

Marketing Dynamics in the Digital Age: Platforms, Ecosystems, and Innovation

Editor: Tarık Yolcu



Marketing Dynamics in the Digital Age: Platforms, Ecosystems, and Innovation

Editor:

Tarık Yolcu



Published by
Özgür Yayın-Dağıtım Co. Ltd.
Certificate Number: 45503

📍 15 Temmuz Mah. 148136. Sk. No: 9 Şehitkamil/Gaziantep
☎ +90.850 260 09 97
✉ +90.532 289 82 15
👉 www.ozguryayinlari.com
✉ info@ozguryayinlari.com

Marketing Dynamics in the Digital Age: Platforms, Ecosystems, and Innovation

Editor: Tarık Yolcu

Language: English

Publication Date: 2025

Cover design by Mehmet Çakır

Cover design and image licensed under CC BY-NC 4.0

Print and digital versions typeset by Çizgi Medya Co. Ltd.

ISBN (PDF): 978-625-8554-85-4

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.58830/ozgur.pub1133>



This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International (CC BY-NC 4.0). To view a copy of this license, visit <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>. This license allows for copying any part of the work for personal use, not commercial use, providing author attribution is clearly stated.

Suggested citation:

Yolcu, T. (ed) (2025). *TMarketing Dynamics in the Digital Age: Platforms, Ecosystems, and Innovation*. Özgür Publications. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.58830/ozgur.pub1133>. License: CC-BY-NC 4.0

The full text of this book has been peer-reviewed to ensure high academic standards. For full review policies, see <https://www.ozguryayinlari.com/>



Preface

In the digital age, the nature of competition has fundamentally transformed; product-centric marketing approaches have been replaced by platform-based business models, data-driven decision systems, and multi-layered marketing ecosystems. Value creation now extends beyond the boundaries of individual firms, shaped by algorithmic interactions on digital platforms, organizational innovation spaces, and macroeconomic conditions that influence consumer behavior. Titled *Marketing Dynamics in the Digital Age: Platforms, Ecosystems, and Innovation*, this volume examines this new architecture of marketing through a holistic and interdisciplinary lens.

The book explores the marketing ecosystem across five interrelated layers. First, it analyzes how algorithms—the backbone of digital platforms—reshape consumer experiences through hyper-personalization, while simultaneously generating trust and privacy paradoxes. Second, it presents experimental evidence on how voice search and assistant technologies transform consumer decision-making into an emerging “interface ecosystem.” Third, it demonstrates that innovation is not merely a digital outcome, but an organizational capability supported by corporate memory, spatial design, and the activation of embedded knowledge. Fourth, the book synthesizes how these platform and innovation capabilities influence firms’ global competitiveness and export performance. Finally, it addresses consumer resilience, well-being, and vulnerability in inflationary digital markets, highlighting the ethical and societal implications of contemporary marketing strategies.

This volume serves as a comprehensive reference for academics, graduate students, and practitioners who seek to understand marketing not merely as a functional activity, but as a strategic management process embedded within platforms, ecosystems, and broader economic dynamics.

Contents

Preface	iii
<hr/>	
Chapter 1	
The Era of Hyper-Personalization in Marketing Management and the Privacy Paradox	1
<i>Oğuzhan Aydin</i>	
<hr/>	
Chapter 2	
Conceptual Replication of Voice Search Impact on Consumer Choice	
Simplicity: The Role of Task Complexity and Personal Innovativeness	23
<i>Altuğ Ocak</i>	
<hr/>	
Chapter 3	
Innovation Spaces and Activating Embedded Knowledge: The Case of Krauss InnoHouse	49
<i>Ezgi Baday Yıldız</i>	
<hr/>	
Chapter 4	
The Nexus Between Firms' Innovativeness and Export Performance: A Narrative Review of Practical Implications	63
<i>Atike Elanur Hızarcı</i>	
<i>Aytuğ Sözüer</i>	
<hr/>	
Chapter 5	
Consumer Resilience in Inflationary Markets in the Digital Age	85
<i>Yavuz Selim Gülmез</i>	

The Era of Hyper-Personalization in Marketing Management and the Privacy Paradox 8

Oğuzhan Aydın¹

Abstract

This book chapter explores how AI-powered personalization and hyper-personalization have transformed digital marketing, illustrated through concrete examples encountered in daily life. Thanks to big data, machine learning, and data analytics, marketing today has evolved into a smarter and more proactive structure that focuses directly on the individual rather than merely on similar consumers. In this transformation, recommendation systems emerge as key tools that facilitate the consumer decision-making process and make the experience more seamless. This chapter also discusses the delicate balance between the benefits offered by hyper-personalization and privacy concerns, emphasizing the pivotal role of trust in this process. The study argues that sustainable success in AI-based marketing applications depends not only on technological capability but also on adopting an ethical, transparent, and trust-oriented approach.

1. Introduction

Henry Ford's famous remark in the early 1900s regarding the Model T vehicles rolling off the mass production line "*Any customer can have a car painted any colour that he wants so long as it is black*" constitutes a milestone in the history of marketing. Reflecting on this statement today, many might assume it alluded to the nobility of the colour black or the aesthetic preferences of that era. However, this statement by Henry Ford actually best reflects the supply-demand imbalance of the period and the mindset of "*I can sell whatever I produce!*" In stark contrast to those days when options were limited and demand exceeded supply, consumers in the contemporary marketing

¹ Asst. Prof., Pamukkale University, Faculty of Applied Sciences, Department of International Trade and Logistics, oguzhana@pau.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0002-5104-2986

landscape are inundated with countless alternatives. Consequently, Ford's "*one-size-fits-all*" approach has inevitably given way to "*tailor-made*" solutions.

Throughout its history, the marketing discipline has evolved through distinct phases; Production, Product, Sales, and Modern Marketing ultimately adopting the Holistic Marketing approach today. This new era, characterized by concepts such as the Information Society, Industry 4.0, or the Digital Economy, has propelled marketing to a level that Henry Ford could not have even imagined. Disruptive technologies such as the Internet of Things (IoT), big data analytics, blockchain, and artificial intelligence have radically altered the way organizations operate. Among all these disruptive technologies, artificial intelligence stands out as the latest technological transformer, holding immense potential for marketing transformation. Marketing professionals globally are striving to discover the most effective artificial intelligence solutions within their marketing processes.

At the core of this transformation lie data-driven decision-making, data analytics, and artificial intelligence-based marketing applications. It is evident that strategies traditionally implemented as Segmentation, Targeting, and Positioning (STP) have evolved into mass customization alongside digitalization. For instance, a process where a consumer designs their own footwear on a sportswear brand's website (e.g., Nike by You) is shaped directly by consumer demand. However, today we stand at a brand-new threshold where artificial intelligence plays the leading role. We are no longer discussing a reactive marketing management that waits for the consumer to make a request; rather, we refer to a proactive management style that presents the most suitable option to the consumer before they even realize their own desires.

Today, our digital footprints—originating from the Internet of Things, electronic devices, visited web pages, social media interactions, health data measured by wearable technologies, and online marketplaces—are ceaselessly flowing into databases. Not only the products we purchase, but also the items abandoned in our carts, the sellers we rate poorly, or even payments made via a coffee application are simultaneously filling our personal data pools. Artificial intelligence has shed its instrumental position over time, taking the initiative to assume a system-building role today. In past years, accessing data was an arduous process for organizations, requiring significant budget, time, and effort. In contrast to those days of data scarcity, the staggering advancements in internet and communication technologies have transported us to the era of Big Data. Accessing data is now significantly cheaper and easier compared to the past. However, this situation brings with it a new paradox termed the

Curse of Data. Data analysts and managers face new concerns regarding how to manage this Big Data, which has reached massive proportions.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1. Recommendation Systems

In the modern marketing approach, data has become the most strategic asset for businesses. The process of transforming this data from its raw state into processed information is managed through Marketing Information Systems (MIS). Marketing information systems are integrated structures that ensure the regular and continuous collection, analysis, storage, transmission, and presentation of information obtained from internal and external sources to decision-makers. As emphasized by Mocean and Pop (2012), these systems encompass the systematic and formal methods used to manage all market-related processes of an organization. Once viewed merely as simple reporting tools in the past, these systems today play a critical role in businesses achieving competitive advantage. Although recommendation systems provide significant benefits to consumers, the primary reason for their insufficient widespread adoption in the market is the oversight of the usability issue while focusing on technical features (Murray and Häubl, 2009).

Online marketplaces closely monitor AI-based technologies and developments in order to provide better service to their customers (Verma and Yadav, 2021; Habil et al., 2023). In particular, recommendation systems and consumer feedback play a key role in reducing search costs and the uncertainty associated with unknown products (Pathak et al., 2010). Today, recommendation systems are not merely technical tools that reveal the relationships between products; they are also significant elements that support the strategic marketing goals of organizations (Deng et al., 2020).

Recommendation systems facilitate the consumer decision-making process, thereby increasing sales and cross-sales. These systems also provide flexibility to online retailers regarding dynamic pricing (Pathak et al., 2010). Fundamentally, these systems adopt two main methods: Content-Based Filtering and Collaborative Filtering. The logic behind content-based filtering is quite simple; it recommends products similar in characteristics to those the user has liked in the past. For example, for a user listening to a specific genre (e.g., instrumental rock) on Spotify, the system presents new instrumental rock tracks with similar rhythms and attributes in the “*Discover Weekly*” playlist. Collaborative filtering, on the other hand, relies on the preferences of users who exhibit similar behaviours. An example of this is cross-selling on

Amazon by suggesting to a user who purchased a camping tent, “*Customers who bought this item also bought this sleeping bag or privacy tent!*”.

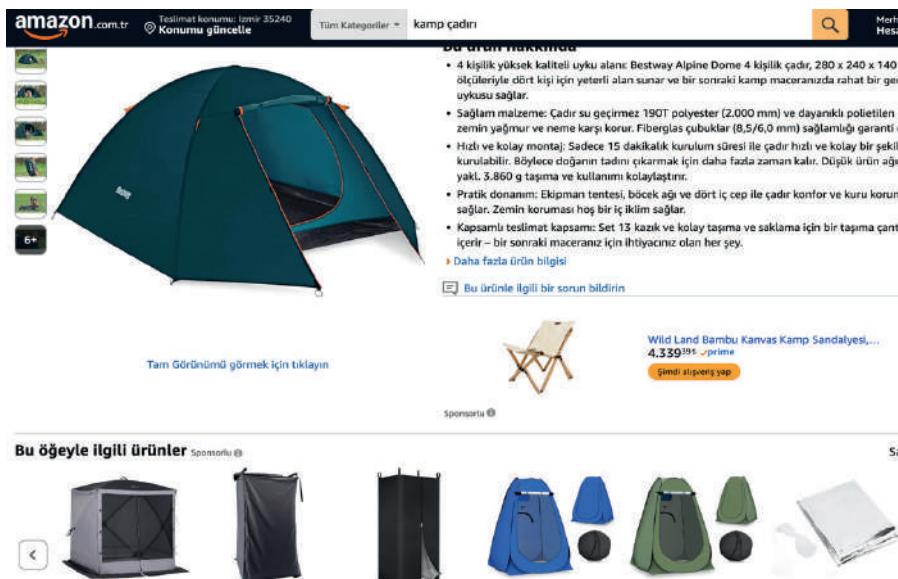


Figure 1. An illustrative example of the collaborative filtering approach on Amazon

The majority of current e-commerce recommendation systems focus on recommending the right products based on users' individual transaction histories and cookie data. By learning users' prior behaviours, recommendation systems predict their current preferences for specific products and offer them personalized service support (Verma and Sharma, 2020; Chinchanachokchai et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). However, it is observed that a significant portion of researchers working in data analytics and digital marketing mostly build their analyses on past transaction data. This approach leads to the exclusion of consumers' real-time behaviours in the online environment from the analysis (Yılmaz and Aydın, 2023). At this point, the artificial intelligence techniques that come into play (fuzzy logic, transfer learning, genetic algorithms, deep learning, etc.) increase prediction accuracy while significantly minimizing fundamental problems such as data sparsity and cold start (Verma and Sharma, 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). AI-powered systems offer new opportunities for retailers to understand consumer needs and predict their future behaviours. Particularly from the perspective of personalized recommendation systems and retargeting ads, the role of these systems in creating value for consumers and providing competitive advantage to retailers is extremely important (Habil et al., 2023). For example, Netflix maximizes

customer loyalty thanks to AI algorithms that offer instant recommendations by looking not only at what the user watches but also on which day, at what time, and on which device they watch it.

2.2. Artificial Intelligence in Personalized Marketing

Today, e-commerce has become a fundamental online retail ecosystem that reshapes consumers' shopping behaviours. One of the most important advantages online marketplaces provide to consumers is offering place and time utility. In this way, shopping ceases to be a time-consuming process for consumers and transforms into a more efficient activity. Achieving instant and efficient service delivery depends on accurately analysing consumers' individual needs and creating personalized shopping lists based on these analyses (Hung, 2005). In this direction, the loss of validity of the traditional "one-size-fits-all" approach has necessitated marketing theories to adapt to this transformation. Artificial intelligence offers more precise, scalable, and real-time segmentation capabilities by processing massive datasets, thereby directly increasing the efficiency of marketing activities and customer satisfaction (Anshari et al., 2019; Hemalatha et al., 2024; Iyelolu et al., 2024). Web personalization ensures that the user views more products and makes decisions more easily by showing suitable products to the user. This, in turn, increases advertising revenues and sales (Ho and Bodoff, 2014). While one-to-one marketing approaches provide higher effectiveness in cases where a rich and consistent transaction history exists about users, micro-segmentation strategies emerge as a more suitable and effective alternative in cases where user data is limited or irregular (Jiang and Tuzhilin, 2006). At this point, AI-based methods contribute to higher interaction and conversion rates by increasing user targeting and personalization accuracy (Iyelolu et al., 2024).

Personalization is defined as the process of offering the right product and service to the right customer at the right time and in the right place (Sunikka and Bragge, 2012). The significance of personalization within marketing strategies is increasingly growing. It is clearly evident that this approach has evolved from being merely a tactical application into a strategic component. Indeed, some approaches propose positioning personalization as the eighth element (8P) of the marketing mix by integrating it not only with the classic marketing mix components—product, price, place, and promotion—but also into the extended services mix. This proposition demonstrates that the tailor-made adaptation of goods and services to individual needs is assuming an increasingly central role in modern marketing (Goldsmith, 1999).

One of the primary reasons for failure in personalization implementations is the lack of consensus on the concept's definition. The varying interpretations of personalization by actors within the value chain sever communication between parties and hinder the establishment of effective collaboration (Vesanen, 2007). As a fundamental element of interactive marketing, personalization is a strategic process aimed at maximizing profit for the producer and value for the consumer by adapting standardized offers to individual needs. Often evaluated in the literature as the modern equivalent of traditional market segmentation in the digital age (Montgomery and Smith, 2009), the concept of personalization is a critical tool for product or service differentiation, especially in highly competitive markets. Indeed, a correctly structured (optimal) personalization strategy can create a direct and positive effect on customer satisfaction and loyalty (Kwon and Kim, 2012).

However, today personalization goes beyond this traditional perspective. Although current approaches often treat personalization as a subset or extension of segmentation, this narrow perspective remains insufficient in reflecting the true depth and meaning of the concept (Chandra et al., 2022). AI-supported segmentation strategies diverge from traditional methods through deep learning and clustering algorithms. Miceli et al. (2007) warn that the concepts of personalization and customization are frequently confused. However, Chandra et al. (2022) draws a clear line between the two. Personalization occurs when the brand recognizes the customer and takes appropriate steps (control lies with the company), whereas customization occurs when consumers take the reins and realize their own desires themselves. The process of value co-creation directly increases the service capability of organizations. This increase makes customization and personalization processes more effective and sustainable for both organizations and consumers (Kumar, 2007; Zhang and Chen, 2008). Consumers generally exhibit a positive attitude towards mass customization applications and derive a high level of satisfaction from their purchasing experiences. In particular, young, educated individuals with relatively good income levels stand out as the consumer group showing the most interest in such products (Goldsmith and Freiden, 2004).

Although personalization models in the literature are generally based on product variety and interaction intensity, it is known that excessive product variety creates "information overload" and leads to confusion among consumers. The fact that customers' capabilities and willingness regarding interaction are highly distinct (heterogeneous) poses a risk of inefficient investment for firms. The e-customer profiling framework, developed as a solution to this problem, proposes distinguishing between the "*content*" (benefit) and "*process*" (interaction) dimensions of personalization. In this

regard, Ricotta and Costabile (2007) focus on four fundamental dimensions to manage customer differences. These are the dimensions of value, knowledge, orientation, and relationship quality. Examining the personalization literature through a bibliometric study, Chandra et al. (2022) summarized the evolution of personalized marketing studies over the years via the alluvial diagram presented in Figure 2.

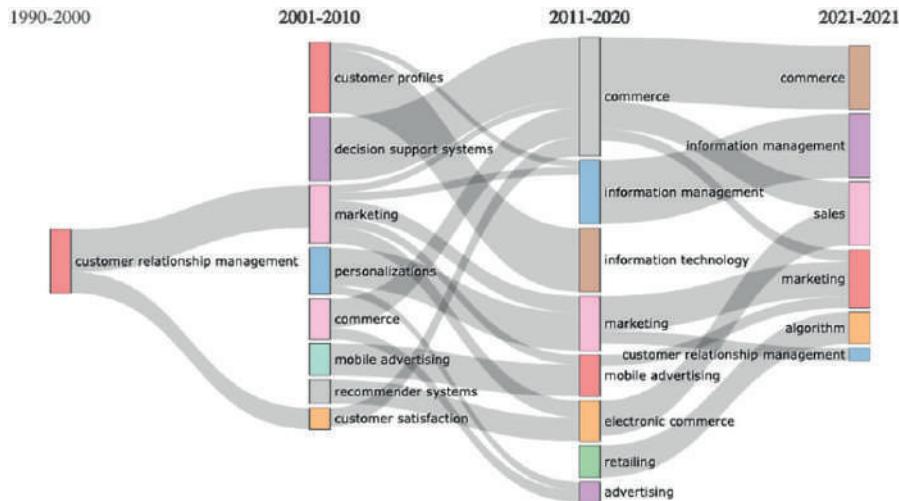


Figure 2. Alluvial diagram on the evolution of personalized marketing research

Source: Chandra, S., Verma, S., Lim, W. M., Kumar, S., & Dontu, N. (2022). Personalization in personalized marketing: Trends and ways forward. *Psychology & Marketing*, 39(8), 1529-1562.

An examination of Figure 2 reveals that the concept of personalization, the foundations of which were laid in the 1990s with Customer Relationship Management (CRM), gained technical depth in the 2000s through recommendation systems and customer profiling technologies. Today, however, it is observed that this evolution, converging around information management and algorithms, has shifted its focus from relationships to direct sales and e-commerce performance.

A comprehensive classification system can contribute to more effective marketing practices and communication strategies, particularly when personalization is integrated with new technologies. With the integration of artificial intelligence technologies into marketing applications, personalization has ceased to be a one-dimensional concept in the literature; instead, it has transformed into a multi-layered structure (Figure 3) that differentiates

depending on the source of data used and its processing method (Cavdar-Aksoy et al., 2021).

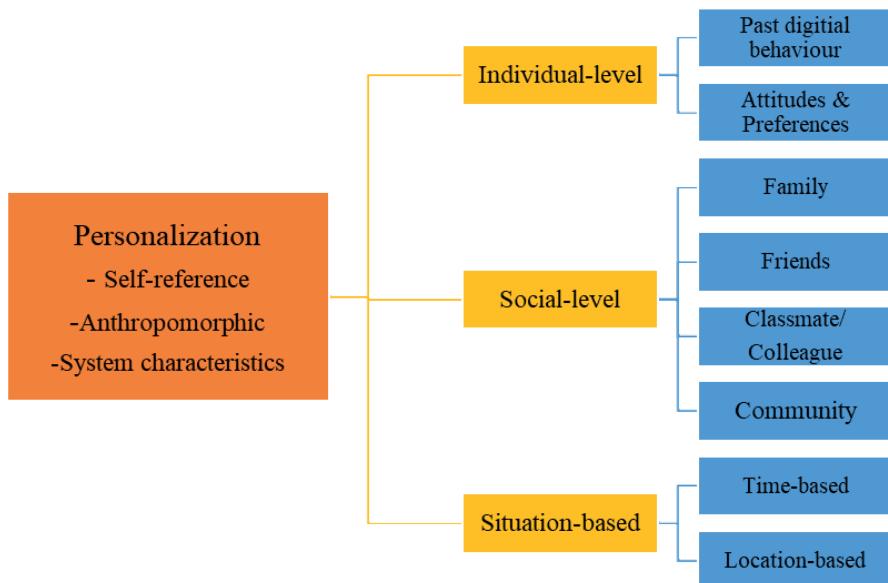


Figure 3. Proposed classification framework for personalization

Source: Cavdar Aksoy, N., Tumer Kabadayi, E., Yilmaz, C., & Kocak Alan, A. (2021). A typology of personalisation practices in marketing in the digital age. *Journal of marketing management*, 37(11-12), 1091-1122.

The framework in Figure 3 groups personalization practices under three main method headings: self-reference, anthropomorphic, and system characteristics. The information flow forming the basis of these methods is classified into three dimensions as individual, social, and situation-based approaches. This developed typology (Cavdar Aksoy et al., 2021) illustrates how brands enrich the consumer experience by utilizing a wide data pool ranging from past behaviours to real-time temporal data.

The Self-reference Method shapes communication by positioning the individual's self-concept at the center of the strategy, utilizing "you" language, addressing the user by name (e.g., "Hello Ali"), and referencing personal interests. Associating the targeted message directly with the individual facilitates easier cognitive processing of the information, ensures stronger memory retention, and promotes adoption by the consumer.

The Anthropomorphic Method involves attributing human characteristics (voice, gestures, facial expressions, emotional responses, etc.) to technology

or a system. Instead of a mechanical interaction through virtual assistants or chatbots, this method aims to create a “*lifelike*” dialogue environment akin to human-to-human communication that addresses the consumer’s social and emotional needs. Examples of this method include virtual assistants like Siri or Alexa that speak to the user and adjust their tone of voice; avatar-based virtual customer representatives that interact using facial expressions and gestures on websites (e.g., Ugi: Garanti BBVA); or the system using human and empathetic language such as “*Sorry, I couldn’t find what you were looking for, I’m a bit confused!*” instead of simply saying “*Error code 404*”. Such applications strengthen the user experience by rendering the interaction established with technology warmer and more accessible.

The System Characteristics Method refers to approaches that provide service to the consumer like a professional “*personal assistant*” by utilizing big data analysis and advanced algorithms. Through systems such as smart shopping carts or recommendation engines, it continuously analyses consumer behavior patterns in the background and creates the right value at the moment it is needed. One of the most current examples of the system characteristics method is the Amazon Dash Cart. Dash Cart is a high-tech shopping cart that automatically recognizes products while shopping in the grocery store, displays the total amount, and enables checkout without going to the register. Thanks to the cameras, weight sensors, and deep learning algorithms on the Amazon Dash Cart, it functions as a digital shopping assistant by instantly identifying the products added to the cart. While offering complementary product recommendations compatible with the consumer’s current selection, this smart system also eliminates the necessity of waiting at the checkout by automating the payment process in the background. Thus, AI-supported perception and decision-making systems transform the shopping process into a faster and personalized experience by processing the consumer’s real-time behavioral data.

