Shopping Centre Marketing

Value Creation and Customer Engagement

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Chapter 1

Shopping centres as a retail format

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1 Shopping centres as a retail format

1.1 Contemporary understanding of the term 'shopping centre'

For many customers a shopping centre is a preferred place for shopping and spending free time (Tan, 2019). Whereas, for tenants it is related to satisfying the need to attract a larger number of potential customers to a convenient location. What is important is shopping centres, albeit constituting a private property, are perceived as public space.[1] Over the years they have become a part of social life (Gonçalves et al., 2020), a city's showcase (Kochaniec, 2011) and, often, a tourist attraction (Kinley et al., 2003).

The shopping centre is the subject of research in many scientific fields and disciplines, including technical sciences (architecture), social sciences (management, economy, sociology, psychology, political science) and socio-economic geography. Furthermore, research areas (contexts), which discuss the subject matter of shopping centres, can be identified in social sciences. The depiction of a shopping centre as a consumption space is especially common. Numerous publications are also devoted to the issues of the social impact of these facilities or their influence on the structure of suburbs. In the subject literature, the depiction of a shopping centre as a tourist product can also be found, in which this format is analysed as an already mentioned tourist attraction[2] and the main destination centre.[3] A plethora of contextual depictions cause difficulties with the classification and definition of the concept. The problem with unifying the definition of a shopping centre is that both in legal acts and in public statistics, the term 'shopping centre' is often missing.[4] In Table 1.1 we present an overview of definitions of a shopping centre.

In the literature regarding retail trade, many attempts have been made at defining a shopping centre. The multiplicity of definitions also results from the plethora of types of shopping centres (Kucharska et al., 2015) and various levels of significance of the commercial function of the facility – this function can be of the greatest importance (shopping centres of first and second generation), and perform an equivalent or even a supplementary role, as in the case of retail centres of third, fourth and fifth generation (Rochmińska, 2013). Researchers often refer to the definition provided by

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Table 1.1 Definitions of a shopping centre in the literature

Author	*Date*	*Definition of a shopping centre*
Urban Land Institute	1947	A group of architecturally unified commercial establishments built on a site that is planned, developed, owned, and managed as an operating unit related by its location, size, and type of shops to the trade area that it serves. The unit provides on-site parking in definite relationship to the types and total size of the stores.
R.J. McKeever	1953	A group of shops planned, constructed and managed as a single object, connected by their localisation, size (total retail space) and the type of shops with the area of influence of the entire facility; with a car parking separated from the street and located on the same land lot.
A. Olearczyk	1979	An intentional form of spatial concentration of retail trade facilities. In terms of assortment, construction, architecture and organisation-administration, it constitutes a whole adjusted to provide services for motorised customers.
J. Dietl	1992	An intentional form of spatial concentration of retail trade under common management providing services to the centre.
J. Altkorn, T. Kramer	1998	A group of retail stores and service providers, usually constituting separate business entities, forming one complex in commercial, construction, architectural, organisational and administrative terms, providing a comprehensive range of products and services to customers.
M. Strużycki	2009	A modern group of stores, catering and service establishments, comprising at least several stores, including an anchor store, which can be a hypermarket, a supermarket or another store offering mainly foodstuff, and a basic catering establishment, run by various enterprises.
N. Matysiak	2009	A diligently designed group of retail and service facilities, which is planned, constructed and managed as a separate entity with common areas, including an adjacent car park.
J. Mikołajczyk	2012	A group of retail stores and service providers, usually constituting separate business entities, forming one complex in terms of commerce, assortment and services, construction and architecture, organisation and administration, providing a comprehensive range of products and services to customers.
C.E. Cloete	2015	A group of architecturally unified commercial establishments built on a site which is planned, developed, owned and managed as an operating unit related to its location, size and type of shops to the trade area that the unit serves.

(*Continued*)

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Author	*Date*	*Definition of a shopping centre*
R. Łabuz	2021	A cohesive architectural-urban complex, which was developed on the basis of a coherent investment project of a mainly commercial function, which is a facility or a group of facilities built on an independent plot of land, with a minimum Gross Leasable Area (GLA) of 5,000 m^2, consisting of at least ten tenants, and a car park for its customers.

Source: Own study based on: McKeever (1953); Olearczyk (1979); Matysiak (2009); Strużycki (2009); Dudek-Mańkowska (2010); Mikołajczyk (2012); Rochmińska (2013); Kotler et al. (2013); Cloete (2015); Pasek (2019); Łabuz (2021).

J. Dietl, who defined a shopping centre as ‘an intentional form of spatial concentration of retail trade under common management providing services to the centre’ (Dietl, 1992).

In all definitions of a shopping centre, the fact of grouping retail trade units, referring to the centre as a whole[5] and the aspect of planning (planfulness) are underlined. This planning is connected not only to the size of the facility, but also to the type of trade-service units and a general and specific location. It is important, since in the literature unplanned trading centres are also distinguished, i.e. commercial streets, central shopping districts or commercial clusters along roads and motorways (Twardzik, 2018).

In our opinion, definitions, which pay particular attention to the complex nature of the commercial, service and catering offer (as *sine qua non* condition) or the aspect of diversification of the trade-service offer, should be approached with caution. Specialist theme centres do not comprehensively satisfy all needs of a customer. Also, the aspect of an anchor store as an element constituting a shopping centre could be disputed. Therefore, it has been assumed here that the existence of an anchor store (magnet) is not a necessary condition of a shopping centre’s existence.

The first scientific research discussing the subject matter of shopping centres was conducted in the 1940s and primarily concerned technical aspects, including architectural aspects. In the literature of a later period, additional research streams are indicated: location, economic-organisational and behavioural. The technical stream concerns engineering and architectural issues with its lead proponents being V. Gruen and L. Smith (1960). The location-related approach is connected to defining factors determining the situation of retail centres, while the economic-organisational stream concerns the spheres of production, distribution and consumption of goods, as well as marketing and management. On the other hand, the behavioural stream studies customers’ behaviours (Gruen, Smith, 1960). Polish research on shopping centres intensified at the beginning of the 21st century, which resulted from the establishment of shopping centres in Poland at a later time.

Trade is the basic function of a shopping centre. Other functions include: service, entertainment, recreation, hotel, office and housing (Matysiak, 2009). In the subject literature at least six functions fulfilled by shopping centres are listed (Kaczmarek, 2014):

- consumer function – shopping centres allow using commercial establishments,
- employment function – they play an important role in maintenance and creation of new workplaces,
- architectural-urban function – they constitute an element of the development structure and determine spatial order,
- central function – they determine the centricity and rank of the city, neighbourhood or district,
- income function – since they pay taxes, they are of a great importance for the incomes of the city budget and
- cultural function – they satisfy the needs related to spending free time and achieve integration objectives.

Various classifications of shopping centres can be found in the literature. At the initial development stage of shopping centres, the facilities were mainly classified on the basis of the range of impact.[6] Thus, the centres were divided into: (1) neighbourhood, (2) community, (3) regional and (4) superregional (Mikołajczyk, 2012). S. Dudek-Mańkowska (2010) proposes dividing into traditional and specialist (profiled) shopping centres.[7] Traditional facilities comprise a supermarket or a hypermarket and arcades with various brands' stores, whereas specialist facilities include retail parks, outlets or theme centres.

As the facilities were developing, the International Council of Shopping Centers (ICSC) updated the aforementioned division by distinguishing four additional types, i.e. lifestyle centre, power centre,[8] theme/festival centre and outlet,[9] thus creating a typology characteristic for the United States.[10]

Shopping centres can also be divided by the product lifecycle phase, in this case – a retail centre.[11] It should be mentioned that a shopping centre can be treated as a product that is subject to a lifecycle and undergoes four stages (Lowry, 1997; Borusiak, 2008):

- first stage, i.e. launch (innovation),
- second stage, i.e. growth (accelerated development),
- third stage, i.e. maturity and
- fourth stage, i.e. decline.

The stage of a given shopping centre is determined by: (1) the age of the shopping centre, (2) competition level, (3) market changes and (4) changes in customers' behaviours (Nicoleta, Cristian, 2009). A decline in the shopping centre's value, resulting from ageing of the building, economic factors or changes in the area of competition, leads to moving on to another lifecycle stage. At the maturity stage, a strong competition between shopping centres of the same type has been identified. Each shopping centre has a base of loyal customers, intensifies marketing measures, and implements changes or renovations. During this time, there is a risk that some tenants will move on to other shopping centres. An increase in the shopping centre's net income can be suppressed by newly established shopping centres, i.e. a growing competition. During the decline stage owners carry out complex works in changing the facility or decide to sell it. One of four strategies is implemented at this stage (Nicoleta, Cristian, 2009):

- renovation strategy,
- strategy of terminating lease contracts with poor performing tenants,
- conversion strategy, for example, into a university campus, a school, a medical centre, a congress centre or a distribution centre or
- strategy of selling the facility.

