ABSTRACT

Title: Best practices in cross-border maritime spatial planning cooperation: Literature review

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Abstract:

This literature review identifies good practices in cross-border maritime spatial planning (MSP) cooperation. Review assists Maritime Spatial Planning for Sustainable Blue Economies (Plan4Blue) project in activities that aim at developing cross-border MSP cooperation between Finland and Estonia. One of the aims of the project is also to summarise recent findings on the topic to inform other similar cross-border collaboration projects and activities.

This review focuses on two main themes – institutional settings and cooperation practices – each of which compiles findings from a substantial body of literature. Numerous research and development projects and planning pilots have contributed to the subject. In the Baltic Sea Region context these include e.g. Baltic LINes (2017), Baltic SCOPE (2017), Bonus Baltspace (2016), PartSEAPate (2014), BaltSeaPlan (2013) and Plan Bothnia (2013). Outside of the Baltic Sea Region: TPEA (2014) in the Northern Atlantic, ADRIPLAN (2014) in the Adriatic and Ionian Region and MASPNOSE (2012) in the North Sea. Most of the literature cited here discusses MSP, while also literature on cross-border collaboration in other fields such as land-use planning and watershed management (e.g. Nelles & Durand 2014, Knippschild 2011).

Literature review focuses on giving an insight on issues that seem to be important for successful cross-border projects and other activities. In addition, challenges of successful cross-border partnership are being discussed. It is also important to notice that cross-border MSP cooperation can learn from territorial planning and it is important to build the cooperation on existing networks and fora.

Cross-border cooperation can take many meanings, happen on different administrative levels and it can have different depths – it can be more formalized, sporadic or intensive in nature. For different types of cross-border cooperation it is recommended to set objectives and define the scope – not to cause unrealistic expectations for participants of the partnership. Although cross-border partnerships most probably are not starting from scratch, it is useful to understand how MSP works in different countries of the cooperation, and discuss for instance, what is the objective of their plan. Too often MSP cross-border cooperation is project-based that lack continuity. Adequate resourcing and continuity contribute to long-lasting and successful cooperation.

In most MSP cross-border cooperation projects and other initiatives three topics seems to be repeated: data management and needs, stakeholder involvement and communicating MSP. Plenty has been written about what and how to collect, harmonize and manage data in cross-border settings. Important notion is that data sets will never be perfect and there isn't such a thing as "fully complete information". Another highly important and popular issue is stakeholder mapping and involvement – who, how, when and why should be involved? Lastly, literature review discusses the advantages of efficient communication and points out several ways to it.

Acknowledgements

The authors are thankful for INTERREG Central Baltic programme for co-funding the Plan4Blue project.

The document should be sited as follows:

### ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>Comments</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>MSP</strong></td>
<td>Maritime/Marine Spatial Planning</td>
<td>A public process of analyzing and allocating the spatial and temporal distribution of human activities in marine areas to achieve ecological, economic, and social objectives that usually have been specified through a political process. (UNESCO initiative on MSP)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>VASAB</strong></td>
<td>Vision and Strategies for the Baltic Sea</td>
<td>Intergovernmental multilateral cooperation of 11 countries of the Baltic Sea Region in spatial planning and development. VASAB prepares policy options for the territorial development of the Baltic Sea Region and provides a forum for exchange of know-how on spatial planning and development.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>HELCOM-VASAB MSP WG</strong></td>
<td>HELCOM-VASAB Working Group on Maritime Spatial Planning</td>
<td>A joint working group launched in October 2010 by HELCOM and VASAB to ensure cooperation among the Baltic Sea Region countries for coherent regional MSP processes in the Baltic Sea.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ICZM</strong></td>
<td>Integrated Coastal Zone Management</td>
<td>A tool to coordinate all policy processes affecting the coastal zone, addressing land-sea interactions in a coordinated way with a view to ensuring their sustainable development.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>IMO</strong></td>
<td>International Maritime Organization</td>
<td>Specialized agency of the United Nations responsible for regulating shipping.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>OSPAR</strong></td>
<td>OSPAR Commission for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic</td>
<td>Inter-governmental organization for cooperating to protect the marine environment of the North-East Atlantic.</td>
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1. INTRODUCTION

Maritime activities are often transnational in nature. Fishing, maritime routes and power grids extend over jurisdictional boundaries, and ecosystems seldom coincide with country borders. Human activities can have various impacts that cross borders, and consequences of planning decisions in one country may have an effect in other countries. Therefore, cross-border cooperation as a part of maritime spatial planning (MSP) is needed. European Union’s MSP directive (Council Directive 2014/89/EU), article 11 concurs that “Member States bordering marine waters shall cooperate with the aim of ensuring that maritime spatial plans are coherent and coordinated across the marine region concerned. Such cooperation shall take into account, in particular, issues of a transnational nature.”

According to Jay et al. (2016) review of the issue, cross-border or transboundary MSP cooperation needs to focus on multiple issues from marine environment, resources and uses to systems of data management, governance and policy-making, as well as participants and their cultures of exchange. Baltic SCOPE Lessons Learned Report (2017a) calls for a problem-based, case by case approach instead of “one size fits all” protocol in cross-border cooperation. And it is not without challenges – due to, for instance, nested and overlapping governance systems, fragmentation of knowledge and lack of continuity caused by institutional reorganization and changing project partners may hinder collaboration between countries (Baltic SCOPE 2017a).

The aim of this review is to identify good practices in cross-border MSP collaboration. This review assists Maritime Spatial Planning for Sustainable Blue Economies (Plan4Blue) project activities that are aiming at developing cross-border cooperation between Finland and Estonia. One of the aims of the project is also to summarise recent findings on the topic to inform other similar cross-border collaboration projects and activities.

This review focuses on two main themes – institutional settings and cooperation practices – each of which compiles findings from a substantial body of literature. Numerous research and development projects and planning pilots have contributed to the subject. In the Baltic Sea Region context these include e.g. Baltic LiNes (2017), Baltic SCOPE (2017), Bonus Baltspace (2016), PartSEAPate (2014), BaltSeaPlan (2013) and Plan Bothnia (2013). Outside of the Baltic Sea Region: TPEA (2014) in the Northern Atlantic, ADRIPLAN (2014) in the Adriatic and Ionian Region and MASPNOSE (2012) in the North Sea. Most of the literature cited here discusses MSP, while also literature on cross-border collaboration in other fields such as land-use planning and watershed management (e.g. Nelles & Durand 2014, Knippschild 2011).

