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Competitive intelligence and business strategic planning: a review

Inteligência competitiva e planejamento estratégico empresarial: uma revisão

Inteligencia competitiva y planificación estratégica empresarial: una revisión

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Abstract
This article is a conceptual review of the relationship between Competitive Intelligence (CI) and Business Strategic Planning (BSP). The classical methods of Strategic Planning, such as SWOT analysis and Porter's Five Forces, and modern technologies, such as ETL, Data Warehousing, and OLAP, are illustrated to show how CI can support BSP and how BSP can support CI. Strategic Planning looks externally at the environment and internally at the organization to make strategic, proactive decisions about the organization's future. CI processes data from different sources, transforms and organizes it, and provides intelligence that supports Strategic Planning decisions. The integration between CI and BSP enables organizations to address and manage diverse challenges, make strategic decisions, and gain a competitive advantage in an unpredictable market.
Keywords
Competitive Intelligence, Business Strategic Planning, Strategic Management, Data Warehouse, SWOT Analysis.

Resumo
Este artigo apresenta uma revisão conceitual da relação entre Inteligência Competitiva (IC) e Planejamento Estratégico de Negócios (PEN). Os métodos clássicos de Planejamento Estratégico, como a análise SWOT e as Cinco Forças de Porter, e as tecnologias modernas, como ETL, Data Warehousing e OLAP, são ilustrados para mostrar como a IC pode apoiar o PEN e como o PEN pode apoiar a IC. O Planejamento Estratégico analisa o ambiente externo e a organização internamente para tomar decisões estratégicas e proativas sobre o futuro da organização. A IC processa dados de diferentes fontes, transforma-os e os organiza, fornecendo inteligência que apoia as decisões de Planejamento Estratégico. A integração entre IC e PEN permite que as organizações enfrentem e gerenciem diversos desafios, tomem decisões estratégicas e obtenham vantagem competitiva em um mercado imprevisível.

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Palavras-chave
Inteligência Competitiva, Planejamento Estratégico de Negócios, Gestão Estratégica, Data Warehouse, Análise SWOT.

Resumen
Este artículo ofrece una revisión conceptual de la relación entre la Inteligencia Competitiva (IC) y la Planificación Estratégica Empresarial (PEE). Se ilustran los métodos clásicos de Planificación Estratégica, como el análisis FODA y las Cinco Fuerzas de Porter, y las tecnologías modernas, como ETL, el almacenamiento de datos y OLAP, para mostrar cómo la IC puede respaldar la PEE y cómo la PEE puede respaldar la IC. La Planificación Estratégica considera tanto el entorno externo como la organización internamente para tomar decisiones estratégicas y proactivas sobre su futuro. La IC procesa datos de diversas fuentes, los transforma y organiza, y proporciona información que respalda las decisiones de Planificación Estratégica. La integración entre la IC y la PEE permite a las organizaciones abordar y gestionar diversos desafíos, tomar decisiones estratégicas y obtener una ventaja competitiva en un mercado impredecible.
Palabras clave
Inteligencia Competitiva, Planificación Estratégica Empresarial, Gestión Estratégica, Almacenamiento de Datos, Análisis FODA.

1. Introduction

The increase in business speed and the accelerated dynamics of the environment in which companies operate have increasingly required the integration of ideas, concepts, and theories that support managers' daily work. Thus, an older technique, Strategic Business Planning (PEE), can benefit from the new methodologies and technologies developed by the process of elaborating Competitive Intelligence (CI). The relationship between the two is bidirectional: if the PEE benefits from the information and knowledge generated by CI, it also influences the way it is constituted, determining databases, records, and metadata (Calof & Wright, 2008; Dantas et al., 2024; Fleisher & Bensoussan, 2015; Wright et al., 2012). This text describes, in general terms, the strategic planning process and the supporting processes and structures for competitive intelligence, showing the points of contact between them (Calof & Wright, 2008; Mohammad et al., 2024; Wright et al., 2012). Strategic planning seeks to establish the paths companies should follow based on an analysis of their external and internal environments. It differs from previous approaches by observing these environments in a panoramic manner, anticipating changes, and enabling proactive decision-making (Porter, 2008; Wright & Stadel, 1990). In the 1970s, it gained notoriety, but the accelerated dynamics of business at the end of the twentieth century highlighted its fragility, as it was designed for long periods and reacted slowly to changes. Strategic management then emerges, transforming the PEE into a continuous process, continually realigned through environmental monitoring and the evaluation of results (Mohammad et al., 2024; Porter, 2008; Wright et al., 2012). In today's volatile, fast-