Researchers also classify shopping centres by the so-called facility lifespan, understood through the prism of rented space.[12] Thus, the following are distinguished (Guimarães, 2018):

- vital shopping centres – their vacancy rate reaches the level of 9.9% maximum,
- struggling shopping centres – with a vacancy rate between 10.0% and 33.9%,
- greyfield shopping centres – with a vacancy rate between 40.0% and 69.9% and
- dead malls – with vacancy rate over 70.0%.

In Table 1.2 we present a classification of shopping centres found in the subject literature.

While describing various types of shopping centres, the classification should be supplemented with other retail centres. These are: mixed-use buildings and convenience types of shopping centres. Mixed-use buildings are enjoying a growing customer engagement. As noticed by S. Ledwoń (2009), this term describes facilities that perform three different functions (e.g. trade, entertainment, offices, hotels, flats, sports, culture, recreation, etc.). Examples of mixed-use buildings include: the Czech 'Galerie Butovice' or Polish 'Stary Browar'. Another example includes convenience type shopping centres (strip malls), which feature a small area (2–7K m^2) and are located in smaller towns. Tenants of such facilities are striving to satisfy the biggest needs of customers and their assortment often represents a lower price range (Gębarowski, Siemieniako, 2014).

The location and size of the facility remain the classic and timeless criteria of the typology of shopping centres, which demonstrates the very important role of those factors. In the future, the importance of the product lifecycle stage will grow, determining both the attractiveness of the shopping centre's

Table 1.2 Classification of shopping centres

Criterion	*Specification*
Lifecycle stages	(1) a shopping centre at the opening stage, (2) a shopping centre at the growth stage, (3) a shopping centre at the maturity stage, (4) a shopping centre at the decline stage and (5) a dead mall.
Location	(1) out of centre, (2) out of town and (3) edge of centre.
Type of investment	(1) greenfield and (2) brownfield.
Profile	(1) traditional shopping centres, (2) profiled shopping centres, (3) theme-oriented centres, (4) factory outlet centres and (5) retail parks.
Generation	first generation, second generation, third generation, fourth generation and fifth generation.
Vacancy rate	(1) a vital shopping centre, (2) a struggling shopping centre, (3) a greyfield shopping centre and (4) a dead mall.
Size	(1) small (5,000 – 19,999 m^2), (2) medium (20,000 – 39,999 m^2), (3) large (40,000 –79,000 m^2) and (4) very large megamalls (over 80,000 m^2).
Range of impact	(1) neighbourhood shopping centres, (2) community shopping centres, (3) regional shopping centres and (4) superregional shopping centres.
Scope of functioning	(1) multifunctional shopping centres, (2) shopping centres with limited assortment and services, located in city centres and (3) specialist shopping centres.
Character of architectural solutions	(1) covered, partially covered, open, (2) one-level, multi-level, (3) ground, underground, above ground and (4) rectangular, L/T/U-shaped, yard/promenade-shaped, tiered, sectoral.

Source: Own study based on: Križan et al. (2017); Guimarães (2018); Twardzik (2018); Łabuz (2021); Križan et al. (2022).

offer (customer's perspective) and the need to introduce changes (renovation) to the facility (manager's perspective). The shopping centre lifecycle conception is useful in analysing the emergence and downfall of various formats of retail centres (Lowry, 1997). Applied criteria do not always allow clear and transparent qualification of the facility's affiliation to a specific type of shopping centre. Sometimes there are, in fact, shopping centres which have features of various categories (Wawrzyszuk, 2009). It is also worth underlining that the most frequently used typology of shopping centres is the division by the criterion of generation, which is presented in Table 1.3.

The division of shopping centres by generation is a shopping centre typology very frequently used by researchers. A given facility is assigned to a specific group based on the scope of its offer. The analysis of particular stages of the structural-functional evolution of shopping centres strictly concerns the issue of the history of these facilities' development. This subject will be discussed in the consecutive subchapter.

Table 1.3 Generations of shopping centres

Generation	*Characteristic features*	*Type of activity*	*Location*	*Example*
First	A prevailing role of the supermarket or hypermarket as a magnet, an anchor store. The magnet takes up approx. 60%–70% of the area of the entire shopping centre. The location is usually far from city centres.	commercial, service	suburbs	'Ursynów' shopping centre, 'Dąbrówka' shopping centre, 'Kometa' shopping centre, 'Auchan' shopping centre in Gdańsk
Second	A facility comprising a supermarket or hypermarket, several large stores and a group of 80–100 establishments.	commercial, service, entertainment	suburbs	'Flora' shopping centre in Prague, 'Klif' fashion house in Warsaw, 'Turzyn' shopping centre in Szczecin
Third	A facility comprising a hypermarket, a large mall, a cinema and catering complex and a large sports-recreational part, usually located in the city centre.	commercial, service, entertainment, recreational	central districts of cities	'Novy Smichov' shopping centre in Prague, 'Palladium' shopping centre in Prague, 'Pasaż Grunwaldzki' in Wrocław, 'Bonarka' shopping centre in Kraków
Fourth	A facility with developed entertainment-recreational functions, with an office-hotel part.	commercial, service, entertainment, recreational, cultural, housing and office	usually central districts of cities	'Sfera' shopping centre in Bielsko-Biała, Manufaktura in Łódź and 'Złote Tarasy' in Warsaw
Fifth	'City within a city'. Meticulous approach to architecture and interior design, developed marketing plan, multifunctionality, presence of housing estates, hotels, specialist services such as kindergarten, nursery, medical services.	commercial, service, entertainment, recreational, cultural, housing and office	independent of the city	'Mall of America' in Bloomington (Minnesota), 'Mall of Asia' in Pasay (the *Philippines) and* 'Dubai Festival City Mall'

Source: Own study based on: Matysiak (2009); Heffner, Twardzik (2013); Cyran, Dybka (2013); Heffner (2015); Stec, Sarzyński (2017); Szymańska, Płaziak (2018); Pasek (2019).

Note: The division of shopping centres by generation is a shopping centre typology.

1.2 The origin and development of shopping centres

The idea of a shopping centre would not have been born without socio-economic changes resulting from the industrialisation and urbanisation processes, as well as the development of consumerism (Makowski, 2003). B. Kucharska (2014b) emphasises, essential in this scope, the trend of consumption massification, which is primarily manifested by the standardisation of products and thus leads to the homogenisation of consumption. Therefore, consumption homogenisation *par excellence* is the factor behind the establishment of shopping centres.

The conception of a shopping centre is relatively new, since this form of retail concentration started to develop only at the beginning of the 20th century. Prototypes of shopping centres were a far cry from contemporary centres. They differed in the degree of organisation and were characterised with a lack of a specific idea for spatial arrangement of retail establishments (Czerwiński, 2012). Over the years, both the way of thinking about a shopping centre and architectural solutions evolved.

According to many researchers, shopping centres have a lot in common with Greek *agora*, Roman *forum romanum* or city markets, where trade and the life of a local community developed (Basińska-Zych, Lubowiecki-Vikuk, 2015; Ozturk et al., 2021). Market halls were already present in ancient and mediaeval cities in Europe, for example: Trajan's Market in Rome at the beginning of the second century AD or Ypres Cloth Hall, which is one of the largest facilities of this type performing a trade function for mediaeval Europe (Łabuz, 2021).

In the 18th century a new type of a commercial building – a covered market – emerged. A flagship example of such a centre is Oxford's 'Covered Market', which was built in 1774. In 1784 'Les Galeries de Bois' – galleries with arcades, which included boutiques, cafes and entertainment establishments, were opened in Paris (Łabuz, 2021).

An important moment in the history of development of modern formats of retail was the establishment of a market hall in the 19th century. Its characteristic feature was cast-iron construction and new sanitary solutions (toilets with running water and sewage system, and cold storage rooms; Omilanowska, 2004). 'Les Halles' established in Paris, comprising ten pavilions divided by covered streets, constituted a kind of an example for other European buildings. According to R. Łabuz, they were the essence of urban life (Łabuz, 2021).

Nineteenth-century shopping arcades, galleries and department stores are considered to be the precursors of contemporary shopping centres. Arcades, constructed both in Europe and the United States, provided a covered space for pedestrians, situated inside residential buildings. The first arcade put to use in 1791 was 'Passage Feydeau' in Paris, and the most famous building of this type was 'Arcade Burlington' from 1819. Overtime, the so-called galleries, which are also covered facilities, but resembling a square and situated at the crossroads of several arcades, were also established. Galleries were extended with other floors and supplemented with new functions (Twardzik, 2018).

