Collaborative Public Management and Collaborative Governance: Conceptual Similarities and Differences

Naim Kapucu*, Farhod Yuldashev**, and Erlan Bakiev***

ABSTRACT

There has been considerable interest among Public Administration scholars in collaborative public management and governance. However, there is a need for conceptual analysis of the two terms which share common aspects and differ essentially in scope and substance. We found that collaborative public management has a more local approach and focuses on the substance of collaboration practiced to solve societal problems and reach community goals at the organizational level. On the other hand, widely researched in management, political science, and public administration disciplines, collaborative governance has a global scope and focuses on both substance and process of collaboration in effectively solving societal problems with improved structures of nonhierarchical and decentralized institutions and mechanisms of citizen participation both through partnership projects and e-governance tools. The paper contributes to the better understanding of collaborative public management and collaborative governance with implications for both future research and practice.

Key Words:

Governance, public management, collaborative governance, collaborative public management

*   Associate Professor, Department of Public Administration and Director of Center for Public and Nonprofit Management, University of Central Florida, HPA II Suite 238M, Orlando, FL 32816. nkapucu@mail.ucf.edu

**   Research analyst at the Center for Public and Nonprofit Management within the Department of Public Administration at the University of Central Florida. fyuldash@mail.ucf.edu

*** Ph. D. student in Public Affairs & Public Administration at the University of Central Florida. ebakiev@mail.ucf.edu

Introduction

There is a significant interest among public administration scholars in collaborative public management and collaborative governance. However, there is no consensus on the conceptual definitions of the terms. The aim of this article is to help clarify these terms and compare and contrast them. Also, the paper takes an interdisciplinary perspective reviewing articles from management, political science, and public administration literatures with respect to the study of collaborative public management and collaborative governance.

The end of the 1990s brought about significant streams of changes in the field of public management. Terms like ''new public management'', ''network management'', and ''collaborative public management'' connote mostly practice-driven movements in most of the countries. This trend made clear the importance of collective and collaborative decision making for policy makers and managers (Peters and Pierre;1998 Kapucu 2006b). Agranoff and McGuire (2003) define the concept of collaborative public management as a process of assisting and managing multi-organizational arrangements to solve problems which are not easily solved by an organization alone.

In resolving profound societal issues ranging from environmental pollution to failed public education and empowering disadvantaged neighborhoods, effective collaborative mechanisms and allocation of resources of many different players across governments, private and nonprofit sectors, community leaders and others are required (Henton, Melville, Amsler and Kopell 2005). For complex public problems require solutions that go beyond the scope of an individual organization or a sector. This can better be conceptualized under the notion of governance, which is ''a broader term and encompasses both formal and informal systems of relationships and networks for decision making and problem solving'' (National Policy Consensus Center n.d.). Milward and Provan (2006) argue that governance is a more inclusive term than government that is concerned with creating the conditions for ordered rule and collective action. It often includes agents in the private and nonprofit sectors as well as within the public sector.

Governance as a concept appears to be broader than public management process; in other words, it includes broad political process where citizen participation is vital. One of the cornerstone points is involvement of nongovernmental organizations in the governance process. Governance can roughly be described as ''the directed influence of societal processes'' (Klijn and Koppenjan 2000, p. 136). One could not imagine citizen participation in decision making in the late 1960s. However, today one realizes that the concepts, such as, strong democracy, transparency, community involvement and commitment, and community knowledge cannot be implemented without governance and citizen participation. Ansell and Gash (2008) define governance as a ''governing agreement where one or more public agencies directly engage non-state stakeholders in a collective decision making process that is formal, consensus-oriented, and deliberative and that aims to make or implement public policy or manage public programs or assets'' (p. 2). Consequently, collaborative governance produces the types of decisions made by the several organizations and groups of people.

The study examines the following questions: what entails collaborative public management? How is collaborative governance defined? Is collaborative public management different than collaborative governance? If so, in what ways do they differ? What are the basic research questions each seek answers for? What are the key assumptions of each perspective? For many scholars (Agranoff and McGuire 2003; O'Toole and Meier, 2007; Bingham, O'Leary and Carlson 2008) perceive the collaborative governance and collaborative public management as parts of one whole process of governance. This paper compares and contrasts the two perspectives by reviewing the literature.

Background and Literature Review

Changing focus from government to governance is one of the most significant developments in the public administration field. Accountability, transparency, rule of law, and participation in the context of a strong and active civil society, are crucial to the proper, efficient, and equitable exercise of state power. Accountability is the keystone to the structure of good governance, as a government responsibility, and refers to the expectation that public officials must answer to citizens (Stivers 2008). Citizens must also have access to information that details the functioning of government, thus ensuring transparency. Additionally, good governance requires that government action take place alongside the participatory actions of both formal and informal actors outside the government. The following section reviews the literature on collaborative public management and governance.

Collaborative Public Management

Agranoff and McGuire (2003) argue that small entities like cities start to occupy more important strategic position as the point for gathering potential partners in decision-making processes. The response to ''September 11, 2001 attacks were clearly defined as one of collaboration between law enforcement agencies at all levels of government and private-sector security firms, business and industry, civic associations, and many others'' (Agranoff and McGuire 2003, p. 2).

Collaborative public management defined by Bingham (2008) synthesizing several other previous definitions is ''a concept that describes the process of facilitating and operating in multiorganizational arrangements to solve problems that cannot be solved or easily solved by single organizations. Collaboration means to co-labor to achieve common goals working across boundaries in multisector and multiactor relationships. Collaboration is based on the value of reciprocity'' (p. 250). She adds active citizen participation to the definition of collaborative governance to distinguish it from collaborative public management.

Civic engagement and collaborative public management

Another crucial part in implementing collaborative public management process is civic engagement. Participation of citizens in the decision making process is one of the important indicators of democracies. The civic engagement in the decision making process and collaborative management depend on the strong interdependence among all actors. This strengthens the information share among stakeholders and provides mutual control and sanctioning each other during this process. Agranoff and McGuire (2003) argue that the greater the interdependencies between players, both vertical and horizontal, the greater the necessity for coordination and collaboration. ''Collaborative management actively engages citizens through the tools of dialogue and deliberation, community problem solving, and multi-stakeholder dispute resolution to inform and shape public decisions and policy'' (Henton et al. 2005, p. 3).

