



DYNAMICS OF CONFLICTS IN MULTI-ACTOR LOGISTICS SERVICE NETWORKS

SEDA ÖZCAN

Thesis for the Ph.D. Program in Business Administration

Graduate School
Izmir University of Economics
Izmir
2023

**DYNAMICS OF CONFLICTS IN MULTI-ACTOR
LOGISTICS SERVICE NETWORKS**

SEDA ÖZCAN

THESIS ADVISOR: PROF. DR. BENGÜ SEVİL OFLAÇ

A Ph.D. Thesis

Submitted to

the Graduate School of Izmir University of Economics

the Department of Business Administration

Izmir

2023

ETHICAL DECLARATION

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis and that I have conducted my work in accordance with academic rules and ethical behaviour at every stage from the planning of the thesis to its defence. I confirm that I have cited all ideas, information and findings that are not specific to my study, as required by the code of ethical behaviour, and that all statements not cited are my own.

Seda Özcan

Date: 22.06.2023

ABSTRACT

DYNAMICS OF CONFLICTS IN MULTI-ACTOR LOGISTICS SERVICE NETWORKS

Özcan, Seda

Ph.D. Program in Business Administration

Advisor: Prof. Dr. Bengü Sevil OFLAÇ

June, 2023

The dynamic complexities in logistics networks brought a set of challenges for logistics actors. In such an environment, providing a balance between the diverse interests of business partners and identifying common working objectives have become difficult. As such, conflicts among companies in the supply chains have become inevitable and it has a common occurrence. A conflict literally refers to the case when one business partner perceives the other as an obstacle to achieving their goals (Wall and Callister, 1995). In this regard, identifying the sources of conflict is evaluated as the starting point of managing conflict and it allows the deployment of proper interventions to produce functional outcomes (Kumar and van Dissel, 1996). Within this context, this study provides comprehension for the notion of conflict and how it is resolved in the multi-actor logistics industry where dynamic complexities pose challenges to network actors especially during the Covid-19 pandemic and post Covid-19 pandemic process. Theoretically, as conflict dynamics remains largely underdeveloped and little understood within the organizational context (Mikkelsen

and Clegg, 2017), the research reveals conflict dynamics that have previously gone unnoticed in supply chain conflicts in terms of methodology, and answers to calls for more in-depth in both the supply chain and operations management literature. In similar line, due to the complexity of conflict and how to resolve it, this study aspires to give managers a more nuanced picture of conflict in practice and helps managers better grasp these issues, which is important for the success of their business partnerships.

Keywords: Dynamics of conflicts, multi-actor, logistics service network, conflict, resolution mechanisms



ÖZET

ÇOK AKTÖRLÜ LOJİSTİK HİZMET AĞLARINDA ÇATIŞMA DİNAMİKLERİ

Özcan, Seda

İşletme Doktora Programı

Tez Danışmanı: Prof. Dr. Bengü Sevil OFLAÇ

Haziran, 2023

Lojistik ağlardaki dinamik karmaşıklıklar, lojistik aktörler için bir dizi zorluk getirmiş, ve böyle bir ortamda, iş ortaklarının farklı çıkarları arasında denge sağlamak ve ortak çalışma hedefleri belirlemek zorlaşmıştır. Bu durum tedarik zincirlerinde yer alan şirketler arasındaki çatışmaları kaçınılmaz hale getirmiştir. Çatışma, kelimenin tam anlamıyla, bir iş ortağının diğerini hedeflerine ulaşmada bir engel olarak algılaması durumu ifade eder (Wall ve Callister, 1995). Bu bağlamda, çatışma kaynaklarının belirlenmesi, çatışma yönetiminin başlangıç noktası olarak değerlendirilir ve işlevsel sonuçlar üretmek için uygun müdahalelerin konuşlandırılmasına olanak tanır (Kumar ve van Dissel, 1996). Bu bağlamda bu çalışma, dinamik karmaşıklıkların özellikle Covid-19 pandemisi ve Covid-19 pandemisi sonrası süreçte ağ aktörlerine zorluk teşkil ettiği çok aktörlü lojistik endüstrisinde çatışma kavramının ve bunun nasıl çözüldüğünün anlaşılmasını sağlamaktadır. Teorik olarak, çatışma dinamikleri büyük ölçüde gelişmemiş ve örgütsel bağlamda çok az anlaşılmış olduğundan (Mikkelsen ve Clegg, 2017),

arařtırma, metodoloji aısından tedarik zinciri atıřmalarında daha nce fark edilmeyen atıřma dinamiklerini ortaya koymaktadır ve hem tedarik zinciri hem de operasyon ynetimi literatrnde daha derinlemesine bir i gr sunmaktadır. Benzer řekilde, bu alıřma, atıřmanın karmařıklığı ve nasıl zleceğine iliřkin, yneticilere uygulamada atıřmanın daha incelikli bir resmini vermeyi ve yneticilerin hem kendi hem de iř ortaklıklarının bařarısı iin nemli olan bu sorunları daha iyi kavramalarına yardımcı olmayı amalamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: atıřma dinamikleri, oklu aktr, lojistik hizmet ađı, atıřma, zm mekanizmaları



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This dissertation chronicles a four-year period in my life. I would like to take this chance to give a sincere thank you to everyone who has supported me on this trip and has stood by my side through all of my emotional upheavals. These people were always there to support and encourage me to keep up the hard work and realize my dream, even when I wasn't feeling very hopeful or when I was losing hope. I would like to offer my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Bengü Sevil Oflaç, I consider myself quite fortunate to have her as supervisor.

Professor Bengü Sevil Oflaç,

First of all, I would like to thank you for agreeing to take part in all of the stages of my doctoral journey. Words cannot express how grateful I am for everything you have done and all of the possibilities you have provided me over the last four years. I couldn't have asked for a greater instructor to be my guide on this adventure. It was a great honor and privilege for me that you walked this road with me day and night. You taught me the fundamentals of academic research, supported me to present my research in conferences each year and encouraged me to step outside of my comfort zone. You have instilled in me the ambition to achieve excellence and become a distinguished academic in my research field. There were so many times when I felt down and depressed and you always gave me moral support to come back. Thank you for your always supportive, smiling face and endless energy. You believed in me and trusted my work. I am truly grateful for your support, your prompt responses to my questions, your continued contribution to the content of the thesis, and your commitment to this research project. You were very committed to my research, generously took the time to read and re-read the chapters and provided me with valuable feedback on this thesis. I appreciate how you treated me and my research with such a sense of family. I will never forget this beautiful journey of ours for the rest of my life, my dear instructor.

I would also like to thank my instructors in my thesis committee who are Asst. Dr. Aysu Göçer and Asst. Dr. Cansu Yıldırım. Thank you for sparing time to discuss my research, your encouragement and help in this process. By the aid of your insightful criticism on the earlier edition of this thesis, I believe I have improved my thesis a lot. I consider myself extremely fortunate as you are in my thesis committee

and thus have access to the insights of professionals in the field like you. I appreciate your support as I work toward becoming like you someday.

I would also express my gratitude to my instructor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Işık Özge Yumurtacı Hüseyinoğlu. As I neared the end of my PhD program, our article, which we worked hard on and published, provided me with tremendous incentive. She calmly and diligently held weekly meetings with me and professionally led me in my work. Thank you for demonstrating what it is like to work meticulously and passionately.

I also want to thank my husband Mert Özcan, my sister, Büşra Lafcı, my family and my husband's family for their unwavering support and encouragement. You have always been a source of inspiration and strength for me, my beloved husband. I sincerely appreciate all that you have done for me to facilitate the PhD process. The weight off my shoulders is because of your support and your affection for me. You constantly maintained my point of view while I was suffering with numerous issues in both my challenging writing process and personal life, and your inspirational guidance has been a light to me. Büşra, my sister, I'm appreciative that you stayed by my side and patiently listened to all of my problems repeatedly without getting tired of it. You've always been more than a sister to me, I am so lucky to have you. Many thanks to my entire family for always being there for me. I am indebted to you as you have supported me financially and morally, especially in this process when my thesis is nearing its end. They are responsible for what I've accomplished, and I can't express my gratitude to them in words.

With love,

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iv
ÖZET.....	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xv
LIST OF FIGURES	xvii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xviii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Introduction to the Research	1
1.2. Purpose of the Study	3
1.3. Significance of the Study	4
1.4. Outline of the Study	5
CHAPTER 2: OVERVIEW OF CONFLICTS IN SUPPLY CHAINS	7
2.1. Definition and Dynamics of Supply Chain Conflicts	7
2.2. Antecedents and the Causes of Channel Conflicts.....	9
2.2.1. Antecedents/Determinants of the Channel Conflicts.....	9
2.2.2. Causes/Sources of the Channel Conflicts	10
2.3. Stages of Conflicts	15
2.4. Conflict Resolution Approaches	17
2.4.1. Conflict Resolution Approaches in Social Sciences.....	17
2.4.2. Conflict Resolution Approaches in Interdisciplinary Management	21
2.5. Conflict Prevention	24
2.6. Conflict Outcomes	26
CHAPTER 3: SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW OF CONFLICTS IN SUPPLY CHAIN AND LOGISTICS SERVICE NETWORK	28
3.1. Systematic Literature Review of Supply Chain Conflicts	28
3.1.1. First Phase of the Review	28
3.1.2. Second Phase of the Review	30
3.1.2.1. Sector-based Supply Chain Conflicts.....	30
3.1.2.2. Perspective-based Supply Chain Conflicts	31
3.1.2.3. Relational Level-based Supply Chain Conflicts	32

3.2. The Structure of the Logistics Industry and Systematic Literature Review for Channel Conflicts.....	34
3.2.1. Multi-Party Complexities and Coordination in Logistics Networks	34
3.2.2. Systematic Literature Review for Channel Conflicts in the ‘Logistics Service Network’	35
3.2.2.1. Descriptive Analysis of Logistics Service Network Conflicts.....	36
3.2.2.1.1. Logistics Network Conflict by Years and Journals.....	36
3.2.2.1.2. Logistics Network Conflict by Theories	39
3.2.2.2. Content Analysis of Logistics Service Network Conflicts	40
3.2.2.2.1. Logistics Network Conflict by Relationship	40
3.2.2.2.2. Logistics Network Conflict by Methodologies	41
3.2.2.2.3. Source of the Conflicts in Logistics Networks.....	42
3.2.2.2.3.1. Economic Conflicts.....	42
3.2.2.2.3.2. Sustainability Conflicts.....	44
3.2.2.2.3.3. Operational Conflicts	47
3.2.2.2.3.4. Relationship Conflicts	49
3.2.2.2.3.5. Regulatory-Legislative Conflicts	53
CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.....	58
4.1. Conflict Theory	58
4.1.1. Conflict Types and Typologies.....	60
4.1.2. Functionality of the Conflicts	60
4.1.3. Conflict Levels and Resolution.....	61
4.1.4. Conflict Transformation	62
4.2. Dynamic Capability Theory	64
4.3. Agency Theory.....	67
4.4. Social Exchange Theory	70
CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY	73
5.1. Research Approach	73
5.2. Research Quality	74
5.3. Context of the Study and Selection of the Interview Partners	76
5.4. Data Collection.....	79
5.4.1. Critical Incident Technique	79
5.5. Data Analysis	80
CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS.....	89

6.1. Sources of Conflicts	89
6.1.1. Economic Conflicts.....	89
6.1.1.1. Payment Conflicts	89
6.1.1.2. Pricing Conflicts	90
6.1.2. Service Quality Conflicts.....	93
6.1.2.1. Order Condition Conflicts.....	93
6.1.2.2. Timeliness Conflicts	95
6.1.2.3. Contact Personnel Conflicts.....	96
6.1.2.4. Availability Conflicts	97
6.1.2.5. Service Standards Conflicts	98
6.1.3. Operational Conflicts.....	100
6.1.3.1. Customs Conflicts	100
6.1.3.2. Delay Conflicts.....	101
6.1.3.3. Digital Conflicts	102
6.1.3.4. Documentation Conflicts	104
6.1.4. Relational Conflicts	105
6.1.4.1. Power Issues.....	106
6.1.4.2. Asymmetric Information.....	107
6.1.4.3. Unfair Treatment.....	108
6.1.4.4. Unethical Issues	110
6.2. Level-Based Resolution Mechanisms	111
6.2.1. Latent Conflict	111
6.2.2. Perceived Conflict.....	111
6.2.3. Felt Conflict	113
6.2.4. Manifest Conflict	117
6.2.5. Conflict Aftermath.....	118
6.3. Outcome of Conflicts	120
6.3.1. Constructive Outcomes.....	120
6.3.2. Destructive Outcomes.....	126
6.4. Conflicts in Resolution Process	133
6.4.1. Inter-organizational Context.....	134
6.4.2. Intra-organizational Context.....	138
6.5. Dynamic Capabilities	140
6.5.1. Coordinating Capabilities	140

6.5.2. Control Capabilities	144
6.5.3. Planning Capabilities	150
6.5.4. Learning Capability	157
6.6.5. Reconfiguration Capability.....	161
6.6. Conflict Transformation.....	165
6.6.1. Actor Transformation	165
6.6.2. Issue Transformation	166
6.6.3. Structural Transformation.....	169
6.6.4. Rule Transformation	170
6.6.5. Context Transformation.....	171
CHAPTER 7: QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY.....	172
7.1. Experimental Design.....	172
7.2. Theoretical Background.....	173
7.2.1. Approach-Inhibition Theory of Power	173
7.2.2. Event System Theory.....	174
7.3. Methodology.....	175
7.3.1. Hypotheses Development	175
7.3.2. Research Design	180
7.3.3 Data Collection	180
7.3.4. Operationalization of Independent Variables	182
7.3.4.1. Operationalization of Criticality	183
7.3.4.2. Operationalization of Power	185
7.3.5. Operationalization of Dependent Variables.....	189
7.3.5.1. Dominating Conflict Style	189
7.3.5.2. Integrating Conflict Style.....	190
7.3.5.3 Obliging Conflict Style	190
7.3.6. Stimulus Materials	192
7.3.7. Scenarios.....	192
7.3.8. Procedures.....	194
7.3.9. Preliminary Research.....	196
7.3.9.1. Manipulation Checks	196
7.3.9.2. Manipulation Checks for Criticality	197
7.3.9.3. Manipulation Checks for Power	198
7.3.9.4. Realism Check	199

7.3.10. Validity and Reliability of the Study	201
7.3.10.1. Validity.....	201
7.3.10.2. Reliability of the Scale	203
7.4 Analyses and Results	203
7.4.1. Sample Matching	204
7.4.2 Hypotheses Testing.....	204
7.4.3. Control Variables	212
CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION.....	215
8.1. Conflict Types	216
8.2. Outcomes of Conflicts	218
8.3. Level-based Resolution Mechanisms.....	219
8.4. Dynamic Capabilities for Handling Conflicts.....	220
8.4.1. Planning Capability in Conflict Management	221
8.4.2. Control Capabilities in Conflict Management.....	223
8.4.3. Coordination Capabilities in Conflict Management	224
8.4.4. Learning Capability in Conflict Management	225
8.4.5. Reconfiguration Capability in Conflict Management.....	227
8.5. Conflicts in the Resolution Process	228
8.6. Transformation of Conflicts	228
8.6.1. Actor Transformation	228
8.6.2. Issue Transformation	229
8.6.3. Context Transformation.....	230
8.6.4. Rule Transformation	231
8.6.5. Structure Transformation.....	231
8.7. Experimental Results of the Study.....	231
8.8. Managerial Implications.....	234
8.9. Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research.....	238
REFERENCES.....	241
APPENDICES	299
APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL.....	299
APPENDIX B: QUOTATIONS WITH CATEGORIES	302
APPENDIX C: CURRICULUM VITAE.....	347

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Definition of Supply Chain Conflicts	8
Table 2. Distribution Frequency by Papers.....	37
Table 3. Conflict by Theories.....	39
Table 4. Source of Conflicts and Resolution Mechanisms in Logistics Service Network.....	54
Table 5. Potential Members in the Transportation Process (Wagenaar, 1992; Chandra and Hillegersberg, 2018).....	77
Table 6. Sample of the Study	81
Table 7. Some Examples from Coding Process of the Findings.....	86
Table 8. Demographic Characteristics of Sample.....	182
Table 9. Measurement Items	191
Table 10. Manipulation Levels	196
Table 11. Descriptive Statistics for Criticality Manipulation	197
Table 12. Independent Sample T-test Statistics for Criticality Manipulation.....	198
Table 13. Descriptive Statistics for Power Manipulation	198
Table 14. Independent Sample T-test Statistics for Power Manipulation.....	199
Table 15. Descriptive Statistics for Realism.....	200
Table 16. Descriptive Statistics for Realism-Criticality	200
Table 17. Mann-Whitney U Test Statistics for Criticality.....	200
Table 18. Descriptive Statistics for Realism-Power	201
Table 19. Mann-Whitney U Test Statistics for Power.....	201
Table 20. Scale Item Numbers and Scale Reliability.....	203
Table 21. Sample Matching Test Results.....	204
Table 22. Descriptive Statistics for H1a and H1b.....	205
Table 23. Homogeneity of Variances Test Result for H1a and H1b	206
Table 24. ANOVA Statistics for H1a and H1b.....	206
Table 25. Descriptive Statistics for Criticality Effect on Dominating Strategy.....	207
Table 26. Homogeneity of Variances Test Result for H2.....	208
Table 27. ANOVA Statistics for Criticality Effect on Dominating Strategy.....	208
Table 28. Paired Sample Statistics for Dominating, Obliging and Coordinating Styles with High Criticality	208

Table 29. Paired Sample Tests for Dominating, Obliging and Coordinating Styles with High Criticality	209
Table 30. Paired Sample Statistics for Dominating, Obliging and Coordinating Styles with High Power	209
Table 31. Paired Sample Tests for Dominating, Obliging and Coordinating Styles with High Power	210
Table 32. Test of Between-Subject	211
Table 33. Hypothesis Results	211
Table 34. Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Age, Gender, Education and Role	212
Table 35. ANOVA Statistics for Education	213
Table 36. Robust Tests of Equality of Means	213
Table 37. ANOVA Statistics for Role.....	213
Table 38. Robust Tests of Equality of Means	213

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. The Process of Conflict Events (Pondy, 1967).....	17
Figure 2. Four Ways to Resolve Conflicts (Palmatier et al., 2019)	19
Figure 3. Systematic Literature Review Process of Supply Chain Conflicts.....	30
Figure 4. Distribution of Articles by Industry.....	31
Figure 5. Supply Chain Conflict by Areas	32
Figure 6. Relational Perspectives of Supply Chain Conflicts	33
Figure 7. Systematic Literature Review Process of Logistics Service Network Conflicts	36
Figure 8. Conflict Research by Years	37
Figure 9. Conflict by Relationship.....	41
Figure 10. Conflict by Methodologies	42
Figure 11. The Abductive Research Process (Rahmani and Leifels, 2018).....	74
Figure 12. Layered Model of Global Supply Chains (Van Baalen, Zuidwijk and Van Nunen, 2009).....	76
Figure 13. Mean Plot for H1a and H1b.....	207

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SC: supply chain

B2B: business to business

LSP: logistics service providers

DC: dynamic capabilities

CRM: customer relationship management

NGO: non- governmental organization

3PRLP: third party logistics service providers

SOP: standard operational procedures

EDI: electronic data interchange

NWOM: negative word of mouth

BCF: booking cancellation fee

JIT: just-in-time

SET: social exchange theory

CIT: critical incident technique

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction to the Research

Business-to-business (B2B) interactions are recognized as a source of competitive advantage (McCormack, 2003; Appio and Lacoste, 2019) due to operational flexibility, cost savings, supply chain synchronization and encourage continuity benefits (Pavlou, 2002; Omar et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2014). However, these interactions are not just marked by collaborative actions, but also by episodes of conflict and tensions which can result in either positive or negative relational changes (Lönnerberg, Macanovic and Pettersson, 2016; Chai et al., 2020). Although conflict may increase commitments, the efficiency of learning processes, and the amount of co-created value and strengths in business relationships (Vaaland and Håkansson, 2003; Mele, 2011), it may also lower satisfaction and trust, reduce total profits (Dabholkar, Johnston and Cathey, 1994; Samiee, 2008), and ultimately result in the breakdown of a relationship (Vaaland, 2006; Lee, Yi, and Son, 2020). Considering real-life B2B examples, in the 2016 controversy between Nestle and Tesco, Nestle raised wholesale prices on certain items, resulting in a pricing and profit margin dispute with Tesco. Then, Tesco temporarily removed Nestle items from its shelves, which reduced income for both companies, harmed their business relationship, and necessitated negotiations to settle the pricing disagreement (Reuters, 2016). We see similar pricing conflicts among other companies at various times (e.g. Walmart and Procter and Gamble in 2014; Volkswagen and its trucking suppliers in 2017, Walmart and Coca-Cola in 2019). In a recent example, Boeing has once again halted deliveries of its 787 Dreamliners due to what it calls “an analysis error” by one of its suppliers and the problems were mainly about quality control during its assembly process. The conflicts caused significant cost overruns, and reputational damage for Boeing, and the company had to address supply chain issues, seek alternative suppliers, and make extensive modifications to the Dreamliner program (Wolfsteller, 2023).

Within the context of the supply chain, a number of studies examined the notion of conflict in various contexts including competition or conflict between individual or corporate entities in supplier and vendor relations, partnerships/alliances, and JIT

programs (e.g. Wilkinson, 1981; Brown, Lusch and Smith, 1991; Skjott-Larsen et al., 2007). In a similar line, Pondy (1967) takes a very comprehensive view that allows for investigating conflict between departments or even entire firms and facilitates the attempt to take a dynamic approach for analyzing inter-firm boundaries in supply chains which are of major significance within inter-organizational research. Due to the numerous relationships involved, inter-organizational conflicts by definition arise between groups of people that range in size and complexity (Lengers, Dant, and Meiseberg, 2015). Considering the duality in conflict outcomes, scholars have also investigated the nature of conflict and the conflict resolution process as two separate factors that impact conflict outcomes for the involved parties.

Although previous research on intra-organizational and inter-organizational conflict including evolution and management, garnered a lot of attention, theory mostly concentrated on buyer-supplier relationships. In this regard, we build on earlier conflict research and consider the theories related to this which openly address the process of conflict in order to provide a better knowledge of its complexities and dynamic nature, especially during the Covid-19 pandemic and post-Covid-19 pandemic process by considering multiple logistics actors in the logistics service network by adopting a qualitative semi-structured interview methodology which is enriched with a critical incident technique method. Besides, as it is stated in the conflict research, power and criticality are essential contextual elements in conflict management (e.g. Thomas, 1978; Callanan, Benzing and Perri, 2006). However, they are not addressed together in a way to reveal their role in conflict dynamics within the multi-actor context. In this regard, we tried to reveal the role of these contextual variables in the conflict handling strategies within the scope of conflict dynamics and support the first study, by adopting the experimental method which allows a studying the impact of beliefs, norms, opinions, or values on actual behavior through a causal relationship particularly when dealing with sensitive or socially controversial issues (Lumineau, Eckerd and Handley, 2015). Although qualitative data provided us with rich and in-depth insights into the dynamics of conflict phenomena, we did not capture the two complex, context-specific factors easily by observation and interviews alone, we complemented our qualitative findings with quantitative data, through surveys and statistical analysis in a way to corroborate our qualitative findings. In the end, we aim to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the

dynamics of conflict phenomena under investigation. In this regard, we employed a sequential mixed methods design, where we initially collect and analyze qualitative data through abductive reasoning with a grounded theory approach, followed by quantitative data collection and analysis. This sequential approach allowed us for the validation and expansion of initial qualitative findings through the quantitative phase as we used multiple sources, methods, or perspectives to examine a phenomenon: (1) qualitative data (e.g. interviews, observations) and (2) quantitative data (e.g. surveys, statistical analysis) which are collected and analyzed concurrently. By triangulating data from different sources, we believe we enhanced our findings' validity and increased confidence in the results.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

Although scholars have come to recognize that conflict is a process rather than an event, the precise nature of conflict dynamics is still unknown. This study investigates the dynamics of conflict within the context of the multi-actor logistics service network by offering a more comprehensive picture of how conflict and its resolution emerge through time as a process by incorporating the effect of during and post Covid-19 pandemic process. In this journey, we examined the different types of conflicts, their constructive and destructive outcomes, dynamic capabilities for handling conflicts, bifurcation and transformation of the conflicts, and level-based resolution mechanisms. The following goals and objectives were established for this study: (1) To investigate the conflicts in the supply chain and logistics service network specifically by conducting a thorough systematic literature review which allows us to map out the current status of the literature on conflicts, and identify research gaps that need to be addressed. (2) To understand the dynamics of conflicts during the conflict episode in the multi-actor logistics networks (3) To reveal the importance of contextual factors like power and criticality in determining conflict handling strategies of the business partners. Based on our objectives, six research questions are formulated as follows:

RQ1) What are the emerging conflicting paradigms in the domain of ‘multi-actor logistics service networks recently?

RQ2) What are the probable destructive and constructive effects of channel conflicts in the logistics service network?

RQ3) What are the changing dynamics of conflicts in the logistics service network?

RQ4) What are the dynamic capabilities of logistics service actors to deal with conflicts?

RQ5) What are the level-based resolution strategies (e.g. latent, perceived, felt, manifest, aftermath) of logistics service actors to deal with conflicts?

RQ6) How do criticality and power as contextual factors influence the preference of conflict handling strategies?

1.3. Significance of the Study

Conflict is the central process of social life, and that the social structure is the actors' interactive mode, which is produced and lasted in the process of actors' constant creation and re-creation (Collins, 1975). Due to the cross-functional nature of logistics tasks and the cross-organizational structure of the majority of logistics chains, examining business dynamics is of vital importance in terms of its impacts on the logistics service network as well as comprehending the macrostructure of the logistics service networks (Thiell and Hernandez, 2010). As the integrated networks, including different relationships and interactions, are the primary factor in the logistics integrated services (Wang and Kang, 2015), we offer different insights regarding the dynamics of the logistics service networks by introducing conflict sources, conflict outcomes, dynamic capabilities for handling conflicts, conflict transformation and conflict bifurcations (conflict in resolution process), especially during the Covid-19 pandemic process in this thesis.

Apart from these, investigating contextual variables such as criticality and power in conflicts is important for understanding the behaviors of partners in logistics networks because these variables significantly influence the dynamics and outcomes of conflicts within the network. In the literature, it is seen that criticality and power as situational variables are not extensively discussed and the studies addressing these contextual variables did not examine these two variables together in supply chains. In this study, we address criticality with its underlying ideas related to the importance, urgency, and mobilizing potential of certain issues or events that are consistent with conflict theory. As power imbalances play a significant role in shaping conflicts and interactions among actors, we address actor power in accordance with conflict

theory. The examination of these concepts as situational variables helps to explain why conflicts emerge around specific issues and how they shape dynamics as well as organizational behaviors in logistics service networks. Additionally, in order to capture the complexity and nuances of real-world logistics networks entirely, we provide a more comprehensive understanding of partner behaviors in logistics networks by presenting a multi-method approach considering the post Covid-19 pandemic effects in this thesis.

1.4. Outline of the Study

In this thesis, a systematic literature review of supply chain conflicts was reviewed first. Herein, due to the gap found in this part directed us to employ another systematic literature review specifically in logistics service networks (LSN). Then, as we have found that lack of mixed research in LSN, we adopted a mixed study and started our process by applying qualitative semi-structured interviews. In order to increase the richness and depth of the study, we used the critical incident technique here. Afterwards, we adopted a quantitative scenario-based between-subject experimental design based on the findings of the qualitative interviews found in the previous step. In this context, scenarios were created based on the real-life practices. Lastly, we attempt to provide a comprehensive picture of how conflicts and their dynamics emerge through time as a process.

By basing on the research flow explained in detail in the abovementioned text, Chapter 1 provides an initial overview of the thesis by offering an introduction, the purpose and, the significance of the study, and the thesis structure outline.

In Chapter 2, we provide a literature overview of conflicts by pointing out definitions, antecedents/determinants, causes/sources, stages, prevention, and resolution of conflicts.

In Chapter 3, we provide a systematic literature review of conflicts in the supply chains and another systematic literature review for the logistics industry specifically.

In Chapter 4, we present a related theoretical framework as stated in the literature in order to better comprehend the characteristics and dynamics of the conflicts.

In Chapter 5, we introduce the detailed methodology of our qualitative research by explaining our research approach, research quality, the context of the study and selection of the interview partners, data collection, and data analysis.

In Chapter 6, we demonstrate findings related to sources of conflicts, level-based resolution mechanisms, the outcome of conflicts, dynamic capabilities for handling conflicts, conflicts in the resolution process, and the transformation of conflicts.

In Chapter 7, we explain the quantitative methodology, the analysis, and the findings of the quantitative study.

In Chapter 8, the conclusion part involves the theoretical and managerial impacts as well as the limitation and future research directions.



CHAPTER 2: OVERVIEW OF CONFLICTS IN SUPPLY CHAINS

This chapter highlights the definition and dynamics of supply chain conflicts by referring to the causes, stages, and outcomes of conflicts. This chapter also addresses the prevention of conflicts and the resolution approaches for the realized conflicts.

2.1. Definition and Dynamics of Supply Chain Conflicts

Conflict has long been researched by scholars from different disciplines. Some concepts along with conflict such as competition, antagonism, opposition, disagreements, and dispute (John and Prasad, 2012) create a multitude of interfering definitions of conflict and hence these concepts are often used in conjunction with each other (Boulding, 1957; Strauss, 1964). As stated by Etgar (1979, p.61), channel conflict occurs “when a component (channel member) perceives the behavior of another component to be impeding the attainment of its goals or the effective performance of its instrumental behavior patterns”. Many conflict definitions like this one, presumed that all conflict situations include competition and competing interests (Aubert, 1963). Accordingly, conflict heightens the significance of individuals' interests and reduces collective action, increasing competitiveness (Semerci, 2019). In this regard, the idea of conflict has always been thought of negatively, with competitive tactics being employed (Walton and Dutton, 1969).

It is also ascertained that even when participants are not directly competing or have no competing interests, they can experience conflict. Based on this, conflicts can also arise from the attempts to coordinate and cooperate among individuals working together in the form of dissensus (Aubert, 1963; Thomas, 1976; Kabanoff, 1985). In this sense, many researchers went beyond these discussions and tried to define the concept of conflict. The other definitions of conflict are also shown in the table below (Table 1). Both definitions share two fundamental elements: (1) conflict is a process that involves two or more sides who interact over time and (2) conflict arises when one side thinks the other's interests are in opposition to its own.

Table 1. Definition of Supply Chain Conflicts

Definition of supply chain conflict	Reference
"the identification by one party of any activity in which the behavior of another party blocks, impedes, injures, or is in opposition to the behavior of another"	Deutsch (1969, p.3)
"a social relationship between two or more parties (persons, groups, or empirically distinguishable entities) in which at least one of the parties perceives the other as an adversary engaging in behaviors designed to destroy, injure, thwart, or gain scarce resources at the expense of the perceiver"	Rosenberg and Stern (1970, p.41)
"...is opponent-centered, based on incompatibility of goals, aims, or values of opposing firms, direct and personal, and the opponent or opposing firm is perceived to have some control over goals desired by both parties."	Eliashberg and Michie (1984, p.77)
'the process which begins when one party perceives that another has frustrated, or is about to frustrate, some concern of his.'	Thomas (1992a, p.265)
"...at least one of the parties feels it is being obstructed or irritated by the other"	Van de Vliert (1998, p.351)
"the process that begins when an individual or group perceives differences and opposition between itself and another individual or group about interests and resources, beliefs, values or practices that matter to them."	De Dreu and Gelfand (2008, p.6)
"...a disagreement between two or more individuals or groups with each individual or group trying to gain acceptance of its view over others."	Thakore (2013, p.7)
"...a "dynamic process" whereby at least one organizational agent feels, perceives, or behaves in opposition toward another organizational agent."	McCarter et al. (2016, p.3)
"... arises in a situation when one's values and expectations are at variance with that of another and thus makes them at war with one another."	Opeyemi and Ajeh (2020, p.84).

Based on a Rosenberg and Stern-proposed descriptive model (1970), conflict involves four stages: (1) the development of conflict-causing factors, (2) the stage of channel members' conflict-filled reactions, and (3) conflict outcomes in the form of member businesses' performance results, (4) conflict resolution actions. In this regard, the initial focus of conflict research in this chapter will revolve around understanding the nature of the conflict phenomenon in parallel with these aforementioned four dimensions.

2.2. Antecedents and the Causes of Channel Conflicts

2.2.1. Antecedents/Determinants of the Channel Conflicts

Antecedents are conditions that exist prior to the actual emergence of conflict (Iniesta, 1999). The main antecedent or pre-existing conditions for conflicts are *interdependence, relative power, and diversity* in goals, perceptions, and domains (Pondy, 1966; Anderson and Weitz 1989; Griffin, 1990; Krafft et al., 2015). Considering the *interdependence*, Miles and Snow (1992) predict the emergence of conflict between at least two or more interdependent groups or organizations that have not agreed to engage in ongoing cooperative business exchanges for an extended period of time. Similarly, Bateman and Scott (1999) contend that an organization's intricate web of interdependencies offers countless opportunities for group conflicts to manifest. The amount of dependency in this context refers to the groups functioning independently, where the organization's overall performance depends on the joint efforts of all the groups. such as mutual assistance, information sharing, adherence to rules, regulations, and norms, performance feedback, and other actions that allow the groups to coordinate their respective activities (Patterson, 1999).

The second antecedent condition for conflict is *relative power*. It is defined as the capacity to influence another person's behavior (Gaski, 1984). If there is undoubtedly a power imbalance, any conflict between the two groups will favor the side with relatively greater power. As Kabanoff (1985) stated, understanding power and how it is distributed within individuals and organizations is necessary for understanding conflict. The most common and important sources of power are stated as reward, coercive, legitimate, expert, and referent (Lusch, 1976). Lusch concludes that coercive sources of power, involving potential punishment in which individuals begrudgingly yield power to another, increase conflict in the channel, while non-coercive forms of power promote conflict in the channel.

The third condition which is necessary for the evolution of conflict is *diversity*. The differences or disagreements that arise between groups or organizations as a result of competition or varying goals and objectives are referred to as diversity (Miles and

Snow, 1992). Conflict is more likely to happen in a strategic long-term collaborative relationship if the parties' goals are not highly congruent or otherwise compatible with each other. Disagreements between groups and organizations can also occur as a result of domain dissensus and perceptual incongruence. A domain is a group of expectations about what an organization will or will not accomplish. It also paints a picture of the organization's place in a wider system and acts as a roadmap for specific actions (Thompson, 2003). In the context of distribution channels, four conflicting domain elements are introduced by Stern, El-Ansary and Coughlan (1996): the market to be serviced, the area to cover, the function of each channel participant, and the technology to be used. In terms of perceptual differences, when partners have different perceptions of reality in different areas (e.g. price, delivery, product quality, service flexibility), they take dissimilar actions as a reaction to the same circumstance, resulting in conflict (Duarte and Davies, 2003).

Apart from the abovementioned main antecedents (interdependence, power, and diversity), characteristics of the conflict issues (e.g. complexity) and the relationship (e.g. dependence, trust, relational norms, and frequency of contact, empathy, culture, communication behaviors, coordination), the personalities of the members (e.g. stress, autonomy seeking, self-esteem) (Reid et al., 2004; Del Mar Benavides-Espinosa and Ribeiro-Soriano, 2014). Lastly, the type of structural mechanisms in place within the relationship (e.g. bureaucratization and organizational integration, control), and the attributes of the external environment (e.g. uncertainty, limited resources, and capacities) are acknowledged as another commonly cited antecedent of conflicts in supply chains (Grewal et al., 2013; Hwang and Chung, 2018).

2.2.2. Causes/Sources of the Channel Conflicts

Regarding causes of conflicts, the categories in the literature are mainly formed as economic, operational, sustainability, and relationship conflicts within the supply chain context.

Economic conflict is defined as channel member A's adverse response to a downturn in the economy, such as a profit or loss from its partner B (Yu and Pysarchik, 2002). In the literature, it is seen that these conflicts are pricing and profit allotment issues related to the allocation of resources, inventory issues, channel encroachments, and channel incentives (Biyalogorsky and Koenigsberg, 2010; Ding, Guo and Liu, 2011;

Huang et al., 2011; Yan, 2011; Özer, Zheng and Ren, 2014; Arya et al., 2015; Amrouche and Yan, 2016; Shi and Ma, 2016; Scavarda, Seok and Nof, 2017; Scheele, Thonemann and Slikker, 2018; Mantino and Forcina, 2018; Biswas and Avittathur, 2019; Li et al., 2019; Zhang, Qu and He, 2019).

In terms of profit allotment, Ding, Guo and Liu (2011) and Yan (2011) addressed profit-sharing dichotomies between manufacturers and retailers which create interest conflict between partners. Associated with the allocation of resources, Scavarda, Seok and Nof (2017) considered resource distribution conflict stemming from inefficient coordination of the movement of information, materials, and resources inside and among a growing number of network participants including manufacturing plants, distribution centers, cross-docking stations, and customers. In a similar vein, Mantino and Forcina (2018) mentioned competition for resource allocation as well as discrepancies between producers and processors in the tomato supply chain. Regarding decisions related to the pricing and inventory/order levels, Biswas and Avittathur (2019) addressed simultaneous price and inventory conflict between the supplier and buyer in a single supplier multiple buyers (retailers) network which results in inefficient overall supply chain performance. Likewise, Zhang, Qu and He (2019) examined new energy products in detail and stated that the market size is relatively small, production and marketing investments are out of balance, and each business must deal with its own demand for this product, all of which lead to a pricing conflict between manufacturers and retailers. Pertaining to the channel encroachments, manufacturers' adoption of direct selling strategy as well as traditional selling threat traditional retailers' profit (Amrouche and Yan, 2016), breaks the retailer's channel monopoly (Li et al., 2019) and have a disastrous impact on the structures of product demand (Shi and Ma, 2016) by creating serious channel competition and conflict between these partners. Lastly, for the channel incentives specifically, Bialogorsky and Koenigsberg (2010) pointed out the misalignment of incentives and ownership under high levels of uncertainty between manufacturers and retailers. Additionally, Huang et al. (2011) addressed that retailers frequently receive a full credit from suppliers for returns, thus they may not be sufficiently motivated to maximize supply chain profits. This leads to a dispute between the supplier and the retailer over how much effort is necessary to eliminate false failure returns. Also, Arya et al. (2015) discussed self-interested decision-making involving

a retailer and a manufacturer, in which incentive misalignment results in conflicts related to investment and production inefficiencies. They introduced that basic cost-based contracts can result in an integrated solution, but only when a middleman is involved and disintegration is removed between these parties. Lastly, it is also found that incentive conflicts occur due to sharing forecast information between parties (Özer, Zheng and Ren, 2014; Scheele, Thonemann and Slikker, 2018). For instance, a downstream supplier requests information from the retailer about demand forecasts in order to schedule production, but the retailer has the incentive to tamper with his/her projection in order to maintain a plentiful supply which results in incentive conflict between parties.

Operational conflict arises when different logistical systems, procedures, and standards operate in opposition to one another (for example, when there is a flow between the various elements, rules, regulations, organizational principles, structures, and sophisticated processes) (Ge, Chen and Li, 2010; Chen, Zhang and Zhou, 2019). Examples of operational conflicts include late deliveries and missed payments, which are directly related to production or financial performance (Eckerd and Eckerd, 2017). The more actors operating in a collaborative network, the more likely it is that operational conflicts will arise (Shaiq, Shaikh and Ahmed, 2015).

Operational conflicts include conflicting operational decisions related to efficiency and utilization considerations, optimal order and shipment sizes, supply chain strategies, performance evaluation of partners, and service levels and after-sales service operations (Ge, Chen and Li, 2010; Wang, Wee and Tsao, 2010; Zhou, Huang and Zhang, 2014; Li et al., 2016; Kuik et al., 2017; Nielsen and Saha, 2018; Feng et al., 2019; Tang and Liao, 2021). In this regard, Nielsen and Saha (2018) addressed efficiency and utilization considerations of operations by stating that decisions on procurement in the presence of strategic inventory may lead to some conflicting implementation issues for the distributors and retailers. In a similar vein, Wang, Wee and Tsao (2010) embraced conflicts stemming from optimal order and shipment sizes by referring to smaller lot sizes and replenishment quantities between suppliers and buyers implementing a vendor-managed inventory approach. In regard to the selection of appropriate strategies, Zhou, Huang and Zhang (2014) addressed the postponement strategy used by manufacturing firms to achieve agility while

keeping low inventory levels. From the standpoint of performance and quality evaluations in operations, while Kuik et al. (2017) assessed the problematic performance evaluation and recovery processes among actors, Matawale, Datta and Mahapatra (2016) referred to the subjectivity of evaluation which creates conflict and uncertainty for manufacturers and suppliers. Considering service levels, as both the manufacturer and the retailer are eager to control the demand-enhancing service themselves, Li et al. (2016) demonstrate a conflict in the choice of the service channel. Similarly, Feng et al. (2019) addressed implementing trade-in strategies in operational management to boost sales and encourage consumption across a variety of channels, which could eventually result in more intense channel competition and conflict between manufacturers and retailers. Lastly, Tang and Liao (2021) demonstrated that both the manufacturer and the retailer would desire to handle the trade-in operations, which would cause a conflict. Alternatively, they demonstrated that both companies would prefer to be free riders rather than trade-in providers, which would result in a prisoner's dilemma.

Sustainability conflicts stem from neglecting the principal adverse impact of business decisions on sustainability factors, lack of compliance with the sustainability requirements, and their conflict with interests in the business operations (Mezzanotte, 2022). These conflicts are mainly related to considerations regarding sustainability, economic-operational outcomes of sustainability issues, and related strategic-level decisions on supply chain transparency, sourcing, and applied regimes (Inghelbrecht, Dessein and Van Huylenbroeck, 2014; Guarnieri, e Silva and Levino, 2016; Rebehy et al., 2019; Zarei, Rasti-Barzoki and Moon, 2020; Karaosman et al., 2020). In terms of sustainability and economic-operational outcomes, Guarnieri, e Silva and Levino (2016) addressed conflicting viewpoints on initiatives regarding shared responsibility for waste and neglecting the expenses incurred by these initiatives. Herein, some of the partners in the supply chain (consultant, Non- Governmental Organization (NGO) manager, and consumer) emphasize the necessity of putting reverse logistics programs into place, creating infrastructure and reverse channels, as well as promoting environmental awareness; some of them (manufacturer, retailer, and third-party logistics service providers (3PRLP) were more focused on practical concerns, such as economic viability, partnerships, and bureaucracy reduction. Similarly, Rebehy et al. (2019) revealed possible conflicts among multi-stakeholders

(government, logistics companies, cities) regarding the environmental and economic interests in wherein the government must protect the environment and adhere to global climate change agreements, resulting in the creation of legislation that ultimately places a financial and administrative burden on companies and cities. Inghelbrecht, Dessein and Van Huylenbroeck (2014) addressed the significant degree of dispute, disagreement, and complexity in strategic-level sustainability considerations as it requires multi-stakeholder engagement in supply chains to reach a consensus on a safe environment and public health. In a similar line, Chen, Zhang and Zhou (2019) revealed that the buyer's disclosure of the identity of its supplier could be conflictual with responsible sourcing, while Zarei, Rasti-Barzoki and Moon (2020) looked into the relationship between responsible sourcing and partner conflict that results from the buyer disclosing sustainability problems at supplier facilities. Lastly, Karaosman et al. (2020) embraced the sustainability conflict among brand owners, leather processors, accessory manufacturers, fabric, and garment manufacturers. Due to the fact that specific chemicals are required to give the finished leather product a good sensation and conform to luxury market criteria, chemical elimination was challenging and caused conflict.

Relational conflict is described as friction and contention arising from the relationships of the parties concerned (Harper and Nagel, 2014) and it is brought on by opportunism and the unpredictability of interactions (Wei et al., 2021). The main causes of these types of conflicts are related to collaboration issues, role and goal conflicts, power practices of the partners, and information asymmetries characterized by the opportunistic misrepresentation and manipulation of information along supply chains (Cahill et al., 2010; Cheng, 2011; Cheng and Sheu, 2012; Han and Chuang, 2015; Cheng and Xiong, 2015; Murfield et al., 2016; Panchal et al., 2017). In this context, Cahill et al. (2010) addressed interaction-collaboration conflicts in terms of logistics outsourcing relationships. By pointing to the role of the partners, Murfield et al. (2016) showed the detrimental effects of role conflict on the supplier's opinions on the relationship and their interest in future business. Considering channel power practices, Han and Chuang (2015) explored the power imposition of processors on vertically linked farmers. Herein, farmers are forced to sell at processors' offering prices which aggravates the conflict between them. Similarly, Cheng and Xiong (2015) mentioned the dominance of retailers who have bargaining power and the

ability to open internet stores without taking manufacturers into account which results in conflict at the end between these parties.

Regarding information asymmetries, Panchal et al. (2017) touched on the importance of actors' information elicitation in designing supply chain networks. Herein, the rationality and self-centeredness of these actors cause information asymmetry in the supply chain which ends up with supply channel conflicts. In a similar vein, Cheng (2011) and Cheng and Sheu (2012) mentioned about opportunistic behavior of the partners in which manufacturing firms are reluctant to share valuable capability or resources due to regarding their partners (suppliers and subcontractors) as potential competitors.

2.3. Stages of Conflicts

Conflict is widely viewed as a flow of events or a process by which an organization moves from one stage of conflict to another. Before perceiving conflict or developing hostile feelings, the conflict situation must first be made known to organizations or channel members (Pondy, 1967). In particular, this procedure offers a method for examining the internal and external circumstances that result in various conflict-handling strategies and their effects (Thomas, 1992b). In this regard, Thomas specifies a "frustration-conceptualization-behavior outcome" sequence in which frustration occurs when one perceives that one's goals, beliefs, and/or attitudes are incongruent with those of another individual or group. After cognitive appraisal (conceptualization) of what one perceives causes the level of frustration, the behavior is selected for handling the conflict. The last stage of the process model is conflict outcomes, which can lead to a satisfactory resolution or continued emotional distress.

Considering the conceptualization and categorization of the stage of conflicts, Raven and Kruglanski (1970) address "manifest" and "underlying" conflict. Herein, "overt behaviors" allude to manifest conflict, whereas attraction, interest, and desire in interpersonal relationships point to the underlying conflict. According to the other subjectivists in the field, conflict only occurs at the manifest level. Based on the view of objectivists, previously defined indicators (latent level) can be used to identify potential incompatibility concerns, and the impression of incompatibility must be tested through the actors' statements and actions in order to resolve conflict (manifest

level) (Fossati, 1998). The most well-known model proposed by Pondy (1967) describes the five-stage process of conflict (Figure 1):

(1) *latent conflict*: In this stage, discordance has not been recognized entirely or it is lightly perceived. Three basic categories of latent conflict described by Pondy (1967) are competition for limited resources, autonomy-driven motivations, and divergent objectives. According to Coughlan et al. (2006), as each channel participant is a unique company with a unique business philosophy, latent conflict is frequently present in marketing channels, and enterprises may be unaware of its presence.

(2) *perceived conflict*: This is the phase in which all parties are explicitly aware of its presence. Typical responses of the parties to the conflict at this stage include an "ostrich" approach, such as ignoring the conflict, hoping it will disappear, or proactively addressing and resolving the cause of the conflict. Frazier and Rody (1991) mention that perceived conflict is more likely to develop in a relationship when parties feel there is some form of incompatibility, such as conflicting opinions, perceptions, corporate policies, interests, or intentions.

(3) *felt conflict*: The presence of strong personal feelings (fear, anger, tension, anxiety, etc.) are the main elements that distinguish this stage from the perceived conflict. In this stage, negative effects of dysfunctional conflict begin to be encountered and rivals attribute human traits and private motivations to channel groups. When anger and feelings of injustice reach a point, management refuses to make economically wise decisions and hurts their own firm in an effort to penalize their channel competitors (Vaaland and Hakansson, 2003).

(4) *manifest conflict*: This stage is often demonstrated through openly aggressive behavior by the parties like refusing to cooperate with the other group, verbal confrontations, sabotage, and physical attacks. At this stage, one channel participant would consciously obstruct another participant's achievement of their goal or remove their support (Coughlan et al., 2006). Herein, it can be useful to engage in a "calm down" period or provide a third-party intervention for groups to re-engage with each other.

(5) *conflict aftermath*: It is a precursor that acknowledges how the conflict is resolved as indicative of future agreements. For example, if the conflict is resolved satisfactorily on both sides, the basis for more cooperative relations in the future is established and the likelihood of future conflict is reduced. Otherwise, future relationships between the parties may blur or will be adversely affected. Winsor et al. (2012) state that these conflicts also contain traces of the previous evident conflict episode, which persist as lingering impressions of conflict, and in their study, they attempted to understand how conflict's manifestation and aftermath affect franchisee satisfaction and compliance.

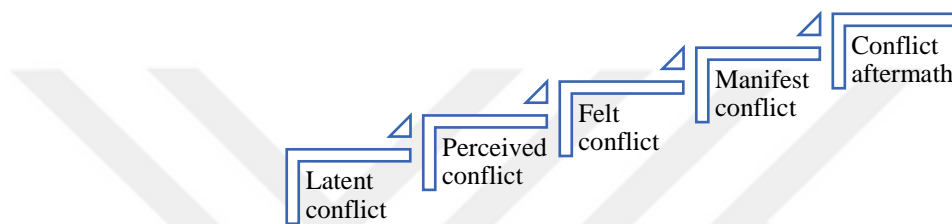


Figure 1. The Process of Conflict Events (Pondy, 1967)

2.4. Conflict Resolution Approaches

2.4.1. Conflict Resolution Approaches in Social Sciences

Conflict resolution is defined as “strategies oriented toward the intensification, reduction, and resolution of the tension” (De Dreu, Harinck and Van Vianen, 1999, p. 371) and it is described as a two-way interaction process where people act and respond to one another, changing their behavior to suit the circumstances and produce the greatest results (Munduate et al., 1999; Coleman and Kugler, 2014). In conjunction with this, Blake, Shepherd and Mouton (1964) proposed five behavioral modes including avoidance, smoothing, compromise, forcing, and problem-solving or confrontation to deal with supply chain conflict. Within this framework, while *avoidance* occurs in the form of avoiding or withdrawing from an argument, *smoothing (accommodation/obliging)* appears in a way that emphasizes common interests and ignores differences. Topics that may cause division or hurt feelings are not discussed in this behavioral mode. In *compromising*, an intermediate way is sought, and bargaining is made. In this context, nobody loses, and nobody wins. On the other hand, in *forcing (dominating)* mode there is a win-lose situation and

opponents take a fixed position and become polarized creating a winner and a loser at the end. Lastly, *problem-solving, integration, or collaboration (coordination)* is reported as the most frequently used conflict management method in successful organizations for effective outcomes and constructive conflict management. In this regard, differences are worked out to reach the optimal situation for each party involved in the conflict. The goal is to find a way in which both parties can win.

In resolving conflicts, parties also develop some institutional mechanisms (Chang, 2009; Ahlqvist, Norrman and Jahre, 2020), arrange third-party interventions (Eckerd and Sweeney, 2018; Wu, Xu and Ke, 2019), build relational and governance mechanisms (Eckerd and Sweeney, 2018; Shahzad et al., 2020; Ahlqvist, Norrman and Jahre, 2020), and align incentives and compensations (Wen et al., 2009; Palmatier et al., 2019) (Figure 2). Apart from that, researchers in the academic field also introduced game theoretical and multi-objective optimization models to resolve conflicts as operation management tools (Lee, 2012; Tang and Liao, 2021). Although parties do not apply these methods in real-world business life, theoretically, these approaches might be used as guiding approaches.

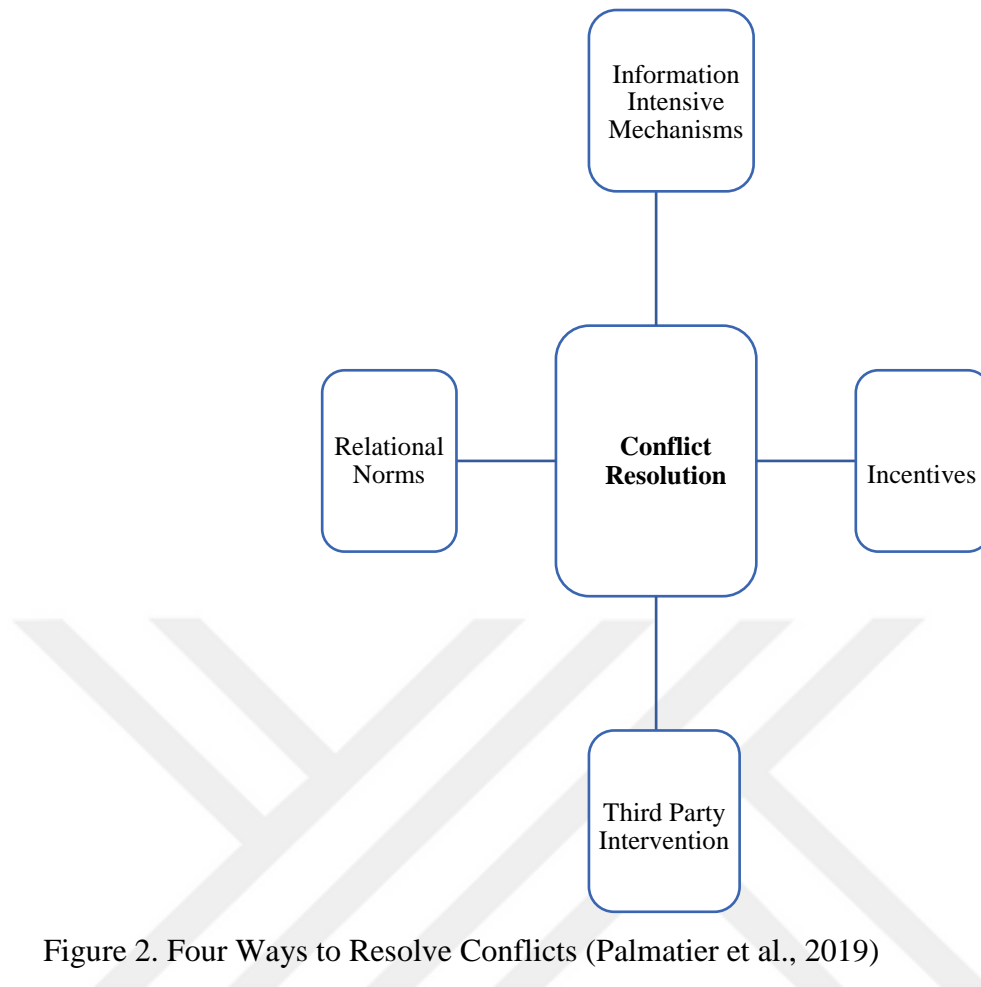


Figure 2. Four Ways to Resolve Conflicts (Palmatier et al., 2019)

Institutional mechanisms can take the form of joint memberships in trade associations, distributor councils, and staff exchange programs. Participants construct information-intensive systems in this setting by exchanging information and allocating resources to communication in order to resolve channel conflicts. Regarding information sharing, Li, Liu and Liu (2011) addressed open dialogue and cooperative social interaction processes which clarify any ambiguity that may arise during the constructive conflict process. Similarly, Loosemore and Lim (2015) stated that communication technologies aid in the facilitation of unfair inter-organizational business practices through improved communication and enabling organizations to operate together more seamlessly. Besides, Low (2018) pointed out two-step influence tactics: information-intensive and information-protective strategies offer channel managers potential solutions for resolving and preventing direct conflicts and retaliation among channel participants. Lastly, Tolmay (2019) addressed a trust-centric approach where both parties collaborate through the sharing of information, and expertise and invest in the relationship and problem-solving.

Similarly, channel members rely on *third parties*, such as referrals to boards of arbitration or mediation who are external parties and not participating in the channel, to try to resolve conflicts by encouraging other parties to continue their conversations or take the procedural or substantive recommendations into consideration. Herein, they offer a kind of safety net for handling conflict when it intensifies to an unacceptable level (Palmatier et al., 2019). Yu et al. (2017) stated that third parties in the supply chain use persuasion as a verbal explanation as a substantive action within the context of policy capturing in evaluative judgments (Karren and Barringer, 2002). Within the context of verbal persuasion, third parties put regulations, contracts, and processes in place to stop a party from acting dishonestly. Additionally, Rebehy et al. (2019) proposed that negotiation rounds and mediation of conflicts can help supply chain parties. To achieve a balance between economic, social, and environmental interests and obligations.

Apart from that, as *economic incentives* function well almost universally, irrespective of the personalities, participants, or relationship history, parties also build persuasive economic arguments to create positive financial returns for channel partners and promote harmonious relations during the resolution process (Palmatier et al., 2019). In this regard, Kong et al. (2017) addressed designing proper incentives to boost revenues for all supply chain participants while enhancing the quality of service as a resolution. Besides, Yang et al. (2019) addressed compensation mechanisms to solve the channel conflict which results from the manufacturer's tendency to prefer direct selling over retail selling due to uncertainties surrounding production capacity. Lastly, incentives were coordinated to successfully resolve supply chain channel conflicts and offered manufacturers techniques and ideas for developing the supply chain management of online direct sales channels in the study of Liu, Liu and Li (2020).

Relational norms determine how channel members manage their relationship over time based on how well it is working. The alignment and pursuit of a common objective, which characterizes these norms, results in a favorable performance level (Möhring and Finch, 2015) and it includes aligned objectives, partnership and trust, integration, and cooperation (e.g. Frow, Marginson and Ogden, 2010; Inghelbrecht,

Dessein, and Van Huylenbroeck, 2014; Tse, Zhang and Jia, 2018; Butt, 2019). Regarding aligned objectives, Inghelbrecht, Dessein, and Van Huylenbroeck (2014) addressed multi-stakeholder engagement to reach a shared understanding of the conflict. Yoo and Kim (2016) extended the literature of the former streams by proposing a co-creative comprehensive model that solves the conflict between the first and second markets.

Concerning strategic partnership and trust within the supply chain, Loosemore and Lim (2015) stated that adopting a deeply integrated supply chain approach is an important resolution mechanism that contributes to improving levels of fairness and trust and reducing levels of conflict. In a similar vein, Butt (2019) stated that building a personal network providing roots for the strong trust can resolve any conflicts with the counterparts. In the study of Liu et al. (2018a), the integration of distributed resources in the dual channel reduces the distribution service differences between the channels and eases the dual channel conflict through the achievement of a win-win situation. Similarly, Tse, Zhang and Jia (2018) argued that the risk and reward-sharing mechanisms assist in minimizing the negative effects of the agency conflict by aligning and defining the roles and incentives. Apart from these, adopting a mutually beneficial cooperative model which benefits both distributors and the channel retailers by enabling them to reap greater benefits (Chen et al., 2010); developing more coordinated and better-performing value chains (Frow, Marginson and Ogden, 2010); implementing collaborative production (Han and Chuang, 2015) and embracing triple cooperative strategy in the dual-channel competition involving a manufacturer and two competitive retailers (Yan, Pei and Myers, 2016) are some examples of relational norms as resolution strategies. Similarly, offering strategic use of the direct online channel (Li et al., 2017); collaboration on stock-keeping units (SKU) rationalization (Enz, Schwieterman and Lambert, 2019); coordinating and combining different management controls and coordinating the outsourced supply chain (Chen, Liang and Yao, 2019) are acknowledged as another resolution approaches which target the operational performance of the supply chain parties.

2.4.2. Conflict Resolution Approaches in Interdisciplinary Management

Apart from the four resolution mechanisms above (third-party, incentives, relational and information-intensive mechanisms) *game theoretical models and multi-objective*

optimization methods are also widely employed in resolving conflicts within the context of interdisciplinary management.

With *game theoretical models*, conflict resolution models are created based on game-theoretic rough sets by creating a game involving all parties involved while simultaneously taking into account each party's actions (players), calculating the payoff of various tactics, and classifying them according to equilibrium principles (Bashir, Mahnaz and Abbas Malik, 2020). By its very nature, game theory offers the right instruments for the investigation and ultimate resolution of any sort of conflict. Backward induction, equilibrium techniques, price-theoretic models, bargaining games, and contracts are listed as these instruments by Gibbons (1997).

With the use of a backward induction technique, the conflict between manufacturers and retailers over whether to adopt a full-return policy or a no-return policy is resolved. This game's equilibrium was defined in Ohmura and Matsuo's research (2016). Similarly, in the study of Yan and Gao (2017), the problem of receiving quality certification as a conflict between remanufacturers and brand owners is solved by deriving the players' profit functions and using backward induction. Additionally, the conflict between original equipment manufacturers (OEMs) and some competitive contract manufacturers (CCMs) regarding the development of improved production capabilities and the introduction of their own products is settled by simultaneously optimizing the profits of the two parties and resolving the CCM-as-leader game by backward induction (Yan et al., 2019).

In relation to equilibriums, subgame perfect equilibrium along with alternating offer strategic bargaining (Modak et al., 2018), equilibrium solutions under the sequential and simultaneous models (Heese, 2012), Bayesian equilibrium (Guan and Chen, 2015), s-equilibrium solutions (Xu, Meng and Shen, 2015), perfect equilibriums (Yang and Gao, 2017) and method of super conflict equilibrium (Liu et al., 2018a) appeared as other solution concepts for the conflicts among different supply chain members.

With regard to price-theoretic models, the dynamic pricing mechanism efficiently reduces channel conflict (Zhang and Wang, 2017). Sales revenue will fall in this case

if the retailer uses static pricing for the traditional channel for two periods. Consequently, deciding on the right moment to launch the online channel could boost sales for the retailer and reduce channel conflict.

Nash bargaining games are also widely used in the resolution of conflicts. In this regard, strategic and contact bargaining strategies are mostly used in settling the channel conflict by sharing surplus profit and providing a win-win outcome between the channel members (Büyüktaktakin et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2013; Modak, Panda and Sana, 2016; Modak et al., 2018).

Coordinating contracts are also applied for achieving the task of resolution among SC members. These include contracts for revenue-sharing, buybacks, discounts on prices, quantity, flexibility, sales rebates, two-part tariffs, and quantity discounts (Bashinskaya et al., 2016). Revenue-sharing contract resolves channel conflict, depicts win-win profits, and effectively improves the supply chain performance for the channel members (Cai, 2010; Cai and Chen, 2011; Panda, 2014; Modak et al., 2018; Chen and Su, 2019). Price and quantity discounts can be used to eliminate channel conflicts in the non-cooperative supply chain by coordinating channels (Panda, Modak and Pradhan, 2016; Saha, Sarmah and Modak, 2018). In addition to these, while sales rebates are used to solve the incentive conflict in deciding the optimal inventory levels between the retailers (Huang et al., 2014), two-part tariff strategies are applied with the aim of a particular profit split between SC members (Modak, Panda and Sana, 2016; Huang and Zhang, 2020).

On the other hand, for the purpose of resolving conflicts, *multi-objective optimization techniques* are used to discover the best option while taking the degree of conflict and the impact of conflict resolution options into account (Lee et al., 2017). Recently, heuristic, metaheuristic and combinations of different heuristics approaches with or without traditional search and optimization techniques are proposed to solve conflicts stemming from multi-objective problems (Gavrilas, 2010). Associated with finding a trade-off relation between multi-objectives, both heuristic approaches (Yildiz et al., 2016; Vairaktarakis and Aydinliyim, 2017; Liu et al., 2018b; Elkhechafi et al., 2018) and metaheuristics including genetic, evolutionary and simulated annealing algorithms are used in conflict resolution

literature (Huang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018b; Vishnu et al., 2020).

Fuzzy algorithms are also applied in multi-objective optimization problems aiming at conflict resolution. In this regard, fuzzy multi-objective linear programming (Seif, Yu and Rahmannyay, 2018), Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solutions (TOPSIS) for linking strategic objectives to operations (Aliakbari Nouri, Khalili Esbouei and Antucheviciene, 2015), adaptive Neuro-Fuzzy Inference System (ANFIS) (Güneri, Ertay and Yücel, 2011) and TODIM (Portuguese acronym for Interactive Multi-Criteria Decision Making) (Qin, Liu and Pedrycz, 2017) for supplier selection are evaluated as some of the fuzzy techniques for conflict resolution.

A group of network layers and their interactions constitute the foundation of network models. They are among the most recent developments in complex systems science and are also employed in the settlement of disputes. In this area, Liu et al. (2012) constructed a Petri net model, which solves the quality negotiation by describing the conflict processes and decision maker's preferences, for conflict resolution of a complex product. Lastly, constraint optimization including the ϵ -constraint method (Ramezani, Bashiri and Tavakkoli-Moghaddam, 2013) and chance constraint optimization (Liu et al., 2018b) emerge as other approaches for solving optimization problems under various uncertainties and conflicts.

2.5. Conflict Prevention

Conflict prevention has two main temporal orientations: "reactive curative," where the focus is on the present and on resolving the immediate issue; and "proactive preventive," where the emphasis is on the future and on preventing conflict from recurring (Bouazzaoui, 2019). These reactive and proactive actions are also examined under the supply chain risk mitigation and resilience strategies (Kırılmaz and Erol, 2017; Ali, Mahfouz and Arisha, 2017).

The conflict literature has mostly focused on reactive actions of conflicts, covering the issues concerning which conflict resolution techniques are available, how to

resolve/reduce conflict, and which strategies should be followed for conflict resolution in the supply chain relationship. In this regard, following certain steps (assessment, acknowledgment, attitude, action, and analysis) and strategies (confronting, ignoring, avoiding, compromising, accommodating, and problem-solving or going through a mediator) (Le Nguyen, 2011); offering an apology, explanation, compensation, partial product replacement (Bouazzaoui, 2019); building social capital (e.g. trust, inter-organizational relationships, relational competence) (Seville, Opstal and Vargo, 2015), excess inventory and spare capacity (Tukamuhabwa et al., 2015), building contingency planning and procedures, and knowledge management (e.g. education and training, post-disruption feedback) (Rice and Caniato, 2003) and market position (e.g. financial strength, market share) (Sheffi and Rice, 2005) stand as some examples of reactive acts for conflict prevention.

Apart from reactive tools, there are also proactive acts that can be used to actively counter the conflict before and during its emergence. In particular, when there is a high level of conflict intensity, these acts are crucial in fulfilling the expectations of the buyer regarding what the supplier would do to prevent future problems. Within this framework, some proactive actions are related to the relational actions and strategies along the supply chain like partner selection, partnership negotiation, relationship quality development (Le Nguyen, 2011), and supplier development (Ghadge et al., 2012). Besides, some of these actions are associated with the structure of the supply chain such as segmentation of the supply chain, configuration of the supply chain network density and complexity, and postponement (Elzarka, 2013; Chopra and Sodhi, 2014). In terms of performance management, personalization, customization, and collaboration processes as well as easy-to-use web-based interfaces appeared as other proactive evaluation and improvement actions for preventing conflicts (Stefanovic, 2014; Wallenburg and Schäffler, 2016; Ali, Mahfouz and Arisha, 2017). In this context, Stefanovic (2014) also addressed the importance of building predictive analysis and providing high data quality, on-demand information, and services. Lastly, as stated by Bouazzaoui (2019), specific investments (e.g. investment in new production sites proactively) offer the potential for future benefit and prompt the dispute to be re-evaluated. In a similar way, it is also stated by the author that prospective explanations (e.g. why the issue happened, and how the problem will be fixed in the future) as well as contract amendments (e.g.

revision of specifications) are other examples of proactive acts for preventing conflicts. In some circumstances, some of these actions (e.g. cooperation, redundancy such as increasing safety stock, increased capacity, and multiple sourcing) fit into both proactive and reactive strategies (Nakano and Lau, 2020).

2.6. Conflict Outcomes

Conflict episodes sometimes end up with the suppression of positive outcomes or the realization of negative outcomes. In the literature, these outcomes are known as constructive vs. destructive conflicts (Yang et al., 2017; Rawwas, Vitell and Barnes, 1997) which refers to conflict outcomes by examining the impact of conflict on relationship performance after the conflict is resolved. As a result, determining whether a dispute is functional or dysfunctional is based on its results (Balabanis, 1998).

Typically, destructive conflict is thought to involve dominance and control, or a lose-lose strategy, which can have negative effects like fighting or the deterioration of relationships (Yang et al., 2017). It generally forces parties toward increasingly hostile behavior and makes parties feel dislike and suspicion about each other as the consequence of unhealthy behavior (Li, Liu and Liu, 2011). It usually results in anger, frustration, decreased satisfaction, and behavioral dysfunction (Gaski, 1984; Frazier, Gill and Kale, 1989; Hibbard, Kumar and Stern, 2001). Herein, parties may choose to avoid one another in this situation, refuse to share information and resources, and obstruct contact, all of which could even result in sabotage (Wall and Callister, 1995; Massey and Daves, 2007). Similarly, it causes decreasing flexibility (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993; Koza and Dant, 2007), decreased cooperation (Skinner, Gassenheimer and Kelley, 1992), degraded system performance (Blackhurst, Wu and Craighead, 2008), discontent, and distrust, damage to engagement and relationship (Rahim, 2001).

In other respects, a disagreement is considered "constructive" if it draws individuals together, strengthens their bond (by redefining it in a more helpful or acceptable way), and brings about beneficial development for all of the firms involved (Li, Liu and Liu, 2011). It is also acknowledged as a debate, negotiation, or a win-win strategy in which the parties reach an understanding of how to carry out the current

work best through discussion (Yang et al., 2017). It defines the true essence of the relationship (Bradford, Stringfellow and Weitz, 2003; Hagel and Brown, 2005), stimulates innovation and creativity by introducing different perspectives, and provides better decision-making (Tjosvold, 1997; Rahim, 2001). Besides, it generates opportunities to express dissatisfaction, and critically review previous activities, (Pondy, 1967; Coughlan et al., 2001). It also increases relationship effectiveness and enables exchange partners to feel more satisfied and capable of achieving their goals, as well as to find more solutions that benefit both parties (Pruitt, 1998).



CHAPTER 3: SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW OF CONFLICTS IN SUPPLY CHAIN AND LOGISTICS SERVICE NETWORK

3.1. Systematic Literature Review of Supply Chain Conflicts

In this chapter, we investigate conflicts in supply chains using a systematic literature review by addressing sectors (e.g. manufacturing, logistics), relationship levels (e.g. single, dyadic, triadic, and myriad), and areas or domains (such as SC relationship, quality) as a part of descriptive analysis. Then, thematic analyses were performed to ascertain the literature gaps in supply chain conflicts.

3.1.1. First Phase of the Review

The research was conducted using the “Web of Science” Clarivate Analytics Core Collection (formerly Thomson Reuters) database, which offers the most valuable and high-impact collection of data and is recognized as the most reliable database for bibliometric studies (Caputo et al., 2019). We covered the period from 2010 to 2022. Instead of being limited to subject areas such as Environmental Science, Social Sciences, Business, Management, and Accounting, we included all categories for rendering an interdisciplinary framework. At the stage of determining keywords, we detected that as scholars in different disciplines study conflict from their own perspectives, they use some concepts along with conflicts such as competition, tension, opposition, disagreements, dispute, and antagonism (John and Prasad, 2012) which create a multitude of interfering definitions of conflict. However, as we investigate the behaviors or feelings of interdependent parties in response to potential or actual obstructions that impede one or more of the parties from achieving their goals (Coughlan et al., 2001), and due to the fact that the “conflict” expression is mostly used in studies within the supply chain, our initial search string included the following keywords: “conflict” which describes the situation above best and “supply chain” (first refinement). In the wake of quick scanning of the article titles, we finalized our strings by excluding some topics in the initial list since these were out of our scope of research. Therefore, the search string was refined as “conflict” AND “supply chain” AND NOT “conflict minerals” (second refinement). These refinements allowed us to identify 352 articles.

To select the articles regarding the specific aim of the paper, the inclusion and exclusion criteria were defined. Regarding the subject of the “conflict”, the first inclusion criteria grounded on the widely accepted definition of the conflict which is “a situation in which one channel member perceives another channel member to be engaged in behavior that is preventing or impeding him from achieving his goals” (Stern et al., 1996). In accordance with Pittaway et al. (2004), this criterion made it possible to identify papers with abstracts that focus on the conflict between supply chain members. To this end, two researchers read the abstracts of the 352 papers by means of Rayyan, which is a systematic review web app for exploring and filtering searches.

309 papers whose abstracts stress conflicts striving for their own preferred outcome through the supply chain and give certain reference to the parties involved were fully considered and subjected to the second exclusion criterion. Herein, after conducting a detailed analysis of each abstract, papers whose abstracts mention conflicts that were out of scope and give scarce or fuzzy reference to the parties involved were excluded. This phase allowed us to exclude 81 papers. In this manual refinement process of the dataset, we eliminated interpersonal conflict, family conflict, cultural conflict, workplace conflict, armed conflict, military conflict, domestic conflict, societal conflict, civil conflict, conflict security policies, conflict-affected countries, and conflict-related raw materials, conflicting commodities, and conflicting regions. The final database resulted in 271 relevant documents suitable for the purpose of analysis (Figure 3).

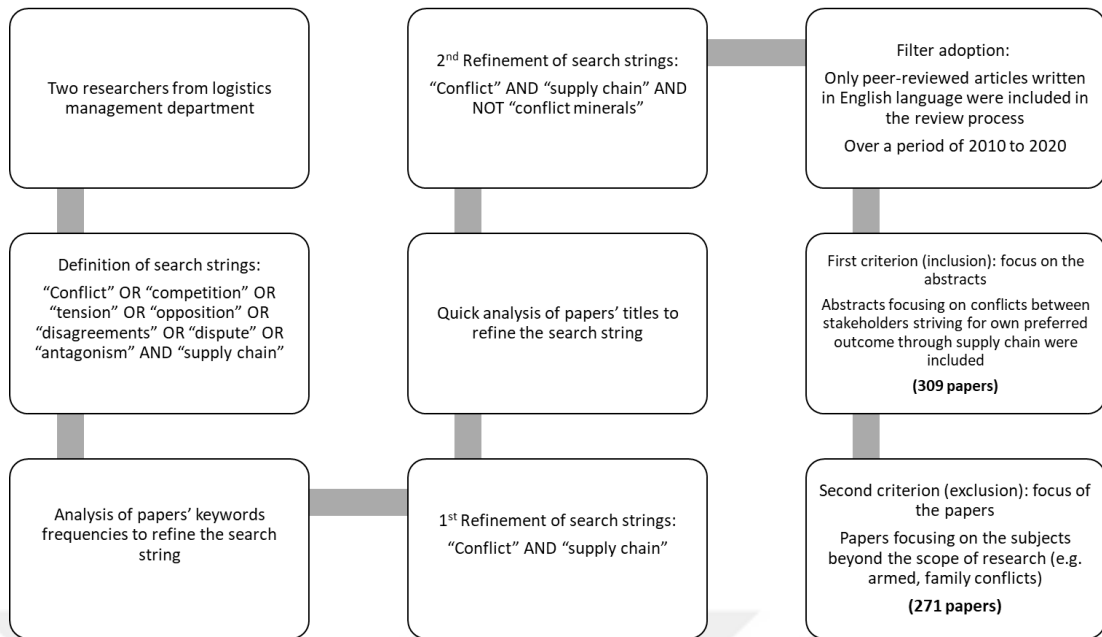


Figure 3. Systematic Literature Review Process of Supply Chain Conflicts

3.1.2. Second Phase of the Review

3.1.2.1. Sector-based Supply Chain Conflicts

Concerning the industries, the vast majority of papers specifically addressed retail, manufacturing, and electronic industries (Figure 4). The manufacturing industry here includes many different sectors at the same time and in some research it is mentioned superficially without giving any sector information. Services (e.g. consulting, education, tourism), logistics and transportation, agriculture (e.g. food, agri-food), construction, household appliances, information technologies/systems and humanitarian were detected as the areas where less research was conducted compared to the others.