This review has been divided into two main sections. The first section focuses on institutions, and has four subsections that discuss 1) different levels and phases of cross-border cooperation, 2) coordination and resources, 3) setting objectives and boundaries, and 4) analyzing planning premises, such as governance frameworks. Institutions set the context, give structure and allocate resources to cross-border collaboration. The second section focuses on practices of cross-border
collaboration. It consists of three subsections: 1) cross-border data management, 2) stakeholder involvement, and 3) communication. At the end of the review there are two annexes: a table of planning and stakeholder engagement tools that have been used in the reviewed literature, and a collection of earlier experiences with stakeholder processes. Some tools are also discussed more thoroughly in the review.
2. INSTITUTIONAL SETTINGS

This section focuses on institutions that influence cross-border cooperation. It consists of four subsections: the first one introduces different levels of cross-border cooperation from information sharing to more profound forms of collaboration and various phases of cross-border cooperation. The second one compiles recommendations on setting both comprehensive and precise objectives for cooperation and defining the scope thematically and regionally, and gathers tools to find and solve conflicts. The third one discusses analyzing relevant planning premises and governance frameworks along with international commitments that affect cooperation. The fourth subsection discusses coordinating cooperation and stresses the importance of continuity and adequate resourcing.

2.1. Challenges and minimum conditions

Main challenges for transboundary cooperation are often mentioned to be different timelines, difficulty to find the right people to work with, and lack of an organizing body (MASPNOSE 2012). Difficulties finding the right persons to contact at the right administrative level comes down to the fact that institutional responsibilities for MSP vary among countries: the authority responsible for MSP may be a ministry (as in Estonia), a regional council (as in Finland), or some other organisation. Also the role of researchers and external experts differs among countries (Lusenius 2016, Bonus Baltspace 2016a). For example, in Estonia the actual planning will be conducted by an external consultant company. Moreover, institutional barriers can sometimes hinder multidisciplinary, democratic and transnational decision making and reaching targets (Servos 2013). Likewise, Baltic SCOPE Lessons learned -report mentions that overlapping governance systems may become an issue. According to Ostrom (2008) and Bonus Baltspace (2016a) project findings, the main challenge is how to form complex institutional networks while maintaining flexibility and adaptivity.

According to Zaucha (2014), at minimum, the aspects to take into account in cross-border cooperation are (based on HELCOM-VASAB and EU guidelines):

- agreeing on objectives and main MSP principles
- defining thematic scope of the plans
- ensuring planning procedures’ similarities
- institutional agreements

Or as Baltic SCOPE (2017a) puts it, “a framework for deliberation” is needed.

In a broader scale, recent changes in environmental governance paradigm make institutional cooperation tricky. Environmental governance has seen a shift from hierarchical, fixed-solutions approach to deliberative and polycentric management. This new paradigm is complicated to apply in practice, as it demands appreciating different perspectives and types of knowledge. Institutional fragmentation and complexity of marine management, as pointed out e.g. by Boyes & Elliott (2014), may also hinder collaboration. Some political scientists such as James Meadowcroft (2002) have, however, remarked that when societies are dealing with complex issues certain level of institutional redundancy may even be beneficial. At the same time, processes of integrated and collective action
can lead to functional results even if the institutional arrangements remain complicated (Edelenbos & van Meerkerk 2015). The new paradigm in spatial planning includes adopting a new attitude towards borders: Paasi and Zimmerbauer (2016) argue that the rise of relational approach in planning causes a “planning paradox” since planners need to think in terms of open, porous borders, and at the same time continue working within bounded and territorial units that provide for the planning mandates.

### 2.2. Different depths of cross-border cooperation

Cross-border cooperation in MSP can take multiple meanings, have different depths and happen on many governance levels. Kidd & McGowan (2013) illustrate this with a *ladder of transnational partnership* that conceptualizes five levels of cooperation: information sharing, administration sharing, agreed joint rules, combined organization, and finally, combined constitution. This theoretical framework may be helpful when defining the wanted depth of cooperation and defining procedures needed to foster and implement it.

It is important to notice that according to Kidd & McGowan (2013) all these levels of ladder should be regarded of value in their own right – it can't be assumed that the highest levels should be seen always as the preferred ones. These levels can be thus developed individually or in a sequenced and progressive manner. Kidd and McGowan (2013) also point out that the degree of stakeholder commitment (in respect of time and resources), level of formality and relinquishing power to shared transnational partnership working in support of MSP will be generally greater towards the top of the ladder.

**Information sharing** refers to developing understanding and building trust between state, market and civil society stakeholders. It centers on improving inter-organisational relations and building capacity for more integrated forms of partnership. The main added value in this type of cooperation is improved relationships between different organisations and social learning within wider stakeholder group. This can be seen as the grounding for partnership building and a level of ongoing value as partnerships evolve.

**Administration sharing** is a step towards closer collaboration (as opposed to mere consultation). The nature of collaboration may be short term and task-focused or entail longer term collaborative relationships.

**Agreed joint rules** stands for a wish to establish common procedures or protocols related to specific issues. In MSP context this could mean marine data collection and exchange.
protocols or common approaches to environmental impact assessment. This type of partnership could enhance data access and usability, and improve efficiency in general.

**Combined organization** refers to creation of new joint research institutes, joint planning teams, or other formal institutional arrangements of a transnational nature.

**Combined constitution** takes formalization process to a further level and through new legal agreements may bring a new political order to the management of a particular sea area.

In Baltic Sea Region HELCOM and VASAB are important agents facilitating transboundary cooperation and horizontal integration (Lusenius 2016, Bonus Baltspace 2016a). In 2010 they established a joint HELCOM-VASAB Maritime Spatial Planning Working Group (later HELCOM-VASAB) that can be seen as an example of ‘combined organization’ mentioned in the preceding framework (although, Kidd & McGowan (2013) categorize HELCOM as ‘combined constitution’). It operates as a forum for regional, transboundary and cross-sectoral dialogue for MSP and integrated coastal zone management (ICZM), facilitating cooperation and implementation of jointly formulated objectives (HELCOM-VASAB 2016b). The working group published in 2010 *Baltic Sea broad-scale maritime spatial planning (MSP) principles* that set the overall principles for MSP in the region. In 2016 the working group published *Guidelines on transboundary consultations, public participation and cooperation* to outline cross-border MSP cooperation. For instance, they state that communication between countries takes place preferably through the established national MSP contact points (HELCOM-VASAB 2016a). However, as also Kidd & McGowan (2013) emphasize, multiple levels of [cross-border] partnership activity can run alongside each other.

BaltSeaPlan Vision 2030 (2012) envisioned another pan-Baltic institution: a formal decision-making body to agree on the Baltic MSP strategies and to be responsible for endorsing pan-Baltic MSP. It would approve the common vision, review the results of socio-economic and ecological monitoring, and formally agree on the common principles and common targets for Baltic Sea space. This kind of institution would fit in the category of ‘combined constitution’ by Kidd & McGowan (2013). Also Bonus Baltspace (2016a) calls for institutional steering to coordinate the “big picture” of interactions and to ensure the systematic consideration of perspectives. However, BaltSeaPlan (2013) reminds that pan-Baltic approach has its limits: as countries have their own ways of valuing sectors, agreeing on a common approach is not always possible. For the same reason, it is not realistic to spatially allocate all maritime activities based on most ideal natural conditions on a regional sea level.
Cross-border collaboration is needed for instance when implementing ecosystem-based approach based on the principle that the carrying capacity of the sea is a basis to all marine activities (Baltic SCOPE 2017b, BaltSeaPlan 2013). To unify differing ways of interpreting ecosystem approach and to assist in implementing the approach, Baltic SCOPE drafted an Ecosystem Approach Checklist Toolbox (Baltic SCOPE 2017b). It includes three checklists for different phases of the process: general for the start and including key elements, planning support, and SEA checklist when analyzing consequences.