Cooper, Bryer, and Meek (2006) define civic engagement in decision making process as citizen-centered collaborative public management where people participating together in the collective action get involved in the governance process. Cooper and associates purposefully use ''the phrase citizen-centered collaborative public management to emphasize the role of the public in collaborative management processes, which have not always recognized the value of citizenship'' (p. 76).

Fountain (1994) stated that the effective public manager cannot manage effectively without understanding sustainability and flexibility of the structure of his or her internal and external network. Consequently, network management provides an opportunity to find out collaborative management models. ''Networks are a widespread form of social coordination, and managing interorganizational links is just as important for private sector management'' (Rhodes 1996, p. 659). Fountain (1994) emphasizes the importance of new institutionalism and network perspective for researchers because the network perspective offers rich descriptive capacity and precise methodologies in studying both micro and macro level organizational and interorganizational processes. For example, ''At the interorganizational level, network analysis illuminates the strategic conduct of organizations as they seek, form, and disentangle themselves from alliances'' (Fountain 1994, p. 274).

Networks and Collaborative Public Management

Agranoff (2007) argues that the processes of interdependencies and network management contributed from the several forces, such as the rise of welfare which put the long term programs onto the hands of local governments and NGOs as policy makers; the process of interdependence led to the same concern for intergovernmental relations; and the last, the managers dealing with both governments and NGOs had to learn how to run businesses within this system in bringing solutions to the daily issues. The network approach assumes that actors are mutually dependent and they cannot achieve their objectives without resources that are possessed by other actors (Klijn and Koppenjan 2000; Kapucu 2006a; Bingham et al. 2008).

Rhodes (1996) mentions that it is very important not to dismiss the reciprocity and interdependence characteristics of intergovernmental networks which in essence characterize the network relations. Therefore, actors in networks need to cooperate to achieve gratifying outcome which is not one of the easiest tasks in network management process. Accordingly, navigation and distribution of the costs and benefits of a solution in the process of networking is very difficult (Klijn and Koppenjan 2000). They argue that network management is an independent variable in the provision of policy process and mentioned four important process management strategies: the selection and activation of actors; the improvement of mutual perception about issue or solution; the creation of temporary organizational arrangements between organizations; the improvement and supervision of interactions by means of process and conflict management.

Fundamentally, these steering strategies help to join the various perceptions of actors and solve the organizational problem. Moreover, it is very important to consider and include external effects of the interaction process, such as, openness, carefulness, reliability and legitimacy (Klijn and Koppenjan 2000). These criteria are the same as in the process of collaborative governance which requires the transparency and accountability as main principles. ''The openness of the communication and the transparency of the organization in serving its public purpose is essential'' (Dunn and Miller 2007, p. 348). Klijn and Koppenjan (2000) in their study stated that policy process of network have both negative and positive factors that direct to success or to failure.

Reforms made in the field of public administration led to public and private collaboration in decision making and solving problems. As a result of these reforms the new term ''new public management'' has emerged. McGuire (2006) argues that the societal change is one of the determinants of the new public management. This societal change is characterized by the extreme diversity where power is decentralized and society worldwide demands greater freedom and individuation. The reforms enacted to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of states and public service management on the center-right side and to empower citizen involvement with broad sets of tools of governance on the center-left side led to the modernization of state structures in which states privatized their agencies and yet came to regulate economic activities with rules and quasi-autonomous regulatory agencies. These structures in turn led to the adoption of non-hierarchical and decentralized organizational designs such as networks and teams and more flexible and innovative managerial and leadership tools such as result-oriented coaching and self-leadership (Eliassen and Sitter 2008).

On the other hand, Box, Marshall, Reed, and Reed (2001) research the usefulness of the new public management in substantive democracy. They highlight the usefulness of the collaborative model of administrative practice by the recent democratic system in the US in coexistence with capitalism which, they argue, emphasizes individual liberties rather than substantive questions of individual development. The concern about American democracy and its resulting impact on public administration includes the lack of public

knowledge, political influence of a given mandate to public administrative agencies to solve issues, various barriers on the way and inertia in bureaucratic organizations (Box et al. 2001). These conditions stimulated the authors to think about the alternative, new public management, with the central element focused on a collaborative relationship between citizens and public administrators. ''This relationship is based on shared knowledge and decision making rather than control or pleasing and placating'' (Box et al. 2001, p.10). Christensen and Laegreid (1999) argue that new public management is a complex concept and reform package with no clear definition. Dunn and Miller (2007), on the other hand, argue that the operating values of the NPM are not formed on a well-defined theory, but more as practical solutions to the operational problems confronting governments. They propose that new theories in the field of pubic management have to be more grounded by the practical implementation heretofore intangible notions of non-coercive discourse and expanded notions of rationality (Kapucu 2006b; Dunn and Miller 2007).

However, Rhodes (1996) argues that NPM is weak and its weakness is in a disagreement between competition and steering in the core of this process. Therefore, he emphasized that NMP concentrates on hierarchical control, and the obvious distribution of authority and responsibility. The other two weaknesses Rhodes (1996) mentions were the mania of the managerialism by objectives and that NPM focuses on results whereas in an interorganizational network any stakeholder is responsible for outcome. Rhodes (1996) states that ''NPM may suit line bureaucracies but it is inappropriate for managing interorganizational networks and, more important such networks undermine NPM with its intra-organizational focus on objectives and results'' (p. 663).

It is very difficult to know and predict the attitude of actors of the collaborative management process. The influencing factors on these processes at the micro and macro levels make one think about organizational and interorganizational approach. Recent developments in network analysis are useful for the analysis of performance in collaborative public management. This analytic perspective takes this paper to the next level in conceptual developments of collaborative public management. As Fountain (1994) succinctly puts ''[f]ollowing remarkable growth in analytic techniques, the network perspective offers both rich descriptive capacity and rigorous methodologies for the study of both micro and macro level organizational and interorganizational phenomena of great importance to public management'' (p. 273). Fountain (1994) emphasizes that network analysis methods are indifferent to individual characteristics. However, Musso, Weare, Oztas, and Loges (2006) argue that the broad characteristics of stakeholders and individual characteristics of actors are very important. In their study on networks of community power they argue that the localization process have shifted the locus of strong social ties from residential arenas to occupational arenas. ''Neighborhood organizations, because of their intermediary nature, potentially provide a counterforce that can provide a set of ties that can build community attachment and support engagement around neighborhood-level problems'' (Musso et al. 2006, p. 85).