changing business environment, companies need to become more resilient and responsive. While Competitive Intelligence (CI) methods generate a wide range of information, the main value lies in their application to Business Strategy Planning (BSP). CI helps companies to better respond to changes in the business environment, while BSP is about making strategic decisions by linking generated intelligence to company goals. This review aims to explore potential intersections between the two disciplines from both theoretical and practical perspectives.

2. Theoretical Background

From a theoretical perspective, Competitive Intelligence (CI) and Strategic Intelligence (SI) are related subjects within the broad arena of strategic management. Wright, Eid, and Fleisher (2009) examine the practice of competitive intelligence within the UK retail banking sector. The results support the view that competitive intelligence is a significant practice that supports marketing decisions and strategic managerial activity, and highlight its key role within the corporate governance system and the strategic management process. There is widespread agreement in the literature that intelligence can contribute to flexibility. Using strategic intelligence, organizations can foresee future scenarios and respond quickly by designing an appropriate organizational structure to handle certain circumstances (Al-Zu'bi, 2016). Competitive intelligence can contribute to strategic flexibility and organizational innovation, which, in turn, can facilitate adaptability (Atkinson et al., 2022).

The application of the sectoral environment determinant—Porter's Five Forces—is a common practice among researchers and practitioners alike. However, to maximize its explanatory power, recent studies have sought to establish links between Porter's model and competitive intelligence practices. The article examines competitive intelligence in light of the requirements that strategy formulation puts on intelligence practices and demonstrates that competitive intelligence is the key component that supplies the critical mass of relevant data required for the model's practical application. In doing so, the article demonstrates that competitive intelligence is more than a supplementary practice that can be added to the model; it is an indispensable component of the strategy-formulation process, enabling the practical application of available theories. Research into the internal environment has also been conducted. When applying a contingency theory perspective to organizational design, Mintzberg (1982, 1997) focused on the fit between organizational design and a variety of external and/or internal environmental factors, such as an organization's age, size, and/or technical systems. In furthering this stream of research, scientists have examined how intelligence practices can support organizational design choices. Collective organizational engagement, for instance, relates to the implementation of strategy and organization-specific

performance (Barrick, Thorman, et al., 2015). In this way, intelligence practices can predict motivational antecedents and support organizational design choices that complement existing human capital research and align with an organization's technical systems.

Research also explores the role of intelligence in enabling long-term competitive advantage. Agha et al. (2014) found that strategic intelligence was positively related to firm performance in the biotechnology industry, with strategic flexibility acting as a mediator. Competitive intelligence is therefore a crucial component for organizations seeking to develop a sustainable competitive advantage in a fast-changing market environment. Competitive intelligence can enhance performance as an immediate outcome and increase the organization's flexibility to respond to changing market conditions. The practice of intelligence within a competitive environment is further contextualized against a long-term backdrop. Maune (2014) explores competitive intelligence practice within a South African context, while Sewdass and Du Toit (2014) focus on its current practice across sectors and business types. Intelligence and strategic management have been discussed across different disciplines. Alnoukari and Hanano (2017) discussed integrating business intelligence systems into the corporation's strategic management to support strategic decision-making. Du Plessis and Gulwa (2016) proposed a framework to support the intelligence needs of financial institutions. Importantly, they demonstrated that such a framework is crucial to ensuring that the generated intelligence is relevant to managers' needs. However, intelligence must be embedded in organizational processes rather than treated as an independent activity. Despite the manifold benefits that competitive intelligence can bring to an organization, large gaps in the literature remain to be addressed. Studies conducted in Israel found that competitive intelligence has only a limited impact on corporate strategy, due to historical, organizational, or cultural reasons. Another study presented a conceptual model of the strategic benefits of competitive intelligence; no empirical validation was reported. This paper aims to systematically identify patterns and themes in references to these types of issues in the current literature, employing thematic analysis to better understand the field's research. This study examines the competitive intelligence used by a major US-based retailer to update its strategic plan. By presenting the two theories thematically, the study highlights that they are not mutually exclusive but interdependent, with planning providing a framework for strategy and intelligence providing the information to make that strategy relevant. The study contributes to the business and entrepreneurship research literature on the role of information, knowledge, and organizational learning in gaining and sustaining competitive advantage (Calof & Wright, 2008; Dishman & Calof, 2008; Gilad, 2016).