2.2.1. Individual-level Personalization

Individual-level personalization represents the most traditional and widely adopted form of personalization within digital marketing. In this approach, the focus lies on the individual data traces generated by the consumer, independent of other individuals. The system treats the user as a singular and unique entity rather than merely a component of collective patterns. In this context, individual-level personalization is grounded in two fundamental data sources: past digital behaviours and attitudes and preferences.

Past digital behaviours encompass behavioral data—predominantly implicit in nature—such as clickstream data, purchase history, page view frequency, and viewing durations left by the consumer in the digital environment. AI-based algorithms analyse this data to generate individual predictions based on the user's past interest and interaction patterns, rather than relying on the traditional “*co-purchase*” logic. Thus, instead of the approach “*Users who viewed this item also viewed that*,” the system can offer more customized recommendations for content or products the user might be interested in, guided by their prior behaviours.

Attitudes and preferences, on the other hand, consist of data explicitly declared by the consumer to the system via surveys, registration forms, or profile settings. Directly specifying interests, favourite product categories, or content preferences falls within this scope. Since such data reflects the consumer's subjective evaluations, it assumes a more guiding and complementary function in the personalization process compared to behavioral data.

2.2.2. Social-level Personalization

Social-level personalization is grounded in the assumption that individual decisions are shaped by the social environment. In this approach, personalization integrates with social network analysis and collaborative filtering techniques; hence, the recommendations offered to the consumer are derived not solely from the individual's own data but also from the data of the social groups with which they interact. Consequently, recommendation systems take into account not only the user's singular preferences but also their position within the social relationship network and similarity patterns.

In this context, social-level personalization is structured through social circles possessing varying degrees of proximity. The family, situated in the narrowest circle, represents the social environment where the element of trust is highest and recommendations are powerfully influential. Classmates or colleagues, forming a wider circle, reflect the behavioral patterns of individuals who share similar needs and consumption motivations within an educational or professional context. Finally, communities occupy the widest circle. The general trends of groups sharing similar interests, tastes, or common goals (such as fan communities or clubs) become determinant factors in shaping individual recommendations.

2.2.3. Situation-based Personalization

Situation-based personalization can be considered a form of personalization closely related to the contextual marketing approach. In this approach, the

data source is derived from the conditions in which the individual finds themselves at a specific moment, rather than their relatively fixed characteristics. Consequently, situation-based personalization is inherently dynamic, capable of changing over time or even instantaneously.

In this scope, situation-based personalization relies primarily on time-based and location-based contextual variables. Time-based personalization refers to recommendations that vary depending on the time of day, the day of the week, or the specific time of the year the consumer is in. Location-based personalization, on the other hand, has gained importance with the proliferation of mobile technologies and encompasses personalized content triggered based on the consumer's geographical location (such as proximity to a physical store or being in a state of travel).

In this framework, situation-based personalization makes it possible to systematically correlate which contextual data sources nourish the different strategic approaches to personalization (such as self-reference or anthropomorphic methods). Current artificial intelligence applications aim for the highest level of interaction and perceived relevance by utilizing individual, social, and situation-based personalization levels in a hybrid manner (for instance, by recommending a product liked by the consumer's social circle, compatible with their past behaviours, and contingent upon their current location).

Artificial intelligence tools enable the more effective optimization of marketing strategies through their capabilities in predicting consumer behavior, performing sentiment analysis, and designing immersive experiences. The integration of these technologies into marketing applications not only increases conversion rates but also provides organizations with a significant competitive advantage in an increasingly data-driven market (Iyelolu et al., 2024). However, while the proliferation of artificial intelligence in the field of marketing signals the beginning of the hyper-personalization era, it also compels organizations to adopt a more responsible and cautious approach regarding data privacy, algorithmic bias, and ethical transparency (Wilson et al., 2024).

With the expansion of the digital ecosystem, the ways in which consumers acquire information about products and brands have significantly diversified. The development of social network services such as Facebook and Instagram enables consumers to access product-related information through various digital channels (Lee et al., 2024). Similarly, word-of-mouth communication (e-WoM and r-WoM) taking place on gaming and streaming platforms like Discord and Twitch is influential in shaping potential users' expectations

regarding products and services (Aydin & Sarica, 2024). In line with these developments, the diversification of consumer preferences and the increase in online touchpoints make the need for personalized marketing practices increasingly critical for organizations (Lee et al., 2024). The effectiveness of personalized marketing practices depends on continuous innovation and investments made in artificial intelligence (Iyelolu et al., 2024). However, it is emphasized that these practices need to be evaluated in conjunction with different digital technologies such as big data, blockchain, and wearable technologies (Tong et al., 2020; Chandra et al., 2022). This integrated approach contributes to carrying personalization to a more advanced level.

2.3. Hyper-Personalization and Its Applications

The acceleration of digitalization concomitant with Industry 4.0 brings about an expectation for a higher level of personalization in customer experience. With intensifying competition, brands are compelled to abandon traditional marketing and resort to more creative methods. At the center of this new era lies hyper-personalization, managed by big data analytics and artificial intelligence. Systems that were previously limited to simple product recommendations such as "*Customers who bought this item also bought that*" have today been replaced by AI-supported structures that adapt interactions, information, and recommendations to the individual in real-time. Machine Learning and Natural Language Processing (NLP) technologies have transformed static sales processes, formerly applied identically to everyone, into dynamic experiences completely specific to the customer.

Consider the scenario of sending a generic email titled "*Summer Deals*"; a hyper-personalization engine detects that a user consistently prefers boutique and quiet hotels during their recent vacations but viewed flight tickets within the last 24 hours and exited without purchasing. By analysing the upcoming weekend gap in the user's digital calendar and their payday, the system can push a notification to the user's mobile screen precisely on the evening of a busy and stressful workday: "*That cove far from the crowd is reserved for you, offering the exact quietness you seek, with an instant price advantage defined just for you!*". In this way, the system is capable of transforming a dreamed-of experience for the user into an undeniable, tangible offer.

Advanced algorithms such as Hierarchical Recurrent Neural Networks play a critical role in this process, which influences fundamental behaviours regarding "*how, when, and why*" the customer makes a purchase. These algorithms attempt to understand behaviours by analysing when and how users perform transactions. Thus, it becomes possible to present personalized

offers at the appropriate time that can increase users' loyalty and willingness to pay (Kumar et al., 2022). For instance, this technology can perfectly match the routine of an employee who stops by the same busy coffee chain every morning on their way to work using "*timestamp*" data. The system learns that the user places an order regularly at 08:00 every morning. A notification sent to their phone at 07:55, before the user even reaches the shop, saying "*Good morning! Your usual Oat Milk Latte has started being prepared; confirm now and pick up your coffee without waiting in that long morning rush line!*" ensures that abstract data analysis transforms into tangible comfort and loyalty for the user. A successful hyper-personalization strategy relies not only on technology but also on the harmonious operation of data infrastructure, decision mechanisms, design, and distribution processes (Valdez Mendoza et al., 2022).

This transformation is not limited solely to online platforms; it also paves the way for profound changes in physical retail. On-site customer profiling and hyper-personalization systems utilized in physical retail aim to digitize the in-store experience via deep learning methods. These systems are capable of creating purchasing profiles devoid of personally identifiable information by automatically analysing customers' demographic details such as age and gender, their instantaneous emotional states within the store, and how they interact with products (Micu et al., 2022). Whereas product placements and promotional content are identical for all users in traditional retailing, AI-supported smart systems can analyse the facial expression and age range of a user standing in the cosmetics section within a short time. The moment the customer puts the product back on the shelf, the content of the digital screen can automatically update to present a personalized product recommendation like "*Glow-boosting care treatment for your tired skin!*" instead of a generic advertisement, offering an incentive coupon valid at the checkout. This ensures the transformation of the user's instantaneous emotional state into purchasing motivation.

In the highly competitive retail ecosystem, the ability of new ventures (start-ups) to exist sustainably depends on their capacity to differentiate themselves in crowded markets. Despite having more limited resources compared to large-scale organizations, start-ups can achieve a significant competitive advantage thanks to their adaptability in decision-making and implementation processes. AI-supported hyper-personalization transforms this adaptability into a strategic competitive tool. Unlike the cumbersome decision structures of large organizations, start-ups can offer simultaneous and more personal experiences to a large number of users by utilizing real-time data. For example, while a large retail chain sends a standard "*Baby Products*

Discount" newsletter to all its users, a data-driven start-up can predict that diaper stocks are about to run low or that a transition to the next size up is needed by analysing a parent's recent purchase history. When this prediction is combined with a personalized notification delivered at the right time, it offers a value that directly corresponds to the user's actual need.

The Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) sector stands at the forefront of the hyper-personalization revolution due to its dynamic structure where decisions are made instantaneously. While brands utilize AI-supported algorithms and Natural Language Processing (NLP) technologies to process big data in this field, they have moved the scope of analysis beyond words today. Organizations now read emojis, the most powerful non-verbal communication tool of the digital age (Aydin, 2024), as universal "*data signals*" that most rapidly indicate the consumer's current mood, emotional intensity, and needs. For example, while a traditional brand in the Fast Fashion sector shows the same shirt advertisement to everyone under the title "*Men's Wear Discount*", artificial intelligence analyses the increasing interaction on social media, especially on Friday evenings. A university student adding only a □ 🤔 (thinking face) or □ 🤔 (I don't know) emoji to a "*Undecided look in the mirror!*" photo shared before upcoming weekend plans or a first date is interpreted by the system as a silent request for style assistance. The algorithm captures this visual cue, examines the user's past streetwear preferences, and instead of presenting a standard product list, presents a personalized notification saying: "*End the worry of what to wear tomorrow: That Khaki Bomber Jacket and Parachute Pants outfit that fits your style perfectly has been prepared for you!*". Thus, a simple emoji transforms into intelligent style consultancy that eliminates one of the male consumer's biggest problems, the "*hassle of creating an outfit*", and converts into a one-click purchase.

Finally, Generative AI, based on advanced machine learning models, maximizes customer engagement and conversion rates by rendering hyper-personalized messaging strategies scalable within the retail sector. However, this technological transformation, while enhancing marketing efficiency, brings with it ethical responsibilities and integration challenges that must be addressed with caution. Research indicates that sustainability in technologies such as Generative AI and the Metaverse depends on the balance between innovation, data privacy, and ethical responsibilities (Chakranarayan, 2025). For instance, a customer receiving a message from their favourite cosmetics brand saying, "*Is your skin ready for winter? We have reserved your moisturizer for you!*" creates a warm touch that strengthens loyalty. However, the picture changes when such personalization crosses the privacy boundary. When the AI of a pharmacy application analyses a user's vitamin purchases and pregnancy-

related searches to send a notification regarding a situation they have not yet shared with their social circle, saying “*Special discount for you on stretch mark creams you will need in the first months of pregnancy!*”, technology ceases to be an assistant serving the customer and transforms into a creepy spy infiltrating the most private sphere. That moment represents the breaking point where the data is accurate but ethics are violated, and trust in the brand turns into fear within seconds. Consequently, the market leaders of the future will emerge from those who can balance the limitless power of artificial intelligence with their respect for human privacy. For in the digital age, true strategic superiority no longer depends solely on the speed of algorithms, but on how humanely and transparently those algorithms are managed.

2.4. The Privacy Paradox

The ethical concerns and data sensitivity arising from personalization and customization processes possess a subjective nature that varies from individual to individual. Customization based on user control is perceived as less ethically problematic by consumers compared to system-driven personalization (Treiblmaier et al., 2024). This situation demonstrates that despite the high utility potential of personalization, it generates a strong privacy tension among consumers. However, discussions regarding ethics and data privacy are predominantly addressed in the literature through the unilateral perspectives of disconnected disciplines such as law, morality, or psychology. Yet, data privacy is a multi-layered and complex process that affects both the internal and external stakeholders of an organization. Consequently, there is a need for a holistic research approach that transcends these narrow frameworks and converges different interest groups on a common ground.

Personalization, in its most general definition, is the optimization of the purchasing experience based on consumers’ personal data and preferences; however, consumer privacy concerns can significantly weaken the commercial effectiveness of online personalization efforts (Chellappa & Sin, 2005). In particular, the lack of transparency in data collection, storage, and processing procedures shakes the trust placed in data-driven marketing practices. As retailers increase the depth of personalized services, paradoxically, the consumers’ sense of distrust rises, and interaction declines. Indeed, research confirms that while explicit (transparent) data collection increases the intention to click, covert (implicit) collection suppresses this intention, thereby triggering the “*personalization paradox*” in the literature (Aguirre et al., 2015; Martin & Murphy, 2017; Chandra et al., 2022).

Although privacy concerns constitute a primary barrier to mass adoption, this obstacle can be surmounted through a fair “*value exchange*” mechanism established between consumers and brands. For instance, highly sensitive data such as heart rhythm or sleep patterns can be voluntarily shared by users in return for vital benefits like “*early disease warning*” offered by devices such as Apple Watch or Fitbit. This situation indicates that individuals relegate their privacy concerns to the background when the expected benefit exceeds the perceived risk (Pitta et al., 2003). The “*Privacy Calculus*” model explaining this phenomenon reveals that consumers’ risk-benefit analysis varies depending on the presentation mode of personalization (explicit/implicit) and that individual characteristics play a moderating role in this calculation (Xu et al., 2011; Aiolfi et al., 2021). In this delicate balance between the consumer and the brand, trust is the most critical element that mitigates negative effects (Pitta et al., 2003; Chellappa & Sin, 2005; Ho, 2006; Aguirre et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2016; Gürbüz & Haşiloğlu, 2024; Aydin & Gürbüz, 2025).

3. Conclusion

AI-based personalization technologies offer a unique strategic competitive advantage to businesses in today’s digital ecosystem. This high-level, need-anticipating personalization experience provided to consumers redefines customer interaction. This transformation process not only modernizes the ways organizations do business but also provides them with a much higher value creation capacity compared to traditional methods. Technologies such as Machine Learning, Natural Language Processing (NLP), and predictive analytics create a structural transformation that understands the consumer in real-time and anticipates their needs, going beyond merely automating marketing decision processes. However, this powerful transformation is not limited solely to the effectiveness of data-driven sales algorithms. On the contrary, sustainable success emerges at the point where the hyper-personalization capacity offered by artificial intelligence is blended with ethical principles, data privacy, transparency, and human oversight (Kedi et al., 2024; Al Prince et al., 2025). Current research clearly demonstrates that although businesses have a high appetite for technological investment, data privacy, implementation costs, and social trust expectations are critical breaking points determining the speed of this transformation.

Today, while predictive data analyses, chatbots, and autonomous decision systems create a significant transformation in businesses, they also bring along discussions regarding privacy, autonomy, and ethical responsibility. Organizations must now ask not only the question “*How much personalization can be done?*” but also “*Which type of personalization can be ethically and*

socially acceptable?”. Therefore, the future of digital marketing depends not merely on technological performance, but on the delicate balance between personalization, privacy, and ethics. At the point where this balance is disrupted, trust erodes rapidly. Conversely, artificial intelligence applications that converge personalization, privacy, and ethical principles within the same framework go beyond being a sales-oriented tool; they become a strategic lever that deepens user trust, produces social benefit, and strengthens long-term corporate reputation. Consequently, competitive advantage stems not from deploying artificial intelligence quickly, but from the ability to manage it in a responsible, ethical, and transparent manner. True superiority in digital marketing takes shape precisely here.

References

Aguirre, E., Mahr, D., Grewal, D., De Ruyter, K., & Wetzels, M. (2015). Unraveling the personalization paradox: The effect of information collection and trust-building strategies on online advertisement effectiveness. *Journal of retailing*, 91(1), 34-49. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2014.09.005>

Aiolfi, S., Bellini, S., & Pellegrini, D. (2021). Data-driven digital advertising: benefits and risks of online behavioral advertising. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 49(7), 1089-1110. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJRD-10-2020-0410>

Al Prince, A., Siddiqui, H. A., Lakho, M. B., Ahmad, S., & Asghar, A. (2025). Leveraging Artificial Intelligence for Hyper-Personalized Marketing: Opportunities and Challenges in the Digital Era. *Inverge Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(3), 274-287. <https://doi.org/10.63544/ijss.v4i3.166>

Anshari, M., Almunawar, M. N., Lim, S. A., & Al-Mudimigh, A. (2019). Customer relationship management and big data enabled: Personalization & customization of services. *Applied computing and informatics*, 15(2), 94-101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aci.2018.05.004>

Aydin, O. (2024). Emojilerin Hedonik ve Faydacı Mesajlar Üzerindeki Etkisi. *Pazarlama ve Pazarlama Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 17(2), 495-526. <https://doi.org/10.15659/ppad.17.2.1455256>

Aydin, O., & Gürbüzer, Ş. G. (2025). The Moderating Effect of E-Marketplaces Familiarity on The Relationship Between Trust and Risk Reduction Based on Product Types. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, (70), 361-376. <https://doi.org/10.30794/pausbed.1612001>

Aydin, O., ve Sarica, Y. (2024). Dijital Oyun Geri Bildirimlerinin Duygu Analizi ile İncelenmesi: e-WoM'dan r-WoM'a Geçiş Mümkün Mü? 3. *Sektör Sosyal Ekonomi Dergisi*, 59(4), 2667-2683. <https://doi.org/10.15659/3.sektor-sosyal-ekonomi.24.11.2559>

Chakranarayan, V. (2025). Hyper-Personalization in E-commerce Through AI and Big Data. In *Data-Driven Decision Making for Sustainable Business Growth* (pp. 129-138). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-96530-2_12

Chandra, S., Verma, S., Lim, W. M., Kumar, S., & Donthu, N. (2022). Personalization in personalized marketing: Trends and ways forward. *Psychology & Marketing*, 39(8), 1529-1562. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.21670>

Chellappa, R. K., & Sin, R. G. (2005). Personalization versus privacy: An empirical examination of the online consumer's dilemma. *Information technology and management*, 6(2), 181-202. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10799-005-5879-y>

Chinchanachokchai, S., Thontirawong, P., & Chinchanachokchai, P. (2021). A tale of two recommender systems: The moderating role of consumer expertise on artificial intelligence-based product recommendations. *Journal of*

Retailing and Consumer Services, 61, 102528. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2021.102528>

Deng, W., Shi, Y., Chen, Z., Kwak, W., & Tang, H. (2020). Recommender system for marketing optimization. *World Wide Web*, 23(3), 1497-1517. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11280-019-00738-1>

Goldsmith, R. E. (1999). The personalised marketplace: beyond the 4Ps. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 17(4), 178-185. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02634509910275917>

Goldsmith, R. E., & Freiden, J. B. (2004). Have it your way: consumer attitudes toward personalized marketing. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 22(2), 228-239. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02634500410525887>

Guo, X., Zhang, X., & Sun, Y. (2016). The privacy–personalization paradox in mHealth services acceptance of different age groups. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 16, 55-65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.elerap.2015.11.001>

Gürbüzer, Ş. G., ve Haşiloğlu, S. B. (2024). Dijital Pazarlama Güven Ölçeğinin Geliştirilmesi. *İnternet Uygulamaları ve Yönetimi Dergisi*, 15(1), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.34231/iuyd.1398034>

Habil, S., El-Deeb, S., & El-Bassiouny, N. (2023). AI-based recommendation systems: the ultimate solution for market prediction and targeting. In *The Palgrave handbook of interactive marketing* (pp. 683-704). Cham: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-14961-0_30

Hemalatha, R., Amulya, G., & Lalitha, C. H. S. (2024, November). AI-Driven Customer Segmentation for Personalized Marketing. In *2024 Second International Conference Computational and Characterization Techniques in Engineering & Sciences (IC3TES)* (pp. 1-5). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/IC3TES62412.2024.10877505>

Ho, S. Y. (2006). The attraction of internet personalization to web users. *Electronic markets*, 16(1), 41-50. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10196780500491162>

Ho, S. Y., & Bodoff, D. (2014). The effects of web personalization on user attitude and behavior. *MIS quarterly*, 38(2), 497-A10. Available online at: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/26634936>

Hung, L. P. (2005). A personalized recommendation system based on product taxonomy for one-to-one marketing online. *Expert systems with applications*, 29(2), 383-392. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2005.04.016>

Iyelolu, T. V., Agu, E. E., Idemudia, C., & Ijomah, T. I. (2024). Leveraging artificial intelligence for personalized marketing campaigns to improve conversion rates. *International Journal of Engineering Research and Development*, 20(8), 253-270. Available online at: <https://www.ijerd.com/paper/vol20-issue8/2008253270.pdf>

Jiang, T., & Tuzhilin, A. (2006). Segmenting customers from population to individuals: Does 1-to-1 keep your customers forever?. *IEEE Transactions on knowledge and data engineering*, 18(10), 1297-1311. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TKDE.2006.164>

Kedi, W. E., Ejimuda, C., Idemudia, C., & Ijomah, T. I. (2024). AI software for personalized marketing automation in SMEs: Enhancing customer experience and sales. *World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews*, 23(1), 1981-1990. <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjarr.2024.23.1.2159>

Kumar, A. (2007). From mass customization to mass personalization: A strategic transformation. *International Journal of Flexible Manufacturing Systems*, 19(4), 533-547. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10696-008-9048-6>

Kumar, S., Ashoka Rajan, R., Swaminathan, A., & Johnson, E. (2022). Hyper-personalization and its impact on customer buying behaviour. In *Data Intelligence and Cognitive Informatics: Proceedings of ICDICI 2022* (pp. 649-664). Singapore: Springer Nature Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6004-8_50

Kwon, K., & Kim, C. (2012). How to design personalization in a context of customer retention: Who personalizes what and to what extent?. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 11(2), 101-116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.elerap.2011.05.002>

Lee, G. H., Lee, K. J., Jeong, B., & Kim, T. (2024). Developing personalized marketing service using generative AI. *IEEE Access*, 12, 22394 <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2024.3361946>

Martin, K. D., & Murphy, P. E. (2017). The role of data privacy in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 45(2), 135-155. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-016-0495-4>

Miceli, G. N., Ricotta, F., & Costabile, M. (2007). Customizing customization: A conceptual framework for interactive personalization. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 21(2), 6-25. <https://doi.org/10.1002/dir.20076>

Micu, A., Capatina, A., Cristea, D. S., Munteanu, D., Micu, A. E., & Sarpe, D. A. (2022). Assessing an on-site customer profiling and hyper-personalization system prototype based on a deep learning approach. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 174, 121289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2021.121289>

Mocean, L., & Pop, C. M. (2012). Marketing recommender systems: a new approach in digital economy. *Informatica Economică*, 16(4), 142-149. Available online at: <https://revistaie.ase.ro/64.html>

Montgomery, A. L., & Smith, M. D. (2009). Prospects for Personalization on the Internet. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 23(2), 130-137. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2009.02.001>

Murray, K. B., & Häubl, G. (2009). Personalization without interrogation: Towards more effective interactions between consumers and feature-based recommendation agents. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 23(2), 138-146. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2009.02.009>

Pathak, B., Garfinkel, R., Gopal, R. D., Venkatesan, R., & Yin, F. (2010). Empirical analysis of the impact of recommender systems on sales. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 27(2), 159-188. <https://doi.org/10.2753/MIS0742-1222270205>

Pitta, D. A., Franzak, F., & Laric, M. (2003). Privacy and one-to-one marketing: resolving the conflict. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 20(7), 616-628. <https://doi.org/10.1108/07363760310506157>

