

Chapter 2

Crowdsourcing Coordination: A Review and Research Agenda for Crowdsourcing Coordination Used for Macro-tasks



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1 **Abstract** Crowdsourcing has become a widely accepted approach to leveraging the
2 skills and expertise of others to accomplish work. Despite the potential of crowd-
3 sourcing to tackle complex problems, it has often been used to address simple
4 micro-tasks. To tackle more complex macro-tasks, more attention is needed to better
5 comprehend crowd coordination. Crowd coordination is defined as the synchroniza-
6 tion of crowd workers in an attempt to direct and align their efforts in pursuit of a
7 shared goal. The goal of this chapter is to advance our understanding of crowd coordi-
8 nation to tackle complex macro-tasks. To accomplish this, we have three objec-
9 tives. First, we review popular theories of coordination. Second, we examine the
10 current approaches to crowd coordination in the HCI and CSCW literature. Finally,
11 the chapter identifies shortcomings in the literature and proposes a research agenda
12 directed at advancing our understanding of crowd coordination needed to address
13 complex macro-tasks.

14 2.1 Introduction

15 Crowdsourcing has become a widely accepted approach to leveraging the skills and
16 expertise of others to accomplish work (Robert and Romero 2015, 2017). Crowd-
17 sourcing has many definitions but was first defined by Jeff Howe as the outsourcing of
18 work to a crowd (Howe 2006). Typical modern definitions of crowdsourcing involve
19 two attributes: (1) a crowd, or group of people, and (2) online work. Crowdsourc-
20 ing platforms such as Mechanical Turk (<http://www.mturk.com>) and CrowdFlower
21 (<http://www.crowdflower.com>) attract large groups of people who can work online
22 via these digital platforms. These platforms and the people who work on them (i.e.,
23 crowd workers) provide access to a wealth of knowledge and expertise that can be
24 leveraged to tackle complex problems.

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25 Despite the potential of crowdsourcing to tackle complex problems, it has often
26 been used to address rather simple micro-tasks. Micro-tasks are standalone simple
27 tasks that do not require the coordination of work among individuals (Schmitz and
28 Lykourantzou 2018). To tackle more complex problems, crowdsourcing must address
29 macro-tasking. Macro-tasking can be described as complex crowd work that is some-
30 times but not always decomposable to micro-tasks (Schmitz and Lykourantzou 2018).
31 Crowdsourcing macro-tasks is more challenging than crowdsourcing micro-tasks.
32 Macro-tasking requires work processes needed to tackle complex problem-solving
33 involving activities such as the generation and integration of diverse ideas along
34 with group decision-making. Macro-tasking requires crowd workers to coordinate
35 in order to both divide their labor and aggregate the outputs of their labor.

36 In the human–computer interaction/computer-supported cooperative work
37 (HCI/CSCW) fields, crowd coordination is typically handled by the requestor and
38 results in micro-tasking. Requestors divide and assign work prior to any crowd
39 involvement and in many cases the work is never aggregated. Unfortunately, this
40 approach to crowd coordination limits the potential of crowds to solve complex
41 problems and reach their full potential.

42 *Consider the following scenario:* An organization wants to use crowdsourcing to
43 identify its next new product. The organization puts forth a call to the public for new
44 ideas and gives a specific deadline. The organization receives many great ideas and
45 asks the crowd to vote on the best idea for a new product. The votes are tallied and
46 the winner is announced. This approach to crowdsourcing is oriented toward micro-
47 tasking. The work process is reasonably well formulated and easy to understand by
48 all crowd workers. Although the outcome might not be predictable, the work process
49 is very predictable. The crowdsourcing tasks require little interaction or dependence
50 among crowd workers, so coordination is of little importance.

51 *Now consider a different scenario:* An organization wants to crowdsource the
52 development of the marketing plan for this new product. Because there are many
53 ways to accomplish this task, the work is not easily nor reasonably well formulated.
54 Both the work process and the outcome are not as predictable as in the last scenario.
55 Because the crowd is expected to produce one marketing plan, the crowd workers
56 must decide how the work is to be divided and how or whether the work needs to
57 be aggregated. To accomplish this task, crowd workers need to work together. This
58 approach to crowdsourcing is oriented toward macro-tasking and requires interaction
59 and greater dependence among crowd workers; therefore, coordination is of the
60 utmost importance. Clearly, to fully leverage crowdsourcing, more work is needed
61 on coordinating the crowdsourcing of macro-tasks.

62 There are many definitions of coordination (Robert 2016). For the sake of clarity,
63 this chapter defines coordination generally as:

64 The synchronization of individuals in an attempt to direct and align their efforts in pursuit
65 of a shared goal.

66 And crowd coordination specifically as:

67 The synchronization of crowd workers in an attempt to direct and align their efforts in pursuit
68 of a shared goal.

69 The goal of this chapter is to advance our understanding of macro-tasking in
70 crowdsourcing by addressing issues related to coordination. To accomplish this, we
71 have three objectives. First, we review popular and recent theories of coordination
72 across organizational and computer science. Specifically, we present and discuss
73 transactive memory systems (TMS), coordination theory, role-based coordination,
74 relational coordination, stigmergic coordination, and an integrative model of coordi-
75 nation. Second, we examine the HCI and CSCW studies on coordination in macro-
76 tasking and categorize these approaches into one or more of the previously presented
77 theories of coordination. Although prior studies on coordination in crowdsourcing
78 have focused primarily on micro-tasking, attention is shifting toward macro-tasking,
79 as seen by a small but fast-growing set of HCI/CSCW articles on the topic. Last, we
80 propose a research agenda based on the review of coordination theories and prior
81 HCI and CSCW work on coordination in macro-tasking.

82 **2.2 Background**

83 **2.2.1 *Coordination in Micro-tasking Versus Macro-tasking*** 84 ***in Crowdsourcing***

85 The first question one might ask is this: What makes coordinating macro-tasks so dif-
86 ferent from coordinating micro-tasks? Macro-tasks require much more coordination
87 among workers than micro-tasks, for several reasons. Many micro-tasks are independ-
88 ent individual decomposed tasks assigned to individuals. Standalone independent
89 micro-tasks require little or no coordination among crowd members. However, in
90 many cases, macro-tasks cannot be decomposed to the level of a single individual
91 and require more than one person to perform the work. The interdependent nature
92 of macro-tasking requires coordination among crowd workers. In addition, macro-
93 tasks that can be decomposed are likely to be decomposed by the crowd and not the
94 requestor. Both the decomposition of macro-tasks and the eventual aggregation of
95 micro-tasks require coordination among crowd members.

