BOUNDARY SPANNING

in Dutch water management and sustainable energy projects

Boeli Boelens

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A study on the tensions between external stakeholders and the project team experienced by local context managers and the approaches used in dealing with these tensions.

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"We have accomplished some great things.
And the good thing is that people perceive it to be
normal: 'of course, that is as it should be.'
I love that.
I really have the best job in the world!"

Respondent Q
Local Context Manager

Preface

In front of you lies my master thesis *'Boundary spanning in Dutch water management and sustainable energy projects'*. This master thesis marks the final part of my master program *Environmental and Infrastructure Planning* at the University of Groningen. Finalizing this master thesis also means the end of my time as a student at this University. A time in which I have learned a lot and developed myself in multiple ways. It is with proud, that I present this master thesis as the end-product of this wonderful time.

Local context management, *omgevingsmanagement* in Dutch, has been a fascination for quite a long time. In multiple excursions and exemplary projects during my master program, the complexity of the local context around spatial planning projects has been under discussion. And although the program has showed a lot of developments towards more integrative, inclusive and communicative approaches to planning, practical implementation always tends to lay behind. This fascination has been the major driver for writing this master thesis and investigating this topic. Rightly so, it is also a specialism that I would love to investigate even further after my time as a student.

A few persons have been very important for this master thesis. First, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Ward Rauws, who has challenged me, supported me and advised me during the whole trajectory. I would also like to thank all of the seventeen respondents who contributed to this thesis and were willing to spend time in conducting the interviews. It would not have been successful otherwise.

I hope you will enjoy reading my master thesis!

Boeli Boelens
28-02-2020

Abstract

The engagement, involvement, and management of stakeholders have become essential aspects of today's Western planning practice in the fields of water management and sustainable energy. The increased engagement of stakeholders can be assigned to two reasons: the acknowledgement of the effect stakeholders have on the success of a project and the changing relationship between citizens, private parties and the government. Local stakeholders become more demanding and better informed, making them an essential factor for a project's success. Conflicts between external stakeholder and the project team often occur in the form of tensions: clashing "ideas or principles or actions and the discomfort that may arise as a result" (Stohl & Cheney, 2001, p. 353-354). Tensions are a challenge for the practices of stakeholder management and due to the growing involvement of stakeholders in planning practices, innovative approaches to the management of stakeholders are necessary.

In Dutch planning practice, this innovative approach is coined as Local Context Management (LCM, a translation of *omgevingsmanagement*). However, the way local context managers deal with tensions is yet scientifically insufficiently covered. LCM is characterised by a strong practical orientation and to gain scientific insights, this study analysed LCM through boundary spanning literature. Boundary spanning is a rising concept in organisation theory, that fits the changing relationships in society and the need for integrative approaches to project management. Contrary to LCM, boundary spanning lacks empirical insights and practical implementation.

From an analytical perspective, this study therefore aims to add insights on the theoretical background of LCM and the practical implementation of boundary spanning. The study does so by analysing the tensions local context managers experience in planning practice and how they deal with these tensions. From an advisory perspective, this study aims to provide recommendations for the further research and practical implementation of LCM and boundary spanning.

From boundary spanning literature, four types of tensions have been distinguished: *performing, organizing, belonging* and *learning*, which serve as the analytical framework for the experiences of local context managers. The results show a tendency of hybrid forms of tension types. Within these hybrid forms, local context managers focus on performing tension type aspects. The belonging tension type is least recognized by the respondents. The focus on tensions relates to the approaches used by local context managers. The approaches exist out of two opposites: the dominant Strategic Local Context Management (SLCM) approach and the less frequently applied Two-Legged approach. SLCM shows a strong focus on project objectives and uses boundary spanning activities to gather support for the project's objectives. In doing so, local context managers show a strong focus on objectives and interests of stakeholders, explaining the dominance of the performing tension type. The two-legged approach on the other hand, makes use of an open approach and uses boundary spanning activities to improve the quality of a project's end-result. This needs contact on the level of norms and values, and therefore shows more focus on belonging tensions.

The SLCM approach entails a narrow interpretation of boundary spanning, whereas the two-legged approach tends to more fully execute boundary spanning activities. SLCM could draw lessons from boundary spanning in the capability to extract extra value for the local environment out of tensions between the external stakeholders and the project team. The two-legged approach and boundary spanning can draw lessons from the practicability and efficiency of the SLCM approach. This study therefore recommends SLCM practitioners and boundary spanning researchers to join forces. To conclude, looking at the upcoming Environment and Planning Act, mainly the two-legged approach shows potential to serve the objectives related to participation and bottom-up initiatives.

Content

1   Introduction

1.1. Background

The engagement, involvement, and management of stakeholders have become an essential aspect of today's Western planning practice (Bremekamp et al., 2010). The importance of this growing engagement has two reasons. First, stakeholder's perceptions influence a project's success (Newcombe, 2002). Projects develop themselves in an environment of diverging perceptions, wishes, and ideas, that are managed in order to prevent project failure and smoothen the processes surrounding the projects, showing an economic-driven and neoliberal view of stakeholder management (e.g. Eskerod et al., 2015; Walker et al., 2008; Bourne & Walker, 2005). Second, the relationships between citizens, private parties and the government has changed. Citizens and private parties are becoming more active within the planning process and are increasingly demanding to have a say in the decision-making processes (Needham, 2005). For spatial planning, the communicative turn has been important, which meant a shift away from merely technical-based and top down planning approaches, towards more collaborative and process-led approaches (Healey, 1996). In short, the engagement of stakeholders fits the economic necessity of a project's success and it fits the social developments of increasing demands of involvement. Within the Dutch planning system, this engagement is often navigated through local context management (LCM, *omgevingsmanagement* in Dutch), which is a rather new approach to classic stakeholder management.

Both reasons stated above are relevant for the planning of water management and sustainable energy in the Netherlands. Both sectors are originally technical-oriented and show a development towards more integrated approaches. Within water management this is known as a *transition*: a shift away from *command-and-control*, towards a more *social-ecological awareness* in water management (e.g. Schoeman et al., 2014). A comparable development is visible in environmental planning, among which sustainable energy projects, in which the social complexity is more and more acknowledged: *"a context of various societal or market parties claiming their place in the governance process and, as expressed with power dispersal, also have the resources to exercise influence"* (Zuidema, 2016, p. 24). In other words, both water management and the planning of sustainable energy projects are dealing with complex social dimensions, increasing the focus on stakeholder involvement.

LCM fits the necessity of stakeholder involvement in Dutch planning processes of water management and sustainable energy, and it is part of a more integral approach to planning (Rijkswaterstaat, 2019). Local context management aims to create a fit between a spatial planning project and its environment, of which the external stakeholders are an integral part (e.g. Wesselink, 2010). Several Dutch planning agencies are executing LCM and their websites present an indication of its contents. In terms of stakeholders, local context managers focus on informing local citizens, gathering wishes from local stakeholders (Arcadis, 2018) and creating a trustworthy relationship during the project (Royal HaskoningDHV, 2019).

This study presents LCM as an innovative approach to stakeholder management. In general, LCM focuses on win-win situations (Wesselink, 2010) and is based on the *Mutual Gains Approach* (MGA), as presented by Fisher, Ury and Patton (1981). MGA presents a way of negotiating of which acknowledging the interests of other parties, minimalizing the impact of projects' results and maintaining a trusty relationship are essential aspects (Wesselink, 2010). The general approach of LCM seems to be based on MGA; however, every planning agency tends to have their own perspective (e.g. Arcadis, 2018; Royal HaskoningDHV, 2019). The innovative character stems from the focus on collaboration with stakeholders, actively involving them and ensuring a satisfying project for all parties (Wesselink, 2010; De Lint et al., 2017). In doing so, project managers find the middle ground between the project team and the external stakeholders in an attempt to broaden the scope of the project. In

short, together with citizens, interest groups, and other stakeholders, effective ways are sought to combine initiatives and fulfil different objectives simultaneously (De Lint et al., 2019). It is due to these innovative characteristics that LCM fits the earlier noticed necessity of stakeholder engagement.

The main literature on LCM has a practice-based background, meaning that there is little academic basis to the approach. Boundary spanning literature offers a theoretical lens to analyse local context management. Boundary spanning is a rising concept in network theory. Boundary spanners are seen as the connectors of actors within a system, increasing network performance (Tushman & Scanlan, 1982). They focus on connecting an organization's activities and its surroundings (Tushman & Scanlan, 1981; Steadman, 1992; Van Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2018). Boundary spanning activities concern the relationships of actors within a network by getting them involved with each other, creating information flows between them, and by increasing the trust among them (Van Meerkerk, 2014). Involving stakeholders is a logical continuation, for network theory regards them as an inevitable part of networks. This attitude helps in creating stakeholder engagement and collaboration (Van Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2018; Van Meerkerk, 2014). LCM tends to execute a boundary spanning role within water management and sustainable energy projects. For example, the *room for the river projects* have already shown how boundary spanning can be implemented in water management (Warner et al., 2010). Within environmental projects, such as solar parks and wind power, stakeholders are often involved by local context managers due to NIMBYism (e.g. Wolsink, 2000). In short, both sectors have experience with local context managers executing boundary spanning activities.

1.2. Problem definition and relevance

It has become clear why LCM and boundary spanning are seen as innovative approaches to stakeholder management. Nevertheless, performing LCM and boundary spanning activities comes with its challenges. In this study, the focus lies on the challenges of dealing with tensions between the project team and external stakeholders. The analytical framework of boundary spanning theory shows that these tensions are inevitable, due to diverging goals, perceptions, ideas, and values (Oliver & Montgomery, 2000; Volberda, 1996). Tensions have both negative and positive consequences for projects. On the one hand, the existence of tensions and insufficient navigation can lead to planning and budgetary overruns. On the other hand, tensions put pressure on the involved actors, which makes that tensions can also stimulate the creative process.

At the moment there is a lack of knowledge on how these tensions should be dealt with, because local context management lacks a scientific background and boundary spanning literature lacks empirical knowledge (e.g. Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2018). This research is scientifically relevant, as it aims to contribute to further closing up this gap by connecting boundary spanning with the practice of local context management. This way, LCM provides empirical insights in the same way that boundary spanning activities aid local context managers dealing with tensions between the external stakeholders and the project team. This way, the practical approaches of local context management are conceptualized and theoretically tested. The study therefore adds to the theoretical basis of local context management and adds to existing boundary spanning literature.

Dutch planning practice shows how participation can lead to both great projects on the one hand and big problems on the other. For example, the restoration of the Markermeer-dikes in the Netherlands led to several legal procedures and an abundance of media attention (NOS, 2018; Cobouw, 2019), while the dike enforcement in Den Oever is festively received (APPM, 2019; HHNK, 2019). In short, although there is a rise in attention for stakeholder engagement, there still exists a fine line between success and failure. Seeing as LCM concerns the involvement of those stakeholders and is concerned with participation, it is societally valuable to investigate how these stakes, perceptions and values are dealt with. The approaches discussed in this study provide insights in this matter.

1.3. Research objectives and research questions

As expressed in the problem definition, this study aims to serve two objectives: an analytical objective and an advisory objective. First, from an analytical point of view, this study aims to understand and gain new insights on how local context managers deal with tensions between the project team and external stakeholders. Furthermore, from an advisory point of view, this study aims to draw lessons from boundary spanning literature for the practice of LCM and vice versa. To accomplish this, the research investigates approaches local context managers use in dealing with tensions between the project team and external stakeholders in water management or sustainable energy projects. The analysis will be guided by a categorisation of tensions and strategies from network and organisation theory.

Both research objectives have resulted in the following research question:

> *Which tensions between the project team and external stakeholders do local context managers experience and how do they deal with these tensions?*

To answer this research question, the following sub-questions are used:

> *How does boundary spanning theory provide an analytical lens for studying LCM?*

> *What tensions are distinguished in boundary spanning theory?*

> *What approaches does boundary spanning theory suggest for dealing with tensions?*

> *What tensions between the project team and the external stakeholders do local context managers experience in Dutch water management and sustainable energy projects and how do they deal with these tensions?*

> *What lessons can local context managers learn from boundary spanning in dealing with tensions?*

1.4. Scope

In order to increase the feasibility if this study, the focus of this study is narrowed. This is determined by the complexity of projects; the agencies local context managers work and the phases within the project in which local context managers are working.

First, local context management and other forms of stakeholder management are a response to the increasing complexity of spatial planning projects (e.g. Mok et al., 2014). Therefore, this study aims to investigate the experiences of managers of projects with a certain degree of complexity. Although complexity can be determined through several factors, one of the ways to define the degree of complexity is the number of stakeholders and the interactions between them and the project team (Baccarini, 1996; Pich et al., 2002). Earlier research focused on projects with around 10 stakeholders. Among them were societal groups, private developers and different levels over government agencies (Van Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2018). This study aims to ask local context managers about their experiences on projects with a corresponding number of involved organizations and stakeholders.

Second, the agencies and companies for which the local context managers are working is relevant. This research focuses on managers working in the private sector of planning, as boundary spanning activities are more common within private planning agencies (Van Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2018).

Third, the phase of the project in which the managers are working is relevant. Local context management happens through all phases of a project, however, there is more freedom to fulfil the role as manager early on in the process. Involving citizens is more efficient then and leads to better

results (King, 2010). Therefore, managers working on projects will be asked about their experiences during the early phases of a project.

At last, as mentioned in section 1.1., this research focuses on local context managers working in water management and sustainable energy projects. This is due to their relation with stakeholder conflict and the experiences of LCM within both sectors.

1.5. Reading guide

This the continuation of this study starts with a note on contextual changes for LCM due to the upcoming Environment and Planning Act (CHAPTER 2). This is followed by the discussion of relevant academic literature on stakeholder management and boundary spanning, resulting in the conceptual framework of this study (CHAPTER 3). Furthermore, the methodology of this research is discussed in CHAPTER 4, which leads to the results of this study. These are divided in two chapters: CHAPTER 5 focuses on the results in relation to the tensions, whereas CHAPTER 6 focuses on the results regarding the approaches used by local context managers to deal with them. The main conclusions are discussed in CHAPTER 7, alongside the discussion, recommendations and reflections. The study ends with a reference list, list of figures, and the appendices.

2   Setting the scene

Some crucial developments are happening in the Dutch planning system. Most importantly, a new spatial planning act is on its way. This *Environmental and Planning Act* combines all existing spatial laws and acts and shows more focus on participation and bottom-up initiatives. The EPA is a response to a growing dissatisfaction around complex spatial jurisdiction in the Netherlands (Ministerie van Infrastructuur en Milieu, 2013). The prediction is that the upcoming EPA will affect the playing field of local context managers. Therefore, this chapter provides some brief remarks on the future implications of the EPA for the practice LCM.

2.1. The current planning system

The Netherlands have a long history of spatial planning. Due to the small size of the country and the high density of functions, almost every square meter of land has been planned. Along with the long-lasting battle with water, the Netherlands is seen as one of the core countries of spatial planning in the world. The objectives in Dutch spatial planning policies can be summarized in terms of 'safety, economic growth and the protection of spatial value' (Rijksoverheid, 2019a). These objectives have resulted in a wide variety of laws, processes and legislation. Despite the best intentions, Dutch spatial planning has transformed into a bureaucratic jungle of rules and procedures, which highly affect the spatial planning processes (Ministerie van Infrastructuur en Milieu, 2014). The EPA is a response to this development (Ministerie van Infrastructuur en Milieu, 2013).

Important documents within the current system, are the *development plan* (bestemmingsplan) and the *structural vision* (structuurvisie). The development plan describes the framework of spatial development within a municipality. In short, these plans define whether, where and how spatial developments take place within the municipality (Rijksoverheid, 2019b). Within the structural vision, all layers of government present their vision on the future social and economic developments within their territory. This way, structural visions are made on municipality level, provincial level and on a national level. Based on these visions, the governmental entities create policies to stimulate or tone down these developments (Rijksoverheid, 2019b).

Stakeholders are enabled to participate in spatial developments. Their involvement has two characteristics, which are influenced by the phase of the project. During the planning phase, stakeholders are involved and engaged in an informal compacity. This is the project phase in which the local context manager has the freedom to create the 'fit' between the project and the local stakeholders. During the planning phase, the formal part of stakeholder engagement is started up. The formal procedures start with the ability of stakeholders to hand in their *perspective* on the project's content. This can be done by everyone who wants to, which means that there is no limit to the definition of stakeholder in this sense. The perspectives of the stakeholders are collected and, if possible, implemented in the project's design. After this, the design will be established. This leaves one option for stakeholders to interfere: filing an objection. This means that a judge will decide on it and in the end, the *council of state* will have the last word (Raad van State, 2019; Rijksoverheid, 2019b).

In short, the Dutch planning practice is characterized by a big legal component, in which the development plans and the structural visions are important documents. Moreover, the participation is designed as a two-staged rocket: the informal phase in which the interests of stakeholders can be collected and implemented and the formal phase which focuses on the civil right to object to a certain development. This framework has been the playing field in which LCM has been developed. However, the EPA is going to change this framework significantly.

2.2. Environment and Planning Act

The Dutch government is implementing a new Environmental and Planning Act in which all the existing spatial planning regulations are combined in one overarching act (Rijksoverheid, 2019c; Rijksoverheid, 2019d). It is a response to the bureaucratic jungle of current spatial planning jurisdiction. Thereby, the upcoming EPA serves two main goals: (1) reaching and protecting a safe and healthy living environment and (2) stimulating, maintaining, using and developing the living environment to fulfil societal goals (Ministerie van Infrastructuur en Milieu, 2014). In short, the new act mainly focuses on making the spatial planning process more comprehensible and quicker (Rijksoverheid, 2019c; Rijksoverheid, 2019d).

