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Maturity of Artificial Intelligence Adoption in Public Services of the West Java Provincial Government

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Abstract

Digital transformation in local government is moving beyond service digitalization toward the use of artificial intelligence (AI) in public services and data driven decision making. This shift raises a central question concerning whether existing digital capabilities have developed into mature institutional arrangements for responsible AI adoption. This study analyzes the maturity of AI adoption in the public services of the West Java Provincial Government using the Artificial Intelligence Maturity Model (AIMM). A qualitative descriptive case study was conducted across the Provincial Secretariat, BAPPEDA, DISKOMINFO, and Jabar Digital Service. Data were obtained from five key informants through semi structured interviews, non-participant observation, document analysis, and supplementary audio visual materials, then assessed across eight AIMM dimensions. The findings show that seven dimensions, namely technology and AI capabilities, data, people and competencies, organization and processes, leadership and strategy, financing, and law, ethics, and trust, remain at the Assessing level, while security and privacy remains at the Initial level. West Java has established digital infrastructure, data platforms, technical teams, and early AI related practices, but these foundations have not yet been institutionalized through standardized AI lifecycles, cross agency responsibilities, sustainable financing, ethical oversight, algorithmic auditing, and AI specific security controls. The novelty and originality of this study lie in identifying a digital foundation AI institutionalization gap at the subnational level. The study contributes an evidence based maturity diagnosis and policy direction for developing scalable, accountable, secure, and public value oriented AI supported public services.

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence (AI), Public Services, Artificial Intelligence Maturity Model, West Java

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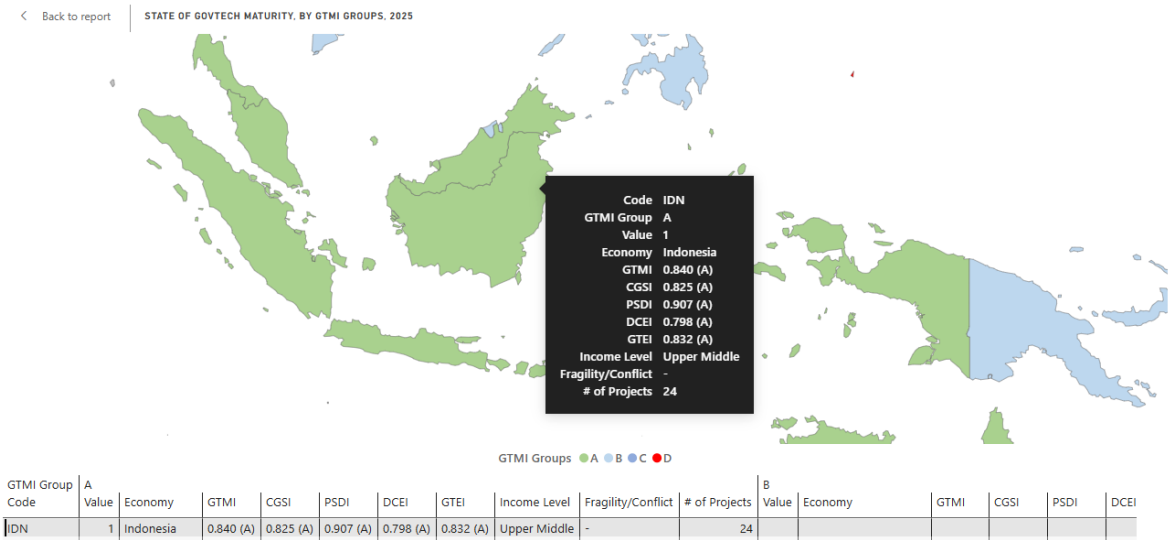
Introduction

Government digital transformation has moved beyond electronic service provision toward the use of data, analytics, and artificial intelligence (AI) in public service delivery and decision making. This shift reflects Digital Era Governance, which emphasizes service reintegration, data consolidation, digital processes, and responsiveness to citizens. Its third wave places data science and AI within government operations to identify patterns, anticipate risks, and strengthen evidence informed decisions (Dunleavy et al., 2006; Dunleavy & Margetts, 2025). AI may help public organizations process large datasets, automate routine activities, accelerate service responses, and improve the targeting of public interventions.

These benefits are not produced by technology alone. Their realization depends on reliable data, organizational capacity, civil servant competencies, leadership, financing, and mechanisms that protect accountability and public value (Henman, 2020; Osborne et al., 2022; Wirtz et al., 2018). When AI contributes to administrative recommendations or decisions, governments must also address fairness, transparency, privacy, citizens' rights, and institutional responsibility. AI adoption may therefore create tensions between efficiency and the legal, ethical, and democratic obligations of public institutions (Madan & Ashok, 2023; Taeihagh, 2021).

The maturity of AI adoption cannot be inferred from the number of applications, dashboards, or pilot projects developed. Public organizations require aligned capacities in technology, data, people, organizational processes, leadership, financing, law and ethics, security, and privacy. A sociotechnical perspective emphasizes that technical development must be accompanied by human, organizational, and ethical capability (Akbarighatar et al., 2023). Specialist teams may strengthen technical competence, but limited integration with operational units can separate innovation from public service processes and institutional responsibility (Selten & Klievink, 2024). Comparative research further shows that AI can spread across government functions without producing uniform organizational transformation (van Noordt & Misuraca, 2022). Mature adoption therefore concerns whether AI can be integrated into routine work, operated consistently, governed responsibly, and maintained beyond temporary experiments.