96 **2.2.2 *Theories of Coordination***

97 **2.2.2.1 Transactive Memory System**

98 ***What is it?*** A transactive memory system (TMS) is a way of coordinating work
99 that relies on members of a collective to know who knows what in that collective.
100 This is accomplished in part by sharing or dividing the cognitive labor across the
101 collective (Brandon and Hollingshead 2004; Wegner 1987). Research linking TMS
102 to better coordination and ultimately performance has been conducted across a wide

103 and diverse set of fields including information systems, organizational behavior,
 104 psychology, and communications (Ren and Argote 2011). More specifically, the
 105 coordination benefits of TMS have led to emergent and adaptive team behaviors,
 106 allowing for effective and implicit communication (Marques-Quinteiro et al. 2013).
 107 TMS has proved to be an invaluable approach to team coordination.

108 ***How does it work?*** TMS effectiveness relies on five key elements. First, each
 109 member of the collective should hold unique specialized knowledge. Second, mem-
 110 bers of the collective should share a cognitive map of the distribution of this special-
 111 ized knowledge across the team. Three, task responsibilities should be assigned to
 112 each member of the collective based on their specialized knowledge (Brandon and
 113 Hollingshead 2004; Moreland 1999). Four, members of the collective should trust
 114 that each member is competent in his or her knowledge domain and assigned task
 115 responsibilities (Austin 2003; Lewis 2003). If members of the collective do not trust
 116 one another they will be less likely to rely on one another's expertise. Five, mem-
 117 bers of the collective must communicate with one another to leverage each person's
 118 expertise (Choi et al. 2010). Communication allows for the sharing of specialized
 119 knowledge, which is essential for leveraging expertise across the collective.

120 ***Transaction Memory System Key Elements***

- 121 • Specialized knowledge among members
- 122 • Shared cognitive map of specialized knowledge
- 123 • Task responsibilities based on specialized knowledge
- 124 • Members who trust one another's specialized knowledge
- 125 • Members who share their specialized knowledge

126 ***Potential Benefits for Macro-tasking:*** TMS allows for coordination among crowd
 127 workers through implicit communication. This reduces the overhead associated with
 128 explicit communication. TMS can also be used to organize and assign tasks. As new
 129 work requirements emerge they are automatically assigned to crowd workers based
 130 on their knowledge specialization.

131 ***Potential Drawbacks for Macro-tasking:*** Crowds should have either a shared work
 132 history to develop a TMS or some way to communicate who knows what in a crowd.
 133 Developing a TMS can take time that crowd workers may not have. Platforms can be
 134 designed to communicate who knows what in a crowd. But it could be problematic
 135 for existing crowd workers to keep track of who knows what with regard to departing
 136 and incoming members.

137 **2.2.2.2 Coordination Theory**

138 ***What is it?*** Coordination theory is one of the most popular approaches to under-
 139 standing coordination (Crowston et al. 2006). The theory defines coordination as
 140 the management of "dependencies between activities" (Malone and Crowston 1994,
 141 p. 90). One of the distinctive applications of the coordination theory is the use of
 142 coordination mechanisms that are based on the type of dependencies among tasks for

143 designing collaborative systems (e.g., Andres and Zmud 2002; Strode et al. 2012).
144 Malone and Crowston (1994) introduced ways to analyze coordination in terms of
145 actors, interdependent tasks that are performed by the actors, and resources that are
146 required for completing those tasks. Based on their analysis, coordination problems
147 that arise from the dependencies among tasks, actors, and resources are identified
148 and solved by deploying appropriate coordination mechanisms.

149 ***How does it work?*** Several aspects of coordination theory make it distinct from other
150 theories of coordination. First, it draws attention to the dependencies among tasks
151 rather than among individuals or organizational units (Crowston et al. 2006). Instead
152 of understanding coordination in terms of how people who perform the task relate
153 to one another, this theory views coordination in terms of how one task is related
154 to another task. Second, it identifies and categorizes types of dependencies among
155 activities. This provides clarity as to possible implications associated with specific
156 dependencies. Finally, this theory allows for the modeling of coordination to make it
157 easier to understand the effects of assignments and reassignments of activities needed
158 to complete tasks (Crowston 1994). This allows people to understand the implications
159 of adding or removing members of the collective relative to that change's impact
160 on coordination. However, recent work highlighted the limitations of coordination
161 theory for coordinating crowd work (Retelny et al. 2017).

162 ***Coordination Theory Key Elements***

- 163 • Identify tasks
- 164 • Identify and categorize dependencies among tasks
- 165 • Employ appropriate mechanism per dependency type

166 ***Potential Benefits for Macro-tasking:*** Coordination theory allows for the identifi-
167 cation and removal of potential barriers to accomplishing crowd work. The work-
168 flow plans derived from coordination theory not only provide guidance needed to
169 accomplish work but also a shared communication medium to facilitate a common
170 understanding among crowd workers.

171 ***Potential Drawbacks for Macro-tasking:*** Coordination theory relies heavily on a
172 person or group to pre-plan the work, which is less useful when task requirements
173 are not known or task requirements are emergent and change over time. For example,
174 at least one study has found evidence of this limitation as it relates to crowdsourcing
175 complex adaptive work (see Retelny et al. 2017).

176 **2.2.2.3 Role-Based Coordination Theory**

177 ***What is it?*** Role-based coordination relies on roles or a set of expectations associated
178 with a position to organize and perform work (Bechky 2006). Roles constitute both
179 expected activities and their associated responsibilities. Roles have long been viewed
180 in organizations as the basic unit of coordination (Okhuysen and Bechky 2009).
181 Role-based coordination does not rely on specific individuals, which has proved in
182 some cases to be effective for complex and interdependent crowd work with transit
183 membership (e.g., Valentine and Edmondson 2014).

184 **How does it work?** Typically, role-based coordination theories assert that work can
 185 be organized by assigning roles to individuals and holding them accountable for
 186 the responsibilities associated with their roles. Structure is used to coordinate work
 187 across roles and is determined by the relationships among roles within some bound-
 188 ary. Structure can be viewed as either a centralized hierarchical structure or a decen-
 189 tralized flat structure. Role-based coordination theories accomplish work by defining
 190 and assigning roles to individuals and ensuring that these roles are structured in a
 191 way that best supports the work needed to be done.

192 **Role-Based Coordination Theory Key Elements**

- 193 ● Role definition
- 194 ● Role assignment
- 195 ● Role structure
- 196 ● Role accountability

197 **Potential Benefits for Macro-tasking:** Role-based coordination does not rely on
 198 specific individuals to accomplish work but instead relies on roles. Reliance on roles
 199 promotes a plug-and-play structure that allows crowd workers to move in and out of
 200 the crowd with minimal disruption to work.

201 **Potential Drawbacks for Macro-tasking:** Role-based coordination requires someone
 202 to create the roles and their corresponding responsibilities. That being the case, it is
 203 not clear who would create new roles when needed. This becomes problematic when
 204 task requirements are emergent and change over time.

