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Journal of Operations Management 286 (2002) 1–14

**JOURNAL OF
OPERATIONS
MANAGEMENT**

www.elsevier.com/locate/dsw

Research opportunities in service process design

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Abstract

This paper presents an overview of the new issues and research opportunities related to four service operations design topics—the design of retail and e-tail service processes, design of service processes involving waiting lines and workforce staffing, service design for manufacturing, and re-engineering service processes. All four topics are motivated by new technologies (particularly web-based technologies) and require a multi-disciplinary approach to research. For each topic, the paper presents an overview of the topic, the relevant frameworks, and a discussion of the research opportunities. © 2002 Published by Elsevier Science B.V.

Keywords: Research; Service processes; Technology

1. Introduction

This paper challenges operations management scholars to devote energy to four service design topics, retail and e-tail service processes, call center workforce staffing, service design for manufacturing, and service process re-engineering. For each topic, the paper presents frameworks, reviews the relevant

research, and suggests a number of questions for future research. Fundamentally, the increased interest in these research topics is driven by new technologies. Scholarly and managerial interest in e-tailing is driven by the explosion of Internet technologies, which will continue to change how service providers interact with customers. Research on workforce scheduling is motivated by the marked increase in the number, variety, and importance of call centers and multi-channel contact centers (including help lines, reservation centers, dispatch centers, etc.). Research in service design for manufacturing is similarly stimulated by new technologies and the rapidly evolving nature of relationships up and down the supply chain. Lastly, research in re-engineering is motivated by the need to implement these and other service design concepts in a world accelerated by technological change.

A major theme of this paper is that service design research is intrinsically multi-disciplinary, drawing on

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operations, marketing, human resources, information technology, and other disciplines (Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons, 1999, 2001). This paper, therefore, addresses each of the four service process design topics from a multi-disciplinary point of view. For each of these four topics, the paper presents a framework and a number of questions for future research.

2. Design of retail and e-tail service processes

Retail operations, and their on-line sibling, “e-tail” operations, are among the most important, dynamic, and difficult operations to manage. Retail service execution quality has been studied as an operational issue (e.g. Roth and Jackson, 1995; Soteriou and Zenios, 1999), a marketing issue (e.g. Parasuraman et al., 1988), and an operations strategy issue (e.g. Verma and Boyer, 2000). Retail-oriented operations management research has focused on a variety of issues, including forecasting techniques, the use of vendor-managed inventory (VMI), and the operational antecedents of service quality and profitability (especially in financial and banking services). Marketing research focusing on service design has made contributions principally in the area of service quality, both subjective and objective, and how gaps in service quality can affect customer satisfaction. The strategy literature has contributed to our understanding of retail services primarily through being integrated into both operations and marketing literature (see above references for examples). The multi-disciplinary nature of this research space makes it both a challenge and an opportunity.

One of the most critical objectives for this type of service operation is customer accessibility (Roth et al., 1997) and interaction. As technology contin-

ues to expand both the number and variety of customer touch-points and service delivery channels, researchers must continue to examine the important, and sometimes contentious, trade-offs between product/channel variety and cost-effectiveness, as well as the consequences of automation, in retail service settings. Designers of service processes, especially in retail contexts, must consider the impact on efficiency (internal) as well as the impact on the customer (external) if better decisions are to be made (Chase, 1978).

Considering the operational, organizational and technology issues associated with developing new services (Froehle et al., 2000), the design of retail and e-tail service operations is a challenging issue for researchers and practitioners alike. Few, if any, structured frameworks have been offered specifically for retail/e-tail operations. The next section briefly describes some frameworks and research questions that may be useful to those pursuing research in this emerging area.

2.1. Frameworks for retail/e-tail service process design

Theory formulation in this area will have to contend with the fundamental differences between the retail and e-tail environments. Obviously, the front offices of retailers and e-tailers are radically different. Most studies have focused on this difference as well as the inherent marketing and pricing differences (e.g. Hoffman and Novak, 2000; Brynjolfsson and Smith, 2000). However, there are significant operational differences in the back-office as well. These differences stem from the differences between the “traditional” and the “digital” distribution strategies shown in Fig. 1. Traditional retailers often have an arborescent distribution strategy with truckloads proceeding from

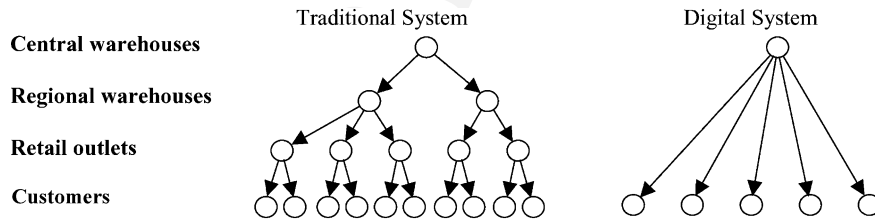


Fig. 1. Traditional vs. digital distribution strategies, traditional system, digital system, central warehouses, regional warehouses, retail outlets, customers.

