TOWARDS A CONTINGENCY THEORY OF COLLABORATIVE PLANNING INITIATIVES IN SUPPLY NETWORKS

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TOWARDS A CONTINGENCY THEORY OF COLLABORATIVE PLANNING INITIATIVES IN SUPPLY NETWORKS

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Abstract

There has been increased interest in supply chain (SC) collaboration in recent years, as a process that promotes inter-company cooperation in different business areas. This paper focuses on collaborative planning initiatives adopted to support demand and supply planning in supply networks. Since companies implement several different forms of collaborative planning initiatives, this paper intends to examine the relevant contingency effects that lead firms to choose a precise collaborative planning initiative. Ten cases were analysed to investigate the research question. Results found indicate that specific contextual conditions – i.e. goals of the collaboration, demand elasticity, product diversity and supply network spatial complexity - can affect the level of the collaboration in collaborative planning initiatives. Three different levels of collaboration are identified (i.e. communication, limited collaboration and full collaboration) - depending on the level of integration (i.e. whether companies simply exchange data/information, or synchronize and jointly decide their plans) and multiplexity (i.e. the number of business areas involved in the collaboration). It emerges that, while the goals of the collaboration influence the level of integration between companies; the elasticity of demand can determine the level of multiplexity. Furthermore, the research found that product diversity (i.e. whether companies sell different products) and a high supply network spatial complexity could limit the level of multiplexity in the collaboration.

Keywords: Supply chain management; integration; networks; forecasting

Word count: 6485
1. INTRODUCTION

Supply chain (SC) collaboration has been described in the literature as a process that promotes: inter-organisational cooperation, joint work, openness, the creation of inter-company decision making routines, information and knowledge sharing, and customer-supplier intimacy (Mentzer et al. 2000, McCarthy and Golicic 2001). Some authors also refer to this concept with the term SC integration, and highlight especially the importance of creating and coordinating processes seamlessly across the supply network (Flynn and Flynn 1999, Handfield and Nichols 1999, Frohlich and Westbrook 2001, Sahin and Robinson 2005). This means that companies should behave as a part of a unified system and coordinate with each other toward common objectives (Mentzer et al. 2000, Romano 2003, Arshinder and Deshmukh 2008).

There are several areas in which SC collaboration can take place, such as new product development, demand management, order fulfillment, quality management, customer service management (Cooper et al. 1997, Slack et al. 2004). Similarly to other studies (Barratt and Oliveria 2001, Larsen et al. 2003), this paper focuses on inter-company collaborative planning initiatives implemented to support demand and supply planning. These initiatives include a variety of integration practices between the supplier (or manufacturer) and the manufacturer (or customer) to jointly manage demand and supply plans, such as sales forecasts, delivery, purchasing or promotion plans. A number of collaborative-based techniques in this field are worthy of mention, such as Vendor Managed Inventory (VMI), Continuous Replenishment (CR), or Collaborative Planning Forecasting and Replenishment (CPFR) (Barratt and Oliveria 2001, Danese 2006, Smáros 2007). These techniques lever on information sharing and joint planning to radically reduce inventories within the supply network while improving customer service. In recent years, we have witnessed a growing
excitement and increasing top management attention on these subjects, as a consequence of the impressive results achieved by successful programs in supply networks coordinated by large, high-performing focal firms, such as Wal-Mart, Procter & Gamble, Henkel and Dell Computer (Seifert 2003, Sridharan et al. 2005).

Although these cases demonstrate that collaborative planning initiatives in supply networks contribute to improved supply network performance, some authors maintain that these practices cannot be considered a one-best-way recipe for all companies (Van Donk and van der Vaart 2004, Arshinder and Deshmukh 2008, Sari 2008, Welker et al. 2008). Over the years, knowledge about these promising practices has matured and learning about them has taken place, and, as a consequence, doubts have been raised as to their universal applicability.

Therefore, it is essential to investigate the conditions under which the different forms of collaborative planning initiatives in supply networks can be beneficial. Despite the importance of this issue, there is still little empirical research which directly addresses the question: How do contextual factors affect collaborative planning initiatives in supply networks? (Ho et al. 2002, Mouritsen et al. 2003).

This study intends to fill this gap, by examining the relevant contingency effects that lead firms to choose different collaborative planning initiatives.

From a theoretical point of view, a contingency theory of collaborative planning initiatives in supply networks significantly contributes to the advancement of theory, since it shows that different forms of collaborative planning initiatives may be important under different conditions. In fact, companies implement different collaborative planning initiatives to integrate demand and supply plans, but the reasons why companies choose different types of collaboration practices are still not clear. The purpose is to open an interesting debate on this issue, by introducing explanations of how specific contextual conditions can influence the applicability of collaborative planning initiatives.

From a practitioner’s perspective, if companies are to truly engage in a collaborative planning initiative and understand how to implement it, a contingency theory of collaborative planning
initiatives can be valuable to develop mechanisms for proactive managerial action. In fact it can suggest to managers how to select the most appropriate action to be taken when implementing the collaboration through the analysis of the context where it should be implemented.

The paper is organized as follows. First, it analyses existing literature on collaborative planning initiatives, and contingency factors that can influence the implementation of different collaborative planning initiatives. The following section introduces the research methodology and case profiles. Then, the paper describes the analyses conducted to answer the research questions and develop the results. Results found are presented in the form of propositions. Research implications are then discussed. The article ends with conclusions and suggestions for future research.