Ricotta, F., & Costabile, M. (2007). Customizing customization: A conceptual framework for interactive personalization. *Journal of interactive marketing*, 21(2), 6-25. <https://doi.org/10.1002/dir.20076>

Sunikka, A., & Bragge, J. (2012). Applying text-mining to personalization and customization research literature—Who, what and where? *Expert Systems with Applications*, 39(11), pp. 10049–10058. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2012.02.042>

Tong, S., Luo, X., & Xu, B. (2020). Personalized mobile marketing strategies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 48(1), 64-78. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-019-00693-3>

Treiblmaier, H., Madlberger, M., Knotzer, N., & Pollach, I. (2004, January). Evaluating personalization and customization from an ethical point of view: An empirical study. In *37th Annual Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, 2004. Proceedings of the* (pp. 10-pp). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/HICSS.2004.1265434>

Valdez Mendoza, J. M., & Flores-Cuautle, J. D. J. A. (2022). Toward customer hyper-personalization experience—A data-driven approach. *Cogent Business & Management*, 9(1), 2041384. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2022.2041384>

Verma, P., & Sharma, S. (2020). Artificial intelligence-based recommendation system. In 2020 2nd international conference on advances in computing, communication control and networking (ICACCCN) (pp. 669-673). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICACCCN51052.2020.9362962>

Verma, S., & Yadav, N. (2021). Past, present, and future of electronic word of mouth (e-WoM). *Journal of interactive marketing*, 53(1), 111-128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2020.07.00>

Vesanen, J. (2007). What is personalization? A conceptual framework. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(5/6), 409-418. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090560710737534>

Wilson, G., Johnson, O., & Brown, W. (2024). Exploring the use of artificial intelligence in personalizing marketing campaigns. <https://doi.org/10.20944/preprints202408.0007.v1>

Xu, H., Luo, X. R., Carroll, J. M., & Rosson, M. B. (2011). The personalization privacy paradox: An exploratory study of decision-making process for location-aware marketing. *Decision support systems*, 51(1), 42-52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2010.11.017>

Yılmaz, M. A., & Aydın, O. (2023). Online Alışveriş Sürecinde Fare Hareketlerinin İzlenmesi: Kullanıcı Deneyimine Yönelik Alternatif Bir Araştırma. *İnternet Uygulamaları ve Yönetimi Dergisi*, 14(1), 16-28. <https://doi.org/10.34231/iuyd.1296594>

Zhang, Q., Lu, J., & Jin, Y. (2021). Artificial intelligence in recommender systems. *Complex & intelligent systems*, 7(1), 439-457. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40747-020-00212-w>

Zhang, X., & Chen, R. (2008). Examining the mechanism of the value co-creation with customers. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 116(2), 242-250. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2008.09.004>

Conceptual Replication of Voice Search Impact on Consumer Choice Simplicity: The Role of Task Complexity and Personal Innovativeness

Altug Ocak¹

Abstract

This chapter conceptually reproduces and generalizes the voice search effect on perceptions of choice simplicity in e-commerce and explains when and for whom the effect creates marketing value. In a between-subjects experiment (N=300), voice vs. text search is manipulated with boundary conditions of task complexity (low vs. high) and personal innovativeness (PIIT). Voice interfaces increase choice simplicity overall; the increase is greater in low-complexity undertakings and with highly innovative users. Within Cognitive Load Theory and Media Richness, we draw out the findings in digital customer experience (DCX) strategies: introduce voice for frequent, low-stakes micro-decisions (reorder, quick add) and voice with visual comparison for high-complexity decisions. For manager practitioners, we present omni-channel design advice and a segmentation playbook individualizing interface modality with user innovativeness. The chapter contributes to marketing research through linking interface modality with funnel frictions and, as mediator, with conversion likelihood and with effort perceived, combining with platform competition and conversational commerce.

1. Introduction

The increasing use of voice-command interfaces such as Amazon Alexa, Google Assistant and Apple Siri is dramatically transforming how customers engage with online websites. With voice search becoming a part of routine actions from product identification to purchase decisions, its cognitive and motivational influences must be thoroughly understood. While previous research has suggested that voice interfaces may simplify consumer decision

¹ Asst. Prof., Istanbul Beykent University, altugocak@beykent.edu.tr,
<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8018-4158>

making by reducing cognitive load (Lopatovska & Williams, 2018), the levels of generalizability of these effects and boundary conditions remain to be explored.

In particular, the idea of perceived choice simplicity, the ease at which customers perceive decision environments, is gaining ground as a desirable outcome in digital interface design (Huffman & Kahn, 1998). Previous research established that simplified choice environments can reduce decision fatigue, increase satisfaction and maximize behavioral intention. Voice interfaces, by virtue of their offering linear and conversational modality for interaction, are believed to facilitate such simplicity even more in that they limit visual clutter and guide the user through a simplified query-response mechanism (Kiseleva et al., 2016). However, it is still unclear to what extent this benefit holds for different complexities of tasks and user groups.

This research tries to conceptually replicate previous results of voice search having a positive impact on perceived ease of choice but with two essential moderators: complexity of tasks and individual innovativeness in the area of information technologies (PIIT). Task complexity had an effect on information processing and also on decision-making efficiency (Campbell, 1988), while PIIT reflects the desire of a user to accept and study new technologies (Agarwal & Prasad, 1998). Investigating these factors makes the current study extend theoretical understanding from Cognitive Load Theory (Sweller, 1988), Media Richness Theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986) and from the Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989) and provides additional insight into consumer experience formation influenced by voice interfaces. We place these effects in marketing dynamics—how modality of interface changes funnel frictions, customer journeys, and platform competition in omnichannel store chains (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016; Verhoef et al., 2015; Hagiu & Wright, 2015).

With a between-subjects experimental design, we investigate whether voice interface users experience greater choice simplicity compared to text interface users and whether personal innovativeness and task complexity moderate this effect. In addition to simply copying a known main effect, the research contributes to marketing research by establishing boundary conditions that influence the effectiveness of conversational technology in e-commerce.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The rise of voice search in consumer decision journeys

The advent of voice-enabled technology has transformed how consumers interact with digital environments. The increasing integration of smart speakers and voice assistants such as Amazon Alexa, Google Assistant and Apple Siri into the day-to-day lives of consumers has ushered in a paradigm shift in information search behavior (Hoy, 2018). In contrast to traditional graphical interfaces, which rely on visual processing in addition to manual input, voice search enables users to interact with systems through natural language commands, thus simplifying the user experience and potentially transforming decision-making (Lopatovska & Williams, 2018).

From the technological point of view, this transition concurs with Media Richness Theory proposed by Daft & Lengel (1986), which stated that communication media vary in their capacity to enrich information and, thereby, facilitate understanding. Voice, for instance, is synchronous, interactive and human-like; hence, it enriches a medium for the exchange of ambiguous or complex information compared to text. As a result, voice-based interfaces can reduce uncertainty in product searching and improve user cognitive fluency, thereby facilitating the adoption of the decision-making process (Haubl & Trifts, 2000).

Also, the UTAUT (Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology) -(Venkatesh et al., 2003) supports the reality that performance expectancy and perceived ease of use are key drivers of user acceptance. With voice interfaces becoming more responsive and contextually aware with AI enhancements, users are finding them to be useful tools in the shopping experience.

Apart from consumer-technology interaction, digital customer experience (DCX) and multi-channel marketing strategies also present the necessary framework of understanding voice search adoption. Recent marketing research also places these changes within larger digital customer experience and multi-channel transformations (Lemon & Verhoef 2016; Kumar, Shah, & Sharma 2022).

In order to position voice as a funnel-friction reducer, there is a need to realize omni-channel orchestration: voice as an intent capture and micro-task tool, visual layers to contrast, and frictionless touchpoint handoff. These platform choices exert an influence on platform competition via greater switching expenses and attachment enhancement across multi-

sided ecosystems (Verhoef, Kannan, & Inman, 2015; Brynjolfsson, Hu, & Rahman, 2013; Hagi & Wright, 2015)

Voice commerce decreases conversion funnel friction through path-to-purchase reductions and rate-of-micro-conversions, which are core digital marketing KPIs (Kumar et al., 2022). In addition, platform markets' competitive contours—i.e., Amazon, Alibaba, or Trendyol—tend to be influenced more and more by platform-based multimodal searchability, with potential sustainable competitive benefit over time when integrated seamlessly with existing portfolios of channels.

2.2. Perceived choice simplicity and consumer information processing

Customers in web-based business environments are frequently faced with over-choice of products and over-provision of information and this may result in cognitive overload and decision fatigue (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000). Subjective ease and convenience of consumer choice have been identified as an important driver in avoiding such negative effects (Huffman & Kahn, 1998).

This follows Cognitive Load Theory (Sweller, 1988), which distinguishes between intrinsic load (task-induced complexity) and extraneous load (imposed by poorly designed interfaces or unnecessary processing). Technologies that reduce extraneous load enable consumers to focus more cognitive resources toward necessary decision-making. Voice search, by eliminating the need for visual scanning and offering direct access to favored options, is poised to decrease extraneous load and boost choice simplicity (Featherman et al., 2011).

Evidence to corroborate this claim has been presented recently. Hellwig et al. (2023), for instance, demonstrated how users who used voice interfaces found deciding easier and more satisfying than users using screen interfaces, particularly in low-stakes purchasing scenarios. However, the majority of empirical research focused on first-time adoption and user trust, rather than psychological impacts of voice search on cognitive aspects of decision-making. Thus, the current research attempts to replicate and extend the study of this underexamined relationship in a more recent and controlled environment.

2.3. The moderating role of task complexity

Task complexity is a firmly established contextual factor in consumer decision-making. It has been defined by the number of alternatives, amount

of information and degree of ambiguity present in the task (Campbell, 1988). Higher effort, systematic thinking and comparative evaluation are typically required for tasks of high complexity, while low-complexity tasks allow heuristic and intuitive judgment (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

For voice search, Myers et al. (2018) found that voice interfaces were better at providing easy tasks such as searching for an individual item or viewing the weather. When asking users to make hard comparison-driven choices, they found that voice interfaces fared worse due to their linear and sequential design that prevents the user from scanning and comparing options simultaneously.

This research, therefore, predicts that the effectiveness of voice search in simplifying choice is task complexity dependent, such that higher effects are located within low-complexity decision contexts. This moderation has not been adequately tested in earlier research and represents a key boundary condition that this conceptual replication seeks to explore.

2.4. The role of personal innovativeness in technology adoption

The second essential moderator in technology-enabled decision-making is Personal Innovativeness in the Domain of Information Technology (PIIT), or the tendency of an individual to experiment with and utilize new technologies (Agarwal & Prasad, 1998). Individuals with high PIIT are more likely to perceive novel interfaces like voice assistants as fun, efficient and aligned with their lifestyle.

Past research has already determined that people high in PIIT are more likely to see more ease of use and utility of new technologies, including mobile commerce, AI chatbots and recommendation agents (Im, Bayus, & Mason, 2003). They are also more likely to form positive attitudes toward interfaces that challenge traditional paradigms, such as voice-based interactions.

Based on this, it is hypothesized that the positive effect of voice search on choice simplicity is strengthened for very innovative users, who are more open to natural language interaction and less discouraged by possible usability hindrances (Sun & Zhang, 2006).

2.5. Justification for conceptual replication

While previous studies (e.g., Lopatovska & Williams, 2018; Hellwig et al., 2023) do attest to a relationship between voice interface usage and improved decision outcomes, such findings are often constrained by specific device ecosystems, confined age ranges, or initial technology adoption

scenarios. Additionally, few experiments have explicitly quantified perceived choice ease as an outcome measure, nor have they tested the moderation functions of task complexity and PIIT in combination.

By focusing on these gaps, the present work tries to theoretically reproduce the early findings on voice search and decision facilitation and introduce moderator variables indicative of real-world variation in consumer behavior. Not only does this reaffirm earlier findings but also does a test of the theoretical generalizability of how and for whom voice-based interfaces make consumers' choices easier.

Extending previous research, this research seeks to conceptually replicate the cognitive advantages of voice search interfaces in consideration of two important boundary conditions: task complexity and user innovativeness in IT usage. Although existing research indicates that voice interfaces can decrease cognitive load and make decisions easier (Liu et al., 2021; Lopatovska & Williams, 2018), little empirical research has investigated when and for whom these advantages are most pronounced.

2.6. Hypotheses

Existing research shows voice interfaces reduce cognition load and allow easier consumer decision-making compared to text interfaces (Lopatovska & Williams, 2018; Liu et al., 2021). Cognitive Load Theory (Sweller, 1988) and Media Richness Theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986) also hypothesize auditory input reduces information processing through visual scanning, making it more efficient. Therefore, we hypothesize consumers who use a voice-based search interface will report more choice simplicity compared to a text interface.

2.6.1. Effects of Voice Interface on Perceived Ease of Choice

Decision-making cognitive effort is highly influenced by task complexity (Bettman, Luce, & Payne, 1998; Campbell, 1988). Whilst voice interfaces should facilitate easy decisions, their information presentation step-wise should interfere with comparisons when there is high task complexity (Zhao et al., 2019; Myers et al., 2018). Therefore, we suspect that the voice interface's beneficial influence on ease of choice should be more pronounced during low compared to high task complexity.

H1: Consumers using voice search will perceive higher choice simplicity than those using text-based search.

2.6.2. Moderating Effect of Task Complexity

The study on technology adoption emphasizes that personal innovativeness-high consumers accept new interfaces more easily and find them easier to use (Agarwal & Prasad, 1998; Im, Bayus, & Mason, 2003). Following the Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989) and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003), we assume such persons to gain more from voice search. As a result, we suppose that the positive influence of voice interface on the ease of choice simplicity will be more pronounced in persons who have high personal innovativeness.

H2: The positive effect of voice search on choice simplicity is stronger when task complexity is low.

2.6.3. Moderation of Personal Innovativeness

From a marketing point of view, these hypothesis inform interface modality design's capacity to reduce funnel friction, raise probability of conversion, and tailor touchpoints according to consumer innovativeness—all significant handles on conversational commerce and AI-based personalization, and inform conversational commerce and platform-based marketing dynamics (Hagiu & Wright 2015; Chen, Kulick, & Neslin 2021).

H3: The effect is stronger for consumers with higher personal innovativeness.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research design

To virtually reproduce and extend previous work on the cognitive benefits of voice search (e.g., Lopatovska & Williams, 2018; Melumad, 2023), in this research, a between-subjects design was employed. Participants were randomly assigned to a voice search condition or to a text search condition in order to simulate an e-commerce situation.

Independent variable was search modality (voice or text), the dependent variable was perceived choice simplicity and two moderators were tested: task complexity and personal innovativeness. This design made possible a direct comparison of the two interface modalities and facilitated testing of boundary conditions under which voice search impacts consumer perception.

3.2. Participants and Data Collection

Data were collected from 15th March to 2nd April, 2025, through Prolific Academic, a well-known internet-based participant recruitment site routinely used in behavioral and marketing studies. Prolific provides high quality pre-screened participants and has an option to include quota sampling so there is variability across age, gender, and familiarity with technologies. There were 300 adult participants who completed an experiment from English-speaking countries. Eligibility criteria were familiarity with digital shopping and having had some experience of using a voice assistant before. Participants' mean age was approximately 34 years old (range 18–65 years old), with gender equally distributed. All participants provided their informed consent before starting the study.

3.3. Ethical Approval Statement

Ethical approval was not required for this study because it involved minimal risk, used an anonymous online survey and complied with the ethical standards of research involving human participants as outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided informed consent prior to participation. Consent was obtained in written form electronically through the survey platform.

3.4. Experimental procedure

Every subject was randomly assigned to one of two experimental conditions:

- Voice Search Condition: Subjects interacted with a simulated voice assistant interface through pre-recorded audio sounds or synthesized text-to-speech sounds. They were asked to do a shopping task (e.g., picking a smart speaker or a set of earbuds) by responding to voice-initiated questions and suggestions.
- Text Search Condition: The participants performed the same shopping task but with an orthodox visual-text interface, where they typed search queries and scrolled through product listings manually.

The task context was identical for both conditions and involved selecting one item from within a group of similarly relevant items. The context was designed to simulate a moderately realistic and goal-directed shopping context. Participants were then directed to a post-task survey of measures of central psychological constructs upon completion of the search task.

To regulate task complexity, participants were also randomly assigned to the low-complexity or high-complexity version of the task:

- Under the low-complexity condition, products were defined using brief descriptions having limited differentiating features.
- Under the high-complexity condition, products were defined with lengthy technical specifications requiring more cognitive processing and comparison.

3.5 Measurement and Analyses of Survey Items

All of the constructs in the research were assessed with validated measures from existing literature. Perceived Choice Simplicity was assessed with four items from Huffman and Kahn (1998) that reflected participants' subjective ease of processing during the product choice process (e.g., "I found the product choice process simple and manageable."). Task Complexity was measured with three items from Campbell (1988) that were intended to measure the intellectual challenge of the decision task (e.g., "The decision task was complex and required effort."). Personal Innovativeness in IT (PIIT) was measured on a four-item Agarwal and Prasad (1998) scale, for example, "I like to try out new information technologies." Lastly, Behavioral Intention was assessed with three items adapted from Venkatesh et al. (2003), for example, "I would consider purchasing the product I selected."

All items were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Manipulation checks were provided to confirm participants' awareness of their administered interface (voice vs. text) and subjective difficulty of the task, using direct single-item measures following the task.

3.6. Analytical strategy

All statistical tests were conducted with SPSS 29 and PROCESS macro (v4.1) by Hayes (2022). The analytic procedures employed were as follows: Paired Samples t-Test was used to test H1 and Moderation Analyses (PROCESS Model 1) were conducted to test H2 and H3. Control variables, including age, gender and experience with voice assistants, were included in moderation models to account for individual differences. Results were evaluated at $\alpha = 0.05$. In addition to p-values, effect sizes such as- Cohen's d (for differences in means) and ΔR^2 (for moderation effects) were also reported to aid in the interpretation of magnitude of effects.

4. Results

4.1. Preliminary analyses

For establishing the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments, several initial analyses were conducted before hypothesis testing was carried out. All standardized factor loadings exceed the recommended 0.70 threshold (Hair et al., 2022), supporting convergent validity. Cronbach's alpha (α) values indicate strong internal consistency (see Table 1).

Table 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Standardized Factor Loadings

Construct / Item	Factor Loading
Perceived Choice Simplicity (PCS) ($\alpha = .89$)	
PCS_1: I found the product selection process simple and manageable.	0.77
PCS_2: It was easy for me to understand my choices.	0.74
PCS_3: The selection task required little mental effort.	0.72
PCS_4: Overall, selecting a product felt straightforward.	0.79
Task Complexity (TC) ($\alpha = .85$)	
TC_1: The decision task was complex and required effort.	0.88
TC_2: The task involved many elements that needed to be considered together.	0.82
TC_3: The product selection required extensive information processing.	0.84
Personal Innovativeness (PIIT) ($\alpha = .87$)	
PIIT_1: I enjoy experimenting with new information technologies.	0.78
PIIT_2: If I heard about a new information technology, I would look for ways to experiment with it.	0.74
PIIT_3: Among my peers, I am usually the first to try out new information technologies.	0.71
PIIT_4: I like to experiment with new information technologies.	0.79
Behavioral Intention (BI) ($\alpha = .83$)	
BI_1: I would consider purchasing the product I selected.	0.81
BI_2: I am likely to choose this product in the future.	0.73
BI_3: I would recommend this product selection method to others.	0.77

All Cronbach's α coefficients exceed the recommended threshold of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978), and composite reliability (CR) values exceed 0.80, confirming strong internal consistency. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values are above 0.50, supporting convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2022) (see Table 2).

Table 2. Internal Consistency (Reliability Analysis)

Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's α	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Perceived Choice Simplicity (PCS)	4	0.89	0.91	0.67
Task Complexity (TC)	3	0.85	0.88	0.65
Personal Innovativeness (PIIT)	4	0.87	0.90	0.64
Behavioral Intention (BI)	3	0.83	0.86	0.62

To make certain that the experimental manipulations were successful, i.e., search modality (voice or text) and task complexity (low or high), a set of manipulation checks was conducted.

They had to answer regarding whether they felt a voice interface being used during the task. Results showed there was a significant condition difference, $M = 4.41$, $SD = 0.63$ for Voice Condition, : $M = 1.39$, $SD = 0.58$ for Text Condition and $t(298) = 41.21$, $p < .001$. This large and statistically significant difference indicates that participants clearly differentiated the interface type they were interacting with, suggesting high construct validity of the manipulation (Perdue & Summers, 1986).

Similarly, participants in the high-complexity condition assigned much higher ratings of perceived task complexity than did participants for the low-complexity condition, $M = 4.12$, $SD = 0.71$ for High Complexity, $M = 2.34$, $SD = 0.66$ for Low Complexity: and $t(298) = 24.17$, $p < .001$. This result confirms the efficacy of manipulating complexity through information density and attribute number and the fact that it was thus perceived by participants. Previous research suggests that perceived task complexity has a strong impact on cognitive load and decision processes (Campbell, 1988; Bettman, Luce, & Payne, 1998) and thus deserves the status of moderator in experimental research. These preliminary results justify further hypothesis testing with the proposed statistical methods (see Table 3).

Table 3. Manipulation checks

Measure	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
Voice Modality Check (Voice Condition)	4.41	0.63	41.21	< .001
Voice Modality Check (Text Condition)	1.39	0.58		
Task Complexity Check (High Complexity)	4.12	0.71	24.17	< .001
Task Complexity Check (Low Complexity)	2.34	0.66		

4.2. Hypothesis testing

4.2.1. Effect of voice search on perceived choice simplicity

Independent-samples t-test revealed that the voice search participants reported having much simpler perceived choice ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 0.68$) than the text-based search participants ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 0.74$), $t(298) = 5.12$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.63$. This result supports H1.

4.2.2. Moderating effect of task complexity

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual model for this study. The independent variable, interface type (voice or text), is associated with a positive effect on the dependent variable, perceived ease of choice (H1), due to previous research that has shown voice interfaces to decrease cognitive load of decision-making tasks. The model also incorporates two moderator variables to examine boundary conditions:

Task complexity moderates the interface type-choice simplicity relation (H2). Voice interface simplification is expected to be more pronounced at low levels of task complexity and less at high complexity, since complicated tasks can potentially overwhelm cognitive gains from sequential voice navigation. Second, IT domain-specific innovativeness acts as a second moderator (H3) on the grounds of the fact that more innovative users derive more value from voice interfaces as they are receptive to new technology and more digitally literate. Every single moderation pathway was examined independently with Hayes' PROCESS Model 1 and yielded two independent models (Model 1A and Model 1B).

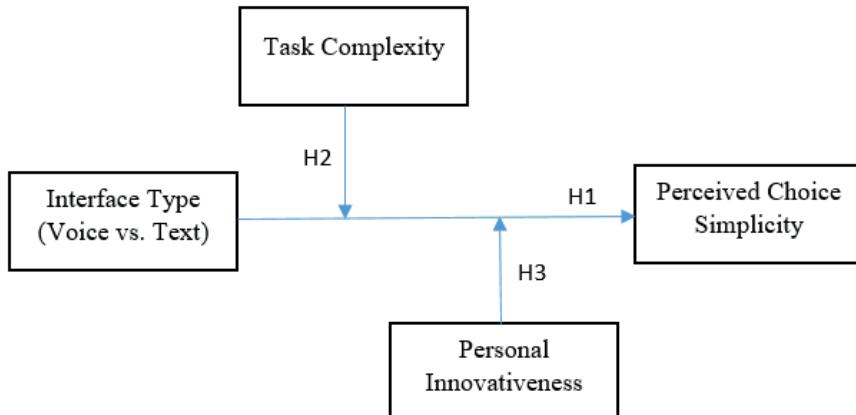


Fig 1. Conceptual model

There were two standalone moderation analyses in this study.