Collaborative Governance

The processes of globalization and technological development provided the basis for transformations in the field of management and governance. There has been documented much innovation in the governance process and it is the result of human progress. Information and communication technologies, global public policy and decentralization processes have most visibly changed the face of governance in the 21st century. Consequently, the literature in governance and public management became full of analytic terms like ''new, ''innovative,'' ''performance,'' and ''network management.'' Even more, many scholars argue that governance in nowadays exceeds the boundaries of the nation and it is the product of international policy (Yee 2004; Halachmi 2005). Sloat (2003) defined governance as a catchword of the 1990s and it first was used by the World Bank in 1992 to specify criteria for development aid.

The increase in numbers of environmental disasters in the world makes risk management an important notion in the process of globalization. According to Halachmi (2005) ''With the evolution of the global village and interconnectedness of societies all over the world, getting prepared to address potential risks must start with the development of the business plan for any governmental or non-governmental entity'' (p.312). The perspective of the process of globalization emphasizes the increase in sophisticated technologies, increase in job opportunities and economic integration (Agranoff and McGuire 2003; Pincetl 2003; Yee 2004; Whitman 2005; Howlett and Rayner 2006). Agranoff and McGuire (2003) state that these innovative processes include future decentralization, the fewer role of governments as an only source provider, the use of growing economic development instruments, and public leveraging of private resources.

On the other hand, some scholars (Pincetl 2003; Skelcher, Mathur and Smith 2005) accentuate on the local integration of governance and collaborative management which is also very important in managing a national policy. These authors all mentioned the significant trend toward the governance of localities and communities. The increase of the popularity of governance approach is explained by the effective solution of local societal problems in coalition with the private sector and nongovernmental organizations.

Cross-sector governance

Governance is the process of decision making with the involvement of varieties of state and non-state actors (Walti, Kubler and Papadopoulos 2004; Halachmi 2005; Freeman and Peck 2007). Governance guides the process that influences decisions and procedures within the private, public, and civic sectors (Henton et al. 2005). ''The term 'governance' refers to the results of the interactions within a decentralized structure of governmental and nongovernmental elements of civil society under non-binding arrangements'' (Halachmi 2005, p.302). Halachmi (2005) also stated the importance of development of risk culture among researchers and to mobilize them to explore the implications of the shift from ''governing'' to ''governance'' for risk management. (Klijn and Koppenjan

2000) separated the definition of governance onto two parts, the first one emphasizes the reduction of the power of state and distinguishing government and governance and the other part is taking into account the interdependencies of public, private and semi-private actors. Rhodes (1996) in his study on new governance listed four shared characteristics of 'governance', they are:

1. Interdependence between organizations. Governance is broader than government, covering non-state actors. Changing the boundaries of the state meant the boundaries between public, private and voluntary sectors became shifting and opaque.

2. Continuing interactions between network members, caused by the need to exchange resources and negotiate shared purposes.

3. Game-like interactions, rooted in trust and regulated by rules of the game negotiated and agreed by network participants.

4. A significant degree of autonomy from the state. Networks are not accountable to the state; they are self-organizing. Although the state does not occupy a privileged, sovereign position, it can indirectly and imperfectly steer networks (p. 652).

This imparts a comprehensive image of reforms in the public management sector, the increase of transparency and changes happened at the end of 1980s.

Network is a structure in the process of collaboration which is known as coordination set by informal social systems. This structure appears to be more important when the immediate decision making is needed, for example, during the natural disasters. ''Crises require a mix of skills and capacities that are beyond a single hierarchy and therefore require a network of responders'' (Moynihan, 2007, p. 6). Moreover, he argues that networks tend to be seen as fluid and based on relationships. Self-organizing networks appeared after the end of the industrialization process, presented with the Weberian bureaucracy, which had come with the transformations in governance reforms (Musso et al. 2006; Welp, Urgell, and Aibar 2007). There was serious attention from the localities. Musso et al. (2006) mention four areas of employing the effective community governance; they are: development of diverse networks within neighborhoods; neighborhoods must develop networks with its stakeholders; the increase of horizontal networks across the city to advance information flows; and the raise of the centrality of local community organizations in city level to increase the community power in decision-making process.

Yang (2007) states that, especially for public administration, network governance brings several challenges such as increasingly wicked policy problems, imperative collaboration, and the rapid change of new information technologies which change the way of work they do. Yang (2007) calls his attention to the process of responsiveness and states that it has increased drastically in recent public discourse. He suggests that in spite of the theoretical uncertainties, responsiveness is still at the center stage of public development and public discussion about government. ''Network governance and its challenges force us to reconsider the meaning of responsiveness'' (Yang 2007, p.135). He mentions about

four dimensions of the network governance in his article, they are: who, what, mode and process dimensions. As for the ''who'' dimension, Yang (2007) states the subjects of the responsiveness in the process of network governance. They are not only the government but also nonprofits, citizens and businesses. ''Particularly, network governance emphasizes a unique aspect of nonprofits', citizens', and businesses' responsiveness: they must not be to a narrow interest but rather be responsive to the problem of governance'' (Yang 2007, p.136). As for the ''what'' dimension, he mentions the different forms or contents of responsiveness. For example, governments in the process of network governance must take the responsiveness to the interest of overall network not to the interest of a particular actor. As for the ''mode'' dimension, ''Yang'' mentions the importance of integration to the e-governance to improve public service delivery to citizens, transparency, accountability and citizen participation. And the last dimension Yang (2007) mentions is the ''process'' dimension. He emphasizes the importance of trust in this process of collaboration and we still need more research and knowledge in this area.