205 **2.2.2.4 Relational Coordination Theory**

206 **What is it?** Relational coordination theory asserts that a core facilitator of effective
 207 work is the quality of interactions among workers (Gittell 2002, 2011). According
 208 to Gittell (2002), the quality of interactions is based on effective communications
 209 and strong relationships. The underlying logic is that coordination involves both
 210 task interdependencies and the interactions among people involved in those tasks.
 211 Therefore, higher quality interactions among people involved in those tasks are likely
 212 to enhance coordination and lead to better performance (Gittell 2011). According to
 213 relational coordination theorists, high-quality relationships are especially important
 214 to achieving better performance when work is complex, interdependent, and time-
 215 constrained (Faraj and Xiao 2006; Gittell 2002, 2006, 2011). The importance of
 216 the relationships among employees has been supported by several observations in
 217 organizational settings (e.g., Adler et al. 2008).

218 **How does it work?** Relational coordination theory views coordination as “a mutually
 219 reinforcing process of interaction between communication and relationships carried
 220 out for the purpose of task integration” (Gittell 2002, p. 301). Relational coordina-
 221 tion theory describes relationship in terms of three dimensions: shared goals, shared
 222 knowledge, and mutual respect. The theory describes communication in four dimen-
 223 sions: frequency, timeliness, accuracy, and problem-solving focus (Gittell 2002,

224 2006). Relational coordination occurs when work is coordinated “through high-
 225 quality communication, supported by relationships of shared goals, shared knowl-
 226 edge, and mutual respect” (Gittell 2016, p. 11). This indicates that collectives who
 227 have more frequent, timely, accurate, and problem-solving-focused communication
 228 can be expected to coordinate more effectively and ultimately perform better by
 229 having shared goals, shared knowledge, and mutual respect.

230 *Relational Coordination Theory Key Elements*

- 231 ● Relationships
 - 232 ● Shared goals
 - 233 ● Shared knowledge
 - 234 ● Mutual respect
- 235 ● Communication
 - 236 ● Frequent
 - 237 ● Timely
 - 238 ● Accurate
 - 239 ● Problem-solving focus

240 **Potential Benefits for Macro-tasking:** Coordination via high-quality relationships is
 241 very flexible and robust, allowing crowds to adapt to new or emergent task require-
 242 ments. It relies less on formal planning and more on the possibility of informal
 243 planning done by the crowd itself.

244 **Potential Drawbacks for Macro-tasking:** It takes time to develop high-quality rela-
 245 tionships among crowd workers. However, it is unclear whether current crowdsourc-
 246 ing platforms are designed to support the development of high-quality relationships
 247 among crowd workers.

248 2.2.2.5 Stigmergic Coordination Theory

249 **What is it?** Stigmergic coordination can be described as coordination that occurs
 250 through changes in a shared or collective work product (Rezgui and Crowston 2018).
 251 The concept of stigmergy is derived from entomologists’ observations of social
 252 insects. Insects such as ants and termites leave traces (e.g., pheromones) while per-
 253 forming work, and such traces stimulate other insects to take subsequent actions
 254 (Heylighen 2015; Khuong et al. 2016). Examples of stigmergic coordination on the
 255 part of insects include termites building and repairing nests, and ants finding the
 256 shortest route to food (Heylighen 2016; Khuong et al. 2016). The concept of stig-
 257 mergy has influenced the design of collaborative action such as free open-source
 258 software development (Bolic et al. 2009, 2016), multi-agent systems (e.g., Valcke-
 259 naers et al. 2004) and collective robotics (e.g., Holland and Melhuish 1999). These
 260 areas have applied the stigmergic coordination approach to the need for coordinat-
 261 ing in dynamic and emergent environments without direct communication between
 262 workers and agents.

263 **How does it work?** Members of a given collective not only perform work but also
 264 leave traces of their work. This requires ensuring that those traces are visible to other
 265 members. Those other members interpret those traces to determine what has already
 266 been done. Based on this, and their knowledge of what has to eventually be done,
 267 they determine the work that needs to be done next. Finally, as they are performing
 268 their own work they leave traces behind for other members. The stigmergic process of
 269 coordination occurs across many tasks done by many workers. As a result, stigmergic
 270 coordination can occur without direct and explicit interactions among members of
 271 a collective (Heylighen 2016). Stigmergic coordination seems to operate, in part,
 272 based on the development of shared work norms and practices normally associated
 273 with communities of practice (Lave 1991, 2009; Lave and Wenger 1991), derived
 274 somewhat from Suchman's (1987) work on situated action.

275 **Stigmergic Coordination Theory Key Elements**

- 276 ● Create traces
- 277 ● Interpret traces
- 278 ● Determine future actions based on traces

279 **Potential Benefits for Macro-tasking:** Stigmergic coordination relies on distribution
 280 cognition, which allows the crowd to self-organize. There is low reliance on specific
 281 individuals to accomplish or plan the work. This provides a relative plug-and-play
 282 structure for crowd workers from the same community of practice (i.e., shared work
 283 norms). Stigmergic coordination employs informal planning that is flexible, robust,
 284 and adaptive to new or emergent task requirements.

285 **Potential Drawbacks for Macro-tasking:** Crowd workers must share a common set
 286 of work norms and practices. Therefore, the plug-and-play structure only applies to
 287 members of the same or similar work collectives. In fact, stigmergic coordination
 288 might be the worst coordination approach when workers do not share a common set
 289 of work norms and practices. As such, it limits the potential set of crowd workers
 290 available to recruit from.

291 **2.2.2.6 Integrative Coordination Framework**

292 **What is it?** The integrative framework was put forth by Okhuysen and Bechky (2009),
 293 in part to help identify coordination mechanisms. Based on their literature review
 294 on coordination they identified five types of coordination mechanisms (plans and
 295 rules, objects and representations, roles, routines, and proximity) and three condi-
 296 tions needed for coordination (accountability, predictability, and a common under-
 297 standing). Generally, Okhuysen and Bechky's (2009) integrative framework asserts
 298 that the five types of coordination mechanisms promote coordination through sup-
 299 porting one or more of the three conditions. Specifically, their framework identifies
 300 which coordination mechanisms support which conditions.

301 **How does it work?** The integrative framework promotes coordination by identifying
 302 the types of mechanisms needed. If one assumes that accountability, predictability,

303 and a common understanding are needed, then one could ensure that at least one
 304 mechanism is chosen to support each of them. Likewise, if coordination was still a
 305 problem, more mechanisms could be employed to help buttress a particular condi-
 306 tion. For example, if collectives were struggling with accountability, the integrative
 307 framework could help to identify a mechanism that could be employed to improve
 308 accountability.

309 **Conditions**

310 Accountability: Accountability describes who is responsible for specific tasks and
 311 elements of those tasks. Making clear and visible who is in charge of which tasks
 312 promotes the awareness of each person's interdependence and responsibility, and the
 313 development of trust, which is in turn expected to contribute to coordinated actions
 314 in a collective. Accountability in the integrative framework includes the means that
 315 are created through informal and emergent interactions such as side conversations.
 316 Plans, rules, and objects can serve as the scaffolding that links tasks with people
 317 who are responsible for them. Roles, routines, and visibility also support continual
 318 monitoring, updating, and hand-offs among workers.

