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Military Supply Chain Logistics and Dynamic Capabilities: A Literature Review and Synthesis

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ABSTRACT

Military supply chain logistics (MSCL) managers have pioneered innovation and thought in supply chain management (SCM). Given the ongoing conflicts and escalating international tensions of our world today, understanding the unique attributes and capabilities that shape MSCL management is imperative for navigating the broader international trade landscape. MSCL managers develop and employ unique capabilities that allow them to dynamically balance efficiency, responsiveness, and agile deployment while handling sudden surges during conflict-driven disruptions. This literature review and synthesis offer insights into the evolution of MSCL and highlight its exceptional relevance to navigating the current global trade environment by integrating the findings with relevant business theories. The synthesis of MSCL's distinctive capabilities not only clarifies its importance in military operations but also provides valuable insights for business logistics and other sectors within broader SCM environments.

1 | Introduction

Throughout history, military supply chain logistics (MSCL) managers have driven supply chain performance during times of conflict. Amid ongoing operations and escalating tensions within the geopolitical and trade landscape, it is essential to comprehend MSCL's unique capabilities in addressing conflict and crisis within volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) environments that support management theories informing change and sustained competitiveness, particularly found within the boundaries of dynamic capabilities (DC) theory. Within the MSCL domain, formalized theories proffered by early thought leaders such as Jomini (1862), Mahan (1911), and Thorpe (1917) were rare and remained largely unchallenged in their theoretical views until after World War II (Kent and Flint 1997; Rutner et al. 2012). Following this nascent period, however, a departure occurred between *MSCL* and *Business Supply Chain Logistics* theory and practice. MSCL research eventually became a niche research domain within a few universities and was subordinated to a "traditionalist" view (Larson 2009; Zsidisin et al. 2020). Several calls for research development within the MSCL domain have claimed overlooked cross-over value between the two fields (Yoho et al. 2013; Zsidisin et al. 2020). Current volatility challenges in supply chain management (SCM) demand an approach that is more prevalent in the context of MSCL or humanitarian logistics (HL), which balances efficiency and leanness with agile deployment and effective responses to sudden surges (Kovács and Tatham 2009).

The purpose of this research is to explore the contextual factors that influence the MSCL environment and DCs that enable MSCL, thereby contributing to supply chain theory and practice from the responsive context of MSCL. There are few scholarly outlets specifically focusing on MSCL research, with at best an intermittent concentration on the subject overall (Zsidisin et al. 2020). Previous initiatives have acknowledged this gap;

however, the resulting projects were short-lived (Gansler and Lucyshyn 2005; Shaffer and Snider 2014; Zsidisin et al. 2020). Nonetheless, there are some examples of English-speaking MSCL-focused outlets. The US DoD's Defense Acquisition University (DAU) has published a refereed journal, Acquisition Review Quarterly (now the *Defense Acquisition Research Journal*), since 1996. The *International Journal of Defense Acquisition Management*, a joint effort of Cranfield University (UK) and the Naval Postgraduate School (US), operated between 2008 and 2014. The US Air Force Institute of Technology produces graduate research on defense logistics and has published the *Journal of Defense Analytics and Logistics* since 2017. The US Naval Postgraduate School's (NPS) Acquisition Research Program (ARP), which has been in operation since 2003, produces and promotes scholarly research on defense acquisition. The US Air Force Logistics Management Agency published the periodical Air Force Journal of Logistics from 1997 to 2011. Although logistics-focused outlets have predominantly been American efforts, other countries have developed outlets that contribute to MSCL development, such as *The Scandinavian Journal of Military Studies* (Nordic Countries), *Defence Studies* (UK), *Defence and Peace Economics* (UK), *Defense & Security Analysis* (UK), *Journal of Defence Studies* (India), *Journal of Military and Strategic Studies* (Canada), *Korean Journal of Defense Analysis* (South Korea) (1989–2010), *Australian Journal of Defence and Strategic Studies* (Australia), and *Security Challenges* (Australia).

In the remainder of this paper, the researchers outline the progression of MSCL theory and practice. The researchers then describe the extant MSCL domain and DC theory to set the stage for the research. The literature review methodology and results are presented, followed by a synthesis of the findings on MSCL with DC theory. The paper concludes with a discussion of the implications for theory and practice.

2 | Military Supply Chain Logistics Thought Progression

The broad lines of SCM thought prepare a base from which to compare those of MSCL. It was Heskett (1962) who first connected product "movement control" and "demand–supply coordination." However, the term "supply chain management" was first introduced in the 1980s and is attributed to a consultancy firm's publication (Oliver and Webber 1982). This introduction was part of a broader effort to strategically legitimize SCM (Ellram and Cooper 2014; Frankel et al. 2008). The growing recognition of the Japanese competitive advantage from such an integrated approach fueled industry recognition. This recognition led to academia taking notice, with examples such as the merging of purchasing and transportation logistics departments (Ballou 2007; Carter and Ellram 2003; Southern 2011).

Kent and Flint (1997) provide an overview of the evolution of SCM, from transportation costs in early 20th-century agriculture to a more holistic view of logistics as part of the extended value chain of the firm in the 1990s (Porter 1990). In the final stage in the Kent and Flint (1997) framework, the authors advocate for behavioral and boundary-spanning research, concluding a modern need for deep integration, proposing "... a great opportunity to bring marketing, engineering, operations management, and logistics closer together. This stage includes examining the lessons the military has learned and incorporating them into business" (p. 26). Despite such a call, cross-sectoral learning and MSCL essentially went unadopted. Thus, justifying the cross-over understanding between different SCM contexts, this research will situate the last century of MSCL thought progression under the Kent and Flint (1997) framework, summarizing this section with Table 2 before further classifying MSCL in the following section.

While the broader SCM audience has recognized numerous contributions of MSCL, significant contributions still need widespread acknowledgment. This section highlights some of the major origins, relevant to this research's interests in the dynamism of the military supply chain (MSC). MSCL thinking can be divided into two schools of thought: historical reflection and operational practice (Yoho et al. 2013). These schools of thought span various functional specialisms such as *distribution*, *procurement*, and *funding*, *materiel management*, *engineering*, and *maintenance* (JCS 2019; MoD 2015; NATO 1997).

The quote "The line between disorder and order lies in logistics" is often attributed to Sun Tzu, a Chinese military strategist from the 6th century BC, in his treatise *The Art of War* (Tzu 2008). However, the exact phrase was not written by Sun Tzu himself but rather was derived from a loose interpretation of an opaque translation that includes references to deception and concealment amidst "disorder." This passage of Tzu's writing emphasizes the importance of tactical advantages and capabilities, or a "fund of latent energy," in achieving success in military strategy. In other words, the quote draws a connection between military strategy, capacity, and dynamic effect (Tzu 2008, 87).

The term "logistics" originated from military writings, referring to war campaign planning, strategy, and tactics (Rutner et al. 2012; Yoho et al. 2013). The first formal use of the term can be traced back to the Swiss military strategy theorist Baron Antoine Henri Jomini in his treatise Art of War (Precis De L'art De La Guerre, Jomini 1862). In a chapter dedicated to "logistique," Jomini defined logistics as the "practical art of moving armies." In this discourse, Jomini concluded that logistics could lead to competitive advantage some 200 years before business corporations reached the same conclusion (Rutner et al. 2012).