- Model 1A: Interface type \times Task complexity \rightarrow Perceived choice simplicity
- Model 1B: Interface type \times Personal innovativeness \rightarrow Perceived choice simplicity

All the moderation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (v4.1). Predictor and moderator variables were centered before the interaction term was calculated to reduce multicollinearity and enhance interpretability (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020). Bootstrap method with 5,000 resamples was used to estimate bias-corrected confidence intervals and statistical significance was assessed at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

Whenever significant interactions were found, the slopes at ± 1 standard deviation away from the mean of the moderator were examined, as Aiken and West (1991) recommended. This helped to assess how the effect of interface type on perceived choice simplicity differed at low and high levels of the moderator.

The overall model for the study was large ($R^2 = .28$, $F(3, 296) = 38.37$, $p < .001$). The interaction term was large ($\beta = -0.41$, $SE = 0.12$, $p < .001$). Simple slopes analysis showed that:

- For low-complexity tasks, voice search significantly influenced perceived simplicity of choice ($\beta = 0.59$, $p < .001$).
- For high-complexity tasks, it was not significant ($\beta = 0.14$, $p = .21$).

This result validates H2. Figure 2 shows how the effect of interface type (voice vs. text) on perceived choice simplicity is moderated by task complexity. Voice interfaces significantly increase choice simplicity when task complexity is low, but the effect is attenuated under high complexity.

4.2.3 Moderating effect of personal innovativeness

A second moderation analysis using PROCESS Model 1 revealed a significant interaction between interface type and personal innovativeness:

- Interaction term: $\beta = 0.36$, SE = 0.11, $p = .002$
- Simple slopes:
 - o For high-PIIT individuals (+1 SD), voice search had a strong positive effect on choice simplicity ($\beta = 0.61$, $p < .001$).
 - o For low-PIIT individuals (-1 SD), the effect was weaker but still significant ($\beta = 0.22$, $p = .03$).

This result supports H3. The moderation variable (Interface \times PIIT) was significant ($\beta = 0.36$, SE = 0.11, $p = .002$). This confirms the existence of moderation, the relation between interface type and perceived ease of choice depends on level of personal innovativeness. Table 4 indicates clear support for H3, personal innovativeness strongly moderates the interface type effect on perceived choice simplicity. That is, the voice search benefit grows as customers are more open to experiment with technology. This is also substantiated by the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and UTAUT theories in which personal traits such as innovativeness enhance perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness (Davis, 1989; Venkatesh et al., 2003).

Table 4. Moderating effects of task complexity and personal innovativeness on the relationship between interface type and choice simplicity

Condition	Simple Slope (β)	p-value	Interaction Term (Interface \times Task Complexity)	SE	p-value (interaction)
Moderating effect of task complexity on the relationship between interface type and choice simplicity					
Low Task Complexity	0.59	< .001	$\beta = -0.41$	0.12	< .001
High Task Complexity	0.14	.21			
Moderating effect of personal innovativeness on the relationship between interface type and choice simplicity					
High Personal Innovativeness	0.61	< .001	$\beta = 0.36$	0.11	.002
Low Personal Innovativeness	0.22	.03			

Figure 2 illustrates how the effect of interface type on perceived choice simplicity varies with personal innovativeness. The benefit of voice search is more pronounced among individuals with high innovativeness compared to those with low innovativeness.

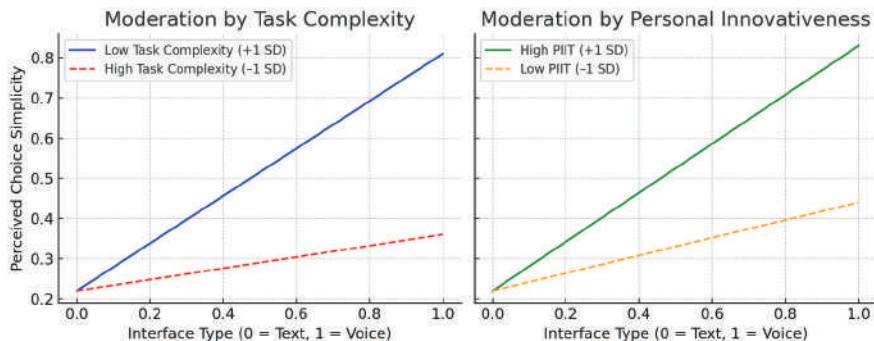


Fig 2. Simple slope analyses for task complexity and personal innovativeness

For those who are high in personal innovativeness (+1 SD above the mean), the interface type significantly affected perceived simplicity of choice ($\beta = 0.61$, $p < .001$). This suggests that as individuals are more open to new technology, they perceive decision simplicity as greater when utilizing voice search compared to text interfaces.

For low-scoring individuals on personal innovativeness (-1 SD), the interface type effect on choice simplicity was still statistically significant but reduced ($\beta = 0.22$, $p = .03$). Even less innovative users benefited from voice interfaces, though the effect was less pronounced.

Table 5. Hypotheses Testing and Decisions

Hypothesis	Statement	Key Test / Statistics	Decision
H1	Voice-based search increases perceived choice simplicity compared to text-based search.	Independent-samples t-test: $t(298) = 5.12$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.63$	Accepted
H2	Task complexity moderates the effect of interface type on perceived choice simplicity.	PROCESS Model 1: Interaction $\beta = -0.41$, SE = 0.12, $p < .001$. Simple slopes: low complexity $\beta = 0.59$, $p < .001$; high complexity $\beta = 0.14$, $p = .21$	Accepted
H3	Personal innovativeness moderates the effect of interface type on perceived choice simplicity.	PROCESS Model 1: Interaction $\beta = 0.36$, SE = 0.11, $p = .002$. Simple slopes: high PIIT $\beta = 0.61$, $p < .001$; low PIIT $\beta = 0.22$, $p = .03$	Accepted

All hypotheses were supported at the 0.05 significance level. Statistical tests used include independent-samples t-test for H1 and PROCESS Model 1 moderation analyses for H2 and H3 (Hayes, 2022).

5. Discussion

The goal of this research was to conceptually replicate and extend previous work interested in perceptions of cognitive and behavioral outcomes of voice-based search interfaces. As described by previous research (Lopatovska & Williams, 2018; Cambre et al., 2020), the results confirm that voice interfaces may create choice simplicity as perceived compared to traditional text-based systems. Importantly, the study extends beyond main effects specifically by exploring when and for whom this effect is created and discovers two moderators as most salient: task complexity and personal innovativeness.

5.1. Theoretical implications

First, the results support the theoretical tenets of Cognitive Load Theory (Sweller, 1988), which posits that learning and decision-making are facilitated when extraneous cognitive load is minimized. Voice interfaces, by providing a linear and guided form of interaction, reduce the mental effort associated with option search and selection, particularly in low-complexity contexts. This simplification contributes to a more manageable decision-making process, reflected in increased perceived choice simplicity (Huffman & Kahn, 1998).

Second, the findings extend Media Richness Theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986), which argues that richer media are better suited to tasks with higher levels of uncertainty or ambiguity. Although voice interfaces are inherently rich in human-like communication cues, their sequential structure may limit their usefulness in high-complexity tasks. This was evident in our moderation analysis: while voice search significantly improved choice simplicity in low-complexity tasks, its effect diminished in high-complexity settings. This result is aligned with previous interface studies suggesting that non-visual interfaces limit multi-option comparisons and require increased working memory capacity (Gove et al., 2012).

Third, the moderation by personal innovativeness in the domain of IT (PIIT) further contextualizes the boundary conditions of voice interface effectiveness. Highly innovative users reported stronger benefits from voice search, suggesting that user traits play a key role in shaping technology perception and effectiveness. This is consistent with Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) findings, where individual characteristics such as innovativeness amplify perceived ease of use and usefulness (Davis, 1989; Im, Bayus, & Mason, 2003). The role of PIIT is also emphasized in UTAUT (Venkatesh et al., 2003), which incorporates facilitating conditions and user readiness as predictors of behavioral intention.

By identifying these moderating mechanisms, the study contributes to a more contingent view of human-technology interaction, suggesting that the cognitive advantages of voice search are not universal but rather dependent on task structure and user profile. Such findings call for a more personalized and context-aware design of intelligent voice agents.

By coupling **Cognitive Load Theory** with **service-dominant logic**, our findings position voice search as a **value co-creation mechanism**, wherein simplified decision paths co-create efficiency and satisfaction with consumers.

5.2. Practical implications

From a UX and design strategy perspective, the findings suggest that voice interfaces are best used in low-complexity, habitual decision-making scenarios, such as reordering familiar products, checking prices, or adding to to-do lists. In these applications, the interface can reduce choices and limit friction in the consumer experience.

For highly complex tasks, however, voice-only interfaces may be insufficient. Users would benefit from hybrid or multimodal systems that combine voice input with visual output, allowing comparison of multiple options in parallel, a need amply documented in decision science (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson, 1993). This finding can inform the design of voice+screen ecosystems in smart home devices, mobile commerce and automotive applications.

Finally, the study demonstrates the value of user segmentation based on personal innovativeness. Computer interfaces can leverage behavioral and psychographic data to adapt interface modes dynamically, subjecting early adopters to voice-first interfaces while working lesser innovative customers through more traditional modalities. This aligns with adaptive personalization strategies to digital marketing (Tam & Ho, 2005; Kumar et al., 2022), wherein user attributes inform interface experience customization. This is also aligned with omni-channel strategy literature highlighting the value of seamless channel orchestration (Verhoef, Kannan, & Inman 2015; Brynjolfsson, Hu, & Rahman 2013).

- Omni-channel orchestration: Integrate voice with visual comparison layers in high-complexity product groups (e.g., electronics) to prevent choice overload.
- Segmentation playbook: Real-time detection of PIIT level to activate voice-first journey vs. visual-rich journey with the goal of increasing marketing ROI.
- Platform competitiveness: For platforms, multimodal search diminishes switching intent, enhancing platform stickiness and long-term customer equity.

5.3. Limitations and future research

Some of the limitations leave avenues for future research. First, while the simulated shopping task mimicked a realistic digital environment, the study was still based on a single-interaction, controlled design. Future research could utilize field experiments or diary studies to track longitudinal

patterns of use and real-world behavior (e.g., real purchase conversion, task abandonment).

Second, the study only used perceived ease of choice as the outcome variable. Future models may incorporate mediators such as trust, satisfaction, or cognitive fluency (Gefen et al., 2003), or explore outcomes such as real buying behavior or brand engagement.

Third, other possible moderating variables, e.g., voice assistant sex, trust in AI, privacy concern, or contextual setting, were not considered but might conceivably combine with the voice interface effectiveness (Waytz, Heafner, & Epley, 2014; Moussawi et al., 2021).

Finally, cultural variations were not addressed in this research but may be of specific interest given how technology adoption and privacy norms vary in societies. Replication across cultures would enhance generalizability and reveal how interface perceptions are determined by cultural schemas (Hofstede, 2001; Okazaki et al., 2020).

6. Conclusion

This study contributes to the growing literature on voice-based search interfaces by conceptually replicating earlier findings while sampling two critical boundary conditions: personal innovativeness and task complexity. Using a controlled experimental design, we confirmed that voice interfaces enhance perceived choice simplicity over traditional text-based search, a finding in agreement with earlier literature but further clarifying under what conditions this effect occurs.

Specifically, the utility of voice search is strongest with low-complexity decision-making tasks, where the linear, oral nature of the interface lends itself to efficient cognitive processing. The strength of voice search also increases among consumers with high personal innovativeness, who can be more comfortable with untested technology. These findings confirm that interface effects are not universally experienced, but depend on the task and the user.

By mimicking and building on past work, this study emphasizes the resilience of voice-interface advantage while contributing richer theoretical models such as Cognitive Load Theory, Media Richness Theory and the Technology Acceptance Model. It also calls for increasingly nuanced knowledge of how human–AI interaction is shaped by dispositional and contextual variables. As voice-commerce penetrates increasingly further into

daily life, such knowledge is needed for creating inclusive, adaptive and user-adapted interface designs.

Future studies need to explore these dynamics across various user populations, types of decisions and interface modes in order to develop a more comprehensive model of digital decision support systems. Longitudinal and behavioral data also can offer more insight into how voice technology drives not only perception but long-term usage and behavior in the field as well.

In general, the chapter offers actionable points of advice to marketing strategists, showcasing how interface design decisions map onto measurable funnel metrics—from reduced abandonment rates to increased purchase intentions—yet enriches theoretical discussions of digital customer experience and conversational commerce.

References

Agarwal, R. and J. Prasad. 1998. "A Conceptual and Operational Definition of Personal Innovativeness in the Domain of Information Technology." *Information Systems Research* 9 (2): 204–15. <https://doi.org/10.1287/isre.9.2.204>.

Aiken, L. S. and S. G. West. 1991. *Multiple Regression: Testing and Interpreting Interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Bettman, J. R., M. F. Luce and J. W. Payne. 1998. "Constructive Consumer Choice Processes." *Journal of Consumer Research* 25 (3): 187–217. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209535>.

Brynjolfsson, Erik, Yu (Jeffrey) Hu, and Mohammad S. Rahman. 2013. "Competing in the Age of Omnichannel Retailing." *MIT Sloan Management Review* 54 (4): 23–29.

Cambre, J., J. Colnago, J. Maddock, J. Tsai and J. Kaye. 2020. "Choice of Voices: A Large-Scale Evaluation of Text-to-Speech Voice Quality for Long-Form Content." In *Proceedings of the 2020 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, 1–13. New York: ACM.

Campbell, D. J. 1988. "Task Complexity: A Review and Analysis." *Academy of Management Review* 13 (1): 40–52.

Daft, R. L. and R. H. Lengel. 1986. "Organizational Information Requirements, Media Richness and Structural Design." *Management Science* 32 (5): 554–71.

Davis, F. D. 1989. "Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Ease of Use and User Acceptance of Information Technology." *MIS Quarterly* 13 (3): 319–40. <https://doi.org/10.2307/249008>.

DeVellis, R. F. 2016. *Scale Development: Theory and Applications*. 4th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Featherman, M. S., R. T. Wright, J. B. Thatcher and J. C. Zimmer. 2011. "Consumer Perceptions of Internet Information Privacy." *Information Systems Journal* 20 (3): 255–84.

Gefen, D., E. Karahanna and D. W. Straub. 2003. "Trust and TAM in Online Shopping: An Integrated Model." *MIS Quarterly* 27 (1): 51–90. <https://doi.org/10.2307/30036519>.

Gove, N. R., R. Bedi and R. Bhor. 2012. "Optimum Thought Translation Using Intelligent BCI." In *2012 4th International Conference on Intelligent Human Computer Interaction (IHCI)*, 1–6. IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/IHCI.2012.6481830>.

Hagiu, Andrei, and Julian Wright. 2015. "Multi-Sided Platforms." *International Journal of Industrial Organization* 43: 162–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijindorg.2015.03.003>

Hair, J. F., G. T. M. Hult, C. M. Ringle and M. Sarstedt. 2022. *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Haubl, G. and V. Trifts. 2000. "Consumer Decision Making in Online Shopping Environments: The Effects of Interactive Decision Aids." *Marketing Science* 19 (1): 4–21.

Hayes, A. F. 2022. *Introduction to Mediation, Moderation and Conditional Process Analysis: A Regression-Based Approach*. 3rd ed. New York: Guilford Press.

Hayes, A. F. and N. J. Rockwood. 2020. "Conditional Process Analysis: Concepts, Computation and Advances in the Modeling of the Contingencies of Mechanisms." *American Behavioral Scientist* 64 (1): 19–54. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764219859633>.

Hellwig, P., V. Buchholz, S. Kopp and G. W. Maier. 2023. "Let the User Have a Say, Voice in Automated Decision-Making." *Computers in Human Behavior* 138: 107446.

Hofstede, G. 2001. *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions and Organizations across Nations*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Hoy, M. B. 2018. "Alexa, Siri, Cortana and More: An Introduction to Voice Assistants." *Medical Reference Services Quarterly* 37 (1): 81–88. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02763869.2018.1404391>.

Huffman, C. and B. E. Kahn. 1998. "Variety for Sale: Mass Customization or Mass Confusion?" *Journal of Retailing* 74 (4): 491–513. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359\(99\)80105-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359(99)80105-5).

Im, S., B. L. Bayus and C. H. Mason. 2003. "An Empirical Study of Innate Consumer Innovativeness, Personal Characteristics and New-Product Adoption Behavior." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 31 (1): 61–73. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070302238602>.

Iyengar, S. S. and M. R. Lepper. 2000. "When Choice Is Demotivating: Can One Desire Too Much of a Good Thing?" *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 79 (6): 995–1006.

Kiseleva, J., K. Williams, A. Hassan Awadallah, A. C. Crook, I. Zitouni and T. Anastasakos. 2016. "Predicting User Satisfaction with Intelligent Assistants." In *Proceedings of the 39th International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*, 45–54. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2911451.2911521>.

Kumar, V., A. Dixit, R. G. Javalgi, M. Dass and S. B. Borah. 2022. "Digital Transformation of Customer Engagement: A Framework for B2B Firms." *Journal of Business Research* 142: 275–89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.12.081>.

Lemon, Katherine N., and Peter C. Verhoef. 2016. "Understanding Customer Experience throughout the Customer Journey." *Journal of Marketing* 80 (6): 69–96. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jm.15.0420>.

Lopatovska, I. and H. Williams. 2018. "Personification of the Amazon Alexa: BFF or a Mindless Companion." In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Human Information Interaction & Retrieval*, 265–68. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3176349.3176868>.

Melumad, S. 2023. "Vocalizing Search: How Voice Technologies Alter Consumer Search Processes and Satisfaction." *Journal of Consumer Research* 50 (3): 533–53. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jcr/ucad009>.

Moussawi, S., R. Benbunan-Fich and X. R. Luo. 2021. "Trust Development in Voice AI: A Multi-Study Investigation of Alexa." *Information Systems Journal* 31 (2): 256–84. <https://doi.org/10.1111/isj.12294>.

Myers, C., A. Furqan, J. Nebolsky, K. Caro and J. Zhu. 2018. "Patterns for How Users Overcome Obstacles in Voice User Interfaces." In *Proceedings of the 2018 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3173574.3173580>.

Nunnally, J. C. 1978. *Psychometric Theory*. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Okazaki, S., A. Katsukura and M. Nishiyama. 2020. "How Mobile Advertising Works: A Meta-Analysis on Influencing Factors." *International Journal of Advertising* 39 (4): 489–516. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.2019.1663025>.

Payne, J. W., J. R. Bettman and E. J. Johnson. 1993. *The Adaptive Decision Maker*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Perdue, B. C. and J. O. Summers. 1986. "Checking the Success of Manipulations in Marketing Experiments." *Journal of Marketing Research* 23 (4): 317–26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378602300403>.

Petty, R. E. and J. T. Cacioppo. 1986. *The Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion*. New York: Academic Press.

Sun, H. and P. Zhang. 2006. "The Role of Moderating Factors in User Technology Acceptance." *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies* 64 (2): 53–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhcs.2005.04.013>.

Sweller, J. 1988. "Cognitive Load during Problem Solving: Effects on Learning." *Cognitive Science* 12 (2): 257–85. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0364-0213\(88\)90023-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0364-0213(88)90023-7).

Tam, K. Y. and S. Y. Ho. 2005. "Web Personalization as a Persuasion Strategy: An Elaboration Likelihood Model Perspective." *Information Systems Research* 16 (3): 271–91. <https://doi.org/10.1287/isre.1050.0058>.

Venkatesh, V., M. G. Morris, G. B. Davis and F. D. Davis. 2003. "User Acceptance of Information Technology: Toward a Unified View." *MIS Quarterly* 27 (3): 425–78. <https://doi.org/10.2307/30036540>.

Verhoef, Peter C., P. K. Kannan, and J. Jeffrey Inman. 2015. "From Multi-Channel Retailing to Omni-Channel Retailing: Introduction to the Special Issue on Multi-Channel Retailing." *Journal of Retailing* 91 (2): 174–81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2015.02.005>

Waytz, A., J. Heafner and N. Epley. 2014. "The Mind in the Machine: Anthropomorphism Increases Trust in an Autonomous Vehicle." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 52: 113–17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2014.01.005>.

Appendix: Survey Instrument

This questionnaire investigates how different search interfaces influence product selection experiences. All items were measured on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree) unless otherwise indicated.

Part 1 – Demographic Information

1. Age: ___ (years)

2. Gender

- Male
- Female
- Prefer not to say
- Other (please specify): _____

Part 2 – Experimental Conditions (*recorded by the researcher*)

- Interface type: Voice Text
- Task complexity: Low High

Part 3 – Personal Innovativeness (Agarwal & Prasad, 1998)

1. I enjoy experimenting with new information technologies.
2. If I heard about a new information technology, I would look for ways to experiment with it.
3. Among my peers, I am usually the first to try out new information technologies.
4. I like to experiment with new information technologies.

Part 4 – Perceived Choice Simplicity (Huffman & Kahn, 1998)

1. I found the product selection process simple and manageable.

2. It was easy for me to understand my choices.
3. The selection task required little mental effort.
4. Overall, selecting a product felt straightforward.

Part 5 – Behavioral Intention (Venkatesh et al., 2003)

1. I would consider purchasing the product I selected.
2. I am likely to choose this product in the future.
3. I would recommend this product selection method to others.

Manipulation Checks

- “I used a voice-based interface during this task.”
- “The decision task was complex and required significant effort.”

Innovation Spaces and Activating Embedded Knowledge: The Case of Krauss InnoHouse¹

Ezgi Baday Yıldız²

Abstract

The perception of space in innovation has always been a fascinating topic of interest in innovation research. There is extensive evidence that physical and virtual environments can positively influence individuals' ability to generate ideas and collaborate. For these reasons, this section defines the innovation space as a critical component of corporate innovation systems. Accordingly, this chapter aims to answer the question of what characteristics an innovation space should possess. A case-based qualitative methodology has been used for this purpose. This qualitative method is primarily based on observations obtained from consultancy experience acquired through the Türkiye Exporters Assembly (TIM) InoSuit Program. In addition, the research question is also addressed through a literature review. Based on findings from the observations and the literature review, an innovation space has been developed for an export/manufacturing company. This innovation space, called Krauss InnoHouse, is presented as a case study in this section. The main finding is that the originality of the developed innovation space is activating embedded knowledge. Two essential roles have been identified in activating embedded knowledge: i) the knowledge broker role undertaken by the innovation space, and ii) the knowledge worker role undertaken by experienced employees.

1 Krauss InnoHouse was developed within the scope of the InoSuit Program of the Türkiye Exporters Assembly (TIM). The project was awarded among “Best Practices in Innovation Management” at Turkey Innovation Week 2024 (TIW24). The author thanks the company’s innovation ambassadors Ali Baştürk and Ahmet Taner Baştürk, and the InoSuit academic board for their contributions.