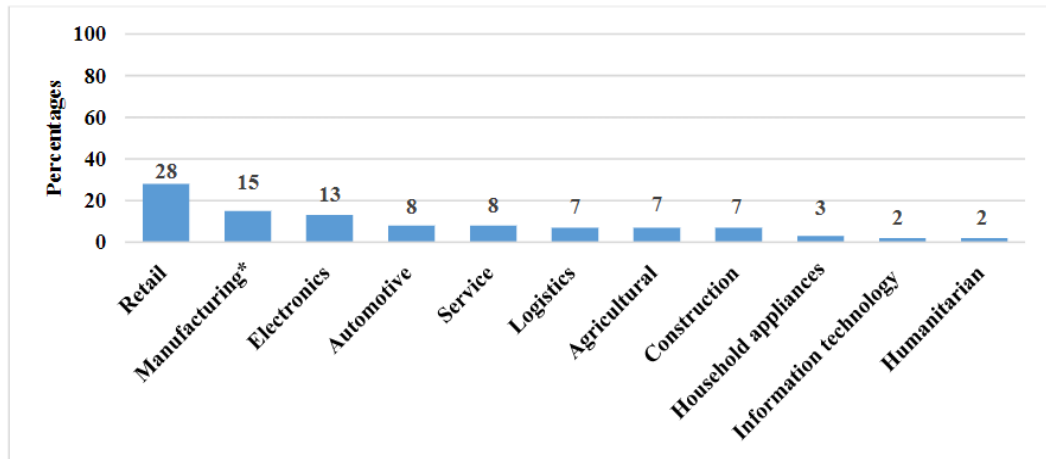


Figure 4. Distribution of Articles by Industry

3.1.2.2. *Perspective-based Supply Chain Conflicts*

Operational and behavioral perspectives in the literature serve as the cornerstone of a conceptual framework for supply chains (Hafeez et al., 2010; Martins et al., 2022). In this regard, while operational perspective implies the effective running of the supply chains (Gattorna et al., 1996); behavioral perspectives explain the dynamic link between various external and internal actors and organizational environment aspects (Islam and Mohd-Nor, 2017). Herein, while SC strategies are acknowledged as a part of operational perspectives, SC relationships are seen as a part of behavioral perspectives (Hafeez et al., 2010). Apart from operational and behavior, there are also other perspectives like risk management and institutional (Islam and Mohd-Nor, 2017).

Considering the systematic literature, it is seen that most of the research on the conflict addressed supply chain strategies (41%) (including responsive and efficient supply chains (18%), transparent (7%), sustainable, lean, innovative, and mass customized supply chains with a (4%) share each and it flowed with supply chain relationships (30%). The other main topics discussed are respectively supply chain planning & scheduling (11%), reverse supply chains (11%), and supply chain quality (7%) (Figure 5).

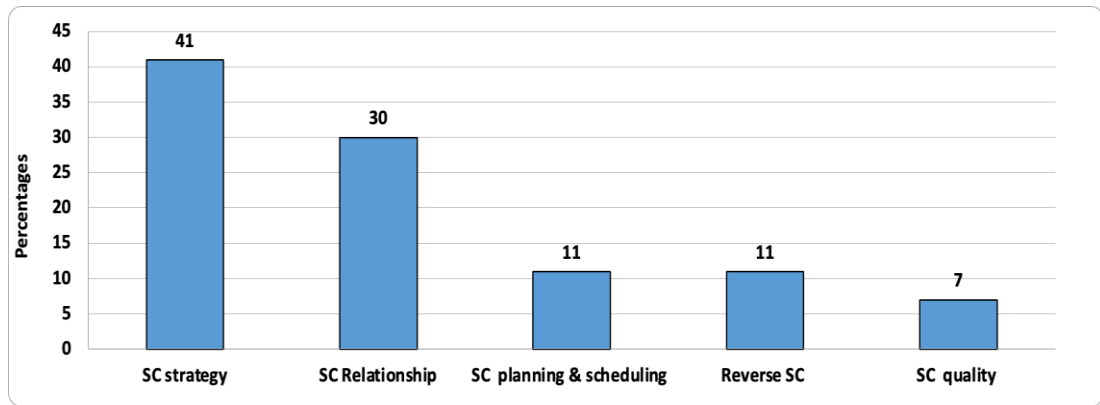


Figure 5. Supply Chain Conflict by Areas

3.1.2.3. Relational Level-based Supply Chain Conflicts

The relationship level is useful for comprehending dyadic, triadic, and quadratic relationship arrangements in supply chain networks and it refers to the involvement patterns of the parties (Meqdadi, Johnsen and Pagell, 2020). Dyadic relationship is the most common pattern of involvement and arises between two parties; triadic relationship refers to three-party involvement and quadratic relationship involves a fourth party additionally (Moon, Wei and Miao, 2019).

Systematic literature review indicates that most of the supply chain conflicts revolve around dyadic relationships (49.1 % percentage of papers reviewed) between manufacturers (or suppliers) and retailers (or resellers). Following this, single perspectives (21.4 %) are evaluated mostly by the views of manufacturers and decision-makers. In the analysis, it is seen that myriad and triadic relations between public and private sectors, different stakeholders, different managers, and different channel structures have the least percentage (respectively 19.9% and 9.6%) (Figure 6).

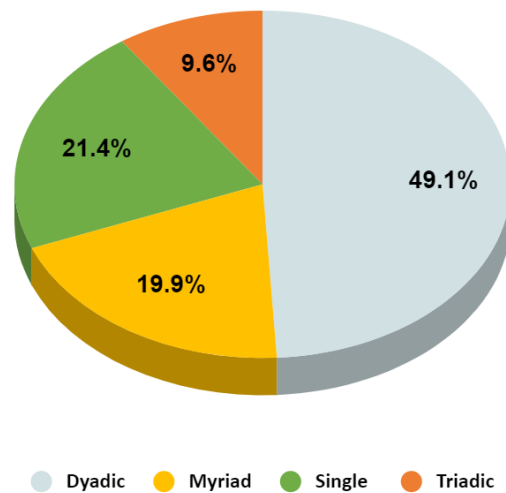


Figure 6. Relational Perspectives of Supply Chain Conflicts

The literature spanning the years 2010 to 2022 shows that conflict studies mainly focus on manufacturing and retailing industries which hold the potential for future studies in the logistics industry context. In a similar line, it is also seen that SC relationship is the main domain studied by the authors, and looking into detail, relational perspectives are dyadic or single in these studies.

Logistics is a subset of and takes place within the larger framework of a supply chain (Bowersox, Closs and Cooper, 2007). It is a network of processes where logistics participants depend on each other for the success of logistics services (Svensson, 2002). For example, some manufacturing companies rely on a specialized logistics service provider for their global delivery needs. These providers require specialized services from other companies, such as information systems or other technical services to provide shipment tracking services. In this context, to achieve better logistics services and effective supply chain connectivity, multiple players with a complex network of dependencies deal with multiple complexities to perform a logistics task.

The complexity of the problems in logistics networks has increased more due to the emergence of globalization, privatization, and technology usage along with the decreased tolerance of failures and increased service levels expected (Wijesooriya and Xu, 2008). In these circumstances, outsourcing has gained momentum and it has become difficult to have a proper network configuration between logistics partners.

Herein, as decision makers in logistics service industries may look at the same situation from different perspectives, there may be competing interpretations of the subjects based on individual preferences (Kurtz and Snowden, 2003), which makes this industry prone to many problems and conflicts.

In this regard, understanding the actors, flows, and complexities and doing detailed research related to the dynamics of conflict in the logistics service network through the inclusion of many actors, hold premises for research that will yield a great deal of contribution to the academic and practical fields.

3.2. The Structure of the Logistics Industry and Systematic Literature Review for Channel Conflicts

3.2.1. Multi-Party Complexities and Coordination in Logistics Networks

The complex multi-party supply network is an important feature of global trade as they involve multiple business flows and multiple organizations at the same time. The organization, its customers, suppliers, and logistics providers are all connected to a multi-stakeholder network that allows real-time visibility. In this context, effective management of these networks by considering external parties/partners and the cooperation is important for companies trying to increase the competitiveness of their products and services around the world (Luiz Corrêa and Gisela Martes de Miranda, 1998).

Considering the logistics industry itself, logistics services are highly variable over time and have broad potential impacts for upgrading the dynamics of the diverse industries served by a range of interconnected business players (Coe, 2014). The actors in this industry are not simply providers of an important production function, but a complex of profit-focused strategic actors. Some of these are trying to upgrade their strategy to become comprehensive logistics providers, while others focus on a narrower range of functions. In this multi-party business network, each party performs some internal operations and communicates with the other when certain information is needed to perform these operations, or when there is a need to report certain results so that the other party can perform an operation. While this communication is a tremendous opportunity for organizations, it is often difficult to

manage these interdependencies that arise, especially in the event of any disruption (Bondeli and Havendid, 2022). In some cases, one party may stop working for internal reasons, and all parties that depend on information for which the failed party is responsible may also fail, resulting in a domino effect (Marrella et al., 2019). Although advanced new information technologies are being designed and implemented in large and complex enterprises, the technologies that serve to solve such multilateral supply complexities are still in their infancy (Jæger and Hjelle, 2015).

In this turbulent environment, business players face emerging risks, complex tasks, and constantly increasing pressure so it has become difficult to strike a balance between the differing interests of the parties in the different balances of power (Sridharan and Simatupang, 2013). This situation makes the conflict a common event, especially for interactions among people, companies, and supply chains.

3.2.2. Systematic Literature Review for Channel Conflicts in the ‘Logistics Service Network’

Systematic literature for supply chain conflicts identified a new need for another systematic literature for the logistics service network. Therefore, this part of the chapter will systematically look at the logistics service network literature much more closely and enter into in-depth descriptive and content analysis to find research gaps. In this process, potential members in the logistics service network will be searched as “key words” while systematically scanning.

In this literature, spanning the years 2010 to 2022, our search string included the following keywords in the Web of Science database: “conflict” which describes the situation best and AND ‘logistics’ AND ‘provider’ OR ‘port’ OR ‘3PL’ OR ‘4PL’ OR ‘shipper’ OR ‘carrier’ OR ‘forwarder’ OR ‘terminal’ OR ‘operator’ OR ‘agent’ OR ‘customs’ to include all the logistics service actors. Moreover, although the database offers all papers, books, and other materials which are manually scanned and selected to guarantee the inclusion only of the most high-end and high-impact research, we only chose “articles” as the document type that had undergone a double-blind peer-review process (Marzi et al., 2018). This allowed us to identify 59 articles. Besides, it was seen that 10 articles were the same as the articles found in the previous literature review (as duplicated) thanks to the Rayyan application. Thus, the total number was determined as 69 articles. In this analysis, while the descriptive part

includes conflict by years, conflict by theories and conflict by journals; the content analysis part covers source, relationship and methodology based analyses (Figure 7).

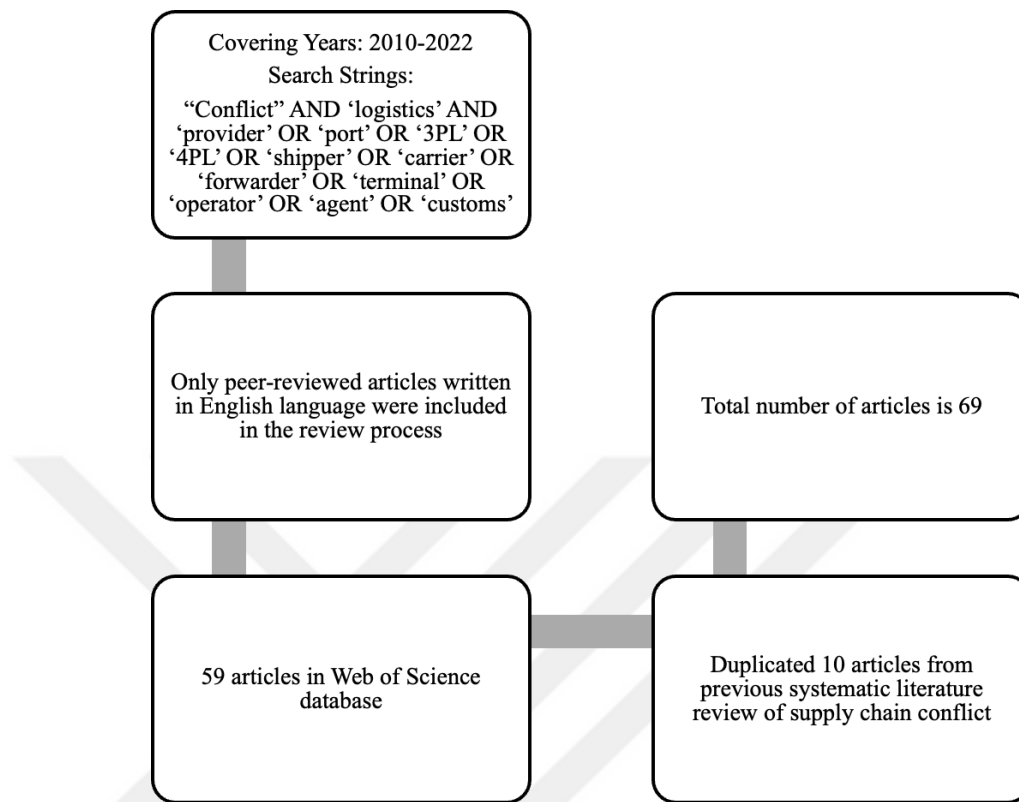


Figure 7. Systematic Literature Review Process of Logistics Service Network Conflicts

3.2.2.1. Descriptive Analysis of Logistics Service Network Conflicts

3.2.2.1.1. Logistics Network Conflict by Years and Journals

Especially in the last five years, the number of studies dealing with conflicts in the logistics industry increased by more than 50 percent compared to previous years (Figure 8). Herein, the most prolific year was determined as 2021 and 2022, and no conflict studies were found in 2015. Increased conflicts between logistics actors in recent years can be attributed to a combination of factors, including supply chain disruptions, capacity constraints, rising costs, geopolitical tensions, sustainability concerns, and technological changes. Distribution frequency by papers is shown in Table 2. Among the journals with the most studies on conflicts in the logistics industry were found as Sustainability, Research in Transportation Business & Management, Computers & Industrial Engineering, and The International Journal of

Logistics Management.

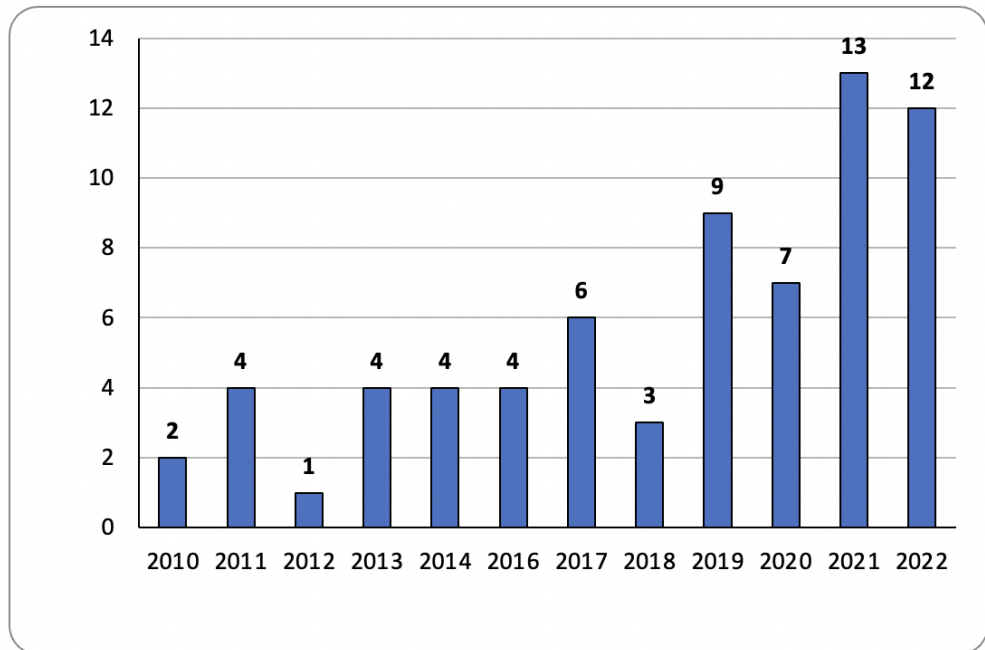


Figure 8. Conflict Research by Years

Table 2. Distribution Frequency by Papers

Journal Name	Frequency (numbers)
Sustainability	3
Research in Transportation Business & Management	3
Computers & Industrial Engineering	3
The International Journal of Logistics Management	3
International Journal of Operations & Production Management	2
International Journal of Production Economics	2
International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management	2
Journal of Transport Geography	2
Supply Chain Forum: An International Journal	2
Transportation Research Procedia	2

European Journal of Operational Research	2
Maritime Policy & Management	2

Table 2 (Continued). Distribution Frequency by Papers

The Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics	2
Socio-Economic Planning Sciences	2
Transportation Research Procedia	2
Decision Sciences	1
Transportation Letters	1
Soft Computing	1
Journal of Ambient Intelligence and Humanized Computing	1
Transportation Journal	1
Industrial Marketing Management	1
Geoforum	1
Journal of Supply Chain Management	1
Measuring Business Excellence	1
Transportation Planning and Technology	1
Journal of Cleaner Production	1
International Journal of Information Systems and Supply Chain Management	1
Maritime Policy & Management	1
International Journal of Logistics Research and Applications	1
Transport Policy	1
Journal of Knowledge Management	1
Maritime Economics & Logistics	1
European Journal of Transport and Infrastructure Research	1
Planning Perspectives	1
Journal of Environmental Management	1

Plos One	1
Progress in Planning	1

Table 2 (Continued). Distribution Frequency by Papers

IFAC-PapersOnLine	1
International Journal of Sustainable Transportation	1
IEEE Access	1
Sustainable Cities and Society	1
Transportation Research Part B: Methodological	1
In Urban Forum	1
Frontiers in Psychology	1
Information Systems Journal	1
Journal of Operations Management	1
Environment, Development and Sustainability	1
Annals of Operations Research	1
International Journal of Computer Science and Network Security	1

3.2.2.1.2. Logistics Network Conflict by Theories

There is scarce theory application in the majority of studies on conflicts in the logistics service network during the past 12 years. Game theory is one of the most popular theories and is shown in Table 3 along with other theories.

Table 3. Conflict by Theories

Mainly Applied Theories	Frequency (numbers)
None	39
Game theory	21
Complexity theory	1
Self-determination theory	1

Paradox theory	1
Business life cycle theory	1

Table 3 (Continued). Conflict by Theories

Social exchange theory	1
Bargaining theory	1
Institutional theory	1
Central place theory	1
Resources dependence theory	1
Stakeholder theory	1
Multilevel governance theory	1
Synergy theory	1
Positivist agency theory	1

3.2.2.2. Content Analysis of Logistics Service Network Conflicts

3.2.2.2.1. Logistics Network Conflict by Relationship

In relational terms, most studies are dyadic (56%) and the number of multi-actor studies (triadic, quadratic and myriad with respective percentages as 15%, 7%, and 15%) is few as it is depicted in Figure 9. Herein, the single represents only the conflicts between the same logistics partners horizontally and has a rate of 7%.

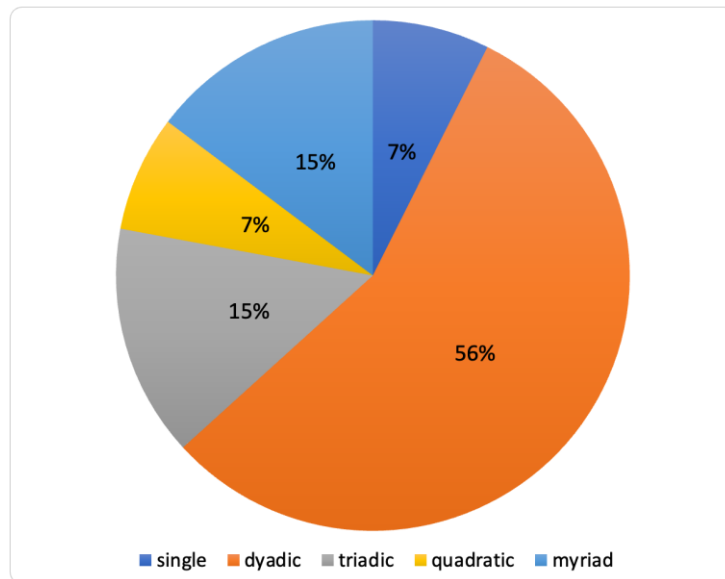


Figure 9. Conflict by Relationship

3.2.2.2.2. Logistics Network Conflict by Methodologies

Regarding the research methodology adopted, the majority of papers employed quantitative methodologies (56 % includes mostly mathematical modeling, survey research, multivariate statistical methods, simulation, case study, and decentralized scenarios), and a further portion adopted qualitative techniques (37% includes mostly literature review, interviews, case study, documentary research, field observations, secondary data, and comparative analysis) and conceptual or mixed approaches constitute 7% of the papers (Figure 10).

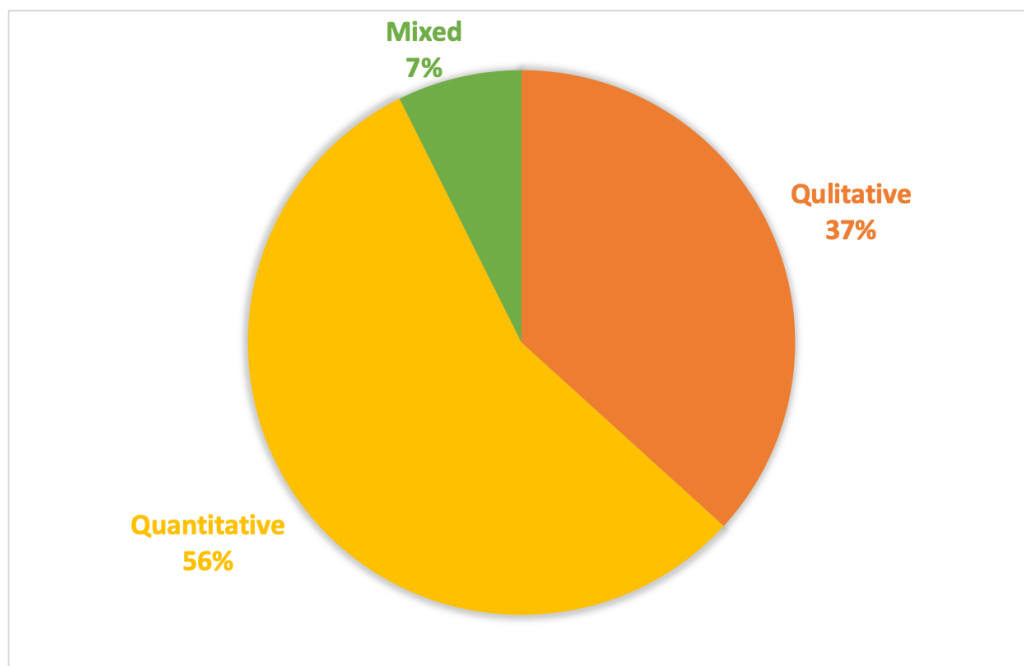


Figure 10. Conflict by Methodologies

3.2.2.2.3. Source of the Conflicts in Logistics Networks

Delving deeper into the literature review, it seems that conflicts in the logistics industry mostly stem from operational level conflicts, relationship conflicts, economic conflicts, and sustainability conflicts as in the systematic literature review of supply chain conflicts. However, regulatory-legislative conflicts are also encountered by the logistics parties. Similarly, the first and second order themes for the abovementioned conflicts in the supply chain were found to be more enriched for the logistics service network in particular. Conflict resolution techniques (if any) used in these studies are also shown Table 4.

3.2.2.2.3.1. Economic Conflicts

Within the context of the logistics service network, economic dimensions of conflicts are mainly motivated by the problems with distorted profit allotment and disunities in multi-channel settings.

Dealing with profit sharing is a complex issue as the supply chains include multiple parties (Ding et al., 2019). In this regard, distorted profit sharing include unequal profit margin and pricing decisions (Ding, Huang and Tang, 2018) as well as non-optimal decisions and solutions (Pilat, 2022).

Within the scope of *distorted profit allotment*, Modak et al. (2018) addressed third party's involvement in used product collection activity which causes profit margin inequality between manufacturers, retailers and third party service providers. Herein, transfer pricing policies, the concepts of subgame perfect equilibrium, and alternative offer bargaining strategy were offered as resolution mechanisms. In a similar line, Lin and Wang (2020) studied distorted profit distribution mechanisms in the supply chain which leads to potential conflicts between container liners and freight forwarders. Herein, the container liners pay special attention to end-to-end service not only to fight for additional profits through extended logistics services but also to compete with freight forwarders for cargo owners' market share. In this research, again, game theoretical models are applied to resolve the conflict between these parties. In parallel with this, Dabaghian et al. (2022) addressed conflicts related to profit sharing as well as suboptimal amounts of wholesale-retail prices between

manufacturers, distributors, and retailers.

Regarding *disunities in multi-channel conflicts*, Wen, Wang and Shi (2020) studied self-logistics-type e-platforms conflict in which some of the logistics service providers acted as intermediaries between buyers and suppliers and some of them sold their services to customers directly with their self-logistics. Herein, a new form of channel conflict emerged between e-platforms and retailers as e-platform is capable of self-logistics and direct consumer sales by using self-logistics while retailers can online sell through an e-platform without using self-logistics but had option to hire an e-platform to handle product delivery. Herein, equilibriums as a part of game theoretical models were employed for resolution. Similarly, Hu et al. (2021) pointed to the double marginalization phenomenon in online channels where different objectives of retailers and express companies created conflicts. Herein, retailers expected a high service level and low price, while the express companies were not willing to improve the service level and try to raise the price. As a solution, a two-stage Stackelberg game was created to optimize its profit where the online channel decides on the service level, product pricing, and service price and the offline retailer chooses the retail price through backward induction. Again Wang et al. (2021) analyzed dual-channel supply chain conflict including a manufacturer with risk preference, a traditional retailer, and an e-commerce platform in which the manufacturer adopted an encroachment strategy, adding a direct channel through the e-commerce platform beside the ex-traditional channel. Also, Zhou et al. (2022) explored conflict caused by a monopolistic and competitive selling mode strategies of e-platform (resellers) and the supplier's in a multi-channel context. In reselling mode strategy, the supplier covers the cost of order fulfillment, while platform covers the cost of order fulfillment in agency selling mode strategy. Herein, a game-theoretical model was used to resolve selling mode selection from the perspectives of each supply chain actor.

Considering the economic dimension of conflicts in the general supply chain and logistics service network context, it is seen that while the conflicts concentrate mostly on profit allotment, allocation of resources, pricing and inventory issues, channel encroachments, ownership decisions, and channel incentives for the partners in the systematic literature of supply chains; distorted profit allotment, and disunities

in multi-channel settings come to the forefront for partners in the systematic literature of logistics service network.

3.2.2.2.3.2. Sustainability Conflicts

This part adheres to the “Triple Bottom Line” perspective which focuses on the three sustainability axes: economic, social, and environmental which have an impact on strategic level consideration of companies in the logistics service network. The findings demonstrate that sustainability conflicts are primarily related to the trade-offs in sustainability-economic gains, conflicting sustainability mindsets, and governance-driven sustainability conflicts including conflicting managerial roles, poor management of green spaces, strategic-level considerations in sustainability (port policies, location of hazardous material), and sustainable oriented service quality issues.

In terms of trade-offs in *sustainability-economic gains*, Maloni, Paul and Gligor (2013) pointed out the conflict between ocean container carriers and shippers. As ocean container carriers prefer slow steaming (reduced ship speeds) practices to increase fuel efficiency and reduce greenhouse gas emissions, but this creates longer transit times for shippers at the same time which creates a conflict-ridden process between carriers and shippers. Besides, Pereseina et al. (2014) pointed out negligence about sustainable supply chain practices from most of the stakeholders. For instance, customers focused on fast and safe deliveries while the tendency for transportation companies was the sustainable transportation which settles for conflicts for these partners. Also, Urbanyi-Popiołek and Klopott (2016) emphasized the conflicts in the social and economic goals related to a clean environment and the life quality of the inhabitants of port cities. While the growth of maritime logistics services has a positive influence on the labor market and transport infrastructure the increase in container cargo volume has a negative impact on urban areas through several negative externalities (congestion, noise, pollutant emissions, etc.). This creates a conflict between inhabitants of port cities and maritime logistics service companies in which the city must bear the external effects of the port operations. Again, within the scope of sustainable urban development, Munuzuri et al. (2017) emphasized the importance of developing an urban freight system that is sustainable and efficient, which is also exceedingly complicated as a result of the vast array of

freight deliveries that coexist in a metropolis for commercial purposes and to the multiple stakeholder groups involved in the problem, which often results in the appearance of conflict areas. In this study, the authors described all that complexity at the urban framework both from the industry and from the local authority, and stated that the regulations imposed to achieve sustainability in urban freight deliveries might not result as expected. Furthermore, Fan, Behdani and Bloemhof-Ruwaard (2020) delved into reefer logistics which is challenging, as it deals with cost and time constraints as well as the product quality of fresh products and sustainability requirements. As the efficient logistics of reefers is as important as the efficient cargo flows, this causes technical complications and conflicts of interest between actors, especially, between cargo owners (or shippers) and the asset owners (or transport/terminal operators). Likewise, Brettmo and Williamsson (2020) touched upon the importance of stakeholders (such as property owners, commercial organizations, and trade associations) in the development of a sustainable urban freight sector. However, as those initiatives may impact the business models of carriers by bringing probable costs, including investments and operational changes, related conflicts emerged among the parties. In a similar line, Sandström and Elander (2021) analyzed the process and outcome of a potential clash between urban biodiversity and road transport interests (for economic growth) as a case of planning in the face of conflict between municipalities, county administrative boards and non-governmental organizations (NGO) and logistics centers. Similarly, Rusanova et al. (2022) stated that each city is gradually developing economically, which has a negative impact on the environment causing conflict between the economic and environmental interests of society, the state and business entities (e.g. ports). Additionally, Lord et al. (2022) assessed online food delivery by emphasizing the use of gig economy couriers as an environmentally sustainable logistics intervention in last-mile logistics. This study mentioned conflicting assessments of different stakeholder perspectives including gig economy couriers, the platforms (e.g. Deliveroo, UberEATS and Just-Eat) and customers of these platforms. Lastly, Fontaine, Minner and Schiffer (2022) mentioned sustainable and profitable city logistics, which often create conflicting goals between municipalities and logistics service providers. Herein, municipalities are interested in establishing a sustainable city logistics system that meets certain emission thresholds and reduces traffic volumes. Accordingly, they focus on objectives that may conflict with the LSPs cost

perspective and try to steer the LSPs toward their goals and provide the necessary infrastructure.

In terms of *governance-driven sustainability conflicts*, Pugliano, Benassai and Benassai (2018) investigated the complex Naples port planning policy, identifying the relevant stakeholders involved and the conflicting interests of the municipality and port operators, highlighting the need for a balance between urban planning concepts and maritime perspectives in the city–port relationship. Irfani, Wibisono and Basri (2019) examined companies with multiple roles, as both a profit generator and public service provider. Herein, the profit-generating role of companies requires to optimize the financial aspects in their logistics systems. On the other hand, their role as a public service provider requires such companies to prioritize social accountability. These conflicting goals impede these companies' performance optimization. Additionally, Tamannaei, Zarei and Rasti-Barzoki (2021) investigated the competition between two freight transportation systems namely road and intermodal road-rail and 3PLs who try to gain maximum profits in the context of government intervention. Herein, governments adopted policies for improving different sustainability dimensions in transportation systems, usually by implementing taxes on these systems which create conflict between governments and 3PLs. In a similar way, Adjei Mensah (2021) pointed to conflicting managerial roles, ownership and poor management of green spaces affecting the sustainability of such spaces between main institutions (commissions, traditional institutions with logistics planning departments, assemblies) which make it difficult for them to work together. Lastly, Yi and Yang (2021) embraced conflicts associated with the location of hazardous materials logistics at home and abroad. Herein, while investment enterprises attach greater importance to the economic benefits of this decision making, and neglect the public participation in the location selection of hazardous materials logistics facilities, local governments are in competition which leads to the deregulation of the location of hazardous materials logistics facilities. This creates conflicts between the government, investment enterprises, and the surrounding public in the process of facility location decision-making.

Main topics in the systematic literature of supply chain conflicts were strongly related with the considerations regarding economic-operational outcomes of

sustainability issues and strategic-level decisions (e.g. supply chain transparency, sourcing, and applied regimes). However, the systematic literature of the conflicts in the logistics service network included additional considerations like governance-driven sustainability conflicts including sustainable oriented service quality issues, conflicting sustainability mindsets, policy-driven conflicts, conflicting managerial roles and poor management in sustainability.

3.2.2.2.3.3. Operational Conflicts

Within the context of the logistics service network, it is seen that operational conflicts occur very frequently and they are strongly related to the processes of performance measurement, scheduling and planning problems in production, distribution, and service stages, inefficient resource utilization, and conflicting strategic parameters in operational decision making.

Associated with the process of assessing *performance measurement*, Lehtinen and Ahola (2010) found a high amount of conflict regarding the central elements or processes which should be targeted by measures within the context of inter-organizational relations and collaboration in the shipbuilding industry. In this regard, performance measurement processes and practices utilized within firms are to a considerable degree incompatible with central characteristics of extended enterprises including shipbuilders, shipyards, and contractors.

On a *planning and scheduling* basis, Agnetis, Aloulou and Fu (2016) considered scheduling problems in a supply chain with two agents, a manufacturer, and a third-party logistics (3PL) provider. In this regard, the manufacturer requires the 3PL provider that each order be delivered within a certain time with high responsiveness of the 3PL provider, which is desirable for the manufacturer to reduce the production make span. However, this may entail higher costs for the 3PL provider. Apart from this, Wang and Vogt (2019) embraced complexity issues in planning a logistics service process characterized by unpredictable service stages and service sequences between different stakeholders including chemical tanker companies, chemical terminals, service providers, operators, and cargo owners. In a similar line, Gusah, Cameron-Rogers and Thompson (2018) explored regional repositioning of empty containers between importers, exporters, inland depots, and

ports that have conflicting interests with a multitude of interacting parts and distributed decision-making.

For *inefficient resource utilization*, Xu, Sun and Wang (2019) analyzed hub and spoke collaborative logistics networks which have recently received considerable attention in terms of resource allocation problems. Herein, for the problem stemming from low-scale merit, inefficient resource utilization, and conflict of interest between the operator and customer in the process of network operation, the authors formulated the scheduling strategy for multiple logistics tasks oriented to multi-origin and multi-destination on the basis of a multiple-allocation-hybrid collaborative network. Similarly, Liu, Li and Liu (2021) mentioned decision-making problems in pallet pooling management leading to a conflict over potential benefits among professional pallet providers (PPP), demanding company (DC), and third-party information platform (TPIP). Dwitasari et al. (2021) touched upon conflicts between port operators, LSPs, and goods manufacturers regarding the availability of space in the container yards, which strongly affect port performance and logistics costs. Similarly, Ma et al. (2022) addressed a complicated transshipment process, namely inter-terminal transfer, which creates port efficiency conflicts between shippers and container ports. They examined the relationship between the optimal capacity for transshipment, insurance rate, facility-sharing cost savings, and benefits of the insurance incentive strategies.

Considering the conflicting issues related to the *strategic parameters in decision-making*, Jakubicek and Woudsma (2011) explored the relative importance of location factors that attract/retain logistics firms to a community and identified potential issues of operational conflict between municipalities, their residents, and logistics firms. They examined the interplay among planning issues/paradigms and the location choices of logistics firms by exploring the relative importance of location factors that private firm stakeholders perceive as important. Likewise, considering problems with outsourcing decisions as another strategic parameter, Lu, Goh and De Souza (2011) explored reverse supply chain literature where manufacturers, distributors, and retailers have important roles in the chain governance. Herein, manufacturers often engage professional third-party logistics (3PLs) firms to manage their products due to the complexity, variety, and trade compliance of such products.

While such engagement can reduce the burden of product management for the manufacturers, the potential loss of competitive advantage or a conflict of interest can affect the manufacturers' reputation and profitability creating conflict between manufacturers and 3PLs. Likewise, Bogh, Mikkelsen and Wøhlk (2014) considered a case study where paper and glass are collected from recycling cubes and transported to a treatment facility, and processed for reuse. At this point, they showed how outsourcing the planning and transportation of this service may result in conflict and unsustainable solutions between public companies and logistics service providers.

On the other hand, Lukinskiy and Pletneva (2018) studied conflict caused by decentralized decision parameters leading to unsafe situations on roads and violations of various transportation requirements between businessmen owning goods, transport companies, consumers, and the society. Also, Fan et al. (2021) considered the specific characteristics of cold chains in the decision-making process leading to trade off the conflicts between objectives, e.g. cost efficiency, quality, and environmental impacts among different stakeholders (e.g. importer, exporter, maritime carrier, freight forwarder, terminal operator, customs authority, truck operator, barge operator) in designing tailored solutions for cold chains. Lastly, Rodriguez et al. (2022) showed intrinsic goal conflicts between the carrier, the final customer, and society by considering a tradeoff between time and cost that results in the selection of a particular transport mode.

In general, while operational conflicts in the systematic literature of supply chains mainly focus on efficiency and utilization considerations, optimal order and shipment sizes, supply chain strategies, performance evaluation of partners, and service levels and after-sales service operations; the conflicts within the systematic literature of logistics service network enhance these findings by adding other considerations as well including conflicting strategic parameters, scheduling and planning problems in production, distribution, and service stage and issues with determining strategic parameters in decision-making process.

3.2.2.2.3.4. Relationship Conflicts

Relationship conflicts in the logistics service network are generally in the form of unbalanced power practices, relational uncertainties, lack of coordination and

collaborative decision-making, information asymmetries, and opportunistic behaviors.

In terms of *unbalanced power practices*, Marcus Wallenburg and Simon Raue (2011) stated that horizontal LSP cooperation offers a high potential for conflict due to its complex nature, and the emergence of conflicts in these relationships can stem from unequally distributed power within cooperation in which less powerful partners are likely to feel discriminated against. Likewise, Liu et al. (2019) investigated water transportation service systems involving ports, carriers, and many other departments that have conflicts of interest. Herein, as the carriers are in a weak position when negotiating with the ports, they generally cooperate and form an alliance that makes independent decisions based on the overall interests of the carriers, regardless of the interests of the port. Thereby, the conflict emerges. Furthermore, Qu, Wang and Zeng (2020) addressed the conflict between cruise lines and cruise service providers in which cruise lines impose flexibility requirements on suppliers in response to urgent orders. These short notices do not also bring conflicts but also hinder establishing long-term reliable relationships for these parties.

Considering *relational uncertainties*, Bolumole, Grawe and Daugherty (2016) addressed risks associated with cross-firm relationships and examined boundary spanners that link 3PLs with their environment through the interaction of the 3PL implants with customers. The conflict appeared here due to the lack of sufficient clarity in the expectations and pressures directed to the boundary spanner from intra-organizational sources (his/her employer) as well as extra-organizational sources (the customer).

For the *lack of coordination and collaborative decision-making*, Feng et al. (2017) addressed the hinterland barge transshipment planning problem formulated which is essentially categorized into an inter-organizational decision-making process. Herein, each organization (terminal party, barge party) is concerned with its core interests which makes collaborative decision-making difficult to achieve. While the primary objective of barge parties is to reduce the waiting time of barges during operations, maintaining an acceptable occupancy level appeared as an important interest level for terminals. Also, Brooks, Ravishankar and Oshri (2022) addressed conflicts arising

from contrasting interpretations of a set of actions in terms of assessing the impact of a planned task migration strategy among logistics senior managers. In this way, they provided a ‘sequencing and pacing’ approach to information technology-enabled task migration. In a similar vein, Mazzei and Steiner (2020) revealed a lack of coordination, duplication of work and conflict among service providers. As such, the experience of the participants reveals a mismatch between social enterprise policy aspirations and the practical implementation of policies in support of social and commercial entrepreneurship. As stated by Yang et al. (2022), there is often a lack of coordination between the multiple parties (usually the government, the development enterprise and the entered enterprises), which leads to a series of conflicts such as low efficiency and disordered management and so on, finally affecting the project performance of the construction and operation of a logistics park project.

Regarding *information asymmetries*, the findings state different kinds of manipulation, unethical behaviors, and privacy concerns, selfish and opportunistic behaviors. Considering manipulation and unethical behaviors, Shareef et al. (2021) investigated the role of unethical behavior and manipulation as the essence of conflicts and organizational confrontation between agents, logistics service providers, farmers, retailers and district-level government officers. Wang, Pallis and Notteboom (2014) also outline the conflict of interests between the port authority and the contracting parties, demonstrating that, due to asymmetric information, a terminal operator might engage in activities that are undesirable from a port authority standpoint after the concession agreement is signed. Herein, the study emphasizes the use of incentives to bring port authorities and terminal operators' objectives into line with those of concession agreements' contractual clauses regarding cruise terminal operations. Lastly, Liu et al. (2021) addressed conflicts between logistics service providers (LSPs) and logistics platform integrators in terms of selecting LSPs. As the recent conflicts are primarily brought on by quality fraud, trust behavior, and information asymmetry are two important factors that need to be taken into consideration here.

In terms of selfish and opportunistic behaviors, Schmoltzi and Wallenburg (2012) addressed LSPs' horizontal cooperation which is determined by two opposing forces inherent to them, competition, and cooperation arising from various market

challenges. This constellation leads to high risks of opportunism and conflicts which can jeopardize their partnership. Furthermore, they stated that a missing balance of social control can amplify opportunistic behavior, provoke partner conflicts that deter cooperation survival, and lower cooperation effectiveness. Herein, misunderstandings and conflicts evolve when contradictory objectives are part of the cooperation and internal fights about resources or the dominance in the partnership are prevailing. Along similar lines, Liu, Kuang and Huang (2017) state that, fourth-party logistics develops as an integrator of supply chain services for customers with the rapid development of modern logistics industry. At the same time, information-sharing conflict arises among the fourth-party logistics companies, the third-party logistics companies, customers, and local government, because the third-party logistics companies are hesitant to share information with the fourth-party logistics service providers.

For privacy concerns based on information asymmetries, Sternberg, Mathauer and Hofmann (2022) mentioned technology management conflicts referring to the organizational distances between the technology initiator and the technology users. Herein, an information asymmetry problem arises with the user privacy concerns between subcontractors and logistics service providers. In the study of Sternberg, Mathauer and Hofmann (2022), although shippers and logistics service providers implement information communication technology in outsourced logistics to increase efficiency and remedy information asymmetry, the nature of outsourced logistics operations create technology management challenges due to the organizational distances between the technology initiator and the technology users which triggers conflict between these two parties. As a resolution, they offered technological integration which gives the principal actual authority over the agent in place of the hypothetical equality implied between the principal and agent at the contract stage.

In a systematic review of the conflict, the main focus was the collaboration issues, role and goal conflicts, power practices of the partners, and information asymmetries characterized by the misrepresentation and manipulation of information in an opportunistic way along the supply chains. Within the context of the logistics service network, the lack of collaborative decision-making and coordination, and relational uncertainties are also incorporated.

3.2.2.2.3.5. Regulatory-Legislative Conflicts

The systematic literature review in the logistics service network indicates that regulatory conflicts are mainly related to the operationalization of government regulations and port conflicts.

Pereseina et al. (2014) pointed out different conflicts which can be found between several stakeholder groups in the heavy vehicle industry. Herein, operationalization of governmental regulations regarding how to make sure the rules are being followed by the foreign stakeholders is also a conflicting issue for the stakeholders. As the authors state, the biggest shift in transportation would occur if foreign stakeholders started to adhere to the same fundamental standards they do in other markets: not to accept illegal overloading, excessive working hours, subpar equipment, and inadequate manual loading and unloading of priceless goods.

Considering port conflicts, Stevens, Baker and Freestone (2010) mentioned legal disputes at both Brisbane and Canberra Airports by highlighting the regional conflicts associated with urban development and fragmentation of decision-making associated with their development. These were symptoms of a broader array of conflicts involving airports, municipalities, state governments and the broader community nationwide that have surfaced in two major public hearings on the future of airports. Likewise, Monios and Wilmsmeier (2013) highlighted conflicts between maritime and inland actors as a lack of integration, institutional barriers, and the importance of understanding the specificity of market structure and the limitations of political design, both of which limit the extent of port regionalization processes. On the other hand, Parola and Maugeri (2013) addressed port conflicts stemming from desynchronization between public institutions (PAs, municipality, central and local governments, etc.) and private firms (stevedores, ocean carriers, etc.) in taking responsive and proactive decisions. Also, Galvao, Wang and Mileski (2016) opined that, as port activities expand, increasing participation of the private sector and complex interaction among stakeholders contribute to port conflicts. In this regard, they addressed a problematic governance structure which was characterized with inconsistency in views and preferences between stakeholders including maritime associations, port authorities and the councils of ports. Gonzalez-Aregall and

Bergqvist (2019) also discussed port labor conflicts in which stevedoring service is based on two labor unions; however, according to the Swedish labor regulation only one syndicate can sign the working conditions with the main company through a collective bargaining agreement (CBA) and consequently, the regulation allows unions without CBA with their employers go on strike. This conflict occurring between terminal operators and major shipping lines resulted in serious negative impacts on these markets and hinterland logistics. Lastly, Rogerson, Svanberg and Santén (2022) explored port conflicts, due to labor strikes and countermeasures among port-terminal operators (Gothenburg and other ports), companies importing and exporting goods, shipping companies, freight forwarders, haulers and rail operators.

Table 4. Source of Conflicts and Resolution Mechanisms in Logistics Service Network

Aggregate dimensions	Second-order themes	First-order themes	Resolutions Applied Research
Economic Interests	distorted profit distribution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • profit margin inequalities • extended market shares • maximization of profits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multi objective optimization (pareto optimal solutions) (Modak et al., 2018) • Game theoretical models (e.g. equilibriums,

Table 4 (Continued). Source of Conflicts and Resolution Mechanisms in Logistics Service Network

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • price wars (suboptimal amounts of pricing/unfair pricing) 	Stackelberg and backward inductions) (Lin and Wang, 2020; Wen, Wang and Shi, 2020; Hu et al., 2021; Wang et al. 2021a; Dabaghian et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2022)
	channel encroachments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • double marginalization • encroachment strategies • double monopolies 	
Sustainability Conflicts	tradeoffs in sustainability-economic gains	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fuel efficiency and gas emissions • economic growth and sustainable urban development/biodiversity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contractual governance (Pugliano, Benassai and Benassai, 2018) • Negotiation rounds, mediation, coordination,

			cooperation (Rebehy et al., 2019; Irfani, Wibisono and Basri, 2019; Mensah, 2021)
	governance-driven sustainability conflicts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • strategic-level considerations in sustainability (port policies, location of hazardous material) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multi objective methods simulation, evolutionary game, continuous approximation optimization (Maloni, Paul and Gligor, 2013; Fan, Behdani and Bloemhof-Ruwaard, 2020; Yi and Yang, 2021; Fontaine, Minner and Schiffer, 2022; Lord et al., 2022) • Game theoretic models (backward induction) (Tamannaei, Zarei and Rasti-Barzoki, 2021)
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sustainable oriented service quality issues (e.g. conflicting technical complications) 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • policy-driven conflicts (e.g. tax impositions for sustainability) 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conflicting sustainability mindsets (e.g. negligence of sustainability practices) 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conflicting managerial roles and poor management of spaces 	

Table 4 (Continued). Source of Conflicts and Resolution Mechanisms in Logistics Service Network

Operational Conflicts	processes of performance measurement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • incompatible practices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multi objective optimization (pareto optimal solutions & algorithms, optimization algorithms, heuristic algorithms, evolutionary game, simulation (Bogh, Mikkelsen and Wöhlk, 2014; Agnetis, Aloulou and Fu, 2016; Vairaktarakis and
	scheduling and planning problems in production, distribution, and service stages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unpredicted service stage and sequences • repositioning of the containers 	

	inefficient resource utilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • resource allocation • pallet managements • unavailability of space 	Aydinliyim, 2017; Lukinskiy and Pletneva, 2018; Xu, Sun and Wang, 2019; Liu et al., 2021; Fan et al., 2021;
	strategic parameters in decision making	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • location selections • outsourcing decisions • decentralized decision parameters • design of tailored solutions • selection of transportation mode 	Rodriguez et al., 2022) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Game theoretical models (equilibriums) (Sandström and Elander, 2021) • Relational and contractual governance mechanisms & incentives (integration between partners, transparent and collaborative relationships, realization of new infrastructure and the creation of incentives, legislative framework (Dwitasari et al., 2021) • Sense making resolutions (cognitive related processes, process mappings) (Wang and Vogt, 2019)

Table 4 (Continued). Source of Conflicts and Resolution Mechanisms in Logistics Service Network

Relationship Conflicts	unbalanced power practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • discrimination of partners • weak positions in negotiations • impositions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal and relational governance mechanisms (Marcus Wallenburg and Simon Raue, 2011)
	lack of collaborative decision making and coordination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • contrasting interpretations of actions of partners • duplication of work • disordered management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational and contract governance (Parola and Maugeri, 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Bolumole, Grawe

	information asymmetries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • manipulation • unethical behaviors • privacy concerns • selfish and opportunistic behaviors 	<p>and Daugherty, 2016)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accommodating and compromising style (Shareef et al., 2021) • Sense-making framing (socio-cognitive perspectives) (Brooks, Ravishankar and Oshri, 2022)
	relational uncertainties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of sufficient clarity in expectations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration and negotiation (Schmoltzi and Wallenburg, 2012; Feng et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2022) • Multi-objective optimization (Galvao, Wang and Mileski, 2016; Liu, Kuang and Huang, 2017; Feng et al., 2017) • Incentives (Qu, Wang and Zeng, 2020) • Information sharing mechanisms, technological integration (Sternberg, Mathauer and Hofmann, 2022)

Table 4 (Continued). Source of Conflicts and Resolution Mechanisms in Logistics Service Network

Regulatory-Legislative Conflicts	operationalization of government regulations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unstandardized rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coordination mechanism (Monios and Wilmsmeier, 2013) • Contractual agreements (Stevens, Baker and Freestone, 2010; Monios and Wilmsmeier, 2013; Parola and Maugeri, 2013; Pereseina et al., 2014; Gonzalez-Aregall and
---	--	--	---

			Bergqvist, 2019; Rogerson, Svanberg and Santén, 2022)
--	--	--	---

Although this systematic review gives insights into the conflicts in the logistics service network within a B2B approach, we need to delve into the research in a way to encapsulate all the dynamics of the conflicts to minimize the adverse effects. Herein, as it can be inferred from the systematic review of conflicts in the logistics service network, the “multiplayer logistics networks” highlights a promising area for further effort as most of the studies include the dyadic relationship of the parties. Likewise, since more than 50 percent of the studies in these fields employed quantitative methods, addressing this multi-sector with a mixed method design embracing both qualitative and quantitative techniques, will present novelty to the field. In line with these, the research questions are as the following:

RQ1) What are the emerging conflicting paradigms in the domain of ‘multi-actor logistics service network’ recently?

RQ2) What are the probable destructive and constructive effects of channel conflicts in the logistics service network?

RQ3) What are the changing dynamics of conflicts in the logistics service network?

RQ4) What are the preventive strategies to cope with conflicts?

RQ5) What are the level-based resolution strategies (e.g. latent, perceived, felt, manifest, aftermath) of logistics service actors to deal with conflicts?

CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

It is worthwhile to investigate the related theoretical framework as stated in the literature in order to better comprehend the characteristics and dynamics of the conflicts. As the notion of conflict is at the heart of the majority of theoretical schemes in social sciences, multiple theoretical concepts were employed here to reveal several meanings and applications in different content domains of conflict. In this regard, we will discuss conflict theory, dynamic capability theory, agency theory, and social exchange theory.

4.1. Conflict Theory

Conflict theory is mostly examined from the perspective of anthropology, psychology, and sociology disciplines by considering a wide variety of individual, group, and societal issues and it is acknowledged as a group of theories examining competition over resources, power, and prestige (Stock, 1997). For instance, Karl Marx proposed conflict theory (Marxists Internet Archive, 2010), which asserts that society is perpetually in conflict as a result of economic behaviors such as competition for limited resources (Terhune and Matusitz, 2016). In addition, conflict theory demonstrates how disparities in power and rights among diverse groups can result in disputes and friction (Coser, 1998). According to the notion, there are different amounts of resources available to people and groups throughout society. Due to their control over resources, the powerful groups impose their terms and conditions on the oppressed majority. The philosophy here concentrates on the conflict over social, political, or economic dominance (McCafferty, 2006). Also, the power as the central concept in conflict theory is also explained as a situational variable that shapes social outcomes according to the specific interests. By the same token, the importance of specific topics or significance attached to certain issues in challenging the current social structure signifies the criticality as another situational variable in this theory. These variables are also seen as elements that influence the outcomes of the relationship between parties (Jonker and Foster, 2002).

Within the context of conflict theory, the conflict dynamic systems perspective, also known as dynamical systems theory, is one method that sheds light on how systems develop and resist change, and consequently, how to research conflict as well (Malka, 2021). In line with this, Coleman (2014) holds that conflict is primarily about change, which is consistent with Marcus (2014)' claims that conflict is most frequently sparked by change and that conflict is essential for arousing forces that upset the status quo. Coleman (2014) examined the resilience of prolonged conflict and more specifically the non-linear growth of conflicts from the perspective of conflict dynamic systems. He drew a path for the dynamic process that follows as conflict develops by relying on the special characteristics of conflict dynamic systems. Deeply entrenched conflict is like an epidemic: it starts out slowly, but swiftly develops and spreads exponentially, becoming a tremendous event of great proportions. This property is similar to the butterfly effect, a crucial aspect of chaos theory. In light of this similar problems start to collapse together and feed each other

through reinforcing feedback loops, which finally exceed a threshold and become self-organizing. These systems of conflict draw people and people are drawn to and resist change by strong, cohesive patterns (Coleman, 2014).

4.1.1. Conflict Types and Typologies

As the early approaches for classifying conflicts were situation-specific, each researcher concentrated on a particular type of conflict in different contexts which brings fragmented pictures of conflict types to the literature (Hough and Chaney, 2005).

Pondy (1967) defined conflicts as a dynamic process consisting of a series of episodes between two or more individuals and distinguished three types of conflict: (1) bargaining conflicts between parties in interest group relationships; (2) bureaucratic conflicts between parties in superior-subordinate relationships; and (3) system conflicts between parties in lateral or working relationships. Apart from this, Filley (1975) also introduced different kinds of conflicts as competitive and disruptive conflicts. In competitive conflict, only one side is capable of winning at the expense of the complete loss of the other side where the situation is governed by some set of rules, while in disruptive conflict one side is determined to beat or drive away the other without adhering to a set of rules. In other studies, conflict types are conceptualized as relationship-focused conflicts (social-emotional) and task-related conflicts (cognitive) (Wall and Nolan; 1986; Priem and Price, 1991; Amason and Sapienza, 1997). Besides, Thomas (1992b) divided conflicts into four: goals conflict (i.e., inconsistent priority), recognizing conflict (i.e., inconsistent thinking), emotional conflict (inconsistent feelings), and procedure conflict. Lastly, Jehn (1995) and Jehn (1997) proposed three main types of conflicts which are task, relationship, and process conflicts. Task conflicts arise concerning the task a group is working on. Conflicts within relationships often start out as emotional issues. Process conflict, on the other hand, refers to differences in the protocols and tools used to carry out the task (e.g. resources delegation and responsibilities).

4.1.2. Functionality of the Conflicts

According to Cosar (1956), conflict is a neutral phenomenon but the outcome of a conflict can be either constructive or destructive. In this regard, different ways of

thinking in which outcomes are seen as negative, positive, and neutral have been put forward. The destructiveness of conflict is acknowledged as a threat to the state's success, and organizations should develop procedures to reduce its occurrence (Fink, 1968; Rahim, 2017). Destructive outcomes of the conflicts are mainly feelings of upset, decreased satisfaction, diminished working relationship, declined productivity, lack of cooperation, and lack of communication (Wall and Callister, 1995; Hibbard, Kumar and Stern, 2001; Eckert and Rinehart, 2005; Yasin and Osman, 2018). As stated by Jia et al. (2011), if the conflicts are not handled or resolved properly, they can cause even more chaos, demonstrating the destruction of conflicts.

We generally regard any conflict resolution method driven by the desire to damage the other to be aggressive and, as a result, ultimately destructive (Boardman and Horowitz, 1994). In similar lines, conflict management entails developing effective techniques to lessen the destructive outcomes of conflict and promote the constructive roles of conflict in order to improve organizational learning and effectiveness (Jia et al., 2011). However, a certain amount of conflict is necessary for viability and stability in achieving proper group functioning and better performance implying a constructive conflict (Litterer, 1966). The consequences of constructive conflicts are releasing hostilities, innovative solutions through introducing different perspectives, higher performance, increased trust, and enhanced decision-making (Coughlan et al., 2001; Eckert and Rinehart, 2005; Filippelli-DiManna, 2012).

4.1.3. Conflict Levels and Resolution

Within the context of conflict theory, as Pondy (1967) states, conflict episodes can be seen as a progressive escalation to a state of disorder. In this process, the degree of crystallization and the modes of resolution as two fundamental variables are closely linked. Crystallization denotes the existence of a conflict. Low-level crystallized conflicts are short-lived and can appear as a straightforward expression of discontent that is not followed by actions. On the other hand, high-level crystallized conflicts do not resolve immediately or manifest themselves repeatedly after being partially resolved (Fossati, 2011). Based on the crystallization (intensity) of the situation, various conflict levels/stages exist: latent, perceived, felt, manifest and aftermath conflicts (Pondy, 1967; Filley, 1975). In the objectivist approach, researchers opine that a conflict exists (crystallized) or not at the latent level, but subjectivists only

recognize conflict at the manifest level. Herein, the resolution orientations applied at these different levels affect whether conflicts are escalated or not. Escalation behavior here denotes hostility, competitiveness, or using coercive tactics by the actors (Ziegler, 2005). By basing on the conflict theory, it can be said that greater sensitivity should be demonstrated in small circumstances (low crystallization in our research) before it leads to larger discrepancies between the parties (Leatherman and Väyrynen, 1995; Jia et al., 2011).

In terms of conflict resolution, with a two-dimensional model (Thomas and Kilman, 1978), “cooperative” and “affirmative” dimensions were put forward associated with the five strategies (competition, compromise, compromise, cooperation, avoidance). Within the context of cooperative and affirmative dimensions, these five strategies are adopted by companies based on the company's assessment of what other parties will do as well as the relative strength of concern for one's own needs (Boardman and Horowitz, 1994). Apart from these, when confronted with a conflict, companies make decisions according to corporate interdependence, corporate intention, status differences, and the combined effect of the conflict (i.e., short-term and long-term interests) (Zhou, 2012).

According to conflict theory, a bifurcation is a turning point or crossroads in a system where escalating conflict or tension results in the division or dividing into two different routes or outcomes (Young, 1991). It denotes a critical stage when the conflict intensifies (more crystallized) and can lead to the emergence of distinct factions or the creation of division between opposing groups or interests. It is the mutually exclusive behaviors of fighting, escaping, or surrendering which are bifurcated. (Butz, 1992). It can be inferred that the likelihood of reaching a point of bifurcation can be prevented if the right resolution actions are taken at the right point.

4.1.4. Conflict Transformation

Conflict transformation is a comprehensive set of lenses for understanding how conflict arises from, develops within, and changes the personal, relational, structural, and cultural dimensions, as well as for developing innovative responses that encourage peaceful change within those dimensions (Miall, 2007). It is a step beyond conflict resolution and points toward a deep transformation. Its emphasis is on the

need for systemic change in order to alter the social structures, conflict parties, and institutions within which conflicts are embedded (Tucho, 2016).

Vayrynen (1991) emphasized the significance of comprehending how conflicts are transformed in dynamic terms and called for a conflict theory centered on transformation rather than settlement. This refers to "the transformation of people as well as the transformation of relationships and both large- and small-scale social systems." (Dukes, 1999: 48). The majority of conflict theory takes the issues, actors, and interests as given and tries to discover a way to lessen or remove conflicts between them on that premise. However, issues, actors, and interests change over time as a result of society's social, economic, and political dynamics. In this regard, his approach incorporates six conflict transformations namely context, structure, actors, issues, personal/elite, and rule.

Context transformation (1), changes in the context of conflict can drastically alter each party's perception of the conflict situation as well as their motivations. One example is a change in the international or regional environment.

Structural transformations (2) are changes to the conflict's fundamental components, such as the actors involved, their problems, their incompatible aims, and their relationships, as well as any changes to the society, economy, or state in which the conflict is situated. Examples include the shift from asymmetric to symmetric relationships, changes in power dynamics, and shifts in the markets.

Actor transformations (3) refer to choices made by actors to modify their objectives or their general strategy for handling conflict. Choosing to look for peace or to start a peace process would fall under this category. It also refers to internal party changes or the emergence of new parties, and it covers instances like altered party leadership, altered objectives, altered internal dynamics, altered constituencies, and altered players. The change from limited representation of some small-scale actors in the supply chain to the formation of cooperatives, labor unions, or other collective organizing efforts is one example.

Issue reformulations (4) refer to how the parties reinterpret or reframe their

perspectives on the major disagreements in an effort to reach agreements or resolutions. It entails changing the agenda of conflict issues, such as transcending contentious issues, reaching a mutually beneficial settlement, changing issues, and de- or re-linking issues. For example, the issue of negative environmental impacts produced by supply chain activities such as pollution or carbon emissions is reframed as sustainability, highlighting the importance of responsible sourcing or environmentally friendly methods.

Personal/elite transformation (5) implies that personal changes of heart or mind within individual leaders or small groups with decision-making power may be critical at critical moments. Some external intervenors attempt to directly reach these leaders and effect this personal change. Changes in perspective, heart changes, will changes, and conciliation gestures are a few examples.

Rule transformations (6) changes in the norms or rules governing a conflict. For instance, there was a lack of accountability and minimal guidelines regarding the sourcing practices of companies within the supply chain; now, responsible sourcing policies that outline specific criteria and standards for suppliers are being implemented, ensuring adherence to social and environmental standards.

4.2. Dynamic Capability Theory

Dynamic (or first-level) capabilities (DC) are high-level processes that enable the ability to comprehend the environment and respond to it by enhancing, adapting, or developing common skills (Winter, 2003). Firms' ordinary (operational) capabilities are defined as zero-level capabilities that are part of the basic functional activities that allow the firms to exist. As organizations operate in a turbulent business environment, they face the challenges of this dynamic structure characterized by rapid and unpredictable change. In this sense, dynamic business conditions force companies to improve their ordinary capabilities by obtaining and deploying resources in novel ways (Madadi, Torres and Zúñiga, 2022). Herein, continuous updating of firms' capabilities develops their long-term competitive advantage and increases their performance (Kähkönen et al., 2021).

As an extension of the traditional resource-based view (RBV), the key elements of DC center on identifying strategic organizational processes, reallocating resources (integrating, gaining, and releasing), and determining the best course of action for obtaining competitive advantage (Chowdhury and Quaddus, 2017). DC is the capacity to reorganize resources (tangible and intangible) in order to identify reconfiguration capabilities (Teece, Pisano and Shuen, 1997). In literature, we can see that DC takes place as a multi-dimensional construct in the literature. For instance, these capabilities are classified by Teece (2007) into three categories: sensing, seizing, and reconfiguring.

Firstly, sensing capability incorporates a supply chain's capacity to foresee disruptions by keeping an eye out for triggers and changes, analyzing their probabilities, and preparing for or mitigating their effects (Sawyer and Harrison, 2022). The examples can be monitoring the structural changes in the market and industry and the responses of suppliers and rivals as well as the validation of internal research initiatives, customer requests, and technological advancements (Lee and Yoo, 2019). *Secondly, seizing capability* entails taking action to take advantage of opportunities or lessen hazards that are sensed. Herein, companies seize the possibilities, choose a business model to build a new product, allocate the resources required, and market the product (Cepeda and Vera, 2007). *Lastly, in reconfiguration capability*, companies learn and grow by analyzing the disruption, the causes, and the impacts. In addition to this, they develop its capabilities to avoid or better prepare for and/or respond to a new occurrence. In this context, reconfiguring helps businesses to continually match operational capabilities with (seized) opportunities and is integrated within the idea of internally focused learning (Weerawardena and O'Cass, 2004). Internal learning entails unlearning previously acquired operating skills and developing new ones. In this context, coordinating/integrating activities, learning and strategic competitive response processes seem to be significant drivers that lead to the development of new configurations of functional competencies (Protoyerou, Caloghirou and Lioukas, 2012).

Companies use sensing capabilities to identify and respond to opportunities and threats; they use seizing capabilities to take advantage of these opportunities and

ward off threats; and they use reconfiguring capabilities to maintain their competitiveness by enhancing, combining, safeguarding, and, as needed, modifying operational capabilities (Gebauer, 2011). The rationale for initiating strategic change serves as the foundation for these three categories of DC.

Apart from the classification of Teece (2007), Wu (2010) also divided the dynamic capabilities of companies into integration ability, learning ability and reconfiguration ability. Herein, the first capability, *the ability to learn*, can be thought of as a fundamental way of achieving strategic innovation which means discovering and learning new ways, while also using what they have already learned (Prieto and Revilla, 2006). Through learning ability including the accumulation of experience, the articulation of knowledge, and the codification of knowledge (Shang, Wu and Yao, 2010), firms can distribute knowledge across organizational units through sharing success and failure experiences on projects or activities, and then it learns from these accumulated experiences which can be useful, especially in conflictual situations. Some learning abilities include systematic in-house learning and knowledge development, cross-functional learning programs, workshops, effective teamwork, and well-organized “on-the-job or educational training” (Protogerou, Caloghirou and Lioukas, 2012; Zhou et al., 2018; Ghasemzadeh et al., 2022).

Coordination capabilities as a second capability type, include managerial and organizational processes related to the coordination and integration of different activities and different dynamic capabilities and promote efficiency through specific organizational practices and internal policies. Effective integration and standardization of business processes, adoption of the latest management tools and techniques, and systematic implementation of business planning, establishing new collaborations, integration with suppliers, as well as outsourcing organizational activities are some actions used in this process (Protogerou, Caloghirou and Lioukas, 2012; Lee and Yoo, 2019).

The third capability is *reconfiguration* (strategic competitive response in order words) refers to processes aimed at understanding and adapting to environmental trends. This process includes effective benchmarking, systematic formulation of long-term strategy, timely response to competitive strategic moves, and flexible

adaptation of human resources to technological and competitive changes, disposing of (releasing) unnecessary and redundant resources and creating innovations (Protogerou, Caloghirou and Lioukas, 2012; Cyfert et al., 2021).

Along similar lines, Davila, Epstein and Shelton (2006) have classified dynamic capability as financial management capability, product development capability, human resource management capability, strategic planning capability, sales, and marketing capability, and partnership management capability; while Pavlou and Sawy (2011) propose the following dimensions for DC: sensing, learning, integration, and coordination. Also, Takahashi, Bulgacov and Giacomini (2017) address all dimensions together as sensing, seizing, reconfiguration learning, coordination, and integration. Similarly, Wamba et al. (2017) and Mandal (2018) categorize dynamic capabilities as having four capability dimensions: planning, investment decision-making, coordination, and control. Additionally, Lee and Yoo (2019) employed sensing, seizing, and transforming capability of DC by pointing to the relationship between open innovation and the company's competitive advantage. Recently, Cyfert et al. (2021) addressed dynamic capabilities covering five activities: searching for opportunities; knowledge management and learning; coordination; configuration and reconfiguration; and organizational adaptation.

Considering the conflict and DC relationship, conflicts are used as a catalyst to investigate the creation and institutionalization of a set of DC (Tran, Zahra and Hughes, 2019). In some cases, conflict is mediated by the dynamic capabilities through functional orientations and enhances performance (Madhani, 2012). In this context, conflict management is regarded as the key dynamic capability and the driving force behind efficient supply chain management (Darko and Vlachos, 2022).

4.3. Agency Theory

Agency theory is the most often utilized theory in corporate governance studies (Huang, 2011). It is one of the most serious attempts to develop a general theory of the firm within the context of social relations (Jensen and Meckling, 1976). In this context, Adam Smith ascertained the agency problem in 1776 by emphasizing the division of ownership and control of the company and stated that managers of money don't take as much care with other people's money as the owner does (Panda and

Leepsa, 2017). Afterwards, Berle and Means (1968) mentioned the consequences of this existing division (ownership and control) such as diversification of investment, low concentration of ownership along with the divergent interests between involved parties like directors, managers and proprietary investors. Within the context of agency theory, the agent is hired by the chain's principal because the principal is either too busy or does not have the necessary skills to carry out the task. As both parties in the relationship want to maximize their utilities, neither the principal nor the agent can be relied upon to properly self-regulate their behaviors (Ross, 1973; Jensen and Meckling, 1976). In some cases, agents have imperfect information, and bias and discrimination are targeted behaviors enacted by in-group agents when they perceive threats to their interests (Rangan and Wang, 2012; Evans and Tourish, 2017). In this regard, by the use of behavioral monitoring mechanisms (routines and processes), coordination (facilitating information exchange and incentive alignment), and specialized investments, the principals may attempt to persuade the agents to act in a way that is consistent with the principals' interests (economic incentives and commitment to a relationship) (Flygansvær et al., 2018).

Several researches made by scholars improve our understanding of how agency theory explains relations in different disciplines such as economics, finance, information systems and management (e.g. Eisenhardt, 1988; Sappington, 1991; Stock, 1997; Mahaney and Lederer, 2003). More recently, there has been a growing interest in using agency theory to understand how participants within the supply chain (SC) manage risks, align incentives, and shape relationships (Norrman, 2008; Shook et al., 2009). There are numerous circumstances in supply chains where a principal can provide authority to an agent. For instance, managers of reverse supply chains hire agents to handle product collection, consolidation, and processing of electronic waste (Flygansvær et al., 2018). Given the variety of principal-agent interactions in the supply chain, it is common for partners' signals, incentives, and strategies to conflict, and attempting to resolve this causes some degree of instability in the system.

Based on the important assumptions of agency theory, potential goal conflicts between principals and agents lead to each party acting in its own self-interest and this brings about some problems in agency relationships which are information

asymmetry, adverse selection or pre-contractual opportunism, and moral hazard or post-contractual opportunism (Zu and Kaynak, 2012). Within this context, when one party possesses knowledge that another side does not, there is a (1) *information asymmetry*. According to this theory, the agent's informational holdings are greater and more specialized than those of the principal. This, however, might also work the opposite way around. It illustrates how principals are unable to fully watch the behavior of their agents, and how agents will be hesitant to share that information with the principal due to self-interest on their behalf (Hornibrook, 2007). For example, when the supplier has more information about product quality and its internal operations relevant to delivering the stated quality than the manufacturer, there is information asymmetry between SC players (Kim, Lee and Park, 2011). This practice might lead to conflicts with the manufacturer, who may receive items that fall short of their expectations or standards.

(2) *Adverse selection*, also known as pre-contractual opportunism. It occurs when one party is more knowledgeable than the other about the characteristics of a good or service, putting the other party at risk since they are unable to make an informed decision (e.g. low quality). Herein, a probability of adverse selection exists when there is information asymmetry between the contracting parties (principal and agent) prior to the arrangement (Siddika and Ahmad, 2022). In supply chain relationships, when a supplier concealed the true quality of the product and incorrect product information was provided prior to a transaction, adverse selection might result. The suppliers' purposeful deception or concealing of information may cause a conflict between the supplier and the buyer as the buyer's interests in acquiring a product of the desired quality are jeopardized.

When a party uses information and expertise to behave opportunistically to their own advantage rather than in good faith with the established contractual purposes, this is known as (3) *moral hazard or post-contractual opportunism*. Moral hazard may develop after a transaction if the supplier shirks its performance obligations, breaches a contract, or lowers the quality of the products it promises to offer. In this situation, the agent has the option of failing to act appropriately as he should by abiding by the terms of the contract. Because it is impossible for a principal to completely supervise an agent's activity, the agent can gain an informational advantage (Barbagallo and Comuzzi, 2008). For example, buyers generally expect the supplier to meet their

contractual duties by delivering quality items, yet the supplier's actions undercut the buyer's expectations as suppliers see that they can cut prices or take shortcuts in their manufacturing process without informing the buyer which creates a moral hazard problem. Based on these factors, it can be said that distrust is a key component of agency theory (Snippert et al., 2015).

4.4. Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) has roots in a variety of academic fields, including sociology, social psychology, anthropology, and psychology. The central tenet of SET is that people in a social relationship decide whether to keep or end the relationship based on a comparison of the benefits to the costs of keeping the relationship (Ko and Hur, 2014). In this context, relationships develop through time into commitments that are trustworthy, loyal, and mutual in which parties must follow specific "rules" of exchange in order to achieve this. In this sense, exchange norms and laws serve as "the rules" for all exchange activities (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). For instance, within the context of reciprocity in supply chain relationships, a supplier contributes to its distributor through its supply chain management policies. An expectation is created when a contribution is made to its distributor that it will be reimbursed later. The distributor who receives a valuable contribution develops a sense of obligation and responds appropriately with attitudinal and behavioral responses (Griffith, Harvey and Lusch, 2006).

According to SET, the perception of justice is what stimulates relational attitudes and behaviors, and it encourages the motivational impetus that drives people to engage in reciprocal responses (Farid et al., 2021). Three components of justice have been identified by researchers: the outcomes individuals receive from the organization (distributive justice), the formal policies or procedures used to distribute outcomes (procedural justice), and the treatment they receive from the organization's decision-makers in terms of interpersonal relationships (interactional justice) (Cropanzano, Prehar and Chen, 2002). Herein, distributive justice is more concerned with outcomes, whereas procedural and interactional justice is more concerned with relationships (Martínez- Tur et al., 2006).

In this context, the level of distributive justice is defined as how a company

distributes financial benefits, resources, and promotions and it is based on the equity theory (Akram et al., 2020). Procedural justice examines how and on what basis incentives/rewards will be distributed, as well as whether people believe the distribution processes to be fair. On the other hand, interactional justice is related to the extent to which individuals are treated pleasantly, respectfully, and with dignity and the explanations given to people that communicate information on why processes were employed in a certain manner (Moilanen and Ikäheimo, 2019). SET builds a direct relationship between procedural justice and interactional justice as subjects take into account socioemotional value in addition to their economic significance (distributive justice), assuming that humans are social animals (Martínez- Tur et al., 2006).

Apart from justice, reciprocity, equity, conflict, and opportunism are the other elements of SET. Although the foundation of equity rules is based on the idea that parties seek to maximize profits and avoid losses in exchange interactions, conflicts arise when parties' interests diverge, leading to mutual interference or blocking conduct. However, conflict minimization and resolution are consistent with the success and value propositions of SET (Ahmmed and Noor, 2016). For instance, a distributor who sees its supplier as a long-term partner understands that disagreement jeopardizes the stability of the partnership and seeks to reduce conflict in the relationship (Griffith, Harvey and Lusch, 2006). Likewise, it is crucial for suppliers to put up their best efforts to provide better products for major account customers, invest in relational assets, and coordinate internal activities in a way that minimizes conflict (Ahmmed and Noor, 2016).

As stated by Hakansson's (1982) 'interaction approach', participants are frequently faced with a complex pattern of interactions between and within organizations, and these interactions institutionalize into a set of roles that each organization's stakeholders expect the other to fulfill. In this context, the way in which the parties interact is significantly impacted by a variety of factors like technology, organizational size, structure and strategy, and the hierarchy where different levels of individuals across the organization are involved. Additionally, while market structure influences the concentration of providers and buyers; the rate of change, the number of alternative relationships open to participants, and the level of dynamism affect

each party's capacity to anticipate and forecast market changes that could have an impact on the partnership. Similarly, internationalization of the market can also influence an organization's motivation to create international ties by impacting organizational structure, sales arrangements, knowledge-required technologies, language, and trade laws. Also, the social system that surrounds the relationship defines the real barriers to interacting between organizations, such as protocols, procedures, experiences, and ways of behaving when dealing with specific industries and organizations. Finally, the working environment and atmosphere, which are best described in terms of power/dependence, degree of conflict or cooperation, and overall social distance between the contributing organizations characterize the relationship and have an impact on the operations of the companies.



CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

5.1. Research Approach

When the phenomenon of interest is understudied and requires in-depth knowledge in its real-world context, a qualitative research method is sufficient (Silverman, 2011). In this regard, we conducted 20 semi-structured expert interviews for qualitative analysis. Herein, we used abductive reasoning to explain conflict phenomena and to generate new insights within a contextual framework (Kovács and Spens, 2005). In this reasoning, we first began with basic assumptions and theoretical understanding following the empirical observations. When our observations did not support these earlier theories, we employed an iterative theory-matching approach (Dubois and Gadde, 2002). In other words, we moved back and forth between data and theory iteratively (Timmermans and Tavory, 2012). In this process, we gathered and organized the data for analysis and encoded it into a pre-existing coding framework by using existing theories as lenses (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The aim here was to find a new framework or to extend the theory by combining theory with our empirical investigation.

Within the context of abductive grounded theory approach (Figure 11), we followed the “*seizing process*” which includes researching a research question, reviewing the basic literature on the phenomenon being investigated, and formulating initial interview questions. After the refinement of our interview questions, we followed the “*process of data collection and analytical procedure*” representing the dynamics of data collection, open coding, axial coding, and the emergence of categories. Positioned at the center of the process, memoing emphasizes the continuous communication between notes and perceived concepts at every stage of the analysis, from the first coding sessions to the end of the analysis. The *theory matching process* begins during data analysis and continues until the theoretical saturation of the categories, through theoretical sampling and selective coding to ensure representativeness and consistency. This procedure is referred to as “*theoretical grounding*” since the links between categories are anchored inside the abducted theory. The latter two processes are contextualizing the theory and integrating it, which are primarily concerned with the refinement and adjustment of the theory

within the framework of the study.

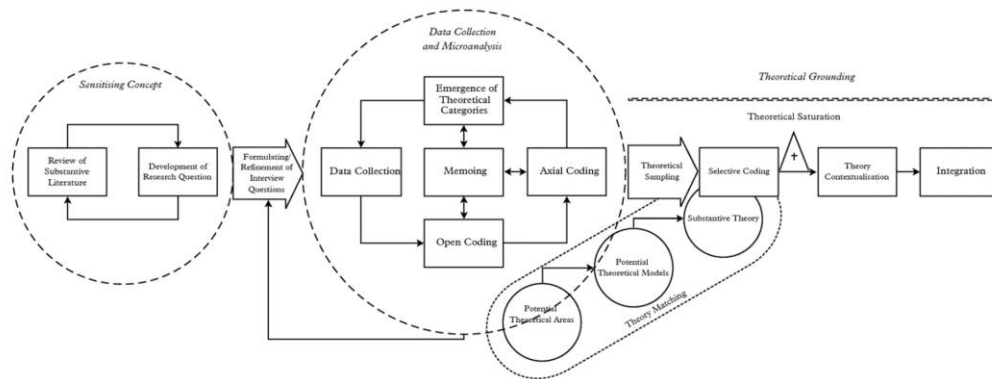


Figure 11. The Abductive Research Process (Rahmani and Leifels, 2018)

5.2. Research Quality

The classical ideas of reliability and validity are commonly acknowledged as critical in assessing rigor in quantitative research. However, these criteria have a rather ambiguous role in the qualitative methodologist's repertory (Sinkovics, Penz and Ghauri, 2008). In this regard, some scholars (e.g. Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Kirk, Miller and Miller, 1986) have recommended the use of alternative names and methods for evaluating qualitative research, such as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, in an effort to adapt the principles of reliability and validity to the practice of doing qualitative research.

Guba and Lincoln (1989) equate *credibility* and internal validity which focuses on finding a connection between the created realities of respondents and those realities provided by the researcher(s). Herein, findings should be congruent and relevant showing researcher' intended reality is obtained from the perspectives of those who provided data. Herein, all interviews, category classification, and coding stages were conducted and documented by two researchers, allowing for the comparison of individual interview findings (Gatenholm and Halldórsson, 2022). Besides, respondents were contacted to double-check the data and confirm the consistency of material supplied during interviews as well as the veracity of emerging findings (Creswell and Miller, 2000).

Transferability is viewed in a similar light to external validity or generalizability in

quantitative research. It depends on how closely or distantly the salient conditions are related (Crawford, Leybourne and Arnott, 2000). It also indicates that conclusions from one study can be used to understand other situations or groups of people (Houghton et al., 2013). To show transferability, the researcher makes sure that the recruitment and selection of a sample are based on participant expertise and that participants are aware of the topic being studied (Forero et al., 2018). Besides, thick/rich descriptions of the phenomenon provides the foundation for qualitative analysis and reporting (Patton, 2002) and it allows readers to determine how transferable, rather than generalizable, the issue may be (Merriam, 1998). In this regard, apart from the description of the context, we establish (and share) a theoretical viewpoint on key contextual elements that can facilitate the generalizability of our findings so that readers can assess which scenarios are most closely related in terms of theory (Polit and Beck, 2010).

Dependability is similar to reliability in that it is concerned with the stability of the outcomes over time (Stuart et al., 2002). It is attained by documenting the reasoning of process and method decisions specified in a dependability audit (Halldórsson and Aastrup, 2003). A protocol was followed in order to ensure dependability (repeatability) (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Data were digitized, tape-recorded, and then translated into their original language throughout the time of study in order to attain a high degree of transparency. An Excel spreadsheet was used to hold the transcripts, and a coding framework was developed, which improved the interpretability of the results across interviews by comparing and contrasting them.

Confirmability describes a theory or concept's capacity to be supported by data analysis. It should be possible to identify the sources of any qualitative data interpretations (Autry and Michelle Bobbitt, 2008). Confirmability is also the extent to which interpretations are the result of the participants and the phenomenon as opposed to researcher biases (Thomas and Esper, 2010). In this regard, the integrity of the findings should be assured by objectively establishing a link between data and the findings. In line with this, throughout the data analysis process over several months, the research team met several times to discuss and settle any thematic differences (Hasiija and Esper, 2022). Besides, two professional qualitative researchers were asked to study the approach and evaluate the results in the form of

expert peer evaluations. Peer reviews of the manuscript supported the study's rigorous methodology and qualitative results.

5.3. Context of the Study and Selection of the Interview Partners

Supply chains can be analyzed from the perspective of three different but interrelated layers, including the logistics layer, the transaction layer, and the governance layer (Willis and Ortiz, 2004). The first layer, the logistics layer, is related to physical activities and physical flows, such as transportation and transshipment. The second layer, entitled as transaction layer, is a layer of contract or transaction activities, covering all business relationships between parties in the supply chain. Most of the information related to commercial trade and logistics processes comes from this layer. Finally, we distinguish a governance layer, which includes all government agencies, such as customs and port authorities, and their inspection and verification activities. The second and third layers consist of information flow and financial flow (Figure 12).

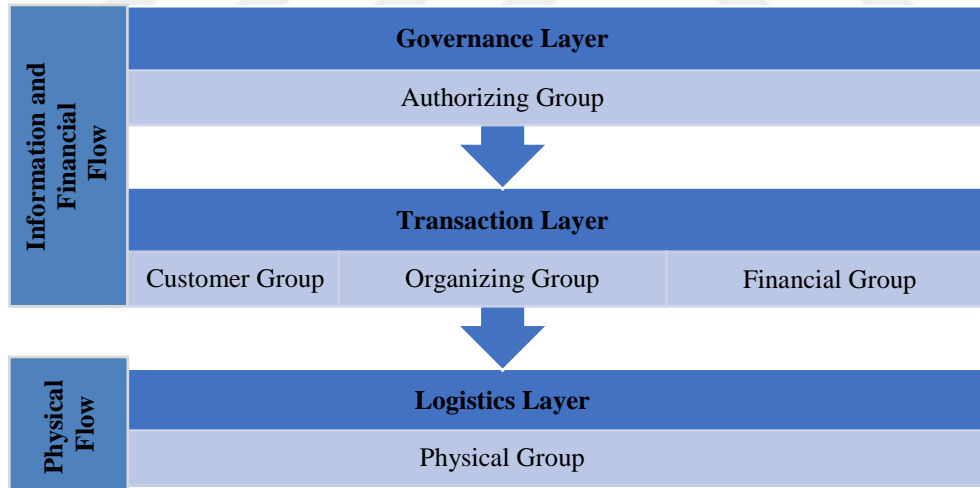


Figure 12. Layered Model of Global Supply Chains (Van Baalen, Zuidwijk and Van Nunen, 2009)

In this layered model of the supply chain, there are also many groups with varied tasks and responsibilities in the transportation process who manage the flows (physical, informational, and financial) (Wagenaar, 1992; Chandra and Hillegersberg, 2018). For instance, the *physical group* includes the organizations that perform the actual transportation and handling of the container from the consigner to

the consignee as part of the logistics layer. Organizations in these groups are operationally responsible for the container and the contents of the container. *Customer groups* are the final customers who are the sender or receiver of the goods to be packaged in the transaction layer of container transport. Herein, the transport organization is done either by *an organizing group* including the shippers, forwarders, shipping lines (agent) or logistics service providers. These actors are responsible for overall planning and control of the supply chain, where operational responsibilities are outsourced to the physical group. While organizing the transport of a container, the shipping line may outsource the complete hinterland transport operation to a logistics service provider, where several transportation modes and intermodal transshipment need to be coordinated. These lines may use subcontractors to perform the related service. Forwarders are also used in this service by carriers nominated directly by the shipper or receiver of the goods but paid by the shipping line. These entities in the organization groups are in the transaction layer. The *authorization group* includes organizations responsible for public infrastructure and regulatory agencies that monitor whether companies in the supply chain are complying with the rules and regulations. These organizations are part of the governance layer. This group is responsible for public safety and security and for checking (international) legal compliance, while the other groups have primary responsibility for the operation of the supply chain in terms of efficiency and effectiveness. Finally, the *financial group* supports financial transactions between organizations in the supply chain. Banks and insurance companies are examples of this group, and they are all positioned under the transaction layer (Table 5).

Considering the various groups involved in supply chain arrangements, and the potential members in the transportation process explained above, we created our sample frame to be included in the interviews. In this regard, we pay attention that the sampling frame should be representative of the population we want to generalize our findings to by considering the specific characteristics and roles of each layer.

Table 5. Potential Members in the Transportation Process (Wagenaar, 1992; Chandra and Hillegersberg, 2018)

Groups in SC arrangements	Examples of organizations
Customer group	Shipper; Consignee

Organizing group	Forwarder (merchant haulage); Shipping line agent (carrier haulage); Logistics service provider (4PL)
------------------	---

Table 5 (Continued). Potential Members in the Transportation Process (Wagenaar, 1992; Chandra and Hillegersberg, 2018)

Physical group	Sea terminal operator; Shipping line/sea carrier; Pre- or On-carrier: carrier inland transport, i.e., barge operator, rail operator, road carrier; Inland terminal operator; Logistics service provider (3PL); Empty container depot operator
Authorizing group	Customs; Port authorities; Seaport police; River police; Inspection authorities
Financial group	Bank and insurance companies

Purposeful sampling was conducted based on the targeted categories of respondents, meaning that the individuals were picked based on their capacity to provide insightful feedback regarding the research topics (Brymen and Bell, 2015). We reached out to the logistics industry players to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and use the expertise and experience of the selected informants (Gültekin et al., 2022). In this regard, we started by identifying companies involved in the logistics service sector for more than five years. Here, we placed emphasis on selecting participant companies operating internationally that have become leaders in their respective industries, and have a significant amount of industrial experience. Then, we reached out to the experts including managers, specialists, representatives, chiefs, coordinators, and consultants of the firms, who have more than five years of expertise in multi-modal transportation, to get multiple perspectives on the dynamics of the conflicts in this sector. Besides, we conducted semi-structured expert interviews with both closed and open questions that were intended to elicit a variety of replies (Harrell and Bradley, 2009) with logistic actors from different levels; (1) actors pursuing physical activities and physical flows in the logistics layer (abbreviated as “**P**” for Physical Group); (2) actors contracting commercial relationships between parties in the transaction layer (abbreviated as “**O**” for Organizing Group and “**C**” for Commercial Group), and (3) actors dealing with inspection and verification activities in the governance layer (abbreviated as “**A**” for Authorizing Group). In this context, 20 participants voluntarily participated in the study (Table 6).

5.4. Data Collection

With the help of an academician and a logistics service specialist, a pilot interview was conducted prior to the collection of the primary data to confirm the clarity and accuracy of the interview questions. The protocol was then updated to reflect the small adjustments that were required. The interview was structured using a funnel technique, moving from general and open-ended inquiries to more focused and in-depth inquiries (Voss, Tsiriktsis and Frohlich, 2002). In the interview, we mainly focused on types of conflicts, reasons for conflicts, outcomes, preventive actions, conflict levels, resolution approaches, and dynamic capabilities required for handling conflicts.

Data collection was conducted over a 14-month period starting from October 2020 to December 2021 in a period that includes the Covid-19 pandemic process. The interviews lasted between 30 and 82 minutes with an average duration of 45 and all interviews were recorded with permission. Up until a point of information saturation, each of the interviews was completed sequentially. Although some of the interviews did not necessarily add new codes to our coding iterations, they validated the pre-existing theoretical categories (Glaser, Strauss and Strutzel, 1968). In line with the abductive thematic analysis in grounded theory methodology, dynamic coding procedure is followed by explaining the theoretical relationship between emerging categories of concepts through the dynamic position of abduction in the development of middle range theories. Herein, initial review of pre-existing concepts in the literature and theory matching began parallel to the analytical process. In this process, in line with the middle range theorizing concept, we proceeded by examining a general theory, dividing it, and using the parts necessary for the less general theory in order to focus on the area between abstract grand theorizing and theoretical local descriptions which engaging directly with practitioner issues (Green and Schweber, 2008). As a result, the codes established were sufficiently detailed to describe and explain the observed phenomenon.

5.4.1. Critical Incident Technique

Within the interviews, we also employed the “critical incident technique” (CIT) in order to gather "stories about what happened and who did what when - that is events, activities, and choices ordered over time" (Langley, 1999, p. 692). In keeping with

CIT logic, we asked participants to recount the full conflict episode, starting with the earliest indications of conflict and concluding with the belief that it had been resolved. While semi-structured questions obtained the general description of macro events, CIT allowed us to record the specifics of the conflict incident and how it was resolved as they were felt by each respondent in his or her own words (Chell and Pittaway, 1998). Hence, CIT offers a rich source of data by enabling respondents to select the episodes that are most pertinent to them for the phenomenon under investigation (Gremier, 2004). We used CIT to explore behavioural manifestations, particular triggers that led to behaviours, as well as those behaviours' effects and the related management strategies (Gelderman, Semeijn and Verhappen, 2020).

CIT can also help counterbalance biases that may arise during semi-structured interviews. In semi-structured interviews, participants may tend to provide general or idealized responses, while CIT prompts participants to recall specific incidents, focusing on concrete details rather than abstract concepts (Breckenridge, 2016). Within this scope, data on the conflict incident were retroactively collected. Meanwhile, none of the informants had any trouble remembering several minor particulars of the conflict occurrence, confirming the validity of the retrospective approach adopted here.

5.5. Data Analysis

For the data analysis process, 20 of the interviews were transcribed, and a total of 404 individual passages were encoded from 115 pages of transcripts to move systematically from descriptive data to theoretical analysis. Herein, open, axial, and selective coding procedures were employed for analyzing the gathered data based on the methodology suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998) within the context of abductive reasoning. Grounded theory methodology, with its coding techniques of open coding, axial coding, and selective coding, provides a systematic framework for conducting qualitative analysis and generating theories (Bruscaglioni, 2016; Rahmani and Leifels, 2018; Koleva, 2023). In this regard, combining abductive reasoning with Grounded Theory is at the heart of grounded theorizing as it stands as a bridge between data and a combination of existing theories and allows movement between data collection, analysis, and theory (Hughes et al., 2023).

Specifically, in the open coding, we developed summaries for each question in the interview. For the CIT part, we constructed a chronological description of each conflict, describing how it arose, when it happened, and how it was resolved. In this open coding process, related incidents, activities, and interactions were collected to create a conceptual category (Chen, Eweje and Kennedy, 2021). As the conceptual codes grew, we began to organize them into conceptual categories by classifying them under more abstract explanatory terms through axial coding. Herein, interviews were read line by line multiple times and broken down into smaller, discrete ideas or events. Then we created preliminary labels summarizing the data extracted from the interviews. After some categories emerged, relationships between the open codes and axial coding were identified. At a more abstract level, we went through further elaboration and integration at the selective coding stage. In this regard, major themes were identified, and all categories were centered on a core category. In other words, we linked the axial encoding results to the prominent phenomenon. In the meantime, we applied pattern matching by selecting relevant concepts from the literature (Busse, Meinschmidt and Foerstl, 2017). Three academics independently validated the data coding procedure (the steps taken by the coder) and the final product (the maps and tables derived from the interview data) (Yan and Gray, 1994, p. 1487). This approach enabled us to achieve a high level of reliability and dependability in the study. In line with data saturation logic, the process of gathering and analyzing data lasted until the point where no new insights were observed in the data.

Table 7 summarizes the output of the data analysis process including open, axial, and selective theoretical dimensions as well as sample quotations from informants in the analysis. This table presents classifications for each major category in the findings and a few sample subcategories.

Table 6. Sample of the Study

Company	Respondent Profile	Experience	Company Age	Main Logistics Operations	Operating Markets	Employee Number	Duration of the Interview

P1	Air Cargo Manager	12	55	transportation, warehousing services, export facilitation	267 offices in Africa, Asia, Europe, Middle East, North America	5500	68
----	-------------------	----	----	---	---	------	----

Table 6 (Continued). Sample of the Study

P2	Overseas Partner Manager	6	44	transportation, chartering, customs clearance	105 offices in Europe, North America, Russia, Middle East, Central Asia, and the Far East	3500	50
P3	Business Development Support Specialist	5	44	transportation, chartering, customs clearance	105 offices in Europe, North America, Russia, Middle East, Central Asia, and the Far East.	3500	56
P4	Operations and Customer Representative	5	19	transportation, packaging, warehouses service	104 offices Europe, Africa, Antarctica, Asia, North America, South	82	54

					America, Australia		
P5	Business Development Chief	5	37	transportation and project logistics	14 offices Europe and Asia	130	34

Table 6 (Continued). Sample of the Study

O1	Regional Manager	5	53	port service, container and vessel service, air cargo	408 offices in North America, Africa, East Asia, Oceania, Europe, Latin America, Middle East	230	64
O2	Sales Representative	5	70	distribution, warehouse, container and booking services	130 offices in Africa, Asia Pacific, Europe, Latin America, North America, West Central Asia	200	46
O3	Sales Marketing Manager	6	70	distribution, warehouse, container and booking services	130 offices in Africa, Asia Pacific, Europe, Latin America, North America, West Central Asia	200	82
O4	Regional Manager	7	53	international transportatio	524 offices in Africa, Asia	2000	61

				n and haulage, trade services, customs clearance	Pacific, Europe, North and Latin America, West Central Asia		
--	--	--	--	--	---	--	--

Table 6 (Continued). Sample of the Study

O5	Digital Coordinator	20	26	container tracking demurrage tariffs ship scheduling	US, Europe, Middle East, Africa	267	61
C1	Logistics Operations Manager	5	47	beer, soft drink, retail, agriculture sector	70 offices in Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), Europe, Central Asia and the Middle East	10000	50
C2	Foreign Trade Operations Manager	5	24	tobacco sector	70 offices in Africa, Americas, Asia, Europe, Middle East	1000	38
C3	Sales Operations Specialist	5	157	food and beverage sector	189 offices in America, Europe, Asia, Oceania and Africa	275000	46
C4	Import Manager	5	21	snack and nonalcoholic	9 offices in Middle East,	200	32

				beverage bars sector	North Africa, Turkey and Russia		
C5	Import Export Specialist	5	93	consumer goods sector	190 offices in Africa, America, Asia Pacific,	172000	46

Table 6 (Continued). Sample of the Study

					Europe, Middle East		
A1	Customs Consultant	6	28	legislation and legal consultancy services, foreign trade project consultancy services, audit services	7 offices serving Europe	150	50
A2	Customs Consultant	10	35	legislation and legal consultancy services, foreign trade project consultancy services, audit services	7 offices serving Europe	240	30
A3	Customs Consultant	25	26	customs consultancy, training consultancy, logistics	7 offices serving Europe	87	48

A4	Import Export Manager	12	32	interactive customs services, legislative consultancy, free zone consultancy	7 offices serving Europe	100	52
----	-----------------------------	----	----	--	--------------------------------	-----	----

Table 6 (Continued). Sample of the Study

A5	General Manager and Customs Consultant	22	75	quality certification, services, import and processing service, auditing services	7 offices serving Europe	470	60
----	---	----	----	--	--------------------------------	-----	----

Table 7. Some Examples from Coding Process of the Findings

Selective Coding	Axial Coding	Open Coding	Original Codes
Sources of conflicts	Economic conflicts	Payment problems	<i>“Financially, our suppliers' early demand for money creates conflict because it does not comply with our payment schedule. From time to time, shipping companies may have such requests.” (P3)</i>
Level based resolution mechanisms	Latent level	Experience sharing and observation	<i>“We do nothing at this point, we just observe how our employees will behave here. We also share our previous experiences with them. We believe that if we don't intervene, our friends may find a better solution than us. When you direct them, they do not do what they have in mind. Then, we share our opinion if needed.” (A3)</i>

The outcome of conflicts	Constructive outcomes	Improved planning process	<i>“For example, when we send cargo to Madrid with x airlines, we want to have problem-free operations. So we take into account the problems we have with them and ask other companies. We explore many more alternatives and scrutinize much more closely.” (A3)</i>
---------------------------------	-----------------------	---------------------------	---

Table 7 (Continued). Some Examples from Coding Process of the Findings

Conflicts in the resolution process	Intra-organizational context	From operational (documentation issues) to operational conflict (communication congestion)	<i>“There was a case where the customer was wrong, for example, the cold chain was broken as they did not check the documents and did the confirmation wrong. In this process, we were talking with the airlines and the customer simultaneously. This hampered our routine operations that needed to be done. After a while, it suffocated us. We couldn’t concentrate on what we needed to do.” (A3)</i>
Transformation of conflicts	Actor transformation	Power shift among logistics actors	<i>“If you can find containers, you are valuable as a forwarder, and if you can provide services, you are valuable as a ship-owner. The precious have the right to speak. We don’t negotiate like before, we don’t have to make concessions. This power will be on the side where the demand is intense. This happens according to the supply and demand balance in every period.” (P2)</i>
Dynamic capabilities	Coordination capability	Collaborative logistics arrangements	<i>“In the Far East, for example, since the freight rates have increased so much, the customer is trying to turn to partial instead of full truck load. Through collaborating with certain players going to the Far East side, we open a common console and when it reaches a certain volume, we organize the</i>

			<i>cargo for them in the fastest and most cost-effective way, taking into account time and volume based customer requirements. By doing this, we lower the likelihood of late deliveries leading to conflicts.” (P3)</i>
--	--	--	--



CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS

This part of the chapter demonstrates findings related to sources of conflicts, level-based resolution mechanisms, the outcome of conflicts, dynamic capabilities for handling conflicts, conflicts in the resolution process, and the transformation of conflicts (Appendix II).

6.1. Sources of Conflicts

In line with our first research question, the findings showed that there are economic, operational, service, and relationship conflicts within the logistics service networks.

6.1.1. Economic Conflicts

Economic conflict is a channel member's negative feeling toward economic declines, such as decreasing profits (Yu and Pysarchik, 2018). Although this concept is defined as commercial (e.g. Lacity and Willcocks, 2017) or financial (e.g. Beheshtifar and Zare, 2013), we used the expression "economic" as we found that everything with economic value causes conflict between partners in the supply chain. Our findings related to economic conflicts basically include payment and pricing-related issues.

6.1.1.1. Payment Conflicts

In general, payment problems in literature are in the form of supply chain partners receiving incomplete and delayed payments, or not being paid (Ramachandra and Bamidele Rotimi, 2015). Within the context of this chapter, payment problems cover requests for early and advance payment and deposit guarantee payments.

In today's competitive business transactions, business partners are allowed to make partial credit payments to each other. Partners benefit significantly from the ability to defer payments until a later date rather than upon receipt of the goods or services. Thus, partners can delay their payments within the allowed time period. However, it has been noted that some business partners request early payment due to the pandemic and economic crises. According to the findings, both shipping companies and shippers prefer to receive money sooner for the services provided, while logistics

companies want to extend their payment terms. This situation creates conflicts among the two parties (supplier x logistics companies/ shipper x logistics companies) in the logistics network.

“Financially, our suppliers' early demand for money creates conflict because it does not comply with our payment schedule. From time to time, shipping companies may have such requests.” (P3)

In a similar vein, customs firms deposit a certain percentage of the taxes (10%) of the products that come with temporary imports as a guarantee to the ministries. In this context, custom firms make collaterals with banks for imports and use them as guarantors. However, this tax guarantee situation has created financial difficulties for the customs firms due to the Covid-19 pandemic and increased special consumption taxes and led customs firms to conflict with the ministry and the banks.

“Vehicles are towed by temporary importation for exhibition purposes in Turkey. Of course, we have to deposit a certain rate of their taxes as collateral, because if they do not leave the country, they are recorded and income is recorded in the treasury. Since the SCT (special consumption tax) is so high, we have to pay a guarantee of close to one million Turkish lira for vehicles over 4000cc. When the number of vehicles started to increase, we could not pay the 10 percent guarantee and this turned into a conflict between us, the bank, and the ministry.” (A3)

6.1.1.2. Pricing Conflicts

Pricing issues are important for almost all companies due to their impact on their revenues. As different types of organizations use different types of pricing strategies depending on their industry and location of the businesses, pricing-related issues especially within the Covid-19 pandemic process, create a conflictual environment between business partners. As findings demonstrate, pricing-related issues include rapid changes in freight prices (general rate increases), rising fuel prices, increases in spot prices, fluctuations in customs brokerage service fees and unfair pricing strategies.

Freight rates started to continue their upward trend with Covid-19 pandemic. Due to the intense demand in this period, freight rates reached much more profitable levels for shipping companies. While shipping companies normally give monthly or annual freight rates to the logistics companies, they now make changes in these rates every two weeks as they want to take more advantage of higher revenue opportunities which causes serious conflicts between shipping companies and logistics companies.

“Shipping companies are called "trade managers" and they regulate the freight policy according to the supply-demand balance. Normally, freight rates are valid for 3 months or 1 year, but now there can be changes in freight levels every 2 weeks, which creates conflict between us” (O4)

Spot and freight prices are inherently correlated by the designed mechanisms and their fluctuations are inevitably subject to the same comparative power of market demand and supply (Yin, Luo and Fan, 2017). Freight services can be purchased on the spot market, where the market determines the shipping price at the time of transaction, or through long-term freight contracts with fixed pricing and predetermined discounts (Garrido, 2007). Increasing freight prices ended in high spot prices causing great problems to be experienced between shipping companies and shippers/customers.

“Prices started to be given to Europe at 5000-5500 euro spot (by ship owners). Of course, these freight costs also prevent imports. As a result, it is a factor that directly affects the unit price of the goods to be sold to the final consumer.” (A3)

Apart from the increased spot and freight prices, the monthly increase in diesel prices and high inflation cause costs to rise ending in conflict situations between carriers and shipping companies. Herein, as carriers stated, when they work with customers directly, they can negotiate rates and tailor their services to meet specific requirements by eliminating the intermediaries involved in the process. However, when carriers collaborate with ship owners, they frequently sign agreements or contracts to charter vessels for the purpose of delivering shipments. Charter fees may be charged from time to time; these fees vary depending on the vessel size,

availability, and market conditions of the vessel in question. Due to the investment made by ship owners in their ships, maintenance, staff, and associated risks, these fees are often greater than the carrier's operating expenses. In this way, after the price increases, the carriers bring up these issues again to the ship owners and pressure them to bargain on price which leads to financial conflict between them.

“The increase in diesel prices and inflation caused the costs to go up. The biggest discussion we have with carriers is on the basis of cost, and there is a raise every month. As carriers can have a cheaper cost when they go directly to customers, they feel obliged to put this pressure on us.” (O2)

According to the Customs Consultancy Minimum Wage Tariff prepared by the Ministry of Commerce, the customs consultancy service fees related to exports decreased. This situation adversely affected both public and private parties at the customs changing the direction of the competition of customs companies as they all are required to provide a higher quality service for the same price by law.

“In particular, customs consultancy service fees related to exports have hit rock bottom due to competition. The minimum wage declaration published by the Undersecretariat in 2011 led to better quality service at the same price. This situation caused us to come into conflict with public customs because of the lower offerings of the other customs companies.” (A1)

In some cases, business partners come into conflict due to unfair pricing strategies for the same business operations. For example, as stated by shipping companies, some logistics companies give high prices to customers with high-profit margins which creates conflict between shipping companies and logistics companies and causes termination of relations.

“In a social media post of one of the shipping companies, they state that because the forwarder that they currently work with, sells the freight for 13000 that was bought for 3000 before, they will no longer work with these forwarders again. Instead, they will work directly with the customer, which has led to their monopoly.” (A3)

6.1.2. Service Quality Conflicts

Service conflicts arise when disputes over services threaten the quality of the services provided to a customer (Lacity and Willcocks, 2017). Grounding on our findings, service conflicts result from problems based on failures in order condition, timeliness in services, quality/competence of contact personnel, availability (e.g. container, material), and service standards.

6.1.2.1. Order Condition Conflicts

As one of the most critical dimensions of logistics service quality, order condition refers to damage levels of orders during delivery and affects the satisfaction level of the customers (Uvet, 2020). In the findings, order condition-related conflicts are mainly related to loss of products, damaged shipment, nonconformity of items, and inadequate vehicle maintenance as serious matters between the parties involved in the logistics network.

As findings depict, damages occur due to customer-related improper stackings and loading of high tonnages exceeding the capacity. Herein, customer stacking failure damages containers and products and causes conflict between ship owners as owners of the containers, customers and shippers. On the other hand, shippers also have conflicts with their own suppliers over the damage caused by stacking products with excess pallet weight.

“We warn our customers to tie them with ropes when stacking a product in a container, and the customer does this himself. However, in one incident, while the container was on the way, the customer's property was broken on the ship, and the customer had a cost of 20 thousand dollars. Customer-based stacking problems are one of the biggest sources of conflict.” (O3)

“The pallet weight of the milk we use in the products is so high that when the products are placed on top of each other, they inevitably explode. When that milk bursts, mould and flies start suddenly. We told our supplier to use higher quality packaging but rather than that they asked us to load less. This causes

conflict as it increases our logistics costs.” (C4)

The failures in vehicle maintenance will result in a higher level of unplanned asset failures, which in turn may cause inherent losses to the organization such as rework, labor, fines for late delivery, scrap, and losing orders due to unsatisfied customers (Ilangkumaran and Kumanan, 2012). In line with these, as old vehicles are sent to the customer by logistics companies, this causes damage during delivery and slows the process, which creates a conflict between shippers and logistics companies.

“The problems are usually related to the arrival of very old vehicles. Most of the time, we do not accept the vehicles and send them back so that new vehicles can arrive. The reason for this is that the products are not damaged during transportation because old vehicles shake a lot etc. It slows us down when loading or unloading. Newly produced vehicles or trailers save us a lot of time. We often experience these conflicts.” (C1)

Similarly, sometimes products are lost in the warehouses of carriers due to inadequate inventory and coordination management resulting in conflicts between logistics companies and carriers as logistics companies must wait for a while in the operation areas until the products are found.

“We actually clash with carriers and others about certain things like service quality. Goods are lost or damaged in their warehouses.” (P5)

It is critical to provide accuracy and alignment of the physical features of the service with what was promised or expected in terms of service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985). It entails making certain that the service's criteria are met in terms of its specifications, numbers, and other pertinent information. The disparity in the order condition may result from the mismatch between declared capacity and actual shipment content. In this regard, when carriers have made a commitment or promise regarding the capacity needed for transportation, they fail to meet that commitment, this creates conflicts between logistics companies and their carriers.

“Sometimes the capacity of the sub-carriers of the vehicle and the main

content of our cargo do not match, so loading cannot be done.” (P2)

6.1.2.2. Timeliness Conflicts

Cycle time is defined as the time from placing the order to the completion of the delivery and is the most important factor that shows the performance of the delivery system (Gunasekaran, Patel and Tirtiroglu, 2001). Within this context, the time utility provided by the business partners is the most important feature of the logistics service quality and has a great place in customer satisfaction (Uvet, 2020). Based on the findings, timeliness conflicts are related to the delays in warehouse and production, long waiting times at ports, long response times in implementing tariff regimes, and late deliveries.

Delays related to the evacuation of freight from the stored areas can be a problem between customs and carriers. This sometimes ends with the customers of shippers attributing the blame to the customs since they do not have information about the internal transportation process. In this regard, the accusation of the customs due to slowing down the operation process causes conflicts.

“Internal transport companies may experience delays while evacuating the product in the area where it is stored. Since we are the last delivery party, the responsibility falls on us.” (A5)

Delays due to the regular inspections at the customs point is another source of conflict regarding timeliness. After the goods are opened for inspection, it is very difficult and time-consuming to collect them again by carriers. These random inspections cause delays in the queue and also prolong the delivery date to the customers. In this sense, random inspections lead to conflicts between carriers and shippers with different destructive effects for all involved parties.

“Customs do not let you in for the slightest mistake. They immediately open the truck and check it which leads to long waiting times at ports. You know we fill the container very tightly and it is very difficult to collect it again after it is opened. A waste of both time and money. Besides, drivers usually don't want to deal with it when they have these types of problems here. When that

happens, we hinder two or three jobs of drivers. This turns into a conflict as they are always racing against time.” (C1)

6.1.2.3. Contact Personnel Conflicts

As stated by Uvet (2020), service quality was evaluated by customers using three dimensions: physical quality, institutional quality, and interactive quality. The interactive feature, which is seen as an interaction between customers, contact personnel, and other customers, is the basic element of service quality (Lehtinen and Lehtinen, 1991). In this regard, the contact personnel's thorough comprehension of customers, empathy toward the customer's situations, and desire to address their problems during the delivery process facilitate the adoption of customers' expectations and needs by influencing their perception of service quality. In line with this, contact personnel's failure to treat customers properly and rudeness constitute a problem, especially between the carriers and logistics companies.

“We have communication problems related to the lack of training of the drivers, they are rude to the customers, which creates problems between us and them.” (P2)

Additionally, due to the abolition of foreign trade departments, people who are normally hired and trained for other departments deal with the foreign trade issues as key contacts. Deriving from that fact, some major issues arise between customs and shippers due to the lack of competence. Apart from that, the employment of newly graduated university students who do not have the practical experience and any operational training causes difficulties in logistics companies, especially in understanding and complying with the procedures.

“There was a foreign trade department in the past. It had an import and export service. All removed now. In shippers accountants, engineers or secretaries make the job that is a big problem” (A3)

“The personnel working in the forwarders generally have no awareness. The boy or girl who performed the operation graduated 3 years ago, and he/she does not know what BMS is, they trivialize the situation and do not follow our instructions. Conflict is inevitable in this situation.” (O5)

6.1.2.4. Availability Conflicts

In terms of availability, logistics actors experience problems regarding equipment (e.g. planes, containers) availability. Specifically, failure to provide warehouse spaces and equipment to shippers or the inability to respond quickly to their requests related to these issues cause conflicts between shippers and logistics companies.

“Due to the container crisis with forwarders, we had a lot of trouble with the cargoes coming from China. In fact, we experienced the problem of prolonged travel times, not being able to find containers, not being able to respond quickly to changing demands.” (C5)

Lack of capacity is a main barrier to supply chain resilience due to the inability to create extra resources in order to cover periods of scarcity caused by unexpected disturbances (Pereira, 2014). In line with this, the lack of container capacity emerged as an important conflict between shippers and logistics companies as it prevented shippers from performing their duties.

“It was an important project and we needed to be fast and our suppliers had to be fast as well. A conflict arose between the teams as our suppliers could not provide the container capacity we requested.” (C5)

In terms of Covid-19 pandemic-related issues, flight crises, container crises, sudden shifts in market orientation, and ETA non-compliances had been the major sources of uncertainty for business partners. Many planes of logistics service providers (LSPs) were canceled due to the epidemic, the passenger baggage part of the airlines suffered a great loss and the revenues decreased which created a conflictual environment for LSPs and customers.

“The segment that airlines earn the most is passenger baggage rather than cargo baggage. In this sense, many airlines went bankrupt, there were those who withdrew from TR, and giants such as Malaysian Airlines and Lufthansa canceled their cargo planes. In other words, we had a very difficult time

finding planes and we had conflicts.” (A3)

Again, due to the Covid-19 pandemic period, many large shipping companies experienced equipment shortages and could not give reservations to logistics companies. As this creates conflict between these two parties, shipping companies have changed their business strategies during the pandemic, and have become more focused on long-term customers and prioritized their equipment needs.

“Our conflict was over the supply of equipment. It was an ongoing business. The equipment crisis due to the pandemic and the fact that our company followed a certain strategy and tended to long-term business, suddenly stopped supplying equipment to short-term customers, and increased the freight continuously from week to week, month to month, caused the customer to not be able to manage the process and created conflict.” (O2)

6.1.2.5. Service Standards Conflicts

Lack of having service standards or keeping within certain standards are another root cause of service-based conflicts. As carriers do not have certain service standards, they can change the services or the service fees they offered before which brings them into conflict with logistics companies.

“We actually clash with carriers about certain things like service standards. For example, they can suddenly increase the price because the vehicles waited for half an hour more. Since local companies work collaboratively (“imece” in Turkish), there are no service standards.” (C2)

Interestingly, having certain service standards also creates conflicts as it does not allow shipping companies to go out of the agreements when it is deemed. For instance, sometimes shippers want to make high tonnage loads and shipping companies reject these requests from the very beginning to avoid non-compliance with the service standards.

“The problem I have with shippers is about meeting service standards because we are the largest ship owner in the world. Conflicts usually occur

during the day in order to maintain of these service standards. The shipper wants to load at high tonnage levels and I do not accept this.” (O2)

Shipping firms are also affected by warehousing companies' noncompliance with service standards. For example, shipping companies make container grading agreements with warehouses and they demand that loads of shippers of critical sectors like food should always be sent with Class A (high-quality) equipment. However, when Class A equipment is not available, Class B (medium quality) is sent by warehouse companies and the shipper sends it back to shipping companies immediately as it can create costs in case of damage which leads to a triple conflict between warehouse companies, shippers and the shipping companies.

“We say to the warehouse services that we classify our containers as A grade B grade C grade. We call the cleanest and newest containers A and we demand that A-class containers should be sent to companies carrying food or special textile materials. Then the customer says that the incoming containers are damaged. We return to the warehouse and say, “You are giving me grading service. You get paid for this and for the storage service, but look what went to the customer”. The cost is incurred and the customer sends it back. The warehouse says no, so I gave the appropriate container. Customer satisfaction is always at the forefront with us. It doesn't matter what I'm told as long as the customer is not satisfied.” (O5)

By the same token, as stated by the shipping companies, although they are strictly inspected for compliance with the rules of all countries, there are no institutions inspecting logistics companies. Therefore, logistics companies often do not comply with the regulations and act flexibly towards customers by not following the instructions. Accordingly, this non-compliance situation causes an ongoing conflict between these two logistics parties.

“Since there is no institution that oversees forwarders, they have no compliance with the regulations. Personnel working in forwarders do not have such awareness. Then they face very serious penalties and then blame the ship owners.” (O5)

6.1.3. Operational Conflicts

Operational conflicts arise when the operation of various elements of logistics systems conflict such as the flow between the elements, standards, norms, institutions, instruments, format and so on (Ge, Chen and Li, 2010). Based on our findings, operational conflicts are associated with customs related issues, delay related issues, digital issues and documentation related issues.

6.1.3.1. Customs Conflicts

Custom-based operational conflicts consist of wrong customs, wrong container dispatching and unavailability of customs certificates. For instance, in the export process, the products that need to be processed in different customs directorates are brought to the wrong customs by the logistics companies. Due to this action, internal transportation costs arise which causes conflicts with logistics companies and the customs.

“If a product needs to be processed in different customs offices, we inform our customer that a product subject to this customs restriction should arrive at this customs. However, logistics companies bring the products to the customs according to their own minds without paying attention to this. Then conflict starts “Why did this material come here, you will convey it” or “the internal shipping costs will be paid by you.” (A4)

Likewise, due to the complex nature of logistics operations, sometimes the containers are sent with the wrong bookings from the shipping companies and although this situation is noticed and blocked at the customs at the last moment, the loads have to stay at the ports by creating many costs such as storage cost, and cause a serious problem between the shipping companies and the customs.

“We have customers who do cross-loading, and these customers, for instance, distribute the 50 containers they buy as 10 each. These container numbers should also be specified under the bookings. Despite stating this to the customer representative at that time, the containers are in the wrong bookings and the container that was supposed to go to America almost goes

to China. This situation is prevented at the port at the last moment, but as the cargo stayed in the port for 2 weeks, storage costs and problems occurred between our company and the customs” (O3)

Shippers have to submit a declaration form before they bring the load to the port. These documents are directed to tax officers at customs for document and physical controls. The yellow line refers to the document control, while the red line is the physical control at customs. Within this context, if it is detected that declared materials do not match the materials in the containers, some products in the export declaration fall to the red line, and they are subjected to detailed physical inspection at the port. If carriers do not have an authorized customs certificate, the customs undertakes this control as an extra task. This causes a conflict between the carriers and the customs.

“When the export declaration falls on the red line, the products here are inspected at the customs area. If the transport company does not have an authorized customs certificate, they ask us to do it. Although this is their duty, they do not execute it. This is why we have a conflict with them.” (A4)

6.1.3.2. Delay Conflicts

There are also some delay problems stemming from the insufficient capacity of ports (port-ship size mismatch), Covid-19 pandemic-related issues, and non-compliance to the shipment schedules.

Ports sometimes accept shipments above their capacity, but this extends the operation times since the ships are too large which does not allow them to maneuver at the ports and cause difficulties in berthing. This situation triggers conflicts between shipping companies and customs as it may cause shipment delays.

“We are having a lot of problems with the port, they started to take loads beyond their capacity, and of course, their operations are not as fast as before the pandemic. The ships are too big now and our ports are not suitable for them. Therefore, the operation to be carried out in 4 hours is reflected in 8 hours and the operation of the whole port is disrupted and this disruption is

reflected to the customer.” (O5)

In addition to this, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, there were delays in the production of the shippers, and the shipments were delayed after the planned date. This, in turn, caused the logistics companies to reduce their operating times and act faster.

“The Covid-19 pandemic period caused disruptions in production and our work was delayed after the planned date. There were problems with transportation. Our time here has decreased if we have 2-3 days of operation time in a normal operation, it went as -3 -4, so now you have to be much faster.” (A5)

In general, when the shippers (e.g. exporters) do not comply with the shipping plan given to them, the loads are transferred to the next vehicle by the ship owners. This creates conflict between the parties as it may cause delays.

“For example, there are companies that cannot keep up with the ship schedules. There are cut-off periods for a ship, there is a date of entry without a warehouse, where you have to submit your last declaration, there is a cut-off of declaration, and we have scales in our ship programs. Generally, exporters cannot keep up with these schedules and time limitations. Despite our operation team’s efforts, their cargo may be transferred to the next ship which may cause delay and conflict.” (O4)

6.1.3.3. Digital Conflicts

Considering digital issues, companies cope with cyber-attacks, and problems with the digital integration and adoption in forms of digitalization-related systematic problems (e.g. incorrect entries of containers), lack of digital archives, and resistance to digital systems.

For instance, due to cyber-attacks experienced by shipping companies, communication halts occurred and shippers could not follow their shipments. This situation caused parties to come into conflict.

“There was a cyber-attack situation once. For a while, customers could not see load information and this caused conflicts between us and our customers.” (O4)

In a similar vein, since most shipping companies have switched to the digital system, they demand logistics companies to take reservations and track everything online by only giving their username and password. However, when their digital systems fail, the declaration of ships is delayed, which affects both logistics companies and customers. Besides, when there is a problem at customs, customers cannot find an interlocutor and are directed to the system. This complicates the adaptation process to the digital system and creates conflict between customs and the customers.

“Some ship-owners have gone completely digital. They started to follow everything online by entering the booking by just giving the user and password. However, sometimes their systems are crashing. For instance, if it is the last date of the declaration of the ship and we cannot find a customer representative to talk to, the ship is delayed for 1 week. They certainly cannot tolerate a system-related error.” (P3)

“For example, you do not have an interlocutor on the ships. There is only one system. When there is a problem at customs, for example, you redirect the customer to the system instead of someone else and it remains unsolved. This creates conflict with customers and us” (A3)

Furthermore, shipping companies sometimes have trouble in finding their retrospective prices as they do not create a digital archive and cannot compare with the prices they have given to customers in previous years. In this context, different price offerings given to customers create problems between customers and shipping companies.

“Or there could be systemic things, for example, our friends could not find the offers we sent. Everyone would write in a different way. This was causing the loss of coordination with the customer.” (O4)

There are also some digital integration problems such as technological incompatibilities at ports (e.g. EDI integration). Since most customs systems are not integrated with EDI, documents are not exchanged between shipping companies and the customs. Although the shipping companies have integrated systems, they lose time by physically going to the customs firms and performing the necessary procedures for ship departures.

“Also, customs systems are not integrated, we cannot exchange documents with EDI, as in other countries. That's why, even though we enter the necessary information into the system, our friends there go from door to door looking for those documents so that when the ships arrive, they can berth without any interruption. Generally, when you come to the customs, the system does not work, then you take the officer from his home to approve the transactions so that our ship can depart immediately in the morning. Otherwise, the ship will wait. Our job is always trouble, always a problem.”
(O5)

6.1.3.4. Documentation Conflicts

Documentation issues are another type of barrier to operations and a source of conflict for the involved parties in logistics networks. It includes an obligation to obtain an order certificate and incomplete/wrong declarations. Most shipping companies request ordino-delivery orders and queues exist at the agencies due to these types of requested documents. The shipping companies also threaten customs by not visiting ports of customs that do not have this document. This situation causes great problems between the customs and the shipping companies.

“The biggest problem right now is that the ship owners still demand the delivery order, which was removed in 1999. Ship owners use it menacingly. They say that if you do not request this document from the ports, we will not come to your port.” (A3)

Incomplete and wrong declarations are another cause of serious conflict between logistics parties. Shippers sometimes deliberately and sometimes unknowingly make

incomplete or incorrect descriptions of the materials. Since each item in the shipment must be defined in detail in the documents when a problem arises, the products are kept for inspections for long periods of time and this situation prolongs the operation times considerably. Shipping companies also suffer from declaration-related problems of the shippers.

“There are also problems with the customers regarding the definition of the item. It is not only considered a sweatshirt but what is the fibre content in it? If it is 100% cotton, it should be explained to us. We are seldom given a full description of the item. In order to determine the customs tariff statistics position, the specific characteristics of the goods must be shared with us.”
(A4)

Besides, parties also have problems with the billing process. Inaccuracy of the bills due to wrong calculations does not only cause conflict but also hampers the revenue efficiency by causing losses. For example, if the same invoice is sent to the shipping company twice mistakenly by the customer services of the logistics companies, it causes confusion in the accounts of shippers. Cancellation of these incorrectly sent invoices caused conflict as it wasted time for the shipping companies.

“We have a lot of conflicts/disputes with our customers, such as incorrect billing. For example, I gave the total cost to the customer, but then I realized that I wrote something missing in that number. If the customer accepts this figure and loads his cargo, he/she naturally objects to the invoice that I added the missing item later.” (O2)

“We have our own internal system. When you take any action there, the invoice is triggered. After the companies we work with accept the invoice for a shipment, then the second one accidentally goes back, it confuses all of his accounts. It's a huge workload to cancel it.” (O3)

6.1.4. Relational Conflicts

Relational conflicts take place when each party wishes to maintain or maximize the amount of influence that it exerts in the relationship and the social setting

(Beheshtifar and Zare, 2013). As findings indicate, relational conflicts are mainly due to power issues, asymmetric information, unfair treatment, problems in information sharing, and unethical issues.

6.1.4.1. Power Issues

In relation to power issues, imposition of business styles, sanctions, forcing companies to take service or long-term agreements, monopolization, and disintermediation are the main conflict subjects. As an example, high-volume customers sometimes try to impose their own working style on logistics companies. In this conflict situation, logistics companies resign themselves to comply with the requests of customers as they are on the weak side of the power relationship.

“The customer enforces his own working style. When there is conflict between us, I have to try to keep up with it that way. We admit impositions because we provide services.” (P4)

Through the execution of coercive power which is associated with the threat of opportunism (Bouncken et al., 2020), powerful business partners enforce their will on others either through punishment or threats, leading to a loss of autonomy for the weaker parties. As the below informants stated, shipping companies prefer to carry the inland transportation themselves, and if their requests are not accepted by logistics companies, they threaten them not to give booking reservations or impose some sanctions on the shippers.

“There is an increase in ship owners’ demands. If they do not provide the internal transportation service, they do not give you a booking.” (P2)

“We take some labels for shippers to stick on their products and supply them at the port so that there is no confusion in the shipment. We do not work with shippers who do not allow this. We also have a lot of sanctions on them in this regard.” (O5)

In a similar way, shipping companies put pressure on suppliers and force them to make longer-term agreements to protect their profit margins.

“We try to make longer-term agreements and put pressure on the suppliers. Obviously, we are the world's largest ship owner here, the size of our work in terms of volume is a major factor in putting this pressure on companies.”
(O2)

Sometimes market conditions create some monolithic situations for partners to disintermediate the others and sell directly to their customers (Wagner, Jönke and Hadjiconstantino, 2018). This situation causes the relevant partners to compete due to the incentives offered. Thus, the power relations within the networks change. In line with this, when shipping companies receive a freight reservation with detailed customer information from logistics companies, they go directly to market with the main customer and try to eliminate logistics companies. Since the logistics companies serve as an intermediary and make a profit from the structural hole (Wagner, Jönke and Hadjiconstantino, 2018), the partnership is not worthwhile to pursue the shipping companies.

“The biggest conflict is the monopolization of the ship owners. When you give detailed load information to the ship owner, they go directly and market themselves. For example, Maersk Company offers customs clearance to its customers, whose internal transportation is carried out by itself, and says if you transport it with my road transport, I will not charge you a warehouse fee.” (A3)

“In a post on one of the shipping companies they say that because the forwarder is selling it for 13 thousand that he bought for 3000 they will no longer serve them, and they will work directly with the customer from now on, which has led to their monopoly.” (A3)

6.1.4.2. Asymmetric Information

In line with the lenses of agency theory, information asymmetry refers to a situation when one party in the relationship has more or better information than the other. This asymmetry creates an imbalance of power in transactions and causes adverse selection and moral hazard problems (Zu and Kaynak, 2012).

Based on the findings, information asymmetry is one of the other relational problems for logistics parties. For example, in some cases, customers prefer their own contracted inland logistics companies (external party) for the final deliveries. However, these companies sometimes accidentally damage the equipment of shipping companies and keep the incident a secret. When this is the case, the shipping companies blame logistics companies (internal parties) that are not normally responsible for inland shipping. This situation creates conflict with logistics companies and shipping companies. Herein, inland logistics companies concealed their difficulties in delivering the quality demanded by the shipping companies (adverse selection) and their slight efforts to control and improve the process quality (i.e. moral hazard).

“An import shipment arrived, for example, I said to the authorized person that you can pick up your cargo from the port, my responsibility is over because domestic shipping was not my responsibility. But while the container is returning, the truck crashes and the container is badly damaged. It becomes scrapped, but they do not say that “We had an accident, this is how it happened to the container”. He leaves the container in the ship owner’s warehouse. But the ship-owner knows me as his interlocutor and the conflict begins.” (P4)

6.1.4.3. Unfair Treatment

Regarding unfair treatment, customer prioritization in the form of customer segment-volume or time-based privileges appears to be the main relational problem. In this regard, as shipping companies do not accept every load and priorities their customers by segmenting them, this prepares the ground for conflict with logistics companies. For example, due to commercial concerns, shipping companies have provided priority equipment to their large-volume customers.

“For example, we give additional time to some customers whose declarations are overdue in the documentation. But this is a very big problem for us. Let's say we are both customers, the other customer is given additional time, but not me. For example, IKEA, C3, because their volume is very high, we

inevitably provide this to them. We even provide support for freight transport insurance, pre-transport, and final transport, because the freight they give is many times higher than that of a regular forwarder.” (O1)

Apart from this, these priorities can sometimes change on a sectoral basis depending on the tonnage for shipping companies. This is due to the fact that various industries within the shipping sector have unique requirements and different service level agreements and factors to take into account depending on the kind and quantity of products being delivered.

“We have a problem with customer prioritization with forwarders. How do the lines make these choices? Light tonnage loads that will not damage the container may be preferred for us. For this reason, the line may not accept every load. They may say that I will use my preference in white goods.” (O3)

Loyalty and long-term contracts provide stability, revenue assurance, capacity allocation, operational efficiency, value-added services, and the building of a respectable reputation (Jang and Kim, 2012). Accordingly, having long-term contracts/commitments with the shipping lines and being a loyal customers are essential prioritization factors as well for the shipping firms. In a very competitive industry, these elements help logistics actors succeed and expand.

“Nobody expected that the pandemic would cause such an equipment crisis. As the company gives priority to companies with long-term commitments with the information coming from the head office, we disrupted our short-term businesses/customers a lot. This caused conflicts between us and them.” (O2)

“You work hard to ensure loyalty for direct customers, you always want to keep it and you give different incentives. However, you don't work for the loyalty of a forwarder firm. This is a factor that can cause conflict with them.” (O4)

Apart from segmenting customers as long-term/short-term, shipping companies also shifted their business markets to China and the US specifically because of the high profitability. This caused the shipping companies to conflict with the logistics service

providers.

“While the shipping companies carried Turkey's cargo for two thousand dollars during the Covid-19 pandemic period, s/he carried a cargo from China to America for five thousand dollars and said why am I carrying this when there is a more profitable market? Only because the trade between those two countries intensified, problems began to arise between us and the ship owners.” (P3)

6.1.4.4. Unethical Issues

Sometimes given decisions, scenarios, or activity performed by the business partners creates a conflict with a society's moral principles which result in production and financial performance issues (Carter, 2000). For instance, unfair/unethical business practices of carriers put them to question from an ethical standpoint such as fuel theft or some deliberate actions.

Fuel is one of the most important cost items that road carriers include in their freight rates and fuel theft is an important crime in the transport sector (Urciuoli, 2020). Theft of the full truckload vehicle or fuel under the control of the customs companies creates conflict with shippers and customs as customs arrange internal transport with their sub-contracted carriers and take transportation responsibility.

“Once the import process of our company was finished, we were going to ship it from the container port to the factory. We arranged a carrier for domestic shipping. We loaded the goods in the evening and the car was stolen in the morning.” (A1)

As ship owners state, apart from stealing fuel, drivers of some carriers sometimes deliberately puncture the tires of the vehicles and demand additional money from the ship owners which creates a huge conflict between them.

“Drivers can do other things for additional income. They can steal the property. Sometimes they blow the tire of the vehicle and write additional expenses on the vehicle and pocket the tire price. They can steal fuel because the trucks have their fuel outside.” (O1)

6.2. Level-Based Resolution Mechanisms

6.2.1. Latent Conflict

Latent conflict occurs when one or more actors are aware of the issues, but there is no open discussion about it (Hollenbeck, DeRue and Nahrgang, 2015). As findings depict, when incompatibility between partners is perceived lightly or not fully recognized, most of the logistics service actors do not take any significant action. The main reasons limiting the perception of conflicts are the suppression and attention focus mechanisms. In this regard, actors tend to suppress conflicts that are only middle threatening and they only focus on perceived conflicts (Pondy, 1967). The main disadvantage of this avoidance approach is that it ignores the conditions that generate the conflicts (Manolescu and Deaconu, 2008). In line with this, logistics, customs, and shipping companies follow an avoidance (a passive) strategy to prevent any conflict by agreeing to pretty much anything. These parties valued their relationships with the other partners despite any financial costs or losses of other observable resources, as they believe that confrontation might disrupt their relationship harmony (Zhang and Wei, 2017).

In this process, they take action to maintain their business relationships and share their experiences with their employees in case of sensing problematic situations without intervening.

“At this point, the business partnership with the main players in the logistics service field should continue. Actions here are taken to maintain and improve the business relationship.” (P3)

6.2.2. Perceived Conflict

Perceived conflict occurs in which all parties are explicitly aware of its presence. Typical responses of the parties to the conflict at this stage include an "ostrich" approach, such as ignoring the conflict, hoping it will disappear, or proactively addressing and resolving the cause of the conflict (Meijer and De Jong, 2022). In addition to this, as stated by Pondy (1967), these types of conflicts generally result from parties' misunderstandings of each other and can be resolved by improving communication between them. In parallel with this, our findings reveal that logistics

actors show compliance and empathy, look for compliance with group norms (normative conformity), create urgent meetings, and sometimes use warning and threat mechanisms as a last resort. Logistics and customs companies try to approach their customers politely and accommodate them.

“Whenever I see that we can't get along, I try to keep up with the customers. We admit impositions because we provide services to them. We understand the tension from the emails and try to be more polite.” (P4)

“In a scenario where the conflict is understood from the emails, we make some suggestions to the customer representative. We say that you should accept the customer in this way, but we also monitor the process. Thus, we take a closer look at the dialogue between them.” (A4)

On the other hand, customs firms check and reveal if their employees have prejudices against customers when the conflict is perceived. By means of compromising strategies, they try to keep conflict as far away as possible by checking whether parties comply with group norms and behave accordingly.

“If there is a bias, it will be exposed. If there is not, we will see if it fits the universal behavioral patterns. If it doesn't fit, we'll let the parties correct themselves.” (A1)

In line with the compromising strategy, custom companies encourage parties to listen to each other to achieve a reasonable middle ground by promoting mutual understanding and empathy at the stage when conflict begins to be perceived by the parties. Accordingly, shipping lines immediately organize a meeting with their partners to create an environment where parties can listen to each other and explain what everyone expects from each other. In this stage, parties focus on negotiation for making mutually acceptable decisions.

“Let's say you asked me a question and I gave a cocky answer. A slight conflict begins, then it spreads to the phone and the coldness begins. At this stage, we encourage people to listen to each other.” (A1)

“We'll have a meeting right away. I, my manager, the customer service friend, and her manager attend. Everyone tells us what to expect from each other.” (O3)

Interestingly, global companies such as shippers show forceful behaviors to their logistics service suppliers and remind them that if they do not get what they want, they will face serious sanctions through hidden threats and warnings as a part of their dominating strategy. In this way, they neglect the expectations of their partners through their power-based negotiation.

“We ask the suppliers to allocate capacity for us. Of course, they don't give all of them to us, at such a point, we say that if we do not get the capacity, that will affect our demands in the next month. We sometimes make implicit speeches like this.” (C5)

6.2.3. Felt Conflict

Felt conflict appears with the presence of strong feelings such as fear, anger, tension, and anxiety. These feelings are the main elements that distinguish this stage from the perceived conflict. Herein, the negative effects of dysfunctional conflict begin to be encountered (Pondy, 1967).

According to Manolescu and Deaconu (2008), especially in the situations when there is much power involved; when there is the certainty of the real facts, or when the situation is really a win-loss type, dominating strategy is often used. In support of this view, the findings show that especially shippers and final customers, which are the holders of power in our findings, make the top managers involved in the process as a part of this strategy which aggravates conflict by fostering distrust when the conflict reaches the felt stage.

“The response of the other party directly changes after the top managers enter. I used to experience this with customs companies. When we get a negative response and activate their manager, their behavior can change completely.” (C5)

“I gave my private phone to some customers due to workaholic, so sometimes they call me privately. Even when I don't answer the phone, they express this clearly and reach my manager.” (P4)

In some cases, we see that the business is slowed down by parties as an implicit coercive power execution when the conflict is at such a felt level.

“If there is no representative change, one cannot do business with that customer, and this situation progresses in the form of slowing down the business.” (O3)

“In this process, we took measures such as not working with that person or slowing things down.” (C2)

We also revealed that parties impose coercive power by indicating a dominating approach if the conflict is not resolved as they demand. In this context, they resort to threats and bluffs. For example, logistics companies threaten their carriers in repetitive operational conflict situations.

“They spoke softly but carried a big stick. “We're going to sue you,” he said very politely if we couldn't figure it out. We said more than welcome. They bluffed anyway, if we thought that they were so right, we would try for common ground.” (P2)

“The carrier told me that the shipment would be 5 days late. We informed the customer that it would be 10 days late by adding some buffer days. But the shipment was in the hands of the customer after 15 days. I said that “You are always late for 3-5 days. I tolerate this, now the number has increased to 10. If this happens again, everything will be different.”(A3)

As stated by Manolescu and Deaconu (2008), in case of felt conflict, actors cooperate and tend to satisfy the requirements of their partners at the expense of their own interests through an obliging (accommodation) approach to handle the issue, especially when harmony and stability are highly valued ideals. Similarly, all the

parties in our sample change the customer representative when the conflict is felt and they do not leave the customer in contact with the representative they previously worked with. By adopting an accommodation approach, companies are primarily concerned with satisfying their partner's needs or concerns and changing their representatives as a short-term plan to preserve their relationships and maintain harmony with their partners.

“A team change can be requested at counter business partners. Or a change can be requested within ourselves.” (C4)

“I know that I will be replaced because it is the only solution if no action has been taken after passing the previous stage.”(O3)

“If there is a conflict, an employee's superior comes into play. Either by visit or by video conference. If necessary, I change the contact persons.” (O5)

“Certain customers, for example, only call me, and if I have come to the end with them, someone else will replace me. On that day, not me, but my other friend will meet with that person. When the customer is faced with a new face, they can look a little differently and calm down.” (P3)

By working in coordination with customers, some resolutions can be found to overcome the conflicts. As stated by one of our informant customs companies, importing similar products in coordination with their customers may emerge as a temporary alternative solution against the crisis-driven conflict.

“Due to Evergreen, all imported products were left. Production factories were about to stop and could not pass the channel. As an alternative solution, we imported similar products temporarily from Europe by joint decision with the customers.” (A5)

Additionally, in container crisis-related conflicts, customs companies found alternative means and solved the problem with the provision of equipment by using their own business network in line with their collaborative/coordinating orientation.

“The truck was going to be loaded from Hungary, you know that the plates are given daily. But the vehicles did not come. As a solution-oriented company, we tried to find alternative vehicles with our own business network there to solve the problem and diverted the customer's loads to other vehicles.” (A3)

Again, through direct communication with calls and meetings, the shipping companies call their internal and external partners and make an effort to resolve the situation with a coordinating approach.

“We generally have a meeting right away at the felt stage. I, my manager, and a customer service representative of other firms attend.” (O3)

“I had to compress people by making full phone communication. We solved the process by taking serial actions. I even got the mobile number of the operation, and we solved it that way. I also tried to talk to subcontractor companies.” (O1)

When shipping companies are unable to provide equipment to customers, they can refer to those they are in close contact with to solve the conflict. By coordinating with their partners in the business network, shipping companies maintain a good, ongoing relationship with their customers.

“Sometimes, when we cannot take the load of customers, we reject them from the system and we explain after. In order to relieve the situation from tension, the sales department proposes the X Company to the customer, with whom they do business together.” (O1)

Logistics actors also use compromising strategies which generally involve a negotiation, eventually leading to a small gain and a limited loss both from the point of view of the relations and the objectives (Manolescu and Deaconu, 2008). By adopting a compromising approach, shipping companies apply persuasion and negotiation and calm their customers down at the felt stage of conflict to achieve a

win–win solution.

“There is always customer priority. At this point, we calm the customer first. We coordinate by email and phone. By using good language, we convince everyone and meet on a common page. Persuasion and negotiation are very important for us to calm the customer.” (O5)

6.2.4. Manifest Conflict

Manifest conflict is often demonstrated through openly aggressive behavior by the parties like refusing to cooperate with the other group, verbal confrontations, sabotage, and physical attacks (Pondy, 1967). Manifest conflict is acknowledged as the activity dimension of conflict and parties express their disagreements by overt aggression (Habib, 1987).

In line with this, both logistics companies and shippers initiate legal processes for their own concerns, sometimes they receive consultancy from academics for the expert witness, and they collect petitions, or official letters and show evidence for the legal process.

“Naturally, I had to initiate legal proceedings. But I learned that it will take longer than 5-6 years. In addition, lawyers in our country do not have much knowledge in terms of maritime commercial law. We asked academics to provide consultancy for a fee.” (P4)

“In the legal process, e-mails are shown as evidence. Lawyers step in, petitions, official letters are collected, and etc. then the court begins.” (P5)

Shippers and shipping companies terminate the business and contracts with their partners even if the contract has not expired.

“We always put the profits of the customers first, but whenever the customers abuse it, then we can cut the strings. Because we are strong. We are not at a point where customers can compete with our legal departments etc.” (O1)

“Although we have a contract, we completely terminated our employment relationship in the last few months of the year and decided not to work completely.” (C2)

Again, shippers blacklist their suppliers and they do not place them in the tenders again.

“Although we had a contract, we completely terminated our business relationship in the last few months of the year and did not include them in the next tender offer,” (C2)

Some of the shippers do not accept the costs incurred from the operational failures which create conflicts between partners.

“We see unpaid bills. They said that if you do not give us a reservation, we will not issue a payment.” (C5)

6.2.5. Conflict Aftermath

Conflict aftermath is a precursor that acknowledges how the conflict is resolved as indicative of future agreements (Pondy, 1967). For example, if the conflict is resolved satisfactorily on both sides, the basis for more cooperative relations in the future is established and the likelihood of future conflict is reduced. Otherwise, future relationships between the parties may blur or will be adversely affected.

At the conflict aftermath stage, it is seen that conflicts are generally handled with three approaches: distributive, procedural, and interactional as a solution. Distributive actions refer to fairness in the allocation of the outcomes of organizational processes through compensation, benefits, rewards, promotional opportunities, or other resources (Anestaki, 2016). Procedural actions refer to the degree to which business actors believe they have control over the procedures and processes by which value is jointly created and distributed (Wei et al., 2020). It comprises the development of process and procedure specifications, such as traditional arguments for essential policy changes, and mechanisms for monitoring and/or forecasting market circumstances (Jambulingam, Kathuria and Nevin 2009).

Lastly, interactional actions refer to the perceived fairness of manners in which actors are treated during carrying out procedures. The interactional-related recovery strategies include the acceptance of fault, blame, and providing an apology (Lia et al., 2015).

Within the context of interactional efforts, logistics companies send an apology letter from the relevant institutions and present it to the customer through an obliging (accommodation) approach.

“After everything is over we are just trying to calm the client down. We got a letter of apology from the airlines.” (A3)

“I don't like mail language very much. I prefer to call and talk after the conflict. It might get a little softer after you call him/her. If necessary, we send flowers and chocolates.” (O3)

Regarding procedural efforts, custom firms review their suppliers and the contracts they have made, and conduct a retrospective systematic error investigation by holding a meeting with them collaboratively.

“The friends who wrote the declaration made a mistake. In order to find this error, we started a specific study with them and tried to find out where the error originated with systematic research.” (A4)

“We questioned our own supplier. We reviewed our contracts again. We talked about why the necessary precautions were not taken. We have brought up a contract that includes transport-related compensation provisions.” (A1)

As a part of distributive efforts, subcontractor companies offer compensation to the shippers in different forms for the recovery in a way to oblige (accommodate) their requirements.

“..Because when we have an argument with a sub-contractor company, a better, more experienced driver is provided to us with a faster and bigger car to win our hearts.” (C1)

Shipping companies also try to accommodate the needs of their customers as they cause conflicts by paying the conflictual amount and in order to recover this situation they immediately connect with partners and make necessary payments.

“We organized a shipment to France, where the customer paid the freight beforehand, but this load was not taken by the customers of the other party. Then, we have come into conflict with both French customs who want to return the load, and the customer who pays the freight and does not accept any other costs. Finally, our company paid all the expenses necessary for the goods to stay in the port for a while after meeting with the French customs.”
(O5)

“Since the supplier sent the wrong type of product, our sub-contracted carrier who owns the vehicle cannot work because the vehicle has been kept at the customs for 3-4 weeks due to control and issuing compensation to us. Evidence is shown to customs, but not accepted, we are coming to the level of litigation. Finally, our company had to offer to share all costs with the supplier to retain the customer.” (P2)

6.3. Outcome of Conflicts

The outcome of conflict can have constructive or destructive effects depending on how it is managed in organizations (Tjosvold, Hui and Law, 2001; Liu, 2009). Constructive conflict is defined as an evaluative appraisal, in which the effects of a recent effort to manage disagreements and find a compatible solution are evaluated. On the other hand, destructive conflict is caused by strong forces that push the parties toward increasingly hostile behavior, and each party tries to guarantee its own interests, which leads to conflict (Yang et al., 2017). The analysis of the outcomes of conflicts is crucial for organizations as it extends the multidimensional nature of conflict and promotes inter-organizational learning for the parties (Liu, 2009).

6.3.1. Constructive Outcomes

Within the context of findings, constructive outcomes of the conflicts are operational flexibility, improved planning process, systematic developments, and improved

feedback mechanisms, improvements in communication and coordination, and customer retention (loyalty).

Companies may offer operational flexibility to their customers because of the required operational modifications and adjustments due to conflicts. As our informant from a shipping company stated below, with the experienced conflicts customers have the advantage of some custom-based rights, constituting a constructive outcome for the business relationship.

“Normally, the port has a warehouse cost, which I bill to the customer, if the customers enter the customs ahead of schedule. As the customers generally stack their goods in the port, thinking that they should stay at the port instead of in the warehouse, this cost is created. But after the conflicts, we experienced with our customers, we decided to give some of them the right to enter without a warehouse cost when they entered the port 1 day before. Then the customer says -it is good that I worked with this company. Other lines didn't do that. This line gives me that flexibility and I see value here.” (O4)

On the other hand, logistics companies start to improve their planning process by using alternative suppliers against transportation disruptions to prevent potential conflicts. Therefore, they attempt to solve problems before it turns into greater crises.

“For example, when we send cargo to Madrid with x airlines, we want to have problem-free operations. So we take into account the problems we have with them and ask other companies. We explore many more alternatives and scrutinize much more closely.” (A3)

Logistics companies started to diversify their transportation modes to adapt to difficult circumstances such as the Covid-19 pandemic and change their thinking mechanisms by forcing them to reassess their traditional approaches and embrace new strategies.

“Covid-19 pandemic and the conflict it brings was a great example, we started to create transportation mode alternatives again. Indeed, it woke up

our thinking mechanisms and got it working.” (A3)

In this regard, actors update their planning process and strategies based on past conflicts and fulfill the related logistics tasks accordingly.

“When 150 million requests came in, it was necessary to confirm it because of the conflict we have experienced before. Sometimes, I called the head of the purchasing department and confirmed it myself. The action was taken to enable production for products with low stock.” (C3)

“From every mistake, we make a prediction for ourselves in future planning. With a conflict, you understand that it is much more profitable to choose RORO.” (A3)

As stated by Allen and Sarkis (2021), transformation in systems can be achieved by considering feedback mechanisms, and rebalancing a system's positive and negative feedback. With the help of the conflicts, the importance of feedback mechanisms is well understood, especially by the custom companies. In this regard, customs firms have made efforts to improve their archiving systems in line with the negative feedback they have received from their customers. They also have activated warning mechanisms in their web systems after conflicts with their customers regarding late document delivery. Lastly, they start to cope with high levels of uncertainty in business environments and exploit the advantage of changes as opportunities by analyzing the feedback from their business partners in detail and getting the necessary training.

“After all, the world is changing so fast. Ways of doing business are changing very quickly, and expectations also change very quickly. You have to adapt to this change, and even your company's change has to be faster than the change outside. You need to foresee them and take steps accordingly. Therefore, we start evaluating the negative feedback of our partners. Because if there is criticism, there is an improvement. In this regard, we take action immediately, such as receiving training or conducting a survey on this.” (A5)

Additionally, shipping companies introduced other clauses to their business contracts in a systematic way to reduce the possibility of conflict with their partners and mitigate risks against future uncertainties. On the other hand, benchmarking processes in operations which may enhance project efficiency and develop constructive plans for future phases (Purmala and Debora, 2021) is applied by logistics companies as work-process-procedure adoptions/adaptations within the context of constructive effects of conflicts.

“For example, yesterday, our reefer containers had to be checked at the port. It was not included in the agreement we made, would it be checked in the warehouse or in the goods area? We said - check them in the warehouse-. We may add something like this to an agreement to not to have any other conflicts. We improve our clauses in the contracts with experience.” (O5)

“Sometimes our customers say that I want you to do it like this. Even though we had a conflict at the beginning, at one point I thought -after all, why wouldn't I try? Maybe when I keep up with his system, I will realize that I can be more efficient. I can work with other customers under the same working procedure. This can be really helpful. Sometimes I like the design of the form they send and I use it.” (P4)

Similarly, sharing, co-construction of meaning, and constructive conflict are all basic learning activities that establish a shared space for partners to communicate (Flores and Kambey, 2022). Herein, improved communication is realized in the form of increased notification mechanisms as well as face-to-face and interpersonal communication.

Notification among partners is critical in transportation because it allows for good communication, coordination, and information exchange throughout the logistics process, and minimizing disruption which benefits all stakeholders in the process (Ta, Goodchild and Ivanov, 2010). As it is seen from the findings, shipping companies start to activate notifications as an early warning system.

“Our containers were stolen. For this reason, we said that foreign agencies should regularly notify us of the containers that are not picked up after arriving at the port so that we can get involved before it takes that long.” (O5)

With the transformation of e-mail or WhatsApp communication into face-to-face communication, conflicts can be managed better. Within the constructive outcomes, we see a change in the communication style.

“For example, when I took over the contract with a company in 2019, the customer thought that my only job was himself. As soon as they sent an email, they would write and call on WhatsApp. We had conflicts. I spoke face to face and he's my best client right now. I strongly believe that face-to-face meetings can be much more effective than phone calls.” (O2)

Developing interpersonal relationships apart from face-to-face communication has also been one of the constructive outcomes of conflicts for the partners. Logistics companies have especially understood the importance of improving personal communication and approaching problem with soft talk.

“In fact, everything looks at the relations with the customer representatives after a certain point. I have a recent example. Here we had a shipment that couldn't be handled for two weeks at a very busy transit port. I spoke to the customer representative last week. After all the conflicts we went through, he took care of this week's loading schedule. Because of our communication and my kindness, he did everything he could.” (P3)

Additionally, the emerging importance of coordinated teamwork is understood clearly by the companies. In this regard, it is found that effective communication and the creation of a shared learning must be established by all managerial inter-organizational team members.

“We had a big conflict related to the customs process. In the beginning, I had to work in coordination with the destination office and do teamwork. If I'm

selling end to end, I need to ensure that all my stakeholders agree on it. We had to follow the updates in customs. Learning this information cost me 25,000 pounds.” (O2)

Customer retention (loyalty) is another constructive outcome of the conflicts. Together with the conflicts experienced, logistics companies started to place greater strategic importance on customer retention which brought growth and success to organizations (Shillie, 2022). Within this context, service recovery is an important and effective customer retention tool (Bendall-Lyon and Powers, 2001; Ofori-Okyere and Atanga, 2016). Logistics companies take responsive action to “recover” lost or dissatisfied customers and convert them into satisfied customers by providing experienced workers and equipment to shipper companies.