Indonesia has established a national foundation for digital government and AI through the Electronic Based Government System, the National Strategy for Artificial Intelligence 2020 to 2045, national development planning documents, and emerging directions for AI ethics and governance (Badan Pengkajian dan Penerapan Teknologi (BPPT), 2020; Kementerian Komunikasi dan Digital, 2025). Indonesia obtained a GTMI score of 0.840 and was classified in Group A, which represents extensive maturity in core government systems, digital public services, citizen engagement, and GovTech enablers. In the 2025 Government AI Readiness Index, Indonesia ranked 46th among 195 governments with a score of 59.87. Its Policy Capacity score of 77.00 and Public Sector Adoption score of 73.77 were stronger than its Development and Diffusion score of 44.09 (see Figures 1 and 2). These results indicate that Indonesia has a solid digital and policy foundation, but its broader AI ecosystem and capacity to sustain implementation remain less developed.



GTMI Group	A										B					
Code	Value	Economy	GTMI	CGSI	PSDI	DCEI	GTEI	Income Level	Fragility/Conflict	# of Projects	Value	Economy	GTMI	CGSI	PSDI	DCEI
IDN	1	Indonesia	0.840 (A)	0.825 (A)	0.907 (A)	0.798 (A)	0.832 (A)	Upper Middle	-	24						

Figure 1. GovTech Maturity Index 2025. Source**:** The World Bank, 2025.

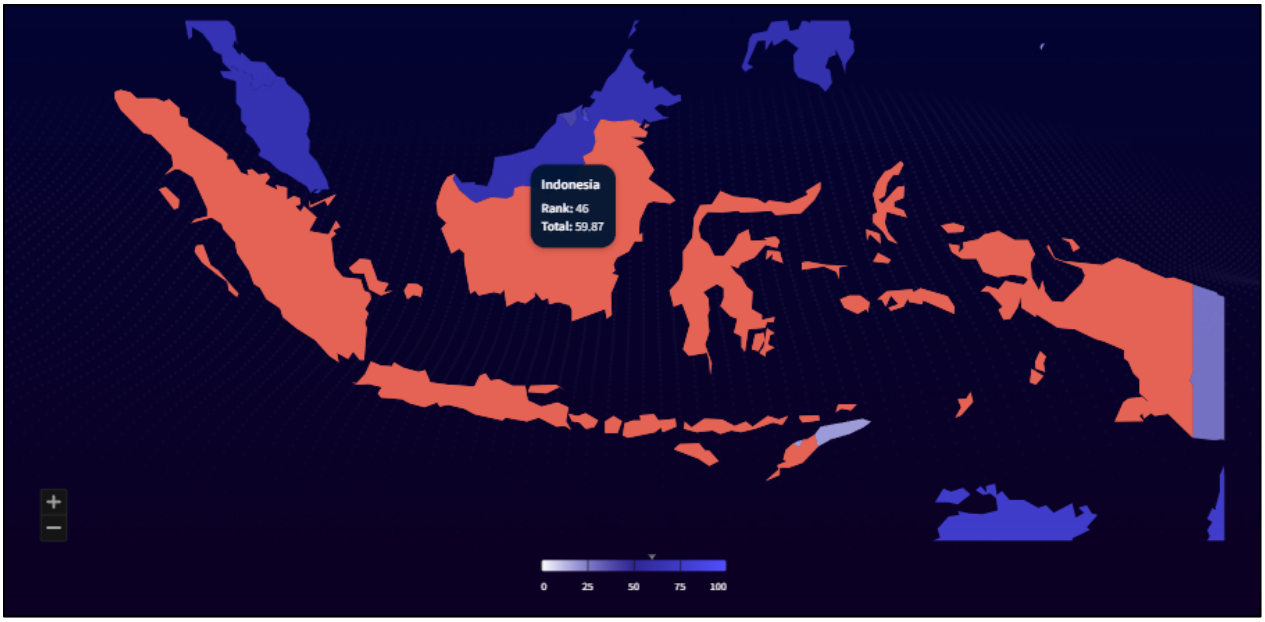


Figure 2. Government AI Readiness Index 2025. Source**:** Oxford Insights, 2025.

Within Indonesia's decentralized governance system, provincial and local governments must translate national policy into operational institutional capacity. Previous studies have identified persistent constraints involving infrastructure, human resources, coordination, implementing regulations, data quality, cybersecurity, bureaucratic adaptation, and inclusive service design (Chairuddin et al., 2024; Mustainah et al., 2025; Wadipalapa et al., 2024). Research on Indonesian local administration likewise shows that digital government implementation does not automatically improve public service quality when institutional and organizational conditions remain uneven (Pramuditha et al., 2025). Most existing studies, however, focus on potential benefits, general implementation barriers, or individual technologies rather than assessing maturity across interconnected organizational dimensions.

This limitation reflects a broader gap in public sector AI research. Government AI studies still require contextual and process oriented explanations of how experimentation develops into stable

organizational use (Madan & Ashok, 2023). Readiness is influenced by infrastructure, leadership, differences between developers and users, perceived usefulness, trust, explainability, regulatory alignment, and compatibility with existing work processes (Sirait et al., 2025). Public managers must also convert pilots and policy ambitions into routines, responsibilities, and operational capacity (Mergel et al., 2023). Evidence from developing country institutions further indicates that digital capacity remains insufficient when adaptive capacity, governance arrangements, specialist expertise, and institutional authority are weak (Anomah, 2025).

West Java is an analytically relevant case because it combines a relatively advanced provincial digital ecosystem with unresolved institutional gaps. The province serves approximately 50.35 million residents and faces large public service demands in employment, education, health, social protection, licensing, and public information (BPS Provinsi Jawa Barat, 2025). Its government has developed Jabar Digital Service, Sapawarga, the Jabar Command Center, Satu Data Jabar, Open Data Jabar, Satu Peta Jabar, executive dashboards, and early AI initiatives (Abrory et al., 2025; Sari et al., 2019). These achievements indicate substantial digital capacity, but they do not establish maturity in AI adoption.

