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市场营销管理系列·英文版

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# 营销渠道

(第五版)

Marketing Channels  
Fifth Edition

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# 《市场营销管理系列·英文版》

## 出版说明

随着我国改革开放的不断深入和市场经济体制的建立,市场营销已成为工商企业的重要管理职能。近年来,由于跨国公司的大量进入和国内企业的快速成长,市场供求关系发生了很大变化,竞争日趋激烈。在市场短缺成为历史,消费者成为市场主导的条件下,营销竞争已成为企业竞争的主要手段。许多企业从过去只重视引进技术、引进设备、引进产品,进而认识到引进新的营销理念和技术,主动满足消费者需要,谋求竞争优势的重要性。

为使中国读者能够尽快了解和吸收国际营销学界的最新研究成果,提高营销管理水平,中国人民大学出版社与著名的美国 Prentice Hall 出版公司继《工商管理精要系列·影印版》之后,共同合作推出了这套《市场营销管理系列·英文版》,以期为中国各管理院校的营销教学和企业营销及管理人员提供优秀的原版图书。

本丛书所选图书均系美国营销学界有影响的各大学教授所著,内容涵盖了营销管理的各个重要领域,全面反映了美国营销学界 90 年代以来的理论研究和实践探索水平。因而受到美国和世界各国(地区)的大学和管理学院营销专业师生,以及企业营销和管理人员的普遍欢迎。本丛书中的大部分版本都已多次再版,畅销不衰。我们期望这套丛书的出版,能为我国的营销管理教育提供最新的理论、方法和可借鉴的教学模式,同时,也能对企业的营销管理水平和营销人员素质的提高有所帮助。

在《工商管理精要系列·影印版》出版后,我们曾收到许多读者的来信和电话,希望再出英文版图书时,将序言和目录译为中文,作为对原版的一种导读,供读者阅读时参考,同时仍保留英文版中的序言和目录。为此,我们在本丛书中作了这方面的努力。这样做虽然增加了不少工作量,但如果能给需要中文导读的读者们提供一些方便,我们便感到欣慰。

本丛书在选择和论证过程中,得到了中国人民大学工商管理学院吕一林副教授、对外经济贸易大学国际工商管理学院傅慧芬教授、上海交通大学管理学院王方华教授的大力支持和帮助,许多专家和学者参与了本丛书前言和目录的翻译和审校工作,在此谨向他们致以敬意和衷心的感谢。

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# 前言

《营销渠道》第五版主要研究企业如何设计,发展和保持渠道成员间良好的关系,从而构造各自及共同的长期竞争优势。本书引入了战略的和管理的研究架构,重点讨论企业在确保将产品与服务提供给工、商企业或最终消费者的过程中,如何与相关机构、代理商及企业内其他部门规划和组织联盟,并加以控制。有效渠道管理的最终目的在于通过提供时间、地点和所有权的便利,确保最终用户满意。有效的渠道管理与全面质量管理同样重要。本书的中心议题在于探讨渠道向客户提供服务的方式,包括最终客户,也包括渠道成员客户。

从财务上看,营销渠道成员(即制造商、批发商、零售商和专业物流机构)通过刺激需求,传送商品,均能获得较高收益。但是营销渠道中某一环节的业绩需其他环节的配合才能获得。例如,零售业通常以每平方尺销售额、每位员工人均销售额、每笔交易平均销售额等指标衡量其效率。而要使零售提高每平方尺销售额,制造商在广告上的大力投入及批发商保持较高库存均必不可少。然而,在广告和库存上的巨额开支必然会减少制造商和批发商的资金收益率。营销渠道中不同环节的相互要求和决策,以及业务的相互影响使我们必须寻求系统化的补偿、沟通和协调机制。

本书在说明如何实现渠道成员系统的补偿与协调的同时,也详尽介绍了渠道管理过程的理论和分析框架。课文中还讨论了各种营销实务,以保证从理论与分析中得出的各种结论能与实际相融合,相匹配。

本书共分五篇。第一篇论述与营销渠道结构和运行有关的理论概念。它们解释了为什么会有某些机构或企业乐于协助将产品和服务传递给目标市场。第1章主要引入了“服务产业”和营销“流”两个概念。本书其他章节的论述均以这两个概念为基础。

第二篇介绍了组成营销渠道的主要机构和企业——零售商、批发商和从事物流配送的机构,如货运公司、社会的或自有的仓库设施和配送中心。本篇概括了零售(第2章)、批发(第3章)和物流组织(第4章)的结构、管理和营运要求。