124 central warehouses to regional facilities, then regional
 125 facilities sending palette loads to retail outlets. The
 126 prototypical catalog/e-tailer digital distribution strat-
 127 egy has central facilities that send products directly
 128 to customers. The cost of shipping full truckloads of
 129 goods to a few hundred retail stores is trivial com-
 130 pared to the cost of shipping individual orders to
 131 millions of customer addresses. In summary, e-tailing
 132 has substantial advantages in inventory, facility, and
 133 labor costs at the expense of higher distribution
 134 costs.

135 The potential inventory savings in e-tailing is a good
 136 example of the “square root law.” The total system
 137 safety stock with N stores, independent and identically
 138 distributed demand, and common safety factors k , is
 139 $k\sigma N$ units. if the N stores are replaced with a single
 140 warehouse linked to a web site, only $k\sigma\sqrt{N}$ units of
 141 safety stock are necessary (Evers, 1995). For example,
 142 if the number of stocking points is reduced from 4 to 1,
 143 only half as much safety stock inventory is needed—
 144 and substantial overhead will be eliminated.

145 Further, maintaining inventory record accuracy is a
 146 persistent problem for retailers (Fisher et al., 2000),
 147 and retailers hold more inventory due to the uncer-
 148 tainty of the actual inventory position. The problems
 149 can be extreme, with one “very successful retailer...
 150 (that is) a leader in information systems” (Raman,
 151 2000, p. 100) finding that store inventory records are
 152 inaccurate on 71% of their products. This inventory
 153 inaccuracy also leads to the problem of “phantom
 154 stockouts,” where goods may be in the store, but due
 155 primarily to customer re-shelving, those goods cannot
 156 be found. One bookstore chain found that 19% of their
 157 stockouts were of this phantom type (Raman, 2000).
 158 Inventory accuracy is far less of an issue with a single
 159 facility that does not need to accommodate the phys-
 160 ical presence of customers.

161 It would seem clear that a pure e-tailer would
 162 choose the digital strategy and a pure retailer would
 163 choose a traditional system. However, the combined
 164 e-tailer/retailer (click and brick) appears to be emerg-
 165 ing as the dominant business model. The inherent
 166 difficulty for the e-tailing retailer back-office is that
 167 these two systems cannot be integrated easily. Differ-
 168 ing aisle widths, aisle heights, forklift use, packing
 169 materials, and reverse logistics preclude combining
 170 pick-and-pack operations with those that focus on
 171 delivering palette-loads of goods.

172 In response, firms are applying several different
 173 strategies, with no single strategy emerging as domi-
 174 nant. Some firms, such as J.C. Penney, have entirely
 175 segregated corporate divisions, with the retail side and
 176 the catalog/e-tail side having entirely separate ware-
 177 house systems. The drawbacks of this solution are
 178 the excess inventories related to operating segregated
 179 systems and excess distribution costs. Approximately
 180 60% of J.C. Penney’s Internet customers pick up goods
 181 ordered on-line at a J.C. Penney owned store rather
 182 than have them delivered to their home. Yet, those
 183 goods are still shipped from the Internet division ware-
 184 house rather than being pulled from the shelves of the
 185 store that hands over the product. Many other firms,
 186 such as Wal-Mart, Macy’s, and Bloomingdale’s, have
 187 taken this segregation strategy a step further and have
 188 outsourced all their Internet orders to third party firms.

189 Another strategy that attempts to integrate back-office
 190 systems could be called the “professional shopper”
 191 strategy. Andersen Consulting reports that six retail-
 192 ers have adopted this strategy (Andersen Consulting,
 193 2000). Here, when an Internet order is placed, a store
 194 employee walks the aisles of a retail outlet and picks
 195 the order. The downside of this strategy is the cost.
 196 Internet orders are doomed to be priced at retail plus
 197 shipping and handling. It also deprives firms of the
 198 basic inventory and personnel benefits of the digital
 199 model.

2.2. Research questions for retail/e-tail service process design 200

2.2.1. Operational trade-offs 202

203 Are generic models of operational trade-offs or
 204 competitive capabilities such as competitive progres-
 205 sion theory by Roth (1996) or Ferdows and De Meyer
 206 (1990) sand-cone model, equally applicable to both
 207 off-line and on-line services?

2.2.2. Strategic advantage 208

209 Can we develop a taxonomy of e-tail strategic
 210 archetypes? Is there an archetype that generally per-
 211 forms better in practice? What operational issues
 212 contribute most significantly to this performance
 213 advantage?