Transnational perspective is also significant for conservation planning. Large-scale approach allows for most cost-efficient way of selecting conservation areas (Montesino et al. 2014): with an extensive approach, a significantly smaller area is required in order to achieve similar conservation targets (Kark 2015).
Flannery (2015) emphasizes processes of joint fact-finding to agree on joint understanding of problems, which is a key to set common agenda. This is crucial because involved countries might have conflicting national interests (MASPNOSE 2012). Knippschild (2011) lists other challenges that might affect the cooperation process: a language barrier and differences in mentality can cause difficulties at the beginning, while the lack of a legal framework may affect implementation of joint projects. Also HELCOM-VASAB (2016a) mentions language as a critical issue: to avoid misunderstandings, the respective aims, outputs and tools should be clearly explained. Lusenius (2016) mentions that used terms should be carefully defined.

Chikozho (2014) advises to set tangible targets rather than a wish-list of vague statements. Also Knippschild (2011) counsels to set the agenda carefully, since overambitious and high-flown objectives can cause unrealistic expectations and have harmful consequences. TPEA (2014a) project findings suggest starting with broad strategic objectives first, but recommends – in the similar way as Chikozho (2014) and Knippschild (2011) – then focusing on defining tangible, specific ones to guide the cooperation process.

According to TPEA (2014a), specific objectives should align with strategic ones, but they may relate to particular concerns or interests. They suggest looking especially into stakeholder views and policy priorities when setting these objectives – while also keeping administrative structures in mind and remembering priorities of each jurisdiction, but transnational context as well. TPEA (2014) states that the detailed objectives should be “SMART”: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time-Bound, whereas the strategic objectives can be based on more comprehensive guidelines – in TPEA’s case, ecosystem approach, EU MSP Roadmap and UNESCO Guide on MSP.

For the start, it is useful also to define the scope for cross-border collaboration. Defining scope refers to identifying which maritime features and activities require cross-border consideration in a specific case, as well as those that are essentially cross-border in nature (Jay et al. 2016, MASPNOSE 2012). These issues can be identified through consultation with neighboring countries and stakeholder meetings (MASPNOSE 2012). In addition, it is recommended to outline the thematic scope carefully (Povilanskas 2014, Flannery 2015). Baltic SCOPE and BaltSeaPlan projects both point out following four most important transnationally significant topics that should be addressed in Baltic Sea Region cross-border cooperation:
Activity sheet is a map-based tool for viewing sectoral developments across the border, used for instance in TPEA (2014a). The sheets contain maps and written descriptions for key sectors of maritime activities and are used to discuss pressures and opportunities in project areas.

Part of setting the objectives and defining the scope for cross-border collaboration is finding synergies and conflicts within maritime activities in the area of partnership. According to Baltic SCOPE (2017a) project, identifying conflicts and synergies starts with stocktaking of the current situation and discussion of potential developments. As conflicts may occur, conflict resolution needs
Extra attention in transnational context as lack of legally binding hierarchy may limit processes to negotiation and agreement (Bonus Baltspace 2016a, Flannery 2015, Knippschild 2011). Different methods for finding synergies and conflicts can be used depending on the context: for example the matrix of interests provides a useful framework when discussing competing national and sectoral interests (see the next page). Baltic SCOPE also suggests developing an early warning system to alert and create awareness of potential transnational conflict areas for planning authorities and sector representatives in countries part of the collaboration.

When it comes to conflict solving in practice, Baltic SCOPE (2017a) discovered that focused bi-lateral discussions between knowledgeable and mandated participants were more effective than all-inclusive forums. Flannery (2015) notes, however, that multilateral agreements can be counterproductive, if they divert focus away from active collaborative governance arrangements. PartiSeaPate (2014) recommends approaching national and cross-border stakeholders directly to understand conflicts, and producing a conflict analysis based on their reviews. Third party negotiation may also be useful in conflict solving: an outside mediator can e.g. provide technical competence and examples of best-practice and assist in mediation skills development (Czikozho 2014, Knippschild 2011).
Matrix of interest is a tool for mapping the present and potential national sectoral interests within each of the transboundary focus-areas, making details about the focus-areas explicit and to identify the areas with real transboundary issues. It is often suggested to be used in MSP.

As a part of Baltic SCOPE project, representatives of each country filled in a matrix where the horizontal axis determined the focus-areas and the vertical axis represented the different national sectoral interests. Color marked intensity when the interest was of higher national priority. The resulting matrix provided an overview of countries’ interests and priorities, as well as potential conflicts in the respective areas.

### Matrix of Interests & Table of Conflicts and Synergies

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOCUS AREA</th>
<th>Middle Bank</th>
<th>Aldergrund</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INTEREST / COUNTRIES participating</strong></td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>SE</td>
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<td>Offshore wind energy</td>
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<td>Powerlines</td>
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<td>Data cables</td>
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<td>Ship traffic</td>
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An example matrix of interests adapted from Baltic SCOPE (2017a). Blue symbolizes strong interest, light blue minor interest, and grey no interest. White indicates that there is no information.

In Baltic SCOPE, conflicts and synergies identified with other methods were separated for each pair of sectors. Next, the issues of transboundary nature were further discussed at a stakeholder conference to gather feedback on proposed solutions to conflicts and potential synergies, and draft recommendations. Then a comprehensive table was developed to sum up cross-sector conflicts and synergies identified by the stakeholders, and it was discussed between the planners from the respective countries.

2.4. Analyzing planning premises and legal framework

Differences in planning traditions play a role in cooperation as different national norms along with varying historical perspectives, traditions, and different societal developments complicate collaboration (Tölle 2015, Flannery 2015, Kannen 2014). For instance in the Bothnian Sea pilot project (Plan Bothnia 2013), planning professionals from Finland and Sweden used planning markings differently – Swedish planners were more used to exact definitions, while the planners in Finland had a more general, strategic approach. Still, participants from Sweden and Finland were able to agree on (hypothetical) planning regulations and markings. Bonus Baltspace (2016a) describes similar kind of experience from the Sound between Denmark and Sweden. To find a common ground, EU Data Study (2016) recommends digging deeper and discussing the fundamental premises of planning: is the plan’s main aim to facilitate a rational arrangement of key maritime
sectors using spatial optimization and risk minimization approach, or is the goal to create a strategic, forward-looking plan, where the process is participative and multiple sectors are involved?