In 1888, Lieutenant Charles C. Rogers introduced naval logistics at the Naval War College (NWC). Not long after, Admiral Alfred Thayer Mahan, a lecturer at the NWC, built on Jomini's strategic view of logistics, which focused on the provision of troops, munitions, medical services, and communication between components of a field army and between the army's base of operations and the theater of war. Mahan incorporated the concept of "communications" into logistics, emphasizing the importance of information and material flow in logistics management, stating, "Communications mean essentially, not geographical lines, like the roads an army has to follow, but those necessaries, supplies of which the ships cannot carry in their own hulls beyond a limited amount." (Mahan 1911, 75). It is unclear why "communications" was termed (Crowl 1986), but in choosing to amalgamate information and materiel flow rather than differentiating them it is possible that Mahan was conceptualizing a non-linearity in

their necessary effect (Loska 2021). Mahan also espoused the belief that preparedness for war in peacetime was the best way to preserve peace during the US military sector's expansion prior to WWI (Brunton 1988).

Shortly after Mahan, U.S. Marine Corps, Colonel George C. Thorpe proposed "Pure Logistics" (1911) as

> .... a scientific inquiry into the theory of Logistics—its scope and function in the Science of War, with a broad outline of its organization. Applied Logistics rests upon the pure, and concerns itself, following general principles, with the detailed manner of dividing labor in the logistical field in preparation for war and in maintaining war during its duration.
>
> (p. 9)

Rear Admiral Henry E. Eccles later linked the *operational* and *economic* environment of military logistics to strategic effectiveness (Eccles 1958, 1958), positing that "Logistics must have its roots in the economy. It has its purpose, its objective, in the sustained effectiveness of the combat forces, and, thus, logistics becomes the bridge between the national economy and the tactical operations of the combat forces." (Eccles 1958, 27).

Despite the military sector's early contributions to SCM, MSCL is perceived as "...an interdisciplinary field of professional practice with neither an explicit underlying theory nor much evident interest in the development of theory. The result is a general lack of any activities that could lead to an understanding of the important questions and enduring themes that might define acquisition as a unique area of research." (Shaffer and Snider 2014, 469)

A significant cross-over period of the military's impact on civilian supply chain practice occurred with Jay Forrester's (1958) work on integrated and dynamic systems. Forrester noted that military necessity led to the development of new devices and social forces later adapted for civilian use. He proposed, "Historically, military necessity has often led not only to new devices like aircraft and digital computers but also to a new understanding of social forces. These developments have then been adapted to civilian usage. Such new exploration is now happening in the military command (or management) function." (Forrester 1958, 39). Military project management is considered the "very cradle of project management as a discipline" (Engwall 2012, 597), integrating project applications like the US Navy's Fleet Ballistic Missile program (Polaris) and Atlas/Titan Inter-Continental Ballistic Missile (ICBM) projects (US Air Force). The techniques underpinning these projects, such as PERT (program evaluation and review technique), quickly gained civilian recognition and emulation (Engwall 2012; Sapolsky 1972). However, the rigidity of these project management network models also created an opportunity to develop SCM theoretical underpinnings.

Williamson's Transaction Cost Economics (TCE) theory (Williamson 1975) continues to be a fundamental framework informing SCM insights (Williamson 2008; Richey et al. 2022). Williamson's lesser-known early work with the RAND Corporation to oppose the Total Package Procurement (TPP) demands of US Defense Secretary McNamara demonstrates the overlap between MSCL and TCE thought development (Lofgren 2017). TPP encumbered the government by focusing on validating target costs in large long-term military contracts by acquiring an entire program in only two fixed-price contracts for development and production. Williamson (1965) advocated instead for more *task specificity*, increasing the number of contracts and reducing complexity through iteration, giving a wide berth in time and space to address uncertainty. After the failures of the C-5A and ICBM, his ideas were adopted, with contracts being "broken down into smaller, more manageable segments" (US House 1969, 4308), and the US Congress later championed this approach. Williamson's work led to the current five-phase (three milestone decision) Defense Acquisition System used today (DoD 2020; Lofgren 2017). While the connections between MSCL and commercial supply chain practices and education have sometimes been forgotten, there has been a significant exchange of knowledge between them (Zsidisin et al. 2020).

Figure 1 provides a timeline of historical thought on military logistics, adopting style from Hätönen and Eriksson (2009) and framed within the Kent and Flint (1997) themes, the ML functional domains (JCS 2019; MoD 2015; NATO 1997) tracing and extending the *historical* and *operational* lines of thought within MSCL over the past century, drawing from recent reviews (Elder 2005; Dowdill 2007; Rutner et al. 2012; Yoho et al. 2013; Shaffer and Snider 2014) and military logistics histories (Carlin 1986; Falk 1986; Goure 2010; Huston 1997; Rutenberg and Allen 2000; Snyder and Smith 2000; Stewart 2005; van Creveld 1977) including those histories more specific to *physical distribution* (Hauk 1964; Matthews and Holt 1992; Conrad 1994; Herberger et al. 2015) *acquisitions* and *procurement* (Brown 2005; Converse 2005; Lofgren 2017) *reform* (Brown and Moody 2005; McCormick et al. 2015) and *integration* and *joint logistics* (Babbitt 1976; Talley and Vigneron 1992).

3 | Classification of Military Logistics

The MSC is, in many ways, conceptually similar to commercial supply chains, but there are many differences. Before WWII, military logistics research dominated thought and largely focused on physical distribution, but researchers later differentiated between *military* and *business logistics* (Hauk 1964; Kent and Flint 1997). Business logistics researchers began to focus on aspects and functions of the supply chain, while military thinking was more integrative and operational. For an important example of this classification, *purchasing* in business logistics was passive and subservient to operations management until the later twentieth century when the 1973–1974 oil crisis ransomed global production (Ammer 1974; Ellram and Carr 1994). Following this period, the importance of purchasing within business logistics enjoyed a strategic renaissance with Porter (1980, 1985).

On the other hand, an important distinction for MSCL is that *purchasing* is inseparable from *logistics* and "*acquisitions*" (Lofgren 2017; Zsidisin et al. 2020). Despite this closeness, however, the integration between the two still presents challenges in overcoming the military's strict bureaucratic system to exploit the innovative potential of the industrial base (Cohee

