFTA countries, or EU candidate countries, the value is 3. Finally, when the firm crosses the threshold mark of sales in "other countries", it achieves the value 4. |
| **Group** | Binary | Assigned the value of 1 if the firm belonged to a group of companies, and 0 otherwise. |
| **Product innovation** | Binary | Assigned the value of 1 if the firm adopted product innovation, and 0 otherwise. |
| **Process innovation** | Binary | Assigned the value of 1 if the firm adopted process innovation, and 0 otherwise. |
| **Organizational innovation** | Binary | Assigned the value of 1 if the firm adopted organizational innovation, and 0 otherwise. |

# Capítulo 4.
# La innovación en marketing en el pequeño y mediano comercio

# CAPÍTULO 4

## 4.1. Resumen

Los objetivos de este capítulo son:

- Analizar las características estructurales de los pequeños y medianos comercios que han implementado innovaciones en marketing, producto, proceso y en organización.

- Analizar la relación exitente entre la innovación en marketing y los otros tres tipos de innovaciones (producto, proceso y organización).

La muestra de empresas, obtenida del Panel de Innovación Tecnológica, consta de 5.974 medianas y pequeñas empresas, de las cuales 463 pertenecen al sector comercio y las restantes 5.511 empresas a otros sectores. Considerando los dos objetivos del estudio, el análisis estadístico a través de los modelos logit se divide en dos partes. En primer lugar, se examina la probabilidad de que las empresas se involucren en cada tipo de innovación (producto, proceso, organización y marketing) para poder analizar la relación entre la innovación en marketing y los otros tres tipos de innovaciones. En la segunda parte de este estudio, se examina la probabilidad de que las empresas realicen cada tipo de innovación en marketing utilizando el mismo método, es decir, utilizando cuatro

regresiones logísticas binarias (una por cada tipo de innovación en marketing) para verificar los determinantes de los cuatro tipos de innovación en marketing.

En primer lugar, los resultados muestran que la innovación en marketing es la segunda innovación más frecuentemente implementada por los pequeños y medianos comercios, mientras que en otros sectores, la innovación en marketing es la innovación menos implementada en los cuatro tipos de innovación. Este resultado indica la importancia de la innovación de marketing en el sector comercio.

En segundo lugar, los resultados muestran que la introducción de innovaciones en marketing entre pequeños y medianos comercios tiene un impacto positivo en la propensión a impulsar todos los demás tipos de innovación (producto, proceso y organización). Sin embargo, la introducción de otros tipos de innovación no tiene el mismo impacto.

El último resultado muestra que la introducción de innovaciones en organización tiene un impacto positivo en la propensión de los pequeños y medianos comercios a llevar a cabo todo tipo de innovación en marketing (diseño, fijación de precios, comunicación y distribución). Sin embargo, la introducción de nuevos productos o procesos sólo tiene un impacto positivo en la propensión a impulsar innovaciones de diseño.

En conclusión, es importante destacar que todos los tipos de innovación (producto, proceso, organización y marketing), así como los distintos tipos de innovación en marketing (diseño, precios, comunicación y distribución), tienen diferentes determinantes y las relaciones entre los diferentes tipos de innovaciones varían.

## 4.2. Introduction

Innovation is considered a decisive factor in wealth creation and a fundamental process for company competitiveness. Because of its importance, innovation has been analyzed from various perspectives (e.g., Cooke, 2005; Crossan & Apaydin, 2010; Porter, 1998), leading to multiple definitions and typologies (e.g., Armbruster, Bikfalvi, Kinkel, & Lay, 2008; Becheikh, Landry, & Amara, 2006; Francis & Bessant, 2005; Garcia & Calantone, 2002; Oke, 2007; Rowley, Baregheh, & Sambrook, 2011; Schumpeter, 1934). Most of the numerous studies on innovation focus on technological innovations. However, it is currently difficult to limit the discussion of innovation to product and process innovations because new ideas can transform any part of an organization's value chain. For this reason, the definition proposed by the OECD/Eurostat (2005) in the Oslo Manual, which is recognized as an international reference, identifies four areas of innovation: product, process, organizational and marketing.

The lack of empirical evidence in the literature on the impact of marketing innovations – despite the fact that their effects differ from those of innovations in areas such as products and processes – is noteworthy. Additionally, marketing methods and tools play important roles in the evolution of industries (e.g., Bhaskaran, 2006; Chen, 2006; Rammer, Czarnitzki, & Spielkamp, 2009; Schubert, 2010).

Spanish public policy has placed particular importance on supporting small and medium enterprises (SMEs) because these firms are the backbone of industry. Moreover, marketing innovation is essential for small firms to transform products into profit (Soltani, Azadi, Hosseini, Witlox, & Passel, 2015). The tendency to engage in marketing innovation depends on the activities of an enterprise, and differences between the manufacturing and service sectors are significant (Medrano & Olarte-Pascual, 2016). Companies in the service sector are more likely than those in the manufacturing sector to innovate in the areas of promotion, placement and price. Within the service sector, studies of the Spanish retail sector are important due to the significant contributions retail businesses

make to Spanish GDP and employment. Furthermore, the retail sector is key to the growth of cities and regions (Medrano, Olarte-Pascual, Pelegrín-Borondo, & Sierra-Murillo, 2016). Taking into account the context in which small and medium retailers currently operate, as well as all of the public business programs launched to encourage firm innovation, an improved understanding of this situation is needed to create effective public policies for each type of business.

Thus, the objective of this paper is to understand marketing innovation and its determinants among small and medium retailers based on data from the Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC). More precisely, this study investigates (1) the factors influencing the four types of innovation (product, process, organizational and marketing) and (2) the relationships between marketing innovation and the other types of innovation.

This paper, which focuses on marketing innovation, is organized as follows: first, the concept of marketing innovation and its repercussions in the literature are discussed. Second, the sample and methodology employed are described. Finally, the results and conclusions of the study are presented.

## 4.3. Theoretical framework and hypotheses

The first studies of innovation focused on product innovation in the manufacturing context. Although the literature on innovation is abundant, most of it refers to product and process innovations, which are called technological innovations. Certain studies have attempted to relate technological and organizational innovation (e.g., Brown & Duguid, 1991; Brown, 2002; Djellal & Gallouj, 1999; Kishore & McLean, 2002; Tether et al., 2002). However, non-technological innovations – i.e., marketing and organizational innovations –  have generally been neglected in the literature.

Marketing innovation is defined as the "implementation of a new marketing method involving significant changes in product design and/or

packaging, product placement, product promoting or pricing" (OECD/Eurostat, 2005, p. 49). However, there was a significant change to the definition of innovation in the 2005 Oslo Manual. Previously, technological product and process innovations were defined as the two types of innovation considered in the measurement of innovation. In the third edition of the Oslo Manual, two other types of innovation were added at the same level as technological innovation: marketing innovation and organizational innovation.

According to Wang (2015), three main streams of marketing innovation studies are found in the literature. The first stream discusses the competitive advantages that can be achieved through marketing innovation. The second addresses the relationships between marketing innovations and the other innovation types. Finally, the third stream attempts to understand the characteristics of firms that adopt marketing innovations.

From the competitive advantage perspective, authors usually view marketing innovation as a type of incremental innovation (Grewal & Tansuhaj, 2001; Naidoo, 2010) that enables small and medium companies to successfully compete with large businesses (Bhaskaran, 2006; O'Dwyer, Gilmore, & Carson, 2009a, 2009b; Rammer et al., 2009). Therefore, this research focuses on marketing innovation in small and medium enterprises. Furthermore, Bhaskaran (2006) and Rammer et al. (2009) note that small and medium enterprises, especially those in low- and mid-tech industries, may be more willing to engage in potentially less costly marketing innovations than in technological innovations. Hence, marketing innovation is more important for small and medium retailers.

### *Relationships between marketing innovation and the other innovation types*

According to Walker (2004), innovation activities are thought to influence each other and thus need to be implemented in conjunction with each other. The disputed relationship between technological innovation and marketing innovation centers on whether they are complements or substitutes; according to Kijek

(2013), it is quite intuitive that the introduction of a new process or product calls for changes in marketing strategies. For instance, a new product line often requires changes in packaging and sales channels. Lewis and Wackowski (2006) provide an example from the tobacco industry, in which the introduction of flavored cigarettes was intensively supported by marketing innovations. However, other authors argue that marketing innovations do more than merely support technological innovations (Bhaskaran, 2006 and Rammer et al., 2009). Following this reasoning, Schubert (2010) maintains that marketing innovations are, on average, complements – rather than substitutes – for technological innovations but notes that this relationship is sensitive to external and internal factors, such firm size and technological opportunities. However, this author argues that marketing innovations make product and process innovations more successful. Furthermore, Walker (2008) concludes that organizational, marketing and service (or product) innovations are interrelated in public organizations. In a study of manufacturing firms in Turkey, positive relationships were shown between organizational innovation and process innovation, organizational innovation and marketing innovation, process innovation and product innovation, and marketing innovation and product innovation (Gunday, Ulusoy, Kilic, & Alpkan, 2011). Additionally, Soltani et al. (2015) show that although there is no direct cause-and-effect relationship between organizational and production innovation, both of these innovation types are influenced by marketing innovation.

Considering the existing literature on the relationships between marketing innovation and the other types of innovation, the following hypotheses are formulated:

**Hypothesis 1.** Marketing innovation in small and medium retailers is positively associated with product innovation.

**Hypothesis 2.** Marketing innovation in small and medium retailers is positively associated with process innovation.

**Hypothesis 3.** Marketing innovation in small and medium retailers is positively associated with organizational innovation.

*Features of firms that adopt marketing innovations*

In addition to researching interactions among innovation types since the official inclusion of other forms of innovation in the Oslo Manual, researchers have begun to examine the relation between marketing innovation and various other aspects of firms, such as size (e.g., Geldes & Felzensztein, 2013; Halpern, 2010; Moreira, Silva, Simões & Sousa, 2012), R&D expenditure (e.g., T. Kijek, 2013; Moreira et al., 2012), personnel training (e.g., Geldes & Felzensztein, 2013; Kijek, 2013; Moreira, Silva, Simões, & Sousa, 2012), export activities (e.g., Geldes & Felzensztein, 2013; Medrano & Olarte-Pascual, 2016), class of company and cooperation (e.g., Geldes & Felzensztein, 2013), market share (e.g., Camisón & Villar-López, 2014; Schubert, 2010; Shergill & Nargundkar, 2005), market concentration (e.g., Schubert, 2010), and group membership (e.g., Medrano & Olarte-Pascual, 2016; Schubert, 2010), among other firm characteristics.

Several recent analyses of technological and marketing innovations not only focus on the direct relationship between these two types of innovation but also address the impact of technological innovation activities on the propensity to innovate in marketing (Kijek, Lisowski, & Starzyńska, 2013; Moreira at al., 2012). Kijek (2013) finds that product innovations influence the decision to introduce marketing innovations; however, there is little support for the view that process innovations induce marketing innovations. In Spain, enterprises that conduct product, process or organizational innovations are more likely to innovate in marketing (Medrano & Olarte-Pascual, 2016). The findings of Soltani et al. (2015) for small food industries show that when product and organizational innovations increase, marketing innovation also increases. Hence, the following hypotheses are formulated for small and medium retailers:

**Hypothesis 4.** Small and medium retailers that conduct product innovations are more likely to innovate in marketing.

**Hypothesis 5.** Small and medium retailers that conduct process innovations are more likely to innovate in marketing.

**Hypothesis 6**. Small and medium retailers that conduct organizational innovations are more likely to innovate in marketing.

## 4.4. Methodology

### 4.4.1. Data

Data from Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC) are used to conduct this study. This database follows the methodological guidance provided by the OECD in the Oslo Manual using two periodically published sources: the Innovation in Companies Survey of Spanish firms and the Statistics on R&D Activities database. The technical characteristics of this study are shown in table 1. The data include 5,974 small and medium companies, of which 463 companies are in the retail sector and the remaining 5,511 companies are in other sectors.

**Table 1.** Research technical specifications

| | |
|---|---|
| **Database** | Technological Innovation Panel (PITEC) |
| **Scope** | Small and medium Spanish companies |
| **Sample size** | Retailers 463; Other sectors 5,511 |
| **Region of study** | Spain |
| **Information compilation system** | Self-administered postal questionnaire |
| **Organization responsible for the questionnaire** | National Statistics Institute |
| **Reference period** | 2010-2012 |
| **Statistical programs** | SPSS 15.0, STATA SE 10.0 |

### 4.4.2. Statistical methods

To determine whether there is a multicollinearity problem, this study considers the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF). A tolerance smaller than 0.20 and/or a VIF of 5 or higher indicate a multicollinearity problem (O'Brien, 2007).

Considering the two aims of the study, the analysis is divided into two parts. In the first part, the probability that firms engage in each kind of innovation (product, process, organization and marketing) is examined to verify the relationship between marketing innovation and the other types of innovation. Logistic regression is selected because it adapts to all types of independent variables (metric and non-metric) and does not require multivariate normality (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). The dependent variable in each model is binary (coded 0 if the company does not innovate and 1 if the company innovates), and the independent variables in the four models are the other types of innovation and the following firm characteristics: belonging to a business group, percentage of women employed, company market (local, national, EU or other), training, public financing, and company class (private, private with <10% foreign capital, private with 10% to 50% foreign capital, private with >50% foreign capital). Additionally, for each dependent variable, the marginal effects are estimated. In the second part of this study, the probability that firms conduct each kind of marketing innovation is estimated using the same method (that is, using four binary logistic regressions) to verify the determinants of the four types of marketing innovation.

## 4.5. Results

The database provides a sample of 463 companies, with just over one-quarter (27%) reporting that they implemented marketing innovation activities (table 2). However, the data show the importance of the retail sector because this sector does not exhibit the same average behavior as other sectors. In other sectors, marketing innovation is the least frequently implemented innovation of the four types of innovation. In contrast, our analysis of the retail sector shows that marketing innovation ranks second behind organizational innovation. Differences in terms of the importance assigned to different types of marketing innovation are also observed. Design innovation is the most important, on

average, in other sectors, whereas promotion and placement are the most frequently conducted activities in the retail sector.

When all independent variables are included in the analysis, table 3 shows that none has a tolerance less than 0.70 and there is no VIF higher than 2. In conclusion, multicollinearity is not an issue in this study.

Table 4 presents the estimation results of the logistic regressions for the four types of innovation in small and medium retailers. First, the results show that the introduction of new marketing methods has a positive impact on the propensity to conduct all other types of innovations (product, process and organizational). Thus, H1, H2 and H3 are supported. Second, the results show that introducing new product, process and organizational methods has a positive impact on the propensity to conduct marketing innovations, confirming the results obtained by Wang (2015). These results also support Soltani et al. (2015) because there are significant positive cause-and-effect relationships between product and organizational innovations and marketing innovations in the studied firms. This result is also consistent with Kijek (2013), who establishes that product innovations influence the decision to introduce marketing innovations, suggesting a complementary relationship and a positive impact of product innovation on marketing innovation. However, this result conflicts with the results of Geldes and Felzensztein (2013), who find a statistically significant negative relation between marketing and product innovation in the agribusiness sector.

**Table 2.** Number of small and medium companies that innovate in the retail and other sectors

|  | Retail | | Other Sectors | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Types of innovations | Innovate | % | Innovate | % |
| General | | | | |
| Marketing | 125 | 27 | 1560 | 28 |
| Design | 57 | 12 | 916 | 17 |
| Pricing | 50 | 11 | 544 | 10 |
| Promotion | 76 | 16 | 851 | 15 |
| Placement | 73 | 16 | 722 | 13 |
| Product | 114 | 25 | 2291 | 42 |
| Process | 121 | 26 | 2281 | 41 |
| Organizational | 155 | 33 | 2185 | 40 |
| Total Companies | 463 | 100 | 5511 | 100 |

**Table 3.** Multicollinearity diagnosis indexes for independent variables

| Independent Variables | Tolerance | VIF |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Marketing | 0.775 | 1.289 |
| Product | 0.719 | 1.390 |
| Process | 0.767 | 1.303 |
| Organization | 0.761 | 1.312 |
| Group | 0.972 | 1.028 |
| Employment_women | 0.963 | 1.037 |
| Local Market | 0.784 | 1.275 |
| National Market | 0.583 | 1.713 |
| EU Market | 0.665 | 1.503 |
| Other Country Markets | 0.840 | 1.189 |
| Training | 0.915 | 1.091 |
| Public_Finan (Local) | 0.849 | 1.176 |
| Public_Finan (National) | 0.921 | 1.084 |
| Public_Finan (EU) | 0.734 | 1.361 |
| Company Class | 0.775 | 1.289 |

**Table 4.** Logistic regression for types of innovation in small and medium retailers

| Variables | Marketing | | Product | | Process | | Organization | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx | β | dy/dx |
| *Innovations* | | | | | | | | |
| Marketing | | | 1.56*** | 0.28 | 0.99*** | 0.19 | 2.19*** | 0.48 |
| Product | 1.54*** | 0.28 | | | 0.23 | 0.04 | 0.29 | 0.06 |
| Process | 1.00*** | 0.17 | 0.27 | 0.04 | | | 0.94*** | 0.21 |
| Organization | 2.20*** | 0.40 | 0.27 | 0.04 | 0.91*** | 0.16 | | |
| *Firm characteristics* | | | | | | | | |
| Group | 0.09 | 0.01 | -0.21 | -0.03 | 0.34 | 0.05 | 0.49* | 0.10 |
| Employment_women | 0.01* | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.00 | -0.00 | -0.00 | -0.00 |
| Market | | | | | | | | |
| Local Market | -0.73 | -0.13 | 1.64 | 0.14 | 0.97 | 0.12 | -0.17 | -0.03 |
| National Market | 0.65 | 0.08 | 1.19* | 0.13 | 1.07** | 0.14 | -0.40 | -0.09 |
| EU Market | -0.67* | -0.11 | 0.79** | 0.10 | 0.09 | 0.01 | 0.82** | 0.16 |
| Other countries Market | 0.82*** | 0.12 | -0.20 | -0.02 | -0.54* | -0.09 | -0.25 | -0.05 |
| Training | 0.32 | 0.05 | 0.43 | 0.07 | 3.08*** | 0.64 | 0.70 | 0.16 |
| Public_Finan (local) | -0.95 | -0.11 | 1.23** | 0.24 | 0.99* | 0.21 | 1.76*** | 0.41 |
| Public_Finan (National) | -0.00 | -0.00 | 2.63*** | 0.56 | 0.75 | 0.15 | -0.00 | -0.00 |
| Public_Finan (UE) | -2.90** | -0.18 | 2.50** | 0.54 | 2.05 | 0.46 | 0.60 | 0.13 |
| *Company class* | | | | | | | | |
| Private | 0.24 | 0.03 | -0.76** | -0.13 | 0.54 | 0.08 | 0.23 | 0.04 |
| Private (<10% Foreign capital) | 1.69* | 0.36 | -1.03 | -0.11 | -1.95 | -0.18 | -0.33 | -0.06 |
| Private (≥10% <50% Foreign capital) | -2.02 | -0.16 | 2.34** | 0.51 | 1.13 | 0.24 | -0.35 | -0.06 |
| Pseudo-R2 | 46.5 | | 39.7 | | 34.6 | | 40.6 | |
| % Correct predictions | 81.2 | | 81.4 | | 78.8 | | 79.7 | |

Note: Significance coefficients: 1% ***, 5% **, 10% *. The marginal effects (dy/dx) are evaluated in the sample average. For the dichotomy variables, the marginal effect corresponds to the step from 0 to 1.

