

# A look into the past and future: theories within supply chain management, marketing and management

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## Abstract

**Purpose** – Although supply chain scholars have acknowledged the fundamental disruptive changes experienced by today's supply chains and the ensuing novelty of the research problems worthy of investigation, they have primarily relied on a limited number of theories to help explain the phenomena of interest. The purpose of this paper is to use a systematic literature review to address this gap and propose additional theories that supply chain researchers can use to help address novel supply chain phenomena, such as those caused by technological disruptions.

**Design/methodology/approach** – The authors use a systematic literature review to examine the studies published over the last 10 years in six of the top supply chain management journals (411 articles) and six of the top marketing and management journals (1,214 articles).

**Findings** – First, the findings show that 15 theories have been relied upon by over 95 per cent of the studies within supply chain management that use formal theories. Second, the authors identify the most frequently used theories within marketing and management (217 theories). Third, as space limitations make it impossible to offer a rich description of each of the 217 theories, the authors identify 30 theories that they considered to be the most salient to supply chain research and suggest areas where supply chain scholars can apply these theoretical lenses.

**Originality/value** – The research effort allowed the authors to map the current use of theories within the field to gain a better understanding of what other theories could augment the body of theories used within supply chain management. Thus, the current study is a "one stop shop" that supply chain scholars can consult when in a quandary about what theoretical lens to utilize.

**Keywords** Marketing, Supply-chain management, Theories, Management, Systematic literature review

**Paper type** Literature review

## 1. Introduction

Disruptive technologies (e.g. 3D printing, blockchain, cloud computing) have altered the design and management of supply chains (Attaran, 2017). Such disruptions have fueled the level of volatility in today's global supply chains and have presented supply chain practitioners and academics alike with new challenges (Christopher and Holweg, 2017). Supply chain researchers have recognized the disruptive changes experienced by today's supply chains and have highlighted the need for scholars to "get out ahead" of industry and identify problems that are highly relevant to practice and investigate those phenomena (Zinn and Goldsby, 2017).

Although supply chain scholars have acknowledged the fundamental disruptive changes experienced by today's supply chains and the ensuing novelty of the research problems worthy of investigation, supply chain scholars have primarily relied on a limited number of theories (e.g. resource-based view, transaction cost economics, game theory) to help explain the phenomena of interest (Stank *et al.*, 2017). However, it is possible that new problems might require different theoretical lenses to help explain the relationships between the variables of interest and continue to build relevant a supply chain management theory that is rigorous and grounded in extant theories. The current study uses a systematic literature review to address this gap and propose additional theories that supply chain researchers can use to help address novel supply chain phenomena, such as those caused by technological disruptions. In the process, we seek to make several contributions.

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First, we review studies published over the last 10 years in six of the top supply chain management journals. This allows us to identify the most frequently used theories in the discipline. As such, we are able to map the current use of theories within the field to gain a better understanding of what other theories could augment the body of theories used within supply chain management. Second, we review the studies published over the last 10 years in six of the top marketing and management journals. We selected the marketing and management disciplines because of the traditional overlap and interface between these disciplines and supply chain management (Lambert and Cooper, 2000; Min and Mentzer, 2000; Jüttner et al., 2007). In addition, the theoretical base within supply chain management has been built upon theories stemming from these two disciplines (Mentzer et al., 2001). This effort allowed us to identify the theories within these disciplines over the last 10 years. Thus, we are able to identify theories that have not been used within supply chain management (or used infrequently), but have the potential to shed light on novel supply chain problems. Third, we highlight specific areas where these theories that are novel to supply chain management can be applied. That is, we put forth a comprehensive agenda of future research opportunities that supply chain scholars can pursue.

The rest of the manuscript is organized as follows. We discuss the methodology used to identify the various theories used within supply chain management, along with those within marketing and management. We continue by presenting the study's findings, including relevant opportunities for future research. Finally, we discuss the study's implications and limitations.

## 2. Methodology

A systematic literature review was used to answer the research questions. This method was deemed appropriate because it allowed us to explore theories across several disciplines (e.g. supply chain, marketing, management). To ensure an unbiased and valid evaluation, established guidelines for conducting literature reviews were followed (Tranfield et al., 2003; Rousseau et al., 2008; Denyer and Tranfield, 2009). When following these guidelines, the researcher:

“Locates existing studies, selects and evaluates contributions, analyses and synthesizes data, and reports the evidence in such a way that allows reasonably clear conclusions to be reached about what is and is not known” (Denyer and Tranfield, 2009, p. 671).

Systematic literature reviews facilitate transparency of the processes utilized for data collection and analyses so that others can easily replicate the study. Importantly, they have the ability to clearly synthesize existing studies, and thus can create new knowledge (Light and Pillemer, 1984).

The methodology used in this study follows the five steps suggested by Denyer and Tranfield (2009). These steps entail question formulation, locating studies, study selection and evaluation, analysis and synthesis and reporting and using the results. Next, we describe each step in detail.

### 2.1 Question formulation

A clear focus is needed for a systematic literature review (Light and Pillemer, 1984). As such, we tried to reduce ambiguity by

ensuring that the research questions are well specified, informative and clearly formulated. The multidisciplinary systematic literature review addresses the following research questions:

- RQ1: What are the most frequently used theories within supply chain management?
- RQ2: What are the most frequently used theories within marketing and management?
- RQ3: Which marketing and/or management theories can be successfully applied to solve current supply chain problems?
- RQ4: What are the specific supply chain areas where these novel marketing and/or management theories could be applied?

### 2.2 Locating studies

Considering the multidisciplinary aspect of this systematic literature review, it was deemed important to cover a wide range of sources. The Web of Science and Scopus databases were used to locate studies. In addition, Google Scholar was utilized to ensure a comprehensive coverage.

### 2.3 Study selection and evaluation

We searched articles published in the last 10 years (2009–2018) in top journals. For supply chain management we selected six journals based on their rankings and impact factors:

- 1 *Journal of Operations Management* (impact factor: 4.89);
- 2 *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal* (impact factor: 3.83);
- 3 *Journal of Supply Chain Management* (impact factor: 6.10);
- 4 *Journal of Business Logistics* (impact factor: 2.89);
- 5 *International Journal of Physical Distribution and Logistics Management* (impact factor: 4.21); and
- 6 *The International Journal of Logistics Management* (impact factor: 1.77).

Similarly, using the same criteria, we selected six outside journals (three for marketing and three for management). In addition to the criteria discussed above, for the *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing*, we considered the journal's focus on supply chain issues as an important reason for its inclusion:

- 1 *Journal of Marketing* (marketing; impact factor: 7.30);
- 2 *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* (marketing; impact factor: 8.48);
- 3 *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing* (marketing; impact factor: 1.83);
- 4 *Journal of Management* (management; impact factor: 8.08);
- 5 *Academy of Management Journal* (management; impact factor: 6.70); and
- 6 *Strategic Management Journal* (management; impact factor: 5.48).