Visible digital progress coexists with the absence of a provincial AI roadmap, specific performance indicators, clearly institutionalized responsibilities across agencies, dedicated financing, regional ethical guidelines, algorithmic audit mechanisms, and security and privacy standards designed for AI. Data quality and integration remain uneven, technical expertise is concentrated in selected units, and most AI initiatives remain project based or experimental. This contrast provides a basis for examining whether established digital government capacity has developed into the institutional arrangements required for responsible AI supported public services.

This study applies the Artificial Intelligence Maturity Model (AIMM), which was developed for public organizations. AIMM assesses eight interconnected dimensions across five maturity levels, from Initial to Optimized (Dreyling et al., 2024). The model is relevant because it connects technological capacity with organizational processes, financing, institutional responsibility, ethics, public trust, security, and privacy.

The originality of this study lies not merely in applying AIMM to a new case, but in using it to explain the gap between digital government foundations and the institutionalization of AI governance in a decentralized provincial government. Based on the reviewed literature, no previous study has applied all AIMM dimensions to assess AI adoption maturity in an Indonesian subnational government. This study aims to identify the maturity level of each dimension, explain the institutional gaps among them, and examine their implications for scalable, accountable, secure, and public value oriented AI supported services.

Research Methods

Research Design

This study employed a qualitative approach with a descriptive case study design. The approach was selected to examine institutional conditions, organizational readiness, and AI adoption practices within their administrative and public service context (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The study did not assess maturity from the number of applications or pilot projects. Instead, it examined whether existing initiatives had developed into stable organizational capabilities across the eight dimensions of the Artificial Intelligence Maturity Model (AIMM).

West Java was selected purposively because it combines a relatively advanced provincial digital ecosystem with unresolved institutional gaps in AI governance. This contrast made the case analytically relevant for examining whether established digital government capabilities had developed into comprehensive organizational maturity for responsible AI adoption. The case was bounded by the institutions, actors, policies, processes, and public service practices of the West Java Provincial Government.

The assessment applied the eight AIMM dimensions and five maturity levels developed by Dreyling et al. (2024). A best fit approach was used to compare empirical evidence with the criteria for the Initial, Assessing, Determined, Managed, and Optimized levels. The existence of a digital application, analytical function, policy statement, or AI pilot was not automatically considered evidence of higher maturity.

Research Site

The research was conducted within the West Java Provincial Government. The unit of analysis was the organizational maturity of AI adoption in provincial public services. The embedded units of observation consisted of the Provincial Secretariat, the Regional Development Planning Agency of West Java Province (BAPPEDA), the Communication and Informatics Agency of West Java Province (DISKOMINFO), and the Technical Implementation Unit for Digital Services, Data, and Geospatial Information, commonly known as Jabar Digital Service (UPTD PLDDIG/JDS).

These institutions were selected because they have direct responsibilities for institutional coordination, regional planning, digital government, infrastructure, data governance, information security, and the development of AI supported services. Five key informants were selected through purposive sampling. Inclusion was based on institutional authority, direct involvement in digital governance or AI related activities, and the ability to provide verifiable evidence relevant to the AIMM dimensions. One informant was selected from each relevant functional position because that individual represented the institutional responsibility under examination. Officials without direct involvement or sufficient knowledge of the assessed processes were excluded. The complete list of these key informants and their primary areas of inquiry is detailed in Table 1.

Table 1. Informants and Their Primary Areas of Inquiry

Institution	Code	Informant Position	Primary AIMM Dimensions
Provincial Secretariat	INF-1	Official from the Organization Bureau	Leadership and Strategy; Organization and Processes
BAPPEDA	INF-2	Head of Regional Development Planning, Control, and Evaluation	Leadership and Strategy; Data; Organization and Processes; Financing; Law, Ethics, and Trust
DISKOMINFO, E-Government Division	INF-3	Head of E-Government Infrastructure Services	Technology and AI Capabilities; Data; People and Competencies; Organization and Processes; Financing
DISKOMINFO, Information Security and Cryptography Division	INF-4	Cryptography Officer	Security and Privacy
UPTD PLDDIG/Jabar Digital Service	INF-5	Head of Digital Applications and Data	Technology and AI Capabilities; Data; People and Competencies; Law, Ethics, and Trust; Security and Privacy

Source: Processed by the author, 2026.

Data Collection

Data were collected through nonparticipant observation, semi structured interviews, and document analysis. Audio visual materials were used only as supplementary corroborative evidence and were not treated as an independent source of findings (Creswell, 2014). Table 2 summarizes the information obtained and its analytical use.

Table 2. Data Collection Techniques and Their Analytical Use

Technique	Sources and Scope	Information Obtained	Use in the Study
Semi structured interviews	Five informants from the Provincial Secretariat, BAPPEDA, DISKOMINFO, and UPTD PLDDIG/JDS	Strategy, coordination, infrastructure, data governance, competencies, financing, ethics, security, privacy, and operational constraints	Identified actual practices, institutional responsibilities, capability gaps, and differences between formal policy and implementation across the eight AIMM dimensions
Nonparticipant observation	Observations were conducted at the Provincial Secretariat, BAPPEDA, DISKOMINFO, and UPTD PLDDIG or Jabar Digital Service	Digital service practices, dashboards, infrastructure, data management, technical coordination, organizational processes, and information security arrangements	Verified operational conditions and examined whether reported capabilities were visible in institutional practice
Document analysis	RPJPD, RPJMD, RKPD, SPBE architecture, roadmap and management documents, Satu Data Jabar regulations, infrastructure and secure software guidelines, NDAs, and national AI policies	Formal objectives, institutional roles, data standards, financing arrangements, procedures, security controls, and policy commitments	Compared formal provisions with field evidence and supplied traceable evidence for AIMM indicators and maturity classifications
Audiovisual materials	Dashboards, applications, service interfaces, infographics, and presentations on Jabar AI and digital transformation	Visual and operational evidence of digital platforms, data ecosystems, AI experiments, and service functions	Used only as supplementary corroboration for interview, observation, and documentary evidence

Source**:** Authors' research design, 2026.