For the specific case of marketing innovation in small and medium retailers, statistically significant positive relations are obtained for the employment of women, other country markets and private companies (<10% foreign capital) and negative relations are obtained for the EU market and EU public financing. For product innovations, positive relations with the EU market and public financing are obtained, with negative relations for private companies (<10% foreign capital). With regard to process innovations, statistically significant positive relations are obtained for the national market, training and local public financing, with a negative relation for other country markets. Kijek et al. (2013) also find evidence that expenditures on training positively affect the implementation of marketing innovations in enterprises. However, in this case, the statistically significant positive relation is with process innovation rather than marketing innovation. Additionally, among small and medium retailers, organizational innovations have a statistically significant positive relation with the EU market, local public financing and group membership.

Table 5 presents the estimation results of the logistic regressions for four types of marketing innovation in small and medium retailers. Model 1 considers the percentage of firms that introduced design innovation as the response variable; models 2, 3 and 4 consider the same thing for pricing, promotion and placement innovation, respectively.

**Table 5.** Logistic regression for types of marketing innovation in small and medium retailers

| Variables | Design β | Design dy/dx | Pricing β | Pricing dy/dx | Promotion β | Promotion dy/dx | Placement β | Placement dy/dx |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***Innovations*** | | | | | | | | |
| Design | | | 0.61 | 0.02 | 0.395 | 0.02 | 1.456*** | 0.13 |
| Pricing | 0.47 | 0.02 | | | 2.339*** | 0.31 | 0.647 | 0.04 |
| Promotion | 0.35 | 0.01 | 2.26*** | 0.19 | | | 3.231*** | 0.44 |
| Placement | 1.53*** | 0.11 | 0.68 | 0.03 | 3.283*** | 0.48 | | |
| Product | 1.75*** | 0.12 | -0.01 | -0.00 | -0.067 | -0.00 | 0.586 | 0.03 |
| Process | 0.88** | 0.04 | 0.57 | 0.02 | 0.542 | 0.03 | -0.090 | -0.00 |
| Organization | 0.92** | 0.04 | 1.24*** | 0.06 | 1.130*** | 0.08 | 1.091*** | 0.07 |
| ***Firm characteristics*** | | | | | | | | |
| Group | 0.29 | 0.01 | 0.13 | 0.00 | -0.053 | -0.00 | -0.365 | -0.01 |
| Employment_women | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.007 | 0.00 | -0.003 | -0.00 |
| Market | | | | | | | | |
| Local Market | -1.90*** | -0.18 | 0.67 | 0.02 | -0.943 | -0.08 | 1.541 | 0.04 |
| National Market | 0.12 | 0.00 | 0.41 | 0.01 | -0.257 | -0.01 | 1.571* | 0.05 |
| EU Market | 1.09** | 0.04 | -1.06** | -0.04 | -0.080 | -0.00 | -0.685 | -0.04 |
| Other countries Market | 0.11 | 0.00 | -0.04 | -0.00 | 0.157 | 0.00 | 0.954** | 0.05 |
| Training | -1.13 | -0.03 | 0.75 | 0.04 | -0.043 | -0.00 | 0.006 | 0.00 |
| Public_Finan (local) | 0.56 | 0.03 | -1.54* | -0.03 | -0.879 | -0.03 | 0.253 | 0.01 |
| Public_Finan (National) | -0.06 | -0.00 | 0.04 | 0.00 | 0.385 | 0.02 | 0.288 | 0.01 |
| Public_Finan (UE) | (omitted) | | 1.29 | .009 | (omitted) | | 1.012 | 0.08 |
| ***Company class*** | | | | | | | | |
| Private | -0.11 | -0.00 | -0.04 | -0.00 | 1.241** | 0.05 | -1.178** | -0.09 |
| Private (<10% Foreign capital) | 1.49 | 0.12 | 1.55 | 0.12 | 2.375** | 0.35 | (omitted) | |
| Private (≥10% <50% Foreign capital) | (omitted) | | 0.62 | 0.03 | 0.280 | 0.01 | -1.119 | -0.03 |
| Pseudo-R2 | 46.8 | | 46.2 | | 62.3 | | 59.8 | |
| %Correct predictions | 89.2 | | 90.5 | | 91.1 | | 89.8 | |

Note: Significance coefficients: 1% ***, 5% **, 10% *. The marginal effects (dy/dx) are evaluated in the sample average. For the dichotomy variables, the marginal effect corresponds to the step from 0 to 1.

The results show that the introduction of new organizational methods has a positive impact on the propensity of small and medium retailers to engage in all types of marketing innovations. Thus, H6 is supported for all types of marketing innovations, confirming the results of Soltani et al. (2015). However, the introduction of new products or processes has a significant positive impact only on the propensity to conduct design innovation. The effects on the implementation of changes in sales channels, pricing methods and promotion are insignificant. Thus, H4 and H5 are only partially supported. The results partially support the finding of both Kijek (2013) and Medrano and Olarte-Pascual (2016) that the introduction of new products has a positive impact on the propensity to engage in all types of marketing innovation. Soltani et al. (2015) show that when product innovation increases, marketing innovation also increases. Thus, for small and medium retailers, the introduction of new products induces changes only in design innovation.

For the specific case of design innovation, a statistically significant positive relation with the EU market is observed, whereas the relation with the local market is negative. For pricing innovation, negative relations with the EU market and public financing (local) are observed. For promotion innovation, statistically significant positive relations with private companies and private companies (<10% foreign capital) are obtained. Additionally, placement innovation has a statistically significant positive relation with the national market and training and a negative relation with private companies.

## 4.6. Conclusions

In the modern world, it is undeniable that globalization, stronger competition, increasingly stringent and segmented demand, rapid technological evolution and increasingly shorter life cycles have led to substantial growth in the relevance of innovation as a key factor in achieving leverage in the market. These obvious changes in both society and consumer behavior render previously

appropriate models unsuitable in current conditions, and the marketing discipline – like practical and scientific expertise – is not exempt from these changes. In the current scenario, small and medium retailers are losing customers every day; these stores eventually close, and over time, cities slowly lose their cultural and economic vibrancy (Medrano et al., 2016).

In this context, the present study analyzes the determinants of the marketing innovation practices of small and medium retailers and the relationships among the four types of innovation (product, process, organizational and marketing) in order to better understand marketing innovation in the retail sector.

The first result shows that marketing innovation is the second-most frequently implemented innovation by small and medium retailers, whereas in other sectors, marketing innovation is the least frequently implemented innovation of the four types of innovation. This result indicates the importance of marketing innovation in the retail sector and is consistent with Bhaskaran (2006) and Rammer et al. (2009), who note that small and medium enterprises, especially those in low- and mid-tech industries, may be more willing to engage in marketing innovation, which can be less costly than technological innovation.

The second result shows that the introduction of new marketing methods among small and medium retailers has a positive impact on the propensity to conduct all other types of innovation (product, process and organizational). However, introducing other types of innovation does not have the same impact. All other innovation types positively impact the propensity to introduce marketing innovations, albeit not of all types. We also conclude that product, process and organizational innovations present different determinants and different inter-relations among the different types of innovations.

The last result shows that the introduction of new organizational methods has a positive impact on the propensity of small and medium retailers to conduct all types of marketing innovation (design, pricing, promotion and placement). However, the introduction of new products or processes only has a positive

impact on the propensity to conduct design innovations. Thus, we conclude that the determinants of marketing innovation differ among the four types of marketing innovation in the retail sector.

In conclusion, it is important to highlight that the included types of innovation (marketing, organizational, process and products), as well as the various types of marketing innovation (design, pricing, promotion and placement), have different determinants, and the relationships among the different types of innovations vary. These results confirm the findings of Rammer et al. (2009), Mothe and Nguyen-Thi (2012), Mothe and Thi (2010) and Geldes and Felzensztein (2013). There is a need for further study of individual firms and their inter-relations across different economic and territorial sectors (Crossan & Apaydin, 2010).

These results can help managers and public administrators to undertake actions that promote innovation. According to Medrano and Olarte-Pascual (2016), the tendency to engage in marketing innovation depends on the activity of an enterprise, and the differences between the manufacturing sector and the service sector are significant. Furthermore, Bhaskaran (2006) and Rammer et al. (2009) note that small and medium enterprises, especially those in low- and mid-tech industries, might be more willing to engage in marketing innovation, which might be less costly than technological innovation. Hence, marketing innovation becomes more important for small and medium retailers.

This paper cannot be concluded without noting the limitations of the study. The first limitation stems from the use of a pre-prepared database (PITEC). It was not possible to work with all the suitable variables or to measure the "marketing innovation" variable in a more appropriate manner. Additionally, the models presented in this paper exhibit acceptable overall significance of the parameters and high percentages of correct predictions. The adjustments of the pseudo-$R^2$ models were between 34.6% and 62.3%. These adjustments were expected because most of our variables are qualitative.

These limitations open up various paths for further research. First, it would be interesting to analyze a longer time span using panel data, as Guisado González and Coca Pérez (2015) recommend. In addition, this study could be extended by breaking down the "market" variable more precisely. The "other countries" variable in this paper covers a very wide range of countries with vastly different cultures and thus it would be interesting to look more deeply into this aspect. Finally, research into the concept of "marketing innovation" remains interesting because it is not clear what companies mean by "marketing innovation". To this end, it might be a good idea to develop an ad hoc measuring system that would allow us to understand occurrences in marketing more fully through the possibilities offered by new technologies with a multitude of new systems for customer relations.

## 4.7. References

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# Capítulo 5.
# Motivaciones de la
# elección de la tienda física
# en un entorno omnicanal

# CAPÍTULO 5

## 5.1. Resumen

Los objetivos de este capítulo son:

- Analizar los motivos que llevan a los consumidores a realizar sus compras en establecimientos físicos del centro de ciudadad (CU) o centro comercial (CC).

- Identificar los perfiles de los individuos que prefieren en cada una de las opciones.

Para conseguir la muestra se emplea una metodología exploratoria mediante entrevistas personales con preguntas abiertas, obteniendo una muestra de 220 individuos. Posteriormente, para analizar si existe relación entre la preferencia por los establecimientos físicos del CC o del CU y el género y la edad se aplica el contraste de la Chi cuadrada y, en su caso, para medir la fuerza de la asociación se calcula la V de Cramer para tablas de más de 2x2.

En cuanto a las preferencias de los entrevistados, un 54,09% prefiere el CC, el 34,55% se decanta por las calles comerciales del CU y el resto, 11,36%, no tiene preferencia entre uno y otro tipo. El CC es el preferido por los jóvenes

(78,1%) y adultos (44,2%) y por las personas de ambos sexos. El CU es el preferido por las personas mayores (49,18%) y resulta más atractivo para las mujeres (38,6%) que para los hombres (29,0%). Tras realizar los contrastes oportunos los resultados obtenidos muestran que no se aprecia relación significativa entre el género y la preferencia CU/CC pero sí que aparece relación significativa entre la edad y la preferencia CU/CC.

En cuanto a los motivos, se descubre que los jóvenes valoran, sobre todo, la oferta comercial del CC y se muestran a veces solidarios (hedónico) con el CU. Mientras que los adultos y mayores valoran y asocian la atención personal con los comercios del centro urbano. Por lo tanto, para explicar la elección de la tienda física, los motivos utilitaristas y hedónicos se entremezclan y difieren en función de la edad del individuo.

El presente trabajo aporta como conclusión fundamental que los comercios de los CC y del CU pueden convivir desarrollando cada uno sus fortalezas. Ambos aportan interesantes beneficios para el actual consumidor omnicanal que, en determinadas situaciones, prefiere la tienda física y valora la experiencia de compra offline.

## 5.2. Introducción

Hace apenas cuatro décadas, el sector del comercio minorista de las ciudades evolucionaba hacia nuevas formas comerciales como las superficies especializadas y los centros comerciales provocando el desplazamiento de los compradores hacia la periferia (O´Callaghan y O´Riordan 2003; Hernández y Jones 2005; Medrano et al. 2016). Posteriormente, las innovaciones tecnológicas y de los medios de comunicación potenciaron el desarrollo de las distintas formas de venta sin establecimiento como la venta por correo, por teléfono, por televisión o la venta online. Se llega así a la distribución **multicanal** como forma de alcanzar y satisfacer a los distintos segmentos de consumidores (ej. Neslin et al. 2006; Verhoef et al 2007).

La aparición del teléfono móvil inteligente junto con el desarrollo y democratización de Internet, ha dado paso a la venta minorista omnicanal. Esta última aporta una perspectiva más amplia de los canales al contemplar cómo el consumidor actual, con sus diferentes dispositivos móviles inteligentes (*portable, wearable* e *insideable*), se mueve entre numerosas ofertas alternativas, desde los canales offline a los online pasando por las redes sociales, los blogs y las numerosas aplicaciones que le facilitan el contacto con sus marcas favoritas y la satisfacción de sus necesidades.

Se define la gestión omnicanal como la gestión sinérgica de los numerosos canales y puntos de contacto disponibles, dirigida a optimizar la experiencia del cliente en todos los canales y el rendimiento de la empresa. Por lo tanto, cuando se habla de omnicanalidad se reconoce que los diferentes canales interactúan entre sí y se utilizan de forma simultánea (Verhoef et al. 2015).

La rápida evolución de este nuevo contexto dio lugar a fatídicos presagios para los establecimientos físicos tradicionales. Sin embargo, entre las opciones omnicanal, surgen distintas combinaciones para comprar en las que sigue presente la tienda física. Entre ellas, el llamado *showroming* consiste en recoger información y/o investigar online y comprar offline; en sentido contrario, el *webroming*, comienza offline, probando el producto en la tienda física, para después, comprar online a un precio más barato y/o más conveniente. Además, negocios de éxito que surgieron online han visto la necesidad de establecer un contacto físico con el cliente y han complementado su negocio abriendo establecimientos físicos. Pauwels y Neslin (2015), a partir de la base de datos de una empresa, encuentran que cuando dicha empresa añadió una tienda física a sus canales de distribución (catálogo e Internet) supuso un incremento neto del 19,8% en sus ingresos anuales.

En consecuencia, el comercio con establecimiento sigue vigente y forma parte del movimiento omnicanal actual. Los establecimientos comerciales de las ciudades seguirán teniendo vida mientras sean capaces de aportar algún valor para los consumidores. Pero ¿cuáles son los motivos que mueven a los consumidores a ir a un centro comercial (CC) o a ir de compras por la ciudad (comercio urbano,

CU)? En la respuesta subyacen las motivaciones de los clientes. El objetivo del presente trabajo es indagar en los nuevos motivos que llevan a los consumidores a realizar sus compras en establecimientos físicos.

## 5.3. Marco teórico

### Comercio minorista con establecimiento: comercio tradicional de ciudad versus centros comerciales

Con la crisis económica, fundamentalmente a partir del 2008, se produce una drástica reducción del consumo y muchos comercios minorista de ciudad se ven obligados a cerrar. Las calles comerciales y las estadísticas reflejan esta triste realidad pues con el cierre de los comercios pierde vida la ciudad. Fernández et al. (2012) estiman una media de 100 cierres diarios de tiendas.

La problemática del pequeño CU viene siendo una preocupación constante para gobiernos e investigadores. Los primeros han lanzado planes para apoyar al comercio minorista tradicional y dinamizar las zonas comerciales del CU. Los segundos han centrado sus investigaciones en distintos aspectos. Grewal et al. (2009) recalcan la idea de que la supervivencia en el clima económico actual y el ambiente competitivo minorista requiere más que sólo bajos precios y productos innovadores. En este sentido, numerosos estudios evidencian la importancia de la experiencia de compra para elegir entre los diferentes tipos de establecimientos (Badgett et al. 2007; Gentile et al. 2007; Tynan y McKechnie 2009; Verhoef, et al. 2007; Rose et al. 2012). La búsqueda de experiencias hedónicas es, a menudo, mucho más importante que la mera adquisición de productos (Arnold y Reynolds, 2003, 2012).

De forma simultánea al cierre de establecimientos comerciales, están apareciendo nuevos formatos o recuperándose otros ya tradicionales como respuesta a las nuevas tendencias de consumo. Por ejemplo, las tendencias hacia el trueque, compras grupales y segunda mano se reflejan en las tiendas de

compraventa (en Cash Converters, uno puede entrar con una bici y salir con un libro electrónico). La preocupación por la salud y el medio ambiente da lugar a tiendas "saludables" que se especializan en productos ecológicos y/o sostenibles. Además, el comercio regentado por la comunidad china también ha evolucionado aportando nuevos tipos de comercios en diferentes sectores como moda a precios muy competitivos.

Junto a los comercios tradicionales de las ciudades, los centros comerciales siguen aportando una gran cantidad de superficie de venta, siguen atrayendo a multitud de consumidores y han tenido una gran influencia en la reconfiguración del ocio y de las ciudades. La coyuntura económica desfavorable también ha afectado a la evolución de estos centros que han experimentado una clara reducción en su crecimiento a partir de 2009 (Martín de la Cruz y Martín Cerdeño, 2013).

Varios investigadores han comparado los factores de atracción de las calles comerciales y los centros comerciales. Entre ellos, Reimers y Clulow (2004) consideran que los centros comerciales aportan una mayor conveniencia espacial que las calles comerciales. Teller y Reutterer (2008) establecen que en el mix comercial, la relación calidad-precio y el entretenimiento influyen en el atractivo tanto de la calle comercial como del CC. La facilidad para orientarse en el lugar visitado se menciona como un atractivo del CC. El ambiente (olor, temperatura, aire) es un factor de atracción de ambos pero más intenso en el CC. Reimers (2013) establece que las políticas de disuasión del uso del coche afectarían a los hábitos de compra en los establecimientos minoristas. Encuentra que dicho efecto disuasorio tendrá un efecto más negativo en las compras realizadas en los CC.

En este escenario, la gestión del comercio minorista de ciudad exige adaptarse a las nuevas tendencias y plantea nuevos retos para seguir manteniendo la confianza de sus omniclientes.

**La motivación de compra en el establecimiento comercial**

Ante la deteriorada situación del comercio con establecimiento físico se planteó la pregunta de si este sector presentaba algún tipo de ventaja competitiva sobre la que pudieran trabajar. Para dar respuesta a esa pregunta se analizan las motivaciones de compra de los consumidores. Como ya se ha señalado, el objetivo es indagar en los nuevos motivos que llevan a los consumidores a realizar sus compras en establecimientos físicos del CU o CC.

La motivación se puede definir como un proceso dinámico e interno que activa, dirige y mantiene la conducta hacia la obtención de una meta (Woolfolk, 2006; Ferguson, 2000). El estudio de la motivación supone analizar por qué las personas inician acciones dirigidas a metas específicas, con cuánta intensidad participan en la actividad y cuán persistentes son sus intentos de alcanzar sus objetivos (Dawson et al.1990; Avello, 2008; Usín, 2013). Las motivaciones, como determinantes del comportamiento de compra, se han abordado desde diferentes marcos conceptuales.

A) Atendiendo a su origen se habla de motivos internos y externos (Benabou y Tirole, 2003). Los primeros constituyen la motivación intrínseca que el individuo activa por sí mismo cuando lo desea y para la meta que considera oportuna. Los segundos son la motivación extrínseca provocada desde fuera del individuo, bien por otras personas o por el ambiente. Mientras que la motivación extrínseca influye en el comportamiento debido a las recompensas y beneficios, los individuos que son impulsados intrínsecamente tienden a realizar una actividad debido a un deseo para llevar a cabo la actividad que viene de dentro de sí mismos y no por el refuerzo exterior. La motivación intrínseca implica participar en una actividad por el placer y la satisfacción derivada de ella (Watchravesringkan, Hodges, and Kim, 2010; Barberá Heredia, 2002).