Next, we searched each of the above journals in article title, abstract and/or keywords using the following single keywords and combinations and derivations of these keywords, “theory”,

“supply chain”, “supply chain management”, “logistics”, “marketing” and “management”. First, the search of the supply chain management journals yielded a number of 632 articles. The research team continued the screening process by examining each article individually to ensure fit with our research objective. That is, we sought to identify articles that used the word “theory” but did not use a formal theory. Following this process, we identified a total number of 411 articles that used a formal theory. Second, we used a similar process for the marketing and management journals. We screened a total of 1,214 articles. This process is described in more detail later in the manuscript where we offer a breakdown by journal.

#### 2.4 Study findings

The goal of this study was to evaluate and analyze a large body of multidisciplinary literature and to synthesize it “into a new or different arrangement and developing knowledge that is not apparent from reading the individual studies in isolation” (Denyer and Tranfield, 2009, p. 685). Thus, we continue by presenting our findings.

### 3. Theories used within the domain of supply chain management

We analyzed 411 articles to determine the theories that have been used within supply chain management over the last 10 years. Our findings indicate that supply chain researchers have been consistently relying on a limited number of theories to explain multiple phenomena. Specifically, theories such as resource-based view or transaction cost economics seem to be the “default” theories for providing theoretical insights. Although it is not the objective of this study to criticize the reliance on certain theories, such theories are at times “forced” into different studies or simply mentioned without the author actually explain the logic behind the use of these theories. Thus, it appears that supply chain researchers have responded to the critique that supply chain research is atheoretical by referencing different theories that might not always be appropriate for the investigation of the phenomenon of interest (Carter and Rogers, 2008). The results in Table I indicate the 15 most used theories within supply chain management. Combined, these theories have been relied upon by over 95 per cent of the studies within supply chain management that use formal theories. Theories used infrequently relative to the other theories (we used five as cutoff) were not included in Table I, as the purpose of the study is to promote the use of novel theories and theories that have been used infrequently are part of that category. Next, we review theories within the domains of marketing and management that are not listed in Table I.

### 4. Theories used within the domains of marketing and management

We analyzed 1,214 articles to identify theories that have been used within the last 10 years by marketing and management scholars. Specifically, we reviewed 110 articles within the *Journal of Marketing* and identified 39 theories, 138 articles within the *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* and identified 55 theories and 106 articles within the *Journal of*

Table I Theories within supply chain management

Theory	Frequency	(%)	% cumulative
RBV	71	18	18
Transaction cost economics	49	13	31
Game theory	41	10	41
Institutional theory	27	7	48
Contingency theory	26	7	54
Organizational theory	24	6	61
Agency theory	23	6	66
Resource dependence theory	21	5	72
Stakeholder theory	20	5	77
Social exchange theory	21	5	82
Inventory theory	18	5	87
Social capital theory	17	4	91
Relational exchange theory	13	3	95
Competence and capability theory	11	3	97
Information processing theory	10	3	100

*Business and Industrial Marketing* and identified 32 theories. A summary of the theories identified within these marketing journals is presented in Table II along with the frequencies.

Similarly, we reviewed 324 articles within the *Journal of Management* and identified 99 theories, 288 articles within the *Strategic Management Journal* and identified 65 theories and 248 articles within the *Academy of Management Journal* and identified 94 theories. A summary of the theories identified within these management journals is presented in Table III along with the frequencies.

Next, we examined the theories in Tables I, II and III and identified a comprehensive list of theories that have been used within marketing and management but have been rarely used (as mentioned earlier, we used five as cutoff), or have not been used at all within the domain of supply chain management (Table IV). Thus, as summarized in Table IV, the research effort culminated with the identification of 217 distinct theories. Supply chain management scholars can use these theories novel to supply chain management to better explain new supply chain problems.

The space limitations associated with any single study do not make it possible to offer a rich description of each theory identified in Table IV. However, to further expand the platform on which supply chain scholars can build, we identified 30 theories that we considered to be the most salient to supply chain research. Next, we offer a description of each of these theories and suggest areas where supply chain scholars can apply these theoretical lenses. Importantly, this is not to say that the rest of the theories in Table IV cannot be successfully used by supply chain scholars to shed light on supply chain phenomena. Rather, we were constrained by space limitations to only offering a more detailed description for a few select theories.

To identify which theories to focus on, three of the members of the research team independently selected 30 theories that each team member considered to be most salient to supply chain phenomena. These researchers are senior academics with extensive industry and academic experience, each with over 10 years of research experience and dozens of research publications in premier outlets. During the initial round, the

Table II Theories within marketing

Journal/theory	Frequency (%)
<i>Journal of Marketing</i>	
Actor-network theory	1.79
Agency theory	5.36
Attribute centrality theory	1.79
Attribution theory	1.79
Auction theory	3.57
Categorization theory	1.79
Cost analysis theory	1.79
Dual system theory of consumer behavior	1.79
Equity theory	3.57
Emotions theory	1.79
Exchange theory	3.57
Financial portfolio theory	1.79
Framing theory	1.79
Gossip theory	1.79
Governance theory	1.79
Inference-based theory	1.79
Information processing theory	1.79
Institutional theory	7.14
Instrumental stakeholder theory	1.79
Job–demands–resources theory	1.79
Knowledge management theory	1.79
Modern portfolio theory	1.79
Motivated reasoning theory	3.57
Open systems theory	1.79
Person–group fit theory	1.79
Prospect theory	3.57
Regret theory	1.79
Regulatory focus theory	3.57
Relational governance	3.57
Role theory	1.79
Script theory	5.36
Self- determination theory	1.79
Signaling theory	1.79
Social cognitive theory	1.79
Social exchange theory	1.79
Social identity theory	3.57
Social practice theory	1.79
Vividness theory	1.79
Word-of-mouth theory	5.36
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science</i>	
Activation theory	1
Appraisal theory of emotions	1
Attribution theory	3
Balance theory	1
Brand positioning theory	1
Cognitive appraisal theory	1
Cognitive evaluation theory	1
Competing values theory	2
Configuration and boundary theory	1
Construal-level theory	3
Contingency theory	4
Contracting theory	1

(continued)

