

Review

The Role of Marketing Channels in Supply Chain Management

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Abstract

This paper synthesizes five decades of supply chain-related research from premier managerially oriented marketing journals and provides a state-of-the-art integration and forecasting of where the field is heading. Such a review identifies where the field of supply chain management (SCM) has been, where it is, and where it is likely to go within the domain of marketing. Importantly, our paper involves a strategic discovery of the anchoring of SCM thought in marketing. A prominent feature of this paper is a set of takeaways, delineated from the cross-section of SCM literature bases (marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations management) that will facilitate the development of the topic of SCM in marketing. These takeaways serve as agenda setters for future research and potential applications of SCM in marketing. Overall, we contribute to the marketing and SCM literatures by (1) reviewing the breadth of the most impactful literature on SCM that is directly connected to the field of marketing, (2) summarizing the state-of-the-art of the SCM in marketing literature, and (3) forecasting via a series of integrated takeaways what research is needed and where the SCM in marketing is likely to progress.

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Introduction

According to Forbes, Wal-Mart is the top company in the world in terms of sales, has the 18th most valuable brand, and is 26th in annual profits (Forbes 2014). Wal-Mart's success is often attributed to its excellent supply chain management (SCM) strategies and operations. Its past-primary competitor Kmart, on the other hand, has struggled financially over the last few decades with a notably less effective supply chain (Bogenrief 2012). Numerous companies (e.g., Amazon, Apple, Cisco, Coca-Cola,

Dell, H&M, Intel, Nike, Proctor & Gamble, and Starbucks) attribute at least part of their success to supply chain management. At the same time, the results of a survey conducted in 2013 show that fewer than half of company executives actually recognize SCM as a strategic asset. Those that do will achieve 70 percent higher financial performance on average (PwC 2013). In certain industries the results are even more impressive. For example, SCM leaders in the telecom industry achieve 350 percent higher earnings before interest and tax than their lagging peers. SCM leaders in retail and consumer goods companies enjoy inventory turnovers that are over 450 percent higher than those less effective at managing the supply chain (PwC 2013). Academics also agree that firms without a well-managed supply chain will have trouble surviving as global competition increasingly puts the financial squeeze on all sectors of the economy (e.g., Hult, Ketchen, and Arrfelt 2007).

SCM spans several core business (and some non-business) fields, such as accounting (e.g., activity-based costing), finance (e.g., total cost analysis), human resources (e.g., “actors” in the

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SCM system), information systems (e.g., connecting resource ties and activity links), and strategy (e.g., leveraging SCM as a strategic weapon) (Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014). However, since one of marketing's main concerns is delivering value to the end user, efficient supply chains are perhaps the most imperative for the marketing function: "When firms make mistakes anywhere within a supply chain, the effects can ripple through the chain in both directions. These effects include disruption to production, forecasting errors, inventory imbalances, stock-outs or damaged goods, all of which usually result in increased costs that may have to be passed on to end users, thus reducing their satisfaction and loyalty" (Ellis 2011, p. 109). On the other hand, an effective and efficient supply chain allows firms to pass along increased value to the end-customers and improve performance outcomes for the firm (e.g., Wal-Mart). Issues such as achieving end-customer value and satisfaction fall squarely in the domain of marketing, and this places marketing at the center of SCM strategy and operations.

Marketing channels is where the customer value-creating processes are the most pronounced in the supply chain. Specifically, marketing channels is where the ultimate value-creating aspects of the chain are tested in the chain's relationship with end customers. Naturally, value is developed, integrated, and coordinated along the entities ("actors"), activity links, and resource ties in the overall supply chain. As a performance bottom line, the real value is assessed when customers decide whether to buy a product. Marketing channels is the last part of the supply chain but is the driver of the input needed to provide this customer value. Logistics, purchasing, and operations serve as the coordinated and integrated input (embedded in the selection of strategic chain partners, critical activity links, and strategic resource ties) into the customer value-creating function of marketing channels in SCM.

Moreover, not only is SCM important to marketing, but marketing is also important to SCM. Since successful SCM relies on both intra- and inter-organizational relationships, marketing research can provide critical theoretical and empirical guidance on how to best govern and operate these relationships. For example, relationship marketing enables trusting and committed relationships between supply chain members and encourages cooperation and communication (Palmatier et al. 2006). The SCM literature is besieged by theoretical, empirical, and practical examples where functional specialists operating in SCM (e.g., logistics and purchasing) seldom coordinate within their own companies. In fact, more examples exist where external suppliers have a better relationship with corporate buyers than the corporate buyers have with their own "internal customers" (i.e., users of the products for whom the corporate buyers facilitate purchasing). Relationship marketing is an important tool in marketing that can be used to create better synergies in otherwise disconnected SCM functions. Additionally, emphasizing and implementing a market orientation – a staple in marketing strategy – can improve the implementation of SCM by enabling the strategic collection of valuable information on customers, competitors, suppliers, and the environment that spans corporate functions (Min and Mentzer 2000). After all, market orientation is a strategic company asset, not something that resides solely

within the marketing function (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Narver and Slater 1990). Other marketing concepts that help create an efficient and effective supply chain include demand forecasting, sales management, communications, and understanding consumer behavior (e.g., Subrahmanyam and Shoemaker 1996; Webster 1970).

With SCM becoming more in vogue as a strategic tool for companies and as SCM is increasingly intertwined with marketing concepts and processes (Ketchen and Giunipero 2004; PwC 2013), the objective of this paper is to synthesize five decades of the most impactful SCM-related research from strategic marketing journals (*Journal of Retailing*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, and *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*). A prominent feature of our review of SCM in marketing is a set of takeaways that serve as agenda setters both for needed avenues of research and for the future direction of SCM in marketing. This paper contributes to the literature in the following three ways: (1) by reviewing the breadth of the most impactful literature on SCM that is directly connected to the field of marketing, (2) by summarizing the state-of-the-art of SCM in marketing literature, and (3) by forecasting via a series of integrated takeaways what research is needed and the likely future of SCM in marketing.

In conducting the review, summary, and forecasting, we provide a strategic and all-encompassing theoretical and empirical depiction of the potential for SCM in marketing. To capture the SCM concept appropriately, we start with an overview of the notion of SCM being based on cross-functional thought in business. The remainder of the state-of-the-art review is then organized based on the four core domains of SCM: marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations (e.g., Frankel et al. 2008). We conclude each section with future research directions (takeaways) based on the synthesis of the marketing-based SCM literature.

SCM in Marketing Channels

While the SCM concept first appeared in the early 1980s, it was not until the 1990s that it received growing attention from researchers and practitioners (e.g., Burgess, Singh, and Koroglu 2006; Giunipero et al. 2008). For the past decade, the surge in interest in SCM can be attributed to: (1) increased globalization, which has created strategic SCM opportunities – such as global sourcing and global production – for firms and has intensified competition on a global scale; (2) the trend toward time- and quality-based competition, which requires a closer relationship and coordination between the firm and its suppliers; and (3) greater environmental uncertainty – due to technological changes, dynamic economic conditions, and intense competition – which calls for greater flexibility in the supply chain (cf. Mentzer et al. 2001). Together, these factors have generated a wealth of research questions that have fueled SCM research activity.

While research has brought significant advances to the SCM field (e.g., Giunipero et al. 2008), the lack of agreement on the definition and scope of SCM – despite the ongoing dialog – has hindered the theoretical development of SCM (e.g.,

Mentzer et al. 2001). Today, more than 30 years since its conception, no definitional consensus exists for “supply chain management” in scholarship or among industry practitioners (e.g., Ellram and Cooper 2014; Zacharia, Sanders, and Fugate 2014). More troublesome, different perspectives of what constitutes SCM have developed over time. For example, marketing, with its “customer-centric view,” places greater attention on end-customers and their wants and needs within SCM. Operations emphasize quality of manufacturing systems and processes, and so on. These diverse frameworks of what constitutes the core of SCM have created tension and competition among schools of thought and functional disciplines within SCM researchers and practitioners. In reality, SCM comprises activities, actors, and resource ties that span functions – where trust, cooperation, and relationship building should flourish – topics of great interest to marketing researchers.

Historically, two of the most important functions within SCM are derivatives of marketing thought – purchasing and logistics. The purchasing-oriented and the logistics-oriented perspectives of SCM center on two views that consider SCM thought to be synonymous with a business function – that is, purchasing and logistics, respectively (Tan 2001). The purchasing-oriented perspective concentrates on the activities and processes that pertain to materials and supply management. In this regard, SCM is equivalent to supply base integration. Meanwhile, the logistics-oriented perspective emphasizes transportation and inventory management (e.g., Tan 2001). For instance, for Houlihan (1988), SCM “covers the flow of goods from supplier through manufacturing and distribution chains to the end user” (p. 14). These two function-centered perspectives are somewhat narrow in scope, and they are also restrictive since they fail to capture all of the components of SCM.

Another perspective used frequently in supply chains is the process perspective. This perspective broadens the scope of SCM as it proposes that SCM is the management of essential business processes, including those of purchasing and logistics (e.g., Mentzer et al. 2001). At the core, this perspective focuses on how supply chain activities and processes can be integrated to maximize performance (Ellram and Cooper 2014). At this stage in the evolution of SCM, the Council of Supply Chain Management Professionals’ definition of SCM reflects the process perspective: “Supply chain management encompasses the planning and management of all activities involved in sourcing and procurement, conversion, and all logistics management activities. Importantly, it also includes coordination and collaboration with channel partners, which can be suppliers, intermediaries, third party service providers, and customers” (CSCMP 2014). This conceptualization, which we adopt in this article, views the supply chain as a system of organizations and functions that form a fully orchestrated effort of upstream and downstream process-based activities. In particular, it reflects an integration of the key SCM functions of marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations within and across multiple firms (Frankel et al. 2008; Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014). These functions form the strategic web of SCM and involve, at the operational level, numerous processes at various stages of SCM. One tool that practitioners can use that reflects this process perspective is the Supply Chain

Operations Reference model (SCOR). SCOR is a strategic management resource that allows practitioners to examine business processes, best practices, and performance metrics through one tool to optimize performance outcomes within the entire supply chain (Blackstone 2013).