在第一篇和第二篇的基础上,第三篇主要讨论营销渠道的设计、组织与规划等管理问题。第5章介绍以服务于最终顾客为导向的设计过程的多个步骤,它强调的是如何令顾客满意。第6章讨论渠道怎样形成多种不同的系统,如特许经营和自愿连锁。本章还讨论了“自己制造还是购买”的决策,例如在是

“硬”垂直一体化，还是“软”垂直一体化之间进行选择。

第四篇继续讨论渠道管理问题，共分4章。第7章讨论如何创造性地积极运用各种资源和权力管理营销渠道，讨论了冲突的产生及战略管理，以防止冲突破坏有效的营销渠道系统。本章还讨论了有关渠道领导的一些问题，以及如何通过恰当的激励机制鼓励渠道成员。第8章介绍了许多用于激励渠道成员的渠道管理策略，其中一些须接受美国反托拉斯法的审查。该章还讨论了实施这些策略的合理性，以及在何种情况下可能被反托拉斯法执行机构和联邦法院禁止或限制采用。第9章考察了渠道成员收集和传递数据、信息和知识的方式，讨论了大量最新信息技术，用以建立有效的整体渠道信息沟通系统。第10章讨论如何评价单个成员和整体渠道系统的业绩。

第五篇着眼于国际化环境中的渠道管理。第11章考察了国际化背景下的渠道结构与管理问题，它是前10章内容在东道国的运用。该章重点强调东道国渠道关系的结构、管理和业绩，以及所面临的国际环境因素。

鉴于案例分析已成为营销研究中的学术性工具，我们在第五版的教师手册中收集了大量不同类型的案例，可与本书结合使用。该手册的资料已全部更新。<sup>①</sup>本书适用于各类大学，每章分别阐述了教学方法、要点和模拟习题。

与前几版相比，第五版更注重设计和战略问题，将渠道管理视作追求最佳渠道关系的管理战略的补充。这一整合的架构反映在第1章的内容中：营销渠道：结构、功能与关系。整合的架构为营销渠道的教学提供了广阔的视野。此外是渠道环境、战略、运行或管理。

无论是营利性组织还是非营利性组织，服务质量、质量管理、关系营销、供应商与转售商的伙伴关系仍是管理的重点。本书论及的渠道管理的框架，为达到这些目标从而带来长期竞争优势提供了新的机会。

与第四版相比的变动主要表现在：第1章增加了50多种不同类型的营销模式（见附录）；对第2章（零售）、第3章（批发）和第4章（物流）重新进行了编写，增加了许多最新内容；改写和扩充了渠道设计过程（第5章）；为增加逻辑性，将第四版中第6章和第7章的位置加以颠倒；新增加了第6章，主要讨论外部采购以及其他渠道资源的组织形式。第8章中有关法律问题的改动很大，以渠道决策为基础进行了重新编写。考察了渠道成员在决策时应考虑的法律问题，因而更偏重于决策而不是法律本身。第四版中的第9章渠道成员管理被删去，将相关内容并入到前面各章，特别是补充了第7章渠道管理。第9章信息系统与渠道管理，即第四版中第10章的内容变动也很大，主要讨论信息技术对渠道流程、结构、管理和业绩的作用。第10章，即第四版中的第11章，也进行了改写和更新，更偏重于讨论渠道的成本问题。最后，第11章国际化问题，即第四版中的第12章针对国际经营环境的巨大变化进行了改写。

全文各部分均讨论了服务营销渠道问题，例如将零售与批发视为经济生活

<sup>①</sup>本书的教师手册版权未授予与中国人民大学出版社。

中的主要服务行业（详见第 2 章和第 3 章），因而将第四版中第 13 章（服务）删去。此外，本书每一章均包括了服务渠道的实例。

## 致谢（略）

路易斯·W·斯特恩  
艾德尔·I·厄尔-安萨利  
安 妮·T·库格兰

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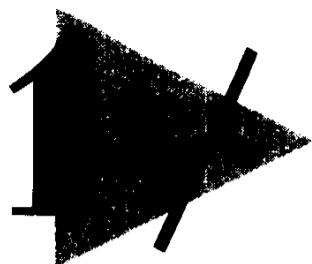
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# MARKETING CHANNELS