Table II

Journal/theory	Frequency (%)
Control theory	1
Cue utilization theory	1
Dynamic capabilities theory	2
Empowerment theory	1
Equity theory	3
Evolutionary game theory	1
Expectancy theory	1
Flow theory	1
Governance theory	1
Identification theory	1
Information processing theory	1
Institutional theory	8
Internalization theory	1
Job demands–resources theory	2
Justice theory	2
Linguistic theory	1
Means-end theory	1
Multiplicity theory	1
Neutralization theory	1
Organization theory	5
Organizational learning theory	1
Perceived risk processing theory	1
Real options theory	2
Relational exchange theory	1
Resource–advantage theory of competitions	1
Resource-based theory	11
Role theory	2
Scarcity theory	1
Schema theory	1
Self-concept maintenance theory	1
Signaling theory	2
Situated cognition theory	1
Social capital theory	2
Social cognition theory	1
Social comparison theory	1
Social exchange theory	2
Social identity theory	2
Social learning theory	1
Social network theory	3
Social norms and reputational theory	1
Stakeholder theory	4
Stereotyping theory	1
Substitutes for leadership theory	1
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing</i>	
Adoption theory	1.69
Agency theory	1.69
Appraisal theory of emotions	1.69
Attribution theory	1.69
Career stage theory	1.69
Clan theory	1.69
Cognitive evaluation theory	1.69
Customer portfolio theory	1.69
Expectation disconfirmation theory	1.69

(continued)

Table II

Journal/theory	Frequency (%)
Industrial network theory	1.69
Innovation networks theory	1.69
Institutional theory	8.47
Job demands–resources theory	1.69
Means-end theory	1.69
Network theory	8.47
Organizational inertia theory	1.69
Organizational learning theory	1.69
Organizational theory	1.69
Prosocial motivation theory	1.69
Relational contract theory	1.69
Relational exchange theory	1.69
Relational rent theory	1.69
Resource-advantage theory of competition	1.69
Resourced-based theory	3.39
Resource-dependence theory	1.69
Role theory	1.69
Self-determination theory	1.69
Social capital theory	1.69
Social cognitive theory	1.69
Social exchange theory	11.86
Transaction cost theory	1.69
Upper echelon theory	3.39
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>

overlap across the three researchers was around 90 per cent (i.e. 27 theories). Subsequently, the researchers met several times to compare and discuss the proposed theories and reach 100 per cent consensus. Three additional theories were added at the end of these meetings for a final number of 30 theories.

Next, we describe these theories, and as mentioned above, identify areas of supply chain management that can benefit the most from the application of these theories. The theories are listed alphabetically for the reader's quick reference. Table V presents a summary of the theories along three categories. The first category includes theories that can be applied when exploring supply chain phenomena that focus on the *manager* as the unit of analysis, the second category includes theories that can be applied when exploring supply chain phenomena that focus on the *firm and/or supply chain* as the unit of analysis, while the third category includes theories that can be applied at multiple levels of analysis (e.g. manager level, firm level, supply chain level). In addition, Table V presents a comprehensive list of supply chain management topics where these theories can be applied to gain further insights on supply chain phenomena.

## 5. Select theories

### 5.1 Adoption theory

According to the adoption theory, organizational adoption of innovation is motivated by three main categories: attributes of the innovation itself, attributes of the adopter group and supplier firms' promotional and marketing activities (Kimberly and Evanisko, 1981). The influence of attributes of the innovation on target user adoption is explained by two primary frameworks: the diffusion of innovation and technology acceptance models.

Table III Theories within management

Journal/theory	Frequency (%)
<i>Journal of Management</i>	
Accountability theory	0.52
Action control theory	0.17
Actor-network theory	0.50
Agency theory	6.40
Agenda setting theory	0.15
Ambivalent sexism theory	0.02
Attachment theory	0.15
Attraction–selection–attribution theory	0.02
Behavioral agency theory	0.27
Behavioral decision theory	1.32
Behavioral integrity theory	0.05
Boundary theory	1.59
Broaden and build theory	0.12
Central organizing theory	0.05
Cognitive dissonance theory	0.10
Contingency theory	1.02
Control theory	3.26
Core self-evaluation theory	0.02
Creativity theory	0.37
Effective event theory	0.07
Engagement theory	1.19
Equity theory	0.72
Exchange theory	2.36
Expectancy theory	0.30
Expectation states theory	0.12
Expectation violation theory	0.02
Gender role theory	0.32
General strain theory	0.02
General system theory	0.40
Generalizability theory	0.20
Goal orientation theory	0.17
Human capital theory	0.82
Identity theory	1.79
Implicit person theory	0.05
Information processing theory	0.55
Institutional theory	4.58
Interpersonal regularity theory	0.02
Interpersonal theory	0.72
Job demands-control theory	0.07
Job design theory	0.55
Justice theory	0.92
Leader categorization theory	0.10
Leader–member exchange	0.97
Learning theory	3.21
Management theory	14.46
Managerial power theory	0.20
Money priming theory	0.02
Motivational theory	0.40
Multilevel theory	0.95
Network theory	2.79
Optimal distinctiveness theory	0.02
Organizational leadership theory	1.27
Organizational learning theory	1.07
Organizational support theory	1.94

(continued)

Table III

Journal/theory	Frequency (%)
Organizational theory	11.85
Paradox theory	0.37
Penrosean theory	0.02
Power theory	2.27
Property rights theory	0.17
Prospect theory	0.45
Reference point theory	0.10
Regulatory fit theory	0.10
Regulatory focus theory	0.27
Relative deprivation theory	0.05
Relative standing theory	0.02
Resource allocation theory	0.25
Resource-based theory	2.02
Resource dependence theory	0.62
Rigidity theory	0.07
Role accumulation theory	0.02
Role theory	7.97
Self-determination theory	0.37
Self-efficacy theory	0.42
Shared reality theory	0.07
Signaling theory	0.60
Social cognitive theory	0.75
Social embeddedness theory	0.10
Social exchange theory	1.19
Social identity theory	1.00
Social information processing theory	0.07
Social interdependence theory	0.15
Social network theory	1.37
Social psychological theory	0.35
Social role theory	2.41
Social analytic theory	0.32
Source dependence theory	0.07
Spotlight theory	0.02
Stakeholder theory	1.77
Stress theory	0.70
Structural inertia theory	0.02
Substantive theory	0.17
Technology diffusion theory	0.12
Theory of mind	0.65
Theory of planned behavior	0.50
Tokenism theory	0.02
Tournament theory	0.12
Trait activation theory	0.07
Transactional theory of stress	0.02
Upper echelon theory	0.35
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Strategic Management Journal</i>	
Agency theory	3.61
Agglomeration theory	0.64
Assimilation contrast theory	0.21
Attribution theory	0.64
Behavioral agency theory	0.85
Behavioral decision theory	1.27
Bourdieu's praxis theory	0.21

(continued)