TPEA (2014a, 2014c) project findings recommend analyzing participants’ national legal instruments and administrative responsibilities as well as comparing policy priorities relating to the transboundary area’s maritime activities to find consistencies and inconsistencies of the policy frameworks. They argue that especially the relationship between MSP, ICZM and terrestrial planning across the transboundary area should be scrutinized. According to TPEA, a clear understanding of the respective governance frameworks may also lead to an understanding of areas of common interest and may contribute to the development of more specific local objectives. Baltic SCOPE (2017a) suggests creating a common policy framework as a step towards the development of common policy level agreements.

Many international agreements, such as Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), various EU directives and regional agreements are to be taken into consideration when cooperating across borders in MSP (TPEA 2014a). In Europe, Espoo Convention and the Protocol on Strategic Environmental Assessment have functioned as a minimum framework for information exchange between countries (Drankier 2012). In addition, aligning international commitments further and striving towards policy convergence in general may facilitate transboundary MSP (Flannery 2015, Guerreiro 2010). In sectoral level, transnational forums exist for some well-established sectors, e.g. shipping (IMO), fisheries (European Union Fisheries Policy) and conservation (EU/HELCOM/OSPAR), but more robust links for transnational horizontal coordination are needed (Bonus Baltspace 2016a).

Finally, Nelles & Durand (2014) note that there is no replicable ideal of cross-border governance, as it is always a cyclical and context-specific process whose quality depends on degree of involvement and quality of relations between actors. Jay et al. (2016) state that full standardisation of legal instruments and procedures is not inevitable; however, it is important to establish mutual understanding of MSP related processes as a basis for cooperation. Different governance frameworks should not hinder cross-border cooperation, but highlight the need for information flow and ongoing communication.
2.5. Using existing fora for cooperation

When initiating cross-border cooperation, not everything needs to be started from scratch. Previous projects and other cross-border initiatives recommend using existing fora and building on established mechanisms for cooperation, as well as possible sectoral frameworks (TPEA 2014, HELCOM-VASAB 2016a). According to Flannery (2015), the most effective transboundary initiatives are those where the actors involved have previous experience of cross-border cooperation. Also Lusenius (2016) states that networks developed and experience gathered from previous transboundary projects ease cooperation.

Edelenbos & van Meerkerk (2015) raise the concept of boundary-spanning leadership. Boundary spanners are organizational members who are able to link the organization with its environment, i.e. other organizations that operate at different levels and scales. They connect people and processes, transmit and translate information across institutional borders. Actors of this kind understand other actors’ needs and are able to form sustainable relationships with people from different organizational backgrounds. It is good to remember, however, that while informal and personal networking is in many ways beneficial to collaboration, it is not fully unproblematic. Edelenbos & van Meerkerk (2015) warn that high-trust relationships could lead to closed networks and communities which in turn hamper cross-boundary processes and integrated approaches. This is also pointed out by Flannery (2015).

Whether cross-border collaboration aims at mutual planning or more loose collaborative partnerships, working across national boundaries often requires more resources in comparison with independent planning due to increased transactions costs and more complex logistics (Kark 2015, Knippschild 2011). Povilanskas (2014) highlights the importance of ensuring support and adequate financing for development and implementation of the plan (here: transboundary environmental management plan), and recommends a continuous funding base instead of short-term grants. From the time resource point of view, BaltSeaPlan (2012) highlights the importance of realistic work plan and deadlines. Institutional habits and restrictions, time needed for research and data collection, diverse partners and stakeholders should be taken into account when drafting them.

Knippschild (2011) and Povilanskas (2014) also emphasize the importance of political commitment when implementing measures that require transboundary collaboration. Successful implementation of cross-border plans, e.g. conservation areas, requires approval of the governments of both countries (Povilanskas 2014); cross-border strategies and concepts that are not politically legitimized by decision-making are not likely to have similar kind of effect (Knippschild 2011). In conclusion, there is also a need to train and inform politicians of the need and benefits of transnational MSP (Plan Bothnia 2012).

Continuity is emphasized widely as an enabler of successful cross-border MSP cooperation (Baltic SCOPE 2017a, 2017c, Kannen 2014, Povilanskas 2014, Knippschild 2011, Douvere 2008). According to Douvere (2008), MSP should be a continuous, iterative and adaptive process. HELCOM-VASAB
Guidelines (2016a) state that continuous expert groups should be established for important MSP topics (akin to MSP Data Expert Group, see section 3.1). In similar way, Baltic SCOPE addresses the need for a permanent framework for interaction, and Knippschild (2011) envisions a politically legitimized steering unit with regular feedback on cooperation processes such as joint strategies or concepts, and eventually, a joint decision-making body. Also Povilanskas (2014) suggests staying connected via independent nongovernmental bilateral stakeholders’ forum. Baltic SCOPE (2017a) lists options for a continuous cooperation: planners’ cross-border meetings, national stakeholder meetings, and stakeholder conferences and forums.

2.6. Summary: Institutions

Different depths of cross-border cooperation

- Cross-border cooperation can take many meanings: it can be less or more formalized; sporadic or more intensive.
- Cooperation is a multi-phase, cyclical process with its own logic of evolution.

Setting objectives, defining scope and identifying conflicts

- Setting both broad and specific objectives is recommended.
- Thematic scope is advisable to be limited to the most important cross-border issues.
- Focused bi-lateral discussions for authorities are a pragmatic way to solve sectoral and national conflicts, but forming closed networks should be avoided.

Analyzing planning premises and practices

- It is useful to analyze differing traditions and norms regarding planning: is the objective a rational allocation of space, or a strategic, forward-looking plan?
- Many sectoral international forums exist, but more robust horizontal links are called for.

Coordinate, ensure resources and continuity

- Building on existing networks has proven effective when initiating cooperation.
- Adequate resourcing and temporal continuity contribute to successful cooperation.
3. COOPERATION PRACTICES

This section focuses on the different practices of cooperation that have been found to be functional for cross-border MSP partnerships. The first subsection discusses data management: collecting, harmonizing and distributing information relevant to cross-border cooperation. Data management is one of the major topics in cross-border MSP cooperation. Plenty has been written about it, and the field has developed rapidly in recent years. It has been widely proposed to set up a common data framework for a cross-border partnership to ensure the availability of up-to-date, interoperable data and metadata. Although views on the needed level of data harmonization vary, agreement on collection methods and quality assurance are often seen as contributors for understanding transboundary uses and impacts, and for highlighting conflict and synergy areas (Baltic SCOPE 2017, BaltSeaPlan Vision 2030 2012, TPEA 2014a, Frank 2016). However, data will never be perfect – it is important not to get stuck waiting for fully complete information basis. Here we offer a cursory glance into cross-border data exchange challenges, observations on collecting transboundary data, ideas about data infrastructure in cross-border context, and views on the needed level of harmonization.