2. COLLABORATIVE PLANNING INITIATIVES IN SUPPLY NETWORKS

Collaborative planning initiatives in supply networks can greatly vary; they can range from the simple passive exchange of data and information among companies, to the joint development of plans and decision-making, based on the analysis of information exchanged (ECR 2001, 2002, Småros 2007). Moreover, collaborative planning initiatives can involve different business areas, as companies can collaborate to jointly establish promotions, or sales forecasts or order forecast plans, or all these processes together (Barratt and Oliveira 2001, Larsen et al. 2003). One of the most advanced collaborative planning initiatives is collaborative planning, forecasting and replenishment (CPFR) (Barratt and Oliveira 2001). CPFR programs concern collaboration where two or more companies jointly plan a number of promotional activities and work out synchronized forecasts, on the basis of which the replenishment processes are determined (Larsen et al. 2003). According to several authors (Aichlmayr 2000, Ireland and Bruce 2000, Barratt and Oliveira 2001, Seifert 2003), CPFR can be considered the natural evolution for companies already implementing other collaborative planning initiatives, such as Vendor Managed Inventory (VMI) or Continuous Replenishment (CR). VMI is a technique developed in the mid 1980s whereby the manufacturer (supplier) has the responsibility for managing customer’s inventory, including the replenishment
process. CR practice is similar to VMI, but in this case the manufacturer (supplier) can use POS data to predict customer’s future sales and manage the replenishment process. At the heart of the CPFR process lies the aspiration to cover the gaps left by these collaborative planning initiatives. As suggested by the CPFR model developed by the Voluntary Interindustry Commerce Standards committee (VICS), CPFR has a more comprehensive focus that includes promotional, sales and order forecast plans (VICS 2002). Moreover, collaboration deals with synchronizing the dialogue between the parties, through joint decisions and exception management.

The belief that collaborative planning initiatives can take a number of different forms across supply networks is widely diffused. Larsen et al. (2003) state that collaborative planning initiatives can be implemented in various ways; as they can be differentiated both in terms of multiplexity of the collaboration - indicating the number of business areas involved (e.g. definition of promotional, sales forecast or order forecast plans) - and level of integration of business processes (e.g. degree of discussion, co-ordination/synchronisation).

A similar perspective emerges from the Efficient Consumer Response (ECR) Guide on CPFR (ECR 2001). It suggests that the VICS model has indeed a “modular” structure since, in some circumstances, it is not necessary to collaborate on promotional, sales and order forecast plans. For example, Levi Strauss & Co. incorporates only certain aspects of the CPFR business process in its retail replenishment service, by creating joint order forecast plans and identifying exceptions (for instance, over/under stock situations, execution problems) (Aviv 2001). Similarly, Danese et al. (2004) report some interesting examples of pharmaceutical companies where manufacturing units and distribution centers jointly manage only order forecast plans and solve the exceptions.

3. CONTINGENCY FACTORS IN COLLABORATIVE PLANNING INITIATIVES

A theory in supply chain management (SCM) literature that is often used to explain differences in collaborative planning initiatives states that they depend on the existence of integration paths, which evolve from basic to more advanced forms of collaboration (Spekman et al. 1998, ECR 2001,
Larsen et al. 2003, Seifert 2003). According to this theory, advanced collaboration practices can be considered the natural evolution for companies that already implement more basic forms of collaboration. Once a firm begins collaborating, it develops experience at cooperation and reputation as a partner. Over time, the firm develops capabilities to interact with other firms and strengthen trust with its partners, thus having the opportunity to enlarge its collaboration network or increase integration with its partners. For instance, Larsen et al. (2003) suggest that CPFR can be classified into three levels – basic, developed and advanced - depending on the depth of collaboration; and argue that the basic CPFR is frequently the starting point for other collaborative initiatives. Similarly, the ECR Guide on CPFR suggests the slogan: “think big, start small, and scale intelligently” (ECR 2001, p.67). Thus, it is necessary to “start small”, focusing on only a few processes in the early stage of the project’s development.

A fundamental criticism of this theory lies in the fact that it seems to suggest that collaborative planning initiatives are context-free, only dependant on the experience and knowledge acquired over time by companies. Instead, it is plausible to suppose that they can be seriously influenced by several contextual factors that can drive companies’ choices of what type of collaborative planning initiative should be implemented, given certain business conditions. Several firms for instance can deliberately limit collaboration to basic practices (e.g. passive exchange of data and information), even if the collaboration has reached an advanced stage of maturity.

In line with these considerations, in SCM literature, several authors maintain that some contextual conditions can influence SC collaborations and the implementation of collaborative planning initiatives.

In particular, the level of uncertainty in the context is usually considered a fundamental driver of SC collaborations and collaborative planning initiatives (Davis 1993, Fisher 1997, Lee 2002, Sari 2008, Welker et al. 2008, Wong and Boon-itt 2008). This is because a better collaboration reduces uncertainty, and this in turn leads to greater operational performances. Environmental uncertainty has often been linked to demand unpredictability (Davis 1993, Chen et al. 2000, Germain et al.
2008), i.e. the degree to which a firm can anticipate and forecast market trends. High levels of demand unpredictability often arise from innovative products, and thus Fisher (1997) distinguishes between innovative and functional products. Similarly Lee (2002) analyses demand fluctuations; while Sari (2008) considers variability of customer demand. Another important source of uncertainty considered is supply chain process variability which is linked to inconsistencies in the flow of goods (Germain et al. 2008). Finally, Welker et al. (2008) distinguish between simple and complex contexts (measured in terms of delivery times, order winners, variety of demand, type of supply chain relationships, and product/process characteristics) and investigate the influence on the level of information sharing (see also Van Donk and Van der Vaart 2004, 2005).

Taking for granted that the level of environmental uncertainty is positively related to the level of collaboration between companies, research on how some contextual factors, sources of uncertainty, can impact on specific aspects of collaborative planning initiatives is still scarce. As before discussed, collaborative planning initiatives can depend from different choices: for instance, from the decision to collaborate on many or few business processes, or from the degree of involvement of actors in the collaboration (e.g. frequency of data exchange, joint decisions, etc.). Though previous studies clarify that some contextual variables (e.g. uncertainty) impact on the level of collaboration (i.e. low or high), they lack a precise explanation of how contextual factors can influence the different aspects that characterise collaborative planning initiatives (e.g. number and type of business areas involved, level of coordination and synchronisation, etc.).