Only evidence directly related to the participating institutions, investigated practices, or AIMM indicators was included, while unrelated materials were excluded.

Data Analysis

Data analysis followed the stages of data collection, data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification (Miles et al., 2014). Interview transcripts, observation notes, documents, and supporting audio visual materials were coded deductively according to the eight AIMM dimensions and their maturity indicators (Dreyling et al., 2024).

Relevant evidence was assigned to the corresponding AIMM dimensions and indicators. Evidence within each dimension was compared across institutions and data collection techniques to identify established practices, incomplete capabilities, inconsistencies, and differences between formal arrangements and actual implementation. The consolidated findings were then compared with the criteria for the five maturity levels.

A maturity level was assigned based on the strongest and most consistent evidence. When evidence corresponded to different levels, the lower level was retained unless the requirements of the higher level were sufficiently demonstrated. This rule prevented isolated projects, individual practices, or general policy statements from being interpreted as maturity across the organization. The analytical sequence is presented in Figure 3.

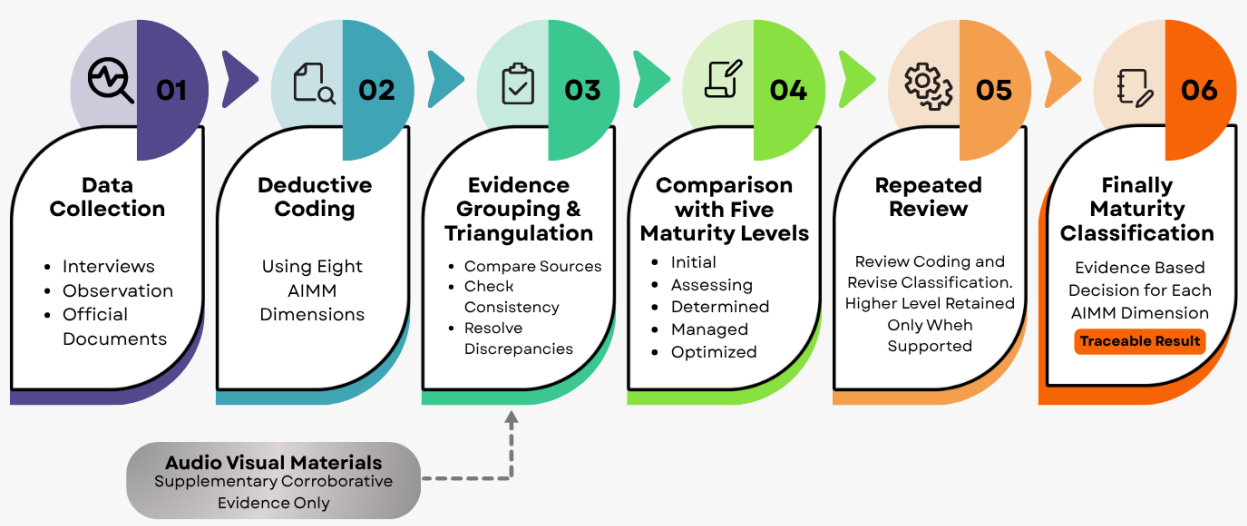


Figure 3. Evidence Based AIMM Classification Procedure. Source**:** Processed by the author, 2026.

Figure 3 shows how the four analytical stages were translated into six operational steps. First, interview transcripts, observation notes, official documents, and supplementary audiovisual materials were assembled as the analytical data. Second, data condensation was conducted through deductive coding based on the eight AIMM dimensions, while audiovisual materials were used only to corroborate operational evidence. Third, the coded evidence was grouped and displayed according to the relevant AIMM indicators, then compared across sources to examine consistency and resolve discrepancies. Fourth, the consolidated evidence for each dimension was compared with the criteria for the Initial, Assessing, Determined, Managed, and Optimized levels. Fifth, coding and provisional classifications were repeatedly reviewed against the original data. When evidence for a higher level was incomplete or inconsistent, the lower level was retained. Sixth, the final maturity level for each dimension was recorded together with its supporting evidence, resulting in classifications that were traceable across interviews, observations, and documents.

Data Validation

The credibility of the findings was strengthened through source and technique triangulation following Patton (2015). Source triangulation compared information from the participating institutions, while technique triangulation compared interviews, observations, official documents, and supplementary audiovisual evidence. Key factual information and interpretations were also confirmed with relevant informants through member checking.

The maturity classification was validated through an evidence checklist linking each AIMM indicator to its supporting data. Differences between formal documents and actual practices were examined rather than combined without evaluation. This process ensured that each assigned maturity level was supported by consistent and traceable evidence. Before data collection, all participants were informed of the purpose of the study and voluntarily agreed to participate. Confidentiality and anonymity were maintained through informant codes and the exclusion of personally identifiable information from the analysis and reporting.