B) Por su naturaleza, se identifican:

- Motivaciones cognitivas y afectivas. Las primeras responden a la búsqueda de atributos tangibles, racionales o utilitarios (Babin, Darden y Griffin, 1994) mientras que las afectivas, se relacionan con las emociones como por ejemplo sentir placer (Dhar y Wertenbroch, 2000; Holbrook y Hirschman, 1992; Batra y Ahtola, 1991; Spangenberg, Crowley y Henderson, 1996).

- Motivaciones utilitaristas y hedónicas. La motivación utilitarista representa la parte más racional de la motivación y aúna factores cognitivos y funcionales del comportamiento (ej. comprar, comparar precios, buscar ofertas o rebajas). Se define el comportamiento de compra utilitarista como un proceso racional que busca la máxima eficiencia posible; la compra se entiende como una tarea (Babin, Chebat y Michon, 2004). Las dimensiones de la motivación utilitarista son: consecución del objetivo y eficiencia. La motivación hedónica se relaciona con las sensaciones, la fantasía o las emociones alrededor de la compra (Hirschman y Holbrookm 1982; Holbrook, y Gardner, 1998 Childers et al. 2001 Kang y Park-Poaps 2010). La compra es vista como una experiencia positiva donde los consumidores disfrutan y se sienten satisfechos con una experiencia completa, sin tener en cuenta si la compra es finalmente realizada o no. El ambiente de los comercios se asocia a esta dimensión pues puede influir en las emociones positivas que rodean a la compra. Ejemplos de esta dimensión son el entretenimiento o la socialización. Arnold y Reynolds (2003) examinaron las compras en tiendas físicas e identificaron seis grupos de motivaciones hedónicas: (1) compra como aventura o *adventure shopping* ("ir de compras es una aventura", "es estimulante" p. 82); (2) compra social o *social shopping* (la compra para socializarse con amigos y familiares); (3) compra de gratificación o *gratification shopping* (la compra como alivio del estrés o del estado de ánimo negativo); (4) compra para mantenerse al día o *idea shopping* (mantenerse al día con las tendencias, ver nuevos productos e

innovaciones); (5) compra de rol o *role shopping* (disfrute derivado de la compra para otros, disfrute por encontrar el regalo perfecto para otros, como función social); (6) compra valor o *value shopping* (disfrute de la búsqueda de rebajas, descuentos u ofertas).

Kim (2006) partiendo de Babin et al. (1994) y Arnold y Reynolds (2003) concluyen que los consumidores del CU dan más énfasis a las motivaciones hedónicas. En el CC el motivo puede estar orientado a la compra, al ocio o a las relaciones sociales (Ej. Lotz, et al. 2010 o Baker y Wakefield, 2012).

- La motivación ética. En los últimos años se ha incrementado la presencia de una nueva dimensión relacionada con la aparición de la vertiente moral (ej. Carrington, et al. 2015 o Carrigan y Attalla, 2001). Su introducción tiene como objetivo aumentar la comprensión del complejo conjunto de variables que influyen en el comportamiento de compra. Los consumidores éticos están listos para poner su dinero en el mismo lugar en el que se encuentra su moral (Cowe y Williams, 2000).

## 5.4. Metodología

Como se ha comentado al inicio, el comercio con establecimiento sigue vigente y forma parte del movimiento omnicanal actual. Pero ¿cuáles son los nuevos motivos que llevan a los consumidores a realizar sus compras en establecimientos físicos del CC o CU en la actualidad? Para dar respuesta a esta pregunta se ha planteado una metodología exploratoria mediante entrevistas personales con preguntas abiertas (Malhotra, 2004; Valles, 2014). Su estructura abierta asegura la identificación de motivos inesperados. "La investigación cualitativa produce datos descriptivos, trabaja con las propias palabras de las personas y con las observaciones de su conducta" (Martínez Rodríguez, 2011, p.18). Este tipo de entrevista es muy exigente y depende de la habilidad del entrevistador para conseguir un ambiente de confianza y de credibilidad en los

primeros momentos de la entrevista y, posteriormente, mantener ese ambiente. Para conseguir dichas condiciones se tomó como referencia la metodología seguida por Arnold y Reinolds (2003) en su estudio de las motivaciones hedónicas pero con una muestra 2,25 veces mayor.

La información se obtuvo de 220 individuos respetando cuotas de género y edad (Tabla 1).

**Tabla 1.** Ficha técnica

**Población:** compradores.

**Forma de recogida de información:** encuesta personal con preguntas abiertas.

**Tamaño muestral:** 220 entrevistas válidas.

**Muestreo:** por cuotas de sexo y edad.

**Fecha del trabajo de campo:** marzo-abril de 2013

**Características de la muestra:**

- Género:
    - Hombres: 43.18%
    - Mujeres 56.82%
- Edad:
    - Hasta 25 años (jóvenes): 35.10%
    - De 26 a 65 años (adultos): 41.50%
    - Mayores de 65 años (mayores): 28.30%

| *Características de la zona de estudio:* Logroño, La Rioja (España). | CU | CC |
|---|---|---|
| • Número de tiendas de las zonas de estudio | 336 | 116 |
| • Tamaño medio de los establecimientos | 112,36 m$^2$ | 594,74 m$^2$ |
| • Propiedad:  -Propietario único | 70.02% | 5.17%. |
|  - Empresa | 29.98% | 94.83% |
| • Número de hipermercados | 0 | 2 |

La zona de estudio, Logroño, presenta características comunes con las ciudades europeas. Su CU tiene calles comerciales con numerosas tiendas independientes (70,02%). Suelen ser negocios familiares pequeños, especializados y atendidos por trabajadores que cuentan con un conocimiento profundo de los productos y se enorgullecen de ofrecer excelente servicio al cliente. El tamaño medio de las tiendas del CU es de 112,36 m$^2$.

En las afueras de este tipo de ciudades, la oferta comercial ha tenido un gran desarrollo en las últimas décadas con la aparición y auge de los CC. En concreto, Logroño cuenta con dos CC caracterizados por un hipermercado y varias grandes superficies especializadas (category killer) que actúan como generadores de tráfico de clientes. El tamaño medio de los establecimeintos del CC es de 594,74 m$^2$ y el 94,83% de ellos pertenecen a grupos empresariales. Además, cabe destacar que la ciudad de estudio ha sido considerada por parte del Ministerio de Economía, «Primera ciudad comercial de España» (1997) (Cámara de Comercio de La Rioja, 2013).

En lo que respecta al trabajo de campo, se cuidó la formación de los entrevistadores y se les dio instrucciones específicas en cuanto a la forma de realizar las entrevistas con el objetivo de identificar los verdaderos motivos de compra en las tiendas físicas del CU y/o CC. Todas las entrevistas fueron grabadas y transcritas. Para garantizar y verificar la calidad de los datos, se pidió el nombre de cada entrevistado y número de teléfono.

Las entrevistas fueron visionadas, escuchadas y leídas varias veces por los autores para la codificación. Cada miembro del equipo (individualmente) identificó y codificó los motivos contenidos en la información recogida utilizando el proceso de categorización desarrollado por Lincoln y Guba (1985). Posteriormente, los autores se reunieron para discutir los motivos claves y seleccionar las citas más ilustrativas de la información recogida.

El objetivo en ese momento era buscar puntos en común para conseguir una representación lo más exacta posible de cada dominio y desarrollar las definiciones conceptuales de las motivaciones.

## 5.5. Resultados

### 5.5.1. Preferencias

En cuanto a las preferencias de los entrevistados, un 54,09% prefiere el CC, el 34,55% se decanta por las calles comerciales del CU y el resto, 11,36%, no

tiene preferencia entre uno y otro tipo. El CC es el preferido por los jóvenes (78,1%) y adultos (44,2%) y por las personas de ambos sexos. El CU es el preferido por las personas mayores (49,18%) y resulta más atractivo para las mujeres (38,6%) que para los hombres (29,0%).

Para analizar si existe relación entre la preferencia por los establecimientos físicos del CC o del CU y el género y la edad se aplica el contraste de la Chi cuadrada y, en su caso, para medir la fuerza de la asociación se calcula la V de Cramer para tablas de más de 2x2 (Figura 1). De los resultados obtenidos se deduce:

(1) No se aprecia relación significativa entre el género y la preferencia CU/CC.

(2) Aparece relación entre la edad y la preferencia CU/CC.

**Figura 1.** Relación entre la preferencia por el CU/CC y el género y la edad.
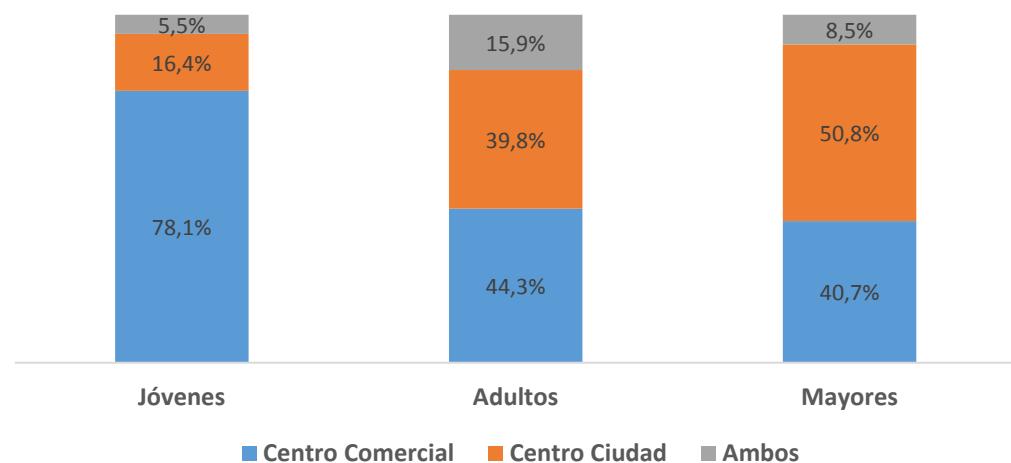


| | Centro Comercial | Centro Ciudad | Ambos | Chi Cuadrada | Relación significativa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Género | | | | | No |
| Hombres | 55,9% | 29,0% | 15,1% | | P-valor = 0,178 |
| Mujeres | 52,8% | 38,6% | 8,7% | 3,447 | |
| Edad | | | | | Sí |
| Jóvenes | 78,1% | 16,4% | 5,5% | | P-valor = 0,000 |
| Adultos | 44,3% | 39,8% | 15,9% | | V de Cramer = 0.248 |
| Mayores | 40,7% | 50,8% | 8,5% | 27,164 | |

### 5.5.2. Motivos

Al preguntar de forma abierta por los motivos, los entrevistados dieron 352 argumentos. Los primeros motivos de cada entrevistado se han agrupado en códigos o dominios principales (Tabla 2). Su carácter hedónico y/o utilitarista se sustenta sobre la literatura previa.

**Tabla 2.** Clasificación de los motivos de elección de tienda física

| Dominio / motivo | % | Argumentos ilustrativos | Tipo de motivo |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Accesibilidad** | 4,63 | "horario, facilidad de acceso", "facilidad para aparcar", "amplio horario" "falta de tiempo", "más rápido". | Utilitaristas |
| **Atención personal** | 14,81 | "el comerciante es más amable" "el trato es mejor" o "me atienden mejor" "la relación es más personal", "atención más próxima", "atención más personalizada" "te conocen", "conoces al comerciante", "lo conozco de siempre" "trato más cercano", "hablo con los comerciantes", "confianza con el comerciante de toda la vida", "hay menos agobios y el trato es más personal", "es más ameno, te conocen, te dan consejos" "me gusta que me sirvan y me atiendan" o "me dan información". | Hedónicos / utilitaristas |
| **Conveniencia espacial** | 26,39 | "me resulta más cómodo", "está más cerca", "voy andando" "los centros comerciales me pillan lejos", "todo está en el mismo sitio", "diferentes tiendas en el mismo sitio, no te tienes que mover", "varias tiendas juntas, no te tienes que mover". | Utilitaristas |
| **Entretenimiento** | 1,39 | "me gusta pasear y ver las cosas", "es más ameno", "es más divertido ir de tienda en tienda" o "es más entretenido comprar en la ciudad" | Hedónicos (positivos) |
| **Oferta comercial** | 38,43 | "más variedad de tiendas", "hay más tiendas", "más variedad de productos" o "hay más marcas" "compras grandes", "compras mensuales", "encuentro de todo" o "hay más cosas en el centro comercial que en el barrio", "hay más ropa", "se puede elegir más" | Utilitaristas / hedónicos |
| **Precio** | 9,26 | "es más barato", "ofertas", "variedad de precios", "sale más rentable", "precios mejores" | Utilitaristas |
| **Solidaridad** | 3,70 | "hay que ayudar a los pequeños empresarios", "prefiero ayudar al comercio tradicional", "me gusta activar el movimiento de la ciudad" o "el beneficio se queda en el barrio" | Hedónicos / éticos |
| **Actitud negativa a CC.** | 1,39 | "no me gustan las grandes superficies", "los grandes centros me aturden" o "me agobian los centros comerciales" | Hedónicos negativos |

A continuación, se presentan los motivos identificados teniendo en cuenta la preferencia del entrevistado por el CU, CC o ambos.

En el CU, los motivos declarados por los entrevistados, por orden de importancia son:

**(**1º) Atención personal (43,26%) relacionada con:

- Amabilidad y cortesía en la atención: se han recogido expresiones como "el comerciante es más amable" o "el trato es mejor".

- Asesoramiento: por ejemplo, "me dan información".

- Relación personal entendida como:

  o Relación propiamente dicha: "la relación es más personal" o "atención más próxima".

  o Conocimiento previo: "te conocen" o "conoces al comerciante de siempre".

  o Trato y confianza: por ej. "hay menos agobios y el trato es más personal" o "es más ameno, te dan consejos".

- Actitud de servicio, "me gusta que me sirvan y me atiendan".

Dentro de este dominio se observan como los motivos utilitaristas y hedónicos son esencialmente complementarios y están entrelazados (Babin, Darden y Griffin, 1994; Scarpi, 2006; Kang y Park-Poaps, 2010). Los consumidores buscan ambos beneficios de forma simultánea.

(2º) Conveniencia espacial (29,69%): expresiones como "me resulta más cómodo" o "voy andando" recogen el carácter utilitarista de esta categoría.

(3º) Oferta comercial (12,16%): la idea de "productos más frescos" se asocian al comercio tradicional de alimentación; también se habla de los supermercados que pertenecen a grandes cadenas como Mercadona o Simply

(grupo Auchan) que se han desarrollado en el centro de la ciudad. Además y, para productos no alimenticios se aduce que hay "más variedad de tiendas" o "más marcas". Todos los comentarios muestran motivos esencialmente utilitaristas si bien en la compra de no alimentación se aprecian también motivaciones hedónicas.

(4º) Solidaridad (6,79 %): se han recogido expresiones como "prefiero ayudar al comercio tradicional" o "es más solidario" que reflejan, en cierta forma, motivos éticos argumentados fundamentalmente por jóvenes y que apoyan la literatura previa (Cowe y Williams, 2000).

(5º) Entretenimiento (4,05%), "es más divertido ir de tienda en tienda" o "es más entretenido comprar en la ciudad" son motivos hedónicos. Entre ellos aparece la idea de la compra como "aventura" (Arnold y Reynolds, 2003).

(6º) Actitud negativa hacia los centros comerciales (4,05%): "los grandes centros me aturden". También en este caso, los motivos son hedónicos por tratarse de emociones negativas que muestran motivos de evitación.

En el CC, los motivos declarados por los entrevistados, por orden de importancia son:

(1º) Oferta comercial (49,15%): expresiones como "compras grandes" o "compras mensuales" son motivos utilitaristas. Además, aparece otra idea clave que es amplia oferta enunciada con expresiones como "hay más variedad de productos", "más ropa" o "se puede elegir más". Los argumentos recogidos en esta categoría para los CC son muy similares a los aparecidos en los CU, es decir, esencialmente utilitaristas. No obstante, aparecen indicios hedónicos derivados de la gratificación que produce la capacidad de elegir dentro de un conjunto mayor.

(2º) Conveniencia espacial (28,81%): se entiende el centro comercial como un lugar con "diferentes tiendas en el mismo sitio, no te tienes que mover" asociado a un significado utilitarista.

(3º) Precio (13,56%) asociado a expresiones como "es más barato" o la importancia de las "ofertas", generalmente unido a amplia oferta. Estos argumentos pueden obedecer más a motivos utilitaristas, aunque la búsqueda de ofertas y/o mejor precio puede responder a motivos hedónicos ("*value shopping*" de Arnold y Reynolds, 2003).

(4º) Accesibilidad (8,56%) entendida como "horario, facilidad de acceso", "facilidad para aparcar", junto a "falta de tiempo" son motivos utilitaristas.

Por último aparecieron compradores sin una clara preferencia, compran tanto en el CU como en el CC. En ellos, se encontraron los siguientes motivos:

(1º) Oferta comercial (80,00%):

- Compradores que quieren ver todo, "busco variedad", y visitan tanto el CC como el CU.

- El que reparte su compra en función de las categorías de productos:

o En el CC, compras fuertes de bienes de gran consumo ("grandes compras, alimentación o limpieza") y ropa y calzado.

o En el CU, compras diarias como productos perecederos ("fruta, verdura") y/o compras más selectivas ("cosas más selectivas" o "regalos y cosas más personales").

(2º) El que busca precios y ofertas (15,00 %): "busco siempre ofertas" o "compro donde sea más económico".

(3º) El que busca conveniencia (5,00%): organiza sus compras en función de lo que le conviene en cada momento.

El comportamiento de este grupo responde a motivos más utilitaristas que hedónicos. Entre los hedónicos, se identifican de nuevo "*value shopping*" e "*idea shopping*" de Arnold y Reynolds (2003).

**Figura 2.** Distribución de los principales motivos de preferencia de la tienda física
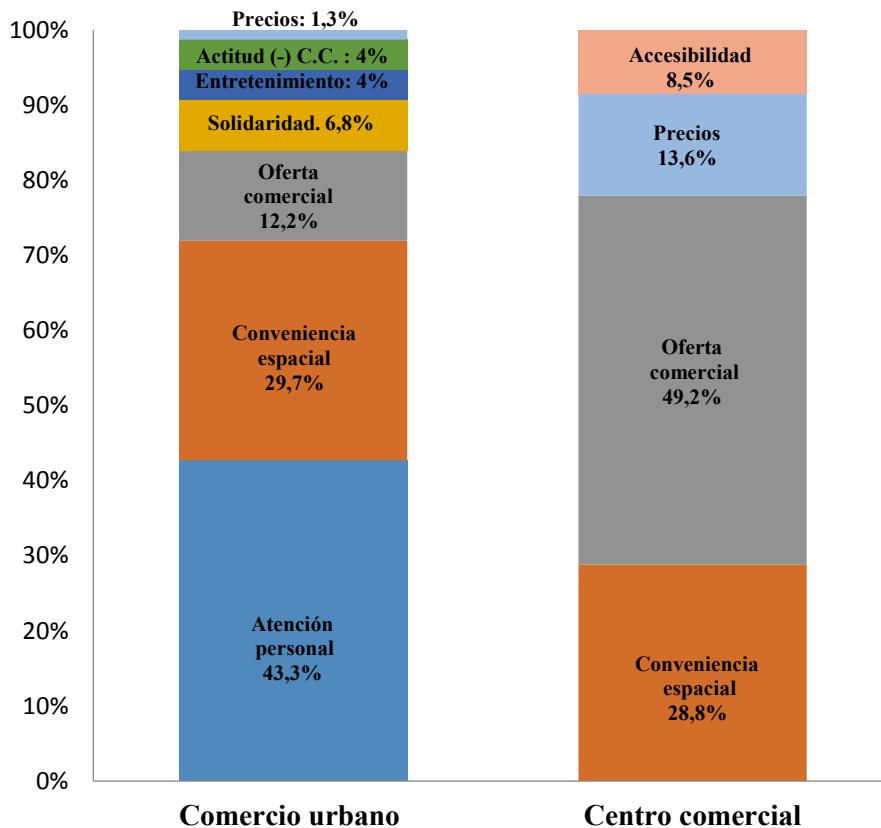


A continuación y mediante un modelo logit binomial se analiza la relación de asociación entre la variable dependiente dicotómica preferencia por el CU o por el CC y las variables independientes edad, género y los ocho dominios relativos a los motivos de elección.