319 Predictability: Predictability explains workers' understanding of what subtasks con-
 320 stitute larger tasks in what sequence and what activities must be performed to accom-
 321 plish each task. Predictability is essential for coordination because it highlights the
 322 anticipation of subsequent tasks and related actions of others and allows workers
 323 to adjust their work to others' work and perform their work accordingly. Plans and
 324 objects are the coordination mechanisms that create predictability by determining
 325 what tasks need to be completed. Familiarity and routines also enhance predictability
 326 by providing information on other workers' preferences with regard to the work.

327 Common understanding: Common understanding is a shared knowledge among
 328 workers about what the whole completed work is like, including goals and objectives
 329 and how it is accomplished. Plans and rules create a common understanding of the
 330 whole interdependent task and the process, facilitating better coordination. Routines
 331 and familiarity help workers become familiar with the ways the different parts of
 332 the work are put together to create the whole. In addition, objects and roles develop
 333 a common perspective through sharing and learning different activities to complete
 334 tasks.

335 **Coordination Mechanisms**

336 Plans and rules: As one of the fundamental elements of coordination, "plans and
 337 rules" refers to a set of elements that define relationships among tasks, workers,
 338 and other units of organizations. Among the functions of plans and rules is *defining*
 339 *responsibility for tasks*. Coordination by plans and rules enables people to decide
 340 what (subsequent) actions to take and what choices to make among the alternatives
 341 to complete tasks.

342 Objects and representations: The effective use of objects, representations, and tech-
 343 nologies helps in coordinating work by providing information that is important to
 344 accomplish tasks (*direct information-sharing*). For example, boundary objects (e.g.,
 345 data spreadsheets) are necessary to communicate problems to solve, ideas, and activ-
 346 ities across teams. Also, a representative map or matrix of tasks and responsibilities

347 (*scaffolding*) serves as a frame that reminds people of what tasks to do, the actors in
 348 charge of each task, the alignment of tasks among workers, and the progress of work
 349 (*acknowledging and aligning work*).

350 **Roles:** Roles can function as a coordination mechanism in two ways. While repre-
 351 senting sets of responsibilities and activities of an actor who occupies the position,
 352 roles at once allow for redefining the responsibilities to adapt to the emergent status
 353 of work (*monitoring and updating*). This process of defining roles allows for *cre-*
 354 *ating a common perspective*. Under common understandings about responsibilities,
 355 *substitution* can be easily done.

356 **Routines:** In more traditional organizational contexts, “routines” refers to “repeated
 357 patterns of behavior that are bound by rules and customs” (Feldman 2000, p. 611). In
 358 contrast, the current literature defines “routines” as ways to reflect “social meaning
 359 and social interaction ... embedded within them” (Okhuysen and Bechky 2009,
 360 p. 477).

361 **Proximity:** “Proximity” refers to coordination based on factors often associated with
 362 physical distance. These factors include *visibility* and *familiarity*. “Visibility” refers
 363 to the ability to see what others are doing, which is often associated with collocation
 364 but not necessarily a requirement of collocation. “Familiarity” refers to the ability to
 365 rely on prior relationships with others to facilitate the coordination of actions. Once
 366 again, familiarity has often been associated with collocation but is not necessarily a
 367 requirement of collocation.

368 ***Integrative Coordination Framework Key Elements***

- 369 • Conditions
 - 370 • Accountability
 - 371 • Predictability
 - 372 • Common understanding
- 373 • Coordination mechanisms
 - 374 • Plans and rules
 - 375 • Objects and representations
 - 376 • Roles
 - 377 • Routines
 - 378 • Proximity

379 ***Potential Benefits for Macro-tasking:*** Because the integrative perspective entails
 380 both formal and emergent processes of coordination, the development of the coor-
 381 dination mechanisms and conditions promotes diverse coordination activities. This
 382 includes the explanation of a range of coordination procedures and tasks, from defin-
 383 ing problems and tasks to completing and handing off tasks.

384 ***Potential Drawbacks for Macro-tasking:*** Establishing such mechanisms and con-
 385 ditions might require a specific set of personnel, which would be expected to take
 386 enough time to develop alternative formal and informal patterns of coordinated activ-
 387 ities.

2.3 Recent Studies on Coordination in Macro-tasking Crowdsourcing

2.3.1 Search Methods

To review recent studies of coordination in macro-tasking, we first employed the academic search engine Google Scholar, entering the search keywords “microtask,” “coordination,” and “crowdsourcing.” We conducted the search in August 2018 and the results showed 60 articles. We read abstracts of the articles and evaluated whether to include the articles in the literature review based on the following inclusion criteria: (1) the article addressed issues about coordination for macro-tasking or (2) the article suggested and tested empirical ideas or designs of macro-task crowdsourcing. We excluded review papers, textbook-type books, patent applications, and articles published in non-English venues. Eight studies met all the criteria from the initial search. Additionally, we traced back some of the initial search results. This was because we found that some studies had been influencing the literature in macro-tasking coordination but had not shown up through our keyword search. For example, Kittur et al. (2011) and Kulkarni et al. (2012) were heavily cited as exemplar of investigating coordination problems of macro-tasking but didn’t appear in the initial search results. As a result, we identified a total of ten studies for the literature review.

2.3.2 Approaches Used to Coordinate Crowdsourcing Macro-tasks

We reviewed all the papers to identify which coordination theories and which of the five mechanisms were employed. To do this, we first grasped the main ideas and assumptions behind each coordination theory. We used these to make distinctions among them. Then we read and reviewed each study independently and discussed which theory best represented each study’s approach to coordination and whether it relied on one of the five mechanisms.

Most studies could be placed within the coordination theory approach (see Table 2.1). These studies typically focused on identifying and managing various dependencies among tasks, roles, and workers. To identify and manage dependencies these studies leveraged various techniques and tools. For example, to understand dependencies at the task level, Kittur et al. (2011) and Kulkarni et al. (2012) proposed systems that displayed plans for the work, including the sequence and the structure of work in units of subtasks. Also, to coordinate available competent workers, Haas et al. (2015) and Schmitz and Lykourantzou (2018) devised systems to model the structure of work by workers’ level of skills and expertise. It appears that many HCI and CSCW researchers have addressed issues of coordination in macro-tasking, exploring the ideas best represented by coordination theory.