Within this process, stakeholders take an important position. The complexity around spatial planning projects has increased. One of the reasons for this development is the dependency of success on stakeholders' thoughts and perceptions. Improving the roles of stakeholders in the planning process was therefore one of the initial reasons to develop the EPA (Needham, 2005). This is resulting from the change in the relationship between public parties, private parties and citizens. Within the planning process, it is acknowledged that citizens and private parties want to have a say in the decision-making phase (Needham, 2005). This is in line of the communicative turn as described above: the shift from top-down processes, towards more collaborative approaches. A shift from stakeholder management towards stakeholder involvement.

The *Eindrapportage pionieren met de omgevingswet* (Ministerie van Infrastructuur en Milieu, 2016) is a report in which the results of trial projects are shown. The involvement of stakeholders is part of this report, in which local context management is presented as an essential factor for successful participation of stakeholders (Ministerie van Infrastructuur en Milieu, 2016). Local context management is a specialized role within the project team and associated with positive perceptions of stakeholders. They perceive to be involved, have influence and are taken seriously. Therefore, the law describes local context management as an essential factor for fulfilling the goals related to stakeholder involvement.

For this study, the Environment and Planning Act is considered as a new step in the trend of increasing participation within the planning process for two reasons. First, with the EPA coming up, participation for citizens and other stakeholders is laid down in official regulations and laws. Furthermore, the EPA is especially relevant for this research as it clearly prioritizes local context management as an essential element of project management and the planning process. This contextual positioning of local context management, shows the environment in which this management type is operating. Taking into account the upcoming EPA is important, as it will change the Dutch planning system and therefore the environment of local context management.

3   Theoretical framework of boundary spanning and tensions

Within this chapter the relevant theories and concepts regarding stakeholder management, boundary spanning and network theory will be discussed, explained, and connected. The chapter first discusses the background, relevance, and development of stakeholder management (section 3.1). After that, boundary spanning will be presented as a new perspective in stakeholder management (section 3.2). The background and approach of boundary spanning will be covered and the concept will be applied on water management and environmental issues. Section 3.3 gives an overview of the types of tensions found in organizational theory. Moreover, the strategies discussed in boundary spanning and institutional literature will be presented in section 3.4. The concepts discussed in this section lead to the conceptual model in section 3.5.

3.1. Stakeholder management

The former chapters have shown that LCM is the main approach to stakeholder management in Dutch spatial planning nowadays. Logically, this current approach stems from certain developments in stakeholder management. Therefore, this section focuses on the developments in academic literature regarding stakeholder management in spatial planning in general and specifically for water management and sustainable energy projects.

3.1.1. Stakeholder management and planning

Tensions resulting from the diversity of objectives and stakes in projects have already been acknowledged by Cyert and March in 1963. Their work shaped the image of organizations operating in an environment existing of conflicting and different objectives (Newcombe, 2002). Although the term has been coined by the Stanford Research Institute in 1963, the work of Freeman (1984) introduced the definition for people or organisations that 'affect or are affected by projects and organizational activities': stakeholders. Strategies to manage these stakeholders have been developed in corporate planning literature, but have also been implemented in water management and the planning of sustainable energy.

The network around water management and sustainable energy projects consists out of several stakeholders, with diverging background and objectives. This social dimension has been neglected for a long time, due to a focus on the technical complicacy of these projects (Wüstenhagen, 2007). However, during the last decades, the importance of stakeholder involvement has been increasingly acknowledged (Pomeroy & Douvere, 2008; Huijts et al., 2007). Stakeholders should be involved in order to coordinate the objectives of governments, private parties, and society itself (Kemp & Loorbach, 2005). Within the planning of sustainable energy, stakeholder involvement is often executed to deal with NIMBY perceptions of stakeholders (Wright, 2011). This perception is recognized in water management literature. Involving stakeholders is important, because it leads to a more complete comprehension of the ecosystem, gives a notion of the influence of stakeholders on this system, and provides an overview of the diversity of objectives and perceptions (Pomeroy & Douvere, 2008). In both sectors of spatial planning, the management of stakeholders is well elaborated. Continuing this study, water management and sustainable energy are analysed as a combined entity.

The classic approach to stakeholder management thus stems from corporate planning literature and has a rather neoliberal perspective on planning (Eskerod et al., 2015), seeing stakeholders as instrumental entities. Stakeholders can affect the project and therefore the potential profit of a

project: *"Stakeholder management is a means to an end. The end, or ultimate result, may have nothing to do with the welfare of these stakeholders."* (Berman et al., 1999, p. 492). Following this reasoning, dealing with stakeholders merely serves the project, in accomplishing success, efficiency and profit. Classic stakeholder management entails a fearful perception of stakeholders: they are a potential danger for the objectives of projects and firms (Newcombe, 2002).

The fearful perception of stakeholders relates to a narrow definition of stakeholders (Mitchel et al., 1997). A narrow definition prioritizes the stakeholders that are essential for a firm's or project's survival (Stanford Research Institute, 1963). Stakeholders are then seen as individuals or organizations that experience a certain risk by organizational activities, as they invested some sort of value in the project or the firm (Hillman & Keim, 2001). On the contrary, a broad view of stakeholders originates from a sense of social responsibility of a firm and entails all the individuals or organizations that can affect or are affected by the activities or outcomes of a project, relating to the work of Freeman (1984) again (Mitchel et al., 1997).

Several changes in planning literature and society have made the narrow definition of stakeholders inapplicable for today's spatial planning (Newcombe, 2002). This study emphasizes *contingency theory* and *the communicative turn* in planning as two of the driving forces for today's stakeholder management. Moreover, the relationship between citizens and the government has changed: citizens operate more proactively and want to be involved in the decision-making process (Needham, 2005), showing a necessity of a broad and integrated view of stakeholders (e.g. Eskerod et al., 2015). In other words, the communicative turn and contingency theory are part of *a changing perspective*.

3.1.2. A changing perspective
Within planning related to water management and sustainable energy, a tendency is visible towards more integrated, inclusive, and adaptive approaches (e.g. Schoeman et al., 2014; Zuidema, 2016). Both sectors have for a long time been dominated by a technical orientation and an expert-driven approach (Wüstenhagen, 2007), which was the general tendency for spatial planning (Healey, 1996). Due to an increasing acknowledgement of the uncertainties and complexities of planning, especially in the social domain, approaches have been innovated and the focus on stakeholder involvement has increased (Schoeman et al., 2014; Zuidema, 2016). This study reviews this new perspective as a source for innovations to stakeholder management. This is linked to literature about contingency theory and the communicative turn in planning, which is seen as a reflection of the changing relationship between citizens, private parties, and the government.

Contingency theory emphasizes the relationship between an organization and its environment. The central belief of contingency theorists is: *"the right way to organize management and governance should be contingent on the circumstances encountered"* (Zuidema, 2016, p. 13). For this study, this idea is elemental in understanding the need for innovation in stakeholder management. The theory emphasizes a fit between an organisation's activities and the activities' environment. Contingency theory points out the importance of contextual conditions for project management (Bryson & Delbecq, 1979). Acknowledging the importance of context counters the technical-oriented and instrumental view on a *'one size fits all'* approach for organizational activities (Zuidema, 2016). Nevertheless, it does not yet fully counter the classic approach to stakeholder management.

A more strategic perspective on contingency theory, combined with the acknowledgement of the social context, explains a move away from classic stakeholder management. Zuidema (2016, p. 14) explains this perspective as 'nuanced contingency theory'. This nuanced perspective is driven by less focus on objective knowledge and less focus on a *fit* within one moment in time (Donaldson, 1996; Pugh & Hickson, 2000 in Zuidema, 2016). In other words, it presents a focus on the longer term and emphasizes the interpretation of a fit among different stakeholders.

This nuanced perspective on contingency theory stands in line with the communicative turn in planning. The work of Healey (1996) has provided a foundation for more communicative and collaborative approaches to spatial planning, which has been very influential in planning literature. The central ideology of this communicative turn is again based on the work of Habermas (1981), moving away from an instrumental rationality, which focuses on reaching efficiency and effectivity in producing certain outcomes based on objective knowledge. Instrumental rationality aligns with the classical approach to stakeholder management, which is described as a means to an end: fulfilling the objectives of a project (Berman et al., 1999). On the contrary, Habermas emphasizes a perspective in which knowledge and truth are dependent on interpretation and discourses, which in turn makes it so that knowledge is influenced by context (Zuidema, 2016). Producing knowledge through communication has formed a basis for the communicative turn in planning (Healey, 1996).

The communicative turn meant a paradigm shift from technical-oriented planning towards communicative and collaborative initiatives for planning (Healey, 1996). Planners were no longer solely seen as the experts that create the community's future from their drawing board, but as intermediary, looking for common ground in the planning process (Healey, 1996). Essential to these collaborative planning approaches in relation to the management of tensions are the following elements (Healey, 1998, p. 16 & 17):

- ☐ All stakeholders have the right to be involved in decision-making;
- ☐ The responsible planners and managers need to take into account the interests of all stakeholders;
- ☐ Decisions need to be based on collaboratively defined knowledge and must be justified in relation to all stakeholders;
- ☐ Investments need to be made in the collaborative processes.

All elements show a tendency to much more empowerment of stakeholders in spatial planning projects.

The elements fit the change in the relationship between citizens, private parties and the government that started halfway through the 20th century. Social movements for civil rights, the environment, and women's rights during the 70s, delivered a new impulse for stakeholder thinking, resulting in a different perception of stakeholder management. Due to this different perspective, stakeholders were not only seen as actors who had a certain power related to a project's success, but they also had a legitimized reason to stand for their needs and opinions (Eskerod et al., 2015; Healey, 1996). Stakeholders have become more proactive and demand to have a say in the decision-making process around spatial planning (Needham, 2005).

The combination of transitions in water management, planning of sustainable energy, the literature about nuanced contingency theory, the communicative turn, and the changing relationship between citizens, private parties and governmental entities all show that the classic approach to stakeholder management is no longer applicable. A narrow definition of stakeholders and an instrumental approach for implementing a project no longer fits the project's environment. In other words, a new approach is needed: an approach that opens up the boundaries between a project and its (social) environment.

3.2. Boundary Spanning

The innovative approach to stakeholder management relevant to this study can be found in boundary spanning literature, which offers an analytical lens for local context management. In this section, the concept of boundary spanning and its theoretical background is explained. This explanation serves as a bridge towards the tensions that are distinguished in network and organization theory.

3.2.1. Networks, actors and connections

To understand the concept of boundary spanning, it is necessary to get familiar with theories regarding networks, organizations and network management (Van Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2014). The importance of boundary spanning is based on two developments. First, there is the increasing need for information exchange between individuals, organizations and other actors. Second, there is the emergence of boundaries between those actors due to specialism and increasing individualism. As a start, the concept of *network society* can function as a foundation for understanding the ideas of several interlinked networks, information traffic amongst them, and emerging boundaries between them.

To understand the concept of network society and network management, networks need to be defined. Networks can be defined as the *'collection of links between elements of a unit'* (Van Dijk, 2012, p. 24). Such networks are visible within the social domain, in which the elements are *social agents* and the links are *interactions* between those agents (Van Dijk, 2012). Through these interactions, relationships emerge between actors within the system. Following from this reasoning, the concept of network society has been developed.

Although similar ideas have existed for a longer time (e.g. '*Wired Society'* (Martin, 1978)), the network society is a term first coined by Jan van Dijk in 1991 and Manuel Castells in 1996. Both developed the concept of a social system functioning through an infrastructure of information traffic between several networks. This infrastructure of networks forms the foundation for society's main organization at the level of individuals, groups, and society as a whole (Van Dijk, 2012). Castells defines the network society as follows: "*A network society is a society whose social structure is made of networks powered by microelectronics-based information and communication technologies*" (Castells, 2004, p. 3). Within these networks, the number of actors is growing and networks are becoming increasingly interdependent (Koppenjan & Klijn, 2004), and have a strong focus on information transfer (Castells, 2004). As the density within networks and between networks rises, emerging issues affect more actors and networks. This means that actors or organizations cannot fix their problems on their own, but need to collaborate with other actors and networks (Koppenjan & Klijn, 2004). This increases the need for information transfer between networks and among actors.

Organizations within these networks evolve through specialization and the creation of specialized subunits, that concern themselves with executing homogenous tasks (Tushman & Scanlan, 1981). This specialization is accompanied by the emergence of local norms, culture, language, and values, resulting in increased differences between specialized units. Due to these differences, boundaries emerge between both subunits within organizations and organizations as a whole. This leads to more efficient processes within the organizations, but it also leads to difficulties in communication and collaboration between organizations (Tushman & Scanlan, 1981). So, as mentioned above, communication is increasingly important, but, due to fragmentation, it is also increasingly difficult.

3.2.2. Spanning the boundaries

The difficulty in transferring information serves up problems in the contingency of an organization and its environment. Taking the concept of contingency again, in optimizing the fit between the organization and its surroundings, boundary spanners could play a key role (Van Meerkerk, 2014). This contingency view brings with it the need for boundary spanning because of three main reasons. First, organisations need sufficient information to base their decision-making process on. Second, parts of this information aren't availably internally, and must be found externally. Finally, the external information needs to be 'translated' into useful knowledge for the organization (Tushman & Scanlan, 1981). To bridge the relevant information between organizations, boundary spanners can take up different roles within an organization. Feldman and Khademian (2007, p. 312) distinguished three roles based on their research:

☐ The role of *broker*. This means that information from several perceptions is gathered and spread outside of the organizational boundary. Practicing boundary spanning as a broker offers the possibility to gain insights into potential obstacles and problems within the network (Feldman & Khademian, 2007).

☐ Boundary spanners can operate as *translators* between organizations. This role focuses on making information understandable and thereby usable across organizational boundaries. Translating information between organizations helps in understanding each other and to create a mutual understanding (Feldman & Khademian, 2007).

☐ Boundary spanning can be executed by *synthesizers*. Synthesizers move beyond translating information and try to combine several perceptions in search of new ideas and concepts. This can help in finding common ground between organizations and foster collaboration (Feldman & Khademian, 2007).

These last two roles show how boundary spanning moves beyond classic stakeholder management, in which the stakeholder problem needed to be identified and solved or avoided. Instead, operating as a translator and synthesizer shows managers functioning in two ways, searching for common ground and mutual gains in projects. This fits the developments in stakeholder management as described in section 3.1., and is an essential part of the competency of local context management (Wesselink, 2010).

3.2.4. Success factors for boundary spanning

The success of boundary spanning in dealing with tensions depends on several factors, which can be found in the competencies of the boundary spanner and the facilitative character of the project team (Van Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2014). Two of these factors are considered to be relevant for dealing with tensions.

First, it is important that a boundary spanner is well connected both internally and externally, as the agent needs to obtain relevant information, from the relevant external organizations. Furthermore, the agent also needs the relevant internal information from the project team. This two-sided connection is therefore essential for effective boundary spanning (Tushman & Scanlan, 1981). Second, boundary spanners need to be able to empathize with different actors within the network. They need to have a feel for social interactions and need to recognize tensions and problems in an early phase (Van Meerkerk, 2014).

3.3. Tensions in boundary spanning activities

Within the literature regarding organization theory, tensions are seen as inherent and unavoidable aspects of organizations and its functioning (Oliver & Montgomery, 2000; Volberda, 1996). This originates from the diverging goals, values, norms, and perceptions of organizational members. Therefore, the existence of these tensions needs to be accepted and these tensions need to be dealt with (Cooren et al., 2013). Boundary spanners find themselves in a unique place, as they operate in between (subunits of) organizations. This means that not only the tensions within the organizations matter, but also those between organizations, actors or stakeholders.

Tensions can be defined as clashing "ideas or principles or actions and the discomfort that may arise as a result" (Stohl & Cheney, 2001, p.353-354). Moreover, tensions are seen as ironies or ironic situations, in which paradoxical ideas or perceptions arise simultaneously (Smith & Lewis, 2011). These tensions then become clear through interactions and communication between members of (different) organizations (Cooren et al., 2013). Boundary spanners work in the space between those interactions and need to balance the tensions between the relevant actors (Rauws & De Jong, 2019). Several academic lenses discuss the emergence of tensions.

3.3.1. Emergence of tensions

First, institutional theory is concerned with the relationship between organizations and their environment (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Institutional theory offers background knowledge for performing tensions, as the environment of organizations can deliver a multiplicity of conflicting goals, ideas, perceptions and needs (Smith et al., 2013). The complexity of the environment makes for competing demands for an organization's performance (Pache & Santos, 2010). Within the environment there are several logics present that function as the source of values, beliefs, and eventually leads to action and decision-making (Thornton et al., 2012). Together, these different logics result in a plurality of perceptions, creating uncertainty and conflict (Greenwood et al., 2011). At the crossroads of these logics, tensions emerge and this is also the area where boundary spanners operate (Smith et al., 2013; Rauws & De Jong, 2019).

Organizational identity concerns itself with the meaning of an organization's activities (Smith et al., 2013; Albert & Whetten, 1985). Tensions arise when the identity of an organization is not clear and unified, troubling collective activities and perceptions effectively. These problems can arise when several identities are present simultaneously and influence the activities of organizational members (Smith et al., 2013).