Los resultados de la tabla 3 muestran que la bondad de ajuste es buena: se obtiene un valor elevado del pseduo $R^2$ de Nagalkerke (51,1%). La prueba Chi Cuadrada de bondad de ajuste de Hosmer y Lemeshow demuestra que no existen diferencias entre los valores observados y los predichos a partir del modelo de regresión. Además, el 81% de los casos están bien clasificados.

**Tabla 3.** Modelo logit de elección CU/CC

|  | Beta | Wald | Sig. | Exp. (B) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Edad |  | 11,618 | ,003 |  |
| Edad (menos de 25 años) | -1,719 | 11,170 | ,001 | ,179 |
| Edad (de 26 a 65 años) | -1,081 | 5,161 | ,023 | ,339 |
| Atención Personal | 3,184 | 9,110 | ,003 | 24,141 |
| Oferta comercial | -1,929 | 17,610 | ,000 | ,145 |
| Precio | -2,517 | 9,363 | ,002 | ,081 |
| Constante | ,978 | 5,816 | ,016 | 2,660 |

| Bondad de ajuste: | Pseudo $R^2$ Nagelkerke = 51.1% |
|---|---|
|  | Prueba chi$^2$ Hosmer y Lemeshow = 4,506 (sig = 0.609) |
|  | Porcentaje bien clasificado = 81.0% |

Se observa que las personas con mayor probabilidad de acudir al CU son las personas con mayor edad (más de 64 años) que buscan atención personal y que no les importa mucho la oferta comercial ni el precio. Por el contrario, las personas con mayor probabilidad de acudir al CC son los más jóvenes (menos de 25 años) y los que tiene una edad comprendida entre los 26 y 65 años, cuyo motivo principal es una amplia oferta comercial a buen precio.

### 5.5.3. Diferencias motivacionales por edad

A la vista de los resultados anteriores, se analizan los motivos teniendo en cuenta la edad (Figura 3).

Los jóvenes prefieren el CC (78,1%) por dos razones fundamentales: su oferta comercial (59,65%) y la conveniencia espacial (31,58%). En cuanto a la primera, verbalizan expresiones relacionadas con la variedad como "hay más productos o marcas para elegir" o "variedad de ropa y calzado". Los motivos utilitaristas y hedónicos se entremezclan: la mayor oferta proporciona mayores posibilidades de encontrar lo que quieres (utilitaristas) y además te permite "coger ideas" (hedónicos, de acuerdo con Arnold y Reinolds, 2003). También es importante para los jóvenes la conveniencia espacial (31,58%) pues entienden el CC como un lugar donde están todas la "tiendas juntas" (motivos utilitaristas).

**Figura 3**. Motivos en la elección de tienda física por edad
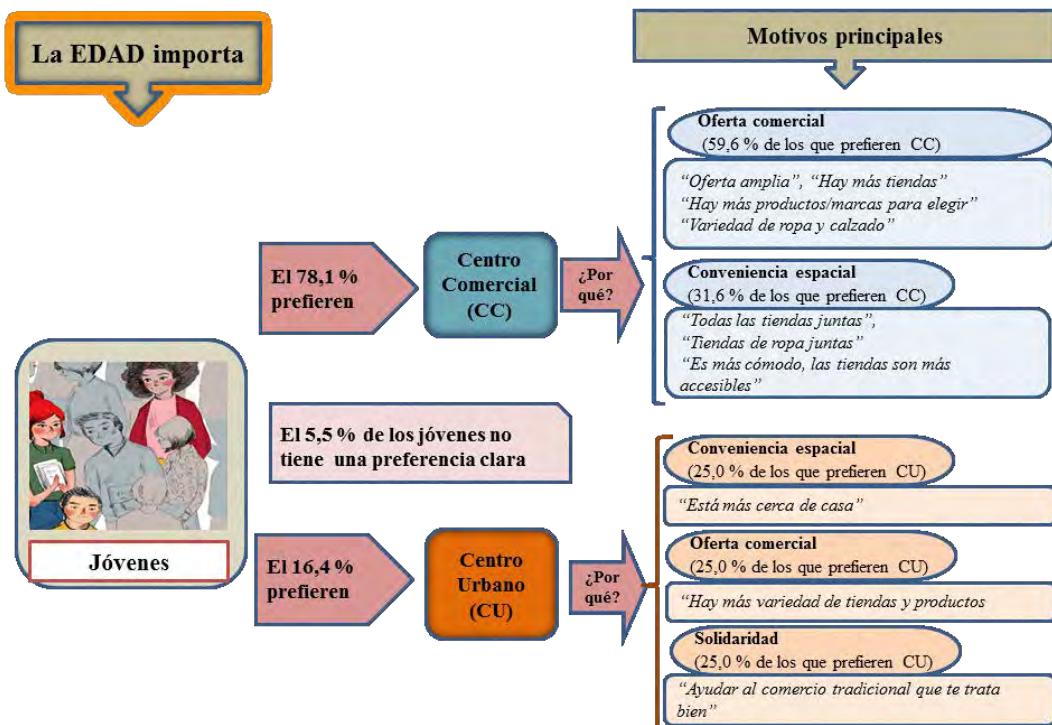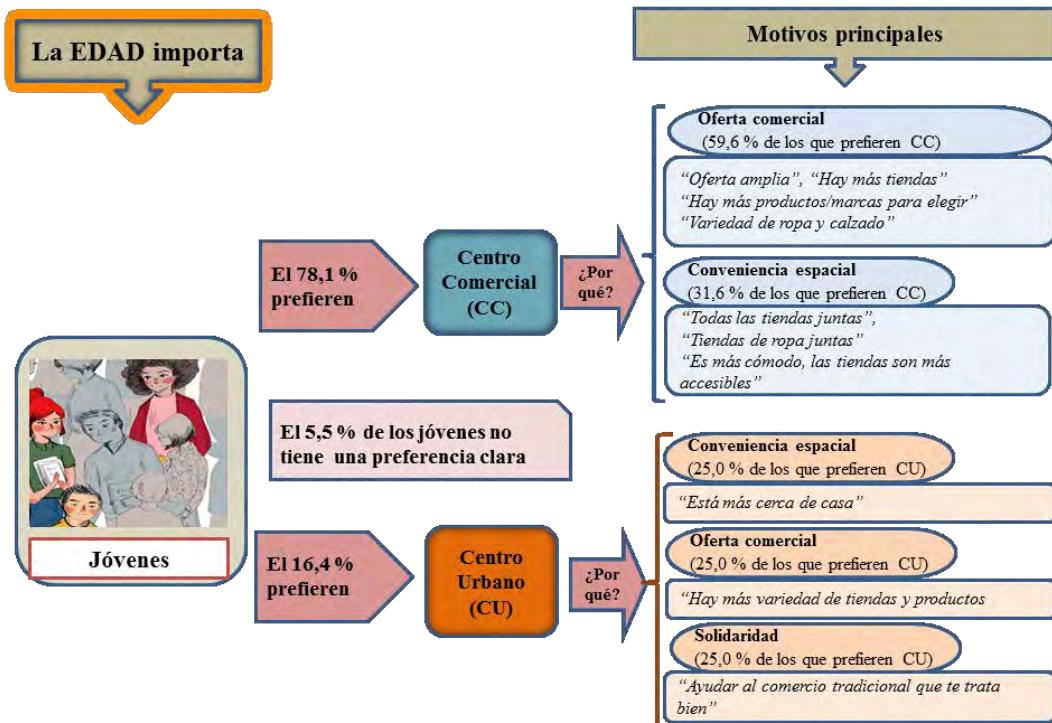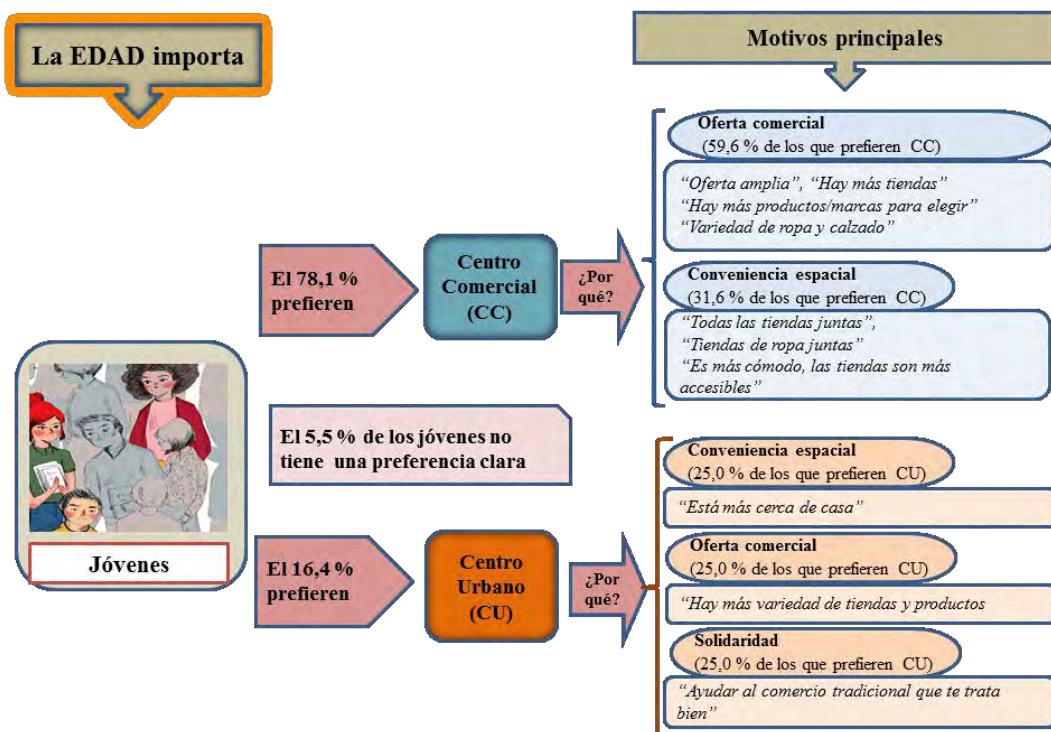
Del CU, los jóvenes destacan los motivos solidarios (hedónicos), la conveniencia espacial y oferta comercial (utilitarios) y también se cita el entretenimiento (hedónico).

Los adultos valoran especialmente del CC la conveniencia espacial verbalizando expresiones utilitaristas como "encuentras todo lo que buscas en un espacio reducido" y lo unen a "comodidad". Después aducen la oferta comercial que expresan de la siguiente manera, por orden de importancia: "tiene de todo" o "compras grandes", con un enfoque más bien utilitarista. Este grupo aprecia del CU fundamentalmente la "relación personal" dentro de la atención personal.

Por último, los mayores, a diferencia de los grupos anteriores, prefieren las tiendas del CU y destacan la atención personal (relación, asesoramiento y amabilidad del comerciante). Los que prefieren el CC indican la oferta comercial valorando la variedad de la misma y también le dan importancia al precio: "es más barato" (utilitaristas).

## 5.6. Conclusiones

El comercio minorista se enfrenta a un entorno complejo en el que la tienda física comparte espacio y tiempo con otras alternativas online/ofline en un contexto omnicanal (Verhoef, Kannan, y Inman, 2015).

La crisis económica ha provocado la caída del consumo y el cierre de numerosos comercios tanto en el CU como en los CC. La mayoría de los establecimientos de los CU de las ciudades europeas son pequeñas empresas independientes, sin departamento de investigación, por lo que es interesante que, desde la Universidad, se analicen sus problemas y se proporcionen soluciones dirigidas a atraer y mantener al cliente actual, cada vez más omnicanal. Así surge la pregunta de investigación que pretende averiguar si este comercio minorista con tienda física presenta alguna ventaja competitiva. La respuesta se sustenta en el estudio de los motivos que explican la elección de un establecimiento físico.

La literatura ofrece un amplio abanico de enfoques sobre los motivos de compra siendo la clasificación utilitarista-hedónica una de las más utilizadas actualmente (ej. Kang y Park-Poaps 2010; Arnold y Reynolds, 2012; Seo, et al. 2015; Chaparro-Peláez, et al. 2016). La aportación de este trabajo es identificar esos primeros motivos que subyacen en los comportamientos y mueven a un comprador a optar por una tienda física. El estudio empírico se ha aplicado a una muestra de 220 individuos. En este sentido, este estudio aporta la riqueza de matices obtenido de preguntar directamente al consumidor por sus motivos frente a la alternativa de presentarle escalas para que valore los aspectos a investigar. Se demuestra que bajo expresiones similares pueden identificarse razones muy diversas por lo que se recomienda añadir preguntas abiertas en las investigaciones sobre el comportamiento del consumidor.

Los resultados muestran que los CC siguen provocando el desplazamiento de los clientes hacia la periferia de las ciudades. Efectivamente, jóvenes y adultos prefieren las tiendas físicas del CC y las razones de ambos grupos son fundamentalmente dos: la oferta comercial y la conveniencia espacial. En ellas se identifican motivos hedónicos y utilitaristas. Entre los 6 grupos de motivaciones

hedónicas que identificaron Arnold y Reynolds (2003), actualmente los compradores del entorno físico hablan fundamentalmente de dos: ir de compras por el CC es más estimulante porque "hay más cosas para ver" (compra como "aventura") y eso mismo permite recopilar más información sobre productos y tendencias (compra para recoger "ideas"). Con la conveniencia espacial, los compradores argumentan motivos utilitaristas; el CC les permite ganar eficiencia en la tarea de hacer la compra.

En la zona de estudio, al igual que en la mayoría de las ciudades medias europeas, el número de comercios en el CU es mayor que en los CC. No obstante, resulta sorprendente que los clientes perciben una oferta comercial más amplia en los CC y, en consecuencia, mayor capacidad de elección. La implicación para la gestión de los CU es clara, se debe trabajar la comunicación online (ej. redes sociales, páginas Web) y offline (ej. merchandising exterior e interior) para que el consumidor conozca su oferta comercial. Esta conclusión está en línea con los trabajos de Neslin et al. (2006), Verhoef et al (2007) y Bodur, Klein y Aroa (2015) en los que se señala la importancia del canal online para las tiendas físicas. El comprador puede ganar eficiencia en la compra realizada en los comercios del CU si estos cuentan con páginas web que comuniquen de forma atractiva sus productos y marcas.

En línea con lo anterior, el CU también debe desarrollar propuestas comerciales innovadoras en producto y atractivas en su exposición.

Al igual que Medrano et al (2016), este trabajo muestra que el punto fuerte del CU es la atención personal ya que (1) es el motivo principal por el que los adultos y mayores compran en los CU y (2) ninguna persona que tiene preferencia por el CC ha comentado este motivo para explicar su elección. Por lo tanto, la atención personal puede ser una ventaja competitiva para las tiendas situadas en CU frente a los puntos fuertes del CC que son la oferta y los precios.

Profundizando en los argumentos relativos a la atención personal y en línea con Haas y Kenning (2014), aparecen también en este trabajo los cuatro factores de motivaciones utilitaristas y hedonistas que dichos autores introducen

en su modelo para explicar las razones que llevan a los compradores a realizar consultas a los vendedores:

- Dos situacionales, (1) la incertidumbre de la compra (utilitarista): ej. "me dan información" o "te dan consejos" y (2) la disposición positiva de los compradores hacia los vendedores (hedonista): "el trato es mejor" o "el comerciante es más amable".

- Dos individuales, (3) orientación a la eficiencia (utilitarista): ej. "me gusta que me sirvan y me atiendan" y (4) disfrute de compras (hedonista): "es más ameno".

Si bien la incertidumbre y el riesgo percibido que conlleva la compra es un motivador de la búsqueda de atención personal, se constata el papel importante de los procesos afectivos como la disposición positiva hacia los vendedores. Por lo tanto, los resultados de este trabajo también apoyan las investigaciones sobre el comportamiento en la compra de Strack y Deutsch (2004) Arnold y Reynolds (2012) o Haas y Kenning (2014).

**Implicaciones para la gestión**

En consecuencia, se recomienda a los gerentes de los CU el desarrollo de la atención personal mediante la profesionalización de los vendedores. La importante inversión realizada en vendedores por tiendas tan famosas como Abercrombie ofrece una muestra significativa de esta estrategia. Cuando una persona se decide a preguntar, generalmente, en su mente está la intención de compra. Amabilidad, técnicas de venta relacional o uso adecuado de la comunicación personal pueden mejorar la relación con el cliente y su experiencia de compra. Los jóvenes no dan importancia a la atención personal y también hay adultos que prefieren el autoservicio. Ante esta realidad, los vendedores han de saber leer el lenguaje no verbal del comprador para transmitirle estar a su servicio sin agobiarle.

La conveniencia espacial aparece como un motivo utilitarista importante tanto para los CC, ya comentado, como para los CU. No obstante, adquiere un significado distinto:

- Para el CU significa proximidad espacial y es especialmente valorado por las personas mayores que no utilizan tanto el coche.

- Para el CC significa encontrar en un lugar todo lo que el cliente necesita y sin moverse. Este motivo es importante para jóvenes y adultos. El tiempo es un recurso escaso.

De cara a activar el comercio físico se recomienda realizar campañas de comunicación encaminadas a destacar los beneficios de ir paseando y disfrutando de variedad de tiendas frente al sedentarismo de la compra por Internet.

Para los gerentes de los CC se recomienda trabajar la idea de la excursión para hacer grandes compras y afianzar su fortaleza respecto a la oferta comercial. En su campañas de comunicación comercial se debería incidir en las ventajas de su conveniencia espacial (todo en un mismo sitio) y accesibilidad (horario y parking).

Queda demostrado que la edad importa. Se descubre que los jóvenes valoran, sobre todo, la oferta comercial del CC y se muestran a veces solidarios (hedónico) con el CU. Estos resultados junto con la tendencia a la omnicanalidad de este grupo permiten recomendar a las tiendas físicas contratar a vendedores jóvenes y desarrollar canales de distribución y comunicación online que completen la alternativa offline.

Puede sorprender que no aparezca el entretenimiento como un motivo de elección de los centros comerciales cuando en trabajos como los de Abello y García de Madariaga (2010) se concluye que este aspecto es importante para los jóvenes. La explicación es que la oferta de ocio de los CC en la zona de estudio es reducida. Los numerosos bares, pub, restaurantes y otros locales de entretenimiento se encuentran ubicados en las calles del centro de la ciudad.

