Interagency Coordination Drivers, Instruments, and Success Factors: A Systematic Literature Review

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ABSTRACT

Interagency coordination remains a classic and ever-expansive topic in public administration theory. Often considered the key to successful policy or program implementation, coordination also presents its complexities. Research on this subject continues to evolve regarding its sheer numbers, the diversity of locations, problems, and sectors of concern, and the type of government agencies being the subject. This article employed a systematic literature review to identify and analyze coordination drivers, instruments, and critical success factors associated with coordination. The study focused on original articles published from 2010 to 2021 in relevant journals indexed by Scopus. The review revealed that coordination can be driven by problems, institutions, or a combination of both simultaneously. Coordination instruments may involve one or a variety of interventions from governance and structure, systems and processes, policies and agreements, or the engagement of intermediaries. Factors of institutional settings, managerial capacity, and the accuracy of coordination strategies also determine the success of this intervention.

A. INTRODUCTION

Coordination between government agencies remains a perennial and indispensable subject in public administration, leading to continuous discourse. Despite being regarded as the key to the successful implementation of policies or programs, coordination is not without its intricacies, reminiscent of the enigmatic nature of Alice in Wonderland (Grossman & Cox, 1963). The New Public Management wave in the 1980s created some initiatives, such as identifying and decentralizing authority. Both of them derived from the assumption that the management of a specific affair would be more efficient if the administration were vested in the respective area’s leader. However, this specialized approach inherently necessitates greater coordination, as emphasized by Bouckaert et al. (2010), who warned that the absence of coordination would result in centrifugal tendencies.

Since the 1990s, several new terms have emerged as refinements of the complex concept of 'coordination', including 'joined-up government', 'holistic government', and 'whole of government'. These concepts build upon other terms initially considered synonymous with 'coordination,’ though they have nuanced distinctions among themselves, including cooperation, collaboration, coherence, and integration. Pollitt (2003) defined joined-up

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government as a concept representing the need for vertically and horizontally coordinated thinking and action. Thus, Pollitt implicitly mentioned that joined-up government is a manifestation of coordination. The whole of government has a scope overlapping with the joined-up government (Christensen & Lægreid, 2007). Therefore, it can be said that fundamentally, the concept of the whole of government is a manifestation of coordination in contemporary practice. However, from an academic perspective, these two terms do not substantially enrich the discourse on coordination, as they primarily serve as normative language employed by governments. While the joined-up government is more commonly used by the United Kingdom government, whole of government is a practice frequently claimed by the Australian and New Zealand governments. In contrast, cooperation, collaboration, coherence, and integration have different natures and scope from coordination (Bouckaert et al., 2010).

Since the beginning of the second millennium, the world has been facing challenges that have reached an unprecedented level. The 9/11 attack in 2001, the Bali bombings in 2002, and the London bombings in 2005 ushered policy domains, such as defence and security, particularly the war on terrorism, into the spotlight of debates on coordination (Strom & Eyerman, 2007). Similarly, policy areas, such as mitigating natural disasters and economic crises, have become in the limelight of discussions on interagency coordination (Simo, 2009). These situations resulted in enriched perspectives on the topic (Lægreid et al., 2008; Perri, 2004). The crises have forced government agencies to collaborate and develop new means of coordination, including the abovementioned "joined-up government" and "whole of government" approaches.

In the 2nd decade of the 21st century, governments, and consequently public managers, have entered an era marked by volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (VUCA), resulting in often brittle, anxious, non-linear, and incomprehensible (BANI) situations (Van der Wal, 2017). This period has witnessed a series of significant events, encompassing armed conflicts between nations and natural and non-natural disasters, all of which have significantly impacted the practice of public administration worldwide. The decade 2010s also presented a new situation that threatened the cybersecurity of government and data privacy. The experiences from similar events have shaped the responses of governments in various countries in establishing a system for solving these problems, often involving coordination between government agencies.