2 Assoc. Prof., Karadeniz Technical University, eyildiz@ktu.edu.tr, ORCID ID: 0000-0002-5975-3803

Introduction

Innovation is a multidimensional phenomenon resulting from the interaction of various elements within an ecosystem. This is clearly evident in studies examining firms' innovation performance (Dindaroglu et al., 2017; Yıldız and Dindaroglu, 2019). At the heart of these variables are people, spaces, and their interactions. Therefore, companies today aim to develop non-hierarchical, inclusive idea and suggestion systems within their corporate innovation management systems. Given that critical information leading to genuine innovation comes from within the organization (Penn et al. 1999:195), innovations tend to come from the grassroots (Bierwiaczonek and Pyka, 2023: 682), or that bottom-up management systems encourage innovation and entrepreneurship (Li, 2023:158), this can be considered a very accurate approach. Indeed, the most powerful improvements in a given field are provided by those who directly contribute to that field.

In this context, companies are increasingly adopting platform-based structures to coordinate information flow. Physical or symbolic innovation spaces, ranging from production areas to in-house centers, facilitate creativity, collaboration, and knowledge integration. Whether located within the organization or in a separate location, the physical, sensory, and organizational characteristics of these spaces shape not only how employees work, but also how they think, interact, and generate ideas.

In this section, innovation spaces are defined as an essential component of corporate innovation systems. The most important reason is that the innovation space fosters a culture of innovation among employees by increasing the capacity of the idea and suggestion system. It has been observed that, in companies mentored under the Türkiye Exporters Assembly (TIM) InoSuit Program, this approach supports employee participation in the innovation system and strengthens innovation outcomes.

The question is: What characteristics should an innovation space possess to enhance the performance of the corporate innovation system?

A case-based qualitative methodology has been used for this purpose. This qualitative method is primarily based on observations obtained from consultancy experience acquired through the Türkiye Exporters Assembly (TIM) InoSuit Program. In addition, the research question is also addressed through a literature review. Based on findings from the observations and the literature review, an innovation space has been developed for an export/manufacturing company. This innovation space, called Krauss InnoHouse, is presented as a case study in this section. Krauss InnoHouse has been

physically established by restoring the firm's old, inactive administrative building at the entrance to the new production facility, and has distinguished itself from others due to its strong corporate memory and ability to activate embedded knowledge.

The following section first presents a conceptual framework regarding the characteristics of the innovation space. The case of Krauss InnoHouse follows this. The section concludes with a discussion of the originality of Krauss InnoHouse in activating established knowledge within the innovation space, and the presentation of the results

1. The Conceptual Background

1.1. Definition of Innovation Space

According to the Oxford Lerner's Dictionary, one meaning of "space" is a place, especially a room or a building that can be used for a particular purpose. While the concept of space, in its dictionary definition, refers to "the place where one is located," in a broader sense, it also encompasses workplaces, locations, environments, surroundings, or regional (spatial) structures. The term "spatial" has been omitted in this chapter because it is primarily used in analyses of regional innovation systems, whereas here the focus is on the innovation spaces associated with corporate innovation systems and organizational practices.

According to Oksanen and Stahle (2013:824), innovative spaces are defined as catalysts for developing a diverse range of capabilities (e.g., improving communication, reconfiguring resources) within an organization. Bloom and Faulkner (2016:1374) define 'innovation spaces' as physical or virtual spaces that enable and support the creative problem-solving of those who participate in the space. Moultrie et al (2017) define innovation space as physical areas that reflect a firm's strategic intentions toward innovation and its desired mode of operation. Wagner and Watch (2017) define innovation spaces as physical manifestations of economic, demographic, and cultural forces. Highlighting the importance of innovation spaces in collaborative innovation. Caccamo (2020:178) states that innovation spaces, which bring together multiple actors to produce new products and processes, provide firms with opportunities for convergence, productivity, socialization, and collaborative learning. Klooster and Hözl (2024:324) define space as an enacted place, drawing on De Certeau (1984).

Drawing on definitions from the literature, *this chapter defines the innovation space* as a physical, collaborative workspace that brings together

diverse actors within the corporate innovation management system to drive innovation and is designed to foster employees' creativity and idea generation.

1.2. What characteristics should an innovation space possess?

To answer the question in the title, a review of the literature and definitions of innovation space makes it possible to reach the answers as follows:

i. Physical space versus virtual space

While definitions in the literature generally refer to a physical space, post-pandemic research has shown that virtual meetings and online collaboration tools offer a powerful alternative to face-to-face interaction. On the other hand, Wagner and Watch (2017: 7) emphasize the growing importance of face-to-face communication as collaboration becomes increasingly crucial in advancing innovation, and due to the necessity of conveying both tacit and highly complex information. There is also evidence that well-designed physical environments increase creative synergy more than virtual environments (Nabergoj and Uršič, 2024:1) or that video conferencing hinders the production of innovative ideas (Brucks and Levav, 2022:302). Therefore, virtual spaces are not replacements for physical spaces, but rather complements to them.

ii. Physical characteristics of the innovation space

The relevant literature generally indicates that the physical environment supports innovation outcomes by enhancing individuals' creative thinking. Furthermore, a place's physical characteristics increase its potential for work performance. Therefore, literature on the physical characteristics of an innovation environment assumes a unidirectional effect, focusing on factors that enhance employee creativity (Klooker and Hölzle, 2024:324). Thus, what is meant here is not only material elements, such as architectural features and interior design, but also social factors, such as visual stimuli and social spaces.

Examples of physical characteristics include light, furniture, visual stimulation, indoor plants, windows, air quality, sounds, odors, noise levels, technical support, etc. Visual stimulation and social space are prominent (Lee and Lee, 2023: 47). Meinel et al. (2017) also contribute to the architecture and interior design of an innovation space. According to the empirical results of their research, both tangible elements of space (positive sounds and smells, the use of plants in the workspace, both low-tech and high-tech office equipment) and intangible elements (personalization of the workspace, flexible furniture, dedicated areas for rest, and social interaction among employees) clearly

encourage creativity. Kristensen (2004) state that physical space affects people's well-being, information channels, the availability of information tools, and prepares the ground for creativity, and they argue that the space requirements differ in the different stages of creative processes defined as value creation, scaffolding, imagination, and materialization. Cirella and Yström (2018:12), based on a case study, presented the positive characteristics of the innovation space. These include building a shared identity, articulating a clear and consistent mission and vision, promoting specific values, designing structured processes for creative work, and creating an arena for idea sharing, debate, and networking.

iii. Social characteristics of the innovation space

This section reviews research that moves beyond a one-sided focus on the physical characteristics of innovation spaces, instead examining their impact on social processes such as two-way learning, collaboration, creative teamwork, and organizational culture.

Lewis and Moultrie (2005) define innovation spaces, called innovation laboratories, as facilities specifically designed to encourage users' creative behavior and support innovative projects. Researchers conclude that innovation labs strengthen companies' commitment to innovation and creativity by providing a physical manifestation of the concepts of dynamic capabilities and double-loop learning (Lewis and Moultrie, 2005:73). Stating that the relationship between innovation spaces and innovativeness is strong, Oksanen and Ståhle (2013) presented five characteristics of an innovative space. These are communicativeness, modifiability, smartness, attractiveness, and value reflection. According to Oksanen and Ståhle (2013: 820), a creative space highlights teamwork and the communicative aspects of work and study (it supports collaboration), is creatively designed (it is attractive), and reflects the personality and values of users. Weingber et al. (2014) argue that a flexible work environment enables teams to innovate, create, and design, and they refer to this space as innovation workshops. In addition, they emphasize that the opportunity to develop one's own team space proves highly beneficial for innovation teams. Wagner and Watch (2017: 7) emphasize that aligning organizational goals, culture, and people to produce a supportive and enabling design will lead to success, noting that innovation space designs are evolving toward open, flexible configurations to facilitate open innovation and collaboration (Wagner and Watch, 2017: 15). On the other hand, Maslikowska and Gibbert (2019), in their study examining the role of congruence in the relationship between workspace design and organizational culture, show that overall congruence between

space and culture is insufficient to yield positive outcomes. This research differs in that it shows that focusing solely on the relationship between space and organizational culture yields ambiguous results.

iv. *The socio-material perspective*

This approach, proposed by Caccamo (2020:179), combines the social dimension of Ollila and Yström (2016), which emphasizes relationships between actors, with the material dimension of Cirella and Yström (2018), which emphasizes creative environments. This socio-material approach emphasizes that the social and material elements of the innovation space are equally important (Klooker and Hölzle, 2024:327). Furthermore, according to Caccamo (2020), collaborative innovation can occur only in a “transitional space” that allows multiple perspectives and cognitive exchange. Adopting a socio-material approach, Klooker and Hölzle (2024) argue that innovation space, which they call the “in-between space,” cannot be intentionally designed; instead, it evolves. In addition, they put forward that the generative design of a collaborative innovation space involves three dimensions: Designing a workspace for collaborative innovation, adopting a collaborative-participatory design approach, and creating a generative reflection practice (Klooker and Hölzle, 2024:339).

1.3. Innovation Space Design for Activating Embedded Knowledge

According to the Oxford Lerner’s Dictionary, embeddedness refers to the degree to which an activity, an organization, or a relationship is influenced by the social or cultural environment in which it occurs or exists. *Embedded knowledge* refers to knowledge embedded within processes, products, rules, and procedures, beyond that represented in documents and in the embodied wisdom and experience of individuals (Gamble and Blackwell, 2001: 17).

In other words, embedded knowledge is the implicit elaboration of past experiences, successes/failures, lessons learned, or collective memory rules into processes, products, organizational culture, or ethical principles. In this way, embedded knowledge develops its own unique, implicit processes.

The dialectical negotiation over time of distinctive skills, know-how, practices, and values creates shared organizational routines that become socially accepted and adopted by members. This process creates an organizational culture in which tacit elements may eventually become more important than explicit ones in fostering innovation (Bertola and Teixeira, 2003: 182).

Erkelens et al (2015:180) argue that when knowledge is embedded in people and practices, its transfer between different locations and practices can occur through knowledge workers. Thus, he points out that embedded knowledge can contribute to organizational learning (Erkelens et al, 2015: 192). Similarly, Andersen (2013) noted that embedded knowledge enhances the development of specialized skills through knowledge transfer. According to Andersen (2013), embedded knowledge is a framework for innovation and an essential prerequisite for high performance.

In this context, activating embedded knowledge means transferring knowledge already situated in people, applications, or places. Erkelens et al. (2015) and Andersen (2013) identify “knowledge workers” as the agents enabling the transfer of embedded knowledge. On the other hand, Bertola and Teixeira (2003: 182) argue that design is used as a strategic tool to access embedded knowledge. In this context, they define design primarily as a ‘knowledge broker’ that encourages the flow of knowledge from outside to inside organizations. In this approach, any design that can represent culture, whether traditionally or historically, can be considered a “knowledge broker”.

In light of this information, this section defines the design of innovation space as a “knowledge broker” and experienced and senior employees as “knowledge workers”.

2. Methodology

This section adopts a case-based qualitative methodology. This qualitative method is primarily based on observations gained from consultancy experience acquired through the Türkiye Exporters Assembly (TIM) InoSuit Program. The “InoSuit Program,” based on university-industry collaboration, aims to sustainably develop innovation management competencies in TIM member companies, to create and strengthen innovation management infrastructure, and to design and implement corporate innovation systems tailored to each institution’s specific goals, structure, and needs.

Additionally, a literature review is presented seeking to answer the question, “What characteristics should an innovation space possess to enhance the performance of the corporate innovation system?” In answering this question, the focus has been on the literature concerning the interaction of innovation space, employee creativity, and knowledge transfer. Using findings from the literature review, an innovation space has been developed for an exporting/manufacturing company. This innovation space, called Krauss InnoHouse, is presented as a case in this chapter.

2.1. The Case of Krauss InnoHouse

Krauss InnoHouse is an organizational innovation that marks the signature of a manufacturing company that participated in and successfully completed the TIM InoSuit Program. The company's blue-collar workers' insufficient use of technology led to the design of physical environments rather than virtual ones for idea-sharing processes. Krauss InnoHouse has been established through the accumulation of knowledge gained from a review of relevant scientific literature and an examination of various innovation spaces.

2.2. Characteristics of the Krauss InnoHouse

Krauss InnoHouse has been established by restoring the old, inactive administrative building at the entrance to the new production facility. Initially, the building was reinforced while preserving the old architectural structure. Then, elements derived from the literature that could enhance employee creativity have been integrated into the space.

In the *physical interior design*, comfortable furniture, non-glare lighting, and painting (Lee and Lee, 2023) have been used to maintain a cozy and attractive atmosphere (Oksanen and Stähle, 2013). Plants have been used both within and around the space (Meinel et al., 2017). Both low-tech office equipment for blue-collar workers and high-tech office equipment for researchers and engineers have been installed (Meinel et al., 2017). In addition to sensory stimuli such as light, sound, smell, and texture, sensory stimulation of an innovative culture, such as visuals emphasizing the value of creative ideas, has been integrated into the space.

To enhance interaction among employees and foster a collaborative work environment (Klooker and Hözle, 2024), a *socio-material perspective* has been adopted, treating social and material elements as equally important (Caccamo, 2020). To increase employee interaction, shared social spaces, such as break and rest areas, have been created around the innovation area. These social spaces have enabled employees to relax without leaving the innovation area, and conversations during tea and coffee breaks have become innovation-related. It has been observed that these social spaces have, over time, transformed into *informal meeting areas*.

Krauss InnoHouse's *location* at the entrance of the production facility has attracted the attention of ecosystem stakeholders, including customers, suppliers, and researchers. Its warm and friendly atmosphere has encouraged these stakeholders to contribute to the idea/suggestion system. The suggestion boxes and easily accessible virtual suggestion system located here have fostered collaboration.

The firm at the center of the case study, despite its strong production and financial structure, had areas for improvement in its corporate innovation management system. Therefore, in establishing the innovation space, various tools have been developed to improve the corporate innovation system simultaneously, and numerous organizational innovations have been implemented. *The transfer of the developed tools to the corporate innovation system has primarily been conducted through Krauss InnoHouse.*

In this context, regular training sessions *and idea-sharing workshops* (Cirella and Yström, 2018) have been organized to create and disseminate a culture of innovation within the firm. At Krauss InnoHouse, these activities have become routine. *Face-to-face training sessions* and workshops have made it easier for blue-collar and senior staff, who are unable to adapt to virtual environments, to participate in the idea and suggestion system. *This has led to the creation of a more inclusive system.*

Announcements regarding the *Incentive/Reward System*, which governs monetary rewards for employees' contributions to the innovation system, are displayed visually at Krauss InnoHouse. In this way, users are honored (Oksanen and Stähle, 2013), and the value the company provides is made visible (Cirella and Yström, 2018).

Finally, the most essential feature of Krauss InnoHouse is its ability to activate embedded knowledge. This unique aspect of Krauss InnoHouse will be discussed in the following section.

3. Discussion on the Originality of Krauss InnoHouse: Activating of Embedded Knowledge through an Innovation Space

Krauss InnoHouse was physically established by restoring the old, unused administrative building at the entrance to the new production facility. This choice to transform the old administrative building into an innovation space gave it a unique character. This structure became a physical representation of the embedded knowledge. By changing the company's first campus building into an innovation space, Krauss InnoHouse has established connections that enabled the activation of embedded knowledge. Two channels exist here:

I) *The role of knowledge worker:* Those who worked here for many years have associated this building with personal memories; stories such as their first salaries, first work experiences, and old production processes have created a strong emotional bond with the place. *This bond has supported the development of specialized skills by increasing the voluntary participation of experienced and knowledgeable knowledge workers in the innovation process, enabling the transfer of embedded knowledge.*

II) ***The role of knowledge broker:*** When knowledge becomes ingrained among the people working in the innovation space, each with unique experiences and skills, the field becomes highly attractive to both company employees and the labor market. Because knowledge is personalized and embedded in those who possess it, its dissemination occurs through the labor market. This is the fundamental reason for being there (Mariussen and Asheim, 2003: 73). *This attractiveness has enabled the innovation space to act as a knowledge broker and to facilitate the transfer of embedded knowledge.*

Conclusion

In this section, innovation space is defined as a fundamental component of corporate innovation systems. The most important reason is that the innovation space fosters an innovation culture among employees by increasing the capacity of the idea and suggestion system. For these reasons, this section aims to answer the question, “What characteristics should an innovation space possess to improve the performance of a corporate innovation system?” To this end, a case-based qualitative methodology has been adopted. This qualitative method is primarily based on observations obtained from consultancy experience acquired through the Türkiye Exporters Assembly (TIM) InoSuit Program.

On the other hand, a literature review has been conducted to answer the research question. Based on findings from the observations and the literature review, an innovation space has been developed for an export/manufacturing company. This innovation space, called Krauss InnoHouse, is presented as a case study in this section.

The main results obtained are summarized as follows:

- First, virtual spaces do not replace physical spaces; rather, they complement them.
- The location of the innovation space should attract the attention of ecosystem stakeholders, including customers, suppliers, and researchers.
- Social elements are as crucial as physical elements in the design of the innovation space.
- It is recommended that the architecture and interior design of the innovation space support innovative ideas and that sensory stimuli be incorporated into the physical space.

- It is recommended to create social areas that support regular training sessions, idea-sharing workshops, an Incentive/Reward System, and informal meetings.
- It has been determined that the original feature of the developed innovation space is its ability to activate embedded knowledge. Two essential roles have been identified in activating embedded knowledge: i) the knowledge broker role undertaken by the innovation space, and ii) the knowledge worker role undertaken by experienced employees.
- Finally, activating embedded knowledge within the innovation space has increased voluntary participation in the innovation process, supported the development of specialized skills, significantly enhanced the capacity of the idea/suggestion system within the corporate innovation system, and ensured the spread and establishment of an innovation culture among employees.

References

Andersen, K. V. (2013). The problem of embeddedness revisited: Collaboration and market types. *Research Policy*, 42(1), 139-148. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2012.05.005>

Bertola, P. and Teixeira, J. C. (2003). Design as a knowledge agent: How design as a knowledge process is embedded into organizations to foster innovation. *Design Studies*, 24(2), 181-194. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0142-694X\(02\)00036-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0142-694X(02)00036-4)

Bierwiaczonek, K. and Pyka, R. (2023). An innovation place model for the analysis of creativity and social innovativeness in selected French and Polish metropolises. *Creativity Studies*, 16(2), 682-707. <https://doi.org/10.3846/cs.2023.17043>

Bloom, L. and Faulkner, R. (2016). Innovation spaces: lessons from the United Nations. *Third World Quarterly*, 37(8), 1371-1387. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01436597.2015.1135730>

Brucks, M. S. and Levav, J. (2022). Virtual communication curbs creative idea generation. *Nature*, 605(7908), 108-112. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-04643-y>

Caccamo, M. (2020). Leveraging innovation spaces to foster collaborative innovation. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 29(1), 178-191. <https://doi.org/10.1111/caim.12357>

Cirella, S. and Yström, A. (2018). Creativity and science parks: more than just a physical platform?. *CERN IdeaSquare Journal of Experimental Innovation*, 2(1), 8-13. <https://doi.org/10.23726/cij.2018.752>

Dindaroglu, Y., Yıldız, E. B. and Kalca, A. (2017). Regional Innovation Competition Index Relating to University Spin-Off Companies: The Case of Turkish Nuts 1 Regions. *The Journal of International Scientific Researches*, 2(5), 24-34. <https://doi.org/10.23834/isrjournal.293056>

Erkelens, R., van den Hooff, B., Huysman, M. and Vlaar, P. (2015). Learning from locally embedded knowledge: Facilitating organizational learning in geographically dispersed settings. *Global Strategy Journal*, 5(2), 177-197. <https://doi.org/10.1002/gsj.1092>

Gamble, P. R., Blackwell, J. (2001). *Knowledge Management: A State of the Art Guide*. First Publication, London, United Kingdom: Kogan Page Limited.

Klooker, M., Hözle, K. (2024). A generative design of collaborative innovation space. *R&D Management*, 54(2), 323-346. <https://doi.org/10.1111/radm.12582>

Kristensen, T. (2004). The physical context of creativity. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 13(2), 89-96. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-1690.2004.00297.x>

Lee, J. H., Lee, S. (2023). Relationships between physical environments and creativity: A scoping review. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 48, 101276. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2023.101276>

Lewis, M. and Moultrie, J. (2005). The organizational innovation laboratory. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 14(1), 73-83. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8691.2005.00327.x>

Li, Y. (2023). The influence of top-down mode and bottom-up mode to national innovation and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Innovation and Development*, 2(3), 158-161. [10.54097/jid.v2i3.7640](https://doi.org/10.54097/jid.v2i3.7640)

Mariussen, Å., and Asheim, B. T. (2003). Innovation systems, institutions and space. *Innovations, Regions and Projects: Studies in New Forms of Knowledge Governance*. First Publication, Stockholm: Nordregio.

Maślikowska, M. and Gibbert, M. (2019). The relationship between working spaces and organizational cultures. *Facilities*, 37(13/14), 1153-1165. <https://doi.org/10.1108/F-06-2018-0072>

Meinel, M., Maier, L., Wagner, T. and Voigt, K. I. (2017). Designing creativity-enhancing workspaces: A critical look at empirical evidence. *Journal of Technology and Innovation Management*, 1(1). Available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3051058>

Moultrie, J., Nilsson, M., Dissel, M., Haner, U. E., Janssen, S. and Van der Lugt, R. (2007). Innovation spaces: Towards a framework for understanding the role of the physical environment in innovation. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 16(1), 53-65. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8691.2007.00419.x>

Nabergoj, A. S. and Uršič, T. (2024). *Designing for Creativity: Harnessing Visual Thinking and Collaboration in Hybrid Workspaces*. In 2024 28th International Conference Information Visualisation (IV) (pp. 302-307). IEEE.

Oksanen, K. and Stähle, P. (2013). Physical environment as a source for innovation: investigating the attributes of innovative space. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 17(6), 815-827. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JKM-04-2013-0136>

Ollila, S. and Yström, A. (2016). Exploring design principles of organizing for collaborative innovation: The case of an open innovation initiative. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 25, 363-377. <https://doi.org/10.1111/caim.12177>

Oxford Lerner's Dictionaries <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com>. [Access date: 15.12.2025]

Penn, A., Desyllas, J. and Vaughan, L. (1999). The space of innovation: interaction and communication in the work environment. *Environment and Planning B: Urban Analytics and City Science*, 26(2), 193-218. <https://doi.org/10.1068/b4225>

Wagner, J. and Watch, D. (2017) *Innovation spaces: the new Design of Work*. In: Anne, T. and Robert, M. (eds), Bass Initiative on Innovation and Place-making. iBrookings.

Weinberg, U., Nicolai, C., Hüsam, D., Panayotova, D. and Klooker, M. (2014). *The impact of space on innovation teams*. In Proceedings of the 19th DMI: Academic Design Management Conference Design Management in an Era of Disruption London, 2–4 September 2014 Conference (pp. 902-923).