Interestingly, extant research has largely failed to integrate the core SCM functions and processes. Instead, single-discipline research dominates the field (e.g., Burgess, Singh, and Koroglu 2006). As such, marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations are often examined in isolation or, at most, in pairs. The result of this “silo” approach is fragmentation in the field, parallel research efforts, and inadequate understanding of the scope of SCM (Zacharia, Sanders, and Fugate 2014). Some reasons for the lack of integrative research are the complexity of SCM phenomena and the diversity of academic journals publishing SCM research. The complexity of the SCM concept makes capturing all the elements of the supply chain in a single study difficult (Ellram and Cooper 2014). Consequently, studies tend to focus on only one aspect of the supply chain, such as one function or one link in the chain (e.g., Giunipero et al. 2008). For example, marketing research has recently adopted a heavy focus on buyer–seller dyads. In addition, the wide variety of scholarly journals – each with an emphasis on a particular area of study and level of analysis – allows researchers to target only those journals that closely align with their study (e.g., Mentzer, Stank, and Esper 2008). This has led to further segmentation based on the scope and domain favored by editors, reviewers, and authors.

Supply Chain Domains

As discussed above, SCM relies on the integration of processes across the domains of marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations. Broadly speaking, marketing channels manage downstream relationships, connecting the firm to the end customer. The marketing channels viewpoint is especially applicable in the “last mile” of the supply chain (e.g., Boyer and Hult 2005), where connecting to end-customers and meeting their needs and wants are the focus. Purchasing, on the other hand, with its upstream focus, serves as the link between the firm and its suppliers (e.g., Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014). Operations and logistics are carried out throughout the chain to support and add value. For example, logistics centers heavily on transportation and inventory management, and operations deals with competitive priorities in the chain (e.g., speed, quality, cost, and flexibility). Firms that effectively manage the supply chain combine these functions, processes, and activities seamlessly within and across organizations, ultimately resulting in benefits such as value creation, increased efficiencies, and enhanced customer satisfaction (e.g., Stock, Boyer, and Harmon 2010). Deficiencies in any one of these four domains will undermine the effectiveness of the entire supply chain.

Marketing Channels

Definitions and scope. Marketing scholars define a marketing channel as a set of interdependent organizations involved in the

process of making a product or service available for use or consumption (Palmatier et al. 2014). For marketing professionals, marketing channels typically include three main parties: manufacturers, intermediaries (i.e., agents, wholesalers, retailers), and end-users (individual consumers or business customers). As such, marketing channels span various activities from the point of product or service production to its final consumption (Palmatier et al. 2014). Supply chain researchers assign a narrower role for marketing channels – that of boundary spanners to external users or customers in the outbound (downstream) portion of the supply chain (Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014). Thus, whereas marketing scholars research marketing channels issues from either the *upstream* or *downstream* perspective of the overall supply chain, supply chain researchers tend to consider only the *downstream* issues involving the customers.

Marketing research in channels. Our review indicates that out of the four supply chain domains, channels research is the most influential within the marketing literature, with about five times more citations than the second most cited domain (purchasing). To facilitate the literature review, we provide detailed summaries of highly cited marketing channels articles in Table 1.

The evolution of channels research in top marketing journals follows a rather predictable pattern. In the 1970s, channels research was largely descriptive and focused on identifying important challenges in managing channels relationships. Prevalent issues included sources and effects of power (El-Ansary and Stern 1972), dependence (Etgar 1976), and conflict (Lusch 1976). The research models were simple and largely lacked any moderating or mediating variables. In the 1980s researchers began to expand the view of channel relationships and provided a more complex picture of typical channel relationships. Determination of appropriate measurement practices (e.g., single key informant data on dyadic relationships – John and Reve 1982) and the application of theory-based frameworks became common as the discipline progressed (Heide and John 1988). The 1990s focused on validating existing and developing new theories regarding channel relationships. Research became more theoretically and empirically refined as researchers investigated specific relationship characteristics in greater detail and from more nuanced conceptual frameworks (Doney and Cannon 1997; Morgan and Hunt 1994). The research of the 2000s showed a greater reliance on prior theories and improved refinement in both measurement and conceptualization of the exchange relationship. Different forms of opportunism (Wathne and Heide 2000), governance strategies (Jap and Ganesan 2000), and relationship orientations (Mentzer, Min, and Zacharia 2000) were compared within the same studies so that differential effects became evident. Researchers began to ask when and why particular strategies worked (Palmatier et al. 2006). Since 2010 the discipline has begun to question assumptions of prior research and add further complexity to empirical studies by utilizing time-series analysis, dissecting existing constructs (e.g., affective vs. calculative commitment in Ganesan et al. 2010), and relying more on complex data sources for a more complete view of the channel relationship from multiple perspectives (e.g., triadic data as in Palmatier et al. 2013).

Recent channels research generally focuses on one topic: strategies that improve relationship outcomes between channel members. In addition to positive relational constructs, such as trust, commitment, and satisfaction, researchers are beginning to explore “dark-side” constructs that negatively affect relationship outcomes, such as unfairness (Samaha, Palmatier, and Dant 2011) and embedded ties (Noordhoff et al. 2011). The research on these difficult to detect and measure dark-side constructs, while promising in terms of managerial implications, is still in its infancy and is a great avenue for future research.

Main takeaways. Some supply chain articles draw heavily on channels research in marketing. For instance, Nyaga, Whipple, and Lynch (2010), in a leading supply chain publication, *Journal of Operations Management*, investigate “the mediating effect of trust and commitment while specifically using performance and two dimensions of satisfaction” (p. 104). This, of course, is a very similar framework to that of the seminal channels work by Morgan and Hunt (1994). Not surprisingly, the former article cites almost as many marketing articles (30 references) as it does academic articles from management and supply chain journals (38 references). Another supply chain study investigates the role of power in channel relationships and draws almost twice as often on the marketing literature, where issues of power were researched extensively in 1970s and 1980s, as it does on the management or supply chain research (Benton and Maloni 2005).

However, these examples are the exceptions, and overall there is little integration between marketing and SCM. This is surprising, as our review indicates that the topic of channels is explored by researchers from both fields. Further, many business schools across the U.S. and the world have been emphasizing the importance of interdisciplinary collaboration and encouraging it through various research grants. But so far the evidence of such collaboration in top journals in both fields is scant. The trends that are changing the marketplace today are universal and impact many disciplines (e.g., e-commerce, shift toward services, globalization; Palmatier et al. 2014). Thus, research addressing these topics would be more impactful and comprehensive if it included viewpoints from multiple disciplines. Just a quick glance through the references of articles in both disciplines (e.g., marketing channels and operations), however, reveals that marketing researchers largely forego the SCM literature and vice versa. Thus, our initial takeaway is as follows:

Takeaway 1: Where overlap is theoretically and practically relevant, interdisciplinary, cross-functional integration of research would allow for a more comprehensive examination of issues important to value-driven and total cost-focused SCM.

Substantively, there are two main conclusions from the synthesis of the marketing channels literature. First, while there are differences in how researchers from marketing and the other SCM functions define a marketing channel, all disciplines agree that a channel is a set of organizations and not simply a constellation of dyadic relationships. Most channels insights, however, are based on either firm-level or dyadic research. Thus, marketing channels research addresses only snapshots of what is

Table 1
SCM domain – marketing channels.

Reference	Research focus	Main theories	Findings/implications
Rosenberg and Stern (1971)	Measurement of conflict intensity in dyadic relationships	Power/dependence	Reducing goal incongruity, domain-control (roles), and perceptual differences decreases channel conflict. Better communication may be a conflict reducing mechanism.
El-Ansary and Stern (1972)	Power structure within channels of distribution	Power/dependence	Clear power structure isn't evident; further research is needed to better understand power dynamics in channels of distribution.
Bucklin (1973)	Conceptual model of channel control	Authority and control theories	Changes in the middlemen's profit function impact manufacturers' control efforts.
Stern, Sternthal, and Craig (1973)	Applicability of conflict management theories to channels	Conflict management	Reducing uncertainty may reduce channel conflict.
Hunt and Nevin (1974)	Relationship between power and sources of power in channels	Power/dependence	More powerful channel members should focus on the use of non-coercive power sources and deemphasize the use of coercive power.
Etgar (1976)	Effects of power, dependence and the ability to resist the use of power in channel relationships	Power/dependence	Nonpecuniary power is more effective than financial rewards or threats for developing control. The value offered by supplier sources of power may influence downstream channel members to be willingly controlled.
Lusch (1976)	Effects of different sources of power on intrachannel conflict	Power/dependence	Noncoercive sources of power minimize channel conflict, coercive sources of power do not.
Etgar (1977)	Effects of environmental factors on a channel member's ability to control	Power/dependence	Supplier control increases when demand is unstable/declining, importance of personal selling is high, and interchannel competition is strong.
Etgar, Cadotte, and Robinson (1978)	Effectiveness of economic versus non-economic power on channel control	Power/dependence	Economic sources of power are more effective when suppliers attempt to control downstream channel members.
Etgar (1979)	Effects of attitudinal & structural differences in channel members on affective & manifest conflict	Conflict, role theories	Attitudinal differences generate both affective and manifest conflict. Strategies to reduce perceptual biases and improve communication may be most effective for conflict resolution.
Stern and Reve (1980)	Framework of channel relationships with economic & social factors	Political economy	External and internal political economies impact the functioning and outcomes of channel relationships.
John and Reve (1982)	Reliability & validity of single informant data from either side of the channel dyad	Political economy	Data on relationship's structural aspects (e.g., centralization, formalization) is reliable & valid. Data from different sides of the dyad on perceptual aspects (e.g., goal compatibility) is not reliable.
Frazier (1983)	Initiation, implementation, and review behaviors in channel relationships	Social & economic exchange, power/dependence	Understanding of the dynamic process of channel relationships is incomplete without considering relationship initiation behaviors.
John (1984)	Relationship & individual characteristics of sources of opportunism in channels	TCE, social influence, org. theories	Social interactions as well as contractual agreements reduce opportunism.
Frazier and Summers (1984)	Effects of different interfirm influence strategies on interfirm agreement	Persuasion & power theories	Information exchange has the highest positive correlation with agreement; promises & threats have the highest negative correlation with agreement. Information exchange is the most effective influence strategy in long-term relationships.
Gaski (1984)	Review of research on power and conflict in channels	Channel power & conflict theories	Provides propositions on exercised/nonexercised & coercive/noncoercive power and channel conflict, satisfaction, and performance.
Gaski and Nevin (1985)	Differential effects of exercised versus unexercised power sources in marketing channels	Power/dependence	Exercise of coercive power is more detrimental than the simple existence of that power. Effects of the reward power on satisfaction or conflict stem from its existence rather than its use.
Anderson and Coughlan (1987)	The use of integrated versus independent distribution channels for expansion to foreign markets	TCE	Transaction specificity & highly differentiated offerings are associated with choosing an integrated versus independent channel when entering a foreign market.