Recent studies have highlighted the importance of employing the right coordination strategy in effectively addressing wicked problems. During the COVID-19 pandemic, for instance, a study in Indonesia by Pribadi and Iqbal (2023) demonstrated the necessity of coordination between government agencies and presented four significant issues in intergovernmental coordination: synchronization, relation, communication, and regulation. A similar combination of formal and informal governance aspects to determine the success of coordination efforts has been observed in recent studies in various parts of the world (Humboldt-Dachroeden, 2022; O'Neill, 2023).

This article comprehensively analyzes the scholarly discourse on coordination through a systematic literature review. Despite coordination's central role in the study of public administration, a notable scarcity of studies thoroughly explores the issues surrounding this concept, particularly concerning the factors leading to coordination and those influencing its success. This article addresses which policy areas of coordination received predominant attention from 2010 to 2021. This includes examining how coordination can occur, the instruments employed for coordination, and the critical factors that influence the success of coordination efforts.
B. LITERATURE REVIEW

Coordination is essential for various agencies and departments to align government programs and activities, a logical consequence of functional differentiation and specialization. Agranoff and McGuire (2003) used the term "collaborative management" to mention coordination, defining it as "the process of facilitating and operating in multiorganizational arrangements to solve problems that cannot be solved, or solved easily, by single organizations". Traditionally, coordination can be accomplished through approaches with three entirely different models of coordination: hierarchies, markets, and networks (Bouckaert et al., 2010). The hierarchical approach is generally used by merging or splitting organization, establishing or changing control lines, or centralizing planning and budgeting systems. The market-based approach commonly includes contract and competition and is more horizontal than the former, which tends to be vertical. The agencies typically employ cooperative, communicative, or cultural strategies in the network approach. The three designs have a common characteristic: relying on negotiations and voluntary agreements between parties.

Coordination challenges often stem from an excessive attachment to organizational authority, often referred to as "turf" (Wegrich & Štimac, 2014), resulting in unwillingness to cooperate and fostering a silo mentality. Coordination, however, arises from the interdependence between agencies. Generally, coordination problems manifest as either underlaps or overlaps. An underlap occurs when a policy issue is between the boundaries of the authority of two or more agencies, with none recognizing it as their responsibility. Conversely, an overlap occurs when a policy issue is considered essential and recognized by two or more agencies, all desiring involvement in resolving the issue (Christensen & Lægreid, 2020a). In addition to overlap and underlap, Koop and Lodge (2014) also added other problems due to the interdependence of agencies, namely inconsistency of information and inconsistency of approaches in problem-solving. These latter two problems, however, are more of a second-order problem arising from underlap or overlap.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Four Biases in Organizational Attention</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Behavior</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intended</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unintended</td>
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</table>

Source: Bach & Wegrich, 2019

In their seminal work, Bach and Wegrich (2019) explained organizational behavior that contributes to the "non-coordination" of an organization with other organizations, grounding their analysis in the structural and institutional perspectives. The former considers that organizational decision-making behavior is shaped by formal instruments, namely organizational structure and organizational goals, while the latter views that identity and institutional uniqueness influence non-coordination behavior. Furthermore, they differentiated intended organizational behavior from unintended organizational behavior. From these two aspects of differentiation, they divided the organizational attention biases that generate non-coordination into four types (Table 1). These four biases offer a more profound understanding of why organizations tend not to or are reluctant to coordinate with other entities.

Although Bach and Wegrich have been able to simplify the factors and characteristics of a situation of non-coordination between organizations, they have not given close and thoughtful attention to the interrelationship between coordination (or non-coordination) and digital technology. Digital technology has played a transformative role in shaping the digital era of
governance landscape, where the exchange of information and business processes between organizations is via digital platforms (Kwon, 2018).