The second subsection scrutinizes stakeholder mapping and involvement, which are essential for successful planning processes as planning has developed from more expert-driven processes towards multifaceted discussions including stakeholder groups and different forms of knowledge (Ritchie 2015). Stakeholders can be defined as a wide group of people and organizations having an interest in the topics or ability to influence the given process (PartiSeaPate 2014), and their participation is noted to increase the likelihood that plans reflect the public interest and will be successfully implemented (Gunton 2010, Guerreiro 2010). In this subsection we go through perspectives to stakeholder involvement, practical engagement methods, and experiences from earlier projects.

The final subsection discusses matters that are relevant for communication in transboundary contexts. We discuss the advantages of efficient communication between all participants – including respective planners, authorities, and sectoral experts – as well as the importance of informal communication for enabling learning. We also touch on the subject of communicating the process towards a wider audience. Here communication is understood broadly, including e.g. both dissemination towards stakeholders and informal contact between project partners.

3.1. Data collecting, harmonization and management

Baltic Sea region leads the way in cross-border MSP data exchange due to a long history of collaboration between institutions and people. Yet, efficient information sharing might not always be harmonized which may cause obstacles: for example, methods for collecting data may vary among countries, and data classifications are often different. Strict regulations regarding information sharing may also exist (Baltic SCOPE 2017a).
Compatible, consistently collected and classified data is commonly noted to simplify cross-border MSP cooperation. Therefore, many suggest moving towards harmonized data sets as well as processing and analysis routines (Baltic SCOPE 2017a, BaltSeaPlan 2013). Partly the shift is already underway, as European Union’s INSPIRE\(^1\) directive promotes pan-European data harmonization. According to EU MSP Data Study (2016), this is a good start – for instance, the spatial themes in INSPIRE offer a valuable framework for establishing coherent spatial data on a transboundary level, and many MSP data themes can be mapped directly onto INSPIRE data themes.

However, INSPIRE is not a fully sufficient solution to transboundary spatial needs for MSP. Most notably, the scope of the INSPIRE spatial themes lack economic data, along with some issues related to fishing, renewable energies, tourism, and ports (EU Data Study 2016). One course of action would be to amend INSPIRE with regard to marine space and maritime features to ensure it covers aspects relevant to MSP (BaltSeaPlan 2013). Also complementary initiatives are being developed – here are some remarks and propositions on data harmonization:

- Data guidelines produced by Plan4Blue (2017a & 2017b) present a step-by-step protocol on how to use spatial data in cross-border MSP: it consists of defining the area in question, defining data needs and available data, collecting and harmonizing data, and managing it. It is noted that not all data has to be perfectly harmonized – only that which will be publicly redistributed. The features that most likely require harmonization include resolution, discontinuities in the data from different areas, data type (feature or raster), and terminology of the attributes. What may not require harmonization include coordinate reference system, data formats, and naming the spatial data layers.

- BalticLIINES (2017) and EU Data Study (2016) acknowledge limited data interoperability caused by different languages, but this could be solved through mechanical translation.

- According to EU Data Study (2016), it is not necessary for every country to collect the same data or base their marine plans on the same information. Nevertheless, overall data categories should be similar, and transnational activities and impacts should be described by similar parameters.

- TPEA Good Practice Guide (2014a) defines a transboundary data protocol that is referenced by Van Tatenhove (2017) and Jay et al. (2016) as best practice. The protocol includes six steps: identify and compile data, evaluate data, harmonize data, edit or create metadata, input to the geodatabase and share data. A quality control procedure should involve checks on resolution (for raster data), precision (for vector data), data density, scale, vintage, and

\(^1\) INSPIRE directive gives the protocol of standard formats, geodetic reference system, data quality, and requirements of metadata (TPEA 2014), and states that “it should be possible to combine seamless spatial information from different sources across Europe and share it with many users and applications” (European Commission 2017).
source (Jay et al. 2016). TPEA (2014a) also recommends selecting standard data formats, unifying geodetic reference system and coordinate system, specifying work scales and requirements about data quality, setting rules for facilitating topological consistency of information, setting criteria and process to harmonize attributes in similar layers for the whole transboundary area, and finally, attaching metadata (For more detailed account, see Jay & Gee 2014: TPEA Good Practice Guide p. 35).

- Plan Bothnia (2012) suggests agreeing on common legend, i.e. similar symbols and colors for most important transnational topics.

The optimal framework for data exchange and management is another well-covered issue. A decentralized system is often cited as a practical way of ensuring that data is kept up-to-date, complete and of sufficient quality (BalticLINes 2017, BaltSeaPlan 2013). According to INSPIRE principles, data should be collected only once and kept where it can be maintained most effectively – and according to many, that means on the national level. As many countries are already creating their own national MSP data infrastructures to support the planning process, similar measures have been seen as a solution to cross-border data sharing (EU Data Study 2016). Plan Bothnia (2012) suggests that each Baltic Sea country draws up an inventory of all their available spatial data to exchange with others, and BalticLINes (2017) sees currently developed national data portals serving as base components in a transnational, decentralized data infrastructure.

Basic example of an open transboundary data-sharing data portal is the HELCOM map and data service which assembles many viewable and downloadable data sets (BalticLINes 2017). An earlier version of it contributed to the Bothnian Sea pilot transboundary MSP process as national data sets remained closed or were limited by national borders (Plan Bothnia 2013). Other relevant, transnational geographic data portals are the European Marine Observation and Data Network (EMODnet) which delivers harmonized transboundary marine spatial data for a number of relevant MSP data categories, and the INSPIRE data portal, which provides links to national institutions and sources (EU Data Study 2016). In addition, BalticLINes (2017) has been developing Baltic Sea Map Service (BASEMAPS) which will be a testbed for a new data infrastructure supporting governance of the Baltic Sea in a transnational context. It is called a hybrid solution, as it is based on decentralized linkage between national databases, but the data sets that are not available through other portals are stored in a central database.

One of the previous cross-border MSP projects, BaltSeaPlan (2013), called for creating a permanent MSP Data Expert Group consisting of spatial planners and GIS experts from all Baltic Sea Region countries. They also suggested establishing a pan-Baltic MSP Data Coordinating Group to be manage the Baltic MSP Infrastructure, making pan-Baltic data sets available, and creating harmonized pan-Baltic data sets from national data. This idea was developed further in PartiSEApate project (Gee and Jay 2014), and resulted in the end as establishment of HELCOM-VASAB MSP Data Expert Sub-Group in 2015 to support information exchange (HELCOM-VASAB 2015). Van Tatenhove (2017), too, encourages entrusting some process to a transnational party, a so-called “information authority”: a
state or non-state actor who directs informational processes by determining the rules of the game and decides what information is relevant in transboundary planning processes.