Table III

Journal/theory	Frequency (%)
Cognitive evaluation theory	0.21
Construal-level theory	0.21
Contingency theory	2.97
Cooperative game theory	0.42
Cross-level theory	0.85
Diffusion theory	1.06
Dynamic capabilities theory	1.49
Economic game theory	0.42
Economic geography and institutional theory	0.21
Economic theory	9.34
Economic theory of crime	0.21
Embeddedness theory	0.21
Endogenous government theory	0.21
Enter-order advantage theory	0.42
Evolutionary search theory	0.21
Evolutionary theory	0.85
First-mover advantage theory	0.42
Game theory	0.85
Goal-framing theory	0.21
Group behavior theory	0.21
Hegemony theory	0.21
Human capital theory	2.55
Industry lifecycle theory	0.85
Information processing theory	0.64
Institutional theory	6.37
Instrumental stakeholder theory	0.64
Item response theory	0.42
Learning theory	4.88
Management theory	18.68
Measurement theory	2.12
Motivation theory	1.70
Network theory	2.34
Optimal contracting theory	0.21
Organizational economic theory	0.21
Organizational imprinting theory	0.21
Organizational inertia theory	0.42
Performance feedback theory	1.91
Post-traumatic growth theory	0.21
Prospect theory	1.27
Real options theory	2.12
Resource-based theory	5.10
Resource dependence theory	2.55
Signaling theory	1.91
Simulation-based theory	0.21
Slack resource theory	1.27
Social comparison theory	1.70
Social identity theory	0.64
Stewardship theory	0.21
Strategic factor market theory	1.06
Strategic issue diagnosis theory	0.21
Strategy and organization theory	2.76
Structural contingency theory	0.85
Testing predicting theory	0.21
Theory of the glass cliff	0.42
Tournament theory	0.85

(continued)

Table III

Journal/theory	Frequency (%)
Transaction cost theory	1.70
Upper echelon theory	1.91
Vacillation theory	0.42
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Academy of Management Journal</i>	
Action identification theory	0.15
Agency theory	1.39
Appraisal theory	0.31
Attribution theory	0.46
Behavioral decision theory	0.54
Boundary theory	1.16
Classical organizational theory	0.08
Conservation of resource theory	0.31
Construal-level theory	0.08
Context-emergent turnover theory	0.15
Contingency theory	1.00
Control theory	1.31
Creativity theory	1.08
Cross-level theory	0.39
Decision avoidance theory	0.08
Diversity theory	0.85
Dominance complementarity theory	0.08
Dual process theory	0.15
Dyadic leadership theory	0.08
Ego depletion theory	0.23
Elaboration theory	0.31
Emergent turnover theory	0.15
Empowerment theory	0.23
Engagement theory	0.85
Exchange theory	1.69
Expectancy violation theory	0.23
Fairness heuristic theory	0.15
Feedback system theory	0.08
Gender role theory	0.31
Goal orientation theory	0.46
Hubris theory	0.23
Human capital theory	0.62
Human-benign theory	0.08
Identification theory	1.39
Identity theory	2.00
Implicit leadership theory	0.08
Information-based imitation theory	0.08
Information processing theory	0.39
Institutional polycentrism theory	0.08
Institutional theory	2.00
Leadership theory	2.00
Loss version theory	0.08
Matching theory	0.31
Moral disengagement theory	0.23
Moral identity theory	0.15
Motivation theory	1.00
Network structural theory	0.31
Network theory	1.62
Organization theory	6.47

(continued)

Table III

Journal/theory	Frequency (%)
Organizational justice theory	0.69
Organizational theory	7.24
Pay-for-performance theory	0.54
Person categorization theory	0.08
Person perception theory	0.31
Pragmatist theory of action	0.08
Prosocial motivation theory	0.39
Prospect theory	0.15
Real options theory	0.15
Relational advantage theory	0.08
Resource allocation theory	0.31
Resource-based theory	0.62
Resource dependence theory	0.46
Rhetorical theory	0.08
Role theory	5.08
Romance of leadership theory	0.08
Self-concept maintenance theory	0.08
Self-determination theory	0.23
Self-regulation theory	0.77
Servant leadership theory	0.08
Service climate theory	0.15
Signaling and screening theory	0.08
Signaling theory	0.85
Situational strength theory	0.08
Social capital theory	0.62
Social cognitive theory	0.54
Social comparison theory	0.15
Social exchange theory	1.08
Social identification theory	0.62
Social interdependence theory	0.15
Social learning theory	5.16
Social network theory	7.47
Social norm theory	3.16
Social role theory	14.02
Stakeholder theory	3.24
Status characteristics theory	2.70
Status theory	4.78
Stereotype threat theory	0.15
Strategy and organization theory	0.08
Structural adaptation theory	0.85
Structural balance theory	0.92
Structural elaboration theory	0.31
System justification theory	0.85
Transactional stress theory	0.23
Upper echelons theory	0.85
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>

Adopter group attributes like organizational readiness and organizational resources consistently influence the adoption decision (Palmer *et al.*, 2011).

### 5.2 Agglomeration theory

This theory refers to geographic concentration of economic activity. The spatial concentration of similar firms is argued to generate access to specialized labor, specialized inputs and

Table IV Theories used within marketing and management and used infrequently or never within supply chain management