C. METHOD

This article used eight steps of systematic literature review developed by Okoli (2015). The first step was to identify the objective of the SLR, describing the trend of coordination studies in the public sector published from 2010 to 2021. The selection of the period is meant to expose the situation surrounding coordination throughout the second decade of the 21st century. However, the authors deliberately expanded the period to one more year to cover the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and started to be discussed in 2021. The pandemic has made a significant addition to the coordination contexts. Figure 1 presents the systematic literature review protocol as a standard guideline in this study.

![Figure 1. Protocol of the Systematic Literature Review](image)

In this study, the agreed protocol was that a search was conducted on articles published in the 2010–2021 period in Scopus-indexed journals. The investigation was limited to the Scopus database to ensure that only papers with the best technical, substantive editing quality and rigorous findings would be reviewed. The search was performed using keywords of 'coordination', 'joined-up government', 'inter-governmental relation', and 'whole of government' and Boolean operator 'OR', with the subject area limited to social sciences. The collected articles were only original and review articles, excluding those in the conference proceedings book. The initial screening stage resulted in 3,710 articles. The next screening was done by limiting publication outlets to journals in English language focusing on public policy and public administration, resulting in 174 pieces. Next, the 174 articles were chosen based on their relevance to coordinating government policies and programs and their classification as original research papers, determined by analyzing the abstract. The final result was 87 articles. To answer the research questions, the aspects represented as the sample characteristics were the
sectors predominantly studied, the focus of the study, the geographical distribution of studies, the distribution of authors, and the relationship between coordination problems and the use of technology.

Furthermore, the review questions proposed identified the factors driving coordination, coordination instruments, and critical factors for coordination success. Coding on the first aspect was applied to identify coordination drivers and precise reasons to coordinate. For the second theme, coding was used to discern mechanisms in the discussed cases, including those that culminated in failure. As for the latter piece, the coding process involved isolating the factors identified by the authors of the reviewed articles. Findings were further categorized within each theme to show the distinctive characteristics of coordination issues during the selected period.

D. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Public Service in the Pandemic Era

From 2010 to 2021, an average of 7.9 research articles on 'coordination' were published annually in Scopus-indexed journals. The number of research publications related to 'coordination' peaked in 2015 with seventeen articles, exhibiting an increase in the number of publications in the previous year (12 articles and above the average). This relatively small yet consistently stable number indicates that coordination-related research remains relevant for public administration researchers.

Among the existing publication channels, the International Journal of Public Administration (with seventeen articles), the International Review of Administrative Sciences (twelve), the Public Organization Review (eight), and the Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis (six) are among the top four journals publishing research articles on the topic of 'coordination'. These four journals have published nearly half of the 87 original articles studied in this review. In total, 24 journals publish articles related to 'coordination', with most journals based in Europe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region in Focus</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South America</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-regions</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 1. Number of Articles Published from 2010 to 2021
Table 2 reveals that the prevalence of European-based journals has resulted in a predominant focus on coordination cases within European countries. Of the 87 articles, 48 (55.2%) addressed coordination cases in European countries. Among these European countries, the United Kingdom and Norway emerge as central research hubs related to coordination. The prominence of the articles addressing cases in the United Kingdom cannot be separated from the origination of the term joined-up government, popularized by the Labor Party during the premiership of Tony Blair. In total, ten articles specifically address coordination cases in the UK. In the case of Norway, out of nine articles explicitly addressing issues in Norway, eight are co-authored by Tom Christensen and Per Laegreid. One report was also co-authored by Laegreid with other researchers, leaving just one article unattributed to either of them. It indicates their expertise in studies on the topic of 'coordination'.

In addition to case studies in a particular country, comparative studies between countries were also prevalent. Thirteen articles fall into the category of comparative studies, with seven comparing two countries and the remainder examining coordination practices across three or more countries. Most of these comparative studies were conducted within a single continent, such as in Europe or Asia only. However, the article by Liu et al. (2021) and another by Jayaraman et al. (2016) compare coordination practices in two countries on different continents.