Bryson, Crosby, and Stone (2006) argue that people who want to undertake hard social problems and achieve beneficial community outcomes already understood that multiple sectors of a democratic society, such as, business, nonprofits and philanthropies, the media, the community, and government must collaborate to operate effectively with the challenges. Nonprofits are one of the important actors in the process of collaborative governance. Since its structure and function is based on a quasi-market nonprofit organizations are a nice prototype for the collaborative governance process context (Clarke 2000). As Clarke (2000) suggests they are constructed through horizontal networks of citizens and groups often working through nonprofit organizations rather that the voluntary associations characteristic of civil society in the past. He argues that governance operate through hierarchies, markets and networks. ''Nonprofit organizations draw on all three strategies: they operate in a quasi-market context; they are privileged and constrained by an array of laws and rules operating at different scales; and they necessarily rely on coalitions to build the trust and reciprocity allowing them to operate'' (Clarke 2000, p. 209).

Musso et al. (2006) in their study on neighborhood governance in Los Angeles where they measured the power of the networks in communities claim that neighborhood oriented reforms have limited power to construct political networks that will improve existing class biases in the political system. They suggest that wealthier individuals take better advantage of networks forming around neighborhood councils and that those people have more network resources to offer potential councils. The other issue in neighborhood networks they mentioned is the race and class biases which explain with the desire of people to communicate and build networks with people from the same race, social status, and political perspectives. They also proposed that creating ties and network structures is an important contribution to the understanding the relationship between social ties and community capacity which explains the distinction between bonding and bridging ties. ''…bonding ties contribute to the cohesion of social groups, whereas bridging ties connect groups to their environment'' Musso et al. 2006, p. 88). These two social ties have different roles in information dissemination and mobilization and social capital formation

among neighborhood councils where binding ties foster trust and social cohesion that improve the capacity for collective action and bridging ties eases the mobilization across groups through exchange of information and innovations (Musso et al. 2006). They concluded that network theory suggests that the changes at the relational level eventually influence macro-level structures.

Governance dismisses traditional public management theory based on centralized control and embraces collaborative endeavors that require assistance, rather than oppression to achieve desired goals. At the same time, it is very important to emphasize the difference of ''government'' and ''governance.'' Government is more close to traditional public administration apprehension. Traditionally, government was the dominant force of control, largely through policy decisions, regulations, and roles. In contrast, ''governance'' is known as an implication of more interactive and symbiotic relationship and partnerships. ''Rather governance signifies a change in the meaning of government, referring to a new process of governing; or a changed condition of ordered rule; or the new method by which society is governed'' (Rhodes 1996, p. 652)

Civic participation

Many scholars (Brinkerhoff 1999; Henton et al. 2005) stress the importance of state and civil society partnerships which are interactions undertaken to achieve convergent goals by the help of all actors. Brinkerhoff (1999) argues that state and civil society partnerships generate more and better outcomes than they operate independently. Based on his case studies Brinkerhoff (1999) provided four situational variables that determine the degree of success of the state-civil society partnerships. These four variables are: regime type which is a fundamental variable that influences the nature of the state; level of trust that influences the willingness to connect activities over time between the partners; legal framework and regulation that determine the regulations and attitudes of regimes applying to NGOs and local associations; and the nature of the policy to be implemented which determines the appropriate roles and responsibilities of the partners. ''For civil-society, the cases hold promise that, as the enabling environment for partnerships becomes more conductive and governments become more open to joint activity, opportunities for engaging in partnerships will likely expand'' (Brinkerhoff 1999, p.83).

The best decision is the decision made collectively which provides objectivity in solving complex societal problems. So, that is the collaborative governance process which gathers together different stakeholders, governmental organizations, non-state organizations and nonprofit organizations, to reach positive, longitudinal and objective solutions. For example, Halachmi (2005) concluded in her study about the risk management that civil society based organizations must be included in the process of risk management in the role of watchdog in order to improve the management of public risks, and given the financial constraints faced by most governments.

It is plausible to argue that collaborative governance developed as a substitute to the adversarialism of interest group pluralism and to the accountability failures of managerialism (Ansell and Gash 2008). It is the process where stakeholders engaging with all sectors make efficient and effective solutions to public problems which go beyond that any organization could reach alone. Consequently, main goals of the collaborative governance process are the derivation of better informed and more engaged citizens, more inclusive participants in decision-making, more stakeholders in community partnership, improved methods of deliberation, and greater accountability and trust in government (Henton et al. 2005).

Discussions

In this paper we have discussed the definitions of both collaborative governance and collaborative public management. These two approaches are very close to each other and consequently it is very hard to determine differences between them (see Figure 1). It would be more appropriate to discuss the similarities of these two perspectives. Regardless of this fact there are differences between these to perspectives which are worth considering in the discussion part. Many scholars (NPCC n.d.; Halachmi 2005; Milward and Provan 2006) argue that governance is more broad and inclusive term than collaborative public management. On the other hand, collaborative public management focuses on the localities. Moreover, collaborative public management concentrates its attention on the organizational level and the interdependencies of organizations (Agranoff and McGuire 2003). Since interdependence is related with intergovernmental networks it characterizes network relations (Rhodes 1996). Consequently, collaborative public management looks more on the local level whereas collaborative governance focuses on the international and exceeds the boundaries of the nation (Yee 2004; Halachmi 2005).

Another factor determining the difference between the two concepts is the casual aspect. If we compare factors influencing the collaborative public management and collaborative governance we can see obvious differences among them. In this perspective (see Table 1), some scholars argue that collaborative governance is the result of globalization process and technological development (Pincetl 2003; Agranoff and McGuire 2003; Halachmi 2005; Whitman 2005; Howlett and Rayner 2006). ''The 'corporate governance' debate has been triggered by the increase of importance of transnational companies-today numbering more than 39,000-which have experienced problems of unclear lines of accountability'' (Bovaird and Loffler 2003, p. 9). Nevertheless, collaborative public management is caused by the rise of the human welfare and personal characteristics (Agranoff 2007).

Halachmi (2005) explained the shift process from ''governing'' to ''governance'' where collaborative public management was mentioned as governing. Consequently, we collaborative governance is the next step of collaborative public management. As Bovaird, Boviard, and Loffler (2003) explain in their case study that the public management-oriented change managers are likely to concentrate their efforts on improving street

cleaning and refuse collection services, whereas a local governance approach empha-sizes the role of citizens in respecting the common desire that no one should litter on the streets in the first place, and that materials should be recycled, not simply thrown away.