2.2.3. Front-office/back-office 214

215 The line between front- and back-office continues
 216 to be blurred, with on- and off-line activities becom-

217	ing more integrated in some situations and more	
218	de-coupled in others (Metters and Vargas, 2000).	
219	How does this influence the structure of the service	
220	process?	
221	2.2.4. Information use in the supply chain	
222	As more retail commerce happens through tech-	
223	nology-mediated means, our information level in-	
224	creases. What pieces of information are most useful	
225	in managing the supply chain? How can we assemble	
226	these transactional data, or combine them with other	
227	inputs, in order to create more accurate forecasting	
228	methods?	
229	2.2.5. Efficiency versus personalization	
230	Is there an inherent trade-off between automation	
231	(technology applied for efficiency) and personaliza-	
232	tion, or can pursuing these two objectives be mutually	
233	reinforcing? How can technology be integrated into	
234	the service process in order to improve both efficiency	
235	and personalization?	
236	2.2.6. Operational metrics	
237	Should retail operations have different performance	
238	metrics than e-tail operations? If so, what metrics are	
239	the most useful in each setting?	
240	2.2.7. Off-line/on-line mix	
241	Is there an optimal mix of off- and on-line chan-	
242	nels? What service elements are better handled off-line	
243	versus on-line? What operational parameters are nec-	
244	essary in order to begin to address these questions?	
245	2.2.8. Customer-introduced variation	
246	Since the e-tail experience is heavily scripted by	
247	virtue of the technology by which it is delivered,	
248	does this mean e-tail processes are subject to less	
249	customer-introduced variation? What are the impli-	
250	cations of this reduced variance on the design and	
251	delivery costs—as well as the benefits?	
252	2.2.9. Inventory and logistics	
253	How much of the theoretical inventory benefits for	
254	e-tailers actually be achieved? How can the inherent	
255	logistical disadvantages be minimized? How do firms	
256	that are combined retailers and e-tailers manage their	
257	multiple layers of inventory and their incompatible	
258	logistics structures?	
	2.2.10. Customer service	259
	What implications are there for delivering retail	260
	or e-tail customer service over the Internet? How do	261
	computer-based communications media differ from	262
	more established media (e.g. telephone, face-to-face,	263
	etc.)?	264
	3. Waiting line and workforce staffing issues in	265
	service design	266
	Managing waiting lines for call centers and other	267
	service systems is a growing concern for many firms.	268
	Driven by new technologies such as the Internet, the	269
	number of call centers in North America has increased	270
	dramatically to meet the needs of e-tailing help lines,	271
	technical help lines, reservation centers, and field ser-	272
	vice dispatching. Call center revenues in the US is ex-	273
	pected to increase by 250% between 2000 and 2004	274
	(Call Center Magazine, 2001).	275
	The match between service demand and capacity	276
	has a substantial impact on profitability because of the	277
	importance of waiting time on demand (Andrews and	278
	Parsons, 1989) and profit margins (Thompson, 1998).	279
	It is important to meet customer expectations early in	280
	the service delivery process so that negative first im-	281
	pressions do not affect perceived service quality later	282
	(Maister, 1985). Davis and Maggard (1990) found	283
	that waiting time prior to placing an order at a fast	284
	food restaurant was the most important factor in cus-	285
	tommer satisfaction when examining the waiting times	286
	in multistage processes. Thus, the multi-disciplinary	287
	approach advocated in this paper suggests that service	288
	design research should consider the information needs	289
	of managers related to waiting lines (the operations	290
	view) and customer satisfaction (dissatisfaction) with	291
	waiting times (the marketing view). Roth and van der	292
	Velde (1991) Competitive Service Strategy paradigm	293
	links operations to marketing where critical success	294
	factors connect service operations capabilities to tar-	295
	get markets.	296
	The linking variable between the operations and	297
	marketing views of waiting lines is the objective of	298
	adding <i>value</i> (Heskett et al., 1994). A few papers ad-	299
	dress how to value customer waiting time when ser-	300
	vice capacity is variable, and provide an indication of	301
	possible resources for capacity planning and schedul-	302
	ing information. For example, L.L. Bean (Andrews	303

304 and Parsons, 1989) calculated the *expected lost net*
 305 *profit* from telephone orders due to customers wait-
 306 ing. Similarly, Ittig (1994) determined the number of
 307 clerks needed in a retail store by balancing the cost of
 308 additional servers against the increased revenue from
 309 increased demand due to lower expected waiting time.
 310 Davis (1991) proposed a method of valuing waiting
 311 time in a fast food restaurant that used a distribution
 312 of the opportunity cost related to expected customer
 313 waiting time. The goal is to determine desired capac-
 314 ity/staffing levels that balance the value of timely ser-
 315 vice with the cost of service capacity.

316 A rich literature exists in workforce staffing. Sev-
 317 eral researchers have examined service capacity (la-
 318 bor) scheduling issues in general (Easton and Rossin,
 319 1996; Goodale and Tunc, 1997). Specific examples
 320 include staff scheduling at L.L. Bean's call-center
 321 (Andrews and Parsons, 1989) and the New Brunswick
 322 Telephone Company (Thompson, 1997). However,
 323 a gap in the service literature exists between the
 324 managerial activity of staff scheduling and the de-
 325 sign of sources/infrastructure that provide necessary
 326 information.