Table 2.1 Literature review based on coordination theories

	Transactive memory system	Coordination theory	Role-based coordination	Stigmergic coordination	Relational coordination
Kittur et al. (2011) (Crowd-forge)		X			
Kulkarni et al. (2012) (Turkomatic)		X			
Haas et al. (2015) (Argonaut)		X	X		
Teevan et al. (2016) (Microwriter)		X			
Kim et al. (2017) (Mechanical novel)		X			
Retelny et al. (2017) (No workflow)		X			
Salehi et al. (2017) (Huddler)		X			X
Valentine et al. (2017) (Flash organization)			X		
Kaur et al. (2018) (Vocabulary)		X			
Schmitz and Lykourantzou (2018) (Task assignment and sequencing)		X			

425 The second most used theory was role-based coordination. We found several stud-
426 ies that employed role-based coordination. These studies typically created a structure
427 of roles and responsibilities for those roles and assigned qualified workers to each
428 role to achieve goals. For example, Valentine et al. (2017) first built a hierarchical
429 structure of roles based on tasks and activities using the role-based coordination the-
430 ory. This study is in line with previous studies on scaffolding structures of roles in
431 emergent coordination contexts. This includes an emergency unit of a university hospi-
432 tal (Valentine and Edmondson 2014) and emergent student team projects (Retelny
433 et al. 2014; Valentine et al. 2017). We found no studies employing TMS or stigmergic
434 coordination.

435 Regarding relational coordination, Salehi et al. (2017) study aligned with the rela-
436 tional coordination approach. The authors identified that familiarity among workers
437 was an advantageous condition in performing tasks for distributed crowds. Specif-
438 ically, when teaming workers up, they accounted for familiarity (e.g., history of
439 collaborations with other members) in addition to availability. They also provided
440 an instant communication channel and collaborative writing platform to support col-
441 laboration. The results indicated that the workers working with familiar teammates
442 performed better, knowing well other team members' strengths and work processes.
443 This study was not conducted in the same context as the face-to-face organization
444 interaction that extant research in relational coordination has considered. However,
445 by convening workers who were familiar with one another and leveraging their shared
446 knowledge with the use of proper communication tools, the study successfully exam-
447 ined the effectiveness of relational communication.

448 In summary, it appears that scholars are overwhelmingly employing coordination
449 theory to explore ways to handle macro-tasking in crowdsourcing. Role-based coor-
450 dination is a distant second, followed by the relational coordination theory. None
451 of the studies employed TMS or stigmergic approaches. Nonetheless, the literature
452 base is quite nascent, with just two papers before 2015 (in 2011 and 2012) and more
453 than half published in 2017 or 2018.

454 **2.3.3 Coordination Mechanisms for Crowdsourcing** 455 **Macro-tasks**

456 **2.3.3.1 Evolving Plans and Rules**

457 Plans and rules have been employed to help identify what tasks need to be completed
458 and to assign crowd workers task responsibilities. Especially in the macro-tasking
459 context, plans and rules for crowd workers should evolve to actively react to changes
460 as work progresses. For example, Kulkarni et al. (2012) proposed Turkomatic, a real-
461 time editable workflow that can be formed by crowds. Turkomatic was developed to
462 allow workers to breakdown complex problems into smaller tasks. Kim et al. (2017)
463 suggested a reflect-and-revise technique with which crowds could work on solving

464 complex problems such as story-writing. Emphasizing the importance of higher level
465 goals for complex and open-ended work, they utilized top-down goals for completing
466 story-writing tasks. While the goals served to effectively accommodate outputs from
467 different crowd workers, one distinct characteristic of this method was that goals were
468 not pre-embedded in the writing system but were chosen among other workers from
469 previous stages. Thus moving around the iterative steps of reflection and revision
470 goals, workers came up with better ideas for given tasks.

471 **2.3.3.2 Dynamic Objects and Representations**

472 As a strategy of employing the objects and representations mechanism, workflows
473 have been dominantly used in the crowdsourcing literature. Workflows serve as
474 an object and representation that reflects the division and sequence of work. In
475 macro-task coordination, because of the nature of macro-tasks—which are often non-
476 decomposable, context-dependent, and contingent on progress and changes—designing
477 workflows has been a challenging problem (Retelny et al. 2017).

478 Researchers have investigated workflows for macro-tasking that can be collab-
479 oratively developed and amenable to work progress. One example is Turkomatic,
480 developed by Kulkarni et al. (2012). The system employs a list view and hierarchical
481 graphs to show the structure of decomposed tasks by workers and the status of each
482 task, whether waiting, in progress, or done. Another example is a sentence-level scaf-
483 folding structure that Kim et al. (2017) utilized to define subsequent goals and tasks
484 to accomplish in Mechanical Novel. It helped workers not only generate suggestions
485 for further edits on a draft but also identify goals and tasks at a given stage.

486 Objects have also been suggested to support workers in decomposing complex
487 tasks. Kaur et al. (2018) introduced a “cognitive scaffold” for crowd workers to
488 plan action items to accomplish complex and context-embedded tasks. Specifically,
489 the researchers provided a vocabulary that comprised possible functions and sub-
490 tasks based on the analysis of the crowd’s comments on possible writing goals. The
491 researchers found it useful for workers to map out writing tasks.

492 **2.3.3.3 Roles Loosely Held**

493 We found several studies employing role-based coordination along with defining
494 hierarchical role structures. Haas et al. (2015) built Argonaut, which automatized
495 control of crowd workers’ output and their quality. To review task output and quality
496 effectively, the researchers defined positions of reviewers, reflecting different levels
497 of their review expertise, and made a hierarchical structure of the positions. Using
498 the hierarchy, the researchers identified a pool of trusted workers and assigned them
499 to different positions. Valentine et al. (2017) proposed flash organizations that were
500 flexibly assembled, role-based structures. The hierarchical structure loosely defined
501 roles and responsibilities to help workers use their skills and competence to adjust
502 to the progress of work. This approach allowed for the mobilization of different

sets of crowd workers depending on their expertise and availability. In addition, to do more efficient substitution, Salehi et al. (2017) addressed the role mechanism by managing familiarity and availability. By creating a loosely bounded team that consisted of crowd workers who had a common understanding of their role and relationship to the project, the researchers could occupy roles with different workers who were available at a given point, and the researchers found that this approach supported complex-task completion.

2.3.3.4 Routines

We found one article that discussed the use of routines as a coordination mechanism. Salehi et al. (2017) noted that routines can be useful when uncertainty and complexity of a problem is low. As they noted, routines can help workers develop common knowledge about how to produce a desired outcome based on prescribed procedures. Salehi et al. discovered that worker familiarity, as routines would accomplish, could lead to better coordination by increasing workers' knowledge of how their teammates worked.

2.3.3.5 Proximity

Our review found one study that employed proximity as familiarity (see Salehi et al. 2017), but none employed proximity as visibility to coordinate macro-tasks. This might be because the studies we reviewed were motivated to tackle problems related to online crowdsourcing, where crowd workers are distributed and rarely have familiarity with one another.