Heide and John (1988)	Safeguarding transaction-specific assets when vertical integration is not possible	TCE, dependence theory	To reduce dependence on supplier and protect transaction-specific assets, buyers develop strong relationships with consumers, increasing supplier replaceability and improving own financial performance.
Frazier, Gill, and Kale (1989)	Effects of dependence on a firm's ability to gain influence, and subsequent behavioral reactions	Dependence & reciprocity theories	Manufacturer's use of coercive influence strategies increases channel conflict but does not affect sales. Highly dependent dealers do not retaliate in response. These findings may vary from country to country.
Anderson and Weitz (1992)	Effects of idiosyncratic investments & contractual terms on channel commitment	TCE	Visible investments increase channel commitment more than exclusive contracts.
Heide and John (1992)	Effect of relational norms on channel's structure	TCE, social exchange theory	When transaction-specific investments are at risk, relational norms can help gain vertical control.
Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpande (1992)	Dynamics of trust in channel relationships	RM	Trust is important because it significantly improves quality of interactions, which lead to higher-quality channel relationships
Anderson., Hakansson, and Johanson (1994)	Dyadic relationships in the context of business networks	Network & social exchange theories	Level of network connectedness of dyadic channel members can impact performance of the focal channel relationship.
Ganesan (1994)	Determinants of a long-term relationship orientation for both buyers & sellers	TCE, social exchange theory	Buyer's dependence and trust are important determinants of a long-term relationship orientation for both sides of the dyad.
Heide (1994)	Typology of channel relationship management approaches	TCE, resource dependence, social exchange theories	Based on relationship processes, there are three types of channel governance: market, unilateral/hierarchical (associated with asymmetric dependence), and bilateral (associated with symmetric dependence).
Morgan and Hunt (1994)	Role of commitment and trust in channel relationships	Commitment-trust theory	Relationship inputs increase commitment & trust, which drive relationship outcomes. Being committed & trustworthy is key for successful channel relationships.
Gundlach, Achrol, and Mentzer (1995)	Effects of commitment inputs on channel's relationship behaviors	TCE, social exchange theory	Commitment inputs increase long-term commitment intentions & relational norms in channel relationships.
Doney and Cannon (1997)	Antecedents & consequences of trust	TCE, social exchange theory	Buyer's trust in seller increases with seller's size, willingness to customize, and trust in salesperson. Trust is necessary but not sufficient in choosing a supplier.
Cannon and Perrault (1999)	Taxonomy of channel relationships	TCE, social exchange theory	Channel relationships are categorized into eight types based on closeness of channel relationships, level of required adaptations by either party, and so forth
Brown, Dev, and Lee (2000)	Efficacy of ownership, transaction-specific assets & relational norms in reducing opportunism	TCE, social exchange theory	Only relational norms reduce opportunism (ownership & transaction-specific assets do so in combination with relational norms).
Cannon, Achrol, and Gundlach (2000)	Effects of contracting and relational norms on channel performance	TCE, social exchange theory	Contracts & social norms are effective governance mechanisms when transactional uncertainty is high (but not low). Combined they are effective regardless of the level of transactional uncertainty.
Jap and Ganesan (2000)	Supplier TSIs, relational norms, and contracts as safeguards of retailer TSIs	TCE, social exchange theory	Supplier TSIs and relational norms increase perception of supplier commitment, while contracts decrease it. These effects vary by phase of the relationship.
Mentzer, Min, and Zacharia (2000)	Antecedents and consequences of strategic relationship partnering	RBV, social exchange theory	Provides an alternative perspective to describe the development of relational bonds and long-term orientation among channel members.
Wathne and Heide (2000)	Typology of opportunism & effectiveness of governance mechanisms	TCE	Four types of opportunism exist based on behavior (passive vs. active), and circumstances (new vs. existing). Authors discuss efficacy of monitoring, incentives, selection, and socialization as opportunism-reducing mechanisms.

Table 1
(Continued)

Reference	Research focus	Main theories	Findings/implications
Palmatier et al. (2006)	Meta-analysis of effectiveness of different relationship marketing (RM) strategies and their antecedents	Commitment-trust theory	Relationship investments increase objective performance. Relationship quality impacts objective performance the most, commitment – the least. RM is more effective when relationships are more important to customers, and are built with an individual person rather than a selling firm.
Ganesan et al. (2010)	Effects of different types of commitment on the impact of supplier opportunism on buyer switching behaviors	RM, social judgment theory	“calculative and affective commitment buffer incumbent suppliers against minor incidences of their own misbehavior. . .affective commitment also reliably amplifies the adverse effects of an incumbent supplier’s flagrant opportunism” (p. 361).
Samaha, Palmatier, and Dant (2011)	Role of perceived unfairness in channel relationships	Equity, dynamic capabilities theories	Unfairness damages channel relationships by amplifying the negative effects of conflict and opportunism, and suppressing the benefits of contract use. However, at low levels of perceived unfairness, conflict and opportunism have only a small negative effect on outcomes of channel members.
Sheng, Zhou, and Li (2011)	Relative effects of business versus political ties on firm performance	Social exchange, institutional theories	Business ties increase performance more than political ties do. Effects of business ties are enhanced when legal enforcement is inefficient and technology is changing quickly; effects of political ties are enhanced when government support and technological turbulence are low.
Avery et al. (2012)	Effects of new channels on cross-channel elasticities over time		“The presence of a retail store decreases sales in the catalog but not the Internet channel in the short run but increases sales in both direct channels over time” (p. 96).
Kashyap, Antia, and Frazier (2012)	Effects of ex-ante and ex-post governance mechanisms on agent behavior	Agency theory	“In isolation, franchisor monitoring and enforcement efforts are ineffective in eliciting desired franchisee behaviors. However, different combinations of franchisor monitoring and enforcement efforts affect franchisee compliance and opportunism, sometimes with counterproductive results” (p. 260).
Yang, Su, and Fam (2012)	Effects of institutional environments & governance strategies on international channel performance	TCE, institutional theory	Two governance strategies – contract customization and relational governance – help with efficiency and legitimacy issues in international channel relationships.
Palmatier et al. (2013)	Role of commitment velocity in channel relationships	RM	Commitment velocity impacts performance. Customer trust and firm’s communication capabilities drive commitment velocity more strongly during earlier stages of a relationship. Investment capabilities are important as relationships age.

happening within the entire channel. While there is a growing stream of research in the SCM literature examining triadic relationships (e.g., supplier–supplier–buyer) as the basic building block of channels (Choi and Wu 2009; Li and Choi 2009), there has been relatively little focus on these complex relationships in marketing (see Palmatier et al. 2007 for an exception). Understandably, investigating the entire chain is difficult in terms of access to data and its analysis. But, as Sahin and Robinson (2005) show, the supply chain coordination benefits parties unequally (i.e., transportation partners experience 75 percent reduction in costs, vendors 61 percent, and manufacturers only 2 percent), so conclusions that are generalized to all channel members may not, in fact, apply equally to all. A parallel can be seen in the use of multivariate data techniques and their focus on multiple relationships assessed at the same time, as opposed to multiple single relationships being studied in isolation. Significant paths often disappear when studied in a web of multiple relationships, while other paths emerge and/or are attenuated. Therefore:

Takeaway 2: To advance knowledge in the marketing channels domain beyond the existing understanding of dyadic relationships, researchers should examine how different strategies affect multiple (three or more) nodes of the marketing channel (e.g., agents, wholesalers, retailers, consumers).

Second, the review of the literature revealed a lack of *multiple channel* studies. Today the use of multiple channels to get to the same market has become the norm in many industries (Palmatier et al. 2014). End users enjoy the ability to buy the same product through different channels, and suppliers have the opportunity to increase market penetration. Often, these multi-channels are called “omni-channels” – channels which provide a seamless retail experience across all end-user channels, making products available via multiple channel formats such as computers, mobile devices, brick-and-mortar stores, direct mail, and so forth. With the recent expansion of e-commerce into mobile and other platforms, retailers must compete through an increasingly complex distribution system to reach their final customer. As new technologies continue to blur the line between online and physical channels, retailers are devising new ways of employing smart devices and social networks to engage consumers through this omni-channel perspective (Piotrowicz and Cuthbertson 2014). While there is some recognition of this changing business environment in academic research (e.g., a special issue of the *International Journal of Electronic Commerce* on omni-channel retailing in 2014), overall there has not been a strong push toward understanding the challenges and opportunities facing retailers. But multi-channel distribution comes with its own set of challenges and can affect the entire supply chain. For example, adding another channel will likely have significant inbound effects on suppliers and manufacturers. Existing research tends to examine only one channel of distribution or an addition of an online channel. Yet there are other new kinds of retailing environments that lack empirical investigation, such as the addition of a popular site-to-store option, or Wal-Mart’s introduction of Neighborhood Markets (smaller footprint grocery stores in urban markets). Little is

known about the operational implications of these new innovative distribution channels. Both theory and practice will be improved if research develops a better understanding of the effects of adding/removing channels to existing distribution systems.