El presente trabajo aporta como conclusión fundamental que los comercios de los CC y del CU pueden convivir desarrollando cada uno sus fortalezas. Ambos aportan interesantes beneficios para el actual consumidor omnicanal que, en determinadas situaciones, prefiere la tienda física y valora la experiencia de compra offline (Figura 4).

**Figura 4.** Motivaciones de elección de la tienda física en el nuevo entorno omnicanal
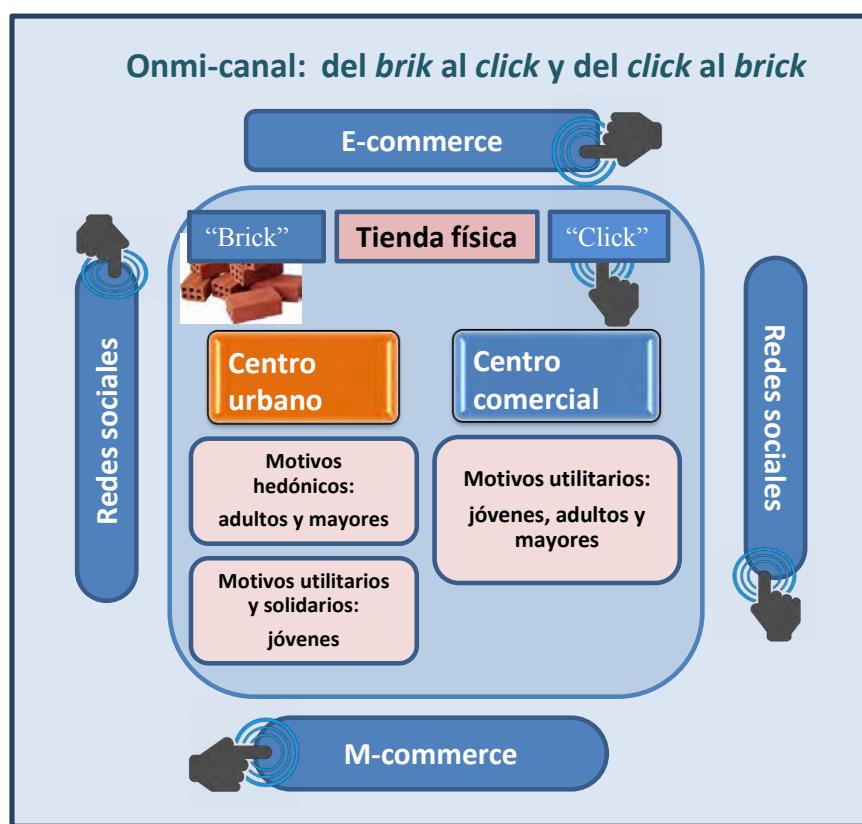


**Limitaciones y futuras líneas de investigación**

Aunque se considera que los resultados son un avance importante, se desconoce si es una particularidad del comercio en la zona de estudio o se puede extrapolar. Por lo tanto, se considera oportuno replicar el estudio en otros lugares como en Estados Unidos, la India o Alemania con culturas diferentes.

En este trabajo se ha considerado a todos los establecimientos de la zona de estudio en conjunto, sin embargo sería interesante investigar comparando por tipos de comercios, ya que puede haber diferencias entre distintas categorías.

Otro aspecto a tener en cuenta es la influencia de la crisis en el comportamiento de compra del consumidor. La reducción de la renta disponible para gastar ha hecho que el omnicliente sea más utilitarista y racional.

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# Capítulo 6.
# Comportamiento del consumidor en las calles comerciales

# CAPÍTULO 6

## 6.1. Resumen

El objetivo principal de este capítulo es analizar el comportamiento de los consumidores en las calles comerciales y para ello se da respuseta a dos objetivos más concretos:

- Analizar cómo valoran los consumidores la calidad de la interacción cliente-vendedor a través de las expectativas.

- Analizar los diferentes grupos de clientes en función de las diferencias mostradas en las valoraciones de la calidad del servicio.

Para poder dar respuesta a estos dos objetivos se examinan los componentes fundamentales de la atención personal.

Partiendo de la literatura previa se analiza la información obtenida de una muestra de 974 clientes de pequeños minoristas situados en calles comerciales. Utilizando la escala SERVQUAL-P, los autores elaboran tres lentes a través de los cuales se puede analizar la calidad del servicio desde el punto de vista del cliente: expectativas normativas (lo que debería ser), expectativas predictivas (lo que los clientes realmente esperan) y la importancia de cada atributo.

Se llevan a cabo dos análisis. En el análisis A, se lleva a cabo un análisis factorial exploratorio y con las dimensiones obtenidas se aplica un analisis factorial confirmatorio para validar y confirmar los factores.

Los resultados muestran que los clientes diferencian las expectativas normativas y predictivas y analizan la brecha que se produce entre ellas, así como sus dimensiones. El resultado más llamativo es que las dimensiones de las expectativas (normativas y predictivas) son las mismas; sin embargo, estas dimensiones son diferentes de las dimensiones de la escala de importancia.

La principal contribución reside en el hallazgo de que la atención personal, cuando se evalúa con la escala de importancia de cada atributo, se divide en dos dimensiones: (1) atención cortés y (2) relación personal, lo que nos lleva a profundizar sobre el tema ya que no todos los clientes son iguales por lo que interesa poder examinar las dimensiones en función del tipo de consumidor. Para clasificar a los clientes en grupos, se aplicó un análisis clúster jerárquico basado en las dimensiones de la escala de importancia.

Como resultado se obtienen cuatro grupos para los cuales la atención cortés es siempre bien recibida, pero las relaciones personales son las menos valoradas para cada uno de los grupos y, con frecuencia, son rechazadas.

Por lo tanto, los vendedores del centro de ciudad deberían seguir haciendo incapié en la atención personal ya que es uno de sus puntos fuertes pero de una manera profesional, tratando de ignorar la creación de relaciones personales con sus clientes, ya que son rechazadas por la mayoría de los consumidores.

## 6.2. Introduction

Cities in Europe are often characterized by an urban center with commercial streets in which numerous independent stores are located. These stores are often family-owned, small, and specialized, and the employees tend to

have an in-depth knowledge of the product and a greater focus on customer service. Commercial development, in contrast, has been characterized by the emergence of large malls located on the outskirts of cities. These malls have led to the displacement of consumers toward these urban peripheries, thus hurting the more traditional urban retail trade (Hernández and Jones 2005; O'Callaghan and O'Riordan 2003; Sadahiro 2000). Small retailers located in shopping streets are losing customers every day; these stores eventually close, and over time cities slowly begin to lose their cultural and economic vibrancy. This has led European public authorities to take action to improve the management of their cities' commercial centers and the shops therein (Medway et al. 2000; Paddison 2003). It could be said that traditional urban small trade of shopping streets has become an endangered species.

At the same time, since the early 2010s the emergence of a new consumer has begun: Consumer 3.0. The influence of sociocultural shifts on this consumer's purchase behavior is highlighted, especially factors that are technological, social, or emotional in nature (Sersland 2015). Today's consumers want to feel more in control and they want to be seen and valued more than their money. Technology has radically changed the psychology of these new consumers and created a host of new expectations. They do not want to sift through irrelevant information, lengthy explanations, or anything not immediately important. In this context, consumer behavior, which is sometimes guided by self-related motives rather than by rational economic considerations (Cisek et al. 2014), represents one of the greatest interests of business managers due to their need to adapt their companies' strategies to the new frontier. Current research (Grewal, Levy, and Kumar 2009) stresses that survival in today's economic climate and competitive retail environment requires more than just low prices and innovative products. Several authors (Badgett, Boyce, and Kleinberger 2007; Gentile, Spiller, and Noci 2007; Grewal, Levy, and Kumar 2009; Rose et al. 2012; Tynan and McKechnie 2009; Verhoef et al. 2009) emphasize the importance of the shopping experience when choosing among different retailers.

The quality of service and the degree of personal attention are important factors in consumer behavior (Gremler and Gwinner 2008). Thus, the aim of this research is to know what customers value in terms of salesperson–customer interaction quality nowadays. To achieve this, the authors conducted two studies (Figure 1).

**Figure 1.** Research Diagram
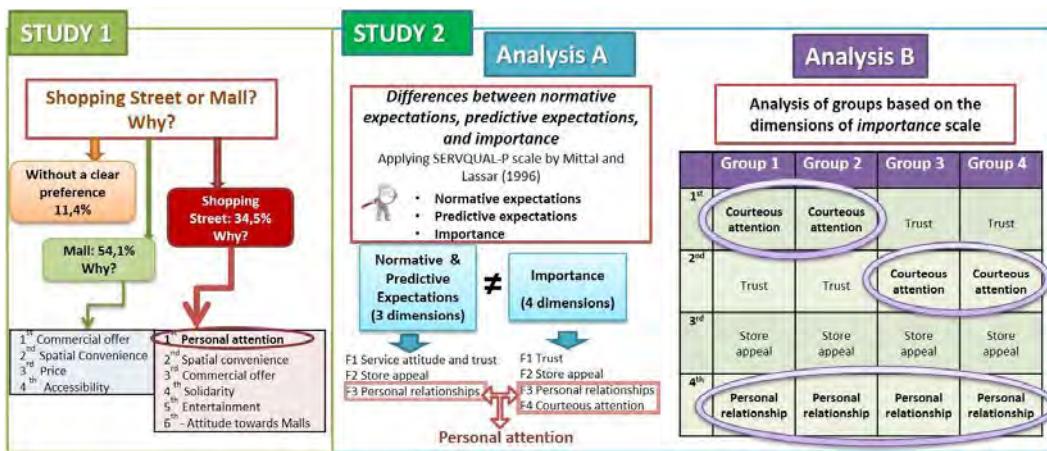


Study 1 is based on 220 surveys. We find that customers perceive clear differences between malls and shopping streets. Furthermore, 54% of respondents prefer to do their shopping at malls mainly because of their wide and varied commercial offerings, and 35% prefer going to shopping streets because of their personal attention. The remaining respondents (11%) reported liking both types of retail destination and spread their purchases out between the two on the basis of price, product category, and/or convenience. It is evident from these responses that the kind of personal attention found in shopping streets is valued enough to win the loyalty of a large group of consumers.

In Study 2, we examine in greater detail how personal attention can provide a competitive advantage and explore the fundamental components of personal attention. This study is based on information obtained from a sample of 974 customers of small retailers in shopping streets. We use Mittal and Lassar's (1996) SERVQUAL-P scale, which incorporates aspects of personal attention, and apply it in three different ways. Specifically, we employ three lenses through

which to view the components of personal attention: (1) "what should be" (16 attributes of service quality for customers, four of which are specifically related to personal attention) (i.e., "normative expectations"), (2) "what customers really expect" to happen at the store (i.e., "predictive expectations"), and (3) "how important each attribute is."

In Study 2 analysis A, we demonstrate that customers differentiate between normative and predictive expectations and analyze the gap that occurs between them as well as their dimensions. The most striking result is that the dimensions of expectations (normative and predictive) are the same; however, these dimensions are different from the dimensions of importance. Our main contribution lies in the finding that personal attention, when assessed using the scale of attribute importance, is split into two dimensions: (1) courteous attention and (2) personal relationship. Courteous attention is always welcome, but personal relationships are less valued and are often even rejected (Study 2 analysis B).

The current research focuses on the Spanish city of Logroño. In 1997, it was acknowledged as the first commercial city in Spain. Currently, its commercial area includes two malls (characterized by having one or more large retailers that are a driving force of the city's economy and a city center with several shopping streets that are connected but have no large commercial spaces).

This study was approved by the University of La Rioja Research Ethics Board and according to ICC/ESOMAR *International Code on Social Research*. Each participant provided informed consent.

## 6.3. Study 1: Shopping Street or Mall? Why?

### 6.3.1. Theoretical framework

*The Customer Experience.* Customer orientation is considered a competitive strategy for smaller service enterprises (Peña et al. 2011). Creating a

superior customer experience seems to be a central objective in today's retailing environment. A recent IBM report identifies customer experience as a key factor for companies in building loyalty to brands, channels, and services (Badgett, Boyce, and Kleinberger 2007). Effective retail management strategies have been linked to the creation of customer experience, which in turn leads to successful performance outcomes (Gentile, Spiller, and Noci 2007; Grewal, Levy, and Kumar 2009; Tynan and McKechnie 2009; Rose et al. 2012). Yet, despite practitioners' recognition of the importance of the customer experience, the academic marketing literature on this topic has been limited. Publications on customer experience are mainly found in practitioner-oriented journals or management books.

Previous research on "customer experience" (e.g., Verhoef et al. 2009) recognizes the importance of past customer experiences, store environments, service interfaces, and store brands on future experiences. Some literature on retail experience has focused on store atmospherics and the impact of scents, music, tactile input, and color on customers' affective responses to a retailer (Naylor et al. 2008). Puccinelli et al. (2009) examine store atmospherics and the social environment. Retail environmental factors, such as social features, design, and ambience, can result in enhanced pleasure and arousal (Baker, Levy, and Grewal 1992; Mehrabian and Russell 1974). Other research in this area examines the presence and age of other consumers in the retail or service setting (e.g., Thakor, Suri, and Saleh 2008) and the effect of crowds, music, and lighting (Baker et al. 2002). Novak, Hoffman, and Yung (2000) investigate the impact of website design on the customer's experience. Other research topics within the customer experience domain are personal relationships and service quality expectations.

*Personal Attention.* Mittal and Lassar (1996) define personalization as the social content of interaction between service employees and their customers. In this sense, "personalization" pertains to the service employee's manner of relating to the customer on a human level: cold and impersonal at one end of the spectrum and warm and personal at the other. As such, it includes aspects such as

employees' politeness and courtesy, employees' attempts to get to know the customer as a person and to engage in friendly conversation, and the exhibition of personal warmth in employee behavior.

The popularity of relationship marketing stems, in part, from the assumption that building customer relationships yields positive returns in the form of customer satisfaction, loyalty, word of mouth, and purchases (Reynolds and Beatty 1999). Moreover, interactions between retail employees and customers can have a significant impact on customers' perceptions of the organization (Gremler and Gwinner, 2008; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, and Maxham III 2010; Litz and Pollack, 2015; Otnes, Ilhan, and Kulkarni 2012; Tsiros and Parasuraman 2006). The rapport between employees and customers represents a particularly salient issue in retail businesses characterized by significant interpersonal interactions (Haas and Kenning, 2014).

Gist (1968) emphasizes that the opportunity to develop personal relationships, and therefore to give personal attention, was one of the factors leading to the emergence of the specialty store in the early nineteenth century.[1] As the specialty store has evolved, this characteristic of personal association between buyer and seller has led to the popularity of the specialty store retailer. Many of today's specialty retailers have become successful by combining this element of personalized service with a merchandise assortment geared toward a particular market segment. It has been argued that the success of Starbucks is due to its ability to create a distinctive customer experience (Michelli 2007). Gist (1968) concludes in his study that employees from these specialty stores need to be responsive, courteous, and knowledgeable and offer prompt, individualized service as a primary distinguishing characteristic of the shopping experience. In line with this perspective, Puccinelli et al. (2009, p. 24) argue that "the interpersonal nature of the interaction between the customer and employee […] may be key to customer satisfaction in the retail environment." Ulaga and Eggert (2006) identify service support and personal interaction as core differentiators in

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[1] Specialty retailing combines the selling of goods and services to the consumer, and consumers expect knowledgeable, helpful staff to assist in the sales procedure (Gist 1968).

business relationships. An important insight from Johnson and Selnes (2004) is that firms which position themselves toward offerings with low economies of scale, such as personal services, must build closer relationships to create value.

However, the importance of personal attention is not universal and varies across different service industries and cultures and it should be taken into account in order to differentiate between shopping streets and malls. Several researchers have compared the factors that draw consumers to shopping streets and malls. Reimers and Clulow (2004) believe that malls provide greater spatial convenience than shopping streets. Teller and Reutterer (2008) establish that the commercial mix, value for money, and entertainment element influence the appeal of a shopping street and a mall. Finding one's way around more easily is mentioned as a positive aspect of malls. Store atmospherics (e.g., scent, temperature, air) are a factor in both shopping streets and malls, though they are a more intense factor in malls. The ranking of the retail mix attribute depends on consumers' expectations (Léo and Philippe 2002). Finally, Reimers (2013) states that people generally perceive malls as more accessible when using their car to go shopping.

Due to the importance of the salesperson–customer interaction[2] in defining the consumer's experience and ultimate satisfaction (Goodwin 1996; Gremler and Gwinner 2008; Menon and Dubé 2000; Schau, Dellande, and Gilly 2007; Stock and Hoyer 2005), and in light of our desire to explore the importance of personal attention in shopping streets versus malls, we propose the following:

**Hypothesis 1.** Personal attention is the main motivating factor by customers who choose to go to shopping streets but not for those who choose to go to shopping malls.

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[2] The salesperson–customer interaction is characterized by voluntary, dyadic interpersonal exchanges between the buyer and the seller and is traditionally understood to be the cornerstone of the retail/service customer experience (Meuter et al. 2000).

**6.3.2. Data**

Figure 2 shows our study area. The types of establishments located in the shopping streets of Logroño are mainly specialized small businesses in which the owner and their family serve the customer directly. On the outskirts of the city, two malls characterized by larger shops owned by large companies, a supermarket, and several category killers serve as the primary generators of customer traffic (Table 1).

**Figure 2.** Map of study area (Logroño – Spain)



We obtained information from a quota sampling of 220 people. We considered the representativeness of the sample, establishing age and gender quotas. The method used was personal in-home interviews.

**6.3.3. Method**

To learn about the importance of personal attention in the shopping experience, we conducted a survey using open-response questions. We asked respondents whether they preferred going shopping at a mall or a shopping street and why. The aim was to find out, indirectly and without biasing the respondents, whether personal attention is the main motivation for choosing the shopping

location (H1). In order to contrast this hypothesis we used a binary logistic regression, applying wall method.

**Table 1.** Characteristics of the Study Area and Sample

| Universe | Individuals | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sampling procedure | Quota sampling by gender and age | | |
| Data collection | Personal in-home interviews | | |
| Study area | Logroño, Spain | | |
| Study area characteristics: | Shopping streets | Malls | |
| Number of shops | 336 | 116 | |
| Size | 112.36 m$^2$ | 594.74 m$^2$ | |
| Ownership: | | | |
| Sole proprietor | 70.0% | 5.2% | |
| Company | 30.0% | 94.8% | |
| Date of fieldwork | March–April 2013 | | |
| Sample size | 220 individuals | | |
| Sample characteristics | | | |
| Gender | | Male | 43.2% |
| | | Female | 56.8% |
| Age | | Age 25 and under | 35.1% |
| | | 26 to 65 years old | 41.5% |
| | | Over 65 years old | 28.3% |

*Source: Data are based on a 2011 survey of retailers by Cámara de Comercio e Industria de La Rioja.*

### 6.3.4. Results

Of those surveyed, 54.09% reported preferring malls, 34.55% opted for shopping streets, and the rest (11.36%) reported having no preference between the two. Malls were generally preferred by young people (78.08%) and adults (44.18%) and by individuals of both sexes. However, their appeal was greater for men (55.91%) than for women (52.76%). Older people (49.18%) preferred

shopping streets, and their appeal was greater for women (38.58%) than for men (29.03%).

When asked why, the respondents gave 352 reasons, which we then grouped into six primary motives. With regard to *shopping streets*, the motives stated by those surveyed, in order of importance, are as follows:

1. *Personal attention* (43.26%): this motive includes polite and courteous attention, advice, individualized attention, personal relationship, and service attitude.