What kind of data and data sets are then essential part of cross-border MSP activities? Work usually starts with stocktaking (collecting knowledge related to the current situation), and it is also recommended to acquire future-oriented information, such as sectoral trends and policy related information (TPEA 2014a, EU Data Study 2016). It is recommended also to concentrate on a few most important transboundary issues when collecting data for transboundary MSP needs (TPEA 2014 etc.: see also chapter 2. Institutions in this report). Plan4Blue (2017b) advises to start with identifying the desired outputs (e.g. maps), not with collecting all relevant data. However, Plan Bothnia (2012) lists more extensive information needs for transboundary MSP: the physical and environmental characteristics of the sea area in question and wider sea environment, the human uses of that area (drivers and pressures, activities in the sea and on land), the socio-economic situation on land (demography, economy), and the relevant policy and legal background affecting the sea and sea space. Information needs are dependent on the respective transnational MSP partnership – its goals and needs.

EU Data Study (2016) suggests giving special attention to socio-cultural and socio-economic data. Common data gaps are found under these categories, and they are mostly not included in the INSPIRE directive either. Such data sets do exist, but they are often not useful for MSP purposes: for example, from the existing data categories it may be impossible to distinct between terrestrial and maritime socio-economic data, which causes extra challenges. EU Data Study (2016) also suggests proceeding from collecting descriptive information to gathering strategic evidence: after all, what is ultimately needed is knowledge about the underlying processes and knowledge to make sound judgements concerning the relevant issues.

Lusenius (2016) points out that the available data also often restricts how accurately various activities can be dealt. When planning and prioritizing cross-border activities, such as pollution and transport, it is necessary to understand them. Fortunately, the needed level of detail is typically much simpler in transboundary planning than in national MSP (EU Data Study 2016), and also the level of detail in national MSPs vary. Plan Bothnia (2012) also warns not to get stuck while waiting for perfect data. On the contrary, it is crucial to find balance between efficient decision-making and improving the information base. The MSP process itself can be used to fill information gaps, by drawing together existing information or asking stakeholder input. TPEA (2014a) counsels to take advantage of stakeholders’ knowledge when scrutinizing transboundary activities and phenomena: there is no reason to limit data collection to official sources only (BaltSeaPlan 2013).
3.2. Stakeholder participation

Plenty of literature exists on stakeholder participation in MSP (e.g. reviewed in PartiSeaPate 2014). In this review we focus mainly on the cross-border aspect, although most of the engagement methods are relevant for stakeholder processes for all scales. One issue that often is forgotten is that MSP can learn a lot from terrestrial planning, and transfer existing practices (such as the ones related to stakeholder participation) to MSP (Ritchie 2015).

The sea can have several meanings and many values can be attached to it (Kannen 2014). MSP process should incorporate multiple viewpoints into the same problem-solving process, focusing on quality of information and subjective value judgements as much as on hard scientific fact (Plan Bothnia 2012). EU Data Study (2016) concurs: include different types of knowledge, and accept stakeholders’ values and types of knowledge as legitimate contributions to the debate – this kind of inclusiveness can generate a sense of fairness and trust in data-related proceedings, which in turn increases support for decisions and the decision-making process. Simon & Schiemer (2015) note that participants’ differing backgrounds and values sometimes require extra consideration, so discuss and define research questions, methodologies, as well as engagements with stakeholders together to bridge the epistemological differences.

Stakeholder involvement benefits planning in multiple ways (Bonus Baltspace 2016a), but a commonly lamented obstacle is stakeholders’ ability and willingness to participate. Poor participation is often caused by lack of motivation or resources and superficial or disorganized processes of stakeholder engagement (Baltic SCOPE 2017a, TPEA 2014a). According to Maniopoulou (2015) barriers to meaningful stakeholder involvement include bureaucracy, top down governance, and lack of integration between sectors and governance levels.

Purpose and framing of the stakeholder process should be clear to all involved. Ehler and Douvere (2009) advise to start with thinking through what kind of input is needed from the stakeholder process. The answer depends on the case and its context: is it just additional information that is required, or are there conflicts to be reconciled? Ehler and Douvere list three questions to be contemplated before drafting an MSP stakeholder process: who should be involved, how, and when? Baltic SCOPE (2017a) would add one more important question: why? Also MASPNOSE (2012)
highlights the importance of clarifying what the mandate of the stakeholders is, e.g. on what issues they should take a stand on and in what ways the results will be used. If expectations and objectives of the stakeholder process are not clear, it can contribute to “stakeholder-fatigue”. Therefore, it is important to make clear what is expected of stakeholders, and what they can expect.

Gunton (2010) conceptualizes three levels of stakeholder engagement: information sharing, consultation, and collaboration. Information sharing informs stakeholders on the planning process without seeking explicit input, consultation seeks stakeholder input without obligation to incorporate it, and collaboration engages stakeholders in an interactive dialogue that incorporates stakeholders’ views in management decisions by seeking stakeholder agreement and endorsement. Maniopoulou (2015) uses similar typology but adds a fourth level, involvement, between consultation and collaboration. Gunton is in favor of collaborative planning: collaboratively developed spatial plans tend to reflect the public interest because they are supported by a variety of stakeholders, and consequently these plans are more likely to be successfully implemented. On the other hand, often cited challenges to collaborative planning include stakeholders’ lack of motivation to participate, difficulty of reaching agreement, lack of public accountability, and disregard of good science. Gunton introduces a checklist for planning collaborative stakeholder processes, as well as collaborative planning best practice guidelines.

Ortwin Renn's (2010) approach on stakeholder processes helps to typify a variety of relevant tasks and to apply them into different cases. He also classifies three major challenges in planning processes – complexity, uncertainty, and ambiguity. With MSP, the primary challenge could be characterized as ambiguity – different valuation of the sea's output. According to Renn's framework, ambiguity means that the function of stakeholder involvement is to resolve value conflicts and ensure fair treatment of concerns and visions. Challenges, their definitions and fitting instruments to solve these challenges are condensed on table below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Fitting instruments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complexity</td>
<td>A trait of multifaceted web of causal relationships, where many intervening factors may interact to affect the outcome of an event. Complexity requires sophisticated modelling, which often defies common-sense reasoning. Yet, if resolved, it produces a high degree of confidence in the results.</td>
<td>Expert panels, expert hearings and Delphi method, and with negotiated rule-making, mediation, roundtables, and stakeholder meetings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty</td>
<td>Is introduced when the causal web is not well known or poorly understood.</td>
<td>Same as above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambiguity</td>
<td>Arises when differences exist in how individual actors or stakeholders value some input or outcome of the system.</td>
<td>Citizen advisory committees, citizen panels, citizen jury, consensus conferences, public meetings, and so forth.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is advised to involve stakeholders from the beginning and maintain the connection throughout the process (Baltic SCOPE 2017a, TPEA 2014a, MASPNOSE 2012). According to Baltic SCOPE (2017a) it is more efficient to involve stakeholders already for instance when drafting plans and scenarios, rather than making them first and fixing afterwards. TPEA (2014b) suggests that the involvement of stakeholders should be gradual and allow a greater contribution as the process proceeds. It has also been noted that it might be reasonable to begin with separate cross-border sectoral groups before bringing everyone together in one workshop (BaltSeaPlan 2013). Ritchie (2015) advises to start stakeholder process by assembling a general view of the range of stakeholders likely to engage in MSP, and of how they frame the issues and solutions of marine environment. This may inform how best to engage them in the MSP process. BaltSeaPlan (2012) suggests starting with each country producing a stakeholder map of relevant institutions and their interests and contact persons.