Moreover, multiple channels essentially result in different *configurations* of the supply chain and in potentially different financial effects on existing supply chain members and functions. For example, the end consumer can purchase the same Zara jacket from either its brick-and-mortar store or from Zara’s website. However, warehousing, merchandizing, and transportation processes and costs of that same jacket will be different based on the channel of distribution chosen. Often, marketing activities and processes for these two channels are also different. Thus, SCM processes that work well for website purchases may not be optimal for in-store purchases. Not differentiating between performance outcomes and business processes of different supply chain configurations limits our understanding of the optimal set up of marketing channels and the overall supply chain system. Therefore, we suggest:

Takeaway 3: Multiple channel research is needed to optimize the system of different configurations of the supply chain to create the most value for customers of each distribution channel.

Logistics

Definitions and scope. Logistics refers to “that part of supply chain management that plans, implements, and controls the efficient, effective forward and reverse flow and storage of goods, services, and related information between the point of origin and the point of consumption in order to meet customers’ requirements” (CSCMP 2014). Typically it includes activities such as inbound and outbound transportation, warehousing, inventory, materials, order fulfillment, supply/demand planning, and management of third-party logistics service providers. In business, especially in Europe, people often mistakenly refer to supply chain management as logistics or logistics management. Logistics management is “the glue that holds a supply chain together,” a process which *enables* SCM, but does not *replace* it (Pienaar 2007, p. 169).

Marketing research in logistics. Our review indicates that out of the four SCM domains, logistics is the least examined by marketing researchers. Moreover, research on logistics has become very scarce since the early 2000s (see Table 2). This is surprising given logistics’ crucial role in bringing products to market and empirical results indicating that logistics is the second most important domain after marketing channels in terms of its contribution to the overall performance of supply chains (Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014).

Logistics research in marketing was most prevalent in the 1970s, with researchers investigating best approaches to determine store locations (MacKay 1972) and the effects of location on firm performance (Clawson 1974). In contrast to research conducted during this decade in other SCM domains, the majority of logistics studies lacked robust theoretical bases and instead

Table 2
SCM domain – logistics.

Reference	Research focus	Main theories	Findings/implications
Bucklin (1971) Zikmund and Stanton (1971)	Drivers of trade area overlap width Problems associated with recycling		Consumer propensity to shop increases trade area overlap. Successful recycling requires financial incentives, consumer education and careful planning.
Bowersox (1972)	Review of LREPS – simulation model for physical distribution systems		LREPS provides simulations which can offer financial gains for manufacturers and distribution centers in planning changes to existing distribution systems.
MacKay (1972)	Incorporating consumer data into store location decisions		Consumer preferences and shopping patterns help estimate retail store sales. Sequential decision process analysis provides better results than modeling a holistic decision process.
Clawson (1974)	Factors affecting success at a particular location		Branch success is impacted by population, competition, and branch factors. Average success of nearby competition is the largest predictor of branch success.
Cady (1982)	Guidelines for manufacturer vertical restrictions for distributors (VRD)		If legal, VRD may be implemented to stimulate the provision of services subject to free riding, to gain distributors for new products, and to increase market coverage or penetration.
Ghosh and Craig (1983)	Incorporating anticipated environmental changes into location plan decisions		To determine “. . . good sites for expansion, retailers must consider not only their existing stores and those of competition but also the impact that future locational choices will have on their operating success” (p. 66).
Rosenberg and Campbell (1985)	Impact of Just-In-Time inventory management system on channel productivity		The use of JIT along with a cooperative approach to channel relationships would drastically improve channel performance in American firms.
Emmelhainz, Stock, and Emmelhainz (1991)	Customer responses to stock-outs & impact on retailers		“A retailer will lose patronage directly from 13.7 percent of consumers who face a stock-out, . . . however the actual lost sales will likely be higher as only half of the 26.8 percent of consumers who delay purchase plan to return” (p. 144).
Ghosh and Craig (1991)	Maximizing franchise revenues through expansion without cannibalization		FRANSYS location decision process incorporates system revenue, new store revenue and cannibalization of existing stores to model franchise revenues.
Durvasula, Sharma, and Andrews (1993)	Store location model incorporating managerial input		STORELOC model provides better insight into store location decisions since it includes managerial input along with consumer data.
Drezner (1994)	Store selection model incorporating all possible locations		Consideration of a continuous set of location options may result in an optimal profit return.
Bienstock, Mentzer, and Bird (1996)	Development of service quality measure for physical distribution (PDSQ)	Expectancy disconfirmation	PDSQ measure includes timeliness, availability, and condition. PDSQ increases purchase intentions.
Dahlstrom, McNeilly, and Speh (1996)	Antecedents to various governance forms & their effects on logistical channel performance	TCE, social exchange theory	“bilateral alliances emerge through the interaction of user investments in the logistics supplier, supplier logistical services, and marketplace uncertainty. Bilateral alliances attain desired outcomes through participative management and flexibility. . . market-based transactions yield desired outcomes through formalization and solidarity” (p. 110).
Achabal et al. (2000)	Costs and benefits of a vendor managed inventory (VMI) system for retailers		Use of VMI improves inventory management effectiveness and sales forecasting with marginal increases in costs.
Kaufmann, Donthu, and Brooks (2000)	Location selection models incorporating opening delays		Incorporating anticipated opening delays and location information leakage to competition improves location selection models.
Mentzer et al. (2001)	Components of logistics service quality and their effects on customer segments		Logistics service quality is comprised of nine different components which impact various segments of customers differentially.

emphasized a results-based approach with practical applicability regardless of whether a strong theoretical foundation could be incorporated. Similar to other domains, research during this decade focused on simple models with main effects. Curiously, logistics research of the 1980s is mainly conceptual in nature as researchers began considering logistics problems such as stock-outs (Emmelhainz, Stock, and Emmelhainz 1991), just-in-time inventory strategy (Rosenberg and Campbell 1985), and vertical restrictions of distributors by manufacturers (Cady 1982). Location decisions, however, remained an important topic in this decade with the highest cited article examining the effects of environmental changes on strategic location planning (Ghosh and Craig 1983).

Location decisions continued to be the main researched topic for in the 1990s, with academics developing various models to account for more factors, such as cannibalization of existing stores (Ghosh and Craig 1991), managerial judgment (Durvasula, Sharma, and Andrews 1993), and optimal location selection from previously unidentified locations (Drezner 1994). The most highly cited research in both the 1990s and 2000s developed measures of distribution and logistics service quality (Biestock, Mentzer, and Bird 1996; Mentzer et al. 2001). Authors showed not only that customers value *how well* a product is delivered to them (service quality) but also that different customer segments appreciate different aspects of the logistics function.

Main takeaways. Almost all of the reviewed research in logistics in the last five decades was concerned with logistics flows in one direction only – to the customer – while the topic of reverse logistics from the perspective of the supply chain was largely ignored. Reverse logistics refers to the “process of planning, implementing, and controlling the efficient, cost-effective flow of raw materials, in-process inventory, finished goods, and related information from the point of consumption to the point of origin for the purpose of recapturing value or proper disposal” (Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014, p. 136). In the U.S. alone, product returns cost retailers and manufacturers over \$100 billion a year. Companies use product return policies to encourage consumers to spend more while at the same time incurring extra costs due to the product returns (e.g., inventory costs, warehousing costs, re-packaging costs, transportation costs, costs associated with selling the returned product through secondary market channels) (Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014).

Marketing research on this topic is scant and primarily focused on factors that impact individual consumer return behavior. But, from a strategic perspective, research geared toward optimizing return policies based on the expected incremental revenue gained against the costs incurred would be beneficial for supply chain managers. Furthermore, the optimal return policy may differ depending on the country or culture and must account for consumer expectations in a given environment. For instance, Apple’s optimal return policy for products bought in the U.S. may be suboptimal in Russia. Also, the optimal return policy for Apple’s products purchased in its stores may not be appropriate for products purchased from its website. Product returns financially and operationally affect not only the retailer but often also the manufacturer, who may offer to buy back returned products

from the retailer. Thus, research should investigate the impact of the retailer’s optimal return policy on the performance of the manufacturer. What is optimal for the retailer may be disadvantageous for the manufacturer, causing changes in its buy-back policies. Therefore:

Takeaway 4: Research is needed on optimal return policies (expected incremental revenue vs. costs), the effects of culture on this tradeoff, optimal return channels, and the differential effects of return strategies on all supply chain members.

Another neglected topic that falls under reverse logistics and has implications for marketers is the ever-increasing problem of product recalls. For instance, in the U.S., an increase of 54 percent in automobile recalls occurred from 2012 to 2013 (Stericycle Recall Index 2014). Product recalls are complicated by globalization as any given recall can involve many members of the supply chain (e.g., suppliers, manufacturers, retailers) located in different parts of the world. For example, 38 percent of the U.S. Food and Drug Administration’s recalls in the first quarter of 2014 were international, representing a growing trend (Stericycle Recall Index 2014). Further, given how intertwined supply chains are today, a recall of one component or material often results in recalls of hundreds of products that contain it.