Results and Findings

The findings show that AI adoption in the public services of the West Java Provincial Government remains at an early stage of organizational maturity. Seven AIMM dimensions were classified at the Assessing level, while Security and Privacy remained at Initial. West Java already operates digital infrastructure, shared data platforms, analytical dashboards, citizen services, technical teams, and several AI initiatives. These assets have not yet been consolidated through government wide strategies, common procedures, sustainable financing, and AI specific accountability. The classifications were based on AIMM indicators and the strongest consistent evidence from interviews, observations, and official documents. They therefore represent institutional capability rather than the number of applications developed (Dreyling et al., 2024; Neumann et al., 2024). Readiness also depends on whether developers, users, managers, and organizational arrangements can sustain implementation beyond individual projects (Sirait et al., 2025).

Table 3. Maturity Levels of AI Adoption in the West Java Provincial Government

AIMM Dimension	Maturity Level	Key Empirical Evidence	Main Maturity Gap
Technology and AI Capabilities	Level 1.2, *Assessing*	Government servers, hybrid cloud services, dashboards, chatbots, and initial AI projects are operating.	Dedicated computing capacity, standardized AI architecture, model monitoring, and operational independence remain limited.
Data	Level 2.2, *Assessing*	Satu Data Jabar, Open Data Jabar, Satu Peta Jabar, Core Data, dashboards, and analytics are available.	Data quality, interoperability, metadata, updating, validation, and algorithmic readiness remain uneven.
People and Competencies	Level 3.2, *Assessing*	Technical teams, training, webinars, and digital talent programs provide initial capacity.	AI literacy has not been assessed across agencies, specialist roles are not formalized, and expertise remains concentrated.
Organization and Processes	Level 4.2, *Assessing*	SPBE, JDS, shared digital services, and project coordination support early implementation.	No cross agency AI governance framework, lifecycle SOP, formal role allocation, or systematic process redesign.
Leadership and Strategy	Level 5.2, *Assessing*	Leaders increasingly require rapid data, analytics, and	No provincial AI roadmap, formal coordination structure,

		digital solutions for public problems.	performance indicators, or long term resource commitment.
Financing	Level 6.2, *Assessing*	AI related needs are partly financed through SPBE, application, data, infrastructure, and digital service budgets.	No AI specific allocation, cost baseline, investment portfolio, or sustainable operational financing.
Law, Ethics, and Trust	Level 7.2, *Assessing*	Awareness of data protection, verification, access control, and accountability risks has emerged.	No regional AI ethics guidelines, algorithmic audits, impact assessments, or AI specific grievance procedures.
Security and Privacy	Level 8.1, *Initial*	General safeguards include encryption, access restrictions, masking, SIEM, CSIRT, NDAs, and secure development practices.	Controls have not been adapted to AI models, training data, generated outputs, prompt risks, and model manipulation.

Source: Processed by author, 2026.

Table 3 shows that maturity is concentrated at the Assessing level rather than developing evenly. West Java has identified institutional needs, created initial resources, and conducted experiments, but no dimension has reached standardized implementation across public services. The lower level of Security and Privacy is especially consequential because citizen services may process personal, socioeconomic, employment, health, education, and complaint data. Figure 4 shows these differences without combining them into a single score that could conceal a critical weakness.

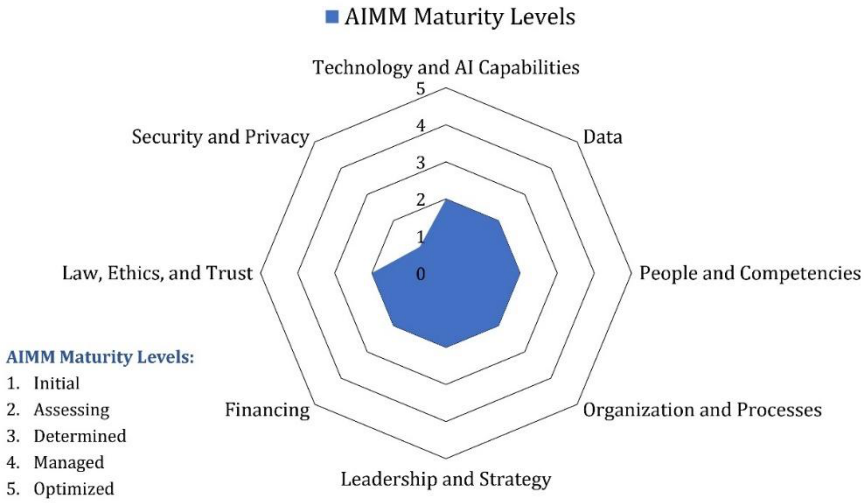


Figure 4. Maturity Levels of AI Adoption in the West Java Provincial Government Based on AIMM. Source: Processed by the author, 2026.

The West Java SPBE Architecture and Roadmap 2023 to 2028, government servers, Jabar Cloud, dashboards, RISA, PANDAI, and chatbot functions provide a technological base for experimentation. They support information retrieval, executive monitoring, data analysis, and service navigation. Dedicated computing capacity, standardized model deployment, automated

monitoring, retraining, and independent maintenance remain unavailable. INF-5 explained that maintenance and incident handling still require technical intervention and, in some cases, external support. West Java can therefore initiate AI projects but cannot yet ensure consistent operation and expansion. Organizational readiness requires infrastructure to be aligned with data, expertise, management support, and implementation routines (Jöhnk et al., 2021). Public organizations must also be able to maintain and adapt AI systems after initial adoption (van Noordt & Tangi, 2023).