2.3.4 Summary

Overall, our review of coordination in the macro-tasking crowdsourcing literature revealed that much of the literature has focused on a small subset of coordination theories. More specifically, we found that macro-tasking studies on coordination have largely focused on establishing plans and rules (80%) to describe a final goal and subtasks (see Table 2.2). This was followed by the studies on building objects and representations (50%). Role-based approaches were also used as a coordination mechanism for macro-tasks in a few studies (40%). Routines and proximity were discussed in one study.

Table 2.2 Literature review based on coordination mechanisms

	Plans and rules	Objects and representations	Roles	Routines	Proximity
Kittur et al. (2011) (Crowdforge)	X	X			
Kulkarni et al. (2012) (Turkomatic)		X			
Haas et al. (2015) (Argonaut)	X		X		
Teevan et al. (2016) (Microwriter)		X	X		
Kim et al. (2017) (Mechanical novel)	X	X			
Retelny et al. (2017) (No workflow)		X			
Salehi et al. (2017) (Huddler)			X	X	X
Valentine et al. (2017) (Flash organization)		X	X		
Kaur et al. (2018) (Vocabulary)	X	X			
Schmitz and Lykourentzou (2018) (Task assignment and sequencing)	X	X			

2.4 Agenda for Future Research

Based on our brief literature review on coordination theories used in macro-tasking, the stigmergic and relational coordination theories have been studied the least, along with two integrative mechanisms: proximity (visibility and familiarity) and routines. Yet, we believe these theories and mechanisms offer the greatest potential for the crowdsourcing of macro-tasks. First, these theories and mechanisms rely on social processes of interaction along with adjustment to emergent states. They place much less emphasis on a priori definition of interdependencies among tasks or even roles among crowd workers. Approaches that focus on defining work upfront are likely to always rely heavily on requestors. To the contrary, both stigmergic and relational coordination along with proximity (visibility and familiarity) and routines rely more on facilitating the establishment of more informal coordination, which allows for

545 more spontaneous coordination of work. We believe these informal coordination
546 approaches are likely to be more effective ways of coordinating crowdsourcing as it
547 becomes increasingly oriented to macro- rather than micro-tasks. In addition, many of
548 the concepts of TMS are embodied in relational coordination's "shared knowledge"
549 concept.

550 To advance our understanding in the areas of stigmergic and relational coordi-
551 nation, we present and discuss several important research questions. In addition,
552 we present design propositions related to stigmergic and relational coordination.
553 Design propositions are general statements regarding the relationship between a
554 design element and other concepts. In this chapter, design propositions are general
555 statements regarding the relationship between the design of a system and coordina-
556 tion approaches.

557 **2.4.1 Stigmergic Coordination**

558 Stigmergic coordination refers to coordination based on traces, without explicit com-
559 munication among workers (Heylighen 2016; Rezgui and Crowston 2018). Because
560 stigmergic coordination doesn't necessarily require communication among workers
561 and is done instead by interaction between workers and environments, including
562 traces left by other workers, it could be beneficial in coordinating macro-tasks. For
563 example, the stigmergic coordination process doesn't involve setting up plans and
564 controls. This would help crowd workers readily get involved in work and adjust their
565 behaviors to the status and progress of work. Thus, we suggest research questions
566 that could advance macro-task coordination by employing stigmergic approaches.

567 *Research Question 1: How can we support the traces of prior work in the crowd-*
568 *sourcing of macro-tasks?*

569 First, as discussed, traces in stigmergic coordination serve as mediating objects that
570 enable the bridging of the actions of prior workers with those of subsequent workers.
571 Traces help inform workers of both the progress of work and the remaining work.
572 Thus, developing systems that support leaving traces effectively could be one way to
573 support stigmergic coordination for crowdsourcing macro-tasks. For example,
574 crowdsourcing systems could be designed to provide features that help workers
575 leave comments or remarks next to their work. These systems could be designed to
576 include features that track the progress of work and make it salient.

577 *Research Question 2: How can we promote the shared interpretations of traces in*
578 *the crowdsourcing of macro-tasks?*

579 Workers who engage in stigmergic coordination use traces to implicitly determine
580 what has been done and what to do next. This implicit coordination can occur because
581 the workers belong to a community that has a shared context. This shared context
582 helps to establish common work norms and routines among members of a given
583 community. This is what allows workers to employ traces as a mechanism to engage

584 in implicit coordination. Next, we discuss three approaches to leveraging stigmergic
 585 coordination in macro-tasking crowdsourcing.

586 One approach is to recruit crowd workers who already have a shared context,
 587 norms, and routines. This could be done by recruiting groups of workers from exist-
 588 ing online communities and peer platforms like GitHub. For example, a group of
 589 workers from GitHub could be recruited to work on a macro-tasking project. These
 590 workers would already have a shared context, norms, and routines. To leverage their
 591 existing shared context, norms, and routines obtained using the GitHub platform, the
 592 crowdsourcing platform should be set up similarly to the GitHub platform. Together
 593 the workers from the GitHub community and the new crowdsourcing platform that
 594 supports the workers' shared context, norms, and routines should allow crowd work-
 595 ers to engage in stigmergic coordination to tackle macro-tasks.

596 Another approach is to create an online community from which to recruit crowd
 597 workers. This approach offers two advantages. One, it would allow crowd workers
 598 to develop a shared context, norms, and routines. Over time, these crowd workers
 599 would be able to engage in stigmergic coordination in the same way as crowd workers
 600 who are members of current online communities. Two, this approach would allow
 601 for the creation of an online community that focuses on a subject or theme that might
 602 not exist. For example, imagine if macro-tasks required workers who were familiar
 603 with a specific programming language like the common business-oriented language
 604 (COBOL). Many mainframes still rely on programs written in this language, although
 605 it is not widely taught. Creating an online community of COBOL programmers would
 606 support recruitment for macro-tasks requiring COBOL.

607 Finally, the third approach is to require crowd workers who want to participate in
 608 macro-tasking to have experience working in a specific online community. Potential
 609 workers would be directed to participate in a specific online community before they
 610 could be eligible to be selected for macro-tasking. This would allow crowd workers
 611 the opportunity to learn basic knowledge and rules from an existing online commu-
 612 nity. Over time they would develop the shared context, norms, and routines needed
 613 to be selected for macro-tasks.

614 Table 2.3 presents a summary of the three design propositions related to stigmergic
 615 coordination. Design propositions were derived from the research questions 1 and 2.
 616

Table 2.3 Design propositions for stigmergic coordination

Stigmergic coordination design propositions
Design proposition 1: Crowdsourcing systems that support stigmergic coordination will help crowd workers effectively accomplish macro-tasks
Design proposition 1a: To promote stigmergic coordination, crowdsourcing systems must facilitate the leaving and making visible the traces of prior work
Design proposition 1b: To promote stigmergic coordination, crowdsourcing systems must facilitate a shared interpretation of the traces of prior work
Design proposition 1c: To promote stigmergic coordination, crowdsourcing systems must support the leveraging of shared work norms and practices

617 **2.4.2 Relational Coordination**

618 Relational coordination theory describes relationship in terms of three dimensions:
619 shared goals, shared knowledge, and mutual respect; and communication in four
620 dimensions: frequency, timeliness, accuracy, and problem-solving focus. These
621 dimensions are both representative of and impacted by the quality of social rela-
622 tionship within a given collective. The benefits of relational coordination are that
623 it allows workers to coordinate complex work in dynamic environments. This is
624 accomplished by allowing individuals to coordinate their efforts by working through
625 problems cooperatively. Relational coordination can be viewed as a set of mecha-
626 nisms that provide a canvas for a collective set of painters. As long as collectives
627 maintain quality relationships, they can leverage elements of their relationships to
628 effectively coordinate work. In fact, it is this reliance on the quality of relationships
629 that clearly differentiates relational coordination from stigmergic coordination.