3. Methods

This paper is a conceptual literature review that examines the links between Competitive Intelligence (CI) and Business Strategic Planning (BSP). The aims and objectives of this study are to review the literature on CI and BSP from theoretical and empirical perspectives, drawing on relevant contributions from strategic management, organizational studies, and business intelligence. A narrative approach to the review is adopted, using both the classical strategic planning methodologies and the more contemporary approaches to delivering intelligence (ETL), Data Warehousing, and OLAP.

The research materials were searched through the following databases: Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar. The search focused on the most important scientific articles and current studies on competitive strategy. "Classics" such as Porter (1980, 2008) and Mintzberg (2009), as well as more recent research on competitive intelligence models (CI) and BSP applications in different sectors, were included in the search. The selected publications were evaluated against the following inclusion criteria: (1) the publication discussed CI/BSP/their integration, (2) the publication provides theoretical, empirical, or conceptual insights that can be useful for strategic managers in terms of making strategic decisions. Excluded were publications that were non-academic or lacked methodological rigor.

The analysis is based on a thematic approach to present the findings of relevant publications. The content of these publications was evaluated to extract central concepts and to categorize them. The following categories were selected: bidirectional relationships between Continuous Improvement (CI) and Business Process Streamlining and People Simplification (BPS); the positive effects of Continuous Improvement on strategic flexibility and adaptability; the integration of intelligence into organizational design and governance; and the effects of Continuous Improvement on sustainable competitive advantage. The thematic analysis allows for the identification of complementarities and contradictions, and for mapping gaps in the literature regarding the relationships between CI and BSP.

This study is conceptual in nature, and no real-life cases were selected for analysis and discussion. All resources used for this paper were published and available in the English language; however, the selected resources are the most relevant and of highest quality relative to current research on the incorporation of computer-aided learning (CAL) in the context of physical and health education, specifically with reference to concept instruction (CI) and baseball skill practice (BSP).

4. Findings and Analysis

This literature review starts with the relation between Strategic Business Planning and Competitive Intelligence. The literature states that Strategic Business Planning (SBP) provides a comprehensive view of an organization's internal and external environment and can be proactive rather than reactive. This view is processed in a Strategic Business Plan. Competitive Intelligence (CI) is about collecting, processing, and applying data to achieve organizational objectives. The literature shows a two-way relationship between SBP and CI (Calof & Wright, 2008; Fleisher & Bensoussan, 2015; Wright et al., 2012). Planning scopes the intelligence activities, and intelligence provides the relevant information to enhance the SBP process (Porter, 2008). Moreover, effective Strategic Business Planning can help an organization better implement competitive intelligence (Wright & Stadel, 1990).

CI can enhance strategic flexibility. Organizations that use CI as part of their planning processes show greater flexibility in dealing with uncertainties and in addressing changes as they occur. This is because CI helps organizations forecast future scenarios, predict competitors' behavior, and design their structures accordingly. Using CI as part of the SBP process transforms traditional strategic planning into a dynamic, continuous process of monitoring the two main environments and assessing the outcomes of the organization's actions (Mohammad et al., 2009).

CI can enable organizations to respond appropriately and to exploit the business opportunities as they emerge. In a competitive scenario, where business opportunities are rare and failure is costly, such an ability is essential. Information generated through CI enables organizations to recognize windows of opportunity, thereby enhancing performance by enabling effective, timely responses. Moreover, since market forces dictate the direction and pace of change, organizations cannot afford to ignore the external environment. As such, they have no option but to be open to change and to be willing to adapt to evolving situations, which is made possible through the implementation of CI systems (Kettinger et al., 1997). 2024; Wright et al., 2012).