The era of colonialism was unquestionably the period of establishing department stores and trading houses constituting the proper prototype of a shopping centre. It was when the need to store goods in safe places, a large space of which allowed selling them faster, arose. Large department stores[13] were opened as soon as in the 19th century. Regular working hours, packaging stations, specialist and exotic goods, professional review of the offer – all that made a department store a place where contemporary consumerism was born. At that time, a visit to a department store was already associated with pleasure, an escape from everyday hardships and led to respect from others (Siekierka, 2013). Flagship department stores in Europe included: 'KaDeWe' in Berlin, 'Harrods' in London, 'Bon Marché' in France and 'Sockmann' in Helsinki.

At the beginning of the 20th century, new types of commercial facilities emerged in the United States – the supermarket and hypermarket. A turning point in their origin was the innovation in the form of the self-service store chain 'Piggly Wiggly' in Memphis. This solution was introduced in 1916 and resulted in a huge expansion of the store chain – in four years the enterprise opened 1,000 similar points. The first supermarket was built in 1930, in New York, and had a surface area of 560 m^2. Hypermarkets that differed from supermarkets with a surface area of over 2,500 m^2 were developing in Europe from the 1960s. The first one was 'SuperBazar' opened in 1961, in Belgium (Łabuz, 2021).

At the same time, the first shopping centres were being opened in the United States. 'Market Square' built in Lake Forest, in 1916 is considered to be the prototype of the shopping centre (Makowski, 2003). This facility resembled more a commercial district than a shopping centre; thus according to other sources, the first shopping centre was the regional 'Country Club Plaza' in Kansas City, established in 1923 (Makowski, 2003). The building recalls the Spanish Colonial style and in 1924 included as many as 37 stores (Wilk, 2003).

Previously quoted V. Gruen, the creator of the architectural conception of a shopping centre, played a significant role in the development of shopping centres. He recommended that its space resemble public areas of a city centre, which was supposed to favour impulsive shopping. It is worth underlining that V. Gruen designed 'Southdale Center', the first regional, closed shopping centre, established in 1956 in Edina, Minnesota, (Łabuz, 2021). V. Gruen's idea had many followers not only in the United States, but also around the world (Csaba, Askegaard, 1999).

The development of shopping centres was influenced by the progressive cultural unification and blurring of social differences. After World War II, Western societies entered the path of liberalisation and integration, and the disintegration of the Eastern bloc accelerated these processes. At that time, the consumer society was born, in which the accent shifted from production to consumption.[14] Over the years, American society started demanding the possibility shop for everything in one place. The need for change was reinforced by urbanisation trends and the development of a satellite arrangement around larger cities, whose inhabitants had difficulties reaching city centre stores. Also, implementation of the city restoration programme at the end of the 1940s was important (Czerwiński, 2012). Furthermore, the phenomenon of individual motorisation was an additional factor influencing the development of shopping centres. The fact that one of the first shopping centres in the world, i.e. 'Town & Country', was built to make access to stores easier for motorised customers in compliance with the rule 'No parking, no business', was symptomatic (Maleszyk, 2000; Trévinal, 2013). The emergence of new centres in the city (centralities), leaving and neglecting historical city centres and the trend towards using cars – all contributed to the proliferation of quasi-public spaces, i.e. shopping centres (Gómez, 2021). These tendencies were visible both in Europe and in the United States. Almost two decades later, in the 1960s, the first centres were established in Europe, which was related to the progressing suburbanisation and individual motorisation (Wilk, 2003).

Over time, enthusiasm was replaced by disapproval. Criticism of inconvenient giants often located in the suburbs and the anti-capitalism movement, which was born in the second half of the 1960s, halted development of large area stores. Only in the 1990s when new markets were opened after the dissolution of the Soviet Union did shopping centres experience a renaissance. We have presented a calendar of the most important events related to the development of shopping centres in the world in the table below (Table 1.4).

Table 1.4 Calendar of events related to the origin and development of shopping centres in the world

Year	*Event*
1464	Building of 'Grand Bazaar' in Istanbul
1774	Opening of 'The Covered Market' in Oxford
1784	Building of 'Les Galeries de Bois' in Paris
18th/19th century	L'Ere de passage couverts
1852	Opening of 'Bon Marche' in Paris
1857	Opening of the first department store in the United States 'Haughwout & Co'
1877	Opening of the gallery 'Vittorio Emanuele II' in Milan
1889	Opening of the department store 'Harrods' in London
1907	Opening of 'Baltimore's Roland Park' Shopping Centre in Baltimore
1916	Opening of 'Market Square' in Lake Forest
1923	Opening of 'Country Club Plaza' in Kansas City
1931	Opening of Highland Park Shopping Village in Dallas
1956	Opening of 'Southdale Center' in Edina
1992	Opening of 'Mall of America'
2004	Opening of the shopping centre 'Golden Resources' in Beijing
2005	Opening of 'South China Mall'
2008	Opening of 'Mall of Arabia' in Dubai
2010	Opening of the shopping centre 'Eurovea' in Bratislava
2019	Opening of 'American Dream' in New Jersey

Source: Own study based on: Makowski (2003); Dennis (2005); Nicoleta, Cristian (2009); Mikołajczyk (2010); Czerwiński (2012); Mikołajczyk (2012); Twardzik (2018); Łabuz (2021).

Contemporary shopping centres benefit from the legacy of the aforementioned department stores, supermarkets and hypermarkets, and enrich these facilities with elements of culture and entertainment. They welcomed a mass customer, and their cosmopolitan nature only sometimes combines locality with globalism. Shopping centres are described as consumption temples or prosperity enclaves (Szczepański et al., 2006), where the middle-class live a hedonistic lifestyle.

In the initial stage of development of shopping centres, owners of centres made their real estate more attractive by increasing the number of stores. Specialist stores were concentrated, or a shopping centre's offer was extended with multi-branch department stores, which played the role of an anchor store. Supplementing the offer of existing centres with department stores was characteristic for the United States, whereas in Europe hypermarkets were included. This is not the only difference in the characteristics of the history of development of shopping centres between the United States and Europe. Popularisation of suburban shopping centres in Europe was not as intense, a fact related to a higher level of planning urban development, and delay in the innovation process in comparison with the United States, and greater restrictions in Europe in regard to retail development (Guimarães, 2019).

After some time, it was noticed that growing the number of stores had some boundaries and, at the same time, the need arose to make the shopping centre's offer more attractive by sharing the space with tenants, whose products (primarily services) were aimed at making the stay at a shopping centre more pleasant. Opening eating places in shopping centres, which, over time, evolved into separated areas called food courts, was a breakthrough. The emergence of a cinema and, over time, multiscreen complexes, bowling alleys, amusement arcades, playgrounds for children, theme parks, aquariums or even ski lifts constituted a crucial change.

The first shopping centres included a small number of service points. Only in the 1960s, and in Western Europe in the 1970s, were shopping centres with an extensive service function established (Maleszyk, 2000). This was related to changing the perception of consumption itself. Shopping centres also started fulfilling an entertainment function[15] – shopping and entertainment centres,[16] entertainment centres, urban entertainment centres or community galleries were emerging. Currently, it is very difficult to estimate the number of these facilities, due to the blurring boundary between a shopping centre with a supplementing entertainment function and a proper entertainment facility. Z. Bauman and other researchers observed processes of appropriating free time by consumption and the related process of free time monetisation (Iwasiński, 2015). Moreover, B. Barber has written about the so-called infantilisation of consumers, who are becoming impatient and demand satisfying their needs 'here and now' (Bernardini, 2013), which is, in fact, encouraged by marketing campaigns of enterprises (Pecolo, Bahuaud, 2017).

Initially, shopping centres were built in the suburbs. This was dictated by economic aspects (lower prices of plots) and the possibility to purchase a relatively large area for development and a car park, with lower costs of running the facility (Knecht-Tarczewska, 2011). Contemporary shopping centres are localised in various parts of the city with the place of investment usually dictated by the function of the centre and the period in which it was built.[17]

What is worth noticing, the shopping centre, both on the American and European continent, has already reached the maturity stage. Currently, we are observing new types of centres – lifestyle shopping centres and a turn in the direction of so-called strip malls or mini malls – smaller shopping centres built in neighbourhoods and small towns.[18] It is worth underlining that the concept of a dead mall, i.e. a facility which is characterised by a large drop in consumer traffic and/or a high vacancy rate, is already functioning in the subject literature.[19] *Nota bene*, research conducted by B. Kucharska et al. (2015) confirmed that many studied customers believe that the number of shopping centres is already sufficient.[20]

Poland is an interesting example of a country where a continuous development of shopping centres can be observed. The first market halls, arcades and galleries were established at the end of the 18th and in the 19th century. In 1896 a market hall was built in Gdańsk, and in 1902 'Hale Mirowskie' was opened in Warsaw. Arcades started to emerge relatively late: in 1901 'Pasaż Mikolascha' was built in Lviv, and in 1910 'Pasaż Luxenburga' was opened – the first covered arcade in Warsaw. The first department stores were opened at the beginning of the 20th century. The prototype was the department store built around 1905, in Poznań (Łabuz, 2021), and then, in 1914, the famous 'Dom Towarowy Braci Jabłkowskich' was opened in Warsaw.