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND CASE PROFILES

The aim of this research is to uncover contingency effects in collaborative planning initiatives, by investigating: what contextual variables are critical in influencing these initiatives and their effect. A multiple-case study method was adopted to investigate the research question, as it is particularly helpful for identifying and describing critical variables, and for discovering linkages between them (Stuart et al. 2002). In particular, the implementation of different collaborative planning initiatives
in ten supply networks was examined. The inter-organisational level of analysis here is what Ritter and Gemünden (2003) call the portfolio level, i.e. the unit of analysis is the network involved in the collaboration. Taking a single firm as a starting point (namely the focal firm), it includes a special subset of the focal firm’s supply network, composed of all the actors that collaborate with the focal firm according to a well-defined collaborative planning initiative (e.g. VMI or CPFR).

Table 1 provides, for each case selected, information on: members involved in the collaboration, central company’s and headquarters’ location and products.

4.1 Case selection

The literal and theoretical replication issues guided the selection of the cases (Yin 1984). Companies representative of different types of collaborative planning initiatives were selected. Table 2 summarises for each case the main characteristics of the collaborative planning initiative implemented, and classifies the collaborative planning initiatives into three levels of collaboration: communication, limited collaboration and full collaboration, depending on: a) multiplexity and b) level of integration (table 3). In this research, multiplexity refers to the number and type of business areas involved in the collaboration (e.g. management of sales forecasts; management of order forecasts; management of promotions) (Larsen et al. 2003). The level of integration depends whether the collaborative planning initiative is based on mere data exchange (i.e. communication) or, in addition to data exchange, on joint decisions and agreements on plans (i.e. collaboration).
It is worth noting that three of the central companies contacted collaborated differently in the upstream and downstream networks, and this provided the opportunity to examine different collaborative planning initiatives. For instance, central company 3 (table 2) collaborated with the distribution centers (DCs) on a limited collaboration level, while its collaboration with the other production/packaging plants consisted in just the exchange of data/information on stock levels and available capacity (i.e. communication level).

4.2 Data collection, reduction and analyses

All data were gathered through company visits made from 2006 through 2009. Triangulation was used to ensure research reliability by obtaining the same piece of information from different sources: semi-structured interviews, documentation, archival records and direct observations. Data collection focused on variables underlying this research (i.e. context and collaboration planning initiatives), complemented with other issues enabling the understanding of the observed pattern of use of collaborative planning initiatives, such as the history of use of the practices, and the difficulties experienced by the companies in using them.

Data reduction allowed the information to be summarised and characterised from the masses of material that case studies generated (McCutcheon and Meredith 1993). It consisted of the characterisation of each case across the research variables (context and collaborative planning initiatives). A set of items was used to characterise each variable, and each item was classified according to a well-defined rule specified in Table 4. Central in defining these rules was the comparison of data across the cases and literature.
For characterising the variable “context”, four items were considered. As argued above, several authors consider uncertainty as a crucial contextual factor that can influence collaborative planning initiatives (Davis 1993, Fisher 1997, Lee 2002, Sari 2008, Welker et al. 2008, Wong and Boon-itt 2008). Studies mainly refer to demand uncertainty, measured as demand fluctuations and unpredictability (Fisher 1997, Lee 2002, Germain et al. 2008, Sari 2008). In this research, elasticity of demand was considered. In fact, demand uncertainty is usually magnified in those sectors where promotions periodically generate a peak in demand sales, since demand elasticity is high. The elasticity of demand was classified into high and low categories. By comparing cases, a clear distinction was found between some contexts where the average increase of customers’ sales volume during promotions was less than 40% (assigned to a low-class of demand elasticity) and contexts where it was higher than 200% (assigned to a high-class of demand elasticity).

In addition, the goals of companies involved in the collaboration project were taken into account. In fact, supply chain process variability, which influences the level of environmental uncertainty (see Germain et al. 2008), can also depend on companies’ order winners and goals. Welker et al. (2008), for instance, distinguish contexts by considering not only the variety of demand and product/process characteristics, but also companies’ order winners, and investigate their influence on the level of information sharing (see also Van Donk and Van der Vaart 2004, 2005). In accordance with literature, the goals of the collaboration were distinguished into “efficiency” and “responsiveness” (Forrester 1961, Disney and Towill 2002, Småros 2007).

Finally, two further contextual factors were analysed that can influence collaborative planning initiatives: the position of companies within a supply chain and supply network spatial complexity. In fact, these circumstances can determine the competences possessed by companies on final market
dynamics and thus their contribution in defining supply and demand plans. The product-diversity item takes into consideration the position of companies within a supply chain, i.e. whether collaborating companies sold the same or a different product. Moreover, a clear distinction was found between local and international networks: the first ones characterised by an average physical distance of a few dozens or hundreds of kilometers between firm(s) in the upstream network and the markets served by the firm(s) in the downstream network; the latter by an average physical distance of thousands of kilometers.

Finally, the collaborative planning initiatives were distinguished in terms of levels of collaboration, classified as communication, limited collaboration and full collaboration (see table 3). Each level differs for level of integration and multiplexity.

Data reduction was used for both the within-case and cross-case analysis. Within-case analysis gave the researcher the possibility to become intimately familiar with each case as a stand-alone entity (Voss et al. 2002). This facilitated the comparison of the ten cases. Cross-case analysis was conducted by structuring the data through two-variable matrices (see next section). An effective approach was to pick a group of cases and to search for similarities and differences with other groups (Voss et al. 2002).

5. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This section compares the ten cases in order to identify some possible links between the context and collaborative planning initiatives implemented.

As suggested by Yin (1984), given the high number of cases examined, analyses of cases and results found are here presented in terms of cross-case analysis, and thus information from individual cases is dispersed throughout this section. In particular, the discussion is based on the comparison of the ten cases, through two-variable matrices. Results are then summarized in the form of propositions.
In the two-variable matrix of table 5, cases are classified according to the variables “level of the collaboration” and “goals of the collaboration” (efficiency vs. responsiveness). Evidence from cases and interviews suggested that interesting relationships could be found. In particular, as emerges from the visual pattern of table 5, it seems that when an efficiency strategy prevails, a collaboration based on the mere communication of data suffices to guarantee achievement of the goals. In contrast, when the priority of a company is to make its supply network more responsive, a deeper collaboration is then necessary. In particular, the collaborative planning initiative should be based on discussions, joint decisions, agreements on plans, and thus on a higher level of integration.