Yıldız, E. B. and Dindaroglu, Y. (2019). The Impact of Trabzon Regional Innovation System on Firm Innovation Performance. *International Journal of Economics and Innovation*, 5(2), 325-341. <https://doi.org/10.20979/ueyd.600971>

The Nexus Between Firms' Innovativeness and Export Performance: A Narrative Review of Practical Implications 8

Atike Elanur Hizarci¹

Aytuğ Sözüer²

Abstract

This review synthesizes practical implications found in empirical articles on the relationship between firms' innovativeness and export performance. The narrative review covers broad range of subjects such as the impact of various innovation types on export outcomes, firm capabilities and strategic orientations mediating export success, contextual moderators, and inferences for businesses. A systematic selection of empirical research spanning industries, regions, and methodologies was analysed to integrate evidence on innovation-export dynamics. Findings reveal that combined product, process, and organizational innovations consistently enhance export performance. Besides, firm-level capabilities such as absorptive capacity and managerial skills mediate those effects. Strategic orientations like export market focus and innovation integration critically drive export competitiveness as well. Moreover, contextual factors including country development, institutional environments, and industry characteristics significantly moderate innovation-export relationships. On the other hand, inconsistencies in conceptualization and limited longitudinal data constrain unified frameworks despite robust evidence. The synthesis underscores the need for integrated, context-sensitive strategies that align innovation capabilities with export objectives. These insights inform managerial decision-making by emphasizing tailored innovation portfolios and strategic orientations to optimize export performance, while highlighting gaps for future research on dynamic capabilities and multi-level contextual influences.

1 Res.Asst., Yalova University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, International Trade and Finance, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0575-0460>, atike.hizarci@yalova.edu.tr

2 Prof. Dr., Yalova University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, International Trade and Finance, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2680-2071>, aytug.sozuer@yalova.edu.tr



1. INTRODUCTION

Research on the relationship between firms' innovativeness and export performance has emerged as a critical area of inquiry due to the increasing globalization of markets and the strategic importance of innovation in achieving competitive advantage abroad (Bıçakçıoğlu-Peynirci et al., 2019; Love & Roper, 2015). Over the past decades, studies have evolved from examining isolated innovation activities to integrating innovation with export strategies, highlighting the role of innovation in enhancing export intensity and firm growth (Du et al., 2022; Freixanet, 2014). The significance of this field is underscored by data showing that innovative exporters, particularly SMEs, tend to grow faster and achieve higher productivity than non-innovators (Love & Roper, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2024). Moreover, the dynamic interplay between innovation types and export outcomes has practical relevance for firms seeking sustainable international success (Çalışkan & Aysan, 2025; Pinera-Salmeron et al., 2023).

Despite extensive research, a specific problem persists in understanding how innovation translates into improved export performance across diverse contexts (Chen et al., 2016; Chugan & Singh, 2014). The literature reveals fragmented findings and inconsistent empirical results regarding the strength and nature of this relationship, with debates on whether innovation drives export success or vice versa (Li, 2020; Kim, 2024). Some studies emphasize the mediating role of strategic orientations such as export market orientation and competitive advantage (Bıçakçıoğlu-Peynirci & İpek, 2020; Muhammad & Chelliah, 2023), while others highlight moderating factors like firm capabilities and country-level culture (Escandón et al., 2023; İpek, 2018). This fragmentation creates a knowledge gap in synthesizing practical insights for managers and policymakers aiming to leverage innovation for export growth (Chopra et al., 2024; Chabowski et al., 2018; Freixanet & Federo, 2023). The consequences of this gap include suboptimal resource allocation and missed opportunities for firms in international markets (Navaia et al., 2024).

Prior research highlights that product, process, organizational, and marketing innovations positively affect export performance, particularly when combined innovation strategies are employed. Product innovation, for instance, frequently enhances export pricing and quality, while process innovation supports operational efficiency, and organizational or marketing innovations facilitate market adaptability and customer engagement (Bıçakçıoğlu-Peynirci et al., 2019; Bogetoft et al., 2024; Carboni & Medda, 2024; Mathias et al., 2024; Pinera-Salmeron et al., 2023).

Beyond the types of innovation themselves, firm-level capabilities are crucial, as factors like absorptive capacity, innovation persistence, managerial competencies, and export market orientation mediate the innovation-export link. These capabilities enable firms to leverage innovation effectively in export markets. In a similar vein, strategic orientations, including export market orientation and cost leadership strategies, significantly influence export success, often serving as the critical channels through which innovation translates into performance (Bıçakçıoğlu-Peynirci et al., 2019; Bıçakçıoğlu-Peynirci & İpek, 2020; Freixanet & Federo, 2023; Navaia et al., 2024; Muhammad & Chelliah, 2023).

This relationship is further complicated by external contextual factors, given that country culture, industry characteristics, market maturity, and institutional support also shape the innovation-export performance relationship. Studies show that cultural dimensions can moderate strategic orientation effects, while legal-political environments and export market barriers influence export outcomes variably across regions (Bıçakçıoğlu-Peynirci et al., 2019; Bıçakçıoğlu-Peynirci & İpek, 2020; Chugan & Singh, 2014; Escandón et al., 2023). Moreover, emerging markets often face unique resource constraints that affect both innovativeness and export success (Li, 2020).

Furthermore, the innovation-export link is not a one-way street. The learning-by-exporting (LBE) phenomenon, for example, underscores how export activities can reciprocally contribute to a firm's innovation capabilities and productivity improvements. This reciprocal relationship is moderated by firm-level human capital and technological capabilities, reflecting a dynamic interaction where export engagement drives innovation, which in turn enhances export performance (Freixanet & Federo, 2023; Li, 2024; Zaman & Tanewski, 2024).

A specific and holistic form of innovation -business model innovation (BMI)- encompassing changes to value creation, delivery, and capture is also shown to enhance export performance, especially when coupled with a CEO's dynamic managerial capabilities. Both novelty- and efficiency-centered BMI forms contribute to competitive advantages in foreign markets, with international experience and relational embeddedness influencing BMI effectiveness (Merín-Rodrígáñez et al., 2024; Najafi-Tavani et al., 2023).

Given these findings, research emphasizes the practical importance of cultivating an export market orientation, developing innovation capabilities, and fostering adaptive communication and cultural sensitivity. Consequently, firms are advised to develop integrated innovation strategies, leverage cost

advantages, and nurture managerial skills to sustain competitive export performance (Bıçakçıoğlu-Peynirci et al., 2019; Çalışkan & Aysan, 2025; Navaia et al., 2024; Muhammad & Chelliah, 2023).

Beyond driving growth, innovation also plays a critical defensive role in firms' export market survival, especially during crises such as financial downturns, by enhancing product competitiveness and reducing export hazards. This is not without its limits, however, as diminishing returns to innovation suggest that strategic investment balancing is needed (Kim, 2024).

Focusing on firm size, SMEs exhibit unique innovation-export relationships. While often constrained by resources, they can benefit significantly from innovation capabilities, particularly when combined with export persistence and knowledge acquisition. Therefore, SME internationalization and innovation support mechanisms, including public policy and institutional aid, are vital for their export growth (Calheiros-Lobo, et al., 2023; Love & Roper, 2015; Pastelakos et al., 2022; Srisomwongse et al., 2025).

In the macro-context, sector-specific efficiencies and regional innovation ecosystems significantly influence how innovation translates into export outcomes. Indeed, diverse sectors and regions exhibit varying effectiveness of product and process innovation, underscoring the need for vertical innovation policies and regional ecosystem development (Cassini, 2024; Mariev et al., 2023). Also, the growing digital economy has created new processes that are changing how innovation contributes to export performance. Digital platforms are reprogrammable digital infrastructures that facilitate interactions between different actors, such as firms, customers, and partners, allowing value creation, innovation, and collaboration across networked ecosystems (Gawer, 2021; Nambisan et al., 2019). These platforms not only promote the commercialization of innovations, but they also enhance firms learning-by-exporting capabilities through continuous data feedback, user analytics, and cross-border market interaction. Similarly, regional innovation ecosystems, which include clusters of firms, research institutions, universities, and supportive government policies, provide the infrastructural and relational underpinning required for long-term innovation-based competitiveness. Within these ecosystems, closeness to information sources and specialized human capital improves absorptive capacity and collective efficiency, allowing firms to leverage local innovation potential into worldwide market success. Furthermore, network-based collaborations, which include strategic relationships between firms,

suppliers, research institutes, and international agents, serve as relational channels through which firms gain access to external knowledge, share risks, and co-develop innovations for foreign markets.

In light of above-mentioned extant research, the purpose of this narrative review is to synthesize the practical implications for businesses arising from the innovativeness-export performance nexus. It aims to consolidate fragmented findings, clarify the roles of different innovation types and strategic orientations, and identify actionable insights for firms seeking to improve export outcomes through innovation. This contribution addresses the identified gap by providing a comprehensive, integrative perspective that informs both academic understanding and managerial practice.

2. METHOD AND OVERVIEW

To achieve the objectives of this study and identify the relevant body of empirical evidence, a systematic narrative review was conducted. The literature search covered the years 2005–2024, reflecting the period in which the empirical research on innovation and export performance expanded significantly and became more methodologically diversified.

The search was performed in leading academic databases—including Elsevier, Emerald, JSTOR, Sage, Springer, Taylor & Francis, and Wiley—using a comprehensive set of keywords such as “innovation,” “innovative capability,” “export,” and “export performance”. Only empirical studies were included, while conceptual papers, qualitative research, books, book chapters, reports, and conference proceedings were excluded in accordance with the review scope. Titles, abstracts, and keywords were screened systematically, reference lists of the identified papers were examined through backward snowballing, and duplicates or non-eligible studies were removed.

Following this procedure, a total of 71 empirical studies initially met the criteria; after full-text assessment, 59 studies remained for detailed analysis. Together, these studies provide a rich empirical foundation for understanding how innovation influences export performance. The excerpts of the implications sections drawn from these studies were evaluated to ensure a synthesis of the state-of-the-art literature.

Table 1. The Relationships Innovation Types and Export Performance

Authors	Innovation Type	Key Empirical Findings	Key Implications
Lages et al. (2009); D'Angelo (2012); Zhang & Zhu (2016); Ringo et al. (2023)	Product Innovation	Product innovation enhances firms' differentiation ability and facilitates entry into international markets by delivering higher value-added offerings. Empirical evidence consistently underlines its direct and positive influence on export intensity and export propensity, especially among manufacturing SMEs.	Policies should support R&D programs focused on new product development and export-oriented design adaptation. Managers should invest in continual product development aligned with target market preferences.
Kirbach & Schmiedberg (2008); Haddoud et al. (2021); Tandrayen-Rogobour (2022)	Process Innovation	Process innovation improves production efficiency, cost-effectiveness, and quality consistency, indirectly supporting export performance. However, its empirical effect varies across country contexts—positive in efficiency-driven economies but weaker or neutral where innovation investments are resource-constrained.	Export promotion policies should incentivize efficiency-enhancing innovation. Firms should view process upgrading as a strategic tool for sustaining competitiveness in price-sensitive export markets.
Costa et al. (2015); Azar & Crabschi (2017); Rua et al. (2019); Zhang & Jedin (2022); Barbosa & Paramo (2022)	Organizational/ Managerial Innovation	Organizational and managerial innovations involve restructuring decision processes, knowledge management, and firm-level coordination mechanisms. These changes facilitate the strategic integration of innovation within business models, enhancing adaptive capacity and long-term export competitiveness.	Policymakers should encourage programs that build firms' managerial capabilities and organizational learning systems. For practitioners, embedding innovation orientation into strategic management processes is key to sustaining export growth.
Silva et al. (2017); Rodil et al. (2016); Ayob et al. (2023)	Marketing Innovation	Marketing innovation encompasses new methods of product promotion, customer relationship management, branding, and distribution approaches in export markets. The evidence is mixed—while it enhances export scope and market penetration in certain settings, its impact may be context-dependent or secondary to technological innovation.	Export support frameworks should help firms develop market intelligence and brand differentiation strategies. Managers should leverage digital marketing and localized branding to translate marketing innovation into tangible export gains.
Zhau & Zou (2002); Silva et al. (2017); Salmeron et al. (2023)	Technological Innovation	Technological innovation—R&D-driven improvements in product and process technologies—empowers firms to penetrate knowledge-intensive export markets. It contributes to both export diversification and competitiveness through improved technical capabilities and product sophistication.	Policymakers should align R&D funding, technology transfer, and export promotion instruments. Firms should strategically align technology upgrading with long-term internatio

As seen in Table 1 above, a dominant theme in the literature is that “innovation” is not a monolithic concept. The strategic implications for managers differ significantly based on the type of innovation pursued, primarily distinguishing between product, process, and non-technological innovations.

The most emphasized path to export prosperity is product innovation. This is often presented as the most direct route to success, representing the firm’s core market offering (Azari et al., 2017). Product innovation is consistently framed as a strategy of differentiation rather than cost. For firms targeting high-standard markets, such as the intra-EU market, product upgrading is considered a superior strategy for market entry compared to cost-reduction (Caldera, 2010). This is particularly true for high-technology small and medium-sized enterprises (HTSMEs), which are advised to focus on product innovations to materialize their technological resources and build a competitive advantage in export markets (D’Angelo, 2012). Policies aimed at product innovation are also seen as more likely to cause entry into export markets than those favoring other types (Becker & Egger, 2013). Furthermore, product innovation appears to have a more immediate, positive impact on short-term profitability (Kongmanila & Takahashi, 2009).

While product innovation often takes precedence, process innovation is presented as a critical, and at times contextually more important, driver of export success. Its primary role is linked to achieving a cost advantage (Pinera-Salmeron et al., 2023). Managers are advised to foster innovations in business processes with a clear orientation toward improving their cost position relative to competitors (Pinera-Salmeron et al., 2023). In some contexts, such as for Polish family firms, process innovation’s link to cost advantage was found to be key to export intensity, while product innovation was surprisingly irrelevant (Haddoud et al., 2021). This finding serves as a crucial reminder that findings from developed economies cannot be uniformly extended to all contexts. Process innovation is also tied to a different export dimension; it is suggested to be a more important input for increasing export depth (higher sales in existing markets), whereas the link to market entry is less clear (Filipesceu et al., 2013). The financial returns from process innovation may also be realized over a longer time horizon, given the substantial initial investments required (Kongmanila & Takahashi, 2009).

A significant body of implications urges managers to look beyond these technological innovations. Great emphasis is placed on organizational, management, and administrative innovations. Managers are advised to

devote as much attention to developing innovations in strategy, structure, and administrative procedures as they do to products (Azar & Ciabuschi, 2017; Azar & Drogendijk, 2016). These organizational innovations are vital for ensuring adaptive behaviour in foreign markets (Azar & Ciabuschi, 2017) and are particularly crucial when entering culturally distant markets, where they help firms access unexploited opportunities (Azar & Drogendijk, 2016).

For resource-scarce firms, especially SMEs in emerging economies, non-technological innovations are highlighted as a means to gain access to international markets without substantial, high-risk investments (Ayob et al., 2023). This includes marketing innovation, such as using social media, creating unique product stories, and developing environmentally friendly packaging (Chumme, 2022). Managers are advised to place significant emphasis on marketing innovation (Ringo et al., 2023) and even to adopt a combination of types, such as process innovation (for cost-efficiency) and marketing innovation (to address customer needs and open new markets) (Edeh et al., 2020).

Ultimately, the implications do not suggest an “either/or” choice but rather point toward synergy and balance. The complementary effect of pursuing product and process innovation simultaneously is often stronger than the effect of one type alone (Hwang & Dong, 2015; Tandrayen-Rogobour, 2022). Firms that are “ambidextrous” -combining exploration (technological innovation) with exploitation (non-technological innovation)-tend to outperform others (Pérez et al., 2019). This balance also extends to the scale of innovation. Managers are cautioned against an exclusive focus on radical breakthroughs; adopting a higher number of smaller, incremental innovations can enable firms to better adjust to new foreign environments (Azar & Ciabuschi, 2017). At the same time, for high-aspiring firms in emerging markets, there is a call to take a leap from “exploitative R&D” (low-risk, generic products) to “exploratory R&D” (high-risk, high-capital projects) to achieve a breakout in performance (Bhat & Momaya, 2020).

The literature moves beyond what to innovate and provides extensive guidance on how to build the underlying capacity for innovation. This involves a mix of internal development, external knowledge acquisition, and the fostering of specific organizational cultures.

The foundation of innovation capability often rests on internal investment in R&D and technology (Lopez-Rodriguez & Garcia-Rodriguez, 2005). Internal R&D is deemed critical for export performance (Rauf & Bao, 2024), and managers are advised to allocate funds and human resources

to R&D departments (Altuntas et al., 2018). However, this strategy is not without risk. Managers must be aware of the high costs and uncertain outcomes (Aarstad et al., 2015) and carefully weigh the risks and benefits of large R&D investments (Bhat & Momaya, 2020). The focus should not just be on R&D spending, but on the practical use of technology, such as Advanced Manufacturing Technology (AMT) (Altuntas et al., 2018). This internal capacity is built by coordinating all strategic assets, including R&D personnel, capital, and information (Cieślik et al., 2018). Employee skills, in particular, are vital not only for technical development but also for the commercial success of innovative products (Ganotakis & Love, 2011). Protecting these investments through patenting is also recommended to expand competitiveness (Zucoloto et al., 2017).

Firms, especially SMEs, are strongly advised not to innovate in a vacuum. A major theme is the use of external networks and knowledge sources. Managers are encouraged to foster cooperation with universities (D'Angelo, 2012). HTSMEs, for example, can absorb know-how from external R&D sources like universities and exploit it in export markets (D'Angelo, 2012). SMEs can partner with universities to revamp processes or outsource R&D, leveraging a knowledge base they lack internally (Haddoud et al., 2023). This extends to other external networks with large companies and governments (Kazemi et al., 2023). For firms in developing countries, importing or licensing foreign technologies is a key strategy (Haddoud et al., 2023; Rauf et al., 2023). This allows access to state-of-the-art solutions and conserves internal resources (Haddoud et al., 2023). However, the selection of this technology is critical; the recommendation is to import technologies appropriate to national conditions, such as labor-using technologies that are easier to internalize in labor-abundant countries (Rauf et al., 2023; Rauf & Bao, 2024). External knowledge can also come from attracting foreign investment (Aarstad et al., 2015) and collaborating with suppliers and competitors (Haddoud et al., 2023).

Perhaps the most sophisticated set of implications relates to building the intangible, cultural assets that foster innovation. Managers are urged to develop a market-oriented culture (Zhang & Zhu, 2016), which involves creating processes to collect and disseminate market intelligence (Kazemi et al., 2023) and using business intelligence systems to observe customers and competitors (Kolbe et al., 2021). This must be balanced with a technology orientation, or a sensitivity to technological advancements (Kazemi et al., 2023). Alongside these, managers should boost organizational learning capability by fostering experimentation, risk-taking, interaction with the environment, and participative decision-making (Fernandez & Alegre,

2015). This means encouraging employees to share and implement their ideas (Fernandez & Alegre, 2015). This links directly to entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and risk-taking propensity. Managers need EO skills to proactively seek new opportunities, not just react to foreign orders (Ribau et al., 2017). This requires developing a positive attitude toward risk and understanding that failure can be a necessary step to success (Ringo & Tegambwage, 2024). Finally, for an international business model to succeed, firms must acquire the intangible resource of a “global mindset” (Chang & Huang, 2022).

The implications repeatedly warn that the innovation-export relationship is not universal. Its success is contingent on a host of factors, including the firm's own characteristics, its relationships, and the external environment in which it operates.

Firm-specific factors are paramount. SMEs, in particular, face significant resource limitations (Alegre et al., 2022; Ayob et al., 2023; Edeh et al., 2020). This has several implications: SMEs may need to focus on one innovation capability (e.g., technology, marketing, or design) at a time (Alegre et al., 2022), or focus on less costly non-technological innovations (Ayob et al., 2023). SME managers must be careful not to spread limited resources too thin by investing in an innovation portfolio that does not fit their internal characteristics (Edeh et al., 2020). SMEs also tend to prioritize immediate interests, meaning their innovation activities often affect export performance in the short term, unlike large enterprises (LEs) which may only see benefits after a lag (Hwang & Dong, 2015). While firm size is an important moderator (Lweseya & Anchanta, 2023), it is not always the primary driver; in science-based industries, small firms can perform exceptionally well in global markets (Pla-Berber & Alegre, 2007).

Beyond size, international experience is a critical asset that must be balanced with innovation capability (Oura et al., 2016). Managers are advised to proactively seek this experience by participating in trade fairs, visiting customers, and increasing the number of countries served (Oura et al., 2016). In fact, managers should be financially and psychologically prepared for an initial decrease in performance (a “J-curve”) in the first years of exporting, using this time to learn about the market and develop resources (Ogasavro et al., 2016). The type of resources also matters. While financial resources are essential, institutional resources (like special privileges) can paradoxically undermine the positive value of innovation for exporting (Wu et al., 2022).

Innovation does not succeed in a vacuum; its effectiveness is moderated by customers, competitors, and partners. A strong customer and importer orientation is a critical success factor. The positive link between tech-innovation and export performance is stronger when the firm has a greater orientation toward its importer, such as by understanding their needs and monitoring satisfaction (Silva et al., 2017). The key is to be both “inwardly proficient” (with tech-innovation) and “externally responsive” (with customer focus) (Silva et al., 2017). Managers are also advised to explore low-cost relationship capabilities, as building solid, trustable relationships with importers, suppliers, and distributors allows firms to realize their products’ full market potential (Lages et al., 2009; Rodriguez et al., 2013). This leads to a crucial distinction: product quality is often just a “qualifier” or a minimum requirement for survival. It is product innovation that plays the major role in enhancing economic performance and providing a differential advantage (Lages et al., 2009).

Finally, the macro-environment and national context are paramount. The level of market competition modifies strategy; in highly competitive markets, creative capabilities may be less useful for export performance, forcing managers to find alternative advantages (Zhang & Jedin, 2023). In contrast, in dynamic, turbulent markets, a market orientation is more effective as it encourages innovation to cope with change (Zhang & Zhu, 2016). National context is king: strategies are not universally applicable (Haddoud et al., 2021). Firms in emerging economies face different resource constraints (Ayob et al., 2023) and may benefit more from adopting or adapting existing innovations at low cost (Tandrayen-Rogobour, 2022). The institutional environment is a major factor (Chen et al., 2016). In many regions, major obstacles like access to finance, corruption, electricity constraints, and political instability must be addressed before firms can effectively innovate (Tandrayen-Rogobour, 2022). In a unique finding, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is positioned as an enabler of exploratory innovation; using CSR principles can force companies to pursue new knowledge and change old routines (Costa et al., 2015). This suggests investing in socially and environmentally responsible products can itself be a differentiation strategy (Martos-Pedrero et al., 2023).

3. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The collective implications synthesized from the literature demonstrate that the relationship between innovation and export performance is not a simple, linear path. It is a complex, contingent, and multi-dimensional process. Several key tensions and meta-themes emerge.

First is the dynamic interplay between product and process innovation. The literature suggests a ‘division of labor’: product innovation is often the key to market entry and differentiation (Becker & Egger, 2013; Caldera, 2010), while process innovation is a primary driver of cost advantage (Pinera-Salmeron et al., 2023) and market depth (Filipesceu et al., 2013). The most effective firms, however, do not choose between them but find ways to achieve complementarity and synergy (Hwang & Dong, 2015).

Second, the review reveals a strong consensus to move beyond technological innovation. The repeated emphasis on organizational, management, marketing, and even CSR-driven innovation (Azar & Ciabuschi, 2017; Pérez et al., 2019; Costa et al., 2015) suggests that competitive advantage is no longer found purely in the “widget” itself. It is found in the firm’s adaptive structure, its novel strategies, its customer relationships, and its societal values. The ideal firm is both “inwardly proficient” with its technology and “externally responsive” to its customers and stakeholders (Silva et al., 2017).