After World War II, in the 1950s and 60s, the first department stores and commercial houses emerged, including Spółdzielcze Domy Handlowe and Powszechne Domy Towarowe. Significant shortcomings (including a car park and primarily a common management board) prevented qualifying these facilities as retail centres. It is estimated that during this time there were scores of this type of facility in Poland (Twardzik, 2018; Maleszyk, 2000). Flagship examples include: 'Skarbek' and 'Zenit' in Katowice, 'Jubilat' in Kraków, 'Powszechne Domy Towarowe' in Wrocław (today's 'Renoma') and 'Centralny Dom Towarowy' in Warsaw.

Despite their relatively short history, shopping centres in Poland dominated modern trade (Mikołajczyk, 2012), and were one of the manifestations of economic changes after 1989. The first facilities were: 'Panorama' opened in Warsaw, in 1993 (Dudek-Mańkowska, 2010), 'Hala Górecka' in Poznań and 'King Cross Shopping' opened in Warsaw in 1996 (Czerwiński, 2012). The main factor behind their development was the system transformation of Poland. Favourable factors also included accessibility of management, cheap workforce and the prospect of Poland's accession to the European Union. At the same time, a decline in department stores and commercial houses was observed (Borusiak, 2016).

The first shopping centres began emerging in the most urbanised areas of Poland. In 2007, two thirds of the commercial area was located in the eight largest conurbations, i.e.: Warsaw, Upper Silesian, Łódź, Kraków, Wrocław, Poznań, Tri-City and Szczecin (Maleszyk, 2009). After 2010, a particular increase in the number of shopping centres in Poland can be observed (Twardzik, 2015a). These investments were usually located in the suburbs, and only later, a trend of building centres in the city centre space emerged (Siemieniako, 2007).

The evolution of shopping centres in Poland reflects the history of particular generations of these facilities (Ledwoń, 2012). The first-generation centres were established in the middle of the 1990s. At that time, the gallery 'Auchan' in Gdańsk and 'Hala Górecka' in Poznań, among others, were opened. Another, second generation of shopping centres began to emerge at the end of the 1990s with flagship facilities including: 'M1' in Poznań, 'Reduta' and 'Galeria Wileńska' in Warsaw.[21] Third-generation shopping centres were established at the beginning of the 21st century and were characterised with an extensive offer of spending free time. Typical retail centres of that period of time are: 'Galeria Bałtycka' in Gdańsk, 'Galeria Dominikańska' in Wrocław and 'Galeria Mokotów' in Warsaw. Fourth-generation shopping centres started emerging at the end of the first decade of the 21st century; and this group includes, among others: 'Manufaktura' in Łódź, 'Złote Tarasy' in Warsaw, 'Stary Browar' in Poznań, 'Sky Tower' in Wrocław, 'Silesia City Center' in Katowice and 'Wzorcownia' in Włocławek. In comparison to the previous generation, these centres perform more non-commercial functions – they have an office and hotel part. They are also a convenient space for establishing social contacts.

Along with the growing competition among shopping centres, developers started using more interesting architectural designs. It is worth paying attention to 'Tarasy Zamkowe' in Lublin (opened in 2015; currently the shopping centre 'Vivo'), 'Posnania' opened in 2016 in Poznań and 'Forum' opened in 2018 in Gdańsk. A new direction is also designing small shopping centres in smaller towns, resembling in terms of architecture the first generation of shopping centres (Popławska, 2014). The trend is to open complexes in post-industrial spaces.

Currently, completely new types of shopping centres are emerging. Trade supplements, *de facto*, their other functions. Building 'Hala Koszyki' in Warsaw in 2016, and then 'Elektrownia Powiśle', 'Browary Warszawskie' and 'Fabryka Norblina' marks the start of the new trend.

These facilities were built as a result of a clash between consumption massification manifested in the establishment of large shopping centres and the trend of elitism, exemplified by creating extraordinary shopping places (Kucharska, 2014a). This is related to the process of 'demassification' – a consumption transformation. The mass market is fragmented into particular 'micro-markets' separated not only on the basis of the sex, age or level of income of customers, but also on the basis of their lifestyles (Dobski, Borusiak, 2010). V. Gruen (1973), referred to as the father of shopping centres, would probably not be happy with this change – it should be remembered that he was a supporter of inclusive places, full of diversity.[22]

In the literature related to the forms of retail trade, the maturity of the shopping centre sector has already been indicated, which has also been demonstrated by empirical studies. According to Cushman & Wakefield analyses conducted in the years 2005–2017, a systematic growth in the retail area was observed, but this increase was of a descending nature (Szymańska, Płaziak, 2018). It is forecasted that saturation with modern large area retail facilities will be observed as early as the middle of the 2020s. In many Central European cities its level will get close to a point comparable with the statistics of Western European cities (Heffner, 2015). In Poland, the first shutdowns have been recorded (shopping centres: 'Sosnowiec', 'Port Wola' in Warsaw, 'Sukcesja' in Łódź, 'Plaza' in Kraków), and several constructions have not been completed, for example, 'Solaris Center' in Toruń and 'Siódemka' in Elbląg (Pasek, 2019).

A diminishing distance between Central European countries and Western European countries has been observed. Shopping centres are becoming a meeting place, a place for spending free time or celebrating various occasions. As a result of the growing competition, some facilities will be forced to redevelop. Examples of shopping centres' modernisation in Poland include renovations of 'Wola Park' in Warsaw, 'Forum' in Gliwice, 'Galeria Pomorska' in Bydgoszcz, 'Tarasy Zamkowe' in Lublin and the recent modernisation of 'Renoma' in Wrocław. The history of Polish shopping centres has already registered its first recommercialisations, i.e. thorough changes in the structure of tenants. The customer may know this process through the example of 'Blue City' in Warsaw or 'Galeria Kazimierz' in Kraków. One of the most renowned recommercialisations and rebrandings was the modification process of the structure of tenants of the shopping centre 'Modo Domy Mody' in Warsaw and changing the name of this facility to 'Łopuszańska 22'.[23]

Shopping centres are continuously undergoing innovation processes. Shopping centre managers and owners are aware that the existence of a facility depends on its continuous development. Thus, they have to implement innovative strategies in order to maintain their share in the market (DeLisle, 2005). Shopping centres are permanently adapting and changing. They want to attract more and more demanding customers, which is visible in modifications to their interior design or structure of tenants (Kushwaha et al., 2017). In Table 1.5 the authors present a calendar of events related to the origin and development of shopping centres in Poland.

The cradle of the shopping centre is the United States,[24] whereas the largest facilities of this type are currently being built in Asia (Fantoni et al., 2019). The case of the United States reflects, therefore, the most probable direction of changes in the market of European shopping centres. After a very fast pace of development of shopping centres, the period of dynamic growth has stopped.[25] This clear trend can be observed in Western European countries, and even in Asian countries (Tan, 2019). The evolution of shopping centres is natural and fits into changes of particular retail trade formats, described in the subject literature.[26] The growing trend related to shopping online is of great importance.

Table 1.5 Calendar of events related to the origin and development of shopping centres in Poland

Year	*Event*
1896	Building 'Hala Targowa' in Gdańsk
1901	Opening of 'Pasaż Mikolascha' in Lviv
1930	Opening of 'Dom Towarowy Wertheim' ('Dom Handlowy Renoma')
1990	Opening of the first supermarket 'Billa'
1993	Opening of the first shopping centre in Poland: 'Panorama' in Warsaw; opening of 'Hala Górecka' in Poznań
1996	Opening of the shopping centre 'Promenada' and the shopping centre 'King Cross Shopping' in Warsaw
2000	Opening of 'Galeria Mokotów' in Warsaw
2003	Opening of the shopping centre 'Stary Browar' in Poznań
2006	Opening of 'Manufaktura' in Łódź
2009	Opening of the shopping centre 'Green Point' in Poznań
2016	Opening of 'Hala Koszyki' in Warsaw
2020	Opening of 'Elektrownia Powiśle' in Warsaw

Source: Own study based on: Mikołajczyk (2010); Czerwiński (2012); Popławska (2014); Moskal-Słaniewska (2014); Mikołajczyk (2016); Szymańska, Płaziak (2018).