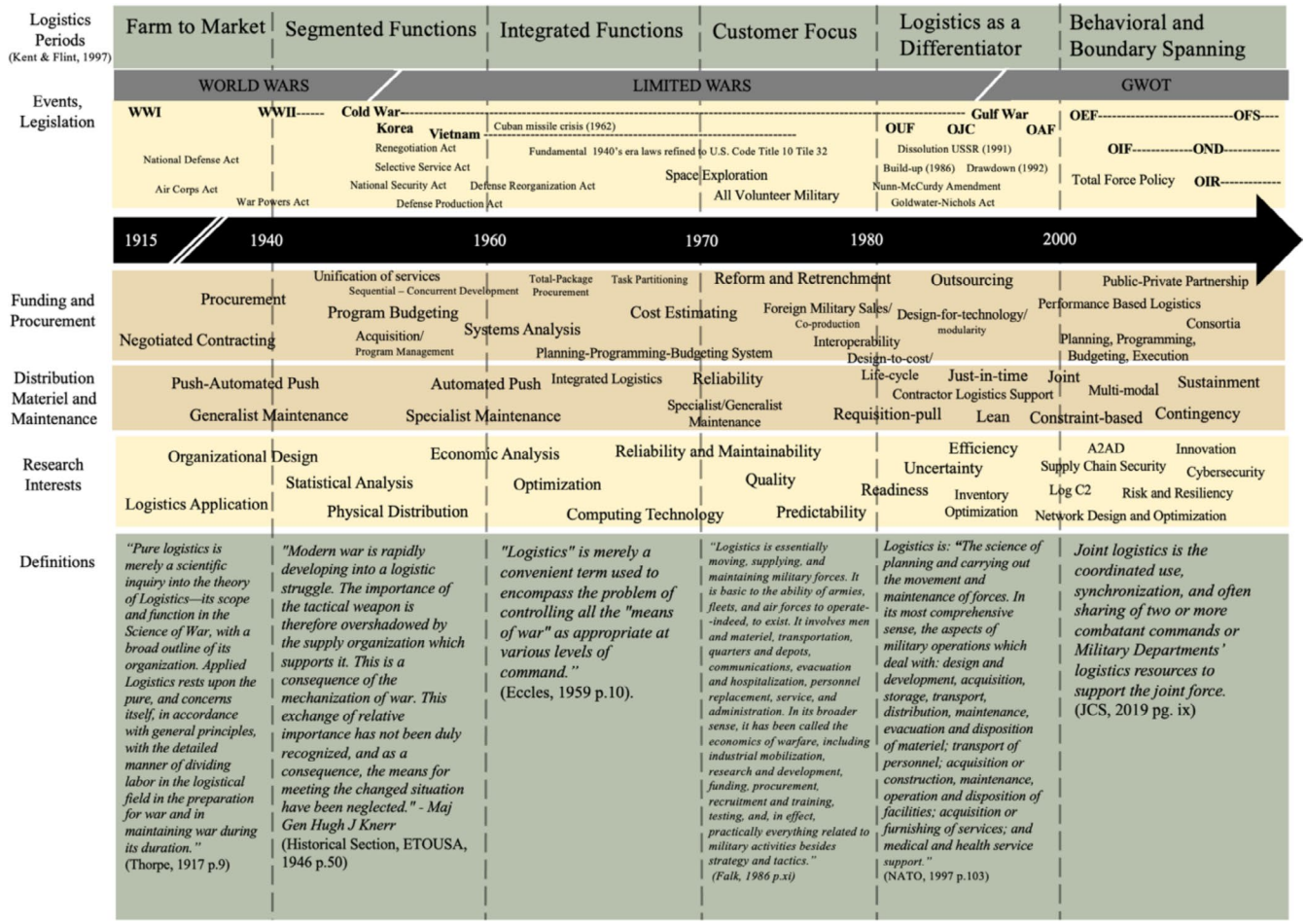

FIGURE 1 | Timeline of historical and operational thought in military logistics with US military emphasis (*Source:* The authors).

et al. 2019). Purchasing has a long history in military operations (Williams 1981; Rutenberg and Allen 2000). The semantical contours of *acquisition* can be traced to the broadening of negotiated contracting in 1940, with the passage of the US Navy Reorganization Act and perhaps the first official use of the term *acquisition* in relation to *procurement* (Brown 2005). Peck and Scherer's (1962) publication, *The Weapons Acquisition Process: Economic Analysis*, integrated the term *acquisition* into the previously segmented functions of research, development, purchasing, and production, which to this point was generally referred to as *logistics* or *procurement*.

According to Post (1986), the late 1940s were the "Pre-Logistics Era," and the 1950s–1970s were the "Logistics Era." During this later period, the purchasing function within corporations was introduced to work alongside previously isolated departmental specialisms to achieve better quality, lower costs, and improved speed. This shift toward a more cooperative system of activities that included other areas, such as purchasing within logistics, was influenced by Industrial Economics (Forrester 1958; Heskett 1962), and the identification of the total cost of supply perspective in deciding what to retain in-house and what to buy from third-party manufacturers (Kent and Flint 1997). Within this frame, Forrester (1958) finds cross-over value between military and business operations, emphasizing the importance of strategic and dynamic planning and preparation:

> As the pace of warfare has quickened, there has, of necessity, been a shift of emphasis from the tactical decision (moment-by-moment direction of battle) to strategic planning (preparing for possible eventualities, establishing policy, and determining in advance how tactical decisions will be made). Likewise, in business: as the pace of technological change quickens, corporate management, even at lower levels, must focus more and more on strategic problems of running the business and less and less on the everyday operating problems.
>
> (p. 39)

Classifying supply chain types based on their distinct end-goal is challenging largely due to the great similarities between them. However, doing so can aid in demonstrating the interplay between domains and demonstrate how the theory can inform and be informed by specific context (Ertem et al. 2010).

The MSC is a complex economic and operational environment where a steady state and a surge state co-exist precariously. Operationalization for a surge response may be provoked at any time (Ekström et al. 2020; Emmanuel-Ebikake et al. 2014). MSCL networks face high levels of uncertainty due to volatile demand. In MSCL, demand can vary greatly. Lead times range from stable to zero, with the inclusion of an event-driven

demand environment for products with long operating life cycles (Sokri 2014).

These adaptive MSCL contexts have given rise to the development of a theory that examines the psychological nature of adaptive combat and competitive exploitation, such as John Boyd and his famous OODA loop, which has inspired research in commercial contexts and DC (Teece 2023).

Though governance of militaries varies greatly between countries, in democratic nations, similar to other public service supply chains, MSCs are held accountable to legislative bodies, laws, and regulations to maintain a specific level of readiness at the lowest cost. Moreover, unlike private companies, they are not accountable to shareholders or a board of directors (Larson 2009). Larson (2009) finds that while SCM is narrowly focused as a function of procurement in public chains compared to commercial contexts, public chains also contribute to service perspectives rather than manufacturing and have developed a view of public procurement as a strategic tool (Patrucco et al. 2024). On the other hand, commercial business contexts are oriented toward achieving cost efficiencies, from which segmentation and design strategies such as lean and agile have emerged (Basnet and Seuring 2016; Christopher and Towill 2001; Fisher 1997).

MSCs differ from commercial SCs regarding supplier relationships, as the former often deals with oligopolies and near-monopolies in supplier product segments (Humphries et al. 2007). The military market sector consists of high barriers to entry in terms of finance and technology, resulting in deep interdependence across the MSC, ranging from transactional spot buying to long-term partnerships (Humphries and Wilding 2001, 2004). Research by Humphries et al. (2007) exploited the interdependent nature of these relationships to further develop theories regarding conflict and trust within a transaction cost framework, which has promoted additional methodological development into the structures of SC relationships (Downard et al. 2023; Khalid et al. 2023; Loska, Genchev, et al. 2024). The medical supply chain also can be thought of as an "industrial base" that is highly regulated and has significant financial and technological barriers (Starr 1983), but is dissimilar to MSCL in lead time and demand characteristics and in its overall objectives (Abdulsalam et al. 2015; Dobrzykowski 2019). Abdulsalam et al. (2015), for example, promote the conceptualization of inter- and intra-organizational boundaries "in and of" the healthcare supply chain, which encourages further research into the cross-sectional boundaries of this base. This is conceptually helpful in its comparison to the defense industrial base (Loska, Rich, et al. 2024; Nyaga, Whipple, and Lynch 2010).

While the MSCL and HL share similarities in their complex and multi-location networks, event-driven environmental instability, and "surge" conditions (Cook et al. 2005), they operate differently in regard to their unique operational objectives and distinctiveness of materiel flow (Christopher and Tatham 2011; Kovács and Tatham 2009). Kovács and Tatham (2009) published the most detailed comparison of these two domains, which has outlined the underlying assumptions of responsive contexts within the paradox between stability and change (Loska, Rich, et al. 2024). Table 1 presents a cross-comparing classification of different SCs.