630 Next, we suggest research questions that could advance our understanding of
631 crowdsourcing macro-tasks through relational coordination.

632 *Research Question 3a: How can shared knowledge be promoted in the crowdsourcing*
633 *of macro-tasks?*

634 According to relational coordination, shared knowledge helps workers to become
635 aware of their interdependencies with coworkers and of one another's potential con-
636 tribution to work. This awareness helps to facilitate effective and accurate commu-
637 nication. There are two big challenges with achieving a sufficient level of shared
638 knowledge in crowdsourcing. One, workers engaged in crowdsourcing are often ad
639 hoc and have little prior experience working together. Therefore, they initially have
640 little or no shared knowledge as a group. Two, depending on the amount of time
641 required to complete the task, crowd workers often do not have enough time to
642 develop shared knowledge. Both challenges greatly undermine the ability of crowd
643 workers to rely on shared knowledge as a coordination mechanism.

644 There are several potential ways to design crowdsourcing systems to promote
645 shared knowledge. First, systems could help crowd workers identify who knows what.
646 This could be done by having a system that publicly displays each worker's profile.
647 This profile could include the worker's educational and work experience. The workers
648 should give consent before profiles are displayed, and more or less information might
649 be displayed based on who is viewing the profile. For example, members of the macro-
650 task team might have access to more information about each worker than members
651 of the public. Second, systems should be designed to help make as much as possible
652 of the individual crowd worker's knowledge explicitly available to all others. This
653 could be done by promoting the sharing, using, and ultimate integration of knowledge
654 across the team (Robert et al. 2008, 2018). Crowdsourcing systems would need to be
655 designed to not only provide both asynchronous and synchronous communication
656 capabilities but several other important features. For example, these systems should
657 make it easy to search the repository of communications, including multichannel
658 communications and use of visual aids such as sketches, snapshots, whiteboards,

659 links, documents, and templates (Alavi and Tiwana 2002). These features should
660 also provide real-time editing and commenting so that workers could explain their
661 actions to others as well as inquire about why actions were taken.

662 *Research Question 3b: How can shared goals be leveraged in the crowdsourcing of*
663 *macro-tasks?*

664 Shared goals are another important coordination mechanism in relational coordina-
665 tion that can be problematic in crowdsourcing macro-tasks. Shared goals motivate
666 workers to engage in high-quality communication with others. This guides workers
667 to focus more on problem-solving-related communication than emotional and non-
668 productive communication. On one hand, it should be easy to promote shared goals
669 in the crowdsourcing of macro-tasks. The crowd workers have been assembled to
670 accomplish a specific macro-task. This macro-task is essentially the shared goal. On
671 the other hand, it can be difficult for crowd workers to maintain a shared view on
672 the progress or lack of progress of those shared goals. This can be even more prob-
673 lematic in macro-task work environments, which can be more dynamic than static
674 micro-tasking work environments.

675 To promote a shared view of goals in the crowdsourcing of macro-tasks, we
676 turn to boundary objects. According to Okhuysen and Bechky (2009), boundary
677 objects are a type of object and representation coordination mechanism. As stated,
678 boundary objects help to communicate problems, ideas, and activities across teams.
679 The biggest benefit of boundary objects is that they allow an individual's specific
680 understanding of a given situation to be framed within the larger context of the
681 collective's situation (Bechky 2003). Therefore, boundary objects can be used to
682 communicate the status of the collective's situation to all members of the collective,
683 without the need for workers to fully understand each member's specific situation.
684 In the case of crowdsourcing macro-tasks, boundary objects could promote a shared
685 view of goals by allowing crowd workers to accomplish individual objectives within
686 the framework of the collective's goals. However, it is not clear which boundary
687 objects should be employed. One option would be to focus on promoting situation
688 awareness.

689 The promotion of situation awareness offers a viable approach to understanding
690 how to design boundary objects to promote a shared view of goals in macro-tasks.
691 Endsley (1995) formally defined situation awareness as "the perception of the ele-
692 ments in the environment within a volume of time and space, the comprehension of
693 their meaning, and the projection of their status in the near future" (p. 36). A more
694 informal definition is an ability to perceive and comprehend information, which
695 allows for the prediction of future courses of action in a dynamic environment. In
696 the case of crowdsourcing, we define crowdsourcing situation awareness as the abil-
697 ity of crowd workers to perceive and comprehend the status of their crowd's work
698 and to forecast the needed future courses of action to complete the crowd's work.
699 Situation awareness is similar to the use of traces in stigmergic coordination, with
700 several differences. The use of traces in stigmergic coordination is the result of a
701 shared context, norms, and routines obtained in large part by one's socialization into
702 a community. However, situation awareness can be obtained without the need for this

703 socialization process, and although it can help to promote a shared context, it may
704 or may not lead to shared norms and routines. In addition, stigmergic coordination
705 occurs through implicit coordination, whereas situation awareness occurs primarily
706 through explicit coordination among members of the collective.

707 *Research Question 3c: How can systems be designed to support situation awareness*
708 *in the crowdsourcing of macro-tasks?*

709 To accomplish this, scholars should turn to the study of visualization. Visualization
710 is science that focuses on understanding how to best display information to humans.
711 A full review of this research area is beyond the scope of this book chapter, but
712 visualization techniques have been used to reduce cognitive load (Anderson et al.
713 2011). It is likely that current research on visualization can be leveraged and that
714 new research will also be needed. Questions about how best to support situation
715 awareness specifically for crowdsourcing macro-tasks would need to be addressed.
716 A program of research in this area might attempt to define key attributes of the type
717 of macro-task and crowd workers, and stage of work, and how these factors influence
718 the ways information should be displayed.

719 *Research Question 3d: How can mutual respect be promoted in the crowdsourcing*
720 *of macro-tasks?*

721 In relational coordination, mutual respect increases the level of receptiveness to
722 communication with others, leading to increased opportunity for improving shared
723 knowledge and solving problems effectively. On one hand, the challenges to achiev-
724 ing mutual respect are the same as those to achieving shared knowledge in crowd-
725 sourcing macro-tasks. These include the often ad hoc nature of crowdsourcing, which
726 involves assembling crowd workers with little experience working together and a
727 short duration of time required to complete the task. Some challenges are also dif-
728 ferent; for example, crowd workers could also develop a mutual disrespect for one
729 another. Each of these challenges could greatly undermine the ability of crowd work-
730 ers to rely on mutual respect as a coordination mechanism.