The most obvious consequence of product recalls for marketers is the potential damage to the brand and sales (Dawar and Pillutla 2000). However, product recalls can also induce long-lasting problems deep into the supply chain. Inter-organizational relationships between supply chain members may and often do suffer. In fact, strained supplier relationships and recovering costs from suppliers is one of the main concerns associated with product recalls. For instance, in 2006 Dell recalled over 4 million laptops due to overheating batteries supplied by Sony (Sager 2013). Research is needed to better understand how customers attribute blame and responsibility when product recalls affect multiple companies. Questions remain regarding the impact that product recalls have on inter-organizational relationships and effective mitigation strategies. In some cases, it can also be difficult to trace the exact origin or cause of the defect to a specific chain member. The implications of this lack of traceability on the inter-organizational relationships within the supply chain are also unclear. Therefore:

Takeaway 5: Research is needed to understand financial, operational, and relational effects of product recalls and their traceability on all entities/members of the supply chain – including both inbound and outbound members.

Purchasing

Definitions and scope. Within the supply chain, purchasing serves a boundary-spanning role, linking the firm to the sources of supply (e.g., Tan 2002). While early definitions considered purchasing to be a lower-level operating function, mostly dealing with administrative, short-term, ad-hoc decisions and tasks (e.g., Caddick and Dale 1987), recent definitions have a more expansive strategic scope. Today, purchasing refers to “the functions

associated with buying the raw materials, component parts, work in process, products (goods), and services required by the organization to perform its value-added activities and ultimately satisfy its end-customers” (Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014, p. 142). Some of these functions include supplier identification and selection, contract negotiation, buying, supply market research, and supplier performance assessment (e.g., Monczka et al. 2011). The main objective of purchasing is to acquire the right input of the right quantity and quality needed to manufacture the products at the right time and for the right price (e.g., Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014).

Over the years, purchasing has evolved to a broader, more strategic and future-oriented concept known as “supply management,” which refers to “identification, acquisition, access, positioning, management of resources and related capabilities the organization needs or potentially needs in the attainment of its strategic objectives” (ISM 2014). This requires purchasing professionals to seek strategic responsibilities, which are those that contribute to the organization’s long-term performance, align efforts with the organizational mission and strategies, and develop close, collaborative relationships with key suppliers (Monczka et al. 2011). Since supply management activities are mainly performed by the “purchasing function,” purchasing research often includes the examination of supply management phenomena.

Marketing research in purchasing. Research on purchasing as a domain and purchasing within supply chains appears in marketing journals rather infrequently (see Table 3). Rather, purchasing is the most defined of the four domains in SCM (i.e., marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations), with its own targeted journals and relatively isolated scope.

In the early 1970s, an important gap in the purchasing literature was the lack of understanding of the organizational buyer’s role. Recognizing that significant differences exist between consumer behavior and organizational buying behavior, researchers began to study industrial buying behavior and the buying process (e.g., Webster and Wind 1972). For example, different conceptual models of organizational buying behavior were developed to understand the elements that impact the decision-making process (e.g., Choffray and Lilien 1978; Sheth 1973). Research was primarily descriptive, and the initial focus on examining the organizational and environmental factors that impact the purchaser’s decisions continued throughout the decade (e.g., Cardozo and Cagley 1971; Spekman and Stern 1979) and into the next (e.g., Jackson, Keith, and Burdick 1984). While much interest remained in investigating organizational buying behavior, the 1980s was marked by an increased attention to empirical work. Generally, these studies relied on cross-sectional surveys of individual key informants (e.g., Kohli 1989). In addition, studies that sought to validate theories, such as the buyclass theory of purchasing (e.g., Anderson, Chu, and Weitz 1987) and cognitive script theory (e.g., Leigh and Rethans 1984), emerged in the purchasing literature.

The 1990s brought a shift in the main focus of purchasing research in the top marketing journals from organizational buying behavior to buyer–seller relationships (e.g., Noordewier, John, and Nevin 1990; Stump and Heide 1996) – a focus that

remains to this day. Buyer–seller relationships and buyer–seller “dyads” have become the norm in purchasing-based marketing research. Also, the growing interest in understanding relationships corresponded to a key trend in the business environment at the time, where traditional “arm’s length” interactions were being replaced by closer, more collaborative relationships (e.g., Heide and John 1990). In connection with the emerging attention directed toward relationships, researchers began to explore the performance outcomes of purchasing arrangements, where purchasing performance was viewed from an efficiency perspective and referred to the minimization of purchasing costs (e.g., Noordewier, John, and Nevin 1990). Another important trend in the macroenvironment was increased globalization, which drove interest in examining the international purchasing process. For instance, Money, Gilly, and Graham (1998) investigated the impact of national culture on organizational buying behavior and found that Japanese companies use more word-of-mouth referrals than do U.S. companies, regardless of the country where the actual operations take place.

The application of theories to develop hypotheses and guide empirical work on purchasing also became more common during this decade. Specifically, theories of relational governance such as transaction cost analysis – and agency theory to a lesser extent – gained prominence as a basis to study how buyer–supplier relationships are managed (e.g., Stump and Heide 1996). Empirically, while the practice of cross-sectional surveys using single key informants for data collection was prevalent (e.g., Noordewier, John, and Nevin 1990; Perdue and Summers 1991), longitudinal studies (e.g., Patterson, Johnson, and Spreng 1997) as well as studies using dyadic data appeared more and more frequently in the literature (e.g., Heide and John 1990).

Work on buyer–seller relationships extended into 2000s. Research on vertical coordination (Buvik and John 2000), the bargaining process (Iyer and Villas-Boas 2003), and plural governance (Heide 2003) advanced the understanding of the nature of these dyadic relationships. Interest in the performance implications of purchasing relationships continued. Similar to research from the 1990s, in the 2000s purchasing performance was defined as the reduction of purchasing costs, particularly ex post transaction costs such as haggling and documentation (Buvik and John 2000). Additionally, in response to the then-current trend toward corporate downsizing, another topic explored was the impact of downsizing on organizational buying behavior (e.g., Lewin 2001). Theory-driven, empirical work remained popular. As in previous decades, researchers relied heavily on cross-sectional surveys of individual key informants as the data gathering technique (e.g., Buvik and John 2000; Heide 2003; Lewin 2001) – a practice that continues to this day (e.g., Scheer, Miao, and Garrett 2010).

Since 2010, purchasing research in marketing has continued to focus on relationships. However, recent work signals a move from examining relationships in the buyer–supplier dyad to those within networks of firms, including suppliers and retail channel members. For example, Seevers, Skinner, and Dahlstrom (2010) draw on social network theory to develop and test a framework that links a retail buyer’s network relationships to

Table 3
SCM domain – purchasing.

Reference	Research focus	Main theories	Findings/implications
Webster (1970)	Prevalence of word of mouth communications in industrial markets	Information processing theory	Word of mouth communications occur less frequently in B2B and industrial buyers expect highly skilled salespeople and professional communications.
Cardozo and Cagley (1971)	Antecedents to industrial purchasing decision	Theory of buyer behavior	Experience with a selling firm, clear information about product offerings, and low price appeals increase industrial purchase likelihood.
Sheth (1973)	Conceptual model of industrial buyer behavior		A conceptual model of industrial buyer behavior where the decision is based on characteristics of the product, company, buyer, salesperson, and the situation.
Choffray and Lilien (1978)	The nature of the industrial buying process	Theory of buyer behavior	Develops a model of the industrial buying process based on buying center responsibilities, environmental constraints, and organizational requirements.
Spekman and Stern (1979)	Buying center “group decision making” process	Organization theory	Information needs across the members of a group buying center differ; buying center organization is bureaucratic; uncertainty drives joint participation and the influence of the purchasing agent within the buying center.
Jackson, Keith, and Burdick (1984)	Influence of members within a manufacturer’s buying center	Cognitive script theory	Engineering and manufacturing have more influence for product decisions; purchasing has more influence for supplier selection; engineering, purchasing and manufacturing are more influential than management in all purchase decisions.
Leigh and Rethans (1984)	Existence of scripts that guide organizational buying behavior		Scripts exist and impact the purchasing process. When salesperson behavior does not align with existing scripts, the buyer is less responsive to sales efforts.
Anderson (1986)	Factors impacting the decision to vertically integrate a salesforce	TCE, agency theory	Direct sales forces are common when salesperson’s performance evaluation is difficult, product line is complex, and the sales task requires nonselling activities.
Anderson, Chu, and Weitz (1987)	Empirical examination of the “new task, straight rebuy, modified rebuy” buyclass framework	Power/influence	Buying center behavior coincides with buyclass framework: in new tasks, buying centers tend to be larger and take longer to make decisions; when purchases are more routine, buying centers are smaller and quicker to make decisions.
Kohli (1989)	Sources of influence among members of a buying center		Expert power dominates in larger, more viscid committees that aren’t under time pressure; reinforcement power dominates in smaller, less viscid committees under time pressure and when numerous influence attempts are made.
Heide and John (1990)	Determinants of joint action in buyer–supplier relationships	TCE	With greater uncertainty and transaction-specific assets, bilateral governance is a safeguarding mechanism instead of monitoring with market governance.
Noordewier, John, and Nevin (1990)	Impact of relational governance on industrial purchasing performance	TCE	Relational governance improves performance under conditions of high uncertainty. No effect of relational governance in low uncertainty.
Perdue and Summers (1991)	Negotiation strategies of buyers in industrial rebuys		Supplier competition increases manipulation of perceptions & problem solving, decreases tough tactics; cooperative orientation decreases tough tactics & increases problem solving; material cost savings increases all strategies, formal planning increases problem solving and tough tactics.
Bunn (1993)	Characteristics of the purchase context and buyer behavior that impact organizational buy classes		Development of a buyclass taxonomy including six purchasing type situations: casual purchase; routine low priority; simple modified rebuy; judgmental new task; complex modified rebuy; and strategic new task.