Rutner et al. (2012) suggest that Business Logistics and MSCL offer each other shared opportunities for innovation and best practices. While motivated by profit and national interest, MSCL leaders must balance both factors when dealing with partner firms to avoid market dependencies and lock-in effects, and achieve mutual gains (Beske 2012; Siems et al. 2021), carefully evaluating potential partners and achieving a balance between national interest and commercial viability; management of DCs can leverage supply chain advantages and ensure requisite organizational resilience (Fawcett et al. 2012; Pereira et al. 2014; Raltson et al. 2017; Teece 2007). Exploring the overlap between these areas could provide valuable insights for both business and military sectors.

3.1 | From VUCA to Dynamic Capabilities

The MSCL domain is characterized by volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (VUCA) due to the unpredictable nature of military operations. The VUCA concept, which underpins DC theory (Schoemaker et al. 2018), originated in the US Army after the Cold War and holds significance in enabling leaders to analyze and comprehend environmental uncertainty and risk (Bennis and Nanus 1985; US Army 2021).

Dynamic capabilities, as defined, entail a firm's capacity to integrate, develop, and reconfigure internal and external competencies to effectively address rapidly changing environments (Teece 2007). This concept is widely applicable and relevant in strategic management literature, including research within SCM. DCs enable a company to attain long-term superior performance and a sustainable competitive advantage through effective organizational learning and innovation (Winter 2013; Masteika and Cepinskis 2015). These capabilities are indispensable for survival in competitive, barrier-free environments (Schoemaker et al. 2018). Ordinary static capabilities prove inadequate in turbulent settings, necessitating the development of agile DC to adapt to evolving environments and market opportunities (Teece et al. 1997; Pralahad and Hamel 1990), achieved through the reconfiguration or "creative destruction" of existing resources to seize new and future prospects (Masteika and Cepinskis 2015).

Although previous studies have applied the DC model to military logistics corps in Malaysia and Brazil (Brick 2019; Rahman and Hamid 2019), the use of DCs within military logistics corps in VUCA-driven environments is still relatively underexplored. Nevertheless, given the non-linear, iterative, and unpredictable aspects of the supply chain, the DC model proves to be a suitable approach for studying military logistics. The concept of DCs, which allows a firm to integrate, develop, and reconfigure both internal and external competencies to address rapidly changing environments effectively, is widely applicable and relevant in strategic management literature, including research within SCM. In particular, DCs enable a company to achieve long-term superior performance and a sustainable competitive advantage through organizational learning and innovation (Masteika and Cepinskis 2015; Winter 2013). These capabilities are indispensable for survival in competitive and barrier-free environments (Schoemaker et al. 2018).

TABLE 1 | Classification of different supply chain domains building upon (Ertem et al. 2010).

Distinction	Commercial SC/L	HL SC/L	Medical SC/L	Military SC/L	References
Objectives	Profit maximization	Save lives, eliminate suffering.	Improve health and save lives, in many cases, regardless of profit.	Attain a specific state of readiness at the lowest possible overall cost	(Abdulsalam et al. 2015; Haavisto et al. 2016; Sokri 2014)
Demand	Generally stable and forecastable, demand-driven	States of stability and instability, both demand and event-driven	Generally stable and forecastable, demand-driven, Government as regulator and largest customer; highly specialized	States of stability and instability, both demand and event-driven	(Christopher and Tatham 2011; Christopher and Towill 2001; Dobrzykowski 2019)
Flow	Uni-directional between suppliers and retailers	Uni-directional to relief recipients	Uni-directional for care; Bi-directional finance; government buys and sells	Bi-directional between suppliers and end-users for product support.	(Dobrzykowski 2019; Ertem et al. 2010; Olaogbebikan and Oloruntoba 2019; Sinha and Kohnke 2009; Sokri 2014)
Lead time	Predictable; Long-short	Short-zero	Predictable; Long-short	Pre-determined-Immediate; Very long to zero lead time	(Abdulsalam et al. 2015; Cook et al. 2005; Ertem et al. 2010)
Inventory	Just-in-time, safety stock; consistent fixed network of stores	Irregular, complex; various ad hoc locations	High product complexity, specialized; stock-out may quickly result in patient death or long-term disability	Massive complex, just-in-case and just-in-time; various locations	(Ertem et al. 2010; Naylor et al. 1999; Sokri 2014)
Stakeholders	Shareholders, customers and suppliers	Donors, governments, military, community, and partner NGOs	Hospital as "focal firm" patients, clinicians, provider organizations (hospitals, clinics, etc.), group purchasing organizations (GPOs), independent distributors, insurers, and suppliers.	Governments, citizens	(Abdulsalam et al. 2015; Dobrzykowski 2019; Ertem et al. 2010; Larson 2009; Shafiq 2019)
Governance	Boards of directors, business plans	International, national laws, organizations, governments, corporations, NGOs	Highly regulated, Legislative bodies, laws, regulations	Highly regulated, Legislative bodies, laws, regulations.	(Bevir 2012; Dobrzykowski 2019; Haavisto et al. 2016; Larson 2009)
Supplier relationship dependency	Transactional, or interdependent market based, long or short-term	Long-term, non-emergency, to short-term, emergency	Highly interdependent, highly relational, physician supplier selection, large upstream barriers to access	Highly interdependent, normally long-term with large barriers to access	(Abdulsalam et al. 2015; Humphries et al. 2007; Kumar and Banerjee 2014; Prasanna & Haavisto et al. 2016)

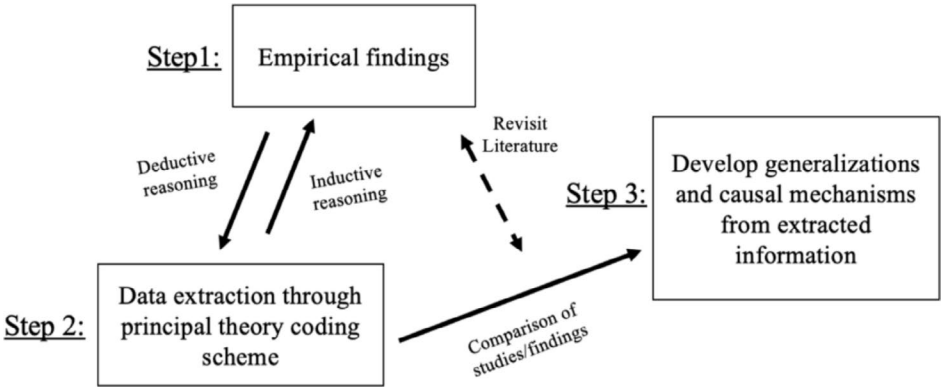

FIGURE 2 | Synthesize literature as intermediate theory building and contextualized explanations. Adapted from Durach et al. (2021).

TABLE 2 | Review process.

	SCOPUS	EBSCOhost business source complete	ProQuest business	Emerald	Total
Initial search	533	910	112	2011	3566
Title and abstract screening	90	102	39	45	276
Final review and selection	67	56	28	35	186

4 | Systematic Literature Review Method

The gaps in knowledge on DCs in MSCL exist in both the operational environment and in literature; as such, this research responds to the need to explore MSCL dynamics. With this justification in mind, following the principles of Durach et al. (2021) for developing theoretic understanding through literature synthesis, the researchers connect the empirical positioning of the MSCL thought progression and distinctive with a systematic review of MSCL literature. A systematic literature review (SLR) is conducted to identify the factors influencing DCs in MSCL and how they can be applied to other SCM contexts. The researchers synthesize the results and suggest theoretical generalizations.

The research gap leads to two main study objectives:

1. To understand the contextual factors that influence the MSCL environment, and
2. Identify the key DC that enable MSCL, contributing to business SCML theory.

The study followed a stepwise approach to organize the research, as outlined in the protocol developed by Durach et al. (2021), which was specifically designed to review disparate and ununified literature (Figure 2).