327 3.1. Framework for information needs of market 328 utility-based systems

329 Fig. 2 is a presentation of essential elements in the
 330 service capacity decision—how to match service staff
 331 and customer demand (Pullman et al., 2000). The *de-*
 332 *mand component* captures how the service attributes
 333 from the *supply component* affect sales, measured by
 334 either increased sales or opportunity cost of lost sales.
 335 The level of service attributes reflects the manager's
 336 decisions regarding perceived customer preferences,
 337 capacity, and operating costs. The *economic conse-*
 338 *quence component* accounts for the benefits (revenue

or opportunity costs) and costs of the manager's
 339 decisions.

340 The main information need for the demand compo-
 341 nent is the projected sales based on service product
 342 and delivery attributes offered by the supply compo-
 343 nent. Service customers will *trade-off* price and other
 344 attributes with competitor's attributes (Verma et al.,
 345 1999). Customers will come to know of service at-
 346 tributes through recommendations, advertising, obser-
 347 vation, and experience. Because of changing customer
 348 needs and competitor innovations, service markets are
 349 inherently dynamic. Semi-regular analysis of market
 350 demand may be sufficient for setting some attributes;
 351 however, many service attributes are transient or are
 352 changed easily and often, for example, setting ex-
 353 pected customer waiting time by scheduling employ-
 354 ees at a fast food restaurant located in an airport ter-
 355 minal food court. In this example, unexpected flight
 356 changes, flight cancellations, and competitor gaming
 357 (promotions) affect expected customer waiting.

358 The four tasks of labor scheduling (Thompson,
 359 1995) are (1) forecast customer demand; (2) trans-
 360 late demand forecasts into staffing requirements; (3)
 361 schedule staff, and (4) real-time control of schedule.
 362 First, forecasts must be obtained from the target mar-
 363 ket. A market utility-based approach projects market
 364 share and imposes the market share proportion on the
 365 total population of potential customers. This num-
 366 ber of customers serves as the arrival rate to the
 367 system and can also determine operations contribu-
 368 tion when multiplied by operations contribution per
 369 unit. Second, demand forecasts are translated into
 370 staff requirements. Inputs of arrival rate and service
 371 rate will aid in determining the number of servers
 372 (front-line employees) desired using methods from
 373 queuing analysis. Third, labor scheduling determines
 374 staff schedules. Staff scheduling models are used to
 375 assign employees to shifts in order to cover demand
 376 in particular time periods. Fourth, real-time control
 377 increases or decreases service capacity in order to
 378 match supply and demand.

379 The framework of information needs of market
 380 utility-based systems spans various business disci-
 381 plines. For the purpose of categorizing these in-
 382 formation needs, we broke the market utility-based
 383 approach down by the four tasks of labor scheduling
 384 in Table 1. Each cell represents a focused category
 385 of information needs. Each bullet in the cells of the
 386

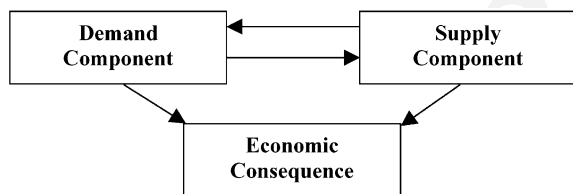


Fig. 2. A framework for examining service capacity management (adapted from Pullman et al., 2000).

Table 1
Information needs of service capacity scheduling

Demand component	Supply component	Economic consequence
Forecasting demand		
Size of market		Operations contribution per unit before direct server costs
Market share as a function of customer preferences		
Arrival rates by time of day		
Translating forecasts into staff requirements	Service rates Method for finding arrival rate equilibrium given market share and queuing models (see Goodale et al., 2001)	Variable staffing cost Fixed costs of service structure
Scheduling staff	Appropriate staff scheduling model and solution procedure	Total direct server costs
Real-time control		
Real-time tracking and within-day forecasting of customer demand	Resources with real-time flexibility (employees on-call, cross-trained, back-room, or remote)	Premium costs for flexible labor

387 table represents a set of information that must be col-
388 lected systematically for operational and tactical level
389 decision-making with regard to workforce scheduling.

390 The various functions of the firm provide primary
391 support for certain categories of these information
392 needs. For example, Management Accounting and Hu-
393 man Resources provide economic parameters for the
394 economic consequence column. Marketing supplies
395 demand forecasting information. Human Resources
396 might supply information on real-time capacity al-
397 ternatives. Thus, in order to manage service capac-
398 ity efficiently and effectively, system designs must be
399 multi-disciplinary in order to obtain the necessary in-
400 formation.

401 The next section explores many important research
402 questions that arise from examining the relationships
403 in Table 1.