According to the newest research, the development of e-commerce has had a negative impact on customers' involvement in shopping centres.[27]

The dynamics of transformation of shopping centres is very high. Following a period of numerous quantitative changes, shopping centres are experiencing a period of intense qualitative transformations. Architecture is a vivid example. The first stage of building a shopping centre used to be characterised by disregarding the significance of architecture – the box (*bôite* in French), and consecutive stages consisted in materialisation of the vision of valued architects (second stage), or in working out a compromise between the aesthetics of the facility and performance of the trade-service function (third stage; Domański, 2005).

Some attributes of 'predecessors' have been used by owners and managers in contemporary retail centres. A shopping centre takes a pedestrian lane with accompanying premises from an arcade. The cubature of the facility, concentration of diverse assortment, the use of lifts, skylights and moving staircase – from a department store. While from a supermarket and a hypermarket – a shopping centre takes music played inside, self-service and a car park.

For a very long time a shopping centre was a prevailing format of retail trade, and was thus responsible for the marginalisation of other formats. Already before the outbreak of the pandemic, researchers had emphasised factors which have a negative impact on the shopping centre sector: the development of e-commerce, falls in revenues generated by anchor stores,[28] ageing generation of baby boomers, women's focus on professional careers, fear of acts of crime or terrorist attacks, other habits of spending free time by teenagers and market saturation (Rosenbaum et al., 2021). Shopping centres are undergoing constant changes, which is shown by various generations of retail centres. The division of shopping centres into particular generations is probably the most often used typology of these facilities. The significance attributed to the commerce function is of great importance: this function can be the most important (shopping centres of the first and second generation), and perform an equivalent, or even supplementary, role as in the case of shopping centres of the third, fourth and fifth generation (Rochmińska, 2013).

The phenomenon of a dead mall has been discussed in the subject literature for a decade. Dead malls have been studied by, among others, V. Parlette and D. Cowen, as well as L. Schatzman,[29] according to whom a dead mall is a closed shopping centre or a shopping centre which has the following features (Ferreira, Paiva, 2017): (1) low rent rate, (2) low frequency of visits and (3) high level of degradation. The ICSC defines a dead mall as a shopping centre with a high vacancy rate and low frequency of visits, which is outdated, or its condition is deteriorating in some way. Importantly, according to the ICSC, a dead mall no longer has an anchor store and the owner is not able to cover the maintenance costs of the facility. We are opting for adopting a definition of the dead mall proposed by the researchers D. Ferreira and D. Paiva, for whom a dead mall is a facility which has reached the decline stage in its lifecycle. A dead mall is characterised by (Ferreira, Paiva, 2017): (1) low sales volume, (2) degradation and (3) high rate of vacancies.[30]

At each stage of a shopping centre's lifecycle, the cooperation of particular stakeholders of facilities described here is of great importance. We will deal with this in the following subchapter.

1.3 A shopping centre and its stakeholders

The measurable success of a shopping centre depends on the cooperation of various interest groups (stakeholders).[31] We primarily have in mind: (1) main stakeholders and (2) secondary stakeholders. The former are centre owners, tenants of retail and service space and customers of shops and service outlets. The latter are shopping centre employees, producers, intermediaries, infrastructure providers (of electricity, water, gas, telephones, and the Internet) and companies providing various types of services (banks, competitors, offices, developers, marketing agencies, designers, logistics companies, authorities and state administration, etc.).

Shopping centre management is regarded as a core success factor of this retail trade format. It is important to emphasise the specific nature of shopping centre management – shopping centre managers do not focus exclusively on their employees and individual customers, but also on their tenants.[32] It is also worth noting that owners very often do not directly manage commercial real estate but choose one of two solutions: (1) outsource the management of the property to an external company or (2) entrust management to their own target company (Moskal-Słaniewska, 2014).

The goals and expectations of stakeholders are often different. Owners, like tenants, expect increased financial performance, whereas the main goal of customers is to optimise satisfaction of their needs. Employees look forward to improving the quality of life and professional fulfilment. In addition, the objectives for the company are defined by local authorities and social institutions, who expect the economic growth and well-being of people or local communities, who perceive justice and a safe and secure future as overriding goals. It is also worth highlighting the risk of a potential conflict on the manager–tenant line. In the area of marketing, a tenant is usually interested in as much support as possible in the process of communicating the brand of their premises, while the manager and owner of the facility are focused on communicating the brand of a shopping centre. This can create conflicts – all the more so because tenants very often have to accept the so-called marketing fee, which finances the activities of the shopping centre in the expenditure structure. V. Gruen and L. Smith (1960) state that tenants are prepared to comply with general principles, but it is worth noting that the economic practice often reveals the high expectations of tenants. In Table 1.6 we present objectives of the main stakeholders of shopping centres.

The most numerous and most important stakeholder group is shopping centre customers. The extensive commercial, entertainment and cultural offer and appropriate selection of tenants influence the assessment of the attractiveness of the shopping centre and thus guarantee the return of customers and re-purchase.

The proper selection of tenants is a key process, as it allows the shopping centre to distinguish from existing competition and increase the chances of gaining a competitive advantage. Targeting this group of stakeholders is also aimed at maximising the number of customers visiting the shopping centre and prolonging the time they spend in the centre. Building the desired

Table 1.6 Objectives of particular stakeholders of shopping centres

Stakeholder	*Objectives*
Owner and manager	• achieving revenues related to rents for the lease of space, • increasing shopping centre customer loyalty, • increasing the impact zone of a shopping centre and • generating attractive footfall.
Tenant	• achieving revenues related to turnover in the premises and conducting various cross-marketing activities with other shopping centre tenants.
Customer	• possibility of making comprehensive purchases of goods and services in one place, • easy access to the shopping centre, • safety of shopping, • improved well-being and • manifestation of lifestyle, social status.

Source: Own study based on: Chebat et al. (2010), Mikołajczyk (2012).

image and positioning of the shopping centre remain equally important. Research shows that the market success of a shopping centre is increasingly determined by such management activities that lead to cooperation between tenants and inspire and coordinate their marketing programmes (Maleszyk, 2000).

Activities for the benefit of the local community are more frequently becoming part of the strategy of creating the image of the shopping centre (Maleszyk, 2000). The increasing importance of engagement in solving social problems belongs to the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). This idea defines the role of an enterprise in a society, which is as equally responsible for its condition and development as other sectors of the economy. CSR defines the tasks and responsibilities of the economic entity, i.e. the shopping centre, for the common good. Socially responsible business is therefore an effective tactic of enterprise management that takes into account the social, ethical and ecological context in its profit-oriented operation. In turn, the social image of the brand becomes a derivative of voluntary commitments to society. Thus, this type of activity, according to the assumptions of CSR, refers to corporate culture and identity, and therefore it does not serve only transactional (economic) purposes.

Shopping centres meet the increased number of their customers' needs, often satisfying their expectations. Activities in the field of CSR become a natural element of creating a positive image. Any pro-social activity taken by shopping centres is a way of creating or maintaining a positive customer opinion about the centre. Such activities include charity actions, assistance to refugees, education of society, prevention and health protection and promotion of one's own social attitudes. The most important shopping centre stakeholder is the individual customer. The competition of the shopping centre sector means that analysis of customer behaviour should be the focus of interest of other main stakeholders. We will deal with this in the following subchapter.

1.4 Customer behaviour in shopping centre space

Customer behaviour is a process and thus consists of stages (Maciejewski et al., 2020). The researchers draw attention to various aspects of these behaviours. F. Hansen (1972) perceives customer behaviours as a total of activities and perceptions that comprise preparation for the decision on selecting a product, making the decision and consumption. J.F. Engel et al. (1993) define customer behaviours as a total of activities related to obtaining, using and administering products, as well as decisions preceding and conditioning these activities. Customer behaviours are influenced by many factors, including their approach to the places of sale. In the relevant literature, a set of factors influencing customer approaches towards places of sale can be found: (1) type of a product, (2) level of prices, (3) quality and selection of products, (4) availability of the establishment, (5) staff, (6) manner of solving complaint-related issues, (7) image of the place of sale, (8) atmosphere, (9) availability of additional services, (10) promotion measures and (11) merchandising measures (Rudnicki, 2012).

The establishment of shopping centres caused significant changes in the process of making purchases by customers (Dziwulski, Ogrzebacz, 2018). Therefore, since the emergence of the first facilities of this type, attention has focused on customer behaviours. Many sociologists became interested in the social significance of shopping centres, their lives and ephemeral communities. Publications on this topic included terms describing particular types of customers, i.e.: mall walkers, browsers, mall rats and mall junkies (Makowski, 2003).