5 | Data Extraction Through Systematic Literature Review and Dynamic Capabilities Coding Scheme

The SLR was conducted using several comprehensive bibliographic databases (Scopus, EBSCOhost, ProQuest, and Emerald) following Tranfield et al. (2003, 2004). The search was based on a "search string" that included relevant keywords and was adapted for each individual database; "(Military OR Defen*) NEAR/3" (Supply Chain "OR Logistics)" modified for individual database Boolean logic. The goal of the search was to produce broad and general findings, and the selection criteria for articles included scholarly articles in peer-reviewed journals written in English without any date restrictions to maintain the quality of the assessment in terms of theoretical and empirical content and the unit of analysis.

The initial search produced potential articles that were filtered by selecting only peer-reviewed journal articles listed in bibliographic databases, resulting in a population of 276 papers of sufficient quality and relevance. The second filtering review of titles and abstracts resulted in selecting articles specific to MSCL and providing contributions and methodology with academic rigor (186 papers). Both empirical and conceptual papers were included in the review since the research questions required an inquiry into influences and contributions. Each paper was evaluated based on its contribution to knowledge and relevance to the research questions, and a spreadsheet was used to assist in the review process (Table 2).

The researchers initially aimed to analyze the distribution of the papers included in the SLR across the functional areas of military logistics, as defined by NATO (1997), the UK Ministry of Defense (MoD 2015), and the US Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS 2019). This would enable them to examine the prevalence of DC constructs within those functional specialisms. As many of the papers (104) discussed multiple functional areas, double counting was allowed, and the percentages presented in Table 3 reflect the overall occurrence of each functional area within the SLR.

To develop DC construct coding scheme for the study, the researchers conducted a series of keyword searches at the intersection of *Dynamic Capabilities, Supply Chain*, and *Logistics*. However, due to the youth and diversity of the DC view, it was challenging to

develop a consolidated list of operational constructs (Barreto 2010). To address this, the researchers sought constructs from both conceptual and empirical research that appeared consistent in DC and SC/L research and aligned with the study's aims to explore themes related to our theoretical basis of DCs for future research.

To test these constructs against the literature selection, the researchers used Atlas.ti qualitative data analysis software. The selected constructs and their prevalence within the SLR papers, including military logistics functional areas, are included in Table 4, and the coding scheme and its occurrence within papers are available in Tables A1 and A3. This information helps answer the RQ2 and position a future research agenda. Additionally, the researchers found it interesting to analyze the country of origin of research output, and tabulated the occurrence of each country represented in Table A2.

6 | Synthesis and Discussion: Generalizations and Causal Mechanisms

The researchers examined the dynamic influences that contribute to MSCL, starting by revisiting the literature to question whether the DC view is necessary and would lead to significant insights. According to Kollenscher et al. (2014), exploiting an enemy's supply chain and identifying weaknesses in their "rear" and "Achilles' heel" is essential to competitive strategy. In protracted wars, militaries will assess their own supply chains and those of their adversaries to determine their operational capabilities (Dalsjö et al. 2022; Prebilič 2006). Raghavan (2018) emphasized the importance of a military's technological innovation, organizational process capability, and improvement in achieving overall success. Kaufman et al. (2003) argued that without disrupting the present Cold War innovation paradigms, a military's innovative potential would be suppressed, leaving it unprepared to respond. Mori (2018) discusses how military organizations can dramatically enhance their capabilities when "new and existing technologies are weaponized and then employed through an effective concept of operations executed and supported by an appropriately designed command and control structure and accompanying organization" (p. 17).

Schoemaker et al. (2018) extend the DC view by discussing the requisite and transformational capabilities in a firm's business model that precede disruptive change under deep uncertainty and emphasizing the need for insight into "higher-order" and DCs such as "sensing change, seizing opportunities, and transforming organizations." This research, therefore, proceeds to synthesize the DC constructs with the SLR literature within this higher-order frame of generalizations and causal mechanisms for discussion according to its method (Durach et al. 2021).

6.1 | Sensing Change

MSCL leadership requires situational awareness to maintain a competitive advantage. Military commanders must be able to sense changes, anticipate strategic shifts, and adapt to operational duality to avoid blind spots, which can leave an organization vulnerable to enemy exploitation and create "information blindness," rendering the organization unable to sense change (Schoemaker et al. 2018; Teece et al. 1997). Therefore, this situational awareness must be embedded into strategy, resource configuration, and organization (Sobb et al. 2020) making *information systems* vital (Heaslip and Barber 2016).

The literature on MSCL highlights the *complexity* and *uncertainty* that military organizations face in their logistics environments. Military operations exist under profound and unquantifiable uncertainty, as opposed to quantifiable *risk* (Schoemaker et al. 2018) and military commanders lack the information necessary to sense change influencing decision making (Ambrosini and Bowman 2009; Kollenscher et al. 2014). Twenty-four papers aimed specifically to aid in decision-making, providing better decision-making support in areas such as transport mode optimization (Blom et al. 2020; Han et al. 2016), network design (Ausseil et al. 2019; Gue 2003; Jones et al. 2021), sea-based logistics operations (Brown et al. 2007; Mofidi et al. 2018; Waters 1989) resource configuration (Swartz and Johnson 2004; Sysoiev 2013; Tripp et al. 1991), risk analysis (Hurley and Balez 2008; Loska and Higa 2020; McConnell et al. 2021) acquisition and contracting (Dacus and Hagel 2014; Glas et al. 2013; Wilhite et al. 2014), maintenance assessment and repair (Lifsey 1965; Li et al. 2019), blood supply chain (Chang et al. 2017; Delen et al. 2009; Ti 2022) and sustainability (Amber 2017; Wang 2020). A holistic view of risk can present organizational and supply chain considerations that enable better decision-making (Anuat et al. 2022; Loska and Higa 2020). Thus, organizational *alignment* and visibility can mitigate enterprise *risk* and increase the *resiliency* of the military organization and its ability to recover from disruption (Kovács and Tatham 2009; McConnell et al. 2021; Pereira et al. 2014).

MSCL environments require *adaptability* (Acero et al. 2019; de Mendonça et al. 2019), especially in new operational environments (Amouzegar et al. 2004) that leave militaries perplexed by uncertainty. Military organizations must understand their operational scope and terrain to navigate these challenges (Ausseil et al. 2019). The uncertainty is jointly influenced by the *operational state* (Brubakken et al. 2020; Datta and Roy 2011) and *economic state* (Dacus and Hagel 2014; Emmanuel-Ebikake et al. 2014) of the strategic military environment.

Research on complexity, uncertainty, and alignment within MSCL appears to be well-developed (Table 4, Table A3). However, there seems to be a lack of attention to the strategic implications

TABLE 3 | Occurrence of papers along functional areas of MSCL (*Source:* The authors).

Functional areas	Number (%) of papers
Materiel Management (MM)	96 (27.9%)
Procurement (P)	94 (27.3%)
Distribution (D)	79 (22.9%)
Maintenance (MX)	32 (9.3%)
Engineering (E)	22 (6.3%)
Finance (F)	11 (3.1%)
Health Services (H)	10 (2.9%)

TABLE 4 | Distribution of code-paper co-occurrences distributed across logistics functional areas.