2. *Spatial convenience* (29.69%): it refers to comfort and closeness to the establishment.

3. *Commercial offer* (12.16%): this motive includes fresher products and a greater variety of stores and products.

4. *Solidarity* (6.79%): this refers to being supportive of small business located in *shopping streets*.

5. *Entertainment* (4.05%): the pleasure of walking around and seeing things.

6. *Negative attitude toward malls* (4.05%).

With regard to *malls*, the motives stated by those surveyed, in order of importance, are as follows:

1. *Commercial offer* (49.15%): this is a motive for choosing a mall when shopping for consumer goods. Statements such as "big shopping," "monthly shopping," "I can find everything," or "there are more things in a mall than in the neighborhood." In addition, there is another key concept: *wide offer*.

2. *Spatial convenience* (28.81%): the mall is viewed as a place in which everything is in the same place or different stores are in the same place.

3. *Price* (13.56%): it is cheaper and there are bargains.

4. *Accessibility* (8.56%): it refers to opening hours, easy access, and easy parking.

Finally, we encountered buyers who did not have a clear preference, that is, those who shop both in shopping streets and at malls. These buyers reported different priorities:

1. *Commercial offer* (80.00%): The buyer who wants to see everything and the buyer who shops according to product categories.

2. *Price* (15.00%). Wherever it is cheaper and there are bargains.

3. *Convenience* (5.00%): The buyer who organizes shopping on the basis of what is best for them at a given moment.

We analyze the explanatory relationship between the dichotomous dependent variable (preference between shopping streets or malls) and the independent variables (the eight most cited motives). Table 2 shows the logistic regression results. Goodness of fit of were adequate: Nagelkerke's Pseudo R square = 45.6% and percentage correctly classified = 74.9%. Regarding the multicollinearity analysis the major variance inflation factor (VIF) of logit is 1.23 (corresponds to commercial offer).

**Table 2.** Logit binomial for calculating the probability of preference between shopping streets or malls

|  | Beta | Wald | Sig. | Exp. (B) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Personal attention | 3.23 | 9.56 | 0.00 | 25.32 |
| Commercial offer | -2.02 | 22.70 | 0.00 | 0.13 |
| Prices | -2.11 | 7.20 | 0.01 | 0.12 |
| Constant | 0.03 | 0.01 | 0.91 | 1.03 |
| Goodness of fit | Nagelkerke's Pseudo R square = 45.6% | | | |
|  | Percentage correctly classified = 74.9% | | | |

Results show that people more likely to go to the shopping streets are those who seek personal attention. On the other hand, people more likely to go to the malls are those who look for a wide commercial offer with good price.

### 6.3.5. Conclusions

The results of this survey indicate that the main strength of retailers located in shopping streets is personal attention. Thus, we can accept $H_1$. No respondents who preferred malls mentioned this motive when explaining their choice.

The strengths of malls are their wide offer and prices. Spatial convenience appears to be an important factor in both contexts, though with a different meaning. In shopping streets, it means spatial proximity. In malls, it means finding everything the customer needs in one place. In conclusion, the motivations behind choosing one retailer environment over the other are different. In addition, the study enables us to infer certain connotations about the importance of personal attention.

## 6.4. Study 2. Service Quality Incorporating Personal Attention in Small Retailers in Shopping Streets

The potential for personal attention to serve as a competitive advantage for small retailers located in shopping streets has led us to analyze service quality in greater depth. The objective of this second study is to learn what the most important components of personal attention are for consumers who choose small retailers.

### 6.4.1. Theoretical framework

Expectations in service quality. Expectations play a significant role in determining customer perceptions and satisfaction. Accordingly, retailers seek to manage customers' service expectations (Mitra and Fay 2010). The literature on expectations is broad, and many ways of understanding and studying expectations have been found. After a detailed review, we have classified expectations into ten types, which we have then grouped into four main approaches: (1) comparison, (2) ideal amount, (3) levels, and (4) point of assessment (see Table 3).

Consumers use *expectations* in service quality to compare competing offers (Andreassen 2000; cadotte, Woordruff, and Jenkins 1987; Oliver 1977, 1980; Oliver and Burke 1999). But what *type of expectations* do customers use when it comes to assessing distributors? When trying to answer this question, we find that there is no clear consensus on the topic (Walker and Baker 2000; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1993).

On the one hand, some research has argued that the service quality a customer receives can be measured using normative expectations and that predictive expectations are more appropriate for measuring customer satisfaction (Boulding, Kalra, Staelin and Zeithalm 1993; Dean 2004; Higgs, Polonsky, and Hollick 2005; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1993). On the other hand, several researchers believe that using other types of expectations is appropriate; however, normative and/or predictive expectations are included their work as well (Golder, Mitra, and Moorman 2012).

Because our framework is related to the identification of potential competitive advantages for shopping streets, we chose the comparison approach for the analysis and classification of expectations (Table 3). This approach distinguishes and conceptualizes three types of service quality expectations to compare competitive brands: normative service quality expectations, equitable or deserved quality expectations, and predictive quality expectations.

Normative expectations represent an excelent level of service quality that a person believes a supplier should realistically and feasibly offer for a specific service—that is, what the customer thinks it should be. These expectations are usually related to a particular category of service.

Equitable expectations are defined as the equity level of service the customer feels the seller must supply, taking into account the costs incurred. Under this perspective, equitable expectations are critically determined by a personal assessment of the potential rewards versus costs.

Predictive expectations represent the calculation a person performs to determine what he or she really expects a supplier to provide in a particular situation.

**Table 3.** Classification of Expectations

| **1. The Comparison Approach:** This refers to the use of service quality expectations to compare competitive brands. We can differentiate between: | | |
|---|---|---|
| *(1a) Normative expectations* represent the level of service that a person believes a supplier should provide to offer excellent quality when it comes to a specific service, carrying out a realistic and feasible assessment. For example, if a person chooses a specialty luxury clothing shop to buy a dress for a special occasion, the question we ask, What level of information about the dress should the employees of a luxury clothing boutique provide? | *(1b). Equitable or deserved expectations* represent the level of service that a customer believes he or she should receive, taking into account the expenses borne—that is, what the customer considers fair. For example, the quality of service a buyer considers fair when purchasing an €800 dress in a boutique dress shop in Logroño's shopping street district. In this example, if a person spends €800, the question for an attribute might be, What would be a fair level of information about the dress to receive? | *(1c) Predictive expectations* represent the objective calculation that a person carries out regarding what he or she actually expects to receive from a supplier in a specific situation. For example, what level of service a person actually expects employees of a luxury boutique in Logroño to provide when she goes to buy a dress for a special occasion. The question in this sense would be, What level of information about the dress does this person actually hope to receive in this store? |
| Source: Anderson and Salisbury 2003; Benedicktus 2011; Bitner 1990; Boulding et al. 1993; Cadotte, Woodruff, and Jenkins 1987; Clow, Kurtz, and Ozment 1998; Clow et al. 1997; Dean 2004; Evans, Stan, and Murray 2008; Golder, Mitra, and Moorman 2012; Hamer, Liu, and Sudharshan, 1999; Higgs, Polonsky, and Hollick 2005; Hung, 2015; Hung, Wang, and Tang, 2015; Johnson and Mathews 1997; Kalamas, Laroche, and Cézard 2002; Kopalle and Lehmann 2001; Lin and Wu 2011; Miller 1977; Mitra and Fay 2010; Oliver 1980; Oliver and Winer 1987; Yang, Kim, and Yoo 2013; Yip et al. 2011; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman, 1993 | | |

| **2. The Ideal Amount Approach:** This refers to what the customer considers an ideal level of service. We can differentiate between: | |
| --- | --- |
| *(2a) Vector expectations* refer to attributes for which the ideal amount that the customer requires is *infinite*; therefore, the customer never reaches his or her maximum utility (e.g., an optician's level of knowledge). | *(2b) Ideal point expectations* refer to attributes for which the ideal amount that the customer requires is *finite* (e.g., the temperature of a store). A further differentiation has been made within this ideal point expectation regarding expectations for which the ideal finite amount is feasible (i.e., feasible ideal point expectations) and those that cannot be reached by any supplier (i.e., classic ideal point expectations). |
| Source: Clow et al. 1997; Golder, Mitra, and Moorman 2012; Higgs, Polonsky, and Hollick 2005; Miller 1977; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1994b; Teas 1993; Tsai, Hsu, and Chou 2011; Woodruff, Cadotte, and Jenkins 1983; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1993 | |
| **3. The Levels Approach**: This refers to different levels of expectations that set the limits for the *interval of tolerance* allowed in the assessment of the service. We can differentiate between: | |
| *(3a) Desired expectations* represent the highest level of performance that a consumer considers can be reached by the suppliers of a product category (e.g., I wish I could pay by mobile phone in the store). | *(3b) Adequate expectations* reflect the minimum service quality that a consumer believes should be expected from the suppliers of a product category (e.g., I should at least be able to pay with a credit card at the store). |
| Source: Bebko 2000; Hamer, Liu, and Sudharshan 1999; Higgs, Polonsky, and Hollick 2005; Johnson and Mathews 1997; Miller 1977; Nadiri 2011; Nadiri and Hussain 2005; Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml 1991; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1993, 1994a; Walker and Baker 2000; Yap and Sweeney 2007 | |
| **4. The Point-of-Assessment Approach:** This refers to the point at which the customer creates his or her expectations of service quality. We can differentiate between: | |
| *(4a) Pre-encounter expectations* are those that a person has formed before the service experience starts. For example, before going to a new luxury store, the customer has high expectations regarding its decor. | *(4b) Intra-encounter expectations* represent the quality expectations of a service that has already started. For example, when the same customer sees the facade of the new luxury store in disrepair, his or her expectations change. Upon entering the store and seeing the décor to be of high design, expectations are modified again. |
| Source: Bitner 1990; Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault 1990; Choi and Mattila 2008; Clow, Kurtz, and Ozment 1998; Dawar and Pillutla 2000; Hamer, Liu, and Sudharshan 1999; Johnson and Mathews 1997; Mittal and Lassar 1996; Oliver 1980; Oliver and Burke 1999; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1993 | |

Of these three types of expectation (normative, equitable, and predictive), we decided to measure only normative and predictive expectations. We leave equitable or deserved expectations to future work, because we would need to take

into account the costs the customer incurs, and our empirical study does not analyze actual purchases.

We characterize normative expectations as being more stable over time in the customer's mind (Clow, Kurtz, and Ozment 1998; Johnson and Mathews 1997). Moreover, predictive expectations are linked to the existence of the next service encounter, while normative expectations do not require any temporal proximity of the service.

*The importance of the attributes of service quality (incorporating personal attention).* Another aspect to consider in the assessment of service quality is the *importance* of each attribute used to measure it. Teas (1993) proposes an assessment model for the quality received, differentiating between the importance of the attributes of service quality and the ideal expectations in service quality. Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml (1991) analyze the importance of the dimensions of service quality.

*Relationships between service quality expectations and the importance of the attributes of service quality (incorporating personal attention).* We believe that it is important to know the expectations customers have regarding the various components of personal attention. However, customers seem to obtain simultaneous information about how important each component is. In this regard, we analyze whether normative expectations, predictive expectations, and importance are different concepts in customers' minds. We propose the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 2**. Customers are able to differentiate between normative and predictive expectations of service quality, taking into account personalization.

**Hypothesis 3**. Customers are able to differentiate between normative expectations and the importance of the attributes of service quality, taking into account personalization.

**Hypothesis 4.** Customers are able to differentiate between predictive expectations and the importance of the attributes of service quality, taking into account personalization.

### 6.4.2. Data

*Data collection*. A face-to-face survey, applying the SERVQUAL-P scale developed by Mittal and Lassar (1996), which is an adaptation of the SERVQUAL scale developed by Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml (1991), was conducted on a sample of individual customers in a city in northern Spain. Respondents participated voluntarily without any compensation.

For consumers to be able to value predictive expectations, they must have a specific small store in mind. Therefore, we chose a group of stores that represent the most important sectors of the area of study (fashion and accessories, footwear, furniture and decoration, computer stores, gift stores, opticians, and travel agencies).

To measure normative expectations, predictive expectations, and the importance of the attributes of service quality, we applied a sequential process. For each attribute (observable variable), respondents rated on a scale from 0 to 10 the level of service that a store should offer for it to provide excellent service (normative expectations), the service actually expected (predictive expectations), and the importance of each item on the scale (importance). For example, for attribute 9 ("everyone at this retailer is polite and courteous") we obtained the following: what it should be, what respondents actually expect of the service quality, and how important each item is for the customer.

*Sample characteristics*. Overall, 1,088 questionnaires were collected in December 2013, but as some had to be eliminated because they were not complete, 974 usable questionnaires were obtained.

Table 4 shows that the sample of customers reproduces the structure of the population by sex and age categories.

**Table 4.** Characteristics of Study 2

| Universe | Individuals | |
|---|---|---|
| Sampling procedure | Quota sampling by gender and age | |
| Data collection | Personal in-home interviews | |
| Study area | Logroño, Spain | |
| Date of fieldwork | December 2013 | |
| Sample size | 974 individuals | |
| Sample characteristics | | |
| | Sample | Official average population |
| Gender Male | 46.6% | 47.9% |
| Female | 53.4% | 52.1% |
| Age ≤ 25 | 28.3% | 25.7% |
| 26–40 | 26.0% | 23.4% |
| 41–60 | 28.4% | 29.7% |
| ≥ 61 | 17.3% | 21.2% |

### 6.4.3. Method Analysis A

We want to know how important 16 service quality attributes (incorporating personalized attention) are to the customers and the expectations they have regarding those attributes. Previously, we analyzed whether customers perceive differences between normative expectations, predictive expectations, and importance.

To determine whether consumers perceive any differences between *normative expectations*, *predictive expectations*, and *importance* in the attributes of service quality, we performed 2 × 2 contrasts. Then, we obtained the underlying dimensions of the SERVQUAL-P scale for normative expectations, predictive expectations, and importance. To achieve this, we applied exploratory factor analyses, and with the dimensions obtained we applied confirmatory factor analyses to validate and confirm the factors.

### 6.4.4. Results Analysis A

In the first stage, our results show profound differences between the average values of normative expectations and predictive expectations (Table 5). The parametric test (*t*-test) and the nonparametric test (Wilcoxon) reflect significant statistical differences, with a *p*-value lower than 0.01 for all variables.

**Table 5.** Significant Statistical Differences

| Items | Average Values[a] | | | NE/PE[b] | | NE/Imp | | PE/Imp | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | NE | PE | Imp | Sig.T | Sig.W | Sig.T | Sig.W | Sig.T | Sig.W |
| 1. Provides the service as promised | 8.94 | 8.37 | 9.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 2. Is dependable in handling customers' service problems | 9.12 | 8.38 | 9.06 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.12 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 3. Performs the service right the first time | 8.93 | 8.18 | 8.78 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 4. All employees are well-trained and knowledgeable | 9.25 | 8.37 | 9.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 5. The store employees provide prompt service | 8.72 | 7.89 | 8.43 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 6. The store employees are always willing to help you | 9.17 | 8.43 | 8.96 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 7. The store employees are always ready to respond to your requests | 9.01 | 8.17 | 8.70 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 8. The store employees give customers individual attention | 8.65 | 8.05 | 8.43 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 9. Everyone at the store is polite and courteous | 9.33 | 8.69 | 9.17 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 10. The store employees display personal warmth in their behavior | 7.54 | 7.00 | 7.16 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 11. All the persons working at the shop are friendly and pleasant | 9.12 | 8.44 | 8.94 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 12. The store employees take the time to know you personally | 7.36 | 6.65 | 6.97 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 13. The store has modern-looking equipment | 9.01 | 8.62 | 8.66 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.37 | 0.43 |
| 14. The store's physical facilities are visually appealing | 8.59 | 7.98 | 8.25 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 15. The store's employees have a neat and professional appearance | 8.95 | 8.47 | 8.70 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 16. Materials associated with the service (such as pamphlets or statements) are visually appealing at the store | 8.16 | 7.60 | 7.70 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.02 | 0.01 |

[a] NE = normative expectations; PE = predictive expectations; Imp = importance of the attribute.

[b] Sig.T = *p*-value of the *t*-test; Sig.W = *p*-value of the Wilcoxon test.

If we compare the normative and predictive expectations with the importance of the attribute, we also observe profound differences in 15 of the 16 variables ($p \leq 0.05$).

In the second stage, the results of the exploratory factor analyses conducted on normative expectations and predictive expectations show three dimensions. For importance, we obtain four dimensions (Appendix A).

To obtain the solution of the three confirmatory factor analyses, we carried out a series of modifications. We applied the Lagrange multiplier test and calculated the Wald statistic, which evaluates the effect of freeing (or not) a group of parameters simultaneously (Hair et al. 1999). We considered the convergence of parameters in the factors to respecify the model.[3]

With regard to goodness-of-fit indexes on the three scales, the results were satisfactory (Table 6). The composite reliability coefficient shows values > 0.7 (Appendix B). With regard to convergent validity, the indicators converge in the factors assigned (standardized lambda parameters > 0.5 and significant). The average variance extracted is $\geq 0.5$ for all factors. Regarding discriminant validity (Table 7), the covariance between factors indicates that they differ from each other in each model. The confidence interval for the covariance value does not include the value of 1, and therefore there are no covariance issues among the factors involved.

From Table 7, we can identify three factors in the normative expectation (Model 1) and predictive expectation (Model 2) models: "service attitude and trust" (F1), "store appeal" (F2), and "personal relationship" (F3). Our results show that the dimensions of normative and predictive expectations are essentially the same. The only difference is that in F1 (service attitude and trust) of the predictive expectations, there is one additional item: "well-trained and knowledgeable employees." With regard to the importance scale (Model 3), the

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[3]As Anderson and Gerbing (1988) note, "you can obtain greater convergence of the model by respecifying one or more problematic indicators from different constructs or by excluding these parameters." In our case, we considered it appropriate to eliminate parameters that contributed little to the factor to which they belonged (lambda < 0.6). However, to carry out any respecification of the model, we considered that the modification must be supported by theory.

dimensions obtained were "trust" (F1), "store appeal" (F2), "personal relationship" (F3), and "courteous attention" (F4).