## STRUCTURE, FUNCTIONS, AND RELATIONSHIPS

**I**ndividual consumers and corporate/organizational buyers are aware that literally thousands of goods and services are available through a very large number of diverse channel outlets. What they might not be as well aware of is the fact that the channel structure, or the set of institutions, agencies, and establishments through which the product must move to get to them, can be amazingly complex. Usually, combinations of institutions specializing in manufacturing, wholesaling, retailing, and many other areas join forces in marketing channel arrangements to make possible the delivery of goods to industrial users or customers and to final consumers. For example:

- Eastman Kodak Co.'s Business Imaging Systems Division has created three avenues for marketing microfilm, supplies, and imaging systems and software. These channels are: (1) direct sales representatives, (2) brokers and distributors, and (3) a components marketing organization that markets system components to systems integrators and value-added resellers. More complex systems, such as Kodak Mainframe Software, character recognition systems, and optical disk records management systems, demand long sell cycles. Each customer's specific document handling requirements has to be carefully evaluated to determine what type of system is suitable.<sup>1</sup>
- Benetton Group, Italy's integrated fashion retailer and manufacturer, ships 80 million items each year directly to 7,000 stores in 100 countries with an order cycle time of as little as 7 days. Most items are shipped from a single \$50-million automated warehouse employing bar-code technology. Making use of technology and excellent management talent, the company's logistics, manufacturing, and information systems tie together 7,000 stores, 80 company agents, 200 suppliers, 850 subcontractors, major carriers, and an in-house forwarder. The system has helped the company achieve near-perfect customer service levels and no excess stock in-process or in the distribution pipeline.<sup>2</sup>

All these examples show that institutions must depend on each other to cater effectively to end-user demand. Therefore,

*marketing channels can be viewed as sets of interdependent organizations involved in the process of making a product or service available for consumption or use.*

From the outset, it should be recognized that not only do marketing channels *satisfy* demand by supplying goods and services at the right place, quantity, quality, and price; but they also *stimulate* demand through the promotional activities of the units (e.g., retailers, manufacturers' representatives, sales offices, and wholesalers) constituting them. Therefore, the channel should be viewed as an orchestrated network that creates value for end-users by generating form, possession, time, and place utilities.

Channels of distribution evolve to serve customer needs. For example:

- For companies, the key to making the most of office purchases is finding the supply channel that is best suited to the company's buying habits, order size, delivery needs, and service demands. Office products superstores claim approximately 6% of the \$100-billion office supplies industry. Their primary target is small- to medium-size businesses within a 5-mile radius of the store. Superstores buy directly from manufacturers in large quantities and pass on savings to their customers in terms of lower prices. The popularity of direct mail and catalog marketing channels is based primarily on their convenience. Like superstores, these channels have narrow profit margins and avoid intermediaries by dealing directly with the manufacturer. The customer can save money and delivery is quick. Issues business buyers must consider when deciding which channel to use include: (1) shipping time, (2) ordering, (3) technical support, (4) repair service, (5) variety, (6) branded product, and (7) return policy.<sup>3</sup>

Furthermore, channel members' roles and the extent of their cooperation may vary from one context to another.

- Japanese doctors not only prescribe drugs, they also dispense them! The doctors buy their drugs from wholesalers, who typically sell them at a discount from the official prices set by the Japanese government. Doctors are reimbursed by the government for the drugs they prescribe at the official price. This system encourages doctors to prescribe lots of expensive drugs allowing them to pocket the difference between the discount price and the official price. The average Japanese general practitioner earns \$327,000 a year, most of which is made by selling drugs, compared with the \$213,000 a year earned by the average American doctor.<sup>4</sup>

A major focus of marketing channel management is delivery. It is only through distribution that public and private goods and services can be made available for use or consumption. Producers of such goods and services (including manufacturers of industrial and consumer goods, legislators framing laws, educational administrators conceiving new means for achieving quality education, and insurance companies developing unique health insurance coverage, among many others) are individually capable of generating only form or structural utility for their products and services. They can organize their production capabilities in such a way that the products they have developed can, in fact, be seen, analyzed, debated, and, by a few perhaps, digested. But the actual large-scale delivery of the products to the consuming public demands different types of efforts that create time, place, and possession utilities. For example, consumers cannot obtain a finished product unless the product is transported to where they can gain access to it, stored until they are ready for it, and eventually exchanged for money or other goods or services so that they can acquire it. In fact, the four types of utility (form, time, place, and posses-

sion) are inseparable; there can be no “complete” product without incorporating all four into any given object, idea, or service.