The richness of data collected helped to better understand the rationale behind this link. Cases A and B are useful to explain the meaning of the relationship found between level of integration and goals of the collaboration (table 6).

The following proposition summarizes what emerged from cross-case analysis, and from information collected during the interviews.

**Proposition 1**: The level of integration depends on the goals of the collaboration. In particular:

- **Proposition 1a**: When the goal of the collaboration is efficiency, companies tend to limit the collaborative planning initiative to data exchange (i.e. communication level, characterised by low integration);
• **Proposition 1b: When the goal of the collaboration is responsiveness, companies tend to collaborate on a full or limited collaboration level (i.e. high integration).**

However, given the goals of the collaboration, it seems that other factors play a crucial role in choosing the business processes that are to be involved in the collaborative planning initiative, and thus the level of multiplexity of the collaboration. In fact, the matrix of Table 5 does not help us to understand why companies, whose goal is responsiveness, choose to collaborate on a full-level rather than limited-level of collaboration. Differences in elasticity of demand, product diversity, and supply network spatial complexity help us to better understand this (Table 7).

High demand elasticity is an important distinguishing feature of cases H and I, indicated in Table 7 with the acronym HDE. In cases H and I, product shelf prices can significantly influence customer behavior, hence demand elasticity in the event of price variations is very high. In company 6’s stores (case I), sales volume could increase by up to 300 percent during a promotion; in the stores of company 5’s customers (case H) it varied between 200 and 300 percent. As stated by the supply chain manager of central company 6:

‘demand uncertainty in the food industry is low. Nevertheless, as a result of events such as promotions, there is a high level of demand fluctuations and this can lead to significant waste and losses within the supply network. Through collaboration on sales and promotional plans supply chain efficiency and responsiveness can significantly improve’.

Company 5’s and 6’s managers consider interpreting demand changes and satisfying final market needs as crucial factors to achieve competitive advantage, and, as a consequence, responsiveness to demand changes is a priority. Promotional events are one of the major problems for these companies as they generate massive swings in demand. For this reason, in recent years, they have
decided to launch a collaborative planning initiative with the aim of improving service level during promotions. In both cases, the collaborative planning initiative follows the procedure suggested by the CPFR technique (see table 2), and thus partners in the collaboration network jointly define promotional, sales and order forecast plans. Managers agree that this type of collaboration significantly contributes to improving forecast accuracy during promotions as lots of information from different sources is considered and discussed when elaborating sales and order forecast plans. Moreover, thanks to a prompt communication and analysis of POS data, producers can better react in the event of demand changes.

Thus, the following proposition is suggested:

- **Proposition 2:** The level of multiplexity in collaborative planning initiatives depends on demand elasticity. In particular, when demand elasticity is high companies tend to collaborate on a full collaboration level.

However, from the comparison of cases, it emerges also that full collaboration is efficacious only when partners have an in-depth knowledge of the final market, and thus can contribute with their competence to improving promotion management and sales forecast plans.

Table 7 shows, for instance, that cases H and I are similar to cases L and F in terms of demand elasticity (i.e. HDE), but differ in product diversity and spatial complexity. In fact, in cases H and I, partners sell the same product (i.e. SP) and are located in the same country (i.e. low spatial complexity – LSC). These contextual factors favor the development of a certain knowledge of the final market, even if a partner in the collaboration does not sell its products directly to final consumers. Central company 5 (case H), located in Brussels, for instance, sells and markets consumer and soft goods to retailers located in Belgium who then distribute the products in the Belgian region. Thus the spatial complexity is indeed low. The same considerations can be drawn for the collaborative planning initiative between company 6 and its suppliers. Company 6 is a food retailer that collaborates with its suppliers following the CPFR technique. Managers within
company 6 - located in Belgium - interact with local suppliers to define promotions and the sales forecast plans of company 6’s supermarkets located in Belgium, on the basis of which order forecast plans are established. It seems that the contribution of partners positioned upstream in the network when defining promotional and sales forecast plans is significant only when they have a thorough knowledge of market dynamics.

A comparison with cases L and F can help to better understand the influence of product diversity and spatial complexity on collaborative planning initiatives. Unlike cases H and I, case L companies involved in the collaboration sell and market different products. This seems to limit the opportunity for joint promotional and sales forecast plans to be established. Central company 7 produces and sells corrugated cardboards while its customers produced and sold food. In such situation, it is unfeasible for members positioned upstream in the network to participate in the definition of the promotional and sales forecast plans of its customers. Similarly, central company 4 (case F) does not collaborate with its DCs/distributors in jointly defining promotional plans and sales forecasts. In fact, in the managers’ opinion, this would not offer particular benefits. The distributors, located worldwide, in fact have the possibility to collect information and data on the market they serve and to elaborate accurate sales forecasts without collaborating with the central company, located far from the DCs it replenishes.

Finally, the following proposition summarizes the impact of product diversity and spatial complexity on the level of multiplexity in a collaboration.

- **Proposition 3: Product diversity and a high supply network spatial complexity limit the level of multiplexity in collaborative planning initiatives.**

### 5.1. The proposed contingency model

Propositions 1, 2, and 3 explain how the context can influence the different collaborative planning initiatives that should be implemented. By simultaneously considering the impact of all the
contextual variables analysed, some contexts can be identified and an ideal configuration of collaborative planning initiatives for each of these can be defined (table 8).

It emerges that companies collaborate on a full-collaboration approach (i.e. characterised by an high level of multiplexity and integration) when the main goal is to increase companies’ responsiveness to demand changes, companies sell and market the same products, demand elasticity in the event of price variation is high, and spatial complexity among partners is low. These are all necessary conditions for collaborating on a full collaboration level. Instead, when the main goal is to increase companies’ responsiveness, but one of the other conditions is not satisfied (e.g. companies sell different products, demand elasticity is low, or spatial complexity is high), companies should limit their collaboration to a limited-collaboration approach (i.e. low level of multiplexity and high level of integration). Finally, when companies aim to reduce their costs (e.g. inventory costs), in any case, collaboration should be limited to data communication – e.g. companies exchange data on order forecast plans, stock levels, sales plans, etc.