“The problems we experience are usually the arrival of very old vehicles. Most of the time, we do not accept the vehicles and send them back so that new vehicles can arrive. The reason for this is that the products should be damaged during transportation because old vehicles shake a lot. It slows us down when loading or unloading. Newly produced vehicles or trailers save us a lot of time. We often experience these conflicts. When we have an argument with a company, a better, more experienced driver and a faster and bigger car are provided to win our hearts.” (C1)

Effective and efficient resolutions are instrumental in creating customer retention and loyalty for the business actors (Tax, Brown and Chandrashekar, 1998). Besides, effective service recovery can counteract many of the negative outcomes associated with service failure so-called “service recovery paradox” which suggests that excellent service recovery can lead to levels of cumulative satisfaction that are higher than those existing prior to the service failure (Ennew and Schoefer, 2003). In line with this, logistics companies also started to offer cost benefits to new customers based on the conflict experiences for establishing a bond between customers and the company. In this context, constructive effects arise in the context of opportunities that create cost-benefits with new companies. It can be inferred that companies sometimes lack a critical lens within the “operational blindness” and do not re-evaluate their operational processes and are simply maintained and considered

correct solely on the basis of routine and the past.

“This kind of thing happens a lot, especially with foreign customers rather than old customers who have worked for many years. If your new job is a mid-level company that has not yet integrated itself into you, you can turn this into an advantage by producing solutions. Look, this is how I solve it, I cover this cost, etc. If you go with things like that, you can catch the communication.” (P5)

“Situations such as saving 30-40 million dollars’ worth of goods from being garbage and reaching a solution even if the customer has an extra cost, and understanding this with your follow-up, caused us to do business with the customer in much larger lots. Trust and belief in working with a professional team also increased. It turned from a conflict into a very serious benefit.” (O4)

6.3.2. Destructive Outcomes

Destructive outcomes of the conflicts are lost sales and customers, relationship termination, being on the blacklist, compensations, decreased prestige, loss of trust, negative word of mouth, operational disruptions, decreased service quality, entering litigation process, and human resources problems.

As stated by Lindroth, Huong and Bergqvist (2020), supply chain conflicts cause different disruptions in business operations and it brings along loss of profit, loss of competitive advantage, and deterioration of business reputation. Concordantly, the findings state that lost sales and customers as a destructive effect occurs in the forms of loss of partners, loss of income, and partner share for almost all parties in the logistics service network.

“We have never been sued, but we could not get our client's business again. This was the most devastating outcome for us, loss of partner and income.” (P2)

Apart from lost sales of customers, the dissolution of the relationship is another destructive effect for the parties. The outcome of this process is either a total exit from the relationship, where the parties have no intention to continue the relationship in the future, or a partial exit, where, for example, a buyer terminates the relationship with one division of the supplier but continues doing business with another (Habib et al., 2020). In this context, business partners apply four exit strategies, based on their directness and orientation: silent, disguised, negotiated and communicated (Habib et al., 2020).

Considering the total exit, findings demonstrate that shippers apply silent exit strategies without communication.

“Sometimes customers say that if you fix these and these points, they will work with you. Some leave without making a sound.” (A4)

In line with the communicated exit strategy, logistics companies informed their sub-carriers that they had decided to end the relationship and not give another chance to the supplier to restore an unsatisfactory relationship.

“Our conflict was destructive. We have already withdrawn ourselves because of the attitude of the authorized person. We said directly, “We are not working with you, our business partnership is over”. (P4)

Through a negotiated exit strategy, customs companies negotiate how the relationship should end. Herein, both partners (customs companies and the shippers) acknowledged that the disengagement was inevitable and discussed matters with mutual understanding.

“We part ways with reconciliation. Although it is very rare, there are companies that do not understand the importance of customs legislation, we patiently explain. If there is no progress, the cooperation ends automatically. If our partner cannot perceive the professional risks of termination, the business will evolve into this.” (A5)

Within the context of a disguised exit strategy, logistics service suppliers did not directly indicate to their suppliers that their intention to leave the relationship but deliberately created a situation where the relationship became unsustainable. For example, they deliberately create financial conflicts.

“There are times when I deliberately raise conflicts and want to end the relationship. Just today, an Indian agency made a request from me and asked me for 50 dollars more money, while I normally don't care, but their service has not been very good lately- so I said it's unacceptable, we'll cut the connection. We would elicit this tension because we believed we could get the same supply from someone else.” (P3)

Considering the partial exit, partners including shipping companies and logistics companies continue to work with companies without cessation of the entire relationship in certain situations or with certain departments.

“Sometimes, a customer may work with us only when it is necessary. It's like going to different companies in different places for the rest of things. We do not break down with the company one hundred percent, but the company is looking at alternatives.” (O2)

“Sometimes, for example, the customer says that you are very good on the sea route, do not contact me by air cargo again, etc.” (A3)

Reduced brand prestige is another destructive effect of conflicts by risking reputation loss, loss of trust, negative word of mouth (NWOM) in business networks, negative social media effect, and customer complaints. Firstly, reputation loss can freeze out support and goodwill for the partners and significantly erode the ability of the businesses to successfully retain their market (Larkin, 2002). In this regard, shipping and customs companies suffered from social interaction from reputation loss.

“Some leave without making a sound. It causes loss of customers. That's why it's a bad advertisement.” (A4)

“We will carry 6 containers a long distance. This coincided with my leave on Friday. I did not have a laptop, it is forbidden to give a personal phone. When I opened my mail on Monday, the vehicle was not sent and I received a ton of mail about it.” Then we realized that this was not about the operation, it was about the company that we outsourced. It was very destructive and our prestige was affected a lot. 3 years ago, this was a new project. Every job we did had to be good. PR was very important for us, it was necessary to do a flawless job.” (O1)

“Commercial reputation is also very important for companies. Negative marketing on your behalf can lead to losses that you may not be aware of in the future.” (A5)

Additionally, loss of trust as a destructive effect occurs when the action of the other party in the relationship is unreliable and when the other party acts opportunistically if given a chance to do so (Kong, Dirks and Ferrin, 2014). Findings show that trust has negatively impacted business relationships since shipping and logistics organizations don't openly share information with one another and approach one another with bias.

“No matter how bad this news is, the most authorized person should give this news to the customer without wasting time. If available, it should be tried to procure materials from other places. If the supplier tells me the truth, I will find a solution that day. It makes me lie to the customer, too. This brings the conflict to the point where it cannot be resolved. This undermines trust in the company. When you do business, you constantly check.” (O5)

“In the past, after receiving the booking confirmation from the ship-owner, it was always said "Oh". Now when we go to buy the empty container, we can get the answer from them that there is no container even if there is a booking. Or, they often postpone the cargo, they say that we could not take the cargo to this ship, it is left to the next one. Therefore, on the operational side, there is a bit of prejudice against that ship-owner or line.” (P3)

Business-to-business customers who are dissatisfied with services or products may respond by voicing complaints and spreading negative word-of-mouth (WOM) about their experiences destructively (Ferguson and Johnson, 2011). In parallel with this, for shipping companies and shippers, NWOM and complaints may cause them to lose credibility or suffer a tarnished reputation after the conflicts experienced.

“The circle of us all in the sector is very wide, when this conflict spreads from word of mouth, the prestige of the company and its attractiveness in the market also decrease.” (P4)

“Customer complaints are one of the devastating consequences.” (C4)

The speed at which negative WOM diffuses through social media has recently been reaching new levels, and marks a significant new challenge for marketing communications to cope with (Pfeffer, Zorbach and Carley, 2014). In this regard, shippers and logistics companies are affected by NWOM in social media destructively in terms of the firm's reputation and future business.

“Firms can be blocked, they can stop the decision to work. This can lead to financial and reputational damage. We live on social media, especially on LinkedIn, it is a great loss of reputation for us. A forwarder did it, it was a pretty big company. At this point, the CEOs have decided that this forwarder will never be worked with.” (O3)

“If the company is a large company, any manipulation shared on social media can be understood in a very different way, such as fake news such as “this company did like this”. Because this is the biggest problem in the world, since everything happens on social media, companies want to keep their social media very strong.” (C1)

Operational disruptions are defined as unplanned incidents that negatively affect the regular operations of an organization such as transportation interruptions, an unscheduled shutdown of plants, shortage of parts, logistics and supplier failures are

instances of disruptions to firms (Mahmoud et al., 2021). In the findings, sudden changes in business plans and late deliveries are seen as destructive outcomes of conflicts, which negatively affect the shipper's operational efficiency level.

“Most of the time, it caused the production plan to change, and unfortunately, the production plan had to be changed every month because the materials did not arrive on the date we wanted. It affected both production and our customers. So it was devastating.” (C2)

“We also have conflicts with our customers about sudden demand changes, especially about the decrease or increase in demand. A customer can be both a supplier and a customer for us. Conflicts with them cause more delays in shipping products.” (C2)

Compensation is one of the most broadly used countermeasures in practice, focusing on the customer side. Besides, a variety of compensation strategies (dynamic discounts, stock-out compensations, etc.) are applied in order to control customers' reactions at the occurrence of disruptions such as sudden prolongation of loading/unloading times, extended delivery times (Li and He, 2019; Charlampowicz, 2019). In the findings, shipping and logistics companies faced serious cost items in the post-conflict recovery process.

“There may be compensation other than loss of a customer. If you have damaged the cargo, the customer asks you for the price of it. You can lose the customer; the customer can lose their job. Your own trade may be harmed, and if such things happen, it will come back to you again. For example, we work with automotive manufacturers. They inform us that if the load is not received at the place and time they want. You will have to cover certain costs. These are usually monetary penalties.” (P5)

“The other day, for example, a vehicle with a hole in the curtain arrived. If he just put his hand in it, he can buy the beer without breaking the seals. In this way, accident trailers and curtains cut as a result of theft are a waste of money and time for us.” (C1)

“We may have to lower the price because of the conflict.” (C2)

“It may have brought a cost disadvantage to us at some point. In order not to lose the customer, we can take alternative actions in the background, sometimes even at a loss, and proceed in that way. Therefore, if we do not lose the customer, we concede a big goal from cost items.” (C5)

Human resource problems occur as another destructive effect including stressful processes affecting the workforce in the form of increased workload and workforce loss for logistics and customs companies.

“It especially affected the workforce and caused a stressful and troublesome process. Phone calls were particularly intense.” (P5)

“You may lose your good staff. Customs consultancy firms provide their income with the service invoices they issue to the companies they serve. If a big company is lost, you may lose your employees working with you as a result of this.” (A1)

Logistics service quality problems have become one of the most important issues for companies since the 1980s (Werbińska-Wojciechowska, 2011). With the conflict of supply chain partners, it also emerges as a destructive effect especially for shippers.

“You may have to compromise on quality after the conflict process. Conflict interrupts the flow of products and materials, which disrupts supply chains. It may be difficult for us to obtain finished goods or raw materials, which could result in shortages and product replacements that could not be as high-quality as pre-conflict supplies.” (C3)

In findings, shipping companies and their customers do not wish to work with each other anymore after their conflictual relationship. In this regard, they put them “blacklisted” or “banned” classification in their organizational systems. The partners may stay on this list for a long time, or can be removed from the list because of

certain crises such as Covid-19 pandemic and they can be listed as workable.

“The customer was immediately blacklisted by the top manager. He was unable to work even if he wanted to.” (O1)

“It is not possible to lose anything 100 percent in trade. For example, a customer blacklisted us. I called the customer 2-3 times in 1.5 years. He didn't even give me any information, but last week, they created a demand with the effect of the container crisis.” (O2)

Once a conflict has emerged, a wide range of alternative procedures might be employed, ranging from direct bilateral negotiations to third party mediation or arbitration, and ultimately enter into a possibly lengthy litigation process (Tazelaar and Snijders, 2010). Herein, litigation is evaluated as a destructive effect of conflicts as it costs much and it is uncertain as to when a ruling will occur (Bendoly, van Wezel and Bachrach, 2015). Shipping and logistics companies have gone to court and their claims are subjected to trial after critical conflicts.

“Since the extra costs were not accepted by the parties and the necessary payments were not made, we had to go to court.” (O4)

“A penalty fee has arisen due to a situation that occurred in the responsibility area of the company we work with, and we reflect this on the invoice but they do not accept it. We say we will settle accounts in court.” (P4)

6.4. Conflicts in Resolution Process

In addition to the considerable potential for conflicts in business relationships, parties have different preferences for how they should approach and deal with their conflicts. This conflict over how to manage conflict can be particularly debilitating, as it is not conflict itself that affects relationships, but the inability to cope with it directly and constructively (Tjosvold, Hui and Law, 2001). What emerges from the findings reported here is that conflicts cause other types of conflicts due to the interrelationship of conflict elements. For instance, some operational conflicts here triggered other operational, financial, and relational problems throughout the

resolution process. This specific cause-and-effect relationship between conflicts in the resolution process is revealed by the critical incident technique.

6.4.1. Inter-organizational Context

Overbooking and cancellation of these extra reservations by logistics companies cause that the containers cannot be utilized in an efficient way and prospective customers lose their opportunity to get service from shipping companies. Apart from that, this also creates conflict by increasing the workload of the shipping companies as logistics companies cancel their appointments.

“During the Covid-19 pandemic period, our company received 150-200 container reservations one by one during the day from logistics companies. We told our customers that we can't serve them as our capacity is full. This situation brought us into conflict with our customers. Then, the logistics company started to cancel these reservations one by one. We were in conflict with them because it was a big workload for us.”(O1)

Also, late delivery of the shipments by logistics companies causes an increased workforce for the shippers as this delay brings additional cost because it requires shippers to work on the issue on weekends as well.

“Every week we inform the agents and suppliers when and how much order will be collected, and when we want the load. Even if it cannot be collected exactly on the same date, we want it to be collected in the near future and reach the factory on the date we want. This supplier never fit these times. When the vehicle does not come, the customer has to change his plan, which causes a big conflict between us. Additionally, since the goods did not reach us on time, there is an additional expense as it shifts to the weekend, we have to work extra.” (C2)

It is also worth noting that some operational conflicts experienced by the logistics service actors give rise to other operational and financial conflicts occurring at the same time. For instance, non-conformity items, one of the operational conflicts experienced by logistics companies, brought along financial disputes as well as long

waiting times at ports in the resolution process.

“It turns out that the material declared by a tobacco company at the export customs and the material it brings do not match. The main product group is the same, but there is a code difference between yellow tobacco and green tobacco. Bulgarian customs consider this an illegal situation and analyze the products. The product is sensitive because it is tobacco. The biggest disagreement was with our sub-supplier, who is the owner of the vehicle and cannot operate this vehicle for 3-4 weeks because of the inspection and he gives us compensation and says I sent it as tobacco; you could not solve this problem at the Bulgarian customs. At the end of the day, we faced with a waiting fee of 20-30 thousand dollars” (P2)

In the same way, some operational conflicts play a vital role in bringing about other operational and relational conflicts at the same time. For example, on the part of the shipping companies, shipment delays due to the wrong reservations done by them because their customers to move away from the solution process as another relational problem. Besides, this delay stemming from the wrong reservation causes shipping companies to have problems with their agencies abroad, which work with different rules and procedures, causing other operational problems.

“The container numbers should be operated under the bookings. Although our customers stated this to our customer representative at that time, the containers are in the wrong bookings and the loads that should go to America go to China. This situation is blocked at the port at the last moment, but the load stays in the port and other problems occur with the warehouse. The customer was very harsh and did not want a solution or any change. We had problems due to the fact that the customer closed himself and was not open to a solution.” (O3)

“The load was not received by the destination customer at customs. Our customer here says I paid the freight and I do not accept any charges. We had to somehow manage our agency in France and the customers here, and on the one hand, we have to cover the costs. You can do some things if they

are under your control, but it is very difficult to manage an agency abroad as you work according to the different rules and regulations. It is a fact that we also have cultural differences. If it were me, I would take care of it, but you cannot demand such a thing from the French agency.” (O5)

On the customs side, the findings support that the operational freight crisis experienced by all parties in the logistics and transportation sector led customs to shorten the daily operation times, giving rise to communication-information sharing conflicts regarding late deliveries and denial of responsibility after late deliveries.

“There is a global freight crisis; we are the last point of contact as customs. There may be disruptions in the production of companies. Loads may be delayed after the scheduled date. There may be problems with transportation. When this is the case, our operation times are shortened here and we have to be much faster, which causes us to conflict with our partners. Again, while the delayed information is being transmitted, there may be problems in the information flow; we need to confirm the accuracy of the information transmitted here because the responsibility in the operation can be transferred to someone else at this point. Responsibility remains with the last-person approach. Since we are the last party to deliver the load, we have many problems with the responsibility falling on us.” (A5)

In a similar line, information asymmetries and inaccurate flow among shippers and logistics companies alleviate other information asymmetries as a “supply chain”. This flow of communication then grows, creating greater crises for them.

“No matter how bad this news is, the most authorized person should give this news to the customer without wasting time. If available, try to procure materials from elsewhere. If the supplier tells me the truth, I will find a solution that day. It also causes me to lie to the customer and get into other conflicts.” (O5)

The findings confirm that demurrage costs as a part of financial conflicts brought about relational conflicts in the form of mobbing for the logistics companies. Herein,

shippers take action to use their leverage in case of financial losses caused by logistics companies. For example, when they notice that the employees of logistics companies are inexperienced, financial conflict turns into relational conflict in the form of mobbing and is used against the employee.

“When the shipper says I can load on Wednesday or Thursday instead of Monday or Tuesday, I convey this to the carrier, and he says I reserved my vehicle for you and did not receive any other shipment due to this reservation. So the carrier reflects a certain vehicle retention penalty on me. However, when I reflect this cost to the shipper, this turns into conflict. When the shipper realizes that I am not competent, they push me more. At this point, conflict turns into a mobbing case.” (P4)

On the other hand, we can see that lost shipments (operational conflict) by sub-carriers cause a denial of responsibility and attribution of blame as a relational conflict for logistics companies by sub-carriers.

“The company lost the load which was for America, but it didn't show up for 1.5 months. I think the labels were passed incorrectly. After 1.5 months, the load came out in Paris. There was a very vague issue that the airline couldn't explain. Communication was very difficult. We tried to make them accept that they have a responsibility and a problem. They always put the blame on us, implying that we put the labels wrong.” (P5)

Similarly, after the damages caused by the packaging of the shippers during the transportation (service conflict), the shippers unknowingly blamed their logistics service providers which created a relational tension between them. Then, the problem was constantly postponed by the packaging company which made the conflict more unsolvable.

“The pallet weight of the milk used in the products is so high that when the products are placed on top of each other, they inevitably explode. When that milk bursts, mould and flies start suddenly. And it moulds all the products on the right and left. Even if the package is open and not inside, mould suddenly

surrounds the inside of the truck. I'm talking to my supplier about this, and he said it was due to the logistics company. Later, it turned out that the packaging in which the milk was placed was not very strong, and when another product came on the lid part, it flexed and burst.” (C4)

6.4.2. Intra-organizational Context

Due to the fact that conflict is a multi-level phenomenon, the problems the companies experienced as a result of inter-firm conflicts can lead to problems within the firms (Rajala and Tidström, 2021). Associated with this, planning-based operational conflicts that customers experience with government-side parties also result in other planning-based operational conflicts among shippers.

“After the mask orders given to us suddenly changed with the presidential decision, we had a product of more than 50 percent planned and we had a big problem, these products were already on their way and there was no place to put them. The number of production factories in Turkey was increased from two to eight. Extra investment has been made. We had many conflicts about convincing the boss for such an investment and then putting the plans into practice”. (C3)

Considering the operational conflicts, wrong declaration problems of shippers in the documentation process led to many additional communication flows by creating operational congestion and increased workload for logistics companies.

“There was a case where the customer was wrong, for example, the cold chain was broken as they did not check the documents and did the confirmation wrong. In this process, we were talking with the airlines and the customer simultaneously. This hampered our routine operations that needed to be done. After a while, it suffocated us. We couldn't concentrate on what we needed to do.” (A3)

As findings illustrate, conflicts that started with the late delivery of the products (operational conflicts) on the shipper's side caused title-based relational conflicts within the company. Herein, as the late delivery is a serious conflicting issue, the

actions to be taken afterward are expected to be communicated by the manager. Unless a notification is received from the manager, no action is taken and the conflict emerges.

“We were going to carry six containers, it was a long distance and it had a nice return. This coincided with my Friday leave, I did not have my laptop with me and it was forbidden to give a personal phone. When I opened my email on Monday, I saw that the vehicle had not been sent and I received a ton of mail. Great attention is paid to your titles in the work you do here. I am a salesperson, for example, after I make the sale, I notify the operation. Even if I say this so that the intermediary will take the load, the operation does not take me into account because this information is not received by the manager. This causes problems between us.” (O1)

Findings demonstrate that relational conflicts led to other relational conflicts for both shippers and shipping companies. For instance, information asymmetries experienced between shippers and their subcontractors cause the attribution of conflicts for shippers within the context of intra-conflict.

“One of the drivers tore up an important document while on the road, normally it is forbidden, and they have to ask us or send an email. When they ask me about the customer, I say I do not know, but the situation is detected by the cameras. Then it is seen that the driver of the vehicle that comes out of our vehicle and the driver of the vehicle that enters that factory are different. We immediately informed the managers. Then yet another conflict arises over the difficulty of convincing managers. You are raising the problem but they are dealing with much bigger things. They say you are responsible and leave all the responsibility to you.” (C1)

Additionally, inadequate customs expertise in the public sector has also resulted in incorrect transactions and unprofessional behavior on the part of private customs organizations. Here again, it is seen that inter-firm service conflict triggers intra-firm relational conflict by leading to bigger problems.

“We conflicted with the customs on the tariffs-the Itkib tariff schedule. As they don't know the laws and regulations well, they force us to make wrong transactions. Therefore, we are left with some difficulties, frankly. In this difficult process, while we accept this situation and try to keep our customers in the foreground, some of our representatives are acting contrary to the company culture. We terminate our employment contract with them.” (A4)

6.5. Dynamic Capabilities

The ability of a company to adapt to changes in their external environment and integrate, construct, and reassign resources and competitiveness in order to retain performance in a shifting business environment is known as dynamic capability (Ai and Peng, 2021). In dynamic capabilities, companies adjust their operational capability which is characterized as ability to function on a day-to-day basis) in response to environmental changes. Accordingly, in this part of the findings, we demonstrate how companies develop a dynamic capability by integrating multiple operating capabilities which offers opportunities in the conflict resolution process (Tran, Zahra and Hughes, 2019). These capabilities derive from the actions of companies to learn, integrate and coordinate, where necessary, restructure and transform, all aimed at perceiving and capturing new opportunities as markets and technologies evolve (O'Reilly III et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2012; Zhang, Yang and Liu, 2022).

Addressing our second research question, we found that in logistics networks, dynamic capabilities appeared as control capabilities, planning capabilities, coordinating capabilities, learning capabilities, and reconfiguration capabilities.

6.5.1. Coordinating Capabilities

Coordinating ability refers to the ability to organize and distribute tasks, resources, and activities in forms of determining compatibility between team members' expertise, resource allocation of tasks, assigning the right person to the right job, and synchronizing team members' operations (Darawong, 2018). As stated by Soroor, Tarokh and Shemshadi (2009), organizations need to create a certain level of coordination, and supply chain coordination is performed to uncover and resolve conflicts. According to the findings, integration, and coordination capabilities include collaborative logistics agreements, system integrations, multi-agency

teamwork (e.g. backup offices), meeting with business partners, and adoption of the JIT II concept.

The most effective networks will be those that are able to get the mix of information requirements, physical logistics, and collaboration, providing shared benefits to a majority of partner organizations (Power, 2005; Sternberg et al., 2010). In line with this, logistics actors make collaborative logistics arrangements with others as well to organize the loads in the fastest and more cost-effective way by creating a common console with them. Thus, they try to maintain customer satisfaction by avoiding the risk of late delivery which pose a threat to the business actors and might lead to conflict.

“In the Far East, for example, since the freight rates have increased so much, the customer is trying to turn to partial instead of full truckload. Through collaborating with certain players going to the Far East side, we open a common console and when it reaches a certain volume, we organize the cargo for them in the fastest and most cost-effective way, taking into account time and volume-based customer requirements. By doing this, we lower the likelihood of late deliveries leading to conflicts.” (P3)

Supply chain coordination can be achieved through developing information technologies in a way to allow joint decision-making between partners. Herein, the use of the technologies enables the rapid exchange of products and information, allows visibility and accessibility to all supply chain members, and increases flexibility (Kanda and Deshmukh, 2007). Associated with this, in order to support the network structure, logistics actors provide system integration with their partners, and use some software modules and common platforms for a bilateral knowledge transfer. In this way, they keep themselves away from conflicts and problems by providing operational convenience.

“You cannot protect yourself from competition, but you have to take some actions to keep your customers. A good software program, a good integration, that is, a bilateral knowledge transfer is essential. If you integrate with them and take care of them very closely, you will not have a

problem.” (A1)

Logistics actors hold regular meetings with their partners in their network as much as possible and follow them closely in order to increase the transparency of operations and prevent operational mistakes.

“The more we increase transparency, the better we inform companies. It is better for us. We hold regular meetings and receive one-to-one written feedback as a precaution.” (A5)

“I called my logistics service provider in the morning and evening so that we wouldn't have any problems, and I followed all the teams here closely. I set a meeting every morning. At the end of the meeting, we determined the action plans and informed them after each meeting. It's like getting an end-of-day report every day.” (C5)

Partners sometimes create different coordination meetings with their partners in the form of assessment/review and emergency meetings. In this regard, they assess the general situation and to see the points that need to be worked on.

“We held evaluation meetings on how to solve the problem. After the canal was opened, import operations progressed very quickly with the arrival of the ship.” (A5)

“For example, in the UK incident, I held a meeting with the customer services on the other side, the customs team and my team here. What was done wrong was revealed? Everyone offered solutions. We wanted to bring individuals together and manage the process in a coordinated manner. At the slightest problem, correspondence started immediately within that team.” (O2)

Furthermore, actors organize emergency meetings via video, e-mail, phone, face to face within the company in order to produce a quick solution in case of conflict.

“Currently, video calls with technology can be very effective in times of conflict and when we need to meet immediately.” (O3)

“We solved the process by taking serial actions, I got the direct mobile number of the operation and even solved it that way. I also tried to talk to the company that I subcontracted to, but they didn't make me talk. The only channel was phone and chat.” (O1)

Negotiation and convincing are considered essential competencies for success in business relationships (Wang and Liu, 2021). Within the context of coordination capability, logistics actors priorities negotiation and convincing for improving the chances of successful outcomes in various conflicts. With the help of these communication skills, they can acknowledge the conflict, understand the underlying issues well and try to find a common ground which seeks win-win solutions.

“By using good language, we convince everyone and meet on a common page. This is all we can do. Persuasion and negotiation are very important for us to calm the customer. We are trying to meet these criteria.” (O5)

Through integration and collaboration, the impact of disruptions in supply chain operations can be reduced by forming strategic alliances with multiple partners (Blackhurst et al., 2018). In this regard, logistics actors activate their existing backup or supportive agencies in different countries by bringing together partners during the resolution process.

“We inform the agencies about the situation. We are telling them that “this load must go, put pressure on the airlines!” If we consider that the density of a cargo that will leave Frankfurt and the transit time is lower than the shipments we have given before, we say that we can send the cargo through a place like Warsaw. In a similar way, thanks to them, we can haul cargo from Ireland to London and send it by road instead of sending it from Dublin. We can't do this job if we don't have an agency in different countries.” (A3)

In some cases, logistics actors create new representatives/spare offices abroad in

order to forestall possible disruption related conflicts. These backup offices provide different types of assistance in their country of residence, to act, and take responsibility for all types of administrative work in connection with other companies.

“We go to the places where we have problems, establish an agency ourselves, employ management-oriented infrastructure and personnel, and go and do this job ourselves.” (A3)

Lastly, within the context of coordinating capability, JIT II which is an extension of the close working partnership between supplier and customer, is used to allow control of all components and finished goods throughout the process (Lawson, 2001). In line with this, business partners employ their own personnel in the places they serve in accordance with JIT II for the purpose of quick collaboration and fast information flow in the process.

“We, as X Company, have our own staff working in all the places we serve. In this sense, rapid coordination is achieved” (O4)

6.5.2. Control Capabilities

Constantly controlling by tracking and tracing every operation enables the possibility to know all the processes, and take proper action to guarantee the supply chain stability in case of unforeseen disruptions and related conflicts (De La Cruz, Veeke and Lodewijks, 2006; Goel et al., 2011) which is acknowledged as the second most important disruption (Bugert and Lasch, 2018). In the findings, control capabilities include keeping performance records, conducting surveys, informative warnings, strict follow-ups of rules and procedures, adoption of JIT philosophy and regulation-based policies (e.g. shipping interest, booking cancellation fee, contract based adjustments).

Within the context of keeping performance records, logistics actors create tables that summarize the performance of both their customers. For instance, if the parties did not get the numbers they specified for the booking reservation, they recorded it in the tables. In a similar line, when actors detect a mistake in the process, they follow the

specific partners closely to avoid any problems.

“For example, some weeks we give the customer a reservation for 50 containers, but we get 38. We keep charts that summarize the weekly performance of our customers then we compare the figures given in the agreement and in reality which show their performance. When it drops below 80-85 percent, we warn the customers so that there is no problem between us.” (O2)

“As soon as we realized the mistakes were recurring, we started to observe more carefully and keep records. As a precaution, we started to follow up on shipping for this specific agency.” (C2)

In a very similar line, actors in logistics networks also keep the performance records within the firms such as the time that customer representatives are busy on the phone, and the number of emails they handle in the process of dealing with customers as a precaution.

“Some criteria are followed constantly: who and which agent has been on the phone for how long, how many calls they received, how many of them were answered in how many seconds, how long did they solve the problem, how many orders were missed.” (O3)

In addition, actors conduct a customer survey followed closely by the headquarters regularly and each time they add other criteria to this survey in order to prevent various conflicts. With the help of these surveys, actors gather feedback and assess customer satisfaction by understanding the needs and preferences of their customers, identify areas for improvement, and ensure that their services align with customer expectations.

“The other thing we care about is positive or negative feedback. We don't want problems to be ignored. In order to receive feedback, we also make surveys twice a year. Every year we ask them to rate us by adding other criteria.” (A5)

“We have a survey that we send to the customer every quarter. But this is not a survey sent just for the sake of conversation, it is a survey followed by the head office from Denmark. When the client fills it out, it goes to my manager. It's really important.” (O3)

Information flow in supply chain links is one of the most critical drivers in preventing disruptions in operation and related conflicts (Kaur and Singh, 2022). In this regard, the findings show that actors make informative warnings presenting the actions that can be taken in the face of operational problems on their websites and digital platforms.

“In our digital field, for example, the errors received on our website are shown as an example to our customers. In this way, customers learn up-to-date which path they need to follow in the face of systematic errors.” (O1)

In a similar vein, logistics companies follow foreign news and regulations very frequently in order to be updated about changes that may affect their operations. This includes staying up to date on transportation, trade, customs, import/export rules, safety standards, and other important variables. In this regard, they anticipate potential conflicts and revise their business plan accordingly.

“Now I have started to follow the news very often. If there is a shortage of export trucks, I also offer rail transportation as an offer, and I say to them that if you do not want to experience delays, it is expensive, but this is also available.” (P4)

“We make a very strict business plan in terms of logistics. We are there about 15-20 minutes before the work starts. We say let's exchange ideas with our previous shift about the flow of work. The second is a very strict follow-up, after giving the job to the person concerned, you need to check immediately afterward to see if he has done it. People can be distracted, busy/ tired/ old. That's why we are constantly following the business plan and conducting follow-ups.” (C1)

“It is necessary to go in coordination to work with closer contact and monitor more closely with a weekly or daily follow-up.” (C4)

Regulation-based policies are the process of imposing constraints on behavior in the pursuit of goals (Mitnick, 1980). Offering preempt regulations in order to reduce risks appears as a major driver toward supply chain management and other initiatives, which push firms to be more efficient (Haufler, 2001). In connection with this, business parties make other partners comply with certain practices as part of their control capabilities. Some of these practices include certification requirements, employing standard operating procedures, introducing shipping insurance and booking cancellation fees, and some contract-based obligations. For instance, some logistics actors work with agencies with certain certificates for customers to ensure a smooth delivery. One of these certificates is the International Air Transport Association (IATA) Certificate which provides operational safety and ensures that products, processes, or services are compliant with international regulations, standards, and best practices (Aditya et al., 2019).

“There are 56 companies in Izmir that have IATA certificates like us. As an exporter, you cannot directly contact us as a customer without an agency with an IATA certificate. That's why we take action to make a difference and prevent these conflicts.” (A3)

Besides, actors apply a procedure that ensures all the cargo for the least loss and damage, and they do not work with any supplier even if they give low prices without carrier insurance. By this means, shipping insurance which provides protection for the goods carried (Uyar and Uyar, 2012), secures their customers against any lost, stolen, or damaged shipments.

“We have introduced an insurance called “shipping interest” and now we insure almost all of the shipments. We do not work with any supplier without carrier insurance. We do not work even if the price is low.” (A3)

Apart from certain rules, actors also take contract-based measures. For instance,

logistics companies make exit-guaranteed agreements for protecting their customers and themselves and not having any problems with the shipping companies against unexpected reservation cancellations of the customers.

“We have special contracts to protect the customer and ourselves. Let's say there are 5 lines and ship owners. We are negotiating with them and in this process, we tell the ship owners (using our own brand or volume power) that "if you can provide us with these prices, we can give you this much TEU per month", but as a precaution, we still make contracts with exit guarantees.”
(P3)

Designing long-term contracts is another way of managing risks (Button, 2016). In some cases, they serve the purpose of cost savings (Bloomfield and Ahern, 2011). In similar lines, logistics actors make long-term agreements with other business partners in order to avoid financial conflicts and protect their profit margins against possible problems.

“If we do not want a price hike in a period, we can put our long-term contract on the table and ask for it to be continued. We also increase our profit margin, and frankly, we put a little more pressure on the companies due to our business volume by making longer contracts as a precaution.”
(O2)

In some cases, logistics actors get additional reservation time slots days before the actual execution of the service but sometimes fail to show up at the scheduled appointment. Such no-shows decrease the effectiveness of the appointment system (Wasesa et al., 2021). In line with this, logistics companies create extra booking reservations from shipping companies due to the problem of not being able to find equipment. They can then cancel them depending on the demand status of the customers. As a deterrent, shipping companies create a “Booking Cancellation Fee” (BCF) as a precaution against fake bookings and reservation cancellations in order not to victimize other customers, control the process and avoid conflict with logistics companies.

“We created an expense both in order to dominate the forwarder market and as a deterrent against reservation cancellations and fake reservations. Previously, there would have been BCF charges for the 2nd cancellation. Now they pay the BCF cost if they don't report it within 24 hours of the first cancellation” (O1)

Professionalism is related to the availability of standard operating procedures to follow in supply chains (Pujawan, Kurniati and Wessiani, 2009). Within the context of proactive controlling actions, actors follow procedures that predetermine their standards. In this regard, by creating Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) with various compensation clauses, they prevent problems and related conflicts by foreseeing them.

“The actions we take are called SOP (Standard Operational Procedure). If you set your standards correctly (especially on the agency side), the problems will be prevented long beforehand. We make contracts, we get them signed. We introduce various compensation clauses. It is very difficult to foresee the problem, but it is quite possible to take action.” (P2)

Within the systematic process development, according to the situation of the conflict, operational efficiency is achieved by the actors through flow/Gantt charts showing who is involved in the problem at what stage during the conflictual processes.

“We started holding meetings 7-8 months ago. We determined the Gantt chart of the project, it was such a teaching. I can say that everyone has taken their share from here and made a profit.” (C5)

“We drew a flowchart. We told our customer what should happen at which stage. We created the job tracking codes of these files related to each flowchart. In these job tracking codes, the customer of the file can track the location of the file at any time via a link provided by our company. Our customer was also relieved.” (A5)

Actors also develop a strict follow-up plan for audits frequently in order to proactively identify and address conflicts, minimizing their effects and optimizing

the overall logistics operations.

“Apart from that, we systematically follow the template created for internal audits, actually auditing and partially directing both ourselves and the parties we work with. Thus we try to minimize conflicts.” (C2)

6.5.3. Planning Capabilities

Operational planning identifies risks to business performance by designing specific rules and enabling proactive decisions, such as changing routes or transportation means (Giannakis, Spanaki and Dubey, 2019). Within this context, companies make some operational plans related to multi-modal transportation systems, resource planning, workflow scheduling and buffer lead time planning, as well as spot booking and split deliveries. Apart from these, planning capabilities include sector-based segmentation, extended service offerings/supply base. Lastly, organizational reconfiguration, dynamic planning, equipment maintenance, pre-control processes and knowledge management to prevent conflicts are among the some practices adopted by logistics actors as a part of planning capabilities.

Within the scope of multi-modal transportation planning, logistics actors establish a road and rail connection that will provide fast delivery for their customers and prevent shipment delay-related conflicts.

“Train connections are very strong in the USA, and it makes a lot of sense for the customers when I proactively offer the option of making the entrance of the counters from New York and sending them directly to the city of Seattle by train. Of course, it is expensive in terms of price, but if it is a product that will go into production, this option puts the customer at ease.” (P4)

By redrawing industry segmentation and overwhelming customer expectations, companies proactively analyses and satisfy the latent and unarticulated needs of customers (Filiari, 2015). With respect to this, actors reexamine the ways in which consumers were categorized and they place priority on their sectors. With their proactive approaches, they aim to establish different customer communication with their long-term or cost-oriented customers in various sectors.

“The point that we have focused on the most lately is segmenting the customers as proaction. There are some groups here, FMCG or automotive electricity. We segment according to sectors, the aim is to establish different customer communication with longer-term customers. There is the cement industry, for example, the cost of goods is low, the freight is low, and our business style does not work with a freight focus. We call companies with high price sensitivity as “super saver” and direct them directly to the related departments.” (O2)

Along similar lines, companies apply methods such as spot booking and split delivery as a precaution against equipment shortage and late delivery risks. Against the risk of not being able to provide equipment, actors have introduced a type of loading called spot booking. Although the freight paid for this type of shipment is higher than the freight paid in normal times for the same load, this option allows customers to take proactive action.

“Regarding the lack of equipment, we started to get spot booking as a solution. The pricing of the shipment is the same as for airway and seaway, and it is different for each ship, for example. We do this in order not to make the customer suffer.” (O3)

In international transportation, shipments can be split into two or more deliveries. It refers to carrying a single cargo by more than one ship or in other words splitting a cargo among two or more ships (Chan, Shekhar and Tiwari, 2014). In this direction, companies transport goods by road to certain quieter regions in the first stage and after waiting for a few days there, they send the shipment through this country instead of sending it directly to ensure quick delivery.

“For example, when the shipment is from Germany, we can divide that load and send it by road to Warsaw, which is a quieter region, wait for a day and fly it directly from here. In the past, frankly, we didn't get into these much, we were flying directly from Germany.” (A3)

In workflow planning, logistics service players create workflow charts to develop best practices and measures for proactive process analysis. They hold regular evaluation meetings regarding the methods and periods in which they carry out the operation, discuss the problems they encounter and the areas they can improve.

“We create a flow chart and measure them constantly. We go over each of these with regular review meetings on how and for what time we carry out the operation. Again, after talking about the operation that took place there, we discuss the problems we encountered and the areas we can improve, both on our side, on the company's side, and on other suppliers, and we take on duties and responsibilities over them.” (A5)

Similarly, logistics actors take action by considering service and production processes in their operational plans as a precaution. They provide extended service offerings to their customers, and in addition to services they provide before the start of the operation, they also offer to carry out inland shipping service under their own responsibility and to take care of their customers in case of any problem. For instance, if logistics companies do not carry out the transportation themselves, the conflict will be carried to an advanced level as they will lose more time by contacting the shipper's carrier and it will be difficult for them to control the process.

“I warn the companies from the beginning that they carry internal shipping under my responsibility. So I can solve my problem with my direct subcarrier and we can collect the penalty costs that will arise from the insurance, after all.” (P4)

Quality and reliability in services cannot be provided without properly functioning technical diagnostics which prevent the failures and limiting condition of the vehicles (Furch, 2014). In our study, companies have developed their maintenance control processes as a precaution within the scope of operation planning. For instance, logistics companies regularly renew their vehicles in order to have seamless transport operations.

“We regularly renew the vehicles so that the supply chain does not stop.”

(P4)

Preliminary or feedforward control is the most desirable type of management as its purpose is to detect deviation as well as to take corrective action in a timely manner (Smit et al., 2011). In this direction, customs firms carry out in-depth preliminary control of bill of lading drafts to manage the possible risks. Within this context, they check all the necessary documents or certificates before the operation begins. On the other hand, actors provide manual controls one month in advance in order to prevent possible systematic errors and try to take extra stock immediately if they detect a problem. Likewise, they provide internal and external controls of the vehicles to which they load the shipments and report them to their superiors before transportation.

“We make preliminary checks to prevent errors that may follow each other. For example, we check the bill of lading draft. There are so many things here, from the driver's visa to transit pass license to the shipping document that you need to look at.” (A3)

“Someone may have defined the process incorrectly in the system, or the system may not have taken into account the defined one and gave a number close to that amount. You check manually from the front so that the problem does not happen, you try to take extra stock. So you start checking 1 month in advance.” (C3)

Actors set safety lead times to buffer lead time uncertainties and notify their customers accordingly. In this regard, partners add extra time to the "standard lead time" to take into account any delays, variability, or unanticipated events in the supply chain which may give rise to conflict between partners.

“I notify the customers before I perform the shipment process. Normally, it takes 20 days, but I say it can take 45 to 50 days. I state that the costs arising from the delays will be reflected on your side.” (P4)

“As a precaution, we say something like this, our average transit time is 45

days, but this estimated time can increase to 60 due to the density experienced at the transfer ports.” (O4)

Within the context of resource planning, actors in the logistics network make extra investments for their facilities and increase the number of production factories as a precaution to prevent stock out and delay situations which engender a conflictual environment for the patterns.

“The number of production factories in Turkey has been increased from 2 to 8. Extra investment has been made. Besides, the customer order was tried to be taken into stock not 2 days in advance, but 10 days in advance.” (C3)

Human resource planning helps to offset uncertainties and complexities and ensure accessibility for the organizations (Tende and Alagah, 2017). In congruence with this, as a part of resource planning, parties developed human resource planning through the use of different shift patterns or working hours to ensure the accessibility of suitably qualified manpower in the precise numerical strength needed by them.

“Also, inaccessibility is a huge problem. For this reason, we have switched to the shift system for 5 years and every week someone is on duty. Let's say the customer's container could not enter the port on the specified day, for these situations we have become more accessible with the shift system.” (O3)

As a part of human resource planning, deploying well-trained and experienced people leads the operation process to success. Thus, firms try to employ experienced people, especially in the related departments due to their experience and ability to manage the business in order to prevent conflicts.

“In order to prevent conflicts, we have formed our team from people who have experience and business management capabilities in the recruitment process.” (C1)

“When you look at job postings, there are always postings for experienced people under the age of 35, but we only take those over the age of 35. They

are so experienced that they predict in which tunnel the vehicle will be stuck in and give suggestions accordingly. We are trying to employ experienced people as a precaution. We try to support them with programs". (C2)

As a part of efficient knowledge management, parties in the logistics networks introduce detailed plans for future contingencies by generating better information flow. For instance, in order to prevent the equipment crisis, shipping companies inform the logistics companies on a weekly basis while making their initial offers.

"For example, in order to prevent the equipment crisis, we inform the forwarders on a weekly basis while making offers from the beginning, that we can give you this many container reservations this week so that you plan yourself accordingly." (O4)

Again, within the concept of knowledge management, actors receive net order estimates from their customers instead of the usual and rounded estimates in a way that allows for the establishment of mutual expectations in the planning process.

"We gave 2-week plans to forwarders. We wanted them to plan themselves accordingly. If I continue the old tradition and say that this load will come out in 10 days and send it, it is very clear that they will not be able to load it." (C4)

"We receive forecasts from our customers. They used to give very general answers, but now they understand the seriousness of the job so well that they used to say 35-40, now they learned to say 32 precisely." (O4)

Under the concept of dynamic capabilities, reconfiguration of organizational capabilities and structures is of capital importance to have competitive advantage (Schymanietz, Jonas and Möslein, 2022). In relation to organizational reconfiguration, logistics players adopted a central working system of several departments subordinate to a single department throughout the conflict process. Besides, they have ceased to be in direct contact with the customer in every transaction and have created many other departments (for example, risk and

insurance departments) in order to keep away from possible problems.

“Since we work with independent departments, we started to work by being directed through a single department during this period. This brought us to a serious coordination point. A department has come to tell us which customers we need to work with on a daily basis. He took responsibility for the extra.”
(O2)

“We have created other departments here, risk and insurance, for example, we have delivered this job to professionals, we have created a claim department. We have a team of 5 people in Istanbul that looks after files such as lost and damaged. These departments were added later. We have achieved such coordination.” (A3)

According to Hughes and Hughes (2020), different uncertainties may necessitate the development of dynamic planning capabilities to resist turbulence and to reduce uncertainties. Dynamic planning allows for better flexibility as a result of contingency plans, faster collaboration and communication, greater awareness as a result of environmental scanning for changes, and less internal conflict (Arend et al., 2017). As a part of dynamic strategic planning, logistics actors activated their alternative plans in a way that avoids potential conflicts by taking into account possible changes in the sector. They also introduce dynamic contracting mechanisms for their partners to plan their activities in a cost optimal way and offer by converting their short-term contract to a long-term one.

“For example, we have a certain departure point, especially on the airline side, we have received a reservation by air, that the cargo is about to fly, but according to the information received from abroad, it seems as if the flight will be cancelled. If it is an emergency material, we coordinate and check which airline is available at the point of departure, anticipate the risk and inform the customer in advance, and offer this option. The customer is happy even if he pays a large amount.” (P3)

“We dynamically think about and implement what should be implemented

regarding the possible effects of legislative changes on us. In this way, the operation becomes much more seamless.” (A5)

6.5.4. Learning Capability

Conflict learning capabilities represent a firm’s ability to develop processes of learning about channel members through channel conflicts (Ishii, 2020). Through this, companies assimilate knowledge about their partner’s needs and deal with conflicts through past experience. This enables companies to implement effective conflict management systems and to enhance the effects of conflict management systems on destructive behaviors. The findings of this thesis demonstrated that partners in the logistics service network have learning capability by practicing some human resource management training within the company (e.g. terminology training, training on customer relationship management (CRM), personality development training, training on customs/business, mentoring training, counselling, international trade and cross cultural training) and experience-based learning (e.g. retrospective and case based-learning).

Within the context of human resource management practices, the purpose of terminology training includes the improvement of internal communication within the company. In this sense, it is expressed as making a concept analysis to explain the differences between terms that apply not only to customers but also to employees. In this way, all employees understand the value of shared terms (Uusitalo, 2020). Herein, logistics companies and shippers organize in-company training on the terminologies they frequently use in their operational process to prevent conflicts from happening again.

“Most companies like ours constantly train their own employees for conflict situations. These are training on terms related to the job.” (P5)

“After these conflicts, a concept called "supply chain school" emerged, similar to ISO training consisting of 15 parties. Everyone in the supply chain went there in 2-3 groups.” (C3)

In our findings, considering the conflict processes experienced, many partners in the

logistics service network have taken actions within the scope of CRM training. In this regard, partners receive communication, sales, and conflict management training within the scope of CRM. Under the scope of communication training, customs, shipping and logistics companies provide effective communication training to their employees on ways of communicating with customers. Besides this training is conducted to help them choose the right words and tone during conflict, so that employees do not see disagreements about tasks and processes as a personal attack.

“At this point, we give regular training to our friends, mainly on communication, for example, how companies will be greeted, how to respond when feedback is received, how improvement works will be carried out.” (A5)

As companies experience disruptions caused by the Covid-19 pandemic, they have shifted their sales functions toward technological resources to streamline natural processes and operations (Badrinarayanan, Madhavaram and Manis, 2022). In this regard, sales and negotiation training are also conducted by logistics companies in a way to improve technology-enabled sales capability within the context of CRM.

“Conflicts have also been resolved with the initiative of the employees themselves, but apart from this, we received negotiation and sales training in order not to have any problems since an online system was introduced.” (P3)

If organizations are to realize high-performing work teams, they must understand the factors that influence the way their employees handle conflict and base their strategic planning, job description, hiring, selection and training decisions on this understanding of the factors that influence individuals' conflict management strategies (Goel, 2012). In line with this, both customs, shipping companies, and shippers organize personality development training for their employees to minimize negative emotions during the conflict management process in the forms of degree-based, personality-based and stress management-based training.

“If someone is to be hired as this manager, there are many criteria to be considered, whether this person can engage with the personnel or agree with the subordinates, etc. For example, he should not be impulsive. After being

accepted to the directorate, they go through a training course. How a manager should behave, how to manage the process, what to do with his team members, how to behave in case of any conflict.” (O3)

To operate successfully in overseas markets, logistics and shipping companies organise international business training to develop the individual-level international business skills of their employees. These training programs are mainly related to international trade and cross-cultural business practices which may help employees while working with different countries.

“In general, there is training on legislation in customs. Importers and exporters who work with us should have this training. This is where we experience the most conflict. You are in a university and you are obliged to teach your knowledge, but since I am a private company, I am not obliged. This is the duty of public institutions, but they also provide this training for a fee.” (A3)

“The America line is the most important line, we provide training on the ways of doing business there, the regulations there, and the issues that need to be discussed with the customer who sells in America.” (O5)

Companies improve learning capabilities by fostering mentoring relationships and creating informal learning opportunities (Ellinger and Bostrom, 1999). The purpose of mentoring is to learn from the experiences of others and takes the form of hands-on, just-in-time and experiential learning as a way of providing training (Sarri, 2011). In order to effectively handle conflictual issues, firms may adopt traditional mentoring programs to train and educate their employees (Chen, Stewart and Panuwatwanich, 2013). In similar lines, shipping and logistics companies support mentoring programs as a way of learning so that conflicts do not happen again.

“Performance interviews are held twice a year. We are meeting with our manager. Other than normal goals, there are personal goals. It focuses on character and development aspects. For example, if he says that he has trouble paying when asking for money from the customer, in order to give the

manager a certain commercial perspective or to have a good command of the operational process. A coaching training is taken and this situation is monitored and followed.” (P3)

“We have an extremely high level of mentoring at the company. A meeting is held about how we feel at that moment.” (O2)

As stated by Trim and Lee (2019), the concept of counselling needs to be embedded in the organizational learning model and this process can be supported with educational programs to have a more practical approach. Within this context, logistics and shipping companies practise counselling in two forms: psychological and academic counselling. Herein, while logistics companies receive academic counselling to increase the performance of the firm, shipping companies receive psychological counselling to increase the performance of their employees.

“Generally, at the end of 25-26 years, we start to receive training from outside universities.” (O2)

“There is a survey conducted regularly and validated by many companies in the world under the name of Gallup, which is sent to us every year. The company measures the loyalty of each employee to the company and their relationship with other people. Accordingly, we can receive psychological counselling.” (O2)

As a part of experience-based learning, business partners employ retrospective and case-based learning after the conflicts. Considering retrospective learning, as it is stated by Liu (2009), conflict analysis promotes inter-organizational learning for companies. In this regard, through conflict analysis and recording, customs and shippers consider all conflict process stages to improve their learning capabilities and monitor specific data to identify the root causes of the conflicts.

“As soon as we realized the mistake had recurred, we started to observe more carefully and keep records. We started to follow up for this agency in terms of loading. Then we told the agency how it affected us.” (C2)

Additionally, learning may arise from the direct experiences of relationship managers, from the experiences of others, or from challenging lessons in relationship memory (Jarrat, 2004). Through case-based learning, similarities with the current situation are identified (e.g. regarding root causes) and successful past decisions are utilized. In this way, the optimal decision is selected with all the stored information, considering similar situations in the future (Baryannis et al., 2019). In this context, custom firms and logistics companies achieve predictive capability through their learning capability from the past.

“Our director creates a case and tells it through bad examples, it's like a lesson, something like this happened in the relevant department, it should be done like this, there is this in the law, there is this in the customs rule, so that they must be followed.” (P5)

“These are organized as vocational training. It focuses on a certain subject or in general, or there is a training that I have prepared, training about the problems experienced in customs, it includes small fine points for example.” (A4)

6.6.5. Reconfiguration Capability

Reconfiguration capability is partly rooted in the development and additional investments in coordination systems for buyer–supplier relationships which enable firms to learn from one another, co-specialize and change their internal processes when needed and continuously improve their SC processes (Juan and Li, 2023). In line with this, actors in the logistics service network adaptor adjust new knowledge into a usable form for the current conflictual situations. Their reconfiguration is mainly based on planning and procedural, and digital reconfigurations. Considering planning-based reconfiguration, shipping companies employed more rigorous planning in terms of shipping plans and selection of their suppliers after the conflicts experienced.

“For a very long time, for example, the berthing dates of the ships were much more problematic. As I saw that the customers started to react very seriously on this issue, I saw that the ship programs have been implemented more

meticulously and the notifications have been made more accurate. We have seen that many steps have been taken towards the level of perfection in that regard.” (O4)

“For example, subcontracted companies will be selected accordingly, which will create a transformation. While giving the promise that we can provide 7-24 vehicles, those vehicles have really caused the subcontracted companies to be carefully selected. They work with companies that have a name and prestige.” (O1)

Within the planning concept, logistics companies and shippers have started to have risk-oriented plans against possible conflicts so that they have started to inform their customers more comprehensively about the risks that may arise.

“Everyone learned that because there is a situation at the beginning of the crisis, it is necessary to go with an alternative. Even the 15-day delay has started to normalize. The customer started to make plans over 50 days instead of 35 days. We have learned to have alternatives and to ride with a joker in our pocket.” (P3)

“Even before the end of this year, the actions to be taken in the third quarter of the next year began to be discussed and resolved.” (C5)

Considering procedural reconfiguration, some actions are taken by the business partners such as employing insurance practices, introducing sanctions and obligations, reconfiguring the contracts and informative emails, and following a standard format in transactions. For instance, logistics companies have started to apply insurance practices to minimize the loss and damage previously experienced in cargo.

“We have introduced an insurance called shipping interest, especially in airlines. Because here we encounter the least amount of loss and damage. Happens mostly on the highway. We insure almost all cargo now. We do not work with any supplier without carrier loader insurance. We do not work

even if the price is low.” (A3)

They have also preferred to constantly make contracts as an insurance practice and stick to them in order to mitigate the risks and conflicts by having more control over the processes and to protect their interests.

“We have now learned to do something like a contract with companies. If there is a shipping process that is not organized by us, we progress by confirming the process continuously via e-mail in accordance with the contract we have made.” (P4)

Like logistics companies, shippers also have preferred to stick to the contracts and transferred the sanctions on their partners.

“We have made a procedural change, considering the waiting times and arrival of the containers, we are now able to see and withdraw from the system within 14 days after the ETA. A sanction was imposed, such as the obligation for customers to notify us of unloaded containers.” (O5)

“We inform our customers about the risks that exist now. We started to add such items to e-mails.” (P5)

On the other hand, shipping companies, logistics companies, and shippers have started to follow a standard transaction format both in pricing and data sharing. In this way, they tried to prevent any possible confusion from the very beginning and ensured the operation flow more efficiently. They also add some risk clauses to these standardized transaction formats.

“After that moment, the data coming from them was connected to the standard, and it would be transmitted like this from now on. In fact, we can say that the process has changed as a result of the conflict.” (C3)

“A format was used so that that information would not be overlooked. For example, we have started to use certain tables while we are asking for prices

with that information. There is a certain workload, but we have seen the benefits. Its good when you switch to the fixed formatting you call SOP. For example, does he have more than one load about the customers, he writes it over it. There are feedbacks about irrelevant loads.” (P3)

Relating to the procedural concept, partners have started to apply more rigorous monitoring and control mechanisms through random declaration checks, getting confirmations, and setting checkpoints in operations. Within this context, while logistics companies have progressed by constantly receiving confirmation during an operation, customs firms have made random checks to avoid mistakes. On the other hand, shippers have evaluated all the previous problems within the scope of the control point and act carefully.

“We are constantly calling and getting confirmation, you said that, but will the load go for sure? You should not trust anyone or any situation.” (A3)

“That's why a control mechanism was created. The customer representative makes a check after writing his own declaration. We get a random declaration and check it again. This is actually work done to not lose the company.” (A4)

Relating to technology-based reconfiguration, logistics companies have started to make pricing strategies, archive and file tracking systems more easily and effectively by using certain software and modules.

“Pricing strategies have changed. Thus, we have reduced the workload and got rid of the excess mail. When the system is approved, the software makes automatic pricing. This has improved business and prevented problems from occurring.” (P5)

“Since it is very difficult to pull something from the system or archive, we are trying to improve it. Now, we can easily answer any question and answer from the system regarding the uploads made in the past.” (P4)

6.6. Conflict Transformation

With the change in the external environment or internal resources in the supply chain, changes also occur in conflicts (Chen et al., 2014). As stated by Mikkelsen and Clegg (2017), our theorizing must be time-based and should not neglect this conception to acknowledge the dynamic nature of conflict. Apart from this, understanding the temporal perspective of conflict evolving and transforming over time helps practitioners to re-route their supply chains away from the conflict area and to have better performance (Greer, Jehn and Mannix, 2008). In this part of the findings, the changes in the way parties in the supply chain conflict over time are presented. As findings depict, the transformation of conflicts mainly occurs in the fields of issue, actor, context, rule, and structure.

6.6.1. Actor Transformation

Considering actor transformation, as stated by logistics and shipping companies, while power practices used to belong to the customers and this caused conflict, now it has been seen that this power is passed to logistics and shipping companies due to the market conditions. For example, after the container crisis due to the Covid-19 pandemic, power has passed to both shipping companies which are ship-owners having the ability to provide service to logistics companies who work in cooperation with shipping companies.

“If you can find containers, you are valuable as a forwarder, and if you can provide services, you are valuable as a ship-owner. The precious have the right to speak. We don't negotiate like before, we don't have to make concessions. This power will be on the side where the demand is intense. This happens according to the supply and demand balance in every period.” (P2)

“..Because of all these, we forwarders and ship owners are now in a fair position, and the customers are also “unfair” because they cannot do their job otherwise. The balance we want is achieved for now.” (P2)

Again, while customers used to force logistics and shipping companies about the flexibility of the services provided, this problem has changed direction due to the fact that shipping and logistics companies have the power and provide flexibility to their

selected customers.

“In the past, in the USA when the forwarder or ship owner said something, the customer would immediately accept it, but in Turkey, customers were trying to get more flexibility at that time. Right now, they can't force flexibility on us because most companies like us are already flexible with some customers, but not all.” (O5)

6.6.2. Issue Transformation

In terms of issue transformation, similar to the mindset of the customers, suppliers of shipping companies (warehouse parties in this case) used to think that both logistics and shipping companies had to get service from them due to the lack of alternative options in the market. But now, as there are many alternatives for these parties, the conflict has evolved in a different direction like customer satisfaction and service quality.

“The warehouseman was thinking that this company has to have me to store the container, now there are too many alternatives, even if you run a warehouse, you have to satisfy your customer. If there is a problem, we want suppliers who have the capacity to solve the problem. We expect them to improve their service quality. We work with those who do. You are looking for an interlocutor in a conflict, you used to call and you could not find an addressee. Now there is an interlocutor, they solve it to the extent that they can.” (O5)

As stated by customs firms, while the conflicts were over the cost of consultancy services provided to the customers, these now shifted to providing high service quality and customer satisfaction while offering the same prices.

“In particular, customs consultancy service fees related to exports have hit rock bottom due to competition. In 2011, a military wage statement was published by the undersecretariat, which led customers to receive better quality service at the same price. How do you provide quality service? You need to inform the companies about the legislation, and secondly, you need to

ensure that the companies receive the reports with some extra systems you will provide. Or you need to reduce the burden of companies by integrating. It is precisely in these stages that conflicts arise now. In summary, the conflicts changed due to the change in the direction of their rivalry. Price is no longer a variable.” (A1)

On the shipping companies’ side, the main root of the conflicts was the high freight costs, but now the conflict has turned into a container crisis due to the situation and uncertainty created by the Covid-19 pandemic. Herein, containers have begun to be supplied to many customers in small quantities rather than in multiples to one customer in order to satisfy the majority of customers.

“In the past, our only concern was to meet the freight, retain the customer, and minimize the costs with the suppliers and offer the freight advantage to the customer. At the moment, the company that is good at serving the customer takes the lead. Every month, every week, every ship has these problems, so now the customer cares about those who can provide service.” (O2)

“Before the pandemic, only and only freight was talked about. Covid affected production seriously. There was a production boom. Where freight was spoken in the past, now it is spoken to give empty equipment. In the past, lot loads were appetising, and it was attractive. But today, since there is a serious problem with the supply of equipment, instead of giving 80 containers to a single customer, you are trying to divide 80 containers to more customers with lower quantities. But you can't break some customers, of course, if you are a strategic partner rather than a customer, you give some of them. But if you give 10, you draw 9 to 8. Conflicts turned to this.” (O4)

Interestingly, conflict arises not from freight costs now but from the dominance and opportunism of the shipping companies on the logistics companies’ side. During the Covid-19 pandemic when the equipment crisis was felt deeply, shipping companies’ manner has been called malicious and opportunistic by the logistics companies as they immediately turn the container ownership into an opportunity by offering high

prices.

“This seems like a bit of opportunism, especially in terms of ship-owner-sea lanes. 2 years ago, when we tried to bring 40 containers from any main port of China, we were paying a maximum of 2500 dollars, but now it is 13-14 thousand dollars. There is a very serious increase. Since the commodity value of the goods received from the customer also increased, the business became inextricable due to the exchange rate effect. Yes, we know that it was caused by the situation between the USA and China last year, but when we look at this year, they seem to be shrugging off each other, but in the information we receive, for example, we get information that the ship owner has closed the first three months of 2020. Nobody here has good intentions. As the customer in the market, we are the victim as a forwarder. But we have come to a point where we are completely dependent on the owner's hand.” (P3)

Contrary to other parties’ statements, the conflict for the shippers has evolved to the point of providing a cost advantage rather than the priorities such as product differentiation and design.

“In the past, conflicts depended on timing. Everyone was trying to produce different designed products, but now where can we procure cheaper and where can we move forward with more cost advantages? How can we live our lives without the price increases reflected on the markets? Everyone is focused on this right now, especially in the last year. We were talking about different things before, we were talking about making a different innovation for the product so that more advertisements would come out. We were more focused on quality, but we see the competitors, how much cheaper we can make it in prices, how much more cost advantage we can provide. Everyone's a little more focused on this, for example, if the financing is delayed, we used to have discussions like "let's bring it by plane no matter what, but right now What alternative can we find?” (C5)

On the customs side, pricing and documentation problems have their place to the problems or conflicts are starting to be related to adapting to the digitization process

after conflictual issues are transferred to the digital platform and tried to be solved over it.

“There are issues with pricing. Since we do the final transaction in our sector, together with our own service invoice, the freight of the shipping company, fees such as evacuation and depreciation, the waiting fees of the storage companies such as warehouses, the overtime fees of the customs administration must be paid and the receipt must be paid by you. We have difficulties in the proper management of this process. As the infrastructure brought by digitalization progresses, I see that the problems are decreasing here. Now I can say that the problem is generally related to technological developments and adaptation to them.” (A5)

Referred by shipping companies, while the main causes of the conflicts were the customer relationship management-related problems including response time, transaction-related issues etc. previously, it is now related to digital adaptation while providing desired service level as it is supported by the customs above.

“In the CRM program we have, everyone can be involved in a subject. In the past, your customer used to write to you, they were in touch with you, but now the requests are on a common queue. In this case, the customer tells you a problem and then tells me. There are also phone calls, independent of emails, for example. You are sending 2 different emails for two different subjects, you cannot write in the same email. Therefore, there are problems in response time to the customer. The company has set the CRM system digitally, and now transactions are made with the customer in a maximum of 4 hours. Other companies are just getting started. But in this process, too much tolerance is shown to the customer. You will receive dangerous goods, for example, the information that needs to be uploaded to the system is very clear, and on the contrary, you cannot fill in incorrect or incomplete information. In short, conflicts arise from the adaptation process.” (O1)

6.6.3. Structural Transformation

Shipping companies state that the conflict started with the customer prioritization of

forwarders based on volume or sector, and ended with the disintermediation of logistics companies as shipping companies have started to give services directly to the customers. Again, shipping companies offered customers to do the customs clearance and carry the inland transport themselves and they guarantee that they will not charge the customer for warehouse or storage costs to disintermediate the forwarders, too.

“We may have a problem with them prioritizing customers. Lines generally prefer easy-to-carry loads of light tonnage. Sometimes we may not accept loads due to heavy tonnage, or we may use our right of choice for products in another sector (eg white goods). This causes conflict. We also want to work directly with customers within ourselves. Because the forwarder is not reliable because it has too many options outside. In order not to request services from them, we started consolidating, for example, we used to normally not enter the process of a customer. Currently, the employees of our company go to very big sports brands and separate the products according to their partial and order numbers. We are in companies. Lines will go into everything. What causes us to have conflicts with the local forwarders as we have naturally eliminated them.” (O3)

“..For example, real shippers are much more important to us, because there is no forwarder in between. Since they contact us directly, they have certain price advantages.” (O3)

6.6.4. Rule Transformation

Previously manual system requirements of logistics operations pose a problem for shipping companies. Recently, a lack of consensus on the applied rules while providing shipping services is currently on the agenda. In the current process, problems arise as the flexibility conditions that shippers provide to customers differ and do not proceed on a fixed standard.

“Now, we got through the process where we had problems by going door to door and switched to e-declaration. These are huge breakthroughs for our country. We are one step ahead compared to the past, but we are 20 years

behind compared to abroad. As the ship-owner, we do not provide flexibility and we don't take risks. If another ship owner provides this flexibility, and we do not, we are called a difficult company. Unless we take the same decisions and have them enforced by the customer, a consensus cannot be reached.”
(O5)

Lastly, conflicts caused by issues such as fraud and corruption, especially between customs companies and shippers, are now emerging due to strict rules and penalties put into practice to prevent them.

“I could make the customs do anything I wanted. You know that the powerful could get people to do anything with bribes. There was a lot of conflict because there was no specific rule. They realized that it could not be done with the pandemic. For example, they faced severe penalties when they worked with companies that ensured they could provide flexibility. The goods had to be returned to the country they went to. We say it from the beginning, but they don't like it, but then they experience it themselves.” (O5)

6.6.5. Context Transformation

As stated by logistics companies, conflicts are not occurring among channel members but in-house departments currently. Herein, in-house options provided to the customers by logistics companies cause problems by creating competition between departments.

“There is a minivan option on the highway. We also have our own highway department in our own company. But our biggest competitor in the European region has started to be our own highway department. The minivan option delivers in 36-48 hours, and frankly, such a blow to air cargo. Before Covid-19 pandemic, companies were competing with each other.” (A3)

When it comes to shipper companies, human-based problems including personal or relational conflicts transformed into outsourcing related problems during Covid-19 pandemic and digital system requirements based problems experienced by them.

“When I first entered, there were more human-induced conflicts. Now it has evolved into an outsourcing and Covid-19 point.” (C2)

“In the past, there were conflicts on the basis of individuals. Because of their actions. Now, it has turned more systematically in terms of technology.” (C3)

CHAPTER 7: QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY

7.1. Experimental Design

As stated by Jameson (1999), researchers must consider the various contextual variables that frame a given conflict episode while constructing unique scenarios to assess choice of conflict-handling approach. These contextual variables are defined as criticality, power incongruence and intention in the study of Callanan, Benzing and Perri (2006). Herein, the author defines criticality as the relative importance of a given conflict-producing issue in terms of its influence on the actors involved or its material consequence. On the other hand, power is described as "a relational process" in which actors persuade others to take a particular action that they otherwise would not (Morgan and Watson, 1992). Attributing aggressive (or nonaggressive) intent on the part of the opposing party is the final situational factor taken into account when choosing a conflict-handling approach (Callanan, Benzing and Perri, 2006). However, unfairness or aggressive intent is seen generally when the conflict is likely to be taken personally (Dallinger and Hample, 1995). From this respect, as we aim to investigate the conflict within the interorganizational context, we only address power and criticality situational factors away from interpersonal interplays.

Criticality and power concepts are addressed extensively in the supply chain literature such as criticality of channel partner (Kim, Tamer Cavusgil and Calanton, 2005; Shah and Swaminathan, 2008), criticality of service (Webster and Sundaram, 2009), criticality of relationship (Kumar, Cantor and Grimm, 2019), criticality of events (Li et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021b; Zhang et al., 2023), power in negotiations and bargaining (Greer and Bendersky, 2013; Shang and Yang, 2015), coercive and non-coercive power (Wang et al., 2015; Bouncken et al., 2020). In the literature, these concepts are rarely used in experimental setting (Webster and Sundaram, 1998;

Ronay et al., 2012; Crisafulli and Singh, 2017; Jafarzadeh et al., 2021; Fousiani, Steinel and Minnigh, 2021) and only a few studies seem to have used these two factors in combination with experimental work (e.g. Sun, Peng and Liao, 2021). However, to the best of our knowledge, none of these studies have examined criticality and power as contextual factors in determining conflict resolution methods in an inter-firm context using the experimental method in the logistics service network.

By basing on the previous literature, our research questions are as follows:

RQ1) Does the choice of conflict handling strategies differ according to the levels of actor power and the conflict criticality?

RQ2) How does the interaction between criticality and power influence the choice of conflict handling strategy among actors in the logistics service network?

RQ3) Which conflict handling strategies are preferred the most in high power situations?

RQ4) Which conflict handling strategies are preferred the most in high criticality conflicts?

7.2. Theoretical Background

7.2.1. Approach-Inhibition Theory of Power

The approach-inhibition theory of power, describing the impacts of power on human affect, cognition, and behavior (Keltner, Gruenfeld and Anderson, 2003), provides a valuable theoretical framework for understanding the effects of power. The "approach/inhibition theory," which posits that power can activate individuals' reward (approach) and danger (inhibition) systems, sheds light on the role of power. Higher power is associated with increased activation of the approach system, whereas lower power is associated with increased activation of the inhibitory system. Individuals with a more active approach system pursue goals more attentively and effectively, express themselves more frequently, and prioritize their own desires, resulting in self-interested conduct (Guinote, 2008).

The theory states that dominance frequently serves as a predictor of power since people who act in a dominant manner frequently achieve greater power in particular situations (Anderson and Berdahl, 2002). Herein, power leads to impulsive, self-serving behavior, and those in positions of power have a great impact over others in lesser positions of power (Mckenzie, 2011). According to this theory, actors with more power are less concerned about those with low power status and they are more prone to focus on the potential advantages of a situation rather than the potential hazards. As a result, attention to potential rewards leads to disinhibited and dominant behavior (Anderson et al., 2001). Within this context, we expect that having high power will affect logistics service providers to choose dominating strategies more when compared with their low-power partners in conflict resolution.

7.2.2. Event System Theory

Event system theory is an applicable theoretical framework that emphasizes the significance of an event's attributes. The more the crisis is viewed as novel, critical, and disruptive (representing crisis strength), the more likely actors are to accelerate interchange (Song et al., 2023). Herein, the degree to which an event is novel or surprising is reflected by its novelty. The degree to which an event disrupts an organization's normal routines and activities necessitates modifications and changes is referred to as disruption. Lastly, criticality is the relevance, need, or priority of an event to an organization (Zhang et al., 2023). The likelihood that an event requires an organization's attention and further activities increases with the event's criticality. In line with the logic of this theory, Zhang et al. (2023) state that, in high criticality situations, coordinating efforts between parties improves communication and harmonizes task interfaces between them. This also increases the likelihood of a speedy agreement, and, as a result, raises the parties' motivation to reach an agreement.

High-criticality events frequently have high stakes and potentially disastrous outcomes. In these circumstances, the participants cooperate to plan their answers and make sure the issue is remedied fastly and effectively in a feasible way (Stoll et al., 2020). Therefore, the event system theory enables further understanding for the events that are seen as disruptions to the ongoing system requiring actors to coordinate their actions to respond effectively and reestablish the system's normal

operation (Craighead, Ketchen Jr and Darby, 2020). In line with this, we expect that highly critical situations will create situations in which logistics service providers must coordinate and adopt more integrative approaches to handle the conflict.

7.3. Methodology

According to Rahim's (1983) contingency approach to addressing conflicts, there is no all-time best method; rather, the optimum conflict management approach depends on the specific conflict circumstances. Rahim (1983) developed a model of five conflict-handling strategies, including integrating (coordinating), accommodating (obliging), compromising, forcing (dominating), and avoiding methods, based on the level of concern for oneself and for others in a relationship. Our research, however, adopts a three-style approach since the elements of a five-style model can be condensed and merged into three distinct conflict styles: (a) dominating refers to forcing (b) integrating referring to solution-oriented approach, and (c) obliging refers to smoothing (Putnam and Wilson, 1982; Boardman and Horowitz, 1994; Oetzel and Ting-Toomey, 2003; To et al., 2021). This situation was also encountered in the findings on the qualitative side (level-based resolution mechanisms) of the study. Herein, as stated by the participants in the interview, dominating, integrating, and obliging strategies are often perceived as more effective in achieving desired outcomes or resolving conflicts constructively while avoiding and compromising do not generally end in real resolution and do not fully address the concerns of the parties. In this regard, conflict-handling strategies such as dominating, integrating, and obliging are modeled as dependent variables under particular conditions such as criticality and power in this research as independent variables.

7.3.1. Hypotheses Development

Power is typically understood as a relative ability that allows individuals to influence the states of others by holding onto valuable resources or enforcing rewards or penalties (Lu, Zhang and Li, 2015). The power is practically inherent in conflicts and negotiations because it is believed to influence how resources are divided in a settlement (Pinkley, Neale and Bennett, 1994). It has also a significant impact on negotiators' alternatives, as well as their solution techniques (Nelson et al., 2015). According to studies, high-power negotiators obtain a much higher fraction of the outcome than their low-power counterparts (Rahim, 1983). The impact of high and

low relative power on conflict processes, outcomes, and behaviors has been carefully studied in research on conflict negotiations across power inequalities (Tinsley, 2001; Ristic et al., 2020).

In an individual context, Brewer, Mitchell and Weber (2002) opine that those in higher-ranking, or more powerful positions within an organization were more likely to show high self-concern. In this regard, individuals with higher status are also thought to be more competent than performers with lower status and they can typically demand more for a given offer than low-status partners can (Benjamin and Podolny, 1999; Rivera, 2015). Parties with unequal power tend to employ more dominating, obstructive, or avoidance methods depending on how powerful or weak they are. The extent of the power imbalance also affects the parties' strategies, with greater imbalances leading to more extreme coercion and subservient behaviors (Davidson, McElwee and Hannan, 2004). In an inter-organizational context, when one party's power grows, they become less reliant on its counterpart and thus more capable of adopting domineering behavior to achieve its objectives (Lam and Chin, 2004; Nazir Butt and Nam Choi, 2010; Lu, Wei and Wang, 2020). In this regard, those in high-power positions demonstrated more dominating and less obliging techniques than those in low-power positions in situations of uneven power (Rahim, 1986; Drory and Ritov, 1997; Davidson, McElwee and Hannan, 2004; Lu et al., 2015). Besides, according to Callanan, Benzing and Perri (2006), when an individual's organizational power is moderate to high and the opposing party's strength is low to moderate, these situational factors indicate that dominating is the best choice of conflict-handling approach.

In the scope of these arguments, we suggest that the logistics service providers with high power prefer the dominating strategy more than the low-powered service providers. The hypothesis is presented below:

H1a: Compared with the low power ones, logistics service providers with high power are more likely to prefer the dominating strategy.