**Table 6.** Goodness-of-fit Indexes of Each Model

| Index[a] | Recommended Value | Model 1: Normative Expectations | Model 2: Predictive Expectations | Model 3: Importance of the Attribute |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| BBNFI | > 0.90 | 0.97 | 0.96 | 0.97 |
| BBNNFI | > 0.90 | 0.96 | 0.96 | 0.97 |
| CFI | > 0.95 | 0.98 | 0.97 | 0.98 |
| Robust CFI | > 0.95 | 0.95 | 0.96 | 0.95 |
| GFI | > 0.90 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.98 |
| AGFI | > 0.90 | 0.94 | 0.94 | 0.96 |
| RMSEA | < 0.08 | 0.06 Confidence interval (0.05–0.07) | 0.06 Confidence interval (0.05–0.07) | 0.05 Confidence interval (0.04–0.06) |

[a] BBNFI = Bentler–Bonett normed fit index; BBNNFI = Bentler–Bonett non-normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; GFI = goodness-of-fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness-of-fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

**Table 7.** Analysis of Discriminant Validity

| Factors Involved | Covariance | Standard Error | Confidence Interval | | Value Outside the Interval |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Model 1: Normative Expectations** | | | | | |
| **F1–F2** | 0.57 | 0.03 | 0.51 | 0.63 | 1 |
| **F1–F3** | 0.20 | 0.04 | 0.12 | 0.28 | 1 |
| **F2–F3** | 0.40 | 0.04 | 0.32 | 0.49 | 1 |
| **Model 2: Predictive Expectations** | | | | | |
| **F1–F2** | 0.51 | 0.03 | 0.45 | 0.57 | 1 |
| **F1–F3** | 0.46 | 0.04 | 0.38 | 0.54 | 1 |
| **F2–F3** | 0.47 | 0.04 | 0.39 | 0.55 | 1 |
| **Model 3: Importance of the Attribute** | | | | | |
| **F1–F2** | 0.34 | 0.04 | 0.26 | 0.42 | 1 |
| **F1–F3** | 0.12 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.20 | 1 |
| **F1–F4** | 0.50 | 0.04 | 0.42 | 0.58 | 1 |
| **F2–F3** | 0.47 | 0.05 | 0.37 | 0.57 | 1 |
| **F2–F4** | 0.53 | 0.05 | 0.43 | 0.63 | 1 |
| **F3–F4** | 0.34 | 0.05 | 0.24 | 0.44 | 1 |

When we performed the confirmatory factor analysis, the fundamental difference between the two expectation scales (normative and predictive) and the importance scale is that in the latter scale, there is a new dimension—"courtesy in the attention" (F4)—in which the variables "polite employees" and "friendly employees" are integrated. We removed these two variables from the predictive and normative expectation scales because the lambda factor was less than 0.6.

Furthermore, as the exploratory factor analysis (Appendix A) shows, they do not have a clear assignment. In addition, we checked whether the model could be improved by introducing a dimension with these two variables. The result was a model with a poorer fit.

For the importance scale, respondents are clearer that there is a dimension relating to polite and friendly behavior (the dimension's attributes covary with one another, but not with attributes of other dimensions).

### 6.4.5. Conclusion analysis A

Our results show that there are significant differences between normative expectations (what it should be) and predictive expectations (what they actually expect the service quality to be). However, the underlying structure, which we obtained from the factorial analysis, is essentially the same. In this sense, we can partially accept $H_2$. With regard to the comparison between normative and predictive expectations and importance, differences arise both in the observable variables and in the structure of the underlying dimensions. As a result, we can accept $H_3$ and $H_4$.

### 6.4.6. Method analysis B

In their SERVQUAL-P scale, Mittal and Lassar (1996) establish four dimensions (reliability, responsiveness, personalization, and tangibles). In the personalization dimension, they include the following aspects: "the store

employees show personal warmth in their behavior," "the employees are polite and courteous," "the employees are friendly and pleasant," and "they take their time to know the customer personally." However, our results pertaining to the importance of the attributes show that the personalization dimension is divided into two subdimensions: one related to courteous attention and another to personal relationship. These results encouraged us to study these dimensions in greater detail.

We analyzed the average value of the attributes included in the dimensions of the importance scale for service quality. Then, we applied a sequential cluster analysis to examine whether any dimension stands out in any segment.

### 6.4.7. Results analysis B

The average values of the attributes included in each dimension (Table 8) provide evidence that the most important factors in the average score are trust (8.95) and courteous attention (8.94). These two factors are followed by store appeal (8.22). The least important factor is personal relationship (7.07).

**Table 8.** Average Value of the Attributes Included in the Dimensions of Importance

| Dimensions of Importance | F1: Trust | F2: Store Appeal | F3: Personal Relationship | F4: Courteous Attention |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Average | 8.95 | 8.22 | 7.07 | 8.94 |

It comes as a surprise that the courteous attention dimension is highly valued while the personal relationship dimension is the least important. Our question now is whether there is any group of consumers for whom personal relationships stand out as the most relevant dimension.

To classify customers into groups, we applied a hierarchical cluster analysis based on the dimensions of the importance scale. We used squared Euclidean distance as a proximity measurement and the Ward method as an

algorithm for classifying. A dendrogram enabled us to establish the number of clusters and the centroids to subsequently apply the K-means method. As a result, we obtained four clusters (see Table 9), whose validation we carried out through two methods: variance analysis and discriminant analysis. The validation was satisfactory (see Appendix C).

**Table 9.** Cluster According to Importance

| Dimensions | Group 1 | | Group 2 | | Group 3 | | Group 4 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mf[a] | Mi[b] | Mf | Mi | Mf | Mi | Mf | Mi |
| F1: Trust | 1.45 | 9.59 | .29 | 9.08 | −1.11 | 8.44 | −3.60 | 7.41 |
| F2: Store appeal | 1.86 | 9.27 | .27 | 8.32 | −1.33 | 7.55 | −4.35 | 5.76 |
| F3: Personal relationship | 1.46 | 8.44 | .16 | 7.06 | −1.02 | 6.21 | −3.16 | 4.73 |
| F4: Courteous attention | 1.88 | 9.73 | .35 | 9.14 | −1.42 | 8.29 | −4.50 | 6.92 |

[a] Mf = average value of the factor.

[b] Mi = average value of the factor's items on a scale from 0 to 10.

With regard to the description of the groups, we assigned a name to each cluster based on the importance the customers gave to the factors of service quality.

*Group 1: highly concerned.* These customers are most concerned about high service quality that incorporates personalized attention. This group values service quality in all its dimensions: trust, store appeal, personal relationship, and courteous attention. However, personal relationship is the least valued dimension. This group shows the least differences between the average values of the factors. The gap between the most valued factor (courteous attention = 9.73) and the least valued factor (personal relationship = 8.44) is 1.29 points. This cluster comprises 27.46% of the sample.

*Group 2: concerned.* This group represents more moderate customers when it comes to the importance placed on service quality (average values of the factors are close to 0 points). The average values of the items of each factor are high. The gap between the most valued factor (courteous attention = 9.14) and the least valued factor (personal relationship = 7.06) is 2.08 points. This group comprises 38.92% of the sample.

*Group 3: value quality less*. This group includes people who are less concerned than Groups 1 and 2 about the service quality of the store. The difference between the most valued factor (trust) and the least valued factor (personal relationship) is 2.23 points. This cluster comprises 28.00% of the sample.

*Group 4: reject personal relationships*. The people in this group have values on the scale that are close to 5 points (on a scale from 0 to 10), and they reject personal relationships (with values lower than 5 points). This group has the largest gap (2.68 points) between the most important dimension (trust) and the least important dimension (personal relationship). This is also the smallest group, representing only 5.62% of the total sample.

Overall, 66.38% of respondents valued courteous attention as the dimension of service quality that is most important, while for the rest it is the second-most valued dimension. For 33.62%, the trust dimension—which includes proper service, capable of handling problems, and keeps promises—is the most important. Personal relationship is the least important factor for 100% of the respondents.

## 6.5. Conclusions

Consumer behavior represents one of the greatest interests of marketing scholars and business managers due to their need to adapt their companies' strategies to the new frontier. In this context, several authors (Badgett, Boyce, and Kleinberger 2007; Gentile, Spiller, and Noci 2007; Grewal, Levy, and Kumar 2009; Rose et al. 2012; Tynan and McKechnie 2009; Verhoef et al. 2009) emphasize the importance of the shopping experience when choosing among different retailers. The interactions between retail employees and customers can have a significant impact on customers' perceptions of the organization (Gremler and Gwinner 2008; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, and Maxham III 2010; Litz and

Pollack, 2015; Otnes, Ilhan, and Kulkarni 2012; Tsiros and Parasuraman 2006). Despite the importance of this interaction, prior research has not answered the question of what customers value in terms of salesperson–customer interaction (Haas and Kenning, 2014). Thus, our study fills an existent gap on customer-salesperson relationship quality in retail.

In study 1, we analyze the primary motivations for customers going to shopping streets or malls since the relationship between a sales associate and a customer is dynamic and not universal and it varies across different services and industries (Kim and Jin, 2001). Our results show that the primary motivations for customers going to shopping streets or malls are different. Personalized attention is the most important factor cited by customers who prefer shopping streets. Therefore, this result is in line with numerous previous findings (Goodwin 1996; Gremler and Gwinner 2008; Menon and Dubé 2000; Schau, Dellande, and Gilly 2007; Stock and Hoyer 2005) that suggest the importance of the salesperson–customer interaction in defining the consumer's experience and ultimate satisfaction. However, personal attention is not as relevant for those who prefer malls. This is a source of competitive advantage for shopping streets, and it is the reason we studied consumer behavior in relation to service quality in these types of stores in greater detail.

Expectations also play a significant role in our research question. Retailers seek to manage customers' service expectations (Mitra and Fay 2010). The literature on expectations is broad, and many ways of understanding and studying expectations have been found. We have classified expectations into ten types, which we have then grouped into four main approaches: (1) comparison, (2) ideal amount, (3) levels, and (4) point of assessment. Several research has argued that the service quality a customer receives can be measured using comparison approach (Boulding, Kalra, Staelin and Zeithalm 1993; Dean 2004; Golder, Mitra, and Moorman 2012; Higgs, Polonsky, and Hollick 2005; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1993). This approach distinguishes and conceptualizes normative service quality expectations and predictive quality expectations. In Study 2 analysis A, we compare normative expectations (what the customer believes the

service quality should be) and predictive expectations (what the customer expects the service quality will actually be) of the customers of shopping streets. The results demonstrate deep differences in the mean scores of each attribute of service quality (incorporating personalization). In keeping with numerous previous findings (Boulding et al 1993; Higgs et al., 2005; Johnson and Mathews, 1993), expectations for normative expectations were generally higher than for the predictive expectations. However, the dimensions from the factor analysis are essentially the same: service attitude and trust (F1), store appeal (F2), and personal relationship (F3). These results are consistent with the findings of Kalamas, Laroche and Cézard (2002), but contrary to the conclusions of Higgs et al. (2005). If the underlying dimensions of the factor analysis are the same under normative and predictive expectations, this means that the customers are coherent in their assessment of these expectations. In other words, they evaluate service quality (normative expectations) and satisfaction (predictive expectations) following a similar mindset.

According to Teas (1993), another aspect to consider in the assessment of service quality is the importance of each attribute used to measure it. Its comparison with normative and predictive expectations is crucial in the answer to our research question. Once it has been compared, differences arise both in the items and in the structure of the factors between expectations and importance of the attributes.

We were surprised to find that the personalized attention (in the importance scale) was divided into two subdimensions in our work: courteous attention and personal relationship. In Mittal and Lassar (1996), aspects related to courteous attention and aspects related to personal relationships were integrated in the personalization factor. Likewise, Gagliano and Hathcote (1994) also find a dimension related to personal attention that integrates aspects related to courtesy and the concern to help, though the notion of personal relationships is not included. Haasa and Kenning (2014, p. 436) argue that "great service begins with showing courtesy to everyone, customers and coworkers alike". Ulaga and Eggert

(2006) identified service support and personal interaction as core differentiators in business relationships.

Our subsequent question was whether there was any group of consumers for whom personal relationship stands out as the most relevant dimension. In Study 2 analysis B, we classified the customers into four groups based on the dimensions of the importance scale.

Courteous attention is the most important factor for two of the groups, while for the other two it is the second most important factor. However, personal relationship is the least valued dimension in all groups.

Our results from Study 2 analysis B are consistent with those from Study 1 and according to Gremler and Gwinner (2008), the results show that the quality of service and the degree of personal attention are important factors in consumer behavior. In Study 1, the personal attention dimension was divided into five central concepts, one of them being personal relationship. Customers who preferred shopping streets value polite and courteous attention as well as close and personalized attention. However, only 4.09% of those surveyed commented that one of their motives is the personal relationship with the retailer. Therefore, there are consumers who like to maintain a personal relationship, but they are a minority.

**Managerial Implications**

This article advances the knowledge about this new consumer behavior and helps business managers, giving them guidelines to adapt their companies' strategies to the new frontier.

Urban shopping streets can be revitalized using personal attention in a professional manner, while stopping short of forging a personal relationship with the customer. With regard to consumer behavior, managers should take care to

cultivate what kind of personal attention they offer their customers, recognizing that the personal relationship is the least valued factor in service quality.

Because the motivations for choosing malls versus shopping streets are different, managers should consider the following recommendations. First, for managers of shops located in shopping streets, it is important to note that for 66.38% of the respondents, the most important aspect of service quality is courteous attention, and for 32.62% of the respondents, trust is the most important aspect. Thus, we recommend the following:

- Stores should select personnel who have the ability to develop these skills while not necessarily forging personal relationships (which is not valued). Because many of the retailers are family businesses, they tend to employ relatives as sellers. However, not all people are equally qualified and capable of exhibiting these sought-after characteristics.

- We recommend the development of personal attention skills by means of continuous training. Sales techniques and an appropriate use of personal communication can improve relationships with customers and their shopping experience. The "professionalization" of the seller can make the difference between companies. The use of mystery shoppers can be a tool to help identify potential improvements in sellers' personal communication skills.

- Another recommendation would be to carry out communication campaigns focused on highlighting the comfort of walking casually through shopping streets, the wide variety of stores, or the simple pleasure of shopping.

Second, for mall managers, we recommend building on the concept of "big shopping" as an excursion and consolidating their strength in the commercial offer. Commercial communication campaigns should stress the advantages of spatial convenience (everything in the same place) and accessibility (opening hours and parking). Young people show a clear preference for the mall for

shopping but not for leisure activities, though in the malls in the study area there are also leisure activities. Our recommendation is to attract young people with appropriate entertainment proposals.

Because customers perceive differences between what should be (normative expectations) and what they actually expect (predictive expectations), management should carry out actions that aim to meet customers' normative expectations. This effort should focus on the attributes that are important to customers (importance scale).

**Limitations and further research**

Although we believe our results add an important contribution to the literature, it is difficult to determine whether they are unique to retail in the area of study or whether they can be extrapolated beyond this environment. Therefore, we recommend that our study be replicated in other regions, such as the United States, India, or Germany, which have different cultures.

In our work we included all the retailers in the area of study as a whole. However, it would be worthwhile to conduct research that involves comparing various types of stores, as there may be differences for each category.

For Group 4, which rejects personal relationships, it would be worthwhile studying how this preference affects shopping behavior on the Internet to study e-commerce in greater detail.

Our results complement previous studies in that we have found new reasons to go shopping. We identify, among others, solidarity with traditional trade as a reason for opting to purchase in stores located in shopping streets. This result is connected to the world of emotions as a source of competitive advantage for traditional trade.

We agree with Puccinelli et al. (2009, p. 24), who argue that "the interpersonal nature of the interaction between the customer and employee [...]

may be key to customer satisfaction in the retail environment." Moreover, retailers located in shopping streets must manage every encounter with the customer as a unique opportunity, in which personal attention should be the main tool for satisfying and building loyalty with the customer. Using this strategy to differentiate themselves from and compete with larger stores and malls, smaller businesses located in shopping streets might be able to effectively reestablish their retail niche and relevance to consumers.

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# Appendix A: Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Observable Variables

## A: The Normative Expectations Scale

| Variable | Factor Loading | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **F1** | **F2** | **F3** |
| P2.2.*should*. Capable of handling problems | **0.748** | 0.124 | 0.009 |
| P2.3.*should*. Proper service | **0.694** | 0.166 | 0.057 |
| P2.1.*should*. Keeps promises | **0.668** | 0.189 | −0.046 |
| P2.7.*should*. Prepared to respond to requests | **0.662** | 0.170 | 0.212 |
| P2.6.*should*. Prepared to help | **0.659** | 0.199 | 0.156 |
| P2.4.*should*. Well-trained and knowledgeable employees | **0.622** | 0.210 | 0.002 |
| P2.5.*should*. Prompt service | **0.558** | 0.282 | 0.201 |
| P2.9.*should*. Polite employees | **0.509** | **0.405** | −0.006 |
| P2.14.*should*. Appealing store | 0.161 | **0.772** | 0.137 |
| P2.15.*should*. Employees have a neat appearance | 0.321 | **0.692** | 0.117 |
| P2.16.*should*. Materials associated with the service | 0.084 | **0.641** | **0.401** |
| P2.13.*should*. Retail has modern-looking equipment | 0.258 | **0.621** | 0.007 |
| P2.11.*should*. Friendly employees | **0.410** | **0.505** | 0.150 |
| P2.10.*should*. Show personal warmth in their behavior | 0.032 | 0.093 | **0.821** |
| P2.12.*should*. Take time to know the customer personally | 0.033 | 0.166 | **0.821** |
| P2.8.*should*. Employees give customers individual attention | **0.441** | 0.150 | **0.480** |
| **Total Variance Explained** | | | |
| **Factor** | **% of the Variance** | | **% Accumulated** |
| F1. Service attitude and trust | 24.267 | | 24.267 |
| F2. Store appeal | 16.374 | | 40.641 |
| F3. Personal relationship | 11.938 | | 52.578 |

| **Goodness of Fit** | |
|---|---|
| Determinants | 0.006 |
| Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of adequacy | 0.905 |
| Bartlett's test of sphericity (approx. chi-squared) | 4,730.0 ($p < 0.001$) |

## B: The Predictive Expectations Scale

| Variable | Factor loading | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **F1** | **F2** | **F3** |
| P2.2.*expect*. Capable of handling problems | **0.752** | 0.127 | 0.019 |
| P2.3.*expect*. Proper service | **0.740** | 0.113 | 0.069 |
| P2.1.*expect*. Keeps promises | **0.726** | 0.143 | −0.034 |
| P2.4.*expect*. Well-trained and knowledgeable employees | **0.685** | 0.149 | 0.155 |
| P2.6.*expect*. Prepared to help | **0.678** | 0.192 | 0.257 |
| P2.7.*expect*. Prepared to respond to requests | **0.661** | 0.177 | 0.286 |
| P2.5.*expect*. Prompt service | **0.609** | 0.168 | 0.242 |
| P2.9.*expect*. Polite employees | **0.572** | 0.365 | 0.108 |
| P2.11.*expect*. Friendly employees | **0.533** | **0.416** | 0.237 |
| P2.8.*expect*. Employees give customers individual attention | **0.514** | 0.171 | **0.410** |
| P2.15.*expect*. Employees have a neat appearance | 0.243 | **0.741** | 0.083 |
| P2.13.*expect*. Retail has modern-looking equipment | 0.188 | **0.657** | −0.109 |
| P2.14.*expect*. Appealing store | 0.195 | **0.629** | 0.342 |
| P2.16.*expect*. Materials associated with the service | 0.074 | **0.609** | 0.381 |
| P2.10.*expect*. Show personal warmth in their behavior | 0.173 | 0.080 | **0.825** |
| P2.12.*expect*. Take time to know the customer personally | 0.155 | 0.154 | **0.811** |
| **Total Variance Explained** | | | |
| **Factor** | **% of the Variance** | | **% Accumulated** |
| F1. Service attitude and trust | 27.788 | | 27.788 |
| F2. Store appeal | 14.258 | | 42.046 |
| F3. Personal relationship | 13.071 | | 55.117 |

| **Goodness of Fit** | |
|---|---|
| Determinants | 0.003 |
| Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of adequacy | 0.922 |
| Bartlett's test of sphericity (approx. chi-squared) | 5,311.91 ($p < 0.001$) |