6. DISCUSSION

6.1 The value of contingency theory for interpreting collaborative planning initiatives

The contingency model developed in this research suggests that in some circumstances it is not necessary to increase the level of the collaboration by adopting a full-collaboration approach.

In this way, the present study complements the theory on integration paths, according to which companies should evolve from basic to more advanced forms of collaboration (Spekman et al. 1998, Barratt and Oliveira 2001, ECR 2001, Larsen et al. 2003, Seifert 2003). Over time, firms should
develop capabilities for interacting with other firms and strengthen trust with their partners, thus having the opportunity to increase collaboration with their partners. It is understandable that companies can arrive at the use of certain practices via a process of cumulative competence building and experimentation. However, this research demonstrates that, when implementing collaborative planning initiatives, the main objective of companies is not in any case to maximize the level of collaboration, as the type of products involved in the collaboration, and the characteristics of demand or the spatial complexity of the collaboration network can determine the more appropriate and convenient level of collaboration to be adopted.

In line with Das et al.’s study (2006) on the relationship between integration and performances, this research supports that collaborating with other partners can cause increased costs of coordination and inflexibility. It is convenient to increase the level of collaboration only when these costs are offset by more gains. For example, the results found demonstrate that when a producer is far from the markets it serves (i.e. high spatial complexity), it does not have an in-depth knowledge of the final market dynamics, and thus the benefit of collaborating with DCs in defining promotions and sale forecast plans is very low, compared to the increase in the coordination costs. Thus, coherently with Das et al.’s study (2006), it can be argued that an excess of investment in collaborative planning initiatives can be harmful, and that an ideal profile of collaboration can be identified. This research suggests the ideal configuration of collaborative planning initiative to be adopted under different contexts (see table 8).

6.2 The level of uncertainty as driver of collaborative planning initiatives: the role of goals and demand elasticity

With regard to the influence of environmental uncertainty on collaborative planning initiatives, research findings confirm that the goals of the collaboration and demand elasticity are important sources of uncertainty that drive companies towards more intense forms of collaboration (Chen et al. 2000, Lee 2002, Germain et al. 2008, Welker et al. 2008). However, this research also found that it is
important to distinguish between these two different sources of uncertainty and how each of them impacts on the different aspects of collaborative planning initiatives. In fact, in this study, an important variable characterising collaborative planning initiatives is the level of collaboration which depends on: the level of multiplexity (i.e. number and type of business areas involved in the collaboration) and level of integration (i.e. communication vs. collaboration through joint decisions and synchronisation of plans).

From the analysed cases, it emerges that, while the goals of the collaboration influence the level of integration between companies (see proposition 1); the elasticity of demand can determine the level of multiplexity (see proposition 2).

When the goal of the collaboration is to improve efficiency, the collaborative planning initiative can be based just on the exchange of data and information (i.e. low level of integration), as this allows the bullwhip effect to be limited, thus reducing costs, as pointed out by several authors (Cachon and Fisher 2000, Yu et al. 2001, Dejonckheere et al. 2004, Wu and Cheng 2008). However, when companies want to increase their responsiveness to demand changes then a collaborative planning initiative based on the synchronisation of plans and exceptions management is necessary. The result is an increased level of integration between companies. This is consistent with the study of Småros (2007) which concluded that the desire to improve responsiveness is one of the major triggers of CPFR collaborations.

Instead, the level of multiplexity is mainly determined by the elasticity of demand. A high demand elasticity causes fluctuations in demand in the event of promotions. As a consequence, companies involved in the collaboration, as well as jointly defining the order forecast plans, often collaborate to jointly decide promotions in the stores and sales forecast plans, through an intense exchange of data and opinions on future demand. As a consequence, the level of multiplexity increases. This result is in line with several cases described in the SCM literature. For instance, Spartan Stores, a grocery chain, shut down its VMI project after 1 year due to vendors’ inability to deal with product promotions (Simchi-Levi et al. 2000). In addition, Ralph Drayer, manager at Procter & Gamble,
after the implementation of CR, argued that although CR had provided a better approach to replenishment, there was still a lot of work to do in relation to promotions (Barratt and Oliveira 2001).

6.3 Product diversity and supply network spatial complexity as barriers to multiplexity in collaborative planning initiatives

Another result of this research concerns the role of product diversity and supply network spatial complexity in influencing collaborative planning initiatives. By analysing the effect of these variables, this study suggests that some factors can act as barriers to the collaboration and moderate the relationship between uncertainty and collaborative planning initiatives. In fact, in some cases (e.g. L and F), even if the goal of the collaboration was responsiveness to demand changes and demand elasticity was high, companies decided to limit multiplexity in the collaborative planning initiative, by jointly defining only order forecast plans. This means that, in some contexts, even if the environmental uncertainty is high, given certain contextual conditions, collaborative planning initiatives remain limited to less advanced forms.

In particular, proposition 3 suggests that product diversity and supply network spatial complexity can act as barriers, and thus limit the level of multiplexity in collaborative planning initiatives. In fact, upstream members can participate in the process of promotion and sales forecast definition, only if they have an in-depth knowledge of final market dynamics. Cases analysed demonstrate that this depends on the position of a company within the supply chain (e.g. a raw material supplier has usually no competence on final market dynamics), and from the physical distance between the company and market where products are sold. These results are in contrast with some SCM studies according to which advanced collaboration techniques (such as CPFR), once implemented in the downstream network, can be easily extended also upstream, independently of actors’ position in the supply chain, or the geographical distance between companies and final market served (ECR 2001, VICS 2002). Instead, results found suggest that a company should collaborate in a different way.
upstream with suppliers or downstream with distribution centers/retailers, and thus, collaborative planning initiatives should not only vary across sectors/contexts because the environmental uncertainty differs, but also along a supply chain. Or if two companies operate in the same sector or in a similar context but the configuration of their collaboration network is international vs. local, the collaborative planning initiatives adopted will differ.

7. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Literature provides only a partial understanding of the reasons that lead a company to implement a well defined collaborative planning initiative. This article intends to advance research on this issue by proposing a contingency theory of collaborative planning initiatives. Using data from ten case studies, this research provides a set of propositions that analyse in detail the impact of context on collaborative planning initiatives. Three levels of collaboration are identified (i.e. communication, limited collaboration and full collaboration) - depending on the level of integration (i.e. whether companies simply exchange data/information, or synchronise and jointly decide their plans) and multiplexity (i.e. the number of business areas involved in the collaboration). They are found to be associated with the goals of the collaboration (efficiency vs. responsiveness strategy) and demand elasticity. Companies analysed attempted to implement a full collaboration approach, based on the joint management of promotions, sales and order forecast plans, when they intended to improve their responsiveness in the event of demand changes and they faced a high level of demand elasticity. Furthermore, the research found that product diversity (i.e. whether companies sell different products) and a high supply network spatial complexity could limit the level of multiplexity in the collaboration. In fact, in these contexts, the collaboration is usually limited to the order forecast definition process, since collaborating on promotions or sales forecast plans does not lead to particular benefits, since upstream members do not have competence on final markets dynamics. Finally, it was found that when companies’ main goal is efficiency, collaborative planning initiatives should be limited to a communication level (i.e. companies exchange data and...
information but do not synchronise/discuss their plans). In fact, the cases analysed demonstrated that a collaborative planning initiative based on exceptions management, synchronisation and discussion of plans is especially useful only when companies aim to improve their responsiveness.

The links found between the contextual variables analysed and collaborative planning initiatives can provide managers with important levers for action. In fact, they help to determine which is the most appropriate form of collaborative planning initiative to be implemented. As previously discussed, one widespread SCM theory states that companies follow integration paths that evolve towards advanced collaborative planning initiatives. The risk of this theory is that it can lead us to consider advanced forms of collaboration, such as the CPFR, as the natural evolution for companies already implementing other collaborative planning initiatives. Instead, the links found between the above mentioned contextual variables and collaborative planning initiatives demonstrate that, under certain conditions, a company could decide to limit the collaboration to basic practices.

An additional important implication for managers, deriving from the adoption of the contingency perspective, is that it provides practitioners with a framework to understand the changes necessary in collaborative planning initiatives, as they anticipate changes in the environment and company strategy. By foreseeing the implications of these changes, the company will be in a position to make a series of planned changes in the collaborative planning initiative rather than being forced into reactionary, rushed changes when it finds that the old collaborative planning initiative does not fit with the new contingency factors.

Research findings provide insights that could be of interest to managers working in firms operating in different sectors and positioned in different supply network echelons (e.g. suppliers, manufacturers, distributors). However, the opportunity to use the contingency model proposed in this research as a managerial tool calls for the testing of results within larger samples of supply networks, whose central companies are representative of a broader range of industries and countries. In fact, although the replication logic adopted in this research permits analytical generalization, it is worth noting that the analysed case studies are limited to a relatively small
sample and only a few industries. Future research is needed to confirm or refine the domain of applicability of the research findings by ascertaining whether they replicate in other industries. Finally, it is worth noting that contingency-theory based studies have several limitations. In fact, the contingency perspective assumes that practices are adopted due to efficiency factors; but companies often deviate from contingency-determined patterns due to non-efficiency pressures that could also lead to the low use of efficient practices. For example, powerful external organizations (associations, governmental regulations, etc.) may exert political pressures discouraging or encouraging the use of certain practices. Hence, as suggested by Sousa and Voss (2008), institutional theory emerges as a promising theoretical perspective to explain deviations from contingency-determined patterns. Linked to this, a further shortcoming of contingency theory is that it does not contemplate the development of capabilities as an important source of performance. The capabilities paradigm is rooted in the resource-based view of the firm (Barney, 1991), and provides a relevant explanation for why some firms may deliberately choose not to adopt efficient practices and rather opt to invest in the generation of slack resources that are difficult to imitate, and thus represent a source of competitive advantage. Future research should examine the relative explanatory power and interplay of contingency, institutional, resource-based or other theoretical arguments in best SC collaboration practice adoption and use.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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REFERENCES