This technological base relies on an established but uneven data ecosystem. Governor Regulation No. 47/2022 supports standardization and data sharing through Satu Data Jabar, Satu Peta Jabar, Open Data Jabar, Core Data, and analytical dashboards. These resources assist planning, monitoring, geographical targeting, and service development. Field evidence nevertheless showed inconsistent formats, incomplete metadata, delayed updates, duplicate records, selective access, and continued manual cleansing. INF-5 stated that data required for AI were "not yet fully connected automatically." Data availability alone therefore does not guarantee reliable recommendations. Government data maturity requires quality assurance, integration, lifecycle management, and clear stewardship (Thomas et al., 2019; Ubaldi & Zapata, 2024). Combining data produced under different administrative practices can reproduce existing errors when contextual understanding remains weak (Madan & Ashok, 2023; Sun & Medaglia, 2019).

Technical experience is concentrated in DISKOMINFO and UPTD PLDDIG or Jabar Digital Service. Training, webinars, Jabar Digital Academy, and West Java Coding Camp provide an initial learning base. AI literacy has not been assessed across agencies, most civil servants have not received structured training, and specialist positions such as data scientist, AI engineer, AI product owner, and model risk officer are not formally embedded in the staffing structure. INF-3 observed that technical units understand AI as an analytical approach, while some agencies still perceive it as a practical or "magic" tool. Public servants generally prefer AI to support rather than replace professional judgement, especially in work requiring contextual assessment (Haesevoets et al., 2025). Their willingness to use AI also depends on knowledge, usefulness, and compatibility with existing tasks (Ahn & Chen, 2022). Specialist expertise must therefore be connected to service ownership (Selten & Klievink, 2024).

AI has entered the provincial government mainly through projects rather than redesigned service processes. SPBE arrangements, JDS, Sapawarga, SIDEBAR, shared infrastructure, dashboards, and project coordination provide a functional base. No common procedure governs problem selection, data authorization, development, testing, human validation, deployment, monitoring, maintenance, complaint handling, and retirement. INF-2 stated that "many services are still attached to old procedures." Citizen interfaces may become digital while verification, approval, and coordination remain manual. AI may therefore speed up one stage without shortening the full service process. Public sector implementation requires experiments to become part of normal administrative routines (Mergel et al., 2023). Separating technical teams from service units can preserve specialization but weaken operational integration and accountability (Selten & Klievink, 2024).

The RPJMD 2025 to 2029 and RKPD 2026 contain broad commitments to digital transformation, integrated data, governance improvement, and public service performance. Leadership demand for rapid information has encouraged dashboards, employment platforms, analytical systems, and early AI exploration. AI has not been translated into a provincial roadmap, formal cross agency coordination, risk ownership, measurable indicators, or long term resource commitment. INF-1 explained that leaders still combine administrative data with field conditions, legal requirements, political considerations, and budget capacity. Human judgement remains necessary, but the absence of a formal strategy leaves AI initiatives dependent on projects and

changing priorities. Citizen demand and political leadership can stimulate innovation, while policy guidance and continuity determine whether it becomes routine (Hong et al., 2022). Service pressures encourage adoption, but funding, procurement, and bureaucratic constraints shape implementation (Madan & Ashok, 2025; Dunleavy & Margetts, 2025).

Financing remains embedded in spending for SPBE, applications, infrastructure, cloud services, data management, security, consulting, and maintenance. INF-2 confirmed that there was "no stand alone budget line" for AI. Expenditure on data preparation, model development, computing, licensing, testing, monitoring, and maintenance is therefore difficult to identify separately. The annual APBD and SIPD cycle also provides limited flexibility for services requiring continuous infrastructure and support. Existing arrangements allow experimentation but weaken cost traceability and continuity. Readiness in developing country institutions depends on the interaction of financial capacity, infrastructure, leadership, regulation, and human resources (Anomah, 2025). Sustainable investment must consider long term organizational and social consequences rather than initial acquisition costs alone (Wilson & van der Velden, 2022).

Legal and ethical safeguards remain preliminary. Data masking, access restrictions, NDAs, secure development guidance, and human verification show awareness of several risks. INF-5 emphasized that AI generated answers may be incorrect and must be checked. No provincial guideline regulates risk classification, algorithmic impact assessment, bias testing, explainability, audits, liability, or appeals against AI supported decisions. Algorithmic systems may reshape administrative discretion and the distribution of public resources (Gritsenko & Wood, 2022). Their effects are also shaped by institutional interests, data practices, and transparency, not only technical design (Katzenbach & Ulbricht, 2019). Ethical public services require early attention to data selection, discrimination, explanation, and redress (Kinder et al., 2023). Citizens must also be able to understand and contest algorithmically supported actions (Bignami, 2022).

Security and privacy were assessed at the lowest maturity level. Existing controls include encryption, access management, data masking, SIEM, CSIRT, NDAs, and secure software development. INF-4 stated that "AI security is still treated in the same way as ordinary application security." No specific arrangements were identified for training data integrity, model manipulation, generated output leakage, unsafe external platforms, or periodic privacy impact assessments. AI governance involves distinct concerns related to cybersecurity, liability, privacy, safety, and delegated agency (Taeihagh, 2021). Predictive systems may also create collective data protection risks that cannot be addressed through individual consent alone (Mühlhoff & Ruschemeier, 2024). Similar vulnerabilities have been identified in public administration AI (Vatamanu & Tofan, 2025). The Initial classification, however, was determined by AIMM indicators and the empirical absence of AI specific assessment, monitoring, auditing, and policy integration (Dreyling et al., 2024).