Table 3
(Continued)

Reference	Research focus	Main theories	Findings/implications
Stump and Heide (1996)	Factors that impact the choice of control mechanism used in interorganizational relationships	TCE, agency theory	Performance ambiguity reduces the choice of monitoring and qualification of ability. Low correlations were found between choices of control mechanisms suggesting that they may represent some comparative advantage for the firm.
Patterson, Johnson, and Spreng (1997)	Determinants of customer satisfaction with professional services	Expectancy-disconfirmation	Disconfirmation of expectations has a greater impact on satisfaction than does actual performance. Fairness and performance also increase satisfaction.
Money, Gilly, and Graham (1998)	Cultural impacts on WOM referrals in industrial services	Acculturation & social network theories	Japanese firms, firms located in Japan and firms located in foreign countries consult a greater number of referrals; tie strength and centrality are greater for Japanese firms and firms located in a foreign culture.
Buvik and John (2000)	Vertical coordination in industrial purchasing relationships	TCE	Vertical coordination to deal with high levels of uncertainty increases transaction costs with high levels of supplier specific investments; and decreases transaction costs with moderate levels of supplier specific investments.
Lewin (2001)	Effects of downsizing on organizational buying behavior	Threat-rigidity, administration theory	Degree of downsizing increases role conflict; negativity of outcome expectations increases role conflict, risk aversion and centralization of decision making decrease organizational commitment and participative decision making.
Heide (2003)	Conditions that motivate the use of plural governance in industrial purchasing	TCE, agency theory	Information asymmetry, uncertainty and the interaction between uncertainty and buyer-investments increase plural governance. Plural governance increases centralization and formalization, however this effect decreases over time.
Iyer and Villas-Boas (2003)	Distribution channel bargaining power	TCE	If a product is not fully specifiable, two-part tariffs are suboptimal; bargaining results in simple wholesale price; retailer power drives channel coordination; manufacturer power increases double-marginalization; decreases coordination.
Stremersch et al. (2003)	Factors impacting purchase concentration and outsourcing in modular technology systems	TCE	Buyer's know-how has an inverted-U effect on preference for outsourcing; technological volatility increases preference for outsourcing; moderate tech. know-how has lowest preference for single-sourcing; fear of tacit knowledge leakage and greater tech. volatility decrease preference for single-sourcing.
Scheer, Miao, and Garrett (2010)	Impact of supplier capabilities on customer dependence and loyalty	RBV, dependence	Relational loyalty is driven by communication capability and benefit-based dependence; benefit-based dependence driven by core-offering and operations capabilities; cost-based dependence, driven by operations capability, and leads to insensitivity to competitive offerings; relational loyalty drives insensitivity to competitive offerings and future sales expansion.
Seevers, Skinner, and Dahlstrom (2010)	Impact of retailer social network on purchasing performance	Social capital theory	Number of social contacts is positively related to contact position, which drives access to marketplace information, word of mouth referrals, and attaining influence, which all drive purchasing performance.

performance. These researchers have also paid additional attention to the performance implications of purchasing phenomena in recent years. Interestingly, an effectiveness, rather than an efficiency, approach is now being adopted to define purchasing performance – as a sales revenue measure suggests.

Main takeaways. The evolution of purchasing research in top marketing journals shows that one important shift in the literature is the unit of analysis (cf. Frankel et al. 2008). The initial emphasis was on the *individual organization* and its buying behavior (1970s and 1980s). This was then expanded to a focus on *buyer–seller dyadic relationships* (1990s and 2000s) and later to *network relationships* (2010). With a few exceptions (e.g., Seevers, Skinner, and Dahlstrom 2010), this network view of purchasing has not received enough attention. In line with recent research (e.g., Seevers, Skinner, and Dahlstrom 2010) and consistent with today's complex SCM business environment, future purchasing research should concentrate on the networks of organizations in the supply chain and across different units within the organization as the focal point. To this end, novel approaches of data collection will be necessary, since the use of single key informants – a popular data collection technique in past decades – will not accurately capture network relationships. Theories such as social network theory, social capital theory, and systems theory will be useful to guide purchasing research with a network perspective as they take into account different network elements and the interconnections among them.

Takeaway 6: Purchasing research should focus on the network as the key unit of analysis to gain a better understanding of contemporary purchasing phenomena, especially in an era where competition is oftentimes supply chain vs. supply chain or marketing channel vs. marketing channel (instead of company vs. company).

Our review also reveals a gradual interest in understanding the connection between purchasing issues and performance since 1990s. A noteworthy change over this time period is researchers' approach to performance. In contrast to research in past decades, which viewed purchasing performance from an efficiency perspective, defining performance as the minimization of purchasing costs (e.g., Buvik and John 2000; Noordewier, John, and Nevin 1990), recent work adopts an effectiveness perspective which focuses on measures such as sales revenue (e.g., Seevers, Skinner, and Dahlstrom 2010). This shift is important as it leads to the examination of the value-adding aspects, as opposed to the cost reduction aspects, of purchasing. Yet, based on our review, this “value” area is still in its infancy, and significant voids exist. Future research may concentrate on gaining a better understanding of the interplay among purchasing, marketing, and performance. This area would benefit from longitudinal studies to capture changes in performance over different time periods. Additionally, strategic theories such as the resource-based view (Kozlenkova, Samaha, and Palmatier 2014), resource-advantage theory, and the knowledge-based view of the firm can inform research seeking to examine the linkage between purchasing and performance. These theories can be used to identify strategic resources and capabilities not

just of the purchasing unit, but of the entire supply chain, which can lead to superior outcomes. Effectiveness and value drive our next takeaway:

Takeaway 7: Researchers should adopt an effectiveness approach to purchasing outcomes by defining performance as the creation of value in the supply chain. This includes focusing on value-enhancing “competitive priorities” such as quality and flexibility, as well as on organization-level return measures (e.g., ROI).

Our review also demonstrates that over the past decades, purchasing research in the top marketing journals has, for the most part, been conducted in isolation (cf. Zacharia, Sanders, and Fugate 2014). An exception to this tendency is recent work that examines purchasing from a marketing channels perspective, where the buyer is a “retail buyer” (e.g., Seevers, Skinner, and Dahlstrom 2010). However, other key aspects of the supply chain (i.e., logistics and operations) have been largely ignored. This finding of a “silos” approach to purchasing research is unfortunate since it suggests that, in general, prior research does not accurately reflect the way organizations operate in the “real” world, where purchasing often needs to interact with other SCM functions. This will increasingly occur as organizations seek to tactically and strategically integrate purchasing with the other components of the supply chain. Going forward, researchers need to recognize the interdependencies that exist between purchasing and other SCM processes in order to effectively incorporate purchasing research into the broader scheme of SCM research. For example, order fulfillment is a key outcome area in purchasing that also captures critical aspects of marketing channels, logistics, and operations. This calls for research integration across functions and processes. Specifically, the network view discussed in Takeaway six would be beneficial to this research integration. Such perspective essentially approaches purchasing as an element that is linked to other elements in the supply chain, which are all in turn, interconnected.

Takeaway 8: Researchers should examine the interface between purchasing and other SCM processes (i.e., marketing channels, logistics, and operations), by integrating research emanating from these different areas, while paying particular attention to critical overlaps in concepts (e.g., order fulfillment).

Operations

Definitions and scope. The domain of operations has been plagued by a definitional challenge that remains unresolved (Frankel et al. 2008). The cause of this challenge is multifaceted, but it is largely due to the changing nature of the macro-economy and differences in academic and practitioner perspectives regarding what topics should concern operations management practitioners and researchers (Sprague 2007). Most agree that the origin of the operations field began with the scientific study of factory management. More recently the economic shift in many industrialized nations toward service-based

Table 4
SCM domain – operations.

Reference	Research focus	Main theories	Findings/implications
Jolson and Rossow (1971)	Group decision making process for demand uncertainty	Delphi decision making	The use of prior probabilities and projections by a group is superior to relying on the opinion of one group member.
Samli and Bellas (1971)	Application of probabilistic decision making to marketing research	Flowgraph theory	Graphical evaluation and review technique (GERT) provides project cost and time probabilities based on real costs and time projections.
Hulbert, Farley, and Howard (1972)	Determination if a channel member's MIS system should be computerized		Presents a process for determining information needs of an organization to help in the decision to computerize a marketing information system.
Gibson et al. (1973)	Evolutionary marketing information systems		Continual updating of channel marketing information systems improves response to changing consumer concerns and market conditions.
Mallen (1973)	Factors impacting a channel's anticipation of distribution changes		The estimation of relevant cost and market data improves anticipation of channel changes including functional spinoffs.
King and Cleland (1974)	Incorporation of external information into the strategic planning process		The incorporation of objective, externally generated environmental information improves strategic marketing plans.
Tauber (1975)	"Problem inventory analysis" for new product development		Problems with existing products inform manufacturers to determine necessary product improvements and new product opportunities.
Cox and Havens (1977)	Territory sales potential impact on forecasts and performance criteria		Predictions of sales potential and individual distributor performance are improved by using individual customer information (sales per employee).
Hulbert, Brandt, and Richers (1980)	Alignment of marketing planning across multinational subsidiaries		Joint participation, collaboration, home office planning and communication capabilities improve marketing planning across multinational subsidiaries.
Tybout, Calder, and Sternthal (1981)	Combatting the effects of negative rumors	Info. processing theory	Retrieval and storage strategies outperform refuting strategies to counteract negative rumors in a retail setting.
Doutt (1984)	Factors that affect productivity among fast food retailers	Total factor productivity	Franchised fast-food retailers obtain a sales advantage over independent retailers, but also maintain higher food and labor costs.
John and Martin (1984)	Effects of organization structure on credibility and use of marketing plans	Organizational theory	Formalized, decentralized planning processes increase the credibility and utilization of strategic marketing plans.
Rao and McLaughlin (1989)	Channel intermediary decisions to carry or reject new products	Economic theory	Unique products, high expectations of growth, and low competition improve the channel intermediary's acceptance of new products.
Goldman (1992)	Performance evaluation standards in cross-national channels	Positivism, institutional theories	Cultural norms, traditions, practices, historical events, and social & political beliefs are important when evaluating the performance of cross-national channels
Rangan, Menezes, and Maier (1992)	Channel choice decision for new industrial products	TCE	A process based on eight product factors (product info., customization, quality assurance, lot size, assortment, availability, after-sales service, logistics) is outlined to aid in distribution channel decisions for new industrial products.
McIntyre, Achabal, and Miller (1993)	Retail sales forecasting		A case-based reasoning process is developed that uses statistically weighted historical examples and expert opinions to forecast retail sales.
Andaleeb and Basu (1994)	Retail service satisfaction	Equity theory	Fairness, empathy, responsiveness, reliability, and convenience improve service satisfaction. The effect of fairness increases with low knowledge and high technical complexity.
Purohit and Staelin (1994)	Managing secondary (rental) distribution channels	TCE	Sales to rental agencies benefit manufacturers in all channel structures; dealer performance depends on the channel structure, dealers benefit more than manufacturers when resale cars and new cars are substitutable.