404 3.2. Research questions on waiting lines and
405 workforce scheduling

406 3.2.1. Demand component

407 Which are operations attributes have the most af-
408 fect on demand (for an example, see Verma et al.,

1999)? Can we make any generalizations about these 409
attributes? Exploring this issue raises a number of in- 410
teresting research questions that can only be answered 411
with a multi-functional approach. How we design a 412
market-based approach for forecasting within-day de- 413
mand in real-time? What is the waiting time elasticity 414
of demand and how can we estimate the parameters 415
of this model? How should congestion-based pricing 416
models be used to manage demand? 417

3.2.2. Supply component 418

419 Does a relationship exist between customers' utility
420 for service attributes and the extent of the manager's
421 control of the same attributes? Should managers fo-
422 cus on attributes that may be controllable but provide
423 lower utility for customers, or focus on attributes that
424 are less controllable, but provide higher utility for cus-
425 tomers? One manner in which to reflect managers'
426 control is through identification of the process struc-
427 ture (for example, de-coupling back-office activities
428 from the front lines, Metters and Vargas, 2000) that
429 will affect service attributes (for example, quality lev-
430 els affected by service capacity, Johnston, 1999). One
431 might expect to identify trade-offs, and these trade-offs

432 may be viewed differently in the planning phase ver-
 433 sus the real-time control phase. For example, sending
 434 your front-line service providers home early may not
 435 be the best long-term solution to a manager's problem
 436 of idle capacity, but it may be the option over which
 437 the manager has the most control at that point in time.
 438 So with respect to service design, what are the key
 439 information and infrastructural processes that supply
 440 information for these types of decisions?

441 3.2.3. Economic consequence

442 In general, what is the relationship between the dif-
 443 ferent types of costs of changing an attribute level
 444 and the extent of control the managers' have over the
 445 attribute? For example if a manager wishes to im-
 446 prove how responsive customer service representatives
 447 (CSRs) are to customer requests, he/she may choose a
 448 solution depending on a number of factors. In a knowl-
 449 edge intensive service, the manager may need to edu-
 450 cate or train CSRs as part of the new service design.
 451 For a service operation where CSRs need smaller skill
 452 sets, and who look up information for customers, then
 453 improving responsiveness may require investment in
 454 a new computer database and/or information network.
 455 What are the expected economic returns for these in-
 456 vestments (usually provided by the Finance function)
 457 and how does the manager's extent of control over the
 458 CSRs' performances or information technology factor
 459 into these expected returns?

460 4. Service design for manufacturing

461 Driven by increasing global competition, more de-
 462 manding customers, and new technologies (such as the
 463 Internet), many manufacturing firms now proclaim,
 464 "We sell solutions." This claim is essentially offering
 465 services as a part of the value proposition, where the
 466 "solution" includes services intended to add value to
 467 customer's use of the tangible product and lower the
 468 customer's total life cycle cost.

469 In fact, many of the most popular topics today are
 470 service solutions designed to increase the value added
 471 for manufacturing firms, including VMI, early sup-
 472 plier involvement (ESI), mass customization, and sup-
 473 ply chain management. VMI is a service offered by
 474 many manufacturers and distributors that provides in-
 475 ventory management services for the customer (An-

del, 1996; Fry et al., 2000). ESI provides engineering 476
 design services for the customer (Dowlatshahi, 2000; 477
 Hartley et al., 1997). JIT II focuses on an on-site sup- 478
 plier representative and is essentially the combination 479
 of VMI and ESI as implemented at Bose Corpora- 480
 tion (Dixon and Porter, 1994). *Mass customization* 481
 the service of customizing the product after the sale 482
 for the distributor's, retailer's, or consumer's require- 483
 ments (Pine, 1993; Pine and Gilmore, 1998; Goldman 484
 et al., 1995; Kotha, 1995; Victor and Boynton, 1998). 485
 Many *supply chain management* concepts have to do 486
 with providing information and coordination, which 487
 is essentially a value-added service (Handfield et al., 488
 2000; Lee et al., 2000). These are just a few examples 489
 of service design for manufacturing in order to add 490
 value and lower costs for customers. 491

Research in this area clearly requires a multi-disciplinary 492
 approach in order to understand the economics 493
 of the trade-offs and must draw on theory from 494
 micro-economics (agency theory, economies of 495
 scope), managerial accounting, marketing, operations, 496
 inventory theory, operations research, and informa- 497
 tion systems. Many issues such as mass customiza- 498
 tion, supply chain management, and ESI deal with 499
 operations–marketing interface issues. 500

501 4.1. Frameworks for understanding service design 502 for manufacturing

Two simple frameworks can be developed for un- 503
 derstanding service design for manufacturing. The first 504
 of these is based on the timing of the service (pre-sale 505
 or after-sale); the second is based on the form of the 506
 customer interface. 507

508 4.1.1. Pre-sales versus after-sales service

509 During the pre-sales phase, manufacturing firms
 510 help their customers define the need, design the prod-
 511 uct, plan the product, and estimate costs. During
 512 the after-sales phase, manufacturing firms provide
 513 services such as delivering, installing, training, main-
 514 taining, repairing, and disposing of the product. Of
 515 course, the type of activity depends on the type of
 516 product (capital versus consumer goods), the price,
 517 and the total contract value. The after-sales service
 518 component (sometimes called "field service") is com-
 519 plicated by the fact that the work is often done at the
 520 customer's site and requires a highly skills techni-

521 cal person to have good human relations skills (Hill,
522 1992a,b; Haugen and Hill, 1999).