Accountability theory	Flow theory	Pragmatist theory of action
Action control theory	Framing theory	Property rights theory
Action identification theory	Gender role theory	Prospect theory
Activation theory	General strain theory	Real options theory
Actor-network theory	General system theory	Reference point theory
Adoption theory	Generalizability theory	Regret theory
Agenda-setting theory	Goal-framing theory	Regulatory fit theory
Agglomeration theory	Goal orientation theory	Regulatory focus theory
Ambivalent sexism theory	Gossip theory	Relational advantage theory
Appraisal theory	Governance theory	Relational governance
Appraisal theory of emotions	Group behavior theory	Relative deprivation theory
Assimilation contrast theory	Hegemony theory	Relative standing theory
Attachment theory	Hubris theory	Resource allocation theory
Attraction, selection and attrition theory	Human capital theory	Resource-advantage theory of competitions
Attribute centrality theory	Humor-benign violation theory	Rhetorical theory
Attribution theory	Identification theory	Rigidity theory
Auction theory	Implicit leadership theory	Role accumulation theory
Balance theory	Implicit person theory	Role theory
Behavioral decision theory	Industrial network theory	Romance of leadership theory
Behavioral integrity theory	Industry lifecycle theory	Scarcity theory
Boundary-spanning theory	Inference-based theory	Schema theory
Boundary theory	Information-based imitation theory	Script theory
Bourdieu's praxis theory	Institutional polycentrism theory	Self-concept maintenance theory
Brand positioning theory	Internalization theory	Self-determination theory
Broaden and build theory (Fredrickson's broaden and build theory)	Interpersonal theory	Self-efficacy theory
Career stage theory	Item response theory	Servant leadership theory
Categorization theory	Job demands–control theory	Service climate theory
Cognitive dissonance theory	Job design theory	Shared reality theory
Cognitive evaluation theory	Job demands–resources theory	Signaling theory
Competing values theory	Justice theory	Simulation-based theory
Configuration and boundary theory	Knowledge management theory	Situated cognition theory
Conservation of resource theory	Leader categorization theory	Situational strength theory
Construal-level theory	Leader–member exchange theory	Slack resource theory
Context-emergent turnover theory	Leadership theory	Social analytic theory
Control organizing theory	Linguistic theory	Social cognition theory
Control theory	Loss version theory	Social comparison theory
Cost analysis theory	Management theory	Social embeddedness theory
Creativity theory	Managerial hegemony theory	Social identity theory
Cross-level theory	Managerial power theory	Social interdependence theory
Cue utilization theory	Marketplace metacognition theory	Social learning theory
Customer valuation theory	Matching theory	Social network theory
Decision avoidance theory	Means-end theory	Social norm and reputational theory
Diffusion theory	Measurement theory	Social norm theory
Diversity theory	Modern portfolio theory	Social practice theory
Dominance complementarity theory	Money priming theory	Social psychological theory
Dual process theory	Moral disengagement theory	Spotlight theory
Dual system theory of consumer behavior	Moral identity theory	Status characteristics theory
Dyadic leadership theory	Motivated reasoning theory	Status theory
Dynamic capabilities theory	Motivational theory	Stereotype threat theory
Economic theory of crime	Multilevel theory	Stereotyping theory
Effective event theory	Multiplicity theory	Stewardship theory
Ego depletion theory	Network structural theory	Strategic factor market theory
Elaboration theory	Neutralization theory	Strategic factor market theory
Embeddedness theory	Open systems theory	Strategic issue diagnosis theory
Emergent turnover theory	Optimal distinctiveness theory	Strategy and organization theory
Emotions as feedback system theory	Organizational imprinting theory	Stress theory

(continued)



Table IV

Empowerment theory	Organizational inertia theory	Structural inertia theory
Endogenous government theory	Organizational justice theory	Substantive theory
Engagement theory	Organizational learning theory	Substitutes for leadership theory
Enter-order advantage theory	Organizational support theory	System justification theory
Equity theory	Paradox theory	Technology diffusion theory
Evolutionary search theory	Prosocial motivation theory	Testing predicting theory
Evolutionary theory	Pay-for-performance theory	The optimal contracting theory
Expectancy theory	Penrose's theory	Theory of mind
Expectancy violation theory	Perceived risk processing theory	Theory of planned behavior
Expectation states theory	Performance feedback theory	Theory of the glass cliff theory
Fairness heuristic theory	Person categorization theory	Tokenism theory
Feedback system theory	Person perception theory	Tournament theory
Field theory	Person–environment theory	Trait activation theory
Financial portfolio theory	Person–group fit theory	Transactional stress theory
First-mover advantage theory	Planned behavior theory	Upper echelon theory
	Posttraumatic growth theory	Vividness theory
	Power theory	Word-of-mouth theory

knowledge spillovers (Marshall, 1920). Such agglomerations are often described as “clusters”. Clusters create a pooled market for specialized workers (Krugman, 1991), leading to deeper labor markets, as skilled workers are attracted to concentrated opportunities. For example, firms within agglomerations have better access to a pool of specialized labor with lower search costs for qualified employees (McCann et al., 2016).

### 5.3 Appraisal theory

The appraisal theory suggests that individuals assess their environment along several dimensions:

- intrinsic characteristics of objects or events;
- the significance of the event for the individual's needs or goals;
- the individual's ability to influence or cope with the consequences of the event, including the evaluation of “agency”; and
- the compatibility of the event with social or personal standards, norms or values (MacInnis and De Mello, 2005).

This theory argues that emotions are elicited or differentiated on the basis of a person's subjective evaluation. Environments appraised as goal-congruent (incongruent) are evaluated as good or desirable (bad) and evoke positive (negative) emotions (Oh, 2017).

### 5.4 Attraction, selection and attrition theory

The attraction, selection and attrition theory suggests that, over time, organizations tend to become increasingly homogeneous with respect to the knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics of their employees (Bretz et al., 1989; Ployhart et al., 2006). The theory has applicability in many domains. For example, Schaubroeck et al. (1998) applied it to career selection. Briefly, individuals choose careers or occupations to which they are initially attracted, in part because they perceive their personal skills, characteristics and motives as being aligned with the requirements of that career or occupation. Selection then operates so that only those who find that they

are, in fact, suited to this occupation or career actually choose to enter. Finally, attrition occurs when individuals discover that their skills, characteristics or interests do not align with the requirements of the field or occupation, and consequently, they withdraw from it, either voluntarily or otherwise.

### 5.5 Boundary-spanning theory

According to the boundary-spanning theory, organizations rely on boundary spanners to ensure that social and economic exchanges between organizations and their external environment are executed smoothly, and the organization is, thus, protected from disruptive external environmental forces (Aldrich and Herker, 1977). Such boundary spanners perform two major roles: information processing and external representation (Huang et al., 2016).

### 5.6 Cognitive dissonance theory

The cognitive dissonance theory argues that, when individuals hold two or more cognitions that are contradictory, they will feel an unpleasant state–dissonance until they are able to resolve this state by altering their cognitions (Festinger, 1957). This theory has been applied to many management issues and topics for 60 years, ranging from work place issues, to human resource management to strategy (Hinojosa et al., 2017).

### 5.7 Dominance complementarity theory

According to the dominance complementarity theory (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983), effective interactions are achieved when dominant, assertive behavior from one party is matched by submissive, passive behavior from another. A core tenet of dominance complementarity is that people seek balance in interpersonal interactions (Leary, 1957): when one acts dominant, the other is expected to act submissive, and this pairing allows them to coordinate their actions and interactions effectively. The dominant parties gain validation of their power and status, and the submissive parties gain support and security. For both parties, uncertainty about authority roles is reduced, preventing conflict and competition and facilitating the pursuit of common goals (Grant et al., 2011).