On the other hand, Tjosvold and Okum (1979) discovered that low-power subjects behave more obediently and cooperatively in an experimental context than high-

power ones. Drory and Ritov (1997) also claimed that lower power participants frequently care more about maintaining their relationship with their superior than winning a negotiation, particularly when their superior has control over their future well-being. Herein, the low-power party is more driven than the high-power party to find an integrative solution that is agreeable to both parties in order to achieve a relatively favorable conclusion and they display a greater willingness to consult the counterpart affected by their actions and resolve problems together (Mannix and Neale, 1993; Lu et al., 2015). This is also supported by Tinsley (2001) advocating high-status (powerful) parties may impose their proposed solutions on lower-status parties, while lower-status parties may attempt to elevate themselves by co-opting individuals of higher status. By the same token, Larson (2001) proved that low-power groups in negotiations adopt a more integrative approach when compared with high-power groups. Thus, we propose the following hypothesis stating that logistics service providers with low power would prefer the integration strategy more than the high power ones for maintaining the relationship.

H1b: Compared with the high power ones, logistics service providers with low power are more likely to prefer the integrating strategy.

In the conflict domain, criticality is defined as "the relative significance of a particular conflict-producing issue in terms of its influence on the parties involved or its material effect" (Callanan, Benzing and Perri, 2006, p.274). Rubin, Pruitt and Kim (1994) argued that the significance of the interests at risk influences the choice of conflict-handling strategies since the incentive might change how strongly an actor cares about himself. The fundamental decision of how much pressure to apply is heavily influenced by the degree of personal interest in relationships (Clark, 1979). In an interpersonal context, when an issue is significant to an individual, it will result in ambitious targets and intense self-concern. Herein, when one's level of self-concern is strong, they are more likely to opt for the dominating approaches (Callanan, Benzing and Perri, 2006; Sun, Peng and Liao, 2021). Along similar lines, as it is stated by Lynn (2007) when people are under conflict due to critical situations, they are more likely to engage in negative behaviors. As choosing a competitive or coercive strategy is mainly motivated by high self-interest and low other-interest (Gilin Oore, Leiter and LeBlanc, 2015), we think that this situation is

valid for the business actors in the logistics service network. Thus, the proposed hypothesis is presented as follows:

H2: Compared with low critical ones, logistics service providers in high critical situations are more likely to prefer the dominating approach.

Considering individual context, Rahim's conflict management theory (1983) states that, when the stakes of a conflict rise, the likelihood of using an integrating or compromise strategy rises more than the other strategies. Similarly, as Rosenthal and Hautaluoma (1988) suggest, when the subject at stake is important to an individual or crucial to the functioning of a group, disputants are more likely to select confrontation and collaboration, while the likelihood of adopting the obliging or avoiding strategies is low. Similarly, a collaborative or integrative strategy is motivated by both high self- and other-interests while a competitive, forcing, or dominating strategy is motivated by high self-interest combined with low other-interest (Gilin Oore, Leiter and LeBlanc, 2015). In a way to support this approach in an organizational context, Zhang et al. (2023) state that, the criticality or disruption of conflict situations might inspire cooperation under the shadow of contracts. This finding is congruent with the findings of Li et al. (2021), who found a substantial positive association between conflict event criticality and the integrating behaviors of parties. Parties frequently place a high value on significant or disruptive conflict situations and are eager to achieve an agreement. Because both parties' common purpose is to complete the transaction as specified, a conflict event is likely to be perceived as significant or disruptive to a similar degree. This situation encourages bilateral cooperation and is conducive to a win-win outcome. In line with the theoretical discussions, in hypothesis 3, we assume that in high criticality conflicts, the parties are more prone to act in a coordinated logic.

H3: In high criticality situations, logistics service providers are more likely to adopt a coordinating strategy as compared to dominating and obliging strategies.

Studies have shown that equal-power parties employ more integrating and accommodating tactics, while unequal-power parties employ more dominating and obliging (Rubin and Brown, 1975; Davidson, McElwee and Hannan, 2004). As

found by Lu et al. (2020), positive correlations exist between integrating behavior and power indicating that a party feels more capable of advancing its objectives when its power is high. A high-power party will also be prepared to take into account its counterpart and implement an integrated strategy that can satisfy both sides in order to achieve its current aims. Additionally, although it is common for parties to aim to maximize their own profits, the actor's desired result might be to cooperate or to be kind to the opposing side and they may make more compromises and be more generous (Chen et al., 2001; Handgraaf et al., 2008). In a similar line, Hung (2005) states that, high-power individuals frequently engage in cooperation to protect their status quo. For instance, although retail giant Walmart and the consumer products corporation Procter & Gamble had a long-standing alliance, conflicts have arisen between the two businesses, though, over things like pricing and product availability. Then they adopted a cooperative strategy to address the conflicts between them by cooperating to boost communication and supply chain efficiency (Dai, Li and Peng, 2017) Therefore, regardless of the other party's power situation, we suggest that in high power occasions, logistics service providers may prefer coordinating strategy more than dominating and obliging strategies.

H4: In high power situations, logistics service providers are more likely to adopt a coordinating strategy as compared to dominating and obliging strategies.

According to Jonker and Foster (2002), criticality and power are viewed as important elements that affect how parties' relationships turn out. The literature shows that power and criticality interact and influence each other on some points. For instance, in the study of Rognes (1987), it is found that there is a positive relationship between criticality and aggressive behavior. The rationale behind this is that managers use power when they have it. It is also seen that if they do not achieve results through direct negotiations they will involve third parties to increase their power. In a similar vein, considering issue criticality, Callanan, Benzing and Perri (2006) found that when the issue is critical to individuals, and organizational power of the individual is moderate to high, whereas the power of the opposing party is low to moderate. These situational characteristics show that dominance is at the forefront for parties. In terms of criticality of resources, Chicksand (2009) and Touboulic, Chicksand and Walker (2014) support the discussion stating that the power is influenced by the criticality

(commercial and operational relevance) and scarcity of alternative sources. Therefore, in addition to the main effects of these two situational elements, we also anticipate an interplay between conflict criticality and power regarding their effects on conflict handling strategy employed.

H5-There is an interaction between criticality and power regarding their impacts on choosing conflict handling strategies?

7.3.2. Research Design

In many areas, experiments are a common research methodology as they allow researchers to analyze interpersonal interactions and provide a direct observation of behavior in a buyer-supplier environment within the context of supply chain (Pulles and Loohuis, 2020). This method is suitable for analyzing naturally occurring events like service breakdowns and avoids recall and negativity bias problems commonly linked with self-reporting techniques, which urge customers to recollect their unfavorable past experiences (Crisafulli and Singh, 2017). In this experiment context, a between-subject scenario-based experiment was carried out in order to test the research hypotheses rather than within subject design to increase variation of our sample and to prevent order (influence that the order of presentation of different conditions or treatments has on participants' responses or behaviors) and carryover effects (residual effect or contamination effect, occurs when the effects of a previous condition or treatment persist and influence subsequent conditions or treatments) (Mevers et al., 2018).

Vignette experiments are useful for studying the impact of beliefs, norms, opinions, or values on actual behavior, particularly when dealing with sensitive or socially controversial issues. It combines experimental internal validity with survey external validity. Vignettes can be used to test the causal effects of various features or variables (Cagigas et al., 2022). We designed vignettes by using real life incidents (from our qualitative semi structured interviews) and prior definitions in supply chain conflicts and operationalizations of the constructs in other disciplines (from the reviewed literature).

7.3.3 Data Collection

Data collection was conducted over a 3-month period starting from March 2023 to May 2023 in a period that includes the post Covid-19 pandemic process. Several steps were taken to assess participants' comprehension (Azadegan et al., 2022). A written vignette about a hypothetical supply chain partner (business customer) and the logistics service provider in charge of dealing with a hypothetical conflict was presented to participants. Each participant was given one of four scenarios. The respondents were asked to imagine themselves in the scenarios portrayed in the episodes and then to explain how they would feel using the validated measures of integrating, dominating, and obliging conflict handling styles. An evaluation of the participants was gathered by a questionnaire. With the help of the SPSS 28.0 program, various tests were used to analyze the data.

Regardless of the research context, four fundamental components are typically regarded as essential to traditional experimental design: (1) subjects are chosen at random; (2) subjects are assigned at random to the various treatment conditions; (3) treatments are manipulated by the experimenter; and (4) the experiment is under the experimenter's control. Checks that assess the treatment's ability to characterize different levels of an intended construct (i.e., manipulation checks) are concerned with the treatment's convergent validity.

When planning experiments and determining sample sizes, three entities are always involved: (1) sample size, (2) the significance level, and (3) the magnitude of the observed effect (Mera, Thompson and Prasad, 1998). In this regard, we applied G*power analysis and revealed that 128 samples are required to achieve a statistical power of at least 0.8 with an alpha of 0.05 and a medium effect size ($d = 0.5$) (Kang, 2021). However, in experiments, larger sample sizes are often needed to effectively account for higher sampling variation and more accurate results (Hansotia, 1990; Jørstad et al., 2007). Therefore, experimental conditions were distributed at random among 160 respondents (40 respondents in each cell) instead of the minimum amount.

The questionnaires were completed by a total of 160 people (Table 8), with 37.5% ($n=60$) being female and 62.5% ($n=100$) being male which represents the typical gender breakdown in Turkey's logistics service network (UTIKAD, 2022).

Furthermore, 1.3% (n=2) of the participants had a high school education, 82.5% (n=132) had an undergraduate education, and 16.3% (n=26) held graduate degrees (Master's and Ph.D.). While 38.1% (n=61) of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 28, 57.5% (n=92) of them were between the ages of 29 and 39, and 4.4% (n=7) were over the age of 40. In association with the education and age demographics, 0-4 years of experience has the highest rate 46.3% (n=74), this is followed by 5-9 years with 36.3% (n=58). The experience of 10 years or more accounts for 17.6 percent of the sample (n=28). Considering the participants' roles in the industry, it is seen that most of the participants were from physical group (e.g. carriers, warehouse or lashing services) with 16.6% (n=58), 84 participants from organizing group (57.9%) (e.g. forwarders, general and shipping agents, 3PLs, brokers), 48 participants (33.1%) from customer groups (e.g. exporter, importer, or manufacturers), and 4 participants (9.4%) from authorizing group (e.g. customs, port authorities).

Table 8. Demographic Characteristics of Sample

		N=160	%
Gender	Female	60	37.5
	Male	100	62.5
Education	High school	2	1.3
	Bachelor degree	132	82.5
	Master degree	22	13.8
	Doctorate degree	4	2.5
Age	18-28	61	38.1
	29-39	92	57.5
	40 and above	7	4.4
Experience	0-4 years	74	46.3
	5-9 years	58	36.3
	10-14 years	22	13.8
	15 years and above	6	3.8
Role of the company	Physical group	24	16.6
	Organizing group	84	57.9
	Customer group	48	33.1
	Authorizing group	4	9.4

7.3.4. Operationalization of Independent Variables

7.3.4.1. Operationalization of Criticality

According to studies on conflict management, criticality is a crucial component (Bose, Pareek and Bose, 1986; Webster and Sundaram, 1998; Plessis, 2012; Zhang et al., 2023). The term "criticality" describes how important, necessary, or important an event is to organizations. The likelihood that an organization will need to pay attention to and take further action depends on how important the event is (Sun, Peng and Liao, 2021). For instance, criticality plays a significant role in determining how the parties react to service failure recovery efforts (Webster and Sundaram, 1998). Criticality is also defined by Callanan, Benzing and Perri (2006) as the relative significance of a particular conflict-producing issue in terms of how it affects the parties involved or how it has a material consequence.

Organizations are sensitive to the criticality of events as these could keep them from accomplishing their objectives, impede exchange progress and threaten the operation and performance of the company with detrimental impact on both of the supply chain parties' goals (Sun, Peng and Liao, 2021; Zhang et al., 2023). For instance, in business-to-business relationships, the buyer might reject the seller's claim, and if the value of the claim is large, the seller is likely to view the conflict as critically important because the outcome will have a big impact on the seller's earnings. Studies focusing on the criticality are mostly in B2C contexts (e.g. Levesque and McDougall, 2000; Oflaç, Sullivan and Baltacıoğlu, 2012; Crisafulli and Singh, 2017; Mozafari, Weiger and Hammerschmidt, 2021) and they are related to the service failure and recovery domains. In B2B context, criticality construct oriented studies are few and can be found mostly in organizational and human behavior studies (e.g. Dunegan, Duchon and Barton, 1992; Johnson and Johnson, 2017; Sun, Peng and Liao, 2021)

Criticality construct is frequently used as an independent variable in scenario-based experiments. Considering B2C service failure and recovery studies, Crisafulli and Singh (2017) addressed the criticality of the service on customer post-recovery satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the online shopping setting. They employed 2×2×2 (response time: immediate vs. delayed × compensation: monetary vs. psychological × criticality: high vs. low) between-subjects design experiments via

scenarios with a high (low) criticality level indicating that the customer's online purchase was urgent because they had no other options . Herein, participants were asked to rate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). With manipulations they received the mean values as follows: participants in the high criticality condition regarded the online grocery shopping experience as critical (M = 5.40), while those in the low criticality condition did not (M = 2.41).

High criticality for customer

“The online purchase is very important to you as you have no food alternatives at home and really need to proceed with the online grocery shopping.”

Low criticality for customer

“Luckily you have other groceries at home. After exchanging several messages with the customer service agent, you are asked to wait until someone looks into the problem. ”

Similarly, Jafarzadeh et al. (2021) examined how perceived recovery attempts are related to the criticality of the situation and brand equity to prevent the negative consequences of service failures. They employed a 2×2×2 (low vs. high perceived recovery endeavor x low vs. high criticality x low vs. high brand reputation) scenario based experiment.

High criticality of the service

“You live in a remote area and the nearest mobile store is several hours’ drive. Your cell phone is damaged and you need to buy a new one ASAP”.

Low criticality of the service

“You have the intention to upgrade your mobile phone Fortunately, you still have your old cell phone to use while waiting.”

Within the organizational and human behavior context, Sun, Peng and Liao (2021) address the factors influencing a municipal manager’s choice of approaches to coping with a disagreement with their city council and take issue criticality as a contextual factor. They employed a 2×2 between-subject (criticality of conflict issue-high vs. low × informal power of the municipal manager-strong vs. weak)

experiment that included four hypothetical vignettes about a conflict between a municipal manager and the city council. To check the manipulation of issue criticality, they asked: 'In the scenario you just read, was the issue critical from the perspective of the city manager?' (Yes = 1; No = 0).

The following examples show examples of high and low criticality levels:

High criticality for city government

[t]he council believes that this issue is largely critical, because they have received widespread public pressure regarding it',

'[This issue] has a great impact on the operation of the city government',

Low criticality for city government

[t]he council believes that this issue is largely critical, because they have received widespread public pressure regarding it',

'[This issue] has little impact on the operation of the city government'.

Herein, the scenario alterations were applied in accordance with the aforementioned literature to manipulate the criticality construct. Below is an example of the two levels of criticality manipulations utilized:

High issue criticality

As the business customer's production line works with the Just-in-Time (JIT) concept, it is of great importance for you to deliver the shipment on time. Otherwise, the customer's production line will stop and you will have to deal with compensation for this delay. This creates a conflict between you and the business customer.

Low issue criticality

Since the business customer can use the materials s/he needs from his own stock, the production line will not stop and there will be no compensation cost to you. In this sense, late delivery of the shipment is of no serious importance for you in terms of its results. However, this creates a conflict between you and the business customer.

7.3.4.2. Operationalization of Power

Power in general can be defined as the ability to persuade someone else to do

something they would not do otherwise (Müller, Habel and Stierl, 2017). It also means the ability to provide or withhold valuable resources or to administer punishments (Magee, Galinsky and Gruenfeld, 2007). Power is a capacity derived from circumstances and is not restricted to situations involving the actual use of power. According to Porter's five forces model (1979), a powerful position in business-to-business interactions yields a better competitive advantage and more profitability. More power is desired, and businesses spend a lot of money to increase their authority and power in negotiations (Banerjee et al., 2019).

In prior research which has examined the power distribution between buyers and suppliers (e.g. Benton and Maloni, 2005; Talay, Oxborrow and Brindley, 2020) in B2B settings, it is seen that higher levels of buyer power encourage suppliers to follow buyer needs and values in order to maintain the relationship (Müller, Habel and Stierl, 2017). Considering the literature, it is seen that power is generally used as an independent variable and the levels of this variable are generally set as low and high.

Drory and Ritov (1997) examined the effects of work experience and the opponent's power as context variables on the styles of handling interpersonal conflict. Participants were asked to respond to the following questions with regard to each vignette: "Who in your opinion has more power in this situation?" 1. Dan is much more powerful. 2. Dan is somewhat more powerful. 3. No one is more powerful than the other. 4. Jack is more powerful. 5. Jack is much more powerful. The differences between the two vignettes in the responses were tested by means of a t-test. The mean response for the power vignette was 4.10 (SD = 0.68) while the mean for the non-power vignette was 2.96 (SD = 0.63). The difference was highly significant [$t(59) = 9.9, p < 0.001$].

For the high power condition the text is:

"Dan is the managing director of a manufacturing plant in a large organization. He plans to manufacture a new product next year. Dan knows that if the product is successful the company's profits will go up and he will get a lot of credit. Dan needs an additional budget of two million dollars to set up the production line for the new product. The company allocates the sum of two million dollars every year for the

promotion of a special project. In case there is more than one applicant it has been quite common that they will try to sort out the conflict on their own before it is brought to management for a final decision. Dan knows that Jack, who heads the R&D department, is also interested in this money for the development of new products.”

For the low power condition the statement below is added to the text above:

“Jack is senior to Dan in the organization. Jack usually takes part in decisions which could have a considerable effect on Dan's advancement and success in the company.”

In another study, Poddar et al. (2017) addressed relational trade-offs and asymmetry in power between retailers and suppliers that could have an impact on the decision-making process including social and economic incentives. They tested their hypotheses by using a 2 (calculative commitment: high, null) × 2 (organizational loyalty commitment: high, null) × 2 (personal loyalty commitment: high, null) × 2 (power asymmetry: retailer more powerful, less powerful than target vendor) between-subjects factorial design. In the first scenario, the target vendor is more powerful than the retailer and earns four times the sales volume of the retailer. In the second scenario, the target vendor is less powerful and earns one-fourth of the sales volume of the retailer. Respondents in both the high power ($\chi^2=43.08$, $p<.001$) and low power condition ($\chi^2=16.47$, $p<.001$) agreed with this statement, as intended in this research.

High power vendor

Acme Bubble Company is a very big and powerful \$80 billion dollar firm that you have been doing business with for the last 15 years, which controls almost 80 percent of the entire production of bubble wrap in the world. Acme is considered a very powerful company since Acme literally sets the price for the entire global market for bubble wrap, and hence, Acme commands tremendous respect in the business world. Acme is also four times larger than your company in terms of revenue.

Low power vendor

The second vendor, Simons Bubble Co., is a much smaller \$20 billion firm that has

also been in the bubble wrap business for a long time. You have been doing business with them for the last three years. Since Simon's total revenue is exactly equal to your company, you can say that Simmons is equally dependent on you as you are on Simmons.

Banerjee et al. (2019) used a 2x2 scenario-based experimental design and took relational norms (high-low) and power (high-low) as independent variables. The manipulation check item for power measured participants' perception that they were in a higher power position than the other party in the scenario (anchored by 1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The t-test indicated that the average rating on the power manipulation check of participants in high power groups was statistically different (mean = 6.09) from that of participants in low power groups (mean = 2.83) at $p < 0.001$ level.

Low power condition

The sales generated from the business with Company Y account for a significant percentage of your total sales. You thus depend on Company Y for achieving your sales and profit goals and it is very difficult to replace sales and profits realized from Company Y with another buyer. Given the limited number of buyers at Company Y's caliber and the large number of suppliers comparable to your company in the industry, Company Y has the leverage over you and can put pressure on you if it wants to. Company Y can easily reward you by giving additional business with your company to the detriment of your company. Therefore, your relationship with Company Y is very critical to your company as a viable business entity.

High power condition

The sales generated from the business with Company Y account for an insignificant percentage of your total sales. You thus do not depend on Company Y for achieving your sales and profit goals and it is very easy to replace sales and profits realized from Company Y with another buyer. Given the large number of buyers comparable to Company Y and the limited number of suppliers at your company's caliber in the industry, you have the leverage over Company Y and can put pressure on Company Y if you want to. You can easily reward Company Y by continuing your business with it to the detriment of Company Y. Therefore, Company 's relationship with you is very

critical to Company Y as a viable business entity.

Grounding on the previous manipulations in the literature, the two levels of power manipulations are generated as follows:

Low power condition

The business customer is one of the biggest players and a well-known company with its largest market share in the sector. As a logistics service provider company, you are a small-scale player with a smaller market share in the industry.....However, this creates a conflict between you and the business customer who is the dominant party in the business relationship.

High power condition

As a logistics service provider, you are one of the biggest players in the industry and a well-known company with a large market share in the sector. The business customer is a small-scale player, a company with a smaller market share in the industry.....This creates a conflict between you, the dominant party in the business relationship, and the business customer.

7.3.5. Operationalization of Dependent Variables

The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II) Form C was used to assess conflict management styles (Rahim, 1983). Among five conflict-handling strategies, three of them (dominating, obliging, and coordinating) were applied. The selected handling strategies were found to be the most applied ones by the actors in the logistics service network according to the findings of the interviews. The ROCI consists of five items for assessing a dominating style, seven items for integrating, and six items for compromising. Within this context, to enable participants to respond to the conflict behavior patterns they adopt in accordance with various conflict scenarios, the following items are employed for three styles (Table 9). Responses were collected using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) Strongly disagree to (5) Strongly agree.

7.3.5.1. Dominating Conflict Style

The dominating conflict style is defined by a great concern for oneself and a low concern for others (Kit Lam, Sang Chin and Fai Pun, 2007). This style is generally

used interchangeably with competing, aggression, contending, and forcing (Gross and Guerrero, 2000; Cai and Fink, 2002; Lee, 2008; Brykman and O'Neill, 2023). This style has been associated with a win-lose mentality or with pressuring behavior to gain a position (Rahim, 2001). This behavior is defined by uncooperative behavior aimed at advancing one's own interests at the expense of others and could erode the mutual benefit. It mainly relies on the use of position power, aggression, verbal dominance, and perseverance (Lee, 2008). A dominating actor always sticks to his/her arguments that he/she is correct and always tries to win. This technique is useful when the issues involved in a conflict are essential to the party or an unfavorable decision by the other party may be harmful to this party. An actor may utilize this method if a quick conclusion is necessary or if the subordinates are overly forceful or lack the technical knowledge to make choices (Afzalur Rahim, 2002).

7.3.5.2. Integrating Conflict Style

This style is being used interchangeably with confronting, collaborating, problem-solving (Gross and Guerrero, 2000; Cai and Fink, 2002; Callanan, Benzing and Perri, 2006; Brykman and O'Neill, 2023). The integrating style is concerned with collaborative issue resolution where individuals deal directly with conflict and seek new and creative solutions to problems by focusing on their own needs as well as the needs of others (Lee, 2008). The integrating approach is competent because it allows each actor to access the other person's perspectives or irreconcilable aims, allowing them to develop a solution that integrates both sides' goals and requirements. Therefore, it is frequently believed that the collaborating (or integrating) style is the best way to handle conflict and that people should be trained to aim for collaboration whenever they are in a conflict situation (Callanan, Benzing and Perri, 2006).

7.3.5.3 Obliging Conflict Style

This style is being used interchangeably with smoothing, yielding, or accommodating (Gross and Guerrero, 2000; Cai and Fink, 2002; Callanan et al., 2006). Obliging is linked to accommodating behaviors such as putting one's own needs aside to appease the partner, passively accepting the choices made by the partner, making yielding or conceding statements, denying or failing to express one's needs, and explicitly expressing harmony and cooperation during a conflict episode (Saeed et al., 2014). These conflict management techniques are deceptive and

cooperative and generally employed when one party is prepared to give up something in anticipation of receiving something in return from the other party later on. As stated by Cai and Fink (2002), under some conditions like time pressures from business partners may be encouraged to apply an obliging approach.

Table 9. Measurement Items

Dependent Variable	Items
Dominating	I use my influence to get my ideas accepted
	I use my authority to make a decision in my company's favor.
	I use my expertise to make a decision in my company's favor.
	I am generally firm in pursuing my company's side of the issue.
	I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation of a problem.

Table 9 (Continued). Measurement Items

Collaborating	I try to investigate an issue with my customer to find a solution acceptable to us.
	I try to integrate my customer ideas with those of my company to come up with a decision jointly.
	I try to work with my customer to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations.
	I exchange accurate information with my customer to solve a problem together.
	I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.
	I collaborate with my customer to come up with decisions acceptable to us.
	I try to work with my customer for a proper understanding of a problem.

Obliging	I generally try to satisfy the needs of my customer.
	I usually accommodate the wishes of my customer.
	I give in to the wishes of my customer.
	I usually allow concessions to my customer.
	I often go along with the suggestions of my customer, I try to satisfy the expectations of my customer.
	I try to satisfy the expectations of my customer.

7.3.6. Stimulus Materials

Logistics operations are complex activities that include multi-actors with competing goals for moving and storing things as they move through the supply chain (Audy et al., 2012). These multi actors attempt to control the behavior of their partners sometimes by using coercive sources of power which increase the growth of conflict between channel members (Gaski, 1984; Williams and Moore, 2007). In this regard, the logistics service network was chosen because it is a conflict-prone industry. Late delivery was chosen as a cause of an operational conflict as it is hard to be tolerated by causing production stoppages (Lindqvist and Gladh, 2019) and a bullwhip effect which may result in late delivery to the final customer (Schmitt et al., 2015). This late delivery problem was encountered as one of the most encountered operational problems in real-life scenarios experienced by logistics service actors compiled from the semi-structured interviews. As stated by Callanan, Benzing and Perri (2006), using real-life scenarios allows academicians and practitioners to see the complex factors that frame the conflict, as well as the potential efficacy of varying responses. It is also important to see the usefulness of conflict modes as depending upon a complex set of situational circumstances.

7.3.7. Scenarios

High criticality-low power

You have received a new delivery order from a business customer. The business customer is one of the biggest players and a well-known company with its largest

market share in the sector. As a logistics service provider company, you are a small-scale player with a smaller market share in the industry.

Due to operational disruptions on the day of transportation, you were able to transfer the shipment of the business customer to the next vehicle, so there was a delay in transportation. As the business customer's production line works with the Just-in-Time (JIT) concept, it is of great importance for you to deliver the shipment on time. Otherwise, the customer's production line will stop and you will have to deal with compensation for this delay. This creates a conflict between you and the business customer, who is the dominant party in the business relationship.

Low criticality-low power

You have received a new delivery order from a business customer. The business customer is one of the biggest players and a well-known company with its largest market share in the sector. As a logistics service provider company, you are a small-scale player with a smaller market share in the industry.

Due to operational disruptions on the day of transportation, you were able to transfer the shipment of the commercial customer to the next vehicle, so there was a delay in transportation. Since the business customer can use the materials s/he needs from his own stock, the production line will not stop and there will be no compensation cost to you. In this sense, late delivery of the shipment is of no serious importance for you in terms of its results. However, this creates a conflict between you and the business customer who is the dominant party in the business relationship.

High criticality-high power

As a logistics service provider, you are one of the biggest players in the industry and a well-known company with a large market share. You have received a new delivery order from a business customer. The business customer is a small-scale player, a company with a smaller market share in the industry.

Due to operational disruptions on the day of transportation, you were able to transfer the shipment of the business customer to the next vehicle, so there was a delay in transportation. As the business customer's production line works with the

Just-in-Time (JIT) concept, it is of great importance for you to deliver the shipment on time. Otherwise, the customer's production line will stop and you will have to deal with compensation for this delay. This creates a conflict between you, the dominant party in the business relationship, and the business customer.

Low criticality-high power

As a logistics service provider, you are one of the biggest players in the industry and a well-known company with a large market share. You have received a new delivery order from a business customer. The business customer is a small-scale player, a company with a smaller market share in the industry.

Due to operational disruptions on the day of transportation, you were able to transfer the shipment of the commercial customer to the next vehicle, so there was a delay in transportation. Since the business customer can use the materials s/he needs from his own stock, the production line will not stop and there will be no compensation cost to you. In this sense, late delivery of the shipment is of no serious importance for you in terms of its results. However, this creates a conflict between you, the dominant party in the business relationship, and the business customer.

7.3.8. Procedures

The questionnaires were willingly completed by 160 participants for the main study. For pre-test, 40 participants from the same sample responded to the manipulation check questions. With this sampling, LinkedIn as a social media platform including a network of professional contacts and provides opportunities for group interactions (Boyd and Ellison, 2007; Taylor and Dobbins, 2021) was chosen to select different business actors in the logistics service network. The sample was reached from a closed group (with 500 members) with the positions of specialist, managers, executives, representatives to get response from competent participants in the sector. We selected the first 100 members in each scenario from the LinkedIn group. Then, the potential respondent's profile was then reviewed to ensure that they worked in the logistics industry and that they played a significant role in this sector. We stopped getting answers once we got 40 participants for each scenario.

The possible respondents were then sent the following LinkedIn messages: "In the context of my thesis, I am conducting a survey on the conflict and resolution mechanisms. I'd appreciate it if you could spend 10 minutes answering the questions on the following link ...in order to give me your viewpoint." To boost the response rate, follow-up messages were sent after 7 days. So, 400 requests were made, and 160 of them were granted permission to participate in the survey yielding a response rate of 40 % that is similar to other studies (e.g. Dulaimi, Ling and Bajracharya, 2003; Charef et al., 2019).

The scales and scenarios were translated and adapted to Turkish, the items were reworded, and adjustments were made before the pretests and main test. Pilot tests were conducted in academic and practitioner groups of 5–6 participants before the pretests and main test. To establish construct validity, we took precautions while creating measurement instruments to capture unobservable properties through manipulation tests. Manipulation tests give a systematic method for confirming that measurement instruments capture unobservable phenomena (Khan, 2011). Each participant in the pretest and main test only received one treatment, in accordance with the between-subject design logic (Oflač, Sullivan and Baltacıoğlu, 2012). When using these kinds of designs, causal estimates are obtained by contrasting the behavior of individuals in one experimental condition with that of those in another, provided that group assignment is random (Charness, Gneezy and Kuhn, 2012). As stated by Thompson et al. (2018), between-subjects designs yielded the most consistent results when compared to within-subject design which produces the purest test of double standards as the same participants answer the same set of questions for each goal. As a result, the criticality and power pre-tests were done using a between-subjects design with a sample size of 40 (20 for each compared group) drawn from the sample pool in the main experiment. The group assignments to participants were done randomly. Manipulation checks for criticality and power were performed separately to ensure that no reactions or interactions were created. These tests were done to ensure that the manipulations were free of issues before the main design was finalized. Participants responded to the questions following their exposure to the manipulation checks.

To conduct the main experiment, a 2x2 (high vs low criticality x high versus low

power) between-subjects design was used, with each subject being randomly allocated to one of the four experimental conditions. As soon as they had finished reading the scenarios, the participants were invited to imagine themselves in the described scenarios and to complete the surveys. The measures regarding the three conflict-handling approaches (dominating, obliging, and coordinating) were then asked for evaluation.

7.3.9. Preliminary Research

7.3.9.1. Manipulation Checks

Before undertaking the major analysis of any experiment, manipulation checks are designed to eliminate potential threats to the validity of the research findings and to clarify any ambiguities (Yildirim, Oflaç and Yurt, 2018). Capturing the unobservable independent variables, which cannot be directly measured but can instead be changed indirectly by altering some features of the subject's environment, is essential to guarantee construct validity. Convergent validity, which is a subtype of construct validity, also necessitates performing manipulation checks. It is proven through convergent validity that manipulation checks are connected to 'direct' measurements of the latent (independent) variables they were intended to affect (Highhouse, 2009). Careful pre-experimental exposition of the constructs can result in strong and reliable manipulations for achieving significant main tests, ensuring that the definitions are explicit and the terms being used are adequate for general comprehension. Through manipulation checks, we examined criticality and power in a between-subject design with a sample size of 40 respondents who were randomly assigned to pre-test groups in order to establish convergent validity. The manipulation checks proved that the manipulations were valid. Table 10 shows manipulations for criticality and power with high and low levels.

Table 10. Manipulation Levels

Levels	Criticality Manipulation
Low	Since the business customer can use the materials s/he needs from his own stock, the production line will not stop and there will be no compensation cost to you. In this sense, late delivery of the shipment is of no serious importance for you in terms of its

	results.
High	As the business customer's production line works with the Just-in-Time (JIT) concept, it is of great importance for you to deliver the shipment on time. Otherwise, the customer's production line will stop and you will have to deal with compensation for this delay.
	Power Manipulation
Low	The business customer is one of the biggest players and a well-known company with its largest market share in the sector. As a logistics service provider company, you are a small-scale player with a smaller market share in the industry.....This creates a conflict between you and the business customer, who is the dominant party in the business relationship.
High	As a logistics service provider, you are one of the biggest players in the industry and a well-known company with a large market share. The business customer is a small-scale player, a company with a smaller market share in the industry.....This creates a conflict between you, the dominant party in the business relationship, and the business customer.

7.3.9.2. Manipulation Checks for Criticality

To determine whether there were statistically significant variations in the ratings of criticality when subjects were subjected to more or less critical situations, manipulation checks were carried out as part of the preliminary research. The item stating that "I think this event is critical in terms of its consequences" was used to examine the individuals' perceptions of the importance of late delivery via a 5-point Likert scale. For this experiment, 40 respondents (20 for each treatment) served as between-subjects.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics for Criticality Manipulation

	Low-high	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I think this event is critical in terms of its consequences.	LC	20	3.50	0.761	0.170
	HC	20	4.25	1.164	0.260

Based on the results of the T-test for criticality manipulation, there is a significant

difference between the scores for conflict criticality with levels of low criticality (M=3.50; SD: 0.761) and high criticality (M=4.25; SD: 1.164) where $t(38) = -2.412$; $p=0.021$ (Table 11 and Table 12). As findings demonstrate, the phrases used for the criticality manipulations were appropriate and the criticality was assessed higher by participants in high criticality scenarios than by participants in low criticality situations, as was expected.

Table 12. Independent Sample T-test Statistics for Criticality Manipulation

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
I think this event is critical in terms of its consequences.	Equal variances assumed	1.963	0.169	-2.412	38	0.021	-0.750	0.311

7.3.9.3. Manipulation Checks for Power

In order to conduct the analysis for power manipulation checks, two distinct scenarios had been constructed, and respondents were asked to score the phrases “Which firm is stronger in the scenario given above?” with the following answers (1) business customer is much more powerful, (2) business customer is somewhat more powerful, (3) no firm is more powerful than the other, (4) logistics service provider is more powerful, (5) logistics service provider is much more powerful. This scale is in line with the scale of Drory and Ritov (1997). A total of 40 respondents (20 for each scenario and treatment) were included in the between-subjects testing.

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics for Power Manipulation

Low-high		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Which company do you think is powerful in this situation?	LP	20	1.90	0.641	0.143
	HP	20	2.95	1.146	0.256

As depicted by the results of the t-test, there is a significant difference between the scores of low power (M=1.90; SD: 0.641), and high power (M=2.95; SD: 1.146) where $t(38) = -3.577$, $p=0.001$ (Table 13 and Table 14). Results show that the wording chosen to convey the power of the involved parties (logistics service providers and business customers) was adequate, and participants in high-power scenarios gave higher ratings of power than those in low-power scenarios, as was expected.

Table 14. Independent Sample T-test Statistics for Power Manipulation

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Which company do you think is powerful in this situation?	Equal variances assumed	4.943	0.032	-3.577	38	0.001	-1.050	0.294

7.3.9.4. Realism Check

On a 5-point Likert scale (1=completely disagree, 5=completely agree), the scenarios' realism was also evaluated by asking whether it was possible to encounter a problem similar to it in real life with the item: "I believe that such things are likely to happen in real life" (Webster and Sundaram, 1998). Realism enhances the ecological validity of the findings as it describes whether a subject's response to stimuli in an artificial context, such as an experiment, conforms to their behavior in the linked real-world setting (i.e., their ecology) (Oflač, Sullivan and Baltacıoğlu, 2012; Fildes, Goodwin and Önköl, 2019). As Table 15 shows, a high mean score was achieved for the realism evaluation of the scenarios (M= 4.90).

Table 15. Descriptive Statistics for Realism

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I believe such things can happen in real life.	40	4	5	4.90	0.304	0.048

Also, the responses showed high mean values for the scores of low criticality (M= 4.95; SD: 0.224) and high criticality (M= 4.85; SD: 0.366) (Table 16), indicating that there is no statistical difference among the respondents in terms of realism (Table 17).

Table 16. Descriptive Statistics for Realism-Criticality

Low-high		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I believe such things can happen in real life.	LC	20	4.95	0.224	0.050
	HC	20	4.85	0.366	0.082

Table 17. Mann-Whitney U Test Statistics for Criticality

	I believe such things can happen in real life.
Mann-Whitney U	180.000
Wilcoxon W	390.000
Z	-1.041
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.298
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	0.602 ^b

--	--

According to the descriptive statistics of the reality check, respondents believe both scenarios include low and high power situations with mean values of 4.90 for low power and 4.90 for high power (Table 18), thus there is no statistical difference among the two levels as it is also seen from (Table 19).

Table 18. Descriptive Statistics for Realism-Power

Low-high		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I believe such things can happen in real life.	LP	20	4.9	0.308	0.069
	HP	20	4.9	0.308	0.069

Table 19. Mann-Whitney U Test Statistics for Power

	I believe such things can happen in real life.
Mann-Whitney U	200.000
Wilcoxon W	410.000
Z	0.000
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	1.000 ^b

7.3.10. Validity and Reliability of the Study

7.3.10.1. Validity

The four criteria employed in experimental investigations for testing conclusions regarding causal relationships are statistical conclusion validity, internal validity, construct validity, and external validity (Shadish, Cook and Campbell, 2002).

Scholars frequently discuss construct validity, or how effectively a measure reflects an underlying concept, but there is little discussion regarding the optimal source for assessing a specific construct. One option is to generalize and utilize a respondent

who is knowledgeable about all of the constructs/variables of interest in a study (Ketchen Jr, Craighead and Cheng, 2018). To provide construct validity, samples were chosen based on their capacity to capture the constructs. Besides, some construct validity threats such as hypothesis-guessing and the interaction of multiple treatments (Ellis et al., 1996), were avoided with the use of between-subjects design. Convergent validity is provided via manipulation tests for power and criticality variables in line with the work of Andrews (1988). Additionally, when manipulations are poorly devised and when the questions do not directly relate to the variables being measured, construct validity problems may arise. We reduced the cognitive load of the test and questionnaire, which may increase the construct validity of the research by encouraging respondents to answer questions more thoroughly (Geuens and Pelsmacker, 2017).

Internal validity, as defined by Cook and Campbell (1979), is a phenomenon in which researchers infer that correlations between independent and dependent variables are not random but causal, and conducting experiments with high internal validity is ideal (Campbell and Stanley, 1966). To provide internal validity, the treatment groups were assigned at random to respondents to prevent the threads of selection (Ellis et al., 1996). Additionally, using the same instruments prevented testing and instrumentation issues. To improve control over potentially unmanageable factors, we did not use any real brand names and thus, utilization of scenarios on generic-fictitious companies helped to omit the respondents' past effect. Besides, internal validity is achieved in experimental design research by using manipulation as a determinant of differences between respondent groups (Vargas, Duff and Faber, 2017). Mean analysis of one-way ANOVA was used to compare the means of the groups.

In this study, statistical conclusion validity has also been considered and a larger sample size was chosen to enhance the statistical conclusion validity. A sample size of 160 people 40 for each of the 4 treatments was chosen in order to achieve a high level of statistical power (Ellis et al., 1996). Additionally, the manipulations used were primarily developed based on actual business problems in the logistics service network. Additionally, the pre-test included a reliability evaluation of the criticality situations. The influence of respondents' random heterogeneity was further examined

by including control variables including age, education, role, and gender.

External validity refers to how well a causal relationship generalizes to various contexts and sample sizes. Vignette experiments often provide results with higher levels of external validity than laboratory tests because they subject respondents to a set of contextual circumstances that closely resemble real-life decision-making situations (Wombacher and Felfe, 2017). In this study, external validity was strengthened by heterogeneous sampling, which focused on representativeness. The questions were carefully crafted with a broad sample of respondents in mind to raise respondents' understanding of the various conflict-handling styles and to increase external validity (Geuens and Pelsmacker, 2017).

7.3.10.2. Reliability of the Scale

The amount of an observed variable's variance that is attributable to the real scores is known as reliability. The assessment of internal consistency is the reliability component that is most frequently utilized, while Cronbach's coefficient alpha and composite reliability are the metrics most frequently used to measure internal consistency (Ruel et al., 2021). In practice, Cronbach's alpha measures for the constructs should be more than 0.60 (Nunnally, 1978; Malhotra, 2004). If α is greater than 0.8, it signifies the internal uniformity is excellent; if α is between 0.6 and 0.8, it is good. But if α is less than 0.6, this indicates that the internal homogeneity is poor (Florent and Zhen, 2010). The coefficient alpha values for the three constructs in this study are all within acceptable ranges. Table 20 shows Cronbach's alpha values and item numbers.

Table 20. Scale Item Numbers and Scale Reliability

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of scale items
Dominating	0.7	5
Obliging	0.7	6
Coordinating	0.8	7

7.4 Analyses and Results

7.4.1. Sample Matching

Although randomization ensures that each participant has a known (usually equal) probability of being assigned to one of the groups, it does not ensure that risk variables are perfectly balanced between groups (Beller, GebSKI and Keech, 2002). To ensure the experiment's validity the actors from the logistics service network who took part in the experiment were randomly assigned to the various groups, and the experiment's framing was also done that way (Campbell and Stanley, 1966). Chi-square analyses were performed for gender, age, education, and role in industry differences to examine the balance of participant characteristics in four groups. Using the standard cut-off value of 0.05 (Farooque et al., 2022), the findings revealed that the groups were identical in terms of these characteristics (Table 21).

Table 21. Sample Matching Test Results

Pearson Chi-Square	value	df	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)
group*gender	4.693	3	0.196
group*age	10.914	9	0.282
group*education	11.879	9	0.220
group*role	7.976	9	0.537

7.4.2 Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1a

For hypothesis 1a, it is predicted that compared with the low power ones, logistics service providers with high power are more likely to prefer the dominating strategy. To evaluate this hypothesis, the influence of power levels (high and low power) on the dominating strategy was compared using a one-way between-subjects ANOVA test. The Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variance revealed that variances were not substantially different from one another ($p= 0.581$) in Table 16. Dominating strategy

ratings were higher for actors with high power (M=4.01, SD: 0.712) than for actors with low power (M= 3.79, SD: 0. 647). There was a significant difference in group averages between the two levels of power for dominant strategy ratings according to the ANOVA results for H1 (Table 24) [F (1, 158) =4. 278, p=0.040, eta² =0.06]. According to Coe (2000), effect size is a means to assess the disparity between two groups and the efficacy of treatments in experiments. Cohen (1988) defined an effect as 0.01 = very small, 0.06 = moderate, and 0.14 = extremely big. Based on this, calculated eta squared was 0.026 designating a small effect. This suggests that approximately 2.6% of the variance in the dominating strategy can be attributed to the power.

These results show that following an operational conflict, actors who have high power are more likely to choose dominating strategy than actors who have low power. This can also be seen from the mean plot for H1a in Figure 1. Therefore, H1a was confirmed. This implies that in a high power situation, such providers may prioritize their own interests and exert their power to achieve their goals.

Hypothesis 1b

In hypothesis 1b, we state that compared with the high power ones, logistics service providers with low power are more likely to prefer the integrating strategy. A one-way between-subjects ANOVA test was used to analyze the impact of power levels (high and low power) on the coordinating strategy in order to assess this hypothesis. Levene's Test for Equal Variances (Table 23) demonstrated that the premise of variance homogeneity was not violated (p=0.277). The difference between low power and high power on choosing coordinating strategy is not statistically significant (M=4.51, SD: 0.502 versus M=4.42, SD: 0.585) at the p<.05 level, [F (1,158) =0.991, p: 0.321] (Table 22). This is also supported by mean plots in **Figure 13** for H1b. Therefore, **H1b** is not supported.

Table 22. Descriptive Statistics for H1a and H1b

Descriptive Statistics for Power Effect on Dominating Strategy (H1a)					
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean

					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LP	80	3.79	0.647	0.072	3.64	3.93
HP	80	4.01	0.712	0.080	3.85	4.17
Total	160	3.90	0.687	0.054	3.79	4.00
Descriptive Statistics for Power Effect on Coordinating Strategy (H1b)						
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LP	80	4.51	0.502	0.056	4.39	4.62
HP	80	4.42	0.585	0.065	4.29	4.55
Total	160	4.46	0.545	0.043	4.38	4.55

Table 23. Homogeneity of Variances Test Result for H1a and H1b

Homogeneity of Variances Test Result for H1a			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
0.306	1	158	0.581
Homogeneity of Variances Test Result for H1b			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.192	1	158	0.277

Table 24. ANOVA Statistics for H1a and H1b

ANOVA Statistics for Power Effect on Dominating Strategy (H1a)					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.980	1	1.980	4.278	0.040
Within Groups	73.138	158	0.463		
Total	75.118	159			
ANOVA Statistics for Power Effect on Coordinating Strategy (H1b)					

Between Groups	0.294	1	0.294	0.991	0.321
Within Groups	46.869	158	0.297		
Total	47.163	159			

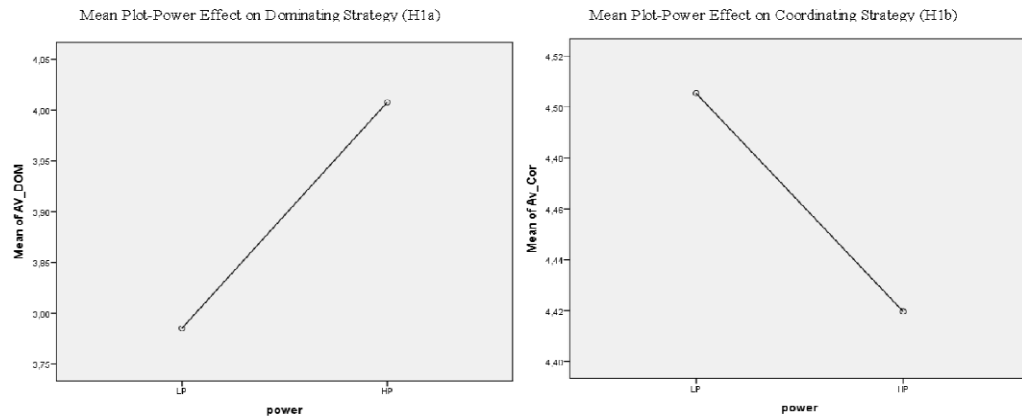


Figure 13. Mean Plot for H1a and H1b

Hypothesis 2

As stated by Hypothesis 2, compared with low critical ones, logistics service providers in high critical situations are more likely to prefer the dominating approach. In order to evaluate this hypothesis, a one-way between-subjects ANOVA test was utilized to examine the impact of criticality levels (high and low criticality) on the dominating strategy. The equality of variances assumption was proven ($p=0.162$) using the Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variance (Table 26). There is no statistically significant difference between the two levels of criticality on choosing dominating strategy ($M=3.91$ $SD: 0.612$ versus $M=3.89$ $SD=0.759$), according to the results of a one-way between-subjects ANOVA (Table 27) at the $p.005$ level [$F(1,158)=0.126, p=0.873$].

Table 25. Descriptive Statistics for Criticality Effect on Dominating Strategy

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LC	80	3.91	0.612	0.068	3.77	4.04
HC	80	3.89	0.759	0.085	3.72	4.06
Total	160	3.90	0.687	0.054	3.79	4.00

Table 26. Homogeneity of Variances Test Result for H2

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.977	1	158	0.162

Table 27. ANOVA Statistics for Criticality Effect on Dominating Strategy

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0.012	1	0.012	0.026	0.873
Within Groups	75.106	158	0.475		
Total	75.118	159			

Hypothesis 3

As supported by Hypothesis 3, in high criticality situations, logistics service providers are more likely to adopt a coordinating strategy as compared to dominating and obliging strategies. Within each group, paired sample T tests were performed to better understand the logistics service providers' tendency to choose dominating, coordinating and obliging styles. It was found that significant variations were identified between the pairs of styles in high-criticality situations. In Tables 28 and 29, the results demonstrate that in high criticality situations, participants preferred the coordinating strategy (M=4.48, SD=0.541) over the dominating strategy (M=3.89, SD: 0.759) [$t(79) = -6.247$, $p = 0.000$ at the $p: 0.05$ level] or the obliging strategy (M=3.68, SD: 0.547) [$t(79) = -11.592$, $p = 0.020$ at the $p: 0.05$ level]. As a result, H3 was approved.

Table 28. Paired Sample Statistics for Dominating, Obliging and Coordinating Styles with High Criticality

High Criticality		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Av_Dom	3.89	80	0.759	0.085
	Av_Obl	3.68	80	0.547	0.061
Pair 2	Av_Dom	3.89	80	0.759	0.085
	Av_Cor	4.48	80	0.541	0.061
Pair 3	Av_Obl	3.68	80	0.547	0.061

	Av_Cor	4.48	80	0.541	0.061
--	--------	------	----	-------	-------

Table 29. Paired Sample Tests for Dominating, Obliging and Coordinating Styles with High Criticality

High Criticality		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Av_Dom - Av_Obl	0.206	0.777	0.087	0.033	0.379	2.375	79	0.020
Pair 2	Av_Dom - Av_Cor	-0.596	0.854	0.095	-0.786	-0.406	-6.247	79	0.000
Pair 3	Av_Obl - Av_Cor	-0.803	0.619	0.069	-0.941	-0.665	-11.592	79	0.000

Hypothesis 4

For hypothesis 4, we advocate that, in high-power situations, logistics service providers are more likely to adopt a coordinating strategy as compared to dominating and obliging strategies. Paired sample T tests were run within each group to better understand the logistics service providers' inclination for dominating, coordinating, and obliging styles. Significant differences were discovered between the pairs of approaches in high power situations. Based on the results in Table 30 and Table 31, it can be seen that in high power situations, participants preferred the coordinating strategy (M=4.42, SD: 0.585) over the dominating strategy (M=4.01, SD: 0.712) [$t(79) = -4.495, p = 0.000$ at the p.05 level] or the obliging strategy (M=3.61, SD: 0.605) [$t(79) = 5.287, p = 0.000$ at the p.05 level]. Besides, calculated eta squared was 0.261 for Pair 1, 0.203 for Pair 2 and 0.606 for Pair 3 designating a large effect.

As a result, H4 was also approved. This implies that in a high power situation, logistics service providers may see value in collaborating and finding mutually beneficial solutions that benefit all parties involved.

Table 30. Paired Sample Statistics for Dominating, Obliging and Coordinating Styles with High Power

High Power		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Av_Dom	4.01	80	0.712	0.080
	Av_Obl	3.61	80	0.605	0.068
Pair 2	Av_Dom	4.01	80	0.712	0.080
	Av_Cor	4.42	80	0.585	0.065
Pair 3	Av_Obl	3.61	80	0.605	0.068
	Av_Cor	4.42	80	0.585	0.065

Table 31. Paired Sample Tests for Dominating, Obliging and Coordinating Styles with High Power

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Av_Dom - Av_Obl	0.401	0.679	0.076	0.250	0.552	5.287	79	0.000
Pair 2	Av_Dom - Av_Cor	-0.412	0.820	0.092	-0.595	-0.230	-4.495	79	0.000
Pair 3	Av_Obl - Av_Cor	-0.813	0.586	0.066	-0.944	-0.683	-12.405	79	0.000

Hypothesis 5

In hypothesis 5, it is predicted that there is an interaction between criticality and power regarding their impacts on choosing conflict handling strategies. In this regard, a two-way between subjects ANOVA was used to examine the impact of criticality and power on choosing dominating, coordinating and obliging conflict handling methods.

According to the Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Error Variances, equality of variances assumption was proved for dominating ($p: 0.464$), obliging ($p: 0.05$) and coordinating ($p: 0.579$) conflict handling styles. The interaction effect between criticality and power was not statistically significant for both dominating [$F(1,156) = 0.120, p=0.729, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .001$], obliging [$F(1,156) = 0.136, p=0.713, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .001$] and coordination style ($F(1,156) = 0.905, p=0.343, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .006$]

(Table 32). Therefore, H5 was rejected.

The findings indicated that the influence of any specific level change for criticality on conflict-handling methods is the same for every fixed power setting. This is an additive model (no-interaction model).

Table 32. Test of Between-Subject

Dependent Variable: Av_Dom							
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances (Sig.)	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
0.464	CG * PG	0.056	1	0.056	0.120	0.729	0.001
Dependent Variable: Av_Obl							
0.050	CG * PG	0.039	1	0.039	0.136	0.713	0.001
Dependent Variable: Av_Cor							
0.579	CG * PG	0.270	1	0.270	0.905	0.343	0.006

Table 33. Hypothesis Results

H1a	Compared with the low power ones, logistics service providers with high power are more likely to prefer the dominating strategy.	Accepted
H1b	Compared with the high power ones, logistics service providers with low power are more likely to prefer the coordinating strategy.	Rejected
H2	Compared with low critical ones, logistics service providers in high critical situations are more likely to prefer the dominating approach.	Rejected
H3	In high criticality situations, logistics service providers are more likely to adopt a coordinating strategy as compared to dominating and obliging strategies.	Accepted

H4	In high power situations, logistics service providers are more likely to adopt a coordinating strategy as compared to dominating and obliging strategies.	Accepted
H5	There is an interaction between criticality and power regarding their impacts on choosing conflict handling strategies.	Rejected

7.4.3. Control Variables

In order to reveal the impact of age, gender, education, and role on dependent variables, one-way ANOVA was employed. According to the results of Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variance for the age and gender, assumption of equality of variances was proved for dominating and coordinating style. For education and role, assumption was violated for coordinating style (Table 34). Thus, an additional Welch test for robustness was conducted. In this part of the analysis, the obliging style is not addressed here as the main and interaction hypotheses are always based on dominating and coordinating variables.

According to the one way between subjects ANOVA results, it was seen that, there was no significant difference between education and role groups on choosing coordinating style [$F(3,156)=0.885$, $p=.450$] and [$F(3,156)=1.198$, $p=0.313$] respectively (Table 35 and Table 30). Additionally, the results indicate that there was no significant difference between the levels of education [$F(3, 5) =1.541$, $p=0.305$] and role [$F(3, 13) =0.737$, $p=0.548$] in terms of adoption of coordinating style (Table 36 and Table 38).

Table 34. Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Age, Gender, Education and Role

Age				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Av_Dom	0.480	2	157	0.620
Av_Cor	1.529	2	157	0.220
Gender				
Av_Dom	0.279	1	158	0.598
Av_Cor	0.007	1	158	0.935
Education				
Av_Dom	2.498	3	156	0.062
Av_Cor	2.920	3	156	0.036

Role				
Av_Dom	2.082	3	156	0.105
Av_Cor	5.407	3	156	0.001

Table 35. ANOVA Statistics for Education

Av_Cor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0.790	3	0.263	0.885	0.450
Within Groups	46.373	156	0.297		
Total	47.163	159			

Table 36. Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Av_Cor				
	Statistica	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1.541	3	5.496	0.305
Brown-Forsythe	1.014	3	16.803	0.411

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Table 37. ANOVA Statistics for Role

Av_Cor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.062	3	0.354	1.198	0.313
Within Groups	46.101	156	0.296		
Total	47.163	159			

Table 38. Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Av_Cor				

	Statistica	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	0.737	3	13.287	0.548
Brown-Forsythe	0.673	3	8.081	0.592
a. Asymptotically F distributed.				



CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

Although interpersonal conflicts have received a lot of attention from academics and practitioners over the past 20 years, we still have limited knowledge of inter-organizational conflicts (Lengers, Dant, and Meiseberg, 2015; Lumineau, Eckerd and Handley, 2015). As conflict is common and has significant social and economic repercussions for the B2B markets, this research evaluates recent research on B2B conflicts critically by following qualitative and quantitative methodologies. In this regard, after conducting a systematic literature review addressing supply chain conflicts and a semi-systematic literature review for the logistics service network (LSN) specifically, we found that there is no comprehensive study on conflicts in the logistics sector and the conflicts in relational terms are most studied by dyadic (involving two parties e.g. buyers and suppliers) or single level (which represents conflicts between the same logistics partners horizontally) perspectives. It has been also found that most of the studies in this field (more than half) follow a quantitative methodology and the share of mixed methodologies is very small.

In light of the findings in the semi-systematic literature review and the complex nature of the logistics service network which involves a large number of decision-makers inside each organization with multi-point interactions, we conducted this study in a way to include multi-players and we employed mixed methodology to create an exhaustive framework in this field. In this context, we first conducted qualitative semi-structured interviews with 20 logistics service actors, addressing all conflict dynamics (causes, outcomes, and dynamic capabilities, level-based resolution of conflicts, conflicts in the resolution process and transformation of conflicts). Then, grounding on the incidents in the qualitative study, we designed a 2x2 between-subject design experiment. In this chapter, we will give a summary of the quantitative and qualitative research that has been done by pointing to the theoretical and managerial contributions and we will offer recommendations for upcoming studies on inter-organizational conflicts.

For the qualitative research findings, we first provide a snapshot specifically for the logistics service network including conflict sources, outcomes of conflicts, dynamic

capabilities for handling conflicts, level-based resolution mechanisms, conflicts in the resolution process, and transformation of conflicts occurring between different logistics service network players suggested by Wagenaar (1992). By basing on the conflict theory, agency theory, dynamic capability theory, and social exchange theory, we provide insights into how these inter-organizational themes are interrelated to each other through the investigation of the antecedent-consequent relationship of conflicts in the logistics network.

In terms of quantitative research findings, the relationship between the effects of criticality and power variables, which are essential elements in the dynamic of conflicts, on three conflict resolution styles which are dominating, obliging, and coordinating has been examined through a 2x2 between-subjects experimental design with 160 expert participants from the logistics networks.

8.1. Conflict Types

As Jamaluddin and Saibani (2021) state, the majority of B2B partners use a collaborative relationship approach impacting the operational, financial, environmental, social and economic performance of their supply chain. Therefore, understanding the supply chain relationship between B2B partners is critical, especially during difficult periods such as conflict, exercise of power or opportunism. Grounding on this, our findings revealed possible conflicts such as economic, service, operational, and relational in B2B relationships by specifically addressing the actors in the logistics service network.

Our findings are in line with the study of Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) stating that conflicts may stem from optimizing economic behaviors of the partners involved as a part of behavior-based conflict theory. Although Lacity and Willcocks (2017) classified economic conflicts such as pricing and profit margin conflicts, our findings suggest that economic conflicts include pricing (e.g. increasing fuel and spot prices) and payment conflicts (e.g. early and advance payment, depositing some taxes). Herein, it is seen that the conflicts arose out of some of the logistics service actors' specific demands for payments rather than late payment issues as in the study of Barutçu et al. (2010) and Constantinescu (2017).

In the studies of Lacity and Willcocks (2015, 2017), service conflicts, which are disputes over the services provided, arose from logistics actors' lack of capabilities, used software, the tools used to provide a service resulting in poor service quality as well as slow service, error-prone service, and changing service requirements. Additionally, the main cause of service conflicts are mostly related to different service levels, after-sales service activities, and demand-enhancing of service operations among actors in supply chains (Özcan and Oflaç, 2022). Differently, in this thesis, failures in order conditions, timeliness in services, quality/competence of contact personnel, availability, and service standards are found to cause service conflicts for logistics actors. From this standpoint, our findings support the theoretical perspectives of the logistics service quality (LSQ) framework which is crucial in the theme of logistics and also for logistics service providers (Lin et al., 2016 and Nugroho, Kempa and Panjaitan, 2020).

Our study is strongly in line with the studies of Barutçu et al. (2010) and Constantinescu (2017) who studied relationship conflicts at a more organizational level compared to Lacity and Willcocks (2017) by revealing that power, asymmetric information, unfair treatment, are main sources of relationship conflicts. However, our findings have a broader context than previous literature by referring to force, sanctions, and monopolization issues in line with the agency theory. Within the context of this theory, partners introduce these pressures as safeguards to reduce goal conflict by making the other party economically prudent to not behave opportunistically as a result of macro structures like power, wealth, and prestige. Again, by using their market or resource power, they behave monopolistic (Delbufalo and Delbufalo, 2018). As stated by the agency theory, partners' behaviors are dominated by individual rather than collective interests, and bias or discrimination appeared as targeted behaviors enacted by in-group agents as they perceive threats to national or domestic interests (Rangan and Wang, 2012). In this regard, our findings relating to unethical partner behavior and prioritization issues as a part of relational conflicts are also in line with the lenses and reflections of the theory and contribute to the academic knowledge in the field (Whipple and Roh, 2010).

Lastly, regarding operational conflicts which are directly attributable to production or

financial performance including late delivery or missed payment (Griffith, Harvey and Lusch, 2006), our findings offer more detailed insights by revealing different subcategories including customs conflicts, delay conflicts, and digital and documentation conflicts. Our findings support that logistics service actors are surrounded by a social system that defines the real barriers, conflicts in our research, that they cannot isolate themselves from these interactions (Turnbull, Ford and Cunningham, 1996). Within this context, some of the problems (e.g. customs and port conflicts) causing conflicts stem from interacting organizations and the individual actors in the logistics network in parallel with the research of Rice (1992) and Van Huijstee and Glasbergen (2010). Additionally, in line with the approach of Håkansson (1982), it is found that the working atmosphere that characterizes the relationship also influences its operations. Parallel to this, our findings reveal that the Covid-19 pandemic atmosphere triggered operational conflicts between logistics service actors by causing delays and disrupting many logistics operations (container flow, passenger flow, etc.) at once.

8.2. Outcomes of Conflicts

Conflicts produced varying effects, which could be characterized as either ‘positive’ or ‘negative’ depending on whether they had a constructive or a destructive result on the management of the situation (Mele, 2011). As stated by conflict theory, constructive conflict is essential to the development of organizations (Tjosvold and Ding, 2018). Besides, as the constructive controversy theory suggests, the pros and cons of critical actions are vital. This process generates a healthy dose of epistemic curiosity that in turn triggers active searches for new information and additional perspectives. In conformity with the research of Constantinescu (2017) and Mele (2011), our study reveals that conflict can generate constructive opportunities in a way to express dissatisfaction, critically reviews previous activities and introduces different perspectives that can lead to cooperative and innovative solutions (e.g. improved feedback mechanisms, improvements in communication and coordination). Additionally, our research has similar findings with the study of Sohail (2013) stating that the ability of the partner to handle conflict well is an important determinant of customer loyalty and retention. Again, recognition as a type of brand awareness emerged as another constructive effect of an operational conflict experienced by logistics actors even if it has developed a reputation in the form of notoriety. This

situation supports that while notoriety typically implies a negative connotation, it still brings attention and recognition to a brand. Differently, our findings revealed that logistics actors heightened their operational flexibility, improved their planning process and achieved systematic development in their operational process as a constructive way.

In terms of the destructive effects of conflicts, our study supports the findings of Greening and Johnson (1997) and Purinton (2001) by referring to lost sales (e.g. loss of income, customer and market share), image, and prestige (e.g. complaints, negative word of mouth effects) and dissolution of relationships (e.g. total and partial exits). Our findings are in conformity with the work of Hübner (2016) evaluating blacklisting and operational disruption are important destructive effects of B2B conflicts. However, our findings extend with these previous works by revealing compensation costs, and decreased service quality in a way the actor sacrifices the quality of their services. Besides, involvement in litigation processes which certainly takes a long time and results in the party being defeated which will further aggravate the dispute and also human resources problems (e.g. workforce loss, increased workload) are other destructive effects of conflicts.

8.3. Level-based Resolution Mechanisms

Theoretically, we found that Thomas and Kilmann's (1978) typology of conflict resolution styles is robust enough to characterize conflict cases. According to our findings, all conflict resolution techniques satisfied each partner at varying levels of conflict, which is consistent with conflict theory. Similarly, it is seen that partners' assessment of cost and benefit determines their behavioral responses to conflict resolution in line with the social exchange theory. In accordance with the conflict theory, it is found that logistics partners tend to adopt an avoidance approach as a resolution strategy when the conflict is lowly crystallized at the latent level. Besides, some logistics actors (e.g. 3PLs) with financial dependence and/or limited resources feel compelled to make an effort and maintain their relationship with their suppliers or customers and hence they take actions to maintain and improve the business relationship with them in this stage by avoiding conflict in line with the social exchange theory.

In our findings, conflicts start to be crystallized in the perceived and felt levels instead of the manifest level as contrary to proponents of the subjectivist conflict theory. In both the perceived level (being aware of the conflicts and recognizing conditions) and felt level (where partners sometimes personalize the conflicts and feel anxious) of conflicts, logistics partners mostly promote constructive behaviors (e.g. compromising, accommodation) although they also apply aggressive strategies when needed. Again, in parallel with the social exchange theory, partners generally behave according to the needs and requirements of their customers (in a powerful role) (e.g. keeping up with clients' work styles, holding meetings, and negotiations) to enhance service satisfaction.

In the manifest level of conflict, our findings revealed that the most obvious response is open aggression which is strongly proscribed by the organizational norms in line with the study of Pondy (1967). Herein, distrust and dissatisfaction stemming from conflicts and disagreements between logistics partners escalated the propensity to leave (e.g. termination of contracts and business relationships) and diminished relationship commitment (e.g. refusal to accept costs, non-payments, court proceedings) for the parties.

For the aftermath conflict, findings indicate that the procedural (e.g. systematic error research, reviewing the records), interactional (e.g. apology letters), and distributive justice (e.g. compensation) policies of the partners enhanced the long-term orientation, decreased conflict, and increased satisfaction of the partners. As postulated by the social exchange theory, the more individuals perceive their organization's actions as favorable toward them, the more likely they are to reciprocate, by creating positive outcomes. Therefore our findings are grounded strongly in the premises of the social exchange theory.

8.4. Dynamic Capabilities for Handling Conflicts

The dynamic capabilities emphasize that successful companies should quickly restructure their resources and capacities to regain skills in challenging circumstances (Chowdhury and Quaddus, 2017). We also contend that supply chains should be able to change their resources and capacities to manage the conflicts. In conflict management, our findings showed that logistics actors benefit from their planning, control, learning, reconfiguration, and coordination capabilities.

8.4.1. Planning Capability in Conflict Management

Planning capability is acknowledged as a complex, firm-specific capability enabling a firm to implement strategies that improve its efficiency, create value and provide a competitive advantage (Liu et al., 2009). It enables better management of resources, information, and skills by better forecasting, better planning, communicating, and monitoring performance. It is so similar to analytical capability in terms of reading signals in the business environment, controlling, and processing the gathered information (Eriksson, Nummela and Saarenketo, 2014). It may also precipitate better alignment of existing resource configurations (Fürstenau, Schinzel and Cleophas, 2014). Besides, reliance on systematic analysis, formulation strategies, searching for solutions to strategic problems, and assessing alternatives are of vital importance for the planning capability (Bailey, Johnson and Daniels, 2000; Hughes and Hodgkinson, 2021). A very important difference of the findings from the previous literature is the use of planning capabilities to deal with conflict situations among logistics service actors within the B2B context.

According to prior research, logistics service actors develop their operational plans through rigorous multi-modal planning, split deliveries, spot booking, and buffer lead time considerations. Herein, with multimodal planning, they diversify their alternatives and reduce the risk of bottlenecks and interruptions caused by conflicts in specific regions or transportation networks. Split deliveries allow flexibility in the event of conflicts or obstacles along the route. For example, if a crisis erupts in one place, the logistics actor redirects a portion of the shipment to another route or destination, ensuring supply continuity and minimizing the impact of the conflict. Furthermore, spot booking is useful during conflicts because it enables logistics actors to quickly adjust to shifting circumstances. To avoid conflicts, they arrange for alternate transportation, reroute shipments, or take other necessary measures. Last but not least, by including buffer lead time, logistics actors are better able to handle disputes that can prevent the timely flow of goods. With these extra days, they can deal with conflict-related delays, modify their plans, and come up with alternate solutions without jeopardizing the entire supply chain.

Similarly, logistics service actors adhere to a systematic framework through internal

workflow scheduling actions, as well as stronger formal and informal control processes such as equipment maintenance and pre-control processes to deal with conflicts in logistics service networks. A systematic framework for internal workflow scheduling, in this regard, enables logistics actors to optimize their operations and minimize potential conflicts by allocating resources efficiently, avoiding overloading specific nodes or segments of the logistics network, and reducing the risk of conflicts arising from resource imbalances or bottlenecks.

Logistics service actors successfully predict, detect, and respond to conflicts by integrating resource planning and dynamic planning into their conflict management techniques. These competencies help them to maintain operating efficiency, avoid disruptions, and ensure the seamless flow of goods and services even in difficult conditions. Similarly, organizational reconfiguration enabled them to transfer decision-making authority, form crisis management teams, or empower specific individuals or departments to make important decisions during conflict circumstances. Logistics actors enhance conflict management processes and enable faster and more effective responses by ensuring clear lines of authority and decision-making.

Furthermore, by sticking to maintenance schedules and employing preventative maintenance procedures, logistics actors can reduce the likelihood of equipment failures that could potentially lead to conflicts. Furthermore, by implementing comprehensive pre-control mechanisms, logistics actors identify potential conflicts or concerns at an early stage. This enables them to take precautionary actions, address any detected hazards, and ensure that only safe cargo enters the logistics network. Overall, these capabilities assist logistics players in identifying disputes, responding to them quickly, and fostering a culture of proactive conflict management and resolution.

Lastly, logistics actors also configure their resources by extended service offerings and supply base strategies. Logistics actors gain greater control over the transportation process by offering extended services in advance, and they manage the complete logistics chain themselves rather than relying on another organization for inland shipping. This enables them to improve coordination, monitoring, and

accountability, all of which are critical in conflict resolution. By doing so, logistics players ensure that shipments are handled in a timely and dependable manner, reducing the possibility of conflicts or disruptions caused by third parties. Furthermore, with the support of their expanded supply base, logistics players can quickly switch to alternate suppliers, maintaining a continuous supply chain and minimizing disruptions in the event of a conflict impacting a specific provider or region.

Overall, these planning-related techniques and capacities assist logistics actors in anticipating, preparing for, and effectively managing conflict, allowing them to respond to conflicts quickly, adapt to changing conditions, and preserve operational continuity.

8.4.2. Control Capabilities in Conflict Management

The dynamic capabilities theory also emphasizes the flexibility and adaptability of organizations and their efforts to act strategically, embrace new opportunities, and even shape the business environment (Sen, Kotlarsky and Budhwar, 2020; Anning-Dorson and Nyamekye, 2020). In this context, we discuss selected insights from the DC theory that can be related to developing “*control capabilities*” for being more flexible and adaptable to possible conflict risks. Additionally, considered as dynamic functional capabilities, control capabilities allow logistics partners to restrict and supervise each other; maintain control over the execution of key logistics processes through activity-based analysis, balanced scorecard, and performance measurement systems, as well as business analysis supporting planning, control, and strategic decision-making process (Elbashir et al., 2021). In line with this, as well as closely adopting systematic processes, logistics actors also apply performance measurement by incorporating customer tracking and contracting (e.g. satisfaction surveys, keeping records, etc.). By implementing process standardization, logistics actors can better comprehend the flow of operations and identify specific stages or individuals that are directly or indirectly impacted by the conflict. As a result, it is possible to detect where conflicts may arise as a result of delays, resource restrictions, or coordination challenges. This identifies possible conflict spots and allows for proactive involvement and problem-solving to address them and enhance the process flow. Logistics actors gain useful data and feedback by using performance assessments (inside a firm) and customer satisfaction surveys, which can help them

discover issues early on. Logistics actors can discover possible disputes or areas of concern by regularly monitoring performance indicators or customer complaints. As mentioned in Stefanovic's (2014) research, quick detection enables them to take proactive efforts to address conflicts before they escalate and harm customer satisfaction or operational efficiency. Besides, they make information sharing with their partners easier through up-to-date info flow and regular follow-up of international regulations phases in a way to allow real-time analysis of data adequate monitoring (Rungtusanatham et al., 2003; Chowdhury and Quaddus, 2017). Differently, logistics partners also apply some regulation based measures (e.g. introduction of standard procedures, shipping interest and certification rules, exit guaranteed contracts) in order to prevent any types of conflicts beforehand in a way to ensure appropriate authority and control over logistics operations among different players in the logistics network. Lastly, informative warnings enable prompt action to prevent or lessen conflicts by resolving underlying issues or modifying operations as needed. Overall, these control skills enable supply chain actors to identify and prevent conflicts proactively, respond effectively to difficulties, and constantly improve their conflict management techniques.

8.4.3. Coordination Capabilities in Conflict Management

Within the context of DC, *coordination capability* is central to the streamlining of information, product, and process flow from suppliers to end customers (Irfan, Wang and Akhtar, 2019). In the study of Chowdhury and Quaddus (2017), supply chain actors build integration through information sharing, and collaboration and build reserve resource capacity. In line with this, our findings revealed that logistics service providers employ technological and system integrations beforehand for information integration and they build enhanced network structures to be prepared for probable conflicts. Within the context of DC, as stated by Allred et al. (2011) firms effectively combine, coordinate, and integrate multiple streams of technologies and skills with collaboration and collective learning. Our findings suggest that the firms use coordination capabilities to manage the process through collaborative logistics agreements, system integrations, multi-agency teamwork (e.g. backup offices), and meeting with business partners. In this regard, our study supports and extends the work of Allred et al. (2011) by stating that apart from the coordination meeting with their partners, logistics service actors also use multi-agency networks

with the help of enhanced network relations. Through coordination meetings, actors can exchange relevant data, discuss potential conflicts, and collaborate on finding solutions. Improved communication ensures that all logistics services are well-informed about the conflict situation, facilitating faster and more accurate decision-making. Multi-agency networks provide supply chain actors with access to a broader pool of resources, expertise, and alternative options. In the face of conflicts, this scalability and flexibility offer additional avenues for resolution.

Logistics service actors also make collaborative logistics agreements with their partners in a coordinated way with their partners to manage all of these operational processes by establishing a cooperative link with their partners. Similarly, integrated systems provide accurate and real-time data on resource availability, capacities, and utilization. This enables supply chain actors to optimize resource allocation during conflict management. Also, by having a representative on-site (JIT II), logistics actors can proactively address any issues or conflicts related to fluctuations in flows, ensuring timely and efficient supply chain operations. The representative quickly engages with the customer, understands the issues at hand, and works collaboratively to find appropriate resolutions.

Overall, coordination capabilities play a crucial role in facilitating communication, information sharing, and collaboration, which are essential for timely conflict resolution and proactive conflict prevention. By promoting effective coordination, supply chain actors can enhance their ability to manage conflicts efficiently and maintain the smooth functioning of the supply chain.

8.4.4. Learning Capability in Conflict Management

Dynamic Capability (DC) theory highlights the various effects of synchronization, induces efficiency and speed in operations, affords opportunities for conflict resolution, and promotes learning (Tran, Zahra and Hughes, 2019). This conflict-triggered *learning* process helps firms to synchronize different timing requirements. In this regard, “the willingness and ability to learn new competencies in order to perform under first-time, tough, or different conditions” is a capability that is essential for individuals to learn from their experience (Terrel, 2010; Chowdhury and Quaddus, 2015). Our research is in conformity with the work of Gutierrez-Gutierrez

et al. (2018) stating that providing training in ways that facilitate their problem-solving abilities will contribute to learning-oriented organizations. In our research, logistics service actors start to provide training for business development in terminology, customer relationship management (CRM), international trade, and cross-culture. By providing training in logistics terminology, service actors can ensure that all parties involved in a conflict have a common understanding of the terms used in the industry. This reduces the chances of miscommunication or misunderstandings, which can often escalate conflicts. Again, training in CRM equips service actors with skills and techniques to effectively manage customer relationships, understand their needs, and address their concerns. By improving customer satisfaction and reducing friction, conflicts can be prevented or resolved more efficiently. Similarly, training in international trade and cross-culture helps actors to gain a deeper understanding of the complexities and nuances involved in cross-border transactions. This knowledge enables them to navigate potential conflicts arising from differences in trade practices, regulations, or documentation requirements, and cultures thereby facilitating smoother operations and conflict resolution.