523 4.1.2. *Inventoried versus respond-to-order products*

524 Make-to-stock (MTS) products have service re-
525 quirements and metrics quite different from respond-
526 to-order (RTO) products. RTO products include
527 assemble-to-order, make-to-order, engineer-to-order,
528 configure-to-order, pack-to-order, and print-to-order
529 products. These products delay some or all of the
530 production process until after the customer has placed
531 the order. MTS products can maintain relatively high
532 utilization due to the fact that they have an inventory
533 to absorb the variability in demand. Service metrics
534 for MTS products include order fill rate, line fill rate,
535 unit fill rate, and perfect order fill rate. Research has
536 been devoted to setting due dates for RTO process
537 such as job shops (Cheng and Gupta, 1989; Mark-
538 land et al., 1989; Philipoom et al., 1994). These
539 researchers assume that orders can have different
540 promise times based on customer requirements and
541 shop load and that demand is independent of deliv-
542 ery promise time. Other researchers have developed
543 methods for determining a common delivery time for
544 a given set of orders (De et al., 1991, 1992). Because
545 RTO products generally compete on delivery time
546 as well as on customization, RTO processes usually
547 have low utilization. Delivery time is a random vari-
548 able that can be measured in terms of the mean and
549 variance of delivery time, tardiness, lateness, earli-
550 ness, on-time delivery percent, and percent shipped
551 complete. On-time performance may be defined as
552 a function of the customer request date or the firm's
553 promise date and may have a delivery time guarantee
554 (Hill et al., 2000; So and Song, 1998; Ching, 1998).
555 The selection of the best customer interface strategy
556 for a firm involves finding the globally optimal so-
557 lution, which requires a deep understanding of both
558 operations and marketing issues.

559 4.2. *Research questions for service design* 560 *for manufacturing*

561 4.2.1. *Due date promising*

562 How do we design a system for finding the optimal
563 due date to promise to a customer (Spearman and
564 Zhang, 1999)? Should promise times be customized
565 for customers, products, or orders—or not at all?

What is the appropriate technology for this order 566
promise mechanism? How can yield management 567
principles be applied to manufacturing? How can we 568
better manage customer delivery expectations (Bitner, 569
1995)? 570

4.2.2. *Service guarantees* 571

What is the optimal guarantee for a manufacturer to 572
offer to a market? What should be guaranteed? When 573
should service guarantees be used primarily as an ad- 574
vertising tool and when should they be used primar- 575
ily as a tool to set a clear performance standard for 576
the manufacturing firm (Hays et al., 1999; Hays and 577
Hill, 1998, 2001a,b; Wirtz, 1998)? How do product 578
warranties interact with service guarantees (Blischke 579
and Murthy, 1992; Murthy and Blischke, 1992)? This 580
topic should be studied from both marketing and op- 581
erations perspectives. 582

4.2.3. *Service recovery and error proofing* 583

How should manufacturers retain customers who 584
have had a service failure (Hays and Hill, 1999; For- 585
nell and Wernerfelt, 1987; Smith et al., 1998)? How 586
can we better learn from our customers when we have 587
a service failure (Hays and Hill, 2001a,b; Rust et al., 588
1992)? Recently, Stewart and Chase (1999) found that 589
a high percentage of service failures are a result of 590
human error in the delivery process. It would be in- 591
teresting to conduct a similar analysis to see if this is 592
also true in a manufacturing context. 593

4.2.4. *Total system cost* 594

What is the best way to model the total system cost 595
and profit? How do we optimize this model? What is 596
the role of service in the total profit function? 597

4.2.5. *Strategy* 598

What role should service play in a manufacturing 599
firm's strategy? What roles do services play in increas- 600
ing customer switching costs? (This is essentially what 601
happens with both vendor managed inventory and JIT 602
II.) What is the right balance between services and 603
tangible products? 604

4.2.6. *Service supply chain management* 605

When should manufacturing firms outsource the 606
services they require and when should they outsource 607
the services they provide to their customers? How 608

609 should manufacturers structure their contracts, includ-
610 ing those for services (Donohue, 2000)?

611 4.2.7. *e-Commerce*

612 What is the role of the Internet in providing
613 services—pre-sale product information, customiza-
614 tion, after-sale technical help, etc.? How can we use
615 e-commerce configurators to provide a highly auto-
616 mated approach for customers to design/configure
617 highly customized products?