731 To combat these challenges, there are several potential ways to design crowd-
732 sourcing systems to promote mutual respect. First, systems could promote mutual
733 respect through trust. This could be done by designing systems that display rec-
734 ommendations from others who have worked with the crowd worker. This system
735 could share positive narratives about the crowd worker's behavior. Such a system
736 could include a peer evaluation that rates crowd workers on their respect for others.
737 Second, systems could be designed to monitor the level of mutual respect among
738 crowd workers. For example, Munson et al. (2014) developed a system that mon-
739 itored the email communications among teams to determine their degree of trust
740 and respect through linguistic mimicry. Questions around how such systems could
741 measure mutual respect or what data should be used to measure it would need to be
742 further investigated. For example, it is not clear how such measures might be drawn
743 from prior studies or whether new measures better suited to a macro-tasking context
744 need to be identified. Systems like these could be designed to diagnose the level of
745 mutual respect among crowd workers to determine whether interventions are needed.

746 Finally, interventions should be designed to help promote mutual respect when
 747 needed. Although research is needed to understand the types of interventions neces-
 748 sary, we recommend several potential avenues. The research on conflict and conflict
 749 resolution offers a rich set of literature to draw from. For example, this research
 750 has identified several types of conflict: relationship, process, and task (Jehn 1997).
 751 Relationship conflict is related to personal disagreements among team members,
 752 whereas task- and process-focused conflicts are related to work but are not personal
 753 disagreements. Research has shown that relationship conflict is always detrimental
 754 to performance, whereas task and process conflicts can be beneficial to team perfor-
 755 mance (Windeler et al. 2015). Systems should be designed to determine which type
 756 of conflict is occurring. The literature on conflict resolution has identified several
 757 approaches to resolving conflict in groups. These include avoidance, accommoda-
 758 tion, competition, collaboration, and compromise (Kankanhalli et al. 2006; Montoya-
 759 Weiss et al. 2001; Paul et al. 2004). Although a full review and discussion of each
 760 of these are beyond the scope of this chapter, what is clear is that each approach has
 761 pros and cons and would likely require different system interventions. A program
 762 of research could explore both the effectiveness of each approach in the context of
 763 crowdsourcing macro-tasks and how to best design systems to support each approach.

764 *Research Question 3e: What is the most effective way to promote communication in*
 765 *the crowdsourcing of macro-tasks?*

766 Relational coordination defines communication in four dimensions: frequency, time-
 767 liness, accuracy, and problem-solving focus (Gittell 2002, 2006). The easiest and first
 768 step toward supporting frequent, timely, accurate, and problem-solving-focused com-
 769 munication is to design crowdsourcing systems that allow effective communications.
 770 Features of such systems have been identified in the form of both asynchronous and
 771 synchronous communications as well as multichannel communications. However,
 772 systems could be designed to go beyond this and take a more active role in several
 773 meaningful ways. Systems could be designed to prompt communications. A research
 774 agenda could be built on the investigation of the effectiveness of types of prompts.
 775 For example, days before a work deadline the system could send an email to everyone
 776 inquiring about the status of the group's work. This might encourage crowd workers
 777 to engage in task-focused communications about the upcoming deadline. Nudges
 778 could also be used to alert crowd workers when the status of their group's work has
 779 changed or when crowd workers have left questions for others to answer. Crowd-
 780 sourcing systems could be set up to require timely status updates that rely on the input
 781 of every crowd worker and go out to every crowd worker. A research agenda could
 782 also be built on understanding the effectiveness of the content of such messages.
 783 For example, research has shown that the framing of messages impacts how people
 784 choose to respond or not respond to them (Jung and Mellers 2016). Research should
 785 be directed at understanding the best content to promote communication frequency,
 786 timeliness, accuracy, and problem-solving focus among crowd workers.

787 Table 2.4 presents a summary of the four design propositions related to relational
 788 coordination. Design propositions were derived from research questions 3a, 3b, 3c,
 789 3d and 3e.

Table 2.4 Design propositions for relational coordination

Relational coordination design propositions
Design proposition 2: Crowdsourcing systems that support relational coordination will help crowd workers effectively accomplish macro-tasks
Design proposition 2a: To promote relational coordination, crowdsourcing systems must facilitate the creating and sharing of collective knowledge
Design proposition 2b: To promote relational coordination, crowdsourcing systems must facilitate the creating and sharing of common goals
Design proposition 2c: To promote relational coordination, crowdsourcing systems must support the development of mutual respect
Design proposition 2d: To promote relational coordination, crowdsourcing systems must facilitate effective communication

790 2.4.3 *Limitations*

791 In this chapter, we acknowledge that theories of coordination have shared or over-
792 lapping concepts. Nonetheless, for the most part, we treated them as separate and
793 distinct when discussing their pros and cons. Our separation of each theory of coordi-
794 nation might at times have been more artificial and arbitrary. Scholars studying issues
795 related to crowdsourcing coordination should consider hybrid approaches that com-
796 bine various elements of each theory. For example, stigmergic coordination could be
797 augmented with role-based coordination. This could be accomplished by bringing
798 in outsiders unfamiliar with the work norms and practices and defining a specific
799 role for them in the work structure. By defining their role, work disruption resulting
800 from their lack of familiarity with traces should be kept at a minimum. We also
801 acknowledge that each theory has its own rich and insightful literature that goes
802 beyond the scope of this one chapter. This chapter provides a brief introduction of
803 each theory. Where brevity and conciseness end and confusion and incompleteness
804 begin is often debatable. That being the case, the goal of this chapter was to draw
805 attention to the issues related to coordinating macro-tasking in crowdsourcing envi-
806 ronments. Our recommendations are but suggestions and readers are advised to dig
807 deeper into these issues themselves. Finally, we provide design propositions that
808 link theory to design elements. Our propositions, like all propositions, are general
809 statements. Ultimately, hypotheses should be derived from our design propositions
810 before they can be empirically tested. This is a challenge we hope future scholars
811 choose to undertake.

812 2.5 **Conclusions**

813 Crowdsourcing macro-tasking places more emphasis on coordinating complex, inter-
814 dependent, and less decomposable tasks. This chapter reviewed and recommended
815 several theories of coordination to address issues related to coordinating macro-tasks.

816 It presented a research agenda and design propositions for each recommended theory
 817 of coordination. The research agendas and design propositions are far from complete,
 818 and more work is needed with regard to both theoretical development and empiri-
 819 cal verification. Nonetheless, we hope this chapter is the first step in advancing our
 820 understanding of crowdsourcing coordination used for macro-tasks.

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