	D	E	F	H	MX	MM	P
Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	40	5	5	4	13	50	36
Collaboration/ coordination	25	8	2	5	9	35	49
Competence	10	3	2	3	3	15	20
Complexity	46	17	7	7	24	58	60
Information sharing	11	5	1	1	7	21	28
Information technology	13	6	1	2	7	23	18
Innovation	13	10	2	3	5	20	21
Integration/ alignment	47	15	8	9	19	57	63
Learning/ knowledge creation	14	11	5	2	6	19	30
Orientation	17	9	0	0	8	17	19
Partner development/ alliancing	18	5	3	3	4	23	36
Process capability/ improvement	28	7	1	4	13	37	25
Resilience	12	2	2	1	2	15	10
Risk/uncertainty management	47	10	7	8	15	58	61
D	79	7	4	6	9	43	23
E	7	22	1	1	7	12	11
F	4	1	11	2	1	5	11
H	6	1	2	10	1	7	4
MX	9	7	1	1	32	19	12
MM	43	12	5	7	19	96	43
P	23	11	11	4	12	43	94

of supply chain *orientation* (Mentzer et al. 2001) in the military context. It is necessary for SCL leaders to understand and orient themselves to these environments and recognize the strategic implications of their activities to capitalize on and fully exploit strategic opportunities (Snowden and Boone 2007).

6.2 | Seizing Opportunities

Once opportunities in the environment are sensed, actions must be executed (Teece 2007), and the sufficiency of reaction calls for the reconfiguration of resources to seize known opportunities (Leeman and Kanbach 2022). Effective resource configuration and strategy implementation are critical for a defense organization's operational success (Ekström et al. 2020). In times of peace, preparing for conflict and adopting postponement and speculation strategies can increase flexibility and adaptability to respond to demand and risk uncertainties (Listou 2008). The relationship between the strategic logistics environment and the operational state of conflict determines the strategic approach (Emmanuel-Ebikake et al. 2014). Effective communication and *information sharing* are vital for coordinating resources and seizing opportunities (Bojnec 2013; de Mendonça et al. 2019), as a lack of information can lead to increased economic and operational costs (Erkoyuncu et al. 2013; Li, Zhang, Zhao, Wei, et al. 2021) and ineffective responsiveness (Kollenscher et al. 2014). Responsiveness, therefore, is dependent upon the *information technologies* (Fan et al. 2010), which promote command and control (C2) within MSCL (McKinzie and Barnes 2004).

Knowledge management and competencies enable collaborative and strategic capabilities (Calcara 2020; Ng and Nudurupati 2010; Yang 2021), growing the innovative and transformative capabilities in a military organization (Kaufman et al. 2003; Ramalho and Tarraco 2019) but the loss of this knowledge can be destructive (Erbel and Kinsey 2018). The ambidexterity of exploring and exploiting knowledge enables dynamic responsiveness within a supply chain (Yang 2021). Lack of competencies and shared communication can result in the degradation of a military's C2 (Dalsjö et al. 2022), further degrading its ability to respond to disruption (Heaslip and Barber 2016). MSCL networks are exposed to a wide array of disruptions (Yoho et al. 2013), and businesses and MSCs are resistant to change out of steady-state resource strategies until acted upon by an external force (Swanson et al. 2017). Peck (2005) offers that "It's when the supply chain is supposed to be in the established steady state that it is most vulnerable because that's the point when it's most susceptible to external effects." (p. 215).

The ability to posture resources to respond to this new environment is enabled by strategy (Amouzegar et al. 2004; Apte et al. 2022) and is also dependent on the attitude of leaders (Ng and Nudurupati 2010), requiring courage to transform current business processes and strategies to enable military effectiveness (Louth and Boden 2014).

6.3 | Transforming

Transformation is the ability to reconfigure resources (Teece 2007) and can take place at both the enterprise and firm levels (Aslam et al. 2020; Schoemaker et al. 2018). For successful transformation, organizations must take a systematic view of their supply chain (Moccia et al. 2020) and adopt process and product innovation (Schoemaker et al. 2018). The governance of processes and products can have a dual role of enabling and impeding performance and may pose a potential vulnerability in operational execution (Kollenscher et al. 2014). Inherent design considerations are essential, whether a product is designed for the support of processes (Allen and Masters 1988; Ellis et al. 2017) or a process designed for product support (Denicoff et al. 1967; Deshpande et al. 2006).

The MSC's design, which reflects the end-to-end "wholesale and retail" (Gelderman et al. 2008) nature, with its federated network topology (Pathak et al. 2007) bi-modal (MoD 2022) and bi-directional financial and materiel flows, uniquely operating in that respect similar to a commercial after-market support supply chain (Erkoyuncu et al. 2013; Farris et al. 2005; Kim et al. 2007), means that MSCs may be better positioned for transformation compared to business supply chains, as logistics and procurement are operationally and semantically synonymous in acquisitions and share a similar alignment with the purchasing functions, the alignment of which is rare in commercial contexts (Boyce et al. 2016; Ellram and Carr 1994).

However, there are inherent challenges in aligning the MSC's product/process upstream with its operational downstream, which may impact operational execution (Cohee et al. 2019; Loska and Higa 2020). Better utilization of data analytics (Chang et al. 2017), collaborative information sharing, and development of supply chain and logistics partners can promote transformation, as demonstrated; collaboration is key to success (Barber and Parsons 2009; Blenkinsop and Maddison 2007).

In terms of resource reconfiguration, the strategic configuration of organizational resources in collaborative capabilities can lead to transformational change and increased operational performance between interdependent partners (Eßig et al. 2014; Humphries et al. 2007), inhibiting operational failure (Dalsjö et al. 2022). External frames and separate organizational structures can also position leaders to gain new cognitive perspectives, sensing opportunity through uncertainty (Schoemaker et al. 2018) and the "fog of war" (Dalsjö et al. 2022). The proclivity toward inter-organizational collaboration drives resource reconfiguration amidst environmental turbulence (Defee 2010).

The development of mutuality between partners and within business relationships enables enterprise leadership, creates a culture of trust, and can impact the bottom line (Moccia et al. 2020) both within the military organization and with those "outside the gate." It is worth noting that despite the current interdependence and international nature of modern warfare strategies, there is a need for multinational research in MSCL (Hellberg 2023). Only 15 papers (8%) have been published with outputs from two or more countries (Table A2). The recognition and responsiveness of the firm to the state of economic and environmental forces can influence the firm's strategy and sustained performance (Matthews and Al-Saadi 2021; Teece 2007) and its ability to recover from a shock (Conz and Magani 2020) and reconfigure resources to bring about change (Abdul Rahim and Hamib 2019).

The failure to recognize the operational and economic dimensions at the forefront of strategy development can lead to economic and operational goals being in opposition, manifesting in myopic planning, limiting strategy and adaptability (Emmanuel-Ebikake et al. 2014; Ekström et al. 2020; McKinzie and Barnes 2004). In MSCL, these complex economic dimensions are not often forecasted (Hasik 2021; Sysoiev 2013), putting strategic leaders in a difficult position of having to choose between meeting readiness requirements in terms of capacity or capability (Eaglin 2022), forcing tactical leaders to make trade-off decisions to buy down operational risk (Prebilič 2006). Resource capacity and capability, therefore, become determinants of adaptability and performance through which resource configuration and transformation occur.