Stakeholder theory brings forth the idea that organizations function in a broad environment, which in turn requires social responsibility and ethical issues (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984). Stakeholder theory is a source of tensions, as it raises the issue of a multiplicity of stakeholders and their demands, needs, ideas, and perceptions (Smith et al., 2013). It brings up problems of prioritizing one stakeholder over the other and how to make this selection (Freeman, 1984). It differs from organizational theory as stakeholder theory looks beyond shareholders and maximization of profits (Smith et al., 2013). Stakeholder theory offers the same plurality of stakeholder needs, which result in performing tensions (Smith et al., 2013).

Paradox theory offers insights in how irony and ironic situations result in tensions. It emphasizes the idea of conflicting, yet connected elements, which deliver weird and irrational combinations of elements (Lewis, 2000). These contradictory elements can be found in social life and social systems (Quinn & Cameron, 1988). Often these paradoxes become visible in dilemmas, in which one option excludes the other. However, as the elements are interrelated, excluding the other option affects your selection (Smith & Lewis, 2011). This calls for working with paradoxical elements simultaneously, which can be seen also in the tensions mentioned in the following section. Within all of these factors, conflicting ideas, identities, perceptions, commitment can be found the source of tensions. Paradox theory can function as an understanding of these tensions (Smith et al., 2013).

3.3.2. Tension types

Out of these different lenses, a typology of tensions can be made. Several academics have focused on organizations fulfilling public tasks in which the paradoxical needs of commercial stakes and public demands are compared (see Rauws & De Jong, 2019 or Smith et al., 2013). Out of this paradox, several tensions arise, which in turn produces four separate types of tensions: *performing*, *organizing*, *belonging* and *learning* tensions (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013).

Performing tensions stem from diverging objectives in the varied landscape of environments within a project's network, relating to institutional, stakeholder theory and paradox theory (Smith et al., 2011), making this tension type the most embedded type in academic literature. Organizations' performances can be compromised by the ambiguous goals of internal and external stakeholders (Donaldson & Preston, 1995 in Smith & Lewis, 2011). Often, these tensions present themselves in the coexistence of commercial and social objectives (Margolis & Walsh, 2003). Performing tensions are relevant for

boundary spanners, as boundary spanners work between the different actors and organizations. They therefore not only pursue the ideals of their own organization, but also those of external stakeholders (Rauws & De Jong, 2019). In short, performing tensions can be recognized as differences in:
- Objectives (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Rauws & De Jong, 2019);
- Setting priorities (Smith et al., 2013);
- Result-orientation (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al.,2013);
- Defining success (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013).

In other words, these tensions become present in defining the results organizations and project teams want to achieve with their activities.

Organizing tensions arise from the commitment of actors with conflicting goals and ideas, visualized by divergent structures, processes, cultures, and practices (Smith & Lewis, 2013). This tension type relates to institutional and paradox theory. Due to divergent cultures, tensions arise on how to perform certain practices (Battilana & Dorado, 2010). For boundary spanning activities, this can be visualised as social groups functioning in a different way than commercial organizations do. Boundary spanners often focus on translating activities between both organizations (Rauws & De Jong, 2019). In short, organizing tensions can be summarized in differences related to:
- Cultures (Smith et al., 2013);
- The way of working (Smith & Lewis, 2011);
- The structure of the organisation (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013);
- Difficulties in collaboration (Smith & Lewis, 2011).

In other words, these tensions become present in the way organizations and project teams want to reach these end-results.

Belonging tensions originate from conflicting identities, stemming from organizational identity theory and showing connections with institutional theory (Smith et al., 2013). These identities can differ between internal organization members or between external organization members (Smith & Lewis, 2011). Again, these tensions become clear in the difference between commercial actions and social activities, and raises questions of collective identity (Smith et al., 2013). As a planning agency, dealing with social issues can raise this doubt of identity and boundary spanners need to connect with both identities to operate effectively (Rauws & De Jong, 2019). In short, belonging tensions can be found in differences in:
- Norms and values (Smith & Lewis, 2011);
- Sense of responsibilities (Smith et al., 2013);
- Fundamental principles (Rauws & De Jong, 2019);
- Identity of actors (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013).

In other words, these tensions stem from the fundamental properties of an organisation or project team.

Learning tensions stem from the different time scales organizations use: long term goals such as growth and flexibility, next to short term goals such as certainty and stability (Smith & Lewis, 2011). Seeing as both goals have different timelines to reach objectives, at some point they could come in conflict with each other (Smith et al., 2013). Therefore, this tension type tends to show similarities with institutional theory and paradox theory. Learning tensions occur in boundary spanning when translating between external stakeholders and the project team (Rauws & De Jong, 2019). In short, the learning tensions can be indicated on the basis of differences related to:
- The pace of activities (Smith & Lewis, 2011);
- Timelines (Smith & Lewis, 2011);
- Flexibility (Smith et al., 2013);
- Innovation (Smith & Lewis, 2011).

In other words, these tensions become present in the speed organisations and project teams execute their activities and the pressure they put behind these activities.

The tension types distinguished in the work of Smith and Lewis (2011; Smith et al., 2013) function as an analytical framework for the practices of LCM. The distinction in several tension types, makes it possible to indicate the academic source of the experiences of local context managers in planning practice.

3.4. Dealing with tensions

Following the former section, several tensions arise within networks. As these tensions are seen as inherent and inevitable for organizations, strategies are aimed at making them workable. It's clear that these tensions arise from differences between actors within the networks within and around organizations (Cooren et al., 2013). These differences centre on diverging values, norms, perceptions, ideas and opinions. Institutional theory offers a possibility to distinguish strategies for dealing with tensions: aligning different institutional logics (Thornton et al., 2012). As all of the tension types show connections with institutional theory, it is argued to be a valuable analytical perspective.

Institutional logics are sets of "intra-organizational rules, routines and sanctions that individuals in particular contexts create and recreate in such a way that their behaviour is to some extent regularised and predictable" (Nederhand et al., 2018, p. 221). This makes the behaviour, thoughts, and decision-making processes historically founded and path dependent. This path dependency makes institutional logics hard to change (Salet, 2018; Sorensen, 2015), resulting in barriers and tensions. However, Nederhand, Van der Steen, and Van Twist (2018) distinguished three boundary spanning strategies for aligning those institutional logics. These different strategies function as a framework of the approaches used by local context managers in planning practice.

3.4.1. Strategies for aligning institutional logics

These strategies are distinguished as entrepreneurial, mediation, and hierarchical strategy. Within these strategies, the capacities of boundary spanners, as formulated in section 3.2. will come back into play. As a reminder, boundary spanners are able to connect people and processes, select relevant information on both sides of the boundary and are able to translate this information (Van Meerkerk, 2014), which is all essential for the execution of the following strategies (Nederhand et al., 2018).

First, the *entrepreneurial* strategy focuses on finding creative approaches in contacting and connecting people and organizations within the network. Carefully selecting people to contact, carefully picking and avoiding conflicts and classifying relevant initiatives are testament to this strategy (Nederhand et al., 2018). In some way, this resembles the work of boundary spanners as synthesizers in a network; combining and adding perceptions in the search for new, creative ones to align diverging positions (Feldman & Khademian, 2007). Thereby it focuses on finding or creating windows of opportunity to handle and find common ground, which can be effective both before and after tensions are present in the network (Nederhand et al., 2018).

Second, the *mediating* strategy entails the search for common ground between actors, which can be done in two ways. It can be done through argumentatively persuading officials in showing the importance of bending rules to move beyond existing tensions, whereas it can also be done through trust-building and paying respect to everyone's position and opinions. In the end, the goal is to create a common understanding on which a collaboration can be based (Nederhand et al., 2018). In doing so, again characteristics of synthesizing boundary spanning activities are shown, as it clearly focuses on aligning each other's positions and building a collaboration out of it (Feldman & Khademian, 2007). The second approach to mediation also shows signs of translating boundary spanning activities, as it aims to make opponent's positions understandable for each other (Feldman & Khademian, 2007). As it combines different roles, mediating is often also applied in combination with the entrepreneurial

strategy as it takes both the argumentative side of mediating and the creative side of entrepreneurial to gain movement (Nederhand et al., 2018).

The last strategy, the *hierarchical* strategy, centres on breaking through processes with the help of leading managers. This approach is described as a last resort when conversations and processes are stuck. The strategy is considered to be effective, but undesirable for a sustainable relationship (Nederhand et al., 2018). Looking at the different roles boundary spanners can take up (section 3.2.), it is hard to compare this with being a broker, translator and synthesizer. Based on the description of this strategy, one could say that this strategy works when initial boundary spanning activities have failed or didn't work as planned. Nevertheless, the strategy is taken into account when analysing the practices of LCM.

3.5. Conceptual framework

Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of this study. The most important concepts, ideas, and theories are combined and visualized. The framework shows the tensions arising from the diverging entities in the relationship between the project team and the external stakeholders. These tensions are categorized according to the classification given in section 3.3., distinguishing performance, organizing, belonging and learning tensions (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013). These tensions are dealt with by the boundary spanner, who is part of the project team. In this study, this boundary spanning role is considered to be executed by a local context manager.
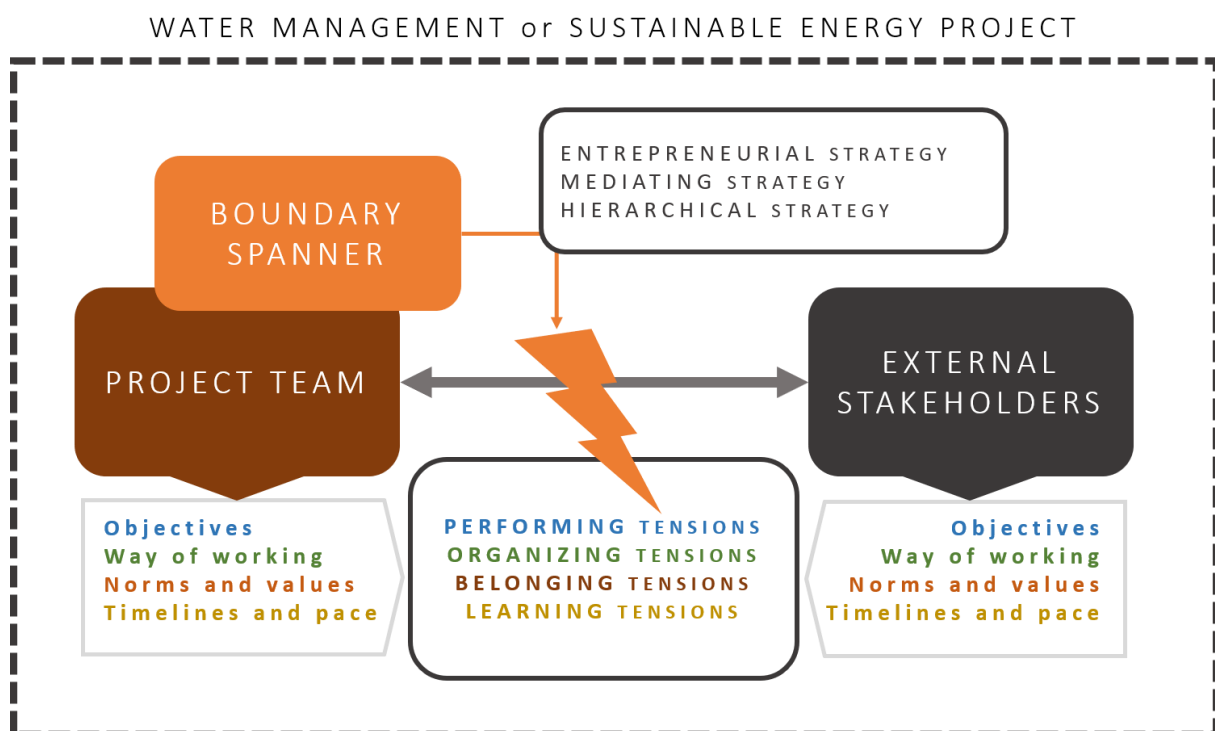

Figure 1 Boundary spanner dealing with tensions arising between the project team and the external stakeholders

4   Methodology

Following the chapters, that shaped the context and objectives of this study, chapter 4 will discuss the methodology. It will explain how the main research question of this study, and its sub questions, will be answered. Therefore, this chapter aims to clarify what is considered to be relevant data for this research and how this data is collected. Therefore, this chapter serves as a bridge towards the results in chapter 5 and chapter 6. In order to do so, this chapter discusses the research design (4.1.), the data collection and associated methods (section 4.2), and the recruitment of respondents (4.3) of this study. Furthermore, attention has been paid on the analysis of the gathered data (section 4.4.) and to conclude, the chapter elaborates on the ethical considerations of this methodology (section 4.5.).

4.1. Research Design

As section 1.3. has shown, this study aims to fulfil an advisory objective and an analytical objective. In short, the analytical objective focuses on gaining an understanding of the tensions local context managers experience and how they deal with these tensions. Second, the advisory objective focuses on drawing lessons from boundary spanning literature. To fulfil both objectives and answer the main research question, a mixed-methods approach is used with an emphasis on qualitative data collection methods. The methods used in this research will be further elaborated in section 4.2.

In order to identify the tensions local context managers, experience and to gain understanding in how they deal with these tensions, it is important to gain in-depth insights in how tensions implement themselves in projects, how they influence the project, and what they are about. Moreover, the totality of considerations needs to be understood and questioned in order to provide valuable recommendations for planning practice and further research. Furthermore, as far as known, this research is the first one in combining local context management and boundary spanning. The need to gain full and in-depth understanding and being able to develop new insights, opts for a qualitative research method (Flyvbjerg, 2006). This study therefore has a qualitative focus; however, it also makes use of quantitative methods. In order to compare boundary spanning literature with LCM, the experienced tensions by local context managers are classified as *performing, organizing, belonging, learning* or hybrid types of tensions. A quantitative method in the form of a Card Game, specifically developed for this study, is used to make this classification. This quantitative method is integrated within the qualitative research method, which will be explained in section 4.2.3.

4.2. Data collection

Within this section the different research methods are discussed. This study makes use of mixed methods, that increases the validity of the results of this study, as the subject of study is reviewed from different angles and perspectives. This approach is also referred to as *triangulation* (Clifford et al., 2010). This approach is used for this study as it enables doing qualitative and quantitative research simultaneously.

In total, four different methods have been used to answer the research questions: a literature review, exploratory interviews, semi-structured in-depth interviews, and a Card Game. The research methods will be discussed in more detail in the following sections. Furthermore, table 1 shows an overview of the relationships between the research methods, the research question and the value for this study.

		Which information	Value for research	Obtaining data + source	Chapter in study	Analysis
1.	How do boundary spanning and LCM relate?	Existing knowledge on boundary spanning, local context management, water management and environmental planning.	Providing a body of theoretical background for the research.	Exploratory interviews and university's search engines. Academic literature. (e.g. Wesselink, 2010; Van Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2018).	1. Introduction 2. Setting the scene 3. Theoretical Framework	Literature review.
		Insights in how boundary spanning and local context management are connected and comparable.	Providing an analytical framework for local context management, tensions and strategies.			
2.	What tensions are distinguished in boundary spanning literature?	Existing knowledge on and typologies of organizational tensions in boundary spanning activities.	Providing a categorisation of tensions, that provides a theoretical background for the interviews with local context managers in practice.	University's search engines. Academic literature (e.g. Smith & Lewis, 2011).	3. Theoretical framework, 4. Methodology, 5. Results: the tensions	Literature review.
3.	How are tensions being dealt with in boundary spanning literature?	Existing knowledge on approaches and strategies for dealing with tensions in boundary spanning literature.	Providing an analytical framework for the interviews with respondents and the analysis of results.	University's search engines. Academic literature (e.g. Nederhand et al., 2018).	3. Theoretical framework 4. Methodology 6. Results: the approaches	Literature review.
4.	Which tensions between the project team and the external stakeholders do local context managers experience and how do they deal with these tensions?	Insights in the tensions local context managers experience and their relation with the tension types from boundary spanning literature.	Providing empirical findings of tensions between external stakeholders and the project team, experiences by local context managers. This serves the analytical objective of this research.	Semi-structured interviews and the Card Game.	5. Results: the tensions 7. Conclusions and discussion	Transcripts, coding and descriptive statistics.
		Insights in the approaches used by local context managers in dealing with the tensions they experience.	Providing empirical findings of the approaches that are being used by local context managers to deal with the tensions they experience in planning practice. This serves the analytical objective of this research.	Semi-structured interviews.	6. Results: the approaches 7. Conclusions and discussion	Transcripts and coding.
5.	What lessons can local context managers learn from boundary spanning in dealing with tensions?	Insights in the competences of boundary spanners that can improve the approaches of local context managers in dealing with tensions.	Providing recommendations for the practice of LCM and further research of boundary spanning. This serves the advisory objective of this research.	Semi-structured interviews and Card Game.	7. Conclusions and discussion	Transcripts, coding and descriptive statistics.

Table 1 Relationship between research question, data collection methods and the value for this study

4.2.1. Exploratory interviews

Before this research was started, three exploratory interviews have been done with local context managers within Dutch planning practice. As LCM is largely a practice-oriented concept, the main objective of these interviews was to gather insights in the meaning of LCM, its approach, and its role within planning processes from a planning practice perspective. The exploratory interviews have been

very helpful in defining the scope and research orientation. Table 2 below shows some characteristics of the interviewees.

	Organisation	Sector	Project Phase
Interviewee I	Engineering Company	Infrastructure	Planning phase
Interviewee II	Construction Company	Infrastructure	Execution phase
Interviewee III	Consultancy Company	(Sustainable) Energy	Planning phase

Table 2 Characteristics interviewees of exploratory interviews

4.2.2. Literature review and analytical framework

Simultaneous with the exploratory interviews, a literature review has been conducted in order to create an understanding of the most essential concepts of this study. These are *stakeholder management, local context management, boundary spanning, network theory,* and *organization theory.* Articles have been found through literature databases facilitated by the University of Groningen, among which are SmartCat and Google Scholar.