Shopping centre customers are not a homogeneous group. A large part is made up of walkers who are equivalents of western mall walkers or mall browsers. A walker is the opposite of ‘a goal-oriented individual’, who sees shopping as the main reason for visiting a shopping centre (Makowski, 2003). A third type of customer is ‘a rat’, who spends as much time in a shopping centre as a walker, but is distinguished by the fact that they do not have money and do not participate in the ‘consumer show’. This type of consumer may be a student, a truant or a pensioner, who uses the common space of the shopping centre and very rarely decides to do shopping. They do, however, differ from mall junkies, the fourth type of a shopping centre customer. Homeless alcoholics, drug addicts and the destitute participate neither in the consumer show, nor in the public life show directed by managers of the facility (Makowski, 2003).

Therefore, it is worth underlining that customers visit shopping centres not only for shopping purposes. For many, visiting a shopping centre is not a simple activity, but rather an experience.[33] In such a facility it is important to not only simply care about supplies, but rather give oneself up to the atmosphere and entertainment, which is important for a specific type of customer who likes to experience and enjoy shopping (a hedonic shopper).[34] In German literature there is a term *Erlebniseinkauf*, which is difficult to translate and which describes browsing various stores without an explicit goal, i.e. a form of spending free time.[35] Also, in other countries shopping centres are an attractive alternative to city centres (Dudek-Mańkowska, Križan, 2010). According to studies conducted by the company Cushman & Wakefield, customers seeking pleasure are the most numerous group of shopping centre customers. Approximately 30% of respondents admitted that they enjoy shopping at places that also offer forms of relaxation. The analysis was conducted in 12 European countries and, interestingly, the described type of a customer was the most numerously represented in Great Britain, Italy and Poland (Wilk, 2003).

Therefore, a shopping centre can be used for purposes other than solely consumption. One example is the goal of establishing interactions with other customers. It is worth noticing that ephemeral communities are established in a shopping centre (communing), and visitors can be divided according to the roles performed by them: one customer tries on a product, and the other acts as an observer and critic. Another practice is socialising, which consists in using a shopping centre for a specific goal, for example, to have fun or get to know someone new (Wilk, 2003).

While discussing behaviours of shopping centre customers, it is worth studying the issue of loyalty. As is easily noticeable, it is very difficult to develop 'exclusive loyalty' in the retail trade sector, therefore the attention of businesses is rather focused on competing for the title of the first store[36] (chain). Loyalty to a place can also be of a forced nature. It happens when there is no other shopping centre in the neighbourhood, and customer's preferences incline them to do shopping in places situated in the neighbourhood. R. East et al. (2000) distinguished four factors that have an impact on customers' loyalty towards a particular commercial establishment:

- time pressure and income,
- environmental factors (e.g. opening of a new store in the neighbourhood),
- customer's approach to the store and
- customer's inclination to a routine.

For Polish customers, a shopping centre is an important format, and they are attracted by the size, accessibility, breadth and depth of assortment, as well as the atmosphere of the place (Maciejewski, 2016). Research conducted in 2016 shows that 86.9% of customers visit these centres. However, a report published at the beginning of 2022 by the company Inquiry and Knight Frank implies that the average number of visits of a Polish shopping centre customer per month is dropping – in 2021 it was 2.9, while before the pandemic it was 3.3.[37] The research conducted among Warsaw citizens showed that almost 80% of them visited shopping centres several times a month and over 10% of respondents several times a week.[38] The main reason for visiting is shopping. Other research showed that almost 60% of respondents (citizens of Poznań conurbation) spend free time in a shopping centre once a week, every third visitor twice a week, and 13% of respondents three or more times a week (Basińska-Zych, Lubowiecki-Vikuk, 2015). More than half of the respondents (53.8%) visit shopping centres from Friday to Sunday, whereas 46.2% do shopping on other weekdays (Basińska-Zych, Lubowiecki-Vikuk, 2015). According to the research conducted by B. Wójtowicz (2015), Saturday is the day when respondents most often spend their free time in a shopping centre.

When discussing the topic of behaviours of shopping centre customers, it is worth mentioning the issue of customer typology understood as the effect of using specific research techniques and analysing the course of the phenomenon. Typology is a logical analysis method aimed at identifying behaviours and needs of various groups of customers (consumers) while taking into account factors shaping these differences (Witek, 2014). In Table 1.7 we present typologies of shopping centre customers encountered in the relevant literature.

A survey of relevant literature helps in identifying particular types of shopping centre customers. Particular attention should be paid to the typology

Table 1.7 Typology of shopping centre customers encountered in the relevant literature

Author	*Year*	*Typology*
A. Roy	1994	(1) customers shopping frequently and (2) customers shopping rarely
P.H. Bloch et al.	1994	(1) minimalists, (2) mall enthusiasts, (3) grazers and (4) traditionalists
M. Frasquet et al.	2001	(1) married, middle-aged people, (2) housewives, (3) adolescents and (4) singles
K.E. Reynolds et al.	2002	(1) enthusiasts, (2) basics, (3) apathetic, (4) destination and (5) ser
J. Sit et al.	2003	(1) serious, (2) entertainment, (3) demanding, (4) convenience, (5) apathetic and (6) service
G. Makowski	2003	(1) walkers, (2) goal-oriented, (3) rats and (4) junkies
J.-P. Ruiz et al.	2004	(1) recreational shoppers, (2) mall enthusiasts, (3) browsers and (4) mission shoppers
E.S. Millan, E. Howard	2007	(1) customers with a mild utilitarian orientation, (2) customers with a strictly utilitarian orientation, (3) engaged customers and (4) browsers
M.I. El-Adly	2007	(1) relaxed, (2) demanding and (3) pragmatic
S. Gilboa	2009	(1) disloyal, (2) family bonders, (3) minimalists and (4) mall enthusiasts
S. Gilboa, I. Vilnai-Yavetz	2010	(1) veterans, (2) baby boomers, (3) xers and (4) millennials
E.M. González-Hernández, M. Orozco-Gómez	2012	(1) serious, (2) enthusiast and (3) basic
A.M. Trévinal	2013	(1) passing through, (2) pragmatic, (3) wandering and (4) appropriation
Inquiry Market Research	2015	(1) fans, (2) modern, (3) busy and (4) connoisseurs
JLL Atrium	2015	(1) multiuser, (2) shopaholic, (3) occasional social, (4) uncommitted shopper and (5) task-oriented supermarket-goer
K.Y.N. Ng, C.Y. Chen	2015	(1) hedonistic shoppers and (2) utilitarian shoppers
S. Kabadayi, B. Paksoy	2016	(1) serious, (2) recreational, (3) enthusiast and (4) pragmatic
C. Calvo-Porral, J. P. Lévy-Mangin	2019	(1) senior hostelry seekers, (2) young enthusiasts, (3) deal hunters, (4) adverse-reluctant customers and (5) leisure comfy-teens

Source: Bloch et al. (1994); Roy (1994); Frasquet et al. (2001); Reynolds et al. (2002); Makowski (2003); Sit et al. (2003); Ruiz et al. (2004); El-Adly (2007); Gilboa (2009); Gilboa, Vilnai-Yavetz, (2010); Trévinal (2013); Ng, Chen (2015); Kabadayi, Paksoy (2016); Calvo-Porral, Lévy-Mangin (2019).

of K.E. Reynolds et al. (2002), in which aspects of customer engagement have been taken into account. Researchers became interested in the inclination of particular customers to word-of-mouth. While ‘apathetic’ customers are not open to word-of-mouth ‘goal-oriented’, ‘enthusiasts’ and ‘basics’ are more inclined to engage in this. Admittedly, K.E. Reynolds et al. do not analyse other types of engagement, but their research results are worth noting due to the inclusion of customer engagement in their typology.

It can also be concluded from the analysed typologies that in the typology of P.H. Bloch et al. (1994) ‘minimalists’ do not participate in the offer of the shopping centre’s marketing in contrast with ‘enthusiasts’. This research result is significant for analyses conducted here – it is worth noticing that participation in events is a manifestation of customer engagement.

Customers’ behaviours are conditioned by many factors, both internal and factors regarding external premises related to the characteristics of products, i.e. perceived customer value. In the following chapter, the authors will present two key constructs of modern marketing, i.e. customer value and customer engagement.

An interesting form of spending time in a shopping centre is participation in marketing events organised by shopping centres. The proposition of shopping centres here fits into the philosophy of this retail trade format – a place of immersion into a symbolic, almost imaginary, world, which serves not only the purpose of shopping for products, but also the purpose of providing experience and creating a pleasant atmosphere (Trévinal, 2013). The prevalence of marketing events in the shopping centre sector also results from changes in the sphere of consumption and the emergence of a new type of customer, i.e. a customer-hedonist who expects to experience joy when shopping (Bylok, 2012), ‘a permanent tourist’ who collects experiences (Sobocińska, 2020). The post-modernist consumer (Firat, Schultz, 2001), instead of acquiring goods, is searching for interesting experiences. The great importance of events in shopping centres has already been described in the relevant literature, among others, by B. Tabak et al. (2006) (as a factor of a shopping centre’s attractiveness), B. Moskal-Słaniewska (2013) (as a tool of relationship marketing), I. N. Abrudan (2012) (as one of the image factors), P. Krowicki (2021) (as an element of a marketing activity of a shopping centre) and M. Frasquet et al. (2001) –as an item comprising one of the factors of perceived value of a shopping centre, i.e. atmosphere-entertainment.