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Supply network members involved in the collaboration</th>
<th>Headquarters and central company location</th>
<th>Products</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| A    | Central company 1: manufacturing unit (MU) producing starter batteries  
      Several distribution centers (DCs) (independent and owned) | Headquarters: Italy  
      MU: Italy | Starter batteries | Logistics Operations manager and planners (company 1); external consultant involved in the implementation of the collaboration project; area managers (company 1), factory manager (DC) |
| B    | Central company 2: MU producing injectable cephalosporins  
      Owned DCs located worldwide and directly replenished by company 2 | Headquarters: UK  
      MU: Italy | Medicines | Logistics Director and production planners (company 2); product managers (DC) |
| C    | Central company 2  
      Owned and independent suppliers | Headquarters: UK  
      MU: Italy | Medicines | Logistics Director and buyers (company 2); factory managers and planners (suppliers of labels and active agents) |
| D    | Central company 3: MU producing an anaesthetic and responsible for the final packaging of an antibiotic  
      Owned and independent DCs | Headquarters: UK  
      MU: Italy | Medicines | Logistics Director and planners (company 3); product team's members (DC) |
| E    | Central company 3  
      Production and packaging plants (owned and independent) | Headquarters: Italy | Air conditioners | Logistics Director (company 3); factory managers (production and packaging plants) |
| F    | Central company 4: MU producing and distributing air conditioners  
      Distributors | Headquarters: Sweden  
      MU: Italy | Air conditioners | Sales manager, Comfort & Refrigeration Business Unit managers and product manager (company 4); factory managers (distributors) |
| G    | Central company 4  
      Suppliers of engines and copper | Headquarters: Sweden  
      MU: Italy | Consumer and soft goods | Factory managers and planners (company 4); factory managers and planners (suppliers of engines and copper) |
| H    | Central company 5: sales company(SC) (located in Belgium) selling and marketing consumer and soft goods  
      Large customers (retailers) | Headquarters: Sweden  
      SC: Belgium | Consumer and soft goods | Customer Supply Chain Manager and sales managers (company 5); external consultant involved in CPFR implementation; supply chain manager (retailer) |
| I    | Central company 6: subsidiary of a food retailer located in Belgium, responsible for establishing promotional plans for the local supermarkets and for managing the replenishment of the Belgian DC  
      Three suppliers producing fats and margarines; candy bars and feminine hygiene products | Headquarters: Belgium  
      Subsidiary: Belgium | Food | Supply chain manager (company 6); external consultant involved in CPFR implementation; factory manager and planners within supplier plant producing fats and margarines |
| L    | Central company 7: MU producing corrugated cardboards for product transport  
      Some customers (food producers) | Headquarters: Belgium  
      MU: Belgium | Corrugated cardboards | Chief Supply Chain Officer and planners (company 7); factory manager and planners within a customer's plant |
Table 2. Collaborative planning initiatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Collaborative planning initiative</th>
<th>Level of collaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>The collaboration is mainly based on the exchange of data and information (i.e. communication level). Company 1 can read and extract DCs’ stock and sales data. By using this data, the MU forecasts what retailers will require to the DCs, and elaborates the order forecast plans of the DCs, by taking into account DCs’ stock levels. However, sales and order forecast plans elaborated by central company 1 are not communicated nor shared with DCs.</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Central company 2 receives stock level data and sales forecast plans from fifty DCs. On the basis of this data the central system proposes the replenishment plans, suggesting dates to the central company for the deliveries of final products to each distribution center. The deliveries are decided in order for the stock level at the DCs’ facilities to fall within a jointly established range (called VMI min-max range). Replenishment plans have then to be confirmed by the planners within both the central company and the DCs. If a DC does not confirm the plans, or asks for additional orders that fall within the frozen planning horizon, the central company proposes – on the basis of a what-if analysis – alternative delivery plans by estimating the impact of any order time/volume change on the plans of the downstream supply network members. This type of collaborative planning initiative can be classified as limited collaboration, as parties jointly develop the plans, but the collaboration is limited to order forecast definition process.</td>
<td>Limited collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Every Monday morning, company 2’s planners send to two packaging material suppliers and to the active agent supplier the order forecast plan that includes a 5-month planning period. The suppliers consider the order forecasts that fall within the frozen period as firmed orders. Thus the collaborative planning initiative is at a communication level.</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Central company 3 receives sales forecasts and stock level data from about thirty DCs. The delivery plans, elaborated by the MU, are proposed to the DCs that can confirm the plans or ask for modifying, anticipating or postponing the orders. Similarly to case B, DCs’ stock levels have to fall within a range jointly established by the MU and the DCs. When order forecast exceptions occur (e.g. a DC asks for anticipating an order), the MU, on the basis of what-if analyses, can propose alternative delivery plans, thanks to the flexibility due to the jointly agreed stock level range. As the MU and DCs jointly define the order forecast plans and solve order forecast exceptions, this type of information processing can be classified as limited collaboration.</td>
<td>Limited collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>MU decides the production and delivery plans for all the production and packaging plants (more than twenty) included within the supply network of the antibiotic packaged and distributed by company 3. The collaboration between the MU and production and packaging plants is mainly based on the exchange of data and information (i.e. communication level), as the MU reads stock levels and available capacity of production and packaging plants, and communicate production and delivery plans to them. Exceptions are not discussed nor shared, while plans are centrally decided by the MU.</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Central company 4 receives stock level and sales forecast data from four distributors, each of which sells and distributes air conditioners in a specific market. Both company 4 and the distributors elaborate order forecast plans (i.e. deliveries of air conditioners to the distributors) that are then compared to identify exceptions. The exceptions are then solved to achieve a final common order forecast plan. This case is an example of limited collaboration.</td>
<td>Limited collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Company 4 elaborates and sends its raw material order forecast plans to four suppliers, producing aluminium (two suppliers), and copper (two suppliers). Each supplier uses this data to organize product deliveries, and plan its production. Thus collaboration is limited to a mere data communication (i.e. communication level).</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Collaborative planning initiatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Collaborative planning initiative</th>
<th>Level of collaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Every year, central company 5 and customers involved in the collaboration jointly establish a promotional plan (e.g. promotions to be made in the shops, in what periods, how many stock-keeping units (SKUs) will be included), that is reviewed every 3 months. Then, by using customers' sales data and promotional plan, both the central company and each customer estimate the sales forecast plans (i.e. demand of final customers). Discrepancies in the plans are discussed to obtain a common sales forecast plan. By considering stock level data and common sales forecast plan, both the central company and each customer elaborate an order forecast plan. Again, by comparing the plans, exceptions (e.g. significant differences) are identified and solved. Hence, the collaborative planning initiative is at a full collaboration level, as companies jointly define promotional, and sales and order forecast plans. Initially, company 5 collaborated on a full collaboration level with few partners, but, in 2005, decided to extend the collaboration to several other customers.</td>
<td>Full collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Similarly to case H, the collaborative planning initiative is at a full collaboration level. The joint promotional plan is established every year. It mainly concerns decisions on promotional events (i.e. promotional period and SKUs to be involved). This plan is then reviewed and detailed during the year. Every week, on Friday, suppliers and company 6 elaborate independent sales forecast plans, by using supermarkets's POS data of the last two years, and promotional plans. Afterwards, suppliers' and company 6's sales forecasts are compared. They can't differ more than a certain percentage. Otherwise, an exception occurs. Every Monday, company 6 and its suppliers try to solve the exceptions found by analyzing POS data. Similarly, companies collaborate in defining order forecast plans. Every Tuesday, each company elaborates its order forecast plan, and every Wednesday companies collaborate to solve order forecast exceptions. The collaboration initially involved three suppliers; then was extended to include several other partners.</td>