618 5. Re-engineering service processes

619 The previous sections of this paper have advocated
620 multi-disciplinary research in e-tailing, staffing, and
621 service design for manufacturing. Service process
622 re-engineering, which is used to implement these (and
623 other) service process designs, also requires highly
624 multi-disciplinary expertise in areas such as organi-
625 zational change, psychology, information systems,
626 marketing, and operations. Re-engineering a service
627 process not only demands changes to the service
628 process itself, but also changes to the design of the
629 servicescape, service encounters, training program,
630 recognition and reward program, script dialogues,
631 hiring criteria, etc. A review of the “re-engineering”
632 and “service process design” literatures finds thou-
633 sands of “how-to” managerial articles and company
634 testimonials, but surprisingly few articles published
635 in academic journals.

636 5.1. Frameworks for understanding service process 637 re-engineering

638 The following service system frameworks provide
639 important foundational concepts for understanding
640 service process re-engineering.

641 5.1.1. *Service factory, mass service, service shop, 642 and professional service*

643 The result of this service classification scheme is
644 four service types (quadrants): the *Service Factory*
645 (low labor Intensity and low consumer contact), the
646 *Mass Service* (high labor intensity and low customer
647 contact), the *Service Shop* (low labor intensity and
648 high customer contact), and the *Professional Service*
649 (high labor intensity and high customer contact).
650 These ideas about service types and associated pro-

651 cesses were first defined by Maister and Lovelock
652 (1982) and refined by Schmenner (1986, 1990). Sil-
653 vestro et al. (1992) use the ideas of Maister and
654 Lovelock (1982), and Schmenner (1986, 1990), but
655 try to operationalize them by defining six dimensions
656 (i.e. contact time, customization, employee discretion,
657 focus on people or equipment, front and back office,
658 and product versus process characteristics).

659 5.1.2. *Customer-, co-, and provider-routed*

660 *Customer-routed* processes are those that offer the
661 customer broad freedom to select from many possi-
662 ble routes through the service delivery system, such as
663 surfing the Internet or going on a Club Med vacation.
664 *Co-routed* processes offer customers a moderate num-
665 ber of routes through the service delivery system, such
666 as a golf course or trading stocks directly on-line with
667 a Charles Schwab account. *Provider-routed* processes
668 constrain customers to follow a very small number
669 of possible routes through the service delivery sys-
670 tem, such as using an automatic teller machine (ATM)
671 or watching *CNN Headline News*. In all situations,
672 the customer is allowed to “experience” certain routes
673 through the design of the service delivery system. Col-
674 lier (1994), Collier and Meyer (1998, 2000), and Pine
675 and Gilmore (1998) provide more detailed definitions
676 and insights on this topic.

677 5.2. Research questions for service process 678 re-engineering

679 5.2.1. *Primary and support processes*

680 Primary processes are the core processes of the or-
681 ganization that create the core competencies of the
682 firm and satisfy external customers. Support processes
683 do not provide core competencies and usually satisfy
684 only internal customers. For example, a hotel reser-
685 vation process is a primary process, while support-
686 ing processes create the monthly accounting reports or
687 hire new employees. Researchers and managers need
688 to know what percent of total cost is related to the
689 primary versus support processes so they can target
690 improvement initiatives. Sometimes support processes
691 such as human resource management functions are a
692 higher percent of total cost than the primary processes.
693 The Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award Crite-
694 ria highlights the importance of focusing on support
695 processes. The idea is to reengineer processes to get

696 the most benefit for the least effort and cost. Are the
697 greatest opportunities for cost improvement in primary
698 or support processes? How does information technol-
699 ogy capability change the idea of support services?
700 Collier (1994, pp. 53–60 and 111–131) provides more
701 information on these issues.

702 5.2.2. Positioning matrix for services

703 How should a positioning matrix for services be
704 defined? Does the service-positioning matrix need to
705 be defined by service industry or can a generic po-
706 sitioning matrix applicable to all services be devel-
707 oped? Hayes and Wheelwright (1979a,b), Silvestro
708 et al. (1992), Kellogg and Nie (1995), Collier and
709 Meyer (1998, 2000) help us understand the research
710 questions and the existing knowledge of the relation-
711 ship between the nature of the service (customer ben-
712 efit package) and the type of process necessary to cre-
713 ate the service.

714 5.2.3. Process design and implementation

715 What methods should managers use to find service
716 process capacity bottlenecks? What is the impact
717 of uncertainty (variability) on process performance?
718 What happens to costs when process flow time is
719 radically reduced? What are the advantages and
720 disadvantages of a cost-reduction strategy versus a
721 time-reduction strategy? When can the work be done
722 in parallel, not sequentially? What frameworks can
723 be used to guide service process re-engineering?
724 Anupindi et al. (1999), Chase (1978), Chase and
725 Stewart (1994), Clausing (1994), Collier (1994), Ra-
726 maswamy (1996), and Shostack (1984, 1985) are
727 background references on these topics.

728 5.2.4. Process improvement approaches

729 What are the characteristics of successful pro-
730 cess improvement initiatives such as (a) radical
731 re-engineering initiatives (Nolan and Davenport,
732 1995; Kubeck, 1995); (b) continuous improvement
733 initiatives (Harrington, 1991); and (c) case worker
734 initiatives (Hammer and Champy, 1993)? Under what
735 circumstances should each type of improvement ini-
736 tiatives be adopted? How do you know when to use
737 each improvement approach?