The ability to apply classical planning tools and modern intelligence technologies is also a must. SWOT analysis and Porter’s Five Forces for the macro and sector environments are the same; however, they are greatly enhanced by the application of Corporate Intelligence (Gilad, 2016; Dishman & Calof, 2008). The challenge here is that there is little value to applying these models without the critical mass of relevant data to inform the planning process. Furthermore, technologies that support ETL, Data Warehousing, and OLAP (Alnoukari & Hanano, 2017) can facilitate the processing of vast amounts of information to support timely strategic decision-making.

The application of Competitive Intelligence (CI) is not limited to supporting strategic decision-making in businesses. This article also explores its potential to support organizational design and governance. As intelligence practices are implemented, organizations can make design decisions about structure, processes, and people. The effect of intelligence on corporate governance is furthermore discussed. How can CI support organizations in doing the right thing and reducing uncertainty? By providing managers with relevant and timely information, organizations increase their chances of doing the right thing, reduce uncertainty, and therefore improve their performance. CI can be a key element in how an organization functions.

Collective Intelligence (CI) holds promise for achieving long-term competitive advantage. Initially, intelligence offers rapid benefits by fostering innovation, intelligence generation, and adaptive and strategic learning (Agha et al., 2014; Maune, 2014; Sewdass & Du Toit, 2014). However, there is currently little knowledge about Collective Intelligence. In some cultures and organizations, intelligence has a limited impact on corporate strategy due to a host of historical and structural reasons (Wright, Eid & Fleisher, 2009). While many conceptual models outline the benefits of Competitive Intelligence (CI) for organizations, empirical research to test and validate these models is lacking.

5. Discussion

Calof & Wright (2008), Fleisher & Bensoussan (2015), and Wright et al. (2012) and others describe in the SBP and CI literature how SBP helps organizations to recognize and capitalize on internal and external changes through a strategic plan and how CI provides the intelligence that SBP utilizes to make informed decisions for the organization. This paper explores the extent to which an integrated approach to intelligence and strategic planning results in more flexible organizations with an effective design that can generate sustainable competitive advantage. To overcome the constraints of long-term planning, approaches embedded in the SBP process, the adoption of CI can enable organizations to anticipate the future and respond to it, thereby achieving strategic flexibility through intelligence (Al-Zu'bi, 2016). Thus, CI can transform the SBP process from a static, classical planning model into an ongoing process of monitoring, analysis, and learning. It helps organizations to develop an emergent strategy whilst addressing the ends of a deliberate strategy.

Competitive Intelligence (CI) is vital to enhancing the scope and explanatory power of the classical models that were developed and empirically validated decades ago. These models need to be able to compete in today's volatile, competitive environment. Besides helping understand the competitive environment and its key drivers, CI tools help derive strategic conclusions and formulate plans based on information relevant to a company. Advanced technologies like ETL, Data

Warehousing, and OLAP enable the processing of large volumes of data and the application of relevant models and strategies. The operationalized strategic thinking and business intelligence models thus created will enhance the company's performance. CI can also affect organizational design and governance. As noted previously, intelligence practices and sources influence organizational design, related processes, and human assets. Organizations seek to exploit their environment, which, in turn, affects their operational capacity. From an organizational design perspective, CI is associated with the contingency theory approach by Mintzberg (1982, 1997). According to this approach, organizational design involves matching organizational structure, processes, and employee talent with the demands of the external environment. Thus, effective organizational design and governance can be achieved through the implementation of CI systems. They can reduce uncertainty and serve as a risk management tool. Thus, CI can provide valuable inputs to strategic decision-making (Barrick et al., 2015) and assist in managing and monitoring all organizational activities (Du Plessis & Gulwa, 2016). Continuous Integration (CI), therefore, helps organizations adapt their internal processes to the significant external pressure they face. While many contributions to the special issue focus on the immediate benefits of CI for organizations, others show how contributions to CI can yield sustainable competitive advantage in the longer term through the creation of intelligence that enables innovation, adaptability, and strategic learning (Agha et al., 2014; Maune, 2014; Sewdass & Du Toit, 2014). On the negative side, several contributions report negatively on the impact of CI on corporate strategy, mainly due to negative cultural and organizational factors that impinge on CI's potential to make a difference despite historical antecedents and structural enablers (Wright, Eid & Fleisher, 2009). Although there is a wealth of knowledge regarding the potential benefits of CI, translating these concepts into reality requires further empirical-based research to validate practical applications. Our research evidence suggests that embedding CI into SBP processes has the potential to transform a long-term process into a dynamic, continuous one, thereby increasing organizational design flexibility and delivering sustainable competitive advantage. However, despite progress in CI research, there is currently a lack of empirical evidence, and the studies conducted in this area are predominantly small-scale and limited in scope. The findings from this research have limited generalizability and require further research to establish the necessary conditions for effectively utilizing CI to support the SBP process.