The concept of collaborative public management is used in explaining the coordina-tion amongst various agencies of government, collaboration amongst various organiza-tions across the jurisdictional and sectoral lines, and cooperation with private citizens and neighborhood associations. Network management and citizen involvement studies, as has been discussed above, are quite heavily concentrated in the literature of collaborative public management. Therefore, it can be argued that collaborative public management is a next step of New Public Management which puts emphasis on the external relationships and environments of organizations in addition to generic management tools of NPM. Because it is collaborative public management, public-sector organizations are central to interorganizational collaboration networks, as opposed to collaborative governance where government agencies are increasingly losing their dominant position towards becoming more of a just another interdependent actor in the network. Hence, the concept of collaborative public management focuses on the substance (issues that cannot be dealt by an individual organization) of public management mostly at local and state govern-ments.

In contrast, ''[g]overnance is essentially a political theory—insofar as it describes a certain type of exchange between the state and the society'' (Peters and Pierre 1998, p. 232). As a concept connoting the governance of a society, therefore, governance is a broader term in which the substance of collaborative public management can be situated and examined as a part of governance process. However, in contrast to collaborative pub-lic management, the formerly dominant role of the state and public agencies is increas-ingly dwindling towards becoming just another interdependent actor within a decentral-ized governance process. Despite the decreasing dominance of the state and therefore accountability mechanisms of traditional institutions of representative democracy, there is a strong component of citizen participation in governance process that makes it more effective, increasing the legitimacy of the process (Klijn 2008). In addition, somewhat inde-pendent quasi-legal and quasi-judicial entities shape the rule-based multilevel gover-nance process (Koliba and Meek 2008).

Governance is a broader term with national and international foci as a result of glob-alization, digital revolution, and international market economy. Yet governance processes of each nation is peculiar to its own political culture and institutions, i.e. path dependent (Peters and Pierre 1998), as opposed to collaborative public management, which is more of a generic term and can be practiced universally. On the other hand, network manage-ment, interjurisdictional cooperation, and Interorganizational collaboration are all parts of collaborative governance process.

Figure 1: Process of Collaborative Governance and Collaborative Public Management
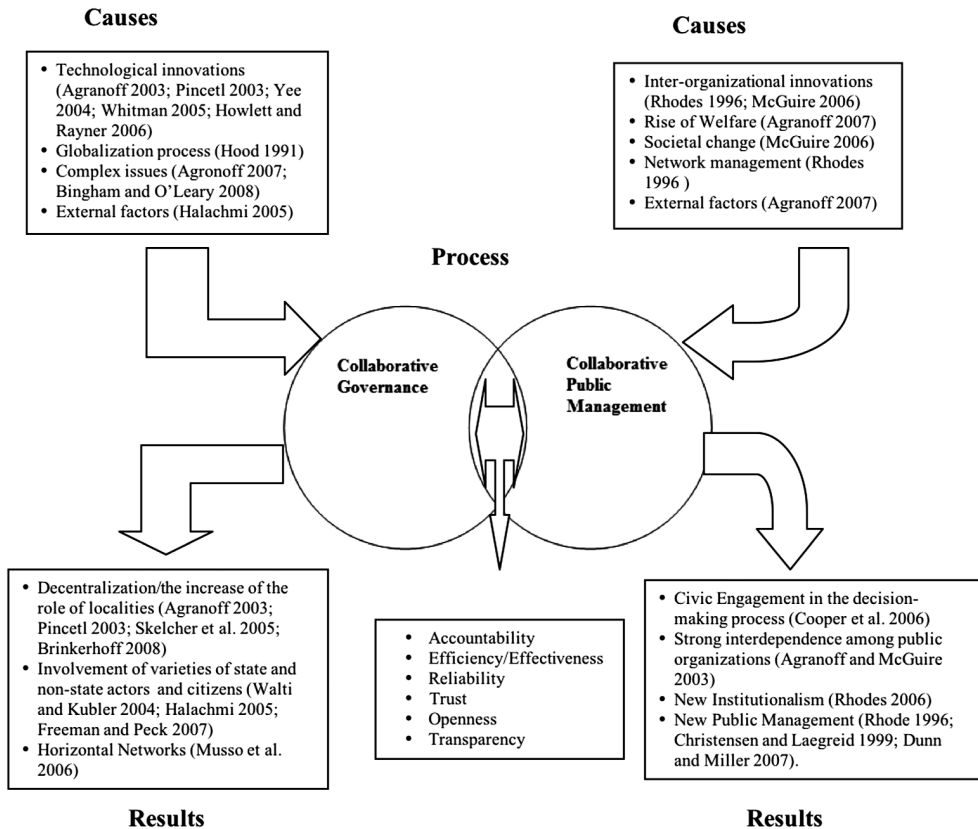
Causes

- Technological innovations (Agranoff 2003; Pincetl 2003; Yee 2004; Whitman 2005; Howlett and Rayner 2006)
- Globalization process (Hood 1991)
- Complex issues (Agronoff 2007; Bingham and O'Leary 2008)
- External factors (Halachmi 2005)

Causes

- Inter-organizational innovations (Rhodes 1996; McGuire 2006)
- Rise of Welfare (Agranoff 2007)
- Societal change (McGuire 2006)
- Network management (Rhodes 1996)
- External factors (Agranoff 2007)

Process

Collaborative Governance

Collaborative Public Management

- Decentralization/the increase of the role of localities (Agranoff 2003; Pincetl 2003; Skelcher et al. 2005; Brinkerhoff 2008)
- Involvement of varieties of state and non-state actors and citizens (Walti and Kubler 2004; Halachmi 2005; Freeman and Peck 2007)
- Horizontal Networks (Musso et al. 2006)

- Accountability
- Efficiency/Effectiveness
- Reliability
- Trust
- Openness
- Transparency

- Civic Engagement in the decision-making process (Cooper et al. 2006)
- Strong interdependence among public organizations (Agranoff and McGuire 2003)
- New Institutionalism (Rhodes 2006)
- New Public Management (Rhode 1996; Christensen and Laegreid 1999; Dunn and Miller 2007).