PartiSeaPate (2014) reminds that not all stakeholder groups are well organized or have resources to take part in time-consuming engagement processes. Multilevel consultations can help to provide a more balanced and comprehensive picture of the situation: planners might for instance test their findings in a structured dialogue with selected stakeholders not so active in this phase (PartiSeaPate 2014). Also Servos (2013) urges to think broadly: in addition to governmental bodies and interest groups, also grassroots NGOs, balance of power and including all demographic cohorts should be considered. Baltic SCOPE (2017a) mentions defence, tourism, cultural heritage, and the oil industry as often underrepresented sectors in MSP processes.

Cross-border MSP projects have some specific stakeholder groups. HELCOM-VASAB Guidelines on transboundary consultations (2016a) state that pan-Baltic organizations and interest groups should be involved in cooperation and their formal roles, responsibilities and mandates in concrete MSP relevant policies should be identified. PartiSeaPate (2014) notes that because transnational stakeholders are goalkeepers of the pan-Baltic targets, they should be approached to inquire how, on what topics and when they wish to participate. In the Baltic Sea Region, the HELCOM-VASAB MSP
Working Group acts already as a transnational forum and can be used as a permanent forum for networking and sharing knowledge (HELCOM-VASAB 2016b). Baltic SCOPE (2017c) suggests moving away from national perspective altogether, towards pan-Baltic or sectoral approach, and strengthening ties between planners and sectoral authorities. Cooperation with sectorial agencies – HELCOM and VASAB at the regional sea level, and The International Maritime Organization (IMO) and The International Association of Marine Aids to Navigation and Lighthouse Authorities (IALA) at the global level – is also encouraged.

How to tempt stakeholders to participate and keep them motivated to do so is another critical question. Baltic SCOPE (2017) and Plan Bothnia (2012) note that the MSP process relies on informed stakeholders, and suggests solving poor participation through educating the stakeholders about MSP and stakeholders’ relevance in it. Baltic SCOPE (2017a) gives advice on how to conduct a creative stakeholder process, and advises to seek appropriate forms to contact and mobilize stakeholders – for instance, to consider using official ministerial invitation, as it is rarely ignored. Also ADRIPLAN (2015) lists key points to consider when mobilizing stakeholders: 1) communicate what MSP is and why is it needed, 2) MSP process needs a recognized mandate and accreditation to be worth stakeholders’ interest and 3) methodology is important: involvement is more productive if the discussion is developed around the key topics that are addressed in the process.

Baltic SCOPE names a variety of mobilization and engagement tools: conferences, seminars, and workshops with different engagement methods. Arranging informal meetings often is recommended, as they are crucial in building understanding, trust and solutions. Interviews and questionnaires are valuable methods too (Frank 2016, Maniopoulou 2016). Additionally, Frank (2016) mentions online approaches and qualitative scenario planning: such methods reportedly enhance the amount and diversity of participation, increase volume and speed of data collected and analyzed, increase transparency, and decrease costs of project administration. Still, a handy interactive tool does not do the trick alone: in addition to the availability and application of planning support technology, a willingness to participate is needed (Frank 2016). TPEA (2014a) highlights making participating efficient and flexible: if it is not possible for a participant to attend a workshop, present the option of filling in a questionnaire instead.

Janssen (2015) states that a good workshop is dependent on attendance of the right people. Therefore, attendants should be selected carefully and persuaded them to commit their time. A lot depends also on a cooperative attitude of the participants and a willingness to communicate. TPEA (2014c) suggests asking for feedback after workshops and improving methods accordingly to ensure a thriving process and worthwhile results.
3.3. Communicating MSP

Communication emerges as a major factor in cooperation across borders and between sectors. Multiple initiatives highlight the role of face-to-face meetings and forums as integral ways of communicating cross-border MSP (HELCOM-VASAB Guidelines 2016a; TPEA 2014a; Knipschild 2011; Lusenius 2016). As an example of ongoing actions, VASAB aims at facilitating an ongoing, structured process of conducting regular events such as Baltic Sea MSP Forums (http://msp-platform.eu/type-event/forum). This transboundary forum for Baltic Sea region MSP practitioners, stakeholders and researchers aims at fostering information and knowledge exchange and creating trust (HELCOM-VASAB 2016a).

In addition, HELCOM-VASAB Guidelines (2016a) as well as TPEA project mention the role of web-based platforms as completing meetings and face-to-face communication. Lusenius (2016) highlights the role of a common web page through which participants can share information and maintain the connection. TPEA (2014a) recommends focusing on effective ways of meeting, clear structures of working and internal communication, regular contact and working to a clear plan of action.

The importance of informal dialogue and learning outside institutional constraints is highlighted in the reviewed texts. It is often noted that informal communication builds up openness and trust, which in turn facilitate learning (Edelenbos & van Meerkerk 2015, Chikozho 2014, MASPNOSE 2012). According to Edelenbos and van Meerkerk (2015), trust tends to lead to more interaction in which actors take a receptive and learning attitude, increasing the probability of investing one’s time and knowledge in a collaborative project. Flannery (2015) notes that communication and learning from others can lead to policy convergence - this in turn makes institutional cooperation easier. Chikozho (2014) even states that trust remains one of the key drivers of effective transboundary cooperation.

Kannen (2014) notes that joint visions are the result of networking and dialogue-based cooperation which allows learning across national boundaries; thus, breaking up the power relationships among actors is encouraged. Open forums, where participants could take part outside their institutional constraints, could be an answer. Also Plan Bothnia (2012) suggests that it would be beneficial to break with long-held ideas and concepts of planning and management. Kidd and McGowan (2013) emphasize that informal arrangements allow flexibility to switch perspectives and facilitate problem solving and learning in a significant way.

Plan Bothnia (2012) separates two types of institutional learning: learning at the content level such as assessment of the national and international policy contexts, and learning at the process level that means applying indicators for progress in MSP in line with EU requirements. According to them, the MSP process should be subject to regular monitoring just as much as marine space itself, to make sure the process yields the intended results (such as participation and transparency).

MASPNOSE (2012) reminds that is important to distinguish between front-stage transparency (to the entire public) and backstage transparency (to a selected group of stakeholders). When trust is first
built between the selected group of stakeholders, information can be distributed to the wider public. MASPNOSE also notes that transparency does not automatically have a positive effect on the trust building process: stakeholders should be able request that the information they are sharing is not published. TPEA (2014c) advises to decide within the process which messages to communicate, how, when, and by whom. Plan Bothnia (2012) suggests communicating the purpose and objectives of the process to the public.