Third, the implications repeatedly invalidate any “one-size-fits-all” strategy. The right path for a large enterprise in a developed economy (Hwang & Dong, 2015) is fundamentally different from that of a Polish family firm (Haddoud et al., 2021), a Moroccan SME (Haddoud et al., 2023), or a Turkish manufacturer (Altuntas et al., 2018). Factors like firm size, resource constraints, institutional quality, and market competition fundamentally alter the innovation-export equation.

Fourth, the literature agrees on the idea that innovation is necessary but not sufficient. Innovation capability alone does not guarantee export success (Oura et al., 2016). It must be supported by a constellation of complementary assets and capabilities. These include tangible resources, but more importantly, intangible assets like international experience (Oura et al., 2016), market orientation (Zhang & Zhu, 2016), organizational learning (Fernandez & Alegre, 2015), relationship capabilities (Lages et al., 2009), and a risk-taking culture (Ringo & Tegambwage, 2024).

In this regard, a conceptual framework emerges that explains how the multilayered interactions among innovation types, firm capabilities, and contextual conditions form a holistic mechanism influencing export outcomes. Primarily, product, process, organizational, and marketing innovations constitute the fundamental inputs through which firms achieve competitive advantage in international markets. However, the transformation of these innovation activities into superior export performance largely depends on the firm’s dynamic capabilities, absorptive capacity, strategic orientations toward markets and technology, managerial competencies, and

the effectiveness with which external networks are leveraged. Through these mediating mechanisms, innovation can, in some contexts, enable market entry via differentiation, while in others it drives sustainable export success through cost advantages, operational efficiency, or enhanced adaptability. Nevertheless, the strength and direction of this relationship are consistently shaped by contextual factors. Firm size, resource constraints, international experience, industry competition intensity, market dynamism, and country-level institutional structures—particularly access to finance, bureaucratic conditions, cultural distance, and the maturity of the innovation ecosystem—either amplify or constrain the extent to which innovativeness translates into export performance. This integrative model reveals that the effect of innovation on export outcomes is not a linear process but a multidimensional and context-contingent mechanism, emphasizing that achieving export success requires configuring a firm's innovation portfolio in alignment with its strategic orientations and environmental conditions.

Based on the synthesized evidence, several practical implications can be drawn for managers and policy makers seeking to enhance export performance through innovation. Managers should not prioritize a particular type of innovation. Instead, they should create innovation portfolios that balance product differentiation and process efficiency. Firms that enhance product characteristics while lowering operational costs are more likely to gain market access and maintain export depth. This ambidextrous strategy is especially important in competitive global sectors when differentiation and cost reduction alone are insufficient. Given that competitive advantage is increasingly derived from organizational flexibility, managerial skills, marketing capabilities, and CSR-driven differentiation, firms should broaden their innovation activities beyond technological advancement. To improve foreign market response, managers should spend resources for redesigning internal structures, strengthening cross-functional cooperation, developing brand narratives, and incorporating social responsibility into innovation plans. Lastly, managers should see export efforts as part of their overall innovation strategy rather than as an end result because exporting creates knowledge, feedback, and market insights. Structured methods for collecting consumer feedback, monitoring foreign competitors, and learning from overseas partners will allow businesses to fine-tune their innovation processes and remain competitive over time. When comes to the policy makers side, they should create programs that assist firms in matching appropriate innovation types with their existing skills and industry conditions. This could involve training programs, innovation audits, or capability-development grants, particularly for SMEs. Governments

must reduce bureaucratic barriers, improve access to capital, and promote national innovation ecosystems. Because institutional quality influences the innovation-export nexus. Improving these contextual elements increases the possibility that firm-level innovation will lead to export competitiveness.

In sum, the journey from innovation to export performance requires a holistic approach. For managers, this means building an ambidextrous organization that balances product and process innovation, technological prowess with market-oriented, non-technological adroitness, and internal development with external collaboration. Ultimately, sustainable international success is found not in a single innovative act, but in the dynamic alignment of the firm's internal capabilities, its external strategies, and the specific environmental context in which it operates.

References

Aarstad, J., Pettersen, I.B., & Jakobsen, S.E. (2015). Assessing drivers of export orientation in the subsea oil and gas industry. *Springer Plus*, 4(1), 403-411. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40064-015-1203-4>

Altuntas, S., Cinar, O., & Kaynak, S. (2018). Relationships among advanced manufacturing technology, innovation, export, and firm performance: Empirical evidence from Turkish manufacturing companies. *Kybernetes*, 47(9), 1836–1856. <https://doi.org/10.1108/K-10-2017-0380>

Ayob, AH., Freixanet, J., & Shahiri, H. (2023). Innovation, trade barriers and exports: evidence from manufacturing firms in ASEAN countries. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*, 17(1), 203–223. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JABS-05-2021-0185>

Azar, G., & Ciabuschi, F. (2017). Organizational innovation, technological innovation, and export performance: the effects of innovation radicalness and extensiveness. *International Business Review*, 26(2), 324-336. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2016.09.002>

Azar, G., & Drogendijk, R. (2016). Cultural distance, innovation and export performance: an examination of perceived and objective cultural distance. *European Business Review*, 28(2), 176-207. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-06-2015-0065>

Azari, M.J., Madsen, T.K., & Moen, Ø. (2017). Antecedent and outcomes of innovation-based growth strategies for exporting SMEs. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 24(4), 733-752. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JSBED-08-2016-0125>

Becker, S.O., & Egger, P.H. (2013). Endogenous product versus process innovation and a firm's propensity to export. *Empirical Economics* 44, 329–354. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00181-009-0322-6>

Bhat, S., & Momaya, KS. (2020). Innovation capabilities, market characteristics and export performance of EMNEs from India". *European Business Review*, 32(5), 801–822. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-08-2019-0175>

Biçakçıoğlu-Peynirci, N., & İpek, İ. (2020). Export market orientation and its consequences: A meta-analytic review and assessment of contextual and measurement moderators. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 35(5), 939-954. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JBIM-04-2019-0147>

Biçakçıoğlu-Peynirci, N., Hizarci-Payne, A. K., Özgen, Ö., & Madran, C. (2019). Innovation and export performance: A meta-analytic review and theoretical integration. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 23(5), 789-812. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJIM-06-2019-0149>

Bogetoft, P., Kroman, L., Smilgins, A., & Sørensen, A. (2024). Innovation strategies and firm performance. *Journal of Productivity Analysis*, 62, 175-196. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11123-024-00727-1>

Caldera, A. (2010). Innovation and exporting: evidence from Spanish manufacturing firms. *Review of World Economic*, 146, 657–689. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10290-010-0065-7>

Calheiros-Lobo, N., Ferreira, J. V., & Au-Yong-Oliveira, M. (2023). Sme internationalization and export performance: A systematic review with bibliometric analysis. *Sustainability*, 15(11), 8473. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su15118473>

Carboni, O. A., & Medda, G. (2024). Endogenous innovation and export performance in firms. *Journal of Applied Economic Sciences*, 1(83), 48-62. [https://doi.org/10.57017/jaes.v19.1\(83\).03](https://doi.org/10.57017/jaes.v19.1(83).03)

Cassini, L. (2024). Export performance, innovation, and sectoral efficiency: A multilevel model for Argentinian manufacturing firms. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 34(3), 458-478. <https://doi.org/10.1093/icc/dtae028>

Chabowski, B. R., Kekec, P., Morgan, N. A., Hult, G. T. M., Walkowiak, T., & Runnalls, B. (2018). An assessment of the exporting literature: Using theory and data to identify future research directions. *Journal of International Marketing*, 26(1). 118-143. <https://doi.org/10.1509/JIM.16.0129>

Chen, J., Sousa, C. M., & He, X. (2016). The determinants of export performance: A review of the literature 2006-2014. *International Marketing Review*, 33(5), 626-670. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IMR-10-2015-0212>

Chopra, R., Bhardwaj, S., Baber, H., & Sanusi, O. I. (2024). Navigating global horizons: A review of export promotion and foreign market entry strategies for small and medium enterprises (SMEs). *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 39(12), 2774-2790. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jbim-10-2023-0610>

Chugan, P. K., & Singh, S. (2014). Taxonomy for firm-level determinants of export performance. *Universal Journal of Industrial and Business Management*, 2(1), 6–12. <https://doi.org/10.13189/UJIBM.2014.020102>

Chummee, P. (2022). The Structural Relationship Analysis between Innovation and Export Performance of Food Industries, Thailand. *Turkish Journal of Computer and Mathematics Education (TURCOMAT)*, 13(1), 108–112. <https://doi.org/10.17762/turcomat.v13i1.11970>

Cieślik, A., Qu, Y., & Qu, T. (2018). Innovations and Export Performance: Firm Level Evidence from Chinese Firms. *Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review*, 6(4), 27-47. <https://doi.org/10.15678/EBER.2018.060402>

Costa, C., Lages, L.F., & Hortinha, P. (2015). The bright and dark side of CSR in export markets: Its impact on innovation and performance. *International Business Review*, 24, 749–757. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2015.01.008>

Çalışkan, E., & Aysan, H. (2025). Strategic export innovation management: A holistic approach to achieving sustainable global trade performance. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4 (2). 196-215. <https://doi.org/10.56879/ijbm.v4i2.165>

D'Angelo, A. (2012). Innovation and export performance: a study of Italian high-tech SMEs. *Journal of Management and Governance*, 16(3), 393-423. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10997-010-9157-y>

Du, J., Zhu, S., & Li, W. (2022). Innovation through internationalization: A systematic review and research agenda. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 40, 1217-1251. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-022-09814-z>

Edeh, J.N., Obodoechi, D.N., & Ramos-Hidalgo, E. (2020). Effects of innovation strategies on export performance: New empirical evidence from developing market firms. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, vol. 158(C). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2020.120167>

Escandón, D. M., Salas, J. A., & Losada-Otalora, M. (2023). The moderation effect of country culture in the reciprocal relationship between strategic orientations and export performance: A country-level study. *Journal of Strategy and Management*, 16(4), 733-746. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jsma-05-2022-0089>

Filipescu, D. A., Prashantham, S., Rialp, A., & Rialp, J. (2013). Technological Innovation and Exports: Unpacking Their Reciprocal Causality. *Journal of International Marketing*, 21(1), 23-38. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jim.12.0099>

Freixanet, J. (2014). Innovation and internationalization: Relationship and implications for management and public policy. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Knowledge*, 2(2), 57-75. <https://doi.org/10.1515/IJEK-2015-0006>

Freixanet, J., & Federo, R. (2023). Learning by exporting: A system-based review and research agenda. *International Journal of Management Review*, 25(4), 768-792. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijmr.12336>

Ganotakis, P., & Love, J. H. (2011). R&D, product innovation, and exporting: Evidence from UK new technology based firms. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 63(2), 279-306. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oep/gpq027>

Gawer, A. (2021). Digital platforms' boundaries: The interplay of firm scope, platform sides, and digital interfaces. *Long Range Planning*, 54(5), 102045. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2020.102045>

Haddoud, M.Y., Onjewu, A.E. & Nowiński, W. (2021). Environmental commitment and innovation as catalysts for export performance in family firms. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2021.121085>

Haddoud, M.Y., Kock, N., Onjewu, A.K.M., Jafari-Sadeghi, V. & Jones, P. (2023). Technology, innovation and SMEs' export intensity: Evidence from Morocco. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 191(C), 122475. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2023.122475>

Hwang, Y.S., Hwang, M.H., & Dong, X. (2015). The Relationships Among Firm Size, Innovation Type, and Export Performance With Regard to Time Spans. *Emerging Markets Finance and Trade*, 51:5, 947-962. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1540496X.2015.1061386>

İpek, İ. (2018). The resource-based view within the export context: An integrative review of empirical studies. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 31(3), 157-179. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08911762.2017.1328630>

Kazemi, A., Ghasempour Ganji, S.F., & Johnson, L.W. (2023). How external network and innovation affect the link between export orientations and export performance?. *Review of International Business and Strategy*, 33(5), 786-809. <https://doi.org/10.1108/RIBS-02-2022-0026>

Kim, M. (2024). Firms' innovation and export survival in a crisis. *Applied Economics Letters*, 32, 2257-2262. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13504851.2024.2396552>

Kongmanila, X., & Takahashi, Y. (2009). Innovation, Export Performance and Profitability of Lao Garment Exporters. *Int. Journal of Economics and Management*, 3, 225-236.

Lages, L.F., Silva, G., & Styles, C. (2009). Relationship capabilities, quality, and innovation as determinants of export performance. *Journal of International Marketing*, 17(4), 47-70.

Li, G. (2020). A review of the literature of the relationship between innovation and internationalization of SMEs and future prospects. *American Journal of Industrial and Business Management*, 10(3), 619-636. <https://doi.org/10.4236/AJIBM.2020.103041>

Li, X. (2024). Learning by exporting: The moderating role of employee human capital. *International Marketing Review*, 41(6), 1560-1576. <https://doi.org/10.1108/imr-07-2023-0147>

Lopez-Rodríguez, J.L., & Garcia-Rodríguez, R.M. (2005). Technology and export behaviour: A resource-based view approach. *International Business Review*, 14(5), 539-557.

Love, J. H., & Roper, S. (2015). SME innovation, exporting and growth: A review of existing evidence. *International Small Business Journal*, 33(1), 28-48. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242614550190>

Mariev, O., Davidson, N., Nagieva, K. M., & Pushkarev, A. (2023). Innovations and their complementarities: Which types of innovations drive export performance?. *Post-communist Economies*, 35(7), 708-743. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14631377.2023.2215022>

Martos-Pedrero, A., Jiménez-Castillo, D., Ferrón-Vilchez, V., & Cortés-García, F. J. (2023). Corporate social responsibility and export performance under stakeholder view: The mediation of innovation and the moderation of the legal form. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 30(1), 248–266. <https://doi.org/10.1002/csr.2352>

Mathias, T., Fertig, M., Zancanaro, M., Thibes, R. F., & Hahn, I. S. (2024). Defining innovation: A comprehensive analysis of types, levels, and strategic interactions. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 29(9), 28-36. <https://doi.org/10.9790/0837-2909022836>

Merín-Rodrígáñez, J., Alegre, J., & Dasí, À. (2024). International entrepreneurship in innovative SMEs: Examining the connection between CEOs' dynamic managerial capabilities, business model innovation and export performance. *International Business Review*, 34(2), 102321. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2024.102321>

Muhammad, S.A., & Chelliah, S. (2023). Innovation, competitive advantage and export performance: A study of Pakistani manufacturing SMEs. *International Journal of Innovative Computing*, 13 (1), 69-75. <https://doi.org/10.11113/ijic.v13n1.395>

Najafi-Tavani, Z., Zantidou, E., Leonidou, C. N., & Zeriti, A. (2023). Business model innovation and export performance. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 56, 360-382. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-023-00645-8>

Nambisan, S., Wright, M., & Feldman, M. (2019). The digital transformation of innovation and entrepreneurship: Progress, challenges and key themes. *Research Policy*, 48(8), 103773. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2019.03.018>

Navaia, E., Moreira, A. C., & Ribau, C. P. (2024). The mediating roles of cost leadership and cost focus strategies on innovation capabilities and export performance. Results from an emerging country. *Cogent Business & Management*, 11(1), 2375410. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2024.2375410>

Nguyen, M. N., Le, T. V., & Le, H. T. T. (2024). Does innovation enhance the export propensity of Vietnamese firms?. In: Tran, H.V.T., Shioji, H., Le, H.L.T., Hayashi, T. (eds) *Knowledge Transformation and Innovation in Global Society*. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-7301-9_4

Oura, M.M., Zilber, S.N., & Lopes, E.L. (2016). Innovation capacity, international experience and export performance of SMEs in Brazil. *International Business Review*, 25(4), 921-932. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2015.12.002>

Pastelakos, E., Theodoraki, C., & Catanzaro, A. (2022). The role of innovation and internationalization support in small- and medium-sized enterpris-

es' export performance. *European Management Review*, 20(1), 31-47. <https://doi.org/10.1111/emre.12513>

Pérez, J.A., Geldes, C., Kunc, M.H., & Flores, A. (2019). New approach to the innovation process in emerging economies: The manufacturing sector case in Chile and Peru. *Technovation*, 79, 35-55. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.technovation.2018.02.012>

Pinera-Salmeron, J., Sanz-Valle, R., & Jiménez-Jiménez, D. (2023). Product and business process innovation, competitive advantage and export performance. *Multinational Business Review*, 31(4), 545-564. <https://doi.org/10.1108/mbr-03-2022-0045>

Rauf, A., Ma, Y., & Jalil, A. (2023). Change in factor endowment, technological innovation and export: evidence from China's manufacturing sector. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 26(1), 134-156. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJIM-01-2021-0055>

Rauf, A., & Bao, Y. (2024). Assessing the effect of domestic and foreign R&D on export: empirical evidence from China. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 19(11), 3828-3847. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOEM-02-2022-0282>

Ribau, C.P., Moreira, A.C., & Raposo, M. (2017). SMEs innovation capabilities and export performance: an entrepreneurial orientation view. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 18(5), 920-934.

Ringo, DS., Tegambwage, AG., & Kazungu, I. (2023). Innovation capabilities and export performance of SMEs: does managers' risk-taking propensity matter?. *Journal of Money and Business*, 3(1), 74-88. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMB-10-2022-0053>

Ringo, DS., & Tegambwage, AG. (2024). Effect of innovation capabilities on export performance: evidence from manufacturing SMEs in Tanzania". *Technological Sustainability*, 3(1), 24-40. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TECHS-09-2022-0038>

Rodriguez, C., A. Wise, J., & Ruy Martinez, C. (2013). Strategic capabilities in exporting: an examination of the performance of Mexican firms. *Management Decision*, 51(8), 1643-1663. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MD-10-2012-0766>

Silva, G.M., Styles, C., & Lages, L.F. (2017). Breakthrough innovation in international business: the 811 impact of tech-innovation and market-innovation on performance. *International Business Review*, 26(2), 391-404. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2016.10.001>

Srisomwongse, R., Roongruangsee, R., & Patterson, P. G. (2025). Capabilities influencing export intensity of Thai SMEs during COVID-19: A capability-based perspective. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 31(3), 527-559. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13602381.2024.2449165>

Tandrayen-Ragoobur, V. (2022). The innovation and exports interplay across Africa: Does business environment matter?. *The Journal of International Trade & Economic Development*, 31:7, 1041-1071. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09638199.2022.2051588>

Zaman, M., & Tanewski, G. (2024). R&D investment, innovation, and export performance: An analysis of SME and large firms. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 62(6), 3053-3086. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00472778.2023.2291363>

Zhang, MD., & Jedin, MH. (2023). Firm innovation and technical capabilities for enhanced export performance: the moderating role of competitive intensity. *Review of International Business and Strategy*, 33(5), 810–829. <https://doi.org/10.1108/RIBS-01-2022-0015>

Zhang, J., & Zhu, M. (2016). Market orientation, product innovation and export performance: evidence from Chinese manufacturers. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 24(5), 377-397.

Zucoloto, G.F., Raffo, J., & Leão, S. (2017). Technological appropriability and export performance of Brazilian firms. *African Journal of Science, Technology, Innovation and Development*, 9:5, 587-606. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20421338.2017.1355433>

Consumer Resilience in Inflationary Markets in the Digital Age

Yavuz Selim Gülmез¹

Abstract

This chapter examines how inflationary pressures reshape consumer resilience within contemporary digital market dynamics, positioning inflation not merely as a macroeconomic condition but as a critical force transforming consumer behavior, decision-making, and well-being. In the digital age, consumers experience inflation through platform-mediated interactions, algorithmic pricing, continuous price comparisons, and digitally circulated market information, which intensify visibility, cognitive effort, and perceived risk in everyday consumption. Adopting a consumer well-being oriented marketing perspective, the chapter conceptualizes consumer resilience not as an individual coping trait but as a market-shaped capacity emerging at the intersection of digital infrastructures, social relations, and institutional practices. The analysis highlights how inflation-driven market dynamics disproportionately affect vulnerable consumer groups while simultaneously redistributing responsibility, effort, and emotional labor onto consumers. By identifying digital, community-based, and institutional mechanisms that can support resilience beyond individual adaptation, the chapter contributes to marketing scholarship by reframing consumer resilience as a systemic outcome embedded in digital market structures. In doing so, it advances a more human-centered and ethically informed understanding of marketing dynamics in inflationary digital markets.

1. Introduction

In recent years, global economies have been increasingly shaped by persistent inflationary pressures driven by post-pandemic supply disruptions, geopolitical tensions, energy price volatility, and structural transformations in market systems. While inflation is often treated primarily as a macroeconomic

¹ Dr. Öğr. Üyesi, Mardin Artuklu Üniversitesi, İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi, İşletme Bölümü, Pazarlama Anabilim Dalı, ysgulmez@artuklu.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0002-9846-596X.

indicator of instability, its most profound consequences unfold at the level of everyday consumption (Sirgy & Lee, 2006). In the digital age, inflation is no longer experienced solely through rising prices but through digitally mediated consumption environments, where consumers navigate continuously shifting prices, algorithmic adjustments, and platform-based market structures. As a result, inflation has become a lived market condition embedded in evolving market dynamics, shaping not only purchasing power but also consumers' sense of control, predictability, and well-being.

This chapter approaches inflation not as a challenge to firm strategy or market efficiency, but as a condition that fundamentally reshapes consumer experience and welfare in digital markets. Rather than celebrating consumer resilience as an individual capacity for adaptation, the chapter conceptualizes resilience as a set of coping mechanisms that consumers are compelled to develop in response to structurally constrained, inflationary market environments. In digitally mediated markets, consumers increasingly rely on platform-based information flows, price comparison tools, and algorithmically curated choices to manage economic pressure. However, these mechanisms do not merely empower consumers; they also redistribute cognitive burden, intensify decision fatigue, and expose structural inequalities embedded within digital market ecosystems.

Adopting a critical consumer well-being perspective, this chapter examines how inflationary market conditions undermine economic, psychological, and behavioral dimensions of consumer welfare. High inflation affects not only what consumers can afford, but how they plan, decide, and emotionally experience consumption. Price volatility, constant comparison across platforms, and information asymmetries generated by digital interfaces reshape everyday decision-making, often amplifying stress and uncertainty. Consequently, consumer resilience should not be understood as a heroic act of individual endurance, but as a fragile and uneven outcome shaped by access to digitally mediated information, platform infrastructures, social support networks, and institutional arrangements.

Building on this perspective, the chapter addresses the following research questions:

- How does inflation suppress consumer well-being within digitally mediated market environments?
- What resilience strategies do consumers develop in response to inflationary pressures, and how do these strategies affect their well-being?

- Which consumer groups experience heightened vulnerability in inflationary digital markets?
- What mechanisms digital, communal, institutional, and policy-based can enhance consumer resilience beyond individual coping efforts?

By engaging with these questions, the chapter aims to extend discussions of marketing dynamics in the digital age by foregrounding consumer well-being and vulnerability. It contributes to the literature by reframing consumer resilience as a systemically shaped capacity, rather than an individual trait, and by highlighting how digital market structures simultaneously enable and constrain consumers' ability to withstand inflationary pressures. In doing so, the chapter positions consumer resilience as a critical lens through which contemporary digital market dynamics can be more ethically and comprehensively understood.