Results   **Results**

Table 1: Literature Review

Authors	Level of Analysis	Cases Analyzed	Research Focus	Hypotheses/ Assumptions/ Theories	Significance of Research
Agranoff, R. (2007)	Organizational	US cities	Public Management Networks (PMNs)	1. How do public managers organize, convene, and operate in PMNs? 2. How does the role of the public manager as decision maker change when working in a PMN? 3. What effect do networks involving public agencies have on the boundaries of the state? That is, do PMNs change the role of government?	Using inductive and qualitative methodology the author looks at PMNs and provides academic and practical analysis.
Agranoff, R. and McGuire, M. (2003)	Organizational	US cities	Collaborative Public Management	1. Demonstrate the various ways in which multi-organizational, multiactor collaboration is utilized as a public policymaking and management tool by cities 2. Consider the underrecognized practical and theoretical issues at the forefront of public management that suggest a more complex and more interesting world of public management in practice	Authors argue that cities are useful units of analysis for examining various characteristics of collaborative management.
Ansell, C. and Gash, A. (2008)	Individual, Organizational	137 cases of collaborative governance	Collaborative Governance	1. Whether governance produce successful collaboration or not 2. Whether governance is more effective than adversarial governance or not	Model of Collaborative Governance: Successful collaboration occurs when there is deep trust, commitment and shared understanding among actors
Box, R. C., Marshall,	Individual,		New Public	The Difference of New Public	The usefulness of a collaborative

Reference	Level	Country	Category	Focus / Question	Description
G. S., Reed, B. J. and Reed, C. M. (2001)	Organizational		Management		model of administrative practice in preserving the value of democracy in public administration
Christensen, T. and Laegreid, P. (1999)	Team, Organizational	Norway	New Public Management	What happens when public reforms are introduced into everyday administrative life?	The study stresses the important ways in which the political and historical-institutional context of the civil service and national styles of governance influence reactions to reforms
Coe, B. (2008)	Individual, Organizational	Armenia	Good governance	A new orientation when designing democracy and good governance programs can make programs more effective	A Future orientation focuses on what people want to create: 1. It demands clarity about specific, desired results 2. It also requires accuracy about the specific situation in the country 3. Local knowledge about values, norms and practices is invaluable in this regard 4. It provides the framework for donor and implementers to initiate and sustain progress toward democracy and good governance
Dunn, W. N. and Miller, D. Y. (2007)	Organizational		New Public Management	Critical Theory and its Application	New theories need to be more grounded by the practical application of heretofore elusive concepts of non-coercive discourse and of expanded notions of rationality
Fountain (1994)	Organizational		Public Management	Author briefly summarizes two theoretical perspectives of potentially great utility to public management, the new institutionalism and network approaches to organizations. Both focus explicitly upon institutional arrangements and the interrelationship between managerial action and institutional relationships and structures.	Author argues that the normative conception of public management contains the basic elements upon which to build a theory –based, methodologically sound research program, which can integrate concern with strategic managerial action and institutional arrangements and designs.
Freeman, T. and Peck,	Individual,	Joint	Governance	Instrumentalist and Management	The interplay of the symbolic and

E. (2007)	Organizational	Commissioning Partnership Board (JCPB) in the South East of England		hegemony theories; Theories of institutional change. Three important research strand related with partnership board behavior: 1) The extent of involvement in strategic decision making 2) Enactment of institutional practices 3) The role of the symbolic at the heart of the decision-making process	instrumental in partnership governance suggest that these aspects are intimately woven together, the symbolic providing the means and language through which the instrumental work of boards is enacted.
Halachmi, A. (2005)	Organizational		Governance, Risk Management	Paper examines some leading resources on the shift from governing" to "governance". The paper further presents an alternative approach for managing public risks	Civil society based organizations that make claims for public resources in the name of good governance should, as necessary, play the role of a watchdog when it comes to public safety and guarding of the public interest in that regard
Henton, D., J. Melville, T. Amsler, and M. Kopell. (2005)	Individual, Organizational	US states and US cities	Collaborative Governance	1) Solving complex problems in different issue areas 2) Encouraging government legitimacy, transparency, trust, and accountability 3) Promoting informed and engaged citizens who can participate more effectively in Democracy 4) Promoting greater inclusiveness, fairness, and justice:	Study focuses on: 1) The characteristics of collaborative governance and the current status of these ideas-in-action 2) Some specific case examples than can illuminate these experiences and lessons learned 3) Some priority areas for further study, experimentation, and assessment in order to advance the knowledge and practice of collaborative governance 4) A guidance to funders interested in this emerging field that could inform their own grant-making
Hood, C. (1991)		Analysis	New Public Management	NPM has been most commonly criticized in terms of a claimed contradiction between 'equity' and 'efficiency' values, but that any critique which is to survive NPM's claim to 'infinite reprogrammability'	This article discusses: 1) The doctrinal content of the group of ideas known as 'new public management 2) The intellectual provenance of those ideas; explanations for their

Author/Year	Level	Region	Type	Description	Findings
				must be couched in terms of possible conflicts between *administrative* values.	apparent persuasiveness in the 1980s 3) Criticisms which have been made of the new doctrines.
Howlett, M. and Rayner, J. (2006)	Organizational	Europe, Canada	Governance Capacity	Authors stressed whether NFPs are instances of "next-generation" policy instrument mixes or "new governance strategies" adopted as part of a divergent response on the part of national governments to the institutional problems of implementing the idea of sustainable forest management	The new modes of governance differ from existing policy mixes by that they are: 1) Designed to reduce the number of instances of counterproductive policy instrument use 2) To function effectively and meet public policy goals in an era of decreased national state capacity and autonomy 3) Rely much more heavily than existing instrument mixes have done on the involvement of private actors in both policy formulation and implementation.
Khan, M. H. (2006)	Organizational		Governance Capacity	The challenge for developing countries trying to devise institutional reform and anti corruption strategies is to learn the right lessons from the international experience and create feasible governance reform agendas appropriate and feasible for their own circumstances	There is strong evidence that governance and institutions matter in accelerating development and in reducing poverty in developing countries. However, the evidence strongly suggests that there is no common set of institutions that all successful developing countries have shared. Even the most successful developing countries have suffered from significant corruption and other governance failures during the early stages of their development.
Klijn, E. H. and Koppenjan, J. M. (2000)	Individual, Organizational		Public Management Policy Networks	Authors address the elaboration of the central concepts of a theory of networks and of the network management. They suggest that the network approach builds on several theoretical traditions.	Authors argue that government's special resources and its unique legitimacy as representative of the common interest make it the outstanding candidate for fulfilling the role of network manager, a role which means arranging and facilitating interaction process within networks in such a way that