Innovative shopping centres add value to the customer by creating a ‘new city centre’, where concerts, art-related events, food fairs, etc. are organised. The aim of a customer’s visit to a shopping centre is not only to purchase goods or services, but also to participate in events organised by the retail centre (Gilboa, 2009). According to the research, for 13.9% of respondents, events constitute the main reason for visiting a shopping centre.[39] Marketing events (including meetings with celebrities, fashion shows, cultural events, sports tournaments, exhibitions or lotteries; Peter, Anandkumar, 2016) are a part of the shopping centre offer and as such determine the attractiveness of the facility. Organisation of occasional events and collaboration with communities by organising CSR actions are among the success factors of a shopping centre (Knecht-Tarczewska, 2011). The type of promotional-entertaining events organised by the shopping centre and their frequency were listed by customers among the factors creating shopping centre value (Mikołajczyk, 2012).

Coherence in value perception (sender perception vs receiver perception) is extremely important for the success of any event. There might be a dissonance between values of an organiser and a customer – for example, the main value of education fairs might be extending knowledge on educational solutions, while for a customer the only value will be material in the form of receiving promotional merchandise. Marketing events perform various functions among particular shopping centre stakeholders. For managers, owners and tenants, events perform informational functions (providing customers with information concerning various layers of the shopping centre's product), persuasion function (attracting a higher number of customers visiting a shopping centre and encouraging to do shopping at a shopping centre) and a competitive function related to the shopping centre positioning and shaping, changing or reinforcing a positive image of the facility. For shopping centre customers events can provide material benefits (contests, lotteries, food tastings, freebies, fairs), altruistic benefits (charity events), social benefits (social events), educational benefits (e.g. workshops or book signings); they also perform an entertainment function (e.g. concerts), a function related to providing artistic experiences (artistic events) or a function related to a physical activity (sports events) (Krowicki, 2021).

According to Ch. Preston, event participation itself is a sign that the event is important for the recipient and satisfies certain needs; as such, concerts are related to the need for freedom of expression, and antique car auto shows with masculinity (Preston, 2012). For the time of the event the customer can forget about everyday life (distancing from reality function), entertain themselves (playful function) or establish contact with another event participant (communication and bond-creating function). Importantly, participation in an event legitimises experiencing emotions (expressive function; Zduniak, 2019). In Table 1.8 we have presented functions of marketing events from the perspective of the organiser (shopping centre) and the participant (customer).

From the point of view of this monograph, marketing events perform a significant role in the everyday activity of shopping centres.[40] They generate great benefits for managers and owners of facilities as they engage the recipient, which is practically impossible in the case of traditional tools of marketing communication (Close et al., 2006). Participation in events is treated by some researchers as a form of customer engagement (Kucia, 2019).

The issue of value dimensions, which generates participation in marketing events, should be emphasised. The entertainment (fun) dimension, self-development-related dimension (which can be defined as epistemic) and the social interaction dimension are unquestionably important. The value-in-experience is of great significance.

Table 1.8 Functions of marketing events from the perspective of the organiser and the customer

Functions for managers and owners of shopping centres	*Functions for customers, participants of events*
(1) informational function, (2) persuasion function and (3) competitive function.	(1) distancing from reality function, (2) playful function, (3) communication and bond-creating function, (4) expressive function, (5) educational function and (6) function related to providing material benefits.

Source: Own study based on: Zduniak (2019); Krowicki (2021).

Marketing events are one of the factors determining the value of a shopping centre. It is worth noting the relatively high level of social media use in shopping centre event marketing. Research conducted in 2020 showed that the total number of events organised in the virtual space made up 32.3% of all events organised in the studied shopping centres (Krowicki, 2021). Thus, event marketing of contemporary shopping centres is an area of creating customer value also on the Internet.

Notes

1 In the relevant literature shopping centres are defined as seemingly public, quasi-public or semi-public places. Today, it is difficult to distinguish between the public and private nature of a given place. The hybrid space is defined as common space or social space (Twardzik, 2015b; Rochmińska, 2014; Wang, 2019).

2 Shopping centres are becoming a must-see of many travels. One of the examples of shopping tourism is the Dubai Shopping Festivals, in which shopping centres are the stakeholders (Peter, Anandkumar, 2016).

3 Shopping has become an important element of the value chain in tourism and sometimes even the main motive behind a decision to travel (El-Adly, Eid, 2017; Basińska-Zych, Lubowiecki-Vikuk, 2015).

4 In the legal terminology the following concepts have been defined: 'business premises', 'sales area' and 'large area business premises', whereas concepts used by Statistics Poland include: 'retail sales outlet', 'shop', 'petrol station', 'universal store', 'specialised store', 'trade store', 'department store', 'supermarket', 'hypermarket'. [online]. Available at: www.stat.gov.pl [Accessed 12 March 2023].

5 It means unity in construction-architectural terms. The centre is located in one place and on a specific plot (plots) of land. Particular premises comprising a shopping centre are not treated separately, but as a whole.

6 Catchment area refers to the number of citizens of a given area that can be potential customers of a given retail centre. The range of impact is usually given in a specific time needed to reach the facility, i.e. 15, 30, 60 minutes. Additionally, in the

relevant literature, the term 'prime catchment' can be found, which means an area from which customers generate 60%–80% of sales (Mikołajczyk, 2012).

7 The activity of neighbourhood shopping centres is focused on satisfying the basic needs of customers from the nearest neighbourhood. Local shopping centres are usually bigger and have a wider offer than neighbourhood centres. Apart from a supermarket and a drugstore, typical for neighbourhood shopping centres, they often offer shopping at discount stores. In turn, local stores should be differentiated from regional centres. The latter provide a visitor with a wide range of commercial and service offers and their main tenants, apart from the supermarket, are clothing retailers and discount general stores. Furthermore, in the literature superregional shopping centres are listed – they are characterised by a selection of tenants which will attract customers from a large area to the largest extent possible (Mikołajczyk, 2012).

8 A power centre is made up of three or more large retail stores with a car park (Schatzman, 2013).

9 An outlet is a type of a shopping centre usually located in the suburbs, offering an assortment at lower prices. In principle, an outlet does not have an anchor store (Pitt, Musa, 2009).

10 Fashion centres feature a wide offer of boutiques with selected clothing, including designers and trendsetters. A variety added to these stores is the catering-entertainment offer. Fashion centres often offer their visitors original architecture of the building itself and are located in areas with a relatively high purchasing power. The power centre category has not yet found a Polish equivalent in the relevant literature, which probably results from the a lack of such a shopping centre in Poland. A power centre is a complex which usually consists of several large area stores and is supplemented with the offer of small shops with selected products. Frequent tenants of power centres are discount stores and category killers, i.e. stores which offer an extensive range of products of the same category at very attractive prices. A different type of a shopping centre are theme-entertainment centres. This type of facility also features interesting architecture, which is, at the same time, a tourist attraction. The main tenants of such centres are usually restaurants, cafes and enterprises offering entertainment services. Significantly, theme-entertainment centres are very often situated in revitalised, historic buildings. Also, sales centres are included in the classification. They are usually located in the suburbs and do not have main tenants (anchors; Mikołajczyk, 2012; Peter, Anandkumar, 2016).

11 The conception of a shopping centre as a product will be described in a further part of the monograph.

12 Notably, one of the first symptoms of a dead mall is terminating collaboration with one or more of the so-called anchor stores. When anchors close, a shopping centre often has a problem finding a new anchor, often also resulting in other tenants shutting down, which sometimes has the appearance of a domino effect (Imeri, 2018).

13 A department store offers products from many lines of business; thus, it differs from a trade store, which sells goods of a similar assortment. M. Sławińska describes a trade store as a type of department store. According to the researcher, a department store offers products from several lines of business, while a trade store offers products from two or more lines of business and at least one of them covers a deep assortment of goods. Therefore, it seems that the common use of the term

'department store' for certain facilities is incorrect – for example: the trade store 'Jubilat' in Kraków or the trade store 'Klimczok' in Bielsko-Biała (Sławińska, 2010).