Apart from these, personality development as well as mentoring and counseling training are also offered by logistics actors within the context of their learning capabilities. This training creates a comprehensive support system for conflict management within logistics organizations. It enables individuals to cultivate the necessary qualities, skills, and emotional resilience to address conflicts effectively. Furthermore, these training programs foster a positive and supportive work environment, where individuals feel empowered to seek assistance and work collaboratively toward resolving conflicts.

Lastly, our results are also in line with the research of Mumford (1994) approaching learning from the experience in four ways: intuitive, incidental, retrospective, and prospective. In our study, we have insight into retrospective learning from experience by looking back over what happened and reaching conclusions about logistics service actors. Besides, we also have findings related to incident learning (learning by chance from major events) through case based learning practices of logistics service actors. In summary, retrospective and incident learning facilitate a systematic

approach to conflict resolution. By leveraging past experiences, organizations can identify patterns, improve processes, learn from incidents, and implement preventive actions. These practices promote a culture of continuous learning, enabling logistics actors to resolve conflicts more effectively and create a more harmonious working environment.

8.4.5. Reconfiguration Capability in Conflict Management

As one of the premises of DC, *reconfiguration capability* requires efficiency and system optimization approaches of supply chains through adaptive capabilities and transformational behaviors to achieve new fitness levels (Adobor and McMullen, 2018). As stated by Jiang, Ritchie and Verreynne (2022), organizations need to create disruptive dynamic capabilities in the long-term post-disaster phase, which can result in reconfiguration and longer-term development by having new innovative projects and collaborations, and new leadership hiring and forward planning. From a conflict-oriented perspective, our study contributes to the literature. Logistics service providers engage in transformative actions in planning, procedures, technology by both involving new value propositions and changes to the structure of the enterprises. Logistics actors have started to employ rigorous resource and schedule planning with risk-oriented views for the planning reconfiguration (Bahroun et al., 2010; Den Hertog, 2019). Additionally, they establish procedural reconfiguration (e.g. introducing insurance practices, standardization of transaction formats) so that organizations are able to exploit new knowledge enabling them to innovate by altering current practices or beginning new ones in line with Thomas and Wood (2015). Moreover, logistics partners have introduced digital reconfiguration by introducing automated pricing systems and automated archiving/tracking systems to cause a shift in corporate governance thinking and innovation to better manage and prevent conflict (Shen, Zhang and Liu, 2022).

By leveraging digital capabilities, planning, and procedural configuration, logistics actors can streamline conflict resolution processes, enhance communication and collaboration, make data-driven decisions, and establish clear guidelines for handling conflicts. These capabilities contribute to more efficient and effective conflict resolution, leading to reduced disruptions, improved relationships, and enhanced overall operational performance.

8.5. Conflicts in the Resolution Process

In line with the chaos theory, our findings state that greater sensitivity should be attached to the initial conditions to prevent larger events triggered by these conditions. If not done so, this process gains momentum through the butterfly effect as brought forward by the chaos theory (Malka, 2021). This shows that the chaos that begins with conflicts leads to other types of chaos that are unpredictable and non-linear. As it is seen from the findings, abrupt operational disruptions in the logistics operations triggered by the initiated actions or crisis result in bifurcations. Herein, the “chaos-amplification” phenomenon is clearly observed in the findings. The process starting with the operational problems is amplified and results in other operational, financial, and relational problems between supply chain partners. For instance, taking logistics service order reservations one by one causes an operational conflict and results in another operational conflict by forcing the shipping company employees to work more. Then the cancellation of these reservations on top of this crisis made the conflict irreversible between the two parties. Along similar lines, both relational, financial, and service problems eventually led to larger relational problems. For instance, the process that started with the lost shipment may bring relational problems that turn into denial of responsibility and accusation. Here, we see the chaos theory concept of transformation in the form of a bifurcation process that begins with problems of one kind and ends with other problems. Considering all of these reasons, the findings show that as the relevant parameters change and lead to chaotic situations, it is extremely essential to control or prevent chaos before it occurs.

8.6. Transformation of Conflicts

8.6.1. Actor Transformation

Transformation denotes a shift in the nature of the conflict, including a new description of the direction and range of changes that may lead to opening a space for cooperation and peace (Mitchell, 2002). In conformity with the conflict transformation theory, it is seen that most of the transformation types (issue, actor, structure, rule, context) (Vayrynen, 1991) were found in logistics service network conflicts. Regarding actor transformation, while power practices used to belong to

the customers and this caused conflict, now it has been seen that this power is passed to logistics and shipping companies due to the market conditions. The reason for this situation is shipping and logistics companies, due to their increased market power, may have more leverage in negotiations with customers. By having the power to offer flexible solutions, such as customized shipping options, faster delivery times, or preferential pricing, logistics companies can meet the specific needs and demands of their selected customers.

8.6.2. Issue Transformation

Considering issue transformation, we detected that conflicts have transformed from product/service differentiation and design issues to giving priority to cost advantages. The plausible explanation for this may be the competitive pressures and margins in the market. Many industries face intense competitive pressure, with thin profit margins and a constant need to control costs. Companies may engage in price wars or engage in aggressive cost-cutting measures to maintain profitability and competitiveness. These actions can create conflicts with suppliers, partners, or even internal teams, as cost-reduction efforts may impact relationships, quality, or service levels.

Interestingly, it is also found that cost of service was the main problem previously for the logistics actors, but in time with the rise of customer orientation, the issues of conflict have become mostly related to customer satisfaction and quality. In a similar line, conflicts related to the freight cost are transformed into dominance and opportunism issues. The probable reason for this, as the logistics industry has matured, basic cost considerations have become more standardized and transparent. Customers now have access to various service providers offering competitive pricing, which has reduced the focus on cost as the primary conflict issue. Instead, customers are increasingly seeking added value, quality service, and differentiated experiences, leading to conflicts related to customer satisfaction and service quality. In line with this, the increasing emphasis on service differentiation, complex supply chains, and evolving customer demands have brought dominance and opportunism in this transformation.

We also detected that conflicts related to the CRM-related issues, pricing, and

documentation issues turned into conflicts associated with the adapting to the digital environment by the logistics partners. A potential explanation for this is that the logistics industry has experienced significant technological disruption in recent years, with the introduction of digital tools and platforms. This disruption has reshaped traditional business models and workflows, requiring logistics partners to adapt to the digital environment. Conflicts may arise as companies face challenges in understanding and implementing new technologies, integrating digital solutions into existing systems, or aligning their processes with digital platforms. The learning curve and adjustment period during this transition can lead to conflicts within logistics organizations.

8.6.3. Context Transformation

For the context transformation it is seen that the conflict environment changed for the partners. Before, conflicts were experienced only between channel members in supply chains, but now it is stated that conflicts occurred between in-house departments of the same companies. The reason for this may be due to the increased complexity of operations. As businesses have become more complex, with multiple departments involved in various aspects of operations, conflicts can arise internally. Each department may have its own objectives, priorities, and perspectives, which can sometimes lead to clashes in decision-making or resource allocation. The interdependence of departments and the need for coordination in achieving overall organizational goals can contribute to conflicts between in-house departments.

In a similar line, human-based problems including personal or relational conflicts transformed into outsourcing and digital system requirements-related problems in the Covid-19 pandemic context. One possible reason for this is that organizations want to adapt their operations to the challenges of the pandemic and maintain operational stability by effectively managing and resolving outsourcing conflicts. This situation has replaced human-induced problems. Again, the Covid-19 pandemic necessitated a widespread shift to remote work and virtual collaboration. This transition disrupted traditional face-to-face interactions and introduced a heavy reliance on digital tools and technologies for communication and collaboration. As organizations adapted to remote work, conflicts emerged regarding the use of digital platforms, technical difficulties, communication breakdowns, and differences in digital proficiency

among employees.

8.6.4. Rule Transformation

Considering rule transformation, previously manual system requirements created difficulties and conflicts for the parties. Recently, lack of consensus on the applied rules/line necessities and rules became a major rule-based transformation. Herein, manual system requirements can lead to confusion and conflicts among parties involved in logistics and shipping processes. The transition to more digital and automated systems can help address some of these issues by providing clear and standardized rules. However, the introduction of new digital systems and technologies can also bring about their own complexities and ambiguities, particularly when it comes to interpreting and implementing rules in a digital environment.

It is also found that fraud and corruption among logistics partners were at the highest level before, recently it has transformed into strict rules and sanctions for the parties. Over time, there has been an increased awareness of the detrimental effects of fraud and corruption on the logistics industry. This has led to a heightened focus on addressing these issues and implementing measures to combat them. However, provisions that prescribe specific rules and standards for logistics parties to follow and stricter rules and sanctions created another conflict among them.

8.6.5. Structure Transformation

Associated with the structure transformation, while customer prioritization of the forwarders was one of the fundamental problems before, the disintermediation of the forwarders from the structure of the supply chain became another conflictual issue. In an increasingly competitive business environment, cost pressures and demands for operational efficiency drive customers to seek direct relationships with suppliers. By cutting out intermediaries like forwarders, customers aim to reduce costs, eliminate delays, and have more control over their supply chain activities. This shift in customer preferences can lead to conflicts as forwarders experience reduced demand for their services and face challenges in proving their value proposition in a changing market.

8.7. Experimental Results of the Study

The use of experiments in conflict management contributes by providing a controlled and systematic approach to understanding conflict dynamics, testing hypotheses, exploring alternative approaches, and generating evidence-based recommendations for effective conflict resolution. It enhances the scientific understanding of conflicts and supports the development of practical tools and strategies for managing conflicts in various contexts. With the use of experiments, we aim to reveal (1) how conflict-handling strategies differ according to the levels of actor power and the conflict criticality (2) how does the interaction between criticality and power influence the choice of conflict-handling strategy among actors in the logistics service industry? (3) which conflict handling strategies are preferred the most in high power situations? and (4) which conflict handling strategies are preferred the most in high criticality conflicts?

Having and not having power activates the behavioral approach system in distinct ways and actors may regard power as the primary force at their disposal to deal with uncertainty and reconcile competing interests, enhancing the size of power's behavioral impacts (Magee, Galinsky and Gruenfeld, 2007). While our study supports this statement, it shows that logistics service actors with high power tend to be more competitive and powerful than their low-power partners which is also in line with the studies of Nelson et al. (2015) and Lu et al. (2020) in an inter-organizational context. According to the approach-inhibition theory of power, powerful participants demonstrated a greater capacity to concentrate on task demands and to prioritize goal-consistent behavior which ultimately enables such individuals to achieve their desired outcomes more readily than less powerful individuals (Cho and Keltner, 2020). This requires that the high-power party seize every chance to further its interests, be more ambitious, and tend to take the initiative in competitive settings (Magee, Galinsky and Gruenfeld, 2007). This results in the high-power party adopting a competitive, dominating attitude to get what it wants. In this regard, our findings are in accordance with the approach-inhibition theory of power in terms of adopting the dominant style according to the power level of the actors.

As stated before, individuals with great power are frequently in positions of authority or have access to resources that offer them an edge in a conflict situation. As a result, they may be more focused on obtaining their own objectives and outcomes, which

may result in a more assertive approach to conflict resolution. On the other hand, in high-power situations, logistics actors understand the necessity of maintaining favorable relationships and alliances. In this regard, our study also argues that in high-power situations, logistics service providers mostly adopt the coordinating strategy, then dominating strategy and finally obliging strategy considering the order of the strategies. Together, these two hypotheses, rather than being in conflict, offer various insights into how logistics service providers behave in contexts of high power. The reason for this comes from the Dual Concerns Theory where actors approach conflict resolution with two main objectives in mind: their own outcomes (assertiveness) and the outcomes of others (cooperation). High-power individuals can keep their influence and power while forming allies and relationships that will be advantageous in the long run through integrating (Holt and DeVore, 2005; Sorenson, Morse and Savage, 1999). Overall, the difference between the two hypotheses lies in the focus of the analysis. Hypothesis 1a compares the strategy preferences of logistics service providers between high and low-power situations. It posits that logistics service providers with high power are more likely to prefer the dominating strategy compared to those in low power situations. On the other hand, Hypothesis 4 examines the choice of strategy within high-power situations, comparing coordinating strategies with dominating and obliging strategies. It suggests that coordinating strategies are more likely to be favored in these high-power contexts.

As in conformity with the study of Li et al. (2021) and Zhang et al. (2023), our findings support that high conflict criticality can encourage inter-organizational collaboration. By the same token, we statistically proved that in high criticality situations, logistics service providers are more likely to adopt a coordinating strategy first, than they chose dominating and obliging conflict handling strategies respectively. In accordance with the criticality assumption of Event System Theory, which addresses how organizations and organizational behavior are impacted by discrete events (Johns, 2018), the findings are in synchronization with the statement that the actors will probably focus more of their attentional and information-processing resources on responding to highly critical situations and coordinate as the high critical conflicts can affect their long term success (Morgeson and DeRue, 2006). This is also supported by the premises of Social Exchange Theory stating that the parties transfer and gather their resources for mutual gain which then fosters

interdependence and reciprocity between them (Johnston, 2020).

Contrary to what was expected, the findings indicated that the influence of any specific level change for criticality on conflict-handling methods is the same for every fixed power setting. Herein, the individuals responsible for choosing conflict-handling strategies may not adequately consider or recognize the impact of issue criticality. They might be influenced by personal biases, a lack of awareness, or an inability to assess the true level of criticality associated with the issue at hand. Actually, this result can be explained by basing on the findings of our qualitative semi-structured interview study. Due to the fact that the data is collected just after the Covid-19 pandemic period, all conflicts that occurred or were about to occur were in the category of “highly critical” as a post-Covid-19 pandemic effect since the actors in the logistics service networks were fighting against time constraints as well as different complexities because of the disruption in the transportation process. Apart from this, the organization's culture, norms, or standard operating procedures might influence the selection of conflict-handling strategies to a greater extent than issue criticality.

Moreover, the interaction effect between criticality and power was not statistically significant for both dominating, obliging, and coordinating strategies. In this regard, the results are similar to the findings of Pfeffer (1981) and Sun, Peng and Liao (2021) reaching a conclusion that there is no two-way interaction between criticality and power. Herein, actor power may not be the sole determining factor in conflict-handling strategy selection. Other sources of power, such as expertise, influence, or negotiation skills, might come into play. These alternative sources of power may have a more significant impact on the decision-making process than actor power or issue criticality. Similarly, there may be confounding variables or methodological constraints that influenced the results. Further research would be necessary to validate and explore the reasons behind the lack of interaction between actor power and issue criticality in choosing conflict resolution strategies.

8.8. Managerial Implications

Given the eternal importance of conflict in the B2B environment with its social, environmental, and economic dimensions, empirical analysis of multi-actor conflict

situations is crucial for managerial practice. By giving a comprehensive picture of conflict dynamics, the findings of this study can motivate managers to widen the scope of their conflict understanding in significant ways.

From a managerial standpoint, the systematic literature review provides research themes on conflict and interdisciplinary resolution approaches that will assist practitioners in gaining an awareness of the relevant conflict subjects for practice, and how they might be addressed. The qualitative semi-structured interview of this research enhances the conflicting insight by introducing sources of conflicts, conflict-level (latent, perceived, felt, manifest, conflict aftermath) based resolution mechanisms, conflicts in the resolution process, conflict transformation and the required dynamic capabilities for managing conflicts.

First, understanding the sources or types of conflicts helps industrial actors develop effective conflict resolution strategies. They can tailor their conflict resolution approaches based on the specific nature of the conflict, whether it is related to economical, relational, service-based or operational in the industry. This allows for more targeted and efficient resolution, cost savings, improved operational efficiency, and increased profitability in the logistics service industry.

Second, the findings help managers grasp crucial issues which may cause other conflicts in the conflict resolution process and show how managers craft their resolution approaches as the conflict level changes in order to protect themselves from negative outcomes. Hence, it can be concluded that the resolution process must be carefully structured considering that the simultaneous existence of conflict types complicates the resolution. The conflict-level based actions allows managers to supplement their resolution strategies with more practical ones, such as specific investments or additional contract specifications to prevent the conflict from escalating.

Third, conflict situations often expose weaknesses and inefficiencies within logistics operations. By revealing destructive outcomes of conflicts, the findings assist logistics service actors to identify areas that require improvement, such as inefficient processes, communication gaps, or organizational bottlenecks. This awareness

enables them to address these issues and make necessary changes to enhance their overall performance. Also, by focusing on constructive outcomes, logistics service actors can identify areas of common interest and potential collaboration. This understanding can lead to the development of mutually beneficial solutions and foster stronger partnerships based on trust and shared objectives.

Fourth, related to conflicts in the resolution process, the findings help logistics actors to anticipate potential conflicts during the resolution process, actors can develop strategies and action plans to address them before they escalate. This proactive approach minimizes the risk of conflicts amplifying into larger disruptions and helps maintain operational stability. By understanding the potential conflicts that may arise, actors can allocate the necessary manpower, time, and other resources required for conflict resolution. This ensures that resources are utilized optimally and efficiently, resulting in cost savings and improved operational efficiency. Also, by analyzing and understanding the potential conflicts that may arise, actors can refine their conflict resolution strategies, enhance their capabilities, and improve their overall conflict management approach. This fosters a culture of learning and adaptability, enabling actors to navigate future conflicts more effectively.

Fifth, managers can also take advantage of critical incidents that are gathered from the semi-structured interviews that provide the opportunity to jointly learn and increase the effectiveness of adaptive activities against conflicts. The dynamic processes of adaptation constitute one of the future challenges for almost all companies in an increasingly networked economy. In this regard, dynamic strategic planning can be constructed which can influence the level and direction of activities that would enhance synergies and efficacy of resource bundles in conflictual situations specifically.

Sixth, conflict transformation can provide valuable insights to managers regarding the evolving nature of issues, actors, and interests within dynamic business environments. As the business landscape changes, conflicts within logistics service networks may arise due to shifting market demands, emerging technologies, regulatory changes, or geopolitical factors. By understanding the transformative nature of conflicts, managers can gain a deeper understanding of how these factors

influence their responsibilities and their corporate agendas, and how they can navigate the complexities of logistics service networks more effectively.

Seventh, the findings show that supply chain actors mostly employ planning, control, reconfiguration, learning, and coordinating capabilities to deal with the effects of conflicts. By leveraging these capabilities collectively, logistics actors can proactively plan to identify and mitigate potential conflicts, and they implement control mechanisms to close monitoring. They can adapt and transform processes to respond to conflicts, learn from past experiences to enhance conflict management strategies and coordinate with stakeholders to resolve conflicts collaboratively.

Lastly, our findings inform practitioners of how resolution strategies of logistics actors change when some contextual variables are involved. It is found that especially in the circumstances where power imbalances exist (low and high power) within logistics service networks, behaviors and strategies of actors who have the power within the logistics network tend to choose dominating strategies compared to those with low power. However, in high criticality and high power situations, logistics actors prefer to implement coordinating strategies as first, then they choose dominating strategies as second, and they prefer to use obliging as a third strategy. This shows that in high power and high criticality situations, fostering a collaborative environment can help mitigate the challenges associated with coordinating strategies and support the development of more balanced and mutually beneficial supply chain relationships. Besides, high-issue criticality situations often involve crises or emergencies that require swift and effective action. Thus, practitioners can utilize this information to guide their crisis management strategies. In this regard, coordinating strategies enable the efficient deployment of resources by aligning efforts and leveraging collective capabilities. If coordination efforts prove insufficient, practitioners can transition to a dominating strategy, where they can assert control over resource allocation to address the critical issue. Finally, an obliging strategy can be considered when accommodating the interests and requests of other stakeholders becomes necessary.

Additionally, it is found that the level of criticality and the level of power do not significantly influence each other in terms of determining the preferred conflict-

handling strategies. This finding reinforces that business actors view criticality and power as separate factors that influence conflict-handling strategies independently and it is also inferred that the decision-making process for conflict-handling strategies may involve multiple considerations beyond criticality and power.

8.9. Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

The goal of this study was to explore conflict in the multi-actor logistics service business using a mixed methodology. One direction for future study can be empirically evaluating the generalizability and examining the boundary conditions of our findings (Busse, Kach and Wagner, 2017). A cross-sectional study could be used in future research to consolidate and validate the findings of this study. By including a larger and more diverse sample, the findings can be validated and their applicability to real-world situations can be assessed. Although employing sample firms from the same industry helps rule out industry-level differences in B2B relationships (Liu et al., 2009), industry validation studies can broaden the contexts in which conflict is investigated by facilitating analysis across industries.

Second, additional research can be conducted to examine the impact of additional contextual elements, such as dependency or prior business relationships between business partners. For instance, actors may be less assertive (dominating) if a conflict arises between two parties with prior positive business relations. Managers, on the other hand, could be more assertive when they previously dealt with unfavorable and troublesome business interactions. Once more, the personal traits of actors, such as the personality of managers and frontline employees, may lessen the conflict resolution processes.

Third, we only addressed behavioral aspects of resolution mechanisms which is the adoption of certain strategies, structural and procedural aspects of the resolution mechanisms can also be applied in order to enrich the results of the study. For instance, by considering governance, relational, and contractual mechanisms, researchers can gain a more comprehensive understanding of how resolution mechanisms operate and their impact on outcomes which allows for a more holistic analysis.

Fourth, the initial inclusion of three logistics service parties to the scenario-based between-subject experiment introduced confusion and led to participants imagining scenarios beyond the intended scope. Therefore, we narrowed the focus as well as scenario context to two primary actors: LSPs and business customers for complexity reduction and to ensure a clearer and more focused understanding of the specific dynamics between these two key actors. For future research, researchers can incorporate more complexities and interactions between logistics parties in a more comprehensive manner to explain better the dynamics of conflict phenomenon.

Fifth, we did not create a built-in link between the conflict dynamics in the data although we have CIT data. Recognize that conflict dynamics are complex and multifaceted, often involving various factors, contexts, and interactions. The reason is, building explicit links between incidents may require more extensive analysis, including coding, thematic analysis, or even a separate study focusing specifically on the interrelationships and connections. Due to the complexity involved, the scope of our research was centered on the detailed examination of individual incidents rather than attempting to establish explicit linkages. For a future research direction, we can explore and establish explicit connections between the incidents, drawing on the rich qualitative data we have collected and we can also increase the number of incidents in order to provide richness and deepness of the research.

Lastly, as a scenario content, we adopted conflict criticality and actor power as contextual variables. For the criticality part, the other dimensions of Event Systems Theory, which are conflict novelty and conflict disruption can also be added to the research model as these dimensions capture additional aspects of conflicts that can significantly impact the dynamics and outcomes of conflict handling mechanisms. For the power part, the other types of power such as expert power, and referent power can also be applied. Herein, expert power can influence the selection of resolution mechanisms, as actors with greater expertise may have insights into the most appropriate strategies or approaches to address the conflict effectively or when an actor possesses referent power, others may be more inclined to follow their guidance or align their interests with that actor and this type of power can influence the will the willingness of parties to engage in cooperative processes or consider alternative solutions.



REFERENCES

- Aditya, W., Ikhwan, F. S., Pradnyana, N. A., Sherly, M., Prasetyo, B., Nazri, M. and Hidayanto, A. N. (2019, September) *Analysis of Information Technology Support for Business Models Based on The Blue Ocean Strategy in Indonesian Organization*, In 2019 2nd International Conference of Computer and Informatics Engineering (IC2IE) (pp. 153-158). IEEE.
- Adjei Mensah, C. (2021, December) *Power Struggles on Urban Green Spaces in Kumasi, Ghana: Implications for Urban Policy and Planning*, In *Urban Forum*, Vol. 32(4), pp. 415-436. Springer Netherlands.
- Adobor, H. and McMullen, R. S. (2018). *Supply chain resilience: a dynamic and multidimensional approach*, *The International Journal of Logistics Management*, Vol. 29(4), pp. 1451-1471.
- Afzalur Rahim, M. (2002) *Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict*, *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 13(3), pp. 206-235.
- Agnetis, A., Aloulou, M. A. and Fu, L. L. (2016) *Production and interplant batch delivery scheduling: Dominance and cooperation*, *International Journal of Production Economics*, Vol.182, pp. 38-49.
- Ahlqvist, V., Norrman, A. and Jahre, M. (2020) *Supply chain risk governance: towards a conceptual multi-level framework*, *Operations and Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, Vol.13 (4), pp. 382-395.
- Ahmed, K. and Noor, N. A. M. (2016) *Key Account Management in Business-to-Business Relationship: Identifying Top K Persuaders Using Singular Value Decomposition*, *Journal of Distribution Science*, Vol.14 (9), pp. 15-24.
- Ai, Y. and Peng, D. (2021) *Innovation model of China's high-end equipment industry: do social capital and dynamic capabilities matter for the covid-19 crisis?* *Frontiers in Public Health*, Vol 9, 683120.
- Akram, T., Lei, S., Haider, M. J. and Hussain, S. T. (2020) *The impact of organizational justice on employee innovative work behavior: Mediating role of knowledge sharing*, *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge*, Vol.5 (2), pp. 117-129.
- Ali, A., Mahfouz, A. and Arisha, A. (2017) *Analysing supply chain resilience: integrating the constructs in a concept mapping framework via a systematic literature review*, *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 22(1),

pp. 16-39.

Aliakbari Nouri, F., Khalili Esbouei, S. and Antucheviciene, J. (2015) *A hybrid MCDM approach based on fuzzy ANP and fuzzy TOPSIS for technology selection*, Informatica, Vol. 26(3), pp. 369-388.

Allen, S. D. and Sarkis, J. (2021) *How can the circular economy-digitalization infrastructure support transformation to strong sustainability?*. Environmental Research: Infrastructure and Sustainability, Vol. 1(3), p. 033001.

Allred, C. R., Fawcett, S. E., Wallin, C. and Magnan, G. M. (2011) *A dynamic collaboration capability as a source of competitive advantage*, Decision Sciences, Vol. 42(1), pp. 129-161.

Amason, A.C. and Sapienza, H.J. (1997) *The effects of top management team size and interaction norms on cognitive and affective conflict*, Journal of Management, Vol. 23(4), pp. 495-516.

Amrouche, N. and Yan, R. (2016) *A manufacturer distribution issue: how to manage an online and a traditional retailer*, Annals of Operations Research, Vol. 244, pp. 257-294.

Anderson, C. and Berdahl, J. L. (2002) *The experience of power: examining the effects of power on approach and inhibition tendencies*. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 83(6), p. 1362.

Anderson, C., John, O. P., Keltner, D. and Kring, A. M. (2001) *Who attains social status? Effects of personality and physical attractiveness in social groups*, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol.8 1, pp. 116-132.

Anderson, E. and Weitz, B. (1989) *Determinants of continuity in conventional industrial channel dyads*. Marketing Science, Vol. 8(4), pp. 310-323.

Andrews, J. C. (1988) *Motivation, ability, and opportunity to process information: Conceptual and experimental manipulation issues*, ACR North American Advances.

Anestaki, A. I. (2016) *Organizational Conflict in Public Service: Conflict Management, Contextual Factors, and Employee Outcomes*, Ph.D. Thesis, The University of Texas at Dallas.

Anning-Dorson, T. and Nyamekye, M. B. (2020) *Be flexible: turning innovativeness into competitive advantage in hospitality firms*, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Vol. 32(2), pp. 605-624.

Appio, F. P. and Lacoste, S. (2019) *B2B relationship management in complex product systems (CoPS)*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 79, pp. 53-57.

- Arend, R. J., Zhao, Y. L., Song, M. and Im, S. (2017) *Strategic planning as a complex and enabling managerial tool*, Strategic Management Journal, Vol.38(8), pp.1741-1752.
- Arya, A., Löffler, C., Mittendorf, B. and Pfeiffer, T. (2015) *The middleman as a panacea for supply chain coordination problems*. European Journal of Operational Research, Vol. 240(2), pp. 393-400.
- Aubert, V. (1963) *Competition and dissensus: Two types of conflict and of conflict resolution*. Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 7(1), pp. 26-42.
- Audy, J. F., Lehoux, N., D'Amours, S. and Rönnqvist, M. (2012) *A framework for an efficient implementation of logistics collaborations*, International Transactions in Operational Research, Vol. 19(5), pp. 633-657.
- Autry, C. W. and Michelle Bobbitt, L. (2008) *Supply chain security orientation: conceptual development and a proposed framework*, The International Journal of Logistics Management, Vol.19 (1), pp. 42-64.
- Azadegan, A., Ojha, D. and Ogden, J. A. (2022) *Benefiting from supplier business continuity: The role of supplier monitoring and buyer power*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 106, pp. 432-443.
- Badrinarayanan, V., Madhavaram, S. and Manis, K. T. (2022) *Technology-enabled sales capability: A capabilities-based contingency framework*, Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, Vol. 42(4), pp. 358-376.
- Bahrour, Z., Moalla, M., Baazaoui, G. and Campagne, J. P. (2010) *Multi-agent modelling for replenishment policies simulation in supply chains*, European Journal of Industrial Engineering, Vol. 4(4), pp.450-470.
- Bailey, A., Johnson, G. and Daniels, K. (2000) *Validation of a multi-dimensional measure of strategy development processes*, British Journal of Management, Vol. 11(2), pp. 151-162.
- Balabanis, G. (1998) *Antecedents of cooperation, conflict and relationship longevity in an international trade intermediary's supply chain*, Journal of Global Marketing, Vol.12(2), pp. 25-46.
- Banerjee, S., Pillai, R. G., Jones, J. M., Hung, K. T. and Tangpong, C. (2019) *The Dark Side of Power in Innovation Adoption*, Journal of Managerial Issues, Vol.31 (4), pp. 388-408.
- Barbagallo, D. and Comuzzi, M. (2008, July) *Towards understanding the role of adverse selection and moral hazard in automated negotiation of service level*

agreements, In Proceedings of the 3rd international workshop on Services integration in pervasive environments, pp. 7-12.

Barutçu, S., Dogan, H., Barutçu, E. and Kulakli, A. (2010) *Supply chain-based conflict: A study from textile exporters perspectives*, Journal of Global Strategic Management, Vol. 4(2), pp. 90-102.

Baryannis, G., Validi, S., Dani, S., and Antoniou, G. (2019) *Supply chain risk management and artificial intelligence: state of the art and future research directions*, International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 57(7), pp. 2179-2202.

Bashinskaya, A. Y. E., Koroleva, M. V. E. and Zenkevich, N. A. E. (2016) *Coordinating contracts in cooperative supply networks*, Contributions to Game Theory and Management, Vol. 9(0), pp. 7-101.

Bashir, Z., Mahnaz, S. and Abbas Malik, M. G. (2021) *Conflict resolution using game theory and rough sets*, International Journal of Intelligent Systems, Vol. 36(1), pp. 237-259.

Bateman, S.T. and Scott, S.A. (1999) *Management building competitive advantage*. New York: Irwin McGraw -Hill.

Beheshtifar, M. and Zare, E. (2013) *Employee creativity: A compulsory factor in organizations*, Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, Vol. 5(2), pp. 242-247.

Beller, E. M., Gebiski, V. and Keech, A. C. (2002) *Randomisation in clinical trials*, Medical Journal of Australia, Vol.177(10), pp.565-567.

Bendall-Lyon, D. and Powers, T. L. (2001) *The role of complaint management in the service recovery process*, The Joint Commission Journal on Quality Improvement, Vol. 27(5), pp. 278-286.

Bendoly, E., van Wezel, W. and Bachrach, D. G. (Eds.). (2015) *The handbook of behavioral operations management: Social and psychological dynamics in production and service settings*, Oxford University Press.

Benjamin, B.A. and Podolny, J.M. (1999) *Status, quality, and social order in the California wine industry*, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 44(3), pp. 563-589.

Benton, W. C. and Maloni, M. (2005) *The influence of power driven buyer/seller relationships on supply chain satisfaction*, Journal of Operations Management, Vol. 23(1) pp. 1-22.

Berle, A. and Means, G. (1968) *The modern corporation and private property*, 1932, McMillan, New York, NY.

- Biswas, I. and Avittathur, B. (2019) *Channel coordination using options contract under simultaneous price and inventory competition*. Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review, Vol.123, pp. 45-60.
- Biyalogorsky, E. and Koenigsberg, O. (2010) *Ownership coordination in a channel: Incentives, returns, and negotiations*, Quantitative Marketing and Economics, Vol. 8(4), pp. 461-490.
- Blackhurst, J., Rungtusanatham, M. J., Scheibe, K. and Ambulkar, S. (2018) *Supply chain vulnerability assessment: A network based visualisation and clustering analysis approach*, Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management, Vol. 24(1), pp. 21-30.
- Blackhurst, J., Wu, T. T. and Craighead, C. W. (2008) *A systematic approach for supply chain conflict detection with a hierarchical Petri Net extension*, Omega, Vol. 36(5), pp. 680-696.
- Blake, R.R., Shepherd, H. and Mouton, J.S. (1964) *Managing intergroup conflict in industry*, 1st Edition, Houston: Gulf Publishing.
- Bloomfield, P. and Ahern, F. D. (2011) *Long-term infrastructure partnerships: Contracting risks and risk-reduction strategies*, State and Local Government Review, Vol. 43(1), pp. 49-59.
- Boardman, S. K. and Horowitz, S. V. (1994) *Constructive conflict management and social problems: An introduction*, Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 50(1), pp. 1-12.
- Bogh, M. B., Mikkelsen, H. and Wøhlk, S. (2014) *Collection of recyclables from cubes—A case study*, Socio-Economic Planning Sciences, Vol. 48(2), pp.127-134.
- Bolumole, Y. A., Grawe, S. J. and Daugherty, P. J. (2016) *Customer service responsiveness in logistics outsourcing contracts: The influence of job autonomy and role clarity among on-site representatives*, Transportation Journal, Vol. 55(2), pp. 124-148.
- Bondeli, J. V. and Havenvind, M. I. (2022) *Bouncing back in turbulent business environments: Exploring resilience in business networks*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol.107, pp. 383-395.
- Bose, K., Pareek, U. and Bose, K. (1986) *The dynamics of conflict management styles of the bankers*, Indian Journal of Industrial Relations, Vol. 22(1), pp. 59-78.
- Bouazzaoui, M. (2019) *An exploratory analysis of conflict dynamics in buyer-supplier relationships*, Ph.D. Thesis, University of Bath.
- Boulding, K. E. (1957) *Organization and conflict*. Conflict Resolution, Vol. 1(2), pp.

122-134.

Bouncken, R. B., Ratzmann, M., Tiberius, V. and Brem, A. (2020) *Pioneering strategy in supply chain relationships: How coercive power and contract completeness influence innovation*. IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management, Vol. 69(6), pp.2826-2841.

Bowersox, D.J., Closs, D.J. and Cooper, M.B. (2007) *Supply Chain Logistics Management*, 2nd Edition, New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Boyd, D. M. and Ellison, N. B. (2007) *Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship*, Journal of Computer- mediated Communication, Vol. 13(1), pp.210-230.

Bradford, K. D., Stringfellow, A. and Weitz, B. A. (2004) *Managing conflict to improve the effectiveness of retail networks*, Journal of Retailing, Vol.80(3), pp. 181-195.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006) *Using thematic analysis in psychology*, Qualitative Research in Psychology, Vol. 3(2), pp. 77–101.

Breckenridge, J. P. (2016) *The reflexive role of tanka poetry in domestic abuse research*, Journal of Research in Nursing, Vol. 21(5-6), pp. 447-460.

Brettmo, A. and Williamsson, J. (2020) *The Role of 'Influencers' as Drivers of a More Sustainable Urban Freight Sector*, Sustainability, Vol. 12(7), p. 2850.

Brewer, N., Mitchell, P. and Weber, N. (2002) *Gender role, organizational status, and conflict management styles*, The International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol.13, pp. 78-94.

Brooks, J. W., Ravishankar, M. N. and Oshri, I. (2022) *Status differentials and framing in the implementation of IT- enabled task migration strategies*, Information Systems Journal, Vol. 32(2), pp. 414-439.

Brown, J. R., Lusch, R. F. and Smith, L. P. (1991) *Conflict and satisfaction in an industrial channel of distribution*. International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management, Vol. 21(6), pp. 15-26.

Bruscaglioni, L. (2016) *Theorizing in grounded theory and creative abduction*, Quality & Quantity, Vol.50, pp. 2009-2024.

Brykman, K. M. and O'Neill, T. A. (2023) *How conflict expressions affect recipients' conflict management behaviors*, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Vol. 174, p.104208.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2015) *Business research methods*, 4.th edn, Oxford Univ.

Press, Oxford.

Bugert, N. and Lasch, R. (2018) *Supply chain disruption models: A critical review*, Logistics Research, Vol. 11(5), pp. 1-35.

Busse, C., Kach, A.P. and Wagner, S.M., (2017). *Boundary conditions: What they are, how to explore them, why we need them, and when to consider them*, Organizational Research Methods, Vol. 20(4), pp. 574-609.

Busse, C., Meinlschmidt, J. and Foerstl, K. (2017) *Managing information processing needs in global supply chains: A prerequisite to sustainable supply chain management*, Journal of Supply Chain Management, Vol. 53(1), pp.87-113.

Butt, A. S. (2019) *Absence of personal relationship in a buyer-supplier relationship: case of buyers and suppliers of logistics services provider in Australia*, Heliyon, Vol. 5(6), e01799.

Button, K. (2016) *Public-private partnerships: a review of economic considerations with particular reference to transportation projects*, Transportation Planning and Technology, Vol. 39(2), pp. 136-161.

Butz, M. R. (1992) *The necessary chaos of development: Chaos theory, and a new symbolic developmental paradigm*, Ph.D. Thesis, Wright Institute, University Microlitins International.

Büyüktaşkın, I. E., Feng, Z., Szidarovszky, F. and Frisvold, G. (2011) *A game theoretical approach to invasive species management*, In IIE Annual Conference. Proceedings (p. 1). Institute of Industrial and Systems Engineers (IISE).

Cagigas, D., Clifton, J., Díaz-Fuentes, D., Fernández-Gutiérrez, M., Echevarría-Cuenca, J. and Gilsanz-Gómez, C. (2022) *Explaining public officials' opinions on blockchain adoption: a vignette experiment*, Policy and Society, Vol. 41(3), pp.343-357.

Cahill, D. L., Goldsby, T. J., Knemeyer, A. M. and Wallenburg, C. M. (2010) *Customer loyalty in logistics outsourcing relationships: an examination of the moderating effects of conflict frequency*, Journal of Business Logistics, Vol. 31(2), pp. 253-277.

Cai, G. G. (2010) *Channel selection and coordination in dual-channel supply chains*, Journal of Retailing, Vol. 86 (1), pp. 22-36.

Cai, G. G. and Chen, Y. J. (2011) *In-store referrals on the internet*, Journal of Retailing, Vol. 87(4), pp. 563-578

Cai, D. and Fink, E. (2002) *Conflict style differences between individualists and*

- collectivists*, Communication Monographs, Vol.69(1), pp. 67-87.
- Callanan, G. A., Benzing, C. D. and Perri, D. F. (2006) *Choice of conflict-handling strategy: A matter of context*, The Journal of Psychology, Vol. 140(3), pp.269-288.
- Campbell, D.T. and Stanley, J.C. (1966) *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*, 1st Edition, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Caputo, A., Marzi, G., Maley, J. and Silic, M. (2019) *Ten years of conflict management research 2007-2017: An update on themes, concepts and relationships*, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 30(1), pp. 87-110.
- Carter, C. R. (2000) *Ethical Issues in International Buyer-Supplier Relationships: A Dyadic Examination*, Journal of Operations Management Vol.18 (2), pp. 191–208.
- Cepeda, G. and Vera, D. (2007) *Dynamic capabilities and operational capabilities: A knowledge management perspective*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 60(5), pp. 426-437.
- Chai, L., Li, J., Tangpong, C. and Clauss, T. (2020) *The interplays of coopetition, conflicts, trust, and efficiency process innovation in vertical B2B relationships*. Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 85, pp. 269-280.
- Chan, F. T., Shekhar, P. and Tiwari, M. K. (2014) *Dynamic scheduling of oil tankers with splitting of cargo at pickup and delivery locations: a Multi-objective Ant Colony-based approach*, International Journal of Production Research, Vol.52 (24), pp. 7436-7453.
- Chandra, D. R. and Hillegersberg, J. V. (2018) *Governance of inter-organizational systems: a longitudinal case study of Rotterdam's Port Community System*, International Journal of Information Systems and Project Management, Vol. 6(2), pp. 47-68.
- Chang, J. Y. (2009) *Impact of the internet as a direct sales channel on established distribution channels and the management of channel conflict; an exploratory study in the Taiwanese IT industry*, Ph.D. Thesis, The University of Edinburgh.
- Charef, R., Emmitt, S., Alaka, H. and Fouchal, F. (2019) *Building information modelling adoption in the European Union: An overview*, Journal of Building Engineering, Vol.25, 100777.
- Charlampowicz, J. (2019) *The efficiency of the maritime container supply chain at the maritime container terminal with reference to identified risks*,. Contemporary Challenges in Supply Chains, pp.115-132.
- Charness, G., Gneezy, U. and Kuhn, M. A. (2012) *Experimental methods: Between-*

- subject and within-subject design*, Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, Vol. 81(1), pp. 1-8.
- Chell, E. and Pittaway, L. (1998) *A study of entrepreneurship in the restaurant and café industry: exploratory work using the critical incident technique as a methodology*, International Journal of Hospitality Management, Vol. 17(1), pp. 23-32.
- Chen, J., Liang, L., and Yao, D. Q. (2019) *Factory encroachment and channel selection in an outsourced supply chain*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol. 215, pp. 73-83.
- Chen, H., Song, L., Zhuang, X. and Li, T. (2014, March) *Research on the Conflict Analysis of Supply Chain Management based on Graph Model with MRCR*, In 2014 2nd International Conference on Software Engineering, Knowledge Engineering and Information Engineering (SEKEIE 2014)), pp. 57-61).
- Chen, L., Stewart, R. A. and Panuwatwanich, K. (2013) *Leveraging power of learning capability upon manufacturing operations*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol.145(1), pp. 233-252.
- Chen, M. S., Eweje, G and Kennedy, J. C. (2021) *Managerial sensemaking of tensions in sustainability: Empirical evidence from Chinese and New Zealand business partnerships*, Journal of Cleaner Production, Vol.319, 128699.
- Chen, S., Lee-Chai, A.Y. and Bargh, J.A. (2001) *Relationship orientation as a moderator of the effects of social power*, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 80 No. 2, p. 173.
- Chen, S., Zhang, Q. and Zhou, Y. P. (2019) *Impact of supply chain transparency on sustainability under NGO scrutiny*, Production and Operations Management, Vol. 28(12), pp. 3002-3022.
- Chen, T. C., Hsu, C. H., Chen, C. Y. and Lii, P. (2010) *Constructing virtual channel power model*, African Journal of Business Management, Vol. 4(12), pp. 2430-2437.
- Chen, Z. and Su, S. I. I. (2019) *Social welfare maximization with the least subsidy: Photovoltaic supply chain equilibrium and coordination with fairness concern*, Renewable Energy, Vol. 132, pp. 1332-1347.
- Cheng, J. H. (2011) *Inter-organizational relationships and information sharing in supply chains*, International Journal of Information Management Vol. 31(4), pp. 374-384.
- Cheng, J. H. and Sheu, J. B. (2012) *Inter-organizational relationships and strategy*

- quality in green supply chains—Moderated by opportunistic behavior and dysfunctional conflict*, *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 41(4), pp. 563-572.
- Cheng, Y. and Xiong, Z. (2015) *Strategic conditions for opening an Internet store and pricing policies in a retailer-dominant supply chain*, *Mathematical Problems in Engineering*, Vol. 2015, pp. 1-15.
- Chicksand, D. (2009) *Creating a sustainable UK farming and food industry: An analysis of partnership thinking as a solution to the problems in the UK farming and food industry*, Ph.D. Thesis, University of Birmingham.
- Cho, M. and Keltner, D. (2020) *Power, approach, and inhibition: Empirical advances of a theory*, *Current Opinion in Psychology*, Vol. 33, pp.196-200.
- Chopra, S. and Sodhi, M.S. (2014) *Reducing the risk of supply chain disruptions*, *MIT Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 55 (3), pp. 73-80.
- Chowdhury, M. M. H. and Quaddus, M. (2017) *Supply chain resilience: Conceptualization and scale development using dynamic capability theory*, *International Journal of Production Economics*, Vol. 188, pp. 185-204.
- Chowdhury, M. M. H. and Quaddus, M. A. (2015) *A multiple objective optimization based QFD approach for efficient resilient strategies to mitigate supply chain vulnerabilities: The case of garment industry of Bangladesh*, *Omega*, Vol 57, pp. 5-21.
- Clark, R. A. (1979) *The impact of self interest and desire for liking on the selection of communicative strategies*, *Communications Monographs*, Vol. 46(4), pp. 257-273.
- Coe, M. N. (2014) *Missing links: Logistics, governance and upgrading in a shifting global economy*, *Review of International Political Economy*, Vol. 21(1), pp. 224-256.
- Cohen, J. (1988) *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*, 2nd Edition, Lawrence Earlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, NJ.
- Coleman, P. T. and Kugler, K. G. (2014) *Tracking managerial conflict adaptivity: Introducing a dynamic measure of adaptive conflict management in organizations*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 35(7), pp. 945-968.
- Coleman, P.T. (2014) *Intractable conflict*, In Coleman, P.T., Deutsch, M., Marcus. E. C. (Eds.), *The handbook of conflict resolution: Theory and practice*, 3rd Edition, pp. 708-744, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Collins, R. (1975) *Conflict sociology*, New York, 370.
- Constantinescu, G. C. (2017) *Sources of supply chain conflicts—A fishbone diagram*

correlation, SEA–Practical Application of Science, Vol .(13), pp.191-197.

Cook, T.D. and Campbell, D.T. (1979) *Quasi-experimentation: Design and analysis issues for field settings*. 1st Edition, Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Cosar, Lewis A. (1956) *The Functions of Social Conflict*, London: Free Press.

Coser, L. A. (1998) *The functions of social conflict* (Vol. 9). Routledge.

Coughlan, A., Anderson, E., Stern, L. and ElAnsary, A. I. (2001), *Marketing channels*, 6th Edition, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Coughlan, A.T., Anderson, E., Stern, L. W. and El-Ansary, A.I., (2006) *Marketing Channels*, 7th Edition, Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.

Craighead, C. W., Ketchen Jr, D. J. and Darby, J. L. (2020) *Pandemics and supply chain management research: toward a theoretical toolbox*, Decision Sciences, Vol.51(4), pp. 838-866.

Crawford, H. K., Leybourne, M. L. and Arnott, A. (2000, January) *How we ensured rigor from a multi-site, multi-discipline, multi-researcher study*, In Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research, Vol. 1(1), Available at: www.qualitative-research.net/fqs-texte/1-00/01-00crawfordetal-e.pdf (Accessed 01.05.2023)

Creswell, J.W. and Miller, D.L. (2000) *Determining validity in qualitative inquiry*, Theory into Practice, Vol. 39(3), pp. 124-130.

Crisafulli, B. and Singh, J. (2017) *Service failures in e-retailing: Examining the effects of response time, compensation, and service criticality*, Computers in Human Behavior, Vol.77, pp.413-424.

Cropanzano, R. and Mitchell, M. S. (2005) *Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review*, Journal of Management, Vol. 31(6), pp. 874-900.

Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C. A. and Chen, P. Y. (2002) *Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice*, Group & Organization Management, Vol. 27(3), pp. 324-351.

Cyfert, S., Chwiłkowska-Kubala, A., Szumowski, W. and Miśkiewicz, R. (2021) *The process of developing dynamic capabilities: The conceptualization attempt and the results of empirical studies*, Plos One, Vol.16 (4), e0249724.

Dabaghian, N., Tavakkoli-Moghaddam, R., Taleizadeh, A. A. and Moshtagh, M. S. (2022) *Channel coordination and profit distribution in a three-echelon supply chain considering social responsibility and product returns*, Environment, Development and Sustainability, Vol. 24(3), pp.3165-3197.

- Dabholkar, P. A., Johnston, W. J. and Cathey, A. S. (1994) *The dynamics of long-term business-to-business exchange relationships*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 22, pp. 130-145.
- Dai, J., Li, S. and Peng, S. (2017) *Analysis on causes and countermeasures of bullwhip effect*, In MATEC web of conferences, Vol. 100, 05018.
- Dallinger, J. M. and Hample, D. (1995) *Personalizing and managing conflict*, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 6(3), pp. 273–289
- Darawong, C. (2018) *Dynamic capabilities of new product development teams in performing radical innovation projects*, International Journal of Innovation Science, Vol. 10(3), pp. 333-349.
- Darko, E. O. and Vlachos, I. (2022) *Creating valuable relationships with third-party logistics (3PL) providers: a multiple-case study*, Logistics, Vol. 6(2), p. 38.
- Davidson, J. A., McElwee, G. and Hannan, G. (2004) *Trust and power as determinants of conflict resolution strategy and outcome satisfaction*, Peace and Conflict, Vol.10(3), pp. 275-292.
- Davila, T., Epstein, M. J. and Shelton, R. D. (2006) *The creative enterprise: Managing innovative organizations and people*, 1st Edition, Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- De Dreu, C. K. and Gelfand, M. J. (Eds.). (2008) *The psychology of conflict and conflict management in organizations*, 1st Edition, New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. pp. 3-54.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., Harinck, F. and Van Vianen, A. E. M. (1999) *Conflict and performance in groups and organizations*, In Cooper C. L. and Robertson, I. T. (Eds.), International review of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol. 11, pp. 367– 405). Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- De La Cruz, A. L., Veeke, H. P. M. and Lodewijks, G. (2006, June) *Prognostics in the control of logistics systems*, In 2006 IEEE International Conference on Service Operations and Logistics, and Informatics (pp. 1-5). IEEE.
- Del Mar Benavides-Espinosa, M. and Ribeiro-Soriano, D. (2014) *Cooperative learning in creating and managing joint ventures*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 67(4), pp. 648-655.
- Delbufalo, E. and Delbufalo, E. (2018) *Agency theory and sustainability in global supply chain*, 1st Edition, New York City, NY: Springer International Publishing.
- Den Hertog, C. (2019) *An Implementation Framework for Integrated Planning*

- Transformation*, Journal of Business Forecasting, Vol. 38(2), pp. 26-33.
- Deutsch, M. (1969) *Conflicts: Productive and Destructive*, Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 25(1), pp. 7-41.
- Ding, H., Chen, X., Lin, K. and Wei, Y. (2019) *Collaborative mechanism of project profit allotment in petroleum engineering service chain with customized integration*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol. 214, pp. 163-174.
- Ding, H., Guo, B. and Liu, Z. (2011) *Information sharing, and profit allotment based on supply chain cooperation*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol. 133(1), pp. 70-79.
- Ding, H., Huang, H. and Tang, O. (2018) *Sustainable supply chain collaboration with outsourcing pollutant-reduction service in power industry*, Journal of Cleaner Production, Vol. 186, pp. 215-228.
- Drory, A. and Ritov, I. (1997) *Effects of work experience and opponent's power on conflict management styles*, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 8, pp. 148-161.
- Duarte, M. and Davies, G. (2003) *Testing the conflict-performance assumption in business-to-business relationships*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 32(2), pp. 91-99.
- Dubois, A. and Gadde, L. E. (2002) *Systematic combining: an abductive approach to case research*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 55 (7), pp. 553-560.
- Dukes, E. Franklin (1999) *Why Conflict Transformation Matters: Three Cases*, Peace and Conflict Studies, Vol. 6 (2), pp. 47-66.
- Dulaimi, M. F., Ling, F. Y. and Bajracharya, A. (2003) *Organizational motivation and inter-organizational interaction in construction innovation in Singapore*, Construction Management and Economics, Vol. 21(3), pp. 307-318.
- Dunegan, K. J., Duchon, D. and Barton, S. L. (1992) *Affect, risk, and decision criticality: Replication and extension in a business setting*, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Vol. 53(3), pp. 335-351.
- Dwitasari, R., Andriani, I., Herwening, M., Susanti, S., Yugihartiman, M., Kuswati, A. S. and Lestari, M. (2021) *Container Ports' Performance and Logistics Costs: A Case Study in Indonesia*, Proceedings of the Second Asia Pacific International Conference on Industrial Engineering and Operations Management, pp. 232-24.
- Eckerd, A. and Eckerd, S. (2017) *Institutional constraints, managerial choices, and conflicts in public sector supply chains*, International Public Management Journal,

Vol. 20(4), pp. 624-647.

Eckerd, S. and Sweeney, K. (2018) *The role of dependence and information sharing on governance decisions regarding conflict*, *The International Journal of Logistics Management*, Vol. 29 (1), pp. 409-434.

Eckert, J. A. and Rinehart, L. M. (2005) *Constructive Conflict Outcomes: Conceptualization, Measurement and Initial Validity*, *Marketing Management Journal*, Vol. 15(2), pp. 144-157.

Eisenhardt, K.M. (1988) *Agency- and institutional- theory explanations: the case of retail sales compensation*, *The Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 31 No. 3, pp. 488- 511.

Elbashir, M. Z., Sutton, S. G., Mahama, H. and Arnold, V. (2021) *Unravelling the integrated information systems and management control paradox: enhancing dynamic capability through business intelligence*, *Accounting & Finance*, Vol. 61, pp.1775-1814.

Eliashberg, J. and Michie, D. A. (1984) *Multiple business goals sets as determinants of marketing channel conflict: An empirical study*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 21(1), pp. 75-88.

Elkhechafi, M., Benmamoun, Z., Hachimi, H., Amine, A. and Elkettani, Y. (2018) *Firefly algorithm for supply chain optimization*, *Lobachevskii Journal of Mathematics*, Vol. 39, pp. 355-367.

Ellinger, A. D. and Bostrom, R. P. (1999) *Managerial coaching behaviors in learning organizations*, *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 18(9), pp. 752-771.

Ellis, M. V., Ladany, N., Kregel, M. and Schult, D. (1996) *Clinical supervision research from 1981 to 1993: A methodological critique*, *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, Vol. 43(1), p. 35.

Elzarka, S. M. (2013) *Supply Chain Risk Management: The Lessons Learned From the Egyptian Revolution*, *International Journal of Logistics Research and Applications*, Vol. 16 (6), pp. 482–492.

Ennew, C. and Schoefer, K. (2004) *Service failure and service recovery in tourism: a review*, in Raj, A. (Ed.), *The Tourist: A Psychological Perspective*, Tourism and Travel Research Institute, Nottingham.

Enz, M.G., Schwieterman, M.A. and Lambert, D.M. (2019) *Stock keeping unit rationalization: a cross-functional, cross-firm perspective*, *The International*

- Journal of Logistics Management, Vol. 30(4), pp. 994-1015.
- Eriksson, T., Nummela, N. and Saarenketo, S. (2014) *Dynamic capability in a small global factory*, International Business Review, Vol. 23(1), pp. 169-180.
- Etgar, M. (1979) *Sources and Types of Intrachannel Conflict*, Journal of Retailing, Vol. 55 (Spring), pp. 63–78.
- Evans, S. and Tourish, D. (2017) *Agency theory and performance appraisal: How bad theory damages learning and contributes to bad management practice*, Management Learning, Vol. 48(3), pp. 271-291.
- Fan, Y., Behdani, B. and Bloemhof-Ruwaard, J. M. (2020) *Refer logistics and cold chain transport: A systematic review and multi-actor system analysis of an unexplored domain*, European Journal of Transport and Infrastructure Research, Vol. 20(2), pp. 1-35.
- Fan, Y., de Kleuver, C., de Leeuw, S. and Behdani, B. (2021) *Trading off cost, emission, and quality in cold chain design: A simulation approach*, Computers & Industrial Engineering, Vol.158, pp.107442.
- Farid, H., Xiongying, N. I. U., Raza, J., Gul, H. and Hanif, N. (2021) *How and when organizational justice impact extra-role customer service: A social exchange perspective of thriving at work*, Current Psychology, pp. 1-16, doi: 10.1007/s12144-021-02244-y.
- Farooque, M., Zhang, A., Liu, Y. and Hartley, J. L. (2022) *Circular supply chain management: Performance outcomes and the role of eco-industrial parks in China*, Transportation Research Part E, Logistics and Transportation Review, Vol.157, p.102596.
- Feng, F., Pang, Y., Lodewijks, G. and Li, W. (2017) *Collaborative framework of an intelligent agent system for efficient logistics transport planning*, Computers & Industrial Engineering, Vol. 112, pp. 551-567.
- Feng, L., Li, Y., Xu, F., & Deng, Q. (2019) *Optimal pricing and trade-in policies in a dual-channel supply chain when considering market segmentation*, International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 57(9), pp. 2828-2846.
- Ferguson, J. L. and Johnston, W. J. (2011) *Customer response to dissatisfaction: A synthesis of literature and conceptual framework*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 40(1), pp. 118-127.
- Fildes, R., Goodwin, P. and Önköl, D. (2019) *Use and misuse of information in supply chain forecasting of promotion effects*, International Journal of Forecasting,

Vol. 35(1), pp. 144-156.

Filieri, R. (2015) *From market-driving to market-driven: an analysis of Benetton's strategy change and its implications for long-term performance*, Marketing Intelligence & Planning, Vol. 33(3), pp. 238-257.

Filippelli-DiManna, L. P. (2012) *Exploring opportunities for conflict resolution in higher education*, Ph.D. Thesis, Walden University.

Filley, A. C. (1975) *Interpersonal conflict resolution*, Madison, WI: Harper Collins.

Fink, C.F. (1968) *Some conceptual difficulties in the theory of social conflict*, Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 12(4), pp. 412-460.

Florent, T. M. and Zhen, H. (2010, January) *Study on the supplier evaluation index system of lean supply chain*, In 2010 International Conference on e-Education, e-Business, e-Management and e-Learning (pp. 47-51). IEEE.

Flores Noguera, C. L. and Kambey, C. A. (2022) *Fostering Organizational Resilience: Managing knowledge through practices and routines*, Master Thesis, Jönköping University.

Flygansvær, B., Dahlstrom, R. and Nygaard, A. (2018) *Exploring the pursuit of sustainability in reverse supply chains for electronics*, Journal of Cleaner Production, Vol.189, pp. 472-484.

Fontaine, P., Minner, S. and Schiffer, M. (2022) *Smart and sustainable city logistics: Design, consolidation, and regulation*, European Journal of Operational Research, Vol. 307(3), pp. 1071-1084.

Forero, R., Nahidi, S., De Costa, J., Mohsin, M., Fitzgerald, G., Gibson, N. and Aboagye-Sarfo, P. (2018) *Application of four-dimension criteria to assess the rigour of qualitative research in emergency medicine*, BMC Health Services Research, Vol.18(1), p. 120.

Fossati F. (2011) *Beyond the End of Violence and Conflict Freezing: Looking for Conflict Resolution*, Paper prepared for the TRANSCEND Research Institute-TRI. Available @ www.transcend.org/tri.

Fossati, F. (1998) *Uno schema analitico per lo studio empirico dei conflitti*, Sociologia e Ricerca Sociale, Vol. 57, pp. 133-57.

Fousiani, K., Steinel, W. and Minnigh, P. A. (2021) *Effects of power on negotiations: a comparison of collaborative versus competitive approach*, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol.32(2), pp. 223-249.

Frazier, G. L. and Rody, R. C. (1991) *The use of influence strategies in interfirm*

relationships in industrial product channels, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 55(1), pp. 52-69.

Frazier, G. L., Gill, J. D. and Kale, S. H. (1989) *Dealer dependence levels and reciprocal actions in a channel of distribution in a developing country*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 53(1), pp. 50-69.

Frow, N., Marginson, D. and Ogden, S. (2010) *Continuous budgeting: Reconciling budget flexibility with budgetary control*, Accounting, Organizations and Society, Vol. 35(4), pp. 444-461.

Furch, J. (2014) *Proactive maintenance of motor vehicles*, Machines. Technologies. Materials., Vol. 8(4), pp. 26-31.

Fürstenau, D., Schinzel, J. and Cleophas, C. (2014) *Strategic Information Systems Planning As A Dynamic Capability: Insights From An Agent-Based Simulation Study*, In ECMS, pp. 185-192.

Galvao, C. B., Wang, G. W. and Mileski, J. (2016) *Public-private interests and conflicts in ports: A content analysis approach*, The Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics, Vol. 32(1), pp. 13-22.

Gardiner, P.D. and Simmons, J.E.L. (1992) *Analysis of conflict and change in construction projects*, Construction Management and Economics, Vol.10 (6), pp. 459-478.

Garrido, R. A. (2007) *Procurement of transportation services in spot markets under a double-auction scheme with elastic demand*, Transportation Research Part B: Methodological, Vol. 41(9), pp. 1067-1078.

Gaski, J. F. (1984) *The theory of power and conflict in channels of distribution*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 48(3), pp. 9-29.

Gatenholm, G. and Halldórsson, Á. (2022) *Responding to discontinuities in product-based service supply chains in the COVID-19 pandemic: Towards transilience*, European Management Journal, Vol. 236, 108074.

Gattorna, J. L., Walters, D. W., Gattorna, J. L. and Walters, D. W. (1996) *Value chain and value delivery systems for supply chain management*, Managing the Supply Chain: A Strategic Perspective, pp. 99-111.

Gavrilas, M. (2010, October) *Heuristic and metaheuristic optimization techniques with application to power systems*, In Proceedings of the 12th WSEAS international conference on Mathematical methods and computational techniques in electrical engineering (p. 9).

- Ge, H., Chen, L. and Li, H. (2010, January) *Research on the function of on-demand logistics mechanism in the optimization of logistics system*, In 2010 International Conference on Logistics Systems and Intelligent Management (ICLSIM) (Vol. 1, pp. 53-57). IEEE.
- Gebauer, H. (2011) *Exploring the contribution of management innovation to the evolution of dynamic capabilities*, *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 40(8), pp. 1238-1250.
- Gelderman, C. J., Semeijn, J. and Verhappen, M. (2020) *Buyer opportunism in strategic supplier relationships: Triggers, manifestations and consequences*, *Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management*, Vol. 26(2), p. 100581.
- Geuens, M. and Pelsmacker, P. (2017) *Planning and Conducting Experimental Advertising Research and Questionnaire Design*, *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 46(1), pp. 83-100.
- Ghadge, A., Dani, S. and Kalawsky, R. (2012) *Supply Chain Risk Management: Present and Future Scope*, *International Journal of Logistics Management*, Vol. 23 (3), pp. 313–339
- Ghasemzadeh, P., Rezayat Sorkhabadi, S. M., Kebriaeezadeh, A., Nazari, J. A., Farzaneh, M. and Mehralian, G. (2022) *How does organizational learning contribute to corporate social responsibility and innovation performance? The dynamic capability view*, *Journal of Knowledge Management*, Vol. 26(10), pp. 2579-2601.
- Giannakis, M., Spanaki, K. and Dubey, R. (2019) *A cloud-based supply chain management system: effects on supply chain responsiveness*, *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, Vol. 32(4), pp. 585-607, doi: 10.1108/JEIM-05-2018-0106.
- Gibbons, R. (1997) *An introduction to applicable game theory*, *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, Vol. 11(1), pp. 127-149.
- Gilin Oore, D., Leiter, M. P. and LeBlanc, D. E. (2015) *Individual and organizational factors promoting successful responses to workplace conflict*, *Canadian Psychology/psychologie canadienne*, Vol. 56(3), p. 301.
- Glaser, B.G., Strauss, A.L. and Strutzel, E. (1968) *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*, *Nursing Research*, Vol. 17(4), p. 364.
- Goel, A. K., Gupta, S. L., Srinivasan, S. and Jha, B. K. (2011) *Integration of supply chain management using a multi-agent system & negotiation model*, *International*

- Journal of Computer and Electrical Engineering, Vol. 3(3), p. 375.
- Goel, D. (2012) *Exploring the Predictive Power of Demographic Factors on Conflict Management Styles of Individuals: A Study of Moserbaer Photovoltaic Ltd*, Drishtikon: A Management Journal, Vol. 3(1), pp. 76-97.
- Gonzalez-Aregall, M. and Bergqvist, R. (2019) *The role of dry ports in solving seaport disruptions: A Swedish case study*, Journal of Transport Geography, Vol. 80, p. 102499.
- Green, S.D. and Schweber, L. (2008) *Forum theorizing in the context of professional practice: the case for middle-range theories*, Building Research & Information, Vol. 36, pp. 649–654.
- Greenhaus, J. H. and Beutell, N. J. (1985) *Sources of conflict between work and family roles*, Academy of Management Review, 10(1), 76–88.
- Greening, D. W. and Johnson, R. A. (1997) *Managing industrial and environmental crises: The role of heterogeneous top management teams*, Business & Society, Vol. 36(4), pp. 334-361.
- Greer, L. and Bendersky, C. (2013) *Power and status in conflict and negotiation research: Introduction to the special issue*, Negotiation and Conflict Management Research, Vol.6(4), pp. 239-252.
- Greer, L.L., Jehn, K.A. and Mannix, E.A. (2008) *Conflict transformation: A longitudinal investigation of the relationships between different types of intragroup conflict and the moderating role of conflict resolution*, Small Group Research, Vol. 39(3), pp. 278-302.
- Gremler, D. D. (2004) *The critical incident technique in service research*, Journal of Service Research, Vol. 7(1), pp. 65-89.
- Grewal, R., Kumar, A., Mallapragada, G. and Saini, A. (2013) *Marketing channels in foreign markets: control mechanisms and the moderating role of multinational corporation headquarters–subsidiary relationship*, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 50(3), pp. 378-398.
- Griffin, R.W. (1990) *Management*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, CT, USA.
- Griffith, D. A., Harvey, M. G. and Lusch, R. F. (2006) *Social exchange in supply chain relationships: The resulting benefits of procedural and distributive justice*, Journal of Operations Management, Vol. 24(2), pp. 85-98.
- Gross, M. A. and Guerrero, L. K. (2000) *Managing conflict appropriately and effectively: An application of the competence model to Rahim's organizational*

conflict styles, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 11(3), pp. 200-227.

Guan, X. and Chen, Y. J. (2015) *Hierarchical quality disclosure in a supply chain with cost heterogeneity*, Decision Support Systems, Vol. 76, pp. 63-75.

Guarnieri, P., e Silva, L. C. and Levino, N. A. (2016) *Analysis of electronic waste reverse logistics decisions using Strategic Options Development Analysis methodology: A Brazilian case*, Journal of Cleaner Production, Vol. 133, pp. 1105-1117.

Guba, E. G. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1989), *Fourth generation evaluation*, Sage.

Guinote, A. (2008) *Power and affordances: when the situation has more power over powerful than powerless individuals*, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 95(2), p. 237.

Gultekin, B., Demir, S., Gunduz, M. A., Cura, F. and Ozer, L. (2022). *The logistics service providers during the COVID-19 pandemic: The prominence and the cause-effect structure of uncertainties and risks*, Computers & Industrial Engineering, Vol. 165, p. 107950.

Gunasekaran, A., Patel, C. and Tirtiroglu, E. (2001) *Performance measures and metrics in a supply chain environment*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, Vol. 21(1/2), pp. 71-87.

Güneri, A. F., Ertay, T. and Yücel, A. (2011) *An approach based on ANFIS input selection and modeling for supplier selection problem*, Expert Systems with Applications, Vol. 38(12), pp. 14907-14917.

Gusah, L., Cameron-Rogers, R. and Thompson, R. G. (2019) *A systems analysis of empty container logistics—a case study of Melbourne, Australia*, Transportation Research Procedia, Vol. 39, pp. 92-103.

Gutierrez-Gutierrez, L. J., Barrales-Molina, V. and Kaynak, H. (2018) *The role of human resource-related quality management practices in new product development: A dynamic capability perspective*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, Vol. 38(1), pp. 43-66.

Habib, F., Bastl, M., Karatzas, A. and Mena, C. (2020) *Treat me well and I may leave you kindly: A configurational approach to a buyer's relationship exit strategy*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 84, pp. 237-250.

Habib, G. M. (1987) *Measures of manifest conflict in international joint ventures*, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 30(4), pp. 808-816.

- Hafeez, K., Keoy, K. H. A., Zairi, M., Hanneman, R. and Koh, S. L. (2010) *E-supply chain operational and behavioural perspectives: an empirical study of Malaysian SMEs*, International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 48(2), pp. 525-546.
- Hagel 3rd, J. and Brown, J. S. (2005) *Productive friction: How difficult business partnerships can accelerate innovation*, Harvard Business Review, Vol. 83(2), pp. 82-91.
- Håkansson, H. (Ed.). (1982) *International marketing and purchasing of industrial goods: An interaction approach*, Vol. 389, Chichester: Wiley.
- Halldórsson, Á. and Aastrup, J. (2003) *Quality criteria for qualitative inquiries in logistics*, European Journal of Operational Research, Vol. 144(2), pp. 321-332.
- Han, I. and Chuang, C. M. (2015) *The antecedents and consequences of local embeddedness: A framework based on the rice industry in Taiwan*, Asian Business and Management, Vol. 14(3), pp. 195-226.
- Handgraaf, M.J., Van Dijk, E., Vermunt, R.C., Wilke, H.A. and De Dreu, C.K. (2008) *Less power or powerless? Egocentric empathy gaps and the irony of having little versus no power in social decision making*, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 95(5), p. 1136.
- Hansotia, B. J. (1990) *Sample size and design of experiment issues in testing offers*, journal of Direct Marketing, Vol. 4(4), pp. 15-25.
- Harper, S. R. and Nagel, R. L. (2014) *A study on conflicts during an interdisciplinary capstone design experience*, International Journal of Collaborative Engineering, Vol. 1(3-4), pp. 256-273.
- Harrell, M. C. and Bradley, M. A. (2009) *Data collection methods. Semi-structured interviews and focus groups*. Rand National Defense Research Inst santa monica ca.
- Hasija, A. and Esper, T. L. (2022) *In artificial intelligence (AI) we trust: A qualitative investigation of AI technology acceptance*, Journal of Business Logistics, Vol. 43(3), pp. 388-412.
- Haufler, V. (2001) *A Public Role for the Private Sector: Industry Self-Regulation in a Global Economy*, Washington, DC: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.
- Heese, H. S. (2012) *Retail strategies for extended warranty sales and impact on manufacturer base warranties*, Decision Sciences, Vol. 43(2), pp. 341-367.
- Hibbard, J. D., Kumar, N. and Stern, L. W. (2001) *Examining the Impact of Destructive Acts in Marketing Channel Relationships*, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 38, pp. 45-61.

- Highhouse, S. (2009) *Designing experiments that generalize*, Organizational Research Methods, Vol. 12(3), pp. 554-566.
- Hollenbeck, J. R., DeRue, D. S. and Nahrgang, J. D. (2015) *The opponent process theory of leadership succession*, Organizational Psychology Review, Vol. 5(4), pp. 333-363.
- Holt, J. L. and DeVore, C. J. (2005) *Culture, gender, organizational role, and styles of conflict resolution: A meta-analysis*, International Journal of Intercultural Relations, Vol. 29(2), pp. 165-196.
- Hornibrook, S. (2007) *Agency theory and supply chain management: goals and incentives in supply chain organisations*, working paper 147, 24 July, Kent Business School, University of Kent, Canterbury.
- Hough, L. and Chaney, S. (2005) *Thomas' Conflict Theory*, Theory-directed nursing practice, 223.
- Houghton, C., Casey, D., Shaw, D. and Murphy, K. (2013) *Rigour in qualitative case-study research*, Nurse Researcher, Vol. 20(4), pp. 12-17.
- Hu, Y., Qu, S., Li, G. and Sethi, S. P. (2021) *Power structure and channel integration strategy for online retailers*, European Journal of Operational Research, Vol. 294(3), pp. 951-964.
- Huang, X., Choi, S. M., Ching, W. K., Siu, T. K. and Huang, M. (2011) *On supply chain coordination for false failure returns: A quantity discount contract approach*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol. 133(2), pp. 634-64.
- Huang, Y., Wang, K., Zhang, T. and Pang, C. (2016) *Green supply chain coordination with greenhouse gases emissions management: a game-theoretic approach*, Journal of Cleaner Production, Vol. 112, pp. 2004-2014.
- Huang, CY. (2011) *Historical research on corporate governance: A bibliometric analysis*, African Journal of Business Management, Vol. 5(2), 276-284.
- Huang, K. F., Wu, L. Y., Dyerson, R. and Chen, C. F. (2012) *How does a technological firm develop its competitive advantage? A dynamic capability perspective*, IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management, Vol. 59(4), pp. 644-653.
- Huang, L. and Zhang, M. (2020) *Conformance quality of the dual-channel tourism supply chain under tourists' quality preference*, Journal of China Tourism Research, Vol. 18(1), pp. 20-45.
- Huang, X., Gu, J. W., Ching, W. K. and Siu, T. K. (2014) *Impact of the secondary*

market on consumer return policies and supply chain coordination, Omega, Vol. 45, pp. 57-70.

Hübner, D. (2016) *Managing risk and conflict in buyer-supplier relationships*, Ph.D. Thesis, ETH Zurich.

Hughes and Hodgkinson, I. (2021) *Knowledge management activities and strategic planning capability development*, European Business Review, Vol. 33(2), pp. 238-254.

Hughes, M. and Hughes, C. H. L. (2020) *Product-market planning capability and profitability*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 90, pp. 370-379.

Hughes, M. M., Zhou, Z., Zinn, W. and Knemeyer, A. M. (2023) *Plastic response to disruptions: Significant redesign of supply chains*, Journal of Business Logistics, Vol. 44(1), pp. 80-108.

Hung, S. J. (2005) *Organizational conflicts and responsive communication strategies: A study of a Taiwanese diplomatic organization*, Doctoral Thesis, University of La Verne.

Hwang, J. and Chung, J. E. (2018) *The roles of business ethics in conflict management in small retailer–supplier business relationships*. Journal of Small Business Management, Vol. 56(2), pp. 348-368.

Ilangkumaran, M. and Kumanan, S. (2012) *Application of hybrid VIKOR model in selection of maintenance strategy*, International Journal of Information Systems and Supply Chain Management (IJISSCM), Vol. 5(2), pp. 59-81.

Inghelbrecht, L., Dessein, J. and Van Huylenbroeck, G. (2014) *The non-GM crop regime in the EU: How do Industries deal with this wicked problem.*, NJAS-Wageningen Journal of Life Sciences, Vol. 70, pp. 103-112.

Iniesta, F. P. (1999) *Antecedents and consequences of conflict resolution sequences in contractual channels of distribution*, Doctoral Thesis, Boston University.

Irfan, M., Wang, M. and Akhtar, N. (2019) *Impact of IT capabilities on supply chain capabilities and organizational agility: a dynamic capability view*, Operations Management Research, Vol. 12(3), pp. 113-128.

Irfani, D. P., Wibisono, D. and Basri, M. H. (2019) *Logistics performance measurement framework for companies with multiple roles*, Measuring Business Excellence, Vol. 23 (2), pp. 93-109.

Ishii, R. (2020) *Conflict management in dual distribution channel systems: the moderating role of learning capabilities*, Journal of Asia Business Studies, Vol.

14(4), pp. 525-550.

Islam, M. and Mohd-Nor, R. (2017) *Business Engagement in Adaptation To Climate Change In Developing Countries: A Case Study Based On Behavioral Perspective*, International Journal of Business & Society, Vol. 18, pp. 742–753.

Jæger, B. and Hjelle, H. M. (2015, June) *Handling multi-party complexities in container flows in the upstream oil and gas supply chain: Potential lessons for an application to intercontinental container supply chains*, In *2015 International Conference on Transportation Information and Safety (ICTIS)* (pp. 661-668). IEEE.

Jafarzadeh, H., Tafti, M., Intezari, A. and Sohrabi, B. (2021) *All's well that ends well: Effective recovery from failures during the delivery phase of the e-retailing process*, Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, Vol. 62, p. 102602.

Jakubicek, P. and Woudsma, C. (2011) *Proximity, land, labor and planning? Logistics industry perspectives on facility location*, Transportation Letters, Vol. 3(3), pp. 161-173.