Judging from the level of government that formed the focal point of the studies, 46 articles (52.9%) focused on cases at the national government level. Another 21 articles centred on topics at the sub-national government level, while fifteen explored issues spanning multiple government levels (national and sub-national). Examining coordination between countries remains relatively underrepresented, with only five articles adopting this perspective. The five articles address the topic of coordination between countries in the European Union or the United Kingdom (Boin et al., 2014; Hartlapp, 2018; Indset, 2018; Kassim, 2016; Wenzel, 2018). Coordination between countries in the context of devolution, as seen in the United Kingdom or semi-federal or confederate countries in the European Union, possesses distinctive characteristics. It mirrors the relationship between national and sub-national governments in a unitary state but carries additional complexities due to its nature as coordination between independent countries.

Most studies on inter-agency coordination employed qualitative methods (68 out of 87 articles reviewed). The data in these articles were generally collected using document/literature reviews and semi-structured interviews. One piece used the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) to identify factors hindering policy coherence (Danaeefard et al., 2019). The number of articles using quantitative methods was relatively small (only 11 out of 87). Additionally, eight pieces claimed to utilize mixed methods. Among all the articles, only one used a contemporary research method, namely social network analysis, focusing on the exchange of information between actors in disaster situations (Steelman et al., 2014).

Table 3. Number of Articles Based on Policy Domains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Domains</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disaster/crisis management</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social affairs</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various government affairs</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple sectors</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Disaster management is one of the sectors that has received considerable attention in studies related to coordination. However, the research volume in this area does not match that of other sectors, especially social affairs and health. The significance of coordination in the health sector has been escalating, particularly in the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. Half of the 14 articles on the health sector were published in 2020 or 2021 and addressed coordination during the COVID-19 pandemic. Social affairs, conversely, emerge as the most extensively studied sector. This prominence arises from the government's endeavors to combat poverty and enhance the welfare of its citizens, necessitating the involvement of various government agencies across different levels of government. On the other hand, several sectors, such as energy, security, and digital transformation, still tend to be underexplored. In this review, these three issues are combined in 'various government affairs' due to the limited attention each has received, with only one article dedicated to each of these sectors.

Amid massive technological developments, only twelve articles contained coordination mechanisms involving technology. Strikingly, the remaining 75 articles do not mention the use of technology in inter-agency coordination. However, it is worth emphasizing that technology is often a practical instrument to facilitate inter-agency coordination, even in developing countries.

Drivers for Coordination

Wegrich and Štimac (2014) state that the coordination issue originated in functional differentiation within a government, creating an overlap or underlap between work units or government agencies. Both overlap and underlap to 'silosation' (Samaratunge et al., 2017) or a tendency for officials in the bureaucracy to focus only on the performance of their respective agencies rather than the performance of cross-cutting programs. Implementing these cross-boundary policies and programs is challenging due to the number and diversity of parties and aspirations involved (Carey & Harris, 2015). This difficulty is exacerbated by the wave of gentrification promoted by the New Public Management (NPM). The increasingly prominent challenge for coordination triggers the post-NPM agendas to encourage administrative integration (Reiter & Klenk, 2019).