Table V Suggested theories by category

Category	Theory	Applicability examples
<b>Manager within the supply chain phenomena</b>	Appraisal theory	Understand how supply chain managers evaluate their environment and how that evaluation might impact their performance
	Prosocial motivation theory	Understand how supply chain managers or supply chain partners can be better motivated to perform the tasks required of them
	Role theory	Understand how firm managers balance their dual roles as firm managers and as members of a supply chain. Also, understand how emerging supply chain technology impacts roles inside an organization and across the supply chain
	Job demands–resources theory	Examine what types of job resources across the supply chain (carrier, supplier, customer) allow managers to better perform their jobs, and the type of potential factors that induce job-related stress, such as new technologies. This also includes the new training and redesign of jobs based on such emerging technologies
	Trait activation theory	Understand how the particularities of the buyer–supplier relationship within the supply chain can impact managers' actions
	Interpersonal theory	Investigate how the behavior of one party in the dyadic supply chain relationship (e.g. buyer-seller) causes the other party to behave in a reactive manner. The theory can be particularly useful for understanding negotiations within the supply chain
	Regulatory focus theory	Understand how supply chain managers behave when considering their own specific job-related circumstance. Further, the theory can help guide upper managers when allocating tasks to supply chain managers. For example, promotion-oriented managers should be entrusted with aspects of the supply chain where risk-taking is desirable. This is also key to examining the transformation of supply chains through blockchain implementation and the level of regulation involved
	Social embeddedness theory	Understand the social context and sociological factors that shape inter-organizational relationships and outcomes. For example, a highly embedded supply chain can facilitate the adoption of disruptive technological initiatives. Organizations that are currently implementing blockchain pilot projects can benefit from adopting such a theory
<b>Firm or supply chain phenomena</b>	Modern portfolio theory	Understand how the size of the various members of the supply chain (customers, suppliers) can impact performance
	Industrial network theory	Understand how members of the supply chain interact and relate to one another
	Adoption theory	Investigate how the diffusion of new technologies and innovations themselves are influenced by specific groups of customers and customers of their customers (e.g. consumers)
	Penrose's theory	Explain how resource versatility is linked to higher levers of market performance with respect to the allocation of resources across different members of the supply chain
	Attraction, selection and attrition theory	Investigate how firms can select, attract and retain managers in their global supply chains. This will be extremely important in the next five to 10 years in supply chain practice, as emerging technologies such as blockchain will have a significant impact on the nature and requirements of supply chain talent to attract and retain
	Multiplicity theory	Examine supply chain networks and the relative increased complexity where operations and activities have become dispersed rather than centralized; in that business context, the value-exchange creation processes have become complex, requiring a comprehensive understanding of the various roles of the members of the supply chain
	Agglomeration theory	Understand how and why firms are creating new supplier clusters in the era of Industry 4.0 and how the growing impact of automations, digitalization and robotics alter workers' skills
	Resource slack theory	Understand why some supply chains invest more in sustainability efforts than others. In addition, it can help firms better understand how to stimulate their suppliers to adopt their proposed sustainability agenda
Organizational inertia theory	Explain why some firms are more willing to adopt disruptive technologies than others. In addition, it can help provide insights into how firms can speed up the adoption of such technologies within their supply chains	

(continued)

Table V

Category	Theory	Applicability examples
All supply chain phenomena (i.e. manager or firm level)	Matching theory	Help provide valuable insights into the supplier selection process. Specifically, this theory can help better understand buyer–supplier relationships within supply chains. A blockchain platform in the acquisition and vendor selection field can benefit from such a theory. This can be applicable to both government and the private sector where blockchain projects are taking place, specifically in the acquisition space
	Organizational imprinting theory	Understand how companies balance the triple-bottom line with respect to its founding environment. As firms develop global supply chains, understanding those firms' origins can help better explain their behaviors in local markets and their interactions with suppliers in different parts of the world
	Resource–advantage theory of competition	Understand the role of the diverse kinds of resources (e.g. human, informational) that firms have to develop or have access to, to successfully adopt disruptive technologies and ultimately improve performance
	Person–environment theory	Understand how the fit between firms and their respective supply chains impacts firms' performance
	Money priming theory	Understand how monetary exchanges between firms impact individual firm and overall supply chain performance
	Cognitive dissonance theory	Understand how multiple firms interact with other multiple firms in a supply chain while managing conflicting interests. That is, managers within supply chain can experience conflicting interest coming from the various members of the supply chain
	Goal orientation theory	Examine how a vast array of contextual variables might influence an individual manager's performance. Specifically, the theory prompts the consideration of individuals' learning orientation when attempting to understand individuals' performance
	Boundary-spanning theory	Understand the behavior and role of managers responsible for interacting with other members of the supply chain. This is critical in designing and implementing private and open blockchain platforms
	Social network theory	Understand how interactions and interconnectedness across the nodes and links in a supply chain impact the overall performance of the various members of the supply chain. That is, the focus is shifted from what each individual firm in the supply chain is doing, to how those firms interact with one another to create value
	The leader–member exchange theory	Explain how leader firms within a supply chain (e.g. Wal-Mart, Amazon, Apple) can shape the behavior of the individual member firms of their respective supply chains
	Dominance complementarity theory	Understand how in dyadic relationships, the dominant party can impact the behavior of the other party. This can help shed additional insights into the factors that lead to loyalty and satisfaction within the context of supply chain relationships
	Signaling theory	Help provide insights into how disruptive technologies can be adopted within supply chain. Specifically, considering the novelty of such technologies, early adopters within supply chains can "signal" the quality of such technologies to other members of the supply chains
	Prospect theory	Help investigate how members of the supply chain perceive and manage the risks associated with the adoption of disruptive technologies

### 5.8 Goal orientation theory

According to the goal orientation theory, an individual's goal orientation dictates the individual's affective, behavioral and cognitive processes of motivation (Dweck, 2000). Individuals with a strong learning orientation view competence as a malleable quality and pursue the goal of competence improvement (Button *et al.*, 1996). They attribute setbacks to insufficient effort or ineffective strategies. Because they attribute setbacks to their own lack of ability, they tend to choose easier tasks or exert less effort (Dweck, 1986; Chen *et al.*, 2000).

### 5.9 Industrial network theory

Within the industrial network theory, behavior is conceptualized at the organizational level. Network behavior is defined as the actors' activities in their direct and indirect business and non-business relationships that affect their strategic network positions. This theory accounts for the role of technological turbulence (Mandják *et al.*, 2017).

### 5.10 Interpersonal theory

The interpersonal theory suggests that all interpersonal interactions can be largely understood through two dimensions:

affiliation and control (Kiesler and Auerbach, 2003). Affiliation is a tendency to be caring, friendly and build connections with others. It ranges from low affiliation (e.g. cold, disagreeable) to high affiliation (e.g. warm, agreeable). Control is a tendency to act autonomously, take charge and lead others. It ranges from low control (e.g. following, submissive) to high control (e.g. dominant, leading). This theory suggests that an individual's behavior invites others to respond with a *complimentary* class of behaviors (Tracey, 2004). For affiliation, complementarity operates through *correspondence* (e.g. high affiliation behavior from one person elicits high affiliation behaviors from the other person, and vice versa). For control, complementarity operates through *reciprocity* (e.g. high control behaviors from a person elicit low control behaviors from the other one, and vice versa).