14 In a working-age population, work was the main point of reference, a key identity component and a determinant of social status– in the consumer society, consumption has become an equivalent. As evidenced by Z. Bauman, to consume means to invest in one's own society membership (Iwasiński, 2015).

15 Many studies are already available, which demonstrate a positive relationship between an entertainment offer of the complex and its results (Yiu, Xu, 2012).

16 One of the first examples of large shopping and entertainment centres was 'West Edmonton Mall' (WEM) opened in Canada, in 1981 and, modelled on WEM, 'Mall of America' opened in the United States, in 1992. Currently, approximately 520 stores operate in both of them, and both centres have an area of over 300,000 m2. Mall of America investors and owners were inspired by the principles of layout used in 'Disneyland' – so that the space was a type of a spectacle and arena for experiences (Wilk, 2003; Trévinal, 2013).

17 Analysis of the development of the shopping centre sector in Great Britain differentiates three approaches to the location of centres: (1) in the 1960s and 70s shopping centres were built in city centres, (2) in the 1980s shopping centres were built in suburbs and (3) since the 1990s the trend of shopping centres returning to city centres has been observed (Dudek-Mańkowska, 2010).

18 The trend of building smaller shopping centres is observed.

19 The issue of dead malls was discussed in a separate article (Krowicki, 2022).

20 It is believed by 59.8% of French, 49.5% of Germans, 58.1% of Hungarians, 52% of Poles and 47.8% of Romanians, 51.8% of Slovaks, 40.6% of Belgians and 55.6% of Finns (Kucharska et al., 2015).

21 In business reports of the shopping centre sector, one can find a differentiation into a convenience-type shopping centre, and third- and fourth-generation shopping centres. EY Report, *Czy w pandemii centra są handlowe? (Are Centres Shopping-Related during the Pandemic?)* [online]. Available at: www.assets.ey.com [Accessed 7 November 2021].

22 It is also worth noting that in 1978, during his speech at the Conference of the ICSC, V. Gruen underlined that his vision of social and humanitarian shopping centres has been wasted. He criticised thoughtless copying of the American idea of a shopping centre in Europe, and called the established shopping centres 'bastard developments', which do not support building a community (Gregg, 2018; Hardwick, 2002).

23 In the relevant literature shopping centre refurbishments are divided into defensive and aggressive. The former are related to the willingness of keeping tenants and maintaining a specific market share, whereas changes of an aggressive nature concern changing the tenant-mix, increasing rents and growing the market share. According to research by J.-C. Chebat et al., shopping centre renovation has a direct impact on the perception of the shopping centre's atmosphere and an indirect impact on the satisfaction and spending of customers (For more details: Mushirivindi et al., 2018; *Galeria handlowa Modo zmieniła nazwę na Łopuszańska 22! (The Retail Park Modo changed name to Łopuszańska 22!)*. [online]. Available at: www.nowawarszawa.pl [Accessed 7 February 2022]; Chebat et al., 2014).

24 Outside of the United States shopping centres are not exact copies of American centres. It is worth paying attention to, among others, works of H. Singh and S.K. Bose, who studied the differences between Indian and American shopping centres in

terms of location, size, architecture, stages of evolution, choices regarding anchor stores and management practices (Singh, Bose, 2008).

25 On 13 June 2017 'The Economist' published an article on the decline of shopping centres. Footfall dropped by 11.5%, and turnovers by 23% in comparison with those of 2006. The Economist, *Sorry, we're closed*, 13 May 2017, pp. 54–56.

26 The process of the emergence and changing of particular formats of retail trade has already been a subject of research multiple times, and this evolution is explained by specific theories. Description of these theories exceeds the framework of this monograph; however, it is worth mentioning that the following can be encountered in the relevant literature: (1) cyclical theories (focusing on innovations and internal evolutions), (2) environmental theories (drawing attention to external conditions) and (3) conflict-based theories (focusing on cross-format impacts). As noted by B. Borusiak (2016), these theories are not exclusive and each one enriches the interpretation of changes in the retail trade sector.

27 Scientific publications on the negative impact of online trade development on the footfall of shopping centres have already been emerging (Tan, 2019).

28 The relevant literature distinguishes the main (core) tenants (anchors) and additional tenants. Anchor stores (magnets), thanks to the strength on the market and their brand, attract far more customers, which is translates into better footfall results. For more details: Ledwoń, S. (2009). *Przekształcenia obszarów śródmiejskich z udziałem funkcji handlowej (Transformations of City Centre Areas Featuring the Trade Function)*. In: P. Lorens and J. Martyniuk-Pęczek, eds. *Wybrane zagadnienia rewitalizacji miast (Selected Issues of Cities' Revitalisation)*. Gdańsk: Wydawnictwo Urbanista, p. 39.

29 For more details: Parlette V., Cowen D. (2011). Dead malls: suburban activism, local spaces, global logistics. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 35 (4), p. 794.

30 It is worth noticing that in the shopping centre life cycle model, M. Mushirivindi et al. treat the phenomenon of a dead mall as the fifth stage of a shopping centre's life cycle. Researchers identify the following stages: (1) inception, (2) growth, (3) maturity, (4) decline and (5) dead mall. For more details: Mushirivindi et al. (2018). The optimum refurbishment time of shopping centres. *Journal of Business and Retail Management Research*, 13(1), p. 197.

31 The stakeholder theory is the concept of running a business by building friendly, long-term and lasting relationships with all stakeholders, not only with customers. At the same time, stakeholders significantly shape the organisation itself. Therefore, it is strategically important to identify core stakeholders. Relationships between the organisation and stakeholders are established, which result from interdependencies. The stakeholder theory was formulated in 1984 by R.E. Freeman in *Strategic Management. A Stakeholder Approach* (Mikołajczyk, 2012).

32 Two approaches can be distinguished in shopping centre management. A narrower approach is equated with traditional administration, within which the building manager focuses on the physical maintenance of the building and compliance with contractual requirements resulting from the provisions of contracts with tenants and applicable legal provisions. The broader approach concerns long-term management, determined by the often complex market environment. As E. Maleszyk states, the dynamic (proactive) orientation of retail centre management is very important. This approach, contrary to passive administration, requires the manager to be creative and innovative in building management. Therefore, the manager does not focus

solely on administration, but above all on the needs of tenants, treating them as 'internal customers' (Kunc et al., 2022; Maleszyk, 2002; Simon et al., 2009).

33 It is worth emphasising that such was the assumption made by V. Gruen, the author of the architectural conception of a shopping centre, recognised as the 'father of shopping centres'. V. Gruen wanted a shopping centre to become a replica of a city centre for suburban residents, *a dynamic place full of colours and life* – not only to do shopping, but also with a social and entertainment function (Gruen, 1973; Pavlou, 2013; Csaba, Askegaard, 1999).

34 A utilitarian customer is the opposite of a hedonistic customer. Interesting research was conducted in 2006 by G. Guido, who studied relations between the Big Five personality traits and shopping orientations of shopping centre customers. He stated that a hedonistic orientation is correlated with the following personality traits: openness to experience, agreeableness and extraversion, whereas a utilitarian orientation is correlated with the following: emotional stability and conscientiousness. Other research results show that hedonists visit shopping centres more frequently than commercial streets (Guido, 2006; Koksal, 2019; Dębek, Janda-Dębek, 2015).

35 The term 'browsing', which refers to the recreational process of window shopping at shopping centre premises, also functions in the literature. It is worth underlining that a 'browser' is often an actual customer; therefore, they cannot be ignored (Jarboe, McDaniel, 1987; Wilk, 2003).

36 The category of 'the first store' is used by, among others, East et al. (2000).

37 The research was conducted on a research sample of 1,000 people in February 2020 and August 2021. Inquiry and Knight Frank, *Zmiany zachowań konsumenckich w trakcie COVID-19 (Changes in consumer behavior during COVID-19)*. [online]. Available at: www.inquirymarketresearch.pl [Accessed 3 February 2023].

38 Similar research was conducted in Pakistan by F. Soomro et al. The analysis showed that 4% of respondents visit shopping centres every day, 12% once a week, 6% twice a week, 62% once a month and 16% twice a month (Soomro et al., 2021).

39 However, it is worth noting that research conducted in 2013 by M. Gąsior showed that events constitute the goal of only 3.3% of the respondents. The researcher repeated this research in 2014. That time, this goal was declared by 4.1% of respondents (Gąsior, 2015).

40 The recreational-entertainment offer is the most popular among customers aged 17–40 years old, while seniors (persons aged 60 years old and over) rarely use it. The reasons for this state of affairs can be found in the small number of events addressed at this group of customers. This issue has already been discussed in the literature by H. Hu and C.R. Jasper, whose research showed that the offer of shopping centres, including the types of events, are not adjusted to the seniors' needs (Heffner, Twardzik, 2013; Hu, Jasper, 2007).

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