Overlap and underlap, however, will continue to exist in various forms and degrees as each organization decentralizes, departmentalizes, or differentiates functionally to a certain degree per their respective assessments and needs. Several conditions amplify the necessity for coordination within the reviewed articles. While not all articles provide comprehensive elaborations on these conditions, the drivers for coordination can be categorized, as summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Drivers for Coordination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coordination Source</th>
<th>Specific Forms</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem-driven</td>
<td>Transboundary crises</td>
<td>(Boin et al., 2014; Hellevik, 2012; Howes et al., 2015; Keast, 2011; Maccarthaigh et al., 2011; Neby &amp; Zannakis, 2020; Steelman et al., 2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wicked problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International pressures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limited resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutions-driven</td>
<td>Fragmented decision-making authority</td>
<td>(Andersson, 2022; Christensen et al., 2014; Del Río, 2014; Holt et al., 2018; Naidoo, 2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conflicting goals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rules</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diffused performance targets</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Coordination can arise from existing problem situations, regardless of an organization’s responsiveness, the institutional design that forces coordination, or a combination of these factors. Among the problems prompting inter-coordination, several articles highlight issues related to transboundary crises, such as environmental pollution, terrorism, or economic concerns. These crises are 'wicked problems' although the former tends to be temporary while the latter may include prolonged problems, such as poverty or gender inequality (Carayannopoulos & McConnell, 2018). Wicked problems catalyze coordination as they engender a shared understanding among agencies. The third problem situation that encourages coordination is international pressure. International pressure can be caused by international regulations (as in the case of European Union countries) or pressure from agreements (e.g., targets in the Sustainable Development Goals). Finally, a scarcity of resources is also a problem situation necessitating coordination, forcing an organization to coordinate or join up with other organizations.

In terms of institutional settings, the tendency of fragmentation of authority for decision-making, either vertically or horizontally, compels an institution to inevitably coordinate with other institutions, especially in dealing with issues requiring input from different institutions. In addition, the existence of conflicting goals in policymaking has the potential to create ambiguity in policy implementation. A policy designed with conflicting goals will naturally require synchronization at the operational level and specific on-the-ground measures (Howlett, 2018). This synchronization is achieved through coordination between related agencies. The third source of institutional setting that induces coordination is regulations designed to prevent policies from being devised or implemented in silos. However, rules have the potential to render coordination a mere formality. Finally, performance management constructed using diffused performance targets serves as a driver for inter-unit and inter-agency coordination. The achievement of these performance targets forces units and institutions to coordinate. However, in practice, leaders of institutions will often only focus on and prioritize the performance targets of their institutions (Samaratunge et al., 2017).

**Coordination Instruments**

As a perennial subject of study, coordination raises the question of "what" and "how." Elaborating on the types of coordination instruments is crucial, particularly since some new terms in coordination, such as 'joined-up government' or 'whole of government' have been criticized as mere rebranding of existing concepts (Peters, 2015), offering only catchy slogans without providing substantive clarity. Peters categorized coordination instruments into methods based on hierarchy, market, network, hybrid, collaboration, and joined-up government. Although the hierarchy-based coordination instrument is elaborated extensively in this categorization, the same level of detail is not afforded to other tools. This discrepancy may imply that when decision-making challenges arise, as is often the case in coordination scenarios, the prevailing mindset within the public sector tends to favor structural interventions. Therefore, the options of coordination instruments based on structure or governance have gained prominence.

The meta-analysis conducted by Carey and Crammond (2015) showed how organizations manage joined-up governments, among others, through interventions in governance and structure (e.g., with the formation of committees/taskforces or shared leadership), managerial changes, system changes, process changes, and cultural and institutional changes. However, the two authors do not exhaustively explain the four categories of instruments. Therefore, this article undertakes a re-categorization of coordination instruments by partially adapting the categorization of Carey and Crammond. This revised categorization is presented in Table 5.
Table 5 shows that studies discovering coordination instruments in governance and structural interventions dominate. Among the tools in this cluster, the establishment of inter-ministerial committees emerged as the most widely employed. This trend is likely a consequence of the "agencification" practices stemming from the NPM paradigm. The increasing emphasis on functional differentiation, prompted by NPM, often finds resolution in forming task forces, working groups, committees, and similar entities. These groups collectively make decisions before individual agencies implement them. However, this mechanism is not without its drawbacks. When inter-ministerial committees are not provided with adequate authority or serve merely as communication forums, ensuring the implementation of decisions reached within these committees becomes challenging. In contrast, creating or appointing a coordinating unit or agency is equivalent to establishing a new policy domain or turf. If not carefully designed, such a coordinating unit or agency may inadvertently introduce new silos that exacerbate coordination challenges.