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**EXCURSIONS AS A WAY OF INFORMAL NETWORKING**

Stacey (2015) describes a two-day “study tour” workshop that centered around transboundary marine management issues and was attended by representatives from Indonesia, Timor Leste and Australia.

A range of reported benefits included:

- New knowledge gained through learning by doing: field visits, receiving training in using new tools, or through observation.
- Sharing knowledge with participants' home organizations causes a ripple effect and leads to expansion of networks.
- Opportunity for people who have never worked together to try out fresh perspectives and alternative ways of doing.
3.4. Summary: Practices

Data collecting, harmonization and management

- Data harmonization makes cooperation and exchange of information easier – INSPIRE is a good start.
- Common data infrastructure could be based on a network of data providers instead of a centralized database.
- Absolutely perfect data is hard to find – avoid getting stuck waiting for it.
- Maps are great tool for negotiation, finding synergies and solutions.

Stakeholder participation

- Think broadly and include different perspectives to get full grasp of the area and values attached to it.
- It is recommended to start stakeholder processes in early stages of the planning process.
- Defining desired outcomes and objectives of stakeholder involvement guides the process itself.
- Enabling flexible ways of participating may increase stakeholder involvement.

Communication

- Meeting face-to-face and informal communication facilitates learning.
- Consider pros and cons of channeling communication to different groups.
# ANNEX 1: A LIST OF TOOLS USED IN CROSS-BORDER MSP PROJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOOL</th>
<th>USE</th>
<th>SOURCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World cafe</td>
<td>Cross-sector dialogue</td>
<td>Steyaert &amp; Lisoir 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity sheet</td>
<td>Viewing sectoral developments across borders</td>
<td>TPEA 2014a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value mapping &amp; touch table</td>
<td>Drawing &amp; adjusting values on maps</td>
<td>Janssen 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiation support</td>
<td>Balancing values and interests</td>
<td>Janssen 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario building</td>
<td>Exploring future options</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WebGIS/interactive maps</td>
<td>Supporting tool for data sharing</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of conflicts and synergies</td>
<td>Synthesis on sectoral conflicts &amp; synergies with stakeholder input</td>
<td>Baltic SCOPE 2017a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matrix of interests</td>
<td>Sectoral interests across borders</td>
<td>Baltic SCOPE 2017a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open standards for conservation</td>
<td>Coherent policy processes</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marxan &amp; MarZone</td>
<td>Conservation prioritization</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial cost-benefit analysis</td>
<td>Economic costs and benefits for uses, spatially</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culturally significant areas</td>
<td>Spatialized cultural values</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maritime socio-economic index</td>
<td>Economic importance of uses</td>
<td>ADRIPLAN 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CoEXIST conflict analysis tool</td>
<td>Quantitative conflict analysis</td>
<td>Stelzenmüller et al. 2013a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated indicator system for assessing cumulative impacts</td>
<td>Impacts of planning based on indicators</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality assurance based on risk management</td>
<td>Quality assurance for the process</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bowtie analysis</td>
<td>Analyzing risks &amp; opportunities</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapid policy-network mapping</td>
<td>Exploring institutional dynamics</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance baselines</td>
<td>Evolution of policy frameworks &amp; performance</td>
<td>BonusBaltspace 2016c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excursions</td>
<td>Networking and sharing knowledge</td>
<td>Stacey 2015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ANNEX 2: EARLIER EXPERIENCES WITH STAKEHOLDER PROCESSES

As a part of the Baltic SCOPE (2017a) project, two transnational stakeholder events were arranged. In southwest Baltic (Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Poland), stakeholders were divided into four thematic groups according to their expertise, and results of each group were presented to others. In central Baltic (Sweden, Latvia, Estonia), participants also worked in sectoral groups, but the groups were mixed at the second stage to create cross-sectoral dialogue. The first way was less successful of the two, whereas the latter method proved to be more fruitful, and valuable synergies were found. Baltic SCOPE also arranged several national and thematic events in countries participating in the project. In most Baltic SCOPE countries, public agencies, authorities, and sectoral experts participated in the national events, sometimes also private stakeholders. Thematic meetings were attended by relevant authorities, planners and experts (Baltic SCOPE 2017a).

Jay et al. (2016) describe stakeholder involvement in TPEA project. Main principles of the process were transparency, equity, flexibility, and inclusivity: all those who expressed an interest in participating were encouraged to do so, and the project was open to suggestions on how to broaden stakeholder involvement, while emphasizing strong representation across borders. Not all stakeholders could attend the workshops, but they were given the option of submitting input in other ways, including a questionnaire (TPEA 2014a).

Bonus Baltspace (2016a, 2016b) reviews the concurrent stakeholder processes and cross-border cooperation in Latvia's and Lithuania's MSP. The processes were contrasting: Latvia chose to use the environmental protection-heavy version of ecosystem approach as a guiding light, while Lithuania aimed for more modest “balance between sectors” goal (Bonus Baltspace 2016a). In addition, Latvia conducted an extensive stakeholder process including seminars, workshops, face-to-face meetings and informal awareness-raising events, whereas Lithuania entrusted the process to a MSP working group with a more limited stakeholder involvement. Transboundary cooperation was not among the objectives of either Latvian or Lithuanian MSP process, although cross-border consultation between countries was arranged at least once between the two countries, according to SEA requirements (Bonus Baltspace 2016a, 2016b).

ADRIPLAN (2015) stressed stakeholder involvement, but it was mainly developed at local and regional levels, from which the input was aggregated to other scales including transboundary dimension. Maniopoulou (2015) discusses the stakeholder process of a Greek case study that was part of ADRIPLAN. First, a survey was sent to national administrators, regional administrators and end users, followed by face-to-face semistructured interviews. Stakeholder analysis was conducted to identify and assess their priorities and visions: it used both the material from the interviews as well as from structured questionnaires distributed to a larger group of stakeholders. The levels of stakeholders’ participation followed the process through a gradual trust building concerning information sharing and data exchange, consultation on reaching shared solutions and achieving
consensus, involvement in the decision making process and collaboration in implementing the project.

ESPON-INTERSTAT report (2012) describes a case study of interactive methods in Poland. The event included brainstorming on workshop subject, followed by a team quiz on Poland. They describe the objective (p. 46): “Through fun and competitive analysis of cartographic material, participants learned how to read maps, how to understand cross-tab typologies, how to compare and contrast particular regions and finally how territory matters in various aspects of social and economic life. This technique ensures maximum engagement and prevents discouragement caused by complicated maps and typologies.” The world café method was applied as well, and the event concluded with a reflection through silent brainstorming and learning diary with the objective of consolidating knowledge.

Jarvis (2015) endorses collaborative online mapping as a low-threshold method to engage the public. While already widely used in terrestrial monitoring programs, there has been a little use of citizen science in MSP to date. In a case in Hauraki Gulf Marine Park in New Zealand, collaborative maps were created of environmentally good and poor, improved and degraded areas. Collaborative mapping allows participants to e.g. add points of personal importance and their environmental state.
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