As marketers continue to face hostile, unstable, and competitive environments, distribution will play an increasingly important role. Companies are already moving into new distribution channels that match up with market segments more precisely and effectively. For example, marketing channels for personal computers include personal computer superstores, office product superstores, consumer electronic stores, mass merchants, mail-order, telemarketing, company sales forces, and value-added resellers, among others.<sup>5</sup>

Executives will pay more attention in the future to the distribution channels they select to gain a competitive advantage over companies that copy their product designs and undercut their prices. New channels of distribution such as wholesale clubs, factory outlets, electronic shopping channels, franchises of all sorts, direct response operations, and hybrid channels are emerging.<sup>6</sup>

## ► EMERGENCE OF MARKETING CHANNEL STRUCTURES

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In order to understand the marketing channel, it is important to grasp the underlying reasons for the emergence of channel structures. Here, emphasis is placed on the economic rationale for the existence of channels, because economic reasons are the foremost determinants of channel structures. Later, it will be possible to introduce other determinants, including key technological, political, and social factors, and to examine how these factors influence the makeup of channel systems.

The emergence and arrangement of the wide variety of distribution-oriented institutions and agencies, typically called *intermediaries* because they stand between production on the one hand and consumption on the other, can be explained in terms of four logically related steps in an economic process:<sup>7</sup>

1. Intermediaries arise in the process of exchange because they can improve the efficiency of the process.
2. Channel intermediaries arise to adjust the discrepancy of assortment through the performance of the sorting processes.
3. Marketing agencies hang together in channel arrangements to provide for the routinization of transactions.
4. Channels facilitate the searching process.

Each of these steps is examined in the following pages.

### Efficiency Rationale for Intermediaries

In primitive cultures, most household needs are produced within the household. At an early stage in the development of economic activities, however, exchange replaced production as a means of satisfying individual needs. Exchange is facilitated when there is a surplus in production over current household requirements, and when this surplus cannot be held for future consumption because of the perishable

nature of the products or the lack of storage facilities. Thus, if numerous households are able to effect small surpluses of different products, a basis for exchange is developed.

Alderson and Martin formulated the following law of exchange, which specifies the conditions under which an exchange will take place:<sup>8</sup>

Given that  $x$  is an element of the assortment  $A_1$  and  $y$  is an element of the assortment  $A_2$ ,  $x$  is exchangeable for  $y$  if, and only if, these three conditions hold:

- a.  $x$  is different from  $y$
- b. The potency of the assortment  $A_1$  is increased by dropping  $x$  and adding  $y$ .
- c. The potency of the assortment  $A_2$  is increased by adding  $x$  and dropping  $y$ .

These conditions of exchange are more easily met when production becomes specialized and the assortment of goods is broadened. As households find their needs satisfied by an increased quantity and variety of goods, the mechanism of exchange increases in importance.

As the importance of exchange increases, however, so does the difficulty of maintaining mutual interactions among all households. For example, a small village of only five specialized households would require ten transactions to carry out decentralized exchanges (i.e., exchanges at each production point). In order to reduce the complexity of this exchange system and thus facilitate transactions, intermediaries appear in the process. Through the operation of a central market, one dealer can considerably reduce the number of transactions. In the preceding example, only five transactions would be required to carry out a centralized exchange. This concept of decentralized versus centralized exchange is illustrated in Figure 1-1.

Implicit in the preceding example is the notion that a decentralized system of exchange is less efficient than a centralized network that uses intermediaries. The same rationale can be applied to direct selling from manufacturers to retailers relative to selling through wholesalers. For example, given four manufacturers and ten retailers who buy goods from each manufacturer, the number of contact lines amounts to 40. If the manufacturers sold to these retailers through one wholesaler, the number of necessary contacts is reduced to 14.

The number of necessary contacts increases dramatically as more wholesalers are added, however. For example, if the four manufacturers in our example use two wholesalers, the number of contacts rises from 14 to 28, and if four wholesalers are used, the number of contacts will be 56. Thus, employing more and more intermediaries is subject to diminishing returns simply from a *contactual* efficiency perspective.

It should also be noted in this simple illustration that the cost of any two contact lines of transaction—that is, manufacturer–wholesaler, wholesaler–retailer, manufacturer–retailer—is assumed to be the same. Also, it is assumed that whenever more than one wholesaler is employed by a manufacturer, each retailer will avail itself of the services of each of these wholesalers. Obviously, one must account