DeSarbo, Ramaswamy, and Chatterjee (1995)	Segmentation of industrial purchasing		Develops a methodology using multiple constant-sum criteria to determine segment membership of industrial buyers and segment-level parameters for multiple dependent criteria.
Subrahmanyam and Shoemaker (1996)	Retail pricing and inventory policies	Dynamic programming with learning	Develops an analytical model for dynamic optimal pricing and inventory policies incorporating retailer learning throughout the season.
Bayus, Jain, and Rao (1997)	New product introductions	Game theory	Time to market, product performance, and product development costs of the firm and competitors impact the potential first-mover advantage.
Urban (1998)	Retail product assortment and shelf-space allocation		Optimizes inventory and shelf-space allocation based on displayed inventory, empty shelf space, and inventory costs.
Bloom, Gundlach, and Cannon (2000)	Grocery store slotting allowances and fees		Manufacturers and retailers agree that slotting fees increase retail prices, retailer power, and competition; shift risk to the manufacturer, balance supply/demand.
Gruen and Shah (2000)	Category management between channel members	Agency, social exchange theories	Pre-planning agreements, brand management, category plan objectivity, retailer trust, and the implementation of a management plan improve grocery store category success.
Leszczyc, Sinha, and Timmermans (2000)	Impacts of consumer characteristics on grocery store choice and switching		Segments consumers based on probabilities of store choice determined by intershopping time and repeat trips to stores within the same grocery chain.
Basuroy et al. (2001)	Impact of category management on retailer prices and performance		Category management adoption increases unit price, reduces sales volume & revenues, and increases profits when interbrand competition is high and store switching is low.
Boatwright and Nunes (2001)	The effect of reductions in retail assortment on sales		Online grocery sales increased with category reductions, however this effect reversed if reductions were too large.
Tsay (2001)	Manufacturer return and markdown policies for retailer overstock		The choice between offering returns or markdown money depends on retailer capabilities and the costs of handling and liquidating overstock.
Kumar, Shah, and Venkatesan (2006)	Customer lifetime value (CLV) impact on retailer profitability	RBV	Marketing segmentation and planning based on CLV (function of gross contribution, unit marketing costs, # of contacts, inter purchase frequency, # of purchases, and time horizon) simultaneously improve profit & customer loyalty.
Sudhir and Rao (2006)	Slotting allowances effect on efficiency and competition	Signaling theory	Slotting allowances increase the efficiency of retail shelf allocation, balance product failure risk, signal new product success, and reduce retail competition.
Joshi (2009)	Communication and control effects on supplier performance	Control theory	The effects of collaborative communication on supplier improvement are mediated fully by affective commitment and supplier knowledge. These effects are enhanced by capability control and output control.
Esper et al. (2010)	Creation of customer value through demand- and supply-focused processes	Customer value & knowledge theories	Builds a conceptual argument that demand-focused and supply-focused processes should be integrated throughout the firm to improve efficiency & effectiveness.
Gurnani, Sharma, and Grewal (2010)	Optimal manufacturer return policies		Under demand uncertainty, partial returns policies (less than cost) are optimal as they do not decrease retailer orders and increase profitability.
Waller et al. (2010)	Impact of retail shelf space strategies on market share		Case pack quantity and number of facings increase market share more with a HiLo price strategy than EDLP, and price reduces market share more with an EDLP than HiLo pricing strategy.

Table 4
(Continued)

Reference	Research focus	Main theories	Findings/implications
Gooner, Morgan, and Perrault (2011)	Retail category management impact on retailer performance	Governance value analysis theory	Category management intensity improves results, category captains increase CM efforts and results without increasing opportunism or conflict with other suppliers.
Wu, Basuroy, and Beldona (2011)	Production cost impacts on channel pricing strategies		Production costs impact manufacturer's pricing (\$-amount wholesale or margin, vs. % margin), which impact retailer's price (% vs. \$-amount of retail margin). Channel profit increases when manufacturers use dollar-amount margin pricing.
Calantone and Di Benedetto (2012)	Factors impacting lean product launch success		Market orientation & cross-functional integration increase marketing effort & lean launches, increasing performance. Launch timing enhances effects of lean launch.
Girju, Prasad, and Ratchford (2013)	Optimal manufacturer and retailer product bundling strategies		In integrated channels, product bundling enhances channel profits. In decentralized channels, bundling increases retailer and manufacturer profits if the manufacturer can avoid unbundling by the retailer.
Srinivasan et al. (2013)	Effects of store openings and closings on retail chain performance		Opening stores decreases value of firms with higher market share, advertising intensity, or chain size. Closing stores increases value of firms with greater retailer age and size.

industries has resulted in efforts to incorporate service operations into traditional operations processes, both conceptually and in practice (Chase and Apte 2007). The challenge to define the boundaries of the domain of operations, in light of the reality of the economic changes taking place, are evident in the lack of consensus regarding current definitions of the field of operations.

APICS, the association for operations management, defines operations as “a field of study that focuses on the effective planning, scheduling, use, and control of a manufacturing or service organization through the study of concepts from design engineering, industrial engineering, management information systems, quality management, production management, inventory management, accounting, and other functions as they affect the operation” (Blackstone 2013, p. 115). This is a broad definition, as all activities – marketing, accounting, finance, HR, and so forth – that directly or indirectly impact the production process fall within the operations domain. Academics define operations more narrowly, as the “design, direction, and control of processes that transform inputs into services and products for internal, as well as external, customers” (Frankel et al. 2008, p. 8; cf. Krajewski, Ritzman, and Malhotra 2013).

Marketing research in operations. Conducting a review of operations research in marketing journals highlights a portion of the definitional challenge facing OM researchers today. Based on the APICS definition of operations, most marketing research published in managerially relevant marketing journals could be categorized within the operations discipline. In conducting our review, we focused on the academic definition of operations and summarized publications that deal primarily with the transformation of resource-inputs (be they financial, personnel, time, etc.) into outputs as summarized in Table 4.

Marketing research in operations in the 1970s focused on developing tools to aid managers in strategic decision making (Jolson and Rossow 1971; Samli and Bellas 1971), implementing marketing information systems (Gibson et al. 1973; Mallen 1973), and forecasting sales (Cox and Havens 1977). Much of the research was based in case studies of one firm or was conceptual in nature, lacking empirical complexity. The 1980s saw a shift toward survey-based research to investigate links between strategic planning and performance indicators (Hulbert, Brandt, and Richers 1980; John and Martin 1984), and the new product development process (Rao and McLaughlin 1989). We also see early evidence of experimental research and analytical modeling investigating strategic planning and demand forecasting (Rao and McLaughlin 1989; Tybout, Calder, and Sternthal 1981). Marketing research in operations shifted toward more empirical rigor during the 1980s, a trend which continued into the 1990s and beyond.

Marketing research in operations during the 1990s became more technical in nature as the prevalence of analytical modeling increased, sometimes combined with primary data to validate the analytical model (e.g., DeSarbo, Ramaswamy, and Chatterjee 1995). Much of the research focused on product introduction strategies (Bayus, Jain, and Rao 1997; Urban 1998); however, research contexts also expanded to include interorganizational and market investigations (Goldman 1992; Rangan, Menezes, and Maier 1992). The turn of the century saw a refined empirical

focus as marketing research in operations adopted econometric modeling using longitudinal “Big Data” (large secondary data sources) to estimate both customer behavior patterns (Kumar, Shah, and Venkatesan 2006) and the impact of managerial product and assortment strategies (Boatwright and Nunes 2001; Sudhir and Rao 2006). A consistent theme of research during this decade was the management of supplier–retailer relationships and the social and financial implications of slotting allowances for retail shelf space (Bloom, Gundlach, and Cannon 2000; Sudhir and Rao 2006). Cross-sectional survey research was common during this period using dyadic (Gruen and Shah 2000) and individual respondents (Joshi 2009).

These patterns have continued into the current decade as research has continued to employ increasingly complex data and empirical approaches focusing on the response to strategic marketing operations at the interorganizational and product levels. Some of the more integrative lines of research include investigations of factors impacting manufacturer price-setting policies (Gurnani, Sharma, and Grewal 2010; Wu, Basuroy, and Beldona 2011), product bundling (Girju, Prasad, and Ratchford 2013), and the strategic planning of multi-location retailer store openings and closings (Srinivasan et al. 2013).