2. Inflation and Consumer Well-Being

Inflation represents more than a temporary disturbance in price levels; it constitutes a structural condition that reshapes how consumers experience markets, make decisions, and evaluate their own well-being. In inflationary contexts, consumer well-being is not only threatened by declining purchasing power but also by increasing uncertainty, cognitive burden, and emotional strain. These effects become particularly pronounced in the digital age, where consumption is increasingly embedded in digitally mediated market environments characterized by rapid information flows, platform-based interactions, and continuously evolving market dynamics.

Accordingly, this section addresses two interrelated questions: How does inflation suppress consumer well-being in digitally mediated markets? and What forms of consumer resilience emerge in response to inflationary pressure, and how do these strategies shape well-being outcomes? Accordingly, the analysis examines how inflation operates across economic, psychological, and behavioral domains of consumer experience, reshaping everyday consumption practices and redistributing market-related burdens. Understanding this interaction requires moving beyond narrow models of rational choice toward a more holistic perspective that captures how inflation reorganizes everyday consumption practices and redistributes burdens across consumers.

2.1. Economic Pressures in Digital Markets

The most immediate and visible impact of inflation manifests as a decline in purchasing power. When income growth fails to keep pace with rising

prices, consumers are compelled to revise budgets, downgrade product choices, or reduce overall consumption. In digital markets, these economic pressures are experienced through constant price exposure, frequent updates, and algorithmically driven adjustments that make inflation both highly visible and continuously salient. Consumers are no longer confronted with price increases sporadically; instead, they encounter inflation through repeated interactions with digital interfaces that signal scarcity, volatility, and cost escalation.

Empirical research demonstrates that in inflationary periods consumers increasingly turn to lower-priced brands, promotional offers, discount retailers, and private labels in order to preserve access to essential goods (Hamilton et al., 2019). Studies conducted in European markets indicate that inflation intensifies price sensitivity and encourages consumers to reallocate spending toward perceived “value-for-money” options, particularly within online and platform-based retail environments (Sobotkiewicz & Waniowski, 2025). While such strategies may offer short-term economic relief, they often require sustained monitoring of prices, promotions, and alternatives, thereby transferring additional effort and responsibility to the consumer.

From a well-being perspective, economic resilience strategies such as expenditure tracking, consumption postponement, and substitution toward cheaper alternatives present an inherent paradox. On the one hand, they allow consumers to maintain a degree of financial control under inflationary pressure. On the other hand, prolonged austerity, quality downgrading, and continuous optimization can erode life satisfaction and diminish perceived quality of life (Mennekes & Schramm-Klein, 2025). As a result, economic adaptation strategies often stabilize short-term affordability while introducing longer-term trade-offs for perceived quality of life and satisfaction.

2.2. Psychological Pressures and Perceived Well-Being

Beyond its economic consequences, inflation exerts a substantial psychological toll on consumers. Persistent price increases, coupled with uncertainty about future affordability, generate heightened levels of financial anxiety, stress, and perceived loss of control. In digitally mediated consumption environments, these psychological pressures are intensified by the constant visibility of price changes and the rapid circulation of market information. Consumers are repeatedly reminded of inflation through notifications, price alerts, comparison tools, and media discourse, making economic uncertainty an ongoing psychological presence rather than a distant abstraction.

Research in economic psychology indicates that inflation-related stress is strongly associated with declines in subjective well-being, increased emotional exhaustion, and negative affect (Mitra et al., 2024). The unpredictability of prices undermines consumers' ability to plan and creates a sense of instability that extends beyond consumption into broader life domains. In digital markets, where prices may vary across platforms or change dynamically over short periods, consumers often experience a persistent fear of making the "wrong" purchase decision—paying too much, missing a better deal, or losing value over time.

To cope with inflation-related pressures, consumers employ a range of psychological strategies, including expectation adjustment, mental reframing of consumption goals, and the normalization of reduced consumption standards. Emotional reassurance is also sought through online communities, social networks, and shared narratives of coping, which can provide short-term relief from uncertainty and stress. However, when these coping practices become the primary means of managing inflationary pressure, they may contribute to the normalization of persistent financial strain at the individual level. Over time, this normalization can reduce the visibility of the market dynamics that generate ongoing uncertainty, weakening consumers' perceived sense of agency and diminishing overall well-being.

2.3. Behavioral Pressures and Decision Fatigue

Inflation also reshapes consumer behavior by increasing the complexity and intensity of everyday decision-making. In inflationary contexts, consumers are compelled to engage more frequently in price comparisons, budget evaluations, and alternative assessments in order to protect limited resources. Within digitally mediated markets, these behavioral demands are amplified by the abundance of available options, platforms, and information sources. While digital tools ostensibly enhance consumer choice, they simultaneously increase the cognitive effort required to navigate markets effectively.

Frequent use of platform-based price comparison tools, promotional tracking, and cross-platform searches can strengthen consumers' sense of agency and informational control. However, these practices are time-consuming and mentally taxing. Behavioral research suggests that sustained engagement in high-effort decision-making leads to decision fatigue, reduced satisfaction, and impaired judgment over time (Jung et al., 2014). In inflationary digital markets, consumption decisions become less about

preference fulfillment and more about damage control, transforming routine purchases into sources of cognitive strain.

As inflation intensifies the frequency and complexity of everyday consumption decisions, consumers are increasingly required to engage in continuous price monitoring, comparison, and evaluation. While these behaviors may enhance short-term adaptability and a sense of informational control, they also demand sustained attention and cognitive effort. Over time, prolonged engagement in high-effort decision-making contributes to decision fatigue, reduced satisfaction, and declining judgment quality. In digitally mediated markets, where price volatility and choice abundance are persistent, these behavioral demands transform routine consumption into an ongoing cognitive task, introducing additional costs that vary according to consumers' available time, digital competence, and access to market information.

Taken together, the economic, psychological, and behavioral pressures generated by inflation illustrate that consumer well-being in the digital age is shaped by more than income constraints alone. Inflation operates through digitally mediated market dynamics that intensify visibility, redistribute effort, and reshape everyday consumption practices. Consequently, consumer resilience should be understood not merely as the ability to cope with rising prices, but as a complex and often precarious response to structurally demanding market environments. This multidimensional understanding provides the foundation for identifying vulnerable consumer groups and for exploring mechanisms that can support resilience beyond individual adaptation.

3. Vulnerable Consumer Groups

Inflation does not affect all consumers uniformly. While rising prices exert pressure across markets, their consequences are distributed unevenly among social groups, often amplifying existing inequalities and generating new forms of vulnerability. In inflationary contexts, vulnerability arises not only from constrained economic resources but also from unequal access to information, digital tools, social support networks, and institutional protection. In the digital age, these differences are increasingly shaped by consumers' positions within digitally mediated market environments, where access to price visibility, market participation, and adaptive capacity varies significantly across groups.

Consumer vulnerability research conceptualizes vulnerable consumers as those whose personal characteristics, situational constraints, or structural

conditions limit their ability to protect their interests in the marketplace (Baker et al., 2005). Inflation intensifies such vulnerabilities by increasing exposure to uncertainty, risk, and exclusion, particularly in digital markets that place heightened adaptive demands on consumers. Identifying vulnerable consumer groups is therefore essential for understanding how inflation reshapes consumer well-being and for informing resilience-enhancing mechanisms that extend beyond individual coping efforts.

3.1. Low-Income Consumers

Low-income consumers represent one of the most vulnerable groups in inflationary markets. Because a substantial proportion of their income is allocated to essential expenditures such as food, housing, and transportation, price increases in these categories have immediate and disproportionate effects. In inflationary contexts, even minor price fluctuations can force low-income households to make difficult trade-offs between basic needs, often resulting in constrained consumption choices and quality downgrading (Adkins & Ozanne, 2005).

In digitally mediated markets, low-income consumers face an additional layer of vulnerability. Although digital platforms may provide access to price comparisons, promotions, and alternative sellers, effective use of these tools requires time, digital literacy, and reliable access to technology. Empirical research indicates that low-income consumers are more likely to engage in intensive price monitoring and promotional search during inflationary periods; however, these efforts are frequently accompanied by increased cognitive effort and emotional strain (Mennekes & Schramm-Klein, 2025). Together, economic constraint and heightened decision effort illustrate how adaptation strategies may stabilize short-term affordability while simultaneously placing pressure on overall well-being.

3.2. Fixed-Income Earners and Retirees

Consumers with fixed or infrequently adjusted incomes such as retirees, public-sector employees, and individuals dependent on social transfers experience heightened vulnerability under inflationary conditions. When income adjustments lag behind rising prices, purchasing power declines rapidly, generating persistent financial insecurity. Unlike consumers with flexible or market-linked incomes, fixed-income earners have limited capacity to offset inflationary pressure through earnings growth, making them particularly sensitive to sustained price increases.

In the digital age, this vulnerability is further shaped by rapidly changing market information. Constant price updates, platform-specific offers, and dynamic pricing mechanisms can complicate budgeting and long-term planning for fixed-income consumers. Prior research identifies perceived income predictability as a key determinant of psychological well-being (Sirgy & Lee, 2006). Inflation disrupts this predictability, and in digitally dynamic market environments, the resulting uncertainty intensifies stress and weakens consumers' perceived sense of financial control.

3.3. Households with Children and Single-Parent Families

Households with children, and particularly single-parent families, face elevated vulnerability during inflationary periods due to the rigidity of their expenditure structures. Spending on food, education, healthcare, and childcare constitutes a substantial and largely non-discretionary share of household budgets. As a result, inflation significantly reduces financial flexibility and intensifies trade-offs between competing needs, often limiting households' capacity to absorb sustained price increases (Stack & Meredith, 2018).

Digitally mediated markets offer both opportunities and challenges for these households. While online platforms may facilitate access to discounts, promotions, and bulk purchasing options, the time and cognitive resources required to navigate such environments are often scarce for caregivers. Empirical evidence indicates that families with children engage more frequently in price comparison and discount-seeking behaviors during inflationary periods, yet continue to experience disproportionate declines in perceived well-being relative to other consumer groups (Sobotkiewicz & Waniowski, 2025). For single-parent families in particular, the combined pressure of constrained resources and heightened decision effort increases the risk of both economic strain and emotional exhaustion.

3.4. Digitally Excluded or Digitally Constrained Consumers

In inflationary digital markets, access to technology and digitally mediated information has become a critical determinant of consumer resilience. Consumers with limited digital access or lower levels of digital literacy including many older adults, individuals with lower educational attainment, and residents of rural or underserved areas face distinct disadvantages in navigating price volatility and market complexity. These consumers are less able to utilize platform-based price comparison tools, monitor promotions, or adjust their purchasing strategies in response to rapidly changing market conditions.

Digital exclusion intensifies vulnerability by limiting access to timely and relevant market information. Deng (2023) demonstrates that information asymmetries in digital markets increase consumers' exposure to unfavorable pricing and constrain their capacity to respond strategically to inflation. As markets become increasingly platform-centered, digitally constrained consumers may become more reliant on local or familiar sellers, reducing opportunities to verify prices or explore alternatives. Over time, such constraints contribute to persistent disparities in market participation and adaptive capacity across consumer groups.

3.5. Migrants, the Unemployed, and Socially Isolated Consumers

Consumers with limited social and institutional support including migrants, unemployed individuals, precarious workers, and those engaged in informal employment experience compounded vulnerability in inflationary contexts. These consumers often lack stable income streams, access to social protection, or familiarity with market institutions, conditions that heighten exposure to financial stress while narrowing opportunities for recovery or adaptation.

In digitally mediated markets, socially isolated consumers may also encounter informational and relational barriers. Limited access to trusted networks, language constraints, and unfamiliarity with platform norms can restrict their ability to benefit from digital market opportunities. Prior research conceptualizes vulnerability as both economic and relational, highlighting how social exclusion amplifies market disadvantage (Hill, 2001). In inflationary digital markets, such relational constraints further limit consumers' capacity to mobilize information, support, and resources when responding to sustained economic pressure.

4. Mechanisms for Enhancing Consumer Resilience

The preceding analysis demonstrates that consumer resilience in inflationary markets cannot be understood solely in terms of individual coping efforts. Economic pressure, psychological strain, and behavioral overload are shaped by broader market structures that influence how consumers access information, exercise choice, and sustain well-being. In the digital age, resilience emerges at the intersection of technological infrastructures, social relations, institutional practices, and public policy, highlighting the need for support mechanisms that operate beyond the level of personal adaptation.

Accordingly, this section examines three interrelated categories of mechanisms digital, community-based, and institutional that can strengthen

consumer resilience in inflationary contexts. Rather than treating these mechanisms as substitutes, the analysis emphasizes their complementary roles in mitigating vulnerability and shaping a more balanced distribution of responsibility across market actors.

4.1. Digital-Based Mechanisms

Digital technologies play a central role in shaping how consumers experience and respond to inflation. When designed and governed appropriately, digital tools can enhance transparency, reduce uncertainty, and support informed decision-making. One of the most prominent digital mechanisms for strengthening consumer resilience is the provision of price transparency platforms that enable real-time comparison across sellers and channels. By reducing informational asymmetries, such tools help consumers navigate inflation-driven price dispersion, particularly in digitally mediated markets characterized by frequent and opaque price changes.

Beyond price comparison, digital budgeting and expenditure-tracking applications can support economic resilience by increasing financial awareness and planning capacity. Research indicates that consumers with higher levels of perceived financial control experience lower stress and greater subjective well-being, even under inflationary pressure (Netemeyer et al., 2018). By visualizing spending patterns and signaling deviations from planned budgets, these applications can reduce uncertainty and strengthen consumers' perceived sense of agency.

Automated price alerts and notification systems represent another digital mechanism with resilience-enhancing potential. By reducing the need for continuous monitoring, such systems help lower cognitive effort and mitigate decision fatigue. The extent to which these digital mechanisms effectively support consumer resilience, however, depends on factors such as accessibility, usability, and digital literacy. In this sense, digital resilience mechanisms function not only as technological tools but also as elements of market infrastructure whose impact varies across consumer groups. From a marketing responsibility perspective, the design and deployment of such algorithmic tools directly shape consumers' perceptions of fairness and trust, influencing whether digital platforms are experienced as supportive intermediaries or as sources of uncertainty and suspicion.

4.2. Community-Based Mechanisms

While digital tools can support individual coping efforts, consumer resilience is also deeply embedded in social relations. Community-based mechanisms provide collective buffers against inflationary pressure by

pooling resources, sharing information, and fostering mutual support. In inflationary markets, collective purchasing arrangements, consumer cooperatives, and informal buying groups enable consumers to leverage shared bargaining power to reduce costs and stabilize access to essential goods.

In digitally mediated environments, community resilience increasingly takes hybrid forms that combine online coordination with offline solidarity. Messaging platforms and social media groups facilitate the rapid circulation of price information, promotional opportunities, and warnings about unfair practices. Beyond their economic function, such networks contribute to psychological well-being by reducing social isolation and normalizing shared experiences of financial strain (Hill, 2001).

Local support ecosystems including initiatives led by municipalities, non-governmental organizations, and volunteer networks play a particularly important role for highly vulnerable consumers. Food-sharing programs, community distribution points, and needs-based assistance mechanisms help alleviate immediate material pressure while reinforcing social cohesion. From a resilience perspective, these collective arrangements expand consumers' access to resources and support, complementing digital and institutional mechanisms in inflationary market contexts.

4.3. Institutional and Policy-Based Mechanisms

Sustainable consumer resilience ultimately depends on institutional arrangements that shape market behavior and protect consumer interests. Firms, platforms, and public authorities all play critical roles in moderating the impact of inflation on consumer well-being. At the firm and platform level, practices such as price stabilization policies, transparent communication regarding price changes, and the provision of essential product bundles can reduce uncertainty and enhance trust. Empirical research indicates that transparent pricing practices increase perceived fairness and mitigate negative emotional responses to price increases (Ferguson & Ellen, 2013).

Platform governance is particularly salient in the digital age. As intermediaries that structure market access and information flows, digital platforms influence how inflation is perceived and managed by consumers. Clear disclosure of pricing mechanisms, limits on exploitative dynamic pricing, and safeguards against misleading promotional practices constitute important institutional levers for resilience enhancement. Such governance practices are central not only to protecting consumers from harm but also to sustaining trust in digital market systems, as opaque or unpredictable pricing erodes confidence in both platforms and brands.

Public policy mechanisms further anchor consumer resilience by establishing regulatory frameworks that constrain opportunistic behavior and promote equity. Effective price monitoring systems, consumer protection enforcement, and anti-profiteering measures help stabilize markets during inflationary periods (Prišenek et al., 2025). Investments in digital literacy initiatives are equally important, as they enable consumers to navigate digital markets more confidently and critically, thereby reducing information asymmetries and supporting more balanced participation across socio-economic groups.

Taken together, these institutional and policy-based mechanisms shape the conditions under which consumer resilience can be supported and sustained in inflationary digital markets. Rather than emerging automatically from individual effort, resilience is influenced by how responsibilities, protections, and market rules are organized across firms, platforms, and public authorities. This perspective provides a foundation for the broader discussion of marketing responsibility and consumer well-being developed in the concluding section.

5. General Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter contributes to the marketing literature by extending existing discussions of inflation, consumer behavior, and digital markets through a consumer well-being and resilience lens. While prior research has largely framed inflation as a context that heightens price sensitivity, alters brand preferences, and intensifies deal-seeking behavior (Hamilton et al., 2019; Ehrmann et al., 2018), the present analysis demonstrates that inflation in the digital age reshapes not only what consumers purchase, but also how they experience markets, make decisions, and evaluate their own well-being.

Consistent with earlier findings, the chapter confirms that inflation intensifies reliance on price comparisons, promotions, and value-oriented consumption strategies (Sobotkiewicz & Waniowski, 2025; Mennekes & Schramm-Klein, 2025). However, rather than interpreting these behaviors solely as rational adaptations, the analysis highlights their hidden costs in digitally mediated markets. Continuous price monitoring, algorithmic adjustments, and platform-based comparisons increase cognitive effort and emotional strain, reinforcing existing research on decision fatigue and technology-related stress (Jung et al., 2014; Mick & Fournier, 1998).

A central theoretical contribution of this chapter lies in its reconceptualization of consumer resilience as a systemically shaped outcome rather than an individual coping capacity. While resilience is often framed

in marketing and consumer research as a personal psychological resource (Deng, 2023; Hosany et al., 2025), the findings demonstrate that resilience in inflationary digital markets is unevenly distributed and deeply influenced by market structures, digital infrastructures, and institutional arrangements. In particular, digitally constrained consumers face structural disadvantages that limit their ability to benefit from price transparency tools and online alternatives, underscoring the socially and institutionally produced nature of consumer vulnerability (Helsper, 2012).

This perspective aligns with macromarketing scholarship that emphasizes market justice, power asymmetries, and the distribution of responsibility across market actors (Sirgy & Lee, 2006). By shifting analytical attention away from individual adaptation and toward structural conditions, the chapter challenges interpretations of resilience that implicitly normalize consumer burden under conditions of economic stress.

From a managerial and policy standpoint, the analysis underscores the role of firms, platforms, and regulators in shaping consumer resilience outcomes. Transparent pricing practices, predictable communication strategies, and safeguards against exploitative algorithmic pricing can mitigate negative consumer responses during inflationary periods (Ferguson & Ellen, 2013). Public policy interventions such as price monitoring systems, consumer protection enforcement, and investments in digital literacy further support more balanced participation in digital markets and complement market-based solutions (Prišenk et al., 2025).

In conclusion, inflationary markets in the digital age require a rethinking of marketing assumptions about information, choice, and consumer empowerment. Consumer resilience should not be understood as an automatic byproduct of digital innovation or as an individual achievement, but as a fragile and context-dependent capacity shaped by technological design, social relations, and institutional governance. Recognizing this complexity enables a more ethical, inclusive, and human-centered understanding of marketing dynamics one that places consumer well-being, vulnerability, and market justice at the core of digital transformation debates.

Future research may build on this framework by examining how specific platform designs, algorithmic pricing practices, and governance regimes influence consumer resilience across institutional and cultural contexts. Longitudinal studies exploring how prolonged inflation reshapes digitally mediated consumption practices would further enrich marketing scholarship on consumer well-being under sustained economic uncertainty.

References

Adkins, N. R., & Ozanne, J. L. (2005). Critical consumer education: Empowering the low-income consumer. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 25(2), 153-162. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146705280626>

Baker, S. M., Gentry, J. W., & Rittenburg, T. L. (2005). Building understanding of the domain of consumer vulnerability. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 25(2), 128-139. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146705280622>

Deng, X. (2023). Reflection, resilience, rebound: Consumer coping with economic uncertainty. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 50(2), 245-268.

Ehrmann, M., Pfajfar, D., & Santoro, E. (2018). Consumers' attitudes and their inflation expectations. *International Journal of Central Banking*, 13(1), 231-258.

Ferguson, J. L., & Ellen, P. S. (2013). Transparency in pricing and its effect on perceived price fairness. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 22(5/6), 404-412. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-06-2013-0323>

Hamilton, R., Mittal, C., Shah, A., Thompson, D., & Griskevicius, V. (2019). How financial constraints influence consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 45(4), 673-708. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jcpy.1074>

Hill, R. P. (2001). Surviving in a material world: Evidence from ethnographic consumer research on people in poverty. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 30(4), 364-391. <https://doi.org/10.1177/089124101030004002>

Helsper, E. J. (2012). A corresponding fields model for the links between social and digital exclusion. *Communication Theory*, 22(4), 403-426. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2885.2012.01416.x>

Hosany, A. S., Prayag, G., & Bettany, S. (2025). Consumer resilience in an era of disruptions. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 41(11-12), 1061-1069. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257X.2025.2555714>

Jung, K., Cho, Y. C., & Lee, S. (2014). Online shoppers' response to price comparison sites. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(10), 2079-2087. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2014.04.016>

Mennekes, A., & Schramm-Klein, H. (2025). Effects of crisis-induced inflation on purchasing and consumer behavior in Germany. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 85, 103-118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2025.104295>

Mick, D. G., & Fournier, S. (1998). Paradoxes of technology: Consumer cognizance, emotions, and coping strategies. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25(2), 123-143. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209531>

Mitra, S., Shen, C., Pinnamraju, J., Wiener, R. C., Wang, H., Pathak, M., ... & Sambamoorthi, U. (2024). Stress due to inflation: changes over time, correlates, and coping strategies among working-age adults in the United

States. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 21(2), 157. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph21020157>

Netemeyer, R. G., Warmath, D., Fernandes, D., & Lynch, J. G. (2018). How am I doing? Perceived financial well-being, its potential antecedents, and its relation to overall well-being. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 45(1), 68-89. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jcr/ucx109>

Prišenk, J., Grgić, I., & Čagalj, M. (2025). Overview of established examples of price monitoring practices in Europe. *MESO*, 27(4), 322-333. <https://doi.org/10.31727/m.27.4.1>

Sobortkiewicz, D., & Waniowski, P. (2025). Inflation-driven changes in consumer behavior on the Polish market. *Economic Review of Social Sciences*, 10(1), 77-92.

Sirgy, M. J., & Lee, D. J. (2006). Macro measures of consumer well-being (CWB): A critical analysis and a research agenda. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 26(1), 27-44. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146705285669>

Stack, R. J., & Meredith, A. (2018). The impact of financial hardship on single parents: An exploration of the journey from social distress to seeking help. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 39(2), 233-242.

Marketing Dynamics in the Digital Age: Platforms, Ecosystems, and Innovation

Editor:

Tarık Yolcu