By searching through keywords, a broad variety of articles has been gathered. Examples of important keywords are 'boundary spanning', 'stakeholder engagement', 'communicative planning' and 'network theory'. Within the articles resulting from these keywords, additional literature was found through *snowballing*. By distinguishing the most used and elaborated concepts, articles and authors, the literature review aimed to create a theoretical basis existing of the most essential knowledge. From this theoretical basis, more specified articles on stakeholder management, boundary spanning, organization theory and network theory have been found, in which the emphasis has been on tensions and approaches to deal with these tensions. This delivered an overview of the most relevant literature. The specified knowledge of boundary spanning has been the basis for the analytical framework that has been used for the empirical data of this study. Boundary spanning and organizational theory literature distinguished the tension types, and related approaches. These tensions and approaches function as comparison material for the experiences of local context managers.

4.2.3. Integrating mixed-methods in interviews

As mentioned earlier this section, qualitative and quantitative research methods have been combined and integrated. This enables the researcher to gather in-depth insights and qualify empirical experiences as tension types simultaneously.

In recent years a lot of researchers have investigated the integration of quantitative and qualitative research methods (e.g. Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013; Bryman, 2006). This approach is referred to as mixed-methods. There are several benefits and reasons to use a combination of research methods (Bryman, 2006). For this research, this is mainly *development* and *expansion,* as described by Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989, p. 259)*.* Development, as the quantitative research (Card Game) method delivers input for the qualitative method (Interviews). Moreover, both research methods expand each other's competency and reach (In-depth knowledge and quantifying knowledge).

Within this study, the quantitative method has been integrated within the qualitative method. This is done because of the possibilities it provided to integrate the results of the quantitative method directly within the qualitative method. Within the literature, this method is referred to as *questerviews*; an approach with both fixed questions and open questions, which combine the characteristics of both in-depth interviews and a survey (Adamson et al., 2004).

The both fixed and open structure provides the possibility to classify the tension types and provide in-depth knowledge on the ways local context managers deal with these tensions. For this research, this approach resulted into an in-depth interview with a semi-structured character. Within the interview a

short survey is used to classify as certain tension types. This survey is referred to as the *Card Game*. The content and design of both the interviews (4.2.4.) and the Card Game (4.2.5.) will be discussed in the following sections.

4.2.4. Semi-structured interviews

The interviews consisted of three components in which open questions were asked, visualized in figure 2. The most important benefit of this semi-structured character is the possibility to elaborate on new and surprising answers (Longhurst, 2010). This structure stimulated the search for new insights, as the focus of the interviews could always be placed on new information. Simultaneously, the fixed structure of components made the interviews comparable and made it possible to check whether certain answers found repetition among respondents.

The three components have their own focus and relevance for this study. The first component focuses on introducing the respondent, the water- or sustainability-related cases he or she works on, and their role as a local context manager in Dutch planning practice. The second part focuses on the tensions experienced by the local context managers. Per respondent, two or three concrete examples of tensions were discussed, in which elaboration took place on the relevant actors, the background of the tension, and the role of the tension within the project. The third section focused on the strategies of the local context managers for dealing with the tensions. Per concrete example, the goal of the approach, the steps towards that goal and the instrument used were discussed.

The Card Game was integrated into the second component of the semi-structured interviews. This Card Game will be explained in more detail in section 4.2.5. In preparation of the interviews, an interview guide has been made, which can be found in de appendices (appendix A).

Figure 2 Structure of in-depth interviews

4.2.5. Card Game

The Card Game is executed within the second component of the semi-structured interviews and focuses on the tensions local context managers experience in their daily practices. The main objective of the Card Game is to order the experienced tensions of local context managers into the tension types as discussed in boundary spanning literature (section 3.3.): *performing, organizing, belonging* and *learning tensions*, and to identify potential hybrid forms of tensions. The Card Game is partly based on the work of Martine de Jong (e.g. De Jong, 2018) and the researcher customized the approach for this study.

The definitions of the tension types from section 3.3. are used as preparation for the Card Game. The keywords, distilled from relevant literature, formed the content of the cards used for the Card Game. This delivered 16 cards with keywords. The relation between the keywords and the tension types is visualised in table 3.

The Card Game consisted of the following rules:

□ Respondents were not told about the relationship between the keywords and the tension types;

□ Respondents were allowed to choose four to six cards with keywords, best defining their experience of the tension;

□ Respondents were stimulated to follow their initial impression;

□ Respondents were able to select keywords with, to some extent, overlapping meaning (e.g. *different norms and values* and *fundamental principles*);

□ Respondents clarified their selection afterwards.

This delivered insights in the practical implications and occurrences of different aspects of tension types for planning practice. The range of four to six cards has been used to enable respondents to select keywords from multiple tension types.

Performing	Organizing	Belonging	Learning
Different objectives (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Rauws & De Jong, 2019)	Different cultures (Smith et al., 2013)	Different norms and values (Smith & Lewis, 2011)	Differences in pace of activities (Smith & Lewis, 2011)
Setting priorities (Smith et al., 2013)	Way of working (Smith & Lewis, 2011)	Sense of responsibilities (Smith et al., 2013)	Different timelines (Smith & Lewis, 2011)
Result-oriented (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013)	Structure of the organisation (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013)	Fundamental principles (Rauws & De Jong, 2019)	Being flexible (Smith et al., 2013)
Defining success (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013)	Difficulties in collaborating (Smith & Lewis, 2011)	Identity of actors (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013)	Innovation (Smith & Lewis, 2011)

Table 3 Relationship between tension types and keywords

Table 3 above is vital for this research, as it summarizes the existing knowledge on tension types in boundary spanning activities and serves as a framework for the analysis of the results. Therefore, the structure of the table will be followed in discussions of the results, chapter 5 and chapter 6.

4.3. Recruitment of Respondents

Recruitment of respondents has taken place in three different ways. First, relevant companies were contacted via the general contact details available on their websites. The internal communications sent me the contact details of the relevant local context managers. Second, the technique of snowballing has been used. Via contacts from my own network and other respondents, I got in touch with additional respondents. At last, a call-up has been placed on the social media platform LinkedIn. Via this medium for professionals it is possible to extend your network and spread your message across the network of your own contacts.

Participation is a two-way stream, which means that respondents not only need to be willing to participate, respondents also need to be relevant for the topic of this study. Therefore, certain conditions for participation have been made. These are based on the general topic of this research and on delimitations in the scope of this research (see sections 1.4.).

The conditions were as follows:

□ Respondents need to have experience in working as local context managers in Dutch planning practice;

□ Respondents need to have experience in projects related to water management or sustainable energy;

- ☐ The experience of respondents needs to be gained at private companies;
- ☐ Respondents need to have relevant experience in complex projects (projects with 10 or more stakeholders);
- ☐ Respondents need to have experience in the planning phase of the project.

Together with the respondents the conditions have been discussed and the decision to participate was made. This resulted in a flexible and smooth recruitment process. Due to the precisely directed search for respondents, only 3 potential respondents have not been involved in this research. In total, 17 local context managers have been interviewed. An overview of the respondents is presented in appendix D.

Those respondents all fit the conditions mentioned above and were working in Dutch planning practice on water management, sustainable energy or a mix of both specialisms. The researcher has found an agreeable balance between water management and sustainability. However, a remark has to be made on the condition regarding the private companies. Within the Dutch planning practice, engineering and consultancy companies are often contracted by governmental entities. Within projects, this blurs the line between private companies and private organisations. This means that this differentiation is less strictly applied.

4.4. Analysis

The interviews have been recorded and transcribed, presenting an accurate representation of the interviews. These transcripts have been shared with the respondents, so additions could be made and inaccuracies could be filtered out. Afterwards, the interviews were coded by open coding in coding program Atlas.ti. Open coding helps to find patterns and similarities between respondents (Hennink et al., 2011), which is necessary for categorizing the different tension types. Atlast.ti helped in structuring the interviews and codes and in delivering an overview of the data.

In coding the transcripts, both deductive and inductive codes have been used. Deductive codes were based on the literature on tension types from organization theory (section 3.3.). Moreover, deductive codes have been made in relation to the strategies for aligning institutional logics from boundary spanning literature (section 3.4.). These deductive codes helped to categorize the in-depth answers of respondents in tension types and strategies. However, the interviews have also produced additional data to the findings in boundary spanning literature. Therefore, on the basis of the experiences of the respondents, inductive codes have been made. These codes concern the tension fields the respondents experience, the approaches they use in dealing with tensions, and other additional findings. The inductive codes helped to find additions to the existing boundary spanning literature and the practice of LCM. Moreover, the inductive codes helped to further deepen the tension types and approaches local context managers use in dealing with tensions between external stakeholders and the project team. This is one of the benefits of inductive codes (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

Furthermore, the data was interpreted through merging, relating, and conceptualizing codes. The codes and relating codes where then processed in a hierarchical order, from general codes towards specific and concrete codes. The overview of codes and their relation is present in appendix E.

The results of the Card Game are analysed through descriptive statistics and have been processed in the following way. First, the keywords selected by the respondent were documented on a *tension type form* (see appendix B). Based on the forms, the number of keywords per tension type were documented in an Excel-table. Based on the number of keywords per tension types, combinations were made. For example, a tension field existing of the keywords *definition of success, setting priorities, different cultures* and *different timelines* has been processed as a hybrid tension type, showing aspects from the *organizing tension type* and the *learning tension type* with a dominance of the *performing tension type* (see table 3). This combination was then again documented in a new Excel-table.

All of the tensions experiences by local context managers have been processed this way, delivering an overview of the main focus on and the composition of tension types within the experiences of respondents. As the focus of this research has been on qualitative data, the numbers following from the descriptive analysis are not being published. The researcher does not consider this to add any value to the research and it would create false certainty. The descriptive statistics have been used to indicate the main tension type experiences by respondents.

4.5. Ethical considerations

Privacy of the respondents is considered to be of the upmost importance in this research. Honesty, trustworthiness, and discretion have been essential values. The data has only been used for the execution of the research. In order to do so, the gathered data was saved on personally protected devices and content has not been discussed with external parties.

To guarantee discretion for respondents, a consent form has been drafted. In advance to the interview, this consent form, together with the topics of the interview, was sent to the respondent. The content of this consent form can be found in the appendices (appendix C). All respondents have signed the consent form and have thereby agreed to the terms of participating in this research.

These terms were the following:
- □ Respondents were informed about content of the interview and were able to ask questions regarding this content;
- □ Participating is voluntary and respondents keep the right to withdraw at any time;
- □ Respondents agreed upon the gathering, storage and usage of the data from the interviews for the answering of the research questions of this research;
- □ Respondents were provided access to the data from the interviews at any time;
- □ The data of the interviews and the respondents themselves have been processed anonymously if desired;
- □ Respondents explicitly indicated that they wanted to participate.

As the majority of respondents indicated that they desired an anonymous processing of the data from the interviews, the researcher has decided to process all the data anonymously. The anonymous transcripts of the interviews have been sent to the related respondents, after which he or she could indicate desired changes. In correspondence with respondents, also quotes and comments were shared. This way, the researcher aimed to create a process based upon trust and transparency.

5   Tensions experienced in Dutch planning practice

This section focuses on the tensions between external stakeholders and the project team as experienced by local context managers in Dutch planning practice of water management and sustainable energy projects. In total, 32 exemplary tensions have been discussed with the respondents. Based on the Card Game, these exemplary projects are indicated as a tension type: performing, organizing, belonging, learning or hybrid tensions. The interviews have shown a predominance of hybrid tensions, in which aspects from the performing tension type tend to be overbearing. The following section provides more emphasis on the experiences of local context managers in relation with the tension types found in organization theory (section 3.3.).

5.1. Introduction of experienced tensions

The interviews and the Card Game resulted in some notable findings. First, the Card Game has shown that a lot of the exemplary tensions consist of aspects from two or more tension types. In other words, a lot of the exemplary tensions are considered to be hybrid forms of tension types. This shows the complicated nature of the tensions that local context managers experience. Second, within these hybrid forms, the local context managers have a tendency to focus on performing tensions. Often, the focus on performing tensions is combined with aspects from organizing and learning tension types. On the contrary, belonging tensions are less recognized by local context managers. More elaboration on this will take place from section 5.2. onwards.

The interviews have also shown that the tension types relate to the intensity of contact between external stakeholders and the project team. The belonging tensions concentrate on fundamental principles and norms and values (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Rauws & De Jong, 2019). In other words, belonging tensions are about personalities and about what defines an organisation and are therefore experiences as the most intense level of contact. On the basis of these norms and values, interests and objectives performing tensions rise up (Smith & Lewis, 2011). So, the level of contact in performing tensions lies on a more superficial level than belonging tensions. These interests form the basis of our structures and our focus on time, which relate to the organizing and learning tensions (Smith & Lewis, 2011). The learning and organizing tensions are therefore more superficial tension types and are experienced as the least intense level of contact.
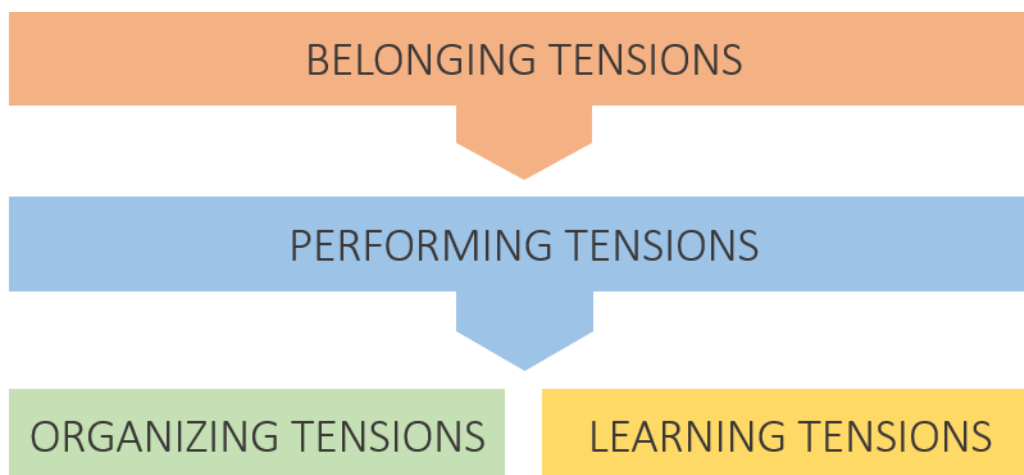

Figure 3 Relationship between tension types based on the interviews

This order in the tensions type shows how they relate to each other. The aspects of belonging tensions are about what defines a person or an organisation, while the organizing and learning tensions become present in their activities. Performing tensions lie in between these, as they are influenced by norms and values and influential activities. This order explains on which level local context managers make contact in dealing with tensions. Figure 3 visualizes the order of tensions types.

In order to understand the content and practical implications of the different tension types and hybrids, the following section discusses them separately. This is done on the basis of quotes from the respondents, visualizing the effect these tensions have on the project. Within this section, the order as shown in figure 3 is followed.

5.2. Belonging Tensions

As mentioned before, the belonging tensions are the least recognized tension type by local context managers in projects related to water management and sustainable energy. Simultaneously, figure 3 shows that this tension type reflects the deepest level of contact between stakeholders and the project team. In the literature, belonging tensions have been described as differences in *norms and values, sense of responsibility, fundamental principles* and *the identity of actors* (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013; Rauws & De Jong, 2019 and see section 3.3.2.).

The interviews have shown that belonging tensions arise when fundamentally different organisations or actors encounter each other. An example can be found in a project in which Rijkswaterstaat and fishermen came in conflict. This resulted in a clash of identity, influencing their way of working:

> *"Difference of identity: the blue Rijkswaterstaatmachine versus the small fishing community that neglects all kinds of regulation. They do not note their yield and do not inform where it goes. If they want to be compensated, they have to document their catch correctly, however, they do not. It is a special community, fishermen. So, it is a clash of identities. If you do not comprehend and deal with it in the right way, you face enourmous mismatch and a lot of tension."*
> **Respondent F**

This quote shows how the identity of an actor, in this case a fisherman, influences the interests and ways of working and can create tensions when they encounter a completely different organisation: Rijkswaterstaat, in this case. Although this clash of identities can be found in more examples, local context managers tend to focus on the level of interests: the performing tensions.

5.3. Performing Tensions

Aspects from the performing tension type has most often been recognized by local context managers, which entails a focus on interests and objectives between actors. Figure 3 shows that the performing tension stands between the norms and values, and the activities of actors and organizations. To recap, organization theory literature defines performing tensions as differences related to: *objectives, setting priorities, result-orientation* and *defining success* (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013; Rauws & De Jong, 2019 and see section 3.3.2.).

These elements come back in some exemplary situations. These situations originate from differences in interests and objectives, that become present in tension fields related to NIMBY and the ability to implement a stakeholder's objective.