7 | Conclusion

This research presents a comprehensive narrative review of MSCL concepts, tracing their origins and demonstrating their logical continuity and relevance. It contributes a multi-journal SLR on MSCL (to our knowledge, the first), synthesizing empirical contributions in DC theory within a framework of generalizations and causal mechanisms to address contemporary challenges. The analysis underscores the development of MSCL thought within the broader SCM context, highlighting its uniqueness and significant impact. More research is needed on how insights based on MSCL and other responsive contexts can be applied to optimize business logistics. Further, what are the distinctive attributes of these responsive contexts which enable them to dynamically balance efficiency, responsiveness, and agile deployment while effectively managing sudden surges. Emphasizing cross-sectoral learning and theory and deep integration across SCM contexts, the review advocates adopting MSCL's insights for strategically leading business logistics. This mutual learning process benefits military logistics, which gains valuable insights and DCs from the business context, and businesses, which learn from the distinctiveness of MSCL. The call for cross-sectoral and interdisciplinary learning remains highly relevant today. How DCs can be pursued and implemented in supply chain design are not widely understood due to the ambiguous nature of the related concepts and their applicability to design theory. Accordingly, further questions arise from this inquiry regarding the assumptions of DC theory. For instance, what are the so-called lower-order (efficient) and higher-order (agile) capabilities in DC theory, and how exactly can these strategic ideas be applied within operational design contexts? Or if they are paradoxical, how can they be resolved? How can these capabilities be observed and understood empirically while avoiding circularity in their conceptualization (Collis and Anand 2021; Teece 2009). More research should focus on how responsive contexts can inform strategies to achieve greater efficiency and agility across all objective domains. This exchange of experiences and expertise benefits all stakeholders, enhancing outcomes and overall performance effectiveness.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Appendix

TABLE A1 | Dynamic capabilities coding scheme.

Codes	Definition	Sources
Innovation	Supply chain innovations combine developments in information and related technologies with new logistic and marketing procedures to improve operational efficiency and enhance service effectiveness (Bello et al. 2003)	(Cheng et al. 2014; Dovbischuk 2022; Gruchmann et al. 2019; Schoemaker et al. 2018; Teece et al. 1997)
Learning/ knowledge creation	The collective learning that happens among multiple supply chain players (Bessant et al. 2003)	(Abdul Rahim and Hamib 2019; Aslam et al. 2020; Beske 2012; Dovbischuk 2022; Eisenhardt and Martin 2000; Gruchmann et al. 2019; Teece et al. 1997)
Collaboration	A key SC strategy typically necessary for the transfer of products and services from production to consumption across a network of multiple relationships (Hazen and Byrd 2012)	(Brusset and Teller 2017; Fawcett et al. 2011; Raltson et al. 2017; Swanson et al. 2017)
Integration/ alignment	Supply chain management integration is the coordination and management of the upstream and downstream product, service, financial and information flows of the core business process between a focal company and its key supplier and its key customers (Naslund and Hulthen 2012)	(Mathien and Chow 2018; Mora-Monge et al. 2019; Rajesh and Matanda 2019; Vanpoucke et al. 2014)
Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	A firm's ability, in conjunction with its key suppliers and customers, to quickly and effectively react to changes in its environment (Blome et al. 2013)	(Altay et al. 2018; Aslam et al. 2020; Blome et al. 2013; Brusset and Teller 2017; Chiang et al. 2012; Eckstein et al. 2015; Yang 2021)
Resilience	Capability of supply chains to respond quickly to unexpected events so as to restore operations to the previous performance level or even to a new and better one. (Pereira et al. 2014)	(Adobor and McMullen 2018; Altay et al. 2018; Bag et al. 2019; Brusset and Teller 2017; Conz and Magani 2020; Pereira et al. 2014; Um and Han 2021)
Risk management	Supply chain risk management aims to identify the potential sources of risk and implement appropriate actions to avoid or contain supply chain vulnerability (Jüttner et al. 2003)	(Beske 2012; Brusset and Teller 2017; Gruchmann et al. 2019; Pereira et al. 2014; Um and Han 2021)
Partner development/ alliancing	A partnership is a tailored business relationship based on mutual trust, openness, shared risk and shared rewards that yields a competitive advantage resulting in business performance greater than would be achieved by firms individually (Lambert et al. 1996)	(Abdul Rahim and Hamib 2019; Eisenhardt and Martin 2000; Fawcett et al. 2012; Beske 2012; Zylberztajn and Machado Filho 2003)
Information technology	IT allows various members of a SC to share information and coordinate competitive initiatives (Fawcett et al. 2011)	(Cheng et al. 2014; Fawcett et al. 2011; Swanson et al. 2017)
Orientation	The recognition by an organization of the systemic, strategic implications of the tactical activities involved in managing the various flows in a supply chain (Mentzer et al. 2001)	(Aslam et al. 2020; Bag et al. 2019; Beske et al. 2014; Cheng et al. 2014; Foerstl et al. 2021)

TABLE A2 | SLR findings country origin of research output.

Country	Occurrences of research output
United States	86
United Kingdom	28
China	10
Australia	7
India	7
Canada	6
Germany	5
Taiwan	5
Poland	5
Brazil	4
Sweden	4
The Netherlands	4
Norway	4
Italy	3
Finland	3
Slovenia	2
France	2
Turkey	2
Iran	2
Spain	1
Jordan	1
Ireland	1
Switzerland	1
South Africa	1
Malaysia	1
Israel	1
Japan	1
South Korea	1
Portugal	1
Saudi Arabia	1
Estonia	1
Ukraine	1

TABLE A3 | Occurrence of codes within papers.

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Acero et al. 2019	✓			✓										✓
Al-Momani et al. 2020	✓						✓					✓		✓
Allen and Masters 1988				✓		✓	✓	✓	✓					
Alt 1962				✓										✓
Amber 2017				✓			✓	✓						
Américo dos Reis 2018	✓													
Amouzegar et al. 2004	✓							✓						✓
Anuat et al. 2022													✓	✓
Apte et al. 2022	✓									✓				✓
Armstrong and Cook 1976								✓						
Ausseil et al. 2019	✓			✓										✓
Banghart et al. 2017								✓				✓		✓
Barber and Parsons 2009	✓	✓										✓		✓
Barnes et al. 2004	✓	✓				✓		✓						
Bertulis and Miller 2007							✓	✓						
Blenkinsop and Maddison 2007		✓	✓					✓						
Blome et al. 2013	✓							✓						✓
Bojnec 2013		✓		✓	✓						✓			
Bovaird et al. 1962				✓						✓				
Brick 2019				✓			✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		
Brown et al. 2007			✓						✓			✓		

(Continues)

TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Brubakken et al. 2020					✓			✓						✓
Bury 2021	✓		✓	✓				✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Calcara 2020		✓	✓	✓				✓	✓					
Cantelmi et al. 2020					✓	✓		✓	✓			✓		
Chang et al. 2017				✓		✓	✓	✓				✓		✓
Chapman et al. 2011						✓								✓
Chappell and Peck 2006								✓				✓		✓
Dacus and Hagel 2014				✓										
Dalsjö et al. 2022	✓	✓												
Datta and Roy 2011	✓				✓			✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
Davids et al. 2013	✓	✓						✓			✓	✓		
de Mendonça et al. 2019	✓				✓						✓	✓		✓
Delen et al. 2009				✓				✓						✓
Denicoff et al. 1967								✓				✓		
Deshpande et al. 2006								✓				✓		
Deshpande et al. 2003				✓				✓						
Ekström et al. 2021		✓		✓								✓		✓
Ekström et al. 2020	✓			✓			✓						✓	✓
Ellis et al. 2017						✓		✓				✓		
Emmanuel-Ebikake et al. 2014	✓	✓		✓							✓	✓		✓
Erbel and Kinsey 2018	✓			✓	✓		✓		✓	✓				✓
Erbel 2017														✓

(Continues)

TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Erkoyuncu et al. 2013				✓	✓				✓	✓				✓
Eßig et al. 2014		✓	✓								✓			
Evans and Steeger 2018	✓											✓	✓	✓
Everingham et al. 2008	✓			✓		✓		✓				✓		
Fan et al. 2010	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓								✓
Farris et al. 2005	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓					✓			
Gallasch et al. 2008	✓			✓										✓
Gardner 1987								✓		✓		✓		
Gelderman et al. 2008		✓		✓	✓	✓		✓						✓
Glas 2017		✓	✓				✓			✓	✓			✓
Gourdin 2019	✓	✓						✓		✓	✓			✓
Graham and Ahmed 2000		✓						✓			✓			
Graham and Hardaker 1998	✓	✓		✓				✓			✓			✓
Grala 2021	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓					
Gryffenberg et al. 1997	✓			✓	✓	✓		✓						✓
Gue 2003	✓													
Halizahari et al. 2022	✓													✓
Han et al. 2016	✓		✓					✓						
Haraburda 2017	✓	✓						✓			✓	✓		✓
Hasik 2014			✓					✓	✓					✓
Hasik 2021				✓				✓						✓

(Continues)

TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Hayes and Marrese 1991	✓		✓									✓		✓
Heaslip and Barber 2016	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓		✓			✓
Henderson and Brady 2006	✓		✓	✓			✓							
Hewitson et al. 2018								✓	✓					
Humphries and Wilding 2004				✓				✓			✓			✓
Hurley and Balez 2008								✓						✓
Johnsen et al. 2009	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓			✓
Johnson et al. 2021	✓			✓										✓
Jones et al. 2021				✓				✓						✓
Juntunen et al. 2012		✓						✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
Kaufman et al. 2003	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓					
Kim et al. 2007	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓						✓
Kollenscher et al. 2014	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓				✓	✓	✓
Kovács and Tatham 2009	✓	✓						✓	✓		✓		✓	✓
Lai and Tseng 2022														✓
Lai 2019								✓						✓
Leon et al. 2013						✓		✓		✓		✓		✓
Li et al. 2022				✓		✓		✓	✓	✓				
Li, Pu, Zhang, and Zhao (2021)		✓					✓							
Li, Pu, and Zhao (2021)				✓					✓	✓				

(Continues)

TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Li, Zhang, Zhao, Wei, et al. (2021)				✓	✓			✓		✓	✓			
Li et al. 2020				✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓		
Li et al. 2019				✓				✓		✓				✓
Lifsey 1965			✓	✓								✓		
Listou 2008	✓			✓							✓			✓
Listou 2013		✓	✓					✓			✓			
Longhorn and Muckensturm 2019								✓		✓		✓		✓
Longhorn and Stobbs 2021				✓								✓		
Longhorn et al. 2021				✓				✓						
Loska and Higa 2020			✓					✓		✓			✓	✓
Louth and Boden 2014	✓				✓			✓	✓					✓
Louth 2015			✓	✓				✓	✓		✓			✓
MacBryde et al. 2012		✓	✓		✓		✓	✓			✓	✓		
Matthews and Al-Saadi 2021		✓		✓	✓		✓	✓			✓			
McConnell et al. 2021												✓	✓	✓
McDermott et al. 2021	✓			✓			✓							
McGee et al. 2005	✓			✓				✓				✓		
McGinnis 1992	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
McKinzie and Barnes 2004	✓			✓	✓	✓		✓						
McLean and Reiman 2022				✓				✓		✓		✓		
Mendershausen 1958				✓				✓						✓
Mentzer et al. 1999					✓							✓		

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TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Miller et al. 2007				✓	✓		✓	✓						
Mofidi et al. 2018	✓			✓										
Mori 2018	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Muckensturm and Longhorn 2019				✓										✓
Ng and Nudurupati 2010		✓		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Ng et al. 1987						✓		✓		✓		✓		
Özcanhan and Turksonmez 2020						✓		✓	✓			✓		✓
Park and Lee 2012								✓				✓		
Peck 2005		✓		✓	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓
Peng et al. 2010	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓						✓
Petrini and Grub 1973				✓			✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
Pettit and Beresford 2005		✓		✓				✓				✓		✓
Prebilič 2006	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓		✓
Qinzen et al. 2013	✓			✓		✓	✓							
Raghavan 2018				✓			✓	✓	✓					
Rahimi et al. 2019	✓	✓				✓		✓					✓	
Rahimi et al. 2020	✓	✓			✓	✓		✓			✓			✓
Raina and Gries 2019		✓		✓					✓		✓			✓
Ramalho and Tarraco 2019		✓		✓			✓		✓			✓		✓
Randall 2013		✓		✓			✓	✓			✓			✓
Rappoport et al. 1994								✓				✓		
Reich et al. 2020														✓

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TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Reilly et al. 2017	✓											✓		✓
Reis 2021		✓		✓		✓								
Rendon et al. 2012				✓				✓	✓			✓		✓
Ritschel et al. 2019												✓		
Rogerson 1990				✓				✓						
Rutner et al. 2012	✓						✓	✓		✓		✓		✓
Ryczyn´ski and Tubis 2021	✓			✓									✓	✓
Sebbah et al. 2013	✓							✓						✓
Sharma et al. 2017	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓					
Shrivastava and Pecht 2014												✓		✓
Smith 2018	✓										✓			
Sobb et al. 2020	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓		✓
Sokri 2014	✓			✓										✓
Solomon 1954				✓										✓
Spain 1999		✓					✓	✓						
Squires and Hoffman 2015				✓				✓				✓		
Stanton et al. 2022	✓						✓			✓		✓	✓	✓
Suman 2007				✓		✓					✓			
Swartz and Johnson 2004	✓	✓		✓				✓						
Syntetos et al. 2012						✓		✓				✓		✓
Sysoiev 2013	✓			✓										
Tatham 2013	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓			✓			
Tchokogué et al. 2015	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓		✓			✓
Ti 2022	✓	✓		✓				✓			✓		✓	✓

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TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Tirpan 2019	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓							
Tripp et al. 1991		✓		✓				✓				✓		✓
Trudelle et al. 2017				✓				✓				✓		✓
Tsadikovich et al. 2016	✓			✓				✓						
Tysseland 2009a	✓			✓								✓		
Tysseland 2009b		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓					✓
Ugol'nikov et al. 2021				✓								✓		✓
Upadyha and Srinivasan 2003								✓				✓		✓
Upadhya and Srinivasan 2012				✓				✓						
Valtonen et al. 2022	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
van Strien et al. 2019		✓		✓										✓
Walmsley and Hearn 2003				✓	✓									
Wang 2020									✓				✓	
Wang et al. 2010	✓	✓		✓		✓		✓		✓	✓			✓
Wang et al. 2021		✓		✓			✓	✓						✓
Waters 1989								✓						✓
Weber et al. 2020	✓			✓			✓	✓						
Wells et al. 2020	✓													✓
Wilding and Humphries 2006	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Wilhite et al. 2014	✓			✓			✓	✓		✓				✓
Williams 1994	✓			✓				✓						✓
Williams 2000		✓									✓			✓

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TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Agility/ adaptability/ flexibility	Collaboration/ coordination	Competence	Complexity	Information sharing	Information technology	Innovation	Integration/ alignment	Learning/ knowledge creation	Orientation	Partner development/ alliancing	Process capability/ improvement	Resilience	Risk/ uncertainty
Wincewicz-Bosy et al. 2022	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Wincewicz-Bosy and Dymyt 2020	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓
Wuthnow 2021	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓						✓
Xiong et al. 2020				✓				✓				✓	✓	✓
Xiong et al. 2017	✓			✓								✓	✓	✓
Xu et al. 2016								✓			✓			✓
Yoho et al. 2013		✓		✓	✓				✓		✓		✓	✓
Yuste et al. 2019		✓		✓				✓						✓
Zarb and Noth 2012		✓						✓			✓			✓
Zsidisin et al. 2020		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