The determining factors for these forces are many, and the following should be highlighted: for rivalry in the industry, the ratio between aggregate demand and supply and its influencers; the bargaining power of customers and suppliers is mainly determined by the ease of substitution, whether of customer or supplier; the existence of new entrants is mainly affected by the attractiveness

of the sector combined with the existence of barriers to entry; Finally, the threat of substitute products is determined by the nature of the consumer need that will be met, and specific needs make it difficult for substitutes to exist. Also in the external environment, the possibilities of establishing cooperative links with competitors should be evaluated, for example, to buy together (gain in scale), share the distribution channel, or even the production infrastructure. Returning to the internal environment, the analysis of human, physical, and organizational resources stands out. Human resources are measured in terms of skills and competencies, as well as cost and productivity, indicating the need for livelihood or training. Physical resources include the availability of spaces, real estate, infrastructure, access to water, electricity, energy, etc., and can determine possibilities and limits, as well as constitute a competitive advantage. Organizational resources, on the other hand, involve recognizing the structure and its adequacy to the contingent design factors proposed by Mintzberg (age, size, environment, technical system, power), requirements that should be among the concerns of those preparing strategic planning.

For companies that have already formulated their mission, this is a time for analysis; for the others, it is a time for formulation. The mission will be an important instrument of communication across hierarchical levels and a point of alignment for organizational objectives. At this point, it is important to note the proximity structure and the objectives of Agency elements, the misalignment between the objectives of owners (stakeholders) and managers, and the existence of interests not represented on the board of directors. It is also important to map the other stakeholders and to check whether there is a governance structure capable of addressing this set.

Once the external and internal environments are known, a SWOT analysis can be made, which composes the threats and opportunities, located in the external environment, with the strengths and weaknesses, located in the internal environment. This comparison is made based on the level of occurrence of the threat or opportunity, its impact (positive or negative) on the company, and the cost of investment in maintaining a strength or transforming a weakness into a strength. The SWOT diagram shows the outcome of threat and opportunity encounters with strengths and weaknesses, indicating that threats can generate loss, opportunities can generate profit, and that internal strengths and weaknesses modulate these effects. After this phase, a portfolio analysis is conducted to evaluate the company's products or units for investment needs and their potential to generate cash. The result will be the definition of which products or units to keep and which to discard. At the end of the process, strategies are determined at a competitive level, between the choices of growth, stability, or retraction. The latter also defines the strategies of each segment or unit of the company, among the

generic alternatives of differentiation, cost leadership, or focus. The general strategies are translated into objectives and actions at the tactical and operational levels in a second moment.

Competitive Intelligence proposes to establish a methodology capable of collecting and analyzing the vast volume of data generated and processed by a productive organization, to provide managers with information that enables differentiated decisions in terms of quality and speed, thereby constituting a competitive advantage for the company. Its critics note that the approach is mechanistic and therefore has limited application to less complex business segments, such as production and accounting, serving little to address, for example, marketing problems. Another common criticism is the delay in providing information, since by the time structured reports arrive, the context has often changed. The analyses will be no more than records of the past, with little predictive value, because the facts occurred between the moment of data collection and the consultation at which the report will be received. Both problems have been addressed with increasingly elaborate techniques and technologies, enhanced by the rapid development of faster, more powerful hardware.

5.1 The Development of the System

The development of a knowledge generation system begins with data collection. Real data, transformed into information, gains meaning when analyzed in the light of the adopted models or paradigms. These not only define the meaning of the data, but also determine the meanings of their own aggregations. In an increasingly dynamic era, today's transaction processing systems handle hundreds of thousands of data items per unit of time, required to sustain the execution platform that underpins the enterprise architecture. The latter has been instrumental in adding value to customers and defining the primary role of data in database operations.