5.3.1. Different interests and objectives

Let us begin with the differences in interests and objectives. Every respondent recognized this tension field and it touches, at least partly, on every tension field described by local context managers:

"It is about the interests of departments. They have policies for these interests, and they have objectives related to these interests. Then we come along with a project, and normally, if there are 8 departments, you can meet the interests of 6 of them. But for the other departments, the situation worsens. Roughly speaking, around 20% of the stakeholders will get a situation with they won't be happy. They have to take it and they have to be compensated. That is just a tug of war."
Respondent D

It is not hard to imagine how every organisation within a project's network serves and stands up for its own interests. Public organisations aim to serve the common interest, whereas private organisations are more money driven. Residents have their own personal interests that are more diverse, while the objectives of interest groups are often rather clearly formulated. There is often just one certainty: interests will always differ between parties. This mishmash of actors and interests creates interesting and dynamic tension fields regarding the success of planning projects. The quote underneath shows the dilemma that exists for a private party when involving local stakeholders:

"What makes the project a success story? It is not only about numbers, it is also about enabling people to participate, to think along, and to make people happy with the development. But, reasoning from the perspective of a private party, in terms of money, every solar panel that won't be developed, is a waste. That is the dilemma."
Respondent G

Often the interest of public organisations is connected to a certain sense of responsibility. For example, Rijkswaterstaat is responsible for the water safety of the Netherlands, which means that they are responsible for the maintenance and enforcement of dikes along the Dutch coastline and main rivers. This interest, which has a fundamental origin, often conflicts with personal interests of residents or specific interests from interest groups. The quote below shows a conflict between two governmental entities:

"An important tension field existed between technology and quality. Rijkswaterstaat thus stands for efficient measures: well manageable, low-cost, and conveniently constructible, versus the fear of the city: you are messing with my appearance, so it has to be good-looking. The city said: 'we want to be able to utilize the area for recreational usage', whereas Rijkswaterstaat is only interested in water discharge and safety."
Respondent P

Conflicts of interests not only arise between public and private organizations or citizens, tensions also arise between, or within public organizations. Often, this is due to conflicting objectives of policies and programs. An example from one of the respondents is the circular economic programme of a certain province in the Netherlands. The idea behind this programme is to use the superfluous resources of one project for another project: one project produces less waste, while the other project needs less new resources. However, the characteristics of both projects now create a situation in which the circular programme only produces more tensions. This shows how diverging internal objectives, influence the communication and collaboration with external parties.

"This tension is less focused on people and stakeholders, it has to do with the fact that when the province has a stretch of ground laying somewhere, it has to be processed over here. It has been examined by civil engineers, by environmental experts, but it is still foreign material. (…) This creates a tension of: 'why are we going to use foreign material in a project which is focusing on ecological objectives?'
Respondent B

So, in short, differences in interests are frequently present within spatial planning projects, generating one of the most recognized tension fields by local context managers. One last quote shows how deep interests are intertwined within organisations and to what extent it can, potentially, influence the planning process:

> *"A difference in objectives: flattened, our goal at this engineering company is to*
> *comply with the contract. Of course, we want to create a project of high quality,*
> *but that depends on the agreements within the contract. Our objectives are not the*
> *same as the objectives of a governmental entity. For them, the public image is way*
> *more important. That generates tension. We just want a smooth process and earn*
> *a good living out of it."*
> Respondent G

So, in short, the differences of interests and objectives are very visible within planning projects. This is in line with the findings in institutional, organizational and paradox theory (section 3.3.1. and 3.3.2.) The interviews have shown that these differences in interests exist between all kinds of parties and have a significant influence on the processes around projects. One of the ways these differences of interests become present is via the ability to implement stakeholder's wishes in a project.

5.3.2. Ability to implement stakeholder's interests

Logically, not implementing the wishes of stakeholders can lead to tensions. Still, there are several reasons for a project team to make this decision. Often, the decision is made because the stakeholders' wishes do not fit the project scope. In general, implementing a stakeholder's interest means something extra: money, time, and effort. Tensions then arise when the project team is not able to deliver these extra resources:

> *"The first tension arises when you say: 'great, but we are not going to take it.' Then*
> *they say: 'as a stakeholder, I want you to take it; otherwise I'm going to rebel*
> *against it!' However, the project team decides, that is the position you have."*
> Respondent F

This quote emphasizes the strong position of a project team: the project team has the position and the ability to decide. The tensions coming from this position relate to the line of argumentation that is used in clarifying that argumentation. Tensions arise when this line of argumentation is seen as being inappropriate. In the following example, a lobby club opposes very aggressively to the argumentation of the project team. Due to the link with the way of working, the example shows a connection with the *organizing tension* type:

> *"The lobby club has very short connections with the parliament and the media.*
> *Their way of working is focused on the public opinion. While we just want to create*
> *a project and reach a certain objective. That is a completely different way of*
> *working, which surprised us. We had a conversation with the lobby club and five*
> *minutes later I heard my own words on national television."*
> Respondent F

Furthermore, the interviews have led to another remarkable observation. According to the local context managers, the belief of really being involved is more important to stakeholders than the implementation of their wishes. In other words, making propositions as statements creates an opposing attitude of stakeholders, regardless of the quality of that proposal. The quote below explains this notion:

> *"Then, what is success? Literally, the environmental interest group said to me: 'this*
> *could be a fantastic result; however, due to the fact I wasn't there at the time, I am*
> *not able to judge.' So, it wasn't about the result, it was about the road towards*

that result. It could well be that when they were present during the negotiations and it resulted in a lower budget, that they would be more satisfied than they were now, because it was brought to them as an announcement."
Respondent C

The ability to implement a stakeholder's wish and the involvement of their input in the process is one of the ways performing tensions become present in planning projects. A different tension field arises around a well-known concept in sustainable energy planning: NIMBY.

5.3.3. Not In My Back Yard

NIMBY-projects: project objectives which are understood by everyone, but of which no one wants to experience the disadvantages (e.g. Dear, 1992; Wolsink, 2000). NIMBYs are special as they transcend the fundamental discussion of utility and necessity. It is about: why here, why me? Exemplary for such projects are wind energy parks. Everyone understands the necessity to stimulate the transition towards green forms of energy; however, no one wants windmills 'ruining' their view.

A lot of local context managers recognize this tension field within their projects. The quote underneath shows an apt explanation from the context of a dike enforcement project:

"In dike enforcements you can see it, as the body of the dike increases. (…) A stakeholder does not want a result. Safety, the main goal, that is what they want, but not the work, not the hinder. They do not want to see that you have to get through these work activities, this hinder, to get to the objective you both want. Thoughts differ around that topic. For people, the own interest is the greater good. That is their result."
Respondent C

The tensions around NIMBYs touch on a more fundamental discussion: the common interest versus the individual interest. This fundamental level shows a relationship between performing and *belonging tensions* within NIMBY-related tension fields. A striking example comes from another dike enforcement project, which was opposed by the residents of a small village behind this dike. According to the residents, their interests were harmed by the enforcement, while the enforcement took place to guarantee the water safety of an area with 1.8 million inhabitants:

"The mantra is a protected village site. What does that mean? Is it more important than dry feet behind the dike? Spatial jurisdiction makes no statement in this regard. The councillor has to make an assessment, which is hard. Everyone is inclined to choose for water safety, but what about the people of that village? Can 600 people, like a Gallic town, influence the water safety of 1,8 million people?"
Respondent N

Another quote from a different project, also water-related, adds to this:

"The tension field that relates to that is the tension field of the common interest versus the individual interest. Maybe even the local interest versus the national interest. The local interest of the city versus the safety of the whole of the Netherlands."
Respondent P

In conclusion, the interviews have shown the intertwining of performing tensions with the experiences of local context managers. According to the respondents, differences of interests and objectives are inevitable in planning and arise in between all kinds of parties. Furthermore, they become present in the implementation of stakeholder's wishes in the project and NIMBYs. Simultaneously, the tension

fields also show the relationship with other tension types, among which are belonging and organizing tensions.

5.4. Organizing Tensions

Aspects from the organizing tension type have often been indicated as a component of tension fields by local context managers. Figure 3 shows the influence of belonging tensions and performing tensions on organizing tensions. Also, the figure shows how organizing tensions become present in the activities of actors and organisations. From literature, organizing tensions are associated with differences in *culture, ways of working, structures of organisations* and *difficulties in collaboration* (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013; Rauws & De Jong, 2019 and see section 3.3.2.).

Thus, exemplary for the organizing tension type are the differences of structures and cultures between organizations and actors, which are often recognized by the respondents. Moreover, organizing tensions become present in the representation of stakeholders.

5.4.1. Organisational structures and cultures

The organisations involved within the Dutch planning practice have different structures and cultures, which results in different ways of working and decision-making processes. These differences can lead to tensions between parties involved in planning projects. The main tension related to this, is the relationship between public and private organisations:

> *"And, the way of working. This wind energy park is not a government: they are highly driven by money. So, they try to surprise you with financial claims and other charges. That results in a completely different way of working, which you have to get used to and which generates a lot of tension."*
> **Respondent F**

The differences in terms of culture and structure make it hard to collaborate, define shared interests, and work alongside each other. These differences between public and private organisations are highly related to their interests and objectives, thus related to the performing tension type. Governments act in the public interest, whereas private organisations pursue more financially related objectives. This means that, in general, private organisations aim to work more efficiently and effectively than public organisations. This dichotomy leads to tensions within spatial planning projects.

Another tension arises when citizens are confronted with public or private organisations. Within such situations, professional organisations and unprofessional citizens encounter each other and generate tensions. Especially since citizens become more assertive and aim to interfere within the processes (see section 1.1. and 3.1.). However, both actors still do not speak the same language, pursue different objectives, have a completely different perspective, and do not operate in the same playing field. This shows how this organizing tension relates to the *belonging tension* type. The quotation below shows the tension that arises from a discrepancy in procedural knowledge and the link with the level of belonging tensions:

> *"It is the identity of actors: they are residents with their own knowledge level and their own background. I have experienced situations in which they yelled at me and I got a tirade first. While, when I meet professional actors or internal colleagues, they are all professionals. That is another playing field, much more focused on the content. On the other hand, I have also been a local resident within a project and I understand their response. It feels like you are not being heard. A project team can treat you like you are silly, while actually you have a lot of knowledge about it."*
> **Respondent D**

Strongly related to the tensions arising due to different cultures of governments, private organisations and citizens is the problem of bureaucracy within governmental entities. Governmental organisations, especially on a national level such as Rijkswaterstaat, consist of several departments, all with their own focus and objectives. This bureaucratic jungle delivers a lot of tensions within planning projects:

> *"The structure of the organisation: Rijkswaterstaat has a lot of departments. They are partly advisors, partly testers, and partly external testers. Those are already three pillars. Then you have to get up three layers, to get to the person who has the mandate. While, in our organisation just the project manager has the mandate. Well, that generates tensions."*
> **Respondent D**

Planning projects are events in which several structures meet. This is evident and inevitable, however, still delivers tensions. One of the ways these different structures and cultures encounter each other, is when local context managers search for a right representation of stakeholders.

5.4.2. Representation of stakeholders

Before the stakeholders can be involved, according to the respondents, a good representation of the local stakeholders is essential. In some cases, this is easier said than done. Often this representation of residents is not organized and local and personal issues play a role between the representatives. Stakeholders such as local entrepreneurs are represented in their own way, with their own structures and organisation. These issues make creating a good representation a difficult job. The following quote makes use of the same exemplary tension about fishermen, as was discussed in relation to the *belonging tension* type:

> *"The structure of their organisation: partly associated with the lobby club for fishermen, partly not. Some were associated with a different club. So, their structure as a group of stakeholders – it was very strangely organized. It was hard to talk to someone. What is it worth what someone says? Is it on behalf of the whole club? And who are they?"*
> **Respondent F**

So, to recapitulate, the interviews have shown that organisations and individual actors have very different ways of organizing themselves, leading to different ways of working. Often, these cultures and structure clash when collaboration is needed. Furthermore, the interviews have shown a clear connection with the belonging and performing tension type. This connection can also be found in the last tension type: learning tensions.

5.5. Learning Tensions

Components of the learning tension type are clearly relevant in the experiences of local context managers. Together with the organizing tensions, figure 3 shows that learning tensions are influenced by belonging tensions and performing tensions and become visible in the activities of organisations and actors. In the literature, the learning tension type is defined as the result of differences in: *pace of activities, timelines, being flexible,* and *innovation* (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith et al., 2013; Rauws & De Jong, 2019 and see section 3.3.2.).

These aspects are indeed indicated by the respondents. The different timelines and paces of activities of actors reflect the ability of an actor to be flexible within a project.

5.5.1. Different timelines

Actors pursuing different timelines are recognized by the local context managers. Most often this relates to multiple projects within one area, executed by organisations with different agendas:

*"We are all working along each other, on the same dike. You try to share costs,
gain profit and prevent hinder. However, due to the speed with which they want to
work, collaboration is put aside."*
Respondent F

This shows a clear connection with *performing tensions* and also partly with *belonging tensions*. Private organisations tend to have a stronger focus on the short term, as they need to pursue success on the short term for making money. Public organisations tend to operate in between the long and short term: they want to guarantee a project result with high quality, while on the other hand retrenchments make them focus on faster and shorter project timelines. Residents seem to have a stronger focus on the long term, as the project touches on the area in which they are living and will be living in the future. Therefore, the timeline an actor pursues tends to be a reflection of the identity and the interests of an actor or organisation.

5.5.2. Stability versus flexibility

These differences in timelines affect the ability of an actor to take a flexible attitude in a process. A focus on the short term tends to provide an actor with more certainty, however, involving stakeholders regularly requires flexibility; implementing their wishes in the framework of the project. This is a tension field which is recognized by a lot of local context managers. Two quotes give striking examples of this tension field:

*"The natural response of the client is to cramp, holding on to the planning. Holding
on to the systems, the rules, and the means, results in us being busy with the
compliance of rules and procedures, instead of focusing on the content of the
project. What is it really about? (…) We think: 'great, we are going to talk about the
goal of the project and the most sufficient way to get there.' But no, you have to
comply with the agreements in the contract and fill in the system. That is a very
important tension field."*
Respondent D

*"It is indeed about 'daring'. (…) In a different project, related to a freeway, I was
hired by Rijkswaterstaat, so I know how this organisation works. And it is really
about certainty. That is very important for a governmental entity. Also, for us of
course, but sometimes you need to stick your head out."*
Respondent B

As the quotes show, the stability is often locked up in procedures, rules and contracts. These factors limit the flexibility of a project team to move along with local stakeholders. Another remarkable aspect is the need for stability, which is often referred to as rigidity by the local context managers. This tends to be mostly present in governmental entities. This shows a connection with performing tensions and belonging tensions, as mentioned before.

5.6. Hybrid Tension Types

As has been discussed before and has become clear in the discussion of the tension types, the different types are very much related to each other in the experiences of the local context managers. This resulted in finding a lot of hybrid forms of tensions types.

Within these hybrid tension types, a tendency towards a combination of performing tensions, organizing tensions and learning tensions is found. Looking at figure 3, this means that the tensions lie in a difference of interests that become clear in differences of structure and differences of timelines. There are several clarifying examples of these hybrid tension types, starting with densely located projects in one and the same area.

5.6.1. Areas frequently subject to spatial planning projects

In the Netherlands, certain areas are very frequently subject to projects. Especially in terms of water projects, a new project is often not the first one in that area. This means that the experiences of the past influence the process of the new project. This tension field is often recognized by the local context managers:

> *"Within the projects I am working on, especially within the 'wet' infrastructure, you are not the first project on that location. So, you always have to deal with a group of stakeholders that have had negative experiences in the past, which will influence their intuitive attitude towards the new project. The main tension lies there."*
> Respondent D

Based on the history, there are four main tensions to be distinguished. First, there is a lot of interdependency between projects. This is because of their location near important rivers, big lakes, or alongside the coastline. Renovation of dikes and innovations in water storage make these locations a hub of working activities. This is stimulated by the increasing wind and solar energy parks being developed in water bodies. So, the working activities will increase even more:

> *"Within this small area, the last 15 years, 10 projects have been executed. That is one of the main issues around here."*
> Respondent D

The second issue stems from the small world of spatial planning in the Netherlands. Local context managers indicate that this creates a small network in which the same people, from the same organisations are meeting each other over and over again whenever a new project starts. People within this network build a relationship with each other, which affects the relationship between organisations. According to the local context managers, this relationship is influenced by the experiences of the past. Provoking each other for the sake of one project will therefore influence the process of a new project. Following the reasoning of nuanced contingency theory, the fit with the environment should be maintained longer than for one project only (Zuidema, 2016). As a local context manager, you have to deal with the historical background of these relationships and take into account the future of relationships.

Third, the processes of a project can take a very long time. Some projects have a time span – filled with appeal and conflict – of more than 20 years. Typically, this influences the stakeholder's involvement; however, it also creates tiredness of participation:

> *"We went to have a look, had conversations with everyone who wanted to talk. This was very intense. And that is when we experienced the participation-tiredness. They have been busy with each other, for years."*
> Respondent N

In short, negative events from the past have an influence on the relationships local context managers have to deal with. Local context managers work on a project-basis, which means they often operate temporarily, which makes dealing with this history rather tricky. Especially, when they were not involved in the matter at the time, but have to deal with it anyway:

> *"Changing halfway through the project towards an open attitude? No one will believe you. You will be way too late."*
> Respondent H

Operating in an area with a lot of interdependent projects also means that projects will have a lot of interfaces with current projects, in which different interests and structures will encounter each other. Multiple projects influence the local stakeholders, as they have to focus on not just one project, but

multiple. Furthermore, it influences the different project teams as they share the area under development. The following quotes give an expression of this tension field:

"It is quite bizarre. One person lived exactly on the interface of the two projects. So, he had to deal with two local context managers from two different project teams. It drove him crazy."
Respondent H

(From an example of dike enforcement):
"Well, another tension field arose with the wind energy park. That project team is building 90 windmills in this lake and they have to get an energy cable through the dike. That's an interface. So, we had to make agreements about it"
Respondent F

Within this exemplary tension, the mix of different tension types becomes visible. Within the densely located projects, different interests have to be implemented. Not only those of the project team and external stakeholders, but also between different project teams. This provides an extra dimension to the performing tension aspects. Moreover, within this area, different organisations have to do working activities, which have to be aligned. The same thing goes for the different timelines. Therefore, these examples show how interdependent projects lead to interdependent tension types: hybrid tension types. A different example of these interdependent tension types can be found in the orientation of the project team on the local context, which shows a more organisational dimension of a hybrid tension type.