Main takeaways. The definitional challenge of operations as a discipline introduces theoretical and practical complications when attempting to apply operations concepts to strategic marketing research. By adding the phrase “and other functions as they affect the organization,” the APICS definition can be applied to encompass all business functions and explicitly include, for example, accounting as one of the functions within the purview of operations. This phrase also implies that marketing is a sub-discipline of operations. While there is a clear need for inter-disciplinary coordination both in practice and in academics, without a clear understanding of the boundaries of a discipline, leaders in the field lack the directional clarity necessary to advance the science. Further, those in other fields (e.g., strategic marketing) lack clarity as to how these concepts might benefit their own research or practice. In a recent SCM review article, Frankel et al. (2008) explain that operations management research has recently been dominated by logistics and supply chain issues, raising the question: “How is operations management different from logistics or channels research within the SCM discipline?” Within marketing, there are three broad sub-disciplines: strategy, consumer behavior, and modeling. While there are examples of blurring the lines between these domains, current operations definitions subsume nearly all of strategic marketing, as well as a good portion of the modeling research, published in marketing journals. While the topic of operations necessarily spans a broad range of business functions, marketing researchers and practitioners would benefit from clearly outlining the boundaries of the operations discipline so that researchers have a clear path in directing future research.

Takeaway 9: Marketing channels researchers would be better able to apply operations concepts if the boundaries of the operations field were more clearly defined.

Theoretically, operations and strategic marketing share a common goal: finding the most effective means of delivering value to customers. The difference between the two, while subtle, appears to be most notable in the strategic focus to reach this goal. The field of operations has grown from the need to improve the *efficiency* of the production process. If *effectiveness* is defined as meeting customer needs, the operations perspective may treat this as the secondary goal, or a necessary component of, and an input into, the efficiency problem. On the other hand, marketing focuses on the value proposition from the perspective of the customer first and foremost. Marketing *effectiveness* isn’t determined by how well products and services are manufactured given certain production specifications; rather it is determined by how well those specifications result in products that align with customers’ needs and desires. If marketing and operations are viewed as parts of the same system, established theory in management acknowledges the fact that for optimal overall system performance, it is often necessary to combine sub-systems that are less than optimal individually – in other words, trade-offs may be necessary by operations, strategic marketing, or both (Sprague 2007).

Clearly, business success depends on the coordination of operations and marketing. In fact, this interdependence has motivated the publication of multiple special issues of *Journal of Operations Management* on the marketing–operations interface (Malhotra and Sharma 2002). However, the marketing field seems to lag in the recognition of this interdependence. While research has empirically demonstrated that greater coordination between operations and marketing is beneficial for the firm (Calantone, Droge and Vickery 2002), marketing would benefit by working closely with operations to investigate the impact of marketing and operational inputs on both *efficiency* and *effectiveness*. Exemplars do exist in both fields (e.g., Boyer and Hult (2005) in operations and Marinova and Singh (2008) in marketing); however, marketing often fails to incorporate operations concepts into its research.

Takeaway 10: Marketing channels research and practice will benefit by examining the effectiveness and efficiency of process inputs into the various marketing functions (e.g., sales, communications, product design, promotions).

One area in which these operations concepts would benefit marketing channels specifically is through the design of more efficient service delivery technologies. Economic shifts toward services have driven the use of innovative technologies in service industries. These changes include not only online retailing but also self-service, limited service, and personalized service delivery channels (e.g., online medical consultations). Marketing research examining these new service technologies is in a very early stage. While there has been limited research investigating the strategic design of various service delivery channels (e.g., Lund and Marinova 2014), the operations perspective on scientific management would benefit marketers in conceptualizing how to define generalizable components of service delivery channels to identify best practices that maximize value for the business and the customer. For example,

Table 5
Summary of takeaways.

		Theories
Marketing channels		
1	Where overlap is theoretically and practically relevant, interdisciplinary, cross-functional integration of research would allow for a more comprehensive examination of issues important to value-driven and total cost-focused SCM.	Institutional theory; Network theory; Systems theory
2	To advance knowledge in the marketing channels domain beyond the existing understanding of dyadic relationships, researchers should examine how different strategies affect multiple (three or more) nodes of the marketing channel (e.g., agents, wholesalers, retailers, consumers).	Network theory; Transaction-cost economics; Social exchange theory
3	Multiple channel research is needed to optimize the system of different configurations of the supply chain to create the most value for customers of each distribution channel.	Contingency theory; Network theory
Logistics		
4	Research is needed on optimal return policies (expected incremental revenue vs. costs), the effects of culture on this tradeoff, optimal return channels, and the differential effects of return strategies on all supply chain members.	Contingency theory; Resource-based view
5	Research is needed to understand financial, operational and relational effects of product recalls and their traceability on all entities/members of the supply chain – including both inbound and outbound members.	Relationship marketing; Contingency theory
Purchasing		
6	Purchasing research should focus on the network as the key unit of analysis to gain a better understanding of contemporary purchasing phenomena, especially in an era where competition is oftentimes supply chain versus supply chain or marketing channel versus marketing channel (instead of company vs. company).	Network theory; Social capital theory; Systems theory
7	Researchers should adopt an effectiveness approach to purchasing outcomes by defining performance as the creation of value in the supply chain. This includes focusing on value-enhancing “competitive priorities” such as quality and flexibility, as well as, on organization-level return measures (e.g., ROI).	Resource-based view; Resource-advantage theory; Knowledge-based view
8	Researchers should examine the interface between purchasing and other SCM processes (i.e., marketing channels, logistics, and operations), by integrating research emanating from these different areas, while paying particular attention to critical overlaps in concepts (e.g., order fulfillment).	Network theory; Social capital theory; Systems theory
Operations		
9	Marketing channels researchers would be better able to apply operations concepts if the boundaries of the operations field were more clearly defined.	Institutional theory
10	Marketing channels research and practice will benefit by examining the effectiveness and efficiency of process inputs into the various marketing functions (e.g., sales, communications, product design, promotions).	Contingency theory; Resource-based view
11	Marketing channels researchers should investigate the relative impacts of efficient versus effective service design technologies through multiple service delivery channels (online, self-service, mobile apps, etc.) across industries.	Service quality versus economic theories
Integrated		
12	The SCM functions of logistics, purchasing, and operations should serve as the coordinated and integrated input (embedded in the selection of strategic chain partners, critical activity links, and strategic resource ties) into the customer value-creating function of marketing channels in supply chain management.	Network theory; Resource-based view; Systems theory

Lund and Marinova (2014) find that efficiency considerations have a greater impact on consumers who use remote service delivery channels, whereas effectiveness concerns (of the service delivery design) are more impactful in on-site service delivery channels. The focus could be both on physical design aspects of the service delivery technology and on managing the production and delivery of services through innovative technologies. Little is known about the relative effectiveness of marketing communication strategies delivered to customers who prefer one technology over another, or the preferences for personalized service between different service delivery options.

Takeaway 11: Marketing channels researchers should investigate the relative impacts of efficient vs. effective service design technologies through multiple service delivery channels (online, self-service, mobile apps, etc.) across industries.

Conclusion

The “intellectual ecology of mainstream marketing research” was the topic of a recent article by Clark et al. (2014), who focused on the “place of marketing in the family of business disciplines” (p. 223). The authors’ conclusion is troubling but could also serve as an opportunity for marketing scholars; they suggest, based on citation flows within and across business fields from 1990 to 2011 (accounting, finance, management, and marketing), that “marketing is the least influential of the mainstream academic business disciplines.” Meanwhile, others argue that marketing is one of the most influential processes in *business practice* (Hult, Closs, and Frayer 2014). There is a clear disconnect between academic and business perceptions of marketing within the companies’ arsenals. An argument can be made that research on SCM faces similar issues. However, the issue in SCM potentially looms even larger. That is, with existing definitional boundaries of the four core supply chain functions, the influence that research in one function has on research of another function in SCM is rather limited.

The set of 11 takeaways is intended to bridge the gap of what we know and what we need to know in coupling issues such as efficiency (operations) with effectiveness (marketing channels) within the framework of strategically purchased (supply management) input for value creation throughout all of the nodes in the supply chain (logistics). The 11 specific takeaways related to marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations can be integrated as follows:

Takeaway 12: The SCM functions of logistics, purchasing, and operations should serve as the coordinated and integrated input (embedded in the selection of strategic chain partners, critical activity links, and strategic resource ties) into the customer value-creating function of marketing channels in supply chain management.

Takeaway 12 spells out the unique and integrated nature of the four functions of marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations. Marketing channels is where the ultimate value-creating aspects of the chain are tested in the chain’s relationship

with end-customers. Naturally, value is developed, integrated, and coordinated along the entities (“actors”), activity links, and resource ties in the overall supply chain. However, the “real value” is assessed when customers have their say in terms of buying, or not, the product or service created. In that sense, one way to view supply chain management is where logistics, purchasing, and operations serve as the coordinated and integrated input (embedded in the selection of strategic chain partners, critical activity links, and strategic resource ties) into the customer value-creating function of marketing channels in supply chain management.

Within the context of creating end-customer value, it is important to note that marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations (both operations management and operations research) come with their inherently idiosyncratic uses of theories, data, and perspectives of what provides practical value. However, unique idiosyncrasies can be leveraged in a positive sense to drive a firm’s strategic resources and competitive advantage. Resource ties have long been one of the reasons for interorganizational relationships; it then appears merely logical that a resource-based theory approach should be a fruitful avenue to connect actors, activity links, and resource ties in marketing-based SCM (Andaleeb and Basu 1994). Of course, a myriad of other theories can also be effective in capturing the unique potential synergies across marketing channels, logistics, purchasing, and operations within and across organizational boundaries. In effect, supply chains are a component of “boundary-spanning marketing organizations,” and these forms of “marketing organizations” can be informed by a number of organization theories we suggest in Table 5.

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