Market-based instruments, such as shared performance targets, are also used to drive coordination among system- and process-based instruments. However, suppose this instrument is used without joint planning and a shared budget. In that case, it can potentially divert organizational leaders' focus solely toward the performance targets assigned to their agencies, neglecting the broader picture of performance interdependencies between institutions. The UK government uses several different managerial instruments in the social service sector (Moran et al., 2011), where services are coordinated by integrating funding streams as an individual
budget. However, Moran et al. also stated that this initiative tends to fail for several reasons, including the disjointed accountability mechanisms among the participating agencies.

Information and communications technology (ICT) has also become a widely used instrument. Smart technologies can reshape the nature of public administration, transforming public sector organizations 'algorithmic bureaucracy' (Vogl et al., 2020). However, nowadays, technology can be considered a tool and an arena for the relationship between actors. Crozier (2015) argued that the reality of public administration increasingly appears to be computationally constituted, not just computer-mediated. In other words, code and apps do not exclusively serve as instruments for bridging overlapping or underlapping entities; they can also introduce challenges and new forms of more interconnected and interoperable relationships. Some studies also revealed that the implementation of digital government itself requires coordination from the beginning (Nurdin et al., 2014; Othman & Razali, 2018), indicating that technology when not cautiously utilized, can create new coordination issues.

Interventions to strengthen coordination through policy streams are done through hard and soft approaches. A complex method, for example, is implemented through coordination agreements or enforced coordination forums. However, as Salazar-Morales and Hallerberg (2021) demonstrated, this approach tends to be powerless in ensuring substantive coordination. On the other hand, a soft system, primarily through policy narratives or 'currents' or 'provocative metaphors' (Carey & Crammond, 2015), becomes a relatively good alternative instrument, mainly because it intersects with aspects of value and culture in influencing the behavior of actors in coordination. Coordination instrument through intermediaries is applied through informal relationships established with parties capable of mediating or utilizing the political advisory staff of the president, prime minister, ministers, or other political officials.

### Coordination Success Factors

The success of coordination efforts is contextual and problem-sensitive. In contrast to coordination to overcome casual problems, coordination to overcome wicked problems requires a combination of many supporting factors. Not all reviewed articles elaborate on the coordination success factors. Table 6 presents several critical factors discovered or analyzed in some articles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coordination Success Factors</th>
<th>Specific Factors</th>
<th>Supporting Studies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Institutional settings</strong></td>
<td>Political support</td>
<td>(Bursens et al., 2014; Cejudo &amp; Michel, 2017; Christensen et al., 2015; Christensen &amp; Lægreid, 2012, 2020b, 2020a; Christensen &amp; Ma, 2020; Jamil &amp; Panday, 2012; Karré et al., 2013; Keast, 2011; Knox, 2015; Lee, 2020; Moran et al., 2011; Mu et al., 2019; O’Flynn et al., 2011; Panday &amp; Jamil, 2011; Scott &amp; Bardach, 2019; Vitola &amp; Senfelde, 2015; Wenzel, 2018; Zhang, 2020)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Power/authority distribution</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Organizational culture for and history of coordination (past prevalence of conflicts/turf wars)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Policy design</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Trust</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Network</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adaptive organizational structure</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Management capacity</strong></td>
<td>Collaborative leadership</td>
<td>(Adam et al., 2019; Ahsan &amp; Panday, 2013; Carey, Mcloughlin, et al., 2015; Cejudo &amp; Michel, 2017; Christensen &amp; Ma, 2020; Curnin &amp; Owen, 2014; Howard &amp; Bukvis, 2016; Keast, 2011; Mattei &amp; Delpino, 2021; O’Flynn et</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge management, communication, and innovation system</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incentive structure</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Accountability mechanisms</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Availability of experts</td>
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</table>
Critical factors for achieving successful coordination can be categorized into three main groups: institutional settings, management capacity, and coordination strategies. The first category highlights the design and dynamics of formal and informal institutions, which are pivotal in shaping the coordination process. Most studies reviewed in this article highlight the significance of institutional factors, often referred to as the ‘supportive architecture’ (O’Flynn et al., 2011), in determining the success of coordination. Variables within this category include political support, distribution of power, organizational culture related to coordination (including experience working with other agencies), support from policy design, trust between parties, informal networks, and the adaptability of organizational structures to the nature of coordination.