Interpretation of Research Results

The results show a separation between digital government capacity and AI institutionalization. West Java has infrastructure, applications, shared data initiatives, and technical actors that support experiments, but these resources do not yet operate as an integrated organizational capability. Comparable evidence shows that AI may spread across government functions while strategies, responsibilities, and operational arrangements remain incomplete (van Noordt & Misuraca, 2022). This distinction matters across the full public service chain. Citizens encounter information access, document submission, verification, decisions, communication, and correction. A chatbot may respond quickly while the underlying service remains slow because validation and coordination are manual. Public value emerges only when agencies can verify evidence, act on recommendations, and explain outcomes (Henman, 2020; Osborne et al., 2022; Zuiderwijk et al., 2021).

Analytical ambition also exceeds the consistency of administrative data and the distribution of competence. Differences in formats, updating, metadata, and access may affect who is identified or excluded from employment, health, education, social protection, or licensing services. Quantified outputs may appear objective even when they rely on incomplete records or disputed proxies (Young et al., 2021). Technical expertise is concentrated in JDS and DISKOMINFO, while responsibility is distributed across planning, legal, financial, oversight, and sectoral agencies. Project based implementation reinforces this imbalance. Adoption, implementation, and diffusion are distinct stages, so a pilot does not mean that AI has become a routine organizational capability (Madan & Ashok, 2023).

Human oversight must be designed rather than merely declared. Alon-Barkat & Busuioc (2023) did not find uniform automation bias, but they identified context dependent selective adherence to algorithmic advice. Officials therefore need competence, alternative evidence, traceability, and clear responsibility. The maturity levels also reveal a weakest link effect. Seven dimensions support further development, but Initial security and privacy arrangements can restrict every service involving sensitive data. Citizens may value convenience while remaining concerned about privacy (Willems et al., 2023), and acceptance varies by service type and the role assigned to AI (Gesk & Leyer, 2022). Public uptake cannot replace explanation, correction, privacy protection, and institutional accountability. The least mature dimension can limit otherwise stronger capabilities, particularly in high impact services where errors or data misuse may affect access to rights and public resources.

Discussions

The findings identify a digital foundation to AI institutionalization gap. West Java has sufficient digital capacity to support experimentation, but these resources have not become a coherent and durable public service capability. This supports the view that public sector AI is an organizational transformation rather than a technology purchase (Henman, 2020; Zuiderwijk et al., 2021). It also confirms that infrastructure, data, leadership, and technical talent do not independently produce maturity. Their value depends on authority, routines, financing, service ownership, and accountability (Akbarighatar et al., 2023; Jöhnk et al., 2021; Sirait et al., 2025).

The central issue is therefore not whether AI applications exist, but whether the government can consistently authorize, finance, operate, monitor, explain, and correct their use. A province may appear digitally advanced while remaining institutionally immature in AI because digital platforms can be developed within individual units, whereas governance responsibilities are distributed across planning, service, legal, financial, security, and oversight institutions. This institutional dispersion explains why visible innovation does not automatically become government wide maturity.

The AIMM dimensions consequently operate as an interconnected capability system. Technology and data enable experimentation, people and processes enable routine use, leadership and financing sustain implementation, while legal, ethical, security, and privacy arrangements preserve legitimacy. Progress in one dimension cannot fully compensate for weakness in another. Reliable infrastructure cannot correct poor data, specialist competence cannot replace service ownership, and human verification cannot guarantee accountability without documentation, audit, and accessible correction procedures. The lowest maturity dimension may therefore become a governance ceiling that limits the expansion of otherwise stronger capabilities.

This interpretation is consistent with research conducted in the same provincial context. Rukayat et al. (2025) found that digital services in West Java improved accessibility and administrative efficiency, but citizen participation, equitable data access, institutional adaptability, data protection, and coordination remained uneven. These findings support the distinction between

visible digital progress and the institutional capacity required for responsible AI. They also show that the present maturity gap is not confined to AI systems. It reflects broader organizational conditions in West Java's digital transformation that become more consequential when systems process sensitive data or influence administrative decisions.

Public value cannot therefore be reduced to service speed or technological sophistication. Public services must also protect responsiveness, procedural justice, human agency, wellbeing, and social justice (Mišić et al., 2025). Public interest approaches require attention to whose interests are represented and how benefits and harms are distributed (Züger & Asghari, 2023). Indonesian research likewise links service improvement to competent personnel, transparency, regulation, cybersecurity, and inclusive design (Mustainah et al., 2025; Pramuditha et al., 2025). Digital transformation creates public value only when technology is integrated with the wider service ecosystem and user needs (Osborne et al., 2022). In this respect, AI maturity should be judged not only by technical performance but also by whether affected citizens can understand the service, receive fair treatment, and seek correction when errors occur.

A partial contrast appears in Abrory et al. (2025), who describe Jabar Digital Service as a pioneer AI squad model shaped by political direction, international benchmarking, cross sector collaboration, and pilots such as an LLM based stunting dashboard and an AI hoax detector. Their findings demonstrate active innovation within a specialized technical unit, whereas the present study classifies organizational maturity across the provincial government mainly at Assessing. This difference is not necessarily contradictory. Abrory et al. examine institutional pressures shaping adoption within JDS, while this study assesses eight organizational capabilities across the Provincial Secretariat, BAPPEDA, DISKOMINFO, and JDS.

The contrast reveals an important distinction between innovation capacity and institutional maturity. A specialized unit can build prototypes, form technical teams, and respond quickly to leadership demands before common responsibilities, financing arrangements, operating procedures, ethical safeguards, and security controls are established across the provincial government. JDS may therefore function as an innovation nucleus without yet representing the maturity of the wider organization. Its pilots demonstrate what the province can initiate, while the AIMM assessment shows what the provincial government cannot yet sustain uniformly.