738 5.2.5. Social aspects of service process design

739 Service processes often include the customer as
740 part of the process (Chase, 1978; Normann, 2001;

Pine and Gilmore, 1998; Shostack, 1984, 1985). Hu- 741
man behavior and interaction between the service 742
provider and the customer are critical in service pro- 743
cesses with the focus on the “service experience” 744
and the “service encounter activity sequence(s).” A 745
“service encounter activity sequence” consists of all 746
the process steps and associated service encounters 747
necessary to complete a service transaction and fulfill 748
a customer’s wants and needs (Collier and Meyer, 749
1998, p. 1232). Service processes must be safe yet 750
flexible, efficient yet effective, profitable yet enter- 751
taining, controlled yet free, objective yet sensitive, 752
high-tech yet soft-touch, produced yet performed, 753
fast yet customer-paced, and standardized yet cus- 754
tomized. What is the right balance between these 755
characteristics? 756

5.2.6. Servicescape integration into service process 757 design 758

759 A service process and delivery system is more
760 complicated than its goods-producing counterpart.
761 Process outcomes are created through resources such
762 as facilities, information, people, equipment, and
763 networks. The physical setting, or infrastructure,
764 where service encounters take place is termed the
765 “servicescape”(Bitner, 1992, 1993). Servicescapes do
766 more than set the physical operating environment for
767 “acting out” service encounters. Servicescapes also
768 help define the customer’s route through the service
769 delivery system and establish the behavioral setting.
770 How should we integrate the role of the servicescape
771 in designing service processes?

5.2.7. Service process causal performance 772 relationships 773

774 Among the multiple criteria methods, such as anal-
775 ysis of variance, structural equation modeling, simula-
776 tion, and mathematical programming, which ones are
777 best suited to model and predict service process per-
778 formance? How can these multiple criteria solutions
779 best be presented to management to enhance man-
780 agement decision-making? Which methods are best
781 suited for quantifying the causal performance rela-
782 tionships? Barker (1994), Baker and Collier (1999),
783 Collier and Wilson (1997), Collier (1991, 1995), Har-
784 rington (1991), Li and Collier (2000), Ramaswamy
785 (1996), and Wilson and Collier (2000) are background
786 references on these topics.

787 5.2.8. *Synchronous networks of processes versus*
788 *individual optimization of process and activity work*
789 *sequences*

790 Understanding the hierarchy of how work gets
791 done and value is created is important for successful
792 improvement initiatives. Today, building entire value
793 chains of multiple processes synchronized into an
794 integrated network represents the highest order way
795 to improve organizational performance. For example,
796 Wal-Mart and Honda have developed synchronous net-
797 works of processes to maintain their competitive ad-
798 vantage. A synchronous network of processes is the
799 new order winner and performance plateau, and this
800 capability is difficult for competitors to replicate
801 quickly. Should the focus of an organization's im-
802 provement initiatives be on individual and independ-
803 ent processes or on building networks of highly co-
804 ordinated and interdependent processes? How do syn-
805 chronous networks of processes affect product, pro-
806 cess, and organizational time-based performance? Are
807 world-class performing networks the key to competi-
808 tive advantage in the next round of global competition?

809 6. Conclusions

810 This paper challenges operations management
811 scholars to devote energy to four service design
812 topics—retail and e-tail service processes, waiting
813 lines and workforce staffing, service design for manu-
814 facturing, and re-engineering services. For each topic,
815 the paper presents frameworks, reviews the relevant
816 research, and suggests a number of questions for
817 future research.

818 Fundamentally, the increased interest in these re-
819 search topics is driven by new technologies. Scholar-
820 arly and managerial interest in e-tailing is driven by
821 the explosion of Internet technologies, which will con-
822 tinue to change how service providers interact with
823 customers. Research on workforce scheduling is moti-
824 vated by the marked increase in the number, vari-
825 ety, and importance of call centers and multi-channel
826 contact centers (including help lines, reservation cen-
827 ters, dispatch centers, etc.). Research in service de-
828 sign for manufacturing is similarly stimulated by new
829 technologies and the rapidly evolving nature of rela-
830 tionships up and down the supply chain. Lastly, re-
831 search in re-engineering is motivated by the need to

implement these and other service design concepts in 832
a world accelerated by technological change. 833

834 What emerges from examining these four topics
835 is the multi-disciplinary nature of service design re-
836 search. Operations management researchers cannot
837 conduct high-quality service design research without
838 recognizing that services involve complex interactions
839 among customers, employees, systems, and products.
840 Service design research must draw on many disci-
841 plines in addition to operations management, includ-
842 ing marketing, organizational behavior, psychology,
843 corporate strategy, functional strategy, information
844 systems, operations research, and economics. Based
845 on our literature review and our vision for the future,
846 we believe that the service design topics addressed
847 in this paper merit increased research attention in the
848 foreseeable future.

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