The second category comprises management capacity, constituting a collection of variables related to managing the organization and its resources. Leadership, especially collaborative leadership, stands out as a crucial element in this category, guiding organization members in supporting the necessary coordination efforts. In addition, knowledge management, communication, and the existence of room for innovation become other critical aspects. While some coordination efforts arise from necessity, often due to limited organizational resources, others are imposed by regulatory requirements. The presence of a learning process through knowledge management and the opportunity for innovative solutions ensures that coordination is not merely a formality but is carefully designed to address the organization’s actual challenges. In addition, accountability mechanisms should be adjusted as coordination progresses, as previously elaborated in the case of individual benefits in the UK. Regarding human resources, the main variables are the organization’s expertise (including information analysts, coordination enablers, organizational experts, and domain experts) and flexible employee transfers that foster knowledge exchange and consensus building among employees.

Equally significant, when compared to the preceding two factors, is the construction of the coordination strategy. Within the reviewed articles, this category emphasizes several vital variables. The first is the existence of a shared vision or shared outcome, which will direct coordination to goals, not just routines. Moreover, all the selected studies consistently highlight the significance of implementing multiple coordination instruments rather than relying on a singular approach. The combination of these instruments includes various patterns of coordination vertically and horizontally. Budget and financial management emerge as the next frequently emphasized variables, particularly coordination costs. Organizational leaders may hesitate to promote coordination if the expenses associated with coordination are perceived as more burdensome than the costs of working independently. Finally, several studies examined in this article underscore the increasing relevance of networks as the complexity of the problem increases. Therefore, incorporating networking within the coordination strategy design is critical to accelerating coordination.

E. CONCLUSION

If there is one topic that consistently warrants research attention in public administration, it is the issue of coordination. Coordination problems are a perennial concern, given that the
inherent nature of every organization involves functional differentiation and centralized authority. Coordination is not confined solely to traditionally classified as 'wicked problems', such as social welfare, health, or environmental problems. From 2010 to 2021, researchers have examined coordination challenges in various sectors, including disaster and crisis management, the economy, the environment, health, infrastructure, social affairs, and other government-related areas. The continuous development of technology fosters increased connectivity between organizations and problem domains.

Consequently, more issues evolve into wicked problems or transcend conventional boundaries, necessitating more coordination. This article shows that coordination can be driven by situation or institutional factors. Furthermore, this review article highlights the growing diversity of coordination instruments. The optimal coordination strategy, which encompasses clearly defined coordination goals and a combination of various tools, must be thoughtfully designed. This combination may involve diverse types of instruments or groups of similar devices, depending on the problem context and the characteristics of the agencies involved. These instruments must be supported by conducive institutional factors, management, and strategic design to achieve the expected coordination outcomes.

This study draws from reputable journals featuring high-quality analyses by public administration scholars worldwide, primarily from developed countries. However, it acknowledges its limitations by not encompassing coordination issues in the developing world, which may exhibit distinct characteristics. Nevertheless, scholars and practitioners in developed and developing countries can glean valuable insights from this article regarding the factors to consider when planning a coordination mechanism and the types of instruments suitable for their needs.

In the future, studies on 'coordination' in less-explored sectors may provide new insights into the coordination discourse. In sectors where a specific pattern, such as a hierarchical, market-type, or network pattern, is typically assumed to be dominant, investigations into whether an approach contrary to the prevailing way might be the best option are warranted. Encouraging comparative case studies employing methods of agreement or methods of difference can enrich the development of meso-level theories, especially those related to inter-organizational coordination relationships.

Acknowledgement

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