<td>Full collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Customers weekly send to company 7 their corrugated cardboards gross requirement plans. By considering customers' stock level of corrugated cardboards, both the central company and customers elaborate deliveries of corrugated cardboards to be made. Exceptions are identified through the comparison of plans. The collaborative planning initiative is at limited collaboration level, as the collaboration concerns just the order forecast definition process.</td>
<td>Limited collaboration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Summary characteristics of three levels of collaboration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL OF COLLABORATION</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Level of integration and multiplexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Companies collaborate simply by exchanging data and information with trading partners. The types of data exchanged can differ. For example, a company can receive order forecast plans from its customers. Alternatively, a company can receive stock level and consumption data (or sales forecasts) from its customers and decide customers’ order plans (e.g. VMI or CR). In all cases the collaboration is simply a sort of data communication. Indeed parties do not jointly develop promotional, sales or order forecast plans (i.e. low level of integration).</td>
<td>Low level of integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited collaboration</td>
<td>Limited collaboration differs from communication by taking the collaboration a little further than mere data exchange. Parties jointly develop order forecast plans and manage exceptions (e.g. discrepancies in the plans). The collaboration is limited to order forecast definition process (i.e. low level of multiplexity and high level of integration).</td>
<td>High level of integration Low level of multiplexity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full collaboration</td>
<td>Compared to limited collaboration, full collaboration is characterized by an increased number of areas in which companies collaborate. The collaboration includes the joint development of promotional, sales and order forecast plans, and sales/order forecast exception management, as suggested by CPFR technique (high level of multiplexity and high level of integration).</td>
<td>High level of integration High level of multiplexity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Data reduction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Characterisation</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td></td>
<td>Low (LDE) (less than 40%) or high (HDE) (more than 200%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elasticity of demand</td>
<td>Low (LDE) (less than 40%) or high (HDE) (more than 200%)</td>
<td>Low (LDE) (less than 40%) or high (HDE) (more than 200%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals</td>
<td>Strategy of efficiency (companies aim to reduce costs (e.g. investments in stocks) without penalizing service levels) or strategy of responsiveness (the main purpose is to make the supply network more reactive to demand changes)</td>
<td>Low (LDE) (less than 40%) or high (HDE) (more than 200%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product diversity</td>
<td>Same products (SP) (companies involved in the collaboration sell the same products) or different products (DP) (companies sell different products)</td>
<td>Low (LDE) (less than 40%) or high (HDE) (more than 200%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply network spatial complexity</td>
<td>Low (LSC) (few dozens or hundreds of kilometers); high (HSC) (thousands of kilometers)</td>
<td>Low (LSC) (few dozens or hundreds of kilometers); high (HSC) (thousands of kilometers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative planning initiative</td>
<td>Level of collaboration</td>
<td>Communication, limited collaboration, full collaboration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5. Relationship between the level of the collaboration and goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of collaboration and integration</th>
<th>Communication</th>
<th>Limited Collaboration</th>
<th>Full Collaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low level of integration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High level of integration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High level of integration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Low level of integration</th>
<th>High level of integration</th>
<th>Full level of integration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CASE A, CASE C, CASE G, CASE E</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Links between goals and level of the collaboration in cases A and B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Level of the collaboration</th>
<th>Main conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case A</td>
<td>Strategy of efficiency: In the last years the pressure for reducing component prices in the automotive industry has significantly increased and led company 1 to pursue a strategy aimed at containing production costs.</td>
<td>Communication level: In the 2002, company 1 launched a collaborative planning initiatives, based on the communication of distribution centers’ (DCs) data (sales and stock levels) to company 1. The collaboration allowed to increase company 1’s “visibility”, thus limiting the “bullwhip” effect and minimizing inventories of products within company 1’s warehouse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case B</td>
<td>Strategy of responsiveness: Company 2 is the sole responsible for the whole production process of injectable cephalosporins and for their distribution throughout the world. For this reason, for company 2, being responsive in case of demand changes is essential.</td>
<td>Limited collaboration: Final deliveries plans are jointly defined by the DCs and central company 2, by taking into account also the additional orders that fall within the frozen planning horizon. Responsiveness is the result of an high level of integration between the central company and DCs, based on a two-way interaction and frequent discussions to reach an agreement on final delivery plans.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Relationship between product diversity, elasticity of demand, spatial complexity, and multiplexity in the collaborative planning initiatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product diversity, demand elasticity, spatial complexity</th>
<th>Full collaboration</th>
<th>Limited collaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(SP, HDE, LSC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DP or LDE or HSC</td>
<td>CASE H (SP, HDE, LSC)</td>
<td>CASE I (SP, HDE, LSC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of collaboration and multiplicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full collaboration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High multiplexity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited collaboration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low multiplexity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CASE L (DP, HDE, LSC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CASE B (SP, LDE, HSC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CASE D (SP, LDE, LSC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CASE F (SP, HDE, HSC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: the ratings were obtained by applying the data reduction rules specified in table 4
Table 8 – Contexts and collaborative planning initiatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contexts</th>
<th>Collaborative planning initiatives</th>
<th>Level of integration and multiplexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Goal of the collaboration: efficiency</td>
<td>Companies exchange data and information (e.g. POS data) with the aim of minimizing inventories.</td>
<td>Low level of integration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| - Goal of the collaboration: responsiveness  
  - Elasticity of demand: low, or spatial complexity: high, or product diversity: different products | Parties jointly develop order forecast plans and manage exceptions. Collaborating on sales forecast plans and promotions is not a priority, since demand elasticity is low. Moreover product diversity or a high supply network spatial complexity limit the collaboration to order forecast definition process. | High level of integration  
Low level of multiplexity |
| - Goal of the collaboration: responsiveness  
  - Elasticity of demand: high  
  - Spatial complexity: low  
  - Product diversity: same product | Companies collaborate to jointly manage promotional, sales and order forecast plans. Collaborating on promotions and sales forecast plans is necessary, because demand elasticity is high. However, companies in the upstream network can participate in the process of promotion and sales forecast definition, only if they have an in-depth knowledge of final market dynamics (i.e. when the spatial complexity is low and companies participating in the collaboration sell the same product). | High level of integration  
High level of multiplexity |