Jamaluddin, F. and Saibani, N. (2021) *Systematic Literature Review of Supply Chain Relationship Approaches amongst Business-to-Business Partners*, Sustainability, Vol. 13(21), 11935.

Jambulingam, T., Kathuria, R. and Nevin, J. R. (2009) *How fairness garners loyalty in the pharmaceutical supply chain*, International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Healthcare Marketing, Vol. 3(4), pp. 305–322.

Jameson, J. K. (1999) *Toward a comprehensive model for the assessment and management of intra organizational conflict: Developing the framework*, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 10, pp. 268–294.

Jang, H. M. and Kim, S. Y. (2012) *Customer loyalty and logistics service performance in maritime transport: a literature review and conceptual model*, Journal of Navigation and Port Research, Vol. 36(9), pp. 753-761.

Jarratt, D. (2004) *Conceptualizing a relationship management capability*, Marketing Theory, Vol. 4(4), pp. 287-309.

Jaworski, B. J. and Kohli, A. K. (1993) *Market orientation: Antecedents and consequences*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 57(July), pp. 53–70.

Jehn, K.A. (1995) *A multimethod examination of the benefits and detriments of intragroup conflict*, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 40(2), pp. 256-282.

Jehn, K.A. (1997) *A qualitative analysis of conflict types and dimensions in organizational groups*, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 42(3), pp. pp. 530-

557.

Jensen, M. C. and Meckling, W. H. (1976) *Theory of the firm: Managerial behavior, agency costs and ownership structure*, Journal of Financial Economics, Vol. 3, pp. 305-360.

Jia, G., Yang, F., Wang, G., Hong, B. and You, R. (2011) *A study of mega project from a perspective of social conflict theory*, International Journal of Project Management, Vol. 29(7), pp. 817-827.

Jiang, Y., Ritchie, B. W., & Verreynne, M. L. (2022) *A resource-based typology of dynamic capability: Managing tourism in a turbulent environment*, Journal of Travel Research, Vol. 61(5), pp. 1006-1023.

John, F. R. and Prasad, P. S. S. (2012) *An overview of conflicts in supply chain systems*, International Journal of Logistics Systems and Management Vol. 11(3), pp. 325-353.

Johns, G. (2018) *Advances in the treatment of context in organizational research*, Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, Vol. 5, pp. 21-46.

Johnson, H. H. and Johnson, M. D. (2017) *Influence of event characteristics on assessing credibility and advice-taking*, Journal of Managerial Psychology, Vol. 32(1), pp. 89-103.

Johnston, W. (2020) *The Coronavirus crisis in B2B settings: Crisis uniqueness and managerial implications based on social exchange theory*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 88, pp. 125-135.

Jonker, J. and Foster, D. (2002) *Stakeholder excellence? Framing the evolution and complexity of a stakeholder perspective of the firm*, Corporate social responsibility and Environmental Management, Vol. 9(4), pp. 187-195.

Jørstad, T. S., Langaas, M. and Bones, A. M. (2007) *Understanding sample size: what determines the required number of microarrays for an experiment?*, Trends in Plant Science, Vol. 12(2), pp. 46-50.

Juan, S. J. and Li, E. Y. (2023) *Financial performance of firms with supply chains during the COVID-19 pandemic: the roles of dynamic capability and supply chain resilience*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, (ahead-of-print).

Kabanoff, B. (1985) *Potential influence structures as sources of interpersonal conflict in groups and organizations*, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision

Processes, Vol. 36(1), pp. 113-141.

Kähkönen, A. K., Evangelista, P., Hallikas, J., Immonen, M. and Lintukangas, K. (2021) *COVID-19 as a trigger for dynamic capability development and supply chain resilience improvement*, International Journal of Production Research, pp. 1-20.

Kanda, A. and Deshmukh, S. G. (2007) *Role of supply chain coordination in OM: Select experiences from India*, In Proceedings of POMS 18th Annual Conference, Dallas, TX, USA.

Kang, H. (2021) *Sample size determination and power analysis using the G* Power software*, Journal of Educational Evaluation for Health Professions, Vol. 18, pp. 1–12.

Karaosman H., Perry P., Brun A. and Morales-Alonso G. (2020) *Behind the runway: extending sustainability in luxury fashion supply chains*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 117, pp. 652-663.

Karren, R. J. and Barringer, M. W. (2002) *A review and analysis of the policy-capturing methodology in organizational research: Guidelines for research and practice*, Organizational Research Methods, Vol. 5(4), pp. 337-361.

Kaur, H. and Singh, S. P. (2022) *Disaster resilient proactive and reactive procurement models for humanitarian supply chain*, Production Planning & Control, Vol. 33(6-7), pp. 576-589.

Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H. and Anderson, C. (2003) *Power, approach, and inhibition*, Psychological Review, Vol. 110(2), p. 265.

Ketchen Jr, D. J., Craighead, C. W. and Cheng, L. (2018) *Achieving research design excellence through the pursuit of perfection: Toward strong theoretical calibration*, Journal of Supply Chain Management, Vol. 54(1), pp. 16-22.

Khan, J. (2011) *Validation in marketing experiments revisited*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 64(7), pp. 687-692.

Kim, D., Tamer Cavusgil, S., & Calantone, R. J. (2005) *The role of information technology in supply-chain relationships: does partner criticality matter?*, Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, Vol. 20(4/5), pp. 169-178.

Kim, K. K., Lee, H. and Park, Y. J. (2011, October) *Interorganizational information systems asymmetry and supply chain performance*, In The 5th International Conference on New Trends in Information Science and Service Science, Vol. 2, pp. 388-393. IEEE.

Kirk, J., Miller, M. L. and Miller, M. L. (1986) *Reliability and validity in qualitative*

research, 1st Edition, New York City, NY: Sage.

Kit Lam, P., Sang Chin, K. and Fai Pun, K. (2007) *Managing conflict in collaborative new product development: a supplier perspective*, International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management, Vol. 24(9), pp. 891-907.

Kırılmaz, O. and Erol, S. (2017) *A proactive approach to supply chain risk management: Shifting orders among suppliers to mitigate the supply side risks*, Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management, Vol. 23(1), pp. 54-65.

Ko, J. and Hur, S. (2014) *The impacts of employee benefits, procedural justice, and managerial trustworthiness on work attitudes: Integrated understanding based on social exchange theory*, Public Administration Review, Vol. 74(2), pp. 176-187.

Koleva, P. (2023) *Critical analysis of grounded theory strategy in organisational and management research*, Qualitative Research Journal, Vol. 23(3), pp. 258-272.

Kong, D. T., Dirks, K. T. Ferrin, D. L. (2014) *Interpersonal trust within negotiations: meta-analytic evidence, critical contingencies, and directions for future research*, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 57(5), pp. 1235–1255. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2012.0461>

Kong, L., Liu, Z., Pan, Y., Xie, J. and Yang, G. (2017) *Pricing and service decision of dual-channel operations in an O2O closed-loop supply chain*, Industrial Management and Data Systems, Vol. 117(8), pp. 1567-1588.

Kovacs, G. and Spens, K.M. (2005) *Abductive reasoning in logistics research*, International Journal of Physical Distribution and Logistics Management, Vol. 35(2), pp. 132-144.

Koza, K. L. and Dant, R. P. (2007) *Effects of relationship climate, control mechanism, and communications on conflict resolution behavior and performance outcomes*, Journal of Retailing, Vol. 83(3), pp. 279-296.

Krafft, M., Goetz, O., Mantrala, M., Sotgiu, F. and Tillmanns, S. (2015) *The evolution of marketing channel research domains and methodologies: an integrative review and future directions*, Journal of Retailing, Vol. 91(4), pp. 569-585.

Kuik, S.S., Nagalingam, S., Samaranayake, P. and McLean, M.W. (2017) *Evaluation of recovery configuration options by product utilisation value*, Journal of Manufacturing Technology Management, Vol. 28, pp. 686–710.

Kumar, A., Cantor, D. E. and Grimm, C. M. (2019) *The impact of a supplier's environmental management concerns on a buyer's environmental reputation: The moderating role of relationship criticality and firm size*, Transportation Research

Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review, Vol. 122, pp. 448-462.

Kumar, K. and Van Dissel, H. G. (1996) *Sustainable collaboration: managing conflict and cooperation in interorganizational systems*, MIS Quarterly, pp. 279-300.

Kurtz, C. F. and Snowden, D. J. (2003) *The new dynamics of strategy: Sense-making in a complex and complicated world*, IBM Systems Journal, Vol. 42(3), pp. 462-483.

Lacity, M. and Willcocks, L. (2017) *Conflict resolution in business services outsourcing relationships*, The Journal of Strategic Information Systems, 26(2), 80-100.

Lacity, M. and Willcocks, L. (2015) *Nine keys to world-class business process outsourcing*, Bloomsbury Publishing.

Lam, P. K. and Chin, K. S. (2004) *Project factors influencing conflict intensity and handling styles in collaborative NPD*, Creativity and Innovation Management, Vol. 13(1), pp. 52-62.

Langley, A. (1999) *Strategies for theorising from process data*, Academy of Management Review, Vol. 24(4), pp. 691-710.

Larkin, J. (2002) *Strategic reputation risk management*, 1st Edition, New York City, NY: Springer.

Larson, M. J. (2001) *Conflict resolution in ecological negotiations: How multilateral negotiations contribute to the resolution of environment and development conflicts*, Ph.D. Thesis, George Mason University.

Lawson, B. (2001) *Developing innovation capability in organisations: a dynamic capabilities approach*, International Journal of Innovation Management, Vol. 5(3), pp.377-400.

Le Nguyen, H. (2011) *Partnership strategies: pro-active and pre-active approach in conflict management in international joint ventures*, International Journal of Business and Management, Vol. 6(9), p. 38.

Leatherman, J. and Väyrynen, R. (1995) *Conflict Theory and Conflict Resolution: Directions for Collaborative Research Policy*, Cooperation and Conflict, Vol. 30(1), pp. 53-82.

Lee, C., Han, S. H., Jang, W. and Jung, W. (2017) *Multi-objective optimization for conflict resolution in construction projects*, In 9th International Structural Engineering and Construction Conference: Resilient Structures and Sustainable Construction, ISEC 2017. ISEC Press.

Lee, C. S. (2012) *Multi-objective game-theory models for conflict analysis in*

- reservoir watershed management*, Chemosphere, Vol. 87(6), pp. 608-613.
- Lee, H., Yi, H. T. and Son, M. (2020) *The effect of relationship incompatibility on relationship termination intention in B2B transaction*, Journal of Distribution Science, Vol. 18(4), pp. 51-60.
- Lee, K. and Yoo, J. (2019) *How does open innovation lead competitive advantage? A dynamic capability view perspective*, Plos One Vol. 14(11), p. e0223405. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.02234
- Lee, K. L. (2008) *An examination between the relationships of conflict management styles and employees' satisfaction*, International Journal of Business and Management, Vol. 3(9), pp. 11-25.
- Lehtinen, J. and Ahola, T. (2010) *Is performance measurement suitable for an extended enterprise?*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, Vol. 30 (2), pp. 181-204.
- Lehtinen, U. and Lehtinen, J. R. (1991) *Two approaches to service quality dimensions*, Service Industries Journal, Vol. 11(3), pp. 287-303.
- Lengers, J., Dant, R. P. and Meiseberg, B. (2015) *Conflict dynamics in interfirm relationships: an exploratory analysis of the importance of governance mechanisms*, Interfirm Networks: Franchising, Cooperatives and Strategic Alliances, pp. 273-297.
- Levesque, T. J. and McDougall, G. H. (2000) *Service problems and recovery strategies: an experiment*, Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration, Vol. 17(1), pp. 20-37.
- Li, B., Gao, Y., Zhang, S. and Wang, C. (2021) *Understanding the effects of trust and conflict event criticality on conflict resolution behavior in construction projects: Mediating role of social motives*, Journal of Management in Engineering, Vol. 37(6), 04021066.
- Li, G., Li, L., Sethi, S. P. and Guan, X. (2019) *Return strategy and pricing in a dual-channel supply chain*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol. 215, pp. 153-164.
- Li, G., Zhang, X., Chiu, S. M., Liu, M. and Sethi, S. P. (2019) *Online market entry and channel sharing strategy with direct selling diseconomies in the sharing economy era*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol. 218, pp. 135-147.
- Li, S. and He, Y. (2019, May) *Dynamic compensation for Supply Disruption Management*, In 2019 IEEE 8th Data Driven Control and Learning Systems Conference (DDCLS) (pp. 1008-1011). IEEE.

- Li, X., Li, Y., Cai, X. and Shan, J. (2016) *Service channel choice for supply chain: who is better off by undertaking the service?*, Production and Operations Management, Vol. 25(3), pp. 516-534.
- Li, Y., Chen, K., Collignon, S. and Ivanov, D. (2021) *Ripple effect in the supply chain network: Forward and backward disruption propagation, network health and firm vulnerability*, European Journal of Operational Research, Vol. 291(3), pp. 1117-1131.
- Li, Y., Liu, Y. and Liu, H. (2011) *Co-opetition, distributor's entrepreneurial orientation and manufacturer's knowledge acquisition: Evidence from China*. Journal of Operations Management, Vol. 29(1-2), pp. 128-142.
- Lia, B., Liua, M. J., Chonga, A. Y., Leec, F. and Ch'ngd, E. (2015), *The Role of Service Recovery in Negative Word of Mouth Communication*, In The Ninth International Conference on Operations and Supply Chain Management.
- Lin, Y. and Wang, X. (2020) *Coopetition in the supply chain between container liners and freight forwarders: a game theory approach*, Transportation Planning and Technology, Vol. 43(8), pp. 771-782.
- Lin, Y., Luo, J., Cai, S., Ma, S. and Rong, K. (2016) *Exploring the service quality in the e-commerce context: a triadic view*, Industrial Management & Data Systems, Vol. 116(3), pp. 388-415
- Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (1985) *Naturalistic inquiry*, 1st Edition, New York City, NY: Sage.
- Lindqvist, K. and Gladh, K. (2019) *Risk and cost assessment in supply chain decision making: Developing a tool with analytical hierarchy methodology*, Master Thesis, Luleå University of Technology.
- Lindroth, E., Huong, H. and Bergqvist, R. (2020) *Port-related conflict at port of Gothenburg—consequences from a fashion retailer's perspective*, Journal of Shipping and Trade, Vol. 5(1), pp. 1-17.
- Litterer, J.A. (1966) *Conflict in organization: A re-examination*, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 9(3), pp. 178-186.
- Liu, Y., Liu, Z.Y. and Li, J. (2020) *Supply chain channel conflict coordination with consumer network acceptance*, Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, Vol. 33(3), pp. 846-868.
- Liu, C., Li, X. and Liu, Q. (2021) *Analysis of an evolutionary game of pallet pooling with participation of third-party platform*, Plos One, Vol. 16(10), p. e0256923.

- Liu, D., Kuang, H., & Huang, M. (2017, May) *Graph model for conflict resolution in the information sharing conflict of the fourth party logistics*, In 2017 29th Chinese Control and Decision Conference (CCDC) (pp. 6545-6550). IEEE.
- Liu, F., Wang, J., Liu, J. and Kong, Y. (2019) *Coordination of port service chain with an integrated contract*, *Soft Computing*, Vol. 24(9), pp. 1-14.
- Liu, G., McKone-Sweet, K. and Shah, R. (2009) *Assessing the performance impact of supply chain planning in net-enhanced organizations*, *Operations Management Research*, Vol. 2, pp. 33-43.
- Liu, H. (2009, December) *Co-opetition and knowledge sharing in supply chain*, In 2009 First International Conference on Information Science and Engineering (pp. 4237-4240). IEEE.
- Liu, M., Liu, R., Zhu, Z., Chu, C. and Man, X. (2018b) *A bi-objective green closed loop supply chain design problem with uncertain demand*, *Sustainability*, Vol. 10(4), p. 967.
- Liu, W., Shen, X., Liang, Y. and Wang, D. (2021) *The conflict handling mechanisms of intelligent logistics ecological chains: a perspective of trust behavior under information asymmetry*, *European Journal of Industrial Engineering*, Vol. 15(6), pp. 777-802.
- Liu, Y., Luo, Y. and Liu, T. (2009) *Governing buyer–supplier relationships through transactional and relational mechanisms: Evidence from China*, *Journal of Operations Management*, Vol. 27(4), pp. 294-309.
- Liu, Y., Quan, B. T., Li, J. and Forrest, J. Y. L. (2018a) *A supply chain coordination mechanism with cost sharing of corporate social responsibility*, *Sustainability*, Vol.10(4), p. 1227.
- Liu, Y., S. Fang, Z. Fang and K. Hipel. (2012) *Petri net model for supply-chain quality conflict resolution of a complex product*, *Kybernetes*, Vol. 41(7/8), pp. 920–928.
- Lönnerberg, A., Macanovic, E. and Pettersson, I. (2016) *Negative Effects on Trust in B2B Relationships*, Bachelor Thesis. Linnaeus University, Sweden.
- Loosemore, M. and Lim, B. (2015) *Inter-organizational unfairness in the construction industry*, *Construction Management and Economics*, Vol. 33(4), pp. 310-326.
- Lord, C., Bates, O., Friday, A., McLeod, F., Cherrett, T., Martinez-Sykora, A. and Oakey, A. (2022) *The sustainability of the gig economy food delivery system*

(Deliveroo, UberEATS and Just-Eat): Histories and futures of rebound, lock-in and path dependency, International Journal of Sustainable Transportation, pp. 1-13.

Low, W. S. (2018) *Two-step influence tactics: exploring how coercive power is exercised in channel triad*, Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing, Vol. 25(4), pp. 299-317.

Lu, Q., Goh, M. and De Souza, R. (2011, December) *Governance mode in reverse logistics: A research framework*, In 2011 IEEE International Conference on Industrial Engineering and Engineering Management (pp. 216-220). IEEE.

Lu, W., Wei, Y. and Wang, R. (2020) *Handling inter-organisational conflict based on bargaining power: Organisational power distance orientation matters*, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 31(5), pp. 781-800, doi: 10.1108/IJCMA-06-2019-0092.

Lu, W., Zhang, L. and Li, Z. (2015) *Influence of negotiation risk attitude and power on behaviors and outcomes when negotiating construction claims*, Journal of Construction Engineering and Management, Vol. 141(2), p. 4014069.

Luiz Corrêa, H. and Gisela Martes de Miranda, N. (1998) *Supply network management in the Brazilian automotive industry*, Integrated Manufacturing Systems, Vol. 9(5), pp. 261-271.

Lukinskiy, V. and Pletneva, N. (2018) *Impact of solutions for goods transportation on business efficiency and traffic safety*, Transportation Research Procedia, Vol. 36, pp. 459-464.

Lumineau, F., Eckerd, S. and Handley, S. (2015) *Inter-organizational conflicts: Research overview, challenges, and opportunities*, Journal of Strategic Contracting and Negotiation, Vol. 1(1), pp. 42-64.

Lusch, R. F. (1976) *Sources of power: their impact on intrachannel conflict*, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 13(4), pp. 382-390.

Lynn, A. (2007) *Quick emotional intelligence activities for busy managers: 50 team exercises that get results in just 15 minutes*, Amacom.

Ma, H. L., Leung, L. C., Chung, S. H. and Wong, C. W. H. (2022) *Insurance incentive to shippers by a container port: Issues of risk management in supply chain finance*, Annals of Operations Research, pp. 1-19.

Madadi, R., Torres, I. M. and Zúñiga, M. Á. (2022) *Is Love Extendable to Relationship Marketing and Supply Chain Management?*, Services Marketing Quarterly, Vol. 43(3), pp. 374-388.

- Madhani, P. M. (2012) *Marketing and supply chain management integration: a resource-based view of competitive advantages*, International Journal of Value Chain Management, Vol. 6(3), pp. 216-239.
- Magee, J. C., Galinsky, A. D. and Gruenfeld, D. H. (2007) *Power, propensity to negotiate, and moving first in competitive interactions*, Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, Vol. 33(2), pp. 200-212.
- Mahaney, R.C. and Lederer, A.L. (2003) Information systems project management: an agency theory interpretation, Journal of Systems and Software, Vol. 68(1), pp. 1- 9.
- Mahmoud, M. A., Mahmoud, A., Abubakar, S. L., Garba, A. S. and Daneji, B. A. (2022) *COVID-19 operational disruption and SMEs' performance: The moderating role of disruption orientation and government support*, Benchmarking: An International Journal, Vol. 29(9), pp. 2641-2664.
- Malhotra, N.K. (2004) *Marketing Research*, 4th ed., Pearson Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Malka, S. C. (2021) *On The Blessings That Chaos Brings: A Closer Look At Conflict Through The Lens of Chaos Theory*, The Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 7(1), pp. 1-17.
- Maloni, M., Paul, J. A. and Gligor, D. M. (2013) *Slow steaming impacts on ocean carriers and shippers*, Maritime Economics & Logistics, Vol. 15(2), pp. 151-171.
- Mandal, S. (2018) *Exploring the influence of big data analytics management capabilities on sustainable tourism supply chain performance: the moderating role of technology orientation*, Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, Vol. 35(8), pp. 1104-1118.
- Mannix, E.A. and Neale, M.A. (1993) *Power imbalance and the pattern of exchange in dyadic negotiation*, Group Decision and Negotiation, Vol. 2(2), pp. 119-133.
- Manolescu, A. and Deaconu, A. (2008) *Considerations Regarding the Conflict Management*, Theoretical and Applied Economics, Vol. 2(2), p. 29.
- Mantino, F. and Forcina, B. (2018) *Market, policies and local governance as drivers of environmental public benefits: the case of the localised processed tomato in Northern Italy*, Agriculture, Vol. 8(3), p. 34.
- Marcus Wallenburg, C. and Simon Raue, J. (2011) *Conflict and its governance in horizontal cooperations of logistics service providers*, International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management, Vol. 41(4), pp. 385-400.

- Marcus, E. C. (2014) *Change and conflict: motivation, resistance, and commitment*, in Coleman P. T., Deutsch M. and Marcus E. C. (Eds) *the Handbook of Conflict Resolution: Theory and Practice*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Marrella, A., Mecella, M., Pernici, B. and Plebani, P. (2019) *A design-time data-centric maturity model for assessing resilience in multi-party business processes*, *Information Systems*, Vol. 86, pp. 62-78.
- Martínez- Tur, V., Peiró, J. M., Ramos, J. and Moliner, C. (2006) *Justice perceptions as predictors of customer satisfaction: The impact of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice*, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 36(1), pp. 100-119.
- Martins, F. S., Vils, L., Serra, F. A. R., da Silva Junior, W. and Napolitano, D. M. M. R. (2022) *Knowledge generation and market orientation during global crises in supply chains*, *European Business Review*, Vol. 34 (4), pp. 453-470
- Marxists Internet Archive (2010) *Bourgeois and proletarians (Chapter I)*, Retrieved from <https://www.marxists.org/>. Accessed on May 26, 2023.
- Marzi, G., Caputo, A., Garces, E. and Dabić, M. (2018) A three-decade mixed-method bibliometric investigation of the IEEE transactions on engineering management, *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, Vol. 67(1), pp. 4-17.
- Massey, G.R. and Dawes, P.L. (2007) *The antecedents and consequences of functional and dysfunctional conflict between marketing managers and sales managers*, *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 36 (8), pp. 1118–1129.
- Matawale, C., Datta, S. and Mahapatra, S. (2016) *Supplier/partner selection in agile supply chain: application of vague set as a decision-making tool*, *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, Vol. 23(7), pp. 2027-2060.
- Mazzei, M. and Steiner, A. (2020) *What about efficiency? Exploring perceptions of current social enterprise support provision in Scotland*, *Geoforum*, Vol. 118, pp. 38-46.
- McCafferty, K. C. (2006) *Conflict Theory How Contributor*, [http://www.Ehow.Com/Facts-5518763 – conflict-theory](http://www.Ehow.Com/Facts-5518763-conflict-theory).
- McCarter, M. W., Wade-Benzoni, K. A., Fudge Kamal, D., Bang, H. M., Hyde, S. and Maredia, R. (2016) *Models of Conflict in Management: A Literature Review*, Steven and Maredia, Reshma, *Models of Conflict in Management: A Literature Review* (November 7, 2016).
- McCormack, K. (2003) *B2B collaboration: what is it?*, *Supply Chain Practice*, Vol.

5, pp. 18-29.

McKenzie, D. A. (2011) *Dealing with workplace conflict: the strikingly different worlds of managers and subordinates*, Ph.D. Thesis, Monash University..

Meijer, A. and De Jong, J. (2020) *Managing value conflicts in public innovation: Ostrich, chameleon, and dolphin strategies*, International Journal of Public Administration, Vol. 43(11), pp. 977-988.

Mele, C. (2011) *Conflicts and value co-creation in project networks*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 40(8), pp. 1377-1385.

Meqdadi, O., Johnsen, T. E. and Pagell, M. (2020) *Relationship configurations for procuring from social enterprises*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, Vol. 40(6), pp. 819-845.

Mera, R., Thompson, H. and Prasad, C. (1998) *How to calculate sample size for an experiment: a case-based description*, Nutritional Neuroscience, Vol. 1(1), pp. 87-91.

Merriam, S.B. (1998) *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Meyers, J. E. L., Noell, G. H., Scheithauer, M., Miller, S., Alvarez, J. P. and Fischer, A. J. (2018) *The impact of stimulus preference, order-effects, and treatment component omission in evaluating treatment integrity*, Journal of School Psychology, Vol. 69, pp. 45-55.

Mezzanotte, F. E. (2022) *Recent Law Reforms in EU Sustainable Finance: Regulating Sustainability Risk and Sustainable Investments*, American University Business Law Review, Forthcoming.

Miall, H. (2007, September) *Conflict transformation theory and European practice*, In Sixth Pan-European Conference on International Relations, ECPR Standing Group on International Relations, Turin (pp. 12-15).

Mikkelsen, E.N. and Clegg, S. (2017) *Conceptions of conflict in organizational conflict research: toward critical reflexivity*, Journal of Management Inquiry, Vol. 28(2), pp. 166-179.

Miles, R. E. and Snow, C. C. (1992) *Causes of failure in network organizations*, California Management Review, Vol. 34(4), pp. 53-72.

Mitchell, C. (2002) *Beyond resolution: what does conflict transformation actually transform?*, Peace and Conflict Studies, Vol. 9(1), pp. 1-23.

Mitnick, Barry (1980) *The Political Economy of Regulation: Creating, Designing,*

and Removing Regulatory Forms, New York: Columbia University Press.

Modak, N. M., Modak, N., Panda, S. and Sana, S. S. (2018) *Analyzing structure of two-echelon closed-loop supply chain for pricing, quality and recycling management*, Journal of Cleaner Production, Vol. 17, pp. 512-528.

Modak, N. M., Panda, S. and Sana, S. S. (2016) *Pricing policy and coordination for a two-layer supply chain of duopolistic retailers and socially responsible manufacturer*, International Journal of Logistics Research and Applications, Vol. 19(6), pp. 487-508

Möhring, M. M. and Finch, J. (2015) *Contracts, relationships and innovation in business-to-business exchanges*, Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, Vol. 30(3/4), pp. 405-413.

Moilanen, S. and Ikäheimo, S. (2019) *Managerial intentions for and employee perceptions of group-based incentives: Social exchange theory-based interpretations*, Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change, Vol. 15 (4), pp. 605-625.

Monios, J. and Wilmsmeier, G. (2013) *The role of intermodal transport in port regionalisation*, Transport Policy, Vol. 30, pp. 161-172.

Moon, H., Wei, W. and Miao, L. (2019) *Complaints and resolutions in a peer-to-peer business model*, International Journal of Hospitality Management, Vol. 81, pp. 239-248.

Morgan, D. R. and Watson, S. S. (1992) *Policy leadership in council-manager cities: Comparing mayor and manager*, Public Administration Review, Vol. 52 (5), pp. 438-446.

Morgeson, F. P. and DeRue, D. S. (2006) *Event criticality, urgency, and duration: Understanding how events disrupt teams and influence team leader intervention*, The Leadership Quarterly, Vol. 17(3), pp. 271-287.

Mozafari, N., Weiger, W. H. and Hammerschmidt, M. (2021) *Trust me, I'm a bot—repercussions of chatbot disclosure in different service frontline settings*, Journal of Service Management, Vol. 33(2), pp. 221-245.

Müller, U., Habel, J. and Stierl, M. (2017) *Exerting pressure or leveraging power? The extended chain of corporate social responsibility enforcement in business-to-business supply chains*, Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, Vol. 36(2), pp. 331-347.

Mumford, A. (1994) *Four approaches to learning from experience*, The Learning

Organization, Vol. 1(1), pp. 4-10.

Munduate, L., Ganaza, J., Peiro, J. M., and Euwema, M. C. (1999) *Patterns of styles in conflict management and effectiveness*, The International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 10, pp. 5-24.

Munuzuri, J., Grosso, R., Escudero-Santana, A. and Cortes, P. (2017) *Freight deliveries and sustainable urban development*, Revista De Transporte Y Territorio, Vol. 17, pp. 34-58.

Murfield, M. L. U., Esper, T. L., Tate, W. L. and Petersen, K. J. (2016) *Supplier role conflict: an investigation of its relational implications and impact on supplier accommodation*, Journal of Business Logistics, Vol. 37(2), pp. 168-184.

Nakano, M. and Lau, A. K. (2020) *A systematic review on supply chain risk management: using the strategy-structure-process-performance framework*, International Journal of Logistics Research and Applications, Vol. 23(5), pp. 443-473.

Nazir Butt, A. and Nam Choi, J. (2010) *Does power matter? Negotiator status as a moderator of the relationship between negotiator emotion and behavior*, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 21(2), pp. 124-146.

Nelson, N., Bronstein, I., Shacham, R. and Ben- Ari, R. (2015) *The power to oblige: Power, gender, negotiation behaviors, and their consequences*, Negotiation and Conflict Management Research, Vol. 8(1), pp. 1-24.

Nielsen, I. E. and Saha, S. (2018) *Procurement planning in a multi-period supply chain: An epiphany*, Operations Research Perspectives, Vol. 5, pp. 383-398.

Norrman, A. (2008) *Supply chain risk- sharing contracts from a buyers' perspective: content and experiences*, International Journal of Procurement Management, Vol. 1(4), pp. 371- 93.

Nugroho, S., Kempa, S. and Panjaitan, T. W. S. (2020) *Logistic service quality and customer satisfaction to customer retention on rice producer industry*, In SHS Web of Conferences (Vol. 76, p. 01048). EDP Sciences.

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

O'Reilly III, C. A. and Tushman, M. L. (2008) *Ambidexterity as a dynamic capability: Resolving the innovator's dilemma*, Research in Organizational Behavior, Vol. 28, pp. 185-206.

Oetzel, J. G. and Ting-Toomey, S. (2003) *Face concerns in interpersonal conflict: A cross-cultural empirical test of the face negotiation theory*, Communication

Research, Vol. 30(6), pp. 599-624.

Oflaç, B. S., Sullivan, U. Y. and Baltacıoğlu, T. (2012) *An attribution approach to consumer evaluations in logistics customer service failure situations*, Journal of Supply Chain Management, Vol. 48(4), pp. 51-71.

Ofori-Okyere, I. and Atanga, R. A. (2016) *Customer Retention Management Strategies in the Freight Transport Service Industry in Ghana*, Archives of Business Research, Vol. 4(6), pp. 267-281.

Ohmura, S. and Matsuo, H. (2016) *The effect of risk aversion on distribution channel contracts: Implications for return policies*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol. 176, pp. 29-40.

Omar, A., Davis- Sramek, B., Myers, M. B. and Mentzer, J. T. (2012) *A global analysis of orientation, coordination, and flexibility in supply chains*, Journal of Business Logistics, Vol. 33(2), pp. 128–144.

Opeyemi, I. S. and Ajeh, D. O. (2020) *The Entrepreneur and Effective Conflict Management in a Business Environment*, KIU Journal of Humanities, Vol. 5(3), pp. 83-90.

Özcan, S. and Oflaç, B. S. (2022) *Systematic Literature Analysis for Supply Chain Conflicts: Paving the Way for Future Studies*, International Journal of Contemporary Economics and Administrative Sciences, Vol. 12(2), pp. 573-607.

Özer, Ö., Zheng, Y. and Ren, Y. (2014) *Trust, trustworthiness, and information sharing in supply chains bridging China and the United States*, Management Science, Vol. 60(10), pp. 2435-2460.

Palmatier, R. W., Sivadas, E., Stern, L. W. and El-Ansary, A. I. (2019), *Marketing channel strategy: An omni-channel approach*, Routledge.

Panchal, G., Jain, V., Cheikhrouhou, N. and Gurtner, M. (2017) *Equilibrium analysis in multi-echelon supply chain with multi-dimensional utilities of inertial players*, Journal of Revenue and Pricing Management, Vol.16, pp. 417-436.

Panda, S. (2014) *Coordination of a socially responsible supply chain using revenue sharing contracts*, Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review, Vol. 67, pp. 92-104.

Panda, S., Modak, N. M. and Pradhan, D. (2016) *Corporate social responsibility, channel coordination and profit division in a two-echelon supply chain*, International Journal of Management Science and Engineering Management, Vol. 11(1), pp. 22-33.

- Panda, B. and Leepsa, N. M. (2017) *Agency theory: Review of theory and evidence on problems and perspectives*, Indian Journal of Corporate Governance, Vol. 10(1), pp. 74-95.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A. and Berry, L. L. (1985) *A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 49(4), pp. 41-50.
- Parola, F. and Maugeri, S. (2013) *Origin and taxonomy of conflicts in seaports: Towards a research agenda*, Research in Transportation Business & Management, Vol. 8, pp. 114-122.
- Patterson, J. L. (1999) *Conflict potential in strategic buyer-supplier relationships*, Doctoral Thesis, Michigan State University.
- Patton, M.Q. (2002) *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*, (3rd Ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pavlou, P. A. (2002) *Institution-based trust in interorganizational exchange relationships: the role of online B2B marketplaces on trust formation*, The Journal of Strategic Information Systems, Vol. 11(3-4), pp. 215-243.
- Pavlou, P. A. and El Sawy, O. A. (2011) *Understanding the elusive black box of dynamic capabilities*, Decision sciences, Vol. 42(1), pp. 239-273.
- Pereira, C. R. (2014) *The role of procurement in creating supply chain resilience*, Master thesis, Universidade Federal De São Carlos.
- Pereseina, V., Jensen, L. M., Hertz, S. and Cui, L. (2014, January) *Challenges and conflicts in sustainable supply chain management: Evidence from the heavy vehicle industry*, In Supply Chain Forum: An International Journal, Vol. 15 (1), pp. 22-32. Taylor & Francis.
- Pfeffer, J. (1981) *Power in Organizations*, Marshfield, MA: Pitman.
- Pfeffer, J., Zorbach, T. and Carley, K. M. (2014) *Understanding online firestorms: Negative word-of-mouth dynamics in social media networks*, Journal of Marketing Communications, Vol. 20(1-2), pp. 117-128.
- Pilat, C. (2022) *Determinants of transfer pricing: case studies of Marchesi and Eclisse*, Master thesis, Università Ca' Foscari Venezia.
- Pinkley, R. L., Neale, M. A. and Bennett, R. J. (1994) *The impact of alternatives to settlement in dyadic negotiation*, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Vol. 57(1), pp. 97-116.
- Pittaway, L., Robertson, M., Munir, K., Denyer, D. and Neely, A. (2004)

- Networking and innovation: a systematic review of the evidence*, International Journal of Management Reviews, Vol. 5(3- 4), pp.137-168.
- Plessis, Y. D. (2012) *Exploring teamwork paradoxes challenging 21st-century cross-cultural conflict management in a multicultural organizational context*, International Journal of Cross Cultural Management, Vol. 12(1), pp. 49-71.
- Poddar, A., Donthu, N., Bello, D. C. and Foreman, J. (2017) *Decision making under parity: an experimental examination of retailers' choice among parity trade promotions*, Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, Vol. 25(2), pp. 105-124.
- Polit, D. F. and Beck, C. T. (2010) *Generalization in quantitative and qualitative research: Myths and strategies*, International Journal of Nursing Studies, Vol. 47(11), pp. 1451-1458.
- Pondy, L. R. (1967) *Organisational conflict: Concepts and models*, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.12, pp. 296-320.
- Porter, M.E. (1979) *How competitive forces shape strategy*, Harvard Business Review, Vol 57(2), pp. 137–145.
- Power, D. (2005) *Supply chain management integration and implementation: a literature review*, Supply chain management: an International journal, Vol. 10, pp. 252-263.
- Priem, R. and Price, K. (1991) *Process and outcome expectations for the dialectical inquiry, devil's advocacy, and consensus techniques of strategic decision making*, Group and Organization Studies, Vol. 16, pp. 206–225.
- Prieto, I. M. and Revilla, E. (2006) *Learning capability and business performance: a non- financial and financial assessment*, The Learning Organization, Vol. 13(2), pp. 166-185.
- Protopogerou, A., Caloghirou, Y. and Lioukas, S. (2012) *Dynamic capabilities and their indirect impact on firm performance*, Industrial and Corporate Change, Vol. 21(3), pp. 615-647.
- Pruitt, D. G. (1998) *Social conflict*, In D. Gilbert, S. Fiske and G. Lindzey (Eds.), Handbook of social psychology (Vol. 2, 4th ed.,pp. 89-150). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Pugliano, G., Benassai, G. and Benassai, E. (2018) *Integrating urban and port planning policies in a sustainable perspective: the case study of Naples historic harbour area*, Planning Perspectives, Vol. 34 (5), pp. 827-847, doi: 10.1080/02665433.2018.1455068.

- Pujawan, I. N., Kurniati, N. and Wessiani, N. A. (2009) *Supply chain management for Disaster Relief Operations: principles and case studies*, International Journal of Logistics Systems and Management, Vol. 5(6), pp. 679-692.
- Pulles, N. J. and Loohuis, R. P. (2020) *Managing Buyer- Supplier Conflicts: The Effect of Buyer Openness And Directness On A Supplier's Willingness to Adapt*, Journal of Supply Chain Management, Vol. 56(4), pp. 65-81.
- Purinton, E. F. (2001) *The effects of the intensity of conflict and commitment on marketing channel partnership survival*, Doctoral Thesis, University of Rhode Island.
- Purmala, Y. A. and Debora, F. (2021) *A Systematic Literature Review of Benchmarking Implementation in various Industries*, Indonesian Journal of Industrial Engineering & Management, Vol 2(1), pp. 35-51
- Putnam, L. L. and Wilson, C. (1982) *Communication strategies in organizational conflicts: Reliability and validity of a measurement*, In M. Burgoon (Ed.), Communication yearbook 6 (pp. 629-652). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Qin, J., Liu, X. and Pedrycz, W. (2017) *An extended TODIM multi-criteria group decision making method for green supplier selection in interval type-2 fuzzy environment*, European Journal of Operational Research, Vol. 258 (2), pp. 626-638.
- Qu, C., Wang, G. W. and Zeng, Q. (2020), *Modelling the procurement process and production disruption of a multilayer cruise supply chain*, Maritime Policy & Management, Vol. 47(4), pp. 435-455.
- Rahim, M. A. (1986) *Referent role and styles of handling interpersonal conflict*, Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 126, pp. 78-96.
- Rahim, M.A. (2001) *Managing Conflict in Organisations*, Quorum, Westport, CT.
- Rahim, M.A. (2017) *Managing conflict in organizations*, 4th ed. New York: Routledge.
- Rahim, M.A., (1983) *A Measure of Styles of Handling Interpersonal Conflict*, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 26, pp. 368-376.
- Rahmani, F. and Leifels, K. (2018) *Abductive grounded theory: a worked example of a study in construction management*, Construction Management and economics, Vol. 36(10), pp. 565-583.
- Rajala, A. and Tidström, A. (2021) *Unmasking conflict in vertical cooperation*, Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, Vol. 36(13), pp. 78-90.
- Ramachandra, T. and Bamidele Rotimi, J. O. (2015) *Causes of payment problems in*

the New Zealand construction industry, Construction Economics and Building, Vol. 15(1), pp. 43-55.

Ramezani, M., Bashiri, M. and Tavakkoli-Moghaddam, R. (2013) *A new multi-objective stochastic model for a forward/reverse logistic network design with responsiveness and quality level*, *Applied Mathematical Modelling*, Vol. 37(1/2), pp. 328-344.

Rangan, S. and Wang, D. (2012, July) *Explaining Discrimination experienced by MNEs: An Interest Alignment and Agency Theory of the LOF*, In *Academy of Management Proceedings*, Vol. 2012 (1),, p. 16185). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.

Raven, B. H. and Kruglanski, A. W. (1970) *Conflict and power*, In Swingle P. (Ed.), 1st Edition, *The structure of conflict*. New York: Academic Press.

Rawwas, M. Y., Vitell, S. J. and Barnes, J. H. (1997) *Management of conflict using individual power sources: A retailers' perspective*, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 40(1), pp. 49-64.

Rebehy, P. C. P. W., dos Santos Lima, S. A., Novi, J. C., and Salgado Jr, A. P. (2019) *Reverse logistics systems in Brazil: Comparative study and interest of multistakeholders*, *Journal of Environmental Management*, Vol. 250, 109223.

Reid, D. A., Bolman Pullins, E., Plank, R. E. and Buehrer, R. E. (2004) *Measuring buyers' perceptions of conflict in business- to- business sales interactions*, *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, Vol. 19(4), pp. 236-249.

Rice, B.J. and Caniato, F. (2003) *Building a secure and resilient supply network*, *Supply Chain Management Review*, Vol. 7 (5), pp. 22-30.

Rice, G. (1992) *Using the interaction approach to understand international trade shows*, *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 9(4), pp. 32-45.

Ristic, M. R., Ljepava, N., Qureshi, T. M. and Milla, A. C. (2020) *A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Conflict Management Styles in Multinational Organisations: Empirical Evidence from Serbia*, *JEEMS Journal of East European Management Studies*, Vol. 25(3), pp. 418-447.

Rivera, L.A. (2015) *Pedigree: How Elite Students Get Elite Jobs*, 1st Edition, Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ.

Rodriguez, M. H., Agrell, P. J., Manrique-de-Lara-Peñate, C. and Trujillo, L. (2022) *A multi-criteria fleet deployment model for cost, time and environmental impact*, *International Journal of Production Economics*, Vol. 243, 108325.

- Rogerson, S., Svanberg, M. and Santén, V. (2022) *Supply chain disruptions: flexibility measures when encountering capacity problems in a port conflict*, The International Journal of Logistics Management, Vol.33 (2), pp. 567–589.
- Rognes, J. K. (1987) *Lateral intergroup management in organizations: a test of a negotiation strategy model*, Doctoral Thesis, Northwestern University.
- Ronay, R., Greenaway, K., Anicich, E. M. and Galinsky, A. D. (2012) *The path to glory is paved with hierarchy: When hierarchical differentiation increases group effectiveness*, Psychological Science, Vol. 23(6), pp. 669-677.
- Rosenberg, L. J. and Stern, L. W. (1970) *Toward the analysis of conflict in distribution channels: a descriptive model*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 34(4), pp. 40-46.
- Rosenthal, D. B. and Hautaluoma, J. (1988) *Effects of importance of issues, gender, and power of contenders on conflict management style*, The Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 128(5), pp. 699-701.
- Ross, S. A. (1973) *The economic theory of agency: The principal's problem*, The American Economic Review, Vol. 63(2), pp. 134-139.
- Rubin, J. Z. and Brown, B. R. (1975) *The social psychology of bargaining and negotiation*, 1st Edition, London: Academic.
- Rubin, J. Z., Pruitt, D. G. and Kim, S. H. (1994) *Social Conflict: Escalation, Stalemate, and Settlement*, 2nd Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Ruel, S., El Baz, J., Ivanov, D. and Das, A. (2021) *Supply chain viability: conceptualization, measurement, and nomological validation*, Annals of Operations Research, pp. 1-30.
- Rungtusanatham, M., Salvador, F., Forza, C. and Choi, T. Y. (2003) *Supply-chain linkages and operational performance: A resource-based-view perspective*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, Vol. 23(9), pp. 1084-1099.
- Rusanova, S., Kuzkin, O., Melkonov, H., Lavrushchenko, Y., Kuzmenko, O. and Zhurian, V. (2022) *Ecological and Economic Aspects of Innovative Development of Urban Logistics Infrastructure Taking Considering Pandemic Constraints*, International Journal of Computer Science and Network Security, Vol. 22(3), p. 10.
- Saeed, T., Almas, S., Anis-ul-Haq, M. and Niazi, G. S. K. (2014) *Leadership styles: relationship with conflict management styles*, International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 25(3), pp. 214-225.

- Saha, S., Sarmah, S. P. and Modak, N. M. (2018) *Single versus dual-channel: A strategic analysis in perspective of retailer's profitability under a three-level dual-channel supply chain*, Asia Pacific Management Review, Vol. 23(2), pp.148-160.
- Samiee, S. (2008) *Global marketing effectiveness via alliances and electronic commerce in business-to-business markets*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 37(1), pp. 3-8.
- Sandström, U. G. and Elander, I. (2021) *Biodiversity, road transport and urban planning: A Swedish local authority facing the challenge of establishing a logistics hub adjacent to a Natura 2000 site*, Progress in Planning, Vol. 148, p. 100463.
- Sappington, D. (1991) *Incentives in principal- agent relationships*, The Journal of Economic Perspectives, Vol. 5(2), pp. 45- 66.
- Sarri, K. K. (2011) *Mentoring female entrepreneurs: a mentors' training intervention evaluation*, Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 35(7), pp. 721-741.
- Sawyer, E. and Harrison, C. (2023) *Resilience in healthcare supply chains: a review of the UK's response to the COVID-19 pandemic*, International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management, Vol. 53(3), pp. 297-329.
- Scavarda, M., Seok, H. and Nof, S. Y. (2017) *The constrained-collaboration algorithm for intelligent resource distribution in supply networks*, Computers & Industrial Engineering, Vol.113, pp. 803-818.
- Scheele, L. M., Thonemann, U. W. and Slikker, M. (2018) *Designing incentive systems for truthful forecast information sharing within a firm*, Management Science, Vol. 64(8), pp. 3690-3713.
- Schmitt, A. J., Sun, S. A., Snyder, L. V. and Shen, Z.-J. M. (2015) *Centralization versus decentralization: Risk pooling, risk diversification, and supply chain disruptions*, Omega, Vol. 52, pp. 201–212.
- Schmoltzi, C. and Wallenburg, C. M. (2012) *Operational governance in horizontal cooperations of logistics service providers: performance effects and the moderating role of cooperation complexity*, Journal of Supply Chain Management, Vol. 48(2), pp. 53-74.
- Schymanietz, M., Jonas, J. M. and Möslin, K. M. (2022) *Exploring data-driven service innovation—aligning perspectives in research and practice*, Journal of Business Economics, Vol. 92(7), pp. 1167-1205.
- Seif, J., Yu, A. J. and Rahmanniyay, F. (2018) *Modelling and optimization of a bi-objective flow shop scheduling with diverse maintenance requirements*,

- International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 56(9), pp. 3204-3225.
- Semerci, A.B. (2019) *Examination of knowledge hiding with conflict, competition and personal values*. International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 30(1), pp. 111-131.
- Sen, S., Kotlarsky, J. and Budhwar, P. (2020) *Extending organizational boundaries through outsourcing: toward a dynamic risk-management capability framework*, Academy of Management Perspectives, Vol. 34(1), pp. 97-113.
- Seville, E., Opstal, V.D. and Vargo, J. (2015) *A Primer in resiliency: seven principles for managing the unexpected*, Global Business and Organizational Excellence, Vol. 34(3), pp. 6-18.
- Shadish, W., Cook, T. D. and Campbell, D. T. (2002) *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*, Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Shah, R. H. and Swaminathan, V. (2008) *Factors influencing partner selection in strategic alliances: The moderating role of alliance context*, Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 29(5), pp. 471-494.
- Shahzad, K., Ali, T., Kohtamäki, M. and Takala, J. (2020) *Enabling roles of relationship governance mechanisms in the choice of inter-firm conflict resolution strategies*, Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, Vol. 35(6), pp. 957-969.
- Shaiq M., Shaikh R. and Ahmed A. (2015) *Conflict Resolutions in Supply Chain Collaboration a Perspective of Supply Chain Managers*, Journal of Business Strategies, Vol. 9 (1), pp. 17–30.
- Shang, S. S., Wu, S. H. and Yao, C. Y. (2010) *A dynamic innovation model for managing capabilities of continuous innovation*, International Journal of Technology Management, Vol. 51(2-4), pp. 300-318.
- Shang, W. and Yang, L. (2015) *Contract negotiation and risk preferences in dual-channel supply chain coordination*, International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 53(16), pp. 4837-4856.
- Shareef, M. A., Dwivedi, Y., Ahmed, J. U., Kumar, U. and Mahmud, R. (2021) *Stakeholders conflict and private–public partnership chain (PPPC): supply chain of perishable products*, The International Journal of Logistics Management, Vol. 33(4), pp. 1218-1245.
- Sheffi, Y. and Rice, B.J. (2005) *A supply chain view of the resilient enterprise*, MIT Sloan Management Review, Vol. 47 (1), pp. 41-48.

- Shen, L., Zhang, X. and Liu, H. (2022) *Digital technology adoption, digital dynamic capability, and digital transformation performance of textile industry: Moderating role of digital innovation orientation*, *Managerial and Decision Economics*, Vol. 43(6), pp. 2038-2054.
- Shi, K. and Ma, H. (2016) *Evolution Of Trust In A Dual-Channel Supply Chain Considering Reciprocal Altruistic Behavior*. *Advances in Complex Systems*, Vol. 19(06n07), p. 1650014.
- Shillie, P. N. (2022) *The use of after-sales service as a business competitive tool for customer retention and loyalty in crisis situation: A sectoral study of building materials enterprises in Bamenda Metropolis Cameroon*, *JOEEP: Journal of Emerging Economies and Policy*, Vol. 7(1), pp. 1-7.
- Shook, C., Adams, G., Ketchen, D. Jr and Craighead, C. (2009) *Towards a 'theoretical toolbox' for strategic sourcing*, *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 14(1), pp. 3- 10.
- Siddika, R. and Ahmad, S. (2022) *CSR Failures in Bangladeshi Apparel Industry: An Agency Theory Perspective*, *International Journal of Supply Chain Management*, Available at: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=4241474> (Accessed 05.03.2023)
- Silverman, D. (2011) *Interpreting qualitative data, a guide to the principles of qualitative research*, 4th Edition, New York City, NY: Sage.
- Sinkovics, R. R., Penz, E. and Ghauri, P. N. (2008) *Enhancing the trustworthiness of qualitative research in international business*, *Management International Review*, Vol. 48, pp. 689-714.
- Skinner, S.J., Gassenheimer G.B. and Kelley, S.W. (1992) *Cooperation in Seller–Dealer Relations*, *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 68 (2), pp. 174–93.
- Skjott-Larsen, T., Schary, P. B., Kotzab, H. and Mikkola, J. H. (2007) *Managing the Global Supply Chain*, Copenhagen Business School Press DK.
- Smit, P. J., Cronje, G. D., Brevis, T. and Vrba, M. J. (Eds.). (2011) *Management principles: A contemporary edition for Africa*, Juta and Company Ltd.
- Snippert, T., Witteveen, W., Boes, H. and Voordijk, H. (2015) *Barriers to realizing a stewardship relation between client and vendor: the Best Value approach*, *Construction Management and Economics*, Vol. 33(7), pp. 569-586.
- Sohail, M. S. (2013) *Generating customer loyalty in an emerging competitive market: a banking industry study*, *International Journal of Scientific Research*, Vol. 2(4), pp. 28-33.

- Song, Q., Guo, P., Fu, R., Cooke, F. L. and Chen, Y. (2023) *Does human resource system strength help employees act proactively? The roles of crisis strength and work engagement*, *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 62(2), pp. 213-228.
- Sorenson, R. L., Morse, E. A. and Savage, G. T. (1999) *A test of the motivations underlying choice of conflict strategies in the dual- concern model*, *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 10(1), pp. 25-44.
- Soroor, J., Tarokh, M. J. and Shemshadi, A. (2009) *Theoretical and practical study of supply chain coordination*, *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, Vol. 24(2), pp. 131-142.
- Sridharan, R. and Simatupang, T. M. (2013) *Power and trust in supply chain collaboration*, *International Journal of Value Chain Management*, Vol. 7(1), pp. 76-96.
- Stefanovic, N. (2014) *Proactive supply chain performance management with predictive analytics*, *The Scientific World Journal*, Vol. 2014, pp. 1-17, 528917.
- Stern L. W., El-Ansary, AI. and Coughlan AT. (1996) *Marketing channels*, 5th Edition, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Sternberg, H., Hagen, A., Paganelli, P. and Lumsden, K. (2010) *Intelligent cargo-enabling future's sustainable and accountable transportation system*, *World Journal of Science, Technology and Sustainable Development*, Vol. 7(3), pp. 253-262.
- Sternberg, H., Mathauer, M. and Hofmann, E. (2022) *Technology management in multi- tier chains: A case study of agency in logistics service outsourcing*, *Journal of Operations Management*, Vol. 69, pp. 536–557
- Stevens, N., Baker, D. and Freestone, R. (2010) *Airports in their urban settings: towards a conceptual model of interfaces in the Australian context*, *Journal of Transport Geography*, Vol. 18(2), pp. 276-284.
- Stock, J. (1997) *Applying theories from other disciplines to logistics*, *International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management*, Vol. 27(9/10), pp. 515-39.
- Stoll, T., Lanzer, M. and Baumann, M. (2020) *Situational influencing factors on understanding cooperative actions in automated driving*, *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, Vol. 70, pp. 223-234.
- Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. (1998) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory*, 2nd ed., Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Strauss, A.L. and J. Corbin. (1990) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded*

- Theory Procedures and Techniques*, Sage Publications, Newbury Park, CA.
- Strauss, L. L. (1964) *Conflict of Interest*, California Management Review, Vol. 7(2), pp. 3-10.
- Stuart, I., McCutcheon, D., Handfield, R., McLachlin, R. and Samson, D. (2002) *Effective case research in operations management: A process perspective*, Journal of Operations Management, Vol. 20(5), pp. 419-433.
- Sun, P. C., Pan, F. T., Wu, P. C. and Kuo, C. C. (2014) *An empirical study of B2B relationship value-offering type as a moderator*, Journal of Business Studies Quarterly, Vol. 6(1), p. 79.
- Sun, R., Peng, S. and Liao, Y. (2021) *Avoiding, obliging, asserting, or integrating? A survey experiment on municipal managers' choice of conflict management strategies*, Public Management Review, pp. 1-24.
- Svensson, G. (2002) *A conceptual framework of vulnerability in firms' inbound and outbound logistics flows*, International Journal of Physical Distribution and Logistics Management, Vol. 32 (2), pp. 110- 34.
- Ta, C., Goodchild, A. V. and Ivanov, B. (2010) *Building resilience into freight transportation systems: Actions for state departments of transportation*, Transportation Research Record, Vol. 2168(1), pp. 129-135.
- Takahashi, A. R. W., Bulgacov, S. and Giacomini, M. M. (2017) *Dynamic capabilities, operational capabilities (educational-marketing) and performance*, Revista Brasileira de Gestão de Negócios, Vol. 19, pp. 375-393.
- Talay, C., Oxborrow, L. and Brindley, C. (2020) *How small suppliers deal with the buyer power in asymmetric relationships within the sustainable fashion supply chain*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 117, pp. 604-614.
- Tamannaie, M., Zarei, H. and Rasti-Barzoki, M. (2021) *A game theoretic approach to sustainable freight transportation: Competition between road and intermodal road-rail systems with government intervention*, Transportation Research Part B: Methodological, Vol. 153, pp. 272-295.
- Tang, M. and Liao, H. (2021) *A graph model for conflict resolution with inconsistent preferences among large-scale participants*, Fuzzy Optimization and Decision Making, Vol. 21, pp. 455-478.
- Tax, S. S., Brown, S. W. and Chandrashekar, M. (1998) *Customer evaluations of service complaint experiences: implications for relationship marketing*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 62(2), pp. 60-76.

- Taylor, C. and Dobbins, T. (2021) *Social media: A (new) contested terrain between sousveillance and surveillance in the digital workplace*, *New Technology, Work and Employment*, Vol. 36(3), pp. 263-284.
- Tazelaar, F. and Snijders, C. (2010) *Dispute resolution and litigation in the construction industry. Evidence on conflicts and conflict resolution in The Netherlands and Germany*, *Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management*, Vol. 16(4), pp. 221-229.
- Teece D., Pisano, G. and Shuen A. (1997) *Dynamic capabilities and strategic management*, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vo. 18 (7), pp. 509–533.
- Teece, D. J. (2007) *Explicating dynamic capabilities: the nature and microfoundations of enterprise performance*, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 28(13), pp. 1319–1350. doi: 10.1002/smj.640
- Tende, F. and Alagah, A. D. (2017) *Influence of human resource planning on organizational performance of fast food companies in port Harcourt, Nigeria*, *Imperial Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (IJIR)*, Vol. 3(11), pp. 458-467.
- Terhune, V. and Matusitz, J. (2016) *The Uighurs versus the Chinese government: An application of realistic conflict theory*, *Journal of Applied Security Research*, Vol. 11(2), pp. 139-148.
- Terrell, S. (2010) *How global leaders develop: A phenomenological study of global leadership development*, Doctoral Thesis, The George Washington University.
- Thakore, D. (2013) *Conflict and conflict management*, *IOSR Journal of Business and Management (IOSR-JBM)*, Vol. 8(6), pp. 07-16.
- Thiell, M. and Hernandez, S. (2010) *Logistics services in the 21st century: supply chain integration and service architecture*, In *Service science and logistics informatics: Innovative perspectives*. IGI Global. pp. 359-378.
- Thomas, K. W. (1992b) *Conflict and Negotiation Processes in Organizations*, *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 1992, pp. 651-717.
- Thomas, K. W. (1976) *Conflict and conflict management*. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 889-935). Chicago: RandMcNally
- Thomas, K. W. (1992a). *Conflict and conflict management: Reflections and update*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, pp. 265-274.
- Thomas, K. W. and Kilmann, R. H. (1978) *Comparison of four instruments measuring conflict behavior*, *Psychological Reports*, Vol. 42, pp. 1139-1145

- Thomas, R. and Wood, E. (2015) *The absorptive capacity of tourism organisations*, Annals of Tourism Research, Vol. 54, pp. 84-99.
- Thomas, R. W. and Esper, T. L. (2010) *Exploring relational asymmetry in supply chains: the retailer's perspective*, International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management, Vol. 40 (6), pp. 475–494.
- Thompson, A. E., Hart, J., Stefaniak, S. and Harvey, C. (2018) *Exploring heterosexual adults' endorsement of the sexual double standard among initiators of consensually nonmonogamous relationship behaviors*, Sex Roles, Vol. 79, pp. 228-238.
- Thompson, J. D. (2003) *Organizations in action: Social science bases of administrative theory*, Transaction publishers.
- Timmermans, S. and Tavory, I. (2012) Theory construction in qualitative research: From grounded theory to abductive analysis, Sociological Theory, Vol. 30(3), pp. 167-186.
- Tinsley, C. H. (2001) *How negotiators get to yes: Predicting the constellation of strategies used across cultures to negotiate conflict*, Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 86(4), p. 583.
- Tjosvold, D. (1997) *Conflict within interdependence: its value for productivity and individuality*, in De Dreu, C.K.W. and Van de Vliert, E. (Eds), *Using Conflict in Organizations*, Sage, London
- Tjosvold, D. and Ding, D. (2018) *Conflict management training in China: The value of cooperative conflict theory*, In *Management Education in the Chinese Setting* (pp. 53-75). Routledge.
- Tjosvold, D. and Okum, M. (1979) *Effect of unequal power on cooperation in conflict*, Psychological Reports, Vol. 44, pp. 239- 42.
- Tjosvold, D., Hui, C. and Law, K. S. (2001) *Constructive conflict in China: Cooperative conflict as a bridge between East and West*, Journal of World Business, Vol. 36(2), pp. 166-183.
- To, A. T., Tran, T. S., Nguyen, K. O. and Thai, K. P. (2021) *Applying conflict management styles to resolve task conflict and enhance team innovation*, Emerging Science Journal, Vol. 5(5), pp. 667-677.
- Tolmay, A. S. (2019) *Antecedents of trust among buyer and seller within the South African automotive supply chains*, Journal of Transport and Supply Chain Management, Vol. 13(1), pp. 1-11.

- Touboulic, A., Chicksand, D. and Walker, H. (2014) *Managing imbalanced supply chain relationships for sustainability: A power perspective*, Decision Sciences, Vol. 45(4), pp. 577-619.
- Tran, Y., Zahra, S. and Hughes, M. (2019) *A process model of the maturation of a new dynamic capability*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 83, pp. 115-127.
- Trim, P. R. and Lee, Y. I. (2019) *The role of B2B marketers in increasing cyber security awareness and influencing behavioural change*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 83, pp. 224-238.
- Tse, Y. K., Zhang, M. and Jia, F. (2018) *The effects of risk and reward sharing on quality performance*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, Vol. 38(12), pp. 2367-2388.
- Tucho, P. D. M. A. (2016) *Principles of Conflict Transformation*, Xlibris Corporation.
- Tukamuhabwa, B. R., Stevenson, M., Busby, J. and Zorzini, M. (2015) *Supply chain resilience: definition, review and theoretical foundations for further study*, International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 53(18), pp. 5592-5623.
- Turnbull, P., Ford, D. and Cunningham, M. (1996) *Interaction, relationships and networks in business markets: an evolving perspective*, Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, Vol. 11(3/4), pp. 44-62.
- Urbanyi-Popiołek, I. and Klopott, M. (2016) *Container terminals and port city interface—a study of Gdynia and Gdańsk ports*, Transportation Research Procedia, Vol. 16, pp. 517-526.
- Urciuoli, L. (2020) *Fuel theft in road freight transport: understanding magnitude and impacts of anti-theft devices*, Journal of Transportation Security, Vol. 13(1), pp. 1-18.
- Uusitalo, H. (2020) *Developing Terminology Management at a Global Technology and Manufacturing Company*, Master's thesis, Tampere University..
- Uvet, H. (2020) *Importance of logistics service quality in customer satisfaction: An empirical study*, Operations and Supply Chain Management: An International Journal, Vol. 13(1), pp. 1-10.
- Uyar, S. and Uyar, H. I. Practice Of Insurance In Turkey. In The Third International Symposium on Sustainable Development (ISSD 2012), International Burch University, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina May.
- Vaaland, T. I. (2006) *When conflict communication threatens the business*

- relationship: lessons from the “Balder” story*, Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing, Vol. 13(2), pp. 3-27.
- Vaaland, T. I. and Håkansson, H. (2003) *Exploring interorganizational conflict in complex projects*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 32(2), pp. 127-138.
- Vairaktarakis, G. L. and Aydinliyim, T. (2017) *Benchmark schedules for subcontracted operations: decentralization inefficiencies that arise from competition and first- come- first- served processing*, Decision Sciences, Vol. 48(4), pp. 657-690.
- Van Baalen, P., Zuidwijk, R. and Van Nunen, J. (2009) *Port inter-organizational information systems: Capabilities to service global supply chains*, Foundations and Trends® in Technology, Information and Operations Management, Vol. 2(2–3), pp. 81-241.
- Van de Vliert, E. (1998) *Conflict and conflict management*, Handbook of Work and Organizational Psychology, Vol. 3, pp. 351-376.
- Van Huijstee, M. and Glasbergen, P. (2010) *Business–NGO Interactions in a multi-stakeholder context*, Business and Society Review, Vol. 115(3), pp. 249-284.
- Vargas, P., Duff, B. R. L. and Faber, R. J. (2017) *A Practical Guide to Experimental Advertising Research*, Journal of Advertising, Vol. 46(1), pp. 101-114.
- Vayrynen, R. (ed.) (1991) *To Settle or to Transform? Perspectives on the Resolution of National and International Conflicts*, New Directions in Conflict Theory: Conflict Resolution and Conflict Transformation. London: Sage, pp. 1-25.
- Vishnu, C. R., Das, S. P., Sridharan, R., Ram Kumar, P. N. and Narahari, N. S. (2020) *Development of a reliable and flexible supply chain network design model: a genetic algorithm-based approach*, International Journal of Production Research, Vol.59 (20), pp. 1-25.
- Voss, C., Tsiriktsis, N. and Frohlich, M. (2002) *Case research in operations management*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, Vol. 22(2), pp. 195-219.
- Wagenaar, R. W. (1992) *Business network redesign: Lessons from the port of Rotterdam simulation game*, in Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on EDI, (J. Gricar, ed.), pp. 390–404, Slovenia: Bled.
- Wagner, S. M., Jönke, R. and Hadjiconstantinou, E. (2018) *Relationship archetypes in aftermarkets.*, International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 56(6), pp. 2250-2268.

- Wall Jr, J. A. and Callister, R. R. (1995) *Conflict and its management*, Journal of Management, Vol. 21(3), pp. 515-558.
- Wall, V. and Nolan, L. (1986) *Perceptions of inequity, satisfaction, and conflict in task-oriented groups*, Human Relations, Vol. 39, pp. 1033–1052.
- Wallenburg, C. M. and Schäffler, T. (2016) *Performance measurement in horizontal LSP cooperation as a field of conflict: the preventive role of collaborative processes*, Logistics Research, Vol. 9(1), p. 7.
- Walton, R. E. and Dutton, J. M. (1969) *The management of interdepartmental conflict: A model and review*, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.14, pp. 73-84.
- Wamba, S. F., Gunasekaran, A., Akter, S., Ren, S.J.F., Dubey, R. and Childe, S.J. (2017) *Big data analytics and firm performance: Effects of dynamic capabilities*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 70, pp. 356–365.
- Wang, C., Peng, Z., Yu, H. and Geng, S. (2021a) *Could the E-Commerce Platform's Big Data Analytics Ease the Channel Conflict From Manufacturer Encroachment? An Analysis Based on Information Sharing and Risk Preference*, IEEE Access, Vol. 9, pp. 83552-83568.
- Wang, D. and Liu, Y. (2021) *The effect of political skill on relationship quality in construction projects: The mediating effect of cooperative conflict management styles*, Project Management Journal, Vol. 52(6), pp. 563-576.
- Wang, F. and Kang, T. (2015) *Governance Mechanisms of Logistics Service Integrated Network*, Journal of Global Business and Trade, Vol. 11(1), pp. 27-35.
- Wang, G. W., Pallis, A. A. and Notteboom, T. E. (2014) *Incentives in cruise terminal concession contracts*, Research in Transportation Business & Management, Vol. 13, pp. 36-42.
- Wang, P. and Vogt, J. (2019) *Untangling process complexity in logistics delivery services with unpredictable service sequences: a mixed-method study of chemical tanker port calls*, Maritime Policy & Management, Vol. 46(3), pp. 344-366.
- Wang, W. T., Wee, H. M., and Tsao, H. S. J. (2010) *Revisiting the note on supply chain integration in vendor-managed inventory*, Decision Support Systems, Vol. 48(2), pp. 419-420.
- Wang, W., Gao, S., Mi, L., Xing, J., Shang, K., Qiao, Y. and Xu, N. (2021b) *Exploring the adoption of BIM amidst the COVID-19 crisis in China*, Building Research & Information, Vol. 49(8), pp. 930-947.
- Wang, Z., Huo, B., Tian, Y. and Hua, Z. (2015) *Effects of external uncertainties and*

power on opportunism in supply chains: evidence from China, International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 53(20), pp. 6294-6307.

Wasesa, M., Ramadhan, F. I., Nita, A., Belgiawan, P. F. and Mayangsari, L. (2021) *Impact of overbooking reservation mechanism on container terminal's operational performance and greenhouse gas emissions*, The Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics, Vol. 37(2), pp. 140-148.

Webster, C. and Sundaram, D. S. (1998) *Service consumption criticality in failure recovery*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 41(2), pp.153-159.

Webster, C. and Sundaram, D. S. (2009) *Effect of service provider's communication style on customer satisfaction in professional services setting: the moderating role of criticality and service nature*, Journal of Services Marketing, Vol. 23(2), pp. 103-113.

Weerawardena, J. and O'Cass, A. (2004) *Exploring the characteristics of the market-driven firms and antecedents to sustained competitive advantage*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol 33(5), pp. 419-428.

Wei, S., Ke, W., Lado, A. A., Liu, H. and Wei, K. K. (2020) *The effects of justice and top management beliefs and participation: an exploratory study in the context of digital supply chain management*, Journal of Business Ethics, Vol.166, pp. 51-71.

Wei, Z., Ulziisukh, S., Bao, Y., Zuo, P. and Wang, Y. (2021) *Outsourcers' control mechanisms, vendors' contract schemas, and project performance in cross-border IT outsourcing: A vendor's perspective*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 92, pp. 202-214.

Wen, H., Huang, Y., Rong, L. and Wang, X. (2009) *Study on Joint Decision and Its Incentives Applied To Supply Chain Coordination*, In Logistics: The Emerging Frontiers of Transportation and Development in China, pp. 214-219.

Wen, Y., Wang, Y. and Shi, M. (2020) *Competition in the Multi-Channel Supply Chain with a Self-Logistics-type E-Platform*, International Journal of Information Systems and Supply Chain Management (IJISSCM), Vol. 13(1), pp. 32-72.

Werbińska-Wojciechowska, S. (2011) *On logistics service quality evaluation-case study*, Logistics and Transport, Vol. 13(2), pp. 45-56.

Whipple, J. M. and Roh, J. (2010) *Agency theory and quality fade in buyer- supplier relationships*, The International Journal of Logistics Management, Vol. 21(3), pp. 338-352.

Wijesooriya, C. and Xu, D. (2008) *Towards Logistics Exception Prioritisation:*

Ontological Approach, ACIS 2008 Proceedings, 39.

Wilkinson, I. (1981). *Power, conflict, and satisfaction in distribution channels—an empirical study*, International Journal of Physical Distribution & Materials Management, Vol. 11(7), pp. 20-30.

Williams, Z. and Moore, R. (2007) *Supply chain relationships and information capabilities: the creation and use of information power*, International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management, Vol. 37(6), pp. 469- 83.

Willis, H. H. and Ortiz, D. S. (2004) *Evaluating the Security of the Global Containerized Supply Chain*, Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

Winsor, R. D., Manolis, C., Kaufmann, P. J. and Kashyap, V. (2012) *Manifest conflict and conflict aftermath in franchise systems: a 10- year examination*, Journal of Small Business Management, Vol. 50(4), pp. 621-651.

Winter, S. G. (2003) *Understanding dynamic capabilities*, Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 24(10), pp. 991-995.

Wolfsteller, P. (2023). 'Boeing once again halts 787 deliveries, this time due to 'analysis error' settled', *Reuters*, 27 February [Online]. Available at: <https://www.flightglobal.com/safety/boeing-once-again-halts-787-deliveries-this-time-due-to-analysis-error/152201.article#:~:text=Boeing%20has%20once%20again%20halted,airframer%20said%20on%2023%20February> (Accessed 27 June 2023).

Wombacher, J. and Felfe, J. (2017) *The interplay of team and organizational commitment in motivating employees' interteam conflict handling*, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 60(4), pp. 1554-1581.

Wu, LY. (2010) *Applicability of the resource-based and dynamic-capability views under environmental volatility*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 63(1), pp. 27–31.

Wu, Z., Xu, H. and Ke, G. Y. (2019) *The strategy of third-party mediation based on the option prioritization in the graph model*, Journal of Systems Science and Systems Engineering, Vol. 28, pp. 399-414.

Xu, X., Meng, Z. and Shen, R. (2015) *A cooperation model based on CVaR measure for a two-stage supply chain*, International Journal of Systems Science, Vol. 46(10), pp. 1865-1873.

Xu, X., Sun, Y. and Wang, J. (2019) *Multi-task transportation scheduling model with backhauls based on hub and spoke in collaborative logistics network*, Journal of Ambient Intelligence and Humanized Computing, Vol. 10(1), pp. 333-343.

- Yan, R., Pei, Z. and Myers, C. (2016) *Do channel members value the multiple-cooperation strategy?*, *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 30, pp. 84-95.
- Yan, Y., Zhao, R. and Lan, Y. (2019) *Moving sequence preference in coopetition outsourcing supply chain: Consensus or conflict*, *International Journal of Production Economics*, Vol. 208, pp. 221-240.
- Yan, A. and Gray, B., 1994 *Bargaining power, management control, and performance in United States–China joint ventures: A comparative case study*, *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 37(6), pp. 1478-1517.
- Yan, R. (2011) *Managing channel coordination in a multi-channel manufacturer–retailer supply chain*, *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 40(4), pp. 636-642.
- Yang, D. H. and Gao, X. (2017) *Online retailer recommender systems: a competitive analysis*, *International Journal of Production Research*, Vol. 55(14), pp. 4089-4109.
- Yang, D., Yin, W., Liu, S. and Chan, F. T. (2022), *Understanding the Effect of Multi-Agent Collaboration on the Performance of Logistics Park Projects: Evidence from China*, *Sustainability*, Vol. 14(7), p. 4179.
- Yang, J., Zhang, X., Huang, Y., Su, J., Tsai, S. B., Chang, L. C. and Wang, J. (2019) *Capacity Allocation and Compensation in a Dual-Channel Supply Chain under Uncertain Environment*, *Mathematical Problems in Engineering*, Vol. 2019, pp. 1-12.
- Yang, M., Khan, F. I., Sadiq, R. and Amyotte, P. (2013) *A rough set-based game theoretical approach for environmental decision-making: A case of offshore oil and gas operations*, *Process Safety and Environmental Protection*, Vol. 91(3), pp. 172-182.
- Yang, W., Gao, Y., Li, Y., Shen, H. and Zheng, S. (2017) *Different roles of control mechanisms in buyer-supplier conflict: An empirical study from China*, *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 65, pp. 144-156.
- Yasin, M. and Osman, N. H. (2018) *Improvement in Ship Repair Works: Experience in Implementation of Production Friendly Drawing in Shipyard*, *International Journal of Supply Chain Management (IJSCM)*, Vol. 7(1), pp. 163-169.
- Yi, G. and Yang, G. (2021) *Research on the tripartite evolutionary game of public participation in the facility location of hazardous materials logistics from the perspective of NIMBY events*, *Sustainable Cities and Society*, Vol. 72, p. 103017.

- Yildirim, C., Oflaç, B.S. and Yurt, O. (2018) *The doer effect of failure and recovery in multi-agent cases: service supply chain perspective*, Journal of Service Theory and Practice, Vol. 28(3), pp. 274-297.
- Yildiz, H., Yoon, J., Talluri, S. and Ho, W. (2016) *Reliable supply chain network design*, Decision Sciences, Vol. 47(4), pp. 661-698.
- Yin, J., Luo, M. and Fan, L. (2017) *Dynamics and interactions between spot and forward freights in the dry bulk shipping market*, Maritime Policy & Management, Vol. 44(2), pp. 271-288.
- Yoo, S. H. and Kim, B. C. (2016) *Joint pricing of new and refurbished items: A comparison of closed-loop supply chain models*, International Journal of Production Economics, Vol.182, pp. 132-143.
- Young, T. R. (1991) *Chaos theory and symbolic interaction theory: Poetics for the postmodern sociologist*, Symbolic Interaction, Vol. 14(3), pp. 321-334.
- Yu, J. P. and Pysarchik, D. T. (2002) *Economic and non-economic factors of Korean manufacturer-retailer relations*, The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research, Vol. 12(3), pp. 297-318.
- Yu, Y., Yang, Y. and Jing, F. (2017) *The role of the third party in the trust repair process*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 78, pp. 233-241.
- Zarei, H., Rasti-Barzoki, M. and Moon, I. (2020) *A mechanism design approach to a buyer's optimal auditing policy to induce responsible sourcing in a supply chain*, Journal of Environmental Management, Vol. 254, p. 109721.
- Zhang, L. and Wang, J. (2017) *Coordination of the traditional and the online channels for a short-life-cycle product*, European Journal of Operational Research, Vol. 258 (2), pp. 639-651.
- Zhang, L., Gao, Y., Lu, W. and Guo, W. (2023) *The influence of conflict event strength on interorganizational cooperation: Moderating roles of contractual complexity and trust*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 159, p. 113750.
- Zhang, T., Qu, Y. and He, G. (2019) *Pricing strategy for green products based on disparities in energy consumption*, IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management, Vol. 69(3), pp. 616-627.
- Zhang, Y., Yang, J. and Liu, M. (2022) *Enterprises' energy-saving capability: Empirical study from a dynamic capability perspective*, Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, Vol. 162, p. 112450.
- Zhang, Z. X. and Wei, X. (2017) *Superficial harmony and conflict avoidance*

resulting from negative anticipation in the workplace, Management and Organization Review, Vol. 13(4), pp. 795-820.