### 5.11 Job demands–resources theory

According to this theory, job resources and job demands affect the job stress and engagement employees. Job demands represent facets of the job that call for physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and skills (Schwepker and Ingram, 2016), while job resources are represented by physical, psychological, social or organizational facets of the job that aid individuals in achieving work goals, reducing job demands or encouraging learning improvement (Zablah et al., 2012).

### 5.12 Matching theory

According to the matching theory, an alliance is established when two or more organizations mutually see collaboration as beneficial. The logic of the matching theory is that organizations form alliances with a mutual fit of resources. For a match to occur, it is not enough that a given organization needs to obtain a certain resource – an organization holding that resource must also need something that the given organization can provide in return (Kilduff and Tsai, 2003). The match quality is determined by the availability of partners with the desired characteristics; thus, matches are expected to be worse when actors look for rare characteristics than when they look for common ones. Hence, the matching theory does not imply that matches will be perfect, only that they will be as good as availability allows (Mitsubishi and Greve, 2009).

### 5.13 Modern portfolio theory

Originally proposed by Markowitz (1952), the modern portfolio theory indicates that relying on a few customers for revenues significantly increases vulnerability (Srivastava et al., 1998). That is, major customers can bargain away the benefits or potential benefits of the relationship (Saboo et al., 2017).

### 5.14 Money priming theory

The money priming theory suggests that, when the idea of money is salient, individuals are likely to behave in more self-serving ways to maximize individual outcomes while also behaving less cooperatively (Beus and Whitman, 2017). In essence, the theory highlights the implications of money in business transactions.

### 5.15 Multiplicity theory

Even though the stakeholder theory provides holistic aims and origins, its focus remains mostly on the dyadic relationship that

does not capture interactions within the stakeholder network to their full extent (Neville and Menguc, 2006). The multiplicity theory addresses these limitations. A multiplicity is an “assemblage”, an entity that is constituted by the conjunctive synthesis of a number of simple elements or singularities (Styhre, 2002; Tampio, 2010). Bergsonian philosophy offers us two perspectives on viewing multiplicities: they may be regarded as discrete multiplicities or as continuous multiplicities (Deleuze, 1988). Considering them as discrete implies that they are homogeneous, countable and do not change in nature when divided. To better understand them, we need to focus on the elements within them, the multiplicity as if they are independent of each other. On the other hand, considering multiplicities as continuous implies that they are heterogeneous and not countable (Deleuze, 1988). They are not objective, but subjective, so allow different interpretations in parallel. When taking a continuous multiplicity perspective, understanding the whole requires a holistic view rather than a focus on individual elements.

### 5.16 Organizational imprinting theory

This theory posits that a firm is a reflection of its founding environment (Stinchcombe and March, 1965). In the imprinting process, technical, economic, political, cultural and social resources available in the founding environment determine the appropriate organizational form in terms of its social structure (Johnson, 2007). These social structures and their resultant practices are retained through traditionalizing forces and vesting of interests – which is defined as imprinted (Stinchcombe and March, 1965). Imprinting research has long-lasting effects upon norms and operating practices of firms (Shinkle and Kriauciunas, 2012). Researchers have also argued that imprinting influences managerial behaviors and firm-level strategies (Shinkle and Kriauciunas, 2012).

### 5.17 Organizational inertia theory

Organizational inertia refers to the stability in products, processes and policies that underlie the inadequate adaptation to changing environments (Hannan and Freeman, 1984). Two types of organizational inertia seriously undermine radical changes: resources and routine. The former refers to inertia in resource allocations patterns, and the latter pertains to inertia in the organizational processes that use the resource investment. In rapidly changing environments, firms may fail to alter the way they allocate resources due to resources dependency (Christensen, 1997) or unwillingness to change (Chandy and Tellis, 1998). Even if they invest, the persistence and inflexibility of firm routines may inhibit support for new resources and adaptations to technological discontinuities (Teece et al., 1997). To overcome organizational inertia, a high level of flexibility in resource allocation and coordination appears to be imperative (Zhou and Wu, 2010).

### 5.18 Prosocial motivation theory

Prosocial motivation refers to “the desire to expend effort to benefit other people” and is described as “a state of introjected or identified regulation” (Grant, 2008, p.49). An individual's prosocial behaviors are driven by the human capacity to experience guilt. This is essential to the development of prosocial

motivation, as it enables a person to “take others’ claims and perspectives into account” (Hoffman, 2001; Gabler *et al.*, 2017).

### 5.19 Penrose’s theory

Resource-based view (RBV) focuses on resources that are valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable (VRIN), while Penrose’s theory emphasizes the versatility of resources (Penrose, 1959, 1995). Theoretically, VRIN resources allow firms to exploit unique opportunities, while versatile resources allow firms to recombine resources in novel ways to create growth (Nason and Wiklund, 2018).

### 5.20 Person–environment theory

The core tenet of person–environment (P–E) fit theory, grounded in the idea that human behavior is an outcome of both person and environment, indicates that people hold a positive attitude and perform successfully when their individual attributes match their environment (Pervin, 1968; Menguc *et al.*, 2016).

### 5.21 Prospect theory

The prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979) suggests that individuals assess the value of outcomes in relationships to a reference point. This is a model of economic behavior that was originally offered as an alternative to the expected utility theory. The prospect theory helps inform investigations into customers’ propensity to choose outcomes that involve uncertainty with respect to their personal value and helps understand how these values have a direct impact on such outcomes (Wang and Hazen, 2016).

### 5.22 Regulatory focus theory

According to the regulatory focus theory, people use different self-regulatory systems to attain goals (Higgins, 1997, 1998). That is, when individuals are in promotion focus, they are concerned with approaching positive outcomes and fulfilling their hopes and aspirations, thus adopting eagerness strategies, characterized by risk-taking, achievement and advancement. Prevention focus entails the use of vigilance strategies, which refer to avoiding mistakes or errors and following rules (Higgins, 1997). These people are concerned with ought, duties and responsibilities, and they pursue safety, security and maintenance of routes and status quo (Shin *et al.*, 2017). As such, an individual’s motivational strength or goal commitment increases when the manner of pursuit fits the regulatory focus of the individual (Higgins, 2000). For example, fit occurs when promotion-oriented individuals pursue goals in an eager manner and prevention-oriented individuals pursue goals in a vigilant manner.

### 5.23 Resource slack theory

According to the resource slack theory, firms act in consideration of their relative abundance of resources (Adams and Hardwick, 1998). For example, when financial resources are abundant, firms are more likely to conclude that corporate social responsibility is a discretionary expense that they can afford, and so pursue greater social engagement (Julian and Ofori-dankwa, 2013).

### 5.24 Resource-advantage theory of competition

The resource-advantage theory of competition (R-A theory) is a theory of competition that has been developed in different fields, both in marketing (Hunt, 1999) and management (i.e. Hunt and Lambe, 2000) and very little in supply chain management (Hunt and Davis, 2008). R-A theory’s nine propositions suggest seven underlying resource categories: financial, physical, legal, human, organizational, informational and relational. Such resources can be tangible or intangible, internal or external to the firm and do not have to be owned by the firm but must be accessible to the firm.