5.6.2. Orientation of the project team on local context
The project team is essential for a good stakeholder involvement, as the local context manager needs the support from his or her project team members to be able to implement the wishes and needs of local stakeholders. This combination of internal and external relationships relates to the success factors of boundary spanning in section 3.2.4.:

"That's the story of: do we have the right people and do we have enough understanding of the assignment? That is essential for the success of a project. Sadly, I have experienced projects in which this has failed completely. Just because of the team, it became a big failure. Then there is only one conclusion: get out, because there is not enough space within the team. Too little understanding for each other, which means you can't express what you want. You just black out."
Respondent H

Therefore, one of the main tension fields appointed by the local context managers is a lack of support for local orientation by the project team members. Local context managers name a number of exemplary projects in which the involvement of local stakeholders was hindered by the lacking sensitivity of their own project team members towards local stakeholders' interests. In the following section, some general notions regarding this lacking sensitivity can be made.

Generally, projects focusing on mainly technical problem definitions are subject to this lacking sensitivity. Examples are enforcements of dikes and preparatory works for energy parks. Historically, these projects have often been executed by project team members with an engineering way of working, which was mainly expert-driven, similarly to the developments within spatial planning, towards the communicative turn (section 3.1.). Although a change has happened and is still happening in this sense, almost all of the local context managers recognize this tension field. The quotations below aptly describe this:

"This company is a good example. Originally this is a technical organisation, a monopolist. Often, I have encountered an attitude of: 'we have designed

something, from a technical perspective and that is the way to do it.' And then they come to me: 'explain it to the people.' That's a role which I will pass on. Then you're something like a sponge, a bumper."
Respondent C

"This attitude is still present: 'we know how it works.' The added value of the surrounding environment is not yet in the minds of the technical designers. It is getting better, but we are not there yet."
Respondent G

Within technical projects the lacking sensitivity thus stems from a habitual behaviour, a way of working. So, the transition towards more integral and communicative approaches is still under way. However, there are also several other reasons, such as time and money issues.

A good example*e is the 'Flood Protection Programme' from Rijkswaterstaat and water boards, in which the mantra 'sober and efficient' is essential. 'Sober and efficient' means that only the most essential measures to guarantee water safety will be financed. Logically, this leaves less space for stakeholder involvement. In this example we already see a strong internal focus, namely, the relationship between the client and the contractor.

5.6.3. Client-contractor relationship

The relationship between the client and the contractor seems to focus merely on the internal tension fields, however, the relationship between the contractor and the client affects the external relationships to a great extent. Contracts and agreements are leading aspects in spatial planning projects. In other words, the contract defines the involvement of stakeholders in the planning process:

"The contract with the client for the project determines the success of your local context management. Clients who want to arrange the intensity of local context management determine to a great extent the success rate of your project. A planning phase, in which no local context manager is involved, is doomed to fail. Projects without enough space to let a local context manager do his or her job: doomed to fail."
Respondent H

In some projects, the relationship between the client and contractor is so determinative, that the client feels like an external actor. This increases the difficulties around the relationship:

"For a lot of projects – how I see it – your client feels like an external actor. And whenever a client is a governmental entity, bluntly formulated: they are many-headed monsters. For example, the canal development: I have 50 stakeholders, of which 15 are professional parties and 8 are within governmental organisations. They all have their own interest and departments and that is where a lot of tensions do arise."
Respondent D

Within this example, again, performing tensions, organizing tensions, and learning tensions come together. Moreover, the tension field shows how the internal relationships can affect the involvement of external stakeholders. This provides insights in the internal effect of the different tension types. Another internal dimension is given by the example of changing storylines.

5.6.4. Changing storyline

As a local context manager, the story you tell to the local stakeholders is essential for the emergence of tensions. The story needs to be clear, be well argued and most of all: the story should never change without a clear and correct explanation. Or, in other words:

"Tensions arise when there is vagueness. I cannot tell you otherwise."
Respondent H

Sometimes the changing storyline stems from new insights, due to technological or knowledge-driven developments. These changing storylines are explainable. According to the local context managers, tensions arise when a changing storyline stems from administrative choices, that are 'incomprehensible' for residents or other local stakeholders. These tensions result splitting the local context manager between his or her project team and the external stakeholders. This leads to the following situations:

"From the central organisations, underlying the project, a decision was suddenly withdrawn. We had to tell. They wanted to send a letter, but I refused. I have been there three times; we came to a good understanding and now we are turning it back. I said: 'we have to go there, however, I am not going to defend it, sell it. (…) Someone from the central organisation is going with me and he is going to explain it to the people.' (…) I fundamentally disagreed with it and I am not going to tell a story which I do not believe. I am not going to defend that."
Respondent C

The quote shows how the internal dimension touches on aspects from the belonging tension type: the fundamental principles and norms and values of the external stakeholders, the project team, and the local context manager. Moreover, it shows how the structure of the project team and the external organisations encounter each other and influence the tensions between both parties. In short, another example of a hybrid tension type.

5.6.5. Political pressure or changes

A very important component of Dutch spatial planning is politics. This seems to be an odd man out, as it can be seen as a contextual component of planning, that is not influencing the tensions between external stakeholders and the project team in a water or sustainable energy project. However, the local context managers have indicated the political pressure and developments as an important source for tensions.

Every spatial planning project is assessed by the municipality council, the provincial executive or the national parliament. The respondents indicate the political bodies as an extra client, as these political decision-making bodies are essential for the continuation of spatial planning projects. This political component can become relevant when the political developments touch on the characteristics, or objectives of the project.

Tensions arise when politics are used by opponents of the project to oppose against the project. A great example is the problems around nitrogen and PFAS within the Netherlands in 2019, which caused delays and shutdowns of construction projects:

(About the interference of environmental organisations within a circular economic project):
"It would be merely about nitrogen and PFAS. (…) That you would have equipped a whole depot of ground to use over here and that PFAS comes in between. Whenever it is tested negatively, you have been equipping that depot for years and you won't be able to use it. That highly influences the complete picture."
Respondent B

Important is the capriciousness and influenceability of the political decision-making process. Political actors tend to listen to their voters, have a strong public focus, and anticipate to societal developments. This results in a game in which political bodies are being used by external stakeholders and project teams to ensure their own interests. On a national level, lobby clubs play an important role, whereas on a local level, politicians are accessible for everyone. For local context managers this is an important tension: they have very little influence on the political capriciousness, while the influence of politics on decision-making is huge:

"There was one very progressive municipality: 'Welcome green energy! We are going to realize it within our municipality!' However, the political coalition lost an enormous number of seats because of that policy. A different party has won six seats by opposing against it. Then it becomes political. In the end, an alderman of that party had to realize the wind energy objectives. He didn't want to do it."
Respondent C

"Politics is very important; we experienced that in the last phase of the planning. We thought it was done and out of our hands, and then the line between residents and councillors turned out to be very direct and short. We thought it went well: we organized an inspection with councillors, residents and the project team, to take away the tension. And, we thought we did. (…) It is a great example of how such a project can become very political in two days: within the weekend a lot had happened and on Monday the whole project collapsed."
Respondent L

In short, the political component of planning is essential for the work of local context managers. Due to the contextual character of politics, it is hard to define it in terms of tension types. Nevertheless, based on the interviews, the tension field is seen as a hybrid tension type: it shows characteristics of performing tensions and organizing tensions. First, the political decision-making bodies serve the common interest, whereas the project team and the external stakeholders have a strong focus on their own interest. Moreover, the decision-making structure of political bodies is happening through political parties and therefore differs per municipality and province. The local context managers indicate that both characteristics make the political decision-making process very unpredictable and unstable. This makes the political the last example of a hybrid tension type.

5.7. What tensions do local context managers experience?

The analysis of the interviews has shown a focus on hybrid tension types, in which aspects from the performing tension type tend to be dominant. Respondents recognize the diversity of objectives, interests and definitions of success in the planning context of water management and sustainable energy, which is also acknowledged in literature (e.g. Newcombe, 2002; Pomeroy & Douverre, 2008 and see section 3.1.). As mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, the different tension types relate to each other in terms of the level of contact between actors. The quotes have further clarified this relationship: the interviews have shown that differences in interests do not become present on their own. The different interests tend to become visible in the differences in structure and culture and the differences in timelines and pace of activities. In other words, the organizing tension type and the learning tension type tend to be experienced by local context managers as occurrences of performing tensions and belonging tensions. The approaches used by local context managers for dealing with tensions clarify this finding. Therefore, more elaboration on this will take place from section 6.1. onwards.

Looking at the composition of the hybrid tension type, the performing tension type is thus most dominant, followed by the organizing tension and learning tension types. Figure 4 shows a schematically average composition of the hybrid tension types, as experienced by the respondents in

this study. Looking at the figure, it should be acknowledged that it is an indication and not a representation of absolute numbers and aims to visualise the relationship between the experiences of the respondents and the tension types.
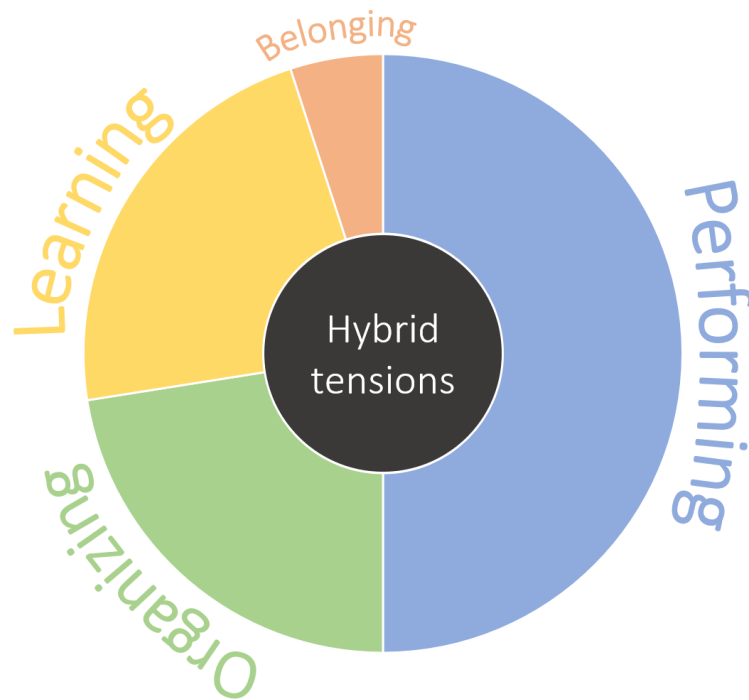

Figure 4 Indicative composition of average hybrid tension type, based on the interviews

The interviews have made it clear that the belonging tension type is least experienced by local context managers. The analysis of the interviews has shown that the belonging tension type is sometimes recognized as one of the aspects of a tension field, however, local context managers indicate that norms and values and fundamental principles run too deep to be addressed in a planning project. The sections 6.1., 6.2. and 6.3. show how this small role for belonging tensions can be explained.

Another important notion coming from the tension types is the important role for the internal component of the project team, including the organisational structure, the local orientation of the project team, and the client-contractor relationship (sections 5.4.1., 5.6.2. and 5.6.3.). The examples from the local context managers show to what extent the contract influences the amount of stakeholder involvement. Contracts define the budget, timeline and the objective of the project. In short, if the client and the contract do not leave any space for stakeholder involvement, the influence of stakeholders on the project will be minimal. Therefore, the contracts and structure of the client and the project team can be an important caveat to the practice of LCM. This notion is essential for understanding the approaches local context managers use in dealing with the different tension types.

6 Approaches used in LCM in dealing with tensions

The interviews have shown that local context managers deal with tensions in two different ways: involving stakeholders to smoothen the project, and involving stakeholders to improve the quality of a project's end-result. These two ways of dealing with tensions correspond with two approaches, which in this study are used as two opposites: strategic local context management (SLCM) and a 'two-legged'-approach. The interviews show a dominance of the SLCM approach; however, some respondents tend to operate in between both approaches. Very few respondents tend to focus on the two-legged approach alone. So, although the interviews show some variation, the SLCM approach tends to dominate. The next section briefly explains and compares both approaches, starting with the SLCM-approach.

6.1. Introduction of SLCM and Two-legged approach

Both approaches for dealing with tensions have some characterising properties. The SLCM approach is rather linear and project-driven. The local context managers perceive the approach easily implementable and successful within a project-scope. Essential aspects of the SLCM approach are issues, interests and mutual gains. Contrary, the Two-legged approach tends to be more open, non-linear and deals with tensions in a process-based way. The approach is not perceived easily implementable in a project-scope and pays less attention to timelines, budget and efficiency. The approach is based on intense contact and adding value for the local environment. The approaches will briefly be explained in sections 6.1.1. and 6.1.2.

An important remark has to be made in relation to the number of respondents related to the 'two-legged'-approach. The interviews have shown a dominance of the SLCM-approach, which means that the 'two-legged'-approach is far less operationalized. This affects the number of respondents in support of this approach, showing a more one-sided perception compared to the broadly shared perception from the SLCM-approach.

6.1.1. The SLCM approach

The interviews have shown a tendency towards the SLCM approach. A lot of components of this approach are used in dealing with tensions between the external stakeholders and the project team. In short, the SLCM approach can be explained as a combination of issue management and stakeholder management, which operationalizes the Mutual Gains Approach (see section 1.1.). The approach is based on the work of Marc Wesselink (e.g. Wesselink, 2010). The interviews have shown that SLCM tends to be executed as a 'one size fits all'-approach to LCM, which shows a strong focus on smoothening the processes around projects and fulfilling the objectives of a project.

The SLCM approach deals with tensions through four consecutive steps: preparation, analysis, execution and monitoring (Wesselink, 2010). These steps show a rather linear approach to LCM. The steps of SLCM aim to identify issues, clarify the stakeholder's interest in the issue and eventually 'increase the cake'. Issues are considered to be the topics which will probably lead to conflicts with external stakeholders. An example of such an issue could be the influence of windmills on the view of residents. The main stakeholders are then identified on the basis of these issues. According to the local context managers, identifying stakeholders this way creates a better overview of relevant stakeholders for the project. Subsequently, based on the issues identified, the interests of the stakeholders are clarified (Wesselink, 2011). The interest of the stakeholder will determine to a great extent how the

stakeholder is involved in the process. Figure 5 shows the 'golden triangle' of SLCM, which is formed on the place where the interests of the external stakeholder and the project team meet (in this figure the pink triangle). By combining both interests, thus finding mutual gains, the process can succeed, following the reasoning of SLCM (Wesselink, 2010). Due to the focus on interests, less attention is paid to the levels of positions and norms and values.
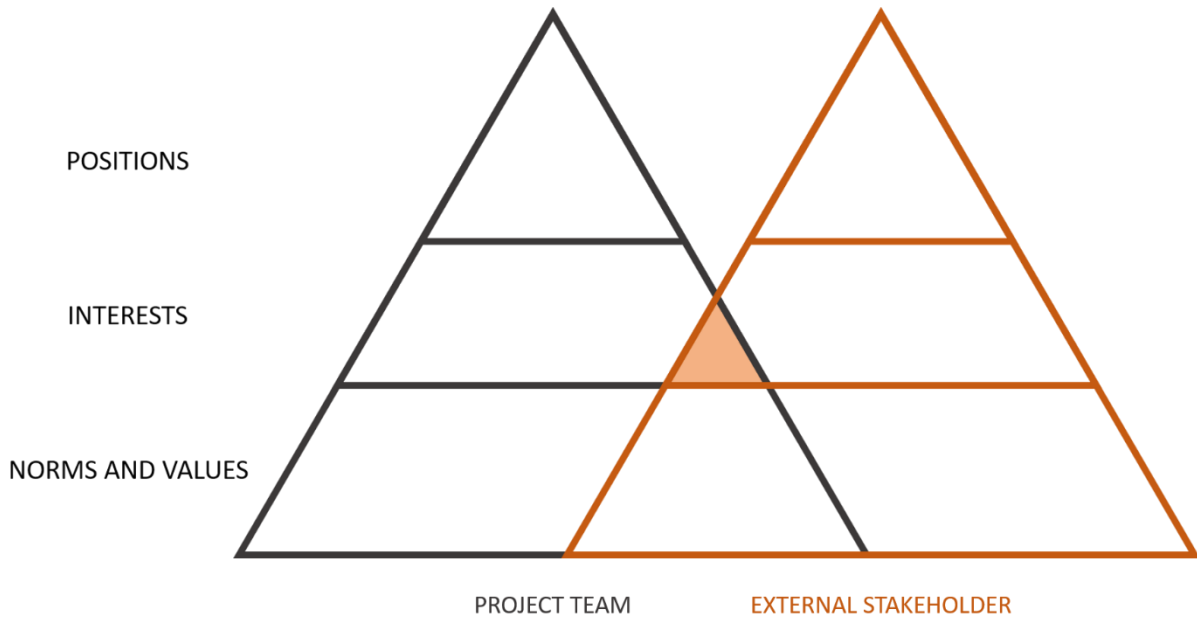

POSITIONS

INTERESTS

NORMS AND VALUES

PROJECT TEAM   EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDER

Figure 5 The 'golden' triangle: the interface of interests from the project team and external stakeholders (Wesselink, 2010)

The dialogue of finding mutual gains is referred to as 'increasing a cake': increasing the added value of a project (the cake) by adding more pieces. The perceived disadvantages of a project are compensated by pursuing multiple goals and add objectives to the initial project. An example can be the development of a nature reserve to compensate for a windmill-park. Increasing the cake therefore aims to find space and support for implementing the project. In other words, by identifying issues, interests, the relevant stakeholders and mutual gains, the SLCM approach aims to solve tensions and facilitate the continuation of the project.