### C: The Importance Scale

| Variable | Factor Loading | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **F1** | **F2** | **F3** | **F4** |
| P2.3.*important*. Proper service | **0.743** | 0.156 | 0.117 | −0.013 |
| P2.2.<u>important</u>. Capable of handling problems | **0.702** | 0.090 | −0.082 | 0.229 |
| P2.1.*important*. Keeps promises | **0.676** | 0.101 | −0.050 | 0.241 |
| P2.4.*important*. Well-trained and knowledgeable employees | **0.569** | 0.115 | 0.100 | 0.297 |
| P2.5.*important*. Prompt service | **0.527** | 0.303 | 0.262 | 0.014 |
| P2.14.*important*. Appealing store | 0.135 | **0.789** | 0.088 | 0.081 |
| P2.16.*important*. Materials associated with the service | 0.079 | **0.719** | 0.326 | 0.053 |
| P2.15.*important*. Employees have a neat appearance | 0.110 | **0.651** | 0.086 | 0.371 |
| P2.13.*important*. Retail has modern-looking equipment | 0.259 | **0.549** | −0.004 | 0.139 |
| P2.9.*important*. Polite employees | 0.161 | 0.157 | 0.055 | **0.786** |
| P2.11.*important*. Friendly employees | 0.115 | 0.224 | 0.140 | **0.744** |
| P2.6.*important*. Prepared to help | **0.411** | 0.017 | 0.194 | **0.535** |
| P2.7.*important*. Prepared to respond to requests | **0.416** | 0.175 | 0.215 | **0.465** |
| P2.10.*important*. Show personal warmth in their behavior | 0.016 | 0.080 | **0.822** | 0.099 |
| P2.12.*important*. Take time to know the customer personally | −0.019 | 0.198 | **0.808** | 0.071 |
| P2.8.*important*. Employees give customers individual attention | 0.263 | 0.077 | **0.531** | 0.241 |

| Total Variance Explained | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Factor** | **% of the Variance** | **% Accumulated** | |
| F1. Trust | 16.605 | | 16.605 |
| F2. Store appeal | 13.565 | | 30.170 |
| F3. Personal relationship | 12.137 | | 42.307 |
| F4. Courteous attention | 13.204 | | 55.511 |

| Goodness of Fit | |
|---|---|
| Determinants | 0.014 |
| Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of adequacy | 0.874 |
| Bartlett's test of sphericity (approx. chi-squared) | 3,916.74 ($p < 0.001$) |

# Appendix B: Analysis of the Convergent Validity and Reliability of the Three Models

| | Standardized Parameters >0.5 and *t*-value > 1.96 | Composite Reliability Coefficient > 0.7 | Average Variance Extracted ≥ 0.5 |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Model 1: Normative Expectations** | | | |
| **F1. Service Attitude and Trust** | | 0.85 | 0.50 |
| Capable of handling problems | 0.75 (23.6) | | |
| Proper service | 0.61 (19.8) | | |
| Keeps promises | 0.73 (21.8) | | |
| Prepared to respond to requests | 0.74 (2.8) | | |
| Prepared to help | 0.63 (19.9) | | |
| Prompt service | 0.76 (18.7) | | |
| **F2. Store Appeal** | | 0.77 | 0.52 |
| Appealing store | 0.70 (2.6) | | |
| Employees have a neat appearance | 0.75 (2.6) | | |
| Materials associated with the service | 0.71 (19.0) | | |
| **F3. Personal Relationships** | | 0.72 | 0.58 |
| Show personal warmth in their behavior | 0.89 (34.3) | | |
| Take time to know the customer personally | 0.60 (18.3) | | |
| **Model 2: Predictive Expectations** | | | |
| **F1. Service Attitude and Trust** | | 0.87 | 0.50 |
| Capable of handling problems | 0.71 (23.4) | | |
| Proper service | 0.70 (22.1) | | |
| Keeps promises | 0.73 (22.4) | | |
| Prepared to respond to requests | 0.76 (19.8) | | |
| Prepared to help | 0.72 (22.3) | | |
| Prompt service | 0.62 (19.0) | | |
| Well-trained and knowledgeable employees | 0.68 (21.6) | | |
| **F2. Store Appeal** | | 0.76 | 0.52 |
| Appealing store | 0.83 (29.9) | | |
| Employees have a neat appearance | 0.61 (18.4) | | |
| Materials associated with the service | 0.70 (16.6) | | |
| **F3. Personal Relationships** | | 0.73 | 0.57 |
| Show personal warmth in their behavior | 0.74 (19.1) | | |
| Take time to know the customer personally | 0.77 (19.8) | | |
| **Model 3: Importance of the Attribute** | | | |
| **F1. Trust** | | 0.78 | 0.55 |
| Proper service | 0.60 (13.9) | | |
| Capable of handling problems | 0.71 (15.6) | | |
| Keeps promises | 0.89 (34.3) | | |
| **F2. Store Appeal** | | 0.75 | 0.50 |
| Appealing store | 0.62 (17.2) | | |
| Materials associated to the service | 0.74 (18.3) | | |
| Employees have a neat appearance | 0.75 (18.3) | | |
| **F3. Personal Relationships** | | 0.71 | 0.55 |
| Show personal warmth in their behavior | 0.69 (16.6) | | |
| Take time to know the customer personally | 0.79 (18.0) | | |
| **F4. Courteous Attention** | | 0.79 | 0.55 |
| Polite employees | 0.69 (18.9) | | |
| Friendly employees | 0.75 (2.3) | | |
| Prepared to respond to requests | 0.79 (14.6) | | |

## Appendix C. Validation of the Cluster

Table B1 shows the average values of the points obtained for the observable variables of both groups of users and the ANOVA results. The ANOVA results reflect the existence of a difference of averages between groups.

Table B1: Average Values on a 0–5 Scale Between User Groups and ANOVA Results

|  | GROUP 1 | GROUP 2 | GROUP 3 | GROUP 4 | ANOVA Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| F1. Trust | 0.5299 | 0.8004 | −0.6627 | −2.7771 | 0.00 |
| F2. Store appeal | 1.8165 | 0.6978 | −0.7149 | −2.9595 | 0.00 |
| F3. Personal relationships | 1.6519 | −0.0644 | −0.1820 | −2.6028 | 0.00 |
| F4. Courteous attention | 1.2218 | −0.0363 | −1.0218 | −3.7251 | 0.00 |

Likewise, the multiple discriminant analysis shows the existence of a difference of averages between customers in the test of equality of averages (F) (see Table B2). In addition, we observe low values of Wilks's lambda, and the chi-squared associated with Wilks's lambda enables us to accept the hypothesis of differences in the points awarded to the independent variables between the groups of consumers (see Table B3). In the same way, Box's M test yields an F-statistic of 19.19, with a significance level lower than 0.001. This enables us to reject the null hypothesis that the variance–covariance matrices do not present significant statistical differences between groups. Finally, the confusion matrix shows that 98.6% of the original grouped cases are correctly classified. All this confirms that both of the clusters obtained are different and that they are correctly identified.

Table B2: Equality Tests of the Groups' Averages

| Variables | Wilks's Lambda | F-statistic |
|---|---|---|
| F1. Trust | 0.255 | 897.396* |
| F2. Store appeal | 0.138 | 1920.167* |
| F3. Personal relationships | 0.260 | 874.274* |
| F4. Courteous attention | 0.134 | 1978.774* |

*Significant at $p < 0.01$

Table B3: Wilks's Lambda

| Contrast of the Function | Wilks's Lambda | Chi-Squared | Degrees of Freedom | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 to 3 | 0.115 | 1990.913 | 12 | 0.000 |
| 2 to 3 | 0.978 | 20.477 | 6 | 0.002 |
| 3 | 0.994 | 5.512 | 2 | 0.064 |

# Capítulo 7.
# Conclusiones

# CONCLUSIONES

## 7.1. Conclusions

This doctoral thesis took a twofold approach to the study of retailers: first, it looked at the supply (companies) and, second, it examined the behaviour of the demand (consumers). The first approach focused on the characteristics of those companies and, more specifically, retailers that pursue innovations in marketing. The second analysed the behaviour of retail consumers. Together, these two perspectives enable a more global vision of the situation and the formulation of recommendations for improvement for companies.

With regard to supply, four complementary studies were conducted. The main findings were as follows:

- **Marketing innovation by Spanish companies**

Marketing innovation is currently in the early stages, with only 27.2% of Spanish companies claiming to pursue it. Modifications to product design and packaging are the most frequently employed methods of marketing innovation. Additionally, the following conclusions can be drawn with regard to the

characteristics of companies that innovate in marketing:

- The companies most likely to innovate in marketing also carry out internal R&D activities, have high turnovers, export, and are small or medium-sized.

- The companies most likely to innovate in design carry out internal R&D activities, belong to the manufacturing sector, export, have high turnovers, and are small or medium-sized.

- The companies most likely to innovate in promotion, carry out internal R&D activities, belong to the service sector, have high turnovers, export their products, and are small.

- The companies most likely to innovate in placement carry out internal R&D activities, belong to the service sector, export their services, have high turnovers, and are small.

- In keeping with the previous types of marketing innovations, the companies most likely to innovate in pricing also carry out internal R&D activities, belong to the service sector, export their products, have high turnovers, and are small.

The undertaking of internal R&D is the main determinant of all forms of marketing innovation. Therefore, companies that make major efforts to carry out such internal R&D tasks are also likely to pursue non-technological innovation, including in the area of marketing. In this regard, it should be noted that in situations of crisis, an organization's survival may depend on thinking about (internal R&D) and launching (marketing) new offers that seek to provide solutions for the new economic context.

As for the relationship between each type of innovation and the business sector (manufacturing or services), as the companies that make the products, manufacturers are also the ones to innovate most in product design and packaging. In contrast, service companies are much more likely to come into contact with end users and, thus, are the ones that need to address innovation strategies related to product or service placement, promotion and pricing.

▪ **Marketing innovation by Spanish companies before and during the crisis**

This thesis also found that the effect of company size on the likelihood of innovating in marketing is declining. This may be because, in recent years, Spanish public policy has placed particular importance on supporting small and medium-sized enterprises, as they account for a very significant share of the country's business structure.

As for the geographic scope of an enterprise's sales, several key conclusions could be drawn. In 2008, enterprises that conducted their business in the EU were more likely to innovate in marketing than those that also sold to the rest of the world. In contrast, in 2010, the companies most likely to innovate in marketing were those that also sold in other markets. This can be explained by the economic crisis of recent years not only in Spain but also throughout Europe, which has forced Spanish companies to seek out new markets outside the EU and, thus, to make a greater effort with regard to marketing innovation to better meet the needs of consumers in the new countries. These findings underscore, first, the effect of public policies aimed at encouraging internationalization and, second, the need to sell abroad to survive because of stagnant consumption in the EU.

As for the tendency for marketing innovations to depend on an enterprise's activity, the differences between the two sectors – manufacturing and services – become significant when the variable is broken down into the four types of marketing innovation. Specifically, as the enterprises that make products, manufacturers have a greater need to innovate in product design and packaging. In contrast, service companies are generally in closer contact with the end consumer and, thus, must embrace innovative strategies regarding product or service placement, promotion and pricing. These findings show that there are statistically significant differences in an enterprise's likelihood of adopting marketing innovations, depending on its business activity.

Contrary to what might have been expected and to the innovation culture theory, whether or not a company belongs to a group of companies is indirectly related to its likelihood to innovate in marketing. Specifically, companies that are

not members of a group are more likely to engage in this type of innovation. This may be because companies that belong to groups tend to be less flexible and depend more on the parent company, whereas independent enterprises have greater flexibility with regard to making decisions about marketing innovations.

The different kinds of innovation (product, process and organizational) were found to correlate significantly with a greater likelihood of implementing marketing innovations. This is because any product, process or organizational innovation an enterprise might undertake must be backed by marketing innovations to be innovatively presented and publicized to consumers who might otherwise fail to perceive it as an innovation. However, attention should also be drawn to the notable increase between 2008 and 2010 in the tendency for companies that pursue organizational innovations to innovate in marketing as well, which suggests that the two kinds of innovation may be closely related.

The characteristics of enterprises that innovate in marketing undergo structural changes over time. This may be because of the huge efforts of various national and organizational bodies to foster innovation. On the one hand, the ability to innovate has become much more accessible to all kinds of companies. On the other hand, the current deep economic crisis has led many enterprises to concentrate their energy simply on surviving. As a result, they are not focusing on innovation in general, let alone on innovation in marketing in particular, as it is usually the marketing department that suffers the deepest cuts in times of crisis. Accordingly, statistically significant differences were found between the two periods in terms of companies' likelihood to innovate in marketing; specifically, companies were much less likely to pursue such innovation in 2010 than in 2008.

- **Marketing innovation by the Spanish retail sector**

Marketing innovation is currently also in the early stages, with only 26.1% of Spanish retailers claiming to innovate in this way. Modifications in promotion were the most frequently employed method of marketing innovation. With regard

to the characteristics of the Spanish retailers that innovate in marketing, fewer statistically significant features were found than in the previous study:

- The retailers most likely to innovate in marketing also carry out internal R&D activities and have high turnovers.

- The retailers most likely to innovate in design carry out internal R&D activities, export, and have high turnovers.

- The retailers most likely to innovate in promotion carry out internal R&D activities and have high turnovers.

- The retailers most likely to innovate in placement carry out internal R&D activities, have high turnovers, and do not export.

- In keeping with the previous types of marketing innovation, the retailers most likely to innovate in pricing, also carry out internal R&D activities and have high turnovers. However, contrary to what one might expect, the relationship between innovation in pricing and export activity was negative.

In keeping with the previous study, here, too, the undertaking of internal R&D was the main determinant of all types of marketing innovation. Turnover also showed a direct, significant relationship with the pursuit of all types of marketing innovation.

The analysis of export activity and all types of marketing innovation also gave the expected result, i.e., a direct relationship. The exception was pricing innovation, for which an indirect relationship was found. This can be explained by the fact that companies that sell their products or services in other countries do not have the flexibility to pursue the same type of pricing innovation there as they might in the national market, as they have to adapt to the conditions and pricing in the target country. In any case, this feature would benefit from more in-depth study.

- **Marketing innovation practices of small and medium-sized retailers and the relationships between the four types of innovation (product, process, organizational and marketing)**

The first conclusion is that marketing innovation is the second most implemented type of innovation by small and medium-sized retailers, whilst it is the least implemented of the four types in other sectors. This finding underscores the importance of this type of innovation in the retail sector.

The introduction of new marketing methods amongst small and medium-sized retailers positively impacts the likelihood of pursuing all types of innovation (product, process and organizational). However, the introduction of other types of innovation does not have the same impact. Whilst all other types of innovation positively impact the likelihood of introducing marketing innovations in general, this impact was not found for all types of marketing innovations. Therefore, it can be concluded that the determinants of marketing, product, process and organizational innovations differ in small and medium-sized retailers.

With regard to the different types of marketing innovation, the introduction of new organizational methods positively impacts the likelihood of engaging in all types of marketing innovations (design, pricing, promotion and placement) amongst small and medium-sized retailers. However, the introduction of new products or processes only has a positive impact on the likelihood of pursuing design innovations. Thus, the determinants of marketing innovation differ amongst the four types of marketing innovation in the retail sector.

As for the second approach taken by the thesis, concerning demand, two complementary studies were conducted. The main findings were as follows:

▪ **Reasons for choosing high streets versus shopping centres**

The study found that shoppers have different reasons for choosing high streets versus shopping centres and that shopping centres continue to drive customers to the peripheries of cities.

The reasons for preferring shopping centres were basically twofold: the retail offer and spatial convenience. These preferences correspond to hedonic and utilitarian motives. The hedonic motivations included: shopping at shopping centres is more stimulating because 'there is more to see' (shopping as an 'adventure') and that shopping at shopping centres provides the shopper with more information on products and trends (shopping to gather 'ideas'). With regard to spatial convenience, shoppers cited utilitarian motives: shopping centres allow them to shop more efficiently.

The reasons for preferring high streets were, in order of importance: personalized attention, spatial convenience, the retail offer, solidarity, entertainment, and a negative attitude towards shopping centres. As in the case of shopping centres, they thus combined utilitarian and hedonic motives.

The study also found that age matters when choosing where to shop. The people most likely to shop on high streets were older people (over 64) seeking personalized attention who did not care much about the retail offer or price. In contrast, the people most likely to go to shopping centres were the youngest people (25 and under) and those between the ages of 26 and 65, whose main reason for going is the broad retail offer at a good price.

▪ **What today's customers value in terms of salesperson–customer interaction quality**

Consumers' primary motivations for going to high streets or shopping centres differed. Personalized attention was the most important factor cited by consumers who preferred high streets, but was less relevant for those who

preferred shopping centres. This could be a source of competitive advantage for high streets and the relationship between consumer behaviour and service quality at such establishments should be studied in greater detail.

The analysis of normative expectations (what the customer believes the service quality should be), predictive expectations (what the customer expects the service quality will actually be) and the importance of each attribute of high-street shoppers yielded various findings. First, there were considerable differences between normative and predictive expectations in the mean scores for each service-quality attribute (including personalization). However, the factor analysis dimensions were essentially the same: service attitude and trust, store appeal, and personal relationship. Second, differences also exist with regard to both the items and the structure of the factors between expectations and the importance of the attributes. Personalized attention (on the importance scale) had two sub-dimensions: courteous attention and a personal relationship.

The classification of the customers into four groups based on the dimensions of the importance scale showed that courteous attention was the most important factor for two of the groups, and the second most important for the other two. In contrast, a personal relationship was the least valued dimension for all groups.

## 7.2. Managerial implications

This research points to a series of guidelines for both companies in general and retailers in particular.

Companies cannot remain passive in the face of the new challenges posed by the current situation but rather must strive to better meet consumers' needs through marketing innovation. Because marketing innovation practices are still in the early stages, companies should seize the opportunity and start to innovate in these aspects, particularly in countries like Spain, which has a highly industrialized, developed economy in which so-called 'basic' needs are already

being addressed, such that the path to potential growth runs through marketing innovation.

When the focus is narrowed to retailers, high-street shops and shopping centres can coexist by pursuing their respective strengths. Both offer interesting benefits for today's omnichannel consumers, who, in certain situations, prefer brick-and-mortar shops and value the offline shopping experience.

First, salespeople at shopping centres should continue to provide personalized attention, as it is one of their strengths. However, they should do so in a professional way, without seeking to build personal relationships with customers, as most consumers reject them.

Second, they should focus on young people, as they are the future and currently clearly prefer shopping centres to high-street shops, when it comes to shopping at physical establishments. To this end, they should innovate in communication and distribution to adapt to the new omnichannel environment and better reach these targets.

## 7.3. Limitations and future research

This research has certain limitations due to the use of a pre-developed database (PITEC) in the study of marketing innovation. It was not possible to include all the suitable variables or to measure the 'marketing innovation' variable in the most appropriate manner. For this reason, the research had to be adapted to how marketing innovation was measured in the chosen database, which was designed for national statistics and consequently does not afford in-depth information about marketing innovation.

Future research on this kind of innovation should, first, find a better definition for the concept of 'marketing innovation', as it is not entirely clear what companies understand by this term. To this end, it might be helpful to develop an ad hoc measuring system that would make it possible to understand marketing

occurrences more fully, taking advantage of the possibilities offered by new technologies with a variety of new systems for customer relations.

Additionally, although innovation by companies is a continuous process, this research did not include a longitudinal analysis of marketing innovation. In this regard, it would be interesting to analyse a longer time span using panel data.

With regard to marketing innovation, it would also be interesting to analyse the potential relationships between marketing innovation and company performance or competitive advantage.

As for the analysis of consumer behaviour, although the findings make an important contribution to the literature, it is difficult to determine whether they are unique to retail in the area of study or can be extrapolated beyond this environment. In this regard, it would be interesting to replicate the study elsewhere in order to compare the results.

Finally, this analysis considered all establishments in the study area as a whole. It would be interesting to conduct research comparing various types of shops, as there could be differences between each category.

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