### 5.25 Role theory

The role theory argues that social interaction is based on a shared understanding of relational rules (Goode, 1960). These rules provide guidance on the behaviors that should be adopted when interacting with different people and in different social situations (Heide and Wathne, 2006). Role conflicts can happen where an individual has two or more conflicting roles to perform in one social interaction and where meeting the core expectations of one role will mean falling short of the core expectations of another (Robson *et al.*, 2016).

### 5.26 Signaling theory

The signaling theory proposes mechanisms for the transfer of information to another party with the aim of resolving information asymmetries (Spence, 1978; 2002; Stiglitz, 2002; Connelly *et al.*, 2011). Managing an information asymmetry environment may require “signaling” to reduce information asymmetry between “signalers” and receivers. A signal is defined as “an action that the seller can take to convey information credibly about unobservable product quality to the buyer” (Rao *et al.*, 1999, p. 259).

### 5.27 Social embeddedness theory

The social embeddedness theory proposes that economic actions are progressively embedded in a structure of ties and personal relationships (Granovetter, 1973). The micro-level ties of individuals affect not only the behavioral capacity of individuals, but also the macro-level performance of the organizations to which the individuals belong (Uzzi, 1997). That is, a person’s ties can facilitate the acquisition of the resources and skills necessary to accomplish organizational tasks, to upgrade organizational productivity and expand business transaction (Huang *et al.*, 2016).

### 5.28 Social network theory

The social network theory views social relationships in terms of nodes and ties. Nodes are the individual actors within the frameworks; ties are the relationships between the actors (Lincoln, 1982). A social network is a map of all of the germane ties between nodes being studied. A critical aspect of this theory is that the attributes of persons are less important than their relationships and ties with other individuals within the network. This theory has been used to investigate how firms interact with each other, describing the many informal connections that tie executives together, as well as associations and connections between individual employees at different firms (Chabowski *et al.*, 2011).

### 5.29 The leader–member exchange theory

The leader–member exchange theory is a relationship-based approach to leadership that focuses on the two-way relationship between leaders and followers (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). It suggests that leaders develop an exchange with each of their subordinates, and that the quality of these leader–member exchange relationships influences subordinates' responsibility, decisions and access to resources and performance (Goodwin et al., 2009).

### 5.30. Trait activation theory

According to the trait activation theory, the effect of situational demands (e.g. organizational, social and task cues) on behavior can be understood based on two factors: situation strength and situation relevance. Situation strength refers to the clarity of a situational demand (Tett and Burnett, 2003). A strong situation produces similar behavioral responses across virtually all individuals and negates the effects of individual differences on behavior (Meyer et al., 2010). Situation relevance captures the qualitative feature of situational demands that enhance the likelihood that individuals will demonstrate more of a particular behavior over other behaviors (Tett and Burnett, 2003).

## 6. Discussion and conclusions

Supply chain researchers have recognized the disruptive changes experienced by today's supply chains and have highlighted the need for scholars to identify problems that are highly relevant to practice and investigate those phenomena (Zinn and Goldsby, 2017). However, additional rigorous theories are needed to help shed light on these new issues. The current study makes several noteworthy contributions in this area.

First, we evaluated the state of theoretical development within the field of supply chain management with the goal of identifying the most frequently used theories by supply chain management scholars. To execute this, we reviewed studies published over the last 10 years in six of the top supply chain management journals. Our results show that supply chain researchers have been consistently relying on a scarce number of theories to explain multiple phenomena. That is, theories such as RBV or transaction cost economics seem to be the “default” theories for providing theoretical insights and frequently appear to be seemingly “forced” into studies as a natural fit is not evident. Our findings show that 15 theories have been relied upon by over 95 per cent of the studies within supply chain management that use formal theories (Table I). This suggests that supply chain scholars should expand their portfolio of theories and actively seek to use additional theoretical lenses to explain supply chain phenomena.

Second, we make a noteworthy contribution by identifying the most frequently used theories within marketing and management. To achieve this goal, we reviewed over 1,200 studies published over the last 10 years in six premier marketing and management journals. We provide a summary of these theories in Tables II and III. This makes an important contribution as, to our knowledge, this is the only study that provides a comprehensive summary of the most frequently utilized theories within marketing and management. As such, it provides a valuable tool for marketing and management

scholars trying to find the best fitting theoretical lens for the specific issue of interest.

Third, we compiled a comprehensive list of theories that have been used within marketing and management but have been rarely used (we used 10 as the cutoff), or have not been used at all within the domain of supply chain management (Table IV). As such, the research effort culminated with the identification of 217 distinct theories. Supply chain management scholars can use these theories novel to supply chain management to better explain new supply chain problems. This is a noteworthy contribution, as it offers supply chain scholars an overview of the possible theoretical lenses that can help explain supply chain phenomena. Thus, the current study is a “one stop shop” that supply chain scholars can consult when in a quandary about what theoretical lens to utilize.

Fourth, as space limitations make it impossible to offer a rich description of each of the 217 theories, we identified 30 theories that we considered to be the most salient to supply chain research. Thus, we make another contribution by offering a description of each of these 30 theories and by suggesting areas where supply chain scholars can apply these theoretical lenses. As such, we provide a rich area of future research for supply chain scholars (see Table V).

## 7. Limitations and future research

While we sought to conduct a comprehensive literature review, this study has limitations. First, due to space constraints, we had to limit our analysis to six supply chain management journals and six marketing and management journals. Although it is expected that these premier outlets cover most of the theories utilized within these domains, it is possible that some theories were not utilized within these outlets. Thus, future research should expand the scope and consider additional supply chain management, marketing and management journals.

Second, we limited our review for new theories to the fields of marketing and management. Future research should explore other domains. Specifically, the fields of economics, psychology, sociology and information systems could be considered. Third, we put forth a comprehensive list of 217 novel (to supply chain management) theories and provided a more detailed description for 30 of these theories which we considered to be more salient to supply chain management. Future research could examine which of these 217 theories supply chain managers and scholars consider to be more relevant to supply chain management phenomena and provide further illustrations of where these theories could be applied. Fourth, we used relevant keywords to search articles' titles, abstracts and keywords. We utilized this approach because of the large number of articles reviewed. This is a limitation of our study, and future research could address it by expanding the search to the body of articles.

Finally, while we encourage the adoption of established theories when possible, we concur with Stank et al. (2017) and recommend that future studies should also attempt to generate and develop original supply chain management theories. This would be an indicator of maturity for the discipline and a testimony to the rigor used in supply chain management research.

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