6.1.2. The two-legged approach

The opposite approach to LCM is called the 'two-legged'-approach. This name is borrowed from the work of Martine de Jong (2018), which among others stands on the basis of this different perspective. The approach shows a much more open approach. Therefore, it is far less structured than the SLCM-approach and uses the uncertainties of the project as input for the creative process in the planning phase. The approach thus shows a focus on involving stakeholders in order to improve the quality of the project.

Contrary to the SLCM approach, the two-legged approach does not exist out of consecutive steps but consists of some main values. The project team members and stakeholders need to be involved in these values, which opts for an intense level of contact. In this section, these values will briefly be discussed in relation to working on *two legs*. The 'two-legged'-approach consist of an internal *and* an external focus, smoothening the process *and* improving the quality of the project, and finally, finding similarities *and* maintaining differences. In short, the two-legged approach shows a dual focus, instead of a linear and project-driven focus.

According to the respondents, creating an open process with external stakeholders needs a facilitating project team and internal organisation. A project team needs acknowledgement of the value of the

local environment in the success of a project. As was already shown in section 5.6.2., the local orientation of the project team can lead to tensions. In short, the two-legged approach strongly needs that internal support for local orientation in order to be successful. Moreover, the two legs also show a dual focus on both smoothening of the project and creating support and simultaneously using the local context as input for the creative process for the project. Tensions are not merely perceived as obstacles, but as sources for creativity and innovation. This is explained by the following quote:

"Of course, sometimes a project is so well-defined, so narrow, then you need the fast approach. However, the fast approach results in a lot of project managers tending to exclude uncertainties and vagueness as fast as possible. But, lingering in that vagueness, lingering in that 'unknowing', can help a lot. It is a vagueness coefficient. The vaguer the project, the more you need someone who spans the boundaries. Because that is what you are doing."
Respondent Q

The 'two-legged'-approach also works with differences and similarities, as the approach beliefs that differences between actors can improve the process and the project. Differences between actors can create several forces, several strengths and several qualities within the project, moving away from a belief of merely finding similarities. So, similar to lingering in the uncertainties and vagueness of a project, also lingering in the differences between actors can also improve the project. An example from a respondent showed a combination of the thoroughness from Rijkswaterstaat and the local interest of a municipality, creating a successful formula: combining the strengths of both parties. Respondents emphasize that in a lot of projects, differences are avoided or neglected. The focus then is on finding similarities. Contrary, the 'two-legged'-approach shows how utilizing differences can lead to unexpected success.

An essential aspect of the two-legged approach is the focus on learning objectives, instead of performance objectives. Having performance objectives means that a project can succeed or fail, without any middle ground, while having learning objectives means that failure is part of the learning process. Experimenting, trying and failing is therefore part of the development of an organisation and a project. This perception opens up possibilities to approach tensions differently, innovate and produce unprecedented outcomes.

6.2. Relating the approaches and tension types

The two approaches to LCM show a diverging focus on tension types. The interviews have made clear that the SLCM-approach pays a lot of attention to performing tensions, whereas two-legged local context managers indicate a broader focus, including belonging tensions. The dominance of the SLCM-approach in the interviews therefore explains the prominent role of performing tension types in this study.

Underlying the preference for interests that lie on the basis of the SLCM-approach, is the distinction of norms and values, interests and positions of stakeholders and the project team (figure 5). As mentioned before, according to SLCM-practitioners, success can be found on the level of mutual interests. Figure 5 shows SLCM pays less attention to the level of positions, because these are too superficial, whereas making contact on the level of norms and values is too complicated:

"If you got those triangles and move them together: norms and values, that is just to complicated. You cannot dwell on that, that is too hard. However, looking at the interests, the layer above it, then you can see that you will first connect on the level of interests, before you connect on the level of positions. (…) If we are talking about positions and opinions: you have an opinion, I have an opinion and then I have to convince you of my opinion. That is a lot of work! While, if I ask you: what is your

The quote shows how deeply intertwined the system and ideology of the SLCM-approach is with the practice of LCM. Moreover, it shows how the approach affects the focus of local context managers on tension types. The strong position of the ideology makes practitioners of the SLCM-approach overlook other tension types.

This can be explained by the relationship between tension types. As was mentioned in chapter 5, the different tension types exist in a certain order: learning and organizing tension types relate to our activities and lie less deeply than the performing tension type. If this order is compared to the triangles of the ideology of the SLCM-approach, it can be explained why the learning and organizing tension types are less recognized by local context managers. When the triangles of SLCM (figure 5) and the tension types are combined, the relation between the approach and tension types becomes visible. Figure 6 shows how the learning and organizing tension types form the top of the triangle, while the performing and belonging tension types form the middle and basis of the triangle.
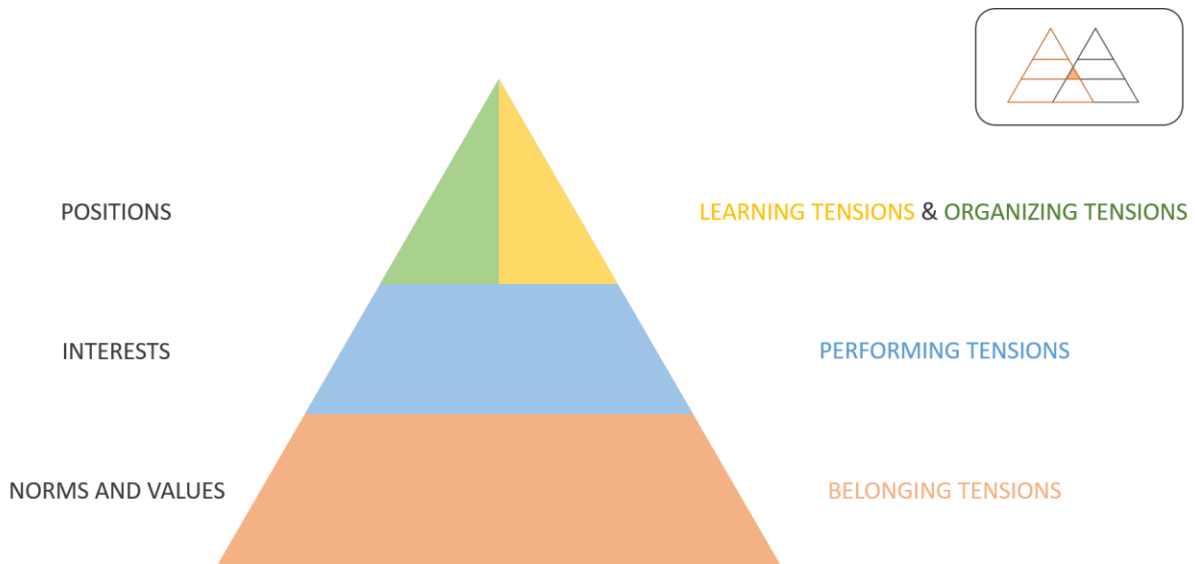
POSITIONS

LEARNING TENSIONS & ORGANIZING TENSIONS

INTERESTS

PERFORMING TENSIONS

NORMS AND VALUES

BELONGING TENSIONS

Figure 6 Integrating the tension types into the triangles of the SLCM approach (figure 5)

In short, the belonging tension type lies too deep and is overlooked, and the organizing and learning tension type follow from the level of interests, which makes them less interesting than performing tension type and neglected.

Contrary to the SLCM-approach, the two-legged approach shows a broader focus on tension types, which means that the approach more specifically includes belonging tensions instead of performing tensions. Section 6.1.2. has shown that contact on an intense level is important to successfully operationalize the two-legged approach. Therefore, the two-legged approach shows more variety in tension types to deal with and tends to make contact on the level of norms and values.

This remark stems from the idea that tensions carry a certain value, which should be implemented in the project: tensions in projects generate new ideas, new insights and innovation, which can lead to more value for the project and the local context. On the other hand, from a SLCM-perspective, tensions are mainly seen as obstacles for successfully implementing a project. For them, only performing

tensions are relevant and worthwhile. This means that two-legged local context managers tend to be more actively looking for other tension types than SLCM-local context managers.

The attitude of SLCM-practitioners towards tensions shows the project-focus of the approach. Tensions are seen as obstacles, which means that they have to be dealt with in order to continue with the project. The example of increasing a cake (section 6.1.1.), involving stakeholders and adding value, is used to push the project through: adding more pieces, so it becomes too good to refuse. The example shows how the decision of what the end-result of the project has to be, is already made in an early stage: a cake. The only thing stakeholders are involved in is the topping. Two-legged local context managers move away from this way of working and describe their approach as creating a recipe together in which the project-goal is just one of the ingredients: the appearance does not matter, as long as the main objective is achieved. The quote underneath aptly describes this notion:

> *"It moves beyond the interests of the water board; it is about the interest of the whole area. I hope the programme contains projects about recreation, and nature, which will form the main objective and make my water safety objective a spin-off product. Because I think it is a spin-off: the area has to be safe, but it is not the most determining factor of the area. (…) So, if you do it differently, you can say: 'I insert jam, in the recipe, but I do not know if it becomes a cake or bread'. As long as it contains jam, as that is what I need."*
> **Respondent Q**

In short, both approaches tend to have a different relationship with the tension types. These differences can be explained by comparing the approaches with boundary spanning literature and their underlying beliefs.

6.3. Clarifying the difference between SLCM and Two-legged approach

The differences between the two approaches relate to the different roles and strategies in boundary spanning literature, as discussed in section 3.2. and 3.4. Boundary spanning literature distinguishes three roles: a broker, a translator and a synthesizer. A short recapitulation shows that a broker aims to identify obstacles in a network, a translator aims to cross bridges by distributing and 'translating' information among actors and a synthesizer aims to combine different perspectives in order to find new ideas (Feldman & Khademian, 2007). Institutional literature also distinguishes three strategies for aligning different institutional logics, as classified in section 3.4.: entrepreneurial, mediating, and hierarchical. Their definitions show that the entrepreneurial strategy aims to connect actors through creative and innovative approaches (Nederhand et al., 2018), which tends to connect with synthesizing boundary spanners. The mediating strategy aims to find a common understanding in order to develop collaboration (Nederhand et al., 2018), which tends to connect mainly with translating boundary spanning activities, but also shows some synthesising components as it aims to align different actors. The last strategy, the hierarchical, aims to create a breakthrough in processes which are stuck by scaling up the tension to higher ranked managers (Nederhand et al., 2018).

Two-legged local context managers tend to operate as synthesizers, working with an entrepreneurial strategy. They aim to create more value from the project for the local environment, with the help of creative and open approaches. In other words, they try to align different actors to generate innovation. Local context managers working with the SLCM-approach tend to operate as brokers and translators, making use of a mediating and sometimes hierarchical strategy. Their objective is to create support for the project by finding common ground and understanding. Their focus on negotiating and legal procedures also shows some aspects from the hierarchical strategy (section 3.4.). Therefore, local context managers working according the SLCM-approach tend execute boundary spanning activities more narrowly than two-legged local context managers.

On the basis of both approaches tends to lay a fundamental difference in beliefs. SLCM stands for a belief in a standardized approach, aiming at efficiency and effectivity, which guarantees an amount of certainty for the project and the internal organisation. The approach certainly shows aspects from boundary spanning, however, also shows a connection with classical stakeholder management and an instrumental approach to stakeholder involvement and planning (e.g. Zuidema, 2016; Newcombe, 2002). Contrary to this *one size fits all* belief lies a strong belief in customization and implementing personal strengths into a project, which connects with the two-legged approach. The two-legged approach does not start from a position of certainty and guaranteeing success, but it is executed from a strong persuasion and trust that it is the right way to execute a project and to produce quality for the local context, which is explained in the following quote:

(On the difference between SLCM and the two-legged approach):
"I think that it is deeper than interests, towards norms and values. (…) I am asking you to step outside of your comfort zone; I am asking you to tell your boss that you want to deviate. So, I have to connect with you, so strongly, that you want to deviate with me. (…) And if it works out, then it is fun to be part of it. That relates to a certain personal persuasion; however, it also connects to a mutual belief. That is why the level of norms and values is so important. You really have to feel that it is right. This is not about negotiating; this is about the persuasion that it is going to be better. That is a fundamental difference."
Respondent Q

Both approaches entail a fundamental difference in beliefs, between creating the least resistance for a project versus creating the best output of a project. Local context managers using the SLCM approach tend to have a belief in structures, systematic ways of working and a project-focus, two-legged local context managers work more non-linear, have a stronger process-focus and tend to be more flexible.

6.4. How do local context managers deal with tensions?

The interviews have shown that local context managers seem to use two approaches for dealing with tensions between external stakeholders and the project team, of which the SLCM-approach tends to be dominant. Section 6.3. showed how the approaches differ from each other and relate to the different tension types and to boundary spanning literature. Figure 7 presents an overview of these findings.

SLCM approach	Two-legged approach
☐ Project-focus	☐ Process-focus
☐ Involving stakeholders to smoothen procedures around the project	☐ Involving stakeholders to improve the project's end-result
☐ Focus on solving tensions	☐ Focus on utilizing tensions
☐ Focus on performing tensions	☐ Focus on belonging and hybrid tensions
☐ Role as broker and translator	☐ Role as synthesizer
☐ Mediating and hierarchical strategy	☐ Entrepreneurial strategy
☐ Performance objectives: success or failure	☐ Learning objectives: development and improvement

Figure 7 Main characteristics of the SLCM approach and the Two-Legged approach

The interviews have also shown that the approaches affect the tension types local context managers experience. The SLCM-approach makes local context managers overlook belonging tension types and focus on performing tension types. Contrary, two-legged local context managers tend to have a broader perspective in relation to tension types. This relation is already visualised in figure 5. This means that the two-legged approach can be successful for every tension type, whereas the SLCM approach is mainly successful for performing tension types and partly for organizing and learning tension types. The respondents therefore indicated that selecting the approach therefore depends on the characteristics of the project, the contract and the client. The influence of these factors on the practice of LCM is already discussed in section 5.3.3.

Both approaches have their own strengths and weaknesses in relation to the ability to deal with tensions and in relation with the type of project, contract and client. First, the SLCM approach strongly fits the project-driven planning system of the Netherlands. Practitioners indicate that the approach is easy to use and is not hard to implement in the structure of a project-based way of working. Moreover, tensions can be dealt with rather fast, as the linear structure of SLCM is smoothly implementable in the project team structure. On the contrary, the two-legged approach is less easy to implement in a project team and project-scope. Section 6.1.2. has shown that the approach needs internal support to have a successful external effect. Practitioners indicate that the approach demands a deviating way of working and therefore it does not fit the standard project-based approach of water management and sustainable energy projects. This is an important difference with the SLCM approach and can explain why the SLCM approach has been so dominant in this research.

On the other hand, the two-legged approach enables project teams to produce end-results with unexpected value. As the approach does not necessarily stick to timelines and budget scopes, more stakeholders can be involved and more tensions can be utilized for the creative process. Therefore, the approach does not merely solve tensions, but it also aims to create extra value out of it. As opposed to the two-legged approach, SLCM tends to neglect other tension types than the performing. As the focus of SLCM is strongly fixated on the project and interests, the approach does not aim to find extra value for the local context per se. Finding added value is merely done to smoothen the tensions with external stakeholders and to continue with the project. This difference between those approaches relates to the notion about performance objectives and learning objectives in section 6.1.2.

To conclude, if a project, contract or client enables an open process and a lot of space for stakeholder involvement, the two-legged approach can be seen as suitable as it improves the end-result of the project and delivers quality for the local stakeholders. Nevertheless, if the project, contract, or client does not leave a lot of space, or the project has a very urgent character, the SLCM approach is suitable as it involves local stakeholders and creates a fast and smooth process. So, an open process is not always the best option, which is summarized in the following quote:

"It depends on whether you think the open process is necessary. Looking at the safety project, then it is very evident that there is not a lot of space to start an open participatory project. The necessity of a fast process is that big, that creating a lot of space to involve stakeholders is necessarily better. It strongly depends on the context and characteristics of the assignment."
Respondent P

7 Conclusions and recommendations

The main research question of this study has been:

What tensions between the project team and external stakeholders do local context managers experience and how do they deal with these tensions?

The research aimed to serve both an analytical and an advisory objective. From an analytical perspective, this research aimed to gain understanding in the tensions local context managers and boundary spanners experience and how they deal with these tensions. Moreover, from an advisory perspective, this research aimed to improve the LCM-practice of dealing with tensions with insights from boundary spanning.