Author (Year)	Level	Country	Approach	Focus	Findings
Olowu, D. (2003)	Developing Countries	India, Colombia, Philippines, Nigeria	Governance	This paper focuses on the challenge of multi-level governance which is at the heart of a major revolution occurring in the Third world policy circles though not many scholars have fully appreciated its reality or significance.	problems of under or non representation are properly addressed and interests are articulated and dealt with in an open, transparent and balanced manner. 1) Much research and experience in developing countries have shown that while decentralization does not guarantee change in economic and social conditions, well –packaged and focused policies and programs of decentralization can indeed make a difference. 2) There is evidence that the only way to lay the basis for development and accountable, democratic governance is by a conscious effort to build on the available social capital.
O'Toole, L. J. and Meier, K. J. (2007)	Organizational		Public Management	1) On the normative side authors have argued that bureaucracy is a prerequisite for democratic governance in the 21st century and democracy seeks to maximize values of participation and inclusion, and as a result it calls for a governance process that necessarily generates substantial transactions costs. 2) Empirical side of their work involves their extended efforts to specify and test a theory of public management—in particular, how management shapes public program performance.	In a series of these empirical studies, authors have developed evidence supporting the importance of the conserving, protecting, and stabilizing aspects of the administrative role. But amid today's frequent emphasis on entrepreneurship, and on one or another variant of New Public Management, the value and importance of administrators as conservators has often been forgotten or marginalized.
Pincetl, S. (2003)	Organizational, City		Non profits, Governance Approaches	This article examines park provision in Los Angeles historically and in the contemporary period through interviews and current documents, as well as through newspaper	1) The resulting analysis suggests that civil society organizations such as nonprofits act in quite similar ways to traditional urban regime business interests.

Author	Level	Country	Type	Description	Conclusion
Rhodes, R. A. E. (1996)	Organizational, Country	Britain	New Governance	The author argues that governance refers to self-organizing, inter-organizational networks and these networks complement markets and hierarchies as governing structures for authoritatively allocating resources and exercising control and coordination.	articles and park bond proposition language. The author concludes that networks now a pervasive feature of service delivery in Britain; that such networks are characterized by trust and mutual adjustment and undermine management reforms rooted in competition; and they are a challenge to governability because they become autonomous and resist central guidance.
Skelcher, C., Mathur, N. and Smith, M. (2005)	Individual, Organizational		Public Governance	This article investigates the relationship between democratic practices and the design of institutions operating in collaborative spaces, those policy and spatial domains where multiple public, private and non-profit actors join together to shape, make and implement public policy.	Analyzing objective measures of democratic performance in partnerships and interpreting the discursive transition from earlier practices in representative democratic institutions authors find that institutional designs for collaboration reflect different settlements between discourses, captured in the distinction between club, agency and polity-forming partnership types. The results show how the governance of collaborative spaces is mediated through a dominant set of discursively defined institutional practices.
Sloat, A. (2003)	Individual, Organizational		Governance	This article, which draws from the author's work with the team that prepared the White Paper, provides a first-hand examination of how the document was produced. Following a discussion about the meaning of governance, the article focuses on the timeline of events, the consultation procedures, and some of the challenges (linguistic, practical, and political) that arose.	This article considers the future of the governance debate through an examination of follow-up proposals and in the context of the European Convention's work in anticipation of an Inter-Governmental Conference (IGC) in 2004.

Conclusion

Globalization, technological advancement, and new perspectives in public management resulted in the establishment of collaborative governance practice mechanisms throughout the world. Decentralization, civic engagement, and accountable use of power are the most important attributes of contemporary democracies. Considering this, it is safe to argue that governance mostly works in the countries where democratic values reveal other non-liberal values. Democracy in combination with governance emphasizes the importance of the need for ways of conducting public management in a transparent, participatory and accountable manner. Both collaborative public management and collaborative governance concepts share common process values, such as transparency, accountability and trust. However, in essence they are very different. Their difference is on the unit of analysis where collaborative governance considers the issues on the national and international level, whereas collaborative public management looks at the localities. Considering this we can argue that collaborative governance has broader meaning than collaborative public management.

Collaborative public management literature looks at substance of what public agencies and managers do in networks of actors. Collaborative governance literature looks at democracy and public's role in shared decisions, both process and substance. In this paper we focused on both and their applications to development and administrative reforms. Good governance is desirable by many developing countries but it is not a simple task. But if lessons learned from others, good governance could be successful in the future. Good governance cannot be transferred from one country to another or from one context to another easily. The developing countries should identify desirable future and design programs for that goal to be successful, for example.

REFERENCES

Agranoff, R. 2007. *Managing Within Networks*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Agranoff, R. and M. McGuire. 2003. *Collaborative Public Management: New Strategies for Local Governments*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Ansell, C. and A. Gash. 2008. Collaborative Governance in Theory and Practice. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 18, 4, 543-571.

Bingham, L. B. 2008. Legal frameworks for governance and public management. In Bingham, L. B. and R. O'Leary (eds) *Big Ideas in Collaborative Public Management*. New York: ME Sharpe, pp. 247-269.

Bingham, L. B., R. O'Leary and C. Carlson. 2008. Frameshifting Lateral Thinking for Collaborative Public Management. In Bingham, L. B. and R. O'Leary (eds) *Big Ideas in Collaborative Public Management*. New York: ME Sharpe, pp. 3-16.

Bovaird, T. and E. Loffler (eds). 2003. *Public Management and Governance*. London: Routledge.

Box, R. C., S. Gary, B. Marshall, J. Reed and C. M. Reed. 2001. New Public Management and Substantive Democracy. *Public Administration Review*, 61, 608-619.

Brinkerhoff, D. 1999. Exploring State-Civil Society Collaboration: Policy Partnerships in Developing Countries. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 28, 4, 59-86.