The comparison with Oulu, Finland, provides another useful contrast. Heinisuo et al. (2025) examined an operational municipal chatbot that had expanded across several services, yet still identified dilemmas involving leadership, stakeholder participation, work meaning, ethical values, and the balance between technical and human concerns. Their findings support the need for shared responsibility and organizational learning, but show that dilemmas continue even after a system enters routine service. West Java faces an earlier institutional challenge: converting dispersed projects into common organizational capability.

The difference may reflect the stage and scope of implementation, institutional continuity, and the coordination demands of a decentralized provincial government. Oulu's case concerns the development of a defined municipal service, whereas the West Java assessment covers multiple institutions, service domains, budgets, and governance functions. The comparison suggests that organizational dilemmas do not disappear as maturity increases. Instead, they change from establishing basic roles and safeguards to managing participation, meaning, competing values, and continuous adaptation. It also supports the finding that separating technical expertise from service units can stimulate innovation but weaken integration unless strong relationships, routines, and service ownership are established (Selten & Klievink, 2024).

The subnational setting further explains why these gaps persist. Provincial governments operate between national direction and local implementation, while authority over data, services, budgets, and technology is distributed across agencies and government levels. National ambitions may therefore encounter fragmented responsibility and uneven institutional capacity (Wadipalapa et al., 2024). West Java shows that advanced digital initiatives can coexist with early AI maturity when authority remains dispersed.

This finding adds a subnational perspective to the third wave of Digital Era Governance. Integrated data and AI do not produce institutional reintegration by themselves. Reintegration requires shared authority, redesigned processes, interoperable responsibilities, and mechanisms that connect technical outputs with public action. AIMM helps specify these capabilities and explains why technological advancement may remain fragmented without organizational integration (Dunleavy & Margetts, 2025). Research on local government AI similarly shows that governance choices and organizational constraints determine whether technological opportunities generate sustainable public value (Yigitcanlar et al., 2024).

Implications

Theoretically, this study extends AIMM by showing that maturity is constrained by relationships among dimensions rather than by the isolated weakness of a single resource. The findings suggest three connected stages: digital foundations enable experimentation, institutional integration enables expansion, and assurance mechanisms enable legitimate public use. This formulation distinguishes general digital readiness from AI maturity and explains why progress in infrastructure or data can be limited by weak strategy, financing, process ownership, ethics, security, and accountability.

Practically, the maturity assessment should guide the sequence of reform rather than justify additional disconnected pilots. West Java needs a common AI lifecycle covering problem selection, data authorization, risk assessment, development, testing, human validation, deployment, monitoring, maintenance, complaint handling, and retirement. Responsibilities should be assigned to service agencies, technical teams, data stewards, legal reviewers, security officers, and oversight units. AI initiatives should begin with a defined public service problem, affected population, expected outcome, required data, role of human judgement, potential harm, and correction mechanism. Competency development should follow these roles and risks, while financing and procurement should cover data preparation, computing, testing, monitoring, retraining, security assessment, documentation, and transition from vendors (Wilson & van der Velden, 2022).

At the policy and government level, West Java requires a risk based AI governance framework linked to the RPJMD, RKPD, SPBE architecture, and agency plans. It should define permitted and restricted uses, establish stronger safeguards for high impact services, and create an AI registry containing each system's purpose, owner, data sources, vendor, risk category, performance indicators, human review, incidents, and complaint channel (Bignami, 2022). AI specific security, privacy, and accountability arrangements should precede expansion into sensitive services. These include privacy and algorithmic impact assessments, model and data vulnerability testing, output monitoring, external platform risk assessment, documented human validation, and routes for correction or appeal. Such measures would translate responsible AI principles into enforceable government practice (Taeihagh, 2021).

Conclusion

This study concludes that seven AIMM dimensions of AI adoption in West Java's public services remain at the Assessing level, while Security and Privacy remains at Initial. The central finding is a digital foundation AI institutionalization gap: existing infrastructure, data platforms, technical expertise, and initial AI practices enable experimentation but have not yet developed into standardized, scalable, secure, and accountable organizational arrangements. The study contributes empirically by distinguishing digital readiness from AI maturity in a provincial government and theoretically by showing that AIMM dimensions are interdependent. Progress in technology or data can be constrained by weaknesses in strategy, financing, process ownership, ethics, security, and accountability. For West Java, the immediate priorities are a formal AI lifecycle, risk based governance, algorithm ready data, distributed competencies, sustainable financing, AI specific security controls, and accessible explanation and correction mechanisms for citizens. The study is limited by its qualitative single case design, five purposively selected informants, and cross sectional assessment. It did not directly examine citizen experiences or measure the technical performance and service outcomes of individual AI systems. The findings should therefore be interpreted as a context specific institutional diagnosis rather than a general assessment of all Indonesian local governments or a causal evaluation of AI's effects on public service quality. Future studies should conduct longitudinal and comparative assessments, include broader institutional and citizen perspectives, and examine how changes in maturity affect effectiveness, fairness, trust, and public value.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that no financial interests, personal relationships, or other forms of competing interest could have influenced the research, analysis, or writing of this article. All authors contributed to the conceptualization of the research, the preparation of the study design, data collection, data analysis, interpretation of findings, and the writing and revision of the manuscript.

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Use of Artificial Intelligence (AI)-Assisted Technology

The authors declare that ChatGPT (OpenAI) was used in a limited manner to support language editing, translation refinement, structural refinement, and academic coherence. The tool was not used to generate research data, conduct data analysis, determine AIMM maturity levels, interpret findings, or draw conclusions. All stages of data collection, source selection, substantive analysis, interpretation of findings, AIMM maturity level assessment, and final manuscript validation were conducted and controlled by the authors. The authors take full responsibility for the accuracy, integrity, and final content of this manuscript.

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