7.1. Conclusions

The interviews have pointed out that local context managers predominantly experience hybrid tensions, with a dominance of aspects of the performing tension type. This means that the respondents tend to focus on differences in interests, objectives and the definitions of success (see e.g. Smith et al., 2013; Rauws & De Jong, 2019) between actors within projects concerning water management and sustainable energy. Mainly the belonging tension type is overlooked by the respondents. Sections 6.1., 6.2. and 6.3. have shown how the experiences of tension types are affected by the approaches used by local context managers. The interviews have indicated a dominance of the SLCM approach, opposed by the less frequently used approach of two-legged LCM. Section 6.3. has shown that the dominance of the SLCM approach related to the dominance of the performing tension type. The two-legged approach shows a broader focus, including the belonging tensions, however, it is so minimally used that this focus is barely represented in the interviews.

In relation to boundary spanning, both approaches show a different perspective. Their main characteristics are summarized in figure 7. Local context managers using the SLCM approach tend to operate as brokers and as translators, which means that they aim to identify obstacles for the project and aim to create common understanding (see Feldman & Khademian, 2007). In doing so, they make use of mediating and partly hierarchical boundary spanning strategies. In other words, they make use of boundary spanning activities to continue the project and smoothen the process. Also, they show aspects of the hierarchical strategy as they make use of negotiations and scale up in power when conflicts get stuck. Opposed to the SLCM approach, two-legged local context managers tend to operate as synthesizers, making use of an entrepreneurial strategy: aligning actors and perspectives in order to find new ideas and produce innovative end-results. To put it differently, two-legged local context managers execute boundary spanning activities to create more quality in the project's end-result. From this finding can be concluded that the two-legged approach connects to a greater extent with boundary spanning than the SLCM approach. Based on the number of local context managers executing the two-legged approach, it can be concluded that true boundary spanning is not widely used in Dutch planning practice of water management and sustainable energy. SLCM shows an incitement towards boundary spanning, however, due to the strong project-focus, SLCM also shows some connections with classic stakeholder management. Therefore, it is possible to argue that current LCM predominantly makes use of both aspects from classic stakeholder management and boundary spanning. This is explained by the influence of contracts and clients on LCM.

The research has shown how the practice of LCM is influenced by the scope of the project, the content of the contract and the relationship with the client (5.5.3.). The space to involve stakeholders and deal with tensions between them and the project team is affected by the space of involvement indicated in these contracts, agreements and demands from the client. Especially in the originally technical oriented planning fields of water management and sustainable energy. Section 5.6.2. has shown that

a lot of project teams still have a technical orientation and that the transition towards more awareness of the local context is still in progress. This dominance of contracts and agreements due to the project-based way of working in Dutch planning practice and the technical origins of the planning fields tend to strongly affect the potential for boundary spanning activities in water management and sustainable energy projects.

Therefore, it is doubtful whether the two-legged approach is widely applicable for the current Dutch planning system. The two-legged approach tends to function under different conditions: it tends to neglect standard structures and project-based working with a scope of time, money, and effort. The approach is based on open processes, without fixed structures and a broadened project scope. The rules of the game for two-legged LCM do not meet the rules of the game of Dutch planning practice in water management and sustainable energy projects. In other words, currently operationalizing the two-legged approach seems to be less realistic than the SLCM approach.

7.2. The future of LCM

As was shown in section 2.2., the Dutch planning system will undergo a transformation because of the upcoming Environmental and Planning Act (EPA). To recapitulate, the EPA will increase the focus on stakeholder involvement and participation in the Dutch planning practice. As mentioned in section 2.2., LCM is seen as an important factor in this increasing participation. Therefore, the EPA will arguably have a strong effect on the future practice of LCM.

This is relevant for the duality in the approaches found in this study, which shows a fundamental difference in beliefs and focus. The study has shown that currently the standardized and efficient approach of SLCM tends to be dominant over the open and process-led approach of two-legged LCM. This finding is specifically relevant in relation to the upcoming EPA and the increasing focus on participation and stakeholder involvement.

Within preparatory documents for the EPA, LCM is described as facility for open-processes, broad involvement and a stimulator for bottom up initiatives (Ministerie van Infrastructuur en Milieu, 2014). This sentiment is summarized in the following quote from a pioneering document:

"The minister of economic affairs emphasizes that the phrasing local context management makes it seem like local stakeholders are managed. Yet, that is in no way the purpose of local context management, according to the minister."
Ministerie van Infrastructuur en Milieu, 2016, p.17

However, looking at the tendency of SLCM as presented in this study, this statement can be seen as rather doubtful. The content of the quote seems to touch on the beliefs related to the two-legged approach. However, the apparent lack of presence of this approach in current Dutch water and sustainable energy planning seems to be problematic. The way LCM is presented in preparation of the upcoming EPA does not seem to fit the current practice of LCM, which tends to be dominated by SLCM. Although the two-legged approach shows potential, more research on this approach and its operationalization is necessary in order to provide certainty. To be clear, the SLCM approach should not be seen as a bad or insufficient approach to LCM. However, it is doubtful whether this approach meets and supports the changing relationships in society and the planning system. When more participation, co-design, and involvement is preferred, the two-legged approach seems to be more sufficient than the SLCM approach.

7.3. Recommendations

Meeting the advisory objectives of this study, recommendations are made to stimulate empirical based boundary spanning literature and improve the practice of LCM in relation to the ability of dealing with

tensions. The research has indicated different approaches for dealing with tensions, with different strengths and weaknesses. These differences in the approaches can produce lessons for the practice of LCM and can generate points of interest for boundary spanning literature. This section starts with recommendations for future research.

7.3.1. Recommendations for future research

Based on the research, it can be concluded that the game rules for boundary spanning and the two-legged approach do not meet the game rules of current Dutch planning. Although the two-legged approach shows some potential, it lacks the operationalizability in current Dutch water and sustainable energy planning. In other words, it is hard to operationalize true boundary spanning in Dutch planning practice. This study therefore first recommends boundary spanning researchers and initiators and executors of the SLCM approach to join forces, developing an approach combining strengths of SLCM and boundary spanning. The research has shown that the SLCM approach is perceived to be easily implementable, which could be valuable for boundary spanning research. The fundamental differences in beliefs between boundary spanning and SLCM could produce obstacles, however, based on this research such collaboration shows potential for the acknowledgement of operationalizability in boundary spanning literature.

Furthermore, this research recommends boundary spanning researchers to integrate the upcoming EPA within their research. As section 7.2. has indicated, the EPA will have an influence on the Dutch planning practice, the practice of LCM and shows potential for boundary spanning activities and the two-legged approach. To increase the operationalizability of boundary spanning, this research suggests that boundary spanning researchers should pay attention to the rules of the game under the new EPA. Combining boundary spanning research and the upcoming EPA could potentially increase the implementation of boundary spanning in future Dutch planning practice.

7.3.2. Recommendations for LCM practice

The research has shown a focus on the performing tension type within hybrid tensions due to the dominance of the SLCM approach. Focusing on the performing tension type is perceived to be the most effective way to deal with tensions and continue projects. However, from a boundary spanning perspective this means that the potential lying in other tension fields is neglected and overlooked. Practices of the two-legged approach and insights from boundary spanning suggest that a broader perspective can improve the quality of LCM and thereby improve the quality of projects. This can be done through more actively searching for and involving of stakeholders whose interest is not directly touched. This implicates taking more time and more effort. The first step for SLCM executors, willing to implement more aspects from the two-legged approach, is to accept taking more time at the start of a project. Instead of directly starting up the approach in order to be efficient and fast, local context managers should first analyse whether co-creation, intense contact with stakeholders on the level of norms and values and space for improvising can be found and is perceived to be valuable and necessary. Based on the interviews, SLCM executors tend to 'rush' in their projects, while implementing aspects from the two-legged approach needs a slow and well-considered start.

The second recommendation for the practice of LCM focuses on the limits project-based working provides for boundary spanning activities. Local context managers work in project teams, focusing on one project or project-phase at the time. In order to find more holistic approaches to LCM, it is worth investigating the possibility of regional local context managers. These local context managers work for a certain area of a region, instead of working for a project team. This means that when there are different projects in one area, the local context managers work as the representative of this area for all of the projects. This makes the local context manager a relatively stable actor in the planning network. This study recommends researchers and policy-makers to further investigate this possibility for increasing the potential of boundary spanning in Dutch planning practice.

7.4. Reflections

An important remark can be made in relation to the value of boundary spanning theory as an analytical lens for LCM. This research has shown that boundary spanning theory is indeed valuable for analysing LCM, tensions between a project team and external stakeholders and the approaches used for dealing with these tensions. Boundary spanning helped in understanding the role of local context managers in the whole network around a water or sustainable energy project. Moreover, it served as a framework for understanding the experienced tensions by local context managers and their approaches to deal with these tensions. Furthermore, boundary spanning theory has been valuable in connecting the practice of LCM with the developments around the upcoming EPA. Nevertheless, boundary spanning currently lacks connection with Dutch planning practice in order to be fully applicable for LCM. In conclusion, the concept of boundary spanning is not completely comparable with the practice of LCM, however, does help to analyse the practice of LCM and develop LCM from a network perspective.

Second, as has been discussed in chapter 4, this research made use of mixed-methods. The most important result of this combination of data collection tools has been the integrated Card Game within the in-depth interviews. Although the Card Game has been based on work of Martine de Jong (e.g. De Jong, 2018), as far as known, this has been the first time tensions have been indicated this way in in-depth interviews. The Card Game was easy to implement and understand for respondents and the results of the Card Game were valuable for the continuation of the interview. This way, in-depth knowledge regarding the occurrence, background and effect of tension types could easily be gathered. Nevertheless, some remarks can be made in order to improve the method for further implementation. First, it could be considered valuable to enable respondents to choose less cards, making descriptions of tensions more precise. Within this study a range of 2 to 4 cards can be considered to be more applicable. Second, the content of the cards is very important, as the result of the approach depend on the interpretation of the respondent, making the selection of keywords for this study arguable.

Last, the design of the interviews has been a point of attention in this research. Due to the need of mixed-methods and the integration of the Card Game, it has been a search for the right structure. Looking at the structure used in this research, it can be considered to be successful and this study recommends to further develop such *questerview*-like data collection methods, integrating quantitative data in qualitative methods, in planning literature.

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Appendices

A. Interview guide

<u>English version</u>:

SECTION A - INTRODUCTION

- ❖ How would you, shortly, describe your role as a local context manager?

- ❖ Which projects have you worked on, related to water or sustainable energy?

- ❖ Can you shortly explain these projects?
    - o What was the main objective, core of the assignment?
    - o Which parties were involved in the project?
    - o Is the project already finished?

SECTION B – TENSIONS & CARD GAME

- ❖ Thinking of these projects, were there any tensions between the project team and external stakeholders?

    Per example:
    - o What was the cause of the tension?
    - o What was this cause based on?
    - o Which parties were involved in the tension?
    - o How did the tension occur in the project?
    - o What consequences did the tension have for the project?

- ❖ **The Card Game**

SECTION C – APPROACHES

- ❖ How did you deal with the tension in your example?
    - o What was the main objective of your approach?
    - o What steps did you take to reach that objective?
    - o What was your own role within the approach?
    - o How did you involve the relevant parties in the approach?
    - o To what extent was the approach successful?
    - o What were, shortly, three essential aspects of your approach?

SECTION D: CLOSURE

- ❖ Additions: are there still any remarks you would like that have not yet been discussed?
- ❖ Do you have any suggestions for respondents or relevant literature?

SECTIE A – INTRODUCTIE

- ❖ Hoe zou u, in het kort, uw rol als omgevingsmanager willen omschrijven?

- ❖ Aan welke projecten, gerelateerd aan water of milieu, heeft u gewerkt?

- ❖ Kunt u deze projecten even kort toelichten?
    - o Wat was het doel, de kern, van de opgave?
    - o Welke partijen waren betrokken?
    - o Lopend project?

SECTIE B – TENSIONS & CARD GAME

- ❖ Denkend aan deze projecten, waren er gespannen situaties tussen het projectteam en externe stakeholders? Zo ja welke?

    Uitvragen per voorbeeld:
    - o Wat was de oorzaak van deze gespannen situatie?
    - o Wat lag ten grondslag aan deze oorzaak?
    - o Welke partijen waren hierbij betrokken?
    - o Hoe kwam deze gespannen situatie tot uiting?
    - o Wat waren de gevolgen voor het project?

- ❖ **The Card Game**

SECTIE C – STRATEGIEËN

- ❖ Hoe bent u in deze concrete voorbeelden met de spanningen omgegaan?
    - o Wat was het doel van uw aanpak?
    - o Welke stappen werden genomen om dit doel te bereiken?
    - o Wat was uw eigen rol in deze aanpak?
    - o Hoe werden de betrokken partijen meegenomen in deze aanpak?
    - o Had deze aanpak het gewenste gevolg?
    - o Wat waren, in het kort, drie centrale eigenschappen van uw aanpak?

SECTIE D: AFSLUITING

- ❖ Aanvullingen: zaken niet aan bod gekomen die wel van waarde kunnen zijn voor het onderzoek?
- ❖ Nog suggesties voor documenten of mogelijke andere interview kandidaten?

B. Tension types form

Documentation form for the results of the **Card Game**, executed during in-depth interviews with local context managers, held as part of the Environmental and Planning Master Thesis research by Boeli Boelens.

Name respondent: ………………………………………………………………………………

Company Respondent: ………………………………………………………………………………

Interview date: …………………../…………………………/………………………

❖ Example 1

Name example: ………………………………………………………………………………

Different objectives	Different cultures	Different norms and values	Difference in pace of activities
Setting priorities	Way of working	Sense of responsibilities	Different timelines
Result-oriented	Structure of the organisation	Fundamental principles	Being flexible
Defining success	Difficulties in collaborating	Identity of actors	Innovation

❖ Example 2

Name example: ……………………………………………………………………………

Different objectives	Different cultures	Different norms and values	Difference in pace of activities
Setting priorities	Way of working	Sense of responsibilities	Different timelines
Result-oriented	Structure of the organisation	Fundamental principles	Being flexible
Defining success	Difficulties in collaborating	Identity of actors	Innovation

❖ Example 3

Name example: ……………………………………………………………………………

Different objectives	Different cultures	Different norms and values	Difference in pace of activities
Setting priorities	Way of working	Sense of responsibilities	Different timelines
Result-oriented	Structure of the organisation	Fundamental principles	Being flexible
Defining success	Difficulties in collaborating	Identity of actors	Innovation

C. Consent form respondents

Interview ten behoeve van masterthesisonderzoek van Boeli Boelens, student Environmental and Infrastructure Planning aan de Rijksuniversiteit Groningen. Dit onderzoek wordt onder begeleiding van Ward Rauws uitgevoerd.

Onderzoeksdoel
De strategieën van omgevingsmanagers in het omgaan met spanningen tussen externe stakeholders en het projectteam in water- en duurzaamheidsprojecten in kaart brengen.

Voorwaarden deelname respondent
- Ik heb overzicht van gespreksonderwerpen ontvangen en kon hier desgewenst vragen over stellen;
- Ik weet dat meedoen vrijwillig is en ik mij op elk moment, zonder opgave van reden, terug kan trekken;
- Ik geef toestemming voor het verzamelen, bewaren en gebruiken van de door mij verstrekte gegevens voor de beantwoording van de onderzoeksvraag van dit onderzoek;
- Ik kan deze gegevens ten allertijden inzien en heb de gelegenheid om te reageren op de inhoud;
- Mijn gegevens zullen, indien gewenst, anoniem verwerkt worden in de publicatie van het onderzoek;
  o Ik wens dat mijn gegevens en de door mij verstrekte gegevens anoniem verwerkt worden.
- Ik wil meedoen aan dit onderzoek.

Toestemming

Datum:

Naam respondent: Naam student:

………………………………………………..   ………………………………………………….

Handtekening respondent: Handtekening student:

………………………………………………….   ………………………………………………….

Remark: this consent form has been written in Dutch, as all the respondents were Dutch-speaking. If you want to receive a translation of the consent form, the researcher can be contacted via b.boelens@student.rug.nl.

D. Overview Respondents

	Sector focus	Function title	Interview date
Respondent A	Sustainable Energy	Local context manager	07-11-2019
Respondent B	Water Management	Local context manager	13-11-2019
Respondent C	Mixed	Local context manager	14-11-2019
Respondent D	Mixed	Local context manager	21-11-2019
Respondent E	Water Management	Local context manager	22-11-2019
Respondent F	Water Management	Local context manager	22-11-2019
Respondent G	Sustainable Energy	Local context manager	27-11-2019
Respondent H	Water Management	Local context manager	29-11-2019
Respondent J	Sustainable Energy	Local context manager	03-12-2019
Respondent K	Sustainable Energy	Local context manager	05-12-2019
Respondent L	Mixed	Local context manager	06-12-2019
Respondent M	Mixed	Local context manager	06-12-2019
Respondent N	Water Management	Local context manager	12-12-2019
Respondent O	Water Management	Local context manager	13-12-2019
Respondent P	Water Management	Local context manager	17-12-2019
Respondent Q	Water Management	Local context manager	21-01-2020

E. Codes

MAIN CODE	SUB CODE	SPECIFICATION
TENSION TYPES	Performing tension	- Different objectives and interests
		- Ability to implement stakeholder's interests
		- NIMBY
	Organizing tension	- Organisational structures and cultures
		- Representation of stakeholders
	Belonging tension	- Norms and values
	Learning tension	- Different timelines
		- Stability versus flexibility
	Hybrid tension	- Densely locates projects
		- Orientation project team on local context
		- Client-contractor relationship
		- Changing storyline
		- Political pressure or developments
APPROACH	SLCM approach	
	Two-Legged approach	
BOUNDARY	Entrepreneurial strategy	
SPANNING	Mediation strategy	
	Hierarchical strategy	
EPA		
LCM CONTENT		
LCM LIMITS		