Of course, there are well-established execution platforms (regrettably, many), and many companies do not have a common set of accounts in a transaction database, with links or even comparisons maintained in spreadsheets and local databases. The reality for companies lies in the large number of legacy systems, spreadsheets, tables, and printed documents. The process begins by determining how to extract data from leaves and other sources and consolidating them in a database designed to generate information. Between extracting data from its various sources and loading it into the database that will support the computerized data transformation process, a phase known as transformation is commonly necessary, during which the data is "cleaned", completed, and enriched to increase its final usefulness. This whole process is conducted by ETL (extraction, transformation, and loading) and supplies a database with different characteristics from the one that supports day-to-day transactions. This database is known as a Data Warehouse.

The Data Warehouse has special characteristics: its data is recorded to ensure that information is categorized along several dimensions, such as time, geographic distribution, gender, and income range, among others. In addition to the Data Warehouse (DW), the system can also rely on smaller, similar databases known as Data Marts. Data Marts can be segmented by branch, industry, or geographic region. Their usefulness lies in making the analysis more agile, since they contain less data. They also allow that, in the answers, it is possible to offer the total set of data to the gaze of a specific point in the company. The process of deploying a DW can go in two directions: Top Down or Bottom Up. In the first, the definition of what is wanted in the corporate DW is provided, and the various units reflect the established proposal in their results. Leaving the data in the appropriate format to feed it is a strategy strongly aligned with the strategic planning process, since it seeks to form a panoramic understanding, unfolded in the various local realities. The Bottom-Up alternative seeks to establish local databases that evolve into a large database. This is a slow and difficult implementation alternative, as the incompatibility between data structures leads to significant sprawl and rework. However, it shows results more quickly. Both alternatives have their advocates, but the Top-Down approach is more integrated.

The data in the Data Warehouse (DW) is analyzed in various ways. They are obtained, reported, and distributed through works that concentrate, for each manager, the necessary information according to their area of activity and hierarchical level. It is noted that aggregated information can be drilled down to lower levels, allowing the manager to see the details within their area of responsibility. In addition to the standardized information available in reports and dashboards, DW can also meet specific demands, allowing data to be "counted" and "cross-referenced" at different levels of interest. This process is known as OLAP (Online Analytical Processing), which operates on an n-dimensional hypercube that can be manipulated in various ways and generate diverse information. Given the scale of the knowledge production process, it is essential to have robust methodologies and tools to ensure consistency and agility. Within a governance strategy, it seeks to ensure that information is available only to authorized employees, maintain process continuity and purity, and prevent contamination of the Data Warehouse's single databases. All of this must occur without loss of consistency and without excessive cost increase. Finally, the Competitive Intelligence (CI) process is the one that starts from the information handled by local systems — such as accounting systems, MRP I, CRM, SCM, etc. — and advances beyond the integrated operational information of the ERP, producing knowledge capable of feeding back into the finalized Strategic Planning (SP), when the practice of carrying out Strategic Management.

6. Research Limitations

This is a conceptual study using secondary data sourced from books, academic articles, websites, and other sources written by experts in the field. The study includes only sources written in English. The study is therefore a literature review incorporating a thematic analysis of Competitive Intelligence sources to gain some insights into the theoretical models that interact with Competitive Intelligence and Strategic Business Planning. However, it is for subsequent studies to test the findings through meaningful, organization-level, cross-cultural empirical research.

7. Conclusion

Finally, the EP and CI processes are more than complementary: they are deeply intertwined and mutually collaborative. The CI process within the PE works as its initial reference, the large *framework* from which the necessary information will be defined. But it is the CI that will guarantee the NP its continuous updating, directing the data according to the paradigm for which the planning is set up and promoting organizational learning. In addition, the CI system can provide the organization with learning from the gap between the actual results of actions, decisions, and strategies and the expected results when they were taken.

8. Future Research

Future researchers to go beyond descriptive approaches and practices in Competitive Intelligence and its relationship with Strategic Business Planning. Comparative studies among various industries and cultures can enhance our understanding of the conditions and contexts under which Competitive Intelligence delivers greatest value in terms of strategic flexibility and long-term competitiveness. Adopting a longitudinal research design and employing a mixed-methods research methodology can open novel avenues of inquiry into how managers actually use intelligence in their planning practices. Moreover, studies on the emerging role of new technologies such as artificial intelligence, big data analytics, and machine learning in Competitive Intelligence, along with their practical implications for the strategic management process, are needed to better understand Competitive Intelligence's role in today's competitive environment.