Zhou, L., Fan, T., Yang, J. and Zhang, L. (2022) *Monopolistic vs. Competitive Supply Chain Concerning Selection of the Platform Selling Mode in Three Power Structures*, Sustainability, Vol. 14(17), p. 11016.

Zhou, W., Huang, W. and Zhang, R. (2014) *A two-stage queueing network on form postponement supply chain with correlated demands*, Applied Mathematical Modelling, Vol. 38(11-12), pp. 2734-2743.

Zhou, Y. (2012, July) *The research on a three-dimensional model for resolving supply chain conflict, from the perspective of organizational behavior*, In ICSSSM12 (pp. 210-214). IEEE.

Zhou, Y., Hong, J., Zhu, K., Yang, Y. and Zhao, D. (2018) *Dynamic capability matters: uncovering its fundamental role in decision making of environmental innovation*, Journal of Cleaner Production, Vol. 177, pp. 516-526.

Ziegler, S. M. (2005) *Theory-directed nursing practice*, Springer Publishing Company.

Zu, X. and Kaynak, H. (2012) *An agency theory perspective on supply chain quality management*, International Journal of Operations & Production Management, Vol. 32(4), pp. 423- 46.

‘LOJİSTİK SEKTÖRÜNDE ÇALIŞAN KADINLARIN ORANI YÜZDE 9,1’ (2022). UTIKAD, 7 March [Online]. Available at: <https://www.utikad.org.tr/Detay/Sektor-Haberleri/30920/lojistik-sektorunde-calisan-kadinlarin-orani-yuzde-9-1> (Accessed 29 June 2023).

‘Tesco pulls Unilever goods from website over price row’. (2016). *Reuters*, 13 October [Online]. Available at: <https://www.reuters.com/article/tesco-unilever-prices-idUSL1N1CI1B0> (Accessed 27 June 2023).

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

General Information

1. Job title and description of the participant
2. Years spent in the position and company
3. Logistics operations of the company and markets served
4. Supply chain design of the company (Major suppliers and customers)
5. The number of employees
6. Average turnover for last year

Main Questions

7. Who are your supply chain partners?
8. What type of conflicts do you usually have with your supply chain partners?
9. Based on your specific experience in the industry, could you mention what changes in conflict trends have occurred regarding the types, causes, or outcomes of the conflicts?
10. What are the reasons for the conflicts experienced with your partners?
11. What are the proactive actions to prevent the impact of the conflicts?
12. What are the reactive actions in coping with the impact of the conflicts?
13. What are the destructive consequences of the supply chain conflicts?
14. Do you think there can be constructive conflicts? If yes, could you give me an example?
15. At which level do your companies begin to act for conflict resolution?
 - a. If conflicts exist but do not affect the operations of the company (latent), which actions do you take?
 - b. If conflicts are noticeable and channel partners are aware of the opposition (perceived), which actions do you take?
 - c. If conflicts reach the stage of worry and alarm and attitudes polarize (felt), which actions do you take?

- d. If conflicts create open and antagonistic behaviors by supply chain partners (manifest), which actions do you take?
16. What kind of resolution approaches do you apply to deal with conflicts? (Guidelines, exchange-of-personnel, negotiations, etc./Price levels/Product versions/Brand name/Compensation/Relational norms)
17. What are the constraints/difficulties in conflict resolution processes? (Prompt: causes, mitigation efforts, trade-offs)
18. Do you have any capabilities or resources that you have developed for the conflict resolution process?
- a. If yes, do you use coordination competencies for solving supply chain conflicts? (Coordination of internal processes/operations, adoption of latest management tools, systematic use of business plans etc.)
- b. Do you think your organisation engages in a learning process to help resolve conflict better? (Organised programs of in-house training adjusted to the firm's requirements, systematic on-the-job training, efficient team working etc.)
- c. How are the conflicts and resolution practices expected to transform the supply chain operations/relations of the company for the near future?
19. Which practices do you apply when not using conflict resolution mechanisms? (Exiting network etc.)
20. As a logistics actor, you are a member of many different supply chains at the same time. You may have a problem with one chain and not the other. Do you think there are situations specific to the supply chains in which you are involved in the conflict?

Incident-Related Questions

Please recall a major/critical incident (conflict) that occurred in your relationship with your supply chain partners.

21. Who were the parties involved?
22. What were the reasons behind this conflict? (Prompt: interdependence, power, diversity in goals, perceptions, or domains)
23. Were there any proactive measures you took to prevent conflict, or did you act reactively?

24. How did this conflict impact your firm's operation and supply chain? Was it destructive or destructive?
25. At which level did your company begin to act for conflict resolution?
- If you took action at a stage where conflict existed but did not affect the operations of the company (latent), what were your actions?
 - If you took action at a stage where conflict was noticeable and channel partners were aware of the opposition (perceived), what were your actions?
 - If you took action at a stage where conflict reached the stage of worry, concern and polarised (felt) attitudes, what were your actions?
 - If you took action at a stage where conflict created open and antagonistic behaviours by supply chain partners (manifest), what were your actions?
26. What kind of resolution approaches did you apply to deal with such conflict? (Guidelines, exchange-of-personnel, negotiations, etc./Price levels/Product versions/Brand name/Compensation/Relational norms)
27. Did you include other supply chain partners in the resolution process to find a solution together?
28. What were the constraints/difficulties in this conflict resolution process? (Prompt: causes, mitigation efforts, trade-offs)
29. Did you use any capabilities or resources that you have developed for the conflict resolution process?
- If yes, did you use coordination capabilities for solving supply chain conflicts? (Coordination of internal processes/operations, adoption of latest management tools, systematic use of business plans etc.)
 - Did your organisation learn something important that helped to solve the conflict better in some way? (Organised programs of in-house training adjusted to the firms' requirements, systematic on-the-job training, efficient team working etc.)
 - How were the conflict resolution practices expected to transform the supply chain operations/relations of the company for the near future?

APPENDIX B: QUOTATIONS WITH CATEGORIES

Economic Conflicts		Quotations
Payment conflicts	early and advance payment demand	<i>“Financially, our suppliers' early demand for money creates conflict because it does not comply with our payment schedule. From time to time, shipping companies may have such requests.” (P3)</i>
	depositing the guarantee of taxes on imported products	<i>“Vehicles are towed by temporary importation for exhibition purposes in Turkey. Of course, we have to deposit a certain rate of their taxes as collateral, because if they do not leave the country, they are recorded and income is recorded in the treasury. Since the SCT (special consumption tax) is so high, we have to pay a guarantee of close to one million Turkish lira for vehicles over 4000cc. When the number of vehicles started to increase, we could not pay the 10 percent guarantee and this turned into a conflict between us, the bank, and the ministry.” (A3)</i>
Pricing conflicts	rapid changes in freight prices (general rate increase)	<i>“Shipping companies are called "trade managers" and they regulate the freight policy according to the supply-demand balance. Normally, freight rates are valid for 3 months or 1 year, but now there can be changes in freight levels every 2 weeks, which creates conflict between us.” (O4)</i>
	increase in spot prices	<i>“Prices started to be given to Europe at 5000-5500 euro spot (by ship owners). Of course, these freight costs also prevent imports. As a result, it is a factor that directly affects the unit price of the goods to be sold to the final consumer.” (A3)</i>
	rising fuel prices	<i>“The increase in diesel prices and inflation caused the costs to go up. The biggest discussion we have with carriers is on the basis of cost, and there is a raise every month. As carriers can have a cheaper cost when they go directly to customers, they feel obliged to put this pressure on us.” (O2)</i>
	fluctuations in customs brokerage service fees	<i>“In particular, customs consultancy service fees related to exports have hit rock bottom due to competition. The minimum wage declaration published by the Undersecretariat in 2011 led to better quality service at the same price. This situation caused us to come</i>

		<i>into conflict with public customs because of the lower offerings of the other customs companies.” (A1)</i>
	unfair pricing strategies	<i>“In a social media post of one of the shipping companies, they state that because the forwarder that they currently work with is selling the freight for 13 thousand that s/he bought for 3000 before, they will no longer work with these forwarders again, and they will work directly with the customer from now on, which has led to their monopoly.” (A3)</i>

Service Conflicts		Quotations
Order condition conflicts	loss of products in warehouse	<i>“We actually clash with carriers and others about certain things like service quality. Goods are lost or damaged in their warehouses.” (P5)</i>
	damages to shipment (e.g. customer-related	<i>“We warn our customers to tie them with ropes when stacking a product in a container, and the customer does this himself. However, in one incident, while the container was on the way, the customer's property was broken on the ship, and the customer had a cost of 20 thousand dollars. Customer-based stacking problems are one of the biggest sources of conflict.” (O3)</i>
	improper stacking, exceeding tonnages)	<i>“The pallet weight of the milk we use in the products is so high that when the products are placed on top of each other, they inevitably explode. When that milk bursts, mould and flies start suddenly. We told our supplier to use higher quality packaging but rather than that they asked us to load less. This causes conflict as it increases our logistics costs.” (C4)</i>
	order-vehicle mismatch	<i>“Sometimes the capacity of the sub-carriers of the vehicle and the main content of our cargo do not match, so loading cannot be done.” (P2)</i>
	inadequate vehicle maintenance	<i>“The problems are usually related to the arrival of very old vehicles. Most of the time, we do not accept the vehicles and send them back so that new vehicles can arrive. The reason for this is that the products are not damaged during transportation because old vehicles shake a lot etc. It slows us down when loading or unloading. Newly produced vehicles or trailers save us a lot of time.</i>

		<i>We often experience these conflicts. ” (C1)</i>
Timeliness conflicts	delays (e.g. warehouse and production)	<i>“Internal transport companies may experience delays while evacuating the product in the area where it is stored. Since we are the last delivery party, the responsibility falls on us.” (A5)</i>
	long waiting time at ports and late deliveries	<i>“Customs do not let you in for the slightest mistake. They immediately open the truck and check it which leads to long waiting times at ports. You know we fill the container very tightly and it is very difficult to collect it again after it is opened. A waste of both time and money. Besides, drivers usually don't want to deal with it when they have these types of problems here. When that happens, we hinder two or three jobs of drivers. This turns into a conflict as they are always racing against time.” (C1)</i>
Contact personnel conflicts	failure to treat customers properly by sub-suppliers	<i>“We have communication problems related to the lack of training of the drivers, they are rude to the customers, which creates problems between us and them.” (P2)</i>
	incompetency	<i>“There was a foreign trade department in the past. It had an import and export service. All removed now. In shippers accountants, engineers or secretaries make the job that is a big problem.” (A3)</i>
		<i>“Although every transaction has a process, the people in the foreign trade departments of the companies make unreasonable demands from us. The reason for this is that the staff consists of people who are ignorant and do not have foreign trade education and do not know customs. This is a big conflict for us.” (A4)</i>
		<i>“The personnel working in the forwarders generally have no awareness. The boy or girl who performed the operation graduated 3 years ago, and he/she does not know what BMS is, they trivialise the situation and do not follow our instructions. Conflict is inevitable in this situation.” (O5)</i>
Availability conflicts	equipment unavailability	<i>“Due to the container crisis with forwarders, we had a lot of trouble with the cargoes coming from China. In fact, we experienced the problem of prolonged travel times, not being able</i>

		<p><i>to find containers, not being able to respond quickly to changing demands.” (C5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“It was an important project and we needed to be fast and the logistics company had to be fast as well. A conflict arose between the teams as the logistics company could not provide the capacity we requested”. (C5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“The segment that airlines earn the most is passenger baggage rather than cargo baggage. In this sense, many airlines went bankrupt, there were those who withdrew from TR, giants such as Malaysian airlines and Lufthansa cancelled their cargo planes. In other words, we had a very difficult time finding planes and we had conflicts.” (A3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Our conflict was over the supply of equipment. It was an ongoing business. The equipment crisis due to the pandemic and the fact that our company followed a certain strategy and tended to long-term business, suddenly stopped supplying equipment to short-term customers, and increased the freight continuously from week to week, month to month, caused the customer to not be able to manage the process and created conflict.” (O2)</i></p>
<p>Service standards conflicts</p>	<p>non-compliance to the service standards</p>	<p><i>“We actually clash with carriers about certain things like service standards. For example, they can suddenly increase the price because the vehicles waited for half an hour more. Since local companies work collaboratively, there are no service standards.” (P5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“The problem I have with suppliers is about meeting service standards because we are the largest ship owner in the world. Conflicts usually occur during the day in order to maintain these service standards. The customer wants to load at high tonnage levels and I do not accept this.” (O2)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We say to the warehouse services that we classify our containers as A grade B grade C grade. We call the cleanest and newest containers A and we demand that A class containers should be sent to the companies carrying food or special textile materials. Then the customer says that the incoming containers are damaged. We return to the warehouse and say, “you are giving me grading service. You get paid for this and for the storage service, but look what went to the customer”(O5)</i></p>

		<p><i>“Since there is no institution that oversees forwarders, they have no compliance with the regulations. Personals working in forwarders do not have such awareness. Then they face very serious penalties and then blame the ship owners.” (O5)</i></p>
--	--	--

Operational Conflicts		Quotations
Customs conflicts	(e.g. wrong customs, inland shipping conflicts at customs , wrong containers, customs certificates	<p><i>“If a product needs to be processed in different customs offices, we inform our customer that a product subject to this customs restriction should arrive at this customs. However, logistics companies bring the products to the customs according to their own minds without paying attention to this. Then conflict starts</i></p> <p><i>“Why did this material come here, you will convey it” or “the internal shipping costs will be paid by you.” (A4)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We have customers who do cross-loading, and these customers, for instance, distribute the 50 containers they buy as 10 each. These container numbers should also be specified under the bookings. Despite stating this to the customer representative at that time, the containers are in the wrong bookings and the container that was supposed to go to America almost goes to China. This situation is prevented at the port at the last moment, but as the cargo stayed in the port for 2 weeks, storage costs and problems occurred between our company and the customs.” (O3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“When the export declaration falls on the red line, the products here are inspected at the customs area. If the transport company does not have an authorized customs certificate, they ask us to do it. Although this is their duty, they do not execute it. This is why we have a conflict with them.” (A4)</i></p>
Delay conflicts	delays due to port infrastructure inadequacy	<p><i>“We are having a lot of problems with the port, they started to take loads beyond their capacity, and of course, their operations are not as fast as before the pandemic. The ships are too big now and our ports are not suitable for them. Therefore, the operation to be carried out in 4 hours is reflected in 8 hours and the operation of the whole port is disrupted and this disruption is reflected to the customer.” (O5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“The Covid-19 pandemic period caused disruptions in production and our work was delayed after the planned date. There were</i></p>

		<p><i>problems with transportation. Our time here has decreased if we have 2-3 days of operation time in a normal operation, it went as -3 -4, so now you have to be much faster.” (A5)</i></p> <p><i>“For example, there are companies that cannot keep up with the ship schedules. There are cut-off periods for a ship, there is a date of entry without a warehouse, where you have to submit your last declaration, there is a cut-off of declaration, and we have scales in our ship programs. Generally, exporters cannot keep up with these schedules and time limitations. Despite our operations team’s efforts their cargo may be transferred to the next ship which may cause delay and conflict.” (O4)</i></p>
Digital conflicts	cyber attacks	<i>“There was a cyber-attack situation once. For a while, customers could not see load information and this caused conflicts between us and our customers.” (O4)</i>
	digitalization related systematic problems	<p><i>“Some ship-owners have gone completely digital. They started to follow everything online by entering the booking by just giving the user and password. However, sometimes their systems are crashing. For instance, if it is the last date of the declaration of the ship and we cannot find a customer representative to talk to, the ship is delayed for 1 week. They certainly cannot tolerate a system-related error.” (P3)</i></p> <p><i>“For example, you do not have an interlocutor on the ships. There is only one system. When there is a problem at customs, for example, you redirect the customer to the system instead of someone else and it remains unsolved. This creates conflict with customers and us.” (A3)</i></p> <p><i>“Also, customs systems are not integrated, we cannot exchange documents with EDI, as in other countries. That’s why, even though we enter the necessary information into the system, our friends there go from door to door looking for those documents so that when the ships arrive, they can berth without any interruption. Generally, when you come to the customs, the system does not work, then you take the officer from his home to approve the transactions so that our ship can depart immediately in the morning. Otherwise, the ship will wait. Our job is always trouble, always a problem.” (O5)</i></p>
	lack of digital	<i>“Or there could be systemic things, for example, our friends</i>

	archive	<i>could not find the offers we sent. Everyone would write in a different way. This was causing the loss of coordination with the customer.” (O4)</i>
Documentation conflicts	obligation to obtain an order-delivery order (ordino belgesi)	<i>“The biggest problem right now is that the shipowners still demand the delivery order, which was removed in 1999. Shipowners use it menacingly. They say that if you do not request this document from the ports, we will not come to your port.” (A3)</i>
		<i>“There are also problems with the customers regarding the definition of the item. It is not only considered a sweatshirt, but what is the fibre content in it? If it is 100% cotton, it should be explained to us. We are seldom given a full description of the item. In order to determine the customs tariff statistics position, the specific characteristics of the goods must be shared with us.” (A4)</i>
		<i>“Sometimes the declared material by the shippers and the main content of cargo do not match, and they are not transported because customs considers this an illegal situation and analyses the products. This nonconformity of the items caused a conflict between both shippers, transport companies and the service providers.” (P2)</i>
	incomplete, late or wrong declarations	<i>“For example, the customer caused an explosion on the ship by loading flammable material and not declaring it. In order not to pay any difference (EMO difference), the customer does not declare it as an item, but it must be known that there is a separate category until the place where he keeps the container at the port.” (O5)</i>
		<i>“We have a lot of conflicts/disputes with our customers, such as incorrect billing. For example, I gave the total cost to the customer, but then I realized that I wrote something missing in that number. If the customer accepts this figure and loads his cargo, he/she naturally objects to the invoice I added the missing item later.” (O2)</i>
	<i>“We have our own internal system. When you take any action there, the invoice is triggered. After the companies we work with accept the invoice for a shipment, then the second one</i>	

		<i>accidentally goes back, it confuses all of his accounts. It's a huge workload to cancel it." (O3)</i>
--	--	--

Relational conflicts		Quotations
Power issues	imposition of business style	<i>"The customer enforces his own working style. When there is conflict between us, I have to try to keep up with it that way. We admit impositions because we provide services." (P4)</i>
	imposing sanctions	<i>"We take some labels for shippers to stick on their products and supply them at the port so that there is no confusion in the shipment. We do not work with shippers who do not allow this. We also have a lot of sanctions on them in this regard." (O5)</i>
	forcing inland shipping service and long-term agreements	<i>"We try to make longer-term agreements and put pressure on the suppliers. Obviously, we are the world's largest ship owner here, the size of our work in terms of volume is a major factor in putting this pressure on companies." (O2)</i> <i>"There is an increase in shipowners' demands. If they do not provide the internal transportation service, they do not give you a booking." (P2)</i>
	monopolisation of ship owners and disintermediation	<i>"The biggest conflict is the monopolisation of the ship owners. When you give detailed load information to the ship owner, they go directly and market themselves. For example, Maersk company offers customs clearance to its customers, whose internal transportation is carried out by itself, and says if you transport it with my road transport, I will not charge you a warehouse fee." (A3)</i> <i>"In a post on one of the shipping companies they say that because the forwarder is selling it for 13 thousand that he bought for 3000 they will no longer serve them, and they will work directly with the customer from now on, which has led to their monopoly." (A3)</i> <i>"Currently, another department is being established in our company. Like BDO (Business Development Organisation) to eliminate forwarders. Going directly to the real shipper company. Whatever the forwarder does, this department aims to do the same for our company." (O1)</i> <i>"There is a huge profit area such as storage for the companies. We started consolidation, for example, we used to not be involved in our customers' business process. Currently, for very big sports brands, Maersk's own employees separate the products of these</i>

		<i>companies according to their partial numbers or order numbers for free. Lines are included in everything. This caused local forwarders to be unable to hold on and conflict with us. ” (O3)</i>
Information asymmetry	information asymmetry (e.g. hiding damage info)	<i>“An import shipment arrived, for example, I said to the authorised person that you can pick up your cargo from the port, my responsibility is over, because domestic shipping was not my responsibility. But while the container is returning, the truck crashes, and the container is badly damaged. It becomes scrapped, but they do not say that "we had an accident, this is how it happened to the container". He leaves the container in the shipowner's warehouse. But the shipowner knows me as his interlocutor and the conflict begins.” (P4)</i>
Unfair treatment	sector-based privileges	<i>“We have a problem with customer prioritisation with forwarders. How do the lines make these choices? Light tonnage loads that will not damage the container may be preferred for us. For this reason, the line may not accept every load. They may say that I will use my preference in white goods.” (O3)</i>
	volume-based privileges	<i>“For example, we give additional time to some customers whose declarations are overdue in documentation. But this is a very big problem for us. Let's say we are both customers, the other customer is given additional time, but not me. For example, IKEA, C3, because their volume is very high, we inevitably provide this to them. We even provide support for freight transport insurance, pre-transport and final transport, because the freight they give is many times higher than that of a regular forwarder.” (O1)</i>
	loyalty/commitment based privileges	<i>“Nobody expected that the pandemic would cause such an equipment crisis. As the company gives priority to companies with long-term commitments with the information coming from the head office, we disrupted our short-term businesses/customers a lot. This caused conflicts between us and them.” (O2)</i> <i>“You work hard to ensure loyalty for direct customers, you always want to keep it and you give different incentives. However, you don't work for the loyalty of a forwarder firm. This is a factor that can cause conflict with them.” (O4)</i>
Unethical issues	theft of deliberate actions	<i>“Drivers can do other things for additional income. They can steal the property. Sometimes they blow the tire of the vehicle and write additional expenses on the vehicle and pocket the tire price. They can steal fuel because the trucks have their fuel outside.” (O1)</i>

		<i>“Once the import process of our company was finished, we were going to ship it from the container port to the factory. We arranged a carrier for domestic shipping. We loaded the goods in the evening and the car was stolen in the morning.” (A1)</i>
--	--	--

Level based resolution mechanisms		Quotations
Latent level	actions to maintain business relationship	<i>“At this point, the business partnership with the main players in the logistics service field should continue. Actions here are taken to maintain and improve the business relationship.” (P3)</i>
	experience sharing and observation	<i>“We do nothing at this point, we just observe how our employees will behave here. We also share our previous experiences with them. We believe that if we don't intervene, our friends may find a better solution than us. When you direct them, they do not do what they have in mind. Then, we share our opinion if needed.” (A3)</i> <i>“The management leaves the job to you first, they look at how far you can bring it. When conflict begins to surface, they step in.” (O2)</i>
Perceived level	compliance	<i>“Whenever I see that we can't get along, I try to keep up with the customers. We admit impositions because we provide services to them. We understand the tension from the emails and try to be more polite.” (P4)</i>
		<i>“In a scenario where the conflict is understood from the emails, we make some suggestions to the customer representative. We say that you should accept the customer in this way, but we also monitor the process. Thus, we take a closer look at the dialogue between them.” (A4)</i>
	business norm conformity	<i>“If there is a bias, it will be exposed. If there is not, we will see if it fits the universal behavioural patterns. If it doesn't fit, we'll let the parties correct themselves.” (A1)</i>
	empathy and listening	<i>“Let's say you asked me a question and I gave a cocky answer. A slight conflict begins, then it spreads to the phone and the coldness begins. At this stage, we encourage people to listen to each other.” (A1)</i>
<i>“We'll have a meeting right away. Me, my manager, the customer service friend and her manager attend. Everyone tells us what to expect from each other.” (O3)</i>		

	hidden threats and warnings	<i>"We ask the suppliers to allocate capacity for us. Of course, they don't give all of them to us, at such a point, we say that if we do not get the capacity, that will affect our demands in the next month. We sometimes make implicit speeches like this." (C5)</i>
Felt level	involvement of top managers	<i>"The response of the other party directly changes after the top managers enter. I used to experience this with customs companies. When we get a negative response and activate their manager, their behaviour can change completely." (C5)</i>
		<i>"I gave my private phone to some customers due to workaholism, so sometimes they call me privately. Even when I don't answer the phone, they express this clearly and reach my manager." (P4)</i>
	business slowdown	<i>"If there is no representative change, one cannot do business with that customer, and this situation progresses in the form of slowing down the business." (O3)</i>
		<i>"In this process, we took measures such as not working with that person or slowing things down." (C2)</i>
	warning and threats	<i>"They spoke softly but carried a big stick. "We're going to sue you," he said very politely if we couldn't figure it out. We said more than welcome. They bluffed anyway, if we thought that they were so right, we would try for common ground." (P2)</i>
		<i>"The carrier told me that the shipment would be 5 days late. We informed the customer that it would be 10 days late by adding some buffer days. But the shipment was in the hands of the customer after 15 days. I said that "you are always late for 3-5 days. I tolerate this, now the number has increased to 10. If this happens again, everything will be different."(A3)</i>
sourcing flexibility solutions	<i>"The truck was going to be loaded from Hungary, you know that the plates are given daily. But the vehicles did not come. As a solution-oriented company, we tried to find alternative vehicles with our own business network there to solve the problem and diverted the customer's loads to other vehicles." (A3)</i>	
	<i>"Due to Evergreen, all imported products were left. Production factories were about to stop and could not pass the channel. As an alternative solution, we imported similar products temporarily from Europe by joint decision with the customers." (A5)</i>	
direct communication	<i>"We generally have a meeting right away at the felt stage. Me, my manager, and a customer service representative of other firms</i>	

	with calls and meetings	<i>attend.” (O3)</i>
		<i>“I had to compress people by making full phone communication. We solved the process by taking serial actions. I even got the mobile number of the operation, and we solved it that way. I also tried to talk to subcontractor companies.” (O1)</i>
	referral to other companies	<i>“Sometimes, when we cannot take the load of customers, we reject them from the system and we explain after. In order to relieve the situation from tension, the sales department proposes the X company to the customer, with whom they do business together.” (O1)</i>
	negotiation, persuasion, incentives (discounts)	<i>“There is always customer priority. At this point, we calm the customer first. We coordinate by email and phone. By using good language, we convince everyone and meet on a common page. Persuasion and negotiation are very important for us to calm the customer.” (O5)</i>
	change of customer representative or dismissal	<i>“A team change can be requested at counter business partners. Or a change can be requested within ourselves.” (C4)</i>
		<i>“ I know that I will be replaced because it is the only solution if no action has been taken after passing the previous stage.”(O3)</i>
		<i>“If there is a conflict, an employee's superior comes into play. Either by visit or by video conference. If necessary, I change the contact persons” (O5)</i>
		<i>“Certain customers, for example, only call me, and if I have come to the end with them, someone else will replace me. On that day, not me, but my other friend will meet with that person. When the customer is faced with a new face, they can look a little differently and calm down.” (P3)</i>
Manifest conflict	litigation process	<i>“Naturally, I had to initiate legal proceedings. But I learned that it will take longer than 5-6 years. In addition, lawyers in our country do not have much knowledge in terms of maritime commercial law. We asked academics to provide consultancy for a fee.” (P4)</i>
		<i>“In the legal process, e-mails are shown as evidence. Lawyers step in, petitions, official letters are collected, and etc. then the court begins.” (P5)</i>
		<i>“For example, the court takes place when the necessary payments are not made. If the extra costs are not accepted by the parties, you will be the first party to initiate the conflict.” (O4)</i>

		<p><i>“There was a case where the customer was wrong, for example, the cold chain was broken because he did not check the documents and did the confirmation wrong. We were right in that case. Again, since no damage was detected, we won the case.” (A3)</i></p> <p><i>“We went to the last point of not paying the bill. We said that if you do not give us a reservation, we will not issue a payment. The matter then went to the notary public notice.” (C5)</i></p> <p><i>“While the container was on the way, the customer's property was broken on the ship and a cost of 20 thousand dollars was incurred due to customer-induced stowage problems. Although the customer was guilty here, he caused a problem and went to court.” (O3)</i></p>
	termination of business and contracts	<p><i>“We always put the profits of the customers first, but whenever the customers abuse it, then we can cut the strings. Because we are strong. We are not at a point where customers can compete with our legal departments etc.” (O1)</i></p> <p><i>“Although we have a contract, we completely terminated our employment relationship in the last few months of the year and decided not to work completely.” (C2)</i></p> <p><i>“We immediately terminated the contract with our subcontractor. In one incident, for example, the truck driver skipped the other vehicles while waiting in line. Such an irregularity is considered a major traffic violation and the driver is banned at Yilport. That's why we fired him.” (O5)</i></p>
	blacklisting	<i>“Although we had a contract, we completely terminated our business relationship in the last few months of the year and did not include them in the next tender offer.” (C2)</i>
	non-payment	<i>“We see unpaid bills. They said that if you do not give us a reservation, we will not issue a payment.” (C5)</i>
Aftermath level	interactional justice	<i>“After everything is over we are just trying to calm the client down. We got a letter of apology from the airlines.” (A3)</i>
		<i>“I don't like mail language very much. I prefer to call and talk after the conflict. It might get a little softer after you call him/her. If necessary, we send flowers and chocolates.” (O3)</i>
	procedural justice	<i>“The friends who wrote the declaration made a mistake. In order to find this error, we started a specific study with them and tried to find out where the error originated with systematic research.” (A4)</i>
<i>“We questioned our own supplier. We reviewed our contracts again. We talked about why the necessary precautions were not taken. We have brought up a contract that includes transport-related compensation provisions.”(A1)</i>		

	distributive justice	<p><i>"..Because when we have an argument with a sub-contractor company, a better, more experienced driver is provided to us with a faster and bigger car to win our hearts." (C1)</i></p> <p><i>"Since the supplier sent the wrong type of product, our sub-contracted carrier who owns the vehicle cannot work because the vehicle has been kept at the customs for 3-4 weeks due to control and issuing compensation to us. Evidence is shown to customs, but not accepted, we are coming to the level of litigation. Finally, our company had to offer to share all costs with the supplier to retain the customer." (P2)</i></p> <p><i>"We organized a shipment to France, where the customer paid the freight beforehand, but this load was not taken by the customers of the other party. Then, we have come into conflict with both French customs who want to return the load and the customer who pays the freight and does not accept any other costs. Finally, our company paid all the expenses necessary for the goods to stay in the port for a while after meeting with the French customs." (O5)</i></p>

Outcomes of Conflicts		Quotations
Constructive outcomes	operational flexibility	<i>"Normally, the port has a warehouse cost, which I bill to the customer, if the customers enter the customs ahead of schedule. As the customers generally stack their goods in the port, thinking that they should stay at the port instead of in the warehouse, this cost is created. But after the conflicts we experienced with our customers, we decided to give some of them the right to enter without a warehouse cost when they entered the port 1 day before. Then the customer says -it is good that I worked with this company. Other lines didn't do that. This line gives me that flexibility and I see value here." (O4)</i>
	improved planning process	<i>"For example, when we send cargo to Madrid with x airlines, we want to have problem-free operations. So we take into account the problems we have with them and ask other companies. We explore many more alternatives and scrutinise much more closely." (A3)</i>

		<p><i>“Covid-19 pandemic and the conflict it brings was a great example, we started to create transportation mode alternatives again. Indeed, It woke up our thinking mechanisms and got it working.” (A3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“When 150 million requests came in, it was necessary to confirm it because of the conflict we have experienced before. Sometimes, I called the head of the purchasing department and confirmed it myself. Action was taken to enable production for products with low stock.” (C3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“From every mistake, we make a prediction for ourselves in future planning. With a conflict you understand that it is much more profitable to choose RORO.” (A3)</i></p>
	<p>systematic developments</p>	<p><i>“Sometimes our customers say that I want you to do it like this. Even though we had conflict at the beginning, At one point I thought -after all, why wouldn't I try? Maybe when I keep up with his system, I will realise that I can be more efficient. I can work with other customers under the same working procedure. This can be really helpful. Sometimes I like the design of the form they send and I use it.” (P4)</i></p>
		<p><i>“For example, yesterday, our reefer containers had to be checked at the port. It was not included in the agreement we made, would it be checked in the warehouse or in the goods area? We said - check them in the warehouse. We may add something like this to agreement to not to have any other conflicts. We improve our clauses in the contracts with experience.” (O5)</i></p>
	<p>improved feedback mechanisms</p>	<p><i>“When you receive feedback about conflict, it improves you. Let's say I don't have a good archiving system. When you learn this, there may be situations where you will win while losing.” (A1)</i></p>
		<p><i>“After all, the world is changing so fast. Ways of doing business are changing very quickly, and expectations also change very quickly. You have to adapt to this change,</i></p>

		<p><i>and even your company's change has to be faster than the change outside. You need to foresee them and take steps accordingly. Therefore, we start evaluating the negative feedback of our partners. Because if there is criticism, there is improvement. In this regard, we take action immediately, such as receiving training or conducting a survey on this.” (A5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“I like the companies that give negative feedback. Because if there is criticism, there is improvement.” (A5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“One of our customers reproached us because his accounting files were late. They said if you don't fix it we won't work. This conflict caused systemic changes in us. Now we apply this rule: as soon as we give the document to the courier, copies of these documents should be sent to the customer by email. ” (A4)</i></p>
	<p>improvements in communication and coordination</p>	<p><i>“For example, when I took over the contract with a company in 2019, the customer thought that my only job was himself. As soon as they sent an email, they would write and call on WhatsApp. We had conflicts. I spoke face to face and he's my best client right now. I strongly believe that face-to-face meetings can be much more effective than phone calls.” (O2)</i></p>
		<p><i>“In fact, everything looks at the relations with the customer representatives after a certain point. I have a recent example. Here we had a shipment that couldn't be handled for two weeks at a very busy transit port. I spoke to the customer representative last week. After all the conflicts we went through, he took care of this week's loading schedule. Because of our communication and my kindness, he did everything he could.” (P3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Our containers were stolen. For this reason, we said that foreign agencies should regularly notify us of the containers that are not picked up after arriving at the port, so that we can get involved before it takes that long.” (O5)</i></p>

		<p><i>"We had a big conflict related to the customs process. In the beginning, I had to work in coordination with the destination of ice and do teamwork. If I'm selling end to end, I need to ensure that all my stakeholders agree on it. We had to follow the updates in customs. Learning this information cost me 25,000 pounds." (O2)</i></p>
	customer retention (loyalty) and brand awareness	<p><i>"This kind of thing happens a lot, especially with foreign customers rather than old customers who have worked for many years. If your new job is a mid-level company that has not yet integrated itself into you, you can turn this into an advantage by producing solutions. Look, this is how I solve it, I cover this cost, etc. If you go with things like that, you can catch the communication." (P5)</i></p>
		<p><i>"The problems we experience are usually the arrival of very old vehicles. Most of the time, we do not accept the vehicles and send them back so that new vehicles can arrive. The reason for this is that the products should be damaged during transportation because old vehicles shake a lot. It slows us down when loading or unloading. Newly produced vehicles or trailers save us a lot of time. We often experience these conflicts. When we have an argument with a company, a better, more experienced driver and a faster and bigger car are provided to win our hearts." (C1)</i></p>
		<p><i>"Situations such as saving 30-40 million dollars worth of goods from being garbage and reaching a solution even if the customer has an extra cost, and understanding this with your follow-up, caused us to do business with the customer in much larger lots. Trust and belief in working with a professional team also increased. It turned from a conflict into a very serious benefit." (O4)</i></p>

Outcomes of Conflicts		Quotations
Destructive outcomes	lost sales and customers	<i>"We have never been sued, but we could not get our client's business again. This was the most devastating outcome for us,</i>

		<i>loss of partner and income.” (P2)</i>
		<i>“Worst of all, loss of customers and money.” (C1)</i>
		<i>“Damage to financials. Job loss. My import volume has decreased. I will be out of stock, I cannot sell that product. I lost the market.” (C4)</i>
		<i>“You can have the remaining balance in the customer, you cannot get it for example after the conflict.” (P4)</i>
		<i>“The customer cancels all their orders, which is a financial loss.” (P4)</i>
		<i>“If this is a big customer, it says that you did not lose a small thing, you lost a container. You lost not one, but 4-5. Your portfolio in the sector moves to another side, you have financial losses.” (O1)</i>
		<i>“We had a customs sales process, where we did the customer's entire supply chain. We had a big conflict. In the beginning, I had to work in coordination with the destination office and do teamwork. If I'm selling end to end, I need to ensure that all my stakeholders agree on it. We had to follow the updates there. Learning this information costs me 25,000 pounds.” (O2)</i>
	dissolution of relationship	<i>“Sometimes customers say that if you fix these and these points, they will work with you. Some leave without making a sound.” (A4)</i>
		<i>“Our conflict was destructive. We have already withdrawn ourselves because of the attitude of the authorised person. We said directly, “We are not working with you, our business partnership is over”. (P4)</i>
		<i>“We part ways with reconciliation. Although it is very rare, there are companies that do not understand the importance of customs legislation, we patiently explain. If there is no progress, the cooperation ends automatically. If our partner</i>

		<p><i>cannot perceive the professional risks, the business will evolve into this.” (A5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“There are times when I deliberately raise conflicts and want to end the relationship. Just today, an Indian agency made a request from me and asked me for 50 dollars more money, while I normally don't care, I said that if you wave your hand, fifty agents are boiling over in India, we can't get a job from you, and your service has not been very good lately, so I said it's unacceptable, we'll cut the connection. We would elicit this tension because we believed we could get the same supply from someone else.” (P3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Sometimes, a customer may work with us only when it is necessary. It's like going to different companies in different places for the rest of things. Maybe we do not break down with the company one hundred percent, but the company is looking at alternatives.” (O2)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Sometimes, for example, the customer says that you are very good on the sea route, do not contact me by air cargo again, etc.” (A3)</i></p>
	brand prestige	<p><i>“Some leave without making a sound. It causes loss of customers. That's why it's a bad advertisement.” (A4)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We will carry 6 containers long distance and it has good returns. This coincided with my leave on Friday. I don't have a laptop, it is forbidden to give a personal phone. When I opened my mail on Monday, the vehicle was not sent and I received a ton of mail about it.” Then we realised that this was not about the operation, it was about the company that we outsourced. It was very destructive and our prestige was affected a lot. 3 years ago, this was a new project. Every job we did had to be good. PR was very important for us, it was necessary to do a flawless job.” (O1)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Commercial reputation is also very important for companies. Negative marketing on your behalf can lead to losses that you may not be aware of in the future.” (A5)</i></p>
	loss of trust	<p><i>“No matter how bad this news is, the most authorised person</i></p>

		<p><i>should give this news to the customer without wasting time. If available, it should be tried to procure materials from other places. If the supplier tells me the truth, I will find a solution that day. It makes me lie to the customer, too. This brings the conflict to the point where it cannot be resolved. This undermines trust in the company. When you do business, you constantly check.” (O5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“In the past, after receiving the booking confirmation from the shipowner, it was always said "Oh". Now when we go to buy the empty container, we can get the answer from them that there is no container even if there is a booking. Or, they often postpone the cargo, they say that we could not take the cargo to this ship, it is left to the next one. Therefore, on the operational side, there is a bit of prejudice against that shipowner or line.” (P3)</i></p>
	negative word of mouth	<p><i>“The circle of us all in the sector is very wide, when this conflict spreads from word of mouth, the prestige of the company and its attractiveness in the market also decrease.” (P4)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Customer complaints are one of the devastating consequences.” (C4)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Firms can be blocked, they can stop the decision to work. This can lead to financial and reputational damage. We live on social media, especially on LinkedIn, it is a great loss of reputation for us. A forwarder did it, it was a pretty big company. At this point, the CEOs have decided that this forwarder will never be worked with.” (O3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“If the company is a large company, any manipulation shared on social media can be understood in a very different way, such as fake news such as "this company did like this". Because this is the biggest problem in the world, since everything happens on social media, companies want to keep their social media very strong.” (C1)</i></p>
	compensations	<p><i>“There may be compensation other than loss of a customer. If you have damaged the cargo, the customer asks you for the price of it. You can lose the customer; the customer can lose</i></p>

		<p><i>their job. Your own trade may be harmed, and if such a dimension is happening, it will come back to you again. For example, we work with automotive manufacturers. For example, they inform us that if the load is not at the place and time they want during the process they give, you will have to cover certain costs. These are usually monetary penalties.” (P5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“The other day, for example, a vehicle with a hole in the curtain arrived. If he just puts his hand in it, he can buy the beer without breaking the seals. In this way, accident trailers and curtains cut as a result of theft are a waste of money and time for us.” (C1)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We may have to lower the price because of the conflict.” (C2)</i></p>
		<p><i>“It may have brought a cost disadvantage to us at some point. In order not to lose the customer, we can take alternative actions in the background, sometimes even at a loss, and proceed in that way. Therefore, if we do not lose the customer, we concede a big goal from cost items.” (C5)</i></p>
	operational disruptions	<p><i>“Most of the time, it caused the production plan to change, and unfortunately, the production plan had to be changed every month because the materials did not arrive on the date we wanted. It affected both production and our customers. So it was devastating.” (C2)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We also have conflicts with our customers about sudden demand changes, especially about the decrease or increase in demand. A customer can be both a supplier and a customer for us. Conflicts with them cause more delays in shipping products.” (C2)</i></p>
	decreased service quality	<p><i>“You may have to compromise on quality after the conflict process. Conflict interrupts the flow of products and materials, which disrupts supply chains. It may be difficult for us to obtain finished goods or raw materials, which could result in shortages and product replacements that could not be as high-quality as pre-conflict supplies.” (C3)</i></p>

	being in blacklist	<i>"The customer was immediately blacklisted by the top manager. He was unable to work even if he wanted to." (O1)</i>
		<i>"It is not possible to lose anything 100 percent in trade. For example, a customer blacklisted us. I called the customer 2-3 times in 1.5 years. He didn't even give me any information, but last week, they created a demand with the effect of the container crisis." (O2)</i>
	litigation process	<i>"Since the extra costs were not accepted by the parties and the necessary payments were not made, we had to go to court." (O4)</i>
		<i>"A penalty fee has arisen due to a situation that occurred in the responsibility area of the company we work with, and we reflect this on the invoice but they do not accept it. We say we will settle accounts in court." (P4)</i>
	human resources problems	<i>"It especially affected the workforce and caused a stressful and troublesome process. The mind of the friends dealing with that load and process was completely stuck in this. Phone calls were particularly intense." (P5)</i>
		<i>"You may lose your good staff. Customs consultancy firms provide their income with the service invoices they issue to the companies they serve. If a big company is lost, you may lose your employees working with you as a result of this." (A1)</i>

Dynamic Capabilities		Quotations
Coordinating capabilities	collaborative logistics arrangement	<i>"In the Far East, for example, since the freight rates have increased so much, the customer is trying to turn to partial instead of full truck load. Through collaborating with certain players going to the Far East side, we open a common console and when it reaches a certain volume, we organise the cargo for them in the fastest and most cost-effective way, taking into account time and volume based customer requirements. By doing this, we lower the likelihood of late deliveries leading to conflicts." (P3)</i>

	software integration	<p><i>"You cannot protect yourself from competition, but you have to take some actions to keep your customers. A good software program, a good integration, that is, a bilateral knowledge transfer is essential. If you integrate with them and take care of them very closely, you will not have a problem." (A1)</i></p>
		<p><i>"We make integrations to solve the problems related to payments faster, so it takes time to send the I document and enter this information back into my accounting system in order to transfer the accounting data we have to the company side faster." (A5)</i></p>
		<p><i>"We use collaborative platforms. We activate our own offices when there is serious traffic. Every detail is entered on the common platform and you give a price from there. If he approves, you send the documents over to him. You do your installation updates there, things like this can be done to resolve a faster and clearer communication." (P5)</i></p>
		<p><i>"There are actually two basic programs that we currently use within the company. There is a software system, one of which is SAP, and the other is a software system for us to follow our import-export operations and our relations with customs brokers as well as possible. The reason for this is a system established to both increase the follow-up and minimise the problems and errors experienced. Simultaneously, both us and our customs of icer can log in here and solve any problems that may arise immediately." (C2)</i></p>
	regular meetings with network members	<p><i>"The more we increase transparency, the better we inform companies. It is better for us. We hold regular meetings and receive one-to-one written feedback as a precaution." (A5)</i></p> <p><i>"I called my logistics service provider in the morning and evening so that we wouldn't have any problems, and I followed all the teams here closely. I set a meeting every morning. At the end of the meeting, we determined the action plans and informed them after each meeting. It's like getting an end-of-day report every day." (C5)</i></p>
	assessment/review meetings	<p><i>"We held evaluation meetings on how to solve the problem. After the canal was opened, import operations progressed very quickly with the arrival of the ship." (A5)</i></p>

		<p><i>"For example, in the UK incident, I held a meeting with the customer services on the other side, the customs team and my team here, etc. in the customs etc. parts. What was done wrong was revealed. Everyone offered solutions. We wanted to bring individuals together and manage the process in a coordinated manner. At the slightest problem, correspondence started immediately within that team."</i></p> <p><i>(O2)</i></p>
	emergency meetings	<p><i>"Currently, video calls with technology can be very effective in times of conflict. In the meantime, our manager came from Istanbul, saying that we needed to meet immediately."</i> (O3)</p>
		<p><i>"We solved the process by taking serial actions, I got the direct mobile number of the operation and even solved it that way. I also tried to talk to the company that I subcontracted, they didn't make me talk, the operation did. The only channel was phone and chat."</i> (O1)</p>
	JIT II concept	<p><i>"We, as xx company, have our own staff working in all the places we serve. In this sense, rapid coordination is achieved."</i> (O4)</p>
	negotiation-based coordination	<p><i>"By using good language, we convince everyone and meet on a common page. This is all we can do. Persuasion and negotiation are very important for us to calm the customer. We are trying to meet these criteria."</i> (O5)</p>
	multi agency teamwork-formation of new agencies	<p><i>"We go to the places where we have problems, establish an agency ourselves, employ management-oriented infrastructure and personnel, and go and do this job ourselves."</i> (A3)</p>
		<p><i>"Our competence was the formation of an agency partner on the customer side. We found a faster solution."</i> (P5)</p>
		<p><i>"Even though we are working with some global or local agencies, sometimes we ask for support from the agencies we have worked with in previous years. We both give them another chance and solve our own problems. In this way, we turn to different options with network development."</i></p>

		(C2)
multi agency teamwork- connection with existing backup agencies		<i>“Since we have a time difference in our office, in emergencies, I reach my agency. I can say that he acted as a bridge between us. It greatly decreased our workload and prevented conflicts.” (P4)</i>
		<i>“We received the approval to carry out the operation from Geneva. After receiving this approval, we said, “Can you return to the loading port (our agency) and request a change of destination?” This is how procedures changed. We did something like teamwork. Staff from 4 different countries (China, Turkey, Greece and Geneva).” (O4)</i>
		<i>“We activate our agency with a second sub-contract. Our shipping friends come into play. Fortunately, we had plans b and c there.” (P2)</i>
		<i>“We inform the agencies about the situation. We are telling them that “this load must go, put pressure on the airlines!” If we consider that the density of a cargo that will leave Frankfurt and the transit time is lower than the shipments we have given before, we say that we can send the cargo through a place like Warsaw. In a similar way, thanks to them, we can haul cargo from Ireland to London and send it by road instead of sending it from Dublin. We can't do this job if we don't have an agency in different countries.” (A3)</i>

Dynamic Capabilities of the Parties		Quotation
Control capabilities	IATA certification rule	<i>“There are 56 companies in Izmir that have IATA certificates like us. As an exporter, you cannot directly contact us as a customer without an agency with an IATA certificate. That's why we take action to make a difference and prevent these conflicts.” (A3)</i>
	shipping insurance	<i>“We have introduced an insurance called “shipping interest” and now we insure almost all of the shipments. We do not work with any supplier without carrier insurance. We do not work even if the price is low.” (A3)</i>

	exit-guaranteed contracts	<p><i>"We have special contracts to protect the customer and ourselves. Let's say there are 5 lines and ship owners. We are negotiating with them and in this process, we tell the ship owners (using our own brand or volume power) that "if you can provide us with these prices, we can give you this much TEU per month", but as a precaution, we still make contracts with exit guarantees." (P3)</i></p>
	long-term contracting	<p><i>"If we do not want a price hike in a period, we can put our long-term contract on the table and ask for it to be continued. We also increase our profit margin, and frankly, we put a little more pressure on the companies due to our business volume by making longer contracts as a precaution." (O2)</i></p>
	penalty for cancellations	<p><i>"We created an expense both in order to dominate the forwarder market and as a deterrent against reservation cancellations and fake reservations. Previously, there would have been BCF charges for the 2nd cancellation. Now they pay the BCF cost if they don't report it within 24 hours of the first cancellation." (O1)</i></p>
	standard operating procedures (SOP)	<p><i>"The actions we take are called SOP (Standard Operational Procedure). If you set your standards correctly (especially on the agency side), the problems will be prevented long beforehand. We make contracts, we get them signed. We introduce various compensation clauses. It is very difficult to foresee the problem, but it is quite possible to take action." (P2)</i></p>
	performance record keeping	<p><i>"For example, some weeks we give the customer a reservation for 50 containers, but we get 38. We keep charts that summarise the weekly performance of our customers then we compare the figures given in the agreement and in reality which show their performance. When it drops below 80-85 percent, we warn the customers so that there is no problem between us." (O2)</i></p> <p><i>"As soon as we realised the mistakes were recurring, we started to observe more carefully and keep records. As a precaution, we started to follow up on shipping for this specific agency."(C2)</i></p>

		<p><i>“Some criteria are followed constantly: who and which agent has been on the phone for how long, how many calls they received, how many of them were answered in how many seconds, how long did they solve the problem, how many orders were missed.” (O3)</i></p>
	customer satisfaction surveys	<p><i>“The other thing we care about is positive or negative feedback. We don't want problems to be ignored. In order to receive feedback, we also make surveys twice a year. Every year we ask them to rate us by adding other criteria.” (A5)</i></p> <p><i>“We have a survey that we send to the customer every quarter. But this is not a survey sent just for the sake of conversation, it is a survey followed by the head of ice from Denmark. When the client fills it out, it goes to my manager. It's really important.” (O3)</i></p>
	informative warnings on websites	<p><i>“In our digital field, for example, the errors received on our website are shown as an example to our customers. In this way, customers learn up-to-date which path they need to follow in the face of systematic errors.” (O1)</i></p>
	strict follow-ups	<p><i>“Now I have started to follow the news very often. If there is a shortage of export trucks, I also offer rail transportation as an offer, and I say to them that if you do not want to experience delays, it is expensive, but this is also available.” (P4)</i></p> <p><i>“We are making a very strict business plan in terms of logistics. We take care to be there about 15-20 minutes before the work starts. We say let's exchange ideas with our previous shift about the flow of work. The second is a very strict follow-up, after giving the job to the person concerned, you need to check immediately afterward to see if he has done it. People can be distracted, busy/ tired/ old. That's why we are constantly following the business plan and follow-up.” (C1)</i></p> <p><i>“It is necessary to go in coordination to work with closer contact and monitor more closely with a weekly or daily follow-up.” (C4)</i></p>

	systematic process development	<i>“We started holding meetings 7-8 months ago. We determined the gantt chart of the project, it was such a teaching. I can say that everyone has taken their share from here and made a profit.” (C5)</i>
		<i>“Apart from that, we systematically follow the template created for internal audits, actually auditing and partially directing both ourselves and the parties we work with, so we try to minimise conflict.” (C2)</i>
		<i>“We drew a flowchart. We told our customer what should happen at which stage. We created the job tracking codes of these files related to each flowchart. In these job tracking codes, the customer of the file can track the location of the file at any time via a link provided by our company. Our customer was also relieved about this.” (A5)</i>
		<i>“We used our procedures regarding who should step in at which stage, these were provided both by using our system infrastructure and by training” (A5)</i>

Dynamic Capabilities		Quotations
Planning capabilities	multi-modal transportation planning	<i>“Train connections are very strong in the USA, and it makes a lot of sense for the customers when I proactively offer the option of making the entrance of the counters from New York and sending them directly to the city of Seattle by train. Of course, it is expensive in terms of price, but if it is a product that will go into production, this option puts the customer at ease.” (P4)</i>
	sector-based segmentation and planning	<i>“The point that we have focused on the most lately is segmenting the customers as proaction. There are some groups here, FMCG or automotive electricity. We segment according to sectors, the aim is to establish different customer communication with longer-term customers. There is the cement industry, for example, the cost of goods is low, the freight is low, and our business style does not work with a freight focus. We call companies with high price sensitivity as “super saver” and direct them directly to the related</i>

	<i>departments.” (O2)</i>
spot bookings	<i>“Regarding the lack of equipment, we started to get spot booking as a solution. The pricing of the shipment is the same as for airway and seaway, and it is different for each ship, for example. We do this in order not to make the customer suffer.” (O3)</i>
split deliveries	<i>“For example, when the shipment is from Germany, we can divide that load and send it by road to Warsaw, which is a quieter region, wait for a day and fly it directly from here. In the past, frankly, we didn't get into these much, we were flying directly from Germany.” (A3)</i>
workflow planning	<i>“We create a flow chart and measure them constantly. We go over each of these with regular review meetings on how and for what time we carry out the operation. Again, after talking about the operation that took place there, we discuss the problems we encountered and the areas we can improve, both on our side, on the company's side, and on other suppliers, and we take on duties and responsibilities over them.” (A5)</i>
extended service offers (inland shipping offers in advance)	<i>“I warn the companies from the beginning that they carry internal shipping under my responsibility. So I can solve my problem with my direct subcarrier and we can collect the penalty costs that will arise from the insurance, after all.” (P4)</i>
equipment maintenance and renewal	<i>“We regularly renew the vehicles so that the supply chain does not stop.” (P4)</i>
pre-control processes (e.g. bill of lading draft check)	<i>“We make preliminary checks to prevent errors that may follow each other. For example, we check the bill of lading draft. There are so many things here, from the driver's visa to transit pass licence to the shipping document that you need to look at.” (A3)</i> <i>“Someone may have defined the process incorrectly in the system, or the system may not have taken into account the defined one and gave a number close to that amount. You check manually from the front so that the problem does not happen, you try to take extra stock. So you start checking 1 month in advance.” (C3)</i>

		<p><i>“While the loads are in the vehicle, we look to see if the seals are attached. We are also checking whether the curtain around the vehicle is open or not. We are walking around the car to see if there is a risky situation. The first thing I do is send an email with a photo to the logistics service provider when the vehicle is suitable for loading.” (C1)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Very serious preliminary analyses are being made. For example, based on km, we say that it takes up this much space in the warehouse and there is this much capacity. Shipped in so many days etc. Order management is like this. It provides effective planning.” (C3)</i></p>
	<p>buffer lead time planning & notification</p>	<p><i>“I notify the customers before I perform the shipment process. Normally, it takes 20 days, but I say it can take 45 to 50 days. I state that the costs arising from the delays will be reflected on your side.” (P4)</i></p>
		<p><i>“As a precaution, we say something like this, our average transit time is 45 days, but this estimated time can increase to 60 due to the density experienced at the transfer ports.” (O4)</i></p>
	<p>resource planning</p>	<p><i>“The number of production factories in Turkey has been increased from 2 to 8. Extra investment has been made. Besides, the customer order was tried to be taken into stock not 2 days in advance, but 10 days in advance.” (C3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Also, inaccessibility is a huge problem. For this reason, we have switched to the shift system for 5 years and every week someone is on duty. Let's say the customer's container could not enter the port on the specified day, for these situations we have become more accessible with the shift system.” (O3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“In order to prevent conflicts, we have formed our team from people who have experience and business management capabilities in the recruitment process.” (C1)</i></p>
		<p><i>“When you look at job postings, there are always postings for experienced people under the age of 35, but we only take those over the age of 35. They are so experienced that they predict in which tunnel the vehicle</i></p>

		<i>will be stuck in and give suggestions accordingly. We are trying to employ experienced people as a precaution. We try to support them with programs.” (O5)</i>
	extended supply base	<i>“While we used to ask for a price from a single supplier when importing, we are now starting to search for more suppliers. For example, when we are going to send cargo to Madrid, we say let's send it by the best air and let's have peace of mind, now we take into account the problems we have with them and ask other companies. In order not to encounter problems, we search for more alternatives and scrutinise them more closely.” (A3)</i>
	knowledge management	<i>“For example, in order to prevent the equipment crisis, we inform the forwarders on a weekly basis while making of ers from the beginning, that we can give you this many container reservations this week so that you plan yourself accordingly.” (O4)</i>
		<i>“We gave 2-week plans to forwarders. We wanted them to plan themselves accordingly. If I continue the old tradition and say that this load will come out in 10 days and send it, it is very clear that they will not be able to load it.” (C4)</i>
		<i>“We receive forecasts from our customers. They used to give very general answers, but now they understand the seriousness of the job so well that they used to say 35-40, now they learned to say 32 precisely.” (O4)</i>
	organisational reconfiguration	<i>“Since we work with independent departments, we worked by being directed through a single department during this period. This brought us to a serious coordination point. A department has come to tell us which customers we need to work with on a daily basis. He took responsibility for the extra.” (O2)</i>
		<i>“We have created other departments here, risk and insurance, for example, we have delivered this job to professionals, we have created a claim department. We have a team of 5 people in Istanbul that looks after files such as lost and damaged. These departments were added later.” (A3)</i>

	dynamic planning	<p><i>“For example, we have a certain departure point, especially on the airline side, we have received a reservation by air, that the cargo is about to fly, but according to the information received from abroad, it seems as if the flight will be cancelled. If it is an emergency material, we coordinate and check which airline is available at the point of departure, anticipate the risk and inform the customer in advance, and offer this option. The customer is happy even if he pays a large amount.” (P3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We dynamically think about and implement what should be implemented regarding the possible effects of legislative changes on us. In this way, the operation becomes much more seamless.” (A5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Let's say there is an equipment crisis in the Far East and we are looking at how we can help our business partners to overcome this crisis more easily. How can we keep our planning longer? We may need to give our suppliers a longer-term plan. We should make a more accurate follow-up of these and maybe compare our orders in the past years and make a prediction so that there is no conflict again.” (C4)</i></p>

Learning Capability		Quotations
Human resource management-related practices	terminology training	<p><i>“Most companies like ours constantly train their own employees for conflict situations. These are training on terms related to the job.” (P5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“After these conflicts, a concept called "supply chain school" emerged, similar to ISO training consisting of 15 parties. Everyone in the supply chain went there in 2-3 groups.” (C3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We draw the problems step-by-step schematically, these are called SOP tutorials. The resolution of invoices SOP, which will reduce the waiting cost of the containers waiting too long at the port, is like the SOP</i></p>

		<i>or the goods acceptance SOP.” (C5)</i>
	training on CRM	<p><i>“At this point, we give regular training to our friends, mainly on communication, for example, how companies will be greeted, how to respond when feedback is received, how improvement works will be carried out.” (A5)</i></p> <p><i>“There is communication training we have also received in order to improve our approach towards customers or suppliers, because some have been working for 10 years, some for 1 year. We have received these training sessions both individually and as a team.” (A3)</i></p> <p><i>“We train the whole team in dealing with difficult customers. How they should talk and how they should behave.” (O5)</i></p> <p><i>“With a 15-minute training, I explain how to answer questions from customers. Before we train the customer, we also need to be perfect. In short, it is very important to provide internal and external education.” (O1)</i></p> <p><i>“Conflicts have also been resolved with the initiative of the employees themselves, but apart from this, we received negotiation and sales training in order not to have any problems since an online system was introduced.” (P3)</i></p> <p><i>“We have conflict management training organised by our human resources department. Coordination is provided by our unit manager.” (A1)</i></p>
	personality development training	<i>“If someone is to be hired as this manager, there are many criteria to be considered, whether this person can engage with the personnel or agree with the subordinates, etc. For example, he should not be impulsive. After being accepted to the directorate, they go through a training course. How a manager should behave, how to manage the process, what to do with his</i>

		<p><i>team members, how to behave in case of any conflict.” (O3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Training is given under the name of stress management. Your personality profiles are created through the periodic work of human resources (HR). Efforts are being made to improve the areas where you are lacking.” (O4)</i></p>
		<p><i>“There is an education that we all receive in our first year. We learn how to relate to different personality types. The main reason for this is to prevent conflicts before they start or to manage them after they start. This training is very helpful in order to see his right side or to understand his way of thinking. It helps not to react suddenly and to understand the person in front of you.” (C2)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We have a serious personality inventory test and training. People are grouped into 4 main colours. If you want something from someone with a red character, we have a 30-page analysis .They say that you can share this with your teammates and know who is what colour and act accordingly.” (C3)</i></p>
	international trade and cross cultural training	<p><i>“In general, there is training on legislation in customs. Importers and exporters who work with us should have this training. This is where we experience the most conflict. You are in a university and you are obliged to teach your knowledge, but since I am a private company, I am not obliged. This is the duty of public institutions, but they also provide this training for a fee.” (A3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“The America line is the most important line, we provide training on the ways of doing business there, the regulations there, and the issues that need to be discussed with the customer who sells in America.” (O5)</i></p>
	mentoring	<p><i>“Performance interviews are held twice a year. We are meeting with our manager. Other than normal goals,</i></p>

		<p><i>there are personal goals. It focuses on character and development aspects. For example, if he says that he has trouble paying when asking for money from the customer, in order to give the manager a certain commercial perspective or to have a good command of the operational process. A coaching training is taken and this situation is monitored and followed.” (P3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We have an extremely high level of mentoring at the company. A meeting is held about how we feel at that moment.” (O2)</i></p>
		<p><i>“If you don't feel competent in conflict situations, there are examples such as one-on-one training or working one-on-one with someone with high-level experience to find a solution.” (O4)</i></p>
	counselling	<p><i>“Generally, at the end of 25-26 years, we start to receive training from outside universities.” (O5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“There is a survey conducted regularly and validated by many companies in the world under the name of Gallup, which is sent to us every year. The company measures the loyalty of each employee to the company and their relationship with other people. Accordingly, we can receive psychological counselling.” (O2)</i></p>
Experience-based learning	retrospective learning	<p><i>“As soon as we realised the mistake had recurred, we started to observe more carefully and keep records. We started to follow up for this agency in terms of loading. Then we told the agency how it affected us.” (C2)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We went to inquire about the recruitment procedure. There is a test called Thomas that can determine moments of stress, we question the part where we made a mistake. In the assignment, in understanding the company or in the person.” (A1)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Usually, we follow the flow from the system, and then we try to find out at what stage the problem occurred retrospectively, from which warehouse or when. We solve conflicts faster with tools, etc. This way, conflicts</i></p>

		<i>do not grow.” (C3)</i>
	case-based learning	<p><i>“Our director creates a case and tells it through bad examples, it's like a lesson, something like this happened in the relevant department, it should be done like this, there is this in the law, there is this in the customs rule, so that they must be followed.” (P5)</i></p> <p><i>“These are organised as vocational training. It focuses on a certain subject or in general, or there is a training that I have prepared, training about the problems experienced in customs, it includes small fine points for example.” (A4)</i></p>

Dynamic capabilities		
Reconfiguration capabilities		Quotations
Planning-based reconfiguration	rigorous planning	<i>“For a very long time, for example, the berthing dates of the ships were much more problematic. As I saw that the customers started to react very seriously on this issue, I saw that the ship programs have been implemented more meticulously and the notifications have been made more accurate. We have seen that many steps have been taken towards the level of perfection in that regard.” (O4)</i>
		<i>“For example, subcontracted companies will be selected accordingly, which will create a reconfiguration. While giving the promise that we can provide 7-24 vehicles, those thousand vehicles have really caused the subcontracted companies to be carefully selected. They work with companies that have a name and prestige.” (O1)</i>
	risk oriented plannings	<i>“Everyone learned that because there is a situation at the beginning of the crisis, it is necessary to go with an alternative. Even the 15-day delay has started to normalise. The customer started to make plans over 50 days instead of 35 days. We have</i>

		<p><i>learned to have alternatives and to ride with a joker in our pocket.” (P3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“Even before the end of this year, the actions to be taken in the third quarter of the next year began to be discussed and resolved.” (C5)</i></p>
Procedural-based reconfiguration	employing insurance practices	<p><i>“We have introduced an insurance called shipping interest, especially in airlines. Because here we encounter the least amount of loss and damage. Happens mostly on the highway. We insure almost all cargo now. We do not work with any supplier without carrier loader insurance. We do not work even if the price is low.” (A3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We have now learned to do something like a contract with companies. If there is a shipping process that is not organised by us, they usually do not accept confirmation via e-mail or in writing.” (P4)</i></p>
	introducing rules/sanctions/obligations	<p><i>“We do not work with those who do not want to abide by our contracts. We also have a lot of sanctions on suppliers in this regard.” (O5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We have made a procedural change, considering the waiting times and arrival of the containers, we are now able to see and withdraw from the system within 14 days after the ETA. A sanction was imposed, such as the obligation for customers to notify us of unloaded containers.” (O5)</i></p>
		<p><i>“We inform our customers about the risks that exist now. We started to add such items to emails.”(P5)</i></p>
<p><i>“Loads remained at the airport. Once, after this conflict, bluff-like situations began to be added to the mail; if it happens like this, it will happen like this in return.” (P4)</i></p>		
standardisation of transaction formats	<p><i>“After that moment, the data coming from them was connected to the standard, and it would be</i></p>	

		<p><i>transmitted like this from now on. In fact, we can say that the process has changed as a result of the conflict.” (C3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“a format was used so that that information would not be overlooked. For example, we have started to use certain tables while we are asking for prices with that information. There is a certain workload, but we have seen the benefits. It's good when you switch to the fixed formatting you call SOP. For example, does he have more than one load about the customers, he writes it over it. There are feedbacks about irrelevant loads.” (P3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“There were individual offers and formats. Everyone wrote differently disrupting the coordination. Thus time bookings were not being received and wrong invoices were being issued. We have created a bidding module that is both followed in the system and standardised internally. Thus, a systematic process has been formed between the sales side and the booking giver.” (O4)</i></p>
	establishing control mechanisms	<p><i>“We are constantly calling and getting confirmation, you said that, but will the load go for sure? You should not trust anyone or any situation.” (A3)</i></p>
		<p><i>“That's why a control mechanism was created. The customer representative makes a check after writing his own declaration. We get a random declaration and check it again. This is actually work done to not lose the company.” (A4)</i></p>
		<p><i>“That's why we add new checkpoints every year. We add the problems we experience to our checkpoints.” (C2)</i></p>
Technology-based reconfiguration	automated pricing systems	<p><i>“Pricing strategies have changed. Thus, we have reduced the workload and got rid of the excess mail. When the system is approved, the software makes automatic pricing. This has improved business and</i></p>

		<i>prevented problems from occurring.” (P5)</i>
	automated archiving/tracking systems	<i>“Since it is very difficult to pull something from the system or archive, we are trying to improve it. Now, we can easily answer any question and answer from the system regarding the uploads made in the past.” (P4)</i>
		<i>“Since a file is opened in the system, we plan to modernise the system we use in order to make it easier to follow. For example, when we search for the container number, we will be able to see the up-to-date details in our own system. I will be able to draw this as a report from here and not create a table myself and send it to the customer.” (P4)</i>
		<i>“We have made a systemic change, considering the waiting times and arrival of the containers, we are now able to see the cargo that does not return within 14 days after the ETA.” (O5)</i>

Conflict transformation			
Actor transformation	power practices of customers	<i>“If you can find containers, you are valuable as a forwarder, and if you can provide services, you are valuable as a shipowner. The precious have the right to speak. We don't negotiate like before, we don't have to make concessions. This power will be on the side where the demand is intense. This happens according to the supply and demand balance in every period.” (P2)</i>	increasing power of logistics and shipping companies
		<i>“..Because of all these, we forwarders and shipowners are now in a fair position, and the customers are also “unfair” because they cannot do their job otherwise. The balance we want is achieved for now.” (P2)</i>	
		<i>“In the past, conflicts depended on timing.</i>	

		<p><i>Everyone was trying to produce different designed products, but now where can we procure cheaper and where can we move forward with more cost advantages? How can we live our lives without the price increases reflected on the markets? Everyone is focused on this right now, especially in the last year. We were talking about different things before, we were talking about making a different innovation for the product so that more advertisements would come out. We were more focused on quality, but we see the competitors, how much cheaper we can make it in prices, how much more cost advantage we can provide. Everyone's a little more focused on this, for example, if the financing is delayed, we used to have discussions like "let's bring it by plane no matter what, but right now What alternative can we find?" (C5)</i></p>	
Issue transformation	lack of alternatives	<p><i>"The warehouseman was thinking that this company has to have me to store the container, now there are too many alternatives, even if you run a warehouse, you have to satisfy your customer. , If there is a problem, we want suppliers who have the capacity to solve the problem. We expect them to improve their service quality. We work with those who do. You are looking for an interlocutor in a conflict, you used to call and you could not find an addressee. Now there is an interlocutor, they solve it to the extent that they can." (O5)</i></p>	customer satisfaction and quality issues
	cost of services	<p><i>"In particular, customs consultancy service fees related to exports have hit rock bottom due to competition. In 2011, a military wage statement was published by the undersecretariat, which led customers to</i></p>	

		<p><i>receive better quality service at the same price. How do you provide quality service? You need to inform the companies about the legislation, and secondly, you need to ensure that the companies receive the reports with some extra systems you will provide. Or you need to reduce the burden of companies by integrating. It is precisely in these stages that conflicts arise now. In summary, the conflicts changed due to the change in the direction of their rivalry. Price is no longer a variable.” (A1)</i></p>	
	<p>cost of freight</p>	<p><i>“In the past, our only concern was to meet the freight, retain the customer, and minimise the costs with the suppliers and offer the freight advantage to the customer. At the moment, the company that is good at serving the customer takes the lead. Every month, every week, every ship has these problems, so now the customer cares about those who can provide service.” (O2)</i></p>	
		<p><i>“Before the pandemic, only and only freight was talked about. Covid affected production seriously. There was a production boom. Where freight was spoken in the past, now it is spoken to give empty equipment. In the past, lot loads were appetising, and it was attractive. But today, since there is a serious problem with the supply of equipment, instead of giving 80 containers to a single customer, you are trying to divide 80 containers to more customers with lower quantities. But you can't break some customers, of course, if you are a strategic partner rather than a customer, you give some of them. But if you give 10, you draw 9 to 8. Conflicts turned to this.” (O4)</i></p>	
		<p><i>“This seems like a bit of opportunism, especially in terms of shipowner-sea lanes. 2</i></p>	<p>dominance and opportunism</p>

		<p>years ago, when we tried to bring 40 containers from any main port of China, we were paying a maximum of 2500 dollars, but now it is 13-14 thousand dollars. There is a very serious increase. Since the commodity value of the goods received from the customer also increased, the business became inextricable due to the exchange rate effect. Yes, we know that it was caused by the situation between the USA and China last year, but when we look at this year, they seem to be shrugging off each other, but in the information we receive, for example, we get information that the ship owner has closed the first three months of 2020. Nobody here has good intentions. As the customer in the market, we are the victim as a forwarder. But we have come to a point where we are completely dependent on the owner's hand.” (P3)</p>	
	pricing and documentation issues	<p>“There are issues with pricing. Since we do the final transaction in our sector, together with our own service invoice, the freight of the shipping company, fees such as evacuation and depreciation, the waiting fees of the storage companies such as warehouses, the overtime fees of the customs administration must be paid and the receipt must be paid by you. We have difficulties in the proper management of this process. As the infrastructure brought by digitalization progresses, I see that the problems are decreasing here. Now I can say that the problem is generally related to technological developments and adaptation to them.” (A5)</p>	adaptation to digitalisation
	customer relationship	<p>“In the CRM program we have, everyone can be involved in a subject. In the past, your</p>	

	management issues	<p><i>customer used to write to you, they were in touch with you, but now the requests are on a common queue. In this case, the customer tells you a problem and then tells me. There are also phone calls, independent of emails, for example. You are sending 2 different emails for two different subjects, you cannot write in the same email. Therefore, there are problems in response time to the customer. The company has set the CRM system digitally, and now transactions are made with the customer in a maximum of 4 hours. Other companies are just getting started. But in this process, too much tolerance is shown to the customer. You will receive dangerous goods, for example, the information that needs to be uploaded to the system is very clear, and on the contrary, you cannot fill in incorrect or incomplete information. In short, conflicts arise from the adaptation process.” (O1)</i></p>	
Structural transformation	reliability on forwarders	<p><i>“We may have a problem with them prioritising customers. Lines generally prefer easy-to-carry loads of light tonnage. Sometimes we may not accept loads due to heavy tonnage, or we may use our right of choice for products in another sector (eg white goods). This causes conflict. We also want to work directly with customers within ourselves. Because the forwarder is not reliable because it has too many options outside of us. In order not to request services from them, we started consolidating, for example, we used to normally not enter the process of a customer. Currently, the employees of our company go to very big sports brands and separate the products according to their partial numbers and order numbers. We are in companies. Lines will go into everything. What causes us to have conflicts with the local forwarders as we have naturally eliminated</i></p>	disintermediation of forwarders

		<i>them.” (O3)</i>	
		<i>“..for example, real shippers are much more important to us, because there is no forwarder in between. Since they contact us directly, they have certain price advantages.” (O3)</i>	
Rule transformation	manual system requirements	<i>“Now, we got through the process where we had problems by going door to door and switched to e-declaration. These are huge breakthroughs for our country. We are one step ahead compared to the past, but we are 20 years behind compared to abroad. As the shipowner, we do not provide flexibility and we don't take risks. If another ship owner provides this flexibility, and we do not, we are called a difficult company. Unless we take the same decisions and have them enforced by the customer, a consensus cannot be reached.” (O5)</i>	lack of consensus in applied rules
	fraud and corruptions	<i>“I could make the customs do anything I wanted. You know that the powerful could get people to do anything with bribes. There was a lot of conflict because there was no specific rule. They realised that it could not be done with the pandemic. For example, they faced severe penalties when they worked with companies that ensured they could provide flexibility. The goods had to be returned to the country they went to. We say it from the beginning, but they don't like it, but then they experience it themselves.” (O5)</i>	
Context transformation	conflict among channel members	<i>“There is a minivan option on the highway. We also have our own highway department in our own company. But our biggest competitor in the European region has started to be our own highway department. The minivan option delivers in 36-48 hours, and frankly, such a blow to air cargo. Before Covid-19 pandemic,</i>	conflict among in-house departments

		<i>companies were competing with each other.” (A3)</i>	
	conflict among in house departments	<i>“When I first entered, there were more human-induced conflicts. Now it has evolved into an outsourcing and covid point.” (C2)</i>	Covid-19 and outsourcing
		<i>“In the past, there were conflicts on the basis of individuals. Because of their actions. Now I can say that it has turned more systematically in terms of technology.” (C3)</i>	



APPENDIX C: CURRICULUM VITAE

She received her undergraduate education with a 100% Academic Success Scholarship at Izmir University of Economics, Department of Logistics Management and the Department of International Trade and Finance with the Double Major Program. During her undergraduate education, she spent 6 months at the Netherlands HanzehogeSchool Applied Sciences University with the Erasmus Exchange Programme. After graduation, she was accepted as a Project Scholar by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TUBITAK) to the "Shipment Consolidation and Planning Problems" project, then continued to Izmir University of Economics Logistics Management Master's Program with an Education and Research Support Scholarship. She is currently a research assistant at İzmir University of Economics and finished her studies in Business Administration