---------. 2008. Fostering Democracy and Good Governance. *PA Times International Supplement*, 31, 3, 5.

Bryson, J. M., B. Crosby and M. Stone. 2006. The Design and Implementation of Cross-Sector Collaborations: Propositions from the Literature. *Public Administration Review*, Special Issue, 44-55.

Christensen, T. and P. Laegreid. 1999. New Public Management: Design, Resistance, or Transformation? A Study of How Modern Reforms Are Received in a Civil Service System. *Public Productivity & Management Review*, 23, 2, 169-193.

Clarke, S. E. 2000. Governance Tasks and Nonprofit Organizations in Hula, R. and C. Jackson-Elmoore. *Nonprofits in Urban America*. Greenwood Publishing, pp. 199-223.

Coe, B. 2008. Fostering Democracy and Good Governance. *PA Times International Supplement*, 31, 3, 4.

Cooper, T., T. Bryer and J. Meek. 2006. Citizen-Centered Collaborative Public Management. *Public Administration Review*, Special Issue, 76-88.

Dunn, W. N. and D. Y. Miller. 2007. A Critique of the New Public Management and the Neo-Weberian State: Advancing a Critical Theory of Administrative Reform. *Public Organization Review*, 7, 4, 345–358.

Eliassen, K. A. and N. I. Sitter. 2008. *Understanding Public Management*. London: Sage.

Fountain, J. E. 1994. Comment: Disciplining Public Management Research. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 13, 2, 269-277.

Freeman, T. and E. Peck. 2007. Performing Governance: A partnership Board Dramaturgy. *Public Administration*, 85, 4, 907–929.

Halachmi, A. 2005. Governance and risk management: challenges and public productivity. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 18, 4, 300-317.

Henton, D., J. Melville, T. Amsler and M. Kopell. 2005. *Collaborative Governance: A Guide for Grant makers*. Menlo Park, CA: William and Flora Hewlett Foundation.

Hood, C. 1991. A Public Management for all Seasons? *Public Administration*, 69, 1, 3-19.

Howlett, M. and J. Rayner. 2006. Globalization and Governance Capacity: Explaining Divergence in National Forest Programs as Instances of ''Next-Generation'' Regulation in Canada and Europe. *Governance: An International Journal of Policy, Administration, and Institutions*, 19, 2, 251–275.

Kapucu, N. 2006a. Public-Nonprofit Partnerships for Collective Action in Dynamic Contexts. *Public Administration: An International Quarterly*, 84, 1, 205-220.

---------. 2006b. New Public Management: Theory, Ideology, and Practice. In Farazmand, Ali and Jack Pinkowski (eds). *Handbook of Globalization and Public Administration*. New York: Marcel Dekker, pp. 889-902.

Khan, M. H. 2006. Governance and Anti-Corruption Reforms in Developing Countries: Policies, Evidence and Ways Forward. Retrieved on March 20, 2008 from http://www.g24.org/khan0906.pdf .

Klijn, E.H. and J. F. M. Koppenjan. 2000. Public management and Policy Network: Foundations of a network approach to governance. *Public Management*, 2, 2, 135–158.

Klijn, E.H. 2008. Governance and Governance Networks in Europe: An Assessment of Ten Years of Research on the Theme. *Public Management Review*, 10, 4, 505-525.

Koliba, C. and J. Meek. 2008. Governance in Networked Environments:

Democratic Anchorage in Multi-Sector Systems. Paper presented at Minnowbrook III Conference. Lake Placid, NY. September 2008.

McGuire, M. 2006. Collaborative Public Management: Assessing What We Know and How We Know It. *Public Administration Review*, Special issue, 33-42.

Milvard, B. H. and K. Provan. 2000. Governing the Hollow State. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 2, 359-379.

Moynihan, D. 2007. *From Forest Fires to Hurricane Katrina: Case Studies of Incident Command Systems*. Washington, D.C.: IBM Center for the Business of Government.

Musso, J. A., C. Weare, N. Oztas and W. E. Loges. 2006. Neighborhood Governance Reform and Networks of Community Power in Los Angeles. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 36, 1, 79-97.

National Policy Consensus Center (NPCC). nd. Retrieved on February 22, 2008 from http://www.policyconsensus.org/publicsolutions/ps_2.html

Olowu, D. 2003. Governance in developing countries: The challenge of multi-level governance. *Habitat International*, 27, 4,501-522.

O'Toole, L. J. and K. J. Meier. 2007. Public Management and The Administrative Conservator: Empirical Support for Larry Terry's Prescriptions. *Administrative Theory & Praxis*, 29, 1, 148–156.

Peters, G. B. and J. Pierre. 1998. Governance Without Government? Rethinking Public Administration. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 8, 2, 223- 243.

Pincetl, S. 2003. Nonprofits and Park Provision in Los Angeles: An Exploration of the Rise of Governance Approaches to the Provision of Local Services. *Social Science Quarterly*, 84, 4, 979-1001.

Rhodes, R. A. E. 1996. The new governance: Governing without Government. *Political Studies*, XLIV, 625-667.

Skelcher, C., N. Mathur and M. Smith. 2005. The Public Governance of Collaborative Spaces: Discourse, Design and Democracy. *Public Administration*, 83, 3, 573–596.

Sloat, A. 2003. The Preparation of the Governance White Paper. Politics, 23, 128–136.

Stivers, C. 2008. *Governance in Dark times: Practical Philosophy for Public Service*. Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Walti, S., D. Kubler and Y. Papadopoulos. 2004. How Democratic Is "Governance"? Lessons from Swiss Drug Policy. *Governance: An International Journal of Policy, Administration, and Institutions*, 17, 1, 83–113.

Welp, Y., F. Urgell and E. Aibar. 2007. From Bureaucratic Administration to Network Administration? An Empirical Study on E-Government Focus on Catalonia. *Public Organization Review: A Global Journal,* 7, 4, 299-316.

Whitman, J. 2005. Human Systems and Global Governance. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science*, 22, 2, 311-317.

Yee, A. S. 2004. Cross-National Concepts in Supranational Governance: State–Society Relations and EU Policy Making. *Governance: An International Journal of Policy, Administration, and Institutions,* 17, 4, 487–524.