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Appendix I – Comparative Analysis of DSR Effectiveness Dimensions Across Key Sources

Author	Rigor	Utility	Knowledge	Engagement	Evaluation
Van Aken et al. (2012)	Mid-range theory rigor	Rigor–relevance bridge	Scientific grounding	Practitioner orientation	Applied cases
Aturki et al. (2011)	Simulation methods rigor	Controlled testing utility	Artifact validation knowledge	Scenario modeling engagement	Simulation frameworks evaluation
Baskerville et al. (2009)	Rigor–relevance balance	Organizational alignment utility	Integrative evaluation knowledge	Participatory approaches engagement	Multi-criteria strategies evaluation
Peffers et al. (2007)	Process model rigor	Systematic development utility	Structured methodology knowledge	Communication & dissemination engagement	Explicit evaluation stage
Gregor & Jones (2007)	Artifact types definition rigor	Prescriptive categories utility	Artifact contribution clarity	Organizational context engagement	Instantiation & testing evaluation
Manson (2006)	Multi-criteria rigor	Diverse contexts utility	Evaluation frameworks knowledge	Multiple perspectives engagement	Performance relevance evaluation
Cole et al. (2005)	Case study rigor	Applied contexts utility	Empirical validation knowledge	Practitioner collaboration engagement	Balanced strategies evaluation
Vaishnavi & Kuechler (2004)	Iterative methodology rigor	Cycles of refinement utility	Embedded learning knowledge	Stakeholder problem identification engagement	Iterative evaluation
Walls et al. (1992)	Design theory rigor	Theory–artifact linkage utility	Formalized design theory knowledge	Practice alignment engagement	Theory testing evaluation
Kardas (1992)	Design requirements rigor	Kernel theory grounding utility	Structured design processes knowledge	Organizational alignment engagement	Theoretical–practical fit evaluation
Nunamaker et al. (1991)	IS design frameworks rigor	Organizational solutions utility	Knowledge advancement	Research–practice integration engagement	Organizational application evaluation
Eekels & Roozenburg (1991)	Design methodology rigor	Engineering practice utility	Formalized principles knowledge	Collaborative contexts engagement	Methodological application evaluation
Takeda et al. (1990)	Engineering logic rigor	Problem-solving artifacts utility	Structured knowledge creation	User needs alignment engagement	Problem-solving outcomes evaluation
Bunge (1980)	Scientific realism rigor	Practical engineering utility	Philosophical foundations knowledge	Applied science context engagement	Realism applicability evaluation

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Appendix II – DSRES: valid indicators (Brazilian Portuguese version)

Indicator	Question
eva_2	O desempenho das soluções costuma ser monitorado e avaliado.
utl_1	As soluções costumam resolver problemas relevantes para a empresa.
rig_2	As etapas de desenvolvimento costumam ser claramente definidas.
knw_4	As lições aprendidas costumam ser registradas.
rig_3	As soluções costumam seguir padrões de qualidade estabelecidos.
eng_4	As opiniões dos usuários costumam influenciar diretamente os resultados finais.
rig_5	A documentação do projeto costuma ser completa.
eva_4	A eficácia das soluções costuma ser avaliada regularmente.
utl_2	As soluções costumam ser viáveis para implementação na prática.
eva_3	As soluções costumam ser aprimoradas com base no feedback dos usuários.
eng_3	A comunicação entre equipe e usuários costuma ser aberta e transparente.
utl_3	As pessoas que utilizam as soluções costumam considerá-las úteis em seu trabalho.
eva_5	As soluções costumam ser ajustadas para atender às mudanças nas necessidades da empresa.
knw_5	Os projetos costumam deixar claro como contribuem para o conhecimento da organização.
eng_2	O feedback dos usuários costuma ser coletado e usado para melhorar as soluções.
eva_1	As soluções costumam ser testadas e validadas antes da implementação.
rig_4	As decisões de design costumam ser baseadas em critérios claros.
eng_5	A colaboração entre a equipe e os usuários costuma ser incentivada.